

Parallel Programming for Science and Engineering

The Art of HPC, volume 2

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The term ‘parallel computing’ means different things depending on the application area. In this book we focus on parallel computing – and more specifically parallel *programming*; we will not discuss a lot of theory – in the context of scientific computing.

Two of the most common software systems for parallel programming in scientific computing are MPI and OpenMP. They target different types of parallelism, and use very different constructs. Thus, by covering both of them in one book we can offer a treatment of parallelism that spans a large range of possible applications.

Finally, we also discuss the PETSc (Portable Toolkit for Scientific Computing) library, which offers an abstraction level higher than MPI or OpenMP, geared specifically towards parallel linear algebra, and very specifically the sort of linear algebra computations arising from Partial Differential Equation modeling.

The main languages in scientific computing are C/C++ and Fortran. We will discuss both MPI and OpenMP with many examples in these two languages. For MPI and the PETSc library we will also discuss the Python interfaces.

Comments This book is in perpetual state of revision and refinement. Please send comments of any kind to eijkhout@tacc.utexas.edu.

Contents

I MPI	15
1 Getting started with MPI	17
1.1 <i>Distributed memory and message passing</i>	17
1.2 <i>History</i>	18
1.3 <i>Basic model</i>	18
1.4 <i>Making and running an MPI program</i>	19
1.5 <i>Language bindings</i>	20
1.6 <i>Review</i>	24
1.7 <i>Sources used in this chapter</i>	25
2 MPI topic: Functional parallelism	26
2.1 <i>The SPMD model</i>	26
2.2 <i>Starting and running MPI processes</i>	28
2.3 <i>Processor identification</i>	32
2.4 <i>Functional parallelism</i>	37
2.5 <i>Distributed computing and distributed data</i>	38
2.6 <i>Review questions</i>	39
2.7 <i>Sources used in this chapter</i>	40
3 MPI topic: Collectives	42
3.1 <i>Working with global information</i>	42
3.2 <i>Reduction</i>	45
3.3 <i>Rooted collectives: broadcast, reduce</i>	51
3.4 <i>Scan operations</i>	59
3.5 <i>Rooted collectives: gather and scatter</i>	63
3.6 <i>All-to-all</i>	68
3.7 <i>Reduce-scatter</i>	70
3.8 <i>Barrier</i>	74
3.9 <i>Variable-size-input collectives</i>	75
3.10 <i>MPI Operators</i>	79
3.11 <i>Nonblocking collectives</i>	84
3.12 <i>Performance of collectives</i>	90
3.13 <i>Collectives and synchronization</i>	91
3.14 <i>Performance considerations</i>	94

3.15	<i>Review questions</i>	96
3.16	<i>Sources used in this chapter</i>	99
4	MPI topic: Point-to-point	122
4.1	<i>Blocking point-to-point operations</i>	122
4.2	<i>Nonblocking point-to-point operations</i>	138
4.3	<i>More about point-to-point communication</i>	153
4.4	<i>Review questions</i>	161
4.5	<i>Sources used in this chapter</i>	166
5	MPI topic: Communication modes	187
5.1	<i>Persistent communication</i>	187
5.2	<i>Partitioned communication</i>	191
5.3	<i>Synchronous and asynchronous communication</i>	194
5.4	<i>Local and nonlocal operations</i>	194
5.5	<i>Buffered communication</i>	195
5.6	<i>Sources used in this chapter</i>	199
6	MPI topic: Data types	201
6.1	<i>Data type handling</i>	201
6.2	<i>Elementary data types</i>	202
6.3	<i>Derived datatypes</i>	209
6.4	<i>Big data types</i>	228
6.5	<i>Type maps and type matching</i>	231
6.6	<i>Type extent</i>	231
6.7	<i>Reconstructing types</i>	240
6.8	<i>Packing</i>	240
6.9	<i>Review questions</i>	243
6.10	<i>Sources used in this chapter</i>	244
7	MPI topic: Communicators	272
7.1	<i>Basic communicators</i>	272
7.2	<i>Duplicating communicators</i>	273
7.3	<i>Sub-communicators</i>	277
7.4	<i>Splitting a communicator</i>	278
7.5	<i>Communicators and groups</i>	281
7.6	<i>Intercommunicators</i>	283
7.7	<i>Review questions</i>	287
7.8	<i>Sources used in this chapter</i>	288
8	MPI topic: Process management	295
8.1	<i>Process spawning</i>	295
8.2	<i>Socket-style communications</i>	299
8.3	<i>Sessions</i>	302

8.4	<i>Functionality available outside init/finalize</i>	306
8.5	<i>Sources used in this chapter</i>	307
9	MPI topic: One-sided communication	317
9.1	<i>Windows</i>	318
9.2	<i>Active target synchronization: epochs</i>	322
9.3	<i>Put, get, accumulate</i>	325
9.4	<i>Passive target synchronization</i>	337
9.5	<i>More about window memory</i>	341
9.6	<i>Assertions</i>	344
9.7	<i>Implementation</i>	345
9.8	<i>Review questions</i>	347
9.9	<i>Sources used in this chapter</i>	348
10	MPI topic: File I/O	364
10.1	<i>File handling</i>	365
10.2	<i>File reading and writing</i>	366
10.3	<i>Consistency</i>	372
10.4	<i>Constants</i>	372
10.5	<i>Error handling</i>	372
10.6	<i>Review questions</i>	374
10.7	<i>Sources used in this chapter</i>	375
11	MPI topic: Topologies	376
11.1	<i>Cartesian grid topology</i>	376
11.2	<i>Distributed graph topology</i>	381
11.3	<i>Sources used in this chapter</i>	389
12	MPI topic: Shared memory	393
12.1	<i>Recognizing shared memory</i>	393
12.2	<i>Shared memory for windows</i>	395
12.3	<i>Sources used in this chapter</i>	399
13	MPI topic: Hybrid computing	404
13.1	<i>MPI support for threading</i>	404
13.2	<i>Sources used in this chapter</i>	407
14	MPI topic: Tools interface	408
14.1	<i>Initializing the tools interface</i>	408
14.2	<i>Control variables</i>	408
14.3	<i>Performance variables</i>	410
14.4	<i>Categories of variables</i>	412
14.5	<i>Events</i>	413
14.6	<i>Sources used in this chapter</i>	414

15 MPI leftover topics	415
15.1 <i>Contextual information, attributes, etc.</i>	415
15.2 <i>Error handling</i>	422
15.3 <i>Fortran issues</i>	425
15.4 <i>Progress</i>	426
15.5 <i>Fault tolerance</i>	427
15.6 <i>Performance, tools, and profiling</i>	427
15.7 <i>Determinism</i>	432
15.8 <i>Subtleties with processor synchronization</i>	432
15.9 <i>Shell interaction</i>	433
15.10 <i>Leftover topics</i>	434
15.11 <i>Literature</i>	436
15.12 <i>Sources used in this chapter</i>	438
16 MPI Examples	441
16.1 <i>Bandwidth and halfbandwidth</i>	441
16.2 <i>Sources used in this chapter</i>	444
II OpenMP	445
17 Getting started with OpenMP	447
17.1 <i>The OpenMP model</i>	447
17.2 <i>Compiling and running an OpenMP program</i>	449
17.3 <i>Your first OpenMP program</i>	450
17.4 <i>Thread data</i>	452
17.5 <i>Creating parallelism</i>	454
17.6 <i>Sources used in this chapter</i>	456
18 OpenMP topic: Parallel regions	457
18.1 <i>Creating parallelism with parallel regions</i>	457
18.2 <i>Nested parallelism</i>	459
18.3 <i>Cancel parallel construct</i>	461
18.4 <i>Review questions</i>	461
18.5 <i>Sources used in this chapter</i>	462
19 OpenMP topic: Loop parallelism	464
19.1 <i>Loop parallelism</i>	464
19.2 <i>An example</i>	468
19.3 <i>Loop schedules</i>	470
19.4 <i>Reductions</i>	473
19.5 <i>Collapsing nested loops</i>	473
19.6 <i>Ordered iterations</i>	474
19.7 <i>nowait</i>	475

19.8 <i>While loops</i>	476
19.9 <i>Tests</i>	476
19.10 <i>Review questions</i>	479
19.11 <i>Sources used in this chapter</i>	481
20 OpenMP topic: Reductions	482
20.1 <i>Reductions: why, what, how?</i>	482
20.2 <i>Built-in reduction</i>	485
20.3 <i>Initial value for reductions</i>	485
20.4 <i>User-defined reductions</i>	486
20.5 <i>Scan / prefix operations</i>	490
20.6 <i>Reductions and floating-point math</i>	490
20.7 <i>Sources used in this chapter</i>	491
21 OpenMP topic: Work sharing	493
21.1 <i>Work sharing constructs</i>	493
21.2 <i>Sections</i>	493
21.3 <i>Single/master</i>	494
21.4 <i>Fortran array syntax parallelization</i>	495
21.5 <i>Sources used in this chapter</i>	496
22 OpenMP topic: Controlling thread data	497
22.1 <i>Shared data</i>	497
22.2 <i>Private data</i>	497
22.3 <i>Data in dynamic scope</i>	499
22.4 <i>Temporary variables in a loop</i>	499
22.5 <i>Default</i>	499
22.6 <i>Array data</i>	500
22.7 <i>First and last private</i>	501
22.8 <i>Persistent data through threadprivate</i>	501
22.9 <i>Allocators</i>	503
22.10 <i>Sources used in this chapter</i>	505
23 OpenMP topic: Synchronization	507
23.1 <i>Barrier</i>	507
23.2 <i>Mutual exclusion</i>	508
23.3 <i>Locks</i>	510
23.4 <i>Example: Fibonacci computation</i>	513
23.5 <i>Sources used in this chapter</i>	516
24 OpenMP topic: Tasks	518
24.1 <i>Task data</i>	520
24.2 <i>Task synchronization</i>	521
24.3 <i>Task dependencies</i>	522

24.4	<i>Task reduction</i>	523
24.5	<i>More</i>	524
24.6	<i>Examples</i>	525
24.7	<i>Sources used in this chapter</i>	527
25	OpenMP topic: Affinity	532
25.1	<i>OpenMP thread affinity control</i>	532
25.2	<i>First-touch</i>	535
25.3	<i>Affinity control outside OpenMP</i>	537
25.4	<i>Sources used in this chapter</i>	539
26	OpenMP topic: Memory model	540
26.1	<i>Thread synchronization</i>	540
26.2	<i>Data races</i>	541
26.3	<i>Relaxed memory model</i>	542
26.4	<i>Sources used in this chapter</i>	543
27	OpenMP topic: SIMD processing	544
27.1	<i>Sources used in this chapter</i>	548
28	OpenMP topic: Offloading	549
28.1	<i>Data on the device</i>	549
28.2	<i>Execution on the device</i>	550
28.3	<i>Sources used in this chapter</i>	551
29	OpenMP remaining topics	552
29.1	<i>Runtime functions, environment variables, internal control variables</i>	552
29.2	<i>Timing</i>	553
29.3	<i>Thread safety</i>	554
29.4	<i>Performance and tuning</i>	554
29.5	<i>Accelerators</i>	555
29.6	<i>Tools interface</i>	555
29.7	<i>OpenMP standards</i>	556
29.8	<i>Sources used in this chapter</i>	557
30	OpenMP Review	558
30.1	<i>Concepts review</i>	558
30.2	<i>Review questions</i>	559
30.3	<i>Sources used in this chapter</i>	568
31	OpenMP Examples	569
31.1	<i>N-body problems</i>	569
31.2	<i>Tree traversal</i>	572
31.3	<i>Depth-first search</i>	573
31.4	<i>Sources used in this chapter</i>	578

III PETSc	579
32 PETSc basics	580
32.1 <i>What is PETSc and why?</i>	580
32.2 <i>Basics of running a PETSc program</i>	582
32.3 <i>PETSc installation</i>	585
32.4 <i>External packages</i>	586
32.5 <i>Sources used in this chapter</i>	587
33 PETSc objects	588
33.1 <i>Distributed objects</i>	588
33.2 <i>Scalars</i>	589
33.3 <i>Vec: Vectors</i>	590
33.4 <i>Mat: Matrices</i>	602
33.5 <i>Index sets and Vector Scatters</i>	612
33.6 <i>AO: Application Orderings</i>	614
33.7 <i>Partitionings</i>	614
33.8 <i>Sources used in this chapter</i>	616
34 Grid support	623
34.1 <i>Grid definition</i>	623
34.2 <i>Constructing a vector on a grid</i>	628
34.3 <i>Vectors of a distributed array</i>	629
34.4 <i>Matrices of a distributed array</i>	629
34.5 <i>Sources used in this chapter</i>	631
35 Finite Elements support	636
35.1 <i>General Data Management</i>	636
35.2 <i>Sources used in this chapter</i>	639
36 PETSc solvers	640
36.1 <i>KSP: linear system solvers</i>	640
36.2 <i>Direct solvers</i>	649
36.3 <i>Control through command line options</i>	650
36.4 <i>Sources used in this chapter</i>	651
37 PETSc nonlinear solvers	652
37.1 <i>Nonlinear systems</i>	652
37.2 <i>Time-stepping</i>	654
37.3 <i>Sources used in this chapter</i>	655
38 PETSc GPU support	656
38.1 <i>Installation with GPUs</i>	656
38.2 <i>Setup for GPU</i>	656
38.3 <i>Distributed objects</i>	656

CONTENTS

38.4 <i>Other</i>	657
38.5 <i>Sources used in this chapter</i>	658
39 PETSc tools	659
39.1 <i>Error checking and debugging</i>	659
39.2 <i>Program output</i>	661
39.3 <i>Commandline options</i>	665
39.4 <i>Timing and profiling</i>	667
39.5 <i>Memory management</i>	667
39.6 <i>Sources used in this chapter</i>	669
40 PETSc topics	673
40.1 <i>Communicators</i>	673
40.2 <i>Sources used in this chapter</i>	674
IV Other programming models	675
41 Co-array Fortran	676
41.1 <i>History and design</i>	676
41.2 <i>Compiling and running</i>	676
41.3 <i>Basics</i>	676
41.4 <i>Sources used in this chapter</i>	679
42 Kokkos	680
42.1 <i>Data-parallel constructs</i>	680
42.2 <i>Data</i>	682
42.3 <i>Execution and memory spaces</i>	683
42.4 <i>Stuff</i>	684
42.5 <i>Sources used in this chapter</i>	686
43 Sycl, OneAPI, DPC++	688
43.1 <i>Logistics</i>	688
43.2 <i>Platforms and devices</i>	689
43.3 <i>Queues</i>	689
43.4 <i>Kernels</i>	690
43.5 <i>Parallel operations</i>	691
43.6 <i>Memory access</i>	695
43.7 <i>Parallel output</i>	697
43.8 <i>DPCPP extensions</i>	698
43.9 <i>Intel devcloud notes</i>	698
43.10 <i>Examples</i>	698
43.11 <i>Sources used in this chapter</i>	700
44 Python multiprocessing	708

44.1	<i>Software and hardware</i>	708
44.2	<i>Process</i>	708
44.3	<i>Pools and mapping</i>	709
44.4	<i>Shared data</i>	710
44.5	<i>Sources used in this chapter</i>	712
V	The Rest	713
45	Exploring computer architecture	714
45.1	<i>Tools for discovery</i>	714
45.2	<i>Sources used in this chapter</i>	715
46	Hybrid computing	716
46.1	<i>Affinity</i>	717
46.2	<i>What does the hardware look like?</i>	717
46.3	<i>Affinity control</i>	718
46.4	<i>Discussion</i>	718
46.5	<i>Processes and cores and affinity</i>	720
46.6	<i>Practical specification</i>	721
46.7	<i>Sources used in this chapter</i>	723
47	Parallel I/O	724
47.1	<i>Sources used in this chapter</i>	725
48	Support libraries	726
48.1	<i>SimGrid</i>	726
48.2	<i>Other</i>	726
48.3	<i>Sources used in this chapter</i>	727
VI	Tutorials	729
49	Debugging	731
49.1	<i>Step 0: compiling for debug</i>	731
49.2	<i>Invoking gdb</i>	732
49.3	<i>Finding errors</i>	733
49.4	<i>Memory debugging with Valgrind</i>	734
49.5	<i>Stepping through a program</i>	735
49.6	<i>Inspecting values</i>	736
49.7	<i>Parallel debugging</i>	737
49.8	<i>Further reading</i>	737
50	Tracing, timing, and profiling	738
50.1	<i>Timing</i>	738

50.2 <i>Tau</i>	739
51 SimGrid	747
52 Batch systems	749
52.1 <i>Cluster structure</i>	749
52.2 <i>Queues</i>	750
52.3 <i>Job running</i>	750
52.4 <i>The script file</i>	751
52.5 <i>Parallelism handling</i>	752
52.6 <i>Job running</i>	754
52.7 <i>Scheduling strategies</i>	754
52.8 <i>File systems</i>	754
52.9 <i>Examples</i>	755
52.10 <i>Review questions</i>	755
53 Parallel I/O	757
53.1 <i>Use sequential I/O</i>	757
53.2 <i>MPI I/O</i>	758
53.3 <i>Higher level libraries</i>	758
VII Class projects	759
54 A Style Guide to Project Submissions	760
54.1 <i>Structure of your writeup</i>	760
54.2 <i>The parallel part</i>	761
54.3 <i>Helpful remarks</i>	762
55 Warmup Exercises	763
55.1 <i>Hello world</i>	763
55.2 <i>Trace output</i>	763
55.3 <i>Collectives</i>	764
55.4 <i>Linear arrays of processors</i>	764
56 Mandelbrot set	767
56.1 <i>Invocation</i>	768
56.2 <i>Tools</i>	768
56.3 <i>Bulk task scheduling</i>	770
56.4 <i>Collective task scheduling</i>	771
56.5 <i>Asynchronous task scheduling</i>	771
56.6 <i>One-sided solution</i>	771
57 Data parallel grids	773
57.1 <i>Description of the problem</i>	773

57.2 <i>Code basics</i>	773
58 N-body problems	776
58.1 <i>Solution methods</i>	776
58.2 <i>Shared memory approaches</i>	776
58.3 <i>Distributed memory approaches</i>	776
 VIII Didactics	 777
59 Teaching guide	778
59.1 <i>Sources used in this chapter</i>	779
60 Teaching from mental models	780
60.1 <i>Introduction</i>	780
60.2 <i>Implied mental models</i>	781
60.3 <i>Teaching MPI, the usual way</i>	783
60.4 <i>Teaching MPI, our proposal</i>	784
60.5 <i>'Parallel computer games'</i>	789
60.6 <i>Further course summary</i>	790
60.7 <i>Prospect for an online course</i>	791
60.8 <i>Evaluation and discussion</i>	792
60.9 <i>Summary</i>	792
60.10 <i>Sources used in this chapter</i>	793
 IX Bibliography, index, and list of acronyms	 795
61 Bibliography	796
62 List of acronyms	798
63 General Index	799
64 Lists of notes	810
64.1 <i>MPI-4 notes</i>	810
64.2 <i>Fortran notes</i>	811
64.3 <i>C++ notes</i>	812
64.4 <i>The MPL C++ interface</i>	812
64.5 <i>Python notes</i>	814
65 Index of MPI commands and keywords	816
65.1 <i>From the standard document</i>	824
65.2 <i>MPI for Python</i>	829

CONTENTS

66 Index of OpenMP keywords	830
67 Index of PETSc keywords	833
68 Index of KOKKOS keywords	837
69 Index of SYCL keywords	838

PART I

MPI

This section of the book teaches MPI ('Message Passing Interface'), the dominant model for distributed memory programming in science and engineering. It will instill the following competencies.

Basic level:

- The student will understand the SPMD model and how it is realized in MPI (chapter 2).
- The student will know the basic collective calls, both with and without a root process, and can use them in applications (chapter 3).
- The student knows the basic blocking and non-blocking point-to-point calls, and how to use them (chapter 4).

Intermediate level:

- The student knows about derived datatypes and can use them in communication routines (chapter 6).
- The student knows about intra-communicators, and some basic calls for creating subcommunicators (chapter 7); also Cartesian process topologies (section 11.1).
- The student understands the basic design of MPI I/O calls and can use them in basic applications (chapter 10).
- The student understands about graph process topologies and neighborhood collectives (section 11.2).

Advanced level:

- The student understands one-sided communication routines, including window creation routines, and synchronization mechanisms (chapter 9).
- The student understands MPI shared memory, its advantages, and how it is based on windows (chapter 12).
- The student understands MPI process spawning mechanisms and inter-communicators (chapter 8).

Chapter 1

Getting started with MPI

In this chapter you will learn the use of the main tool for distributed memory programming: the Message Passing Interface (MPI) library. The MPI library has about 250 routines, many of which you may never need. Since this is a textbook, not a reference manual, we will focus on the important concepts and give the important routines for each concept. What you learn here should be enough for most common purposes. You are advised to keep a reference document handy, in case there is a specialized routine, or to look up subtleties about the routines you use.

1.1 Distributed memory and message passing

In its simplest form, a distributed memory machine is a collection of single computers hooked up with network cables. In fact, this has a name: a *Beowulf cluster*. As you recognize from that setup, each processor can run an independent program, and has its own memory without direct access to other processors' memory. MPI is the magic that makes multiple instantiations of the same executable run so that they know about each other and can exchange data through the network.

One of the reasons that MPI is so successful as a tool for high performance on clusters is that it is very explicit: the programmer controls many details of the data motion between the processors. Consequently, a capable programmer can write very efficient code with MPI. Unfortunately, that programmer will have to spell things out in considerable detail. For this reason, people sometimes call MPI ‘the assembly language of parallel programming’. If that sounds scary, be assured that things are not that bad. You can get started fairly quickly with MPI, using just the basics, and coming to the more sophisticated tools only when necessary.

Another reason that MPI was a big hit with programmers is that it does not ask you to learn a new language: it is a library that can be interfaced to C/C++ or Fortran; there are even bindings to Python and Java (not described in this course). This does not mean, however, that it is simple to ‘add parallelism’ to an existing sequential program. An MPI version of a serial program takes considerable rewriting; certainly more than shared memory parallelism through OpenMP, discussed later in this book.

MPI is also easy to install: there are free implementations that you can download and install on any computer that has a Unix-like operating system, even if that is not a parallel machine. However, if you are working on a supercomputer cluster, likely there will already be an MPI installation, tuned to that machine’s network.

1.2 History

Before the MPI standard was developed in 1993-4, there were many libraries for distributed memory computing, often proprietary to a vendor platform. MPI standardized the inter-process communication mechanisms. Other features, such as process management in *PVM*, or parallel I/O were omitted. Later versions of the standard have included many of these features.

Since MPI was designed by a large number of academic and commercial participants, it quickly became a standard. A few packages from the pre-MPI era, such as *Charmpp* [16], are still in use since they support mechanisms that do not exist in MPI.

1.3 Basic model

Here we sketch the two most common scenarios for using MPI. In the first, the user is working on an interactive machine, which has network access to a number of hosts, typically a network of workstations; see figure 1.1. The user types the command `mpiexec`¹ and supplies

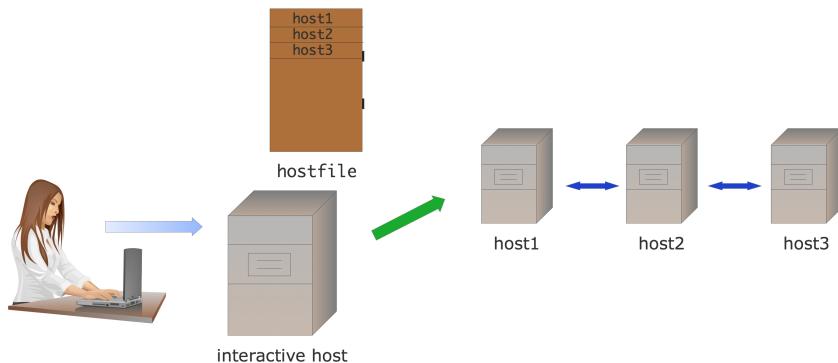


Figure 1.1: Interactive MPI setup

- The number of hosts involved,
- their names, possibly in a hostfile,
- and other parameters, such as whether to include the interactive host; followed by
- the name of the program and its parameters.

The `mpiexec` program then makes an `ssh` connection to each of the hosts, giving them sufficient information that they can find each other. All the output of the processors is piped through the `mpiexec` program, and appears on the interactive console.

In the second scenario (figure 1.2) the user prepares a *batch job* script with commands, and these will be run when the *batch scheduler* gives a number of hosts to the job. Now the batch script contains the `mpiexec` command, or some variant such as `ibrun`, and the hostfile is dynamically generated when the job starts. Since the job now runs at a time when the user may not be logged in, any screen output goes into an output file.

1. A command variant is `mpirun`; your local cluster may have a different mechanism.

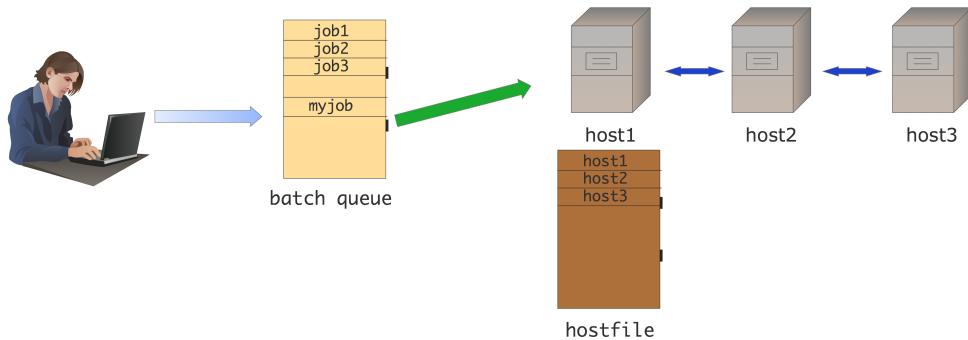


Figure 1.2: Batch MPI setup

You see that in both scenarios the parallel program is started by the `mpiexec` command using a Single Program Multiple Data (SPMD) mode of execution: all hosts execute the same program. It is possible for different hosts to execute different programs, but we will not consider that in this book.

There can be options and environment variables that are specific to some MPI installations, or to the network.

- `mpich` and its derivatives such as *Intel MPI* or *Cray MPI* have *mpiexec options*: <https://www.mpich.org/static/docs/v3.1/www1/mpiexec.html>

1.4 Making and running an MPI program

MPI is a library, called from programs in ordinary programming languages such as C/C++ or Fortran. To compile such a program you use your regular compiler:

```
gcc -c my_mpi_prog.c -I/path/to/mpi.h
gcc -o my_mpi_prog my_mpi_prog.o -L/path/to/mpi -lmpich
```

However, MPI libraries may have different names between different architectures, making it hard to have a portable makefile. Therefore, MPI typically has shell scripts around your compiler call, called `mpicc`, `mpicxx`, `mpif90` for C/C++/Fortran respectively.

```
mpicc -c my_mpi_prog.c
mpicc -o my_mpi_prog my_mpi_prog.o
```

If you want to know what `mpicc` does, there is usually an option that prints out its definition. On a Mac with the `clang` compiler:

```
$$ mpicc -show
clang -fPIC -fstack-protector -fno-stack-check -Qunused-arguments -g3 -O0 -Wno-implicit-functi
```

Remark 1 In OpenMPI, these commands are binary executables by default, but you can make it a shell script by passing the `--enable-script-wrapper-compilers` option at configure time.

MPI programs can be run on many different architectures. Obviously it is your ambition (or at least your dream) to run your code on a cluster with a hundred thousand processors and a fast network. But maybe you only have a small cluster with plain *ethernet*. Or maybe you're sitting in a plane, with just your laptop. An MPI program can be run in all these circumstances – within the limits of your available memory of course.

The way this works is that you do not start your executable directly, but you use a program, typically called `mpiexec` or something similar, which makes a connection to all available processors and starts a run of your executable there. So if you have a thousand nodes in your cluster, `mpiexec` can start your program once on each, and if you only have your laptop it can start a few instances there. In the latter case you will of course not get great performance, but at least you can test your code for correctness.

Python note 1: Running mpi4py programs. Load the TACC-provided python:

```
module load python  
and run it as:  
ibrun python-mpi yourprogram.py
```

1.5 Language bindings

1.5.1 C

The MPI library is written in C. However, the standard is careful to distinguish between MPI routines, versus their *C bindings*. In fact, as of MPI MPI-4, for a number of routines there are two bindings, depending on whether you want 4 byte integers, or larger. See section 6.4, in particular 6.4.1.

1.5.2 C++, including MPL

C++ bindings were defined in the standard at one point, but they were declared deprecated, and have been officially removed in the MPI-3 standard. Thus, MPI can be used from C++ by including

```
#include <mpi.h>
```

and using the C API.

The *boost* library has its own version of MPI, but it seems not to be under further development. A recent effort at idiomatic C++ support is *Message Passing Layer (MPL)* <https://github.com/rabauke/mpl>. This book has an index of MPL notes and commands: section 64.4.

MPL note 1: Notes format. MPL is a C++ header-only library. Notes on MPI usage from MPL will be indicated like this.

1.5.3 Fortran

Fortran note 1: Formatting of Fortran notes. Fortran-specific notes will be indicated with a note like this.

Traditionally, *Fortran bindings* for MPI look very much like the C ones, except that each routine has a final *error return* parameter. You will find that a lot of MPI code in Fortran conforms to this.

However, in the *MPI 3* standard it is recommended that an MPI implementation providing a Fortran interface provide a module named `mpi_f08` that can be used in a Fortran program. This incorporates the following improvements:

- This defines MPI routines to have an optional final parameter for the error.
- There are some visible implications of using the `mpi_f08` module, mostly related to the fact that some of the ‘MPI datatypes’ such as `MPI_Comm`, which were declared as `Integer` previously, are now a Fortran Type. See the following sections for details: Communicator 7.1, Datatype 6.1, Info 15.1.1, Op 3.10.2, Request 4.2.1, Status 4.3.2, Window 9.1.
- The `mpi_f08` module solves a problem with previous *Fortran90 bindings*: Fortran90 is a strongly typed language, so it is not possible to pass argument by reference to their address, as C/C++ do with the `void*` type for send and receive buffers. This was solved by having separate routines for each datatype, and providing an Interface block in the MPI module. If you manage to request a version that does not exist, the compiler will display a message like

There is no matching specific subroutine for this generic subroutine call [MPI_Send]
For details see <http://mpi-forum.org/docs/mpi-3.1/mpi31-report/node409.htm>.

1.5.4 Python

Python note 2: Python notes. Python-specific notes will be indicated with a note like this.

The `mpi4py` package [5] of *python bindings* is not defined by the MPI standards committee. Instead, it is the work of an individual, *Lisandro Dalcin*.

In a way, the Python interface is the most elegant. It uses Object-Oriented (OO) techniques such as methods on objects, and many default arguments.

Notable about the Python bindings is that many communication routines exist in two variants:

- a version that can send arbitrary Python objects. These routines have lowercase names such as `bcast`; and
- a version that sends `numpy` objects; these routines have names such as `Bcast`. Their syntax can be slightly different.

The first version looks more ‘pythonic’, is easier to write, and can do things like sending python objects, but it is also decidedly less efficient since data is packed and unpacked with `pickle`. As a common sense guideline, use the `numpy` interface in the performance-critical parts of your code, and the pythonic interface only for complicated actions in a setup phase.

Codes with `mpi4py` can be interfaced to other languages through Swig or conversion routines.

Data in `numpy` can be specified as a simple object, or `[data, (count,displ), datatype]`.

1.5.5 How to read routine signatures

Throughout the MPI part of this book we will give the reference syntax of the routines. This typically comprises:

- The semantics: routine name and list of parameters and what they mean.
- C syntax: the routine definition as it appears in the `mpi.h` file.

1. Getting started with MPI

- Fortran syntax: routine definition with parameters, giving in/out specification.
- Python syntax: routine name, indicating to what class it applies, and parameter, indicating which ones are optional.

These ‘routine signatures’ look like code but they are not! Here is how you translate them.

1.5.5.1 C

The typically C routine specification in MPI looks like:

```
|| int MPI_Comm_size(MPI_Comm comm, int *nprocs)
```

This means that

- The routine returns an int parameter. Strictly speaking you should test against `MPI_SUCCESS` (for all error codes, see section 15.2.1):

```
|| MPI_Comm comm = MPI_COMM_WORLD;
  int nprocs;
  int errorcode;
  errorcode = MPI_Comm_size( MPI_COMM_WORLD,&nprocs);
  if (errorcode!=MPI_SUCCESS) {
    printf("Routine MPI_Comm_size failed! code=%d\n",
           errorcode);
    return 1;
}
```

However, the error codes are hardly ever useful, and there is not much your program can do to recover from an error. Most people call the routine as

```
|| MPI_Comm_size( /* parameter ... */ );
```

For more on error handling, see section 15.2.

- The first argument is of type `MPI_Comm`. This is not a C built-in datatype, but it behaves like one. There are many of these `MPI_something` datatypes in MPI. So you can write:

```
|| MPI_Comm my_comm =
  MPI_COMM_WORLD; // using a predefined value
  MPI_Comm_size( comm, /* remaining parameters */ );
```

- Finally, there is a ‘star’ parameter. This means that the routine wants an address, rather than a value. You would typically write:

```
|| MPI_Comm my_comm = MPI_COMM_WORLD; // using a predefined value
  int nprocs;
  MPI_Comm_size( comm, &nprocs );
```

Seeing a ‘star’ parameter usually means either: the routine has an array argument, or: the routine internally sets the value of a variable. The latter is the case here.

1.5.5.2 Fortran

The Fortran specification looks like:

```

|| MPI_Comm_size(comm, size, ierror)
|| Type(MPI_Comm), Intent(In) :: comm
|| Integer, Intent(Out) :: size
|| Integer, Optional, Intent(Out) :: ierror

```

or for the Fortran90 legacy mode:

```

|| MPI_Comm_size(comm, size, ierror)
|| INTEGER, INTENT(IN) :: comm
|| INTEGER, INTENT(OUT) :: size
|| INTEGER, OPTIONAL, INTENT(OUT) :: ierror

```

The syntax of using this routine is close to this specification: you write

```

|| Type(MPI_Comm) :: comm = MPI_COMM_WORLD
|| ! legacy: Integer :: comm = MPI_COMM_WORLD
|| Integer :: comm = MPI_COMM_WORLD
|| Integer :: size,ierr
|| CALL MPI_Comm_size( comm, size ) ! without the optional ierr

```

- Most Fortran routines have the same parameters as the corresponding C routine, except that they all have the error code as final parameter, instead of as a function result. As with C, you can ignore the value of that parameter. Just don't forget it.
- The types of the parameters are given in the specification.
- Where C routines have `MPI_Comm` and `MPI_Request` and such parameters, Fortran has `INTEGER` parameters, or sometimes arrays of integers.

1.5.5.3 Python

The Python interface to MPI uses classes and objects. Thus, a specification like:

```

|| MPI.Comm.Send(self, buf, int dest, int tag=0)

```

should be parsed as follows.

- First of all, you need the MPI class:

```

|| from mpi4py import MPI

```

- Next, you need a `Comm` object. Often you will use the predefined communicator

```

|| comm = MPI.COMM_WORLD

```

- The keyword `self` indicates that the actual routine `Send` is a method of the `Comm` object, so you call:

```

|| comm.Send( .... )

```

- Parameters that are listed by themselves, such as `buf`, are positional. Parameters that are listed with a type, such as `int dest` are keyword parameters. Keyword parameters that have a value specified, such as `int tag=0` are optional, with the default value indicated. Thus, the typical call for this routine is:

```

|| comm.Send(sendbuf, dest=other)

```

specifying the send buffer as positional parameter, the destination as keyword parameter, and using the default value for the optional tag.

Some python routines are ‘class methods’, and their specification lacks the `self` keyword. For instance:

```
|| MPI.Request.Waitall(type cls, requests, statuses=None)
```

would be used as

```
|| MPI.Request.Waitall(requests)
```

1.6 Review

Review 1.1. What determines the parallelism of an MPI job?

1. The size of the cluster you run on.
2. The number of cores per cluster node.
3. The parameters of the MPI starter (`mpiexec`, `iexec`, ...)

Solution to exercise 1.1. *Answer 3: the MPI starter creates a job with as many processes as you specify. Normally this is (far) less than the size of your cluster. Also, MPI does not care about cores.*

Review 1.2. T/F: the number of cores of your laptop is the limit of how many MPI processes you can start up.

Solution to exercise 1.2. *False. You can start more processes than there are cores, and Unix will use time-slicing to simulate a parallel run. This will give diminished efficiency, but is convenient for testing.*

Review 1.3. Do the following languages have an object-oriented interface to MPI? In what sense?

1. C
2. C++
3. Fortran2008
4. Python

Solution to exercise 1.3.

1. *C is not object-oriented. While it is possible to simulate Object-Oriented Programming (OOP) in C, this is not done in MPI. (Unlike, for instance, in the PETSc library.)*
2. *C++ is object-oriented, but its Application Programmer Interface (API) to MPI is deprecated/obsolete.*
3. *Fortran2008 uses generic functions and INTERFACE blocks to do strict type checking.*
4. *Python has the most OO interface, where many things are objects with methods. It uses the ‘dot’ notation for invoking methods on objects.*

1.7 Sources used in this chapter

1.7.1 Listing of code header

Chapter 2

MPI topic: Functional parallelism

2.1 The SPMD model

MPI programs conform largely to the Single Program Multiple Data (SPMD) model, where each processor runs the same executable. This running executable we call a *process*.

When MPI was first written, 20 years ago, it was clear what a processor was: it was what was in a computer on someone's desk, or in a rack. If this computer was part of a networked cluster, you called it a *node*. So if you ran an MPI program, each node would have one MPI process; figure 2.1. You could of course run

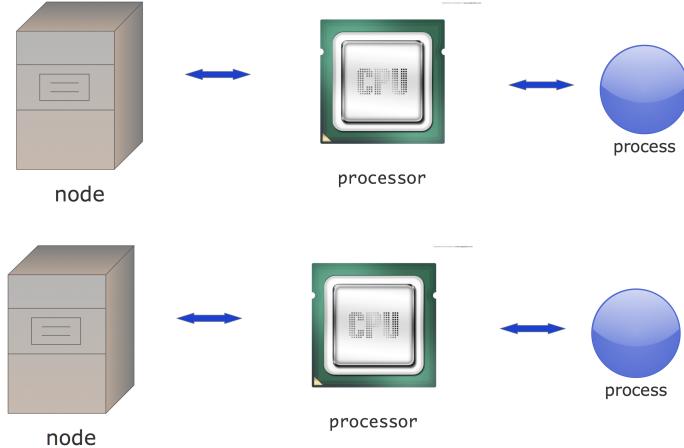


Figure 2.1: Cluster structure as of the mid 1990s

more than one process, using the *time slicing* of the Operating System (OS), but that would give you no extra performance.

These days the situation is more complicated. You can still talk about a node in a cluster, but now a node can contain more than one processor chip (sometimes called a *socket*), and each processor chip probably has multiple *cores*. Figure 2.2 shows how you could explore this using a mix of MPI between the nodes, and a shared memory programming system on the nodes.

However, since each core can act like an independent processor, you can also have multiple MPI processes per node. To MPI, the cores look like the old completely separate processors. This is the 'pure MPI' model

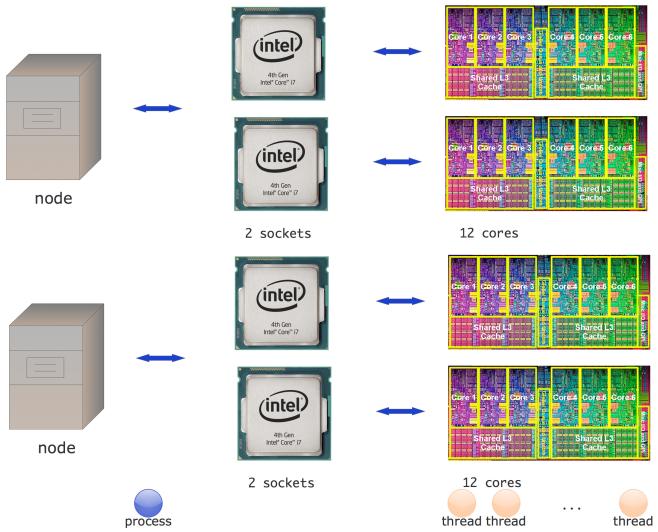


Figure 2.2: Hybrid cluster structure

of figure 2.3, which we will use in most of this part of the book. (Hybrid computing will be discussed in chapter 46.)



Figure 2.3: MPI-only cluster structure

This is somewhat confusing: the old processors needed MPI programming, because they were physically separated. The cores on a modern processor, on the other hand, share the same memory, and even some caches. In its basic mode MPI seems to ignore all of this: each core receives an MPI process and the programmer writes the same send/receive call no matter where the other process is located. In fact, you can't immediately see whether two cores are on the same node or different nodes. Of course, on the implementation level MPI uses a different communication mechanism depending on whether cores are

on the same socket or on different nodes, so you don't have to worry about lack of efficiency.

Remark 2 In some rare cases you may want to run in an Multiple Program Multiple Data (MPMD) mode, rather than SPMD. This can be achieved either on the OS level (see section 15.9.4), using options of the `mpiexec` mechanism, or you can use MPI's built-in process management; chapter 8. Like I said, this concerns only rare cases.

2.2 Starting and running MPI processes

The SPMD model may be initially confusing. Even though there is only a single source, compiled into a single executable, the parallel run comprises a number of independently started MPI processes (see section 1.3 for the mechanism).

The following exercises are designed to give you an intuition for this one-source-many-processes setup. In the first exercise you will see that the mechanism for starting MPI programs starts up independent copies. There is nothing in the source that says 'and now you become parallel'.

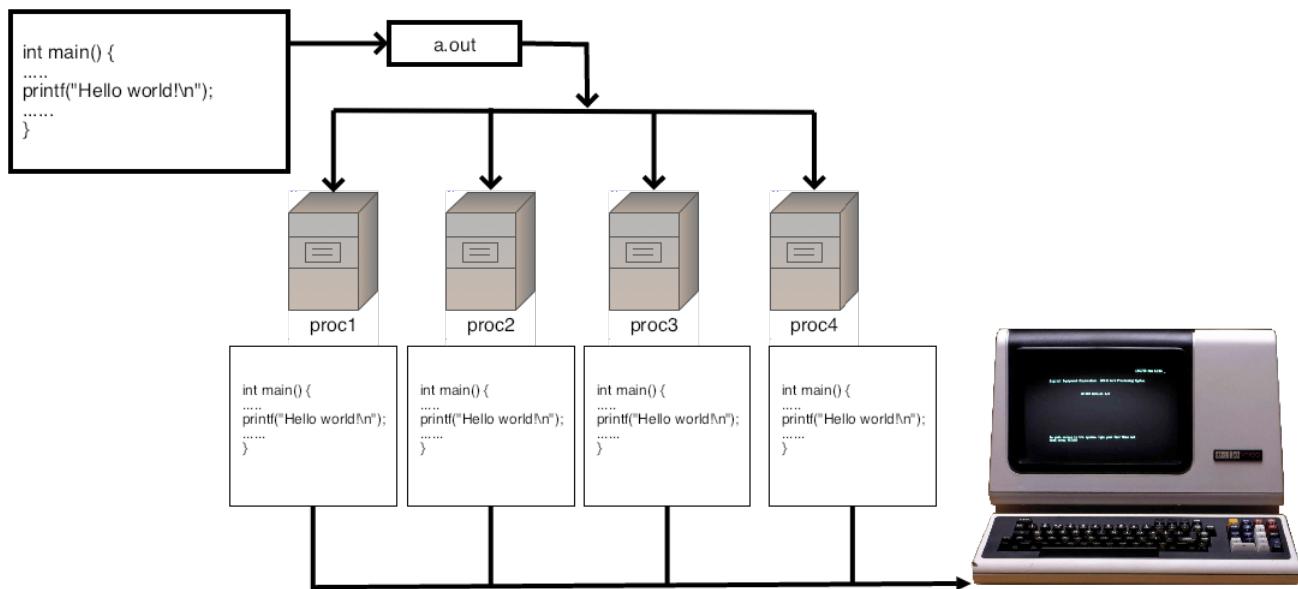


Figure 2.4: Running a hello world program in parallel

The following exercise demonstrates this point.

Exercise 2.1. Write a 'hello world' program, without any MPI in it, and run it in parallel with `mpiexec` or your local equivalent. Explain the output.
(There is a skeleton for this exercise under the name `hello`.)

Solution to exercise 2.1. You get one 'hello world' line on your screen for each process you started.

This exercise is illustrated in figure 2.4.

Figure 2.1 MPI_Init

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Init ()				

Figure 2.2 MPI_Finalize

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Finalize ()				

2.2.1 Headers

If you use MPI commands in a program file, be sure to include the proper header file, `mpi.h` or `mpif.h`.

```
#include "mpi.h" // for C
#include "mpif.h" ! for Fortran
```

For Fortran90, many MPI installations also have an MPI module, so you can write

```
use mpi      ! pre 3.0
use mpi_f08 ! 3.0 standard
```

The internals of these files can be different between MPI installations, so you can not compile one file against one `mpi.h` file and another file, even with the same compiler on the same machine, against a different MPI.

Fortran note 2: New developments only in f08 module. New language developments, such as large counts; section 6.4.2 will only be included in the `mpi_f08` module, not in the earlier mechanisms.

Python note 3: Import mpi module. It's easiest to

```
|| from mpi4py import MPI
```

MPL note 2: Header file. To compile MPL programs, add a line

```
|| #include <mpl/mpl.hpp>
```

to your file.

2.2.2 Initialization / finalization

Every (useful) MPI program has to start with *MPI initialization* through a call to `MPI_Init` (figure 2.1), and have `MPI_Finalize` (figure 2.2) to finish the use of MPI in your program. The init call is different between the various languages.

In C, you can pass `argc` and `argv`, the arguments of a C language main program:

```
|| int main(int argc,char **argv) {
    ...
    return 0;
}
```

2. MPI topic: Functional parallelism

(It is allowed to pass NULL for these arguments.)

Fortran (before 2008) lacks this commandline argument handling, so `MPI_Init` lacks those arguments.

After `MPI_Finalize` no MPI routines (with a few exceptions such as `MPI_Finalized`) can be called. In particular, it is not allowed to call `MPI_Init` again. If you want to do that, use the *sessions model*; section 8.3.

Python note 4: Initialize/finalize. In many cases, no initialize and finalize calls are needed: the statement

```
## mpi.py
from mpi4py import MPI
```

performs the initialization. Likewise, the finalize happens at the end of the program.

However, for special cases, there is an `mpi4py.rc` object that can be set in between importing `mpi4py` and importing `mpi4py.MPI`:

```
import mpi4py
mpi4py.rc.initialize = False
mpi4py.rc.finalize = False
from mpi4py import MPI
MPI.Init()
# stuff
MPI.Finalize()
```

MPL note 3: Init, finalize. There is no initialization or finalize call.

MPL implementation note: Initialization is done at the first `mpl::environment` method call, such as `comm_world`.

This may look a bit like declaring ‘this is the parallel part of a program’, but that’s not true: again, the whole code is executed multiple times in parallel.

Exercise 2.2. Add the commands `MPI_Init` and `MPI_Finalize` to your code. Put three different print statements in your code: one before the init, one between init and finalize, and one after the finalize. Again explain the output.

Run your program on a large scale, using a batch job. Where does the output go?

Experiment with

```
MY_MPIRUN_OPTIONS="-prepend-rank" ibrun yourprogram
```

Solution to exercise 2.2. *Each print statement is executed on each processor.*

Remark 3 For hybrid MPI-plus-threads programming there is also a call `MPI_Init_thread`. For that, see section 13.1.

2.2.2.1 Aborting an MPI run

Apart from `MPI_Finalize`, which signals a successful conclusion of the MPI run, an abnormal end to a run can be forced by `MPI_Abort` (figure 2.3). This stop execution on all processes associated with the communicator, but many implementations will terminate all processes. The value parameter is returned to the environment.

Figure 2.3 MPI_Abort

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Abort (

MPL:

```
void mpl::communicator::abort ( int ) const
```

```
Python:
```

```
MPI.Comm.Abort(self, int errorcode=0)
```

Figure 2.4 MPI_Initialized

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Initialized (

Code:

```
// return.c
MPI_Abort(MPI_COMM_WORLD,17);
```

Output:

```
mpicc -o return return.o
mpirun -n 1 ./return ; \
echo "MPI program return code $?" \
application called MPI_Abort(MPI_COMM_WORLD, 17) - \
MPI program return code 17
```

2.2.2.2 Testing the initialized/finalized status

The commandline arguments `argc` and `argv` are only guaranteed to be passed to process zero, so the best way to pass commandline information is by a broadcast (section 3.3.3).

There are a few commands, such as `MPI_Get_processor_name`, that are allowed before `MPI_Init`.

If MPI is used in a library, MPI can have already been initialized in a main program. For this reason, one can test where `MPI_Init` has been called with `MPI_Initialized` (figure 2.4).

You can test whether `MPI_Finalize` has been called with `MPI_Finalized` (figure 2.5).

2.2.2.3 Information about the run

Once MPI has been initialized, the `MPI_INFO_ENV` object contains a number of key/value pairs describing run-specific information; see section 15.1.1.1.

2. MPI topic: Functional parallelism

Figure 2.5 MPI_Finalized

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Finalized	flag	true if MPI was finalized	int*	LOGICAL	OUT

Figure 2.6 MPI_Get_processor_name

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Get_processor_name	name	A unique specifier for the actual (as opposed to virtual) node.	char*	CHARACTER	OUT
	resultlen	Length (in printable characters) of the result returned in name	int*	INTEGER	OUT

Python:

```
MPI.Get_processor_name()
```

2.2.2.4 Commandline arguments

The `MPI_Init` routines takes a reference to `argc` and `argv` for the following reason: the `MPI_Init` calls filters out the arguments to `mpirun` or `mpiexec`, thereby lowering the value of `argc` and eliminating some of the `argv` arguments.

On the other hand, the commandline arguments that are meant for `mpiexec` wind up in the `MPI_INFO_ENV` object as a set of key/value pairs; see section 15.1.1.

2.3 Processor identification

Since all processes in an MPI job are instantiations of the same executable, you'd think that they all execute the exact same instructions, which would not be terribly useful. You will now learn how to distinguish processes from each other, so that together they can start doing useful work.

2.3.1 Processor name

In the following exercise you will print out the hostname of each MPI process with `MPI_Get_processor_name` (figure 2.6) as a first way of distinguishing between processes. This routine has a character buffer argument, which needs to be allocated by you. The length of the buffer is also passed, and on return that parameter has the actually used length. The maximum needed length is `MPI_MAX_PROCESSOR_NAME`.

Code:

```
// procname.c
int name_length = MPI_MAX_PROCESSOR_NAME;
char proc_name[name_length];
MPI_Get_processor_name(proc_name,&name_length);
printf("Process %d/%d is running on node <<%s>>\n",
      procid,nprocs,proc_name);
```

Output:

```
make[3]: `procname' is up to date.
TACC: Starting up job 4328411
TACC: Starting parallel tasks...
This process is running on node <<c205-036.frontera
This process is running on node <<c205-035.frontera
TACC: Shutdown complete. Exiting.
```

(Underallocating the buffer will not lead to a runtime error.)

Fortran note 3: Processor name. Allocate a `Character` variable with the appropriate length. The returned value of the length parameter can assist in printing the result:

Code:

```
// procname.c
int name_length = MPI_MAX_PROCESSOR_NAME;
char proc_name[name_length];
MPI_Get_processor_name(proc_name,&name_length);
printf("Process %d/%d is running on node <<%s>>\n",
      procid,nprocs,proc_name);
```

Output:**Missing output for procnamef**

Exercise 2.3. Use the command `MPI_Get_processor_name`. Confirm that you are able to run a program that uses two different nodes.

MPL note 4: Processor name. The `processor_name` call is an environment method returning a `std::string`:

```
|| std::string mpl::environment::processor_name ();
```

2.3.2 Communicators

First we need to introduce the concept of *communicator*, which is an abstract description of a group of processes. For now you only need to know about the existence of the `MPI_Comm` data type, and that there is a pre-defined communicator `MPI_COMM_WORLD` which describes all the processes involved in your parallel run.

In the procedural languages C, a *communicator* is a *variable* that is passed to most routines:

```
#include <mpi.h>
MPI_Comm comm = MPI_COMM_WORLD;
MPI_Send( /* stuff */ comm );
```

Fortran note 4: Communicator type. In Fortran, pre-2008 a communicator was an *opaque handle*, stored in an `Integer`. With *Fortran 2008*, communicators are derived types:

2. MPI topic: Functional parallelism

```
|| use mpi_f098
|| Type<MPI_Comm> :: comm = MPI_COMM_WORLD
|| call MPI_Send( ... comm )
```

Python note 5: Communicator objects. In object-oriented languages, a communicator is an *object*, and rather than passing it to routines, the routines are often methods of the communicator object:

```
|| from mpi4py import MPI
|| comm = MPI.COMM_WORLD
|| comm.Send( buffer, target )
```

MPL note 5: World communicator. The naive way of declaring a communicator would be:

```
|| // commrank.cxx
|| mpl::communicator comm_world =
||   mpl::environment::comm_world();
```

For the full source of this example, see section 2.7.2

calling the predefined environment method `comm_world`.

However, if the variable will always correspond to the world communicator, it is better to make it `const` and declare it to be a reference:

```
|| const mpl::communicator &comm_world =
||   mpl::environment::comm_world();
```

For the full source of this example, see section 2.7.2

MPL note 6: Communicator copying. The communicator class has its copy operator deleted; however, copy initialization exists:

```
|| // commcompare.cxx
|| const mpl::communicator &comm =
||   mpl::environment::comm_world();
|| cout << "same: " << boolalpha << (comm==comm) << endl;

|| mpl::communicator copy =
||   mpl::environment::comm_world();
|| cout << "copy: " << boolalpha << (comm==copy) << endl;

|| mpl::communicator init = comm;
|| cout << "init: " << boolalpha << (init==comm) << endl;
```

For the full source of this example, see section 2.7.3

(This outputs true/false/false respectively.)

MPL implementation note: The copy initializer performs an `MPI_Comm_dup`.

MPL note 7: Communicator passing. Pass communicators by reference to avoid communicator duplication:

```
|| // commpass.cxx
|| // BAD! this does a MPI_Comm_dup.
|| void comm_val( const mpl::communicator comm );
```

Figure 2.7 MPI_Comm_size

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Comm_size (
comm	communicator		MPI_Comm	TYPE (MPI_Comm)	IN
size	number of processes in the group of comm		int*	INTEGER	OUT
)					

MPL:

```
int mpl::communicator::size () const
Python:
```

```
MPI.Comm.Get_size(self)
```

Figure 2.8 MPI_Comm_rank

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Comm_rank (
comm	communicator		MPI_Comm	TYPE (MPI_Comm)	IN
rank	rank of the calling process in group of comm		int*	INTEGER	OUT
)					

MPL:

```
int mpl::communicator::rank () const
Python:
```

```
MPI.Comm.Get_rank(self)
```

```
// correct!
void comm_ref( const mpl::communicator &comm );
```

You will learn much more about communicators in chapter 7.

2.3.3 Process and communicator properties: rank and size

To distinguish between processes in a communicator, MPI provides two calls

1. **MPI_Comm_size** (figure 2.7) reports how many processes there are in all; and
2. **MPI_Comm_rank** (figure 2.8) states what the number of the process is that calls this routine.

If every process executes the **MPI_Comm_size** call, they all get the same result, namely the total number of processes in your run. On the other hand, if every process executes **MPI_Comm_rank**, they all get a different result, namely their own unique number, an integer in the range from zero to the number of processes minus 1. See figure 2.5. In other words, each process can find out ‘I am process 5 out of a total of 20’.

Exercise 2.4. Write a program where each process prints out a message reporting its number, and how many processes there are:

2. MPI topic: Functional parallelism

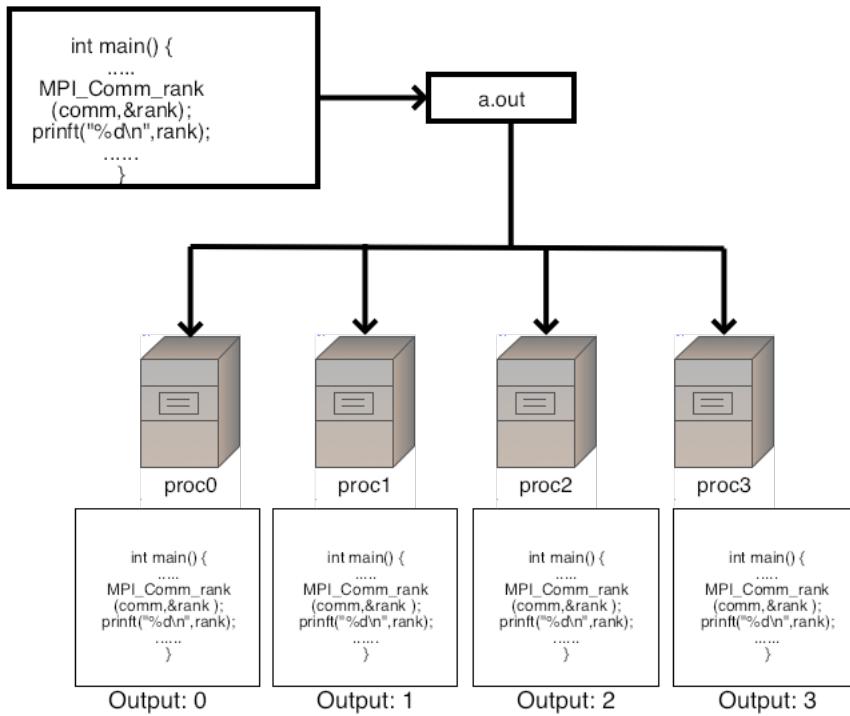


Figure 2.5: Parallel program that prints process rank

Hello from process 2 out of 5!

Write a second version of this program, where each process opens a unique file and writes to it. *On some clusters this may not be advisable if you have large numbers of processors, since it can overload the file system.*

(There is a skeleton for this exercise under the name `commrank`.)

Solution to exercise 2.4.

```

## hello.py
from mpi4py import MPI
comm = MPI.COMM_WORLD
nprocs = comm.Get_size()
procno = comm.Get_rank()

```

For the full source of this example, see section 2.7.4

Exercise 2.5. Write a program where only the process with number zero reports on how many processes there are in total.

In object-oriented approaches to MPI, that is, `mpi4py` and `MPL`, the `MPI_Comm_rank` and `MPI_Comm_size` routines are methods of the communicator class:

Python note 6: Communicator rank and size. Rank and size are methods of the communicator object. Note that their names are slightly different from the MPI standard names.

```

comm = MPI.COMM_WORLD
procid = comm.Get_rank()

```

```
|| nprocs = comm.Get_size()
```

MPL note 8: Rank and size. The rank of a process (by `mpl::communicator::rank`) and the size of a communicator (by `mpl::communicator::size`) are both methods of the `communicator` class:

```
|| const mpl::communicator &comm_world =
||   mpi::environment::comm_world();
|| int procid = comm_world.rank();
|| int nprocs = comm_world.size();
```

2.4 Functional parallelism

Now that processes can distinguish themselves from each other, they can decide to engage in different activities. In an extreme case you could have a code that looks like

```
// climate simulation:
if (procid==0)
    earth_model();
else if (procid==1)
    sea_model();
else
    air_model();
```

Practice is a little more complicated than this. But we will start exploring this notion of processes deciding on their activity based on their process number.

Being able to tell processes apart is already enough to write some applications, without knowing any other MPI. We will look at a simple parallel search algorithm: based on its rank, a processor can find its section of a search space. For instance, in *Monte Carlo codes* a large number of random samples is generated and some computation performed on each. (This particular example requires each MPI process to run an independent random number generator, which is not entirely trivial.)

Exercise 2.6. Is the number $N = 2,000,000,111$ prime? Let each process test a disjoint set

of integers, and print out any factor they find. You don't have to test all integers $< N$: any factor is at most $\sqrt{N} \approx 45,200$.

(Hint: `i%0` probably gives a runtime error.)

Can you find more than one solution?

(There is a skeleton for this exercise under the name `prime`.)

Solution to exercise 2.6. $2,000,000,111 = 2,999 \times 666,889$

There are two solutions:

1. *Each process finds a block of contiguous integers to try;*
2. *process p out of s tests the integers i with $i \% s = p$.*

Remark 4 Normally, we expect parallel algorithms to be faster than sequential. Now consider the above exercise. Suppose the number we are testing is divisible by some small prime number, but every process has a large block of numbers to test. In that case the sequential algorithm would have been faster than the parallel one. Food for thought.

As another example, in *Boolean satisfiability* problems a number of points in a search space needs to be evaluated. Knowing a process's rank is enough to let it generate its own portion of the search space. The computation of the *Mandelbrot set* can also be considered as a case of functional parallelism. However, the image that is constructed is data that needs to be kept on one processor, which breaks the symmetry of the parallel run.

Of course, at the end of a functionally parallel run you need to summarize the results, for instance printing out some total. The mechanisms for that you will learn next.

2.5 Distributed computing and distributed data

One reason for using MPI is that sometimes you need to work on a single object, say a vector or a matrix, with a data size larger than can fit in the memory of a single processor. With distributed memory, each processor then gets a part of the whole data structure and only works on that.

So let's say we have a large array, and we want to distribute the data over the processors. That means that, with p processes and n elements per processor, we have a total of $n \cdot p$ elements.

```
int n;
double data[n];
```

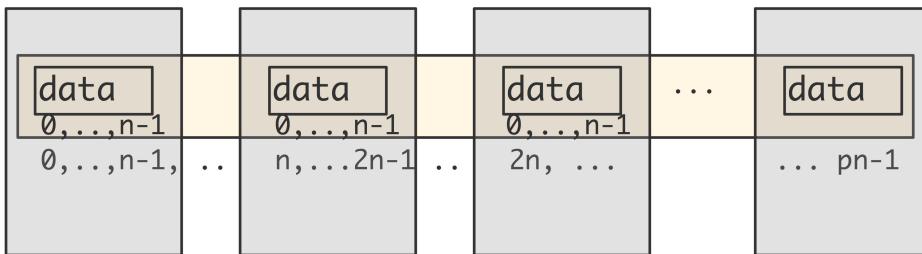


Figure 2.6: Local parts of a distributed array

We sometimes say that `data` is the local part of a *distributed array* with a total size of $n \cdot p$ elements. However, this array only exists conceptually: each processor has an array with lowest index zero, and you have to translate that yourself to an index in the global array. In other words, you have to write your code in such a way that it acts like you're working with a large array that is distributed over the processors, while actually manipulating only the local arrays on the processors.

Your typical code then looks like

```
int myfirst = ....;
for (int ilocal=0; ilocal<nlocal; ilocal++) {
    int iglobal = myfirst+ilocal;
    array[ilocal] = f(iglobal);
}
```

Exercise 2.7. Allocate on each process an array:

```
|| int my_ints[10];
```

and fill it so that process 0 has the integers 0 … 9, process 1 has 10 … 19, et cetera.

It may be hard to print the output in a non-messy way.

If the array size is not perfectly divisible by the number of processors, we have to come up with a division that is uneven, but not too much. You could for instance, write

```
|| int Nglobal, // is something large
   Nlocal = Nglobal/ntids,
   excess = Nglobal%ntids;
|| if (mytid==ntids-1)
   Nlocal += excess;
```

Exercise 2.8. Argue that this strategy is not optimal. Can you come up with a better distribution? Load balancing is further discussed in HPC book, section-[2.10](#).

2.6 Review questions

For all true/false questions, if you answer that a statement is false, give a one-line explanation.

Exercise 2.9. True or false: mpicc is a compiler.

Solution to exercise 2.9. *No, it's a shell script around your regular compiler.*

Exercise 2.10. T/F?

1. In C, the result of `MPI_Comm_rank` is a number from zero to number-of-processes-minus-one, inclusive.
2. In Fortran, the result of `MPI_Comm_rank` is a number from one to number-of-processes, inclusive.

Exercise 2.11. What is the function of a hostfile?

Solution to exercise 2.11. *In MPI codes that are started with mpiexec it is a file with a list of the hosts on which MPI will run.*

2.7 Sources used in this chapter

2.7.1 Listing of code header

2.7.2 Listing of code examples/mpi/mpl/commrank.cxx

```
#include <cstdlib>
#include <iostream>
#include <mpl/mpl.hpp>

int main() {
#ifndef _MSC_VER
    mpl::communicator comm_world =
        mpl::environment::comm_world();
#else
    const mpl::communicator &comm_world =
        mpl::environment::comm_world();
#endif
    std::cout << "Hello world! I am running on \""
        << mpl::environment::processor_name()
        << "\". My rank is "
        << comm_world.rank()
        << " out of "
        << comm_world.size() << " processes.\n" << std::endl;
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}
```

2.7.3 Listing of code examples/mpi/mpl/commcompare.cxx

```
#include <cstdlib>
#include <iostream>
#include <iomanip>
using namespace std;

#include <mpl/mpl.hpp>

int main() {

    const mpl::communicator &comm =
        mpl::environment::comm_world();
    cout << "same: " << boolalpha << (comm==comm) << endl;

    mpl::communicator copy =
        mpl::environment::comm_world();
    cout << "copy: " << boolalpha << (comm==copy) << endl;

    mpl::communicator init = comm;
    cout << "init: " << boolalpha << (init==comm) << endl;

    // WRONG: copy = comm;
```

```
// error: overload resolution selected deleted operator '='

{
    mpl::communicator init;
    // WRONG: init = mpl::environment::comm_world();
    // error: overload resolution selected deleted operator '='
}

auto eq = comm.compare(copy);
cout << static_cast<int>(eq) << endl;

cout << "Rawcompare\n";
{
    const mpl::communicator &comm =
        mpl::environment::comm_world();
    MPI_Comm
    world_extract = comm.native_handle(),
    world_given = MPI_COMM_WORLD;
    int result;
    MPI_Comm_compare(world_extract,world_given,&result);
    cout << "Compare raw comms: " << "\n"
    << "identical: " << (result==MPI_IDENT)
    << "\n"
    << "congruent: " << (result==MPI_CONGRUENT)
    << "\n"
    << "unequal : " << (result==MPI_UNEQUAL)
    << "\n";
}
cout << "rawcompare\n";

return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}
```

2.7.4 Listing of code code/mpi/p/hello.py

Chapter 3

MPI topic: Collectives

A certain class of MPI routines are called ‘collective’, or more correctly: ‘collective on a communicator’. This means that if process one in that communicator calls that routine, they all need to call that routine. In this chapter we will discuss collective routines that are about combining the data on all processes in that communicator, but there are also operations such as opening a shared file that are collective, which will be discussed in a later chapter.

3.1 Working with global information

If all processes have individual data, for instance the result of a local computation, you may want to bring that information together, for instance to find the maximal computed value or the sum of all values. Conversely, sometimes one processor has information that needs to be shared with all. For this sort of operation, MPI has *collectives*.

There are various cases, illustrated in figure 3.1, which you can (sort of) motivate by considering some classroom activities:

- The teacher tells the class when the exam will be. This is a *broadcast*: the same item of information goes to everyone.
- After the exam, the teacher performs a *gather* operation to collect the individual exams.
- On the other hand, when the teacher computes the average grade, each student has an individual number, but these are now combined to compute a single number. This is a *reduction*.
- Now the teacher has a list of grades and gives each student their grade. This is a *scatter* operation, where one process has multiple data items, and gives a different one to all the other processes.

This story is a little different from what happens with MPI processes, because these are more symmetric; the process doing the reducing and broadcasting is no different from the others. Any process can function as the *root process* in such a collective.

Exercise 3.1. How would you realize the following scenarios with MPI collectives?

1. Let each process compute a random number. You want to print the maximum of these numbers to your screen.

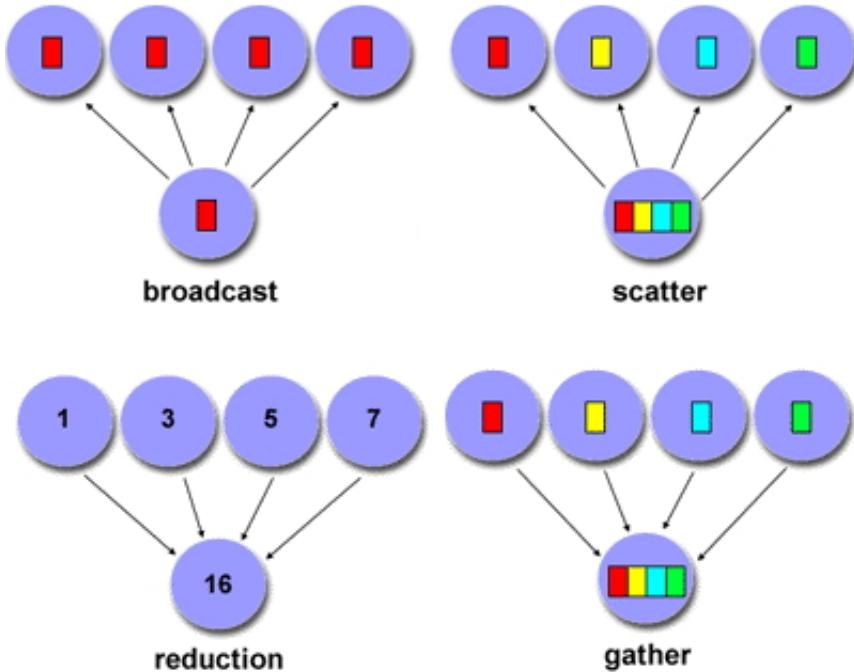


Figure 3.1: The four most common collectives

2. Each process computes a random number again. Now you want to scale these numbers by their maximum.
3. Let each process compute a random number. You want to print on what processor the maximum value is computed.

Think about time and space complexity of your suggestions.

Solution to exercise 3.1.

1. Reduction with a ‘max’ operator. Gathering followed by a local traversal has a higher space and time complexity.
2. Reduction followed by broadcast.
3. Gather followed by a local traversal of the data.

3.1.1 Practical use of collectives

Collectives are quite common in scientific applications. For instance, if one process reads data from disc or the commandline, it can use a broadcast or a gather to get the information to other processes. Likewise, at the end of a program run, a gather or reduction can be used to collect summary information about the program run.

However, a more common scenario is that the result of a collective is needed on all processes.

Consider the computation of the *standard deviation*:

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N-1} \sum_i^N (x_i - \mu)^2} \quad \text{where} \quad \mu = \frac{\sum_i^N x_i}{N}$$

and assume that every process stores just one x_i value.

1. The calculation of the average μ is a reduction, since all the distributed values need to be added.
2. Now every process needs to compute $x_i - \mu$ for its value x_i , so μ is needed everywhere. You can compute this by doing a reduction followed by a broadcast, but it is better to use a so-called *allreduce* operation, which does the reduction and leaves the result on all processors.
3. The calculation of $\sum_i(x_i - \mu)$ is another sum of distributed data, so we need another reduction operation. Depending on whether each process needs to know σ , we can again use an allreduce.

3.1.2 Synchronization

Collectives are operations that involve all processes in a communicator. A collective is a single call, and it blocks on all processors, meaning that a process calling a collective cannot proceed until the other processes have similarly called the collective.

That does not mean that all processors exit the call at the same time: because of implementational details and network latency they need not be synchronized in their execution. However, semantically we can say that a process can not finish a collective until every other process has at least started the collective.

In addition to these collective operations, there are operations that are said to be ‘collective on their communicator’, but which do not involve data movement. Collective then means that all processors must call this routine; not to do so is an error that will manifest itself in ‘hanging’ code. One such example is [MPI_File_open](#).

3.1.3 Collectives in MPI

We will now explain the MPI collectives in the following order.

Allreduce We use the allreduce as an introduction to the concepts behind collectives; section 3.2. As explained above, this routines serves many practical scenarios.

Broadcast and reduce We then introduce the concept of a root in the reduce (section 3.3.1) and broadcast (section 3.3.3) collectives.

- Sometimes you want a reduction with partial results, where each processor computes the sum (or other operation) on the values of lower-numbered processors. For this, you use a *scan* collective (section 3.4).

Gather and scatter The gather/scatter collectives deal with more than a single data item; section 3.5.

There are more collectives or variants on the above.

- If every processor needs to broadcast to every other, you use an *all-to-all* operation (section 3.6).
- The reduce-scatter is a lesser known combination of collectives; section 3.7.
- A barrier is an operation that makes all processes wait until every process has reached the barrier (section 3.8).

Figure 3.1 MPI_Allreduce

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
<code>MPI_Allreduce</code>					
<code>MPI_Allreduce_c</code>					
<code>sendbuf</code>		starting address of send buffer	<code>const void*</code>	<code>TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)</code>	IN
<code>recvbuf</code>		starting address of receive buffer	<code>void*</code>	<code>TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)</code>	OUT
<code>count</code>		number of elements in send buffer	<code>[int MPI_Count]</code>	<code>INTEGER</code>	IN
<code>datatype</code>		datatype of elements of send buffer	<code>MPI_Datatype</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Datatype)</code>	IN
<code>op</code>		operation	<code>MPI_Op</code>	<code>TYPE(MPI_Op)</code>	IN
<code>comm</code>		communicator	<code>MPI_Comm</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Comm)</code>	IN
)			

MPL:

```
template<typename T , typename F >
void mpl::communicator::allreduce
( F,const T &, T & ) const;
( F,const T *, T *,
  const contiguous_layout< T > & ) const;
( F,T & ) const;
( F,T *, const contiguous_layout< T > & ) const;
F : reduction function
T : type
```

Python:

`MPI.Comm.Allreduce(self, sendbuf, recvbuf, Op op=SUM)`

- If you want to gather or scatter information, but the contribution of each processor is of a different size, there are ‘variable’ collectives; they have a v in the name (section 3.9).

Finally, there are some advanced topics in collectives.

- User-defined reduction operators; section 3.10.2.
- Nonblocking collectives; section 3.11.
- We briefly discuss performance aspects of collectives in section 3.12.
- We discuss synchronization aspects in section 3.13.

3.2 Reduction

3.2.1 Reduce to all

Above we saw a couple of scenarios where a quantity is reduced, with all processes getting the result. The MPI call for this is `MPI_Allreduce` (figure 3.1).

Example: we give each process a random number, and sum these numbers together. The result should be approximately 1/2 times the number of processes.

3. MPI topic: Collectives

```
// allreduce.c
float myrandom,sumrandom;
myrandom = (float) rand()/(float)RAND_MAX;
// add the random variables together
MPI_Allreduce(&myrandom,&sumrandom,
              1,MPI_FLOAT,MPI_SUM,comm);
// the result should be approx nprocs/2:
if (procno==nprocs-1)
    printf("Result %.6f compared to %.6f\n",sumrandom/nprocs);
```

For the full source of this example, see section [3.16.2](#)

Or:

```
MPI_Count bufsize = 1000;
double *indata,*outdata;
indata = (double*) malloc( bufsize*sizeof(double) );
outdata = (double*) malloc( bufsize*sizeof(double) );
MPI_Allreduce_c(indata,outdata,bufsize,MPI_DOUBLE,MPI_SUM,MPI_COMM_WORLD);
```

3.2.1.1 Buffer description

This is the first example in this course that involves MPI data buffers: the `MPI_Allreduce` call contains two buffer arguments. In most MPI calls (with the one-sided ones as big exception) a buffer is described by three parameters:

1. a pointer to the data,
2. the number of items in the buffer, and
3. the datatype of the items in the buffer.

Each of these needs some elucidation.

1. The buffer specification depends on the programming languages. Details are in section [3.2.4](#).
2. The count was a 4-byte integer in MPI standard up to and including MPI-3. In the MPI-4 standard the `MPI_Count` data type became allowed. See section [6.4](#) for details.
3. Datatypes can be elementary, as in the above example, or user-defined. See chapter [6](#) for details.

Remark 5 *Routines with both a send and receive buffer should not alias these. Instead, see the discussion of `MPI_IN_PLACE`; section [3.3.2](#).*

3.2.1.2 Examples and exercises

Exercise 3.2. Let each process compute a random number, and compute the sum of these numbers using the `MPI_Allreduce` routine.

$$\xi = \sum_i x_i$$

Each process then scales its value by this sum.

$$x'_i \leftarrow x_i / \xi$$

Compute the sum of the scaled numbers

$$\xi' = \sum_i x'_i$$

and check that it is 1.

(There is a skeleton for this exercise under the name `randommax`.)

Solution to exercise 3.2. *The first sum needs to be done with an ‘allreduce’. The result of the second sum is only needed on one processor (the one that performs the check) so it can be done with a rooted reduction, but using an ‘allreduce’ is just as valid.*

Exercise 3.3. Implement a (very simple-minded) Fourier transform: if f is a function on the interval $[0, 1]$, then the n -th Fourier coefficient is

$$f_n \hat{=} \int_0^1 f(t)e^{-2\pi x} dx$$

which we approximate by

$$f_n \hat{=} \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} f(ih)e^{-in\pi/N}$$

- Make one distributed array for the e^{-inh} coefficients,
- make one distributed array for the $f(ih)$ values
- calculate a couple of coefficients

Exercise 3.4. In the previous exercise you worked with a distributed array, computing a local quantity and combining that into a global quantity. Why is it not a good idea to gather the whole distributed array on a single processor, and do all the computation locally?

Solution to exercise 3.4. *One assumption behind distributed arrays is that the global size may not fit on a single processor. Secondly, this approach does not scale.*

MPL note 9: Reduction operator. The usual reduction operators are given as templated operators:

```

float
xrank = static_cast<float>(<comm_world.rank()>,
xreduce;
// separate recv buffer
comm_world.allreduce<mpl::plus<float>>(), xrank, xreduce);
// in place
comm_world.allreduce<mpl::plus<float>>(), xrank);

```

For the full source of this example, see section 3.16.3

Note the parentheses after the operator. Also note that the operator comes first, not last.

MPL implementation note: The reduction operator has to be compatible with $T(T, T)>$

For more about operators, see section 3.10.

3.2.2 Inner product as allreduce

One of the more common applications of the reduction operation is the *inner product* computation. Typically, you have two vectors x, y that have the same distribution, that is, where all processes store equal parts of x and y . The computation is then

```
|| local_inprod = 0;
  for (i=0; i<localsize; i++)
    local_inprod += x[i]*y[i];
  MPI_Allreduce( &local_inprod, &global_inprod, 1,MPI_DOUBLE ... )
```

Exercise 3.5. The *Gram-Schmidt* method is a simple way to orthogonalize two vectors:

$$u \leftarrow u - (u^t v)/(u^t u)$$

Implement this, and check that the result is indeed orthogonal.

Suggestion: fill v with the values $\sin 2nh\pi$ where $n = 2\pi/N$, and u with $\sin 2nh\pi + \sin 4nh\pi$. What does u become after orthogonalization?

3.2.3 Reduction operations

Several `MPI_Op` values are pre-defined. For the list, see section 3.10.1.

For use in reductions and scans it is possible to define your own operator.

```
|| MPI_Op_create( MPI_User_function *func, int commute, MPI_Op *op);
```

For more details, see section 3.10.2.

3.2.4 Data buffers

Collectives are the first example you see of MPI routines that involve transfer of user data. Here, and in every other case, you see that the data description involves:

- A buffer. This can be a scalar or an array.
- A datatype. This describes whether the buffer contains integers, single/double floating point numbers, or more complicated types, to be discussed later.
- A count. This states how many of the elements of the given datatype are in the send buffer, or will be received into the receive buffer.

These three together describe what MPI needs to send through the network.

In the various languages such a buffer/count/datatype triplet is specified in different ways.

First of all, in C the *buffer* is always an *opaque handle*, that is, a `void*` parameter to which you supply an address. This means that an MPI call can take two forms.

For scalars we need to use the ampersand operator to take the address:

```
|| float x,y;
  MPI_Allreduce( &x,&y,1,MPI_FLOAT, ... );
```

But for arrays we use the fact that arrays and addresses are more-or-less equivalent in:

```
|| float xx[2],yy[2];
|| MPI_Allreduce( xx,yy,2,MPI_FLOAT, ... );
```

You could *cast* the buffers and write:

```
|| MPI_Allreduce( (void*)&xx,(void*)&y,1,MPI_FLOAT, ... );
|| MPI_Allreduce( (void*)xx,(void*)yy,2,MPI_FLOAT, ... );
```

but that is not necessary. The compiler will not complain if you leave out the cast.

C++ note 1: Buffer treatment. Treatment of scalars in C++ is the same as in C. However, for arrays you have the choice between C-style arrays, and `std::vector` or `std::array`. For the latter there are two ways of dealing with buffers:

```
|| vector<float> xx(25);
|| MPI_Send( xx.data(),25,MPI_FLOAT, .... );
|| MPI_Send( &xx[0],25,MPI_FLOAT, .... );
```

Fortran note 5: MPI send/recv buffers. In Fortran parameters are always passed by reference, so the *buffer* is treated the same way:

```
|| Real*4 :: x
|| Real*4,dimension(2) :: xx
|| call MPI_Allreduce( x,1,MPI_REAL4, ... )
|| call MPI_Allreduce( xx,2,MPI_REAL4, ... )
```

In discussing OO languages, we first note that the official C++ API has been removed from the standard. Specification of the buffer/count/datatype triplet is not needed explicitly in OO languages.

Python note 7: Buffers from numpy. Most MPI routines in Python have both a variant that can send arbitrary Python data, and one that is based on `numpy` arrays. The former looks the most ‘pythonic’, and is very flexible, but is usually demonstrably inefficient.

```
|| ## allreduce.py
|| random_number = random.randint(1,random_bound)
|| # native mode send
|| max_random = comm.allreduce(random_number,op=MPI.MAX)
```

For the full source of this example, see section [3.16.4](#)

In the numpy variant, all *buffers* are `numpy` objects, which carry information about their type and size. For scalar reductions this means we have to create an array for the receive buffer, even though only one element is used.

```
|| myrandom = np.empty(1,dtype=int)
|| myrandom[0] = random_number
|| allrandom = np.empty(nprocs,dtype=int)
|| # numpy mode send
|| comm.Allreduce(myrandom,allrandom[:1],op=MPI.MAX)
```

3. MPI topic: Collectives

For the full source of this example, see section [3.16.4](#)

Python note 8: Buffers from subarrays. In many examples you will pass a whole Numpy array as send/receive buffer. Should want to use a buffer that corresponds to a subset of an array, you can use the following notation:

```
|| MPI_Whatever( buffer[...,5] # more stuff
```

for passing the buffer that starts at location 5 of the array.

For even more complicated effects, use `numpy.frombuffer`:

Code:

```
## bcastcolumn.py
datatype = np.intc
elementszie = datatype().itemsize
typechar = datatype().dtype.char
buffer = np.zeros( [nprocs,nprocs], dtype=datatype)
buffer[:,:] = -1
for proc in range(nprocs):
    if procid==proc:
        buffer[proc,:] = proc
comm.Bcast(
    ( [ np.frombuffer \
        ( buffer.data,
          dtype=datatype,
          offset=(proc*nprocs+proc)*elementszie ),
          nprocs-proc, typechar ],
        root=proc )
```

Output:

```
int size: 4
i
[[ 0  0  0  0  0  0]
 [-1  1  1  1  1  1]
 [-1 -1  2  2  2  2]
 [-1 -1 -1  3  3  3]
 [-1 -1 -1 -1  4  4]
 [ 5  5  5  5  5  5]]
```

MPL note 10: Scalar buffers. Buffer type handling is done through polymorphism and templating: no explicit indiation of types.

Scalars are handled as such:

```
|| float x,y;
|| comm.bcast( 0,x ); // note: root first
|| comm.allreduce( mpl::plus<float>(), x,y ); // op first
```

where the reduction function needs to be compatible with the type of the buffer.

MPL note 11: Vector buffers. If your buffer is a `std::vector` you need to take the `.data()` component of it:

```
|| vector<float> xx(2),yy(2);
|| comm.allreduce( mpl::plus<float>(),
||                 xx.data(), yy.data(), mpl::contiguous_layout<float>(2) );
```

The `contiguous_layout` is a ‘derived type’; this will be discussed in more detail elsewhere (see note [42](#) and later). For now, interpret it as a way of indicating the count/type part of a buffer specification.

MPL note 12: Iterator buffers. MPL point-to-point routines have a way of specifying the buffer(s) through a `begin` and `end` iterator.

```
// sendrange.cxx
vector<double> v(15);
comm_world.send(v.begin(), v.end(), 1); // send to rank 1
comm_world.recv(v.begin(), v.end(), 0); // receive from rank 0
```

For the full source of this example, see section 4.5.6

Not available for collectives.

3.3 Rooted collectives: broadcast, reduce

In some scenarios there is a certain process that has a privileged status.

- One process can generate or read in the initial data for a program run. This then needs to be communicated to all other processes.
- At the end of a program run, often one process needs to output some summary information.

This process is called the *root* process, and we will now consider routines that have a root.

3.3.1 Reduce to a root

In the broadcast operation a single data item was communicated to all processes. A reduction operation with `MPI_Reduce` (figure 3.2) goes the other way: each process has a data item, and these are all brought together into a single item.

Here are the essential elements of a reduction operation:

```
MPI_Reduce( senddata, recvdata..., operator,
            root, comm );
```

- There is the original data, and the data resulting from the reduction. It is a design decision of MPI that it will not by default overwrite the original data. The send data and receive data are of the same size and type: if every processor has one real number, the reduced result is again one real number.
- It is possible to indicate explicitly that a single buffer is used, and thereby the original data overwritten; see section 3.3.2 for this ‘in place’ mode.
- There is a reduction operator. Popular choices are `MPI_SUM`, `MPI_PROD` and `MPI_MAX`, but complicated operators such as finding the location of the maximum value exist. (For the full list, see section 3.10.1.) You can also define your own operators; section 3.10.2.
- There is a root process that receives the result of the reduction. Since the nonroot processes do not receive the reduced data, they can actually leave the receive buffer undefined.

```
// reduce.c
float myrandom = (float) rand()/(float)RAND_MAX,
      result;
int target_proc = nprocs-1;
// add all the random variables together
MPI_Reduce(&myrandom,&result,1,MPI_FLOAT,MPI_SUM,
           target_proc,comm);
// the result should be approx nprocs/2:
```

3. MPI topic: Collectives

Figure 3.2 MPI_Reduce

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Reduce					
	MPI_Reduce_c				
	sendbuf	address of send buffer	const void*	TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)	IN
	recvbuf	address of receive buffer	void*	TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)	OUT
	count	number of elements in send buffer	[int MPI_Count]	INTEGER	IN
	datatype	datatype of elements of send buffer	MPI_Datatype	TYPE (MPI_Datatype)	IN
	op	reduce operation	MPI_Op	TYPE(MPI_Op)	IN
	root	rank of root process	int	INTEGER	IN
	comm	communicator	MPI_Comm	TYPE (MPI_Comm)	IN
)					

MPL:

```
void mpl::communicator::reduce
    // root, in place
    ( F f,int root_rank,T & sendrecvdata ) const
    ( F f,int root_rank,T * sendrecvdata,const contiguous_layout< T > & l ) const
    // non-root
    ( F f,int root_rank,const T & senddata ) const
    ( F f,int root_rank,
        const T * senddata,const contiguous_layout< T > & l ) const
    // general
    ( F f,int root_rank,const T & senddata,T & recvdata ) const
    ( F f,int root_rank,
        const T * senddata,T * recvdata,const contiguous_layout< T > & l ) const
```

Python:

```
comm.Reduce(self, sendbuf, recvbuf, Op op=SUM, int root=0)
native:
comm.reduce(self, sendobj=None, recvobj=None, op=SUM, int root=0)
```

```
if (procno==target_proc)
    printf("Result %6.3f compared to nprocs/2=%5.2f\n",
           result,nprocs/2.);
```

For the full source of this example, see section 3.16.6

Exercise 3.6. Write a program where each process computes a random number, and process 0 finds and prints the maximum generated value. Let each process print its value, just to check the correctness of your program.

Collective operations can also take an array argument, instead of just a scalar. In that case, the operation is applied pointwise to each location in the array.

Exercise 3.7. Create on each process an array of length 2 integers, and put the values 1, 2 in

it on each process. Do a sum reduction on that array. Can you predict what the result should be? Code it. Was your prediction right?

3.3.2 Reduce in place

By default MPI will not overwrite the original data with the reduction result, but you can tell it to do so using the `MPI_IN_PLACE` specifier:

```
// allreduceinplace.c
for (int irand=0; irand<nrandoms; irand++)
    myrandoms[irand] = (float) rand()/(float)RAND_MAX;
// add all the random variables together
MPI_Allreduce(MPI_IN_PLACE,myrandoms,
              nrandoms,MPI_FLOAT,MPI_SUM,comm);
```

For the full source of this example, see section 3.16.7

Now every process only has a receive buffer, so this has the advantage of saving half the memory. Each process puts its input values in the receive buffer, and these are overwritten by the reduced result.

The above example used `MPI_IN_PLACE` in `MPI_Allreduce`; in `MPI_Reduce` it's little tricky. The reasoning is a follows:

- In `MPI_Reduce` every process has a buffer to contribute, but only the root needs a receive buffer. Therefore, `MPI_IN_PLACE` takes the place of the receive buffer on any processor except for the root ...
- ... while the root, which needs a receive buffer, has `MPI_IN_PLACE` takes the place of the send buffer. In order to contribute its value, the root needs to put this in the receive buffer.

Here is one way you could write the in-place version of `MPI_Reduce`:

```
if (procno==root)
    MPI_Reduce(MPI_IN_PLACE,myrandoms,
               nrandoms,MPI_FLOAT,MPI_SUM,root,comm);
else
    MPI_Reduce(myrandoms,MPI_IN_PLACE,
               nrandoms,MPI_FLOAT,MPI_SUM,root,comm);
```

For the full source of this example, see section 3.16.7

However, as a point of style, having different versions of a collective in different branches of a condition is infelicitous. The following may be preferable:

```
float *sendbuf,*recvbuf;
if (procno==root) {
    sendbuf = MPI_IN_PLACE; recvbuf = myrandoms;
} else {
    sendbuf = myrandoms; recvbuf = MPI_IN_PLACE;
}
MPI_Reduce(sendbuf,recvbuf,
           nrandoms,MPI_FLOAT,MPI_SUM,root,comm);
```

For the full source of this example, see section 3.16.7

In Fortran you can not do these address calculations. You can use the solution with a conditional:

3. MPI topic: Collectives

```
!! reduceinplace.F90
call random_number(mynumber)
target_proc = ntids-1;
! add all the random variables together
if (mytid.eq.target_proc) then
    result = mytid
    call MPI_Reduce(MPI_IN_PLACE,result,1,MPI_REAL,MPI_SUM,&
                    target_proc,comm)
else
    mynumber = mytid
    call MPI_Reduce(mynumber,result,1,MPI_REAL,MPI_SUM,&
                    target_proc,comm)
end if
```

For the full source of this example, see section [3.16.8](#)

but you can also solve this with pointers:

```
!! reduceinplaceptr.F90
in_place_val = MPI_IN_PLACE
if (mytid.eq.target_proc) then
    ! set pointers
    result_ptr => result
    mynumber_ptr => in_place_val
    ! target sets value in receive buffer
    result_ptr = mytid
else
    ! set pointers
    mynumber_ptr => mynumber
    result_ptr => in_place_val
    ! non-targets set value in send buffer
    mynumber_ptr = mytid
end if
call MPI_Reduce(mynumber_ptr,result_ptr,1,MPI_REAL,MPI_SUM,&
                target_proc,comm,err)
```

For the full source of this example, see section [3.16.9](#)

Python note 9: In-place collectives. The value `MPI.IN_PLACE` can be used for the send buffer:

```
## allreduceinplace.py
myrandom = np.empty(1,dtype=int)
myrandom[0] = random_number

comm.Allreduce(MPI.IN_PLACE,myrandom,op=MPI.MAX)
```

For the full source of this example, see section [3.16.10](#)

MPL note 13: Reduce in place. The in-place variant is activated by specifying only one instead of two buffer arguments.

```
float
xrank = static_cast<float>( comm_world.rank() ),
xreduce;
// separate recv buffer
comm_world.allreduce(mpl::plus<float>(), xrank,xreduce);
```

```
// in place
comm_world.allreduce(mpl::plus<float>(), xrank);
```

For the full source of this example, see section [3.16.3](#)

Reducing a buffer requires specification of a `contiguous_layout`:

```
// collectbuffer.cxx
float
xrank = static_cast<float>( comm_world.rank() );
vector<float> rank2p2p1{ 2*xrank, 2*xrank+1 }, reduce2p2p1{0,0};
mpl::contiguous_layout<float> two_floats(rank2p2p1.size());
comm_world.allreduce
( mpl::plus<float>(), rank2p2p1.data(), reduce2p2p1.data(), two_floats );
if ( iprint )
cout << "Got: " << reduce2p2p1.at(0) << ","
<< reduce2p2p1.at(1) << endl;
```

For the full source of this example, see section [3.16.11](#)

Note that the buffers are of type `T *`, so it is necessary to take the `data()` of any `std::vector` and such.

MPL note 14: Reduce on non-root. There is a separate variant for non-root usage of rooted collectives:

```
// scangather.cxx
if (procno==0) {
    comm_world.reduce
    ( mpl::plus<int>(), 0,
      my_number_of_elements, total_number_of_elements );
} else {
    comm_world.reduce
    ( mpl::plus<int>(), 0, my_number_of_elements );
}
```

3.3.3 Broadcast

A broadcast models the scenario where one process, the ‘root’ process, owns some data, and it communicates it to all other processes.

The broadcast routine `MPI_Bcast` (figure 3.3) has the following structure:

```
|| MPI_Bcast( data..., root , comm);
```

Here:

- There is only one buffer, the send buffer. Before the call, the root process has data in this buffer; the other processes allocate a same sized buffer, but for them the contents are irrelevant.
- The root is the process that is sending its data. Typically, it will be the root of a broadcast tree.

Example: in general we can not assume that all processes get the commandline arguments, so we broadcast them from process 0.

3. MPI topic: Collectives

Figure 3.3 MPI_Bcast

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Bcast (
MPI_Bcast_c (
buffer	starting address of buffer		void*	TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)	INOUT
count	number of entries in buffer		[int MPI_Count]	INTEGER	IN
datatype	datatype of buffer		MPI_Datatype	TYPE (MPI_Datatype)	IN
root	rank of broadcast root		int	INTEGER	IN
comm	communicator		MPI_Comm	TYPE (MPI_Comm)	IN
)					

MPL:

```
template<typename T >
void mpl::communicator::bcast
( int root, T & data ) const
( int root, T * data, const layout< T > & l ) const
```

Python:

```
MPI.Comm.Bcast(self, buf, int root=0)
```

```
// init.c
if (procno==0) {
  if ( argc==1 || // the program is called without parameter
      ( argc>1 && !strcmp(argv[1],"-h") ) // user asked for help
    ) {
    printf("\nUsage: init [0-9]+\n");
    MPI_Abort(comm,1);
  }
  input_argument = atoi(argv[1]);
}
MPI_Bcast(&input_argument,1,MPI_INT,0,comm);
```

For the full source of this example, see section 3.16.12

Python note 10: Sending objects. In python it is both possible to send objects, and to send more C-like buffers. The two possibilities correspond (see section 1.5.4) to different routine names; the buffers have to be created as numpy objects.

We illustrate both the general Python and numpy variants. In the former variant the result is given as a function return; in the numpy variant the send buffer is reused.

```
## bcast.py
# first native
if procid==root:
  buffer = [ 5.0 ] * dszie
else:
  buffer = [ 0.0 ] * dszie
buffer = comm.bcast(obj=buffer,root=root)
```

```

if not reduce( lambda x,y:x and y,
               [ buffer[i]==5.0 for i in range(len(buffer)) ] ):
    print( "Something wrong on proc %d: native buffer <<%s>>" \
          % (procid,str(buffer)) )

# then with NumPy
buffer = np.arange(dsize, dtype=np.float64)
if procid==root:
    for i in range(dsize):
        buffer[i] = 5.0
comm.Bcast( buffer,root=root )
if not all( buffer==5.0 ):
    print( "Something wrong on proc %d: numpy buffer <<%s>>" \
          % (procid,str(buffer)) )
else:
    if procid==root:
        print("Success.")

```

For the full source of this example, see section [3.16.13](#)

MPL note 15: Broadcast. The broadcast call comes in two variants, with scalar argument and general layout:

```

template<typename T >
void mpl::communicator::bcast
( int root_rank, T &data ) const;
void mpl::communicator::bcast
( int root_rank, T *data, const layout< T > &l ) const;

```

Note that the root argument comes first.

For the following exercise, study figure [3.2](#).

Exercise 3.8. The *Gauss-Jordan algorithm* for solving a linear system with a matrix A (or computing its inverse) runs as follows:

for pivot $k = 1, \dots, n$

let the vector of scalings $\ell_i^{(k)} = A_{ik}/A_{kk}$

for row $r \neq k$

for column $c = 1, \dots, n$

$A_{rc} \leftarrow A_{rc} - \ell_r^{(k)} A_{kc}$

where we ignore the update of the righthand side, or the formation of the inverse. Let a matrix be distributed with each process storing one column. Implement the Gauss-Jordan algorithm as a series of broadcasts: in iteration k process k computes and broadcasts the scaling vector $\{\ell_i^{(k)}\}_i$. Replicate the right-hand side on all processors.

(There is a skeleton for this exercise under the name `jordan`.)

Solution to exercise 3.8. *The trick is that in the k step the broadcast has process k as root.*

Exercise 3.9. Add partial pivoting to your implementation of Gauss-Jordan elimination.

3. MPI topic: Collectives

Initial:

matrix	sol	rhs	action
2 2 13	1	17	
4 5 32	1	41	
-2 -3 -16	1	-21	

Step 1:

matrix	sol	rhs	action
2 2 13	1	17	take this row
4 5 32	1	41	
-2 -3 -16	1	-21	

Step 2:

matrix	sol	rhs	action
2 2 13	1	17	take this row
↓ ↓ ↓			
4 5 32	1	41	minus ×2
-2 -3 -16	1	-21	

Step 3:

matrix	sol	rhs	action
2 2 13	1	17	take this row
0 1 6	1	7	
-2 -3 -16	1	-21	

Step 4:

matrix	sol	rhs	action
2 2 13	1	17	take this row
↑↑↑			
0 1 6	1	7	
-2 -3 -16	1	-21	plus ×1

Step 5:

matrix	sol	rhs	action
2 2 13	1	17	take this row
0 1 6	1	7	
0 -1 -3	1	-4	

Step 6:

matrix	sol	rhs	action
2 2 13	1	17	first column done
0 1 6	1	7	
0 -1 -3	1	-4	

Step 7:

matrix	sol	rhs	action
2 2 13	1	17	
0 1 6	1	7	take this row
0 -1 -3	1	-4	

Step 14:

matrix	sol	rhs	action
2 0 1	1	3	minus ×1/3
0 1 6	1	7	
0 0 3	1	3	take this row

Step 8:

matrix	sol	rhs	action
2 2 13	1	17	minus ×2
↑↑↑			
0 1 6	1	7	take this row
0 -1 -3	1	-4	

Step 15:

matrix	sol	rhs	action
2 0 0	1	2	
0 1 6	1	7	
0 0 3	1	3	take this row

Step 9:

matrix	sol	rhs	action
2 0 1	1	3	
0 1 6	1	7	take this row
0 -1 -3	1	-4	

Step 16:

matrix	sol	rhs	action
2 0 0	1	2	
0 1 6	1	7	minus ×2
↑↑↑			
0 0 3	1	3	take this row

Step 10:

matrix	sol	rhs	action
2 0 1	1	3	
0 1 6	1	7	take this row
0 -1 -3	1	-4	plus ×1

Step 11:

matrix	sol	rhs	action
2 0 1	1	3	
0 1 6	1	7	
0 0 3	1	3	

Step 17:

matrix	sol	rhs	action
2 0 0	1	2	
0 1 0	1	1	
0 0 3	1	3	take this row

Step 12:

matrix	sol	rhs	action
2 0 1	1	3	
0 1 6	1	7	
0 0 3	1	3	

Step 13:

matrix	sol	rhs	action
2 0 1	1	3	
0 1 6	1	7	
0 0 3	1	3	

Finished:

matrix	sol	rhs	action
2 0 0	1	2	
0 1 0	1	1	
0 0 3	1	3	

Figure 3.2: Gauss-Jordan elimination example

Figure 3.4 MPI_Scan

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Scan (
MPI_Scan_c (
sendbuf		starting address of send buffer	const void*	TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)	IN
recvbuf		starting address of receive buffer	void*	TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)	OUT
count		number of elements in input buffer	[int MPI_Count]	INTEGER	IN
datatype		datatype of elements of input buffer	MPI_Datatype	TYPE (MPI_Datatype)	IN
op		operation	MPI_Op	TYPE(MPI_Op)	IN
comm		communicator	MPI_Comm	TYPE (MPI_Comm)	IN
)					

MPL:

```
template<typename T , typename F >
void mpl::communicator::scan
( F,const T &, T & ) const;
( F,const T *, T *,
  const contiguous_layout< T > & ) const;
( F,T & ) const;
( F,T *, const contiguous_layout< T > & ) const;
```

F : reduction function
T : type

Python:

```
res = Intracomm.scan( sendobj=None,recvobj=None,op=MPI.SUM)
```

Change your implementation to let each processor store multiple columns, but still do one broadcast per column. Is there a way to have only one broadcast per processor?

3.4 Scan operations

The `MPI_Scan` operation also performs a reduction, but it keeps the partial results. That is, if processor i contains a number x_i , and \oplus is an operator, then the scan operation leaves $x_0 \oplus \dots \oplus x_i$ on processor i . This type of operation is often called a *prefix operation*; see HPC book, section-27.

The `MPI_Scan` (figure 3.4) routine is an *inclusive scan* operation, meaning that it includes the data on the process itself; `MPI_Exscan` (see section 3.4.1) is exclusive, and does not include the data on the calling process.

process :	0	1	2	\cdots	$p - 1$
data :	x_0	x_1	x_2	\cdots	x_{p-1}
inclusive :	x_0	$x_0 \oplus x_1$	$x_0 \oplus x_1 \oplus x_2$	\cdots	$\oplus_{i=0}^{p-1} x_i$
exclusive :	unchanged	x_0	$x_0 \oplus x_1$	\cdots	$\oplus_{i=0}^{p-2} x_i$

```
// scan.c
// add all the random variables together
MPI_Scan(&myrandom,&result,1,MPI_FLOAT,MPI_SUM,comm);
// the result should be approaching nprocs/2:
if (procno==nprocs-1)
    printf("Result %6.3f compared to nprocs/2=%5.2f\n",
           result,nprocs/2.);
```

For the full source of this example, see section [3.16.14](#)

In python mode the result is a function return value, with numpy the result is passed as the second parameter.

```
## scan.py
mycontrib = 10+random.randint(1,nprocs)
myfirst = 0
mypartial = comm.scan(mycontrib)
sbuf = np.empty(1,dtype=int)
rbuf = np.empty(1,dtype=int)
sbuf[0] = mycontrib
comm.Scan(sbuf,rbuf)
```

For the full source of this example, see section [3.16.15](#)

You can use any of the given reduction operators, (for the list, see section [3.10.1](#)), or a user-defined one. In the latter case, the `MPI_Op` operations do not return an error code.

MPL note 16: Scan operations. As in the C/F interfaces, MPL interfaces to the scan routines have the same calling sequences as the ‘Allreduce’ routine.

3.4.1 Exclusive scan

Often, the more useful variant is the *exclusive scan* `MPI_Exscan` (figure 3.5) with the same signature.

The result of the exclusive scan is undefined on processor 0 (None in python), and on processor 1 it is a copy of the send value of processor 1. In particular, the `MPI_Op` need not be called on these two processors.

Exercise 3.10. The exclusive definition, which computes $x_0 \oplus x_{i-1}$ on processor i , can be derived from the inclusive operation for operations such as `MPI_SUM` or `MPI_PROD`. Are there operators where that is not the case?

Solution to exercise 3.10. *This is not the case for `MPI_MIN` or `MPI_MAX`.*

Figure 3.5 MPI_Exscan

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
<code>MPI_Exscan (</code>					
<code> MPI_Exscan_c (</code>					
<code>sendbuf</code>		starting address of send buffer	const void*	TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)	IN
<code>recvbuf</code>		starting address of receive buffer	void*	TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)	OUT
<code>count</code>		number of elements in input buffer	[int MPI_Count]	INTEGER	IN
<code>datatype</code>		datatype of elements of input buffer	MPI_Datatype	TYPE (MPI_Datatype)	IN
<code>op</code>		operation	MPI_Op	TYPE(MPI_Op)	IN
<code>comm</code>		intra-communicator	MPI_Comm	TYPE (MPI_Comm)	IN
<code>)</code>					

MPL:

```
template<typename T , typename F >
void mpl::communicator::exscan
( F,const T &, T & ) const;
( F,const T *, T *,
  const contiguous_layout< T > & ) const;
( F,T & ) const;
( F,T *, const contiguous_layout< T > & ) const;
```

F : reduction function
T : type

Python:

```
res = Intracomm.exscan( sendobj=None,recvobj=None,op=MPI.SUM)
```

3.4.2 Use of scan operations

The `MPI_Scan` operation is often useful with indexing data. Suppose that every processor p has a local vector where the number of elements n_p is dynamically determined. In order to translate the local numbering $0 \dots n_p - 1$ to a global numbering one does a scan with the number of local elements as input. The output is then the global number of the first local variable.

As an example, setting *Fast Fourier Transform (FFT)* coefficients requires this translation. If the local sizes are all equal, determining the global index of the first element is an easy calculation. For the irregular case, we first do a scan:

```
// fft.c
MPI_Allreduce( &localsize,&globalsize,1,MPI_INT,MPI_SUM, comm );
globalsize += 1;
int myfirst=0;
MPI_Exscan( &localsize,&myfirst,1,MPI_INT,MPI_SUM, comm );

for (int i=0; i<localsize; i++)
  vector[i] = sin( pi*freq* (i+1+myfirst) / globalsize );
```



Figure 3.3: Local arrays that together form a consecutive range

Exercise 3.11.

- Let each process compute a random value n_{local} , and allocate an array of that length. Define

$$N = \sum n_{\text{local}}$$

- Fill the array with consecutive integers, so that all local arrays, laid end-to-end, contain the numbers $0 \dots N - 1$. (See figure 3.3.)

(There is a skeleton for this exercise under the name `scangather`.)

Solution to exercise 3.11.

```
// scangather.cxx
MPI_Exscan
(&my_number_of_elements, &my_first_index,
 1, MPI_INT, MPI_SUM, comm);

int total_number_of_elements;
vector<int> my_elements( my_number_of_elements );
for (int i_element=0; i_element<my_number_of_elements; i_element++)
    my_elements[i_element] = my_first_index+i_element;

MPI_Reduce( &my_number_of_elements, &total_number_of_elements,
 1, MPI_INT, MPI_SUM, 0, comm);

MPI_Gather
(
    &my_number_of_elements, 1, MPI_INT, size_buffer.data(), 1, MPI_INT, 0, comm
);
// where are they going to go in the big buffer?
vector<int> displ_buffer;
if (procno==0)
    displ_buffer = vector<int>( nprocs );
MPI_Gather
(
    &my_first_index, 1, MPI_INT, displ_buffer.data(), 1, MPI_INT, 0, comm
);
// now create the big buffer
vector<int> gather_buffer;
if (procno==0)
    gather_buffer = vector<int>( total_number_of_elements );
/*
 * Use Gatherv to collect the small buffers into a big one
 */
MPI_Gatherv
(
    my_elements.data(), my_number_of_elements, MPI_INT,
```

```

    ||| gather_buffer.data(), size_buffer.data(), displ_buffer.data(),
    ||| MPI_INT, 0, comm
    |||

```

Exercise 3.12. Did you use `MPI_Scan` or `MPI_Exscan` for the previous exercise? How would you describe the result of the other scan operation, given the same input?

It is possible to do a *segmented scan*. Let x_i be a series of numbers that we want to sum to X_i as follows. Let y_i be a series of booleans such that

$$\begin{cases} X_i = x_i & \text{if } y_i = 0 \\ X_i = X_{i-1} + x_i & \text{if } y_i = 1 \end{cases}$$

(This is the basis for the implementation of the *sparse matrix vector product* as prefix operation; see HPC book, section-27.2.) This means that X_i sums the segments between locations where $y_i = 0$ and the first subsequent place where $y_i = 1$. To implement this, you need a user-defined operator

$$\begin{pmatrix} X \\ x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} X_1 \\ x_1 \\ y_1 \end{pmatrix} \bigoplus \begin{pmatrix} X_2 \\ x_2 \\ y_2 \end{pmatrix} : \begin{cases} X = x_1 + x_2 & \text{if } y_2 == 1 \\ X = x_2 & \text{if } y_2 == 0 \end{cases}$$

This operator is not commutative, and it needs to be declared as such with `MPI_Op_create`; see section 3.10.2

3.5 Rooted collectives: gather and scatter

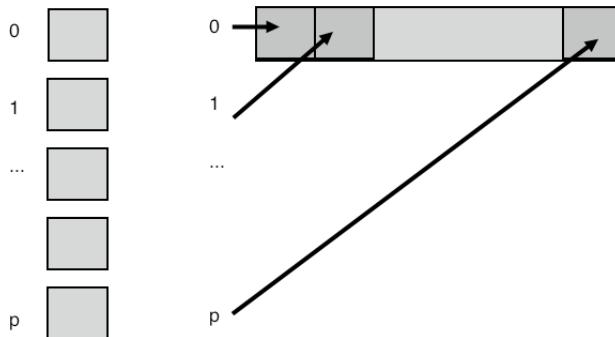


Figure 3.4: Gather collects all data onto a root

In the `MPI_Scatter` operation, the root spreads information to all other processes. The difference with a broadcast is that it involves individual information from/to every process. Thus, the gather operation typically has an array of items, one coming from each sending process, and scatter has an array, with an individual item for each receiving process; see figure 3.5.

These gather and scatter collectives have a different parameter list from the broadcast/reduce. The broadcast/reduce involves the same amount of data on each process, so it was enough to have a single datatype-/size specification; for one buffer in the broadcast, and for both buffers in the reduce call. In the gather/scatter calls you have

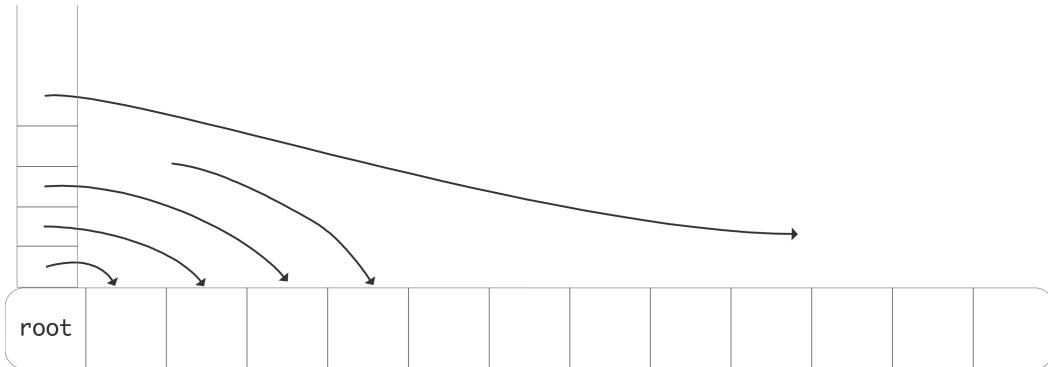


Figure 3.5: A scatter operation

- a large buffer on the root, with a datatype and size specification, and
- a smaller buffer on each process, with its own type and size specification.

In the gather and scatter calls, each processor has n elements of individual data. There is also a root processor that has an array of length np , where p is the number of processors. The gather call collects all this data from the processors to the root; the scatter call assumes that the information is initially on the root and it is spread to the individual processors.

Here is a small example:

```
// gather.c
// we assume that each process has a value "localsize"
// the root process collects these values

if (procno==root)
    localsizes = (int*) malloc( nprocs*sizeof(int) );

// everyone contributes their info
MPI_Gather(&localsize,1,MPI_INT,
           localsizes,1,MPI_INT,root,comm);
```

For the full source of this example, see section 3.16.16

This will also be the basis of a more elaborate example in section 3.9.

Exercise 3.13. Let each process compute a random number. You want to print the maximum value and on what processor it is computed. What collective(s) do you use? Write a short program.

Solution to exercise 3.13. *MPI_Gather or define a custom MPI_Op.*

The **MPI_Scatter** operation is in some sense the inverse of the gather: the root process has an array of length np where p is the number of processors and n the number of elements each processor will receive.

```
int MPI_Scatter
(void* sendbuf, int sendcount, MPI_Datatype sendtype,
 void* recvbuf, int recvcount, MPI_Datatype recvtype,
 int root, MPI_Comm comm)
```

Figure 3.6 MPI_Gather

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Gather (
MPI_Gather_c (
sendbuf	starting address of send buffer		const void*	TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)	IN
sendcount	number of elements in send buffer		[int MPI_Count]	INTEGER	IN
sendtype	datatype of send buffer elements		MPI_Datatype	TYPE (MPI_Datatype)	IN
recvbuf	address of receive buffer		void*	TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)	OUT
recvcount	number of elements for any single receive		[int MPI_Count]	INTEGER	IN
recvtype	datatype of recv buffer elements		MPI_Datatype	TYPE (MPI_Datatype)	IN
root	rank of receiving process		int	INTEGER	IN
comm	communicator		MPI_Comm	TYPE (MPI_Comm)	IN
)					

MPL:

```
void mpl::communicator::gather
( int root_rank, const T & senddata ) const
( int root_rank, const T & senddata, T * recvdata ) const
( int root_rank, const T * senddata, const layout< T > & sendl ) const
( int root_rank, const T * senddata, const layout< T > & sendl,
    T * recvdata, const layout< T > & recvl ) const
```

Python:

```
MPI.Comm.Gather
(self, sendbuf, recvbuf, int root=0)
```

Two things to note about these routines:

- The signature for **MPI_Gather** (figure 3.6) has two ‘count’ parameters, one for the length of the individual send buffers, and one for the receive buffer. However, confusingly, the second parameter (which is only relevant on the root) does not indicate the total amount of information coming in, but rather the size of *each* contribution. Thus, the two count parameters will usually be the same (at least on the root); they can differ if you use different **MPI_Datatype** values for the sending and receiving processors.
- While every process has a sendbuffer in the gather, and a receive buffer in the scatter call, only the root process needs the long array in which to gather, or from which to scatter. However, because in SPMD mode all processes need to use the same routine, a parameter for this long array is always present. Nonroot processes can use a *null pointer* here.
- More elegantly, the **MPI_IN_PLACE** option can be used for buffers that are not applicable, such as the receive buffer on a sending process. See section 3.3.2.

MPL note 17: Gather/scatter. Gathering (by **communicator::gather**) or scattering (by **communicator::scatter**)

a single scalar takes a scalar argument and a raw array:

```
//> vector<float> v;
//> float x;
//> comm_world.scatter(0, v.data(), x);
```

For the full source of this example, see section 3.16.11

If more than a single scalar is gathered, or scattered into, it becomes necessary to specify a layout:

```
//> vector<float> vrecv(2), vsend(2*nprocs);
//> mpl::contiguous_layout<float> twonums(2);
//> comm_world.scatter
//> (0, vsend.data(), twonums, vrecv.data(), twonums );
```

For the full source of this example, see section 3.16.11

MPL note 18: Gather on nonroot. Logically speaking, on every nonroot process, the gather call only has a send buffer. MPL supports this by having two variants that only specify the send data.

```
if (procno==0) {
    vector<int> size_buffer(nprocs);
    comm_world.gather
    (
        0, my_number_of_elements, size_buffer.data()
    );
} else {
    /*
     * If you are not the root, do versions with only send buffers
     */
    comm_world.gather
    ( 0, my_number_of_elements );
```

3.5.1 Examples

In some applications, each process computes a row or column of a matrix, but for some calculation (such as the determinant) it is more efficient to have the whole matrix on one process. You should of course only do this if this matrix is essentially smaller than the full problem, such as an interface system or the last coarsening level in multigrid.

Figure 3.6 pictures this. Note that conceptually we are gathering a two-dimensional object, but the buffer is of course one-dimensional. You will later see how this can be done more elegantly with the ‘subarray’ datatype; section 6.3.4.

Another thing you can do with a distributed matrix is to transpose it.

```
//> // itransposeblock.c
//> for (int iproc=0; iproc<nprocs; iproc++) {
//>     MPI_Scatter( regular, 1, MPI_DOUBLE,
//>                  &(transpose[iproc]), 1, MPI_DOUBLE,
//>                  iproc, comm );
//> }
```

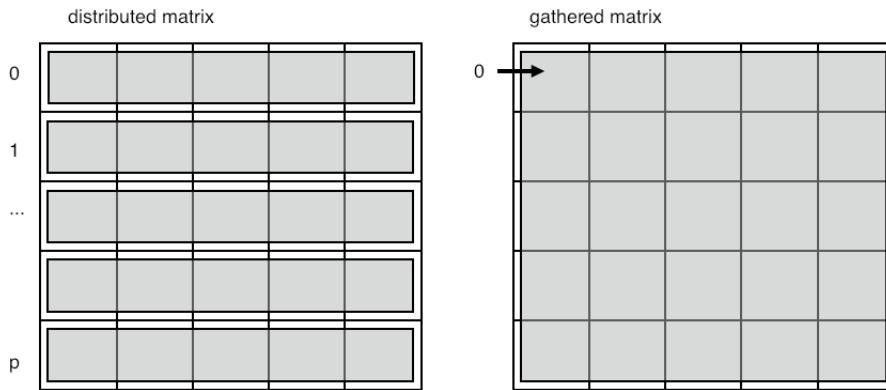


Figure 3.6: Gather a distributed matrix onto one process

For the full source of this example, see section 3.16.17

In this example, each process scatters its column. This needs to be done only once, yet the scatter happens in a loop. The trick here is that a process only originates the scatter when it is the root, which happens only once. Why do we need a loop? That is because each element of a process' row originates from a different scatter operation.

Exercise 3.14. Can you rewrite this code so that it uses a gather rather than a scatter? Does that change anything essential about structure of the code?

Exercise 3.15. Take the code from exercise 3.11 and extend it to gather all local buffers onto rank zero. Since the local arrays are of differing lengths, this requires `MPI_Gatherv`. How do you construct the lengths and displacements arrays?
(There is a skeleton for this exercise under the name `scangather`.)

3.5.2 Allgather

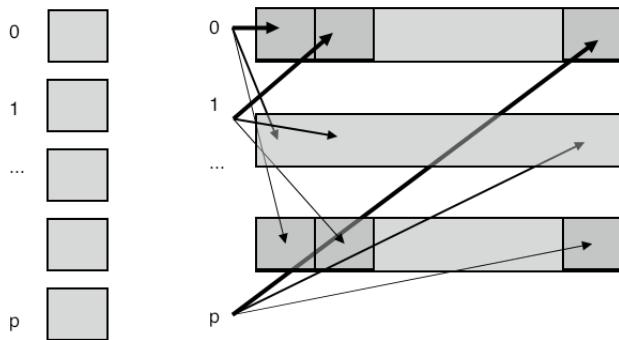


Figure 3.7: All gather collects all data onto every process

The `MPI_Allgather` (figure 3.7) routine does the same gather onto every process: each process winds up with the totality of all data; figure 3.7.

3. MPI topic: Collectives

Figure 3.7 MPI_Allgather

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
<code>MPI_Allgather (</code>					
<code> MPI_Allgather_c (</code>					
<code> sendbuf</code>	<code>starting address of send buffer</code>		<code>const void*</code>	<code>TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code> sendcount</code>	<code>number of elements in send buffer</code>		<code>[int MPI_Count]</code>	<code>INTEGER</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code> sendtype</code>	<code>datatype of send buffer elements</code>		<code>MPI_Datatype</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Datatype)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code> recvbuf</code>	<code>address of receive buffer</code>		<code>void*</code>	<code>TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)</code>	<code>OUT</code>
<code> recvcount</code>	<code>number of elements received from any process</code>		<code>[int MPI_Count]</code>	<code>INTEGER</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code> recvtype</code>	<code>datatype of receive buffer elements</code>		<code>MPI_Datatype</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Datatype)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code> comm</code>	<code>communicator</code>		<code>MPI_Comm</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Comm)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>)</code>					

This routine can be used in the simplest implementation of the *dense matrix-vector product* to give each processor the full input; see HPC book, section-6.2.2.

Some cases look like an all-gather but can be implemented more efficiently. Suppose you have two distributed vectors, and you want to create a new vector that contains those elements of the one that do not appear in the other. You could implement this by gathering the second vector on each processor, but this may be prohibitive in memory usage.

Exercise 3.16. Can you think of another algorithm for taking the set difference of two distributed vectors. Hint: look up *bucket brigade* algorithm; section 4.1.5. What is the time and space complexity of this algorithm? Can you think of other advantages beside a reduction in workspace?

Solution to exercise 3.16. *Algorithm: Each process sends its part of the second vector down the ring.*

On each process this gives a doubling of the (local) space for the second vector. The time is $\alpha P + \beta N$ where P is the number of processes and N is the global vector size.

This algorithm has potential overlap of communication and computation: use a loop with Probe calls and process data as soon as it comes in.

3.6 All-to-all

The all-to-all operation `MPI_Alltoall` (figure 3.8) can be seen as a collection of simultaneous broadcasts or simultaneous gathers. The parameter specification is much like an allgather, with a separate send and receive buffer, and no root specified. As with the gather call, the receive count corresponds to an individual receive, not the total amount.

Figure 3.8 MPI_Alltoall

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Alltoall (
MPI_Alltoall_c (
sendbuf	starting address of send buffer		const void*	TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)	IN
sendcount	number of elements sent to each process		[int MPI_Count]	INTEGER	IN
sendtype	datatype of send buffer elements		MPI_Datatype	TYPE (MPI_Datatype)	IN
recvbuf	address of receive buffer		void*	TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)	OUT
recvcount	number of elements received from any process		[int MPI_Count]	INTEGER	IN
recvtype	datatype of receive buffer elements		MPI_Datatype	TYPE (MPI_Datatype)	IN
comm	communicator		MPI_Comm	TYPE (MPI_Comm)	IN
)					

Unlike the gather call, the send buffer now obeys the same principle: with a send count of 1, the buffer has a length of the number of processes.

3.6.1 All-to-all as data transpose

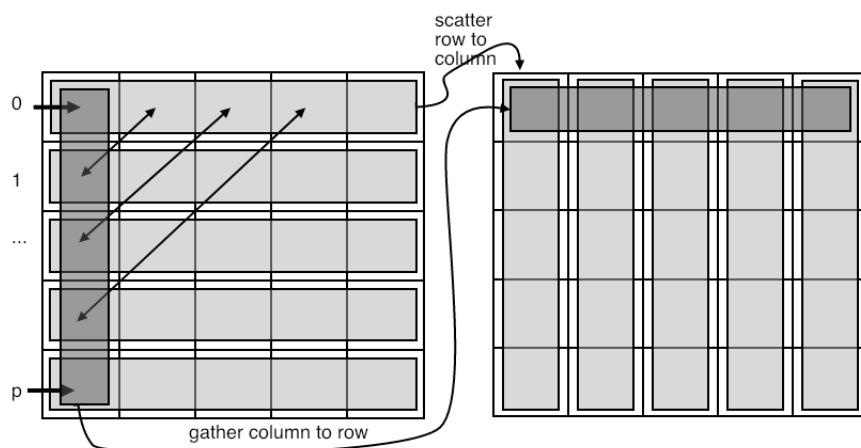


Figure 3.8: All-to-all transposes data

The all-to-all operation can be considered as a data transpose. For instance, assume that each process knows how much data to send to every other process. If you draw a connectivity matrix of size $P \times P$,

denoting who-sends-to-who, then the send information can be put in rows:

$$\forall_i : C[i, j] > 0 \quad \text{if process } i \text{ sends to process } j.$$

Conversely, the columns then denote the receive information:

$$\forall_j : C[i, j] > 0 \quad \text{if process } j \text{ receives from process } i.$$

The typical application for such data transposition is in the FFT algorithm, where it can take tens of percents of the running time on large clusters.

We will consider another application of data transposition, namely *radix sort*, but we will do that in a couple of steps. First of all:

Exercise 3.17. In the initial stage of a *radix sort*, each process considers how many elements to send to every other process. Use `MPI_Alltoall` to derive from this how many elements they will receive from every other process.

3.6.2 All-to-all-v

The major part of the *radix sort* algorithm consist of every process sending some of its elements to each of the other processes. The routine `MPI_Alltoallv` (figure 3.9) is used for this pattern:

- Every process scatters its data to all others,
- but the amount of data is different per process.

Exercise 3.18. The actual data shuffle of a *radix sort* can be done with `MPI_Alltoallv`. Finish the code of exercise 3.17.

3.7 Reduce-scatter

There are several MPI collectives that are functionally equivalent to a combination of others. You have already seen `MPI_Allreduce` which is equivalent to a reduction followed by a broadcast. Often such combinations can be more efficient than using the individual calls; see HPC book, section-6.1.

Here is another example: `MPI_Reduce_scatter` is equivalent to a reduction on an array of data (meaning a pointwise reduction on each array location) followed by a scatter of this array to the individual processes.

We will discuss this routine, or rather its variant `MPI_Reduce_scatter_block` (figure 3.10), using an important example: the *sparse matrix-vector product* (see HPC book, section-6.5.1 for background information). Each process contains one or more matrix rows, so by looking at indices the process can decide what other processes it needs to receive data from, that is, each process knows how many messages it will receive, and from which processes. The problem is for a process to find out what other processes it needs to send data to.

Let's set up the data:

Figure 3.9 MPI_Alltoallv

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Alltoallv					
	MPI_Alltoallv_c				
sendbuf	starting address of send buffer		const void*	TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)	IN
sendcounts	non-negative integer array (of length group size) specifying the number of elements to send to each rank		[constint[] MPI_Count	INTEGER(*)	IN
sdispls	integer array (of length group size). Entry j specifies the displacement (relative to sendbuf) from which to take the outgoing data destined for process j		[constint[] MPI_Aint	INTEGER(*)	IN
sendtype	datatype of send buffer elements		MPI_Datatype	TYPE (MPI_Datatype)	IN
recvbuf	address of receive buffer		void*	TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)	OUT
recvcounts	non-negative integer array (of length group size) specifying the number of elements that can be received from each rank		[constint[] MPI_Count	INTEGER(*)	IN
rdispls	integer array (of length group size). Entry i specifies the displacement (relative to recvbuf) at which to place the incoming data from process i		[constint[] MPI_Aint	INTEGER(*)	IN
recvtype	datatype of receive buffer elements		MPI_Datatype	TYPE (MPI_Datatype)	IN
comm	communicator		MPI_Comm	TYPE (MPI_Comm)	IN
)					

```
// reducescatter.c
int
// data that we know:
*i_recv_from_proc = (int*) malloc(nprocs*sizeof(int)),
*procs_to_recv_from, nprocs_to_recv_from=0,
// data we are going to determine:
*procs_to_send_to,nprocs_to_send_to;
```

For the full source of this example, see section 3.16.18

Each process creates an array of ones and zeros, describing who it needs data from. Ideally, we only need the array `procs_to_recv_from` but initially we need the (possibly much larger) array `i_recv_from_proc`.

Next, the `MPI_Reduce_scatter_block` call then computes, on each process, how many messages it needs to

3. MPI topic: Collectives

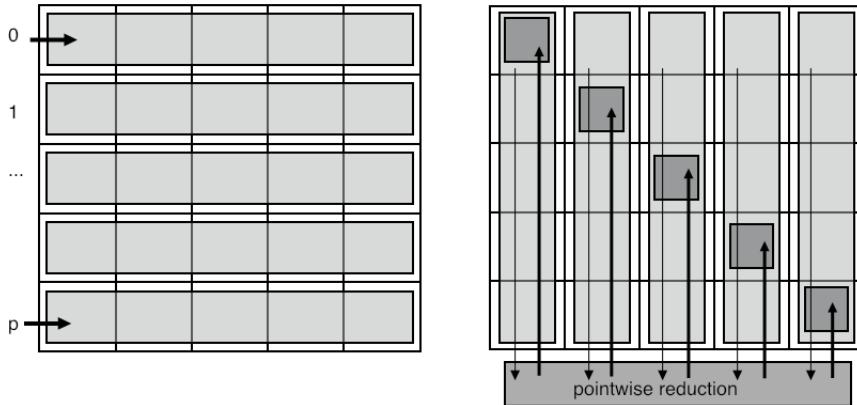


Figure 3.9: Reduce scatter

send.

```
||| MPI_Reduce_scatter_block
|||   (i_recv_from_proc,&nprocs_to_send_to,1,MPI_INT,
|||    MPI_SUM,comm);
```

For the full source of this example, see section 3.16.18

We do not yet have the information to which processes to send. For that, each process sends a zero-size message to each of its senders. Conversely, it then does a receive to with `MPI_ANY_SOURCE` to discover who is requesting data from it. The crucial point to the `MPI_Reduce_scatter_block` call is that, without it, a process would not know how many of these zero-size messages to expect.

```
/*
 * Send a zero-size msg to everyone that you receive from,
 * just to let them know that they need to send to you.
 */
MPI_Request send_requests[nprocs_to_recv_from];
for (int iproc=0; iproc<nprocs_to_recv_from; iproc++) {
    int proc=procs_to_recv_from[iproc];
    double send_buffer=0.;
    MPI_Isend(&send_buffer,0,MPI_DOUBLE, /*to:*/ proc,0,comm,
              &(send_requests[iproc]));
}

/*
 * Do as many receives as you know are coming in;
 * use wildcards since you don't know where they are coming from.
 * The source is a process you need to send to.
 */
procs_to_send_to = (int*)malloc( nprocs_to_send_to * sizeof(int) );
for (int iproc=0; iproc<nprocs_to_send_to; iproc++) {
    double recv_buffer;
    MPI_Status status;
    MPI_Recv(&recv_buffer,0,MPI_DOUBLE,MPI_ANY_SOURCE,MPI_ANY_TAG,comm,
             &status);
```

Figure 3.10 MPI_Reduce_scatter

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Reduce_scatter (
MPI_Reduce_scatter_c (
sendbuf	starting address of send buffer	const void*	TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)	IN	
recvbuf	starting address of receive buffer	void*	TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)	OUT	
recvcounts	non-negative integer array (of length group size) specifying the number of elements of the result distributed to each process.	[constint[] MPI_Count	INTEGER(*)	IN	
datatype	datatype of elements of send and receive buffers	MPI_Datatype	TYPE (MPI_Datatype)	IN	
op	operation	MPI_Op	TYPE(MPI_Op)	IN	
comm	communicator	MPI_Comm	TYPE (MPI_Comm)	IN	
)					

```

    procs_to_send_to[iproc] = status.MPI_SOURCE;
}
MPI_Waitall(nprocs_to_recv_from, send_requests, MPI_STATUSES_IGNORE);

```

For the full source of this example, see section 3.16.18

The `MPI_Reduce_scatter` (figure 3.10) call is more general: instead of indicating the mere presence of a message between two processes, by having individual receive counts one can, for instance, indicate the size of the messages.

We can look at reduce-scatter as a limited form of the all-to-all data transposition discussed above (section 3.6.1). Suppose that the matrix C contains only 0/1, indicating whether or not a messages is send, rather than the actual amounts. If a receiving process only needs to know how many messages to receive, rather than where they come from, it is enough to know the column sum, rather than the full column (see figure 3.9).

Another application of the reduce-scatter mechanism is in the dense matrix-vector product, if a two-dimensional data distribution is used.

3.7.1 Examples

An important application of this is establishing an irregular communication pattern. Assume that each process knows which other processes it wants to communicate with; the problem is to let the other processes know about this. The solution is to use `MPI_Reduce_scatter` to find out how many processes want to communicate with you

```

MPI_Reduce_scatter_block
  (i_recv_from_proc,&nprocs_to_send_to,1,MPI_INT,
   MPI_SUM,comm);

```

For the full source of this example, see section 3.16.18

and then wait for precisely that many messages with a source value of `MPI_ANY_SOURCE`.

```

/*
 * Send a zero-size msg to everyone that you receive from,
 * just to let them know that they need to send to you.
 */
MPI_Request send_requests[nprocs_to_recv_from];
for (int iproc=0; iproc<nprocs_to_recv_from; iproc++) {
    int proc=procs_to_recv_from[iproc];
    double send_buffer=0.;
    MPI_Isend(&send_buffer,0,MPI_DOUBLE, /*to:*/ proc,0,comm,
              &(send_requests[iproc]));
}

/*
 * Do as many receives as you know are coming in;
 * use wildcards since you don't know where they are coming from.
 * The source is a process you need to send to.
 */
procs_to_send_to = (int*)malloc( nprocs_to_send_to * sizeof(int) );
for (int iproc=0; iproc<nprocs_to_send_to; iproc++) {
    double recv_buffer;
    MPI_Status status;
    MPI_Recv(&recv_buffer,0,MPI_DOUBLE,MPI_ANY_SOURCE,MPI_ANY_TAG,comm,
             &status);
    procs_to_send_to[iproc] = status.MPI_SOURCE;
}
MPI_Waitall(nprocs_to_recv_from,send_requests,MPI_STATUSES_IGNORE);

```

For the full source of this example, see section 3.16.18

Use of `MPI_Reduce_scatter` to implement the two-dimensional matrix-vector product. Set up separate row and column communicators with `MPI_Comm_split`, use `MPI_Reduce_scatter` to combine local products.

```

MPI_Allgather(&my_x,1,MPI_DOUBLE,
              local_x,1,MPI_DOUBLE,environ.col_comm);
MPI_Reduce_scatter(local_y,&my_y,&ione,MPI_DOUBLE,
                    MPI_SUM,environ.row_comm);

```

3.8 Barrier

A barrier call, `MPI_Barrier` (figure 3.11) is a routine that blocks all processes until they have all reached the barrier call. Thus it achieves time synchronization of the processes.

This call's simplicity is contrasted with its usefulness, which is very limited. It is almost never necessary to synchronize processes through a barrier: for most purposes it does not matter if processors are out of sync. Conversely, collectives (except the new nonblocking ones; section 3.11) introduce a barrier of sorts themselves.

Figure 3.11 MPI_Barrier

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
<code>MPI_Barrier (</code>					
<code>comm</code>		<code>communicator</code>	<code>MPI_Comm</code>	<code>TYPE</code> <code>(MPI_Comm)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>)</code>					

3.9 Variable-size-input collectives

In the gather and scatter call above each processor received or sent an identical number of items. In many cases this is appropriate, but sometimes each processor wants or contributes an individual number of items.

Let's take the gather calls as an example. Assume that each processor does a local computation that produces a number of data elements, and this number is different for each processor (or at least not the same for all). In the regular `MPI_Gather` call the root processor had a buffer of size nP , where n is the number of elements produced on each processor, and P the number of processors. The contribution from processor p would go into locations $pn, \dots, (p + 1)n - 1$.

For the variable case, we first need to compute the total required buffer size. This can be done through a simple `MPI_Reduce` with `MPI_SUM` as reduction operator: the buffer size is $\sum_p n_p$ where n_p is the number of elements on processor p . But you can also postpone this calculation for a minute.

The next question is where the contributions of the processor will go into this buffer. For the contribution from processor p that is $\sum_{q < p} n_p, \dots, \sum_{q \leq p} n_p - 1$. To compute this, the root processor needs to have all the n_p numbers, and it can collect them with an `MPI_Gather` call.

We now have all the ingredients. All the processors specify a send buffer just as with `MPI_Gather`. However, the receive buffer specification on the root is more complicated. It now consists of:

`outbuffer, array-of-outcounts, array-of-displacements, outtype`
and you have just seen how to construct that information.

For example, in an `MPI_Gatherv` (figure 3.12) call each process has an individual number of items to contribute. To gather this, the root process needs to find these individual amounts with an `MPI_Gather` call, and locally construct the offsets array. Note how the offsets array has size `ntids+1`: the final offset value is automatically the total size of all incoming data. See the example below.

There are various calls where processors can have buffers of differing sizes.

- In `MPI_Scatterv` (figure 3.13) the root process has a different amount of data for each recipient.
- In `MPI_Gatherv`, conversely, each process contributes a different sized send buffer to the received result; `MPI_Allgatherv` (figure 3.14) does the same, but leaves its result on all processes; `MPI_Alltoallv` does a different variable-sized gather on each process.

3.9.1 Example of Gatherv

We use `MPI_Gatherv` to do an irregular gather onto a root. We first need an `MPI_Gather` to determine offsets.

3. MPI topic: Collectives

Figure 3.12 MPI_Gatherv

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
<code>MPI_Gatherv (</code>					
<code> MPI_Gatherv_c (</code>					
<code>sendbuf</code>	<code>starting address of send buffer</code>		<code>const void*</code>	<code>TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>sendcount</code>	<code>number of elements in send buffer</code>		<code>[int MPI_Count]</code>	<code>INTEGER</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>sendtype</code>	<code>datatype of send buffer elements</code>		<code>MPI_Datatype</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Datatype)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>recvbuf</code>	<code>address of receive buffer</code>		<code>void*</code>	<code>TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)</code>	<code>OUT</code>
<code>recvcounts</code>	<code>non-negative integer array (of length group size) containing the number of elements that are received from each process</code>		<code>[constint[] MPI_Count]</code>	<code>INTEGER(*)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>displs</code>	<code>integer array (of length group size). Entry i specifies the displacement relative to recvbuf at which to place the incoming data from process i</code>		<code>[constint[] MPI_Aint]</code>	<code>INTEGER(*)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>recvtype</code>	<code>datatype of recv buffer elements</code>		<code>MPI_Datatype</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Datatype)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>root</code>	<code>rank of receiving process</code>		<code>int</code>	<code>INTEGER</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>comm</code>	<code>communicator</code>		<code>MPI_Comm</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Comm)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>)</code>					

MPL:

```
template<typename T>
void gatherv
(int root_rank, const T *senddata, const layout<T> &sendl,
 T *recvdata, const layouts<T> &recvls, const displacements &recvdispls) const
(int root_rank, const T *senddata, const layout<T> &sendl,
 T *recvdata, const layouts<T> &recvls) const
(int root_rank, const T *senddata, const layout<T> &sendl ) const
```

Python:

```
Gatherv(self, sendbuf, [recvbuf,counts], int root=0)
```

Figure 3.13 MPI_Scatterv

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Scatterv					
MPI_Scatterv_c					
sendbuf		address of send buffer	const void*	TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)	IN
sendcounts		non-negative integer array (of length group size) specifying the number of elements to send to each rank	[constint[] MPI_Count	INTEGER(*)	IN
displs		integer array (of length group size). Entry i specifies the displacement (relative to sendbuf) from which to take the outgoing data to process i	[constint[] MPI_Aint	INTEGER(*)	IN
sendtype		datatype of send buffer elements	MPI_Datatype	TYPE (MPI_Datatype)	IN
recvbuf		address of receive buffer	void*	TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)	OUT
recvcount		number of elements in receive buffer	[int MPI_Count	INTEGER	IN
recvtype		datatype of receive buffer elements	MPI_Datatype	TYPE (MPI_Datatype)	IN
root		rank of sending process	int	INTEGER	IN
comm		communicator	MPI_Comm	TYPE (MPI_Comm)	IN
)					

Code:

```

// gatherv.c
// we assume that each process has an array "localdata"
// of size "localsize"

// the root process decides how much data will be coming:
// allocate arrays to contain size and offset information
if (procno==root) {
    localsizes = (int*) malloc( nprocs*sizeof(int) );
    offsets = (int*) malloc( nprocs*sizeof(int) );
}

// everyone contributes their local size info
MPI_Gather(&localsize,1,MPI_INT,
            localsizes,1,MPI_INT,root,comm);

// the root constructs the offsets array
if (procno==root) {
    int total_data = 0;
    for (int i=0; i<nprocs; i++) {
        offsets[i] = total_data;
        total_data += localsizes[i];
    }
    alldata = (int*) malloc( total_data*sizeof(int) );
}

Victor Eijkhout contributes their data
MPI_Gatherv(localdata,localsize,MPI_INT,
            →alldata,localsizes,offsets,MPI_INT,root,comm);

```

Output:

```
make[3]: `gatherv' is up to date.
TACC: Starting up job 4328411
TACC: Starting parallel tasks...
Local sizes: 13, 12, 13, 14, 11, 12, 14, 6, 12, 8,
Collected:
 0:1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1;
 1:2,2,2,2,2,2,2,2,2,2,2,2;
 2:3,3,3,3,3,3,3,3,3,3,3,3;
 3:4,4,4,4,4,4,4,4,4,4,4,4;
 4:5,5,5,5,5,5,5,5,5,5,5,5;
 5:6,6,6,6,6,6,6,6,6,6,6,6;
 6:7,7,7,7,7,7,7,7,7,7,7,7;
 7:8,8,8,8,8,8;
 8:9,9,9,9,9,9,9,9,9,9,9,9;
 9:10,10,10,10,10,10,10,10,10;
TACC: Shutdown complete. Exiting.
```

3. MPI topic: Collectives

Figure 3.14 MPI_Allgatherv

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Allgatherv					
	MPI_Allgatherv_c				
	sendbuf	starting address of send buffer	const void*	TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)	IN
	sendcount	number of elements in send buffer	[int MPI_Count	INTEGER	IN
	sendtype	datatype of send buffer elements	MPI_Datatype	TYPE (MPI_Datatype)	IN
	recvbuf	address of receive buffer	void*	TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)	OUT
	recvcounts	non-negative integer array (of length group size) containing the number of elements that are received from each process	[constint[] MPI_Count	INTEGER(*)	IN
	displs	integer array (of length group size). Entry i specifies the displacement (relative to recvbuf) at which to place the incoming data from process i	[constint[] MPI_Aint	INTEGER(*)	IN
	recvtype	datatype of receive buffer elements	MPI_Datatype	TYPE (MPI_Datatype)	IN
	comm	communicator	MPI_Comm	TYPE (MPI_Comm)	IN
)					

Python:

```
MPI.Comm.Allgatherv(self, sendbuf, recvbuf)
    where recvbuf = "[ array, counts, displs, type]"
```

```
## gatherv.py
# implicitly using root=0
globalsize = comm.reduce(localsize)
if procid==0:
    print("Global size=%d" % globalsize)
collecteddata = np.empty(globalsize,dtype=int)
counts = comm.gather(localsize)
comm.Gatherv(localdata, [collecteddata, counts])
```

For the full source of this example, see section 3.16.19

3.9.2 Example of Allgatherv

Prior to the actual gatherv call, we need to construct the count and displacement arrays. The easiest way is to use a reduction.

```
// allgatherv.c
MPI_Allgather
```

```

    ( &my_count,1,MPI_INT,
      recv_counts,1,MPI_INT, comm );
int accumulate = 0;
for (int i=0; i<nprocs; i++) {
    recv_displs[i] = accumulate; accumulate += recv_counts[i]; }
int *global_array = (int*) malloc(accumulate*sizeof(int));
MPI_Allgatherv
    ( my_array,procno+1,MPI_INT,
      global_array,recv_counts,recv_displs,MPI_INT, comm );

```

For the full source of this example, see section [3.16.20](#)

In python the receive buffer has to contain the counts and displacements arrays.

```

## allgatherv.py
mycount = procid+1
my_array = np.empty(mycount,dtype=np.float64)

```

For the full source of this example, see section [3.16.21](#)

```

my_count = np.empty(1,dtype=int)
my_count[0] = mycount
comm.Allgather( my_count,recv_counts )

accumulate = 0
for p in range(nprocs):
    recv_displs[p] = accumulate; accumulate += recv_counts[p]
global_array = np.empty(accumulate,dtype=np.float64)
comm.Allgatherv( my_array, [global_array,recv_counts,recv_displs,MPI.DOUBLE] )

```

For the full source of this example, see section [3.16.21](#)

3.9.3 Variable all-to-all

The variable all-to-all routine **MPI_Alltoallv** is discussed in section [3.6.2](#).

3.10 MPI Operators

MPI *operators*, that is, objects of type **MPI_Op**, are used in reduction operators. Most common operators, such as sum or maximum, have been built into the MPI library; see section [3.10.1](#). It is also possible to define new operators; see section [3.10.2](#).

3.10.1 Pre-defined operators

The following is the list of *pre-defined operators* **MPI_Op** values.

3. MPI topic: Collectives

MPI type	meaning	applies to
<code>MPI_MAX</code>	maximum	integer, floating point
<code>MPI_MIN</code>	minimum	
<code>MPI_SUM</code>	sum	integer, floating point, complex, multilanguage types
<code>MPI_REPLACE</code>	overwrite	
<code>MPI_NO_OP</code>	no change	
<code>MPI_PROD</code>	product	
<code>MPI_LAND</code>	logical and	C integer, logical
<code>MPI_LOR</code>	logical or	
<code>MPI_LXOR</code>	logical xor	
<code>MPI_BAND</code>	bitwise and	integer, byte, multilanguage types
<code>MPI_BOR</code>	bitwise or	
<code>MPI_BXOR</code>	bitwise xor	
<code>MPI_MAXLOC</code>	max value and location	<code>MPI_DOUBLE_INT</code> and such
<code>MPI_MINLOC</code>	min value and location	

3.10.1.1 Minloc and maxloc

The `MPI_MAXLOC` and `MPI_MINLOC` operations yield both the maximum and the rank on which it occurs. Their result is a `struct` of the data over which the reduction happens, and an int.

In C, the types to use in the reduction call are: `MPI_FLOAT_INT`, `MPI_LONG_INT`, `MPI_DOUBLE_INT`, `MPI_SHORT_INT`, `MPI_2INT`, `MPI_LONG_DOUBLE_INT`. Likewise, the input needs to consist of such structures: the input should be an array of such struct types, where the int is the rank of the number.

These types may have some unusual size properties:

Code:

```
// longint.c
MPI_Type_size( MPI_LONG_INT,&s );
printf("MPI_LONG_INT size=%d\n",s);
MPI_Aint ss;
MPI_Type_extent( MPI_LONG_INT,&ss );
printf("MPI_LONG_INT extent=%ld\n",ss);
```

Output:

```
MPI_LONG_INT size=12
MPI_LONG_INT extent=16
```

Fortran note 6: Min/maxloc types. The original Fortran interface to MPI was designed around Fortran77 features, so it is not using Fortran derived types (`Type` keyword). Instead, all integer indices are stored in whatever the type is that is being reduced. The available result types are then `MPI_2REAL`, `MPI_2DOUBLE_PRECISION`, `MPI_2INTEGER`.

Likewise, the input needs to be arrays of such type. Consider this example:

```
Real*8,dimension(2,N) :: input,output
call MPI_Reduce( input,output, N, MPI_2DOUBLE_PRECISION, &
MPI_MAXLOC, root, comm )
```

MPL note 19: Operators. Arithmetic: `plus`, `multiplies`, `max`, `min`.

Figure 3.15 MPI_Op_create

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Op_create (
MPI_Op_create_c (
user_fn	user_fn	user defined function	[MPI_User_function*	PROCEDURE	IN
			MPI_User_function_c		
			(MPI_User_function)		
commute	commute	true if commutative; false otherwise.	int	LOGICAL	IN
op	op	operation	MPI_Op*	TYPE(MPI_Op)	OUT
)					

Python:

```
MPI.Op.create(cls,function,bool commute=False)
```

Logic: `logical_and`, `logical_or`, `logical_xor`.

Bitwise: `bit_and`, `bit_or`, `bit_xor`.

3.10.2 User-defined operators

In addition to predefined operators, MPI has the possibility of *user-defined operators* to use in a reduction or scan operation.

The routine for this is `MPI_Op_create` (figure 3.15), which takes a user function and turns it into an object of type `MPI_Op`, which can then be used in any reduction:

```
| MPI_Op rwz;  
| MPI_Op_create(reduce_without_zero,1,&rwz);  
| MPI_Allreduce(data+procno,&positive_minimum,1,MPI_INT,rwz,comm);
```

For the full source of this example, see section 3.16.22

Python note 11: Define reduction operator. In python, `Op.Create` is a class method for the `MPI` class.

```

rwz = MPI.Op.Create(reduceWithoutZero)
positive_minimum = np.zeros(1,dtype=inc)
comm.Allreduce(data[procid],positive_minimum,rwz);

```

For the full source of this example, see section 3.16.23

The user function needs to have the following signature:

```
typedef void MPI_User_function
    ( void *invec, void *inoutvec, int *len,
      MPI_Datatype *datatype);

FUNCTION USER_FUNCTION( INVEC(*), INOUTVEC(*), LEN, TYPE)
<type> INVEC(LEN), INOUTVEC(LEN)
INTEGER LEN, TYPE
```

For example, here is an operator for finding the smallest nonzero number in an array of nonnegative integers:

3. MPI topic: Collectives

```
// reductpositive.c
void reduce_without_zero(void *in,void *inout,int *len,MPI_Datatype *type) {
// r is the already reduced value, n is the new value
    int n = *(int*)in, r = *(int*)inout;
    int m;
    if (n==0) { // new value is zero: keep r
        m = r;
    } else if (r==0) {
        m = n;
    } else if (n<r) { // new value is less but not zero: use n
        m = n;
    } else { // new value is more: use r
        m = r;
    };
    *(int*)inout = m;
}
```

For the full source of this example, see section [3.16.22](#)

Python note 12: Reduction function. The python equivalent of such a function receives bare buffers as arguments. Therefore, it is best to turn them first into NumPy arrays using `np.frombuffer`:

```
## reductpositive.py
def reduceWithoutZero(in_buf, inout_buf, datatype):
    typecode = MPI._typecode(datatype)
    assert typecode is not None ## check MPI datatype is built-in
    dtype = np.dtype(typecode)

    in_array = np.frombuffer(in_buf, dtype)
    inout_array = np.frombuffer(inout_buf, dtype)

    n = in_array[0]; r = inout_array[0]
    if n==0:
        m = r
    elif r==0:
        m = n
    elif n<r:
        m = n
    else:
        m = r
    inout_array[0] = m
```

For the full source of this example, see section [3.16.23](#)

The `assert` statement accounts for the fact that this mapping of MPI datatype to NumPy dtype only works for built-in MPI datatypes.

MPL note 20: User-defined operators. A user-defined operator can be a templated class with an `operator()`. Example:

```
// reduceuser.cxx
template<typename T>
class lcm {
public:
    T operator()(T a, T b) {
```

Figure 3.16 MPI_Op_commutative

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Op_commutative		(op operation commute true if op is commutative, false otherwise)	MPI_Op int*	TYPE(MPI_Op) LOGICAL	IN OUT

```

||   T zero=T();
||   T t((a/gcd(a, b))*b);
||   if (t<zero)
||       return -t;
||   return t;
}

|| comm_world.reduce(lcm<int>(), 0, v, result);

```

MPL note 21: Lambda operator. You can also do the reduction by lambda:

```

|| comm_world.reduce
( [] (int i,int j) -> int
{ return i+j; },
0,data );

```

The function has an array length argument len, to allow for pointwise reduction on a whole array at once. The inoutvec array contains partially reduced results, and is typically overwritten by the function.

There are some restrictions on the user function:

- It may not call MPI functions, except for `MPI_Abort`.
- It must be associative; it can be optionally commutative, which fact is passed to the `MPI_Op_create` call.

Exercise 3.19. Write the reduction function to implement the *one-norm* of a vector:

$$\|x\|_1 \equiv \sum_i |x_i|.$$

(There is a skeleton for this exercise under the name `onenorm`.)

The operator can be destroyed with a corresponding `MPI_Op_free`.

```

|| int MPI_Op_free(MPI_Op *op)

```

This sets the operator to `MPI_OP_NULL`. This is not necessary in OO languages, where the destructor takes care of it.

You can query the commutativity of an operator with `MPI_Op_commutative` (figure 3.16).

Figure 3.17 MPI_Reduce_local

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Reduce_local					
	MPI_Reduce_local_c				
	inbuf	input buffer	const void*	TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)	IN
	inoutbuf	combined input and output buffer	void*	TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)	INOUT
	count	number of elements in inbuf and inoutbuf buffers	[int MPI_Count]	INTEGER	IN
	datatype	datatype of elements of inbuf and inoutbuf buffers	MPI_Datatype	TYPE (MPI_Datatype)	IN
	op	operation	MPI_Op	TYPE(MPI_Op)	IN
)				

3.10.3 Local reduction

The application of an `MPI_Op` can be performed with the routine `MPI_Reduce_local` (figure 3.17). Using this routine and some send/receive scheme you can build your own global reductions. Note that this routine does not take a communicator because it is purely local.

3.11 Nonblocking collectives

Above you have seen how the ‘Isend’ and ‘Irecv’ routines can overlap communication with computation. This is not possible with the collectives you have seen so far: they act like blocking sends or receives. However, there are also *nonblocking collectives*, introduced in MPI-3.

Such operations can be used to increase efficiency. For instance, computing

$$y \leftarrow Ax + (x^t x)y$$

involves a matrix-vector product, which is dominated by computation in the *sparse matrix* case, and an inner product which is typically dominated by the communication cost. You would code this as

```

|| MPI_Iallreduce( .... x ...., &request);
|| // compute the matrix vector product
|| MPI_Wait(request);
|| // do the addition

```

This can also be used for 3D FFT operations [13]. Occasionally, a nonblocking collective can be used for nonobvious purposes, such as the `MPI_Ibarrier` in [14].

These have roughly the same calling sequence as their blocking counterparts, except that they output an `MPI_Request`. You can then use an `MPI_Wait` call to make sure the collective has completed.

Nonblocking collectives offer a number of performance advantages:

- Do two reductions (on the same communicator) with different operators simultaneously:

$$\begin{aligned}\alpha &\leftarrow x^t y \\ \beta &\leftarrow \|z\|_\infty\end{aligned}$$

which translates to:

```
|| MPI_Allreduce( &local_xy, &global_xy, 1, MPI_DOUBLE, MPI_SUM, comm);
|| MPI_Allreduce( &local_xinf,&global_xin,1, MPI_DOUBLE, MPI_MAX, comm);
```

- do collectives on overlapping communicators simultaneously;
- overlap a nonblocking collective with a blocking one.

Exercise 3.20. Revisit exercise 7.1. Let only the first row and first column have certain data, which they broadcast through columns and rows respectively. Each process is now involved in two simultaneous collectives. Implement this with nonblocking broadcasts, and time the difference between a blocking and a nonblocking solution. (There is a skeleton for this exercise under the name progridnonblock.)

Remark 6 *Blocking and nonblocking don't match: either all processes call the nonblocking or all call the blocking one. Thus the following code is incorrect:*

```
|| if (rank==root)
    MPI_Reduce( &x /* ... */ , root,comm );
|| else
    MPI_Ireduce( &x /* ... */ );
```

This is unlike the point-to-point behavior of nonblocking calls: you can catch a message with MPI_Irecv that was sent with MPI_Send.

Remark 7 *Unlike sends and received, collectives have no identifying tag. With blocking collectives that does not lead to ambiguity problems. With nonblocking collectives it means that all processes need to issue them in identical order.*

List of nonblocking collectives:

- MPI_Igather, MPI_Igatherv, MPI_Iallgather (figure 3.18), MPI_Iallgatherv,
- MPI_Iscatter, MPI_Iscaterv,
- MPI_Ireduce, MPI_Iallreduce (figure 3.19), MPI_Ireduce_scatter, MPI_Ireduce_scatter_block,
- MPI_Ialltoall, MPI_Ialltoallv, MPI_Ialltoallw,
- MPI_Ibarrier; section 3.11.2,
- MPI_Ibcast,
- MPI_Iexscan, MPI_Iscan,

MPL note 22: Nonblocking collectives. Nonblocking collectives have the same argument list as the corresponding blocking variant, except that instead of a `void` result, they return an `irequest`. (See 29)

```
// ireducescalar.cxx
float x[1],sum;
auto reduce_request =
```

3. MPI topic: Collectives

Figure 3.18 MPI_Iallgather

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
<code>MPI_Iallgather (</code>					
<code> MPI_Iallgather_c (</code>					
<code>sendbuf</code>	<code>starting address of send buffer</code>		<code>const void*</code>	<code>TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>sendcount</code>	<code>number of elements in send buffer</code>		<code>[int MPI_Count]</code>	<code>INTEGER</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>sendtype</code>	<code>datatype of send buffer elements</code>		<code>MPI_Datatype</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Datatype)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>recvbuf</code>	<code>address of receive buffer</code>		<code>void*</code>	<code>TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)</code>	<code>OUT</code>
<code>recvcount</code>	<code>number of elements received from any process</code>		<code>[int MPI_Count]</code>	<code>INTEGER</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>recvtype</code>	<code>datatype of receive buffer elements</code>		<code>MPI_Datatype</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Datatype)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>comm</code>	<code>communicator</code>		<code>MPI_Comm</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Comm)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>request</code>	<code>communication request</code>		<code>MPI_Request*</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Request)</code>	<code>OUT</code>
<code>)</code>					

Figure 3.19 MPI_Iallreduce

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
<code>MPI_Iallreduce (</code>					
<code> MPI_Iallreduce_c (</code>					
<code>sendbuf</code>	<code>starting address of send buffer</code>		<code>const void*</code>	<code>TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>recvbuf</code>	<code>starting address of receive buffer</code>		<code>void*</code>	<code>TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)</code>	<code>OUT</code>
<code>count</code>	<code>number of elements in send buffer</code>		<code>[int MPI_Count]</code>	<code>INTEGER</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>datatype</code>	<code>datatype of elements of send buffer</code>		<code>MPI_Datatype</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Datatype)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>op</code>	<code>operation</code>		<code>MPI_Op</code>	<code>TYPE(MPI_Op)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>comm</code>	<code>communicator</code>		<code>MPI_Comm</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Comm)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>request</code>	<code>communication request</code>		<code>MPI_Request*</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Request)</code>	<code>OUT</code>
<code>)</code>					

```

    comm_world.ireduce(mpl::plus<float>(), 0, x, sum);
reduce_request.wait();
if (comm_world.rank()==0) {
    std::cout << "sum = " << sum << '\n';
}

```

3.11.1 Examples

3.11.1.1 Array transpose

To illustrate the overlapping of multiple nonblocking collectives, consider transposing a data matrix. Initially, each process has one row of the matrix; after transposition each process has a column. Since each row needs to be distributed to all processes, algorithmically this corresponds to a series of scatter calls, one originating from each process.

```

// itransposeblock.c
for (int iproc=0; iproc<nprocs; iproc++) {
    MPI_Scatter( regular,1,MPI_DOUBLE,
                 &(transpose[iproc]),1,MPI_DOUBLE,
                 iproc,comm);
}

```

For the full source of this example, see section 3.16.17

Introducing the nonblocking `MPI_Iscatter` call, this becomes:

```

MPI_Request scatter_requests[nprocs];
for (int iproc=0; iproc<nprocs; iproc++) {
    MPI_Iscatter( regular,1,MPI_DOUBLE,
                  &(transpose[iproc]),1,MPI_DOUBLE,
                  iproc,comm,scatter_requests+iproc);
}
MPI_Waitall(nprocs,scatter_requests,MPI_STATUSES_IGNORE);

```

For the full source of this example, see section 3.16.17

Exercise 3.21. Can you implement the same algorithm with `MPI_Igather`?

3.11.1.2 Stencils

The ever-popular *five-point stencil* evaluation does not look like a collective operation, and indeed, it is usually evaluated with (nonblocking) send/recv operations. However, if we create a subcommunicator on each subdomain that contains precisely that domain and its neighbors, (see figure 3.10) we can formulate the communication pattern as a gather on each of these. With ordinary collectives this can not be formulated in a *deadlock-free* manner, but nonblocking collectives make this feasible.

We will see an even more elegant formulation of this operation in section 11.2.

3.11.2 Nonblocking barrier

Probably the most surprising nonblocking collective is the *nonblocking barrier* `MPI_Ibarrier` (figure 3.20).

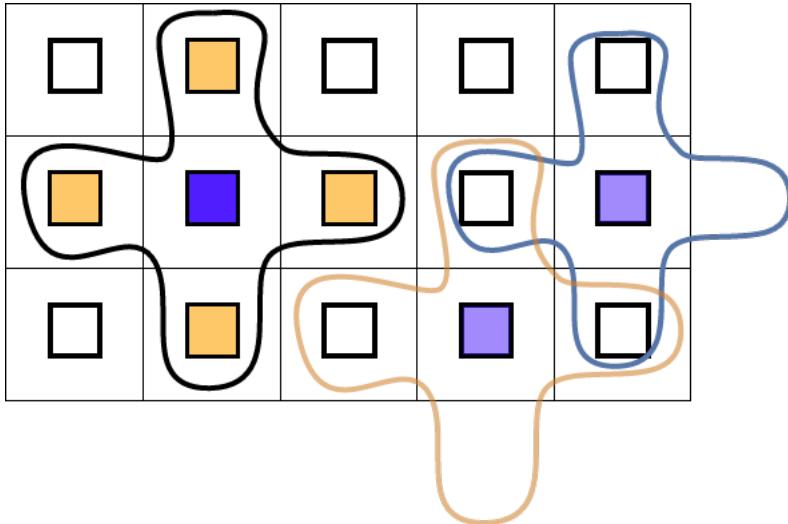


Figure 3.10: Illustration of five-point stencil gather

Figure 3.20 MPI_Ibarrier

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Ibarrier (
comm	communicator		MPI_Comm	TYPE (MPI_Comm)	IN
request	communication request		MPI_Request*	TYPE (MPI_Request)	OUT
)					

The way to understand this is to think of a barrier not in terms of temporal synchronization, but state agreement: reaching a barrier is a sign that a process has attained a certain state, and leaving a barrier means that all processes are in the same state. The ordinary barrier is then a blocking wait for agreement, while with a nonblocking barrier:

- Posting the barrier means that a process has reached a certain state; and
- the request being fulfilled means that all processes have reached the barrier.

One scenario would be *local refinement*, where some processes decide to refine their subdomain, which fact they need to communicate to their neighbors. The problem here is that most processes are not among these neighbors, so they should not post a receive of any type. Instead, any refining process sends to its neighbors, and every process posts a barrier.

```
// ibarrierprobe.c
if (i_do_send) {
/*
 * Pick a random process to send to,
 * not yourself.
 */
int receiver = rand()%nprocs;
```

```

    MPI_Ssend(&data,1,MPI_FLOAT,receiver,0,comm);
}
/*
 * Everyone posts the non-blocking barrier
 * and gets a request to test/wait for
 */
MPI_Request barrier_request;
MPI_Ibarrier(comm,&barrier_request);

```

For the full source of this example, see section [3.16.24](#)

Now every process alternately probes for messages and tests for completion of the barrier. Probing is done through the nonblocking `MPI_Iprobe` call, while testing completion of the barrier is done through `MPI_Test`.

```

for ( ; ; step++) {
    int barrier_done_flag=0;
    MPI_Test(&barrier_request,&barrier_done_flag,
             MPI_STATUS_IGNORE);
    //stop if you're done!
    if (barrier_done_flag) {
        break;
    } else {
        // if you're not done with the barrier:
        int flag; MPI_Status status;
        MPI_Iprobe
            ( MPI_ANY_SOURCE,MPI_ANY_TAG,
              comm, &flag, &status );
        if (flag) {
    // absorb message!

```

For the full source of this example, see section [3.16.24](#)

We can use a nonblocking barrier to good effect, utilizing the idle time that would result from a blocking barrier. In the following code fragment processes test for completion of the barrier, and failing to detect such completion, perform some local work.

```

// findbarrier.c
MPI_Request final_barrier;
MPI_Ibarrier(comm,&final_barrier);

int global_finish=mysleep;
do {
    int all_done_flag=0;
    MPI_Test(&final_barrier,&all_done_flag,MPI_STATUS_IGNORE);
    if (all_done_flag) {
        break;
    } else {
        int flag; MPI_Status status;
    // force progress
        MPI_Iprobe
            ( MPI_ANY_SOURCE,MPI_ANY_TAG,
              comm, &flag, MPI_STATUS_IGNORE );
        printf("[%d] going to work for another second\n",procid);
        sleep(1);
        global_finish++;

```

```

} }
} } while (1);

```

For the full source of this example, see section [3.16.25](#)

3.12 Performance of collectives

It is easy to visualize a broadcast as in figure [3.11](#): see figure [3.11](#). the root sends all of its data directly to

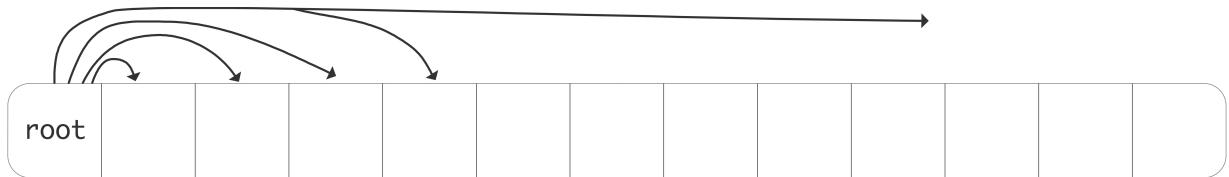


Figure 3.11: A simple broadcast

every other process. While this describes the semantics of the operation, in practice the implementation works quite differently.

The time that a message takes can simply be modeled as

$$\alpha + \beta n,$$

where α is the *latency*, a one time delay from establishing the communication between two processes, and β is the time-per-byte, or the inverse of the *bandwidth*, and n the number of bytes sent.

Under the assumption that a processor can only send one message at a time, the broadcast in figure [3.11](#) would take a time proportional to the number of processors.

Exercise 3.22. What is the total time required for a broadcast involving p processes? Give α and β terms separately.

Solution to exercise 3.22. $(p - 1)\alpha, (p - 1)\beta n$

One way to ameliorate that is to structure the broadcast in a tree-like fashion. This is depicted in figure [3.12](#).

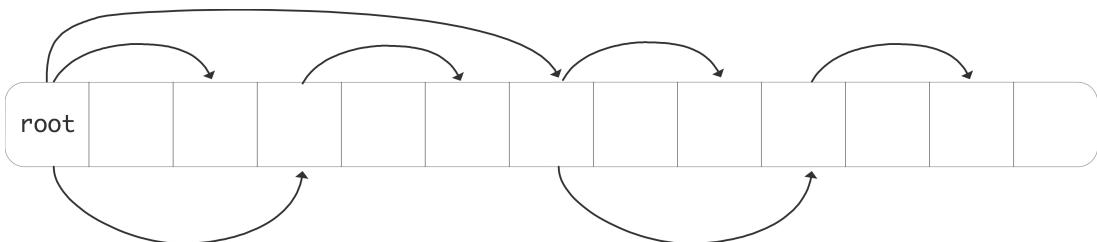


Figure 3.12: A tree-based broadcast

ure [3.12](#).

Exercise 3.23. How does the communication time now depend on the number of processors, again α and β terms separately.
 What would be a lower bound on the α, β terms?

Solution to exercise 3.23. Both terms are now $\lceil \log p \rceil$.

The lower bound on α is achieved. The absolute lower bound on β is n : the root has to send each element. After that there may be overlap, so this expression is pessimistic.

The theory of the complexity of collectives is described in more detail in HPC book, section-6.1; see also [3].

3.13 Collectives and synchronization

Collectives, other than a barrier, have a synchronizing effect between processors. For instance, in

```
|| MPI_Bcast( ....data... root);
|| MPI_Send(....);
```

the send operations on all processors will occur after the root executes the broadcast. Conversely, in a

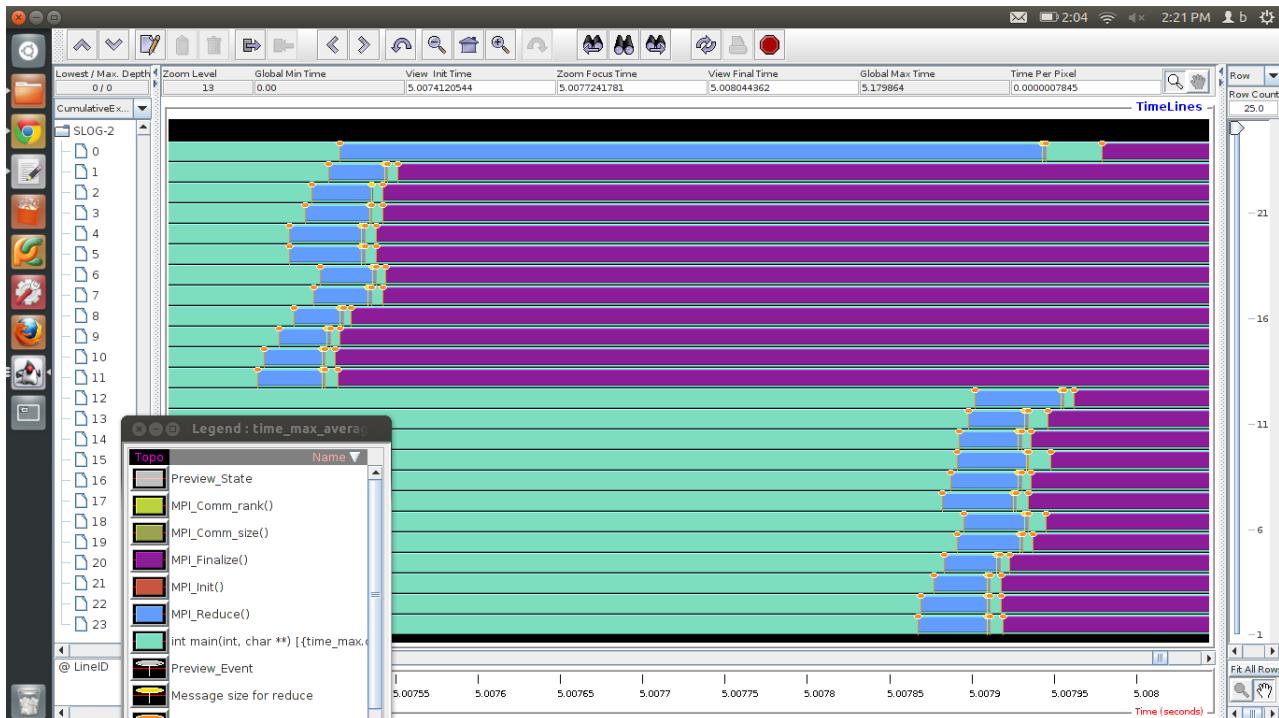


Figure 3.13: Trace of a reduction operation between two dual-socket 12-core nodes

reduce operation the root may have to wait for other processors. This is illustrated in figure 3.13, which

3. MPI topic: Collectives

gives a TAU trace of a reduction operation on two nodes, with two six-core sockets (processors) each. We see that¹:

- In each socket, the reduction is a linear accumulation;
- on each node, cores zero and six then combine their result;
- after which the final accumulation is done through the network.

We also see that the two nodes are not perfectly in sync, which is normal for MPI applications. As a result, core 0 on the first node will sit idle until it receives the partial result from core 12, which is on the second node.

While collectives synchronize in a loose sense, it is not possible to make any statements about events before and after the collectives between processors:

```
|| ...event 1...
|| MPI_Bcast(...);
|| ...event 2....
```

Consider a specific scenario:

```
switch(rank) {
    case 0:
        MPI_Bcast(buf1, count, type, 0, comm);
        MPI_Send(buf2, count, type, 1, tag, comm);
        break;
    case 1:
        MPI_Recv(buf2, count, type, MPI_ANY_SOURCE, tag, comm, &status);
        MPI_Bcast(buf1, count, type, 0, comm);
        MPI_Recv(buf2, count, type, MPI_ANY_SOURCE, tag, comm, &status);
        break;
    case 2:
        MPI_Send(buf2, count, type, 1, tag, comm);
        MPI_Bcast(buf1, count, type, 0, comm);
        break;
}
```

Note the `MPI_ANY_SOURCE` parameter in the receive calls on processor 1. One obvious execution of this would be:

1. The send from 2 is caught by processor 1;
2. Everyone executes the broadcast;
3. The send from 0 is caught by processor 1.

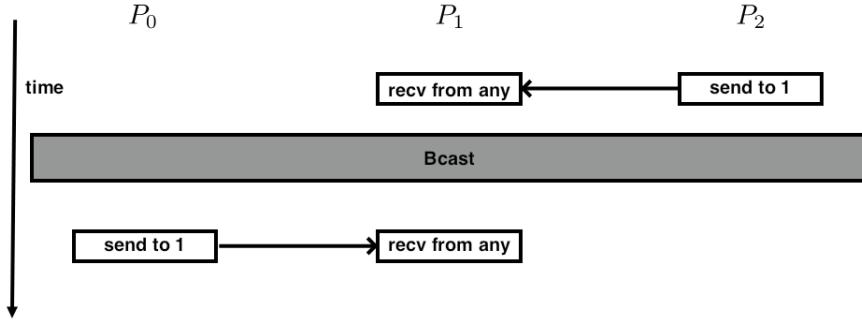
However, it is equally possible to have this execution:

1. Processor 0 starts its broadcast, then executes the send;
2. Processor 1's receive catches the data from 0, then it executes its part of the broadcast;
3. Processor 1 catches the data sent by 2, and finally processor 2 does its part of the broadcast.

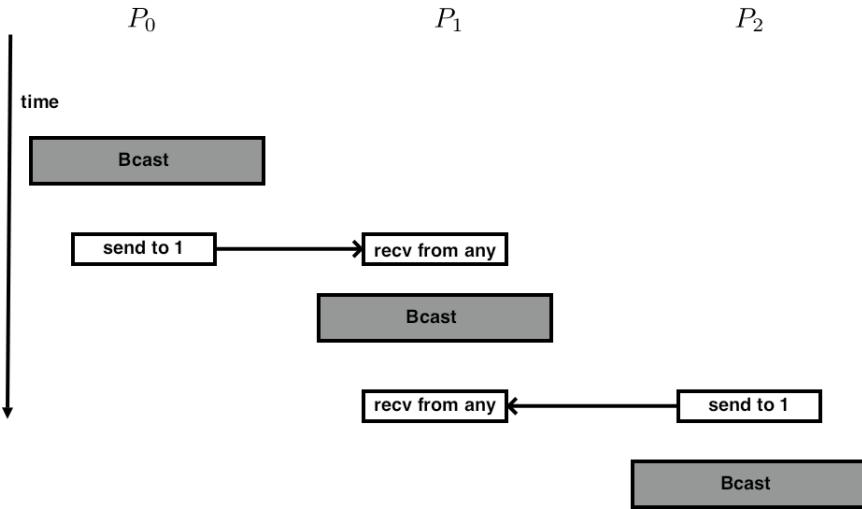
This is illustrated in figure 3.14.

1. This uses mvapich version 1.6; in version 1.9 the implementation of an on-node reduction has changed to simulate shared memory.

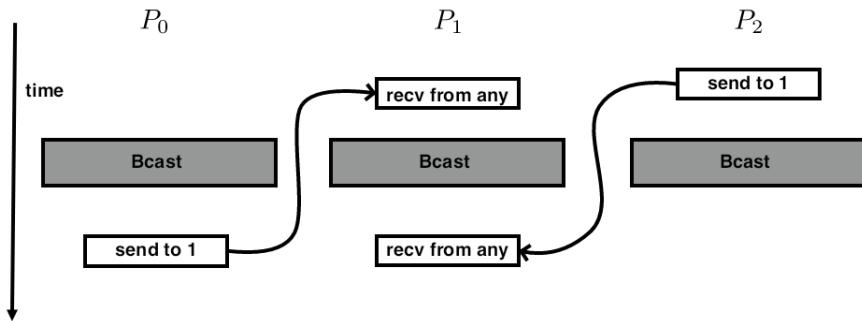
The most logical execution is:



However, this ordering is allowed too:



Which looks from a distance like:



In other words, one of the messages seems to go ‘back in time’.

Figure 3.14: Possible temporal orderings of send and collective calls

3.14 Performance considerations

In this section we will consider how collectives can be implemented in multiple ways, and the performance implications of such decisions. You can test the algorithms described here using *SimGrid* (section 51).

3.14.1 Scalability

We are motivated to write parallel software from two considerations. First of all, if we have a certain problem to solve which normally takes time T , then we hope that with p processors it will take time T/p . If this is true, we call our parallelization scheme *scalable in time*. In practice, we often accept small extra terms: as you will see below, parallelization often adds a term $\log_2 p$ to the running time.

Exercise 3.24. Discuss scalability of the following algorithms:

- You have an array of floating point numbers. You need to compute the sine of each
- You a two-dimensional array, denoting the interval $[-2, 2]^2$. You want to make a picture of the *Mandelbrot set*, so you need to compute the color of each point.
- The primality test of exercise 2.6.

There is also the notion that a parallel algorithm can be *scalable in space*: more processors gives you more memory so that you can run a larger problem.

Exercise 3.25. Discuss space scalability in the context of modern processor design.

Solution to exercise 3.25. *If you stay within one node, you don't get more memory by using more cores: all the memory is shared, so one core could use the total memory. Of course, using multiple cores probably gives you a speedup.*

3.14.2 Complexity and scalability of collectives

3.14.2.1 Broadcast

Naive broadcast Write a broadcast operation where the root does an `MPI_Send` to each other process.

What is the expected performance of this in terms of α, β ?

Run some tests and confirm.

Simple ring Let the root only send to the next process, and that one send to its neighbor. This scheme is known as a *bucket brigade*; see also section 4.1.5.

What is the expected performance of this in terms of α, β ?

Run some tests and confirm.

Pipelined ring In a ring broadcast, each process needs to receive the whole message before it can pass it on. We can increase the efficiency by breaking up the message and sending it in multiple parts. (See figure 3.15.) This will be advantageous for messages that are long enough that the bandwidth cost dominates the latency.

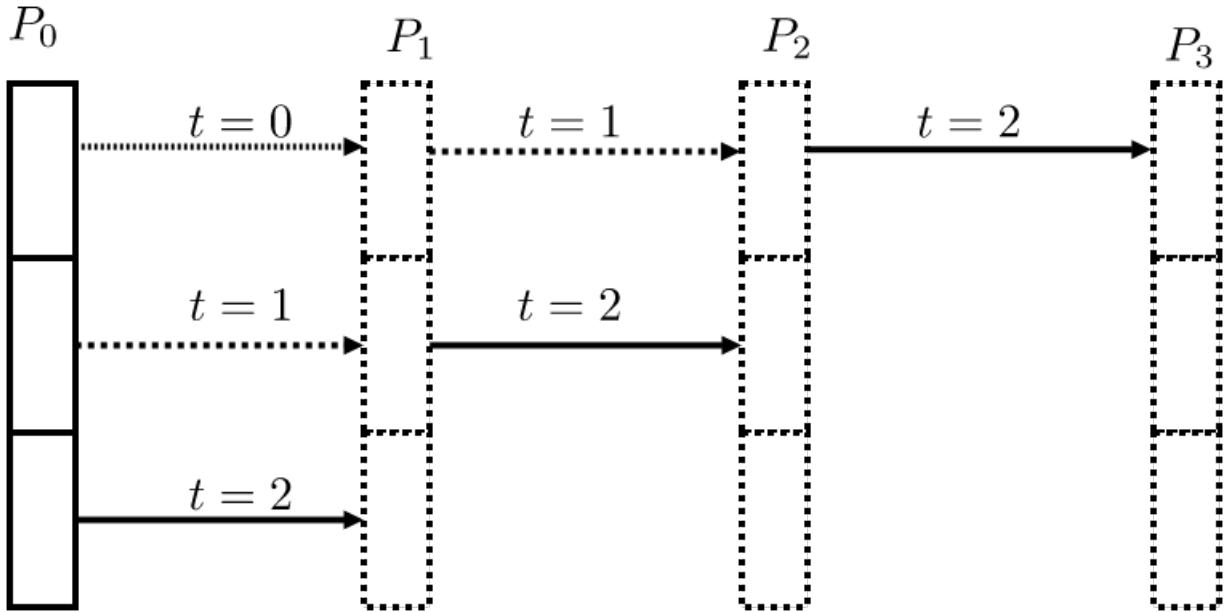


Figure 3.15: A pipelined bucket brigade

Assume a send buffer of length more than 1. Divide the send buffer into a number of chunks. The root sends the chunks successively to the next process, and each process sends on whatever chunks it receives. What is the expected performance of this in terms of α , β ? Why is this better than the simple ring? Run some tests and confirm.

Recursive doubling Collectives such as broadcast can be *implemented* through *recursive doubling*, where the root sends to another process, then the root and the other process send to two more, those four send to four more, et cetera. However, in an actual physical architecture this scheme can be realized in multiple ways that have drastically different performance.

First consider the implementation where process 0 is the root, and it starts by sending to process 1; then they send to 2 and 3; these four send to 4–7, et cetera. If the architecture is a linear array of processors, this will lead to *contention*: multiple messages wanting to go through the same wire. (This is also related to the concept of *bisection bandwidth*.)

In the following analyses we will assume *wormhole routing*: a message sets up a path through the network, reserving the necessary wires, and performing a send in time independent of the distance through the network. That is, the send time for any message can be modeled as

$$T(n) = \alpha + \beta n$$

regardless source and destination, as long as the necessary connections are available.

Exercise 3.26. Analyze the running time of a recursive doubling broadcast as just described, with wormhole routing.

Implement this broadcast in terms of blocking MPI send and receive calls. If you have SimGrid available, run tests with a number of parameters.

The alternative, that avoids contention, is to let each doubling stage divide the network into separate halves. That is, process 0 sends to $P/2$, after which these two repeat the algorithm in the two halves of the network, sending to $P/4$ and $3P/4$ respectively.

Exercise 3.27. Analyze this variant of recursive doubling. Code it and measure runtimes on SimGrid.

Exercise 3.28. Revisit exercise 3.26 and replace the blocking calls by nonblocking `MPI_Isend / MPI_Irecv` calls.

Make sure to test that the data is correctly propagated.

MPI implementations often have multiple algorithms, which they dynamically switch between. Sometimes you can determine the choice yourself through environment variables.

TACC note. For Intel MPI, see <https://software.intel.com/en-us/mpi-developer-reference-linux-i-mpi-adjust-family-environment-variables>.

3.15 Review questions

For all true/false questions, if you answer that a statement is false, give a one-line explanation.

Review 3.29. How would you realize the following scenarios with MPI collectives?

- Let each process compute a random number. You want to print the maximum of these numbers to your screen.
- Each process computes a random number again. Now you want to scale these numbers by their maximum.
- Let each process compute a random number. You want to print on what processor the maximum value is computed.

Review 3.30. MPI collectives can be sorted in at least the following categories

1. rooted vs rootless
2. using uniform buffer lengths vs variable length buffers
3. blocking vs nonblocking.

Give examples of each type.

Review 3.31. True or false: collective routines are all about communicating user data between the processes.

Solution to exercise 3.31. *No: barrier, window creation, collective file open.*

Review 3.32. True or false: an `MPI_Scatter` call puts the same data on each process.

Review 3.33. True or false: using the option `MPI_IN_PLACE` you only need space for a send buffer in `MPI_Reduce`.

Review 3.34. True or false: using the option `MPI_IN_PLACE` you only need space for a send buffer in `MPI_Gather`.

Review 3.35. Given a distributed array, with every processor storing

```
|| double x[N]; // N can vary per processor
```

give the approximate MPI-based code that computes the maximum value in the array, and leaves the result on every processor.

Solution to exercise 3.35.

```
|| double localmax = x[0];
for (int i=1; i<N; i++)
    localmax = max(localmax,x[i]);
MPI_Allreduce( &localmax, 1,MPI_DOUBLE, comm);
```

Doing a reduce followed by a broadcast is correct but slightly slower.

Wrong answer: anything based on reducing N items, as in

```
|| MPI_Allreduce( x,N,MPI_DOUBLE, ... );
```

Review 3.36.

```
|| double data[Nglobal];
int myfirst = /* something */ , mylast = /* something */;
for (int i=myfirst; i<mylast; i++) {
    if (i>0 && i<N-1) {
        process_point( data,i,Nglobal );
    }
}
void process_point( double *data,int i,int N ) {
    data[i-1] = g(i-1); data[i] = g(i); data[i+1] = g(i+1);
    data[i] = f(data[i-1],data[i],data[i+1]);
}
```

Is this scalable in time? Is this scalable in space? What is the missing MPI call?

Solution to exercise 3.36. *This requires an allgather. It's scalable in time but not in space.*

Review 3.37.

```
|| double data[Nlocal+2]; // include left and right neighbor
int myfirst = /* something */ , mylast = myfirst+Nlocal;
for (int i=0; i<Nlocal; i++) {
    if (i>0 && i<N-1) {
        process_point( data,i,Nlocal );
    }
}
void process_point( double *data,int i0,int n ) {
    int i = i0+1;
    data[i-1] = g(i-1); data[i] = g(i); data[i+1] = g(i+1);
    data[i] = f(data[i-1],data[i],data[i+1]);
}
```

Is this scalable in time? Is this scalable in space? What is the missing MPI call?

Solution to exercise 3.37. *Send/receive of any sort of separate send and receive. Scalable in time and space.*

Review 3.38. With data as in the previous question, given the code for normalizing the array, that is, scaling each element so that $\|x\|_2 = 1$.

Review 3.39. Just like `MPI_Allreduce` is equivalent to `MPI_Reduce` followed by `MPI_Bcast`, `MPI_Reduce_scatter` is equivalent to at least one of the following combinations. Select those that are equivalent, and discuss differences in time or space complexity:

1. `MPI_Reduce` followed by `MPI_Scatter`;
2. `MPI_Gather` followed by `MPI_Scatter`;
3. `MPI_Allreduce` followed by `MPI_Scatter`;
4. `MPI_Allreduce` followed by a local operation (which?);
5. `MPI_Allgather` followed by a local operation (which?).

Review 3.40. Think of at least two algorithms for doing a broadcast. Compare them with regards to asymptotic behavior.

3.16 Sources used in this chapter

3.16.1 Listing of code header

3.16.2 Listing of code examples/mpi/c/allreduce.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
#include "mpi.h"

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

#include "globalinit.c"

    float myrandom,sumrandom;
    myrandom = (float) rand()/(float)RAND_MAX;
    // add the random variables together
    MPI_Allreduce(&myrandom,&sumrandom,
        1,MPI_FLOAT,MPI_SUM,comm);
    // the result should be approx nprocs/2:
    if (procno==nprocs-1)
        printf("Result %.9f compared to .5\n",sumrandom/nprocs);

    MPI_Finalize();
    return 0;
}
```

3.16.3 Listing of code examples/mpi/mpl/collectscalar.cxx

```
#include <cstdlib>
#include <complex>
#include <iostream>
#include <vector>
#include <mpl/mpl.hpp>

int main() {

    // MPI Comm world
    const mpl::communicator &comm_world=mpl::environment::comm_world();

    // vector of consecutive floats
    std::vector<float> v;
    if (comm_world.rank()==0)
        for (int i=0; i<comm_world.size(); ++i)
            v.push_back(i);

    // if you scatter, everyone gets a number equal to their rank.
    // rank 0 scatters data to all processes
    float x;
    comm_world.scatter(0, v.data(), x);
```

3. MPI topic: Collectives

```
std::cout << "rank " << comm_world.rank() << " got " << x << '\n';

// wait until all processes have reached this point
comm_world.barrier();

// multiply that number, giving twice your rank
x*=2;

// rank 0 gathers data from all processes
comm_world.gather(0, x, v.data());
if (comm_world.rank()==0) {
    std::cout << "got";
    for (int i=0; i<comm_world.size(); ++i)
        std::cout << " " << i << ":" << v[i];
    std::cout << std::endl;
}

// wait until all processes have reached this point
comm_world.barrier();

// calculate global sum and pass result to rank 0
if (comm_world.rank()==0) {
    float sum;
    comm_world.reduce(mpl::plus<float>(), 0, x, sum);
    std::cout << "sum = " << sum << '\n';
} else
    comm_world.reduce(mpl::plus<float>(), 0, x);

// wait until all processes have reached this point
comm_world.barrier();

// calculate global sum and pass result to all
{
    float
        xrank = static_cast<float>( comm_world.rank() ),
        xreduce;
    // separate recv buffer
    comm_world.allreduce(mpl::plus<float>(), xrank,xreduce);
    // in place
    comm_world.allreduce(mpl::plus<float>(), xrank);
    if ( comm_world.rank()==comm_world.size()-1 )
        std::cout << "Allreduce got: separate=" << xreduce
            << ", inplace=" << xrank << std::endl;
}

// calculate global sum and pass result to root
{
    int root = 1;
    float
        xrank = static_cast<float>( comm_world.rank() ),
        xreduce;
    // separate receive buffer
    comm_world.reduce(mpl::plus<float>(), root, xrank,xreduce);
```

```
// in place
comm_world.reduce(mpl::plus<float>(), root, xrank);
if ( comm_world.rank()==root )
    std::cout << "Allreduce got: separate=" << xreduce
<< ", inplace=" << xrank << std::endl;
}

return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}
```

3.16.4 Listing of code examples/mpi/p/allreduce.py

```
import numpy as np
import random
from mpi4py import MPI

comm = MPI.COMM_WORLD
procid = comm.Get_rank()
nprocs = comm.Get_size()
if nprocs<2:
    print("C'mon, get real....")
    sys.exit(1)

random.seed(procid)
random_bound = nprocs*nprocs
random_number = random.randint(1,random_bound)
#print("[%d] random=%d" % (procid,random_number))

# native mode send
max_random = comm.allreduce(random_number,op=MPI.MAX)

if procid==0:
    print("Python native:\n max=%d" % max_random)

myrandom = np.empty(1,dtype=int)
myrandom[0] = random_number
allrandom = np.empty(nprocs,dtype=int)
# numpy mode send
comm.Allreduce(myrandom,allrandom[:1],op=MPI.MAX)

if procid==0:
    print("Python numpy:\n max=%d" % allrandom[0])

sumrandom = np.zeros(1,dtype=int)
sumrandom[0] = myrandom[0]
#### WRONG polymorphic use does not work
#comm.Allreduce(sumrandom[:1])
comm.Allreduce(MPI.IN_PLACE,sumrandom[:1],op=MPI.SUM)

if procid==0:
    print( "Sum of randoms: %d, compare %d" % (sumrandom[0],nprocs*random_bound/2) )
```

3.16.5 Listing of code examples/mpi/mppl/sendrange.cxx

```
#include <cstdlib>
#include <complex>
#include <iostream>
using std::cout;
using std::endl;

#include <vector>
using std::vector;

#include <mpl/mppl.hpp>

int main() {
    const mpl::communicator &comm_world=mpl::environment::comm_world();
    if (comm_world.size()<2)
        return EXIT_FAILURE;

    vector<double> v(15);

    if (comm_world.rank()==0) {

        // initialize
        for ( auto &x : v ) x = 1.41;

        /*
         * Send and report
         */
        comm_world.send(v.begin(), v.end(), 1); // send to rank 1
    } else if (comm_world.rank()==1) {

        /*
         * Receive data and report
         */
        comm_world.recv(v.begin(), v.end(), 0); // receive from rank 0

        cout << "Got:";
        for ( auto x : v )
            cout << " " << x;
        cout << endl;
    }
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}
```

3.16.6 Listing of code examples/mpi/c/reduce.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
#include "mpi.h"
```

```
int main(int argc,char **argv) {

#include "globalinit.c"

float myrandom = (float) rand()/(float)RAND_MAX,
      result;
int target_proc = nprocs-1;
// add all the random variables together
MPI_Reduce(&myrandom,&result,1,MPI_FLOAT,MPI_SUM,
           target_proc,comm);
// the result should be approx nprocs/2:
if (procno==target_proc)
    printf("Result %6.3f compared to nprocs/2=%5.2f\n",
           result,nprocs/2.);

MPI_Finalize();
return 0;
}
```

3.16.7 Listing of code examples/mpi/c/allreduceinplace.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
#include "mpi.h"

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

#include "globalinit.c"

int nrandoms = 500000;
float *myrandoms;
myrandoms = (float*) malloc(nrandoms*sizeof(float));
for (int iter=1; iter<=3; iter++) {
/*
 * We show three different ways of doing the same reduction;
 * this illustrates syntax more than semantics
 */
if (iter==1) {
    for (int irand=0; irand<nrandoms; irand++)
myrandoms[irand] = (float) rand()/(float)RAND_MAX;
    // add all the random variables together
    MPI_Allreduce(MPI_IN_PLACE,myrandoms,
                  nrandoms,MPI_FLOAT,MPI_SUM,comm);
} else if (iter==2) {
    for (int irand=0; irand<nrandoms; irand++)
myrandoms[irand] = (float) rand()/(float)RAND_MAX;
    int root=nprocs-1;
    if (procno==root)
        MPI_Reduce(MPI_IN_PLACE,myrandoms,
                   nrandoms,MPI_FLOAT,MPI_SUM,root,comm);
    else
        MPI_Reduce(myrandoms,MPI_IN_PLACE,
```

3. MPI topic: Collectives

```
nrandoms,MPI_FLOAT,MPI_SUM,root,comm);
} else if (iter==2) {
    for (int irand=0; irand<nrandoms; irand++)
myrandoms[irand] = (float) rand()/(float)RAND_MAX;
    int root=nprocs-1;
    float *sendbuf,*recvbuf;
    if (procno==root) {
        sendbuf = MPI_IN_PLACE; recvbuf = myrandoms;
    } else {
        sendbuf = myrandoms; recvbuf = MPI_IN_PLACE;
    }
    MPI_Reduce(sendbuf,recvbuf,
               nrrandoms,MPI_FLOAT,MPI_SUM,root,comm);
}
// the result should be approx nprocs/2:
if (procno==nprocs-1) {
    float sum=0.;
    for (int i=0; i<nrandoms; i++) sum += myrandoms[i];
    sum /= nrrandoms*nprocs;
    printf("Result %6.9f compared to .5\n",sum);
}
free(myrandoms);

MPI_Finalize();
return 0;
}
```

3.16.8 Listing of code examples/mpi/f/reduceinplace.F90

Program ReduceInPlace

```
use mpi
implicit none

real :: mynumber,result
integer :: target_proc

#include "globalinit.F90"

call random_number(mynumber)
target_proc = ntids-1;
! add all the random variables together
if (mytid.eq.target_proc) then
    result = mytid
    call MPI_Reduce(MPI_IN_PLACE,result,1,MPI_REAL,MPI_SUM,&
                    target_proc,comm,err)
else
    mynumber = mytid
    call MPI_Reduce(mynumber,result,1,MPI_REAL,MPI_SUM,&
                    target_proc,comm,err)
end if
! the result should be ntids*(ntids-1)/2:
```

```
if (mytid.eq.target_proc) then
    write(*,'("Result ",f5.2," compared to n(n-1)/2=",f5.2)') &
        result,ntids*(ntids-1)/2.
end if

call MPI_Finalize(err)

end Program ReduceInPlace
```

3.16.9 Listing of code examples/mpi/f08/reduceinplaceptr.F90

```
Program ReduceInPlace
```

```
use mpi_f08

real,target :: mynumber,result,in_place_val
real,pointer :: mynumber_ptr,result_ptr
integer :: target_proc

#include "globalinit.F90"

call random_number(mynumber)
target_proc = ntids-1;
in_place_val = MPI_IN_PLACE
if (mytid.eq.target_proc) then
    ! set pointers
    result_ptr => result
    mynumber_ptr => in_place_val
    ! target sets value in receive buffer
    result_ptr = mytid
else
    ! set pointers
    mynumber_ptr => mynumber
    result_ptr => in_place_val
    ! non-targets set value in send buffer
    mynumber_ptr = mytid
end if
call MPI_Reduce(mynumber_ptr,result_ptr,1,MPI_REAL,MPI_SUM,&
    target_proc,comm,err)
! the result should be ntids*(ntids-1)/2:
if (mytid.eq.target_proc) then
    write(*,'("Result ",f7.4," compared to n(n-1)/2=",f7.4)') &
        result,ntids*(ntids-1)/2.
end if

call MPI_Finalize(err)

end Program ReduceInPlace
```

3.16.10 Listing of code examples/mpi/p/allreduceinplace.py

```
import numpy as np
```

3. MPI topic: Collectives

```
import random
from mpi4py import MPI

comm = MPI.COMM_WORLD
procid = comm.Get_rank()
nprocs = comm.Get_size()
if nprocs<2:
    print("C'mon, get real....")
    sys.exit(1)

random_number = random.randint(1,nprocs*nprocs)
print("[%d] random=%d" % (procid,random_number))

myrandom = np.empty(1,dtype=int)
myrandom[0] = random_number

comm.Allreduce(MPI.IN_PLACE,myrandom,op=MPI.MAX)

if procid==0:
    print("Python numpy:\n max=%d" % myrandom[0])
```

3.16.11 Listing of code examples/mpi/mppl/collectbuffer.cxx

```
#include <cstdlib>
#include <complex>
#include <iostream>
using std::cout;
using std::endl;

#include <vector>
using std::vector;

#include <mpl/mppl.hpp>

int main() {

    // MPI Comm world
    const mpl::communicator &comm_world=mpl::environment::comm_world();
    int nprocs = comm_world.size(), procno = comm_world.rank();
    int iprint = procno==nprocs-1;

    /*
     * Reduce a 2 int buffer
     */
    if (iprint) cout << "Reducing 2p, 2p+1" << endl;

    float
        xrank = static_cast<float>( comm_world.rank() );
    vector<float> rank2p2p1{ 2*xrank,2*xrank+1 },reduce2p2p1{0,0};
    mpl::contiguous_layout<float> two_floats(rank2p2p1.size());
    comm_world.allreduce
        (mpl::plus<float>(), rank2p2p1.data(),reduce2p2p1.data(),two_floats);
```

```
if ( iprint )
    cout << "Got: " << reduce2p2p1.at(0) << ","
<< reduce2p2p1.at(1) << endl;

/*
 * Scatter one number to each proc
 */
if (iprint) cout << "Scattering 0--p" << endl;

vector<float> v;

if (comm_world.rank()==0)
    for (int i=0; i<comm_world.size(); ++i)
        v.push_back(i);

// if you scatter, everyone gets a number equal to their rank.
// rank 0 scatters data to all processes
float x;
comm_world.scatter(0, v.data(), x);

if (iprint)
    cout << "rank " << procno << " got " << x << '\n';

/*
 * Scatter two numbers to each proc
 */
if (iprint) cout << "Scatter 0--2p" << endl;

vector<float> vrecv(2),vsend(2*nprocs);

if (comm_world.rank()==0)
    for (int i=0; i<2*nprocs; ++i)
        vsend.at(i) = i;

// rank 0 scatters data to all processes
// if you scatter, everyone gets 2p,2p+1
mpl::contiguous_layout<float> twonums(2);
comm_world.scatter
    (0, vsend.data(),twonums, vrecv.data(),twonums );

if (iprint)
    cout << "rank " << procno << " got "
        << vrecv[0] << "," << vrecv[1] << '\n';

return 0;
// multiply that number, giving twice your rank
x*=2;

// rank 0 gathers data from all processes
comm_world.gather(0, x, v.data());
if (comm_world.rank()==0) {
    cout << "got";
```

3. MPI topic: Collectives

```
for (int i=0; i<comm_world.size(); ++i)
    cout << " " << i << ":" << v[i];
    cout << endl;
}

// wait until all processes have reached this point
comm_world.barrier();

// calculate global sum and pass result to rank 0
if (comm_world.rank()==0) {
    float sum;
    comm_world.reduce(mpl::plus<float>(), 0, x, sum);
    cout << "sum = " << sum << '\n';
} else
    comm_world.reduce(mpl::plus<float>(), 0, x);

// wait until all processes have reached this point
comm_world.barrier();

return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}
```

3.16.12 Listing of code examples/mpi/c/init.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
#include "mpi.h"

int main(int argc,char **argv) {
    int input_argument;

#include "globalinit.c"

    if (procno==0) {
        if ( argc==1 || // the program is called without parameter
            ( argc>1 && !strcmp(argv[1],"-h") ) // user asked for help
            ) {
            printf("\nUsage: init [0-9]+\n");
            MPI_Abort(comm,1);
        }
        input_argument = atoi(argv[1]);
    }
    MPI_Bcast(&input_argument,1,MPI_INT,0,comm);
    printf("Processor %d gets %d\n",procno,input_argument);

    MPI_Finalize();
    return 0;
}
```

3.16.13 Listing of code examples/mpi/p/bcast.py

```
from mpi4py import MPI
import numpy as np

from functools import reduce
import sys

comm = MPI.COMM_WORLD

procid = comm.Get_rank()
nprocs = comm.Get_size()
if nprocs<2:
    print("C'mon, get real....")
    sys.exit(1)

root = 1
dsize = 10

# first native
if procid==root:
    buffer = [ 5.0 ] * dsize
else:
    buffer = [ 0.0 ] * dsize
buffer = comm.bcast(obj=buffer,root=root)
if not reduce( lambda x,y:x and y,
               [ buffer[i]==5.0 for i in range(len(buffer)) ] ):
    print( "Something wrong on proc %d: native buffer <<%s>>" \
          % (procid,str(buffer)) )

# then with NumPy
buffer = np.arange(dsize, dtype=np.float64)
if procid==root:
    for i in range(dsize):
        buffer[i] = 5.0
comm.Bcast( buffer,root=root )
if not all( buffer==5.0 ):
    print( "Something wrong on proc %d: numpy buffer <<%s>>" \
          % (procid,str(buffer)) )
else:
    if procid==root:
        print("Success.")
```

3.16.14 Listing of code examples/mpi/c/scan.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
#include "mpi.h"

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

#include "globalinit.c"
```

```
float myrandom = (float) rand()/(float)RAND_MAX,
      result;
// add all the random variables together
MPI_Scan(&myrandom,&result,1,MPI_FLOAT,MPI_SUM,comm);
// the result should be approaching nprocs/2:
if (procno==nprocs-1)
    printf("Result %.3f compared to nprocs/2=%5.2f\n",
           result,nprocs/2.);

MPI_Finalize();
return 0;
}
```

3.16.15 Listing of code examples/mpi/p/scan.py

```
import numpy as np
import random
from mpi4py import MPI

comm = MPI.COMM_WORLD
procid = comm.Get_rank()
nprocs = comm.Get_size()
if nprocs<2:
    print("C'mon, get real....")
    sys.exit(1)

mycontrib = 10+random.randint(1,nprocs)
myfirst = 0
mypartial = comm.scan(mycontrib)
print("[%d] local: %d, partial: %d" % (procid,mycontrib,mypartial))

sbuf = np.empty(1,dtype=int)
rbuf = np.empty(1,dtype=int)
sbuf[0] = mycontrib
comm.Scan(sbuf,rbuf)

print("[%d] numpy local: %d, partial: %d" % (procid,mycontrib,rbuf[0]))
```

3.16.16 Listing of code examples/mpi/c/gather.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
#include "mpi.h"

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

#include "globalinit.c"
    int localsize = 10+10*( (float) rand()/(float)RAND_MAX - .5),
        root = nprocs-1;
```

```
int *localsizes=NULL;
// create local data
int *localdata = (int*) malloc( localsize*sizeof(int) );
for (int i=0; i<localsize; i++)
    localdata[i] = procno+1;
// we assume that each process has a value "localsize"
// the root process collects these values

if (procno==root)
    localsizes = (int*) malloc( nprocs*sizeof(int) );

// everyone contributes their info
MPI_Gather(&localsize,1,MPI_INT,
           localsizes,1,MPI_INT,root,comm);
if (procno==root) {
    printf("Local sizes: ");
    for (int i=0; i<nprocs; i++)
        printf("%d, ",localsizes[i]);
    printf("\n");
}

MPI_Finalize();
return 0;
}
```

3.16.17 Listing of code examples/mpi/c/transposeblock.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <unistd.h>
#include <mpi.h>

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

#include "globalinit.c"

/*
 * Allocate matrix and transpose:
 * - one column per rank for regular
 * - one row per rank for transpose
 */
double *regular,*transpose;
regular = (double*) malloc( nprocs*sizeof(double) );
transpose = (double*) malloc( nprocs*sizeof(double) );
// each process has columnns m*nprocs -- m*(nprocs+1)
for (int ip=0; ip<nprocs; ip++)
    regular[ip] = procno*nprocs + ip;

/*
 * Each proc does a scatter
 */
#if 0
```

3. MPI topic: Collectives

```
// reference code:
for (int iproc=0; iproc<nprocs; iproc++) {
    MPI_Scatter( regular,1,MPI_DOUBLE,
    &(transpose[iproc]),1,MPI_DOUBLE,
    iproc,comm);
}
#else
MPI_Request scatter_requests[nprocs];
for (int iproc=0; iproc<nprocs; iproc++) {
    MPI_Iscatter( regular,1,MPI_DOUBLE,
    &(transpose[iproc]),1,MPI_DOUBLE,
    iproc,comm,scatter_requests+iproc);
}
MPI_Waitall(nprocs,scatter_requests,MPI_STATUSES_IGNORE);
#endif

/*
 * Check the result
 */
printf("[%d] :",procno);
for (int ip=0; ip<nprocs; ip++)
    printf(" %5.2f",transpose[ip]);
printf("\n");

MPI_Finalize();

return 0;
}
```

3.16.18 Listing of code examples/mpi/c/reducescatter.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
#include "mpi.h"

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

#include "globalinit.c"

/*
 * Set up an array of which processes you will receive from
 */
int
// data that we know:
*i_recv_from_proc = (int*) malloc(nprocs*sizeof(int)),
*procs_to_recv_from, nprocs_to_recv_from=0,
// data we are going to determin:
*procs_to_send_to,nprocs_to_send_to;

/*
 * Initialize
 */
```

```
for (int i=0; i<nprocs; i++) {
    i_recv_from_proc[i] = 0;
}

/*
 * Generate array of "yes/no I recv from proc p",
 * and condensed array of procs I receive from.
 */
nprocs_to_recv_from = 0;
for (int iproc=0; iproc<nprocs; iproc++)
    // pick random procs to receive from, not yourself.
    if ( (float) rand()/(float)RAND_MAX < 2./nprocs && iproc!=procno ) {
        i_recv_from_proc[iproc] = 1;
        nprocs_to_recv_from++;
    }
procs_to_recv_from = (int*) malloc(nprocs_to_recv_from*sizeof(int));
int count_procs_to_recv_from = 0;
for (int iproc=0; iproc<nprocs; iproc++)
    if ( i_recv_from_proc[iproc] )
        procs_to_recv_from[count_procs_to_recv_from++] = iproc;
ASSERT( count_procs_to_recv_from==nprocs_to_recv_from );

/*
 */
printf("[%d] receiving from:",procno);
for (int iproc=0; iproc<nprocs_to_recv_from; iproc++)
    printf(" %3d",procs_to_recv_from[iproc]);
printf("\n");

/*
 * Now find how many procs will send to you
 */
MPI_Reduce_scatter_block
    (i_recv_from_proc,&nprocs_to_send_to,1,MPI_INT,
     MPI_SUM,comm);

/*
 * Send a zero-size msg to everyone that you receive from,
 * just to let them know that they need to send to you.
 */
MPI_Request send_requests[nprocs_to_recv_from];
for (int iproc=0; iproc<nprocs_to_recv_from; iproc++) {
    int proc=procs_to_recv_from[iproc];
    double send_buffer=0.;
    MPI_Isend(&send_buffer,0,MPI_DOUBLE, /*to:*/ proc,0,comm,
              &(send_requests[iproc]));
}

/*
 * Do as many receives as you know are coming in;
 * use wildcards since you don't know where they are coming from.
 * The source is a process you need to send to.
 */

```

3. MPI topic: Collectives

```
procs_to_send_to = (int*)malloc( nprocs_to_send_to * sizeof(int) );
for (int iproc=0; iproc<nprocs_to_send_to; iproc++) {
    double recv_buffer;
    MPI_Status status;
    MPI_Recv(&recv_buffer,0,MPI_DOUBLE,MPI_ANY_SOURCE,MPI_ANY_TAG,comm,
             &status);
    procs_to_send_to[iproc] = status.MPI_SOURCE;
}
MPI_Waitall(nprocs_to_recv_from,send_requests,MPI_STATUSES_IGNORE);

printf("[%d] sending to:",procno);
for (int iproc=0; iproc<nprocs_to_send_to; iproc++)
    printf(" %3d",procs_to_send_to[iproc]);
printf(".\n");

MPI_Finalize();
return 0;
}
```

3.16.19 Listing of code examples/mpi/p/gatherv.py

```
import numpy as np
import random
from mpi4py import MPI

comm = MPI.COMM_WORLD
procid = comm.Get_rank()
nprocs = comm.Get_size()
if nprocs<2:
    print("C'mon, get real....")
    sys.exit(1)

localsize = random.randint(2,10)
print("[%d] local size=%d" % (procid,localsize))
localdata = np.empty(localsize,dtype=int)
for i in range(localsize):
    localdata[i] = procid

# implicitly using root=0
globalsize = comm.reduce(localsize)
if procid==0:
    print("Global size=%d" % globalsize)
collecteddata = np.empty(globalsize,dtype=int)
counts = comm.gather(localsize)
comm.Gatherv(localdata, [collecteddata, counts])
if procid==0:
    print("Collected",str(collecteddata))
```

3.16.20 Listing of code examples/mpi/c/allgatherv.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
```

```
#include <string.h>
#include "mpi.h"

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

#include "globalinit.c"

    int my_count = procno+1;
    int *my_array = (int*) malloc(my_count*sizeof(int));
    for (int i=0; i<my_count; i++)
        my_array[i] = procno;
    int *recv_counts = (int*) malloc(nprocs*sizeof(int));
    int *recv_displs = (int*) malloc(nprocs*sizeof(int));

    MPI_Allgather
    ( &my_count,1,MPI_INT,
      recv_counts,1,MPI_INT, comm );
    int accumulate = 0;
    for (int i=0; i<nprocs; i++) {
        recv_displs[i] = accumulate; accumulate += recv_counts[i]; }
    int *global_array = (int*) malloc(accumulate*sizeof(int));
    MPI_Allgatherv
    ( my_array,procno+1,MPI_INT,
      global_array,recv_counts,recv_displs,MPI_INT, comm );

    if (procno==0) {
        for (int p=0; p<nprocs; p++)
            if (recv_counts[p]!=p+1)
printf("count[%d] should be %d, not %d\n",
      p,p+1,recv_counts[p]);
        int c = 0;
        for (int p=0; p<nprocs; p++)
            for (int q=0; q<=p; q++)
if (global_array[c++]!=p)
    printf("p=%d, q=%d should be %d, not %d\n",
      p,q,p,global_array[c-1]);
    }

    MPI_Finalize();
    return 0;
}
```

3.16.21 Listing of code examples/mpi/p/allgatherv.py

```
import numpy as np
import random # random.randint(1,N), random.random()
import sys
from mpi4py import MPI

comm = MPI.COMM_WORLD
procid = comm.Get_rank()
nprocs = comm.Get_size()
if nprocs<2:
```

3. MPI topic: Collectives

```
print("C'mon, get real....")
sys.exit(1)

mycount = procid+1
my_array = np.empty(mycount,dtype=np.float64)

for i in range(mycount):
    my_array[i] = procid
recv_counts = np.empty(nprocs,dtype=int)
recv_displs = np.empty(nprocs,dtype=int)

my_count = np.empty(1,dtype=int)
my_count[0] = mycount
comm.Allgather( my_count,recv_counts )

accumulate = 0
for p in range(nprocs):
    recv_displs[p] = accumulate; accumulate += recv_counts[p]
global_array = np.empty(accumulate,dtype=np.float64)
comm.Allgatherv( my_array, [global_array,recv_counts,recv_displs,MPI.DOUBLE] )

# other syntax:
# comm.Allgatherv( [my_array,mycount,0,MPI.DOUBLE], [global_array,recv_counts,recv_displs,MPI.DOUBLE] )

if procid==0:
    #print(procid,global_array)
    for p in range(nprocs):
        if recv_counts[p]!=p+1:
            print( "recv count[%d] should be %d, not %d" \
                  % (p,p+1,recv_counts[p]) )
    c = 0
    for p in range(nprocs):
        for q in range(p+1):
            if global_array[c]!=p:
                print( "p=%d, q=%d should be %d, not %d" \
                      % (p,q,p,global_array[c]) )
        c += 1
    print "finished"
```

3.16.22 Listing of code examples/mpi/c/reductpositive.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
#include "mpi.h"

//int reduce_without_zero(int r,int n);
void reduce_without_zero(void *in,void *inout,int *len,MPI_Datatype *type) {
    // r is the already reduced value, n is the new value
    int n = *(int*)in, r = *(int*)inout;
    int m;
    if (n==0) { // new value is zero: keep r
```

```
m = r;
} else if (r==0) {
    m = n;
} else if (n<r) { // new value is less but not zero: use n
    m = n;
} else { // new value is more: use r
    m = r;
};

#ifndef DEBUG
printf("combine %d %d : %d\n",r,n,m);
#endif
// return the new value
*(int*)inout = m;
}

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

#include "globalinit.c"

int m,mreduct=2000000000,ndata = 10, data[10] = {2,3,0,5,0,1,8,12,4,0},
    positive_minimum;
if (nprocs>ndata) {
    printf("Too many procs for this example: at most %d\n",ndata);
    return 1;
}

for (int i=0; i<nprocs; i++)
    if (data[i]<mreduct && data[i]>0)
        mreduct = data[i];

MPI_Op rwz;
MPI_Op_create(reduce_without_zero,1,&rwz);
MPI_Allreduce(data+procno,&positive_minimum,1,MPI_INT,rwz,comm);

// check that the distributed result is the same as sequential
if (mreduct!=positive_minimum)
    printf("[%d] Result %d should be %d\n",
           procno,positive_minimum,mreduct);
else if (procno==0)
    printf("User-defined reduction successful: %d\n",positive_minimum);

MPI_Finalize();
return 0;
}
```

3.16.23 Listing of code examples/mpi/p/reductpositive.py

```
import numpy as np
import random
from mpi4py import MPI

comm = MPI.COMM_WORLD
procid = comm.Get_rank()
```

3. MPI topic: Collectives

```
nprocs = comm.Get_size()
if nprocs<2:
    print("C'mon, get real....")
    sys.exit(1)

def reduceWithoutZero(in_buf, inout_buf, datatype):
    typecode = MPI._typecode(datatype)
    assert typecode is not None ## check MPI datatype is built-in
    dtype = np.dtype(typecode)

    in_array = np.frombuffer(in_buf, dtype)
    inout_array = np.frombuffer(inout_buf, dtype)

    n = in_array[0]; r = inout_array[0]
    if n==0:
        m = r
    elif r==0:
        m = n
    elif n<r:
        m = n
    else:
        m = r
    inout_array[0] = m

ndata = 10
data = np.zeros(10,dtype=intc)
data[:] = [2,3,0,5,0,1,8,12,4,0]

if nprocs>ndata:
    print("Too many procs for this example: at most %d\n" %ndata)
    sys.exit(1)

#
# compute reduction by hand
#
mreduct=2000000000
for i in range(nprocs):
    if data[i]<mreduct and data[i]>0:
        mreduct = data[i]

rwz = MPI.Op.Create(reduceWithoutZero)
positive_minimum = np.zeros(1,dtype=intc)
comm.Allreduce(data[procid],positive_minimum,rwz);

#
# check that the distributed result is the same as sequential
#
if mreduct!=positive_minimum:
    print("[%d] Result %d should be %d\n" % \
          procid,positive_minimum,mreduct)
elif procid==0:
    print("User-defined reduction successful: %d\n" % positive_minimum)
```

3.16.24 Listing of code examples/mpi/c/ibarrierprobe.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <time.h>
#include <unistd.h>
#include <mpi.h>

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

#include "globalinit.c"

/*
 * Pick one random process
 * that will do a send
 */
int sender,receiver;
if (procno==0)
    sender = rand()%nprocs;
MPI_Bcast(&sender,1,MPI_INT,0,comm);
int i_do_send = sender==procno;

float data=1.;
MPI_Request send_request;
if (i_do_send) {
/*
 * Pick a random process to send to,
 * not yourself.
 */
int receiver = rand()%nprocs;
while (receiver==procno) receiver = rand()%nprocs;
printf("[%d] random send performed to %d\n",procno,receiver);
//MPI_Isend(&data,1,MPI_FLOAT,receiver,0,comm,&send_request);
MPI_Ssend(&data,1,MPI_FLOAT,receiver,0,comm);
}
/*
 * Everyone posts the non-blocking barrier
 * and gets a request to test/wait for
 */
MPI_Request barrier_request;
MPI_Ibarrier(comm,&barrier_request);

int step=0;
/*
 * Now everyone repeatedly tests the barrier
 * and probes for incoming message.
 * If the barrier completes, there are no
 * incoming message.
 */
MPI_Barrier(comm);
double tstart = MPI_Wtime();

for ( ; ; step++) {
    int barrier_done_flag=0;
```

3. MPI topic: Collectives

```
MPI_Test(&barrier_request,&barrier_done_flag,
          MPI_STATUS_IGNORE);
//stop if you're done!
if (barrier_done_flag) {
    break;
} else {
    // if you're not done with the barrier:
    int flag; MPI_Status status;
    MPI_Iprobe
        ( MPI_ANY_SOURCE,MPI_ANY_TAG,
          comm, &flag, &status );
    if (flag) {
        // absorb message!
    }
    int sender = status.MPI_SOURCE;
    MPI_Recv(&data,1,MPI_FLOAT, sender,0,comm,MPI_STATUS_IGNORE);
    printf("[%d] random receive from %d\n",procno, sender);
}
MPI_Barrier(comm);
double duration = MPI_Wtime()-tstart;
if (procno==0) printf("Probe loop: %e\n",duration);

printf("[%d] concluded after %d steps\n",procno,step);
MPI_Wait(&barrier_request,MPI_STATUS_IGNORE);
/* if (i_do_send) */
/*   MPI_Wait(&send_request,MPI_STATUS_IGNORE); */

MPI_Finalize();
return 0;
}
```

3.16.25 Listing of code examples/mpi/c/findbarrier.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <time.h>
#include <unistd.h>
#include <mpi.h>

int main(int argc,char **argv) {
    MPI_Comm comm;
    int nprocs,procid;

    MPI_Init(&argc,&argv);
    comm = MPI_COMM_WORLD;
    MPI_Comm_size(comm,&nprocs);
    MPI_Comm_rank(comm,&procid);

    int mysleep;
    srand(procid*time(NULL));
    mysleep = nprocs * (rand()/(double)RAND_MAX);
```

```
printf("[%d] working for %d seconds\n",procid,mysleep);
sleep(mysleep);

printf("[%d] finished, now posting barrier\n",procid);
MPI_Request final_barrier;
MPI_Ibarrier(comm,&final_barrier);

int global_finish=mysleep;
do {
    int all_done_flag=0;
    MPI_Test(&final_barrier,&all_done_flag,MPI_STATUS_IGNORE);
    if (all_done_flag) {
        break;
    } else {
        int flag; MPI_Status status;
        // force progress
        MPI_Iprobe
            ( MPI_ANY_SOURCE,MPI_ANY_TAG,
              comm, &flag, MPI_STATUS_IGNORE );
        printf("[%d] going to work for another second\n",procid);
        sleep(1);
        global_finish++;
    }
} while (1);

MPI_Wait(&final_barrier,MPI_STATUS_IGNORE);
printf("[%d] concluded %d work, total time %d\n",
procid,mysleep,global_finish);

MPI_Finalize();
return 0;
}
```

Chapter 4

MPI topic: Point-to-point

4.1 Blocking point-to-point operations

Suppose you have an array of numbers $x_i : i = 0, \dots, N$ and you want to compute

$$y_i = (x_{i-1} + x_i + x_{i+1})/3 : i = 1, \dots, N - 1.$$

As before (see figure 2.6), we give each processor a subset of the x_i s and y_i s. Let's define i_p as the first index of y that is computed by processor p . (What is the last index computed by processor p ? How many indices are computed on that processor?)

We often talk about the *owner computes* model of parallel computing: each processor ‘owns’ certain data items, and it computes their value.

Now let's investigate how processor p goes about computing y_i for the i -values it owns. Let's assume that process p also stores the values x_i for these same indices. Now, for many values i it can evaluate the computation

$$y_i = (x_{i-1} + x_i + x_{i+1})/3$$

locally (figure 4.1).

However, there is a problem with computing y in the first index i_p on processor p :

$$y_{i_p} = (x_{i_p-1} + x_{i_p} + x_{i_p+1})/3$$

The point to the left, x_{i_p-1} , is not stored on process p (it is stored on $p-1$), so it is not immediately available for use by process p . (figure 4.2). There is a similar story with the last index that p tries to compute: that involves a value that is only present on $p+1$.

You see that there is a need for processor-to-processor, or technically *point-to-point*, information exchange. MPI realizes this through matched send and receive calls:

- One process does a send to a specific other process;
- the other process does a specific receive from that source.

We will now discuss the send and receive routines in detail.

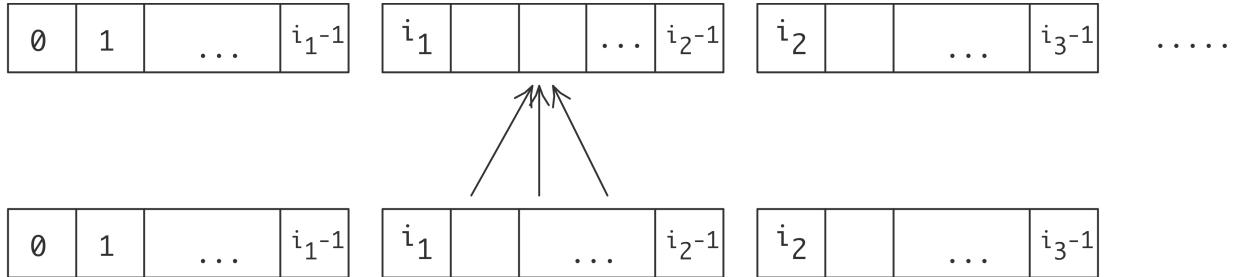


Figure 4.1: Three point averaging in parallel

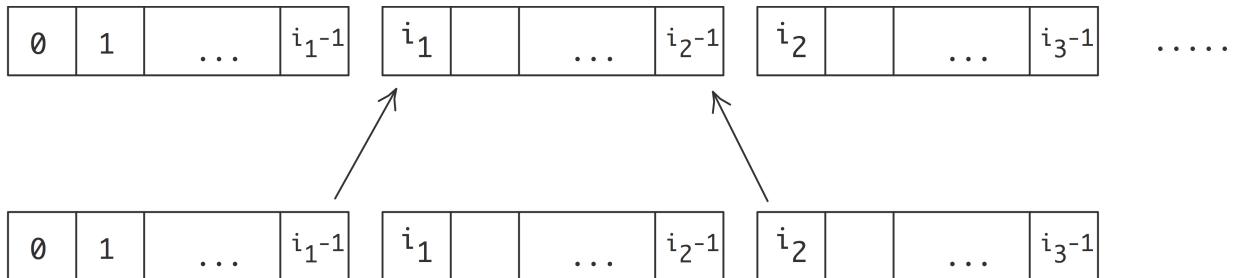


Figure 4.2: Three point averaging in parallel, case of edge points

4.1.1 Example: ping-pong

A simple scenario for information exchange between just two processes is the *ping-pong*: process A sends data to process B, which sends data back to A. This means that process A executes the code

```
|| MPI_Send( /* to: */ B ..... );
|| MPI_Recv( /* from: */ B ... );
```

while process B executes

```
|| MPI_Recv( /* from: */ A ... );
|| MPI_Send( /* to: */ A ..... );
```

Since we are programming in SPMD mode, this means our program looks like:

```
|| if ( /* I am process A */ ) {
||   MPI_Send( /* to: */ B ..... );
||   MPI_Recv( /* from: */ B ... );
|| } else if ( /* I am process B */ ) {
||   MPI_Recv( /* from: */ A ... );
||   MPI_Send( /* to: */ A ..... );
|| }
```

Remark 8 *The structure of the send and receive calls shows the symmetric nature of MPI: every target process is reached with the same send call, no matter whether it's running on the same multicore chip as the sender, or on a computational node halfway across the machine room, taking several network hops to reach. Of course,*

4. MPI topic: Point-to-point

Figure 4.1 MPI_Send

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Send (
MPI_Send_c (
buf	initial address of send buffer		const void*	TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)	IN
count	number of elements in send buffer		[int MPI_Count]	INTEGER	IN
datatype	datatype of each send buffer element		MPI_Datatype	TYPE (MPI_Datatype)	IN
dest	rank of destination		int	INTEGER	IN
tag	message tag		int	INTEGER	IN
comm	communicator		MPI_Comm	TYPE (MPI_Comm)	IN
)					

MPL:

```
template<typename T >
void mpl::communicator::send
( const T scalar&,int dest,tag = tag(0) ) const
( const T *buffer,const layout< T > &,int dest,tag = tag(0) ) const
( iterT begin,iterT end,int dest,tag = tag(0) ) const
T : scalar type
begin : begin iterator
end : end iterator
```

Python:

```
Python native:
MPI.Comm.send(self, obj, int dest, int tag=0)
Python numpy:
MPI.Comm.Send(self, buf, int dest, int tag=0)
```

any self-respecting MPI implementation optimizes for the case where sender and receiver have access to the same shared memory. This means that a send/recv pair is realized as a copy operation from the sender buffer to the receiver buffer, rather than a network transfer.

4.1.2 Send call

The blocking send command is `MPI_Send` (figure 4.1). Example:

```
// sendandrecv.c
double send_data = 1.;

MPI_Send
( /* send buffer/count/type: */ &send_data,1,MPI_DOUBLE,
/* to: */ receiver, /* tag: */ 0,
/* communicator: */ comm);
```

For the full source of this example, see section 4.5.2

The send call has the following elements.

Buffer The *send buffer* is described by a trio of buffer/count/datatype. See section 3.2.4 for discussion.

Target The *message target* is an explicit process rank to send to. This rank is a number from zero up to the result of `MPI_Comm_size`. It is allowed for a process to send to itself, but this may lead to a runtime deadlock; see section 4.1.4 for discussion.

Tag Next, a message can have a *tag*. Many applications have each sender send only one message at a time to a given receiver. For the case where there are multiple simultaneous messages between the same sender / receiver pair, the tag can be used to disambiguate between the messages.

Often, a tag value of zero is safe to use. Indeed, OO interfaces to MPI typically have the tag as an optional parameter with value zero. If you do use tag values, you can use the key `MPI_TAG_UB` to query what the maximum value is that can be used; see section 15.1.2.

Communicator Finally, in common with the vast majority of MPI calls, there is a communicator argument that provides a context for the send transaction.

MPL note 23: Blocking send and receive. MPL uses a default value for the tag, and it can deduce the type of the buffer. Sending a scalar becomes:

```
// sendscalar.cxx
if (comm_world.rank()==0) {
    double pi=3.14;
    comm_world.send(pi, 1); // send to rank 1
    cout << "sent: " << pi << '\n';
} else if (comm_world.rank()==1) {
    double pi=0;
    comm_world.recv(pi, 0); // receive from rank 0
    cout << "got : " << pi << '\n';
}
```

For the full source of this example, see section 4.5.3

MPL note 24: Sending arrays. MPL can send static arrays without further layout specification:

```
// sendarray.cxx
double v[2][2][2];
comm_world.send(v, 1); // send to rank 1
comm_world.recv(v, 0); // receive from rank 0
```

For the full source of this example, see section 4.5.4

Sending vectors uses a general mechanism:

```
// sendbuffer.cxx
std::vector<double> v(8);
mpl::contiguous_layout<double> v_layout(v.size());
    comm_world.send(v.data(), v_layout, 1); // send to rank 1
    comm_world.recv(v.data(), v_layout, 0); // receive from rank 0
```

For the full source of this example, see section 4.5.5

MPL note 25: Iterator buffers. It is possible to send containers by iterators

```
// sendrange.cxx
vector<double> v(15);
comm_world.send(v.begin(), v.end(), 1); // send to rank 1
comm_world.recv(v.begin(), v.end(), 0); // receive from rank 0
```

For the full source of this example, see section 4.5.6

MPL note 26: Iterator layout. Noncontiguous iterable objects can be sent with a `iterator_layout`:

```
std::list<int> v(20, 0);
mpl::iterator_layout<int> l(v.begin(), v.end());
comm_world.recv(&(*v.begin()), l, 0);
```

4.1.3 Receive call

The basic blocking receive command is `MPI_Recv` (figure 4.2).

An example:

```
double recv_data;
MPI_Recv
( /* recv buffer/count/type: */ &recv_data, 1, MPI_DOUBLE,
  /* from: */ sender, /* tag: */ 0,
  /* communicator: */ comm,
  /* recv status: */ MPI_STATUS_IGNORE);
```

For the full source of this example, see section 4.5.2

This is similar in structure to the send call, with some exceptions.

Buffer The *receive buffer* has the same buffer/count/data parameters as the send call. However, the *count* argument here indicates the size of the buffer, rather than the actual length of a message. This sets an upper bound on the length of the incoming message.

- For receiving messages with unknown length, use `MPI_Probe`; section 4.3.1.
- A message longer than the buffer size will give an overflow error, either returning an error, or ending your program; see section 15.2.2.

The length of the received message can be determined from the status object; see section 4.3.2 for more detail.

Source Mirroring the target argument of the `MPI_Send` call, `MPI_Recv` has a *message source* argument. This can be either a specific rank, or it can be the `MPI_ANY_SOURCE` wildcard. In the latter case, the actual source can be determined after the message has been received; see section 4.3.2. A source value of `MPI_PROC_NULL` is also allowed, which makes the receive succeed immediately with no data received.

MPL note 27: Any source. The constant `mpl::any_source` equals `MPI_ANY_SOURCE` (by `constexpr`).

Figure 4.2 MPI_Recv

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Recv (
MPI_Recv_c (
buf		initial address of receive buffer	void*	TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)	OUT
count		number of elements in receive buffer	[int MPI_Count]	INTEGER	IN
datatype		datatype of each receive buffer element	MPI_Datatype	TYPE (MPI_Datatype)	IN
source		rank of source or MPI_ANY_SOURCE	int	INTEGER	IN
tag		message tag or MPI_ANY_TAG	int	INTEGER	IN
comm		communicator	MPI_Comm	TYPE (MPI_Comm)	IN
status		status object	MPI_Status*	TYPE (MPI_Status)	OUT
)					

MPL:

```
template<typename T >
status mpl::communicator::recv
( T &,int,tag = tag(0) ) const inline
( T *,const layout< T > &,int,tag = tag(0) ) const
( iterT begin,iterT end,int source, tag t = tag(0) ) const
```

Python:

```
Comm.Recv(self, buf, int source=ANY_SOURCE, int tag=ANY_TAG,
           Status status=None)
Python native:
recvbuf = Comm.recv(self, buf=None, int source=ANY_SOURCE, int tag=ANY_TAG,
                     Status status=None)
```

Tag Similar to the message source, the message tag of a receive call can be a specific value or a wildcard, in this case `MPI_ANY_TAG`. Again, see below.

Communicator The communicator argument almost goes without remarking.

Status The `MPI_Recv` command has one parameter that the send call lacks: the `MPI_Status` object, describing the *message status*. This gives information about the message received, for instance if you used wildcards for source or tag. See section 4.3.2 for more about the status object.

Remark 9 If you're not interested in the status, as is the case in many examples in this book, specify the constant `MPI_STATUS_IGNORE`. Note that the signature of `MPI_Recv` lists the `status` parameter as 'output'; this 'direction' of the parameter of course only applies if you do not specify this constant. (See also section 15.10.1.)

Exercise 4.1. Implement the ping-pong program. Add a timer using `MPI_Wtime`. For the

status argument of the receive call, use `MPI_STATUS_IGNORE`.

- Run multiple ping-pongs (say a thousand) and put the timer around the loop. The first run may take longer; try to discard it.
- Run your code with the two communicating processes first on the same node, then on different nodes. Do you see a difference?
- Then modify the program to use longer messages. How does the timing increase with message size?

For bonus points, can you do a regression to determine α, β ?

(There is a skeleton for this exercise under the name `pingpong`.)

Exercise 4.2. Take your `pingpong` program and modify it to let half the processors be source and the other half the targets. Does the pingpong time increase?

4.1.4 Problems with blocking communication

You may be tempted to think that the send call puts the data somewhere in the network, and the sending code can progress, as in figure 4.3, left. But this ideal scenario is not realistic: it assumes that somewhere

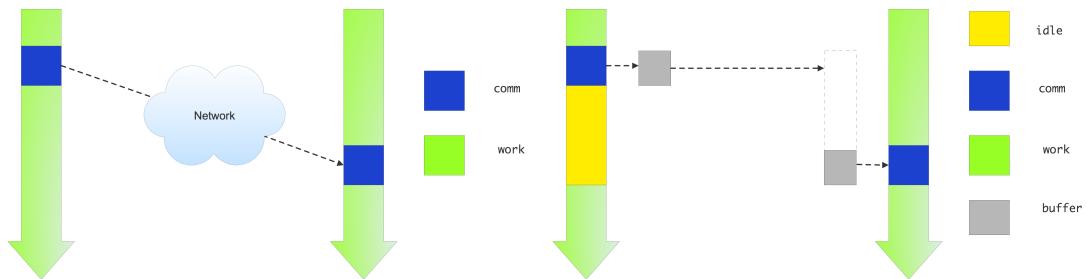


Figure 4.3: Illustration of an ideal (left) and actual (right) send-receive interaction

in the network there is buffer capacity for all messages that are in transit. This is not the case: data resides on the sender, and the sending call blocks, until the receiver has received all of it. (There is an exception for small messages, as explained in the next section.)

The use of `MPI_Send` and `MPI_Recv` is known as *blocking communication*: when your code reaches a send or receive call, it blocks until the call is successfully completed.

Technically, blocking operations are called *non-local* since their execution depends on factors that are not local to the process. See section 5.4.

For a receive call it is clear that the receiving code will wait until the data has actually come in, but for a send call this is more subtle.

4.1.4.1 Deadlock

Suppose two processes need to exchange data, and consider the following pseudo-code, which purports to exchange data between processes 0 and 1:

```

|| other = 1-mytid; /* if I am 0, other is 1; and vice versa */
|| receive(source=other);
|| send(target=other);

```

Imagine that the two processes execute this code. They both issue the send call... and then can't go on, because they are both waiting for the other to issue the send call corresponding to their receive call. This is known as *deadlock*.

4.1.4.2 Eager vs rendezvous protocol

Messages can be sent using (at least) two different *protocols*:

1. Rendezvous protocol, and
2. Eager protocol.

The *rendezvous protocol* is the most general. Sending a message takes several steps:

1. the sender sends a header, typically containing the *message envelope*;
2. the receiver returns a 'ready-to-send' message;
3. the sender sends the actual data.

The purpose of this is to prepare the receiver buffer space for large messages. However, it implies that the sender has to wait for some return message from the receiver, making the behavior a *synchronous message*.

For the eager protocol, consider the example:

```

|| other = 1-mytid; /* if I am 0, other is 1; and vice versa */
|| send(target=other);
|| receive(source=other);

```

With a synchronous protocol you should get deadlock, since the send calls will be waiting for the receive operation to be posted.

In practice, however, this code will often work. The reason is that MPI implementations sometimes send small messages regardless of whether the receive has been posted. This relies on the availability of some amount of available buffer space. The size under which this behavior is used is sometimes referred to as the *eager limit*.

To illustrate eager and blocking behavior in `MPI_Send`, consider an example where we send gradually larger messages. From the screen output you can see what the largest message was that fell under the eager limit; after that the code hangs because of a deadlock.

```

// sendblock.c
other = 1-procno;
/* loop over increasingly large messages */
for (int size=1; size<2000000000; size*=10) {
    sendbuf = (int*) malloc(size*sizeof(int));
    recvbuf = (int*) malloc(size*sizeof(int));
    if (!sendbuf || !recvbuf) {
        printf("Out of memory\n"); MPI_Abort(comm,1);
    }
}

```

4. MPI topic: Point-to-point

```
    MPI_Send(sendbuf, size, MPI_INT, other, 0, comm);
    MPI_Recv(recvbuf, size, MPI_INT, other, 0, comm, &status);
    /* If control reaches this point, the send call
       did not block. If the send call blocks,
       we do not reach this point, and the program will hang.
    */
    if (procno==0)
        printf("Send did not block for size %d\n", size);
    free(sendbuf); free(recvbuf);
}
```

For the full source of this example, see section 4.5.7

```
!! sendblock.F90
other = 1-mytid
size = 1
do
    allocate(sendbuf(size)); allocate(recvbuf(size))
    print *,size
    call MPI_Send(sendbuf, size, MPI_INTEGER, other, 0, comm, err)
    call MPI_Recv(recvbuf, size, MPI_INTEGER, other, 0, comm, status, err)
    if (mytid==0) then
        print *, "MPI_Send did not block for size", size
    end if
    deallocate(sendbuf); deallocate(recvbuf)
    size = size*10
    if (size>2000000000) goto 20
end do
20 continue
```

For the full source of this example, see section 4.5.8

```
## sendblock.py
size = 1
while size<2000000000:
    sendbuf = np.empty(size, dtype=int)
    recvbuf = np.empty(size, dtype=int)
    comm.Send(sendbuf, dest=other)
    comm.Recv(recvbuf, source=other)
    if procid<other:
        print("Send did not block for", size)
    size *= 10
```

For the full source of this example, see section 4.5.9

If you want a code to exhibit the same blocking behavior for all message sizes, you force the send call to be blocking by using `MPI_Ssend`, which has the same calling sequence as `MPI_Send`, but which does not allow eager sends.

```
// ssendlblock.c
other = 1-procno;
sendbuf = (int*) malloc(sizeof(int));
recvbuf = (int*) malloc(sizeof(int));
size = 1;
MPI_Ssend(sendbuf, size, MPI_INT, other, 0, comm);
MPI_Recv(recvbuf, size, MPI_INT, other, 0, comm, &status);
```

```
|| printf("This statement is not reached\n");
```

For the full source of this example, see section [4.5.10](#)

Formally you can describe deadlock as follows. Draw up a graph where every process is a node, and draw a directed arc from process A to B if A is waiting for B. There is deadlock if this directed graph has a loop.

The solution to the deadlock in the above example is to first do the send from 0 to 1, and then from 1 to 0 (or the other way around). So the code would look like:

```
|| if ( /* I am processor 0 */ ) {
    send(target=other);
    receive(source=other);
} else {
    receive(source=other);
    send(target=other);
}
```

Eager sends also influences *non-blocking* sends. The wait call after a non-blocking send:

Code:

```
// eageri.c
printf("Sending %lu elements\n",n);
MPI_Request request;
MPI_Isend(buffer,n,MPI_DOUBLE,processB,0,comm,&request);
MPI_Wait(&request,MPI_STATUS_IGNORE);
printf("... concluded\n");
```

Output:

```
Setting eager limit to 5000 bytes
TACC: Starting up job 4049189
TACC: Starting parallel tasks...
Sending 1 elements
... concluded
Sending 10 elements
... concluded
Sending 100 elements
... concluded
Sending 1000 elements
~C[mpiexec@c207-029.frontera.tacc.utexas.edu] Sending
```

will return immediately, regardless any receive call, if the message is under the eager limit.

The eager limit is implementation-specific. For instance, for *Intel MPI* there is a variable `I_MPI_EAGER_THRESHOLD` (old versions) or `I_MPI_SHM_EAGER_THRESHOLD`; for *mvapich2* it is `MV2_IBA_EAGER_THRESHOLD`, and for *OpenMPI* the `--mca` options `btl_openib_eager_limit` and `btl_openib_rndv_eager_limit`.

4.1.4.3 Serialization

There is a second, even more subtle problem with blocking communication. Consider the scenario where every processor needs to pass data to its successor, that is, the processor with the next higher rank. The basic idea would be to first send to your successor, then receive from your predecessor. Since the last processor does not have a successor it skips the send, and likewise the first processor skips the receive. The pseudo-code looks like:

```
|| successor = mytid+1; predecessor = mytid-1;
if ( /* I am not the last processor */ )
    send(target=successor);
if ( /* I am not the first processor */ )
    receive(source=predecessor)
```

Exercise 4.3. (Classroom exercise) Each student holds a piece of paper in the right hand

– keep your left hand behind your back – and we want to execute:

1. Give the paper to your right neighbor;
2. Accept the paper from your left neighbor.

Including boundary conditions for first and last process, that becomes the following program:

1. If you are not the rightmost student, turn to the right and give the paper to your right neighbor.
2. If you are not the leftmost student, turn to your left and accept the paper from your left neighbor.

This code does not deadlock. All processors but the last one block on the send call, but the last processor executes the receive call. Thus, the processor before the last one can do its send, and subsequently continue to its receive, which enables another send, et cetera.

In one way this code does what you intended to do: it will terminate (instead of hanging forever on a deadlock) and exchange data the right way. However, the execution now suffers from unexpected *serialization*: only one processor is active at any time, so what should have been a parallel operation becomes

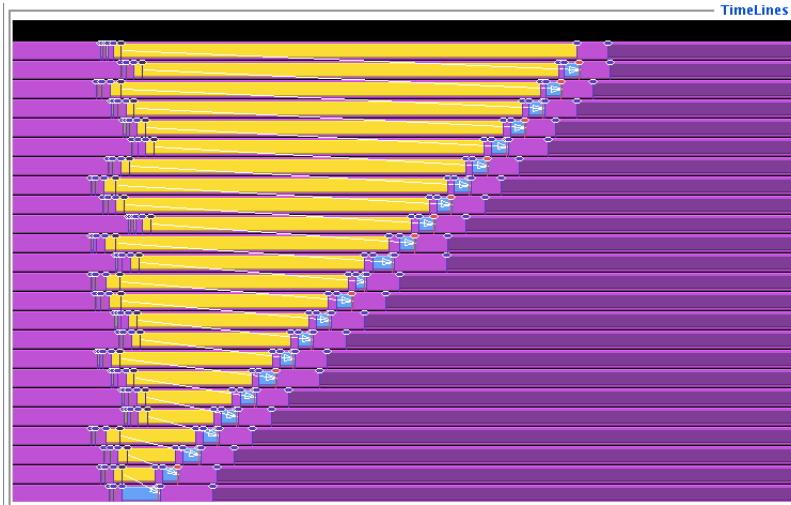


Figure 4.4: Trace of a simple send-recv code

a sequential one. This is illustrated in figure 4.4.

Exercise 4.4. Implement the above algorithm using `MPI_Send` and `MPI_Recv` calls. Run the code, and use TAU to reproduce the trace output of figure 4.4. If you don't have TAU, can you show this serialization behavior using timings, for instance running it on an increasing number of processes?

(There is a skeleton for this exercise under the name `rightsend`.)

It is possible to orchestrate your processes to get an efficient and deadlock-free execution, but doing so is a bit cumbersome.

Exercise 4.5. The above solution treated every processor equally. Can you come up with a solution that uses blocking sends and receives, but does not suffer from the serialization behavior?

There are better solutions which we will explore in the next section.

4.1.5 Bucket brigade

The problem with the previous exercise was that an operation that was conceptually parallel, became serial in execution. On the other hand, sometimes the operation is actually serial in nature. One example is the *bucket brigade* operation, where a piece of data is successively passed down a sequence of processors.

Exercise 4.6. Take the code of exercise 4.4 and modify it so that the data from process zero gets propagated to every process. Specifically, compute all partial sums $\sum_{i=0}^p i^2$:

$$\begin{cases} x_0 = 1 & \text{on process zero} \\ x_p = x_{p-1} + (p+1)^2 & \text{on process } p \end{cases}$$

Use `MPI_Send` and `MPI_Recv`; make sure to get the order right.

Food for thought: all quantities involved here are integers. Is it a good idea to use the integer datatype here?

Question: could you have done this with a collective call?

(There is a skeleton for this exercise under the name `bucketblock`.)

Remark 10 There is an `MPI_Scan` routine (section 3.4) that performs the same computation, but computationally more efficiently. Thus, this exercise only serves to illustrate the principle.

4.1.6 Pairwise exchange

Above you saw that with blocking sends the precise ordering of the send and receive calls is crucial. Use the wrong ordering and you get either deadlock, or something that is not efficient at all in parallel. MPI has a way out of this problem that is sufficient for many purposes: the combined send/recv call `MPI_Sendrecv` (figure 4.3).

The sendrecv call works great if every process is paired up. You would then write

```
// sendrecv( ....from... ...to... );
```

with the right choice of source and destination. For instance, to send data to your right neighbor:

```
// MPI_Comm_rank(comm,&procno);
MPI_Sendrecv( ....
/* from: */ procno-1
...
/* to: */ procno+1
... );
```

This scheme is correct for all processes but the first and last. In order to use the sendrecv call on these processes, we use `MPI_PROC_NULL` for the non-existing processes that the endpoints communicate with.

4. MPI topic: Point-to-point

Figure 4.3 MPI_Sendrecv

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Sendrecv					
	MPI_Sendrecv_c				
	sendbuf	initial address of send buffer	const void*	TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)	IN
	sendcount	number of elements in send buffer	[int MPI_Count]	INTEGER	IN
	sendtype	type of elements in send buffer	MPI_Datatype	TYPE (MPI_Datatype)	IN
	dest	rank of destination	int	INTEGER	IN
	sendtag	send tag	int	INTEGER	IN
	recvbuf	initial address of receive buffer	void*	TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)	OUT
	recvcount	number of elements in receive buffer	[int MPI_Count]	INTEGER	IN
	recvtype	type of elements receive buffer element	MPI_Datatype	TYPE (MPI_Datatype)	IN
	source	rank of source or MPI_ANY_SOURCE	int	INTEGER	IN
	recvtag	receive tag or MPI_ANY_TAG	int	INTEGER	IN
	comm	communicator	MPI_Comm	TYPE (MPI_Comm)	IN
	status	status object	MPI_Status*	TYPE (MPI_Status)	OUT
)				

MPL:

```
template<typename T >
status mpl::communicator::sendrecv
( const T & senddata, int dest,   tag sendtag,
  T & recvdata, int source, tag recvtag
) const
( const T * senddata, const layout< T > & sendl, int dest,   tag sendtag,
  T * recvdata, const layout< T > & recvl, int source, tag recvtag
) const
( iterT1 begin1, iterT1 end1, int dest,   tag sendtag,
  iterT2 begin2, iterT2 end2, int source, tag recvtag
) const
```

Python:

```
Sendrecv(self,
    sendbuf, int dest, int sendtag=0,
    recvbuf=None, int source=ANY_SOURCE, int recvtag=ANY_TAG,
    Status status=None)
```

```

MPI_Comm_rank( .... &mytid );
if ( /* I am not the first processor */
    predecessor = mytid-1;
else
    predecessor = MPI_PROC_NULL;
if ( /* I am not the last processor */
    successor = mytid+1;
else
    successor = MPI_PROC_NULL;
sendrecv(from=predecessor,to=successor);

```

where the sendrecv call is executed by all processors.

All processors but the last one send to their neighbor; the target value of `MPI_PROC_NULL` for the last processor means a ‘send to the null processor’: no actual send is done. The null processor value is also of use with the `MPI_Sendrecv` call; section 4.1.6.

Likewise, receive from `MPI_PROC_NULL` succeeds without altering the receive buffer. The corresponding `MPI_Status` object has source `MPI_PROC_NULL`, tag `MPI_ANY_TAG`, and count zero.

Remark 11 *The `MPI_Sendrecv` can inter-operate with the normal send and receive calls, both blocking and non-blocking. Thus it would also be possible to replace the `MPI_Sendrecv` calls at the end points by simple sends or receives.*

MPL note 28: Send-recv call. The send-recv call in MPL has the same possibilities for specifying the send and receive buffer as the separate send and recv calls: scalar, layout, iterator. However, out of the nine conceivably possible routine signatures, only the versions are available where the send and receive buffer are specified the same way. Also, the send and receive tag need to be specified; they do not have default values.

```

// sendrecv.cxx
mpl::tag t0(0);
comm_world.sendrecv
( mydata,sendto,t0,
leftdata,recvfrom,t0 );

```

Exercise 4.7. Revisit exercise 4.3 and solve it using `MPI_Sendrecv`.

If you have TAU installed, make a trace. Does it look different from the serialized send/recv code? If you don’t have TAU, run your code with different numbers of processes and show that the runtime is essentially constant.

This call makes it easy to exchange data between two processors: both specify the other as both target and source. However, there need not be any such relation between target and source: it is possible to receive from a predecessor in some ordering, and send to a successor in that ordering; see figure 4.5.

For the above three-point combination scheme you need to move data both left right, so you need two `MPI_Sendrecv` calls; see figure 4.6.

Exercise 4.8. Implement the above three-point combination scheme using `MPI_Sendrecv`; every processor only has a single number to send to its neighbor.
(There is a skeleton for this exercise under the name `sendrecv`.)

4. MPI topic: Point-to-point

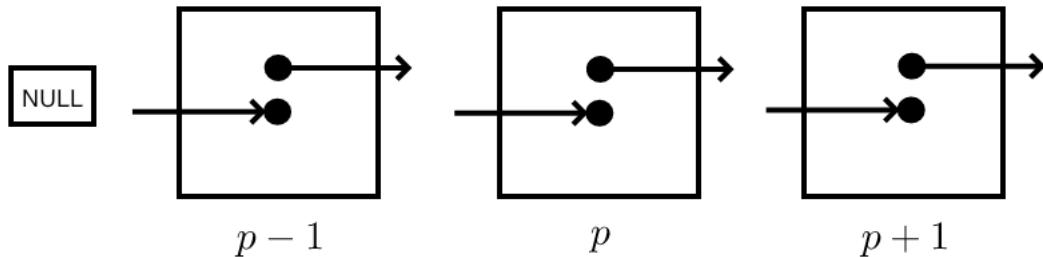


Figure 4.5: An MPI Sendrecv call

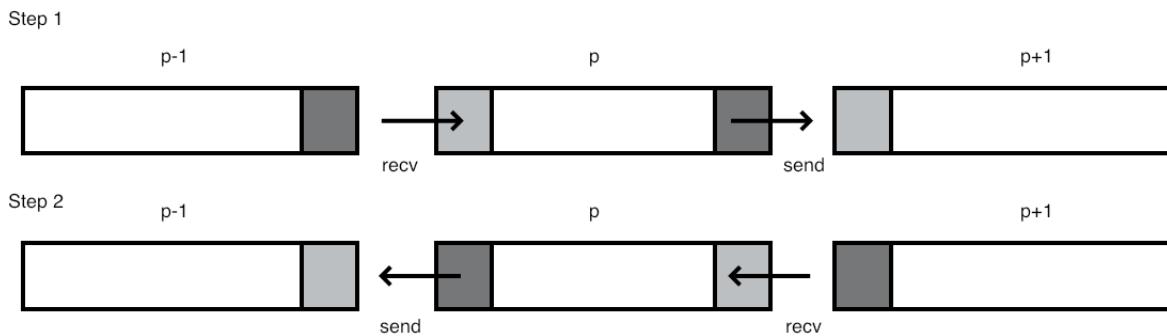


Figure 4.6: Two steps of send/recv to do a three-point combination

Hints for this exercise:

- Each process does one send and one receive; if a process needs to skip one or the other, you can specify `MPI_PROC_NULL` as the other process in the send or receive specification. In that case the corresponding action is not taken.
- As with the simple send/recv calls, processes have to match up: if process p specifies p' as the destination of the send part of the call, p' needs to specify p as the source of the recv part.

The following exercise lets you implement a sorting algorithm with the send-receive call¹.

Exercise 4.9. A very simple sorting algorithm is *swap sort* or *odd-even transposition sort*:

pairs of processors compare data, and if necessary exchange. The elementary step is called a *compare-and-swap*: in a pair of processors each sends their data to the other; one keeps the minimum values, and the other the maximum. For simplicity, in this exercise we give each processor just a single number.

The exchange sort algorithm is split in even and odd stages, where in the even stage, processors $2i$ and $2i + 1$ compare and swap data, and in the odd stage, processors $2i + 1$ and $2i + 2$ compare and swap. You need to repeat this $P/2$ times, where P is the number of processors; see figure 4.7.

Implement this algorithm using `MPI_Sendrecv`. (Use `MPI_PROC_NULL` for the edge cases if needed.) Use a gather call to print the global state of the distributed array at the

1. There is an `MPI_Compare_and_swap` call. Do not use that.

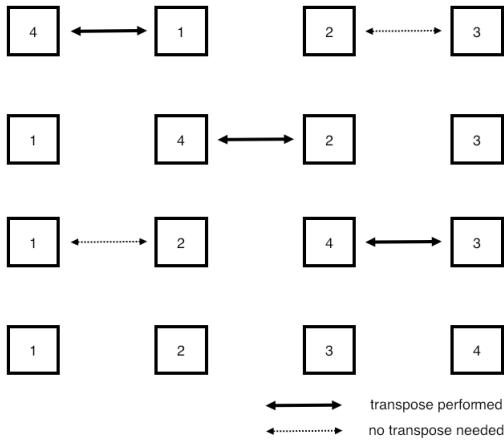


Figure 4.7: Odd-even transposition sort on 4 elements.

beginning and end of the sorting process.

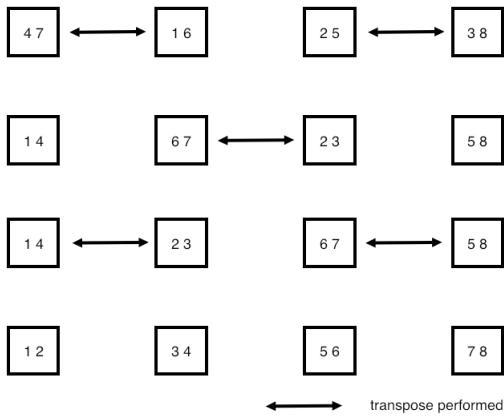


Figure 4.8: Odd-even transposition sort on 4 processes, holding 2 elements each.

Remark 12 It is not possible to use `MPI_IN_PLACE` for the buffers. Instead, the routine `MPI_Sendrecv_replace` (figure 4.4) has only one buffer, used as both send and receive buffer. Of course, this requires the send and receive messages to fit in that one buffer.

Exercise 4.10. Extend this exercise to the case where each process hold an equal number of elements, more than 1. Consider figure 4.8 for inspiration. Is it coincidence that the algorithm takes the same number of steps as in the single scalar case?

The following material is for the recently released MPI-4 standard and may not be supported yet.

There are *non-blocking* and *persistent* versions of this routine: `MPI_Isendrecv`, `MPI_Sendrecv_init`, `MPI_Isendrecv_replace`, `MPI_Sendrecv_replace_init`.

End of MPI-4 material

Figure 4.4 MPI_Sendrecv_replace

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Sendrecv_replace					
	MPI_Sendrecv_replace_c				
buf		initial address of send and receive buffer	void*	TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)	INOUT
count		number of elements in send and receive buffer	[int MPI_Count]	INTEGER	IN
datatype		type of elements in send and receive buffer	MPI_Datatype	TYPE (MPI_Datatype)	IN
dest		rank of destination	int	INTEGER	IN
sendtag		send message tag	int	INTEGER	IN
source		rank of source or MPI_ANY_SOURCE	int	INTEGER	IN
recvtag		receive message tag or MPI_ANY_TAG	int	INTEGER	IN
comm		communicator	MPI_Comm	TYPE (MPI_Comm)	IN
status		status object	MPI_Status*	TYPE (MPI_Status)	OUT
)					

4.2 Nonblocking point-to-point operations

The structure of communication is often a reflection of the structure of the operation. With some regular applications we also get a regular communication pattern. Consider again the above operation:

$$y_i = x_{i-1} + x_i + x_{i+1} : i = 1, \dots, N-1$$

Doing this in parallel induces communication, as pictured in figure 4.1.

We note:

- The data is one-dimensional, and we have a linear ordering of the processors.
- The operation involves neighboring data points, and we communicate with neighboring processors.

Above you saw how you can use information exchange between pairs of processors

- using `MPI_Send` and `MPI_Recv`, if you are careful; or
- using `MPI_Sendrecv`, as long as there is indeed some sort of pairing of processors.

However, there are circumstances where it is not possible, not efficient, or simply not convenient, to have such a deterministic setup of the send and receive calls. Figure 4.9 illustrates such a case, where processors are organized in a general graph pattern. Here, the numbers of sends and receive of a processor do not need to match.

In such cases, one wants a possibility to state ‘these are the expected incoming messages’, without having to wait for them in sequence. Likewise, one wants to declare the outgoing messages without having to do them in any particular sequence. Imposing any sequence on the sends and receives is likely to run into

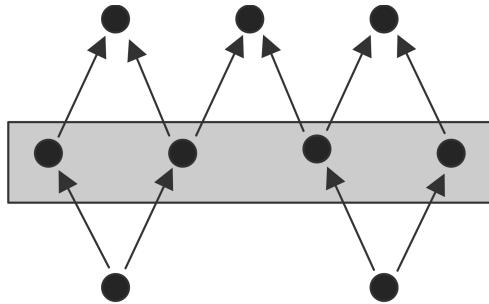


Figure 4.9: Processors with unbalanced send/receive patterns

the serialization behavior observed above, or at least be inefficient since processors will be waiting for messages.

4.2.1 Nonblocking send and receive calls

In the previous section you saw that blocking communication makes programming tricky if you want to avoid *deadlock* and performance problems. The main advantage of these routines is that you have full control about where the data is: if the send call returns the data has been successfully received, and the send buffer can be used for other purposes or de-allocated.

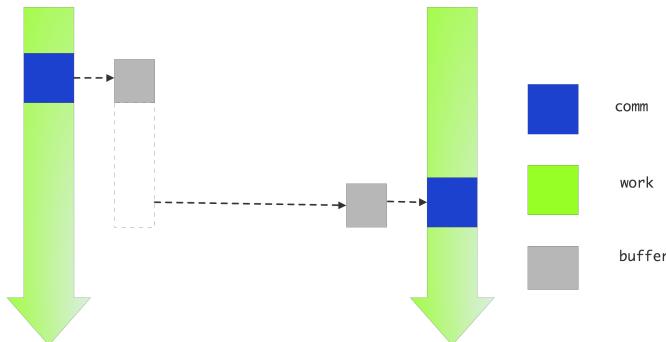


Figure 4.10: Nonblocking send

By contrast, the nonblocking calls `MPI_Isend` (figure 4.5) and `MPI_Irecv` (figure 4.6) (where the ‘I’ stands for ‘immediate’ or ‘incomplete’) do not wait for their counterpart: in effect they tell the runtime system ‘here is some data and please send it as follows’ or ‘here is some buffer space, and expect such-and-such data to come’. This is illustrated in figure 4.10.

```
// isendandirecv.c
double send_data = 1.;
MPI_Request request;
MPI_Isend
( /* send buffer/count/type: */ &send_data, 1, MPI_DOUBLE,
  /* to: */ receiver, /* tag: */ 0,
  /* communicator: */ comm,
```

4. MPI topic: Point-to-point

Figure 4.5 MPI_Isend

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
<code>MPI_Isend (</code>					
<code> MPI_Isend_c (</code>					
<code>buf</code>		initial address of send buffer	const void*	TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)	IN
<code>count</code>		number of elements in send buffer	[int MPI_Count]	INTEGER	IN
<code>datatype</code>		datatype of each send buffer element	MPI_Datatype	TYPE (MPI_Datatype)	IN
<code>dest</code>		rank of destination	int	INTEGER	IN
<code>tag</code>		message tag	int	INTEGER	IN
<code>comm</code>		communicator	MPI_Comm	TYPE (MPI_Comm)	IN
<code>request</code>		communication request	MPI_Request*	TYPE (MPI_Request)	OUT
<code>)</code>					

MPL:

```
template<typename T >
irequest mpl::communicator::isend
( const T & data, int dest, tag t = tag(0) ) const;
( const T * data, const layout< T > & l, int dest, tag t = tag(0) ) const;
( iterT begin, iterT end, int dest, tag t = tag(0) ) const;
```

Python:

```
request = MPI.Comm.Isend(self, buf, int dest, int tag=0)
```

```
/* request: */ &request);
MPI_Wait(&request,MPI_STATUS_IGNORE);
```

For the full source of this example, see section 4.5.11

```
double recv_data;
MPI_Request request;
MPI_Irecv
( /* recv buffer/count/type: */ &recv_data,1,MPI_DOUBLE,
  /* from: */ sender, /* tag: */ 0,
  /* communicator: */ comm,
  /* request: */ &request);
MPI_Wait(&request,MPI_STATUS_IGNORE);
```

For the full source of this example, see section 4.5.11

Issuing the `MPI_Isend` / `MPI_Irecv` call is sometimes referred to as *posting* a send/receive.

4.2.2 Request completion: wait calls

From the definition of `MPI_Isend` / `MPI_Irecv`, you seen that nonblocking routine yields an `MPI_Request` object. This request can then be used to query whether the operation has concluded. You may also notice

Figure 4.6 MPI_Irecv

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
<code>MPI_Irecv (</code>					
<code> MPI_Irecv_c (</code>					
<code>buf</code>		initial address of receive buffer	<code>void*</code>	<code>TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)</code>	<code>OUT</code>
<code>count</code>		number of elements in receive buffer	<code>[int MPI_Count]</code>	<code>INTEGER</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>datatype</code>		datatype of each receive buffer element	<code>MPI_Datatype</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Datatype)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>source</code>		rank of source or <code>MPI_ANY_SOURCE</code>	<code>int</code>	<code>INTEGER</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>tag</code>		message tag or <code>MPI_ANY_TAG</code>	<code>int</code>	<code>INTEGER</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>comm</code>		communicator	<code>MPI_Comm</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Comm)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>request</code>		communication request	<code>MPI_Request*</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Request)</code>	<code>OUT</code>
<code>)</code>					

MPL:

```
template<typename T >
irequest mpl::communicator::irecv
( const T & data, int src, tag t = tag(0) ) const;
( const T * data, const layout< T > & l, int src, tag t = tag(0) ) const;
( iterT begin, iterT end, int src, tag t = tag(0) ) const;
```

Python:

```
recvbuf = Comm.irecv(self, buf=None, int source=ANY_SOURCE, int tag=ANY_TAG,
Request request=None)
Python numpy:
Comm.Irecv(self, buf, int source=ANY_SOURCE, int tag=ANY_TAG,
Request status=None)
```

that the `MPI_Irecv` routine does not yield an `MPI_Status` object. This makes sense: the status object describes the actually received data, and at the completion of the `MPI_Irecv` call there is no received data yet.

Waiting for the request is done with a number of routines. We first consider `MPI_Wait` (figure 4.7). It takes the request as input, and gives an `MPI_Status` as output. If you don't need the status object, you can pass `MPI_STATUS_IGNORE`.

```
// hangwait.c
if (procno==sender) {
  for (int p=0; p<nprocs-1; p++) {
    double send = 1.;
    MPI_Send( &send,1,MPI_DOUBLE,p,0,comm);
  }
} else {
  double recv=0.;
  MPI_Request request;
  MPI_Irecv( &recv,1,MPI_DOUBLE, sender,0,comm,&request);
  MPI_Wait(&request,MPI_STATUS_IGNORE);
```

4. MPI topic: Point-to-point

Figure 4.7 MPI_Wait

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
<code>MPI_Wait (</code>					
<code>request</code>	<code>request</code>		<code>MPI_Request*</code> TYPE <code>(MPI_Request)</code>		<code>INOUT</code>
<code>status</code>	<code>status object</code>		<code>MPI_Status*</code> TYPE <code>(MPI_Status)</code>		<code>OUT</code>
<code>)</code>					

Python:

```
MPI.Request.Wait(type cls, request, status=None)
```

```
|| }
```

For the full source of this example, see section 4.5.12

The request is passed by reference, so that the wait routine can free it:

- The wait call deallocates the request object, and
- sets the value of the variable to `MPI_REQUEST_NULL`.

(See section 4.2.4 for details.)

MPL note 29: Requests from nonblocking calls. Nonblocking routines have an `irequest` as function result.

Note: not a parameter passed by reference, as in the C interface. The various wait calls are methods of the `irequest` class.

```
|| double recv_data;
|| mpl::irequest recv_request =
||     comm_world.irecv( recv_data, sender );
|| recv_request.wait();
```

For the full source of this example, see section 4.5.13

You can not default-construct the request variable:

```
|| // DOES NOT COMPILE:
|| mpl::irequest recv_request;
|| recv_request = comm.irecv( ... );
```

This means that the normal sequence of first declaring, and then filling in, the request variable is not possible.

MPL implementation note: The wait call always returns a `status` object; not assigning it means that the destructor is called on it.

Here we discuss in some detail the various wait calls. These are blocking; for the nonblocking versions see section 4.2.3.

4.2.2.1 Wait for one request

`MPI_Wait` waits for a single request. If you are indeed waiting for a single nonblocking communication to complete, this is the right routine. If you are waiting for multiple requests you could call this routine in a loop.

Figure 4.8 MPI_Waitall

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
<code>MPI_Waitall (</code>					

Python:

```
MPI.Request.Waitall(type cls, requests, statuses=None)
```

```
|| for (p=0; p<nrequests ; p++) // Not efficient!
    MPI_Wait(&request[p],&(status[p]));
```

However, this would be inefficient if the first request is fulfilled much later than the others: your waiting process would have lots of idle time. In that case, use one of the following routines.

4.2.2.2 Wait for all requests

`MPI_Waitall` (figure 4.8) allows you to wait for a number of requests, and it does not matter in what sequence they are satisfied. Using this routine is easier to code than the loop above, and it could be more efficient.

```
// irecvloop.c
MPI_Request requests =
  (MPI_Request*) malloc( 2*nprocs*sizeof(MPI_Request) );
recv_buffers = (int*) malloc( nprocs*sizeof(int) );
send_buffers = (int*) malloc( nprocs*sizeof(int) );
for (int p=0; p<nprocs; p++) {
  int
    left_p = (p-1+nprocs) % nprocs,
    right_p = (p+1) % nprocs;
  send_buffer[p] = nprocs-p;
  MPI_Isend(sendbuffer+p,1,MPI_INT, right_p,0, requests+2*p);
  MPI_Irecv(recvbuffer+p,1,MPI_INT, left_p,0, requests+2*p+1);
}
/* your useful code here */
MPI_Waitall(2*nprocs,requests,MPI_STATUSES_IGNORE);
```

The output argument is an array or `MPI_Status` object. If you don't need the status objects, you can pass `MPI_STATUSES_IGNORE`.

Exercise 4.11. Revisit exercise 4.6 and consider replacing the blocking calls by nonblocking ones. How far apart can you put the `MPI_Isend / MPI_Irecv` calls and the corresponding `MPI_Waits`?

(There is a skeleton for this exercise under the name `bucketskipnonblock`.)

4. MPI topic: Point-to-point

Solution to exercise 4.11.

```

## code #1
MPI_Request send_request, recv_request;
MPI_Status status;

for (int ipart=0; ipart<PARTS; ipart++) {
    MPI_Irecv(leftdata+partition_starts[ipart], partition_sizes[ipart], MPI_DOUBLE, &recv_request);
    // problem: operating on 'leftdata' starts without making sure it's actual data
    // problem2: memory leak because most request are never waited on.
    for (int i=partition_starts[ipart]; i<partition_starts[ipart]+partition_sizes[ipart]; i++){
        myvalue[i] = (procno+1)*(procno+1) + leftdata[i];
        MPI_Request reqSend[PARTS];
    }
    MPI_Isend(myvalue+partition_starts[ipart], partition_sizes[ipart], MPI_DOUBLE, &send_request);
    MPI_Irecv(leftdata+partition_starts[ipart], partition_sizes[ipart], MPI_DOUBLE, &recvfrom, &status);
    MPI_Wait(&send_request, &status);
    MPI_Wait(&recv_request, &status);
    // code #2
}

MPI_Request request;
for (int ipart=0; ipart<PARTS; ipart++) {
    MPI_Irecv(
        leftdata+partition_starts[ipart], partition_sizes[ipart],
        MPI_DOUBLE, &recvfrom, &comm, &request);
    MPI_Wait(&request, MPI_STATUS_IGNORE);
    // problem: Irecv & immediate wait is kinda pointless: equivalent to MPI_Waitall
    for (int i=partition_starts[ipart];
         i<partition_starts[ipart]+partition_sizes[ipart];
         i++)
        myvalue[i] = (procno+1)*(procno+1) + leftdata[i];
    MPI_Isend(
        myvalue+partition_starts[ipart], partition_sizes[ipart],
        MPI_DOUBLE, &sendto, &comm, &request);
    // problem2: Wait call is needed to prevent memory leak
    MPI_Wait(reqRecv+ipart, MPI_STATUS_IGNORE);
    // code #3
}

MPI_Request requests[2];
for (int ipart=0; ipart<PARTS; ipart++) {
    MPI_Irecv(
        leftdata+partition_starts[ipart], partition_sizes[ipart], MPI_DOUBLE, &recvfrom, &status);
    MPI_Wait(&(requests[0]), MPI_STATUS_IGNORE);
    for (int i=partition_starts[ipart];
         i<partition_starts[ipart]+partition_sizes[ipart];
         i++)
}

```

Exercise 4.12. Create two distributed arrays of positive integers. Take the set difference of the two: the first array needs to be transformed to remove from it those numbers that are in the second array.

How could you solve this with an `MPI_Allgather` call? Why is it not a good idea to do so? Solve this exercise instead with a circular bucket brigade algorithm.

(There is a skeleton for this exercise under the name `setdiff`.)

Python note 13: Handling a single request. Non-blocking routines such as `MPI_Isend` return a request object. The `MPI_Wait` is a class method, not a method of the request object:

```

## irecvsingle.py
sendbuffer = np.empty( nprocs, dtype=int )
recvbuffer = np.empty( nprocs, dtype=int )

left_p = (procid-1) % nprocs
right_p = (procid+1) % nprocs
send_request = comm.Isend\


```

```

    ( sendbuffer[procid:procid+1], dest=left_p)
recv_request = comm.Irecv\
    ( sendbuffer[procid:procid+1], source=right_p)
MPI.Request.Wait(send_request)
MPI.Request.Wait(recv_request)

```

For the full source of this example, see section [4.5.14](#)

Python note 14: Request arrays. An array of requests (for the waitall/some/any calls) is an ordinary Python list:

```

## irecvloop.py
requests = [] # [ None ] * (2*nprocs)
sendbuffer = np.empty( nprocs, dtype=int )
recvbuffer = np.empty( nprocs, dtype=int )

for p in range(nprocs):
    left_p = (p-1) % nprocs
    right_p = (p+1) % nprocs
    requests.append( comm.Isend\
        ( sendbuffer[p:p+1], dest=left_p ) )
    requests.append( comm.Irecv\
        ( sendbuffer[p:p+1], source=right_p ) )
MPI.Request.Waitall(requests)

```

For the full source of this example, see section [4.5.14](#)

The `MPI_Waitall` method is again a class method.

4.2.2.3 Wait for any requests

The ‘waitall’ routine is good if you need all nonblocking communications to be finished before you can proceed with the rest of the program. However, sometimes it is possible to take action as each request is satisfied. In that case you could use `MPI_Waitany` (figure 4.9) and write:

```

for (p=0; p<nrequests; p++) {
    MPI_Irecv(buffer+index, /* ... */, requests+index);
}
for (p=0; p<nrequests; p++) {
    MPI_Waitany(nrequests,request_array,&index,&status);
    // operate on buffer[index]
}

```

Note that this routine takes a single status argument, passed by reference, and not an array of statuses!

Fortran note 7: Index of requests. The `index` parameter is the index in the array of requests, so it uses *1-based indexing*.

```

!! irecvsource.F90
if (mytid==ntids-1) then
  do p=1,ntids-1
    print *, "post"
    call MPI_Irecv(recv_buffer(p),1,MPI_INTEGER,p-1,0,comm,&
      requests(p),err)

```

4. MPI topic: Point-to-point

Figure 4.9 MPI_Waitany

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Waitany					
count		list length	int	INTEGER	IN
array_of_requests		array of requests	MPI_Request []	TYPE (MPI_Request) (count)	INOUT
index		index of handle for operation that completed	int*	INTEGER	OUT
status		status object	MPI_Status*	TYPE (MPI_Status)	OUT
)					

Python:

```
MPI.Request.Waitany( requests,status=None )
class method, returns index
```

```
    end do
    do p=1,ntids-1
        call MPI_Waitany(ntids-1,requests,index,MPI_STATUS_IGNORE,err)
        write(*,'("Message from",i3,":",i5)') index,recv_buffer(index)
    end do
```

For the full source of this example, see section 4.5.15

```
!! waitnull.F90
Type(MPI_Request),dimension(:),allocatable :: requests
allocate(requests(ntids-1))
call MPI_Waitany(ntids-1,requests,index,MPI_STATUS_IGNORE)
if ( .not. requests(index)==MPI_REQUEST_NULL) then
    print *, "This request should be null:",index
```

For the full source of this example, see section 4.5.16

```
!! waitnull.F90
Type(MPI_Request),dimension(:),allocatable :: requests
allocate(requests(ntids-1))
call MPI_Waitany(ntids-1,requests,index,MPI_STATUS_IGNORE)
if ( .not. requests(index)==MPI_REQUEST_NULL) then
    print *, "This request should be null:",index
```

For the full source of this example, see section 4.5.16

MPL note 30: Request pools. Instead of an array of requests, use an `irequest_pool` object, which acts like a vector of requests, meaning that you can *push* onto it.

```
// irecvsource.cxx
mpl::irequest_pool recv_requests;
for (int p=0; p<nprocs-1; p++) {
    recv_requests.push( comm_world.irecv( recv_buffer[p], p ) );
}
```

For the full source of this example, see section 4.5.17

You can not declare a pool of a fixed size and assign elements.

MPL note 31: Wait any. The `irequest_pool` class has methods `waitany`, `waitall`, `testany`, `testall`, `waitsome`, `testsome`.

The ‘any’ methods return a `std::pair<bool, size_t>`, with `false` meaning `index==MPI_UNDEFINED` meaning no more requests to be satisfied.

```
|| auto [success, index] = recv_requests.waitany();
|| if (success) {
||     auto recv_status = recv_requests.get_status(index);
```

For the full source of this example, see section 4.5.17

Same for `testany`, then false means no requests test true.

MPL note 32: Request handling.

```
|| auto [success, index] = recv_requests.waitany();
|| if (success) {
||     auto recv_status = recv_requests.get_status(index);
```

4.2.2.4 Polling with MPI Wait any

The `MPI_Waitany` routine can be used to implement *polling*: occasionally check for incoming messages while other work is going on.

Code:

```
// irecvsource.c
if (procno==nprocs-1) {
    int *recv_buffer;
    MPI_Request *request; MPI_Status status;
    recv_buffer = (int*) malloc((nprocs-1)*sizeof(int));
    request = (MPI_Request*) malloc
        ((nprocs-1)*sizeof(MPI_Request));

    for (int p=0; p<nprocs-1; p++) {
        ierr = MPI_Irecv(recv_buffer+p, 1, MPI_INT, p, 0, comm,
                         request+p); CHK(ierr);
    }
    for (int p=0; p<nprocs-1; p++) {
        int index, sender;
        MPI_Waitany(nprocs-1, request, &index, &status);
        if (index!=status.MPI_SOURCE)
            printf("Mismatch index %d vs source %d\n",
                   index, status.MPI_SOURCE);
        printf("Message from %d: %d\n",
               index, recv_buffer[index]);
    }
} else {
    ierr = MPI_Send(&procno, 1, MPI_INT, nprocs-1, 0, comm);
}
```

Output:

```
make[3]: `irecvsource' is up to date.
process 1 waits 6s before sending
process 2 waits 3s before sending
process 0 waits 13s before sending
process 3 waits 8s before sending
process 5 waits 1s before sending
process 6 waits 14s before sending
process 4 waits 12s before sending
Message from 5: 5
Message from 2: 2
Message from 1: 1
Message from 3: 3
Message from 4: 4
Message from 0: 0
Message from 6: 6
```

```
## irecvsource.py
if procid==nprocs-1:
    receive_buffer = np.empty(nprocs-1,dtype=int)
    requests = [ None ] * (nprocs-1)
    for sender in range(nprocs-1):
        requests[sender] = comm.Irecv(receive_buffer[sender:sender+1],source=sender)
    # alternatively: requests = [ comm.Irecv(s) for s in .... ]
    status = MPI.Status()
    for sender in range(nprocs-1):
        ind = MPI.Request.Waitany(requests,status=status)
        if ind!=status.Get_source():
            print("sender mismatch: %d vs %d" % (ind,status.Get_source()))
            print("received from",ind)
else:
    mywait = random.randint(1,2*nprocs)
    print("[%d] wait for %d seconds" % (procid,mywait))
    time.sleep(mywait)
    mydata = np.empty(1,dtype=int)
    mydata[0] = procid
    comm.Send([mydata,MPI.INT],dest=nprocs-1)
```

For the full source of this example, see section 4.5.18

Each process except for the root does a blocking send; the root posts `MPI_Irecv` from all other processors, then loops with `MPI_Waitany` until all requests have come in. Use `MPI_SOURCE` to test the index parameter of the wait call.

Note the `MPI_STATUS_IGNORE` parameter: we know everything about the incoming message, so we do not need to query a status object. Contrast this with the example in section 4.3.2.1.

4.2.2.5 Wait for some requests

Finally, `MPI_Waitsome` is very much like `MPI_Waitany`, except that it returns multiple numbers, if multiple requests are satisfied. Now the status argument is an array of `MPI_Status` objects.

Figure 4.11 shows the trace of a nonblocking execution using `MPI_Waitall`.

4.2.2.6 Receive status of the wait calls

The `MPI_Wait...` routines have the `MPI_Status` objects as output. If you are not interested in the status information, you can use the values `MPI_STATUS_IGNORE` for `MPI_Wait` and `MPI_Waitany`, or `MPI_STATUSES_IGNORE` for `MPI_Waitall`, `MPI_Waitsome`, `MPI_Testall`, `MPI_Testsome`.

Remark 13 *The routines that can return multiple statuses, can return the error condition `MPI_ERR_IN_STATUS`, indicating that one of the statuses was in error. See section 4.3.2.3.*

Exercise 4.13.

(There is a skeleton for this exercise under the name `isendirecv`.) Now use nonblocking send/receive routines to implement the three-point averaging

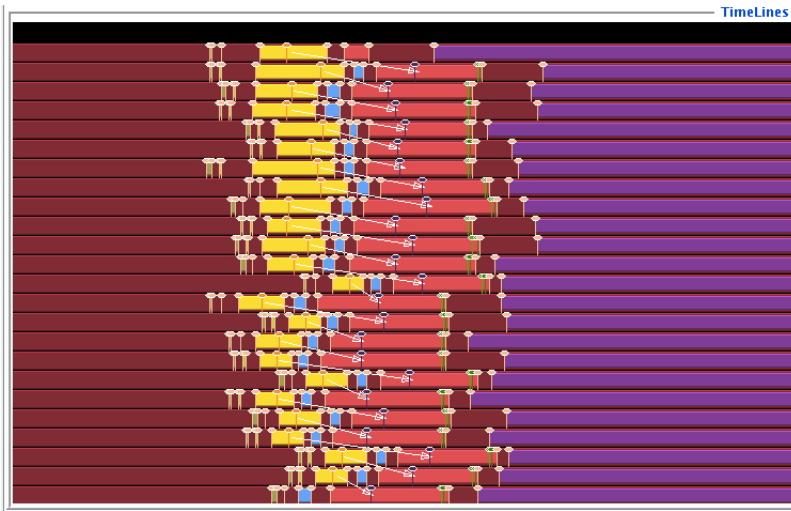


Figure 4.11: A trace of a nonblocking send between neighboring processors

operation

$$y_i = (x_{i-1} + x_i + x_{i+1})/3 : i = 1, \dots, N - 1$$

on a distributed array. (Hint: use `MPI_PROC_NULL` at the ends.)

Solution to exercise 4.13.

```
// left neighbor
sendto = ( procno<nprocs-1 ? procno+1 : MPI_PROC_NULL ) ;
recvfrom = ( procno>0 ? procno-1 : MPI_PROC_NULL ) ;

MPI_Isend(&mydata,1,MPI_INT, sendto,0, comm,&(requests[0]));
MPI_Irecv(&leftdata,1,MPI_INT, recvfrom,0, comm,&(requests[1]));

// same with right neighbor
...
MPI_Waitall(4,requests,MPI_STATUSES_IGNORE);
```

Alternatively:

```
int nrequests = 0;
if (procno<nprocs-1) {
    sendto = procno+1; recvfrom = procno-1;
    MPI_Isend(&mydata,1,MPI_INT, sendto,0, comm,
              &(requests[nrequests++]));
    MPI_Irecv(&leftdata,1,MPI_INT, recvfrom,0, comm,
              &(requests[nrequests++]));
}

// same with right neighbor
...
MPI_Waitall(nrequests,requests,MPI_STATUSES_IGNORE);
```

4.2.2.7 Latency hiding / overlapping communication and computation

There is a second motivation for the `Irecv` calls: if your hardware supports it, the communication can happen while your program can continue to do useful work:

```
// start nonblocking communication
MPI_Isend( ... ); MPI_Irecv( ... );
// do work that does not depend on incoming data
....
// wait for the Isend/Irecv calls to finish
MPI_Wait( ... );
// now do the work that absolutely needs the incoming data
....
```

This is known as *overlapping computation and communication*, or *latency hiding*. See also *asynchronous progress*; section 15.4.

Unfortunately, a lot of this communication involves activity in user space, so the solution would have been to let it be handled by a separate thread. Until recently, processors were not efficient at doing such multi-threading, so true overlap stayed a promise for the future. Some network cards have support for this overlap, but it requires a nontrivial combination of hardware, firmware, and MPI implementation.

Exercise 4.14.

(There is a skeleton for this exercise under the name `isendirecvarray`.) Take your code of exercise 4.13 and modify it to use latency hiding. Operations that can be performed without needing data from neighbors should be performed in between the `MPI_Isend` / `MPI_Irecv` calls and the corresponding `MPI_Wait` calls.

Remark 14 You have now seen various send types: blocking, nonblocking, synchronous. Can a receiver see what kind of message was sent? Are different receive routines needed? The answer is that, on the receiving end, there is nothing to distinguish a nonblocking or synchronous message. The `MPI_Recv` call can match any of the send routines you have seen so far (but not `MPI_Sendrecv`), and conversely a message sent with `MPI_Send` can be received by `MPI_Irecv`.

4.2.2.8 Buffer issues in nonblocking communication

While the use of nonblocking routines prevents deadlock, it introduces problems of its own.

- With a blocking send call, you could repeatedly fill the send buffer and send it off.

```
double *buffer;
for ( ... p ... ) {
    buffer = // fill in the data
    MPI_Send( buffer, ... /* to: */ p );
```

- On the other hand, when a nonblocking send call returns, the actual send may not have been executed, so the send buffer may not be safe to overwrite. Similarly, when the recv call returns, you do not know for sure that the expected data is in it. Only after the corresponding wait call are you sure that the buffer has been sent, or has received its contents.
- To send multiple messages with nonblocking calls you therefore have to allocate multiple buffers.

```

    double **buffers;
    for ( ... p ... ) {
        buffers[p] = // fill in the data
        MPI_Send( buffers[p], ... /* to: */ p );
    }
    MPI_Wait( /* the requests */ );
}

// irecvloop.c
MPI_Request requests =
(MPI_Request*) malloc( 2*nprocs*sizeof(MPI_Request) );
recv_buffers = (int*) malloc( nprocs*sizeof(int) );
send_buffers = (int*) malloc( nprocs*sizeof(int) );
for (int p=0; p<nprocs; p++) {
    int
    left_p = (p-1+nprocs) % nprocs,
    right_p = (p+1) % nprocs;
    send_buffer[p] = nprocs-p;
    MPI_Isend(sendbuffer+p,1,MPI_INT, right_p,0, requests+2*p);
    MPI_Irecv(recvbuffer+p,1,MPI_INT, left_p,0, requests+2*p+1);
}
/* your useful code here */
MPI_Waitall(2*nprocs,requests,MPI_STATUSES_IGNORE);

```

For the full source of this example, see section 4.5.19

The last example we explicitly noted the possibility of overlapping computation and communication.

4.2.3 Wait and test calls

The `MPI_Wait`... routines are blocking. Thus, they are a good solution if the receiving process can not do anything until the data (or at least *some* data) is actually received. The `MPI_Test`... calls are themselves nonblocking: they test for whether one or more requests have been fulfilled, but otherwise immediately return. It is also a *local operation*: it does not force progress.

The `MPI_Test` call can be used in the *manager-worker* model: the manager process creates tasks, and sends them to whichever worker process has finished its work. (This uses a receive from `MPI_ANY_SOURCE`, and a subsequent test on the `MPI_SOURCE` field of the receive status.) While waiting for the workers, the manager can do useful work too, which requires a periodic check on incoming message.

Pseudo-code:

```

while ( not done ) {
    // create new inputs for a while
    ...
    // see if anyone has finished
    MPI_Test( .... &index, &flag );
    if ( flag ) {
        // receive processed data and send new
    }
}

```

If the test is true, the request is deallocated and set to `MPI_REQUEST_NULL`, or, in the case of an active persistent request, set to inactive.

4. MPI topic: Point-to-point

Figure 4.10 MPI_Test

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
<code>MPI_Test (</code>					
<code>request</code>		communication request	<code>MPI_Request*</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Request)</code>	<code>INOUT</code>
<code>flag</code>		true if operation completed	<code>int*</code>	<code>LOGICAL</code>	<code>OUT</code>
<code>status</code>		status object	<code>MPI_Status*</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Status)</code>	<code>OUT</code>
<code>)</code>					

Python:

```
request.Test()
```

Figure 4.11 MPI_Request_free

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
<code>MPI_Request_free (</code>					
<code>request</code>		communication request	<code>MPI_Request*</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Request)</code>	<code>INOUT</code>
<code>)</code>					

Analogous to `MPI_Wait`, `MPI_Waitany`, `MPI_Waitall`, `MPI_Waitsome`, there are `MPI_Test` (figure 4.10), `MPI_Testany`, `MPI_Testall`, `MPI_Testsome`.

Exercise 4.15. Read section HPC book, section-6.5 and give pseudo-code for the distributed sparse matrix-vector product using the above idiom for using `MPI_Test...` calls.

Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of this approach. The answer is not going to be black and white: discuss when you expect which approach to be preferable.

4.2.4 More about requests

Every nonblocking call allocates an `MPI_Request` object. Unlike `MPI_Status`, an `MPI_Request` variable is not actually an object, but instead it is an (opaque) pointer. This means that when you call, for instance, `MPI_Irecv`, MPI will allocate an actual request object, and return its address in the `MPI_Request` variable.

Correspondingly, calls to `MPI_Wait` or `MPI_Test` free this object, setting the handle to `MPI_REQUEST_NULL`. (There is an exception for persistent communications where the request is only set to ‘inactive’; section 5.1.) Thus, it is wise to issue wait calls even if you know that the operation has succeeded. For instance, if all receive calls are concluded, you know that the corresponding send calls are finished and there is no strict need to wait for their requests. However, omitting the wait calls would lead to a *memory leak*.

Another way around this is to call `MPI_Request_free` (figure 4.11), which sets the request variable to `MPI_REQUEST_NULL`, and marks the object for deallocation after completion of the operation. Conceivably, one could issue a nonblocking call, and immediately call `MPI_Request_free`, dispensing with any wait call. However, this makes it hard to know when the operation is concluded and when the buffer is safe to reuse [26].

Figure 4.12 MPI_Request_get_status

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Request_get_status (
request	request		MPI_Request	TYPE (MPI_Request)	IN
flag	boolean flag, same as from MPI_TEST		int*	LOGICAL	OUT
status	status object if flag is true		MPI_Status*	TYPE (MPI_Status)	OUT
)					

Figure 4.13 MPI_Probe

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Probe (
source	rank of source or MPI_ANY_SOURCE		int	INTEGER	IN
tag	message tag or MPI_ANY_TAG		int	INTEGER	IN
comm	communicator		MPI_Comm	TYPE (MPI_Comm)	IN
status	status object		MPI_Status*	TYPE (MPI_Status)	OUT
)					

You can inspect the status of a request without freeing the request object with `MPI_Request_get_status` (figure 4.12).

4.3 More about point-to-point communication

4.3.1 Message probing

MPI receive calls specify a receive buffer, and its size has to be enough for any data sent. In case you really have no idea how much data is being sent, and you don't want to overallocate the receive buffer, you can use a 'probe' call.

The routines `MPI_Probe` (figure 4.13) and `MPI_Iprobe` (figure 4.14) (for which see also section 15.4) accept a message but do not copy the data. Instead, when probing tells you that there is a message, you can use `MPI_Get_count` (section 4.3.2.4) to determine its size, allocate a large enough receive buffer, and do a regular receive to have the data copied.

```
// probe.c
if (procno==receiver) {
    MPI_Status status;
    MPI_Probe(sender,0,comm,&status);
    int count;
    MPI_Get_count(&status,MPI_FLOAT,&count);
    float recv_buffer[count];
```

4. MPI topic: Point-to-point

Figure 4.14 MPI_Iprobe

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Iprobe (
source		rank of source or MPI_ANY_SOURCE	int	INTEGER	IN
tag		message tag or MPI_ANY_TAG	int	INTEGER	IN
comm		communicator	MPI_Comm	TYPE (MPI_Comm)	IN
flag		true if there is a matching message that can be received	int*	LOGICAL	OUT
status		status object	MPI_Status*	TYPE (MPI_Status)	OUT
)					

Figure 4.15 MPI_Mprobe

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Mprobe (
source		rank of source or MPI_ANY_SOURCE	int	INTEGER	IN
tag		message tag or MPI_ANY_TAG	int	INTEGER	IN
comm		communicator	MPI_Comm	TYPE (MPI_Comm)	IN
message		returned message	MPI_Message*	TYPE (MPI_Message)	OUT
status		status object	MPI_Status*	TYPE (MPI_Status)	OUT
)					

```

    MPI_Recv(recv_buffer,count,MPI_FLOAT, sender,0,comm,MPI_STATUS_IGNORE);
} else if (procno==sender) {
    float buffer[buffer_size];
    ierr = MPI_Send(buffer,buffer_size,MPI_FLOAT, receiver,0,comm); CHK(ierr);
}

```

For the full source of this example, see section 4.5.20

There is a problem with the **MPI_Probe** call in a multithreaded environment: the following scenario can happen.

1. A thread determines by probing that a certain message has come in.
2. It issues a blocking receive call for that message...
3. But in between the probe and the receive call another thread has already received the message.
4. ... Leaving the first thread in a blocked state with no message to receive.

This is solved by **MPI_Mprobe** (figure 4.15), which after a successful probe removes the message from the *matching queue*: the list of messages that can be matched by a receive call. The thread that matched the probe now issues an **MPI_Mrecv** (figure 4.16) call on that message through an object of type **MPI_Message**.

Figure 4.16 MPI_Mrecv

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
<code>MPI_Mrecv (</code>					
<code> MPI_Mrecv_c (</code>					
<code>buf</code>		initial address of receive buffer	<code>void*</code>	<code>TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)</code>	<code>OUT</code>
<code>count</code>		number of elements in receive buffer	<code>[int MPI_Count]</code>	<code>INTEGER</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>datatype</code>		datatype of each receive buffer element	<code>MPI_Datatype</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Datatype)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>message</code>		message	<code>MPI_Message*</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Message)</code>	<code>INOUT</code>
<code>status</code>		status object	<code>MPI_Status*</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Status)</code>	<code>OUT</code>
<code>)</code>					

4.3.2 The Status object and wildcards

In section 4.1.1 you saw that `MPI_Recv` has a ‘status’ argument of type `MPI_Status` that `MPI_Send` lacks. (The various `MPI_Wait...` routines also have a status argument; see section 4.2.1.) Often you specify `MPI_STATUS_IGNORE` for this argument: commonly you know what data is coming in and where it is coming from.

However, in some circumstances the recipient may not know all details of a message when you make the receive call, so MPI has a way of querying the *status* of the message:

- If you are expecting multiple incoming messages, it may be most efficient to deal with them in the order in which they arrive. So, instead of waiting for specific message, you would specify `MPI_ANY_SOURCE` or `MPI_ANY_TAG` in the description of the receive message. Now you have to be able to ask ‘who did this message come from, and what is in it’.
- Maybe you know the sender of a message, but the amount of data is unknown. In that case you can overallocate your receive buffer, and after the message is received ask how big it was, or you can ‘probe’ an incoming message and allocate enough data when you find out how much data is being sent.

To do this, the receive call has a `MPI_Status` parameter. The `MPI_Status` object is a structure (in C a `struct`, in F90 an array, in F2008 a derived type) with freely accessible members:

- `MPI_ERROR` gives the error status of the receive call; see section 4.3.2.3.
- `MPI_SOURCE` gives the source of the message; see section 4.3.2.1.
- `MPI_TAG` gives the tag with which the message was received; see section 4.3.2.2.
- The number of items in the message can be deduced from the status object, but through a function call to `MPI_Get_count`, not as a structure member; see section 4.3.2.4.

Fortran note 8: Status object in f08. The `mpi_f08` module turns many handles (such as communicators) from Fortran `Integers` into `Types`. Retrieving the integer from the type is usually done through the `%val` member, but for the status object this is more difficult. The routines `MPI_Status_f2f08`

4. MPI topic: Point-to-point

and `MPI_Status_f082f` convert between these. (Remarkably, these routines are even available in C, where they operate on `MPI_Fint`, `MPI_F08_status` arguments.)

Python note 15: Status object. The status object is explicitly created before being passed to the receive routine. It has the usual query methods:

```
## pingpongbig.py
status = MPI.Status()
comm.Recv( rdata,source=0,status=status)
count = status.Get_count(MPI.DOUBLE)
```

(The count function without argument returns a result in bytes.)

MPL note 33: Status object. The `mpl::status_t` object is created by the receive (or wait) call:

```
mpl::contiguous_layout<double> target_layout(count);
mpl::status_t recv_status =
    comm_world.recv(target.data(),target_layout, the_other);
recv_count = recv_status.get_count<double>();
```

For the full source of this example, see section 6.10.6

4.3.2.1 Source

In some applications it makes sense that a message can come from one of a number of processes. In this case, it is possible to specify `MPI_ANY_SOURCE` as the source. To find out the *source* where the message actually came from, you would use the `MPI_SOURCE` field of the status object that is delivered by `MPI_Recv` or the `MPI_Wait...` call after an `MPI_Irecv`.

```
MPI_Recv(recv_buffer+p,1,MPI_INT, MPI_ANY_SOURCE,0,comm,
          &status);
sender = status.MPI_SOURCE;
```

There are various scenarios where receiving from ‘any source’ makes sense. One is that of the *manager-worker* model. The manager task would first send data to the worker tasks, then issues a blocking wait for the data of whichever process finishes first.

This code snippet is a simple model for this: all workers processes wait a random amount of time. For efficiency, the manager process accepts message from any source.

```
// anysource.c
if (procno==nprocs-1) {
/*
 * The last process receives from every other process
 */
int *recv_buffer;
recv_buffer = (int*) malloc((nprocs-1)*sizeof(int));

/*
 * Messages can come in in any order, so use MPI_ANY_SOURCE
 */
MPI_Status status;
for (int p=0; p<nprocs-1; p++) {
```

```

    err = MPI_Recv(recv_buffer+p,1,MPI_INT, MPI_ANY_SOURCE,0,comm,
                   &status); CHK(err);
    int sender = status.MPI_SOURCE;
    printf("Message from sender=%d: %d\n",
           sender,recv_buffer[p]);
}
free(recv_buffer);
} else {
/*
 * Each rank waits an unpredictable amount of time,
 * then sends to the last process in line.
 */
float randomfraction = (rand() / (double)RAND_MAX);
int randomwait = (int) ( nprocs * randomfraction );
printf("process %d waits for %e/%d=%d\n",
       procno,randomfraction,nprocs,randomwait);
sleep(randomwait);
err = MPI_Send(&randomwait,1,MPI_INT, nprocs-1,0,comm); CHK(err);
}

```

For the full source of this example, see section 4.5.22

In Fortran2003 style, the source is a member of the `Status` type.

```

!! anysource.F90
Type(MPI_Status) :: status
allocate(recv_buffer(ntids-1))
do p=0,ntids-2
    call MPI_Recv(recv_buffer(p+1),1,MPI_INTEGER,&
                  MPI_ANY_SOURCE,0,comm,status)
    sender = status%MPI_SOURCE

```

For the full source of this example, see section 4.5.23

In Fortran90 style, the source is an index in the `Status` array.

```

!! anysource.F90
integer :: status(MPI_STATUS_SIZE)
allocate(recv_buffer(ntids-1))
do p=0,ntids-2
    call MPI_Recv(recv_buffer(p+1),1,MPI_INTEGER,&
                  MPI_ANY_SOURCE,0,comm,status,err)
    sender = status(MPI_SOURCE)

```

For the full source of this example, see section 4.5.24

MPL note 34: Status source querying. The `status` object can be queried:

```

|| int source = recv_status.source();

```

4.3.2.2 Tag

If a processor is expecting more than one message from a single other processor, message tags are used to distinguish between them. In that case, a value of `MPI_ANY_TAG` can be used, and the actual *tag* of a message

4. MPI topic: Point-to-point

Figure 4.17 MPI_Get_count

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Get_count					
MPI_Get_count_c					
status		return status of receive operation	const MPI_Status*	TYPE (MPI_Status)	IN
datatype		datatype of each receive buffer entry	MPI_Datatype	TYPE (MPI_Datatype)	IN
count		number of received entries	[int* MPI_Count]	INTEGER	OUT
)					

MPL:

```
template<typename T>
int mpl::status::get_count () const

template<typename T>
int mpl::status::get_count (const layout<T> &l) const
Python:
status.Get_count( Datatype datatype=BYTE )
```

can be retrieved as the `MPI_TAG` member in the status structure. See section 4.3.2.1 about `MPI_SOURCE` for how to use this.

MPL note 35: Message tag. MPL differs from other APIs in its treatment of tags: a tag is not directly an integer, but an object of class `tag`.

```
// sendrecv.cxx
mpl::tag t0(0);
comm_world.sendrecv
( mydata,sendto,t0,
leftdata,recvfrom,t0 );
```

The `tag` class has a couple of methods such as `mpl::tag::any()` (for the `MPI_ANY_TAG` wildcard in receive calls) and `mpl::tag::up()` (maximal tag, found from the `MPI_TAG_UB` attribute).

4.3.2.3 Error

Any *errors* during the receive operation can be found as the `MPI_ERROR` member of the status structure. This field is only set by functions that return multiple statuses, such as `MPI_Waitall`. For functions that return a single status, any error is returned as the function result. For a function returning multiple statuses, the presence of any error is indicated by a result of `MPI_ERR_IN_STATUS`; section 4.2.2.6.

4.3.2.4 Count

If the amount of data received is not known a priori, the *count* of elements received can be found by `MPI_Get_count` (figure 4.17):

```
// count.c
if (procid==0) {
    int sendcount = (rand()>.5) ? N : N-1;
    MPI_Send( buffer,sendcount,MPI_FLOAT,target,0,comm );
} else if (procid==target) {
    MPI_Status status;
    int recvcount;
    MPI_Recv( buffer,N,MPI_FLOAT,0,0, comm, &status );
    MPI_Get_count(&status,MPI_FLOAT,&recvcount);
    printf("Received %d elements\n",recvcount);
}
```

For the full source of this example, see section 4.5.25

Code:

```
!! count.F90
if (procid==0) then
    sendcount = N
    call random_number(fraction)
    if (fraction>.5) then
        print *, "One less" ; sendcount = N-1
    end if
    call MPI_Send(
        →buffer,sendcount,MPI_REAL,target,0,comm )
else if (procid==target) then
    call MPI_Recv( buffer,N,MPI_REAL,0,0, comm, status )
    call MPI_Get_count(status,MPI_FLOAT,recvcount)
    print *, "Received",recvcount,"elements"
end if
```

Output:

```
make[3]: `count' is up to date.
TACC: Starting up job 4051425
TACC: Setting up parallel environment for MVAPICH2
TACC: Starting parallel tasks...
One less
Received 9 elements
TACC: Shutdown complete. Exiting.
```

This may be necessary since the count argument to `MPI_Recv` is the buffer size, not an indication of the actually received number of data items.

Remarks.

- Unlike the source and tag, the message count is not directly a member of the status structure.
- The ‘count’ returned is the number of elements of the specified datatype. If this is a derived type (section 6.3) this is not the same as the number of elementary datatype elements. For that, use `MPI_Get_elements` (figure 4.18) or `MPI_Get_elements_x` which returns the number of basic elements.

MPL note 36: Receive count. The `get_count` function is a method of the status object. The argument type is handled through templating:

```
// recvstatus.cxx
double pi=0;
auto s = comm_world.recv(pi, 0); // receive from rank 0
int c = s.get_count<double>();
std::cout << "got : " << c << " scalar(s): " << pi << '\n';
```

For the full source of this example, see section 4.5.26

4. MPI topic: Point-to-point

Figure 4.18 MPI_Get_elements

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
<code>MPI_Get_elements</code>					
	<code>MPI_Get_elements_c</code>				
	<code>status</code>	return status of receive operation	<code>const MPI_Status*</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Status)</code>	IN
	<code>datatype</code>	datatype used by receive operation	<code>MPI_Datatype</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Datatype)</code>	IN
	<code>count</code>	number of received basic elements	<code>[int* MPI_Count</code>	<code>INTEGER</code>	OUT
			<code>]</code>		

4.3.2.5 Example: receiving from any source

Consider an example where the last process receives from every other process. We could implement this as a loop

```
|| for (int p=0; p<nprocs-1; p++)
    MPI_Recv( /* from source= */ p );
```

but this may incur idle time if the messages arrive out of order.

Instead, we use the `MPI_ANY_SOURCE` specifier to give a wildcard behavior to the receive call: using this value for the ‘source’ value means that we accept messages from any source within the communicator, and messages are only matched by tag value. (Note that size and type of the receive buffer are not used for message matching!)

We then retrieve the actual source from the `MPI_Status` object through the `MPI_SOURCE` field.

```
// anysource.c
if (procno==nprocs-1) {
/*
 * The last process receives from every other process
 */
int *recv_buffer;
recv_buffer = (int*) malloc((nprocs-1)*sizeof(int));

/*
 * Messages can come in in any order, so use MPI_ANY_SOURCE
 */
MPI_Status status;
for (int p=0; p<nprocs-1; p++) {
    err = MPI_Recv(recv_buffer+p,1,MPI_INT, MPI_ANY_SOURCE,0,comm,
                   &status); CHK(err);
    int sender = status.MPI_SOURCE;
    printf("Message from sender=%d: %d\n",
           sender,recv_buffer[p]);
}
free(recv_buffer);
} else {
/*
```

```

    * Each rank waits an unpredictable amount of time,
    * then sends to the last process in line.
    */
float randomfraction = (rand() / (double)RAND_MAX);
int randomwait = (int) ( nprocs * randomfraction );
printf("process %d waits for %e/%d=%d\n",
       procno,randomfraction,nprocs,randomwait);
sleep(randomwait);
err = MPI_Send(&randomwait,1,MPI_INT, nprocs-1,0,comm); CHK(err);
}

```

For the full source of this example, see section 4.5.22

```

## anysource.py
rstatus = MPI.Status()
comm.Recv(rbuf,source=MPI.ANY_SOURCE,status=rstatus)
print("Message came from %d" % rstatus.Get_source())

```

For the full source of this example, see section 4.5.27

In sections and 4.2.3 we explained the *manager-worker* model (and in chapter 56 you can do programming project with it). This design patterns offers an opportunity for inspecting the `MPI_SOURCE` field of the `MPI_Status` object describing the data that was received.

4.3.3 Errors

MPI routines return `MPI_SUCCESS` upon succesful completion. The following error codes can be returned (see section 15.2.1 for details) for completion with error by both send and receive operations: `MPI_ERR_COMM`, `MPI_ERR_COUNT`, `MPI_ERR_TYPE`, `MPI_ERR_TAG`, `MPI_ERR_RANK`.

4.3.4 Message envelope

Apart from its bare data, each message has a *message envelope*. This has enough information to distinguish messages from each other: the source, destination, tag, communicator.

4.4 Review questions

For all true/false questions, if you answer that a statement is false, give a one-line explanation.

Review 4.16. Describe a deadlock scenario involving three processors.

Solution to exercise 4.16. *One sends to two, two to three, three to one.*

Review 4.17. True or false: a message sent with `MPI_Isend` from one processor can be received with an `MPI_Recv` call on another processor.

Solution to exercise 4.17. *True.*

Review 4.18. True or false: a message sent with `MPI_Send` from one processor can be received with an `MPI_Irecv` on another processor.

Solution to exercise 4.18. *True.*

Review 4.19. Why does the `MPI_Irecv` call not have an `MPI_Status` argument?

Solution to exercise 4.19. *The status argument describes the actually received message. If you receive by `MPI_Irecv`, the message is not known until the `MPI_Wait` call. Therefore the wait call has the status argument.*

Review 4.20. Suppose you are testing ping-pong timings. Why is it generally not a good idea to use processes 0 and 1 for the source and target processor? Can you come up with a better guess?

Review 4.21. What is the relation between the concepts of ‘origin’, ‘target’, ‘fence’, and ‘window’ in one-sided communication.

Solution to exercise 4.21. *The origin is the process that makes the put/get/accumulate call. The window is the memory area on the target that an origin process can access. A fence is a call to indicate the start or end of a one-side communication epoch.*

Review 4.22. What are the three routines for one-sided data transfer?

Solution to exercise 4.22. `MPI_Put`, `MPI_Get`, `MPI_Accumulate`

Review 4.23. In the following fragments assume that all buffers have been allocated with sufficient size. For each fragment note whether it deadlocks or not. Discuss performance issues.

```

for (int p=0; p<nprocs; p++)
    if (p!=procid)
        MPI_Send(sbuffer,buflen,MPI_INT,p,0,comm);
for (int p=0; p<nprocs; p++)
    if (p!=procid)
        MPI_Recv(rbuffer,buflen,MPI_INT,p,0,comm,MPI_STATUS_IGNORE);

~

for (int p=0; p<nprocs; p++)
    if (p!=procid)
        MPI_Recv(rbuffer,buflen,MPI_INT,p,0,comm,MPI_STATUS_IGNORE);
for (int p=0; p<nprocs; p++)
    if (p!=procid)
        MPI_Send(sbuffer,buflen,MPI_INT,p,0,comm);

int ireq = 0;
for (int p=0; p<nprocs; p++)
    if (p!=procid)
        MPI_Isend(sbuffers[p],buflen,MPI_INT,p,0,comm,&(requests[ireq++]));
for (int p=0; p<nprocs; p++)
    if (p!=procid)
        MPI_Recv(rbuffer,buflen,MPI_INT,p,0,comm,MPI_STATUS_IGNORE);
MPI_Waitall(nprocs-1,requests,MPI_STATUSES_IGNORE);

int ireq = 0;
for (int p=0; p<nprocs; p++)
    if (p!=procid)
        MPI_Irecv(rbuffers[p],buflen,MPI_INT,p,0,comm,&(requests[ireq++]));
for (int p=0; p<nprocs; p++)
    if (p!=procid)
```

```
|| MPI_Send(sbuffer,buflen,MPI_INT,p,0,comm);  
|| MPI_Waitall(nprocs-1,requests,MPI_STATUSES_IGNORE);
```

```
|| int ireq = 0;  
|| for (int p=0; p<nprocs; p++)  
||   if (p!=procid)  
||     MPI_Irecv(rbuffers[p],buflen,MPI_INT,p,0,comm,&(requests[ireq++]));  
|| MPI_Waitall(nprocs-1,requests,MPI_STATUSES_IGNORE);  
|| for (int p=0; p<nprocs; p++)  
||   if (p!=procid)  
||     MPI_Send(sbuffer,buflen,MPI_INT,p,0,comm);
```

Fortran codes:

```

|| do p=0,nprocs-1
||   if (p/=procid) then
||     call MPI_Send(sbuffer,buflen,MPI_INT,p,0,comm,ierr)
||   end if
|| end do
do p=0,nprocs-1
  if (p/=procid) then
    call MPI_Recv(rbuffer,buflen,MPI_INT,p,0,comm,MPI_STATUS_IGNORE,ierr)
  end if
end do

do p=0,nprocs-1
  if (p/=procid) then
    call MPI_Recv(rbuffer,buflen,MPI_INT,p,0,comm,MPI_STATUS_IGNORE,ierr)
  end if
end do
do p=0,nprocs-1
  if (p/=procid) then
    call MPI_Send(sbuffer,buflen,MPI_INT,p,0,comm,ierr)
  end if
end do

ireq = 0
do p=0,nprocs-1
  if (p/=procid) then
    call MPI_Isend(sbuffers(1,p+1),buflen,MPI_INT,p,0,comm,&
                  requests(ireq+1),ierr)
    ireq = ireq+1
  end if
end do
do p=0,nprocs-1
  if (p/=procid) then
    call MPI_Recv(rbuffer,buflen,MPI_INT,p,0,comm,MPI_STATUS_IGNORE,ierr)
  end if
end do
call MPI_Waitall(nprocs-1,requests,MPI_STATUSES_IGNORE,ierr)

ireq = 0
do p=0,nprocs-1
  if (p/=procid) then
    call MPI_Irecv(rbuffers(1,p+1),buflen,MPI_INT,p,0,comm,&
                  requests(ireq+1),ierr)
    ireq = ireq+1
  end if
end do
do p=0,nprocs-1
  if (p/=procid) then
    call MPI_Send(sbuffer,buflen,MPI_INT,p,0,comm,ierr)
  end if
end do
call MPI_Waitall(nprocs-1,requests,MPI_STATUSES_IGNORE,ierr)

```

```

// block5.F90
ireq = 0
do p=0,nprocs-1
  if (p/=procid) then
    call MPI_Irecv(rbuffers(1,p+1),buflen,MPI_INT,p,0,comm,&
      requests(ireq+1),ierr)
    ireq = ireq+1
  end if
end do
call MPI_Waitall(nprocs-1,requests,MPI_STATUSES_IGNORE,ierr)
do p=0,nprocs-1
  if (p/=procid) then
    call MPI_Send(sbuffer,buflen,MPI_INT,p,0,comm,ierr)
  end if
end do

```

Review 4.24. Consider a ring-wise communication where

```

int
next = (mytid+1) % ntids,
prev = (mytid+ntids-1) % ntids;

```

and each process sends to *next*, and receives from *prev*.

The normal solution for preventing deadlock is to use both `MPI_Isend` and `MPI_Irecv`.

The send and receive complete at the wait call. But does it matter in what sequence you do the wait calls?

<pre> // ring3.c MPI_Request req1,req2; MPI_Irecv(&y,1,MPI_DOUBLE,prev,0,comm,&req1); MPI_Isend(&x,1,MPI_DOUBLE,next,0,comm,&req2); MPI_Wait(&req1,MPI_STATUS_IGNORE); MPI_Wait(&req2,MPI_STATUS_IGNORE); </pre>	<pre> // ring4.c MPI_Request req1,req2; MPI_Irecv(&y,1,MPI_DOUBLE,prev,0,comm,&req1); MPI_Isend(&x,1,MPI_DOUBLE,next,0,comm,&req2); MPI_Wait(&req2,MPI_STATUS_IGNORE); MPI_Wait(&req1,MPI_STATUS_IGNORE); </pre>
--	--

Can we have one nonblocking and one blocking call? Do these scenarios block?

<pre> // ring1.c MPI_Request req; MPI_Isend(&x,1,MPI_DOUBLE,next,0,comm,&req); MPI_Recv(&y,1,MPI_DOUBLE,prev,0,comm, MPI_STATUS_IGNORE); MPI_Wait(&req,MPI_STATUS_IGNORE); </pre>	<pre> // ring2.c MPI_Request req; MPI_Irecv(&y,1,MPI_DOUBLE,prev,0,comm,&req); MPI_Ssend(&x,1,MPI_DOUBLE,next,0,comm); MPI_Wait(&req,MPI_STATUS_IGNORE); </pre>
---	---

4.5 Sources used in this chapter

4.5.1 Listing of code header

4.5.2 Listing of code examples/mpi/c/sendandrecv.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
#include "mpi.h"

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

    MPI_Comm comm = MPI_COMM_WORLD;
    int nprocs, procno;

    MPI_Init(&argc,&argv);

    MPI_Comm_size(comm,&nprocs);
    MPI_Comm_rank(comm,&procno);

    /*
     * We set up a single communication between
     * the first and last process
     */
    int sender,receiver;
    sender = 0; receiver = nprocs-1;

    if (procno==sender) {
        double send_data = 1.;
        MPI_Send
        ( /* send buffer/count/type: */ &send_data,1,MPI_DOUBLE,
         /* to: */ receiver, /* tag: */ 0,
         /* communicator: */ comm);
        printf("[%d] Send successfully concluded\n",procno);
    } else if (procno==receiver) {
        double recv_data;
        MPI_Recv
        ( /* recv buffer/count/type: */ &recv_data,1,MPI_DOUBLE,
         /* from: */ sender, /* tag: */ 0,
         /* communicator: */ comm,
         /* recv status: */ MPI_STATUS_IGNORE);
        printf("[%d] Receive successfully concluded\n",procno);
    }

    MPI_Finalize();
    return 0;
}
```

4.5.3 Listing of code examples/mpi/mpl/sendscalar.cxx

```
#include <cstdlib>
```

```
#include <complex>
#include <iostream>
using std::cout;
using std::endl;
#include <mpl/mpl.hpp>

int main() {
    const mpl::communicator &comm_world=mpl::environment::comm_world();
    if (comm_world.size()<2)
        return EXIT_FAILURE;

    // send and receive a single floating point number
    if (comm_world.rank()==0) {
        double pi=3.14;
        comm_world.send(pi, 1); // send to rank 1
        cout << "sent: " << pi << '\n';
    } else if (comm_world.rank()==1) {
        double pi=0;
        comm_world.recv(pi, 0); // receive from rank 0
        cout << "got : " << pi << '\n';
    }
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}
```

4.5.4 Listing of code examples/mpi/mpl/sendarray.cxx

```
#include <cstdlib>
#include <complex>
#include <iostream>
using std::cout;
using std::endl;
#include <sstream>
using std::stringstream;

#include <mpl/mpl.hpp>

int main() {
    const mpl::communicator &comm_world=mpl::environment::comm_world();
    if (comm_world.size()<2)
        return EXIT_FAILURE;

    /*
     * The compiler knows about arrays so we can send them `as is'
     */
    double v[2][2][2];

    // Initialize the data
    if (comm_world.rank()==0) {
        double *vt = &(v[0][0][0]);
        for (int i=0; i<8; i++)
            *vt++ = i;
```

```

/*
 * Send and report
 */
comm_world.send(v, 1); // send to rank 1

stringstream s;
s << "sent: ";
vt = &(v[0][0][0]);
for (int i=0; i<8; i++)
    s << " " << *(vt+i);
cout << s.str() << '\n';

// std::cout << "sent: ";
// for (double &x : v)
//     std::cout << x << ' ';
// std::cout << '\n';

} else if (comm_world.rank()==1) {

/*
 * Receive data and report
 */
comm_world.recv(v, 0); // receive from rank 0

stringstream s;
s << "got : ";
double *vt = &(v[0][0][0]);
for (int i=0; i<8; i++)
    s << " " << *(vt+i);
cout << s.str() << '\n';

}
return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}

```

4.5.5 Listing of code examples/mpi/mppl/sendbuffer.cxx

```

#include <cstdlib>
#include <iostream>
#include <vector>
#include <mppl/mppl.hpp>

int main() {
    const mppl::communicator &comm_world=mppl::environment::comm_world();
    if (comm_world.size()<2)
        return EXIT_FAILURE;

/*
 * To send a std::vector we declare a contiguous layout
 */
std::vector<double> v(8);
mppl::contiguous_layout<double> v_layout(v.size());

```

```
// Initialize the data
if (comm_world.rank()==0) {
    double init=0;
    for (double &x : v) {
        x=init;
        ++init;
    }

    /*
     * Send and report
     */
    comm_world.send(v.data(), v_layout, 1); // send to rank 1
    std::cout << "sent: ";
    for (double &x : v)
        std::cout << x << ' ';
    std::cout << '\n';

} else if (comm_world.rank()==1) {

    /*
     * Receive data and report
     */
    comm_world.recv(v.data(), v_layout, 0); // receive from rank 0
    std::cout << "got : ";
    for (double &x : v)
        std::cout << x << ' ';
    std::cout << '\n';

}
return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}
```

4.5.6 Listing of code examples/mpi/mpf/sendrange.cxx

```
#include <cstdlib>
#include <complex>
#include <iostream>
using std::cout;
using std::endl;

#include <vector>
using std::vector;

#include <mpl/mpl.hpp>

int main() {
    const mpl::communicator &comm_world=mpl::environment::comm_world();
    if (comm_world.size()<2)
        return EXIT_FAILURE;

    vector<double> v(15);
```

```
if (comm_world.rank()==0) {  
  
    // initialize  
    for ( auto &x : v ) x = 1.41;  
  
    /*  
     * Send and report  
     */  
    comm_world.send(v.begin(), v.end(), 1); // send to rank 1  
  
} else if (comm_world.rank()==1) {  
  
    /*  
     * Receive data and report  
     */  
    comm_world.recv(v.begin(), v.end(), 0); // receive from rank 0  
  
    cout << "Got:";  
    for ( auto x : v )  
        cout << " " << x;  
    cout << endl;  
}  
return EXIT_SUCCESS;  
}
```

4.5.7 Listing of code examples/mpi/c/sendblock.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>  
#include <stdio.h>  
#include <string.h>  
#include "mpi.h"  
  
/** This program shows deadlocking behaviour  
when two processes exchange data with blocking  
send and receive calls.  
Under a certain limit MPI_Send may actually not be  
blocking; we loop, increasing the message size,  
to find roughly the crossover point.  
*/  
int main(int argc,char **argv) {  
    int *recvbuf, *sendbuf;  
    MPI_Status status;  
  
#include "globalinit.c"  
  
/* we only use processors 0 and 1 */  
    int other;  
    if (procno>1) goto skip;  
    other = 1-procno;  
    /* loop over increasingly large messages */  
    for (int size=1; size<2000000000; size*=10) {
```

```

sendbuf = (int*) malloc(size*sizeof(int));
recvbuf = (int*) malloc(size*sizeof(int));
if (!sendbuf || !recvbuf) {
    printf("Out of memory\n"); MPI_Abort(comm,1);
}
MPI_Send(sendbuf,size,MPI_INT,other,0,comm);
MPI_Recv(recvbuf,size,MPI_INT,other,0,comm,&status);
/* If control reaches this point, the send call
   did not block. If the send call blocks,
   we do not reach this point, and the program will hang.
*/
if (procno==0)
    printf("Send did not block for size %d\n",size);
free(sendbuf); free(recvbuf);
}

skip:
MPI_Finalize();
return 0;
}

```

4.5.8 Listing of code examples/mpi/f/sendblock.F90

Program SendBlock

```

implicit none
#include "mpif.h"

integer :: other,size,status(MPI_STATUS_SIZE)
integer,dimension(:),allocatable :: sendbuf,recvbuf
#include "globalinit.F90"

if (mytid>1) goto 10
other = 1-mytid
size = 1
do
    allocate(sendbuf(size)); allocate(recvbuf(size))
    print *,size
    call MPI_Send(sendbuf,size,MPI_INTEGER,other,0,comm,err)
    call MPI_Recv(recvbuf,size,MPI_INTEGER,other,0,comm,status,err)
    if (mytid==0) then
        print *,"MPI_Send did not block for size",size
    end if
    deallocate(sendbuf); deallocate(recvbuf)
    size = size*10
    if (size>2000000000) goto 20
end do
20 continue

10 call MPI_Finalize(err)

end program SendBlock

```

4.5.9 Listing of code examples/mpi/p/sendblock.py

```
import numpy as np
import random # random.randint(1,N), random.random()
from mpi4py import MPI

comm = MPI.COMM_WORLD
procid = comm.Get_rank()
nprocs = comm.Get_size()
if nprocs<2:
    print("C'mon, get real....")
    sys.exit(1)

if procid in [0,nprocs-1]:
    other = nprocs-1-procid
    size = 1
    while size<2000000000:
        sendbuf = np.empty(size, dtype=int)
        recvbuf = np.empty(size, dtype=int)
        comm.Send(sendbuf, dest=other)
        comm.Recv(recvbuf, source=other)
        if procid<other:
            print("Send did not block for",size)
        size *= 10
```

4.5.10 Listing of code examples/mpi/c/ssendblock.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
#include "mpi.h"

int main(int argc,char **argv) {
    int other, size, *recvbuf, *sendbuf;
    MPI_Status status;

#include "globalinit.c"

    if (procno>1) goto skip;
    other = 1-procno;
    sendbuf = (int*) malloc(sizeof(int));
    recvbuf = (int*) malloc(sizeof(int));
    size = 1;
    MPI_Ssend(sendbuf,size,MPI_INT,other,0,comm);
    MPI_Recv(recvbuf,size,MPI_INT,other,0,comm,&status);
    printf("This statement is not reached\n");
    free(sendbuf); free(recvbuf);

skip:
    MPI_Finalize();
    return 0;
}
```

4.5.11 Listing of code examples/mpi/c/isendandirecv.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
#include "mpi.h"

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

#include "globalinit.c"

/*
 * We set up a single communication between
 * the first and last process
 */
int sender,receiver;
sender = 0; receiver = nprocs-1;

if (procno==sender) {
    double send_data = 1.;
    MPI_Request request;
    MPI_Isend
        ( /* send buffer/count/type: */ &send_data,1,MPI_DOUBLE,
/* to: */ receiver, /* tag: */ 0,
/* communicator: */ comm,
/* request: */ &request);
    MPI_Wait(&request,MPI_STATUS_IGNORE);
    printf("[%d] Isend successfully concluded\n",procno);
} else if (procno==receiver) {
    double recv_data;
    MPI_Request request;
    MPI_Irecv
        ( /* recv buffer/count/type: */ &recv_data,1,MPI_DOUBLE,
/* from: */ sender, /* tag: */ 0,
/* communicator: */ comm,
/* request: */ &request);
    MPI_Wait(&request,MPI_STATUS_IGNORE);
    printf("[%d] Ireceive successfully concluded\n",procno);
}

MPI_Finalize();
return 0;
}
```

4.5.12 Listing of code examples/mpi/c/hangwait.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
#include <unistd.h>

#include "mpi.h"
```

4. MPI topic: Point-to-point

```
int main(int argc,char **argv) {  
  
#include "globalinit.c"  
  
    double  
        mydata=procno;  
    int sender = nprocs-1;  
  
    if (procno==sender) {  
        for (int p=0; p<nprocs-1; p++) {  
            double send = 1.;  
            MPI_Send( &send,1,MPI_DOUBLE,p,0,comm);  
        }  
    } else {  
        double recv=0.;  
        MPI_Request request;  
        MPI_Irecv( &recv,1,MPI_DOUBLE, sender,0,comm,&request);  
        MPI_Wait(&request,MPI_STATUS_IGNORE);  
    }  
  
    MPI_Finalize();  
    return 0;  
}
```

4.5.13 Listing of code examples/mpi/mp1/isendandirecv.cxx

```
#include <cstdlib>  
#include <complex>  
#include <iostream>  
using std::cout;  
using std::endl;  
#include <mpl/mp1.hpp>  
  
int main(int argc,char **argv) {  
  
    const mpl::communicator &comm_world=mpl::environment::comm_world();  
    int  
        nprocs = comm_world.size(),  
        procno = comm_world.rank();  
    if (comm_world.size()<2)  
        return EXIT_FAILURE;  
  
    int sender = 0,receiver = nprocs-1;  
  
    if (procno==sender) {  
        double send_data = 1.;  
        mpl::irequest send_request  
            ( comm_world.isend( send_data, receiver ) );  
        send_request.wait();  
        printf("[%d] Isend successfully concluded\n",procno);  
    } else if (procno==receiver) {  
        double recv_data;  
        mpl::irequest recv_request =
```

```
    comm_world.Irecv( recv_data, sender );
    recv_request.wait();
    printf("[%d] Ireceive successfully concluded\n", procno);
}

return 0;
}
```

4.5.14 Listing of code examples/mpi/p/irecvloop.py

```
import numpy as np
import random # random.randint(1,N), random.random()
from mpi4py import MPI

comm = MPI.COMM_WORLD
procid = comm.Get_rank()
nprocs = comm.Get_size()
if nprocs<2:
    print("C'mon, get real....")
    sys.exit(1)

requests = [] # [ None ] * (2*nprocs)
sendbuffer = np.empty( nprocs, dtype=int )
recvbuffer = np.empty( nprocs, dtype=int )

for p in range(nprocs):
    left_p = (p-1) % nprocs
    right_p = (p+1) % nprocs
    requests.append( comm.Isend\
        ( sendbuffer[p:p+1], dest=left_p ) )
    requests.append( comm.Irecv\
        ( recvbuffer[p:p+1], source=right_p ) )
MPI.Request.Waitall(requests)

if procid==0:
    print("All messages received")
```

4.5.15 Listing of code examples/mpi/f/irecvsource.F90

```
Program Irecv_source

use mpi
implicit none

integer,dimension(:),allocatable :: recv_buffer,requests
integer :: index,randomint
real :: randomvalue
#include "globalinit.F90"
allocate(recv_buffer(ntids-1))
allocate(requests(ntids-1))
```

```
if (mytid==ntids-1) then
    do p=1,ntids-1
        print *, "post"
        call MPI_Irecv(recv_buffer(p),1,MPI_INTEGER,p-1,0,comm,&
                      requests(p),err)
    end do
    do p=1,ntids-1
        call MPI_Waitany(ntids-1,requests,index,MPI_STATUS_IGNORE,err)
        write(*,'("Message from",i3,":",i5)') index,recv_buffer(index)
    end do
else
    call sleep(6)
    call random_number(randomvalue)
    randomint = randomvalue
    randomint = 30+mytid
    call MPI_Send(randomint,1,MPI_INTEGER, ntids-1,0,comm,err)
end if

end Program Irecv_source
```

4.5.16 Listing of code examples/mpi/f08/waitnull.F90

```
Program Waitnull

use mpi_f08

implicit none

!!
!! General stuff
!!
Type(MPI_Comm) :: comm;
integer :: mytid,ntids,i,p,err;

!!
!! random number generatoe
!!
integer :: randsize
integer,allocatable,dimension(:) :: randseed

!!
!! data for this program
!!
Type(MPI_Request),dimension(:),allocatable :: requests
integer,dimension(:),allocatable :: recv_buffer
integer :: index,randomint,success = 1
real :: randomvalue

call MPI_Init()
comm = MPI_COMM_WORLD
call MPI_Comm_rank(comm,mytid)
call MPI_Comm_size(comm,ntids)
```

```
call MPI_Comm_set_errhandler(comm,MPI_ERRORS_RETURN)

!!
!! seed the random number generator
!!
call random_seed(size=randsize)
allocate(randseed(randsize))
do i=1,randsize
    randseed(i) = 1023*mytid
end do
call random_seed(put=randseed)

allocate(recv_buffer(ntids-1))
allocate(requests(ntids-1))

if (mytid==ntids-1) then
!
! the last process posts a receive
! from every other process
!
do p=0,ntids-2
    call MPI_Irecv(recv_buffer(p+1),1,MPI_INTEGER,p,0,comm,&
        requests(p+1))
end do
!
! then wait to see what comes in
!
do p=0,ntids-2
    call MPI_Waitany(ntids-1,requests,index,MPI_STATUS_IGNORE)
    if ( .not. requests(index)==MPI_REQUEST_NULL) then
        print *, "This request should be null:",index
        success = 0
    end if
    !write(*,'("Message from",i3,":",i5)') index,recv_buffer(index)
end do

else
!
! everyone else sends one number to the last
! after some random wait
!
call sleep(6)
call random_number(randomvalue)
randomint = randomvalue
randomint = 30+mytid
call MPI_Send(randomint,1,MPI_INTEGER, ntids-1,0,comm)
end if

call MPI_Allreduce(MPI_IN_PLACE,success,1,MPI_INTEGER,MPI_SUM,comm)
if (mytid==0) then
    if (success==ntids) then
        print *, "All processes successfully concluded"
    else
```

```

        print *, "Failure on", ntid - success, "processes"
    end if
end if

call MPI_Finalize()

end Program Waitnull

```

4.5.17 Listing of code examples/mpi/mpf/irecvsource.cxx

```

#include <cstdlib>
#include <unistd.h>
#include <complex>
#include <iostream>
using std::cout;
using std::endl;
#include <vector>
using std::vector;

#include <mpl/mpf.hpp>

int main(int argc, char **argv) {

    const mpl::communicator &comm_world=mpl::environment::comm_world();
    int
        nprocs = comm_world.size(),
        procno = comm_world.rank();
    if (comm_world.size()<2)
        return EXIT_FAILURE;

    // Initialize the random number generator
    srand((int)(procno*(double)RAND_MAX/nprocs));

    if (procno==nprocs-1) {
        mpl::irequest_pool recv_requests;
        vector<int> recv_buffer(nprocs-1);
        for (int p=0; p<nprocs-1; p++) {
            recv_requests.push( comm_world.irecv( recv_buffer[p], p ) );
        }
        printf("Outstanding request #=%lu\n",recv_requests.size());
        for (int p=0; p<nprocs-1; p++) {
            auto [success,index] = recv_requests.waitany();
            if (success) {
                auto recv_status = recv_requests.get_status(index);
                int source = recv_status.source();
                if (index!=source)
                    printf("Mismatch index %lu vs source %d\n",index,source);
                printf("Message from %lu: %d\n",index,recv_buffer[index]);
            } else
                break;
        }
    } else {

```

```
float randomfraction = (rand() / (double)RAND_MAX);
int randomwait = (int) ( 2* nprocs * randomfraction );
printf("process %d waits for %d\n",procno,randomwait);
sleep(randomwait);
comm_world.send( procno, nprocs-1 );
}

return 0;
}
```

4.5.18 Listing of code examples/mpi/p/irecvsource.py

```
import numpy as np
import random
import time
from mpi4py import MPI

comm = MPI.COMM_WORLD
procid = comm.Get_rank()
nprocs = comm.Get_size()
if nprocs<2:
    print("C'mon, get real....")
    sys.exit(1)

if procid==nprocs-1:
    receive_buffer = np.empty(nprocs-1,dtype=int)
    requests = [ None ] * (nprocs-1)
    for sender in range(nprocs-1):
        requests[sender] = comm.Irecv(receive_buffer[sender:sender+1],source=sender)
    # alternatively: requests = [ comm.Irecv(s) for s in .... ]
    status = MPI.Status()
    for sender in range(nprocs-1):
        ind = MPI.Request.Waitany(requests,status=status)
        if ind!=status.Get_source():
            print("sender mismatch: %d vs %d" % (ind,status.Get_source()))
            print("received from",ind)
else:
    mywait = random.randint(1,2*nprocs)
    print("[%d] wait for %d seconds" % (procid,mywait))
    time.sleep(mywait)
    mydata = np.empty(1,dtype=int)
    mydata[0] = procid
    comm.Send([mydata,MPI.INT],dest=nprocs-1)
```

4.5.19 Listing of code examples/mpi/c/irecvloop.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
#include "mpi.h"

int main(int argc,char **argv) {
```

```
#include "globalinit.c"

int recvbuf=2, sendbuf=3, other;
MPI_Request requests =
    (MPI_Request*) malloc( 2*nprocs*sizeof(MPI_Request) );
recv_buffers = (int*) malloc( nprocs*sizeof(int) );
send_buffers = (int*) malloc( nprocs*sizeof(int) );
for (int p=0; p<nprocs; p++) {
    int
    left_p = (p-1+nprocs) % nprocs,
    right_p = (p+1) % nprocs;
    send_buffer[p] = nprocs-p;
    MPI_Isend(sendbuffer+p,1,MPI_INT, right_p,0, requests+2*p);
    MPI_Irecv(recvbuffer+p,1,MPI_INT, left_p,0, requests+2*p+1);
}
/* your useful code here */
MPI_Waitall(2*nprocs,requests,MPI_STATUSES_IGNORE);

skip:
MPI_Finalize();
return 0;
}
```

4.5.20 Listing of code examples/mpi/c/probe.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
#include <unistd.h>
#include "mpi.h"

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

#include "globalinit.c"

// Initialize the random number generator
srand((int)(procno*(double)RAND_MAX/nprocs));

int sender = 0, receiver = nprocs-1;
if (procno==receiver) {
    MPI_Status status;
    MPI_Probe(sender,0,comm,&status);
    int count;
    MPI_Get_count(&status,MPI_FLOAT,&count);
    printf("Receiving %d floats\n",count);
    float recv_buffer[count];
    MPI_Recv(recv_buffer,count,MPI_FLOAT, sender,0,comm,MPI_STATUS_IGNORE);
} else if (procno==sender) {
    float randomfraction = (rand() / (double)RAND_MAX);
    int buffer_size = (int) ( 10 * nprocs * randomfraction );
    printf("Sending %d floats\n",buffer_size);
    float buffer[buffer_size];
```

```
    ierr = MPI_Send(buffer,buffer_size,MPI_FLOAT, receiver,0,comm); CHK(ierr);
}

MPI_Finalize();
return 0;
}
```

4.5.21 Listing of code examples/mpi/mpl/vector.cxx

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
#include <vector>
using std::vector;
#include <cassert>

#include <mpl/mpl.hpp>

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

    const mpl::communicator &comm_world = mpl::environment::comm_world();
    int nprocs,procno;
    // compute communicator rank and size
    nprocs = comm_world.size();
    procno = comm_world.rank();

    if (nprocs<2) {
        printf("This program needs at least two processes\n");
        return -1;
    }
    int sender = 0, receiver = 1, the_other = 1-procno,
        count = 5,stride=2;
    vector<double>
        source(stride*count);
    vector<double>
        target(count);

    for (int i=0; i<stride*count; i++)
        source[i] = i+.5;

    if (procno==sender) {
        mpl::strided_vector_layout<double>
            newvectortype(count,1,stride);
        comm_world.send
            (source.data(),newvectortype,the_other);
    }
    else if (procno==receiver) {
        int recv_count;
        mpl::contiguous_layout<double> target_layout(count);
        mpl::status_t recv_status =
            comm_world.recv(target.data(),target_layout, the_other);
        recv_count = recv_status.get_count<double>();
        assert(recv_count==count);
    }
}
```

```

    }

    if (procno==receiver) {
        for (int i=0; i<count; i++)
            if (target[i]!=source[stride*i])
                printf("location %d %e s/b %e\n",i,target[i],source[stride*i]);
    }

    if (procno==0)
        printf("Finished\n");

    return 0;
}

```

4.5.22 Listing of code examples/mpi/c/anysource.c

```

#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
#include <unistd.h>
#include "mpi.h"

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

#include "globalinit.c"

    if (procno==nprocs-1) {
        /*
         * The last process receives from every other process
         */
        int *recv_buffer;
        recv_buffer = (int*) malloc((nprocs-1)*sizeof(int));

        /*
         * Messages can come in in any order, so use MPI_ANY_SOURCE
         */
        MPI_Status status;
        for (int p=0; p<nprocs-1; p++) {
            err = MPI_Recv(recv_buffer+p,1,MPI_INT, MPI_ANY_SOURCE,0,comm,
                           &status); CHK(err);
            int sender = status.MPI_SOURCE;
            printf("Message from sender=%d: %d\n",
                   sender,recv_buffer[p]);
        }
        free(recv_buffer);
    } else {
        /*
         * Each rank waits an unpredictable amount of time,
         * then sends to the last process in line.
         */
        float randomfraction = (rand() / (double)RAND_MAX);
        int randomwait = (int) ( nprocs * randomfraction );
        printf("process %d waits for %e/%d=%d\n",

```

```
    procno,randomfraction,nprocs,randomwait);
    sleep(randomwait);
    err = MPI_Send(&randomwait,1,MPI_INT, nprocs-1,0,comm); CHK(err);
}

MPI_Finalize();
return 0;
}
```

4.5.23 Listing of code examples/mpi/f08/anysource.F90

Program AnySource

```
use mpi_f08

implicit none

integer,dimension(:),allocatable :: recv_buffer
Type(MPI_Status) :: status
real :: randomvalue
integer :: randomint, sender

#include "globalinit.F90"

if (mytid.eq.ntids-1) then
    allocate(recv_buffer(ntids-1))
    do p=0,ntids-2
        call MPI_Recv(recv_buffer(p+1),1,MPI_INTEGER,&
                      MPI_ANY_SOURCE,0,comm,status)
        sender = status%MPI_SOURCE
        print *, "Message from",sender
    end do
else
    call random_number(randomvalue)
    randomint = randomvalue*ntids
    call sleep(randomint)
    print *, mytid,"waits for",randomint
    call MPI_Send(p,1,MPI_INTEGER,ntids-1,0,comm)
end if

call MPI_Finalize(err)

end program AnySource
```

4.5.24 Listing of code examples/mpi/f/anysource.F90

Program AnySource

```
implicit none

#include "mpif.h"
```

4. MPI topic: Point-to-point

```
integer,dimension(:),allocatable :: recv_buffer
integer :: status(MPI_STATUS_SIZE)
real :: randomvalue
integer :: randomint, sender

#include "globalinit.F90"

if (mytid.eq.ntids-1) then
    allocate(recv_buffer(ntids-1))
    do p=0,ntids-2
        call MPI_Recv(recv_buffer(p+1),1,MPI_INTEGER,&
                      MPI_ANY_SOURCE,0,comm,status,err)
        sender = status(MPI_SOURCE)
        print *, "Message from",sender
    end do
else
    call random_number(randomvalue)
    randomint = randomvalue*ntids
    call sleep(randomint)
    print *, mytid,"waits for",randomint
    call MPI_Send(p,1,MPI_INTEGER,ntids-1,0,comm,err)
end if

call MPI_Finalize(err)

end program AnySource
```

4.5.25 Listing of code examples/mpi/c/count.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <mpi.h>

int main(int argc,char **argv) {
    MPI_Comm comm;
    int nprocs,procid;

    MPI_Init(&argc,&argv);
    comm = MPI_COMM_WORLD;
    MPI_Comm_size(comm,&nprocs);
    MPI_Comm_rank(comm,&procid);

#define N 10
    float buffer[N];
    int target = nprocs-1;
    if (procid==0) {
        int sendcount = (rand()>.5) ? N : N-1;
        MPI_Send( buffer,sendcount,MPI_FLOAT,target,0,comm );
    } else if (procid==target) {
        MPI_Status status;
        int recvcount;
        MPI_Recv( buffer,N,MPI_FLOAT,0,0, comm, &status );
```

```
    MPI_Get_count(&status,MPI_FLOAT,&recvcount);
    printf("Received %d elements\n",recvcount);
}

MPI_Finalize();
return 0;
}
```

4.5.26 Listing of code examples/mpi/mpl/recvstatus.cxx

```
#include <cstdlib>
#include <complex>
#include <iostream>
#include <mpl/mpl.hpp>

int main() {
    const mpl::communicator &comm_world=mpf::environment::comm_world();
    if (comm_world.size()<2)
        return EXIT_FAILURE;
    // send and receive a single floating point number
    if (comm_world.rank()==0) {
        double pi=3.14;
        comm_world.send(pi, 1); // send to rank 1
        std::cout << "sent: " << pi << '\n';
    } else if (comm_world.rank()==1) {
        double pi=0;
        auto s = comm_world.recv(pi, 0); // receive from rank 0
        int c = s.get_count<double>();
        std::cout << "got : " << c << " scalar(s): " << pi << '\n';
    }
    return EXIT_SUCCESS;
}
```

4.5.27 Listing of code examples/mpi/p/anysource.py

```
import numpy as np
import random
from mpi4py import MPI

comm = MPI.COMM_WORLD
procid = comm.Get_rank()
nprocs = comm.Get_size()
if nprocs<2:
    print("C'mon, get real....")
    sys.exit(1)

if procid==nprocs-1:
    rbuf = np.empty(1,dtype=np.float64)
    for p in range(procid):
        rstatus = MPI.Status()
        comm.Recv(rbuf,source=MPI.ANY_SOURCE,status=rstatus)
```

4. MPI topic: Point-to-point

```
    print("Message came from %d" % rstatus.Get_source())
else:
    sbuf = np.empty(1,dtype=np.float64)
    sbuf = np.empty(1,dtype=np.float64)
    sbuf[0] = 1.
    comm.Send(sbuf,dest=nprocs-1)
```

Chapter 5

MPI topic: Communication modes

5.1 Persistent communication

Persistent communication is a mechanism for dealing with a repeating communication transaction, where the parameters of the transaction, such as sender, receiver, tag, root, and buffer type and size, stay the same. Only the contents of the buffers involved changes between the transactions.

You can imagine that setting up a communication carries some overhead, and if the same communication structure is repeated many times, this overhead may be avoided.

1. For nonblocking communications `MPI_Ixxx` (both point-to-point and collective) there is a persistent variant `MPI_Xxx_init` with the same calling sequence. The ‘init’ call produces an `MPI_Request` output parameter, which can be used to test for completion of the communication.
2. The ‘init’ routine does not start the actual communication: that is done in `MPI_Start`, or `MPI_Startall` for multiple requests.
3. Any of the MPI ‘wait’ calls can then be used to conclude the communication.
4. The communication can then be restarted with another ‘start’ call.
5. The wait call does not release the request object, since it can be used for repeat occurrences of this transaction. The request object is only freed with `MPI_Request_free`.

```
|| MPI_Send_init( /* ... */ &request);
|| while ( /* ... */ ) {
||   MPI_Start( request );
||   MPI_Wait( request, &status );
}
|| MPI_Request_free( & request );
```

MPL note 37: Persistent requests. MPL returns a `prequest` from persistent ‘init’ routines, rather than an `irequest` (MPL note 29):

```
|| template<typename T >
|| prequest send_init (const T &data, int dest, tag t=tag(0)) const;
```

Likewise, there is a `prequest_pool` instead of an `irequest_pool` (note 30).

5. MPI topic: Communication modes

Figure 5.1 MPI_Send_init

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Send_init					
MPI_Send_init_c					
buf		initial address of send buffer	const void*	TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)	IN
count		number of elements sent	[int MPI_Count]	INTEGER	IN
datatype		type of each element	MPI_Datatype	TYPE (MPI_Datatype)	IN
dest		rank of destination	int	INTEGER	IN
tag		message tag	int	INTEGER	IN
comm		communicator	MPI_Comm	TYPE (MPI_Comm)	IN
request		communication request	MPI_Request*	TYPE (MPI_Request)	OUT
)					

Python:

```
MPI.Comm.Send_init(self, buf, int dest, int tag=0)
```

Figure 5.2 MPI_Startall

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Startall					
count		list length	int	INTEGER	IN
array_of_requests		array of requests	MPI_Request[]	TYPE (MPI_Request) (count)	INOUT
)					

Python:

```
MPI.Request.Startall(type cls, requests)
```

5.1.1 Persistent point-to-point communication

The main persistent point-to-point routines are [MPI_Send_init](#) (figure 5.1), which has the same calling sequence as [MPI_Isend](#), and [MPI_Recv_init](#), which has the same calling sequence as [MPI_Irecv](#).

In the following example a ping-pong is implemented with persistent communication. Since we use persistent operations for both send and receive on the ‘ping’ process, we use [MPI_Startall](#) (figure 5.2) to start both at the same time, and [MPI_Waitall](#) to test their completion. (There is [MPI_Start](#) for starting a single persistent transfer.)

Code:

```
// persist.c
if (procno==src) {
    MPI_Send_init
        (send,s,MPI_DOUBLE,tgt,0,comm,
         requests+0);
    MPI_Recv_init
        (recv,s,MPI_DOUBLE,tgt,0,comm,
         requests+1);
    for (int n=0; n<NEXPERIMENTS; n++) {
        fill_buffer(send,s,n);
        MPI_Startall(2,requests);
        MPI_Waitall(2,requests,
                    MPI_STATUSES_IGNORE);
        int r = chck_buffer(send,s,n);
        if (!r) printf("buffer problem %d\n",s);
    }
    MPI_Request_free(requests+0);
    MPI_Request_free(requests+1);
} else if (procno==tgt) {
    for (int n=0; n<NEXPERIMENTS; n++) {
        MPI_Recv(recv,s,MPI_DOUBLE,src,0,
                 comm,MPI_STATUS_IGNORE);
        MPI_Send(recv,s,MPI_DOUBLE,src,0,
                 comm);
    }
}
```

```
## persist.py
requests = [ None ] * 2
sendbuf = np.ones(size,dtype=int)
recvbuf = np.ones(size,dtype=int)
if procid==src:
    print("Size:",size)
    times[ isize ] = MPI.Wtime()
    for n in range(nexperiments):
        requests[0] = comm.Isend(sendbuf[0:size],dest=tgt)
        requests[1] = comm.Irecv(recvbuf[0:size],source=tgt)
        MPI.Request.Waitall(requests)
        sendbuf[0] = sendbuf[0]+1
        times[ isize ] = MPI.Wtime()-times[ isize ]
elif procid==tgt:
    for n in range(nexperiments):
        comm.Recv(recvbuf[0:size],source=src)
        comm.Send(recvbuf[0:size],dest=src)
```

For the full source of this example, see section 5.6.2

As with ordinary send commands, there are persistent variants of the other send modes:

- **MPI_Bsend_init** for buffered communication, section 5.5;
- **MPI_Ssend_init** for synchronous communication, section 5.3.1;
- **MPI_Rsend_init** for ready sends, section 15.8.

Output:

```
make[3]: `persist' is up to date.
TACC: Starting up job 4328411
TACC: Starting parallel tasks...
Pingpong size=1: t=1.2123e-04
Pingpong size=10: t=4.2826e-06
Pingpong size=100: t=7.1507e-06
Pingpong size=1000: t=1.2084e-05
Pingpong size=10000: t=3.7668e-05
Pingpong size=100000: t=3.4415e-04
Persistent size=1: t=3.8177e-06
Persistent size=10: t=3.2410e-06
Persistent size=100: t=4.0468e-06
Persistent size=1000: t=1.1525e-05
Persistent size=10000: t=4.1672e-05
Persistent size=100000: t=2.8648e-04
TACC: Shutdown complete. Exiting.
```

Figure 5.3 MPI_Allreduce_init

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Allreduce_init					
	MPI_Allreduce_init_c				
sendbuf	starting address of send buffer	const void*	TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)	IN	
recvbuf	starting address of receive buffer	void*	TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)	OUT	
count	number of elements in send buffer	[int MPI_Count]	INTEGER	IN	
datatype	datatype of elements of send buffer	MPI_Datatype	TYPE (MPI_Datatype)	IN	
op	operation	MPI_Op	TYPE(MPI_Op)	IN	
comm	communicator	MPI_Comm	TYPE (MPI_Comm)	IN	
info	info argument	MPI_Info	TYPE (MPI_Info)	IN	
request	communication request	MPI_Request*	TYPE (MPI_Request)	OUT	
)					

5.1.2 Persistent collectives

The following material is for the recently released MPI-4 standard and may not be supported yet.

For each collective call, there is a persistent variant. As with persistent point-to-point calls (section 5.1.1), these have largely the same calling sequence as the nonpersistent variants, except for:

- an `MPI_Info` parameter that can be used to pass system-dependent hints; and
- an added final `MPI_Request` parameter.

(See for instance `MPI_Allreduce_init` (figure 5.3).) This request (or an array of requests from multiple calls) can then be used by `MPI_Start` (or `MPI_Startall`) to initiate the actual communication.

```
// powerpersist1.c
double localnorm,globalnorm=1.;
MPI_Request reduce_request;
MPI_Allreduce_init
  ( &localnorm,&globalnorm,1,MPI_DOUBLE,MPI_SUM,
    comm,MPI_INFO_NULL,&reduce_request);
for (int it=0; ; it++) {
/*
 * Matrix vector product
 */
matmult(indata,outdata,buffersize);

// start computing norm of output vector
localnorm = local_l2_norm(outdata,buffersize);
double old_globalnorm = globalnorm;
MPI_Start( &reduce_request );

// end computing norm of output vector
```

```

    MPI_Wait( &reduce_request,MPI_STATUS_IGNORE );
    globalnorm = sqrt(globalnorm);
    // now `globalnorm' is the L2 norm of `outdata'
    scale(outdata,indata,buffersize,1./globalnorm);
}
MPI_Request_free( &reduce_request );

```

Some points.

- Metadata arrays, such as of counts and datatypes, must not be altered until the `MPI_Request_free` call.
- The initialization call is nonlocal, so it can block until all processes have performed it.
- Multiple persistent collective can be initialized, in which case they satisfy the same restrictions as ordinary collectives, in particular on ordering. Thus, the following code is incorrect:

```

// WRONG
if (procid==0) {
    MPI_Reduce_init( /* ... */ &req1);
    MPI_Bcast_init( /* ... */ &req2);
} else {
    MPI_Bcast_init( /* ... */ &req2);
    MPI_Reduce_init( /* ... */ &req1);
}

```

However, after initialization the start calls can be in arbitrary order, and in different order among the processes.

Available persistent collectives are: `MPI_Barrier_init` `MPI_Bcast_init` `MPI_Reduce_init` `MPI_Allreduce_init`
`MPI_Reduce_scatter_init` `MPI_Reduce_scatter_block_init` `MPI_Gather_init` `MPI_Gatherv_init`
`MPI_Allgather_init` `MPI_Allgatherv_init` `MPI_Scatter_init` `MPI_Scatterv_init` `MPI_Alltoall_init`
`MPI_Alltoallv_init` `MPI_Alltoallw_init` `MPI_Scan_init` `MPI_Exscan_init`

End of MPI-4 material

5.1.3 Persistent neighbor communications

The following material is for the recently released MPI-4 standard and may not be supported yet.

There are persistent version of the neighborhood collectives; section 11.2.2.

`MPI_Neighbor_allgather_init`, `MPI_Neighbor_allgatherv_init`, `MPI_Neighbor_alltoall_init`,
`MPI_Neighbor_alltoallv_init`, `MPI_Neighbor_alltoallw_init`,

End of MPI-4 material

5.2 Partitioned communication

The following material is for the recently released MPI-4 standard and may not be supported yet.

Partitioned communication is a variant on *persistent communication*, where a message is constructed in partitions.

- The normal `MPI_Send_init` is replaced by `MPI_Psend_init` (figure 5.4). Note the presence of an `MPI_Info` argument, as in persistent collectives, but unlike in persistent sends and receives.

5. MPI topic: Communication modes

Figure 5.4 MPI_Psend_init

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
<code>MPI_Psend_init (</code>					
<code>buf</code>		initial address of send buffer	const void*	TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)	IN
<code>partitions</code>		number of partitions	int	INTEGER	IN
<code>count</code>		number of elements sent per partition	MPI_Count	INTEGER (KIND=MPI_COUNT_KIND)	IN
<code>datatype</code>		type of each element	MPI_Datatype	TYPE (MPI_Datatype)	IN
<code>dest</code>		rank of destination	int	INTEGER	IN
<code>tag</code>		message tag	int	INTEGER	IN
<code>comm</code>		communicator	MPI_Comm	TYPE (MPI_Comm)	IN
<code>info</code>		info argument	MPI_Info	TYPE (MPI_Info)	IN
<code>request</code>		communication request	MPI_Request*	TYPE (MPI_Request)	OUT
<code>)</code>					

Figure 5.5 MPI_Pready

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
<code>MPI_Pready (</code>					
<code>partition</code>		partition to mark ready for transfer	int	INTEGER	IN
<code>request</code>		partitioned communication request	MPI_Request	TYPE (MPI_Request)	INOUT
<code>)</code>					

- After this, the `MPI_Start` does not actually start the transfer; instead:
- Each partition of the message is separately declared as read-to-be-sent with `MPI_Pready`.
- An `MPI_Wait` call completes the operation, indicating that all partitions have been sent.

A common scenario for this is in multi-threaded environments, where each thread can construct its own part of a message. Having partitioned messages means that partially constructed message buffers can be sent off without having to wait for all threads to finish.

Indicating that parts of a message are ready for sending is done by one of the following calls:

- `MPI_Pready` (figure 5.5) for a single partition;
- `MPI_Pready_range` for a range of partitions; and
- `MPI_Pready_list` for an explicitly enumerated list of partitions.

The `MPI_Psend_init` call yields an `MPI_Request` object that can be used to test for completion (see sections 4.2.2 and 4.2.3) of the full operation.

```
|| MPI_Request send_request;
|| MPI_Psend_init
||   (sendbuffer,nparts,SIZE,MPI_DOUBLE,tgt,0,
```

Figure 5.6 MPI_Parrived

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Parrived					
	request	partitioned communication request	MPI_Request	TYPE (MPI_Request)	IN
	partition	partition to be tested	int	INTEGER	IN
	flag	true if operation completed on the specified partition, false if not	int*	LOGICAL	OUT
)				

```

    comm,MPI_INFO_NULL,&send_request);
for (int it=0; it<ITERATIONS; it++) {
    MPI_Start(&send_request);
    for (int ip=0; ip<nparts; ip++) {
        fill_buffer(sendbuffer,partitions[ip],partitions[ip+1],ip);
        MPI_Pready(ip,send_request);
    }
    MPI_Wait(&send_request,MPI_STATUS_IGNORE);
}
MPI_Request_free(&send_request);

```

The receiving side is largely the mirror image of the sending side:

```

double *recvbuffer = (double*)malloc(bufsize*sizeof(double));
MPI_Request recv_request;
MPI_Precv_init
(recvbuffer,nparts,SIZE,MPI_DOUBLE,src,0,
 comm,MPI_INFO_NULL,&recv_request);
for (int it=0; it<ITERATIONS; it++) {
    MPI_Start(&recv_request); int r=1,flag;
    for (int ip=0; ip<nparts; ip++) // cycle this many times
        for (int ap=0; ap<nparts; ap++) { // check specific part
            MPI_Parrived(recv_request,ap,&flag);
            if (flag) {
                r *= chck_buffer
                (recvbuffer,partitions[ap],partitions[ap+1],ap);
                break; }
        }
    MPI_Wait(&recv_request,MPI_STATUS_IGNORE);
}
MPI_Request_free(&recv_request);

```

- a partitioned send can only be matched with a partitioned receive, so we start with an **MPI_Precv_init**.
- Arrival of a partition can be tested with **MPI_Parrived** (figure 5.6).
- A call to **MPI_Wait** completes the operation, indicating that all partitions have arrived.

Again, the **MPI_Request** object from the receive-init call can be used to test for completion of the full receive operation.

End of MPI-4 material

5.3 Synchronous and asynchronous communication

It is easiest to think of blocking as a form of synchronization with the other process, but that is not quite true. Synchronization is a concept in itself, and we talk about *synchronous* communication if there is actual coordination going on with the other process, and *asynchronous* communication if there is not. Blocking then only refers to the program waiting until the user data is safe to reuse; in the synchronous case a blocking call means that the data is indeed transferred, in the asynchronous case it only means that the data has been transferred to some system buffer. The four possible cases are illustrated in figure 5.1.

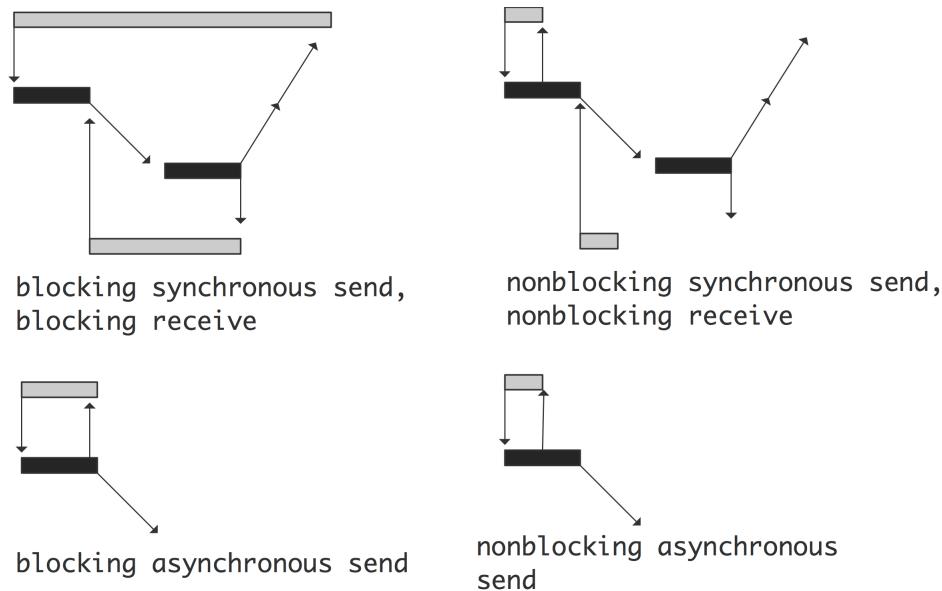


Figure 5.1: Blocking and synchronicity

5.3.1 Synchronous send operations

MPI has a number of routines for synchronous communication, such as `MPI_Ssend`. Driving home the point that nonblocking and asynchronous are different concepts, there is a routine `MPI_Issend`, which is synchronous but nonblocking. These routines have the same calling sequence as their not-explicitly synchronous variants, and only differ in their semantics.

See section 4.1.4.2 for examples.

5.4 Local and nonlocal operations

The MPI standard does not dictate whether communication is buffered. If a message is buffered, a send call can complete, even if no corresponding send has been posted yet. See section 4.1.4.2. Thus, in the

standard communication, a send operation is *nonlocal*: its completion may depend on whether the corresponding receive has been posted. A *local operation* is one that is not nonlocal.

On the other hand, *buffered communication* (routines `MPI_Bsend`, `MPI_Ibsend`, `MPI_Bsend_init`; section 5.5) is *local*: the presence of an explicit buffer means that a send operation can complete no matter whether the receive has been posted.

The *synchronous send* (routines `MPI_Ssend`, `MPI_Issend`, `MPI_Ssend_init`; section 15.8) is again nonlocal (even in the nonblocking variant) since it will only complete when the receive call has completed.

Finally, the *ready mode send* (`MPI_Rsend`, `MPI_Irsend`) is nonlocal in the sense that its only correct use is when the corresponding receive has been issued.

5.5 Buffered communication

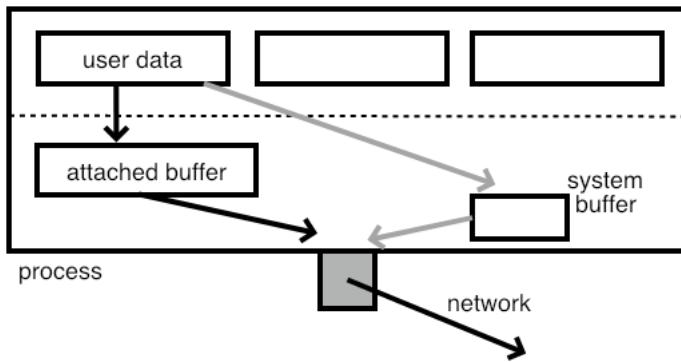


Figure 5.2: User communication routed through an attached buffer

By now you have probably got the notion that managing buffer space in MPI is important: data has to be somewhere, either in user-allocated arrays or in system buffers. Using *buffered communication* is yet another way of managing buffer space.

1. You allocate your own buffer space, and you attach it to your process. This buffer is not a send buffer: it is a replacement for buffer space used inside the MPI library or on the network card; figure 5.2. If high-bandwidth memory is available, you could create your buffer there.
2. You use the `MPI_Bsend` (figure 5.7) (or its *local* variant `MPI_Ibsend`) call for sending, using otherwise normal send and receive buffers;
3. You detach the buffer when you're done with the buffered sends.

One advantage of buffered sends is that they are nonblocking: since there is a guaranteed buffer long enough to contain the message, it is not necessary to wait for the receiving process.

We illustrate the use of buffered sends:

```
// bufring.c
int bsize = BUFSIZE*sizeof(float);
float
```

5. MPI topic: Communication modes

Figure 5.7 MPI_Bsend

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
<code>MPI_Bsend (</code>					
<code> MPI_Bsend_c (</code>					
<code>buf</code>		initial address of send buffer	const void*	TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)	IN
<code>count</code>		number of elements in send buffer	[int MPI_Count]	INTEGER	IN
<code>datatype</code>		datatype of each send buffer element	MPI_Datatype	TYPE (MPI_Datatype)	IN
<code>dest</code>		rank of destination	int	INTEGER	IN
<code>tag</code>		message tag	int	INTEGER	IN
<code>comm</code>		communicator	MPI_Comm	TYPE (MPI_Comm)	IN
<code>)</code>					

Figure 5.8 MPI_Buffer_attach

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
<code>MPI_Buffer_attach (</code>					
<code> MPI_Buffer_attach_c (</code>					
<code>buffer</code>		initial buffer address	void*	TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)	IN
<code>size</code>		buffer size, in bytes	[int MPI_Count]	INTEGER	IN
<code>)</code>					

```

|| *sbuf = (float*) malloc( bsize ),
|| *rbuf = (float*) malloc( bsize );
|| MPI_Pack_size( BUflen,MPI_FLOAT,comm,&bsize);
|| bsize += MPI_BSEND_OVERHEAD;
|| float
|| *buffer = (float*) malloc( bsize );

|| MPI_Buffer_attach( buffer,bsize );
err = MPI_Bsend(sbuf,BUflen,MPI_FLOAT,next,0,comm);
|| MPI_Recv (rbuf,BUflen,MPI_FLOAT,prev,0,comm,MPI_STATUS_IGNORE);
|| MPI_Buffer_detach( &buffer,&bsize );

```

5.5.1 Buffer treatment

There can be only one buffer per process, attached with `MPI_Buffer_attach` (figure 5.8). Its size should be enough for all `MPI_Bsend` calls that are simultaneously outstanding. You can compute the needed size of the buffer with `MPI_Pack_size`; see section 6.8. Additionally, a term of `MPI_BSEND_OVERHEAD` is needed. See the above code fragment.

The buffer is detached with `MPI_Buffer_detach` (figure 5.9). This returns the address and size of the buffer;

Figure 5.9 MPI_Buffer_detach

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Buffer_detach (

```
MPI_Buffer_detach_c (
```

```
    buffer_addr  initial buffer address
    size         buffer size, in bytes
)

```

void*	TYPE(C_PTR)	OUT
[int*	INTEGER	OUT
MPI_Count]		

the call blocks until all buffered messages have been delivered.

Note that both `MPI_Buffer_attach` and `MPI_Buffer_detach` have a `void*` argument for the buffer, but

- in the attach routine this is the address of the buffer,
- while the detach routine it is the address of the buffer pointer.

This is done so that the detach routine can zero the buffer pointer.

While the buffered send is nonblocking like an `MPI_Isend`, there is no corresponding wait call. You can force delivery by

```
|| MPI_Buffer_detach( &b, &n );
|| MPI_Buffer_attach( b, n );
```

MPL note 38: Buffered send. Creating and attaching a buffer is done through `bsend_buffer` and a support routine `bsend_size` helps in calculating the buffer size:

```
// bufring.cxx
vector<float> sbuf(BUFLEN), rbuf(BUFLEN);
int size{ comm_world.bsend_size<float>(mpl::contiguous_layout<float>(BUFLEN)) };
mpl::bsend_buffer buff(size);
comm_world.bsend(sbuf.data(),mpl::contiguous_layout<float>(BUFLEN), next);
```

Constant: `mpl::bsend_overhead` is `constexpr`'d to the MPI constant `MPI_BSEND_OVERHEAD`.

MPL note 39: Buffer attach and detach. There is a separate attach routine, but normally this is called by the constructor of the `bsend_buffer`. Likewise, the detach routine is called in the buffer destructor.

```
|| void mpl::environment::buffer_attach (void *buff, int size);
|| std::pair< void *, int > mpl::environment::buffer_detach ();
```

5.5.2 Bufferend send calls

The possible error codes are

- `MPI_SUCCESS` the routine completed successfully.
- `MPI_ERR_BUFFER` The buffer pointer is invalid; this typically means that you have supplied a null pointer.
- `MPI_ERR_INTERN` An internal error in MPI has been detected.

The asynchronous version is `MPI_Ibsend`, the persistent (see section 5.1) call is `MPI_Bsend_init`.

Figure 5.10 MPI_Bsend_init

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Bsend_init					
	MPI_Bsend_init_c	(
buf		initial address of send buffer	const void*	TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)	IN
count		number of elements sent	[int MPI_Count]	INTEGER	IN
datatype		type of each element	MPI_Datatype	TYPE (MPI_Datatype)	IN
dest		rank of destination	int	INTEGER	IN
tag		message tag	int	INTEGER	IN
comm		communicator	MPI_Comm	TYPE (MPI_Comm)	IN
request		communication request	MPI_Request*	TYPE (MPI_Request)	OUT
)					

5.5.3 Persistent buffered communication

There is a persistent variant `MPI_Bsend_init` (figure 5.10) of buffered sends, as with regular sends (section 5.1).

5.6 Sources used in this chapter

5.6.1 Listing of code header

5.6.2 Listing of code examples/mpi/p/persist.py

```
import numpy as np
import random # random.randint(1,N), random.random()
from mpi4py import MPI

comm = MPI.COMM_WORLD
procid = comm.Get_rank()
nprocs = comm.Get_size()
if nprocs<2:
    print("C'mon, get real....")
    sys.exit(1)

nexperiments = 10
nsizes = 6
times = np.empty(nsizes,dtype=np.float64)
src = 0; tgt = nprocs-1

#
# ordinary communication
#
size = 1
if procid==src:
    print("Ordinary send/recv")
for isize in range(nsizes):
    requests = [ None ] * 2
    sendbuf = np.ones(size,dtype=int)
    recvbuf = np.ones(size,dtype=int)
    if procid==src:
        print("Size:",size)
        times[isize] = MPI.Wtime()
        for n in range(nexperiments):
            requests[0] = comm.Isend(sendbuf[0:size],dest=tgt)
            requests[1] = comm.Irecv(recvbuf[0:size],source=tgt)
            MPI.Request.Waitall(requests)
            sendbuf[0] = sendbuf[0]+1
        times[isize] = MPI.Wtime()-times[isize]
    elif procid==tgt:
        for n in range(nexperiments):
            comm.Recv(recvbuf[0:size],source=src)
            comm.Send(recvbuf[0:size],dest=src)
        size *= 10
    if procid==src:
        print("Timings:",times)

#
# ordinary communication
#
```

```
size = 1
requests = [ None ] * 2
if procid==src:
    print("Persistent send/recv")
for isize in range(nsizes):
    sendbuf = np.ones(size,dtype=int)
    recvbuf = np.ones(size,dtype=int)
    if procid==src:
        print("Size:",size)
        requests[0] = comm.Send_init(sendbuf[0:size],dest=tgt)
        requests[1] = comm.Recv_init(recvbuf[0:size],source=tgt)
        times[isize] = MPI.Wtime()
        for n in range(nexperiments):
            MPI.Prequest.Startall(requests)
            MPI.Prequest.Waitall(requests)
            sendbuf[0] = sendbuf[0]+1
        times[isize] = MPI.Wtime()-times[isize]
    elif procid==tgt:
        for n in range(nexperiments):
            comm.Recv(recvbuf[0:size],source=src)
            comm.Send(recvbuf[0:size],dest=src)
    size *= 10
if procid==src:
    print("Timings:",times)
```

Chapter 6

MPI topic: Data types

In the examples you have seen so far, every time data was sent, it was as a contiguous buffer with elements of a single type. In practice you may want to send heterogeneous data, or noncontiguous data.

- Communicating the real parts of an array of complex numbers means specifying every other number.
- Communicating a C structure or Fortran type with more than one type of element is not equivalent to sending an array of elements of a single type.

The datatypes you have dealt with so far are known as *elementary datatypes*; irregular objects are known as *derived datatypes*.

6.1 Data type handling

Datatypes such as `MPI_INT` are values of the type `MPI_Datatype`. This type is handled differently in different languages.

Fortran note 9: Derived types for handles. In Fortran before 2008, datatype variables are stored in `Integer` variables. With the 2008 standard, datatypes are Fortran derived types:

```
!! vector.F90
Type(MPI_Datatype) :: newvectortype
if (mytid==sender) then
    call MPI_Type_vector(count,1,stride,MPI_DOUBLE_PRECISION,&
        newvectortype)
    call MPI_Type_commit(newvectortype)
    call MPI_Send(source,1,newvectortype,receiver,0,comm)
    call MPI_Type_free(newvectortype)
    if (.not. newvectortype==MPI_DATATYPE_NULL) then
        print *, "Trouble freeing datatype"
    else
        print *, "Datatype successfully freed"
    end if
else if (mytid==receiver) then
    call MPI_Recv(target,count,MPI_DOUBLE_PRECISION, sender,0,comm,&
        recv_status)
    call MPI_Get_count(recv_status,MPI_DOUBLE_PRECISION,recv_count)
end if
```

6. MPI topic: Data types

Python note 16: Data types. There is a class

```
// mpi4py.MPI.Datatype
```

with predefined values such as

```
// mpi4py.MPI.Datatype.DOUBLE
```

which are themselves objects with methods for creating derived types; see section 6.3.1.

MPL note 40: Other types.

```
// sendlong.cxx
mpl::contiguous_layout<long long> v_layout(v.size());
comm.send(v.data(), v_layout, 1); // send to rank 1
```

Also works with complex of float and double.

MPL note 41: Data types. MPL routines are templated over the data type. The data types, where MPL can infer their internal representation, are enumeration types, C arrays of constant size and the template classes `std::array`, `std::pair` and `std::tuple` of the C++ Standard Template Library. The only limitation is, that the C array and the mentioned template classes hold data elements of types that can be sent or received by MPL.

6.2 Elementary data types

MPI has a number of elementary data types, corresponding to the simple data types of the host languages. The names are made to resemble the types of C and Fortran, for instance `MPI_FLOAT` and `MPI_DOUBLE` corresponding to `float` and `double` in C, versus `MPI_REAL` and `MPI_DOUBLE_PRECISION` corresponding to `Real` and `Double precision` in Fortran.

6.2.1 C/C++

Here we illustrate the correspondence between a type used to declare a variable, and how this type appears in MPI communication routines:

```
long int i;
MPI_Send(&i, 1, MPI_LONG, target, tag, comm);
```

- There is some, but not complete, support for C99 types.
- The `MPI_LONG_INT` type is not an integer type, but rather a `long` and an `int` packed together; see section 3.10.1.1.
- See section 6.2.4 for `MPI_Aint` and more about byte counting.

6.2.2 Fortran

Not all these types need be supported, for instance `MPI_INTEGER16` may not exist, in which case it will be equivalent to `MPI_DATATYPE_NULL`.

The default integer type `MPI_INTEGER` is equivalent to `INTEGER(KIND=MPI_INTEGER_KIND)`.

C type	MPI type
<code>char</code>	<code>MPI_CHAR</code>
<code>unsigned char</code>	<code>MPI_UNSIGNED_CHAR</code>
<code>char</code>	<code>MPI_SIGNED_CHAR</code>
<code>short</code>	<code>MPI_SHORT</code>
<code>unsigned short</code>	<code>MPI_UNSIGNED_SHORT</code>
<code>int</code>	<code>MPI_INT</code>
<code>unsigned int</code>	<code>MPI_UNSIGNED</code>
<code>long int</code>	<code>MPI_LONG</code>
<code>unsigned long int</code>	<code>MPI_UNSIGNED_LONG</code>
<code>long long int</code>	<code>MPI_LONG_LONG_INT</code>
<code>float</code>	<code>MPI_FLOAT</code>
<code>double</code>	<code>MPI_DOUBLE</code>
<code>long double</code>	<code>MPI_LONG_DOUBLE</code>
<code>unsigned char</code>	<code>MPI_BYTE</code>
(does not correspond to a C type)	<code>MPI_PACKED</code>

Table 6.1: Elementary datatypes in C

<code>_Bool</code>	<code>MPI_C_BOOL</code>
<code>float _Complex</code>	<code>MPI_C_COMPLEX</code>
	<code>MPI_C_FLOAT_COMPLEX</code>
<code>double _Complex</code>	<code>MPI_C_DOUBLE_COMPLEX</code>
<code>long double _Complex</code>	<code>MPI_C_LONG_DOUBLE_COMPLEX</code>

Table 6.2: C99 synonym types.

6.2.2.1 Big data types

The C type `MPI_Count` corresponds to an integer of type `MPI_COUNT_KIND`, used most prominently in ‘big data’ routines such as `MPI_Type_size_x` (section 6.6):

```
|| Integer(kind=MPI_COUNT_KIND) :: count
|| call MPI_Type_size_x(my_type, count)
```

The following material is for the recently released MPI-4 standard and may not be supported yet.

For every routine `MPI_Something` with an `int` count parameter, there is a corresponding routine `MPI_Something_c` with an `MPI_Count` parameter.

The above `MPI_Something_x` routines will probably be deprecated in the MPI-4.1 standard.

End of MPI-4 material

6.2.2.2 Byte counting types

Kind `MPI_ADDRESS_KIND` is used for `MPI_Aint` quantities, used in Remote Memory Access (RMA) windows; see section 9.3.1.

6. MPI topic: Data types

<code>int8_t</code>	<code>MPI_INT8_T</code>
<code>int16_t</code>	<code>MPI_INT16_T</code>
<code>int32_t</code>	<code>MPI_INT32_T</code>
<code>int64_t</code>	<code>MPI_INT64_T</code>
<code>uint8_t</code>	<code>MPI_UINT8_T</code>
<code>uint16_t</code>	<code>MPI_UINT16_T</code>
<code>uint32_t</code>	<code>MPI_UINT32_T</code>
<code>uint64_t</code>	<code>MPI_UINT64_T</code>

Table 6.3: C11 fixed width integer types.

<code>MPI_CHARACTER</code>	Character(Len=1)	<code>MPI_INTEGER1</code>
<code>MPI_INTEGER</code>		<code>MPI_INTEGER2</code>
<code>MPI_REAL</code>		<code>MPI_INTEGER4</code>
<code>MPI_DOUBLE_PRECISION</code>		<code>MPI_INTEGER8</code>
<code>MPI_COMPLEX</code>		<code>MPI_INTEGER16</code>
<code>MPI_LOGICAL</code>		<code>MPI_REAL2</code>
<code>MPI_BYTE</code>		<code>MPI_REAL4</code>
<code>MPI_PACKED</code>		<code>MPI_REAL8</code>
		<code>MPI_DOUBLE_COMPLEX</code>
		Complex(Kind=Kind(0.d0))

Table 6.4: Standard Fortran types (left) and common extension (right)

The `MPI_OFFSET_KIND` is used to define `MPI_Offset` quantities, used in file I/O; section 10.2.2.

6.2.2.3 Fortran90 kind-defined types

If your Fortran90 code uses `KIND` to define scalar types with specified precision, these do not in general correspond to any predefined MPI datatypes. Hence the following routines exist to make *MPI equivalences of Fortran scalar types*:

- `MPI_Type_create_f90_integer` (figure 6.1)
- `MPI_Type_create_f90_real` (figure 6.2)
- `MPI_Type_create_f90_complex` (figure 6.3).

Examples:

```

INTEGER ( KIND = SELECTED_INT_KIND(15) ) , &
DIMENSION(100) :: array INTEGER :: root , integertype , error

CALL MPI_Type_create_f90_integer( 15 , integertype , error )
CALL MPI_Bcast ( array , 100 , &
integertype , root , MPI_COMM_WORLD , error )

REAL ( KIND = SELECTED_REAL_KIND(15 ,300) ) , &
DIMENSION(100) :: array

```

Figure 6.1 MPI_Type_create_f90_integer

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Type_create_f90_integer	r newtype	(decimal exponent range, i.e., number of decimal digits the requested MPI datatype)	int MPI_Datatype* TYPE (MPI_Datatype)	INTEGER OUT	IN

Figure 6.2 MPI_Type_create_f90_real

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Type_create_f90_real	p r newtype	(precision, in decimal digits decimal exponent range the requested MPI datatype)	int int MPI_Datatype* TYPE (MPI_Datatype)	INTEGER INTEGER OUT	IN IN

```

|| CALL MPI_Type_create_f90_real( 15 , 300 , realtype , error )
|| COMPLEX ( KIND = SELECTED_REAL_KIND(15 ,300) ) , &
|| DIMENSION(100) :: array
|| CALL MPI_Type_create_f90_complex( 15 , 300 , complextyp , error )

```

6.2.3 Python

In python, all buffer data comes from *Numpy*.

mpi4py type	NumPy type
MPI.INT	np.intc
	np.int32
MPI.LONG	np.int64
MPI.FLOAT	np.float32
MPI.DOUBLE	np.float64

In this table we see that Numpy has three integer types, one corresponding to C `ints`, and two with the number of bits explicitly indicated. There used to be a `np.int` type, but this is deprecated as of *Numpy 1.20*.

Examples:

```

|| ## inttype.py
|| sizeofint = np.dtype('int32').itemsize
|| print("Size of numpy int32: {}".format(sizeofint))
|| sizeofint = np.dtype('intc').itemsize
|| print("Size of C int: {}".format(sizeofint))

```

For the full source of this example, see section 6.10.2

6. MPI topic: Data types

Figure 6.3 MPI_Type_create_f90_complex

```
## allgatherv.py  
mycount = procid+1  
my_array = np.empty(mycount,dtype=np.float64)
```

6.2.3.1 Type correspondences MPI / Python

Above we saw that the number of bytes of a Numpy type can be deduced from

```
|| sizeofint = np.dtype('intc').itemsize
```

It is possible to derive the Numpy type corresponding to an MPI type:

```
## typesize.py
datatype = MPI.FLOAT
typecode = MPI._typecode(datatype)
assert typecode is not None # check MPI datatype is built-in
dtype = np.dtype(typecode)
```

6.2.4 Byte addressing types

So far we have mostly been taking about datatypes in the context of sending them. The `MPI_Aint` type is not so much for sending, as it is for describing the size of objects, such as the size of an `MPI_Win` object (section 9.1) or byte displacements in `MPI_Type_create_hindexed`.

Addresses have type `MPI_Aint`. The start of the address range is given in `MPI_BOTTOM`. See also the `MPI_Sizero` (section 6.2.5) and `MPI_Get_address` routines.

Variables of type `MPI_Aint` can be sent as `MPI_AINT`:

```
|| MPI_Aint address;  
|| MPI_Send( address,1,MPI_AINT, ... );
```

See section 9.5.2 for an example.

In order to prevent overflow errors in byte calculations there are support routines `MPI_Aint_add`

`|| MPI_Aint MPI_Aint_add(MPI_Aint base, MPI_Aint disp)`

and similarly `MPI_Aint_diff`.

6.2.4.1 Fortran

The equivalent of `MPI_Aint` in Fortran is an integer of kind `MPI_ADDRESS_KIND`:

```
|| integer(kind=MPI_ADDRESS_KIND) :: winsize
```

Using this integer kind to compute the size of a window also requires being able to query the size of the datatype in that window. See section 6.2.5 for details.

Example usage in `MPI_Win_create`:

```
|| call MPI_Sizeof(windowdata,window_element_size,ierr)
  || window_size = window_element_size*500
  || call MPI_Win_create( windowdata,window_size,window_element_size,... )
```

6.2.4.2 Python

Here is a good way for finding the size of `numpy` datatypes in bytes:

```
## putfence.py
intsize = np.dtype('int').itemsize
window_data = np.zeros(2,dtype=int)
win = MPI.Win.Create(window_data,intsize,comm=comm)
```

6.2.5 Matching language type to MPI type

In some circumstances you may want to find the MPI type that corresponds to a type in your programming language.

- In C++ functions and classes can be templated, meaning that the type is not fully known:

```
template<typename T> {
    class something<T> {
    public:
        void dosend(T input) {
            MPI_Send( &input,1,/* ????? */ );
        };
    };
}
```

(Note that in MPL this is hardly ever needed because MPI calls are templated there.)

- Petsc installations use a generic identifier `PetscScalar` (or `PetscReal`) with a configuration-dependent realization.
- The size of a datatype is not always statically known, for instance if the Fortran KIND keyword is used.

Here are some MPI mechanisms that address this problem.

6.2.5.1 Type matching in C

Datatypes in C can be translated to MPI types with `MPI_Type_match_size` (figure 6.4) where the `typeclass` argument is one of `MPI_TYPECLASS_REAL`, `MPI_TYPECLASS_INTEGER`, `MPI_TYPECLASS_COMPLEX`.

6. MPI topic: Data types

Figure 6.4 MPI_Type_match_size

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Type_match_size (

Figure 6.5 MPI_Type_size

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Type_size (
MPI_Type_size_c (

```
// typematch.c
float x5;
double x10;
int s5,s10;
MPI_Datatype mpi_x5,mpi_x10;

MPI_Type_match_size(MPI_TYPECLASS_REAL,sizeof(x5),&mpi_x5);
MPI_Type_match_size(MPI_TYPECLASS_REAL,sizeof(x10),&mpi_x10);
MPI_Type_size(mpi_x5,&s5);
MPI_Type_size(mpi_x10,&s10);
```

For the full source of this example, see section 6.10.3

The space that MPI takes for a structure type can be queried in a variety of ways. First of all `MPI_Type_size` (figure 6.5) counts the *datatype size* as the number of bytes occupied by the data in a type. That means that in an *MPI vector datatype* it does not count the gaps.

```
// typesize.c
MPI_Type_vector(count,bs,stride,MPI_DOUBLE,&newtype);
MPI_Type_commit(&newtype);
MPI_Type_size(newtype,&size);
ASSERT( size==(count*bs)*sizeof(double) );
```

For the full source of this example, see section 6.10.4

6.2.5.2 Type matching in Fortran

In Fortran, the size of the datatype in the language can be obtained with `MPI_Sizeof` (note the nonoptional error parameter!). This routine is deprecated in MPI-4: use of `storage_size` and/or `c_sizeof` is

recommended.

```
|| !! matchkind.F90
||   call MPI_Sizeof(x10,s10,ierr)
||   call MPI_Type_match_size(MPI_TYPECLASS_REAL,s10,mpi_x10)
||   call MPI_Type_size(mpi_x10,s10)
||   print *, "10 positions supported, MPI type size is",s10
```

For the full source of this example, see section [6.10.3](#)

Petsc has its own translation mechanism; see section [33.2](#).

6.3 Derived datatypes

MPI allows you to create your own data types, somewhat (but not completely...) analogous to defining structures in a programming language. MPI data types are mostly of use if you want to send multiple items in one message.

There are two problems with using only elementary datatypes as you have seen so far.

- MPI communication routines can only send multiples of a single data type: it is not possible to send items of different types, even if they are contiguous in memory. It would be possible to use the `MPI_BYTE` data type, but this is not advisable.
- It is also ordinarily not possible to send items of one type if they are not contiguous in memory. You could of course send a contiguous memory area that contains the items you want to send, but that is wasteful of bandwidth.

With MPI data types you can solve these problems in several ways.

- You can create a new *contiguous data type* consisting of an array of elements of another data type. There is no essential difference between sending one element of such a type and multiple elements of the component type.
- You can create a *vector data type* consisting of regularly spaced blocks of elements of a component type. This is a first solution to the problem of sending noncontiguous data.
- For not regularly spaced data, there is the *indexed data type*, where you specify an array of index locations for blocks of elements of a component type. The blocks can each be of a different size.
- The *struct data type* can accommodate multiple data types.

And you can combine these mechanisms to get irregularly spaced heterogeneous data, et cetera.

6.3.1 Basic calls

The typical sequence of calls for creating a new datatype is as follows:

- You need a variable for the datatype;
- There is a create call, followed by a ‘commit’ call where MPI performs internal bookkeeping and optimizations;
- The datatype is used, possibly multiple times;
- When the datatype is no longer needed, it must be freed to prevent memory leaks.

6. MPI topic: Data types

In code:

```
|| MPI_Datatype newtype;
|| MPI_Type_something( < oldtype specifications >, &newtype );
|| MPI_Type_commit( &newtype );
/* code that uses your new type */
|| MPI_Type_free( &newtype );
```

In Fortran2008:

```
|| Type(MPI_Datatype) :: newvectortype
|| call MPI_Type_something( <oldtype specification>, &
||                         newvectortype)
|| call MPI_Type_commit(newvectortype)
|| !! code that uses your type
|| call MPI_Type_free(newvectortype)
```

Python note 17: Derived type handling. The various type creation routines are methods of the datatype classes, after which commit and free are methods on the new type.

```
## vector.py
source = np.empty(stride*count,dtype=np.float64)
target = np.empty(count,dtype=np.float64)
if procid==sender:
    newvectortype = MPI.DOUBLE.Create_vector(count,1,stride)
    newvectortype.Commit()
    comm.Send([source,1,newvectortype],dest=the_other)
    newvectortype.Free()
elif procid==receiver:
    comm.Recv([target,count,MPI.DOUBLE],source=the_other)
```

For the full source of this example, see section 6.10.5

MPL note 42: Derived type handling. In MPL type creation routines are in the main namespace, templated over the datatypes.

```
|| mpl::contiguous_layout<double> target_layout(count);
|| mpl::status_t recv_status =
||     comm_world.recv(target.data(),target_layout, the_other);
|| recv_count = recv_status.get_count<double>();
```

For the full source of this example, see section 6.10.6

The commit call is part of the type creation, and freeing is done in the destructor.

6.3.1.1 Create calls

The `MPI_Datatype` variable gets its value by a call to one of the following routines:

- `MPI_Type_contiguous` for contiguous blocks of data; section 6.3.2;
- `MPI_Type_vector` for regularly strided data; section 6.3.3;
- `MPI_Type_create_subarray` for subsets out higher dimensional block; section 6.3.4;
- `MPI_Type_create_struct` for heterogeneous irregular data; section 6.3.6;
- `MPI_Type_indexed` and `MPI_Type_hindexed` for irregularly strided data; section 6.3.5.

These calls take an existing type, whether elementary or also derived, and produce a new type.

Figure 6.6 MPI_Type_commit

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
<code>MPI_Type_commit (</code>					

datatype datatype that is committed

<code>MPI_Datatype* TYPE</code>	<code>INOUT</code>
<code>(MPI_Datatype)</code>	

`)`

MPL:

Done as part of the type create call.

Figure 6.7 MPI_Type_free

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
<code>MPI_Type_free (</code>					

datatype datatype that is freed

<code>MPI_Datatype* TYPE</code>	<code>INOUT</code>
<code>(MPI_Datatype)</code>	

`)`

MPL:

Done in the destructor.

6.3.1.2 Commit and free

It is necessary to call `MPI_Type_commit` (figure 6.6) on a new data type, which makes MPI do the indexing calculations for the data type.

When you no longer need the data type, you call `MPI_Type_free` (figure 6.7). (This is typically not needed in OO APIs.) This has the following effects:

- The definition of the datatype identifier will be changed to `MPI_DATATYPE_NULL`.
- Any communication using this data type, that was already started, will be completed successfully.
- Datatypes that are defined in terms of this data type will still be usable.

6.3.2 Contiguous type

The simplest derived type is the ‘contiguous’ type, constructed with `MPI_Type_contiguous` (figure 6.8).

A contiguous type describes an array of items of an elementary or earlier defined type. There is no difference between sending one item of a contiguous type and multiple items of the constituent type. This is illustrated in figure 6.1.

```
// contiguous.c
MPI_Datatype newvectortype;
if (procno==sender) {
    MPI_Type_contiguous(count,MPI_DOUBLE,&newvectortype);
    MPI_Type_commit(&newvectortype);
    MPI_Send(source,1,newvectortype,receiver,0,comm);
    MPI_Type_free(&newvectortype);
} else if (procno==receiver) {
    MPI_Status recv_status;
```

6. MPI topic: Data types

Figure 6.8 MPI_Type_contiguous

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Type_contiguous					
MPI_Type_contiguous_c					
count	replication count		[int MPI_Count]	INTEGER	IN
oldtype	old datatype		MPI_Datatype	TYPE (MPI_Datatype)	IN
newtype	new datatype		MPI_Datatype*	TYPE (MPI_Datatype)	OUT
)					

Python:

```
Create_contiguous(self, int count)
```



Figure 6.1: A contiguous datatype is built up out of elements of a constituent type

```
int recv_count;
MPI_Recv(target,count,MPI_DOUBLE, sender,0,comm,
&recv_status);
MPI_Get_count(&recv_status,MPI_DOUBLE,&recv_count);
ASSERT(count==recv_count);
}
```

For the full source of this example, see section 6.10.7

```
!! contiguous.F90
integer :: newvectortype
if (mytid==sender) then
  call MPI_Type_contiguous(count,MPI_DOUBLE_PRECISION,newvectortype)
  call MPI_Type_commit(newvectortype)
  call MPI_Send(source,1,newvectortype,receiver,0,comm)
  call MPI_Type_free(newvectortype)
else if (mytid==receiver) then
  call MPI_Recv(target,count,MPI_DOUBLE_PRECISION, sender,0,comm,&
  recv_status)
  call MPI_Get_count(recv_status,MPI_DOUBLE_PRECISION,recv_count)
  !ASSERT(count==recv_count);
end if
```

For the full source of this example, see section 6.10.8

```
## contiguous.py
source = np.empty(count,dtype=np.float64)
target = np.empty(count,dtype=np.float64)
if procid==sender:
```

Figure 6.9 MPI_Type_vector

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Type_vector					
	MPI_Type_vector_c				
count		number of blocks	[int MPI_Count]	INTEGER	IN
blocklength		number of elements in each block	[int MPI_Count]	INTEGER	IN
stride		number of elements between start of each block	[int MPI_Count]	INTEGER	IN
oldtype		old datatype	MPI_Datatype	TYPE (MPI_Datatype)	IN
newtype		new datatype	MPI_Datatype*	TYPE (MPI_Datatype)	OUT
)					

Python:

```
MPI.Datatype.Create_vector(self, int count, int blocklength, int stride)
```

```
    newcontiguoustype = MPI.DOUBLE.Create_contiguous(count)
    newcontiguoustype.Commit()
    comm.Send([source,1,newcontiguoustype],dest=the_other)
    newcontiguoustype.Free()
    elif procid==receiver:
        comm.Recv([target,count,MPI.DOUBLE],source=the_other)
```

For the full source of this example, see section 6.10.9

MPL note 43: Contiguous type. The MPL interface makes extensive use of contiguous_layout, as it is the main way to declare a nonscalar buffer; see note 11.

MPL note 44: Contiguous composing. Contiguous layouts can only use elementary types or other contiguous layouts as their ‘old’ type. To make a contiguous type for other layouts, use vector_layout:

```
// contiguous.cxx
mpl::contiguous_layout<int> type1(7);
mpl::vector_layout<int> type2(8,type1);
```

(Contrast this with strided_vector_layout; note 45.)

6.3.3 Vector type

The simplest noncontiguous datatype is the ‘vector’ type, constructed with MPI_Type_vector (figure 6.9).

A vector type describes a series of blocks, all of equal size, spaced with a constant stride. This is illustrated in figure 6.2.

The vector datatype gives the first nontrivial illustration that datatypes can be *different on the sender and receiver*. If the sender sends b blocks of length 1 each, the receiver can receive them as b_1 contiguous

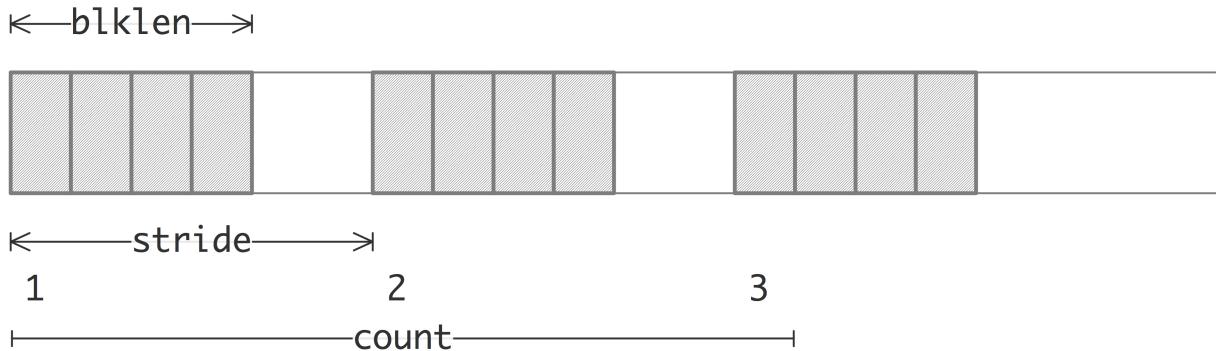


Figure 6.2: A vector datatype is built up out of strided blocks of elements of a constituent type

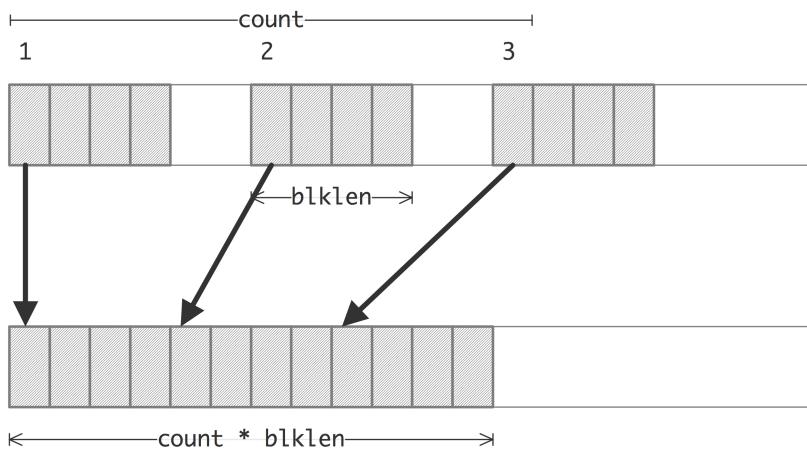


Figure 6.3: Sending a vector datatype and receiving it as elementary or contiguous

elements, either as a contiguous datatype, or as a contiguous buffer of an elementary type; see figure 6.3. In this case, the receiver has no knowledge of the stride of the datatype on the sender.

In this example a vector type is created only on the sender, in order to send a strided subset of an array; the receiver receives the data as a contiguous block.

```
// vector.c
source = (double*) malloc(stride*count*sizeof(double));
target = (double*) malloc(count*sizeof(double));
MPI_Datatype newvectortype;
if (procno==sender) {
    MPI_Type_vector(count,1,stride,MPI_DOUBLE,&newvectortype);
    MPI_Type_commit(&newvectortype);
    MPI_Send(source,1,newvectortype,the_other,0,comm);
    MPI_Type_free(&newvectortype);
} else if (procno==receiver) {
    MPI_Status recv_status;
    int recv_count;
```

```

    || MPI_Recv(target,count,MPI_DOUBLE,the_other,0,comm,
    || &recv_status);
    || MPI_Get_count(&recv_status,MPI_DOUBLE,&recv_count);
    || ASSERT(recv_count==count);
}

```

For the full source of this example, see section [6.10.10](#)

We illustrate Fortran2008:

```

!! vector.F90
Type(MPI_Datatype) :: newvectortype
if (mytid==sender) then
    call MPI_Type_vector(count,1,stride,MPI_DOUBLE_PRECISION,&
        newvectortype)
    call MPI_Type_commit(newvectortype)
    call MPI_Send(source,1,newvectortype,receiver,0,comm)
    call MPI_Type_free(newvectortype)
    if (.not. newvectortype==MPI_DATATYPE_NULL) then
        print *, "Trouble freeing datatype"
    else
        print *, "Datatype successfully freed"
    end if
else if (mytid==receiver) then
    call MPI_Recv(target,count,MPI_DOUBLE_PRECISION, sender,0,comm,&
        recv_status)
    call MPI_Get_count(recv_status,MPI_DOUBLE_PRECISION,recv_count)
end if

```

For the full source of this example, see section [6.10.11](#)

In legacy mode Fortran90, code stays the same except that the type is declared as *Integer*:

```

!! vector.F90
integer :: newvectortype
integer :: recv_status(MPI_STATUS_SIZE),recv_count
call MPI_Type_vector(count,1,stride,MPI_DOUBLE_PRECISION,&
    newvectortype,err)
call MPI_Type_commit(newvectortype,err)

```

For the full source of this example, see section [6.10.12](#)

Python note 18: Vector type. The vector creation routine is a method of the datatype class. For the general discussion, see section [6.3.1](#).

```

## vector.py
source = np.empty(stride*count,dtype=np.float64)
target = np.empty(count,dtype=np.float64)
if procid==sender:
    newvectortype = MPI.DOUBLE.Create_vector(count,1,stride)
    newvectortype.Commit()
    comm.Send([source,1,newvectortype],dest=the_other)
    newvectortype.Free()
elif procid==receiver:
    comm.Recv([target,count,MPI.DOUBLE],source=the_other)

```

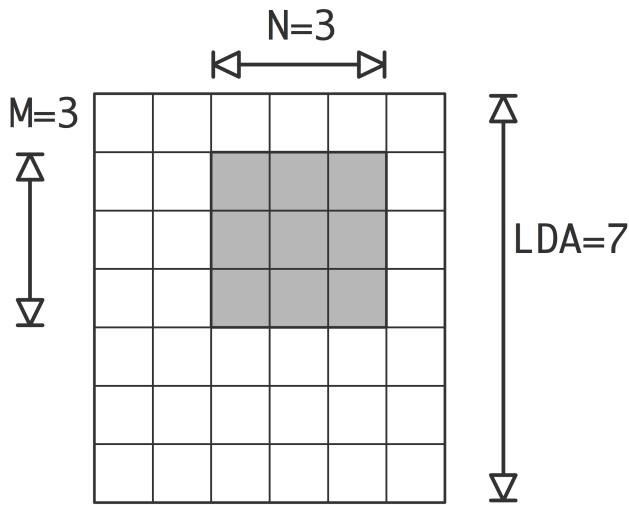


Figure 6.4: Memory layout of a row and column of a matrix in column-major storage

For the full source of this example, see section 6.10.5

MPL note 45: Vector type. MPL has the `strided_vector_layout` class as equivalent of the vector type:

```
// vector.cxx
vector<double>
source(stride*count);
if (procno==sender) {
    mpl::strided_vector_layout<double>
        newvectortype(count,1,stride);
    comm_world.send
        (source.data(),newvectortype,the_other);
}
```

For the full source of this example, see section 6.10.6

(See note 44 for nonstrided vectors.)

6.3.3.1 Two-dimensional arrays

Figure 6.4 indicates one source of irregular data: with a matrix on *column-major storage*, a column is stored in contiguous memory. However, a row of such a matrix is not contiguous; its elements being separated by a *stride* equal to the column length.

Exercise 6.1. How would you describe the memory layout of a submatrix, if the whole matrix has size $M \times N$ and the submatrix $m \times n$?

Solution to exercise 6.1. *n blocks of m elements, spaced with a stride of M.*

As an example of this datatype, consider the example of transposing a matrix, for instance to convert between C and Fortran arrays (see section Tutorials book, section-12.4). Suppose that a processor has a matrix stored in C, row-major, layout, and it needs to send a column to another processor. If the matrix is declared as

```
|| int M,N; double mat[M][N]
```

then a column has M blocks of one element, spaced N locations apart. In other words:

```
|| MPI_Datatype MPI_column;
|| MPI_Type_vector(
||   /* count= */ M, /* blocklength= */ 1, /* stride= */ N,
||   MPI_DOUBLE, &MPI_column );
```

Sending the first column is easy:

```
|| MPI_Send( mat, 1, MPI_column, ... );
```

The second column is just a little trickier: you now need to pick out elements with the same stride, but starting at $A[0][1]$.

```
|| MPI_Send( &(mat[0][1]), 1, MPI_column, ... );
```

You can make this marginally more efficient (and harder to read) by replacing the index expression by $\text{mat}+1$.

Exercise 6.2. Suppose you have a matrix of size $4N \times 4N$, and you want to send the elements $A[4*i][4*j]$ with $i, j = 0, \dots, N - 1$. How would you send these elements with a single transfer?

Solution to exercise 6.2. Make a vector datatype for the N elements with stride 4 of a single row, then make a vector datatype for N of those rows, with stride $4N$.

Exercise 6.3. Allocate a matrix on processor zero, using Fortran column-major storage.

Using P sendrecv calls, distribute the rows of this matrix among the processors.

Python note 19: Sending from the middle of a matrix. In C and Fortran it's easy to apply a derived type to data in the middle of an array, for instance to extract an arbitrary column out of a C matrix, or row out of a Fortran matrix. While Python has no trouble describing sections from an array, usually it copies these instead of taking the address. Therefore, it is necessary to convert the matrix to a buffer and compute an explicit offset in bytes:

```
## rowcol.py
rowsize = 4; colszie = 5
coltype = MPI.INT.Create_vector(4, 1, 5)
coltype.Commit()
columntosend = 2
comm.Send\(
    [np.frombuffer(matrix.data, intc,
                  offset=columntosend*np.dtype('intc').itemsize),
     1,coltype],
    receiver)
```

Exercise 6.4. Let processor 0 have an array x of length $10P$, where P is the number of processors. Elements $0, P, 2P, \dots, 9P$ should go to processor zero, $1, P + 1, 2P + 1, \dots$ to processor 1, et cetera. Code this as a sequence of send/recv calls, using a vector datatype for the send, and a contiguous buffer for the receive.

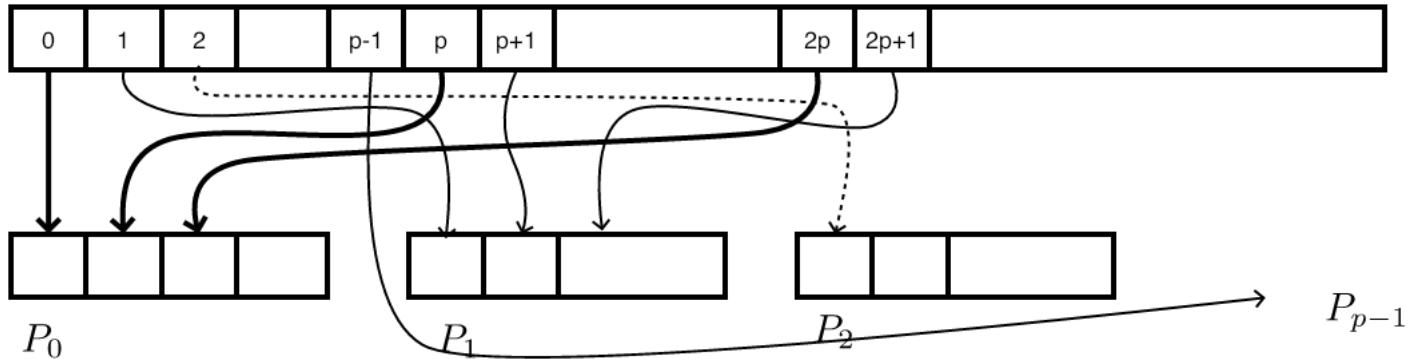


Figure 6.5: Send strided data from process zero to all others

For simplicity, skip the send to/from zero. What is the most elegant solution if you want to include that case?

For testing, define the array as $x[i] = i$.

(There is a skeleton for this exercise under the name `stridesend`.)

Exercise 6.5. Write code to compare the time it takes to send a strided subset from an array:

copy the elements by hand to a smaller buffer, or use a vector data type. What do you find? You may need to test on fairly large arrays.

6.3.4 Subarray type

The vector datatype can be used for blocks in an array of dimension more than 2 by using it recursively. However, this gets tedious. Instead, there is an explicit subarray type `MPI_Type_create_subarray` (figure 6.10). This describes the dimensionality and extent of the array, and the starting point (the ‘upper left corner’) and extent of the subarray.

MPL note 46: Subarray layout. The templated `subarray_layout` class is constructed from a vector of triplets of global size / subblock size / first coordinate.

```
||| mpl::subarray_layout<int>(
  { {ny, ny_1, ny_0}, {nx, nx_1, nx_0} }
);
```

Exercise 6.6. Assume that your number of processors is $P = Q^3$, and that each process has an array of identical size. Use `MPI_Type_create_subarray` to gather all data onto a root process. Use a sequence of send and receive calls; `MPI_Gather` does not work here. (There is a skeleton for this exercise under the name `cubegather`.)

Fortran note 10: Subarrays. Subarrays are naturally supported in Fortran through array sections.

```
||| !! section.F90
  integer,parameter :: siz=20
  real,dimension(siz,siz) :: matrix = [ ((j+(i-1)*siz,i=1,siz),j=1,siz) ]
  real,dimension(2,2) :: submatrix
  if (procno==0) then
    call MPI_Send(matrix(1:2,1:2),4,MPI_REAL,1,0,comm)
```

Figure 6.10 MPI_Type_create_subarray

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Type_create_subarray					
MPI_Type_create_subarray_c					
ndims		number of array dimensions	int	INTEGER	IN
array_of_sizes		number of elements of type oldtype in each dimension of the full array	[constint[] MPI_Count]	INTEGER (ndims)	IN
array_of_subsizes		number of elements of type oldtype in each dimension of the subarray	[constint[] MPI_Count]	INTEGER (ndims)	IN
array_of_starts		starting coordinates of the subarray in each dimension	[constint[] MPI_Count]	INTEGER (ndims)	IN
order		array storage order flag	int	INTEGER	IN
oldtype		old datatype	MPI_Datatype	TYPE (MPI_Datatype)	IN
newtype		new datatype	MPI_Datatype*	TYPE (MPI_Datatype)	OUT
)					

Python:

```
MPI.Datatype.Create_subarray
    (self, sizes, subsizes, starts, int order=ORDER_C)
```

```
||| else if (procno==1) then
|||   call MPI_Recv(submatrix,4,MPI_REAL,0,0,comm,MPI_STATUS_IGNORE)
|||   if (submatrix(2,2)==22) then
|||     print *, "Yay"
|||   else
|||     print *, "nay...."
|||   end if
||| end if
```

For the full source of this example, see section 6.10.13

However, there is a subtlety with non-blocking operations: for a non-contiguous buffer a temporary is created, which is released after the MPI call. This is correct for blocking sends, but for non-blocking the temporary has to stay around till the wait call.

```
!! sectionisend.F90
integer :: siz
real,dimension(:,:),allocatable :: matrix
real,dimension(2,2) :: submatrix
siz = 20
allocate( matrix(siz,siz) )
matrix = reshape( [ ((j+(i-1)*siz,i=1,siz),j=1,siz) ], (/siz,siz/) )
call MPI_Isend(matrix(1:2,1:2),4,MPI_REAL,1,0,comm,request)
call MPI_Wait(request,MPI_STATUS_IGNORE)
deallocate(matrix)
```

For the full source of this example, see section 6.10.14

6. MPI topic: Data types

In MPI-3 the variable `MPI_SUBARRAYS_SUPPORTED` indicates support for this mechanism:

```
// if ( .not. MPI_SUBARRAYS_SUPPORTED ) then
  print *, "This code will not work"
  call MPI_Abort(comm,0)
end if
```

For the full source of this example, see section 6.10.14

The possibilities for the `order` parameter are `MPI_ORDER_C` and `MPI_ORDER_FORTRAN`. However, this has nothing to do with the order of traversal of elements; it determines how the bounds of the subarray are interpreted. As an example, we fill a 4×4 array in C order with the numbers $0 \dots 15$, and send the $[0, 1] \times [0 \dots 4]$ slice two ways, first C order, then Fortran order:

```
// row2col.c
#define SIZE 4
int
  sizes[2], subsizes[2], starts[2];
  sizes[0] = SIZE; sizes[1] = SIZE;
  subsizes[0] = SIZE/2; subsizes[1] = SIZE;
  starts[0] = starts[1] = 0;
  MPI_Type_create_subarray
    (2,sizes,subsizes,starts,
     MPI_ORDER_C,MPI_DOUBLE,&rowtype);
  MPI_Type_create_subarray
    (2,sizes,subsizes,starts,
     MPI_ORDER_FORTRAN,MPI_DOUBLE,&coltype);
```

For the full source of this example, see section 6.10.15

The receiver receives the following, formatted to bring out where the numbers originate:

Received C order:

```
0.000 1.000 2.000 3.000
4.000 5.000 6.000 7.000
```

Received F order:

```
0.000 1.000
4.000 5.000
8.000 9.000
12.000 13.000
```

6.3.5 Indexed type

The indexed datatype, constructed with `MPI_Type_indexed` (figure 6.11) can send arbitrarily located elements from an array of a single datatype. You need to supply an array of index locations, plus an array of blocklengths with a separate blocklength for each index. The total number of elements sent is the sum of the blocklengths.

The following example picks items that are on prime number-indexed locations.

```
// indexed.c
displacements = (int*) malloc(count*sizeof(int));
blocklengths = (int*) malloc(count*sizeof(int));
```

Figure 6.11 MPI_Type_indexed

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Type_indexed (
MPI_Type_indexed_c (
count		number of blocks---also number of entries in array_of_displacements and array_of_blocklengths	[int MPI_Count]	INTEGER	IN
array_of_blocklengths		number of elements per block	[constint[] MPI_Count]	INTEGER (count)	IN
array_of_displacements		displacement for each block, in multiples of oldtype	[constint[] MPI_Count]	INTEGER (count)	IN
oldtype		old datatype	MPI_Datatype	TYPE (MPI_Datatype)	IN
newtype		new datatype	MPI_Datatype*	TYPE (MPI_Datatype)	OUT
)					

Python:

```
MPI.Datatype.Create_indexed(self, blocklengths,displacements )
```

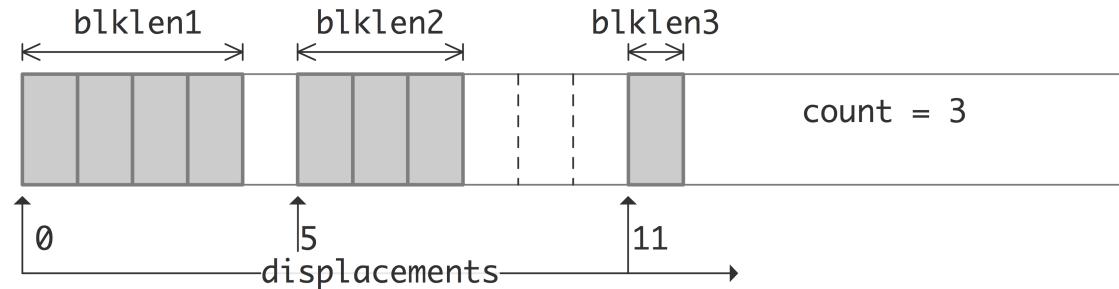


Figure 6.6: The elements of an MPI Indexed datatype

```

source = (int*) malloc(totalcount*sizeof(int));
target = (int*) malloc(targetbuffersize*sizeof(int));
MPI_Datatype newvectortype;
if (procno==sender) {
    MPI_Type_indexed(count,blocklengths,displacements,MPI_INT,&newvectortype);
    MPI_Type_commit(&newvectortype);
    MPI_Send(source,1,newvectortype,the_other,0,comm);
    MPI_Type_free(&newvectortype);
} else if (procno==receiver) {
    MPI_Status recv_status;
    int recv_count;
    MPI_Recv(target,targetbuffersize,MPI_INT,the_other,0,comm,
             &recv_status);
    MPI_Get_count(&recv_status,MPI_INT,&recv_count);
    ASSERT(recv_count==count);
}

```

6. MPI topic: Data types

```
|| }
```

For the full source of this example, see section [6.10.16](#)

For Fortran we show the legacy syntax for once:

```
!! indexed.F90
integer :: newvectortype;
ALLOCATE(indices(count))
ALLOCATE(blocklengths(count))
ALLOCATE(source(totalcount))
ALLOCATE(target(count))
if (mytid==sender) then
    call MPI_Type_indexed(count,blocklengths,indices,MPI_INT,&
        newvectortype,err)
    call MPI_Type_commit(newvectortype,err)
    call MPI_Send(source,1,newvectortype,receiver,0,comm,err)
    call MPI_Type_free(newvectortype,err)
else if (mytid==receiver) then
    call MPI_Recv(target,count,MPI_INT, sender,0,comm,&
        recv_status,err)
    call MPI_Get_count(recv_status,MPI_INT,recv_count,err)
    ! ASSERT(recv_count==count);
end if
```

For the full source of this example, see section [6.10.17](#)

```
## indexed.py
displacements = np.empty(count,dtype=int)
blocklengths = np.empty(count,dtype=int)
source = np.empty(totalcount,dtype=np.float64)
target = np.empty(count,dtype=np.float64)
if procid==sender:
    newindextype = MPI.DOUBLE.Create_indexed(blocklengths,displacements)
    newindextype.Commit()
    comm.Send([source,1,newindextype],dest=the_other)
    newindextype.Free()
elif procid==receiver:
    comm.Recv([target,count,MPI.DOUBLE],source=the_other)
```

For the full source of this example, see section [6.10.18](#)

MPL note 47: *Indexed type*. In MPL, the `indexed_layout` is based on a vector of 2-tuples denoting block length / block location.

```
// indexed.cxx
const int count = 5;
mpl::contiguous_layout<int>
    fiveints(count);
mpl::indexed_layout<int>
    indexed_where{ { {1,2}, {1,3}, {1,5}, {1,7}, {1,11} } };
if (procno==sender) {
    comm_world.send( source_buffer.data(),indexed_where, receiver );
} else if (procno==receiver) {
    auto recv_status =
```

```

    comm_world.recv( target_buffer.data(), fiveints, sender );
    int recv_count = recv_status.get_count<int>();
    assert(recv_count==count);
}

```

For the full source of this example, see section [6.10.19](#)

MPL note 48: Layouts for gatherv. The size/displacement arrays for `MPI_Gatherv` / `MPI_Alltoallv` are handled through a `layouts` object, which is basically a vector of `layout` objects.

```

mpl::layouts<int> receive_layout;
for ( int iproc=0, loc=0; iproc<nprocs; iproc++ ) {
    auto siz = size_buffer.at(iproc);
    receive_layout.push_back
        ( mpl::indexed_layout<int>( {{ siz,loc }} ) );
    loc += siz;
}

```

MPL note 49: Indexed block type. For the case where all block lengths are the same, use `indexed_block_layout`:

```

// indexedblock.cxx
mpl::indexed_block_layout<int>
    indexed_where( 1, {2,3,5,7,11} );
comm_world.send( source_buffer.data(), indexed_where, receiver );

```

For the full source of this example, see section [6.10.20](#)

You can also `MPI_Type_create_hindexed` which describes blocks of a single old type, but with index locations in bytes, rather than in multiples of the old type.

```

int MPI_Type_create_hindexed
    (int count, int blocklens[], MPI_Aint indices[],
     MPI_Datatype old_type, MPI_Datatype *newtype)

```

A slightly simpler version, `MPI_Type_create_hindexed_block` (figure 6.12) assumes constant block length.

There is an important difference between the `hindexed` and the above `MPI_Type_indexed`: that one described offsets from a base location; these routines describes absolute memory addresses. You can use this to send for instance the elements of a linked list. You would traverse the list, recording the addresses of the elements with `MPI_Get_address` (figure 6.13). (The routine `MPI_Address` is deprecated.)

In C++ you can use this to send an `std::vector`, that is, a vector object from the *C++ standard library*, if the component type is a pointer.

6.3.6 Struct type

The structure type, created with `MPI_Type_create_struct` (figure 6.14), can contain multiple data types. (The routine `MPI_Type_struct` is deprecated with MPI-3.) The specification contains a ‘count’ parameter that specifies how many blocks there are in a single structure. For instance,

```

struct {
    int i;
    float x,y;
} point;

```

6. MPI topic: Data types

Figure 6.12 MPI_Type_create_hindexed_block

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Type_create_hindexed_block					
MPI_Type_create_hindexed_block_c					
count		number of blocks---also number of entries in array_of_displacements	[int MPI_Count]	INTEGER	IN
blocklength		number of elements in each block	[int MPI_Count]	INTEGER	IN
array_of_displacements		byte displacement of each block	[constMPI_Aint[] MPI_Count]	INTEGER (KIND=MPI_ADDRESS_KIND) (count)	IN
oldtype		old datatype	MPI_Datatype	TYPE (MPI_Datatype)	IN
newtype		new datatype	MPI_Datatype*	TYPE (MPI_Datatype)	OUT
)					

Figure 6.13 MPI_Get_address

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Get_address					
location		location in caller memory	const void*	TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)	IN
address		address of location	MPI_Aint*	INTEGER	OUT (KIND=MPI_ADDRESS_KIND)
)					

has two blocks, one of a single integer, and one of two floats. This is illustrated in figure 6.7.

count The number of blocks in this datatype. The **blocklengths**, **displacements**, **types** arguments have to be at least of this length.

blocklengths array containing the lengths of the blocks of each datatype.

displacements array describing the relative location of the blocks of each datatype.

types array containing the datatypes; each block in the new type is of a single datatype; there can be multiple blocks consisting of the same type.

In this example, unlike the previous ones, both sender and receiver create the structure type. With structures it is no longer possible to send as a derived type and receive as a array of a simple type. (It would be possible to send as one structure type and receive as another, as long as they have the same *datatype signature*.)

```
// struct.c
struct object {
    char c;
    double x[2];
    int i;
};
```

Figure 6.14 MPI_Type_create_struct

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Type_create_struct					
MPI_Type_create_struct_c					
count		number of blocks---also number of entries in arrays array_of_types, array_of_displacements, and array_of_blocklengths	[int MPI_Count]	INTEGER	IN
array_of_blocklengths		number of elements in each block	[constint[] MPI_Count]	INTEGER (count)	IN
array_of_displacements		byte displacement of each block	[constMPI_Aint[] MPI_Count]	INTEGER (KIND=MPI_ADDRESS_KIND) (count)	IN
array_of_types		type of elements in each block	const MPI_Datatype[]	TYPE (MPI_Datatype) (count)	IN
newtype		new datatype	MPI_Datatype*TYPE		OUT (MPI_Datatype)
)					

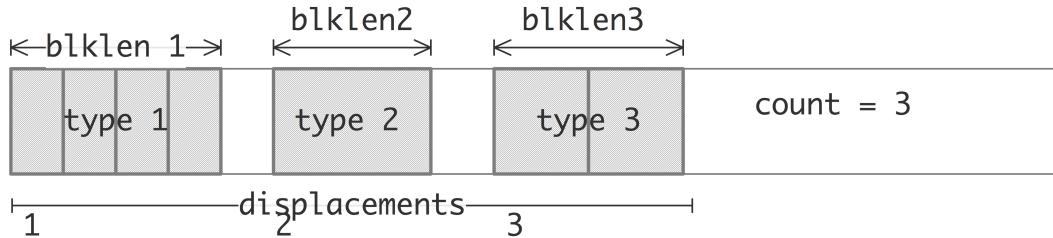


Figure 6.7: The elements of an MPI Struct datatype

```

MPI_Datatype newstructuretype;
int structlen = 3;
int blocklengths[structlen]; MPI_Datatype types[structlen];
MPI_Aint displacements[structlen];

/*
 * where are the components relative to the structure?
 */
MPI_Aint current_displacement=0;

// one character
blocklengths[0] = 1; types[0] = MPI_CHAR;
displacements[0] = (size_t)&(myobject.c) - (size_t)&myobject;

// two doubles
blocklengths[1] = 2; types[1] = MPI_DOUBLE;

```

6. MPI topic: Data types

```
displacements[1] = (size_t)&(myobject.x) - (size_t)&myobject;

// one int
blocklengths[2] = 1; types[2] = MPI_INT;
displacements[2] = (size_t)&(myobject.i) - (size_t)&myobject;

MPI_Type_create_struct(structlen,blocklengths,displacements,types,&newstructuretype);
MPI_Type_commit(&newstructuretype);
if (procno==sender) {
    MPI_Send(&myobject,1,newstructuretype,the_other,0,comm);
} else if (procno==receiver) {
    MPI_Recv(&myobject,1,newstructuretype,the_other,0,comm,MPI_STATUS_IGNORE);
}
MPI_Type_free(&newstructuretype);
```

For the full source of this example, see section [6.10.21](#)

Note the displacement calculations in this example, which involve some not so elegant pointer arithmetic. The following Fortran code uses `MPI_Get_address`, which is more elegant, and in fact the only way address calculations can be done in Fortran.

```
!! struct.F90
Type object
    character :: c
    real*8,dimension(2) :: x
    integer :: i
end type object
type(object) :: myobject
integer,parameter :: structlen = 3
type(MPI_Datatype) :: newstructuretype
integer,dimension(structlen) :: blocklengths
type(MPI_Datatype),dimension(structlen) :: types;
MPI_Aint,dimension(structlen) :: displacements
MPI_Aint :: base_displacement, next_displacement
if (procno==sender) then
    myobject%c = 'x'
    myobject%x(0) = 2.7; myobject%x(1) = 1.5
    myobject%i = 37

    !! component 1: one character
    blocklengths(1) = 1; types(1) = MPI_CHAR
    call MPI_Get_address(myobject,base_displacement)
    call MPI_Get_address(myobject%c,next_displacement)
    displacements(1) = next_displacement-base_displacement

    !! component 2: two doubles
    blocklengths(2) = 2; types(2) = MPI_DOUBLE
    call MPI_Get_address(myobject%x,next_displacement)
    displacements(2) = next_displacement-base_displacement

    !! component 3: one int
    blocklengths(3) = 1; types(3) = MPI_INT
    call MPI_Get_address(myobject%i,next_displacement)
    displacements(3) = next_displacement-base_displacement
```

```

|| if (procno==sender) then
||   call MPI_Send(myobject,1,newstructuretype,receiver,0,comm)
|| else if (procno==receiver) then
||   call MPI_Recv(myobject,1,newstructuretype,receiver,0,comm,MPI_STATUS_IGNORE)
|| end if
|| call MPI_Type_free(newstructuretype)

```

For the full source of this example, see section [6.10.22](#)

It would have been incorrect to write

```

|| displacement[0] = 0;
|| displacement[1] = displacement[0] + sizeof(char);

```

since you do not know the way the *compiler* lays out the structure in memory¹.

If you want to send more than one structure, you have to worry more about padding in the structure. You can solve this by adding an extra type `MPI_UB` for the ‘upper bound’ on the structure:

```

|| displacements[3] = sizeof(myobject); types[3] = MPI_UB;
|| MPI_Type_create_struct(struclen+1,...);

```

MPL note 50: Struct type scalar. One could describe the MPI struct type as a collection of displacements, to be applied to any set of items that conforms to the specifications. An MPL `heterogeneous_layout` on the other hand, incorporates the actual data. Thus you could write

```

// structscalar.cxx
char c; double x; int i;
if (procno==sender) {
  c = 'x'; x = 2.4; i = 37; }
mpl::heterogeneous_layout object( c,x,i );
if (procno==sender)
  comm_world.send( mpl::absolute,object,receiver );
else if (procno==receiver)
  comm_world.recv( mpl::absolute,object,receiver );

```

For the full source of this example, see section [6.10.23](#)

Here, the `absolute` indicates the lack of an implicit buffer: the layout is absolute rather than a relative description.

MPL note 51: Struct type general. More complicated data than scalars takes more work:

```

// struct.cxx
char c; vector<double> x(2); int i;
if (procno==sender) {
  c = 'x'; x[0] = 2.7; x[1] = 1.5; i = 37; }
mpl::heterogeneous_layout object
( c,
  mpl::make_absolute(x.data(),mpl::vector_layout<double>(2)),
  i );
if (procno==sender) {

```

1. Homework question: what does the language standard say about this?

```

    ||| comm_world.send( mpl::absolute,object,receiver );
} else if (procno==receiver) {
    comm_world.recv( mpl::absolute,object, sender );
}

```

For the full source of this example, see section 6.10.23

Note the `make_absolute` in addition to `absolute` mentioned above.

6.4 Big data types

The `size` parameter in MPI send and receive calls is of type integer, meaning that it's maximally (platform-dependent, but typically:) $2^{31} - 1$. These day computers are big enough that this is a limitation. As of the MPI-4 standard, this has been solved by allowing a larger count parameter. The implementation of this depends somewhat on the language.

The following material is for the recently released MPI-4 standard and may not be supported yet.

6.4.1 C

For every routine, such as `MPI_Send` with an integer count, there is a corresponding `MPI_Send_c` with a count of type `MPI_Count`.

```

MPI_Count buffersize = 1000;
double *indata,*outdata;
indata = (double*) malloc( buffersize*sizeof(double) );
outdata = (double*) malloc( buffersize*sizeof(double) );
MPI_Allreduce_c(indata,outdata,buffersize,MPI_DOUBLE,MPI_SUM,MPI_COMM_WORLD);

```

Code:

```

// pingpongbig.c
assert( sizeof(MPI_Count)>4 );
for ( int power=3; power<=10; power++ ) {
    MPI_Count length=pow(10,power);
    buffer = (double*)malloc(
        ↳length*sizeof(double) );
    MPI_Ssend_c
        (buffer,length,MPI_DOUBLE,
         processB,0,comm);
    MPI_Recv_c
        (buffer,length,MPI_DOUBLE,
         processB,0,comm,MPI_STATUS_IGNORE);
}

```

Output:

```

make[3]: `pingpongbig' is up to date.
Ping-pong between ranks 0--1, repeated 10 times
MPI Count has 8 bytes
Size: 10^3, (repeats=10000)
Time 1.399211e-05 for size 10^3: 1.1435 Gb/sec
Size: 10^4, (repeats=10000)
Time 4.077882e-05 for size 10^4: 3.9236 Gb/sec
Size: 10^5, (repeats=1000)
Time 1.532863e-04 for size 10^5: 10.4380 Gb/sec
Size: 10^6, (repeats=1000)
Time 1.418844e-03 for size 10^6: 11.2768 Gb/sec
Size: 10^7, (repeats=100)
Time 1.443470e-02 for size 10^7: 11.0844 Gb/sec
Size: 10^8, (repeats=100)
Time 1.540918e-01 for size 10^8: 10.3834 Gb/sec
Size: 10^9, (repeats=10)
Time 1.813220e+00 for size 10^9: 8.8241 Gb/sec
Size: 10^10, (repeats=10)
Time 1.846741e+01 for size 10^10: 8.6639 Gb/sec

```

6.4.2 Fortran

The count parameter can be declared to be

```
|| use mpi_f08
|| Integer(kind=MPI_COUNT_KIND) :: count
```

Since Fortran has polymorphism, the same routine names can be used.

The legit way of coding:

```
|| !! typecheck.F90
|| integer(8) :: source
|| integer(kind=MPI_COUNT_KIND) :: n=1
|| call MPI_Init()
|| call MPI_Send(source,n,MPI_INTEGER8, &
||           1,0,MPI_COMM_WORLD)
```

... but you can see what's under the hood:

```
|| !! typecheck8.F90
|| integer(8) :: source,n=1
|| call MPI_Init()
|| call MPI_Send(source,n,MPI_INTEGER8, &
||           1,0,MPI_COMM_WORLD)
```

Routines using this type are not available unless using the `mpi_f08` module.

End of MPI-4 material

```
|| !! pingpongbig.F90
|| integer :: power,countbytes
|| Integer(KIND=MPI_COUNT_KIND) :: length
|| call MPI_Sizeof(length,countbytes,ierr)
|| if (procno==0) &
||     print *, "Bytes in count:",countbytes
||     length = 10**power
||     allocate( senddata(length),recvdata(length) )
||     call MPI_Send(senddata,length,MPI_DOUBLE_PRECISION, &
||                   processB,0, comm)
||     call MPI_Recv(recvdata,length,MPI_DOUBLE_PRECISION, &
||                   processB,0, comm,MPI_STATUS_IGNORE)
```

6.4.3 Count datatype

The `MPI_Count` datatype is defined as being large enough to accomodate values of

- the ordinary 4-byte integer type;
- the `MPI_Aint` type, sections 6.2.4 and 6.2.4;
- the `MPI_Offset` type, section 10.2.2.

The `size_t` type in C/C++ is defined as big enough to contain the output of `sizeof`, that is, being big enough to measure any object.

6.4.4 MPI 3 temporary solution

Large messages were already possible by using derived types: to send a *big data type* of 10^{40} elements you would

- create a contiguous type with 10^{20} elements, and

6. MPI topic: Data types

- send 10^{20} elements of that type.

This often works, but it's not perfect. For instance, the routine `MPI_Get_elements` returns the total number of basic elements sent (as opposed to `MPI_Get_count` which would return the number of elements of the derived type). Since its output argument is of integer type, it can't store the right value.

The MPI-3 standard has addressed this through the introduction of an `MPI_Count` datatype, and new routines that return that type of count. (In view of the ‘embiggened’ routines, this solution is no longer needed, and will probably be deprecated in later standards.)

Let us consider an example.

Allocating a buffer of more than 4Gbyte is not hard:

```
// vectorx.c
float *source=NULL,*target=NULL;
int mediumsize = 1<<30;
int nblocks = 8;
size_t datasize = (size_t)mediumsize * nblocks * sizeof(float);
if (procno==sender) {
    source = (float*) malloc(datasize);
```

For the full source of this example, see section 6.10.24

We use the trick with sending elements of a derived type:

```
MPI_Datatype blocktype;
MPI_Type_contiguous(mediumsize,MPI_FLOAT,&blocktype);
MPI_Type_commit(&blocktype);
if (procno==sender) {
    MPI_Send(source,nblocks,blocktype,receiver,0,comm);
```

For the full source of this example, see section 6.10.24

We use the same trick for the receive call, but now we catch the status parameter which will later tell us how many elements of the basic type were sent:

```
} else if (procno==receiver) {
    MPI_Status recv_status;
    MPI_Recv(target,nblocks,blocktype,receiver,0,comm,
        &recv_status);
```

For the full source of this example, see section 6.10.24

When we query how many of the basic elements are in the buffer (remember that in the receive call the buffer length is an upper bound on the number of elements received) do we need a counter that is larger than an integer. MPI has introduced a type `MPI_Count` for this, and new routines such as `MPI_Get_elements_x` (figure 4.18) that return a count of this type:

```
MPI_Count recv_count;
MPI_Get_elements_x(&recv_status,MPI_FLOAT,&recv_count);
```

For the full source of this example, see section 6.10.24

Remark 15 Computing a big number to allocate is not entirely simple.

```
// getx.c
int gig = 1<<30;
int nblocks = 8;
size_t big1 = gig * nblocks * sizeof(double);
size_t big2 = (size_t)1 * gig * nblocks * sizeof(double);
size_t big3 = (size_t) gig * nblocks * sizeof(double);
size_t big4 = gig * nblocks * (size_t) ( sizeof(double) );
size_t big5 = sizeof(double) * gig * nblocks;
;
```

For the full source of this example, see section [6.10.25](#)

gives as output:

```
size of size_t = 8
0 68719476736 68719476736 0 68719476736
```

Clearly, not only do operations go left-to-right, but casting is done that way too: the computed subexpressions are only cast to `size_t` if one operand is.

Above, we did not actually create a datatype that was bigger than 2G, but if you do so, you can query its extent by `MPI_Type_get_extent_x` (figure 6.16) and `MPI_Type_get_true_extent_x` (figure 6.16).

Python note 20: Big data. Since python has unlimited size integers there is no explicit need for the ‘x’ variants of routines. Internally, `MPI.Status.Get_elements` is implemented in terms of `MPI_Get_elements_x`.

6.5 Type maps and type matching

With derived types, you saw that it was not necessary for the type of the sender and receiver to match. However, when the send buffer is constructed, and the receive buffer unpacked, it is necessary for the successive types in that buffer to match.

The types in the send and receive buffers also need to match the datatypes of the underlying architecture, with two exceptions. The `MPI_PACKED` and `MPI_BYTE` types can match any underlying type. However, this still does not mean that it is a good idea to use these types on only sender or receiver, and a specific type on the other.

6.6 Type extent

See section [6.2.5](#) about the related issue of type sizes.

6.6.1 Extent and true extent

The *datatype extent*, measured with `MPI_Type_get_extent` (figure 6.15), is strictly the distance from the first to the last data item of the type, that is, with counting the gaps in the type. It is measured in bytes so the output parameters are of type `MPI_Aint`.

6. MPI topic: Data types

Figure 6.15 MPI_Type_get_extent

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
<code>MPI_Type_get_extent (</code> <code> MPI_Type_get_extent_c (</code> <code> datatype datatype to get information on</code> <code> lb lower bound of datatype</code> <code> extent extent of datatype</code> <code>)</code>			<code>MPI_Datatype TYPE</code> (<code>MPI_Datatype</code>)	<code>IN</code>	

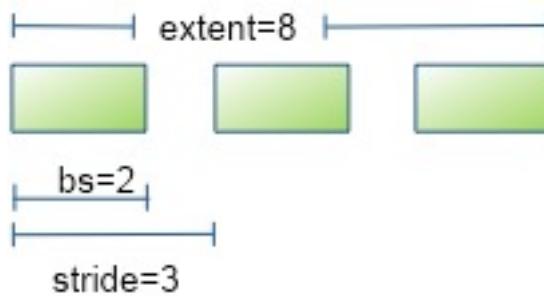


Figure 6.8: Extent of a vector datatype

In the following example (see also figure 6.8) we measure the extent of a vector type. Note that the extent is not the stride times the number of blocks, because that would count a ‘trailing gap’.

```

||| MPI_Aint lb,asize;
||| MPI_Type_vector(count,bs,stride,MPI_DOUBLE,&newtype);
||| MPI_Type_commit(&newtype);
||| MPI_Type_get_extent(newtype,&lb,&asize);
||| ASSERT( lb==0 );
||| ASSERT( asize==((count-1)*stride+bs)*sizeof(double) );
||| MPI_Type_free(&newtype);

```

For the full source of this example, see section 6.10.4

Similarly, using `MPI_Type_get_extent` counts the gaps in a `struct` induced by *alignment* issues.

```

||| size_t size_of_struct = sizeof(struct object);
||| MPI_Aint typesize,typelb;
||| MPI_Type_get_extent(newstructuretype,&typelb,&typesize);
||| assert( typesize==size_of_struct );

```

For the full source of this example, see section 6.10.21

See section 6.3.6 for the code defining the structure type.

Remark 16 Routine `MPI_Type_get_extent` replaces deprecated functions `MPI_Type_extent`, `MPI_Type_lb`,

Figure 6.16 MPI_Type_get_true_extent

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Type_get_true_extent					
MPI_Type_get_true_extent_c					
datatype	datatype	datatype to get information on	MPI_Datatype	TYPE (MPI_Datatype)	IN
true_lb	true_lb	true lower bound of datatype	[MPI_Aint*	INTEGER	OUT
			MPI_Count	(KIND=MPI_ADDRESS_KIND)	
true_extent	true_extent	true extent of datatype	[MPI_Aint*	INTEGER	OUT
)			MPI_Count	(KIND=MPI_ADDRESS_KIND)	

[MPI_Type_ub](#).

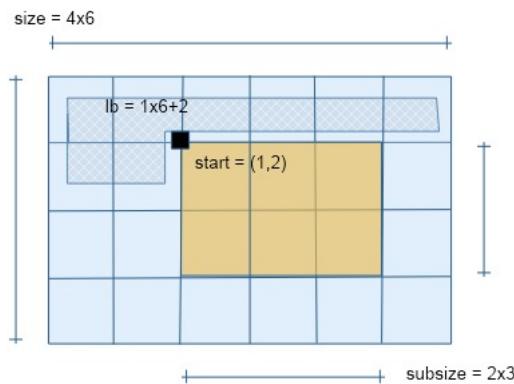


Figure 6.9: True lower bound and extent of a subarray data type

The *subarray datatype* need not start at the first element of the buffer, so the extent is an overstatement of how much data is involved. In fact, the lower bound is zero, and the extent equals the size of the block from which the subarray is taken. The routine `MPI_Type_get_true_extent` (figure 6.16) returns the lower bound, indicating where the data starts, and the extent from that point. This is illustrated in figure 6.9.

6. MPI topic: Data types

Code:

```
// trueextent.c
int sender = 0, receiver = 1, the_other = 1-procno;
int sizes[2] = {4,6}, subsizes[2] = {2,3}, starts[2] = {1,2};
MPI_Datatype subarraytype;
MPI_Type_create_subarray
(2,sizes,subsizes,starts,
 MPI_ORDER_C,MPI_DOUBLE,&subarraytype);
MPI_Type_commit(&subarraytype);

MPI_Aint true_lb,true_extent,extent;
MPI_Type_get_true_extent
(subarraytype,&true_lb,&true_extent);
MPI_Aint
comp_lb = sizeof(double) *
( starts[0]*sizes[1]+starts[1] ),
comp_extent = sizeof(double) *
( sizes[1]-starts[1] // first row
+ starts[1]+subsizes[1] // last row
+ ( subsizes[0]>1 ? subsizes[0]-2 : 0 )*sizes[1]
);
ASSERT(true_lb==comp_lb);
ASSERT(true_extent==comp_extent);
MPI_Send(source,1,subarraytype,the_other,0,comm);
MPI_Type_free(&subarraytype);
```

Output:

```
In basic array of 192 bytes
find sub array of 48 bytes
Found lb=64, extent=72
Computing lb=64 extent=72
Non-true lb=0, extent=192, computed=192
Finished
received: 8.500 9.500 10.500 14.500 15.500 16.500
1,2
1,3
1,4
2,2
2,3
2,4
```

There are also ‘big data’ routines `MPI_Type_get_extent_x` `MPI_Type_get_true_extent_x` that has an `MPI_Count` as output.

The following material is for the recently released MPI-4 standard and may not be supported yet.

The C routines `MPI_Type_get_extent_c` `MPI_Type_get_true_extent_c` also output an `MPI_Count`.

End of MPI-4 material

6.6.2 Extent resizing

A type is partly characterized by its lower bound and extent, or equivalently lower bound and upperbound. Somewhat miraculously, you can actually change these to achieve special effects. This is needed for:

- some cases of gather/scatter operations;
The problem here is that MPI uses the extent of the send type in a scatter, or the receive type in a gather: if that type is 20 bytes big from its first to its last element, then data will be read out 20 bytes apart in a scatter, or written 20 bytes apart in a gather. This ignores the ‘gaps’ in the type! (See exercise 6.4.)
- When the count of derived items in a buffer is more than one.
Consider the vector type from the previous section. It is clear that

```
|| MPI_Type_vector( 2*count,bs,stride,oldtype,&two_n_type );
```

will not give the same result as

```
|| MPI_Type_vector( count,bs,stride,oldtype,&one_n_type );
|| MPI_Type_contiguous( 2,&one_n_type,&two_n_type );
```

Figure 6.17 MPI_Type_create_resized

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Type_create_resized					
	oldtype	input datatype	MPI_Datatype TYPE (MPI_Datatype)		
	lb	new lower bound of datatype	[MPI_Aint MPI_Count]	INTEGER IN (KIND=MPI_ADDRESS_KIND)	
	extent	new extent of datatype	[MPI_Aint MPI_Count]	INTEGER IN (KIND=MPI_ADDRESS_KIND)	
	newtype	output datatype	MPI_Datatype*TYPE (MPI_Datatype)		OUT
)				

The technicality on which the solution hinges is that you can ‘resize’ a type with `MPI_Type_create_resized` (figure 6.17) to give it a different extent, while not affecting how much data there actually is in it.

6.6.2.1 Example 1

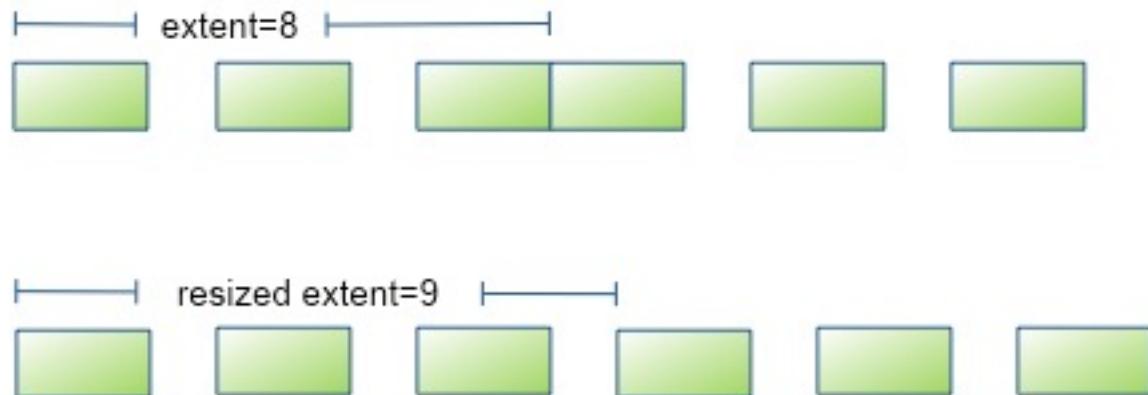


Figure 6.10: Contiguous type of two vectors, before and after resizing the extent.

First consider sending more than one derived type, from a buffer containing consecutive integers:

```
// vectorpadsend.c
for (int i=0; i<max_elements; i++) sendbuffer[i] = i;
MPI_Type_vector(count,blocklength,stride,MPI_INT,&stridetype);
MPI_Type_commit(&stridetype);
MPI_Send( sendbuffer,ntypes,stridetype, receiver,0, comm );
```

For the full source of this example, see section 6.10.26

We receive into a contiguous buffer:

```
|| MPI_Recv( recvbuffer,max_elements,MPI_INT, sender,0, comm,&status );
```

6. MPI topic: Data types

```
|| int count; MPI_Get_count(&status,MPI_INT,&count);
|| printf("Receive %d elements:",count);
|| for (int i=0; i<count; i++) printf(" %d",recvbuffer[i]);
|| printf("\n");
```

For the full source of this example, see section [6.10.26](#)

giving an output of:

```
Receive 6 elements: 0 2 4 5 7 9
```

Next, we resize the type to add the gap at the end. This is illustrated in figure [6.10](#).

Resizing the type looks like:

```
|| MPI_Type_get_extent(stridetype,&l,&e);
|| printf("Stride type l=%ld e=%ld\n",l,e);
|| e += ( stride-blocklength ) * sizeof(int);
|| MPI_Type_create_resized(stridetype,l,e,&paddedtype);
|| MPI_Type_get_extent(paddedtype,&l,&e);
|| printf("Padded type l=%ld e=%ld\n",l,e);
|| MPI_Type_commit(&paddedtype);
|| MPI_Send( sendbuffer,ntypes,paddedtype, receiver,0, comm );
```

For the full source of this example, see section [6.10.26](#)

and the corresponding output, including querying the extents, is:

```
Stride type l=0 e=20
Padded type l=0 e=24
Receive 6 elements: 0 2 4 6 8 10
```

6.6.2.2 Example 2

For another example, let's revisit exercise [6.4](#) (and figure [6.5](#)) where each process makes a buffer of integers that will be interleaved in a gather call: Strided data was sent in individual transactions. Would it be possible to address all these interleaved packets in one gather or scatter call?

```
|| int *mydata = (int*) malloc( localsize*sizeof(int) );
|| for (int i=0; i<localsize; i++)
||   mydata[i] = i*nprocs+procno;
|| MPI_Gather( mydata,localsize,MPI_INT,
||             /* rest to be determined */ );
```

An ordinary gather call will of course not interleave, but put the data end-to-end:

```
|| MPI_Gather( mydata,localsize,MPI_INT,
||             gathered,localsize,MPI_INT, // abutting
||             root,comm );
```

```
gather 4 elements from 3 procs:
0 3 6 9 1 4 7 10 2 5 8 11
```

Using a strided type still puts data end-to-end, but now there are unwritten gaps in the gather buffer:

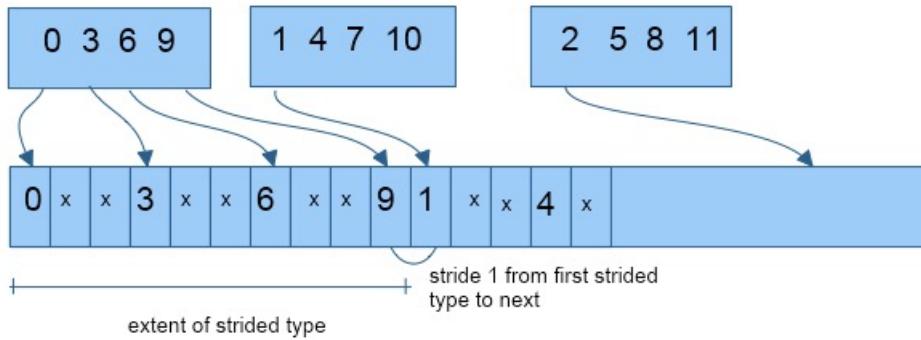


Figure 6.11: Placement of gathered strided types.

```
// MPI_Gather( mydata, localsize, MPI_INT,
              gathered, 1, stridetype, // abut with gaps
              root, comm );
```

This is illustrated in figure 6.11. A sample printout of the result would be:

0 1879048192 1100361260 3 3 0 6 0 0 9 1 198654

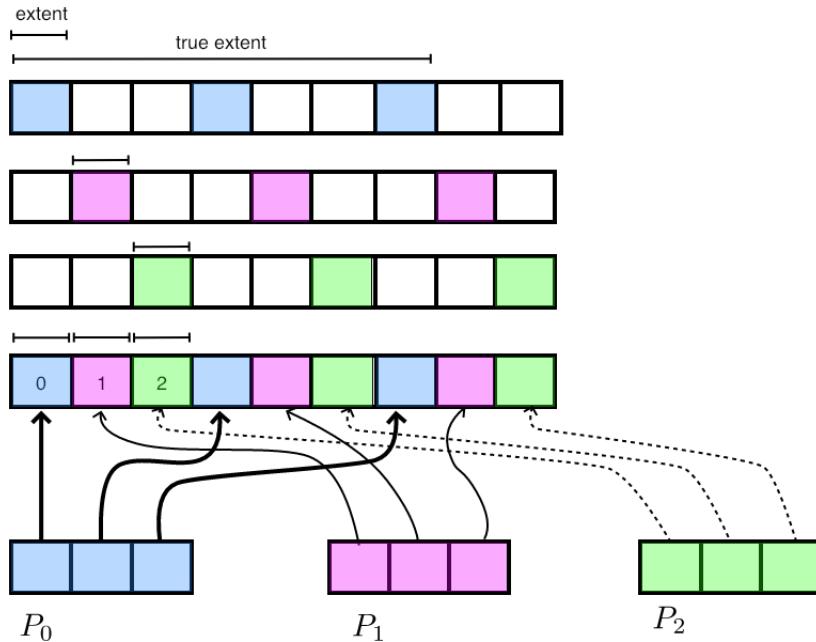


Figure 6.12: Interleaved gather from data with resized extent

The trick is to use `MPI_Type_create_resized` to make the extent of the type only one int long:

```
// interleavegather.c
MPI_Datatype interleavetype;
```

6. MPI topic: Data types

```
|| MPI_Type_create_resized(stridetype,0,sizeof(int),&interleavetype);
|| MPI_Type_commit(&interleavetype);
|| MPI_Gather( mydata, localsize, MPI_INT,
||             gathered,1,interleavetype, // shrunk extent
||             root,comm );
```

For the full source of this example, see section [6.10.27](#)

Now data is written with the same stride, but at starting points equal to the shrunk extent:

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11

This is illustrated in figure [6.12](#).

Exercise 6.7. Rewrite exercise [6.4](#) to use a gather, rather than individual messages.

MPL note 52: Extent resizing. Resizing a datatype does not give a new type, but does the resize ‘in place’:

```
|| void layout::resize(ssize_t lb, ssize_t extent);
```

6.6.2.3 Example: dynamic vectors

Does it bother you (a little) that in the vector type you have to specify explicitly how many blocks there are? It would be nice if you could create a ‘block with padding’ and then send however many of those.

Well, you can introduce that padding by resizing a type, making it a little larger.

```
// stridestretch.c
MPI_Datatype oneblock;
MPI_Type_vector(1,1,stride,MPI_DOUBLE,&oneblock);
MPI_Type_commit(&oneblock);
MPI_Aint block_lb,block_x;
MPI_Type_get_extent(oneblock,&block_lb,&block_x);
printf("One block has extent: %ld\n",block_x);

MPI_Datatype paddedblock;
MPI_Type_create_resized(oneblock,0,stride*sizeof(double),&paddedblock);
MPI_Type_commit(&paddedblock);
MPI_Type_get_extent(paddedblock,&block_lb,&block_x);
printf("Padded block has extent: %ld\n",block_x);

// now send a bunch of these padded blocks
MPI_Send(source,count,paddedblock,the_other,0,comm);
```

For the full source of this example, see section [6.10.28](#)

There is a second solution to this problem, using a structure type. This does not use resizing, but rather indicates a displacement that reaches to the end of the structure. We do this by putting a type `MPI_UB` at this displacement:

```
|| int blens[2]; MPI_Aint displs[2];
|| MPI_Datatype types[2], paddedblock;
|| blens[0] = 1; blens[1] = 1;
|| displs[0] = 0; displs[1] = 2 * sizeof(double);
|| types[0] = MPI_DOUBLE; types[1] = MPI_UB;
|| MPI_Type_struct(2, blens, displs, types, &paddedblock);
```

```

|| MPI_Type_commit(&paddedblock);
|| MPI_Status recv_status;
|| MPI_Recv(target, count, paddedblock, the_other, 0, comm, &recv_status);

```

For the full source of this example, see section [6.10.28](#)

6.6.2.4 Example: transpose

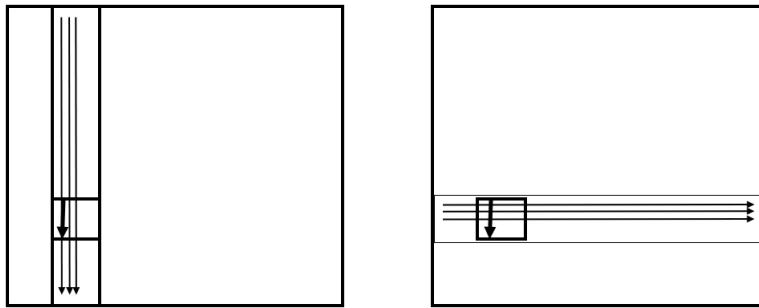


Figure 6.13: Transposing a 1D partitioned array

Transposing data is an important part of such operations as the FFT. We develop this in steps. Refer to figure [6.13](#).

The source data can be described as a vector type defined as:

- there are b blocks,
- of blocksize b ,
- spaced apart by the global i -size of the array.

```

// transposeblock.cxx
MPI_Datatype sourceblock;
MPI_Type_vector( blocksize_j, blocksize_i, isize, MPI_INT, &sourceblock );
MPI_Type_commit( &sourceblock );

```

The target type is harder to describe. First we note that each contiguous block from the source type can be described as a vector type with:

- b blocks,
- of size 1 each,
- stided by the global j -size of the matrix.

```

MPI_Datatype targetcolumn;
MPI_Type_vector( blocksize_i, 1, jsize, MPI_INT, &targetcolumn );
MPI_Type_commit( &targetcolumn );

```

For the full type at the receiving process we now need to pack b of these lines together.

Exercise 6.8. Finish the code.

- What is the extent of the $targetcolumn$ type?
- What is the spacing of the first elements of the blocks? How do you therefore resize the $targetcolumn$ type?

6.7 Reconstructing types

It is possible to find from a datatype how it was constructed. This uses the routines `MPI_Type_get_envelope` and `MPI_Type_get_contents`. The first routine returns the *combiner* (with values such as `MPI_COMBINER_VECTOR`) and the number of parameters; the second routine is then used to retrieve the actual parameters.

6.8 Packing

One of the reasons for derived datatypes is dealing with noncontiguous data. In older communication libraries this could only be done by *packing* data from its original containers into a buffer, and likewise unpacking it at the receiver into its destination data structures.

MPI offers this packing facility, partly for compatibility with such libraries, but also for reasons of flexibility. Unlike with derived datatypes, which transfers data atomically, packing routines add data sequentially to the buffer and unpacking takes them sequentially.

This means that one could pack an integer describing how many floating point numbers are in the rest of the packed message. Correspondingly, the unpack routine could then investigate the first integer and based on it unpack the right number of floating point numbers.

MPI offers the following:

- The `MPI_Pack` command adds data to a send buffer;
- the `MPI_Unpack` command retrieves data from a receive buffer;
- the buffer is sent with a datatype of `MPI_PACKED`.

With `MPI_Pack` data elements can be added to a buffer one at a time. The `position` parameter is updated each time by the packing routine.

```
|| int MPI_Pack(
||   void *inbuf, int incount, MPI_Datatype datatype,
||   void *outbuf, int outcount, int *position,
||   MPI_Comm comm);
```

Conversely, `MPI_Unpack` retrieves one element from the buffer at a time. You need to specify the MPI datatype.

```
|| int MPI_Unpack(
||   void *inbuf, int insize, int *position,
||   void *outbuf, int outcount, MPI_Datatype datatype,
||   MPI_Comm comm);
```

A packed buffer is sent or received with a datatype of `MPI_PACKED`. The sending routine uses the `position` parameter to specify how much data is sent, but the receiving routine does not know this value a priori, so has to specify an upper bound.

Figure 6.18 MPI_Pack_size

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Pack_size (
MPI_Pack_size_c (
incount		count argument to packing call	int MPI_Count	INTEGER	IN
datatype		datatype argument to packing call	MPI_Datatype	TYPE (MPI_Datatype)	IN
comm		communicator argument to packing call	MPI_Comm	TYPE (MPI_Comm)	IN
size		upper bound on size of packed message, in bytes	int* MPI_Count	INTEGER	OUT
)					

Code:

```

if (procno==sender) {
    position = 0;
    MPI_Pack(&nsends,1,MPI_INT,
              buffer,buflen,&position,comm);
    for (int i=0; i<nsends; i++) {
        double value = rand()/(double)RAND_MAX;
        printf("[%d] pack %e\n",procno,value);
        MPI_Pack(&value,1,MPI_DOUBLE,
                  buffer,buflen,&position,comm);
    }
    MPI_Pack(&nsends,1,MPI_INT,
              buffer,buflen,&position,comm);
    MPI_Send(buffer,position,MPI_PACKED,other,0,comm);
} else if (procno==receiver) {
    int irecv_value;
    double xrecv_value;
    MPI_Recv(buffer,buflen,MPI_PACKED,other,0,
              comm,MPI_STATUS_IGNORE);
    position = 0;
    MPI_Unpack(buffer,buflen,&position,
                &nsends,1,MPI_INT,comm);
    for (int i=0; i<nsends; i++) {
        MPI_Unpack(buffer,buflen,
                   &position,&xrecv_value,1,MPI_DOUBLE,comm);
        printf("[%d] unpack %e\n",procno,xrecv_value);
    }
    MPI_Unpack(buffer,buflen,&position,
               &irecv_value,1,MPI_INT,comm);
    ASSERT(irecv_value==nsends);
}

```

Output:

```

[0] pack 8.401877e-01
[0] pack 3.943829e-01
[0] pack 7.830992e-01
[0] pack 7.984400e-01
[0] pack 9.116474e-01
[0] pack 1.975514e-01

```

You can precompute the size of the required buffer with `MPI_Pack_size` (figure 6.18).

Code:

```
// pack.c
for (int i=1; i<=4; i++) {
    MPI_Pack_size(i,MPI_CHAR,comm,&s);
    printf("%d chars: %d\n",i,s);
}
for (int i=1; i<=4; i++) {
    MPI_Pack_size(i,MPI_UNSIGNED_SHORT,comm,&s);
    printf("%d unsigned shorts: %d\n",i,s);
}
for (int i=1; i<=4; i++) {
    MPI_Pack_size(i,MPI_INT,comm,&s);
    printf("%d ints: %d\n",i,s);
}
```

Output:

```
1 chars: 1
2 chars: 2
3 chars: 3
4 chars: 4
1 unsigned shorts: 2
2 unsigned shorts: 4
3 unsigned shorts: 6
4 unsigned shorts: 8
1 ints: 4
2 ints: 8
3 ints: 12
4 ints: 16
```

Exercise 6.9. Suppose you have a ‘structure of arrays’

```
struct aos {
    int length;
    double *reals;
    double *imags;
};
```

with dynamically created arrays. Write code to send and receive this structure.

6.9 Review questions

For all true/false questions, if you answer that a statement is false, give a one-line explanation.

1. Give two examples of MPI derived datatypes. What parameters are used to describe them?

Solution to exercise 6.9.

- *Contiguous: number of elements, type;*
- *vector: number of blocks and block size, type;*
- *indexed: number of blocks, individual size and displacement, type;*
- *struct: as indexed, but adding types.*

2. Give a practical example where the sender uses a different type to send than the receiver uses in the corresponding receive call. Name the types involved.

Solution to exercise 6.9.

- *Sending a row from a Fortran matrix or a column from a C matrix, to contiguous.
One example would be transposing a matrix between two processors.*
- *Gathering boundary elements of a physical domain: from indexed to contiguous.*
- *Sending a row out of a Fortran array or column out of C array: from vector to contiguous.*
- *Sending one field out of a row of structures: byte-indexed to contiguous.*
- *All the above can be reversed.*

3. Fortran only. True or false?

- (a) Array indices can be different between the send and receive buffer arrays.
 - (b) It is allowed to send an array section.
 - (c) You need to *Reshape* a multi-dimensional array to linear shape before you can send it.
 - (d) An allocatable array, when dimensioned and allocated, is treated by MPI as if it were a normal static array, when used as send buffer.
 - (e) An allocatable array is allocated if you use it as the receive buffer: it is filled with the incoming data.
4. Fortran only: how do you handle the case where you want to use an allocatable array as receive buffer, but it has not been allocated yet, and you do not know the size of the incoming data?

6.10 Sources used in this chapter

6.10.1 Listing of code header

6.10.2 Listing of code examples/mpi/p/inttype.py

```
from mpi4py import MPI
import numpy as np
import sys

comm = MPI.COMM_WORLD

nprocs = comm.Get_size()
procno = comm.Get_rank()

if nprocs<2:
    print("C'mon, get real....")
    sys.exit(1)

## set up sender and receiver
sender = 0; receiver = nprocs-1
## how many elements to each process?
count = 6

## Send a contiguous buffer as numpy ints
if procno==sender:
    data = np.empty(count,dtype=int32)
    for i in range(count):
        data[i] = i
    comm.Send( data, receiver )
elif procno==receiver:
    data = np.empty(count,dtype=int32)
    comm.Recv( data, sender )
    print(data)

## Send a strided buffer as numpy ints
## this is wrong because numpy ints are not C ints
if procno==sender:
    sizeofint = np.dtype('int32').itemsize
    print("Size of numpy int32: {}".format(sizeofint))
    data = np.empty(2*count,dtype=int32)
    for i in range(2*count):
        data[i] = i
    vectortype = MPI.INT.Create_vector(count,1,2)
    vectortype.Commit()
    comm.Send( [data,1,vectortype], receiver )
elif procno==receiver:
    data = np.empty(count,dtype=int32)
    comm.Recv( data, sender )
    print(data)

## Send strided buffer as C ints
```

```
if procno==sender:
    sizeofint = np.dtype('intc').itemsize
    print("Size of C int: {}".format(sizeofint))
    data = np.empty(2*count,dtype=intc)
    for i in range(2*count):
        data[i] = i
    vectortype = MPI.INT.Create_vector(count,1,2)
    vectortype.Commit()
    comm.Send( [data,1,vectortype], receiver )
elif procno==receiver:
    data = np.empty(count,dtype=intc)
    comm.Recv( data, sender )
    print(data)
```

6.10.3 Listing of code examples/mpi/c/typematch.c

```
int main() {

    MPI_Init(0,0);

    float x5;
    double x10;
    int s5,s10;
    MPI_Datatype mpi_x5,mpi_x10;

    MPI_Type_match_size(MPI_TYPECLASS_REAL,sizeof(x5),&mpi_x5);
    MPI_Type_match_size(MPI_TYPECLASS_REAL,sizeof(x10),&mpi_x10);
    MPI_Type_size(mpi_x5,&s5);
    MPI_Type_size(mpi_x10,&s10);

    printf("%d, %d\n",s5,s10);

    MPI_Finalize();

    return 0;
}
```

6.10.4 Listing of code examples/mpi/c/typesize.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
#include "mpi.h"

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

#include "globalinit.c"

    int size, count, stride, bs;

    MPI_Datatype newtype;
```

```
count = 3; bs = 2; stride = 5;
MPI_Type_vector(count,bs,stride,MPI_DOUBLE,&newtype);
MPI_Type_commit(&newtype);
MPI_Type_size(newtype,&size);
ASSERT( size==(count*bs)*sizeof(double) );
MPI_Type_free(&newtype);

printf("count=%d, stride=%d, bs=%d, size=%d\n",count,stride,bs,size);

MPI_Aint lb,asize;
MPI_Type_vector(count,bs,stride,MPI_DOUBLE,&newtype);
MPI_Type_commit(&newtype);
MPI_Type_get_extent(newtype,&lb,&asize);
ASSERT( lb==0 );
ASSERT( asize==((count-1)*stride+bs)*sizeof(double) );
MPI_Type_free(&newtype);

printf("count=%d, stride=%d, bs=%d: lb=%ld, extent=%ld\n",count,stride,bs,lb,asize);

if (procno==0)
    printf("Finished\n");

MPI_Finalize();
return 0;
}
```

6.10.5 Listing of code examples/mpi/p/vector.py

```
import numpy as np
import random # random.randint(1,N), random.random()
from mpi4py import MPI

comm = MPI.COMM_WORLD
procid = comm.Get_rank()
nprocs = comm.Get_size()
if nprocs<2:
    print("C'mon, get real....")
    sys.exit(1)

sender = 0; receiver = 1; the_other = 1-procid
count = 5; stride = 2

source = np.empty(stride*count,dtype=np.float64)
target = np.empty(count,dtype=np.float64)

for i in range(stride*count):
    source[i] = i+.5

if procid==sender:
    newvectortype = MPI.DOUBLE.Create_vector(count,1,stride)
    newvectortype.Commit()
    comm.Send([source,1,newvectortype],dest=the_other)
```

```
    newvectortype.Free()
elif procid==receiver:
    comm.Recv([target,count,MPI.DOUBLE],source=the_other)

if procid==sender:
    print("finished")
if procid==receiver:
    for i in range(count):
        if target[i]!=source[stride*i]:
            print("error in location %d: %e s/b %e" % (i,target[i],source[stride*i]))
```

6.10.6 Listing of code examples/mpi/mpf/vector.cxx

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
#include <vector>
using std::vector;
#include <cassert>

#include <mpl/mpf.hpp>

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

    const mpl::communicator &comm_world = mpl::environment::comm_world();
    int nprocs,procno;
    // compute communicator rank and size
    nprocs = comm_world.size();
    procno = comm_world.rank();

    if (nprocs<2) {
        printf("This program needs at least two processes\n");
        return -1;
    }
    int sender = 0, receiver = 1, the_other = 1-procno,
        count = 5,stride=2;
    vector<double>
        source(stride*count);
    vector<double>
        target(count);

    for (int i=0; i<stride*count; i++)
        source[i] = i+.5;

    if (procno==sender) {
        mpl::strided_vector_layout<double>
            newvectortype(count,1,stride);
        comm_world.send
            (source.data(),newvectortype,the_other);
    }
    else if (procno==receiver) {
        int recv_count;
        mpl::contiguous_layout<double> target_layout(count);
```

6. MPI topic: Data types

```
mpl::status_t recv_status =
    comm_world.recv(target.data(),target_layout, the_other);
recv_count = recv_status.get_count<double>();
assert(recv_count==count);
}

if (procno==receiver) {
    for (int i=0; i<count; i++)
        if (target[i]!=source[stride*i])
printf("location %d %e s/b %e\n",i,target[i],source[stride*i]);
}

if (procno==0)
    printf("Finished\n");

return 0;
}
```

6.10.7 Listing of code examples/mpi/c/contiguous.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
#include "mpi.h"

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

#include "globalinit.c"

if (nprocs<2) {
    printf("This program needs at least two processes\n");
    return -1;
}
int sender = 0, receiver = 1, count = 5;
double *source,*target;
source = (double*) malloc(count*sizeof(double));
target = (double*) malloc(count*sizeof(double));

for (int i=0; i<count; i++)
    source[i] = i+.5;

MPI_Datatype newvectortype;
if (procno==sender) {
    MPI_Type_contiguous(count,MPI_DOUBLE,&newvectortype);
    MPI_Type_commit(&newvectortype);
    MPI_Send(source,1,newvectortype,receiver,0,comm);
    MPI_Type_free(&newvectortype);
} else if (procno==receiver) {
    MPI_Status recv_status;
    int recv_count;
    MPI_Recv(target,count,MPI_DOUBLE, sender,0,comm,
             &recv_status);
    MPI_Get_count(&recv_status,MPI_DOUBLE,&recv_count);
```

```
    ASSERT(count==recv_count);
}

if (procno==receiver) {
    for (int i=0; i<count; i++)
        if (target[i]!=source[i])
printf("location %d %e s/b %e\n",i,target[i],source[i]);
    }

if (procno==0)
printf("Finished\n");

MPI_Finalize();
return 0;
}
```

6.10.8 Listing of code examples/mpi/f08/contiguous.F90

Program Contiguous

```
use mpi_f08
implicit none

integer :: sender = 0, receiver = 1, count = 5
double precision, dimension(:),allocatable :: source,target

integer :: newvectortype
integer :: recv_status(MPI_STATUS_SIZE),recv_count

#include "globalinit.F90"

if (ntids<2) then
    print *, "This program needs at least two processes"
    stop
end if

ALLOCATE(source(count))
ALLOCATE(target(count))

do i=1,count
    source(i) = i+.5;
end do

if (mytid==sender) then
    call MPI_Type_contiguous(count,MPI_DOUBLE_PRECISION,newvectortype)
    call MPI_Type_commit(newvectortype)
    call MPI_Send(source,1,newvectortype,receiver,0,comm)
    call MPI_Type_free(newvectortype)
else if (mytid==receiver) then
    call MPI_Recv(target,count,MPI_DOUBLE_PRECISION, sender,0,comm,&
        recv_status)
    call MPI_Get_count(recv_status,MPI_DOUBLE_PRECISION,recv_count)
    !ASSERT(count==recv_count);
```

6. MPI topic: Data types

```
end if

if (mytid==receiver) then
! for (i=0; i<count; i++)
!   if (target[i]!=source[i])
!     printf("location %d %e s/b %e\n",i,target[i],source[i]);
end if

call MPI_Finalize(err)

end Program Contiguous
```

6.10.9 Listing of code examples/mpi/p/contiguous.py

```
import numpy as np
import random # random.randint(1,N), random.random()
from mpi4py import MPI

comm = MPI.COMM_WORLD
procid = comm.Get_rank()
nprocs = comm.Get_size()
if nprocs<2:
    print("C'mon, get real....")
    sys.exit(1)

sender = 0; receiver = 1; the_other = 1-procid
count = 5

source = np.empty(count,dtype=np.float64)
target = np.empty(count,dtype=np.float64)

for i in range(count):
    source[i] = i+.5

if procid==sender:
    newcontiguoustype = MPI.DOUBLE.Create_contiguous(count)
    newcontiguoustype.Commit()
    comm.Send([source,1,newcontiguoustype],dest=the_other)
    newcontiguoustype.Free()
elif procid==receiver:
    comm.Recv([target,count,MPI.DOUBLE],source=the_other)

if procid==sender:
    print("finished")
if procid==receiver:
    for i in range(count):
        if target[i]!=source[i]:
            print("error in location %d: %e s/b %e" % (i,target[i],source[i]))
```

6.10.10 Listing of code examples/mpi/c/vector.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
```

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
#include "mpi.h"

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

#include "globalinit.c"

    if (nprocs<2) {
        printf("This program needs at least two processes\n");
        return -1;
    }
    int sender = 0, receiver = 1, the_other = 1-procno,
        count = 5,stride=2;
    double *source,*target;
    source = (double*) malloc(stride*count*sizeof(double));
    target = (double*) malloc(count*sizeof(double));

    for (int i=0; i<stride*count; i++)
        source[i] = i+.5;

    MPI_Datatype newvectortype;
    if (procno==sender) {
        MPI_Type_vector(count,1,stride,MPI_DOUBLE,&newvectortype);
        MPI_Type_commit(&newvectortype);
        MPI_Send(source,1,newvectortype,the_other,0,comm);
        MPI_Type_free(&newvectortype);
    } else if (procno==receiver) {
        MPI_Status recv_status;
        int recv_count;
        MPI_Recv(target,count,MPI_DOUBLE,the_other,0,comm,
                 &recv_status);
        MPI_Get_count(&recv_status,MPI_DOUBLE,&recv_count);
        ASSERT(recv_count==count);
    }

    if (procno==receiver) {
        for (int i=0; i<count; i++)
            if (target[i]!=source[stride*i])
                printf("location %d %e s/b %e\n",i,target[i],source[stride*i]);
    }

    if (procno==0)
        printf("Finished\n");

    MPI_Finalize();
    return 0;
}
```

6.10.11 Listing of code examples/mpi/f08/vector.F90

Program Vector

6. MPI topic: Data types

```
use mpi_f08
implicit none

double precision, dimension(:),allocatable :: source,target
integer :: sender = 0,receiver = 1, count = 5, stride = 2

Type(MPI_Datatype) :: newvectortype
integer :: recv_count
Type(MPI_Status) :: recv_status

Type(MPI_Comm) :: comm;
integer :: mytid,ntids,i,p,err;

call MPI_Init()
comm = MPI_COMM_WORLD
call MPI_Comm_rank(comm,mytid)
call MPI_Comm_size(comm,ntids)
call MPI_Comm_set_errhandler(comm,MPI_ERRORS_RETURN)

if (ntids<2) then
    print *, "This program needs at least two processes"
    stop
end if

ALLOCATE(source(stride*count))
ALLOCATE(target(stride*count))

do i=1,stride*count
    source(i) = i+.5;
end do

if (mytid==sender) then
    call MPI_Type_vector(count,1,stride,MPI_DOUBLE_PRECISION,&
        newvectortype)
    call MPI_Type_commit(newvectortype)
    call MPI_Send(source,1,newvectortype,receiver,0,comm)
    call MPI_Type_free(newvectortype)
    if ( .not. newvectortype==MPI_DATATYPE_NULL) then
        print *, "Trouble freeing datatype"
    else
        print *, "Datatype successfully freed"
    end if
else if (mytid==receiver) then
    call MPI_Recv(target,count,MPI_DOUBLE_PRECISION, sender,0,comm,&
        recv_status)
    call MPI_Get_count(recv_status,MPI_DOUBLE_PRECISION,recv_count)
end if

if (mytid==receiver) then
    ! for (i=0; i<count; i++)
    !   if (target[i] != source[stride*i])
    !     printf("location %d %e s/b %e\n",i,target[i],source[stride*i]);

```

```
end if

call MPI_Finalize(err)

end Program Vector
```

6.10.12 Listing of code examples/mpi/f/vector.F90

Program Vector

```
use mpi
implicit none

double precision, dimension(:),allocatable :: source,target
integer :: sender = 0,receiver = 1, count = 5, stride = 2

integer :: newvectortype
integer :: recv_status(MPI_STATUS_SIZE),recv_count

#include "globalinit.F90"

if (ntids<2) then
  print *, "This program needs at least two processes"
  stop
end if

ALLOCATE(source(stride*count))
ALLOCATE(target(stride*count))

do i=1,stride*count
  source(i) = i+.5;
end do

if (mytid==sender) then
  call MPI_Type_vector(count,1,stride,MPI_DOUBLE_PRECISION,&
    newvectortype,err)
  call MPI_Type_commit(newvectortype,err)
  call MPI_Send(source,1,newvectortype,receiver,0,comm,err)
  call MPI_Type_free(newvectortype,err)
else if (mytid==receiver) then
  call MPI_Recv(target,count,MPI_DOUBLE_PRECISION, sender,0,comm,&
    recv_status,err)
  call MPI_Get_count(recv_status,MPI_DOUBLE_PRECISION,recv_count,err)
end if

if (mytid==receiver) then
  ! for (i=0; i<count; i++)
  !   if (target[i]!=source[stride*i])
  !     printf("location %d %e s/b %e\n",i,target[i],source[stride*i]);
end if

call MPI_Finalize(err)
```

6. MPI topic: Data types

```
end Program Vector
```

6.10.13 Listing of code examples/mpi/f08/section.F90

```
Program F90Section
  use mpi_f08
  implicit none

  integer :: i,j, nprocs,procno
  integer,parameter :: siz=20
  real,dimension(siz,siz) :: matrix = [ ((j+(i-1)*siz,i=1,siz),j=1,siz) ]
  real,dimension(2,2) :: submatrix
  Type(MPI_Comm) :: comm

  call MPI_Init()
  comm = MPI_COMM_WORLD

  call MPI_Comm_size(comm,nprocs)
  call MPI_Comm_rank(comm,procno)
  if (nprocs<2) then
    print *, "This example really needs 2 processors"
    call MPI_Abort(comm,0)
  end if
  if (procno==0) then
    call MPI_Send(matrix(1:2,1:2),4,MPI_REAL,1,0,comm)
  else if (procno==1) then
    call MPI_Recv(submatrix,4,MPI_REAL,0,0,comm,MPI_STATUS_IGNORE)
    if (submatrix(2,2)==22) then
      print *, "Yay"
    else
      print *, "nay...."
    end if
  end if
  call MPI_Finalize()

end Program F90Section
```

6.10.14 Listing of code examples/mpi/f08/sectionisend.F90

```
Program F90Section
  use mpi_f08
  implicit none

  integer :: i,j, nprocs,procno
  integer :: siz
  real,dimension(:, :, allocatable) :: matrix
  real,dimension(2,2) :: submatrix
  Type(MPI_Comm) :: comm
  Type(MPI_Request) :: request

  call MPI_Init()
```

```
comm = MPI_COMM_WORLD

call MPI_Comm_size(comm,nprocs)
call MPI_Comm_rank(comm,procno)
if (nprocs<2) then
    print *, "This example really needs 2 processors"
    call MPI_Abort(comm,0)
end if

if ( .not. MPI_SUBARRAYS_SUPPORTED ) then
    print *, "This code will not work"
    call MPI_Abort(comm,0)
end if

if (procno==0) then
    siz = 20
    allocate( matrix(siz,siz) )
    matrix = reshape( [ ((j+(i-1)*siz,i=1,siz),j=1,siz) ], (/siz,siz/) )
    call MPI_Isend(matrix(1:2,1:2),4,MPI_REAL,1,0,comm,request)
    call MPI_Wait(request,MPI_STATUS_IGNORE)
    deallocate(matrix)
else if (procno==1) then
    call MPI_IRecv(submatrix,4,MPI_REAL,0,0,comm,request)
    call MPI_Wait(request,MPI_STATUS_IGNORE)
    if (submatrix(2,2)==22) then
        print *, "Yay"
    else
        print *, "nay...."
    end if
end if

call MPI_Finalize()

end Program F90Section
```

6.10.15 Listing of code code/mpi/c/row2col.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
#include "mpi.h"

#define ERR(c,m) if (c) { printf("Error: %s\n",m); MPI_Abort(MPI_COMM_WORLD,c); }

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

#define MOD(i,n) (i+n)%(n)
#define ABS(x) ((x)<0 ? (-x) : (x))
#define MAX(x,y) ( (x)>(y) ? (x) : (y) )

#define MALLOC( t,v,n ) \
    t *v = (t*) malloc ( (n)*sizeof(t) ); \
    if (!v) { printf("Allocation failed in line %d\n",__LINE__); MPI_Abort(comm,0); }
```

6. MPI topic: Data types

```
MPI_Comm comm;
int procno=-1,nprocs,ierr;
MPI_Init(&argc,&argv);
comm = MPI_COMM_WORLD;
MPI_Comm_rank(comm,&procno);
MPI_Comm_size(comm,&nprocs);
MPI_Comm_set_errhandler(comm,MPI_ERRORS_RETURN);

if (nprocs==1) {
    printf("This program needs at least 2 procs\n");
    MPI_Abort(comm,0);
}
int sender = 0, receiver = nprocs-1;
#define SIZE 4
int
sizes[2], subsizes[2], starts[2];
sizes[0] = SIZE; sizes[1] = SIZE;
subsizes[0] = SIZE/2; subsizes[1] = SIZE;
starts[0] = starts[1] = 0;

MPI_Request req;

if (procno==sender) {
/*
 * Write lexicographic test data
 */
double data[SIZE][SIZE];
for (int i=0; i<SIZE; i++)
    for (int j=0; j<SIZE; j++)
data[i][j] = j+i*SIZE;
/*
 * Make a datatype that enumerates the storage in C order
 */
MPI_Datatype rowtype;
ierr =
MPI_Type_create_subarray
(2,sizes,subsizes,starts,
 MPI_ORDER_C,MPI_DOUBLE,&rowtype);
ERR(ierr,"creating rowtype");
MPI_Type_commit(&rowtype);
MPI_Send(data,1,rowtype, receiver,0,comm);
MPI_Type_free(&rowtype);

/*
 * Make a datatype that enumerates the storage in F order
 */
MPI_Datatype coltype;
ierr =
MPI_Type_create_subarray
(2,sizes,subsizes,starts,
 MPI_ORDER_FORTRAN,MPI_DOUBLE,&coltype);
ERR(ierr,"creating rowtype");
```

```
MPI_Type_commit(&coltype);
MPI_Send(data,1,coltype, receiver,0,comm);
MPI_Type_free(&coltype);

} else if (procno==receiver) {
    int linearSize = SIZE * SIZE/2;
    double linearData[ linearSize ];

    /*
     * Receive msg in C order:
     */
    MPI_Recv(linearData,linearSize,MPI_DOUBLE, sender,0,comm, MPI_STATUS_IGNORE);
    printf("Received C order:\n");
    for (int i=0; i<SIZE/2; i++) {
        for (int j=0; j<SIZE; j++)
            printf(" %.5.3f",linearData[j+i*SIZE]);
        printf("\n");
    }

    /*
     * Receive msg in F order:
     */
    MPI_Recv(linearData,linearSize,MPI_DOUBLE, sender,0,comm, MPI_STATUS_IGNORE);
    printf("Received F order:\n");
    for (int j=0; j<SIZE; j++) {
        for (int i=0; i<SIZE/2; i++)
            printf(" %.5.3f",linearData[i+j*SIZE/2]);
        printf("\n");
    }
}

/* MPI_Finalize(); */
return 0;
}
```

6.10.16 Listing of code examples/mpi/c/indexed.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
#include "mpi.h"

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

#include "globalinit.c"

    if (nprocs<2) {
        printf("This program needs at least two processes\n");
        return -1;
    }
    int sender = 0, receiver = 1, the_other = 1-procno,
        count = 5, totalCount = 15, targetbuffersize = 2*totalCount;
```

6. MPI topic: Data types

```
int *source,*target;
int *displacements,*blocklengths;

displacements = (int*) malloc(count*sizeof(int));
blocklengths = (int*) malloc(count*sizeof(int));
source = (int*) malloc(totalcount*sizeof(int));
target = (int*) malloc(targetbuffersize*sizeof(int));

displacements[0] = 2; displacements[1] = 3; displacements[2] = 5;
displacements[3] = 7; displacements[4] = 11;
for (int i=0; i<count; ++i)
    blocklengths[i] = 1;
for (int i=0; i<totalcount; ++i)
    source[i] = i;

MPI_Datatype newvectortype;
if (procno==sender) {
    MPI_Type_indexed(count,blocklengths,displacements,MPI_INT,&newvectortype);
    MPI_Type_commit(&newvectortype);
    MPI_Send(source,1,newvectortype,the_other,0,comm);
    MPI_Type_free(&newvectortype);
} else if (procno==receiver) {
    MPI_Status recv_status;
    int recv_count;
    MPI_Recv(target,targetbuffersize,MPI_INT,the_other,0,comm,
             &recv_status);
    MPI_Get_count(&recv_status,MPI_INT,&recv_count);
    ASSERT(recv_count==count);
}
if (procno==receiver) {
    int i=3,val=7;
    if (target[i]!=val)
        printf("location %d %d s/b %d\n",i,target[i],val);
    i=4; val=11;
    if (target[i]!=val)
        printf("location %d %d s/b %d\n",i,target[i],val);
}
if (procno==0)
    printf("Finished\n");

MPI_Finalize();
return 0;
}
```

6.10.17 Listing of code examples/mpi/f/indexed.F90

Program Indexed

```
use mpi
implicit none

integer :: newvectortype;
```

```
integer,dimension(:),allocatable :: indices,blocklengths,&
    source,targt
integer :: sender = 0, receiver = 1, count = 5,totalcount = 15
integer :: recv_status(MPI_STATUS_SIZE),recv_count

#include "globalinit.F90"

if (ntids<2) then
    print *, "This program needs at least two processes"
    stop
end if

ALLOCATE(indices(count))
ALLOCATE(blocklengths(count))
ALLOCATE(source(totalcount))
ALLOCATE(targt(count))

indices(0) = 2; indices(1) = 3; indices(2) = 5;
indices(3) = 7; indices(4) = 11;
do i=1,count
    blocklengths(i) = 1
end do
do i=1,totalcount
    source(i) = i
end do

if (mytid==sender) then
    call MPI_Type_indexed(count,blocklengths,indices,MPI_INT,&
        newvectortype,err)
    call MPI_Type_commit(newvectortype,err)
    call MPI_Send(source,1,newvectortype,receiver,0,comm,err)
    call MPI_Type_free(newvectortype,err)
else if (mytid==receiver) then
    call MPI_Recv(targt,count,MPI_INT,receiver,0,comm,&
        recv_status,err)
    call MPI_Get_count(recv_status,MPI_INT,recv_count,err)
    ! ASSERT(recv_count==count);
end if

! if (mytid==receiver) {
!     int i=3,val=7;
!     if (targt(i)!=val)
!         printf("location %d %d s/b %d\n",i,targt(i),val);
!     i=4; val=11;
!     if (targt(i)!=val)
!         printf("location %d %d s/b %d\n",i,targt(i),val);
! }

call MPI_Finalize(err)

end Program Indexed
```

6. MPI topic: Data types

6.10.18 Listing of code examples/mpi/p/indexed.py

```
import numpy as np
import random # random.randint(1,N), random.random()
from mpi4py import MPI

comm = MPI.COMM_WORLD
procid = comm.Get_rank()
nprocs = comm.Get_size()
if nprocs<2:
    print("C'mon, get real....")
    sys.exit(1)

sender = 0; receiver = 1; the_other = 1-procid
count = 5; totalcount = 15

displacements = np.empty(count,dtype=int)
blocklengths = np.empty(count,dtype=int)
source = np.empty(totalcount,dtype=np.float64)
target = np.empty(count,dtype=np.float64)

idcs = [2,3,5,7,11]
for i in range(len(idcs)):
    displacements[i] = idcs[i]
    blocklengths[i] = 1
for i in range(totalcount):
    source[i] = i+.5

if procid==sender:
    newindextype = MPI.DOUBLE.Create_indexed(blocklengths,displacements)
    newindextype.Commit()
    comm.Send([source,1,newindextype],dest=the_other)
    newindextype.Free()
elif procid==receiver:
    comm.Recv([target,count,MPI.DOUBLE],source=the_other)

if procid==sender:
    print("finished")
if procid==receiver:
    target_loc = 0
    for block in range(count):
        for element in range(blocklengths[block]):
            source_loc = displacements[block]+element
            if target[target_loc]!=source[source_loc]:
                print("error in src/tar location %d/%d: %e s/b %e" \
                      % (source_loc,target_loc,target[target_loc],source[source_loc]) )
            target_loc += 1
```

6.10.19 Listing of code examples/mpi/mpf/indexed.cxx

```
#include <iostream>
using std::cout;
using std::endl;
```

```
#include <vector>
using std::vector;

#include <cassert>

#include <mpl/mpl.hpp>

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

    // MPI Comm world
    const mpl::communicator &comm_world=mpl::environment::comm_world();
    int nprocs = comm_world.size(), procno = comm_world.rank();

    int sender = 0, receiver = 1, the_other = 1-procno,
        totalcount = 15, targetbuffersize = 2*totalcount;

    vector<int>
        source_buffer(totalcount),
        target_buffer(targetbuffersize);
    for (int i=0; i<totalcount; ++i)
        source_buffer[i] = i;

    const int count = 5;
    mpl::contiguous_layout<int>
        fiveints(count);
    mpl::indexed_layout<int>
        indexed_where{ { {1,2}, {1,3}, {1,5}, {1,7}, {1,11} } };

    if (procno==sender) {
        comm_world.send( source_buffer.data(),indexed_where, receiver );
    } else if (procno==receiver) {
        auto recv_status =
            comm_world.recv( target_buffer.data(),fiveints, sender );
        int recv_count = recv_status.get_count<int>();
        assert(recv_count==count);
    }

    if (procno==receiver) {
        int i=3,val=7;
        if (target_buffer[i]!=val)
            printf("Error: location %d %d s/b %d\n",i,target_buffer[i],val);
        i=4; val=11;
        if (target_buffer[i]!=val)
            printf("Error: location %d %d s/b %d\n",i,target_buffer[i],val);
        printf("Finished. Correctly sent indexed primes.\n");
    }

    return 0;
}
```

6.10.20 Listing of code examples/mpi/mpf/indexedblock.cxx

```
#include <iostream>
using std::cout;
using std::endl;

#include <vector>
using std::vector;

#include <cassert>

#include <mpl/mpl.hpp>

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

    // MPI Comm world
    const mpl::communicator &comm_world=mpl::environment::comm_world();
    int nprocs = comm_world.size(), procno = comm_world.rank();

    int sender = 0, receiver = 1, the_other = 1-procno,
        totalcount = 15, targetbuffersize = 2*totalcount;

    vector<int>
        source_buffer(totalcount),
        target_buffer(targetbuffersize);
    for (int i=0; i<totalcount; ++i)
        source_buffer[i] = i;

    const int count = 5;
    if (procno==sender) {
        mpl::indexed_block_layout<int>
            indexed_where( 1, {2,3,5,7,11} );
        comm_world.send( source_buffer.data(),indexed_where, receiver );
    } else if (procno==receiver) {
        mpl::contiguous_layout<int>
            fiveints(count);
        auto recv_status =
            comm_world.recv( target_buffer.data(),fiveints, sender );
        int recv_count =
            recv_status.get_count<int>();
        assert(recv_count==count);
    }

    if (procno==receiver) {
        int i=3,val=7;
        if (target_buffer[i]!=val)
            printf("Error: location %d %d s/b %d\n",i,target_buffer[i],val);
        i=4; val=11;
        if (target_buffer[i]!=val)
            printf("Error: location %d %d s/b %d\n",i,target_buffer[i],val);
        printf("Finished. Correctly sent indexed primes.\n");
    }

    return 0;
}
```

```
}
```

6.10.21 Listing of code examples/mpi/c/struct.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
#include <assert.h>
#include "mpi.h"

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

#include "globalinit.c"

if (nprocs<2) {
    printf("This program needs at least two processes\n");
    return -1;
}
int sender = 0, receiver = 1, the_other = 1-procno;
struct object {
    char c;
    double x[2];
    int i;
};

size_t size_of_struct = sizeof(struct object);
if (procno==sender)
    printf("Structure has size %ld, naive size %ld\n",
    size_of_struct,
    sizeof(char)+2*sizeof(double)+sizeof(int));
struct object myobject;
if (procno==sender) {
    myobject.c = 'x';
    myobject.x[0] = 2.7; myobject.x[1] = 1.5;
    myobject.i = 37;
}

MPI_Datatype newstructuretype;
int structlen = 3;
int blocklengths[structlen]; MPI_Datatype types[structlen];
MPI_Aint displacements[structlen];

/*
 * where are the components relative to the structure?
 */
MPI_Aint current_displacement=0;

// one character
blocklengths[0] = 1; types[0] = MPI_CHAR;
displacements[0] = (size_t)&(myobject.c) - (size_t)&myobject;

// two doubles
blocklengths[1] = 2; types[1] = MPI_DOUBLE;
```

6. MPI topic: Data types

```
displacements[1] = (size_t)&(myobject.x) - (size_t)&myobject;

// one int
blocklengths[2] = 1; types[2] = MPI_INT;
displacements[2] = (size_t)&(myobject.i) - (size_t)&myobject;

MPI_Type_create_struct(structlen,blocklengths,displacements,types,&newstructuretype);
MPI_Type_commit(&newstructuretype);

MPI_Aint typesize,typelb;
MPI_Type_get_extent(newstructuretype,&typelb,&typesize);
assert( typesize==size_of_struct );
if (procno==sender) {
    printf("Type extent: %ld bytes; displacements: %ld %ld %ld\n",
    typesize,displacements[0],displacements[1],displacements[2]);
}
if (procno==sender) {
    MPI_Send(&myobject,1,newstructuretype,the_other,0,comm);
} else if (procno==receiver) {
    MPI_Recv(&myobject,1,newstructuretype,the_other,0,comm,MPI_STATUS_IGNORE);
}
MPI_Type_free(&newstructuretype);

/* if (procno==sender) */
/*   printf("char x=%ld, l=%ld; double x=%ld, l=%ld, int x=%ld, l=%ld\n",
/*         char_extent,char_lb,double_extent,double_lb,int_extent,int_lb); */

if (procno==receiver) {
    printf("Char '%c' double0=%e double1=%e int=%d\n",
    myobject.c,myobject.x[0],myobject.x[1],myobject.i);
    ASSERT(myobject.x[1]==1.5);
    ASSERT(myobject.i==37);
}

if (procno==0)
    printf("Finished\n");

MPI_Finalize();
return 0;
}

#endif
blocklengths[0] = 1; types[0] = MPI_CHAR;
displacements[0] = (size_t)&(myobject.c) - (size_t)&myobject;
blocklengths[1] = 2; types[1] = MPI_DOUBLE;
displacements[1] = (size_t)&(myobject.x[0]) - (size_t)&myobject;
blocklengths[2] = 1; types[2] = MPI_INT;
displacements[2] = (size_t)&(myobject.i) - (size_t)&myobject;

MPI_Aint char_extent,char_lb;
MPI_Type_get_extent(MPI_CHAR,&char_lb,&char_extent);
/* if (procno==0) */
/*   printf("CHAR lb=%ld xt=%ld disp=%ld\n",char_lb,char_extent,current_displacement); */
```

```
MPI_Aint double_extent,double_lb;
MPI_Type_get_extent(MPI_DOUBLE,&double_lb,&double_extent);
/* if (procno==0) */
/*   printf("DOUBLE lb=%ld xt=%ld disp=%ld\n",double_lb,double_extent,current_displacement); */
MPI_Aint int_extent,int_lb;
MPI_Type_get_extent(MPI_INT,&int_lb,&int_extent);
/* if (procno==0) */
/*   printf("INT lb=%ld xt=%ld disp=%ld\n",int_lb,int_extent,current_displacement); */
#endif
```

6.10.22 Listing of code examples/mpi/f/struct.F90

6.10.23 Listing of code examples/mpi/mpl/struct.cxx

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
#include <vector>
using std::vector;
#include <cassert>

#include <mpl/mpl.hpp>

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

    const mpl::communicator &comm_world = mpl::environment::comm_world();
    int nprocs,procno;
    // compute communicator rank and size
    nprocs = comm_world.size();
    procno = comm_world.rank();

    if (nprocs<2) {
        printf("This program needs at least two processes\n");
        return -1;
    }
    int sender = 0, receiver = 1, the_other = 1-procno;
    char c; vector<double> x(2); int i;
    if (procno==sender) {
        c = 'x'; x[0] = 2.7; x[1] = 1.5; i = 37; }
    mpl::heterogeneous_layout object
    ( c,
      mpl::make_absolute(x.data(),mpl::vector_layout<double>(2)),
      i );
    if (procno==sender) {
        comm_world.send( mpl::absolute,object,receiver );
    } else if (procno==receiver) {
        comm_world.recv( mpl::absolute,object,receiver );
    }
```

```

if (procno==receiver) {
    printf("Char '%c' double0=%e double1=%e int=%d\n",
    c,x[0],x[1],i);
    assert(x[1]==1.5);
    assert(i==37);
}

if (procno==0)
    printf("Finished\n");

return 0;
}

```

6.10.24 Listing of code examples/mpi/c/vectorx.c

```

#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
#include "mpi.h"

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

#include "globalinit.c"

if (nprocs<2) {
    printf("This program needs at least two processes\n");
    return -1;
}
int sender = 0, receiver = 1, the_other = 1-procno,
count = 5,stride=2;

if (procno==sender) printf("size of size_t = %d\n",sizeof(size_t));

float *source=NULL,*target=NULL;
int mediumsize = 1<<30;
int nblocks = 8;
size_t datasize = (size_t)mediumsize * nblocks * sizeof(float);

if (procno==sender)
    printf("datasize = %lld bytes = %7.3f giga-bytes = %7.3f gfloats\n",
datasize,datasize*1.e-9,datasize*1.e-9/sizeof(float));

if (procno==sender) {
    source = (float*) malloc(datasize);
    if (source) {
        printf("Source allocated\n");
    } else {
        printf("Could not allocate source data\n"); MPI_Abort(comm,1); }
    long int idx = 0;
    for (int iblock=0; iblock<nblocks; iblock++) {
        for (int element=0; element<mediumsize; element++) {
source[idx] = idx+.5; idx++;
}
}
}
}

```

```
if (idx<0) { printf("source index wrap\n"); MPI_Abort(comm,0); }
}
}

if (procno==receiver) {
    target = (float*) malloc(datasize);
    if (target) {
        printf("Target allocated\n");
    } else {
        printf("Could not allocate target data\n"); MPI_Abort(comm,1);
    }
}

MPI_Datatype blocktype;
MPI_Type_contiguous(mediumsize,MPI_FLOAT,&blocktype);
MPI_Type_commit(&blocktype);
if (procno==sender) {
    MPI_Send(source,nblocks,blocktype,receiver,0,comm);
} else if (procno==receiver) {
    MPI_Status recv_status;
    MPI_Recv(target,nblocks,blocktype,receiver,0,comm,
             &recv_status);
    MPI_Count recv_count;
    MPI_Get_elements_x(&recv_status,MPI_FLOAT,&recv_count);
    printf("Received %7.3f medium size elements\n",recv_count * 1e-9);
}
MPI_Type_free(&blocktype);

if (0 && procno==receiver) {
    for (int i=0; i<count; i++)
        if (target[i]!=source[stride*i])
printf("location %d %e s/b %e\n",i,target[i],source[stride*i]);
}

if (procno==0)
    printf("Finished\n");

if (procno==sender)
    free(source);
if (procno==receiver)
    free(target);

MPI_Finalize();
return 0;
}
```

6.10.25 Listing of code examples/mpi/c/getx.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
#include "mpi.h"
```

```
int main(int argc,char **argv) {  
  
#include "globalinit.c"  
  
if (procno==0) {  
    printf("size of size_t = %d\n",sizeof(size_t));  
  
    int gig = 1<<30;  
    int nblocks = 8;  
    size_t big1 = gig * nblocks * sizeof(double);  
    size_t big2 = (size_t)1 * gig * nblocks * sizeof(double);  
    size_t big3 = (size_t) gig * nblocks * sizeof(double);  
    size_t big4 = gig * nblocks * (size_t) ( sizeof(double) );  
    size_t big5 = sizeof(double) * gig * nblocks;  
;  
    printf("%lld %lld %lld %lld\n",big1,big2,big3,big4,big5);  
}  
  
MPI_Finalize();  
return 0;  
}
```

6.10.26 Listing of code examples/mpi/c/vectorpadsend.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>  
#include <stdio.h>  
#include <string.h>  
#include "mpi.h"  
  
int main(int argc,char **argv) {  
  
    MPI_Comm comm; int nprocs,procno;  
    MPI_Init(&argc,&argv);  
    comm = MPI_COMM_WORLD;  
    MPI_Comm_rank(comm,&procno);  
    MPI_Comm_size(comm,&nprocs);  
  
    if (nprocs<2) {  
        printf("Needs at least 2 processes\n");  
        MPI_Abort(comm,0);  
    }  
    int sender=0, receiver=1;  
  
    /*  
     * Datatype for strided destinations  
     */  
    MPI_Datatype stridetype;  
    int count = 3, stride = 2, blocklength = 1;  
    int ntypes = 2, max_elements = ntypes*stride*count;  
    if (procno==sender) {  
        int *sendbuffer = (int*)malloc( max_elements*sizeof(int) );  
        for (int i=0; i<max_elements; i++) sendbuffer[i] = i;
```

```
MPI_Type_vector(count,blocklength,stride,MPI_INT,&stridetype);
MPI_Type_commit(&stridetype);
MPI_Send( sendbuffer,ntypes,stridetype, receiver,0, comm );
free(sendbuffer);
} else if (procno==receiver) {
    int *recvbuffer = (int*)malloc( max_elements*sizeof(int) );
    MPI_Status status;
    MPI_Recv( recvbuffer,max_elements,MPI_INT, sender,0, comm,&status );
    int count; MPI_Get_count(&status,MPI_INT,&count);
    printf("Receive %d elements:",count);
    for (int i=0; i<count; i++) printf(" %d",recvbuffer[i]);
    printf("\n");
    free(recvbuffer);
}
// ntypes*stride

MPI_Datatype paddedtype;
if (procno==sender) {
    MPI_Aint l,e;
    int *sendbuffer = (int*)malloc( max_elements*sizeof(int) );
    for (int i=0; i<max_elements; i++) sendbuffer[i] = i;
    MPI_Type_get_extent(stridetype,&l,&e);
    printf("Stride type l=%ld e=%ld\n",l,e);
    e += ( stride-blocklength) * sizeof(int);
    MPI_Type_create_resized(stridetype,l,e,&paddedtype);
    MPI_Type_get_extent(paddedtype,&l,&e);
    printf("Padded type l=%ld e=%ld\n",l,e);
    MPI_Type_commit(&paddedtype);
    MPI_Send( sendbuffer,ntypes,paddedtype, receiver,0, comm );
    free(sendbuffer);
} else if (procno==receiver) {
    int *recvbuffer = (int*)malloc( max_elements*sizeof(int) );
    MPI_Status status;
    MPI_Recv( recvbuffer,max_elements,MPI_INT, sender,0, comm,&status );
    int count; MPI_Get_count(&status,MPI_INT,&count);
    printf("Receive %d elements:",count);
    for (int i=0; i<count; i++) printf(" %d",recvbuffer[i]);
    printf("\n");
    free(recvbuffer);
}

if (procno==sender) {
    MPI_Type_free(&paddedtype);
    MPI_Type_free(&stridetype);
}

if (procno==0)
    printf("Finished\n");

MPI_Finalize();
return 0;
}
```

6.10.27 Listing of code examples/mpi/c/interleavegatherer

6.10.28 Listing of code examples/mpi/c/stridestretch.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
#include "mpi.h"

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

#include "globalinit.c"

if (nprocs<2) {
    printf("This program needs at least two processes\n");
    return -1;
}
int sender = 0, receiver = 1, the_other = 1-procno,
count = 5,stride=2;
double *source,*target;
source = (double*) malloc(stride*count*sizeof(double));
target = (double*) malloc(stride*count*sizeof(double));

for (int i=0; i<stride*count; i++)
    source[i] = i+.5;

if (procno==sender) {
    MPI_Datatype oneblock;
    MPI_Type_vector(1,1,stride,MPI_DOUBLE,&oneblock);
    MPI_Type_commit(&oneblock);
    MPI_Aint block_lb,block_x;
    MPI_Type_get_extent(oneblock,&block_lb,&block_x);
    printf("One block has extent: %ld\n",block_x);

    MPI_Datatype paddedblock;
    MPI_Type_create_resized(oneblock,0,stride*sizeof(double),&paddedblock);
    MPI_Type_commit(&paddedblock);
    MPI_Type_get_extent(paddedblock,&block_lb,&block_x);
    printf("Padded block has extent: %ld\n",block_x);

// now send a bunch of these padded blocks
    MPI_Send(source,count,paddedblock,the_other,0,comm);
    MPI_Type_free(&oneblock);
    MPI_Type_free(&paddedblock);
} else if (procno==receiver) {
    int blens[2]; MPI_Aint displs[2];
    MPI_Datatype types[2], paddedblock;
    blens[0] = 1; blens[1] = 1;
    displs[0] = 0; displs[1] = 2 * sizeof(double);
    types[0] = MPI_DOUBLE; types[1] = MPI_UB;
    MPI_Type_struct(2, blens, displs, types, &paddedblock);
```

```
MPI_Type_commit(&paddedblock);
MPI_Status recv_status;
MPI_Recv(target,count,paddedblock,the_other,0,comm,&recv_status);
/* MPI_Recv(target,count,MPI_DOUBLE,the_other,0,comm, */
/* &recv_status); */
int recv_count;
MPI_Get_count(&recv_status,MPI_DOUBLE,&recv_count);
ASSERT(recv_count==count);
}

if (procno==receiver) {
    for (int i=0; i<count; i++)
        if (target[i*stride]!=source[i*stride])
printf("location %d %e s/b %e\n",i,target[i*stride],source[stride*i]);
}

if (procno==0)
    printf("Finished\n");

MPI_Finalize();
return 0;
}
```

Chapter 7

MPI topic: Communicators

A communicator is an object describing a group of processes. In many applications all processes work together closely coupled, and the only communicator you need is `MPI_COMM_WORLD`, the group describing all processes that your job starts with.

In this chapter you will see ways to make new groups of MPI processes: subgroups of the original world communicator. Chapter 8 discusses dynamic process management, which, while not extending `MPI_COMM_WORLD` does extend the set of available processes. That chapter also discusses the ‘sessions model’, which is another way to constructing communicators.

7.1 Basic communicators

There are three predefined communicators:

- `MPI_COMM_WORLD` comprises all processes that were started together by `mpiexec` (or some related program).
- `MPI_COMM_SELF` is the communicator that contains only the current process.
- `MPI_COMM_NULL` is the invalid communicator. This values results
 - when a communicator is freed; see section 7.3;
 - as error return value from routines that construct communicators;
 - for processes outside a created Cartesian communicator (section 11.1.1);
 - on non-spawned processes when querying their parent (section 7.6.3).

These values are constants, though not necessarily compile-time constants. Thus, they can not be used in switch statements, array declarations, or `constexpr` evaluations.

If you don’t want to write `MPI_COMM_WORLD` repeatedly, you can assign that value to a variable of type `MPI_Comm`.

Examples:

```
// C:  
#include <mpi.h>  
MPI_Comm comm = MPI_COMM_WORLD;
```

```

|| !! Fortran 2008 interface
|| use mpi_f08
|| Type(MPI_Comm) :: comm = MPI_COMM_WORLD

|| !! Fortran legacy interface
|| #include <mpif.h>
|| Integer :: comm = MPI_COMM_WORLD

```

Python note 21: Communicator types.

```
|| comm = MPI.COMM_WORLD
```

MPL note 53: Predefined communicators. The environment namespace has the equivalents of MPI_COMM_WORLD and MPI_COMM_SELF:

```

|| const communicator& mpl::environment::comm_world();
|| const communicator& mpl::environment::comm_self();

```

There doesn't seem to be an equivalent of MPI_COMM_NULL.

MPL note 54: Raw communicators. Should you need the MPI_Comm object contained in an MPL communicator, there is an access function native_handle.

Code:

```

const mpl::communicator &comm =
    mpl::environment::comm_world();
MPI_Comm
world_extract = comm.native_handle(),
world_given = MPI_COMM_WORLD;
int result;
MPI_Comm_compare(world_extract,world_given,&result);
cout << "Compare raw comms: " << "\n"
    << "identical: " << (result==MPI_IDENT)
    << "\n"
    << "congruent: " << (result==MPI_CONGRUENT)
    << "\n"
    << "unequal : " << (result==MPI_UNEQUAL)
    << "\n";

```

Output:

```

Compare raw comms:
identical: true
congruent: false
unequal : false

```

You can name your communicators with MPI_Comm_set_name, which could improve the quality of error messages when they arise.

7.2 Duplicating communicators

With MPI_Comm_dup (figure 7.1) you can make an exact duplicate of a communicator (see section 7.2.2 for an application). There is a nonblocking variant MPI_Comm_idup (figure 7.2).

These calls do not propagate info hints (sections 15.1.1 and 15.1.1.2); to achieve this, use MPI_Comm_dup_with_info and MPI_Comm_idup_with_info; section 15.1.1.2.

Python note 22: Communicator duplication. Duplicate communicators are created as output of the duplication routine:

7. MPI topic: Communicators

Figure 7.1 MPI_Comm_dup

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Comm_dup (
comm	communicator		MPI_Comm	TYPE (MPI_Comm)	IN
newcomm	copy of comm		MPI_Comm*	TYPE (MPI_Comm)	OUT
)					

MPL:

Done as part of the copy assignment operator.

Figure 7.2 MPI_Comm_idup

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Comm_idup (
comm	communicator		MPI_Comm	TYPE (MPI_Comm)	IN
newcomm	copy of comm		MPI_Comm*	TYPE (MPI_Comm)	OUT
request	communication request		MPI_Request*	TYPE (MPI_Request)	OUT
)					

```
||    newcomm = comm.Dup()
```

MPL note 55: *Communicator duplication*. Communicators can be duplicated but only during initialization.
Copy assignment has been deleted. Thus:

```
// LEGAL:  
mpl::communicator init = comm;  
// WRONG:  
mpl::communicator init;  
init = comm;
```

7.2.1 Communicator comparing

You may wonder what ‘an exact copy’ means precisely. For this, think of a communicator as a context label that you can attach to, among others, operations such as sends and receives. And it’s that label that counts, not what processes are in the communicator. A send and a receive ‘belong together’ if they have the same communicator context. Conversely, a send in one communicator can not be matched to a receive in a duplicate communicator, made by `MPI_Comm_dup`.

Testing whether two communicators are really the same is then more than testing if they comprise the same processes. The call `MPI_Comm_compare` returns `MPI_IDENT` if two communicator values are the same, and not if one is derived from the other by duplication:

Code:

```
// commcompare.c
int result;
MPI_Comm copy = comm;
MPI_Comm_compare(comm, copy, &result);
printf("assign:    comm==copy: %d \n",
       result==MPI_IDENT);
printf("            congruent: %d \n",
       result==MPI_CONGRUENT);
printf("            not equal: %d \n",
       result==MPI_UNEQUAL);

MPI_Comm_dup(comm, &copy);
MPI_Comm_compare(comm, copy, &result);
printf("duplicate: comm==copy: %d \n",
       result==MPI_IDENT);
printf("            congruent: %d \n",
       result==MPI_CONGRUENT);
printf("            not equal: %d \n",
       result==MPI_UNEQUAL);
```

Output:

assign:	comm==copy: 1
	congruent: 0
	not equal: 0
duplicate:	comm==copy: 0
	congruent: 1
	not equal: 0

Communicators that are not actually the same can be

- consisting of the same processes, in the same order, giving `MPI_CONGRUENT`;
- merely consisting of the same processes, but not in the same order, giving `MPI_SIMILAR`;
- different, giving `MPI_UNEQUAL`.

Comparing against `MPI_COMM_NULL` is not allowed.

7.2.2 Communicator duplication for library use

Duplicating a communicator may seem pointless, but it is actually very useful for the design of software libraries. Imagine that you have a code

```
// MPI_Isend(...); MPI_Irecv(...);
// library call
// MPI_Waitall(...);
```

and suppose that the library has receive calls. Now it is possible that the receive in the library inadvertently catches the message that was sent in the outer environment.

Let us consider an example. First of all, here is code where the library stores the communicator of the calling program:

```
// commdupwrong.cxx
class library {
private:
    MPI_Comm comm;
    int procno, nprocs, other;
    MPI_Request request[2];
public:
    library(MPI_Comm incom) {
```

```

    comm = incomm;
    MPI_Comm_rank(comm,&procno);
    other = 1-procno;
};

int communication_start();
int communication_end();
};

```

For the full source of this example, see section 7.8.2

This models a main program that does a simple message exchange, and it makes two calls to library routines. Unbeknown to the user, the library also issues send and receive calls, and they turn out to interfere.

Here

- The main program does a send,
- the library call `function_start` does a send and a receive; because the receive can match either send, it is paired with the first one;
- the main program does a receive, which will be paired with the send of the library call;
- both the main program and the library do a wait call, and in both cases all requests are successfully fulfilled, just not the way you intended.

To prevent this confusion, the library should duplicate the outer communicator with `MPI_Comm_dup` and send all messages with respect to its duplicate. Now messages from the user code can never reach the library software, since they are on different communicators.

```

// commdupright.cxx
class library {
private:
    MPI_Comm comm;
    int procno,nprocs,other;
    MPI_Request request[2];
public:
    library(MPI_Comm incomm) {
        MPI_Comm_dup(incomm,&comm);
        MPI_Comm_rank(comm,&procno);
        other = 1-procno;
    };
    ~library() {
        MPI_Comm_free(&comm);
    }
    int communication_start();
    int communication_end();
};

```

For the full source of this example, see section 7.8.3

Note how the preceding example performs the `MPI_Comm_free` call in a C++ *destructor*.

```

## commdup.py
class Library():
    def __init__(self,comm):
        # wrong: self.comm = comm

```

```

    self.comm = comm.Dup()
    self.other = self.comm.Get_size()-self.comm.Get_rank()-1
    self.requests = [ None ] * 2
    def __del__(self):
        if self.comm.Get_rank()==0: print(.. freeing communicator)
        self.comm.Free()
    def communication_start(self):
        sendbuf = np.empty(1,dtype=int); sendbuf[0] = 37
        recvbuf = np.empty(1,dtype=int)
        self.requests[0] = self.comm.Isend( sendbuf, dest=other,tag=2 )
        self.requests[1] = self.comm.Irecv( recvbuf, source=other )
    def communication_end(self):
        MPI.Request.Waitall(self.requests)

mylibrary = Library(comm)
my_requests[0] = comm.Isend( sendbuffer,dest=other,tag=1 )
mylibrary.communication_start()
my_requests[1] = comm.Irecv( recvbuffer,source=other )
MPI.Request.Waitall(my_requests,my_status)
mylibrary.communication_end()

```

For the full source of this example, see section [7.8.4](#)

7.3 Sub-communicators

In many scenarios you divide a large job over all the available processors. However, your job may have two or more parts that can be considered as jobs by themselves. In that case it makes sense to divide your processors into subgroups accordingly.

Suppose for instance that you are running a simulation where inputs are generated, a computation is performed on them, and the results of this computation are analyzed or rendered graphically. You could then consider dividing your processors in three groups corresponding to generation, computation, rendering. As long as you only do sends and receives, this division works fine. However, if one group of processes needs to perform a collective operation, you don't want the other groups involved in this. Thus, you really want the three groups to be distinct from each other.

In order to make such subsets of processes, MPI has the mechanism of taking a subset of `MPI_COMM_WORLD` (or other communicator) and turning that subset into a new communicator.

Now you understand why the MPI collective calls had an argument for the communicator: a collective involves all processes of that communicator. By making a communicator that contains a subset of all available processes, you can do a collective on that subset.

The usage is as follows:

- You create a new communicator with routines such as `MPI_Comm_dup` (section [7.2](#)), `MPI_Comm_split` (section [7.4](#)), `MPI_Comm_create` (section [7.5](#)), `MPI_Intercomm_create` (section [7.6](#)), `MPI_Comm_spawn` (section [8.1](#));
- you use that communicator for a while;

- and you call `MPI_Comm_free` when you are done with it; this also sets the communicator variable to `MPI_COMM_NULL`. A similar routine, `MPI_Comm_disconnect` waits for all pending communication to finish. Both are collective.

7.3.1 Scenario: distributed linear algebra

For *scalability* reasons, matrices should often be distributed in a 2D manner, that is, each process receives a subblock that is not a block of full columns or rows. This means that the processors themselves are, at least logically, organized in a 2D grid. Operations then involve reductions or broadcasts inside rows or columns. For this, a row or column of processors needs to be in a subcommunicator.

7.3.2 Scenario: climate model

A climate simulation code has several components, for instance corresponding to land, air, ocean, and ice. You can imagine that each needs a different set of equations and algorithms to simulate. You can then divide your processes, where each subset simulates one component of the climate, occasionally communicating with the other components.

7.3.3 Scenario: quicksort

The popular quicksort algorithm works by splitting the data into two subsets that each can be sorted individually. If you want to sort in parallel, you could implement this by making two subcommunicators, and sorting the data on these, creating recursively more subcommunicators.

7.3.4 Shared memory

There is an important application of communicator splitting in the context of one-sided communication, grouping processes by whether they access the same shared memory area; see section 12.1.

7.3.5 Process spawning

Finally, newly created communicators do not always need to be subset of the initial `MPI_COMM_WORLD`. MPI can dynamically spawn new processes (see chapter 8) which start in a `MPI_COMM_WORLD` of their own. However, another communicator will be created that spawns the old and new worlds so that you can communicate with the new processes.

7.4 Splitting a communicator

Above we saw several scenarios where it makes sense to divide `MPI_COMM_WORLD` into disjoint subcommunicators. The command `MPI_Comm_split` (figure 7.3) uses a ‘color’ to define these subcommunicators: all processes in the old communicator with the same color wind up in a new communicator together. The old communicator still exists, so processes now have two different contexts in which to communicate.

Figure 7.3 MPI_Comm_split

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
<code>MPI_Comm_split (</code>					
<code>comm</code>	<code>communicator</code>		<code>MPI_Comm</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Comm)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>color</code>	<code>control of subset assignment</code>		<code>int</code>	<code>INTEGER</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>key</code>	<code>control of rank assignment</code>		<code>int</code>	<code>INTEGER</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>newcomm</code>	<code>new communicator</code>		<code>MPI_Comm*</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Comm)</code>	<code>OUT</code>
<code>)</code>					

The ranking of processes in the new communicator is determined by a ‘key’ value: in a subcommunicator the process with lowest key is given the lowest rank, et cetera. Most of the time, there is no reason to use a relative ranking that is different from the global ranking, so the `MPI_Comm_rank` value of the global communicator is a good choice. Any ties between identical key values are broken by using the rank from the original communicator. Thus, specifying zero are the key will also retain the original process ordering.

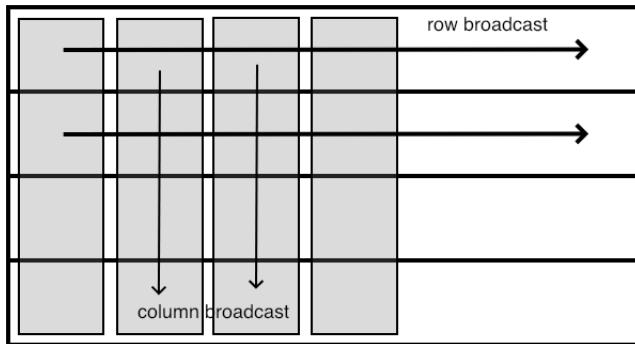


Figure 7.1: Row and column broadcasts in subcommunicators

Here is one example of communicator splitting. Suppose your processors are in a two-dimensional grid:

```
|| MPI_Comm_rank( MPI_COMM_WORLD, &mytid );
|| proc_i = mytid % proc_column_length;
|| proc_j = mytid / proc_column_length;
```

You can now create a communicator per column:

```
|| MPI_Comm column_comm;
|| MPI_Comm_split( MPI_COMM_WORLD, proc_j, mytid, &column_comm );
```

and do a broadcast in that column:

```
|| MPI_Bcast( data, /* stuff */, column_comm );
```

Because of the SPMD nature of the program, you are now doing in parallel a broadcast in every processor column. Such operations often appear in *dense linear algebra*.

Exercise 7.1. Organize your processes in a grid, and make subcommunicators for the rows and columns. For this compute the row and column number of each process.

In the row and column communicator, compute the rank. For instance, on a 2×3 processor grid you should find:

Global ranks: Ranks in row: Ranks in colum:

0 1 2	0 1 2	0 0 0
3 4 5	0 1 2	1 1 1

Check that the rank in the row communicator is the column number, and the other way around.

Run your code on different number of processes, for instance a number of rows and columns that is a power of 2, or that is a prime number.

(There is a skeleton for this exercise under the name procgrid.)

Python note 23: Comm split key is optional. In Python, the ‘key’ argument is optional:

Code:

```
## commssplit.py
mydata = procid

# communicator modulo 2
color = procid%2
mod2comm = comm.Split(color)
procid2 = mod2comm.Get_rank()

# communicator modulo 4 recursively
color = procid2 % 2
mod4comm = mod2comm.Split(color)
procid4 = mod4comm.Get_rank()
```

Output:

```
Proc 0 -> 0 -> 0
Proc 2 -> 1 -> 0
Proc 6 -> 3 -> 1
Proc 4 -> 2 -> 1
Proc 3 -> 1 -> 0
Proc 7 -> 3 -> 1
Proc 1 -> 0 -> 0
Proc 5 -> 2 -> 1
```

MPL note 56: Communicator splitting. In MPL, splitting a communicator is done as one of the overloads of the communicator constructor;

```
// commssplit.cxx
// create sub communicator modulo 2
int color2 = procno % 2;
mpl::communicator comm2( mpl::communicator::split, comm_world, color2 );
auto procno2 = comm2.rank();

// create sub communicator modulo 4 recursively
int color4 = procno2 % 2;
mpl::communicator comm4( mpl::communicator::split, comm2, color4 );
auto procno4 = comm4.rank();
```

For the full source of this example, see section 7.8.5

MPL implementation note: The `communicator::split` identifier is an object of class `communicator::split_tag`, itself is an otherwise empty subclass of `communicator`:

```
class split_tag {};
static constexpr split_tag split{};
```

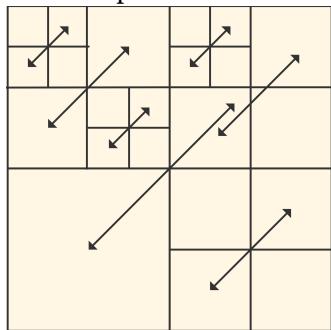
There is also a routine `MPI_Comm_split_type` which uses a type rather than a key to split the communicator. We will see this in action in section 12.1.

Figure 7.4 MPI_Comm_group

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
<code>MPI_Comm_group (</code>					
<code>comm</code>	<code>communicator</code>		<code>MPI_Comm</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Comm)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>group</code>	<code>group corresponding to comm</code>		<code>MPI_Group*</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Group)</code>	<code>OUT</code>
<code>)</code>					

As another example of communicator splitting, consider the recursive algorithm for *matrix transposition*. Processors are organized in a square grid. The matrix is divided on 2×2 block form.

Exercise 7.2. Implement a recursive algorithm for matrix transposition:



- Swap blocks (1, 2) and (2, 1); then
- Divide the processors into four subcommunicators, and apply this algorithm recursively on each;
- If the communicator has only one process, transpose the matrix in place.

7.5 Communicators and groups

You saw in section 7.4 that it is possible derive communicators that have a subset of the processes of another communicator. There is a more general mechanism, using `MPI_Group` objects.

Using groups, it takes three steps to create a new communicator:

1. Access the `MPI_Group` of a communicator object using `MPI_Comm_group` (figure 7.4).
2. Use various routines, discussed next, to form a new group.
3. Make a new communicator object from the group with `MPI_Group`, using `MPI_Comm_create` (figure 7.5)

Creating a new communicator from a group is collective on the old communicator. There is also a routine `MPI_Comm_create_group` that only needs to be called on the group that constitutes the new communicator.

7.5.1 Process groups

Groups are manipulated with `MPI_Group_incl` (figure 7.6), `MPI_Group_excl` (figure 7.7), `MPI_Group_difference`

7. MPI topic: Communicators

Figure 7.5 MPI_Comm_create

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
<code>MPI_Comm_create (</code>					
<code>comm</code>	<code>communicator</code>		<code>MPI_Comm</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Comm)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>group</code>	<code>group, which is a subset of the group of comm</code>		<code>MPI_Group</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Group)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>newcomm</code>	<code>new communicator</code>		<code>MPI_Comm*</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Comm)</code>	<code>OUT</code>
<code>)</code>					

Figure 7.6 MPI_Group_incl

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
<code>MPI_Group_incl (</code>					
<code>group</code>	<code>group</code>		<code>MPI_Group</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Group)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>n</code>	<code>number of elements in array ranks (and size of newgroup)</code>		<code>int</code>	<code>INTEGER</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>ranks</code>	<code>ranks of processes in group to appear in newgroup</code>		<code>const int[]</code>	<code>INTEGER(n)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>newgroup</code>	<code>new group derived from above, in the order defined by ranks</code>		<code>MPI_Group*</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Group)</code>	<code>OUT</code>
<code>)</code>					

Figure 7.7 MPI_Group_excl

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
<code>MPI_Group_excl (</code>					
<code>group</code>	<code>group</code>		<code>MPI_Group</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Group)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>n</code>	<code>number of elements in array ranks</code>		<code>int</code>	<code>INTEGER</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>ranks</code>	<code>array of integer ranks of processes in group not to appear in newgroup</code>		<code>const int[]</code>	<code>INTEGER(n)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>newgroup</code>	<code>new group derived from above, preserving the order defined by group</code>		<code>MPI_Group*</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Group)</code>	<code>OUT</code>
<code>)</code>					

and a few more.

```
// MPI_Comm_group (comm, group, ierr)
// MPI_Comm_create (MPI_Comm comm, MPI_Group group, MPI_Comm newcomm, ierr)

// MPI_Group_union(group1, group2, newgroup, ierr)
// MPI_Group_intersection(group1, group2, newgroup, ierr)
// MPI_Group_difference(group1, group2, newgroup, ierr)

// MPI_Group_size(group, size, ierr)
// MPI_Group_rank(group, rank, ierr)
```

Certain MPI types, `MPI_Win` and `MPI_File`, are created on a communicator. While you can not directly extract that communicator from the object, you can get the group with `MPI_Win_get_group` and `MPI_File_get_group`.

There is a pre-defined empty group `MPI_GROUP_EMPTY`, which can be used as an input to group construction routines, or appear as the result of such operations as a zero intersection. This is not the same as `MPI_GROUP_NULL`, which is the output of invalid operations on groups, or the result of `MPI_Group_free`.

7.5.2 Example

Suppose you want to split the world communicator into one manager process, with the remaining processes workers.

```
// portapp.c
MPI_Comm comm_work;
{
    MPI_Group group_world, group_work;
    MPI_Comm_group( comm_world, &group_world );
    int manager[] = {0};
    MPI_Group_excl( group_world, 1, manager, &group_work );
    MPI_Comm_create( comm_world, group_work, &comm_work );
    MPI_Group_free( &group_world ); MPI_Group_free( &group_work );
}
```

7.6 Intercommunicators

In several scenarios it may be desirable to have a way to communicate between communicators. For instance, an application can have clearly functionally separated modules (preprocessor, simulation, post-processor) that need to stream data pairwise. In another example, dynamically spawned processes (section 8.1) get their own value of `MPI_COMM_WORLD`, but still need to communicate with the process(es) that spawned them. In this section we will discuss the *inter-communicator* mechanism that serves such use cases.

Communicating between disjoint communicators can of course be done by having a communicator that overlaps them, but this would be complicated: since the ‘inter’ communication happens in the overlap communicator, you have to translate its ordering into those of the two worker communicators. It would

7. MPI topic: Communicators

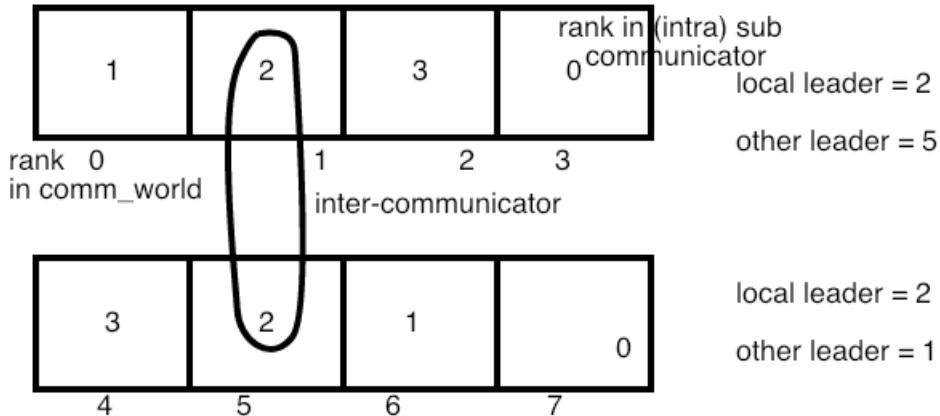


Figure 7.2: Illustration of ranks in an intercommunicator setup

Figure 7.8 `MPI_Intercomm_create`

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
<code>MPI_Intercomm_create (</code>					
<code>local_comm</code>	<code>local_intra-communicator</code>		<code>MPI_Comm</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Comm)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>local_leader</code>	rank of local group leader in <code>local_comm</code>		<code>int</code>	<code>INTEGER</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>peer_comm</code>	``peer'' communicator; significant only at the <code>local_leader</code>		<code>MPI_Comm</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Comm)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>remote_leader</code>	rank of remote group leader in <code>peer_comm</code> ; significant only at the <code>local_leader</code>		<code>int</code>	<code>INTEGER</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>tag</code>	<code>tag</code>		<code>int</code>	<code>INTEGER</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>newintercomm</code>	new inter-communicator		<code>MPI_Comm*</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Comm)</code>	<code>OUT</code>
<code>)</code>					

be easier to express messages directly in terms of those communicators, and this is what happens in an *inter-communicator*.

A call to `MPI_Intercomm_create` (figure 7.8) involves the following communicators:

- Two local communicators, which in this context are known as *intra-communicators*: one process in each will act as the local leader, connected to the remote leader;
- The *peer communicator*, often `MPI_COMM_WORLD`, that contains the local communicators;
- An *inter-communicator* that allows the leaders of the subcommunicators to communicate with the other subcommunicator.

Even though the intercommunicator connects only two processes, it is collective on the peer communicator.

7.6.1 Intercommunicator point-to-point

The local leaders can now communicate with each other.

- The sender specifies as target the local number of the other leader in the other sub-communicator;
- Likewise, the receiver specifies as source the local number of the sender in its sub-communicator.

In one way, this design makes sense: processors are referred to in their natural, local, numbering. On the other hand, it means that each group needs to know how the local ordering of the other group is arranged. Using a complicated `key` value makes this difficult.

```

if (i_am_local_leader) {
    if (color==0) {
        interdata = 1.2;
        int inter_target = local_number_of_other_leader;
        printf("[%d] sending interdata %e to %d\n",
               procno, interdata, inter_target);
        MPI_Send(&interdata, 1, MPI_DOUBLE, inter_target, 0, intercomm);
    } else {
        MPI_Status status;
        MPI_Recv(&interdata, 1, MPI_DOUBLE, MPI_ANY_SOURCE, MPI_ANY_TAG, intercomm, &status);
        int inter_source = status.MPI_SOURCE;
        printf("[%d] received interdata %e from %d\n",
               procno, interdata, inter_source);
        if (inter_source!=local_number_of_other_leader)
            fprintf(stderr,
                    "Got inter communication from unexpected %d; s/b %d\n",
                    inter_source, local_number_of_other_leader);
    }
}

```

For the full source of this example, see section 7.8.6

7.6.2 Intercommunicator collectives

The intercommunicator can be used in collectives such as a broadcast.

- In the sending group, the root process passes `MPI_ROOT` as ‘root’ value; all others use `MPI_PROC_NULL`.
- In the receiving group, all processes use a ‘root’ value that is the rank of the root process in the root group. Note: this is not the global rank!

Gather and scatter behave similarly; the allgather is different: all send buffers of group A are concatenated in rank order, and places on all processes of group B.

Intercommunicators can be used if two groups of process work asynchronously with respect to each other; another application is fault tolerance (section 15.5).

```

if (color==0) { // sending group: the local leader sends
    if (i_am_local_leader)
        root = MPI_ROOT;
    else

```

Figure 7.9 MPI_Comm_get_parent

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Comm_get_parent (

Figure 7.10 MPI_Comm_test_inter

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Comm_test_inter (

```

    root = MPI_PROC_NULL;
} else { // receiving group: everyone indicates leader of other group
    root = local_number_of_other_leader;
}
if (DEBUG) fprintf(stderr, "[%d] using root value %d\n", procno, root);
MPI_Bcast(&bcast_data, 1, MPI_INT, root, intercomm);

```

For the full source of this example, see section 7.8.6

7.6.3 Intercommunicator querying

Some of the operations you have seen before for *intra-communicators* behave differently with intercommunicator:

- `MPI_Comm_size` returns the size of the local group, not the size of the intercommunicator.
- `MPI_Comm_rank` returns the rank in the local group.
- `MPI_Comm_group` returns the local group.

Spawned processes can find their parent communicator with `MPI_Comm_get_parent` (figure 7.9) (see examples in section 8.1). On other processes this returns `MPI_COMM_NULL`.

Test whether a communicator is intra or inter: `MPI_Comm_test_inter` (figure 7.10).

`MPI_Comm_compare` works for intercommunicators.

Processes connected through an intercommunicator can query the size of the ‘other’ communicator with `MPI_Comm_remote_size` (figure 7.11). The actual group can be obtained with `MPI_Comm_remote_group` (figure 7.12).

Virtual topologies (chapter 11) cannot be created with an intercommunicator. To set up virtual topologies, first transform the intercommunicator to an intracomunicator with the function `MPI_Intercomm_merge` (figure 7.13).

Figure 7.11 MPI_Comm_remote_size

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
<code>MPI_Comm_remote_size (</code>					

Python:

`Intercomm.Get_remote_size(self)`

Figure 7.12 MPI_Comm_remote_group

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
<code>MPI_Comm_remote_group (</code>					

Python:

`Intercomm.Get_remote_group(self)`

7.7 Review questions

For all true/false questions, if you answer that a statement is false, give a one-line explanation.

- True or false: in each communicator, processes are numbered consecutively from zero.

Solution to exercise 7.2. *True*

- If a process is in two communicators, it has the same rank in both.

Solution to exercise 7.2. *False*

- Any communicator that is not `MPI_COMM_WORLD` is a strict subset of it.

Solution to exercise 7.2. *False*: `MPI_Comm_dup` gives a communicator of equal size.

- The subcommunicators derived by `MPI_Comm_split` are disjoint.

Solution to exercise 7.2. *True*.

- If two processes have ranks $p < q$ in some communicator, and they are in the same subcommunicator, then their ranks p', q' in the subcommunicator also obey $p' < q'$.

Solution to exercise 7.2. *False*. That's where the 'key' argument comes in.

Figure 7.13 MPI_Intercomm_merge

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Intercomm_merge (
intercomm	intercomm	inter-communicator	MPI_Comm	TYPE (MPI_Comm)	IN
high		ordering of the local and remote groups in the new intra-communicator	int	LOGICAL	IN
newintracomm	newintracomm	new intra-communicator	MPI_Comm*	TYPE (MPI_Comm)	OUT
)					

7.8 Sources used in this chapter

7.8.1 Listing of code header

7.8.2 Listing of code examples/mpi/c/commdupwrong.cxx

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
#include <unistd.h>
#include "mpi.h"

class library {
private:
    MPI_Comm comm;
    int procno,nprocs,other;
    MPI_Request request[2];
public:
    library(MPI_Comm incom) {
        comm = incom;
        MPI_Comm_rank(comm,&procno);
        other = 1-procno;
    };
    int communication_start();
    int communication_end();
};

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

#include "globalinit.c"

    int other = 1-procno, sdata=5,rdata;
    MPI_Request request[2];
    MPI_Status status[2];

    if (procno>1) { MPI_Finalize(); return 0; }
```

```
library my_library(comm);
MPI_Isend(&sdata,1,MPI_INT,other,1,comm,&(request[0]));
my_library.communication_start();
MPI_Irecv(&rdata,1,MPI_INT,other,MPI_ANY_TAG,comm,&(request[1]));
MPI_Waitall(2,request,status);
my_library.communication_end();

if (status[1].MPI_TAG==2)
    printf("wrong!\n");

MPI_Finalize();
return 0;
}

int library::communication_start() {
    int sdata=6,rdata;
    MPI_Isend(&sdata,1,MPI_INT,other,2,comm,&(request[0]));
    MPI_Irecv(&rdata,1,MPI_INT,other,MPI_ANY_TAG,
              comm,&(request[1]));
    return 0;
}

int library::communication_end() {
    MPI_Status status[2];
    MPI_Waitall(2,request,status);
    return 0;
}
```

7.8.3 Listing of code examples/mpi/c/commdupright.cxx

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
#include <unistd.h>
#include "mpi.h"

class library {
private:
    MPI_Comm comm;
    int procno,nprocs,other;
    MPI_Request request[2];
public:
    library(MPI_Comm incomm) {
        MPI_Comm_dup(incomm,&comm);
        MPI_Comm_rank(comm,&procno);
        other = 1-procno;
    };
    ~library() {
        MPI_Comm_free(&comm);
    }
    int communication_start();
    int communication_end();
```

```
};

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

#include "globalinit.c"

    int other = 1-procno, sdata=5,rdata;
    MPI_Request request[2];
    MPI_Status status[2];

    if (procno>1) { MPI_Finalize(); return 0; }

    library my_library(comm);
    MPI_Isend(&sdata,1,MPI_INT,other,1,comm,&(request[0]));
    my_library.communication_start();
    MPI_Irecv(&rdata,1,MPI_INT,other,MPI_ANY_TAG,
              comm,&(request[1]));
    MPI_Waitall(2,request,status);
    my_library.communication_end();

    if (status[1].MPI_TAG==2)
        printf("wrong!\n");

    MPI_Finalize();
    return 0;
}

int library::communication_start() {
    int sdata=6,rdata, ierr;
    MPI_Isend(&sdata,1,MPI_INT,other,2,comm,&(request[0]));
    MPI_Irecv(&rdata,1,MPI_INT,other,MPI_ANY_TAG,comm,&(request[1]));
    return 0;
}

int library::communication_end() {
    MPI_Status status[2];
    int ierr;
    ierr = MPI_Waitall(2,request,status); CHK(ierr);
    return 0;
}
```

7.8.4 Listing of code examples/mpi/p/commdup.py

```
import numpy as np
import random # random.randint(1,N), random.random()
from mpi4py import MPI

comm = MPI.COMM_WORLD
procid = comm.Get_rank()
nprocs = comm.Get_size()
if nprocs<2:
```

```

print("C'mon, get real....")
sys.exit(1)

other = nprocs-procid-1
my_requests = [ None ] * 2
my_status = [ MPI.Status() ] * 2
sendbuffer = np.empty(1,dtype=int)
recvbuffer = np.empty(1,dtype=int)

class Library():
    def __init__(self,comm):
        # wrong: self.comm = comm
        self.comm = comm.Dup()
        self.other = self.comm.Get_size()-self.comm.Get_rank()-1
        self.requests = [ None ] * 2
    def __del__(self):
        if self.comm.Get_rank()==0: print(.. freeing communicator")
        self.comm.Free()
    def communication_start(self):
        sendbuf = np.empty(1,dtype=int); sendbuf[0] = 37
        recvbuf = np.empty(1,dtype=int)
        self.requests[0] = self.comm.Isend( sendbuf, dest=other,tag=2 )
        self.requests[1] = self.comm.Irecv( recvbuf, source=other )
    def communication_end(self):
        MPI.Request.Waitall(self.requests)

mylibrary = Library(comm)
my_requests[0] = comm.Isend( sendbuffer,dest=other,tag=1 )
mylibrary.communication_start()
my_requests[1] = comm.Irecv( recvbuffer,source=other )
MPI.Request.Waitall(my_requests,my_status)
mylibrary.communication_end()

if my_status[1].Get_tag()==2:
    print("Caught wrong message!")

```

7.8.5 Listing of code examples/mpi/mppl/commsplit.cxx

```

#include <iostream>
using std::cout;
using std::endl;
#include <mpl/mppl.hpp>

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

    const mpl::communicator &comm_world=mpl::environment::comm_world();
    auto procno = comm_world.rank();
    auto nprocs = comm_world.size();

    // create sub communicator modulo 2
    int color2 = procno % 2;
    mpl::communicator comm2( mpl::communicator::split, comm_world, color2 );
    auto procno2 = comm2.rank();

```

```
// create sub communicator modulo 4 recursively
int color4 = procno2 % 2;
mpl::communicator comm4( mpl::communicator::split, comm2, color4 );
auto procno4 = comm4.rank();

int mod4ranks[nprocs];
comm_world.gather( 0, procno4,mod4ranks );
if (procno==0) {
    cout << "Ranks mod 4:";
    for (int ip=0; ip<nprocs; ip++)
        cout << " " << mod4ranks[ip];
    cout << endl;
}

if (procno/4!=procno4)
    printf("Error %d %d\n",procno,procno4);

if (procno==0)
    printf("Finished\n");

return 0;
}
```

7.8.6 Listing of code examples/mpi/c/intercomm.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
#include "mpi.h"

#ifndef DEBUG
#define DEBUG 0
#endif

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

#include "globalinit.c"

if (nprocs<4) {
    fprintf(stderr,"This program needs at least four processes\n");
    return -1;
}
if (nprocs%2>0) {
    fprintf(stderr,"This program needs an even number of processes\n");
    return -1;
}

int color,colors=2;
MPI_Comm split_half_comm;

int mydata = procno;
```

```
// create sub communicator first & second half
color = procno<nprocs/2 ? 0 : 1;
int key=procno;
if (color==0)
    // first half rotated
    key = ( procno+1 ) % (nprocs/2);
else
    // second half numbered backwards
    key = nprocs-procno;
MPI_Comm_split(MPI_COMM_WORLD,color,key,&split_half_comm);
int sub_procno,sub_nprocs;
MPI_Comm_rank(split_half_comm,&sub_procno);
MPI_Comm_size(split_half_comm,&sub_nprocs);
if (DEBUG) fprintf(stderr,"[%d] key=%d local rank: %d\n",procno,key,sub_procno);

int
local_leader_in_inter_comm
= color==0 ? 2 : (sub_nprocs-2)
,
local_number_of_other_leader
= color==1 ? 2 : (sub_nprocs-2)
;

if (local_leader_in_inter_comm<0 || local_leader_in_inter_comm>=sub_nprocs) {
    fprintf(stderr,
    "[%d] invalid local member: %d\n",
    procno,local_leader_in_inter_comm);
    MPI_Abort(2,comm);
}
int
global_rank_of_other_leader =
1 + ( procno<nprocs/2 ? nprocs/2 : 0 )
;

int
i_am_local_leader = sub_procno==local_leader_in_inter_comm,
inter_tag = 314;
if (i_am_local_leader)
    fprintf(stderr,"[%d] creating intercomm with %d\n",
    procno,global_rank_of_other_leader);
MPI_Comm intercomm;
MPI_Intercomm_create
    /* local_comm:      */ split_half_comm,
    /* local_leader:   */ local_leader_in_inter_comm,
    /* peer_comm:      */ MPI_COMM_WORLD,
    /* remote_peer_rank: */ global_rank_of_other_leader,
    /* tag:           */ inter_tag,
    /* newintercomm:   */ &intercomm );
if (DEBUG) fprintf(stderr,"[%d] intercomm created.\n",procno);

if (i_am_local_leader) {
    int inter_rank,inter_size;
    MPI_Comm_size(intercomm,&inter_size);
```

7. MPI topic: Communicators

```
MPI_Comm_rank(intercomm,&inter_rank);
if (DEBUG) fprintf(stderr,"[%d] inter rank/size: %d/%d\n",procno,inter_rank,inter_size);
}

double interdata=0.;
if (i_am_local_leader) {
    if (color==0) {
        interdata = 1.2;
        int inter_target = local_number_of_other_leader;
        printf(" [%d] sending interdata %e to %d\n",
               procno,interdata,inter_target);
        MPI_Send(&interdata,1,MPI_DOUBLE,inter_target,0,intercomm);
    } else {
        MPI_Status status;
        MPI_Recv(&interdata,1,MPI_DOUBLE,MPI_ANY_SOURCE,MPI_ANY_TAG,intercomm,&status);
        int inter_source = status.MPI_SOURCE;
        printf(" [%d] received interdata %e from %d\n",
               procno,interdata,inter_source);
        if (inter_source!=local_number_of_other_leader)
            fprintf(stderr,
"Got inter communication from unexpected %d; s/b %d\n",
inter_source,local_number_of_other_leader);
    }
}

int root; int bcast_data = procno;
if (color==0) { // sending group: the local leader sends
    if (i_am_local_leader)
        root = MPI_ROOT;
    else
        root = MPI_PROC_NULL;
} else { // receiving group: everyone indicates leader of other group
    root = local_number_of_other_leader;
}
if (DEBUG) fprintf(stderr,"[%d] using root value %d\n",procno,root);
MPI_Bcast(&bcast_data,1,MPI_INT,root,intercomm);
fprintf(stderr,"[%d] bcast data: %d\n",procno,bcast_data);

if (procno==0)
    fprintf(stderr,"Finished\n");

MPI_Finalize();
return 0;
}
```

Chapter 8

MPI topic: Process management

In this course we have up to now only considered the SPMD model of running MPI programs. In some rare cases you may want to run in an MPMD mode, rather than SPMD. This can be achieved either on the OS level, using options of the `mpiexec` mechanism, or you can use MPI's built-in process management. Read on if you're interested in the latter.

8.1 Process spawning

The first version of MPI did not contain any process management routines, even though the earlier *PVM* project did have that functionality. Process management was later added with MPI-2.

Unlike what you might think, newly added processes do not become part of `MPI_COMM_WORLD`; rather, they get their own communicator, and an *inter-communicator* (section 7.6) is established between this new group and the existing one. The first routine is `MPI_Comm_spawn` (figure 8.1), which tries to fire up multiple copies of a single named executable. Errors in starting up these codes are returned in an array of integers, or if you're feeling sure of yourself, specify `MPI_ERRCODES_IGNORE`.

It is not immediately clear whether there is opportunity for spawning new executables; after all, `MPI_COMM_WORLD` contains all your available processors. You can probably tell your job starter to reserve space for a few extra processes, but that is installation-dependent (see below). However, there is a standard mechanism for querying whether such space has been reserved. The attribute `MPI_UNIVERSE_SIZE`, retrieved with `MPI_Comm_get_attr` (section 15.1.2), will tell you to the total number of hosts available.

If this option is not supported, you can determine yourself how many processes you want to spawn. If you exceed the hardware resources, your multi-tasking operating system (which is some variant of Unix for almost everyone) will use *time-slicing* to start the spawned processes, but you will not gain any performance.

Here is an example of a work manager. First we query how much space we have for new processes:

```
|| int universe_size, *universe_size_attr, uflag;
|| MPI_Comm_get_attr
||   (comm_world,MPI_UNIVERSE_SIZE,
||     &universe_size_attr,&uflag);
```

8. MPI topic: Process management

Figure 8.1 MPI_Comm_spawn

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Comm_spawn (
command		name of program to be spawned	const char*	CHARACTER	IN
argv		arguments to command	char* []	CHARACTER(*)	IN
maxprocs		maximum number of processes to start	int	INTEGER	IN
info		a set of key-value pairs telling the runtime system where and how to start the processes	MPI_Info	TYPE (MPI_Info)	IN
root		rank of process in which previous arguments are examined	int	INTEGER	IN
comm		intra-communicator containing group of spawning processes	MPI_Comm	TYPE (MPI_Comm)	IN
intercomm		inter-communicator between original group and the newly spawned group	MPI_Comm*	TYPE (MPI_Comm)	OUT
array_of_errcodes		one code per process	int []	INTEGER(*)	OUT
)					

Python:

```
MPI.Intracomm.Spawn(self,
    command, args=None, int maxprocs=1, Info info=INFO_NULL,
    int root=0, errcodes=None)
returns an intracommunicator
```

```
universe_size = *universe_size_attr;
if (!uflag) universe_size = world_n;
int work_n = universe_size - world_n;
if (world_p==0) {
    printf("A universe of size %d leaves room for %d workers\n",
        universe_size,work_n);
    printf(.. spawning from %s\n",procname);
}
```

For the full source of this example, see section 8.5.2

(See section 15.1.2 for that dereference behavior.)

Use the flag to see if this option is supported:

```
// spawnmanager.c
if (!flag) {
    if (manager_rank==0) {
        printf("This MPI does not support UNIVERSE_SIZE.\nHow many processes total?");
        scanf("%d", &universe_size);
    }
    MPI_Bcast(&universe_size,1,MPI_INTEGER,0,MPI_COMM_WORLD);
```

For the full source of this example, see section 8.5.2

Then we actually spawn the processes:

```
// const char *workerprogram = "./spawnapp";
// MPI_Comm_spawn(workerprogram,MPI_ARGV_NULL,
//                 work_n,MPI_INFO_NULL,
//                 0,comm_world,&comm_inter,NULL);
```

For the full source of this example, see section 8.5.2

```
## spawnmanager.py
try :
    universe_size = comm.Get_attr(MPI.UNIVERSE_SIZE)
    if universe_size is None:
        print("Universe query returned None")
        universe_size = nprocs + 4
    else:
        print("World has {} ranks in a universe of {}"\ \
              .format(nprocs,universe_size))
except :
    print("Exception querying universe size")
    universe_size = nprocs + 4
nworkers = universe_size - nprocs

itercomm = comm.Spawn("./spawn_worker.py", maxprocs=nworkers)
```

For the full source of this example, see section 8.5.3

A process can detect whether it was a spawning or a spawned process by using `MPI_Comm_get_parent`: the resulting intercommunicator is `MPI_COMM_NULL` on the parent processes.

```
// spawnapp.c
MPI_Comm comm_parent;
MPI_Comm_get_parent(&comm_parent);
int is_child = (comm_parent!=MPI_COMM_NULL);
if (is_child) {
    int nworkers,workerno;
    MPI_Comm_size(MPI_COMM_WORLD,&nworkers);
    MPI_Comm_rank(MPI_COMM_WORLD,&workerno);
    printf("I detect I am worker %d/%d running on %s\n",
           workerno,nworkers,procname);
```

For the full source of this example, see section 8.5.4

The spawned program looks very much like a regular MPI program, with its own initialization and finalize calls.

```
// spawnworker.c
MPI_Comm_size(MPI_COMM_WORLD,&nworkers);
MPI_Comm_rank(MPI_COMM_WORLD,&workerno);
MPI_Comm_get_parent(&parent);
```

For the full source of this example, see section 8.5.5

```
## spawnworker.py
parentcomm = comm.Get_parent()
nparents = parentcomm.Get_remote_size()
```

For the full source of this example, see section 8.5.6

Spawned processes wind up with a value of `MPI_COMM_WORLD` of their own, but managers and workers can find each other regardless. The spawn routine returns the intercommunicator to the parent; the children can find it through `MPI_Comm_get_parent` (section 7.6.3). The number of spawning processes can be found through `MPI_Comm_remote_size` on the parent communicator.

```
Running spawnapp with usize=12, wsize=4
%%
%% manager output
%%
A universe of size 12 leaves room for 8 workers
.. spawning from c209-026.frontera.tacc.utexas.edu
%%
%% worker output
%%
Worker deduces 8 workers and 4 parents
I detect I am worker 0/8 running on c209-027.frontera.tacc.utexas.edu
I detect I am worker 1/8 running on c209-027.frontera.tacc.utexas.edu
I detect I am worker 2/8 running on c209-027.frontera.tacc.utexas.edu
I detect I am worker 3/8 running on c209-027.frontera.tacc.utexas.edu
I detect I am worker 4/8 running on c209-028.frontera.tacc.utexas.edu
I detect I am worker 5/8 running on c209-028.frontera.tacc.utexas.edu
I detect I am worker 6/8 running on c209-028.frontera.tacc.utexas.edu
I detect I am worker 7/8 running on c209-028.frontera.tacc.utexas.edu
```

8.1.1 MPI startup with universe

You could start up a single copy of this program with

```
mpiexec -n 1 spawnmanager
```

but with a hostfile that has more than one host.

TACC note. Intel MPI requires you to pass an option `-usize` to `mpiexec` indicating the size of the comm universe. With the TACC jobs starter `ibrun` do the following:

```
export FI_MLX_ENABLE_SPAWN=yes
# specific
MY_MPIRUN_OPTIONS="-usize 8" ibrun -np 4 spawnmanager
# more generic
MY_MPIRUN_OPTIONS="-usize ${SLURM_NPROCS}" ibrun -np 4 spawnmanager
# using mpiexec:
mpiexec -np 2 -usize ${SLURM_NPROCS} spawnmanager
```

8.1.2 MPMD

Instead of spawning a single executable, you can spawn multiple with `MPI_Comm_spawn_multiple`. In that case a process can retrieve with the attribute `MPI_APPNUM` which of the executables it is; section 15.1.2.

Figure 8.2 MPI_Open_port

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Open_port (

Figure 8.3 MPI_Comm_accept

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Comm_accept (
	port_name	port name	const char*	CHARACTER	IN
	info	implementation-dependent information	MPI_Info	TYPE (MPI_Info)	IN
	root	rank in comm of root node	int	INTEGER	IN
	comm	intra-communicator over which call is collective	MPI_Comm	TYPE (MPI_Comm)	IN
	newcomm	inter-communicator with client as remote group	MPI_Comm*	TYPE (MPI_Comm)	OUT
)					

8.2 Socket-style communications

It is possible to establish connections with running MPI programs that have their own world communicator.

- The *server* process establishes a port with `MPI_Open_port`, and calls `MPI_Comm_accept` to accept connections to its port.
- The *client* process specifies that port in an `MPI_Comm_connect` call. This establishes the connection.

8.2.1 Server calls

The server calls `MPI_Open_port` (figure 8.2), yielding a port name. Port names are generated by the system and copied into a character buffer of length at most `MPI_MAX_PORT_NAME`.

The server then needs to call `MPI_Comm_accept` (figure 8.3) prior to the client doing a connect call. This is collective over the calling communicator. It returns an intercommunicator (section 7.6) that allows communication with the client.

```

|| MPI_Comm intercomm;
|| char myport[MPI_MAX_PORT_NAME];
|| MPI_Open_port( MPI_INFO_NULL,myport );
|| int portlen = strlen(myport);
|| MPI_Send( myport,portlen+1,MPI_CHAR,1,0,comm_world );
|| printf("Host sent port <<%s>>\n",myport);
|| MPI_Comm_accept( myport,MPI_INFO_NULL,0,comm_self,&intercomm );

```

8. MPI topic: Process management

Figure 8.4 MPI_Comm_connect

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Comm_connect (
port_name	network address		const char*	CHARACTER	IN
info	implementation-dependent information		MPI_Info	TYPE (MPI_Info)	IN
root	rank in comm of root node		int	INTEGER	IN
comm	intra-communicator over which call is collective		MPI_Comm	TYPE (MPI_Comm)	IN
newcomm	inter-communicator with server as remote group		MPI_Comm*	TYPE (MPI_Comm)	OUT
)					

```
|| printf("host accepted connection\n");
```

For the full source of this example, see section 8.5.7

The port can be closed with `MPI_Close_port`.

8.2.2 Client calls

After the server has generated a port name, the client needs to connect to it with `MPI_Comm_connect` (figure 8.4), again specifying the port through a character buffer. The connect call is collective over its communicator.

```
char myport[MPI_MAX_PORT_NAME];
if (work_p==0) {
    MPI_Recv( myport,MPI_MAX_PORT_NAME,MPI_CHAR,
              MPI_ANY_SOURCE,0, comm_world,MPI_STATUS_IGNORE );
    printf("Worker received port <<%s>>\n",myport);
}
MPI_Bcast( myport,MPI_MAX_PORT_NAME,MPI_CHAR,0,comm_work );

/*
 * The workers collective connect over the inter communicator
 */
MPI_Comm intercomm;
MPI_Comm_connect( myport,MPI_INFO_NULL,0,comm_work,&intercomm );
if (work_p==0) {
    int manage_n;
    MPI_Comm_remote_size(intercomm,&manage_n);
    printf("%d workers connected to %d managers\n",work_n,manage_n);
}
```

For the full source of this example, see section 8.5.7

If the named port does not exist (or has been closed), `MPI_Comm_connect` raises an error of class `MPI_ERR_PORT`.

The client can sever the connection with `MPI_Comm_disconnect`.

Running the above code on 5 processes gives:

Figure 8.5 MPI_Publish_name

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Publish_name (
service_name		a service name to associate with the port	const char*	CHARACTER	IN
info		implementation-specific information	MPI_Info	TYPE (MPI_Info)	IN
port_name		a port name	const char*	CHARACTER	IN
)					

```
# exchange port name:
Host sent port <<tag#0$0FA#000010e1:0001cde9:0001cdee$rdma_port#1024$rdma_host#10:16:225:0:1:205:199:25
Worker received port <<tag#0$0FA#000010e1:0001cde9:0001cdee$rdma_port#1024$rdma_host#10:16:225:0:1:205:

# Comm accept/connect
host accepted connection
4 workers connected to 1 managers

# Send/recv over the intercommunicator
Manager sent 4 items over intercomm
Worker zero received data
```

8.2.3 Published service names

More elegantly than the port mechanism above, it is possible to publish a named service, with `MPI_Publish_name` (figure 8.5), which can then be discovered by other processes.

```
// publishapp.c
MPI_Comm intercomm;
char myport[MPI_MAX_PORT_NAME];
MPI_Open_port( MPI_INFO_NULL,myport );
MPI_Publish_name( service_name, MPI_INFO_NULL, myport );
MPI_Comm_accept( myport,MPI_INFO_NULL,0,comm_self,&intercomm );
```

For the full source of this example, see section 8.5.8

Worker processes connect to the intercommunicator by

```
char myport[MPI_MAX_PORT_NAME];
MPI_Lookup_name( service_name,MPI_INFO_NULL,myport );
MPI_Comm intercomm;
MPI_Comm_connect( myport,MPI_INFO_NULL,0,comm_work,&intercomm );
```

For the full source of this example, see section 8.5.8

For this it is necessary to have a *name server* running.

Intel note. Start the *hydra* name server and use the corresponding mpi starter:

```
hydra_nameserver &
MPIEXEC=mpiexec.hydra
```

8. MPI topic: Process management

Figure 8.6 MPI_Unpublish_name

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Unpublish_name					
	service_name	a service name	const char*	CHARACTER	IN
	info	implementation-specific information	MPI_Info	TYPE (MPI_Info)	IN
	port_name	a port name	const char*	CHARACTER	IN
)					

Figure 8.7 MPI_Comm_join

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Comm_join					
	fd	socket file descriptor	int	INTEGER	IN
	intercomm	new inter-communicator	MPI_Comm*	TYPE (MPI_Comm)	OUT
)					

There is an environment variable, but that doesn't seem to be needed.

```
export I_MPI_HYDRA_NAMESERVER=`hostname` :8008
```

It is also possible to specify the name server as an argument to the job starter.

At the end of a run, the service should be unpublished with `MPI_Unpublish_name` (figure 8.6). Unpublishing a nonexisting or already unpublished service gives an error code of `MPI_ERR_SERVICE`.

MPI provides no guarantee of fairness in servicing connection attempts. That is, connection attempts are not necessarily satisfied in the order in which they were initiated, and competition from other connection attempts may prevent a particular connection attempt from being satisfied.

8.2.4 Unix sockets

It is also possible to create an *intercommunicator* from a Unix *socket* with `MPI_Comm_join` (figure 8.7).

8.3 Sessions

The most common way of initializing MPI, with `MPI_Init` (or `MPI_Init_thread`) and `MPI_Finalize`, is known as the *world model*. This model suffers from some disadvantages:

1. There is no error handling during `MPI_Init`.
2. If multiple libraries are active, they can not initialize or finalize MPI, but have to base themselves on subcommunicators; section 7.2.2.
3. A library can't even

```

|| MPI_Initialized(&flag);
|| if (!flag) MPI_Init(0,0);

```

if it is running in a multi-threaded environment.

The following material is for the recently released MPI-4 standard and may not be supported yet.

In addition to the world, where all MPI is bracketed by `MPI_Init` (or `MPI_Init_thread`) and `MPI_Finalize`, there is the *session model*, where entities such as libraries can start/end their MPI session independently.

The two models can be used in the same program, but there are limitations on how they can mix.

8.3.1 World model versus sessions model

The *world model* of using MPI can be described as:

1. There is a single call to `MPI_Init` or `MPI_Init_thread`;
2. There is a single call to `MPI_Finalize`;
3. With very few exceptions, all MPI calls appear in between the initialize and finalize calls.

This has some problems:

- MPI can not be finalized and restarted;
- there is no threadsafe way of initializing MPI.

In the *session model*, the world model has become a separate way of starting MPI. You can create a communicator using the world model in addition to starting multiple sessions, each on their own set of processes, possibly identical or overlapping. You can also create sessions without have an `MPI_COMM_WORLD` created by the world model.

You can not mix in a single call objects from different sessions, from a session and from the world model, or from a session and from `MPI_Comm_get_parent` or `MPI_Comm_join`.

8.3.2 Session creation

An MPI *session* is initialized and finalized with `MPI_Session_init` and `MPI_Session_finalize`, somewhat similar to `MPI_Init` and `MPI_Finalize`.

```

|| MPI_Session the_session;
|| MPI_Session_init
||   ( session_request_info,MPI_ERRORS_ARE_FATAL,
||     &the_session );
|| MPI_Session_finalize( &the_session );

```

This call is thread-safe, in view of the above reasoning.

8.3.2.1 Session info

The `MPI_Info` object can be null, or it can be used to request a threading level:

8. MPI topic: Process management

```
// session.c
MPI_Info session_request_info = MPI_INFO_NULL;
MPI_Info_create(&session_request_info);
char thread_key[] = "mpi_thread_support_level";
MPI_Info_set(session_request_info,
             thread_key, "MPI_THREAD_MULTIPLE");
```

Other info keys can be implementation-dependent, but the key `thread_support` is pre-defined.

Info keys can be retrieved again with `MPI_Session_get_info`:

```
MPI_Info session_actual_info;
MPI_Session_get_info( the_session,&session_actual_info );
char thread_level[100]; int info_len = 100, flag;
MPI_Info_get_string( session_actual_info,
                     thread_key,&info_len,thread_level,&flag );
```

8.3.2.2 Session error handler

The error handler argument accepts a pre-defined error handler (section 15.2.2) or one create by `MPI_Session_create_errhandler`.

8.3.3 Process sets and communicators

A session has a number of *process sets*. Process sets are indicated with a Uniform Resource Identifier (URI), where the URIs `mpi://WORLD` and `mpi://SELF` are always defined.

You query the ‘psets’ with `MPI_Session_get_num_psets` and `MPI_Session_get_nth_pset`:

```
int npsets;
MPI_Session_get_num_psets
( the_session,MPI_INFO_NULL,&npsets );
if (mainproc) printf("Number of process sets: %d\n",npsets);
for (int ipset=0; ipset<npsets; ipset++) {
    int len_pset; char name_pset[MPI_MAX_PSET_NAME_LEN];
    MPI_Session_get_nth_pset( the_session,MPI_INFO_NULL,
                            ipset,&len_pset,name_pset );
    if (mainproc)
        printf("Process set %2d: <<%s>>\n",ipset,name_pset);
```

The following partial code creates a communicator equivalent to `MPI_COMM_WORLD` in the session model:

```
MPI_Group world_group = MPI_GROUP_NULL;
MPI_Comm world_comm = MPI_COMM_NULL;
MPI_Group_from_session_pset
( the_session,world_name,&world_group );
MPI_Comm_create_from_group
( world_group,"victor-code-session.c",
  MPI_INFO_NULL,MPI_ERRORS_ARE_FATAL,
  &world_comm );
MPI_Group_free( &world_group );
int procid = -1, nprocs = 0;
```

```

|| MPI_Comm_size(world_comm,&nprocs);
|| MPI_Comm_rank(world_comm,&procid);

```

However, comparing communicators (with `MPI_Comm_compare`) from the session and world model, or from different sessions, is undefined behavior.

Get the info object (section 15.1.1) from a process set: `MPI_Session_get_pset_info`. This info object always has the key `mpi_size`.

8.3.4 Example

As an example of the use of sessions, we declare a library class, where each library object starts and ends its own session:

```

// sessionlib.cxx
class Library {
private:
    MPI_Comm world_comm; MPI_Session session;
public:
    Library() {
        MPI_Info info = MPI_INFO_NULL;
        MPI_Session_init
            ( MPI_INFO_NULL,MPI_ERRORS_ARE_FATAL,&session );
        char world_name[] = "mpi://WORLD";
        MPI_Group world_group;
        MPI_Group_from_session_pset
            ( session,world_name,&world_group );
        MPI_Comm_create_from_group
            ( world_group,"world-session",
              MPI_INFO_NULL,MPI_ERRORS_ARE_FATAL,
              &world_comm );
        MPI_Group_free( &world_group );
    };
    ~Library() { MPI_Session_finalize(&session); };
}

```

Now we create a main program, using the world model, which activates two libraries, passing data to them by parameter:

```

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

    Library lib1,lib2;
    MPI_Init(0,0);
    MPI_Comm world = MPI_COMM_WORLD;
    int procno,nprocs;
    MPI_Comm_rank(world,&procno);
    MPI_Comm_size(world,&nprocs);
    auto sum1 = lib1.compute(procno);
    auto sum2 = lib2.compute(procno+1);
}

```

Note that no mpi calls will go between main program and either of the libraries, or between the two libraries, but this seems to make sense in this scenario.

End of MPI-4 material

8.4 Functionality available outside init/finalize

```
MPI_Initialized MPI_Finalized MPI_Get_version MPI_Get_library_version MPI_Info_create  
MPI_Info_create_env MPI_Info_set MPI_Info_delete MPI_Info_get MPI_Info_get_valuelen  
MPI_Info_get_nkeys MPI_Info_get_nthkey MPI_Info_dup MPI_Info_free MPI_Info_f2c MPI_Info_c2f  
MPI_Session_create_errhandler MPI_Session_call_errhandler MPI_Errhandler_free MPI_Errhandler_f2c  
MPI_Errhandler_c2f MPI_Error_string MPI_Error_class
```

Also all routines starting with `MPI_Txxx`.

8.5 Sources used in this chapter

8.5.1 Listing of code header

8.5.2 Listing of code examples/mpi/c/spawnmanager.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include "mpi.h"
int main(int argc, char *argv[])
{

#define ASSERT(p) if (!(p)) {printf("Assertion failed for proc %d at line %d\n",procno,__LINE__); return -1;}
#define ASSERTm(p,m) if (!(p)) {printf("Message<<%s>> for proc %d at line %d\n",m,procno,__LINE__); return -1;}

MPI_Comm comm;
int procno=-1,nprocs,err;
MPI_Init(&argc,&argv);
comm = MPI_COMM_WORLD;
MPI_Comm_rank(comm,&procno);
MPI_Comm_size(comm,&nprocs);
// MPI_Comm_set_errhandler(comm,MPI_ERRORS_RETURN);

/*
 * To investigate process placement, get host name
 */
{
    int namelen = MPI_MAX_PROCESSOR_NAME;
    char procname[namelen];
    MPI_Get_processor_name(procname,&namelen);
    printf("[%d] manager process runs on <<%s>>\n",procno,procname);
}

int world_size,manager_rank,universe_size,*universe_sizep,flag;

MPI_Comm_size(MPI_COMM_WORLD, &world_size);
MPI_Comm_rank(MPI_COMM_WORLD, &manager_rank);
MPI_Comm_get_attr(MPI_COMM_WORLD, MPI_UNIVERSE_SIZE,
                 (void*)&universe_sizep, &flag);

if (!flag) {
    if (manager_rank==0) {
        printf("This MPI does not support UNIVERSE_SIZE.\nHow many processes total?");
        scanf("%d", &universe_size);
    }
    MPI_Bcast(&universe_size,1,MPI_INTEGER,0,MPI_COMM_WORLD);
} else {
    universe_size = *universe_sizep;
    if (manager_rank==0)
        printf("Universe size deduced as %d\n",universe_size);
}
ASSERT(universe_size>world_size,"No room to start workers");
```

8. MPI topic: Process management

```
int nworkers = universe_size-world_size;

/*
 * Now spawn the workers. Note that there is a run-time determination
 * of what type of worker to spawn, and presumably this calculation must
 * be done at run time and cannot be calculated before starting
 * the program. If everything is known when the application is
 * first started, it is generally better to start them all at once
 * in a single MPI_COMM_WORLD.
 */

if (manager_rank==0)
    printf("Now spawning %d workers\n",nworkers);
const char *worker_program = "spawnworker";
int errorcodes[nworkers];
MPI_Comm inter_to_workers;           /* intercommunicator */
MPI_Comm_spawn(worker_program, MPI_ARGV_NULL, nworkers,
               MPI_INFO_NULL, 0, MPI_COMM_WORLD, &inter_to_workers,
               errorcodes);
for (int ie=0; ie<nworkers; ie++)
    if (errorcodes[ie]!=0)
        printf("Error %d in spawning worker %d\n",errorcodes[ie],ie);

/*
 * Parallel code here. The communicator "inter_to_workers" can be used
 * to communicate with the spawned processes, which have ranks 0,..
 * MPI_UNIVERSE_SIZE-1 in the remote group of the intercommunicator
 * "inter_to_workers".
 */

MPI_Finalize();
return 0;
}
```

8.5.3 Listing of code examples/mpi/p/spawnmanager.py

```
import numpy as np
import random # random.randint(1,N), random.random()
import sys

from mpi4py import MPI

comm = MPI.COMM_WORLD
procid = comm.Get_rank()
nprocs = comm.Get_size()

try :
    universe_size = comm.Get_attr(MPI.UNIVERSE_SIZE)
    if universe_size is None:
        print("Universe query returned None")
        universe_size = nprocs + 4
    else:
```

```
        print("World has {} ranks in a universe of {}"\ \
              .format(nprocs,universe_size))
except :
    print("Exception querying universe size")
    universe_size = nprocs + 4
nworkers = universe_size - nprocs

itercomm = comm.Spawn("./spawn_worker.py", maxprocs=nworkers)
```

8.5.4 Listing of code examples/mpi/c/spawnapp.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <memory.h>
#include <mpi.h>

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

    MPI_Init(&argc,&argv);
    MPI_Comm
        comm_world = MPI_COMM_WORLD,
        comm_self = MPI_COMM_SELF,
        comm_inter;
    int world_p,world_n;
    MPI_Comm_size(comm_world,&world_n);
    MPI_Comm_rank(comm_world,&world_p);

    int len = MPI_MAX_PROCESSOR_NAME;
    char procname[MPI_MAX_PROCESSOR_NAME];
    MPI_Get_processor_name(procname,&len);

    MPI_Comm comm_parent;
    MPI_Comm_get_parent(&comm_parent);
    int is_child = (comm_parent!=MPI_COMM_NULL);
    if (is_child) {
        int nworkers,workerno;
        MPI_Comm_size(MPI_COMM_WORLD,&nworkers);
        MPI_Comm_rank(MPI_COMM_WORLD,&workerno);
        printf("I detect I am worker %d/%d running on %s\n",
               workerno,nworkers,procname);

        int remotesize;
        MPI_Comm_remote_size(comm_parent, &remotesize);
        if (workerno==0) {
            printf("Worker deduces %d workers and %d parents\n",nworkers,remotesize);
        }
    }

} else {
/*
 * Detect how many workers we can spawn
 */
    int universe_size, *universe_size_attr,uflag;
    MPI_Comm_get_attr
```

```

(comm_world,MPI_UNIVERSE_SIZE,
 &universe_size_attr,&uflag);
universe_size = *universe_size_attr;
if (!uflag) universe_size = world_n;
int work_n = universe_size - world_n;
if (world_p==0) {
    printf("A universe of size %d leaves room for %d workers\n",
           universe_size,work_n);
    printf(.. spawning from %s\n",procname);
}
if (work_n<=0)
    MPI_Abort(comm_world,1);
const char *workerprogram = "./spawnapp";
MPI_Comm_spawn(workerprogram,MPI_ARGV_NULL,
               work_n,MPI_INFO_NULL,
               0,comm_world,&comm_inter,NULL);
}
MPI_Finalize();

return 0;
}

```

8.5.5 Listing of code examples/mpi/c/spawnworker.c

```

#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include "mpi.h"

int main(int argc, char *argv[])
{
#define ASSERT(p) if (!(p)) {printf("Assertion failed for proc %d at line %d\n",procno,__LINE__); return -1;}
#define ASSERTm(p,m) if (!(p)) {printf("Message<<%s>> for proc %d at line %d\n",m,procno,__LINE__); return -1;}

    MPI_Comm comm;
    int procno=-1,nprocs,err;
    MPI_Init(&argc,&argv);
    comm = MPI_COMM_WORLD;
    MPI_Comm_rank(comm,&procno);
    MPI_Comm_size(comm,&nprocs);
    MPI_Comm_set_errhandler(comm,MPI_ERRORS_RETURN);

    int remotesize,nworkers,workerno;
    MPI_Comm parent;

    MPI_Comm_size(MPI_COMM_WORLD,&nworkers);
    MPI_Comm_rank(MPI_COMM_WORLD,&workerno);
    MPI_Comm_get_parent(&parent);
    ASSERTm(parent!=MPI_COMM_NULL,"No parent!");
}

```

```
/*
 * To investigate process placement, get host name
 */
{
    int namelen = MPI_MAX_PROCESSOR_NAME;
    char procname[namelen];
    MPI_Get_processor_name(procname,&namelen);
    printf("[%d] worker process runs on <<%s>>\n",workerno,procname);
}

/*
 * Parallel code here.
 * The manager is represented as the process with rank 0 in (the remote
 * group of) MPI_COMM_PARENT. If the workers need to communicate among
 * themselves, they can use MPI_COMM_WORLD.
 */

char hostname[256]; int namelen = 256;
MPI_Get_processor_name(hostname,&namelen);
printf("worker %d running on %s\n",workerno,hostname);

MPI_Finalize();
return 0;
}
```

8.5.6 Listing of code examples/mpi/p/spawnworker.py

```
import numpy as np
import random # random.randint(1,N), random.random()

from mpi4py import MPI

comm = MPI.COMM_WORLD
procid = comm.Get_rank()
nprocs = comm.Get_size()

if procid==0:
    print("#workers:",nprocs)

parentcomm = comm.Get_parent()
nparents = parentcomm.Get_remote_size()

print("#parents=",nparents)
```

8.5.7 Listing of code examples/mpi/c/portapp.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <memory.h>
#include <mpi.h>
```

8. MPI topic: Process management

```
int main(int argc,char **argv) {

    MPI_Init(&argc,&argv);
    MPI_Comm
        comm_world = MPI_COMM_WORLD,
        comm_self = MPI_COMM_SELF;

    int world_p,world_n;
    MPI_Comm_size(comm_world,&world_n);
    MPI_Comm_rank(comm_world,&world_p);

    /*
     * Set up a communicator for all the worker ranks
     */
    MPI_Comm comm_work;
    {
        MPI_Group group_world,group_work;
        MPI_Comm_group( comm_world,&group_world );
        int manager[] = {0};
        MPI_Group_excl( group_world,1,manager,&group_work );
        MPI_Comm_create( comm_world,group_work,&comm_work );
        MPI_Group_free( &group_world ); MPI_Group_free( &group_work );
    }

    if (world_p==0) {
        /*
         * On world process zero open a port, and
         * send its name to world process 1,
         * which is zero in the worker comm.
         */
        MPI_Comm intercomm;
        char myport[MPI_MAX_PORT_NAME];
        MPI_Open_port( MPI_INFO_NULL,myport );
        int portlen = strlen(myport);
        MPI_Send( myport,portlen+1,MPI_CHAR,1,0,comm_world );
        printf("Host sent port <%s>\n",myport);
        MPI_Comm_accept( myport,MPI_INFO_NULL,0,comm_self,&intercomm );
        printf("host accepted connection\n");

        /*
         * After the workers have accept the connection,
         * we can talk over the inter communicator
         */
        int work_n;
        MPI_Comm_remote_size(intercomm,&work_n);
        double work_data[work_n];
        MPI_Send( work_data,work_n,MPI_DOUBLE,
            /* to rank zero of worker comm */ 0,0,intercomm );
        printf("Manager sent %d items over intercomm\n",work_n);
        /*
         * After we're done, close the port
         */
        MPI_Close_port(myport);
    }
}
```

```
    } else {

        int work_p,work_n;
        MPI_Comm_size( comm_work,&work_n );
        MPI_Comm_rank( comm_work,&work_p );
        /*
         * In the workers communicator, rank 0
         * (which is 1 in the global)
         * receives the port name and passes it on.
         */
        char myport[MPI_MAX_PORT_NAME];
        if (work_p==0) {
            MPI_Recv( myport,MPI_MAX_PORT_NAME,MPI_CHAR,
                      MPI_ANY_SOURCE,0, comm_world,MPI_STATUS_IGNORE );
            printf("Worker received port <<%s>>\n",myport);
        }
        MPI_Bcast( myport,MPI_MAX_PORT_NAME,MPI_CHAR,0,comm_work );

        /*
         * The workers collective connect over the inter communicator
         */
        MPI_Comm intercomm;
        MPI_Comm_connect( myport,MPI_INFO_NULL,0,comm_work,&intercomm );
        if (work_p==0) {
            int manage_n;
            MPI_Comm_remote_size(intercomm,&manage_n);
            printf("%d workers connected to %d managers\n",work_n,manage_n);
        }

        /*
         * The local leader receives work from the manager
         */
        if (work_p==0) {
            double work_data[work_n];
            MPI_Status work_status;
            MPI_Recv( work_data,work_n,MPI_DOUBLE,
/* from rank zero of manager comm */ 0,0,intercomm,&work_status );
            int work_count;
            MPI_Get_count(&work_status,MPI_DOUBLE,&work_count);
            printf("Worker zero received %d data items from manager\n",work_count);
        }
        /*
         * After we're done, close the connection
         */
        MPI_Close_port(myport);
    }

    MPI_Finalize();

    return 0;
}
```

8.5.8 Listing of code examples/mpi/c/publishapp.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <memory.h>
#include <mpi.h>

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

    MPI_Init(&argc,&argv);
    MPI_Comm
        comm_world = MPI_COMM_WORLD,
        comm_self = MPI_COMM_SELF;

    int world_p,world_n;
    MPI_Comm_size(comm_world,&world_n);
    MPI_Comm_rank(comm_world,&world_p);

    /*
     * Set up a communicator for all the worker ranks
     */
    MPI_Comm comm_work;
    {
        MPI_Group group_world,group_work;
        MPI_Comm_group( comm_world,&group_world );
        int manager[] = {0};
        MPI_Group_excl( group_world,1,manager,&group_work );
        MPI_Comm_create( comm_world,group_work,&comm_work );
        MPI_Group_free( &group_world ); MPI_Group_free( &group_work );
    }

    char
        service_name[] = "exampleservice";
    if (world_p==0) {
        /*
         * On world process zero open a port, and
         * send its name to world process 1,
         * which is zero in the worker comm.
         */
        MPI_Comm intercomm;
        char myport[MPI_MAX_PORT_NAME];
        MPI_Open_port( MPI_INFO_NULL,myport );
        MPI_Publish_name( service_name, MPI_INFO_NULL, myport );
        MPI_Comm_accept( myport,MPI_INFO_NULL,0,comm_self,&intercomm );
        printf("Manager accepted connection on port <%s>\n",myport);

        /*
         * After the workers have accept the connection,
         * we can talk over the inter communicator
         */
        int work_n;
        MPI_Comm_remote_size(intercomm,&work_n);
        double work_data[work_n];
        MPI_Send( work_data,work_n,MPI_DOUBLE,
```

```
/* to rank zero of worker comm */ 0,0,intercomm );
printf("Manager sent %d items over intercomm\n",work_n);
/*
 * After we're done, close the port, and unpublish the service
 */
MPI_Close_port(myport);
MPI_Unpublish_name( service_name, MPI_INFO_NULL, myport );

} else {

/*
 * See if we can find the service
 */
char myport[MPI_MAX_PORT_NAME];
MPI_Lookup_name( service_name,MPI_INFO_NULL,myport );

/*
 * The workers collective connect over the inter communicator
 */
MPI_Comm intercomm;
MPI_Comm_connect( myport,MPI_INFO_NULL,0,comm_work,&intercomm );

int work_p,work_n;
MPI_Comm_size( comm_work,&work_n );
MPI_Comm_rank( comm_work,&work_p );

if (work_p==0) {
    int manage_n;
    MPI_Comm_remote_size(intercomm,&manage_n);
    printf("%d workers connected to %d managers\n",work_n,manage_n);
}

/*
 * The local leader receives work from the manager
 */
if (work_p==0) {
    double work_data[work_n];
    MPI_Status work_status;
    MPI_Recv( work_data,work_n,MPI_DOUBLE,
/* from rank zero of manager comm */ 0,0,intercomm,&work_status );
    int work_count;
    MPI_Get_count(&work_status,MPI_DOUBLE,&work_count);
    printf("Worker zero received %d data items from manager\n",work_count);
}
/*
 * After we're done, close the connection
 */
MPI_Close_port(myport);
}

MPI_Finalize();

return 0;
```

}

Chapter 9

MPI topic: One-sided communication

Above, you saw point-to-point operations of the two-sided type: they require the co-operation of a sender and receiver. This co-operation could be loose: you can post a receive with `MPI_ANY_SOURCE` as sender, but there had to be both a send and receive call. This two-sidedness can be limiting. Consider code where the receiving process is a dynamic function of the data:

```
|| x = f();
|| p = hash(x);
|| MPI_Send( x, /* to: */ p );
```

The problem is now: how does `p` know to post a receive, and how does everyone else know not to?

In this section, you will see one-sided communication routines where a process can do a ‘put’ or ‘get’ operation, writing data to or reading it from another processor, without that other processor’s involvement.

In one-sided MPI operations, known as Remote Memory Access (RMA) operations in the standard, or as Remote Direct Memory Access (RDMA) in other literature, there are still two processes involved: the *origin*, which is the process that originates the transfer, whether this is a ‘put’ or a ‘get’, and the *target* whose memory is being accessed. Unlike with two-sided operations, the target does not perform an action that is the counterpart of the action on the origin.

That does not mean that the origin can access arbitrary data on the target at arbitrary times. First of all, one-sided communication in MPI is limited to accessing only a specifically declared memory area on the target: the target declares an area of memory that is accessible to other processes. This is known as a *window*. Windows limit how origin processes can access the target’s memory: you can only ‘get’ data from a window or ‘put’ it into a window; all the other memory is not reachable from other processes. On the origin there is no such limitation; any data can function as the source of a ‘put’ or the recipient of a ‘get’ operation.

The alternative to having windows is to use *distributed shared memory* or *virtual shared memory*: memory is distributed but acts as if it shared. The so-called Partitioned Global Address Space (PGAS) languages such as Unified Parallel C (UPC) use this model.

Within one-sided communication, MPI has two modes: active RMA and passive RMA. In *active RMA*, or *active target synchronization*, the target sets boundaries on the time period (the ‘epoch’) during which its window can be accessed. The main advantage of this mode is that the origin program can perform many

small transfers, which are aggregated behind the scenes. This would be appropriate for applications that are structured in a Bulk Synchronous Parallel (BSP) mode with *supersteps*. Active RMA acts much like asynchronous transfer with a concluding [MPI_Waitall](#).

In *passive RMA*, or *passive target synchronization*, the target process puts no limitation on when its window can be accessed. (PGAS languages such as UPC are based on this model: data is simply read or written at will.) While intuitively it is attractive to be able to write to and read from a target at arbitrary time, there are problems. For instance, it requires a remote agent on the target, which may interfere with execution of the main thread, or conversely it may not be activated at the optimal time. Passive RMA is also very hard to debug and can lead to race conditions.

9.1 Windows

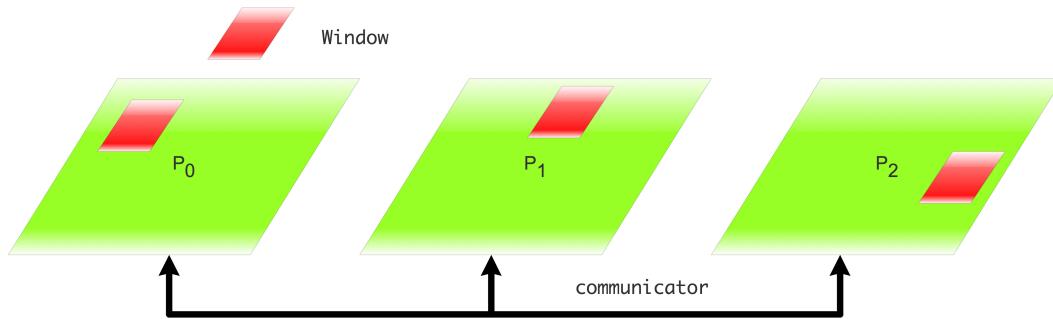


Figure 9.1: Collective definition of a window for one-sided data access

In one-sided communication, each processor can make an area of memory, called a *window*, available to one-sided transfers. This is stored in a variable of type [MPI_Win](#). A process can put an arbitrary item from its own memory (not limited to any window) to the window of another process, or get something from the other process' window in its own memory.

A window can be characterized as follows:

- The window is defined on a communicator, so the create call is collective; see figure 9.1.
- The window size can be set individually on each process. A zero size is allowed, but since window creation is collective, it is not possible to skip the create call.
- You can set a ‘displacement unit’ for the window: this is a number of bytes that will be used as the indexing unit. For example if you use `sizeof(double)` as the displacement unit, an [MPI_Put](#) to location 8 will go to the 8th double. That’s easier than having to specify the 64th byte.
- The window is the target of data in a put operation, or the source of data in a get operation; see figure 9.2.
- There can be memory associated with a window, so it needs to be freed explicitly with [MPI_Win_free](#).

The typical calls involved are:

Figure 9.1 MPI_Win_create

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
<code>MPI_Win_create (</code>					
<code> MPI_Win_create_c (</code>					
<code>base</code>		initial address of window	<code>void*</code>	<code>TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>size</code>		size of window in bytes	<code>MPI_Aint</code>	<code>INTEGER (KIND=MPI_ADDRESS_KIND)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>disp_unit</code>		local unit size for displacements, in bytes	<code>[int MPI_Aint]</code>	<code>INTEGER</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>info</code>		info argument	<code>MPI_Info</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Info)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>comm</code>		intra-communicator	<code>MPI_Comm</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Comm)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>)</code>		window object	<code>MPI_Win*</code>	<code>TYPE(MPI_Win)</code>	<code>OUT</code>

Python:

```
MPI.Win.Create
(memory, int disp_unit=1,
 Info info=INFO_NULL, Intracomm comm=COMM_SELF)
```

```
||| MPI_Info info;
||| MPI_Win window;
||| MPI_Win_allocate( /* size info */, info, comm, &memory, &window );
// do put and get calls
||| MPI_Win_free( &window );
```

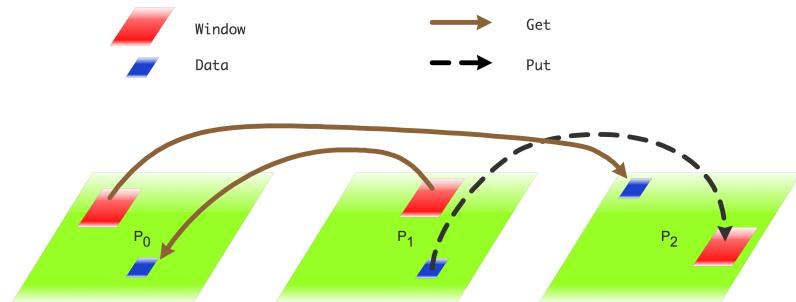


Figure 9.2: Put and get between process memory and windows

9.1.1 Window creation and freeing

The memory for a window is at first sight ordinary data in user space. There are multiple ways you can associate data with a window:

1. You can pass a user buffer to `MPI_Win_create` (figure 9.1). This buffer can be an ordinary array, or it can be created with `MPI_Alloc_mem`. (In the former case, it may not be possible to lock the window; section 9.4.)

Figure 9.2 MPI_Win_allocate

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
<code>MPI_Win_allocate</code>					
	<code>MPI_Win_allocate_c</code>				
	<code>size</code>	size of window in bytes	<code>MPI_Aint</code>	<code>INTEGER (KIND=MPI_ADDRESS_KIND)</code>	IN
	<code>disp_unit</code>	local unit size for displacements, in bytes	<code>[int MPI_Aint]</code>	<code>INTEGER</code>	IN
	<code>info</code>	info argument	<code>MPI_Info</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Info)</code>	IN
	<code>comm</code>	intra-communicator	<code>MPI_Comm</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Comm)</code>	IN
	<code>baseptr</code>	initial address of window	<code>void*</code>	<code>TYPE(C_PTR)</code>	OUT
	<code>win</code>	window object returned by call	<code>MPI_Win*</code>	<code>TYPE(MPI_Win)</code>	OUT
)				

2. You can let MPI do the allocation, so that MPI can perform various optimizations regarding placement of the memory. The user code then receives the pointer to the data from MPI. This can again be done in two ways:
 - Use `MPI_Win_allocate` (figure 9.2) to create the data and the window in one call.
 - If a communicator is on a shared memory (see section 12.1) you can create a window in that shared memory with `MPI_Win_allocate_shared`. This will be useful for MPI *shared memory*; see chapter 12.
3. Finally, you can create a window with `MPI_Win_create_dynamic` which postpones the allocation; see section 9.5.2.

First of all, `MPI_Win_create` creates a window from a pointer to memory. The data array must not be `PARAMETER` or `static const`.

The size parameter is measured in bytes. In C this can be done with the `sizeof` operator;

```
// putfencealloc.c
MPI_Win the_window;
int *window_data;
MPI_Win_allocate(2*sizeof(int),sizeof(int),
                MPI_INFO_NULL,comm,
                &window_data,&the_window);
```

For the full source of this example, see section 9.9.2

for doing this calculation in Fortran, see section 15.3.1.

Python note 24: Displacement byte computations. For computing the displacement in bytes, here is a good way for finding the size of `numpy` datatypes:

```
## putfence.py
intsize = np.dtype('int').itemsize
window_data = np.zeros(2,dtype=int)
win = MPI.Win.Create(window_data,intsize,comm=comm)
```

Figure 9.3 MPI_Alloc_mem

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
<code>MPI_Alloc_mem (</code>					
<code>size</code>		size of memory segment in bytes	<code>MPI_Aint</code>	<code>INTEGER</code> <code>(KIND=MPI_ADDRESS_KIND)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>info</code>		info argument	<code>MPI_Info</code>	<code>TYPE</code> <code>(MPI_Info)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>baseptr</code>		pointer to beginning of memory segment allocated	<code>void*</code>	<code>TYPE(C_PTR)</code>	<code>OUT</code>
<code>)</code>					

For the full source of this example, see section 9.9.3

Next, one can obtain the memory from MPI by using `MPI_Win_allocate`, which has the data pointer as output. Note the `void*` in the C signature; it is still necessary to pass a pointer to a pointer:

```
// double *window_data;
MPI_Win_allocate( ... &window_data ... );
```

The routine `MPI_Alloc_mem` (figure 9.3) performs only the allocation part of `MPI_Win_allocate`, after which you need to `MPI_Win_create`.

- An error of `MPI_ERR_NO_MEM` indicates that no memory could be allocated.

The following material is for the recently released MPI-4 standard and may not be supported yet.

- Allocated memory can be aligned by specifying an `MPI_Info` key of `mpi_minimum_memory_alignment`.

End of MPI-4 material

This memory is freed with `MPI_Free_mem`:

```
// getfence.c
int *number_buffer = NULL;
MPI_Alloc_mem
(
    /* size: */ 2*sizeof(int),
    MPI_INFO_NULL,&number_buffer);
MPI_Win_create
(
    number_buffer,2*sizeof(int),sizeof(int),
    MPI_INFO_NULL,comm,&the_window);
MPI_Win_free(&the_window);
MPI_Free_mem(number_buffer);
```

(Note the lack of an ampersand in the free call!)

These calls reduce to `malloc` and `free` if there is no special memory area; SGI is an example where such memory does exist.

A window is freed with a call to the collective `MPI_Win_free` (figure 9.4), which sets the window handle to `MPI_WIN_NULL`. This call must only be done if all RMA operations are concluded, by `MPI_Win_fence`, `MPI_Win_wait`, `MPI_Win_complete`, `MPI_Win_unlock`, depending on the case. If the window memory was allocated internally by MPI through a call to `MPI_Win_allocate` or `MPI_Win_allocate_shared`, it is freed. User memory used for the window can be freed after the `MPI_Win_free` call.

Figure 9.4 MPI_Win_free

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Win_free	(win)	window object	MPI_Win*	TYPE(MPI_Win)	INOUT

There will be more discussion of window memory in section 9.5.1.

Python note 25: Window buffers. Unlike in C, the python window allocate call does not return a pointer to the buffer memory, but an `MPI.memory` object. Should you need the bare memory, there are the following options:

- Window objects expose the Python buffer interface. So you can do Pythonic things like

```
|| mview = memoryview(win)
|| array = numpy.frombuffer(win, dtype='i4')
```

- If you really want the raw base pointer (as an integer), you can do any of these:

```
|| base, size, disp_unit = win.atts
|| base = win.Get_attr(MPI.WIN_BASE)
```

- You can use mpi4py's builtin memoryview/buffer-like type, but I do not recommend it, much better to use NumPy as above:

```
|| mem = win.tomemory() # type(mem) is MPI.memory, similar to memoryview, but quite
||     →limited in functionality
|| base = mem.address
|| size = mem.nbytes
```

9.1.2 Address arithmetic

Working with windows involves a certain amount of arithmetic on addresses, meaning `MPI_Aint`. See `MPI_Aint_add` and `MPI_Aint_diff` in section 6.2.4.

9.2 Active target synchronization: epochs

One-sided communication has an obvious complication over two-sided: if you do a put call instead of a send, how does the recipient know that the data is there? This process of letting the target know the state of affairs is called ‘synchronization’, and there are various mechanisms for it. First of all we will consider *active target synchronization*. Here the target knows when the transfer may happen (the *communication epoch*), but does not do any data-related calls.

In this section we look at the first mechanism, which is to use a *fence* operation: `MPI_Win_fence` (figure 9.5). This operation is collective on the communicator of the window. (Another, more sophisticated mechanism for active target synchronization is discussed in section 9.2.2.)

The interval between two fences is known as an *epoch*. Roughly speaking, in an epoch you can make one-sided communication calls, and after the concluding fence all these communications are concluded.

Figure 9.5 MPI_Win_fence

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Win_fence (

Python:

```
win.Fence(self, int assertion=0)
```

```
||| MPI_Win_fence(0,win);
||| MPI_Get( /* operands */, win);
||| MPI_Win_fence(0, win);
||| // the `got' data is available
```

In between the two fences the window is exposed, and while it is you should not access it locally. If you absolutely need to access it locally, you can use an RMA operation for that. Also, there can be only one remote process that does a put; multiple accumulate accesses are allowed.

Fences are, together with other window calls, collective operations. That means they imply some amount of synchronization between processes. Consider:

```
||| MPI_Win_fence( ... win ... ); // start an epoch
||| if (mytid==0) // do lots of work
||| MPI_Win_fence( ... win ... ); // end the epoch
```

and assume that all processes execute the first fence more or less at the same time. The zero process does work before it can do the second fence call, but all other processes can call it immediately. However, they can not finish that second fence call until all one-sided communication is finished, which means they wait for the zero process.

As a further restriction, you can not mix `MPI_Get` with `MPI_Put` or `MPI_Accumulate` calls in a single epoch. Hence, we can characterize an epoch as an *access epoch* on the origin, and as an *exposure epoch* on the target.

9.2.1 Fence assertions

You can give various hints to the system about this epoch versus the ones before and after through the `assert` parameter.

- `MPI_MODE_NOSTORE` This value can be specified or not per process.
- `MPI_MODE_NOPUT` This value can be specified or not per process.
- `MPI_MODE_NOPRECEDE` This value has to be specified or not the same on all processes.
- `MPI_MODE_NOSUCCEED` This value has to be specified or not the same on all processes.

Example:

```
||| MPI_Win_fence((MPI_MODE_NOPUT | MPI_MODE_NOPRECEDE), win);
||| MPI_Get( /* operands */, win);
||| MPI_Win_fence(MPI_MODE_NOSUCCEED, win);
```

9. MPI topic: One-sided communication

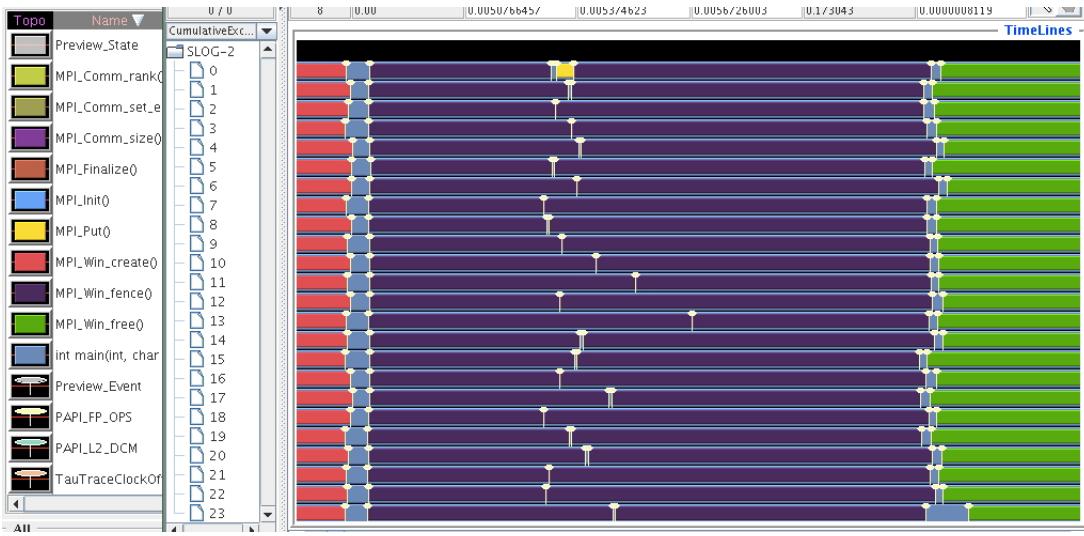


Figure 9.3: A trace of a one-sided communication epoch where process zero only originates a one-sided transfer

Assertions are an integer parameter: you can combine assertions by adding them or using logical-or. The value zero is always correct. For further information, see section 9.6.

9.2.2 Non-global target synchronization

The ‘fence’ mechanism (section 9.2) uses a global synchronization on the communicator of the window, giving a program a BSP like character. As such it is good for applications where the processes are largely synchronized, but it may lead to performance inefficiencies if processors are not in step with each other. Also, global synchronization may have hardware support, making this less restrictive than it may at first seem.

There is a mechanism that is more fine-grained, by using synchronization only on a processor *group*. This takes four different calls, two for starting and two for ending the epoch, separately for target and origin.

You start and complete an *exposure epoch* with `MPI_Win_post / MPI_Win_wait`:

```
|| int MPI_Win_post(MPI_Group group, int assert, MPI_Win win)
|| int MPI_Win_wait(MPI_Win win)
```

In other words, this turns your window into the *target* for a remote access. There is a non-blocking version `MPI_Win_test` of `MPI_Win_wait`.

You start and complete an *access epoch* with `MPI_Win_start / MPI_Win_complete`:

```
|| int MPI_Win_start(MPI_Group group, int assert, MPI_Win win)
|| int MPI_Win_complete(MPI_Win win)
```

In other words, these calls border the access to a remote window, with the current processor being the *origin* of the remote access.

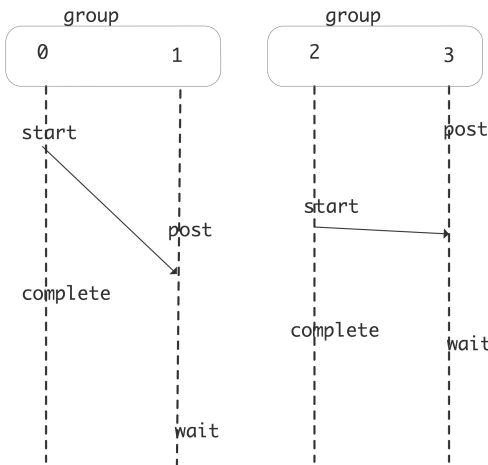


Figure 9.4: Window locking calls in fine-grained active target synchronization

In the following snippet a single processor puts data on one other. Note that they both have their own definition of the group, and that the receiving process only does the post and wait calls.

```

// postwaitwin.c
MPI_Comm_group(comm, &all_group);
if (procno==origin) {
    MPI_Group_incl(all_group, 1, &target, &two_group);
    // access
    MPI_Win_start(two_group, 0, the_window);
    MPI_Put( /* data on origin: */ &my_number, 1, MPI_INT,
            /* data on target: */ target, 0, 1, MPI_INT,
            the_window);
    MPI_Win_complete(the_window);
}

if (procno==target) {
    MPI_Group_incl(all_group, 1, &origin, &two_group);
    // exposure
    MPI_Win_post(two_group, 0, the_window);
    MPI_Win_wait(the_window);
}

```

For the full source of this example, see section 9.9.4

Both pairs of operations declare a *group of processors*; see section 7.5.1 for how to get such a group from a communicator. On an origin processor you would specify a group that includes the targets you will interact with, on a target processor you specify a group that includes the possible origins.

9.3 Put, get, accumulate

We will now look at the first three routines for doing one-sided operations: the Put, Get, and Accumulate call. (We will look at so-called ‘atomic’ operations in section 9.3.7.) These calls are somewhat similar to a

Figure 9.6 MPI_Put

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
<code>MPI_Put (</code>					
<code> MPI_Put_c (</code>					
<code>origin_addr</code>	<code>origin_addr</code>	initial address of origin buffer	<code>const void*</code>	<code>TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>origin_count</code>	<code>origin_count</code>	number of entries in origin buffer	<code>[int MPI_Count</code>	<code>INTEGER</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>origin_datatype</code>	<code>origin_datatype</code>	datatype of each entry in origin buffer	<code> MPI_Datatype</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Datatype)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>target_rank</code>	<code>target_rank</code>	rank of target	<code> int</code>	<code>INTEGER</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>target_disp</code>	<code>target_disp</code>	displacement from start of window to target buffer	<code> MPI_Aint</code>	<code>INTEGER</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>target_count</code>	<code>target_count</code>	number of entries in target buffer	<code> [int MPI_Count</code>	<code>INTEGER</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>target_datatype</code>	<code>target_datatype</code>	datatype of each entry in target buffer	<code> MPI_Datatype</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Datatype)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>win</code>	<code>win</code>	window object used for communication	<code> MPI_Win</code>	<code>TYPE(MPI_Win)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>)</code>					

Python:

```
win.Put(self, origin, int target_rank, target=None)
```

Send, Receive and Reduce, except that of course only one process makes a call. Since one process does all the work, its calling sequence contains both a description of the data on the origin (the calling process) and the target (the affected other process).

As in the two-sided case, `MPI_PROC_NULL` can be used as a target rank.

The Accumulate routine has an `MPI_Op` argument that can be any of the usual operators, but no user-defined ones (see section 3.10.1).

9.3.1 Put

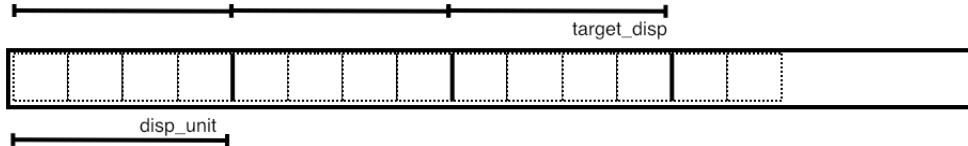
The `MPI_Put` (figure 9.6) call can be considered as a one-sided send. As such, it needs to specify

- the target rank
- the data to be sent from the origin, and
- the location where it is to be written on the target.

The description of the data on the origin is the usual trio of buffer/count/datatype. However, the description of the data on the target is more complicated. It has a count and a datatype, but additionally it has a *displacement* with respect to the start of the window on the target. This displacement can be given in bytes, so its type is `MPI_Aint`, but strictly speaking it is a multiple of the displacement unit that was specified in the window definition.

Specifically, data is written starting at

$$\text{window_base} + \text{target_disp} \times \text{disp_unit}.$$



Here is a single put operation. Note that the window create and window fence calls are collective, so they have to be performed on all processors of the communicator that was used in the create call.

```
// putfence.c
MPI_Win the_window;
MPI_Win_create
    (&window_data,2*sizeof(int),sizeof(int),
     MPI_INFO_NULL,comm,&the_window);
MPI_Win_fence(0,the_window);
if (procno==0) {
    MPI_Put
        ( /* data on origin: */   &my_number, 1,MPI_INT,
         /* data on target: */   other,1,      1,MPI_INT,
         the_window);
}
MPI_Win_fence(0,the_window);
MPI_Win_free(&the_window);
```

For the full source of this example, see section 9.9.5

Fortran note 11: Displacement unit. The `disp_unit` variable is declared as an integer of ‘kind’ `MPI_ADDRESS_KIND`:

```
!! putfence.F90
integer(kind=MPI_ADDRESS_KIND) :: target_displacement
target_displacement = 1
call MPI_Put( my_number, 1,MPI_INTEGER, &
              other,target_displacement, &
              1,MPI_INTEGER, &
              the_window)
```

For the full source of this example, see section 9.9.6

Prior to Fortran2008, specifying a literal constant, such as 0, could lead to bizarre runtime errors; the solution was to specify a zero-valued variable of the right type. With the `mpi_f08` module this is no longer allowed. Instead you get an error such as

error #6285: There is no matching specific subroutine for this generic subroutine call. [MPI]

Python note 26: MPI one-sided transfer routines. `MPI_Put` (and Get and Accumulate) accept at minimum the origin buffer and the target rank. The displacement is by default zero.

Exercise 9.1. Revisit exercise 4.3 and solve it using `MPI_Put`.

(There is a skeleton for this exercise under the name `rightput`.)

Exercise 9.2. Write code where:

- process 0 computes a random number r
- if $r < .5$, zero writes in the window on 1;
- if $r \geq .5$, zero writes in the window on 2.

Figure 9.7 MPI_Get

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Get (
MPI_Get_c (
origin_addr		initial address of origin buffer	void*	TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)	OUT
origin_count		number of entries in origin buffer	[int MPI_Count]	INTEGER	IN
origin_datatype		datatype of each entry in origin buffer	MPI_Datatype	TYPE (MPI_Datatype)	IN
target_rank		rank of target	int	INTEGER	IN
target_disp		displacement from window start to the beginning of the target buffer	MPI_Aint	INTEGER (KIND=MPI_ADDRESS_KIND)	IN
target_count		number of entries in target buffer	[int MPI_Count]	INTEGER	IN
target_datatype		datatype of each entry in target buffer	MPI_Datatype	TYPE (MPI_Datatype)	IN
win		window object used for communication	MPI_Win	TYPE(MPI_Win)	IN
)					

Python:

```
win.Get(self, origin, int target_rank, target=None)
```

(There is a skeleton for this exercise under the name randomput.)

Solution to exercise 9.2.

9.3.2 Get

The MPI_Get (figure 9.7) call is very similar.

Example:

```
|| MPI_Win_fence(0,the_window);
|| if (procno==0) {
||   MPI_Get( /* data on origin: */ &my_number, 1,MPI_INT,
||           /* data on target: */ other,1,      1,MPI_INT,
||           the_window);
|| }
|| MPI_Win_fence(0,the_window);
```

For the full source of this example, see section 9.9.7

We make a null window on processes that do not participate.

```
|| ## getfence.py
|| if procid==0 or procid==nprocs-1:
||   win_mem = np.empty( 1,dtype=np.float64 )
||   win = MPI.Win.Create( win_mem,comm=comm )
```

```

    else:
        win = MPI.Win.Create( None, comm=comm )

    # put data on another process
    win.Fence()
    if procid==0 or procid==nprocs-1:
        putdata = np.empty( 1,dtype=np.float64 )
        putdata[0] = mydata
        print(" [%d] putting %e" % (procid,mydata))
        win.Put( putdata,other )
    win.Fence()

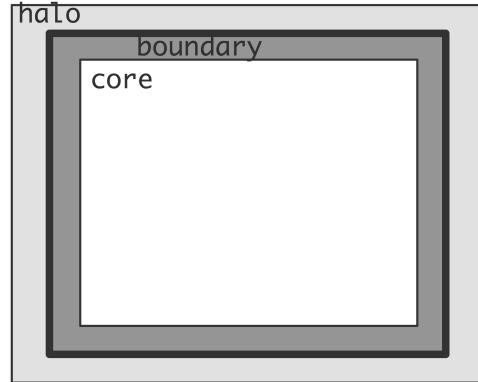
```

For the full source of this example, see section 9.9.8

9.3.3 Put and get example: halo update

As an example, let's look at *halo update*. The array A is updated using the local values and the halo that comes from bordering processors, either through Put or Get operations.

In a first version we separate computation and communication. Each iteration has two fences. Between the two fences in the loop body we do the `MPI_Put` operation; between the second and and first one of the next iteration there is only computation, so we add the `MPI_MODE_NOPRECEDE` and `MPI_MODE_NOSUCCEED` assertions. The `MPI_MODE_NOSTORE` assertion states that the local window was not updated: the Put operation only works on remote windows.



```

for ( .... ) {
    update(A);
    MPI_Win_fence(MPI_MODE_NOPRECEDE, win);
    for(i=0; i < toneighbors; i++)
        MPI_Put( ... );
    MPI_Win_fence((MPI_MODE_NOSTORE | MPI_MODE_NOSUCCEED), win);
}

```

For much more about assertions, see section 9.6 below.

Next, we split the update in the core part, which can be done purely from local values, and the boundary, which needs local and halo values. Update of the core can overlap the communication of the halo.

```

for ( .... ) {
    update_boundary(A);
    MPI_Win_fence((MPI_MODE_NOPUT | MPI_MODE_NOPRECEDE), win);
    for(i=0; i < fromneighbors; i++)
        MPI_Get( ... );
    update_core(A);
    MPI_Win_fence(MPI_MODE_NOSUCCEED, win);
}

```

Figure 9.8 MPI_Accumulate

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Accumulate (
MPI_Accumulate_c (
origin_addr		initial address of buffer	const void*	TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)	IN
origin_count		number of entries in buffer	[int MPI_Count	INTEGER	IN
origin_datatype		datatype of each entry	MPI_Datatype	TYPE (MPI_Datatype)	IN
target_rank		rank of target	int	INTEGER	IN
target_disp		displacement from start of window to beginning of target buffer	MPI_Aint	INTEGER (KIND=MPI_ADDRESS_KIND)	IN
target_count		number of entries in target buffer	[int MPI_Count	INTEGER	IN
target_datatype		datatype of each entry in target buffer	MPI_Datatype	TYPE (MPI_Datatype)	IN
op		reduce operation	MPI_Op	TYPE(MPI_Op)	IN
win		window object	MPI_Win	TYPE(MPI_Win)	IN
)					

Python:

```
MPI.Win.Accumulate(self, origin, int target_rank, target=None, Op op=SUM)
```

The `MPI_MODE_NOPRECEDE` and `MPI_MODE_NOSUCCEED` assertions still hold, but the Get operation implies that instead of `MPI_MODE_NOSTORE` in the second fence, we use `MPI_MODE_NOPUT` in the first.

9.3.4 Accumulate

A third one-sided routine is `MPI_Accumulate` (figure 9.8) which does a reduction operation on the results that are being put.

Accumulate is an atomic reduction with remote result. This means that multiple accumulates to a single target in the same epoch give the correct result. As with `MPI_Reduce`, the order in which the operands are accumulated is undefined.

The same predefined operators are available, but no user-defined ones. There is one extra operator: `MPI_REPLACE`, this has the effect that only the last result to arrive is retained.

Exercise 9.3. Implement an ‘all-gather’ operation using one-sided communication: each processor stores a single number, and you want each processor to build up an array that contains the values from all processors. Note that you do not need a special case for a processor collecting its own value: doing ‘communication’ between a processor and itself is perfectly legal.

For the next exercise, refer to figure 9.5.

Exercise 9.4.

Implement a shared counter:

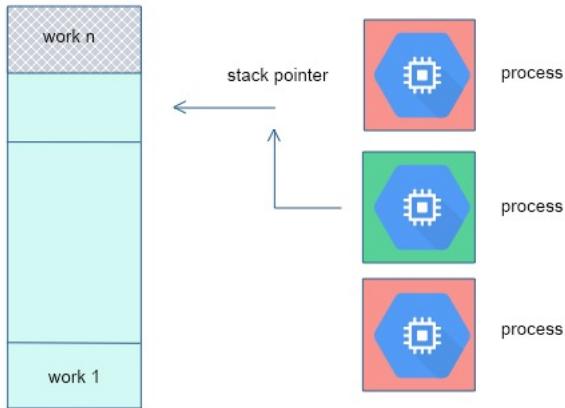


Figure 9.5: Pool of work descriptors with shared stack pointers

- One process maintains a counter;
- Iterate: all others at random moments update this counter.
- When the counter is no longer positive, everyone stops iterating.

The problem here is data synchronization: does everyone see the counter the same way?

9.3.5 Ordering and coherence of RMA operations

There are few guarantees about what happens inside one epoch.

- No ordering of Get and Put/Accumulate operations: if you do both, there is no guarantee whether the Get will find the value before or after the update.
- No ordering of multiple Puts. It is safer to do an Accumulate.

The following operations are well-defined inside one epoch:

- Instead of multiple Put operations, use Accumulate with `MPI_REPLACE`.
- `MPI_Get_accumulate` with `MPI_NO_OP` is safe.
- Multiple Accumulate operations from one origin are done in program order by default. To allow reordering, for instance to have all reads happen after all writes, use the info parameter when the window is created; section 9.5.3.

9.3.6 Request-based operations

Analogous to `MPI_Isend` there are request-based one-sided operations: `MPI_Rput` (figure 9.9) and similarly `MPI_Rget` and `MPI_Raccumulate` and `MPI_Rget_accumulate`. These only apply to passive target synchronization. Any `MPI_Win_flush...` call also terminates these transfers.

9.3.7 Atomic operations

One-sided calls are said to emulate shared memory in MPI, but the put and get calls are not enough for certain scenarios with shared data. Consider the scenario where:

Figure 9.9 MPI_Rput

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
<code>MPI_Rput (</code>					
<code> MPI_Rput_c (</code>					
<code>origin_addr</code>		initial address of origin buffer	const void*	TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)	IN
<code>origin_count</code>		number of entries in origin buffer	[int MPI_Count]	INTEGER	IN
<code>origin_datatype</code>		datatype of each entry in origin buffer	MPI_Datatype	TYPE (MPI_Datatype)	IN
<code>target_rank</code>		rank of target	int	INTEGER	IN
<code>target_disp</code>		displacement from start of window to target buffer	MPI_Aint	INTEGER (KIND=MPI_ADDRESS_KIND)	IN
<code>target_count</code>		number of entries in target buffer	[int MPI_Count]	INTEGER	IN
<code>target_datatype</code>		datatype of each entry in target buffer	MPI_Datatype	TYPE (MPI_Datatype)	IN
<code>win</code>		window object used for communication	MPI_Win	TYPE(MPI_Win)	IN
<code>request</code>		RMA request	MPI_Request*	TYPE (MPI_Request)	OUT
<code>)</code>					

- One process stores a table of work descriptors, and a pointer to the first unprocessed descriptor;
- Each process reads the pointer, reads the corresponding descriptor, and increments the pointer; and
- A process that has read a descriptor then executes the corresponding task.

The problem is that reading and updating the pointer is not an *atomic operation*, so it is possible that multiple processes get hold of the same value; conversely, multiple updates of the pointer may lead to work descriptors being skipped. These different overall behaviors, depending on precise timing of lower level events, are called a *race condition*.

In MPI-3 some atomic routines have been added. Both `MPI_Fetch_and_op` (figure 9.10) and `MPI_Get_accumulate` (figure 9.11) atomically retrieve data from the window indicated, and apply an operator, combining the data on the target with the data on the origin. Unlike Put and Get, it is safe to have multiple atomic operations in the same epoch.

Both routines perform the same operations: return data before the operation, then atomically update data on the target, but `MPI_Get_accumulate` is more flexible in data type handling. The more simple routine, `MPI_Fetch_and_op`, which operates on only a single element, allows for faster implementations, in particular through hardware support.

Use of `MPI_NO_OP` as the `MPI_Op` turns these routines into an atomic Get. Similarly, using `MPI_REPLACE` turns them into an atomic Put.

Exercise 9.5. Redo exercise 9.4 using `MPI_Fetch_and_op`. The problem is again to make sure all processes have the same view of the shared counter.

Figure 9.10 MPI_Fetch_and_op

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
<code>MPI_Fetch_and_op (</code>					
<code>origin_addr</code>		initial address of buffer	const void*	TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)	IN
<code>result_addr</code>		initial address of result buffer	void*	TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)	OUT
<code>datatype</code>		datatype of the entry in origin, result, and target buffers	<code>MPI_Datatype</code>	TYPE (<code>MPI_Datatype</code>)	IN
<code>target_rank</code>		rank of target	int	INTEGER	IN
<code>target_disp</code>		displacement from start of window to beginning of target buffer	<code>MPI_Aint</code>	INTEGER (<code>KIND=MPI_ADDRESS_KIND</code>)	IN
<code>op</code>		reduce operation	<code>MPI_Op</code>	TYPE(<code>MPI_Op</code>)	IN
<code>win</code>		window object	<code>MPI_Win</code>	TYPE(<code>MPI_Win</code>)	IN
<code>)</code>					

Figure 9.11 MPI_Get_accumulate

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
<code>MPI_Get_accumulate (</code>					
<code> MPI_Get_accumulate_c (</code>					
<code>origin_addr</code>		initial address of buffer	const void*	TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)	IN
<code>origin_count</code>		number of entries in origin buffer	[int <code>MPI_Count</code>]	INTEGER	IN
<code>origin_datatype</code>		datatype of each entry in origin buffer	<code>MPI_Datatype</code>	TYPE (<code>MPI_Datatype</code>)	IN
<code>result_addr</code>		initial address of result buffer	void*	TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)	OUT
<code>result_count</code>		number of entries in result buffer	[int <code>MPI_Count</code>]	INTEGER	IN
<code>result_datatype</code>		datatype of each entry in result buffer	<code>MPI_Datatype</code>	TYPE (<code>MPI_Datatype</code>)	IN
<code>target_rank</code>		rank of target	int	INTEGER	IN
<code>target_disp</code>		displacement from start of window to beginning of target buffer	<code>MPI_Aint</code>	INTEGER (<code>KIND=MPI_ADDRESS_KIND</code>)	IN
<code>target_count</code>		number of entries in target buffer	[int <code>MPI_Count</code>]	INTEGER	IN
<code>target_datatype</code>		datatype of each entry in target buffer	<code>MPI_Datatype</code>	TYPE (<code>MPI_Datatype</code>)	IN
<code>op</code>		reduce operation	<code>MPI_Op</code>	TYPE(<code>MPI_Op</code>)	IN
<code>win</code>		window object	<code>MPI_Win</code>	TYPE(<code>MPI_Win</code>)	IN
<code>)</code>					

Does it work to make the fetch-and-op conditional? Is there a way to do it unconditionally? What should the ‘break’ test be, seeing that multiple processes can update the counter at the same time?

Example. A root process has a table of data; the other processes do atomic gets and update of that data using *passive target synchronization* through `MPI_Win_lock`.

```
// passive.cxx
if (procno==repository) {
// Repository processor creates a table of inputs
// and associates that with the window
}
if (procno!=repository) {
    float contribution=(float)procno,table_element;
    int loc=0;
    MPI_Win_lock(MPI_LOCK_EXCLUSIVE,repository,0,the_window);
    // read the table element by getting the result from adding zero
    MPI_Fetch_and_op
        (&contribution,&table_element,MPI_FLOAT,
         repository,loc,MPI_SUM,the_window);
    MPI_Win_unlock(repository,the_window);
}
```

For the full source of this example, see section 9.9.9

```
## passive.py
if procid==repository:
    # repository process creates a table of inputs
    # and associates it with the window
    win_mem = np.empty( ninputs,dtype=np.float32 )
    win = MPI.Win.Create( win_mem,comm=comm )
else:
    # everyone else has an empty window
    win = MPI.Win.Create( None,comm=comm )
if procid!=repository:
    contribution = np.empty( 1,dtype=np.float32 )
    contribution[0] = 1.*procid
    table_element = np.empty( 1,dtype=np.float32 )
    win.Lock( repository,lock_type=MPI_LOCK_EXCLUSIVE )
    win.Fetch_and_op( contribution,table_element,repository,0,MPI.SUM)
    win.Unlock( repository )
```

For the full source of this example, see section 9.9.10

Finally, `MPI_Compare_and_swap` (figure 9.12) swaps the origin and target data if the target data equals some comparison value.

9.3.7.1 A case study in atomic operations

Let us consider an example where a process, identified by `counter_process`, has a table of work descriptors, and all processes, including the counter process, take items from it to work on. To avoid duplicate work, the counter process has as counter that indicates the highest numbered available item. The part of this application that we simulate is this:

Figure 9.12 MPI_Compare_and_swap

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Compare_and_swap	(
	origin_addr	initial address of buffer	const void*	TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)	IN
	compare_addr	initial address of compare buffer	const void*	TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)	IN
	result_addr	initial address of result buffer	void*	TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)	OUT
	datatype	datatype of the element in all buffers	MPI_Datatype	TYPE (MPI_Datatype)	IN
	target_rank	rank of target	int	INTEGER	IN
	target_disp	displacement from start of window to beginning of target buffer	MPI_Aint	INTEGER (KIND=MPI_ADDRESS_KIND)	IN
	win	window object	MPI_Win	TYPE(MPI_Win)	IN
)					

1. a process reads the counter, to find an available work item; and
2. subsequently decrements the counter by one.

We initialize the window content, under the separate memory model:

```
// countdownop.c
MPI_Win_fence(0,the_window);
if (procno==counter_process)
    MPI_Put(&counter_init,1,MPI_INT,
            counter_process,0,1,MPI_INT,
            the_window);
MPI_Win_fence(0,the_window);
```

For the full source of this example, see section 9.9.11

We start by considering the naive approach, where we execute the above scheme literally with `MPI_Get` and `MPI_Put`:

```
// countdownput.c
MPI_Win_fence(0,the_window);
int counter_value;
MPI_Get( &counter_value,1,MPI_INT,
        counter_process,0,1,MPI_INT,
        the_window);
MPI_Win_fence(0,the_window);
if (i_am_available) {
    int decrement = -1;
    counter_value += decrement;
    MPI_Put
    ( &counter_value, 1,MPI_INT,
      counter_process,0,1,MPI_INT,
      the_window);
}
MPI_Win_fence(0,the_window);
```

For the full source of this example, see section 9.9.12

This scheme is correct if only process has a true value for `i_am_available`: that processes ‘owns’ the current counter values, and it correctly updates the counter through the `MPI_Put` operation. However, if more than one process is available, they get duplicate counter values, and the update is also incorrect. If we run this program, we see that the counter did not get decremented by the total number of ‘put’ calls.

Exercise 9.6. Supposing only one process is available, what is the function of the middle of the three fences? Can it be omitted?

Solution to exercise 9.6. *It can not be omitted: it forces the local coherence of the counter_value variable.*

We can fix the decrement of the counter by using `MPI_Accumulate` for the counter update, since it is atomic: multiple updates in the same epoch all get processed.

```
// countdownacc.c
MPI_Win_fence(0,the_window);
int counter_value;
MPI_Get( &counter_value,1,MPI_INT,
         counter_process,0,1,MPI_INT,
         the_window);
MPI_Win_fence(0,the_window);
if (i_am_available) {
    int decrement = -1;
    MPI_Accumulate
    ( &decrement,           1,MPI_INT,
      counter_process,0,1,MPI_INT,
      MPI_SUM,
      the_window);
}
MPI_Win_fence(0,the_window);
```

For the full source of this example, see section 9.9.13

This scheme still suffers from the problem that processes will obtain duplicate counter values. The true solution is to combine the ‘get’ and ‘put’ operations into one atomic action; in this case `MPI_Fetch_and_op`:

```
MPI_Win_fence(0,the_window);
int
counter_value;
if (i_am_available) {
    int
    decrement = -1;
    total_decrement++;
    MPI_Fetch_and_op
    ( /* operate with data from origin: */   &decrement,
      /* retrieve data from target: */        &counter_value,
      MPI_INT, counter_process, 0, MPI_SUM,
      the_window);
}
MPI_Win_fence(0,the_window);
if (i_am_available) {
    my_counter_values[n_my_counter_values++] = counter_value;
}
```

Figure 9.13 MPI_Win_lock

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
<code>MPI_Win_lock (</code>					
<code>lock_type</code>		either MPI_LOCK_EXCLUSIVE or MPI_LOCK_SHARED	int	INTEGER	IN
<code>rank</code>		rank of locked window	int	INTEGER	IN
<code>assert</code>		program assertion	int	INTEGER	IN
<code>win</code>		window object	<code>MPI_Win</code>	<code>TYPE(MPI_Win)</code>	IN
<code>)</code>					

Python:

```
MPI.Win.Lock(self,
    int rank, int lock_type=LOCK_EXCLUSIVE, int assertion=0)
```

For the full source of this example, see section 9.9.11

Now, if there are multiple accesses, each retrieves the counter value and updates it in one atomic, that is, indivisible, action.

9.4 Passive target synchronization

In *passive target synchronization* only the origin is actively involved: the target makes no synchronization calls. This means that the origin process remotely locks the window on the target, performs a one-sided transfer, and releases the window by unlocking it again.

During an access epoch, also called an *passive target epoch* in this case (the concept of ‘exposure epoch’ makes no sense with passive target synchronization), a process can initiate and finish a one-sided transfer. Typically it will lock the window with `MPI_Win_lock` (figure 9.13):

```
if (rank == 0) {
    MPI_Win_lock (MPI_LOCK_EXCLUSIVE, 1, 0, win);
    MPI_Put (outbuf, n, MPI_INT, 1, 0, n, MPI_INT, win);
    MPI_Win_unlock (1, win);
}
```

Remark 17 The possibility to lock a window is not guaranteed for windows that are not created (possibly internally) by `MPI_Alloc_mem`, that is, all but `MPI_Win_create`.

9.4.1 Lock types

A lock is needed to start an *access epoch*, that is, for an origin to acquire the capability to access a target. You can either acquire a lock on a specific process with `MPI_Win_lock`, or on all processes (in a communicator) with `MPI_Win_lock_all`. Unlike `MPI_Win_fence`, this is not a collective call. Also, it is possible to have multiple access epochs through `MPI_Win_lock` active simultaneously.

The two lock types are:

Figure 9.14 MPI_Win_unlock

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Win_unlock	rank win)	rank of window window object	int MPI_Win	INTEGER TYPE(MPI_Win)	IN IN

- **MPI_LOCK_SHARED**: multiple processes can access the window on the same rank. If multiple processes perform a **MPI_Get** call there is no problem; with **MPI_Put** and similar calls there is a consistency problem; see below.
- **MPI_LOCK_EXCLUSIVE**: an origin gets exclusive access to the window on a certain target. Unlike the shared lock, this has no consistency problems.

You can only specify a lock type in **MPI_Win_lock**; **MPI_Win_lock_all** is always shared.

To unlock a window, use **MPI_Win_unlock** (figure 9.14), respectively **MPI_Win_unlock_all**.

Exercise 9.7. Investigate atomic updates using passive target synchronization. Use **MPI_Win_lock** with an exclusive lock, which means that each process only acquires the lock when it absolutely has to.

- All processes but one update a window:

```
int one=1;
MPI_Fetch_and_op(&one, &readout,
    MPI_INT, repo, zero_disp, MPI_SUM,
    the_win);
```

- while the remaining process spins until the others have performed their update.

Use an atomic operation for the latter process to read out the shared value.

Can you replace the exclusive lock with a shared one?

(There is a skeleton for this exercise under the name **lockfetch**.)

Solution to exercise 9.7.

Supervisor:

```
// lockfetch.c
MPI_Win_lock(MPI_LOCK_EXCLUSIVE,
    ↳repo, /* no assert */ 0,
    ↳the_window);
int update=0;
MPI_Fetch_and_op
    (&update, &readout ,
    MPI_INT, repo,zero_disp,
    ↳MPI_NO_OP, the_window);
MPI_Win_unlock(repo,the_window);
```

Worker:

```
MPI_Win_lock(MPI_LOCK_EXCLUSIVE,
    ↳repo, /* no assert: */ 0,
    ↳the_window);
int mone = -1;
MPI_Fetch_and_op(&mone, &readout,
    ↳MPI_INT, repo,zero_disp,
    ↳MPI_SUM, the_window);
if (readout>0) my_work++;
MPI_Win_unlock(repo,the_window);
```

Exercise 9.8. As exercise 9.7, but now use a shared lock: all processes acquire the lock simultaneously and keep it as long as is needed.

Figure 9.15 MPI_Win_lock_all

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Win_lock_all (

The problem here is that coherence between window buffers and local variables is now not forced by a fence or releasing a lock. Use `MPI_Win_flush_local` to force coherence of a window (on another process) and the local variable from `MPI_Fetch_and_op`.

(There is a skeleton for this exercise under the name `lockfetchshared`.)

Solution to exercise 9.8.

```
// lockfetchshared.c
MPI_Win_lock(
    MPI_LOCK_SHARED,
    repo, 0, the_window);
MPI_Fetch_and_op(&none, &readout, MPI_INT, repo, zero_disp, MPI_SUM,
    &the_window);
if (readout>0) my_work++;
MPI_Win_flush_local
    (repo, the_window);
```

9.4.2 Lock all

To lock the windows of all processes in the group of the windows, use `MPI_Win_lock_all` (figure 9.15). This is not a collective call: the ‘all’ part refers to the fact that one process is locking the window on all processes.

- The assertion value can be zero, or `MPI_MODE_NOCHECK`, which asserts that no other process will acquire a competing lock.
- There is no ‘locktype’ parameter: this is a shared lock.

The corresponding unlock is `MPI_Win_unlock_all`.

The expected use of a ‘lock/unlock all’ is that they surround an extended epoch with get/put and flush calls.

9.4.3 Completion and consistency in passive target synchronization

In one-sided transfer one should keep straight the multiple instances of the data, and the various *completions* that effect their *consistency*.

- The user data. This is the buffer that is passed to an RMA call. For instance, after an `MPI_Put` call, but still in an access epoch, the user buffer is not safe to reuse. Making sure the buffer has been transferred is called *local completion*.

Figure 9.16 MPI_Win_flush_local

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Win_flush_local					

Figure 9.17 MPI_Win_flush

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Win_flush					

- The window data. While this may be publicly accessible, it is not necessarily always consistent with internal copies.
- The remote data. Even a successful `MPI_Put` does not guarantee that the other process has received the data. A successful transfer is a *remote completion*.

As observed, RMA operations are nonblocking, so we need mechanisms to ensure that an operation is completed, and to ensure *consistency* of the user and window data.

Completion of the RMA operations in a passive target epoch is ensured with `MPI_Win_unlock` or `MPI_Win_unlock_all`, similar to the use of `MPI_Win_fence` in active target synchronization.

If the passive target epoch is of greater duration, and no unlock operation is used to ensure completion, the following calls are available.

Remark 18 Using flush routines with active target synchronization (or generally outside a passive target epoch) you are likely to get a message

Wrong synchronization of RMA calls

9.4.3.1 Local completion

The call `MPI_Win_flush_local` (figure 9.16) ensure that all operations with a given target is completed at the origin. For instance, for calls to `MPI_Get` or `MPI_Fetch_and_op` the local result is available after the `MPI_Win_flush_local`.

With `MPI_Win_flush_local_all` local operations are concluded for all targets. This will typically be used with `MPI_Win_lock_all` (section 9.4.2).

9.4.3.2 Remote completion

The calls `MPI_Win_flush` (figure 9.17) and `MPI_Win_flush_all` effect completion of all outstanding RMA op-

erations on the target, so that other processes can access its data. This is useful for `MPI_Put` operations, but can also be used for atomic operations such as `MPI_Fetch_and_op`.

9.4.3.3 Window synchronization

Under the *separate memory model*, the user code can hold a buffer that is not coherent with the internal window data. The call `MPI_Win_sync` synchronizes private and public copies of the window.

9.5 More about window memory

9.5.1 Memory models

You may think that the window memory is the same as the buffer you pass to `MPI_Win_create` or that you get from `MPI_Win_allocate` (section 9.1.1). This is not necessarily true, and the actual state of affairs is called the *memory model*. There are two memory models:

- Under the *unified* memory model, the buffer in process space is indeed the window memory, or at least they are kept *coherent*. This means that after *completion* of an epoch you can read the window contents from the buffer. To get this, the window needs to be created with `MPI_Win_allocate_shared`. This memory model is required for MPI shared memory; chapter 12.
- Under the *separate* memory model, the buffer in process space is the *private window* and the target of put/get operations is the *public window* and the two are not the same and are not kept coherent. Under this model, you need to do an explicit get to read the window contents.

You can query the model of a window using the `MPI_Win_get_attr` call with the `MPI_WIN_MODEL` keyword:

```
// window.c
int *modelstar,flag;
MPI_Win_get_attr(the_window,MPI_WIN_MODEL,&modelstar,&flag);
int model = *modelstar;
if (procno==0)
    printf("Window model is unified: %d\n",model==MPI_WIN_UNIFIED);
```

with possible values:

- `MPI_WIN_SEPARATE`,
- `MPI_WIN_UNIFIED`,

For more on attributes, see section 9.5.4.

9.5.2 Dynamically attached memory

In section 9.1.1 we looked at simple ways to create a window and its memory.

It is also possible to have windows where the size is dynamically set. Create a dynamic window with `MPI_Win_create_dynamic` (figure 9.18) and attach memory to the window with `MPI_Win_attach` (figure 9.19).

At first sight, the code looks like splitting up a `MPI_Win_create` call into separate creation of the window and declaration of the buffer:

9. MPI topic: One-sided communication

Figure 9.18 MPI_Win_create_dynamic

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
<code>MPI_Win_create_dynamic (</code>					
<code>info</code>	<code>info</code>	<code>info argument</code>	<code>MPI_Info</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Info)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>comm</code>	<code>comm</code>	<code>intra-communicator</code>	<code>MPI_Comm</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Comm)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>win</code>	<code>win</code>	<code>window object returned by the call</code>	<code>MPI_Win*</code>	<code>TYPE(MPI_Win)</code>	<code>OUT</code>
<code>)</code>					

Figure 9.19 MPI_Win_attach

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
<code>MPI_Win_attach (</code>					
<code>win</code>	<code>win</code>	<code>window object</code>	<code>MPI_Win</code>	<code>TYPE(MPI_Win)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>base</code>	<code>base</code>	<code>initial address of memory to be attached</code>	<code>void*</code>	<code>TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>size</code>	<code>size</code>	<code>size of memory to be attached in bytes</code>	<code>MPI_Aint</code>	<code>INTEGER (KIND=MPI_ADDRESS_KIND)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>)</code>					

```
// windynamic.c
MPI_Win_create_dynamic(MPI_INFO_NULL,comm,&the_window);
if (procno==data_proc)
    window_buffer = (int*) malloc( 2*sizeof(int) );
MPI_Win_attach(the_window,window_buffer,2*sizeof(int));
```

For the full source of this example, see section 9.9.14

(where the `window_buffer` represents memory that has been allocated.)

However, there is an important difference in how the window is addressed in RMA operations. With all other window models, the displacement parameter is measured relative in units from the start of the buffer, here the displacement is an absolute address. This means that we need to get the address of the window buffer with `MPI_Get_address` and communicate it to the other processes:

```
MPI_Aint data_address;
if (procno==data_proc) {
    MPI_Get_address(window_buffer,&data_address);
}
MPI_Bcast(&data_address,1,MPI_AINT,data_proc,comm);
```

For the full source of this example, see section 9.9.14

Location of the data, that is, the displacement parameter, is then given as an absolute location of the start of the buffer plus a count in bytes; in other words, the *displacement unit* is 1. In this example we use `MPI_Get` to find the second integer in a window buffer:

```
MPI_Aint disp = data_address+1*sizeof(int);
MPI_Get( /* data on origin: */           retrieve, 1,MPI_INT,
```

Figure 9.20 MPI_Win_detach

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
<code>MPI_Win_detach (</code>					

```
||  /* data on target: */ data_proc,disp,      1,MPI_INT,
    the_window);
```

For the full source of this example, see section 9.9.14

Notes.

- The attached memory can be released with `MPI_Win_detach` (figure 9.20).
- The above fragments show that an origin process has the actual address of the window buffer. It is an error to use this if the buffer is not attached to a window.
- In particular, one has to make sure that the attach call is concluded before performing RMA operations on the window.

9.5.3 Window usage hints

The following keys can be passed as info argument:

- `no_locks`: if set to true, passive target synchronization (section 9.4) will not be used on this window.
- `accumulate_ordering`: a comma-separated list of the keywords `rar`, `raw`, `war`, `waw` can be specified. This indicates that reads or writes from `MPI_Accumulate` or `MPI_Get_accumulate` can be reordered, subject to certain constraints.
- `accumulate_ops`: the value `same_op` indicates that concurrent Accumulate calls use the same operator; `same_op_no_op` indicates the same operator or `MPI_NO_OP`.

9.5.4 Window information

The `MPI_Info` parameter (see section 15.1.1 for info objects) can be used to pass implementation-dependent information.

A number of attributes are stored with a window when it is created.

- `MPI_WIN_BASE` for obtaining a pointer to the start of the window area:

```
|| void *base;
|| MPI_Win_get_attr(win, MPI_WIN_BASE, &base, &flag)
```

- `MPI_WIN_SIZE` and `MPI_WIN_DISP_UNIT` for obtaining the size and *window displacement unit*:

```
|| MPI_Aint *size;
|| MPI_Win_get_attr(win, MPI_WIN_SIZE, &size, &flag),
|| int *disp_unit;
|| MPI_Win_get_attr(win, MPI_WIN_DISP_UNIT, &disp_unit, &flag),
```

- `MPI_WIN_CREATE_FLAVOR` for determining the type of create call used:

```
|| int *create_kind;
|| MPI_Win_get_attr(win, MPI_WIN_CREATE_FLAVOR, &create_kind, &flag)
```

with possible values:

- `MPI_WIN_FLAVOR_CREATE` if the window was created with `MPI_Win_create`;
- `MPI_WIN_FLAVOR_ALLOCATE` if the window was created with `MPI_Win_allocate`;
- `MPI_WIN_FLAVOR_DYNAMIC` if the window was created with `MPI_Win_create_dynamic`. In this case the base is `MPI_BOTTOM` and the size is zero;
- `MPI_WIN_FLAVOR_SHARED` if the window was created with `MPI_Win_allocate_shared`;
- `MPI_WIN_MODEL` for querying the window memory model; see section 9.5.1.

Get the group of processes (see section 7.5) associated with a window:

```
|| int MPI_Win_get_group(MPI_Win win, MPI_Group *group)
```

Window information objects (see section 15.1.1) can be set and retrieved:

```
|| int MPI_Win_set_info(MPI_Win win, MPI_Info info)
|| int MPI_Win_get_info(MPI_Win win, MPI_Info *info_used)
```

9.6 Assertions

The routines

- (Active target synchronization) `MPI_Win_fence`, `MPI_Win_post`, `MPI_Win_start`;
- (Passive target synchronization) `MPI_Win_lock`, `MPI_Win_lockall`,

take an argument through which assertions can be passed about the activity before, after, and during the epoch. The value zero is always allowed, by you can make your program more efficient by specifying one or more of the following, combined by bitwise OR in C/C++ or IOR in Fortran.

- `MPI_Win_start` Supports the option:
 - `MPI_MODE_NOCHECK` the matching calls to `MPI_Win_post` have already completed on all target processes when the call to `MPI_Win_start` is made. The nocheck option can be specified in a start call if and only if it is specified in each matching post call. This is similar to the optimization of “ready-send” that may save a handshake when the handshake is implicit in the code. (However, ready-send is matched by a regular receive, whereas both start and post must specify the nocheck option.)
- `MPI_Win_post` supports the following options:
 - `MPI_MODE_NOCHECK` the matching calls to `MPI_Win_start` have not yet occurred on any origin processes when the call to `MPI_Win_post` is made. The nocheck option can be specified by a post call if and only if it is specified by each matching start call.
 - `MPI_MODE_NOSTORE` the local window was not updated by local stores (or local get or receive calls) since last synchronization. This may avoid the need for cache synchronization at the post call.

- `MPI_MODE_NOPUT` the local window will not be updated by put or accumulate calls after the post call, until the ensuing (wait) synchronization. This may avoid the need for cache synchronization at the wait call.
- `MPI_Win_fence` supports the following options:
 - `MPI_MODE_NOSTORE` the local window was not updated by local stores (or local get or receive calls) since last synchronization.
 - `MPI_MODE_NOPUT` the local window will not be updated by put or accumulate calls after the fence call, until the ensuing (fence) synchronization.
 - `MPI_MODE_NOPRECEDE` the fence does not complete any sequence of locally issued RMA calls. If this assertion is given by any process in the window group, then it must be given by all processes in the group.
 - `MPI_MODE_NOSUCCEED` the fence does not start any sequence of locally issued RMA calls. If the assertion is given by any process in the window group, then it must be given by all processes in the group.
- `MPI_Win_lock` and `MPI_Win_lock_all` support the following option:
 - `MPI_MODE_NOCHECK` no other process holds, or will attempt to acquire a conflicting lock, while the caller holds the window lock. This is useful when mutual exclusion is achieved by other means, but the coherence operations that may be attached to the lock and unlock calls are still required.

9.7 Implementation

You may wonder how one-sided communication is realized¹. Can a processor somehow get at another processor's data? Unfortunately, no.

Active target synchronization is implemented in terms of two-sided communication. Imagine that the first fence operation does nothing, unless it concludes prior one-sided operations. The Put and Get calls do nothing involving communication, except for marking with what processors they exchange data. The concluding fence is where everything happens: first a global operation determines which targets need to issue send or receive calls, then the actual sends and receive are executed.

Exercise 9.9. Assume that only Get operations are performed during an epoch. Sketch how these are translated to send/receive pairs. The problem here is how the senders find out that they need to send. Show that you can solve this with an `MPI_Reduce_scatter` call.

The previous paragraph noted that a collective operation was necessary to determine the two-sided traffic. Since collective operations induce some amount of synchronization, you may want to limit this.

Exercise 9.10. Argue that the mechanism with window post/wait/start/complete operations still needs a collective, but that this is less burdensome.

Solution to exercise 9.10. *The collective is only group where the window is posted.*

1. For more on this subject, see [27].

Passive target synchronization needs another mechanism entirely. Here the target process needs to have a background task (process, thread, daemon,...) running that listens for requests to lock the window. This can potentially be expensive.

9.8 Review questions

Find all the errors in this code.

```
#include <mpi.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>

#define MASTER 0

int main(int argc, char *argv[])
{
    MPI_Init(&argc, &argv);
    MPI_Comm comm = MPI_COMM_WORLD;
    int r, p;
    MPI_Comm_rank(comm, &r);
    MPI_Comm_size(comm, &p);
    printf("Hello from %d\n", r);
    int result[1] = {0};
    //int assert = MPI_MODE_NOCHECK;
    int assert = 0;
    int one = 1;
    MPI_Win win_res;
    MPI_Win_allocate(1 * sizeof(MPI_INT), sizeof(MPI_INT), MPI_INFO_NULL, comm, &result[0],
        &win_res);
    MPI_Win_lock_all(assert, win_res);
    if (r == MASTER) {
        result[0] = 0;
        do{
            MPI_Fetch_and_op(&result, &result , MPI_INT, r, 0, MPI_NO_OP, win_res);
            printf("result: %d\n", result[0]);
        } while(result[0] != 4);
        printf("Master is done!\n");
    } else {
        MPI_Fetch_and_op(&one, &result, MPI_INT, 0, 0, MPI_SUM, win_res);
    }
    MPI_Win_unlock_all(win_res);
    MPI_Win_free(&win_res);
    MPI_Finalize();
    return 0;
}
```

9.9 Sources used in this chapter

9.9.1 Listing of code header

9.9.2 Listing of code examples/mpi/c/examples/putfencealloc.c

9.9.3 Listing of code examples/mpi/p/putfence.py

```
import numpy as np
import random # random.randint(1,N), random.random()
import sys

from mpi4py import MPI

comm = MPI.COMM_WORLD
procid = comm.Get_rank()
nprocs = comm.Get_size()
if nprocs<2:
    print("C'mon, get real....")
    sys.exit(1)

intsize = np.dtype('int').itemsize
window_data = np.zeros(2,dtype=int)
win = MPI.Win.Create(window_data,intsize,comm=comm)

my_number = np.empty(1,dtype=int)
src = 0; tgt = nprocs-1
if procid==src:
    my_number[0] = 37
else:
    my_number[0] = 1
win.Fence()
if procid==src:
    # put data in the second element of the window
    win.Put(my_number,tgt,target=1)
win.Fence()

if procid==tgt:
    print("Window after put:",window_data)
```

9.9.4 Listing of code examples/mpi/c/postwaitwin.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <mpi.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <unistd.h>
```

```
int main(int argc,char **argv) {

#include "globalinit.c"

{
    MPI_Win the_window;
    MPI_Group all_group,two_group;
    int my_number = 37, other_number,
        twotids[2],origin,target;

    MPI_Win_create(&other_number,1,sizeof(int),
                  MPI_INFO_NULL,comm,&the_window);
    if (procno>0 && procno<nprocs-1) goto skip;

    origin = 0; target = nprocs-1;

    MPI_Comm_group(comm,&all_group);
    if (procno==origin) {
        MPI_Group_incl(all_group,1,&target,&two_group);
        // access
        MPI_Win_start(two_group,0,the_window);
        MPI_Put( /* data on origin: */   &my_number, 1,MPI_INT,
                 /* data on target: */ target,0, 1,MPI_INT,
                 the_window);
        MPI_Win_complete(the_window);
    }

    if (procno==target) {
        MPI_Group_incl(all_group,1,&origin,&two_group);
        // exposure
        MPI_Win_post(two_group,0,the_window);
        MPI_Win_wait(the_window);
    }
    if (procno==target)
        printf("Got the following: %d\n",other_number);

    MPI_Group_free(&all_group);
    MPI_Group_free(&two_group);
skip:
    MPI_Win_free(&the_window);
}

MPI_Finalize();
return 0;
}
```

9.9.5 Listing of code examples/mpi/c/putfence.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <mpi.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <unistd.h>
```

```
int main(int argc,char **argv) {  
  
#include "globalinit.c"  
  
    MPI_Win the_window;  
    int my_number=0, window_data[2], other = nprocs-1;  
    if (procno==0)  
        my_number = 37;  
  
    MPI_Win_create  
        (&window_data,2*sizeof(int),sizeof(int),  
         MPI_INFO_NULL,comm,&the_window);  
    MPI_Win_fence(0,the_window);  
    if (procno==0) {  
        MPI_Put  
            ( /* data on origin: */ &my_number, 1,MPI_INT,  
             /* data on target: */ other,1, 1,MPI_INT,  
              the_window);  
    }  
    MPI_Win_fence(0,the_window);  
    if (procno==other)  
        printf("I got the following: %d\n",window_data[1]);  
    MPI_Win_free(&the_window);  
  
    MPI_Finalize();  
    return 0;  
}
```

9.9.6 Listing of code examples/mpi/f08/putfence.F90

Program PutFence

```
use mpi_f08  
implicit none  
  
Type(MPI_Win) :: the_window  
integer :: window_elt_size  
integer(kind=MPI_ADDRESS_KIND) :: window_size  
integer(kind=MPI_ADDRESS_KIND) :: target_displacement  
integer :: my_number=0, window_data(2), other  
  
Type(MPI_Comm) :: comm;  
integer :: mytid,ntids,i,p,err;  
  
call MPI_Init()  
comm = MPI_COMM_WORLD  
call MPI_Comm_rank(comm,mytid)  
call MPI_Comm_size(comm,ntids)  
call MPI_Comm_set_errhandler(comm,MPI_ERRORS_RETURN)  
  
other = ntids-1  
if (mytid.eq.0) my_number = 37
```

```
call MPI_Sizeof(window_data,window_elt_size)
window_size = 2*window_elt_size
call MPI_Win_create(window_data,&
    window_size,window_elt_size,           & ! window size, unit size
    MPI_INFO_NULL,comm,the_window)
call MPI_Win_fence(0,the_window)
if (mytid.eq.0) then
  if (mytid.eq.0) then
    target_displacement = 1
    call MPI_Put( my_number, 1,MPI_INTEGER, &
      other,target_displacement, &
      1,MPI_INTEGER, &
      the_window)
  #else
    call MPI_Put( my_number, 1,MPI_INTEGER, &
      other,1, &
      1,MPI_INTEGER, &
      the_window)
  #endif
  endif
  call MPI_Win_fence(0,the_window)

  if (mytid.eq.other) then
    print *, "I got:",window_data(1+target_displacement)
  end if
  call MPI_Win_free(the_window)

  call MPI_Finalize(err);
end Program PutFence
```

9.9.7 Listing of code examples/mpi/c/getfence.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <unistd.h>

#include <mpi.h>
#include "window.c"

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

#include "globalinit.c"

  MPI_Win the_window;
  int my_number, other = nprocs-1;

  int *number_buffer = NULL;
  MPI_Alloc_mem
  ( /* size: */ 2*sizeof(int),
```

```

MPI_Info_null,&number_buffer);
MPI_Win_create
( number_buffer,2*sizeof(int),sizeof(int),
  MPI_INFO_NULL,comm,&the_window);

if (procno==other)
  number_buffer[1] = 27;
test_window(the_window,comm);

MPI_Win_fence(0,the_window);
if (procno==0) {
  MPI_Get( /* data on origin: */ &my_number, 1,MPI_INT,
  /* data on target: */ other,1, 1,MPI_INT,
  the_window);
}
MPI_Win_fence(0,the_window);
if (procno==0)
  printf("I got the following: %d\n",my_number);

MPI_Win_free(&the_window);
MPI_Free_mem(number_buffer);

MPI_Finalize();
return 0;
}

```

9.9.8 Listing of code examples/mpi/p/getfence.py

```

import numpy as np
import random
from mpi4py import MPI

comm = MPI.COMM_WORLD
procid = comm.Get_rank()
nprocs = comm.Get_size()
if nprocs<2:
    print("C'mon, get real....")
    sys.exit(1)

other = nprocs-1-procid
mydata = random.random()

if procid==0 or procid==nprocs-1:
    win_mem = np.empty( 1,dtype=np.float64 )
    win = MPI.Win.Create( win_mem,comm=comm )
else:
    win = MPI.Win.Create( None,comm=comm )

# put data on another process
win.Fence()
if procid==0 or procid==nprocs-1:
    putdata = np.empty( 1,dtype=np.float64 )
    putdata[0] = mydata

```

```
    print("[%d] putting %e" % (procid,mydata))
    win.Put( putdata,other )
win.Fence()

# see what you got
if procid==0 or procid==nprocs-1:
    print("[%d] getting %e" % (procid,win_mem[0]))

win.Free()
```

9.9.9 Listing of code examples/mpi/c/fetchop.c

9.9.10 Listing of code examples/mpi/p/passive.py

```
import numpy as np
import random # random.randint(1,N), random.random()
from mpi4py import MPI

comm = MPI.COMM_WORLD
procid = comm.Get_rank()
nprocs = comm.Get_size()
if nprocs<2:
    print("C'mon, get real....")
    sys.exit(1)

repository = 0 # process that keeps the repository
ninputs = nprocs-1
checksum = nprocs*(nprocs-1)/2.

if procid==repository:
    # repository process creates a table of inputs
    # and associates it with the window
    win_mem = np.empty( ninputs,dtype=np.float32 )
    win = MPI.Win.Create( win_mem,comm=comm )
else:
    # everyone else has an empty window
    win = MPI.Win.Create( None,comm=comm )

# bookkeeping: which jobs did I process
myjobs = np.zeros( ninputs,dtype=int )

if procid!=repository:
    contribution = np.empty( 1,dtype=np.float32 )
    contribution[0] = 1.*procid
    table_element = np.empty( 1,dtype=np.float32 )
    win.Lock( repository,lock_type=MPI.LOCK_EXCLUSIVE )
    win.Fetch_and_op( contribution,table_element,repository,0,MPI.SUM)
    win.Unlock( repository )
    print(procid,"added its contribution to partial sum",table_element[0])
```

```
win.Free()

if procid==repository:
    if abs(win_mem[0]-checksum)>1.e-12:
        print("Incorrect result %e s/b %e" % (win_mem[0],checksum))
    print("finished")
```

9.9.11 Listing of code examples/mpi/c/countdownnop.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <unistd.h>

#include <mpi.h>
#include "gather_sort_print.h"

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

    int nprocs,procno;
    MPI_Init(0,0);
    MPI_Comm comm = MPI_COMM_WORLD;
    MPI_Comm_size(comm,&nprocs);
    MPI_Comm_rank(comm,&procno);

    if (nprocs<2) {
        printf("Need at least 2 procs\n");
        MPI_Abort(comm,0);
    }

    // first set a unique random seed
    srand(procno*time(0));

    {
        /*
         * Create a window.
         * We only need a nonzero size on the last process,
         * which we label the `counter_process';
         * everyone else makes a window of size zero.
         */
        MPI_Win the_window;
        int counter_process = nprocs-1;
        int window_data,check_data;
        if (procno==counter_process) {
            window_data = 2*nprocs-1;
            check_data = window_data;
            MPI_Win_create(&window_data,sizeof(int),sizeof(int),
                           MPI_INFO_NULL,comm,&the_window);
        } else {
            MPI_Win_create(&window_data,0,sizeof(int),
                           MPI_INFO_NULL,comm,&the_window);
        }
    }
```

```
* Initialize the window
* - PROCWRITES is approx the number of writes we want each process to do
* - COLLISION  is approx how many processes will collide on a write
*/
#ifndef COLLISION
#define COLLISION 2
#endif
#ifndef PROCWRITES
#define PROCWRITES 40
#endif
int counter_init = nprocs * PROCWRITES;
MPI_Win_fence(0,the_window);
if (procno==counter_process)
    MPI_Put(&counter_init,1,MPI_INT,
            counter_process,0,1,MPI_INT,
            the_window);
MPI_Win_fence(0,the_window);

/*
 * Allocate an array (grossly over-dimensioned)
 * for the counter values that belong to me
 */
int *my_counter_values = (int*) malloc( counter_init * sizeof(int) );
if (!my_counter_values) {
    printf("[%d] could not allocate counter values\n",procno);
    MPI_Abort(comm,0);
}
int n_my_counter_values = 0;

/*
 * Loop:
 * - at random times update the counter on the counter process
 * - and read out the counter to see if we stop
 */
int total_decrement = 0;
int nsteps = PROCWRITES / COLLISION;
if (procno==0)
    printf("Doing %d steps, counter starting: %d\n      probably %d-way collision on each step\n",
           nsteps,counter_init,COLLISION);
for (int step=0; step<nsteps ; step++) {

/*
 * Basic probability of a write is 1/P,
 * so each step only one proc will write.
 * Increase chance of collision by upping
 * the value of COLLISION.
 */
float randomfraction = (rand() / (double)RAND_MAX);
int i_am_available = randomfraction < ( COLLISION * 1./nprocs );

/*
 * Exercise:
 * - atomically read and decrement the counter
```

```
/*
MPI_Win_fence(0,the_window);
int
    counter_value;
if (i_am_available) {
    int
        decrement = -1;
    total_decrement++;
    MPI_Fetch_and_op
        ( /* operate with data from origin: */ &decrement,
        /* retrieve data from target: */ &counter_value,
        MPI_INT, counter_process, 0, MPI_SUM,
        the_window);
#endif DEBUG
    printf("[%d] updating in step %d; retrieved %d\n",procno,step,counter_value);
#endif
}
MPI_Win_fence(0,the_window);
if (i_am_available) {
    my_counter_values[n_my_counter_values++] = counter_value;
}
}

/*
 * What counter values were actually obtained?
 */
gather_sort_print( my_counter_values,n_my_counter_values, comm );

/*
 * We do a correctness test by computing what the
 * window_data is supposed to be
 */
{
    MPI_Win_fence(0,the_window);
    int counter_value;
    MPI_Get( /* origin data to set: */ &counter_value,1,MPI_INT,
            /* window data to get: */ counter_process,0,1,MPI_INT,
            the_window);
    MPI_Win_fence(0,the_window);
    MPI_Allreduce(MPI_IN_PLACE,&total_decrement,1,MPI_INT,MPI_SUM,comm);
    if (procno==counter_process) {
        if (counter_init-total_decrement==counter_value)
            printf("[%d] initial counter %d decreased by %d correctly giving %d\n",
                   procno,counter_init,total_decrement,counter_value);
        else
            printf("[%d] initial counter %d decreased by %d, giving %d s/b %d\n",
                   procno,counter_init,total_decrement,counter_value,counter_init-total_decrement);
    }
}
MPI_Win_free(&the_window);
}

MPI_Finalize();
```

```
    return 0;
}
```

9.9.12 Listing of code examples/mpi/c/countdownput.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <unistd.h>
#include "time.h"

#include <mpi.h>
#include "gather_sort_print.h"

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

    int nprocs,procno;
    MPI_Init(0,0);
    MPI_Comm comm = MPI_COMM_WORLD;
    MPI_Comm_size(comm,&nprocs);
    MPI_Comm_rank(comm,&procno);

    if (nprocs<2) {
        printf("Need at least 2 procs\n");
        MPI_Abort(comm,0);
    }

    // first set a unique random seed
    srand(procno*time(0));

    {
        /*
         * Create a window.
         * We only need a nonzero size on the last process,
         * which we label the `counter_process';
         * everyone else makes a window of size zero.
         */
        MPI_Win the_window;
        int counter_process = nprocs-1;
        int window_data,check_data;
        if (procno==counter_process) {
            window_data = 2*nprocs-1;
            check_data = window_data;
            MPI_Win_create(&window_data,sizeof(int),sizeof(int),
                           MPI_INFO_NULL,comm,&the_window);
        } else {
            MPI_Win_create(&window_data,0,sizeof(int),
                           MPI_INFO_NULL,comm,&the_window);
        }
        /*
         * Initialize the window
         * - PROCWrites is approx the number of writes we want each process to do
         * - COLLISION is approx how many processes will collide on a write
         */
    }
}
```

```
#ifndef COLLISION
#define COLLISION 1
#endif
#ifndef PROCWRITES
#define PROCWRITES 10
#endif

    int counter_init = nprocs * PROCWRITES;
    MPI_Win_fence(0,the_window);
    if (procno==counter_process)
        MPI_Put(&counter_init,1,MPI_INT,
                counter_process,0,1,MPI_INT,
                the_window);
    MPI_Win_fence(0,the_window);

/*
 * Allocate an array (grossly over-dimensioned)
 * for the counter values that belong to me
 */
int *my_counter_values = (int*) malloc( counter_init * sizeof(int) );
if (!my_counter_values) {
    printf("[%d] could not allocate counter values\n",procno);
    MPI_Abort(comm,0);
}
int n_my_counter_values = 0;

/*
 * Loop forever:
 * - at random times update the counter on the counter process
 * - and read out the counter to see if we stop
 */
int total_decrement = 0;
int nsteps = PROCWRITES / COLLISION;
if (procno==0)
    printf("Doing %d steps, %d writes per proc,\n.. probably %d-way collision on each step\n",
           nsteps,PROCWRITES,COLLISION);
for (int step=0; step<nsteps ; step++) {

/*
 * Basic probability of a write is 1/P,
 * so each step only one proc will write.
 * Increase chance of collision by upping
 * the value of COLLISION.
 */
float randomfraction = (rand() / (double)RAND_MAX);
int i_am_available = randomfraction < ( COLLISION * .8/nprocs );

/*
 * Exercise:
 * - decrement the counter by Get, compute new value, Put
 */
MPI_Win_fence(0,the_window);
int counter_value;
MPI_Get( &counter_value,1,MPI_INT,
```

```

        counter_process,0,1,MPI_INT,
        the_window);
MPI_Win_fence(0,the_window);
if (i_am_available) {
#endif DEBUG
    printf("[%d] obtaining value %d in step %d\n",
           procno,counter_value,step);
#endif
    my_counter_values[ n_my_counter_values++ ] = counter_value;
    total_decrement++;
    int decrement = -1;
    counter_value += decrement;
    MPI_Put
        ( &counter_value, 1,MPI_INT,
          counter_process,0,1,MPI_INT,
          the_window);
}
MPI_Win_fence(0,the_window);
}

/*
 * What counter values were actually obtained?
 */
gather_sort_print( my_counter_values,n_my_counter_values, comm );

/*
 * We do a correctness test by computing what the
 * window_data is supposed to be
 */
{
    MPI_Win_fence(0,the_window);
    int counter_value;
    MPI_Get( /* origin data to set: */ &counter_value,1,MPI_INT,
             /* window data to get: */ counter_process,0,1,MPI_INT,
             the_window);
    MPI_Win_fence(0,the_window);
    MPI_Allreduce(MPI_IN_PLACE,&total_decrement,1,MPI_INT,MPI_SUM,comm);
    if (procno==counter_process) {
        if (counter_init-total_decrement==counter_value)
            printf("[%d] initial counter %d decreased by %d correctly giving %d\n",
                   procno,counter_init,total_decrement,counter_value);
        else
            printf("[%d] initial counter %d decreased by %d, giving %d s/b %d\n",
                   procno,counter_init,total_decrement,counter_value,counter_init-total_decrement);
    }
}
MPI_Win_free(&the_window);
}

MPI_Finalize();
return 0;
}

```

9.9.13 Listing of code examples/mpi/c/countdownacc.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <unistd.h>

#include <mpi.h>
#include "gather_sort_print.h"

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

#include "globalinit.c"
if (nprocs<2) {
    printf("Need at least 2 procs\n");
    MPI_Abort(comm,0);
}

// first set a unique random seed
srand(procno*time(0));

{
/*
 * Create a window.
 * We only need a nonzero size on the last process,
 * which we label the `counter_process';
 * everyone else makes a window of size zero.
 */
MPI_Win the_window;
int counter_process = nprocs-1;
int window_data,check_data;
if (procno==counter_process) {
    window_data = 2*nprocs-1;
    check_data = window_data;
    MPI_Win_create(&window_data,sizeof(int),sizeof(int),
                  MPI_INFO_NULL,comm,&the_window);
} else {
    MPI_Win_create(&window_data,0,sizeof(int),
                  MPI_INFO_NULL,comm,&the_window);
}
/*
 * Initialize the window
 * - PROCWRITES is approx the number of writes we want each process to do
 * - COLLISION  is approx how many processes will collide on a write
 */
#ifndef COLLISION
#define COLLISION 2
#endif
#ifndef PROCWRITES
#define PROCWRITES 40
#endif
    int counter_init = nprocs * PROCWRITES;
    MPI_Win_fence(0,the_window);
    if (procno==counter_process)
        MPI_Put(&counter_init,1,MPI_INT,
```

```
        counter_process,0,1,MPI_INT,
        the_window);
MPI_Win_fence(0,the_window);

/*
 * Allocate an array (grossly over-dimensioned)
 * for the counter values that belong to me
 */
int *my_counter_values = (int*) malloc( counter_init * sizeof(int) );
if (!my_counter_values) {
    printf("[%d] could not allocate counter values\n",procno);
    MPI_Abort(comm,0);
}
int n_my_counter_values = 0;

/*
 * Loop:
 * - at random times update the counter on the counter process
 * - and read out the counter to see if we stop
 */
int total_decrement = 0;
int nsteps = PROCWRITES / COLLISION;
if (procno==0)
    printf("Doing %d steps, counter starting: %d\n      probably %d-way collision on each step\n",
           nsteps,counter_init,COLLISION);
for (int step=0; step<nsteps ; step++) {

/*
 * Basic probability of a write is 1/P,
 * so each step only one proc will write.
 * Increase chance of collision by upping
 * the value of COLLISION.
 */
float randomfraction = (rand() / (double)RAND_MAX);
int i_am_available = randomfraction < ( COLLISION * 1./nprocs );

/*
 * Exercise:
 * - decrement the counter by Get, compute new value, Accumulate
 */
MPI_Win_fence(0,the_window);
int counter_value;
MPI_Get( &counter_value,1,MPI_INT,
         counter_process,0,1,MPI_INT,
         the_window);
MPI_Win_fence(0,the_window);
if (i_am_available) {
#endif DEBUG
    printf("[%d] updating in step %d\n",procno,step);
#endif
    my_counter_values[n_my_counter_values++] = counter_value;
    total_decrement++;
    int decrement = -1;
```

```

MPI_Accumulate
( &decrement,      1,MPI_INT,
  counter_process,0,1,MPI_INT,
  MPI_SUM,
  the_window);
}

MPI_Win_fence(0,the_window);
}

/*
 * What counter values were actually obtained?
 */
gather_sort_print( my_counter_values,n_my_counter_values, comm );

/*
 * We do a correctness test by computing what the
 * window_data is supposed to be
 */
{
    MPI_Win_fence(0,the_window);
    int counter_value;
    MPI_Get( /* origin data to set: */ &counter_value,1,MPI_INT,
            /* window data to get: */ counter_process,0,1,MPI_INT,
            the_window);
    MPI_Win_fence(0,the_window);
    MPI_Allreduce(MPI_IN_PLACE,&total_decrement,1,MPI_INT,MPI_SUM,comm);
    if (procno==counter_process) {
        if (counter_init-total_decrement==counter_value)
            printf("[%d] initial counter %d decreased by %d correctly giving %d\n",
                   procno,counter_init,total_decrement,counter_value);
        else
            printf("[%d] initial counter %d decreased by %d, giving %d s/b %d\n",
                   procno,counter_init,total_decrement,counter_value,counter_init-total_decrement);
    }
}
MPI_Win_free(&the_window);
}

MPI_Finalize();
return 0;
}

```

9.9.14 Listing of code examples/mpi/c/windynamic.c

```

#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <unistd.h>

#include <mpi.h>
#include "window.c"

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

```

```
#include "globalinit.c"

{
    MPI_Win the_window;
    int origin=0, data_proc = nprocs-1;
    int *retrieve=NULL,*window_buffer=NULL;

    MPI_Win_create_dynamic(MPI_INFO_NULL,comm,&the_window);
    if (procno==data_proc)
        window_buffer = (int*) malloc( 2*sizeof(int) );
    MPI_Win_attach(the_window,window_buffer,2*sizeof(int));

    test_window( the_window,comm );

    if (procno==data_proc) {
        window_buffer[0] = 1;
        window_buffer[1] = 27;
    }
    if (procno==origin) {
        retrieve = (int*) malloc( sizeof(int) );
    }

    MPI_Aint data_address;
    if (procno==data_proc) {
        MPI_Get_address(window_buffer,&data_address);
    }
    MPI_Bcast(&data_address,1,MPI_AINT,data_proc,comm);

    MPI_Win_fence(0,the_window);
    if (procno==origin) {
        MPI_Aint disp = data_address+1*sizeof(int);
        MPI_Get( /* data on origin: */           retrieve, 1,MPI_INT,
                /* data on target: */ data_proc,disp,      1,MPI_INT,
                the_window);
    }
    MPI_Win_fence(0,the_window);

    if (procno==origin)
        printf("I got the following: %d\n",retrieve[0]);
    MPI_Win_free(&the_window);
}

MPI_Finalize();
return 0;
}
```

Chapter 10

MPI topic: File I/O

This chapter discusses the I/O support of MPI, which is intended to alleviate the problems inherent in parallel file access. Let us first explore the issues. This story partly depends on what sort of parallel computer are you running on. Here are some of the hardware scenarios you may encounter:

- On networks of workstations each node will have a separate drive with its own file system.
- On many clusters there will be a *shared file system* that acts as if every process can access every file.
- Cluster nodes may or may not have a private file system.

Based on this, the following strategies are possible, even before we start talking about MPI I/O.

- One process can collect all data with `MPI_Gather` and write it out. There are at least three things wrong with this: it uses network bandwidth for the gather, it may require a large amount of memory on the root process, and centralized writing is a bottleneck.
- Absent a shared file system, writing can be parallelized by letting every process create a unique file and merge these after the run. This makes the I/O symmetric, but collecting all the files is a bottleneck.
- Even with a with a shared file system this approach is possible, but it can put a lot of strain on the file system, and the post-processing can be a significant task.
- Using a shared file system, there is nothing against every process opening the same existing file for reading, and using an individual file pointer to get its unique data.
- ... but having every process open the same file for output is probably not a good idea. For instance, if two processes try to write at the end of the file, you may need to synchronize them, and synchronize the file system flushes.

For these reasons, MPI has a number of routines that make it possible to read and write a single file from a large number of processes, giving each process its own well-defined location where to access the data. These locations can use MPI *derived datatypes* for both the source data (that is, in memory) and target data (that is, on disk). Thus, in one call that is collective on a communicator each process can address data that is not contiguous in memory, and place it in locations that are not contiguous on disc.

There are dedicated libraries for file I/O, such as *hdf5*, *netcdf*, or *silo*. However, these often add header information to a file that may not be understandable to post-processing applications. With MPI I/O you are in complete control of what goes to the file. (A useful tool for viewing your file is the unix utility `od`.)

Figure 10.1 MPI_File_open

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
<code>MPI_File_open (</code>					
<code>comm</code>	<code>communicator</code>		<code>MPI_Comm</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Comm)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>filename</code>	<code>name of file to open</code>		<code>const char*</code>	<code>CHARACTER</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>amode</code>	<code>file access mode</code>		<code>int</code>	<code>INTEGER</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>info</code>	<code>info object</code>		<code>MPI_Info</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Info)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>fh</code>	<code>new file handle</code>		<code>MPI_File*</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_File)</code>	<code>OUT</code>
<code>)</code>					

Python:

```
Open(type cls, IntraComm comm, filename,
     int amode=MODE_RDONLY, Info info=INFO_NULL)
```

TACC note. Each node has a private /tmp file system (typically flash storage), to which you can write files. Considerations:

- Since these drives are separate from the shared file system, you don't have to worry about stress on the file servers.
- These temporary file systems are wiped after your job finishes, so you have to do the post-processing in your job script.
- The capacity of these local drives are fairly limited; see the userguide for exact numbers.

10.1 File handling

MPI has a datatype for files: `MPI_File`. This acts a little like a traditional file handle, in that there are open, close, read/write, and seek operations on it. However, unlike traditional file handling, which in parallel would mean having one handle per process, this handle is collective: MPI processes act as if they share one file handle.

You open a file with `MPI_File_open` (figure 10.1). This routine is collective, even if only certain processes will access the file with a read or write call. Similarly, `MPI_File_close` is collective.

Python note 27: File open is class method. Note the slightly unusual syntax for opening a file:

```
|| mpifile = MPI.File.Open(comm,filename,mode)
```

Even though the file is opened on a communicator, it is a class method for the `MPI.File` class, rather than for the communicator object. The latter is passed in as an argument.

File access modes:

- `MPI_MODE_RDONLY`: read only,
- `MPI_MODE_RDWR`: reading and writing,

Figure 10.2 MPI_File_seek

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_File_seek (
fh	file handle		MPI_File	TYPE (MPI_File)	INOUT
offset	file offset		MPI_Offset	INTEGER (KIND=MPI_OFFSET_KIND)	IN
whence	update mode		int	INTEGER	IN
)					

- MPI_MODE_WRONLY: write only,
- MPI_MODE_CREATE: create the file if it does not exist,
- MPI_MODE_EXCL: error if creating file that already exists,
- MPI_MODE_DELETE_ON_CLOSE: delete file on close,
- MPI_MODE_UNIQUE_OPEN: file will not be concurrently opened elsewhere,
- MPI_MODE_SEQUENTIAL: file will only be accessed sequentially,
- MPI_MODE_APPEND: set initial position of all file pointers to end of file.

These modes can be added or bitwise-or'ed.

As a small illustration:

Code:

```
// filewrite.c
MPI_File mpifile;
MPI_File_open
  (comm,"filewrite.dat",
   MPI_MODE_CREATE | MPI_MODE_WRONLY,MPI_INFO_NULL,
   &mpifile);
MPI_File_write_at
  (mpifile,/* offset: */ procno*sizeof(int),
   &procno,1, MPI_INT,MPI_STATUS_IGNORE);
MPI_File_close(&mpifile);
```

Output:

```
Finished: all 4 correct
octal dump:
0000000 0000000 0000000 0000001 0000000 0000002
0000020
```

You can delete a file with MPI_File_delete.

Buffers can be flushed with MPI_File_sync, which is a collective call.

10.2 File reading and writing

The basic file operations, in between the open and close calls, are the POSIX-like, noncollective, calls

- MPI_File_seek (figure 10.2). The whence parameter can be:
 - MPI_SEEK_SET The pointer is set to offset.
 - MPI_SEEK_CUR The pointer is set to the current pointer position plus offset.
 - MPI_SEEK_END The pointer is set to the end of the file plus offset.

Figure 10.3 MPI_File_write

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_File_write					
	MPI_File_write_c				
	fh	file handle	MPI_File	TYPE (MPI_File)	INOUT
	buf	initial address of buffer	const void*	TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)	IN
	count	number of elements in buffer	[int MPI_Count]	INTEGER	IN
	datatype	datatype of each buffer element	MPI_Datatype	TYPE (MPI_Datatype)	IN
	status	status object	MPI_Status*	TYPE (MPI_Status)	OUT
)				

Figure 10.4 MPI_File_read

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_File_read					
	MPI_File_read_c				
	fh	file handle	MPI_File	TYPE (MPI_File)	INOUT
	buf	initial address of buffer	void*	TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)	OUT
	count	number of elements in buffer	[int MPI_Count]	INTEGER	IN
	datatype	datatype of each buffer element	MPI_Datatype	TYPE (MPI_Datatype)	IN
	status	status object	MPI_Status*	TYPE (MPI_Status)	OUT
)				

- **MPI_File_write** (figure 10.3). This routine writes the specified data in the locations specified with the current file view. The number of items written is returned in the **MPI_Status** argument; all other fields of this argument are undefined. It can not be used if the file was opened with **MPI_MODE_SEQUENTIAL**.
- If all processes execute a write at the same logical time, it is better to use the collective call **MPI_File_write_all**.
- **MPI_File_read** (figure 10.4) This routine attempts to read the specified data from the locations specified in the current file view. The number of items read is returned in the **MPI_Status** argument; all other fields of this argument are undefined. It can not be used if the file was opened with **MPI_MODE_SEQUENTIAL**.
- If all processes execute a read at the same logical time, it is better to use the collective call **MPI_File_read_all** (figure 10.5).

For thread safety it is good to combine seek and read/write operations:

Figure 10.5 MPI_File_read_all

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_File_read_all (
MPI_File_read_all_c (
fh	file handle		MPI_File	TYPE (MPI_File)	INOUT
buf	initial address of buffer		void*	TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)	OUT
count	number of elements in buffer		[int MPI_Count]	INTEGER	IN
datatype	datatype of each buffer element		MPI_Datatype	TYPE (MPI_Datatype)	IN
status	status object		MPI_Status*	TYPE (MPI_Status)	OUT
)					

- [MPI_File_read_at](#): combine read and seek. The collective variant is [MPI_File_read_at_all](#).
- [MPI_File_write_at](#): combine write and seek. The collective variant is [MPI_File_write_at_all](#); section 10.2.2.

Writing to and reading from a parallel file is rather similar to sending a receiving:

- The process uses an elementary data type or a derived datatype to describe what elements in an array go to file, or are read from file.
- In the simplest case, your read or write that data to the file using an offset, or first having done a seek operation.
- But you can also set a ‘file view’ to describe explicitly what elements in the file will be involved.

10.2.1 Nonblocking read/write

Just like there are blocking and nonblocking sends, there are also nonblocking writes and reads: [MPI_File_iwrite](#) (figure 10.6), [MPI_File_iread](#) operations, and their collective versions [MPI_File_iwrite_all](#), [MPI_File_iread_all](#).

Also [MPI_File_iwrite_at](#), [MPI_File_iwrite_at_all](#), [MPI_File_iread_at](#), [MPI_File_iread_at_all](#).

These routines output an [MPI_Request](#) object, which can then be tested with [MPI_Wait](#) or [MPI_Test](#).

Nonblocking collective I/O functions much like other nonblocking collectives (section 3.11): the request is satisfied if all processes finish the collective.

There are also *split collectives* that function like nonblocking collective I/O, but with the request/wait mechanism: [MPI_File_write_all_begin](#) / [MPI_File_write_all_end](#) (and similarly [MPI_File_read_all_begin](#) / [MPI_File_read_all_end](#)) where the second routine blocks until the collective write/read has been concluded.

Also [MPI_File_iread_shared](#), [MPI_File_iwrite_shared](#).

Figure 10.6 MPI_File_iwrite

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
<code>MPI_File_iwrite (</code>					
<code> MPI_File_iwrite_c (</code>					
<code>fh</code>	file handle		<code>MPI_File</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_File)</code>	<code>INOUT</code>
<code>buf</code>	initial address of buffer		<code>const void*</code>	<code>TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>count</code>	number of elements in buffer		<code>[int MPI_Count]</code>	<code>INTEGER</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>datatype</code>	datatype of each buffer element		<code>MPI_Datatype</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Datatype)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>request</code>	request object		<code>MPI_Request*</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Request)</code>	<code>OUT</code>
<code>)</code>					

Figure 10.7 MPI_File_write_at

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
<code>MPI_File_write_at (</code>					
<code> MPI_File_write_at_c (</code>					
<code>fh</code>	file handle		<code>MPI_File</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_File)</code>	<code>INOUT</code>
<code>offset</code>	file offset		<code>MPI_Offset</code>	<code>INTEGER (KIND=MPI_OFFSET_KIND)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>buf</code>	initial address of buffer		<code>const void*</code>	<code>TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>count</code>	number of elements in buffer		<code>[int MPI_Count]</code>	<code>INTEGER</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>datatype</code>	datatype of each buffer element		<code>MPI_Datatype</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Datatype)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>status</code>	status object		<code>MPI_Status*</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Status)</code>	<code>OUT</code>
<code>)</code>					

Python:

```
MPI.File.Write_at(self, Offset offset, buf, Status status=None)
```

10.2.2 Individual file pointers, contiguous writes

After the collective open call, each process holds an *individual file pointer* that it can individually position somewhere in the shared file. Let's explore this modality.

The simplest way of writing a data to file is much like a send call: a buffer is specified with the usual count/datatype specification, and a target location in the file is given. The routine `MPI_File_write_at` (figure 10.7) gives this location in absolute terms with a parameter of type `MPI_Offset`, which counts bytes.

Exercise 10.1. Create a buffer of length `nwords=3` on each process, and write these buffers

as a sequence to one file with `MPI_File_write_at`.

(There is a skeleton for this exercise under the name `blockwrite`.)

Figure 10.1: Writing at an offset



Instead of giving the position in the file explicitly, you can also use a `MPI_File_seek` call to position the file pointer, and write with `MPI_File_write` at the pointer location. The write call itself also *advances the file pointer* so separate calls for writing contiguous elements need no seek calls with `MPI_SEEK_CUR`.

Exercise 10.2. Rewrite the code of exercise 10.1 to use a loop where each iteration writes only one item to file. Note that no explicit advance of the file pointer is needed.

Exercise 10.3. Construct a file with the consecutive integers $0, \dots, WP$ where W some integer, and P the number of processes. Each process p writes the numbers

$p, p + W, p + 2W, \dots$. Use a loop where each iteration

1. writes a single number with `MPI_File_write`, and
2. advanced the file pointer with `MPI_File_seek` with a `whence` parameter of `MPI_SEEK_CUR`.

10.2.3 File views

The previous mode of writing is enough for writing simple contiguous blocks in the file. However, you can also access noncontiguous areas in the file. For this you use `MPI_File_set_view` (figure 10.8). This call is collective, even if not all processes access the file.

- The `disp` displacement parameters is measured in bytes. It can differ between processes. On sequential files such as tapes or network streams it does not make sense to set a displacement; for those the `MPI_DISPLACEMENT_CURRENT` value can be used.
- The `etype` describes the data type of the file, it needs to be the same on all processes.
- The `filetype` describes how this process sees the file, so it can differ between processes.
- The `datarep` string can have the following values:
 - `native`: data on disk is represented in exactly the same format as in memory;
 - `internal`: data on disk is represented in whatever internal format is used by the MPI implementation;
 - `external`: data on disk is represented using XDR portable data formats.
- The `info` parameter is an `MPI_Info` object, or `MPI_INFO_NULL`. See section 15.1.1.3 for more on file info. (See `T3PIO` [19] for a tool that assists in setting this object.)

```
// scatterwrite.c
MPI_File_set_view
  (mpifile,
```

Figure 10.8 MPI_File_set_view

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
<code>MPI_File_set_view (</code>					
<code>fh</code>	<code>file handle</code>		<code>MPI_File</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_File)</code>	<code>INOUT</code>
<code>disp</code>	<code>displacement</code>		<code>MPI_Offset</code>	<code>INTEGER (KIND=MPI_OFFSET_KIND)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>etype</code>	<code>elementary datatype</code>		<code>MPI_Datatype</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Datatype)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>filetype</code>	<code>filetype</code>		<code>MPI_Datatype</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Datatype)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>datarep</code>	<code>data representation</code>		<code>const char*</code>	<code>CHARACTER</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>info</code>	<code>info object</code>		<code>MPI_Info</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Info)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>)</code>					

Python:

```
mpifile = MPI.File.Open( .... )
mpifile.Set_view
    (self,
     Offset disp=0, Datatype etype=None, Datatype filetype=None,
     datarep=None, Info info=INFO_NULL)
```

```
||   offset,MPI_INT,scattertype,
||   "native",MPI_INFO_NULL);
```

Exercise 10.4.

(There is a skeleton for this exercise under the name `viewwrite`.) Write a file in the same way as in exercise 10.1, but now use `MPI_File_write` and use `MPI_File_set_view` to set a view that determines where the data is written.

You can get very creative effects by setting the view to a derived datatype.

Fortran note 12: Offset literals. In Fortran you have to assure that the displacement parameter is of ‘kind’ `MPI_OFFSET_KIND`. In particular, you can not specify a literal zero ‘0’ as the displacement; use `0_MPI_OFFSET_KIND` instead.

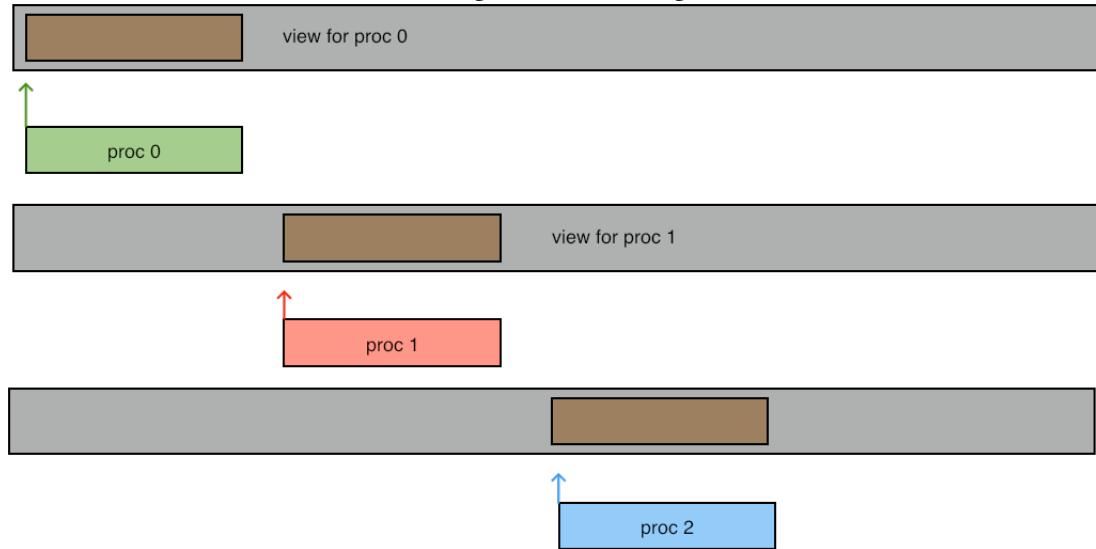
More: `MPI_File_set_size`, `MPI_File_get_size`, `k MPI_File_pallocate`, `MPI_File_get_view`.

10.2.4 Shared file pointers

It is possible to have a file pointer that is shared (and therefore identical) between all processes of the communicator that was used to open the file. This file pointer is set with `MPI_File_seek_shared`. For reading and writing there are then two sets of routines:

- Individual accesses are done with `MPI_File_read_shared` and `MPI_File_write_shared`. Nonblocking variants are `MPI_File_iread_shared` and `MPI_File_iwrite_shared`.
- Collective accesses are done with `MPI_File_read_ordered` and `MPI_File_write_ordered`, which execute the operations in order ascending by rank.

Figure 10.2: Writing at a view



Shared file pointers require that the same view is used on all processes. Also, these operations are less efficient because of the need to maintain the shared pointer.

10.3 Consistency

It is possible for one process to read data previously written by another process. For this, it is of course necessary to impose a temporal order, for instance by using [MPI_Barrier](#), or using a zero-byte send from the writing to the reading process.

However, the file also needs to be declared *atomic*: [MPI_File_set_atomicity](#).

10.4 Constants

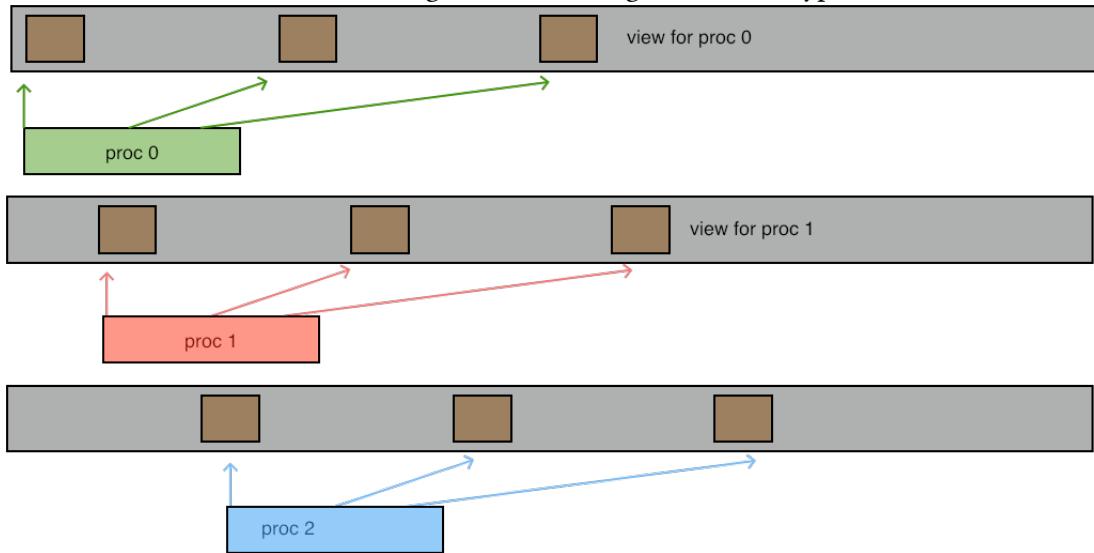
[MPI_SEEK_SET](#) used to be called SEEK_SET which gave conflicts with the C++ library. This had to be circumvented with

```
make CPPFLAGS="-DMPICH_IGNORE_CXX_SEEK -DMPICH_SKIP_MPICXX"  
and such.
```

10.5 Error handling

By default, MPI uses [MPI_ERRORS_ARE_FATAL](#) since parallel errors are almost impossible to recover from. File handling errors, on the other hand, are less serious: if a file is not found, the operation can be abandoned. For this reason, the default error handler for file operations is [MPI_ERRORS_RETURN](#).

Figure 10.3: Writing at a derived type



The default I/O error handler can be queried and set with `MPI_File_get_errhandler` and `MPI_File_set_errhandler` respectively, passing `MPI_FILE_NULL` as argument.

10.6 Review questions

Exercise 10.5. T/F? After your *SLURM* job ends, you can copy from the login node the files you've written to `\tmp`.

Solution to exercise 10.5. *False: \tmp is local to the nodes, so*

- *it is not accessible after your job ends, and*
- *it is wiped after your job ends.*

Exercise 10.6. T/F? File views (`MPI_File_set_view`) are intended to

- write MPI derived types to file; without them you can only write contiguous buffers;
- prevent collisions in collective writes; they are not needed for individual writes.

Solution to exercise 10.6. *False and false.*

Exercise 10.7. The sequence `MPI_File_seek_shared`, `MPI_File_read_shared` can be replaced by `MPI_File_seek`, `MPI_File_read` if you make what changes?

Solution to exercise 10.7. *Each process needs to position its own file pointer.*

10.7 Sources used in this chapter

10.7.1 Listing of code header

Chapter 11

MPI topic: Topologies

A communicator describes a group of processes, but the structure of your computation may not be such that every process will communicate with every other process. For instance, in a computation that is mathematically defined on a Cartesian 2D grid, the processes themselves act as if they are two-dimensionally ordered and communicate with N/S/E/W neighbors. If MPI had this knowledge about your application, it could conceivably optimize for it, for instance by renumbering the ranks so that communicating processes are closer together physically in your cluster.

The mechanism to declare this structure of a computation to MPI is known as a *virtual topology*. The following types of topology are defined:

- `MPI_UNDEFINED`: this value holds for communicators where no topology has explicitly been specified.
- `MPI_CART`: this value holds for Cartesian topologies, where processes act as if they are ordered in a multi-dimensional ‘brick’; see section 11.1.
- `MPI_GRAPH`: this value describes the graph topology that was defined in MPI-1; section 11.2.4. It is unnecessarily burdensome, since each process needs to know the total graph, and should therefore be considered obsolete; the type `MPI_DIST_GRAPH` should be used instead.
- `MPI_DIST_GRAPH`: this value describes the distributed graph topology where each process only describes the edges in the process graph that touch itself; see section 11.2.

These values can be discovered with the routine `MPI_Topo_test`.

11.1 Cartesian grid topology

A *Cartesian grid* is a structure, typically in 2 or 3 dimensions, of points that have two neighbors in each of the dimensions. Thus, if a Cartesian grid has sizes $K \times M \times N$, its points have coordinates (k, m, n) with $0 \leq k < K$ et cetera. Most points have six neighbors $(k \pm 1, m, n), (k, m \pm 1, n), (k, m, n \pm 1)$; the exception are the edge points. A grid where edge processors are connected through *wraparound connections* is called a *periodic grid*.

The auxiliary routine `MPI_Dims_create` assists in finding a grid of a given dimension, attempting to minimize the diameter.

Figure 11.1 MPI_Cart_create

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
<code>MPI_Cart_create (</code>					
<code>comm_old</code>		input communicator	<code>MPI_Comm</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Comm)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>ndims</code>		number of dimensions of Cartesian grid	<code>int</code>	<code>INTEGER</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>dims</code>		integer array of size <code>ndims</code> specifying the number of processes in each dimension	<code>const int[]</code>	<code>INTEGER (ndims)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>periods</code>		logical array of size <code>ndims</code> specifying whether the grid is periodic (true) or not (false) in each dimension	<code>const int[]</code>	<code>LOGICAL (ndims)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>reorder</code>		ranking may be reordered (true) or not (false)	<code>int</code>	<code>LOGICAL</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>comm_cart</code>		communicator with new Cartesian topology	<code>MPI_Comm*</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Comm)</code>	<code>OUT</code>
<code>)</code>					

Code:

```
// cartdims.c
int *dimensions = (int*)
    →malloc(dim*sizeof(int));
for (int idim=0; idim<dim; idim++)
    dimensions[idim] = 0;
MPI_Dims_create(nprocs,dim,dimensions);
```

Output:

```
mpicc -o cartdims cartdims.o
Cartesian grid size: 3 dim: 1
    3
Cartesian grid size: 3 dim: 2
    3 x 1
Cartesian grid size: 4 dim: 1
    4
Cartesian grid size: 4 dim: 2
    2 x 2
Cartesian grid size: 4 dim: 3
    2 x 2 x 1
Cartesian grid size: 12 dim: 1
    12
Cartesian grid size: 12 dim: 2
    4 x 3
Cartesian grid size: 12 dim: 3
    3 x 2 x 2
Cartesian grid size: 12 dim: 4
    3 x 2 x 2 x 1
```

If the dimensions array is nonzero in a component, that one is not touched. Of course, the product of the specified dimensions has to divide in the input number of nodes.

11.1.1 Cartesian topology communicator

The cartesian topology is specified by giving `MPI_Cart_create` (figure 11.1) the sizes of the processor grid along each axis, and whether the grid is periodic along that axis.

11. MPI topic: Topologies

Figure 11.2 MPI_Topo_test

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Topo_test (
comm	communicator		MPI_Comm	TYPE (MPI_Comm)	IN
status	topology type of communicator comm		int*	INTEGER	OUT
)					

```
|| MPI_Comm cart_comm;
|| int *periods = (int*) malloc(dim*sizeof(int));
|| for ( int id=0; id<dim; id++ ) periods[id] = 0;
|| MPI_Cart_create
||   ( comm,dim,dimensions,periods,
||     0,&cart_comm );
```

(The Cartesian grid can have fewer processes than the input communicator: any processes not included get `MPI_COMM_NULL` as output.)

For a given communicator, you can test what type it is with `MPI_Topo_test` (figure 11.2):

```
|| int world_type,cart_type;
|| MPI_Topo_test( comm,&world_type );
|| MPI_Topo_test( cart_comm,&cart_type );
|| if (procno==0) {
||   printf("World comm type=%d, Cart comm type=%d\n",
||         world_type, cart_type);
||   printf("no topo      =%d, cart top      =%d\n",
||         MPI_UNDEFINED,MPI_CART);
|| }
```

For a Cartesian communicator, you can retrieve its information with `MPI_Cartdim_get` and `MPI_Cart_get`:

```
|| int dim;
|| MPI_Cartdim_get( cart_comm,&dim );
|| int *dimensions = (int*) malloc(dim*sizeof(int));
|| int *periods    = (int*) malloc(dim*sizeof(int));
|| int *coords     = (int*) malloc(dim*sizeof(int));
|| MPI_Cart_get( cart_comm,dim,dimensions,periods,coords );
```

11.1.2 Cartesian vs world rank

Each point in this new communicator has a coordinate and a rank. The translation from rank to Cartesian coordinate is done by `MPI_Cart_coords` (figure 11.3), and translation from coordinates to a rank is done by `MPI_Cart_rank` (figure 11.4). In both cases, this translation can be done on any process; for the latter routine note that coordinates outside the Cartesian grid are erroneous, if the grid is not periodic in the offending coordinate.

Figure 11.3 MPI_Cart_coords

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Cart_coords					
comm		communicator with Cartesian structure	MPI_Comm	TYPE (MPI_Comm)	IN
rank		rank of a process within group of comm	int	INTEGER	IN
maxdims		length of vector coords in the calling program	int	INTEGER	IN
coords		integer array (of size maxdims) containing the Cartesian coordinates of specified process	int[]	INTEGER (maxdims)	OUT
)					

Figure 11.4 MPI_Cart_rank

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Cart_rank					
comm		communicator with Cartesian structure	MPI_Comm	TYPE (MPI_Comm)	IN
coords		integer array (of size ndims) specifying the Cartesian coordinates of a process	const int[]	INTEGER(*)	IN
rank		rank of specified process	int*	INTEGER	OUT
)					

```
// cart.c
MPI_Comm comm2d;
int periodic[ndim]; periodic[0] = periodic[1] = 0;
MPI_Cart_create(comm,ndim,dimensions,periodic,1,&comm2d);
MPI_Cart_coords(comm2d,procno,ndim,coord_2d);
MPI_Cart_rank(comm2d,coord_2d,&rank_2d);
printf("I am %d: (%d,%d); originally %d\n",
      rank_2d,coord_2d[0],coord_2d[1],procno);
```

For the full source of this example, see section 11.3.2

The `reorder` parameter to `MPI_Cart_create` indicates whether processes can have a rank in the new communicator that is different from in the old one.

11.1.3 Cartesian communication

A common communication pattern in Cartesian grids is to do an `MPI_Sendrecv` with processes that are adjacent along one coordinate axis.

By way of example, consider a 3D grid that is periodic in the first dimension:

```
// cartcoord.c
```

Figure 11.5 MPI_Cart_sub

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Cart_sub (
comm		communicator with Cartesian structure	MPI_Comm	TYPE (MPI_Comm)	IN
remain_dims		the i-th entry of remain_dims specifies whether the i-th dimension is kept in the subgrid (true) or is dropped (false)	const int[]	LOGICAL(*)	IN
newcomm		communicator containing the subgrid that includes the calling process	MPI_Comm*	TYPE (MPI_Comm)	OUT
)					

```

    for ( int id=0; id<dim; id++)
        periods[id] = id==0 ? 1 : 0;
    MPI_Cart_create
    ( comm, dim, dimensions, periods,
      0, &period_comm );

```

For the full source of this example, see section 11.3.3

We shift process 0 in dimensions 0 and 1. In dimension 0 we get a wrapped-around source, and a target that is the next process in row-major ordering; in dimension 1 we get MPI_PROC_NULL as source, and a legitimate target.

Code:

```

int pred, succ;
MPI_Cart_shift
    (period_comm, /* dim: */ 0, /* up: */ 1,
     &pred, &succ);
printf("periodic dimension 0:\n  src=%d, tgt=%d\n",
      pred, succ);
MPI_Cart_shift
    (period_comm, /* dim: */ 1, /* up: */ 1,
     &pred, &succ);
printf("non-periodic dimension 1:\n  src=%d, tgt=%d\n",
      pred, succ);

```

Output:

```

Grid of size 6 in 3 dimensions:
  3 x 2 x 1
Shifting process 0.
periodic dimension 0:
  src=4, tgt=2
non-periodic dimension 1:
  src=-1, tgt=1

```

11.1.4 Communicators in subgrids

The routine MPI_Cart_sub (figure 11.5) is similar to MPI_Comm_split, in that it splits a communicator into disjoint subcommunicators. In this case, it splits a Cartesian communicator into disjoint Cartesian communicators, each corresponding to a subset of the dimensions. This subset inherits both sizes and periodicity from the original communicator.

Code:

```

MPI_Cart_sub( period_comm,remain,&hyperplane );
if (procno==0) {
    MPI_Topo_test( hyperplane,&topo_type );
    MPI_Cartdim_get( hyperplane,&hyperdim );
    printf("hyperplane has dimension %d, type %d\n",
        hyperdim,topo_type );
    MPI_Cart_get( hyperplane,dim,dims,period,coords );
    printf(" periodic: ");
    for (int id=0; id<2; id++)
        printf("%d,",period[id]);
    printf("\n");
}

```

Output:

```

hyperplane has dimension 2, type 2
periodic: 1,0,

```

11.1.5 Reordering

The routine **`MPI_Cart_map`** gives a re-ordered rank for the calling process.

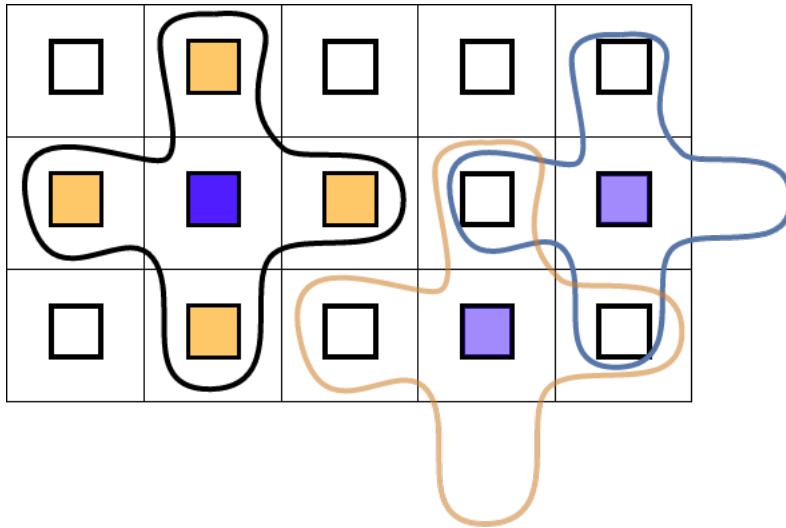
11.2 Distributed graph topology

Figure 11.1: Illustration of a distributed graph topology where each node has four neighbors

In many calculations on a grid (using the term in its mathematical, Finite Element Method (FEM), sense), a grid point will collect information from grid points around it. Under a sensible distribution of the grid over processes, this means that each process will collect information from a number of neighbor processes. The number of neighbors is dependent on that process. For instance, in a 2D grid (and assuming a five-point stencil for the computation) most processes communicate with four neighbors; processes on the edge with three, and processes in the corners with two.

Such a topology is illustrated in figure 11.1.

MPI's notion of *graph topology*, and the *neighborhood collectives*, offer an elegant way of expressing such communication structures. There are various reasons for using graph topologies over the older, simpler methods.

- MPI is allowed to reorder the processes, so that network proximity in the cluster corresponds to proximity in the structure of the code.
- Ordinary collectives could not directly be used for graph problems, unless one would adopt a subcommunicator for each graph neighborhood. However, scheduling would then lead to deadlock or serialization.
- The normal way of dealing with graph problems is through nonblocking communications. However, since the user indicates an explicit order in which they are posted, congestion at certain processes may occur.
- Collectives can pipeline data, while send/receive operations need to transfer their data in its entirety.
- Collectives can use spanning trees, while send/receive uses a direct connection.

Thus the minimal description of a process graph contains for each process:

- Degree: the number of neighbor processes; and
- the ranks of the processes to communicate with.

However, this ignores that communication is not always symmetric: maybe the processes you receive from are not the ones you send to. Worse, maybe only one side of this duality is easily described. Therefore, there are two routines:

- `MPI_Dist_graph_create_adjacent` assumes that a process knows both who it is sending to, and who will send to it. This is the most work for the programmer to specify, but it is ultimately the most efficient.
- `MPI_Dist_graph_create` specifies on each process only what it is the source for; that is, who this process will be sending to. Consequently, some amount of processing – including communication – is needed to build the converse information, the ranks that will be sending to a process.

11.2.1 Graph creation

There are two creation routines for process graphs. These routines are fairly general in that they allow any process to specify any part of the topology. In practice, of course, you will mostly let each process describe its own neighbor structure.

The routine `MPI_Dist_graph_create_adjacent` assumes that a process knows both who it is sending to, and who will send to it. This means that every edge in the communication graph is represented twice, so the memory footprint is double of what is strictly necessary. However, no communication is needed to build the graph.

The second creation routine, `MPI_Dist_graph_create` (figure 11.6), is probably easier to use, especially in cases where the communication structure of your program is symmetric, meaning that a process sends to the same neighbors that it receives from. Now you specify on each process only what it is the source for; that is, who this process will be sending to.¹ Consequently, some amount of processing – including communication – is needed to build the converse information, the ranks that will be sending to a process.

1. I disagree with this design decision. Specifying your sources is usually easier than specifying your destinations.

Figure 11.6 MPI_Dist_graph_create

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Dist_graph_create (
comm_old		input communicator	MPI_Comm	TYPE (MPI_Comm)	IN
n		number of source nodes for which this process specifies edges	int	INTEGER	IN
sources		array containing the n source nodes for which this process specifies edges	const int []	INTEGER(n)	IN
degrees		array specifying the number of destinations for each source node in the source node array	const int []	INTEGER(n)	IN
destinations		destination nodes for the source nodes in the source node array	const int []	INTEGER(*)	IN
weights		weights for source to destination edges	const int []	INTEGER(*)	IN
info		hints on optimization and interpretation of weights	MPI_Info	TYPE (MPI_Info)	IN
reorder		the ranks may be reordered (true) or not (false)	int	LOGICAL	IN
comm_dist_graph		communicator with distributed graph topology added	MPI_Comm*	TYPE (MPI_Comm)	OUT
)					

MPL:

```
dist_graph_communicator
  (const communicator &old_comm,
   const source_set &ss, const dest_set &ds, bool reorder=true)
where:
class dist_graph_communicator::source_set : private set< pair<int,int> >
class dist_graph_communicator::dest_set : private set< pair<int,int> >
```

Python:

```
MPI.Comm.Create_dist_graph
  (self, sources, degrees, destinations, weights=None, Info info=INFO_NULL, bool reorder=False)
returns graph communicator
```

MPL note 57: Distributed graph creation. The class `mpl::dist_graph_communicator` only has a constructor corresponding to `MPI_Dist_graph_create`.

Figure 11.1 describes the common five-point stencil structure. If we let each process only describe itself, we get the following:

- nsources = 1 because the calling process describes on node in the graph: itself.
- sources is an array of length 1, containing the rank of the calling process.
- degrees is an array of length 1, containing the degree (probably: 4) of this process.
- destinations is an array of length the degree of this process, probably again 4. The elements of this array are the ranks of the neighbor nodes; strictly speaking the ones that this process

will send to.

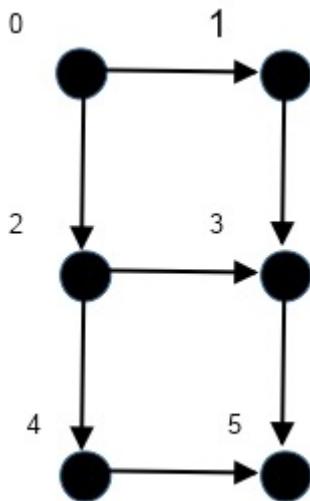
- `weights` is an array declaring the relative importance of the destinations. For an *unweighted graph* use `MPI_UNWEIGHTED`. In the case the graph is weighted, but the degree of a source is zero, you can pass an empty array as `MPI_WEIGHTS_EMPTY`.
- `reorder` (int in C, LOGICAL in Fortran) indicates whether MPI is allowed to shuffle processes to achieve greater locality.

The resulting communicator has all the processes of the original communicator, with the same ranks. In other words `MPI_Comm_size` and `MPI_Comm_rank` gives the same values on the graph communicator, as on the intra-communicator that it is constructed from. To get information about the grouping, use `MPI_Dist_graph_neighbors` and `MPI_Dist_graph_neighbors_count`; section 11.2.3.

By way of example we build an unsymmetric graph, that is, an edge $v_1 \rightarrow v_2$ between vertices v_1, v_2 does not imply an edge $v_2 \rightarrow v_1$.

Code:

```
// graph.c
for ( int i=0; i<=1; i++ ) {
    int neighb_i = proci+i;
    if (neighb_i<0 || neighb_i>=idim)
        continue;
    int j = 1-i;
    int neighb_j = procj+j;
    if (neighb_j<0 || neighb_j>=jdim)
        continue;
    destinations[ degree++ ] =
        PROC(neighb_i,neighb_j,idim,jdim);
}
MPI_Dist_graph_create
(comm,
 /* I specify just one proc: me */ 1,
 &procno,&degree,destinations,weights,
 MPI_INFO_NULL,0,
 &comm2d
);
```



Here we gather the coordinates of the source neighbors:

Code:

```
int indegree,outdegree,
weighted;
MPI_Dist_graph_neighbors_count
(comm2d,
 &indegree,&outdegree,
 &weighted);
int
my_ij[2] = {proci,procj},
other_ij[4][2];
MPI_Neighbor_allgather
( my_ij,2,MPI_INT,
other_ij,2,MPI_INT,
comm2d );
```

Output:

```
[ 0 = (0,0)] has 2 outbound: 1, 2,
  0 inbound:
[ 1 = (0,1)] has 1 outbound: 3,
  1 inbound: (0,0)=0
[ 2 = (1,0)] has 2 outbound: 3, 4,
  1 inbound: (0,0)=0
[ 3 = (1,1)] has 1 outbound: 5,
  2 inbound: (0,1)=1 (1,0)=2
[ 4 = (2,0)] has 1 outbound: 5,
  1 inbound: (1,0)=2
[ 5 = (2,1)] has 0 outbound:
  2 inbound: (1,1)=3 (2,0)=4
```

However, we can't rely on the sources being ordered, so the following segment performs an explicit query for the source neighbors:

Code:

```

int indegree=4, sources[indegree],
    inweights[indegree],weighted;
int outdegree=4, targets[outdegree],
    outweights[outdegree];
MPI_Dist_graph_neighbors_count
(comm2d,
 &indegree,&outdegree,
 &weighted);
MPI_Dist_graph_neighbors
(comm2d,
 indegree,sources,inweights,
 outdegree,targets,outweights
);

```

Output:

```

0 inbound:
1 inbound: 0
1 inbound: 0
2 inbound: 1 2
1 inbound: 2
2 inbound: 4 3

```

Python note 28: Graph communicators. Graph communicator creation is a method of the `Comm` class, and the graph communicator is a function return result:

```
// graph_comm = oldcomm.Create_dist_graph(sources, degrees, destinations)
```

The weights, info, and reorder arguments have default values.

MPL note 58: Graph communicators. The constructor `dist_graph_communicator`

```

dist_graph_communicator
(const communicator &old_comm, const source_set &ss,
 const dest_set &ds, bool reorder = true);

```

is a wrapper around `MPI_Dist_graph_create_adjacent`.

MPL note 59: Graph communicator querying. Methods `indegree`, `outdegree` are wrappers around `MPI_Dist_graph_neighbors_count`. Sources and targets can be queried with `inneighbors` and `outneighbors`, which are wrappers around `MPI_Dist_graph_neighbors`.

11.2.2 Neighbor collectives

We can now use the graph topology to perform a gather or allgather `MPI_Neighbor_allgather` (figure 11.7) that combines only the processes directly connected to the calling process.

The neighbor collectives have the same argument list as the regular collectives, but they apply to a graph communicator.

Exercise 11.1. Revisit exercise 4.3 and solve it using `MPI_Dist_graph_create`. Use figure 11.2 for inspiration.

Use a degree value of 1.

(There is a skeleton for this exercise under the name `rightgraph`.)

The previous exercise can be done with a degree value of:

- 1, reflecting that each process communicates with just 1 other; or

11. MPI topic: Topologies

Figure 11.7 MPI_Neighbor_allgather

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Neighbor_allgather (
MPI_Neighbor_allgather_c (
sendbuf	starting address of send buffer	const void*	TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)	IN	
sendcount	number of elements sent to each neighbor	[int MPI_Count	INTEGER	IN	
sendtype	datatype of send buffer elements	MPI_Datatype	TYPE (MPI_Datatype)	IN	
recvbuf	starting address of receive buffer	void*	TYPE(*), DIMENSION(..)	OUT	
recvcount	number of elements received from each neighbor	[int MPI_Count	INTEGER	IN	
recvtype	datatype of receive buffer elements	MPI_Datatype	TYPE (MPI_Datatype)	IN	
comm	communicator with topology structure	MPI_Comm	TYPE (MPI_Comm)	IN	
)					

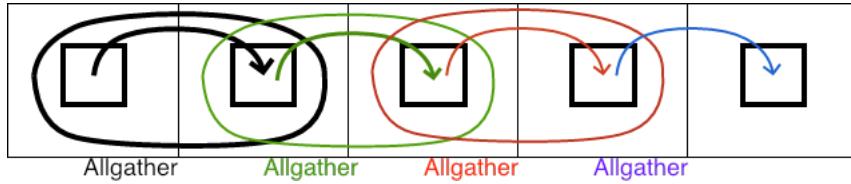


Figure 11.2: Solving the right-send exercise with neighborhood collectives

- 2, reflecting that you really gather from two processes.

In the latter case, results do not wind up in the receive buffer in order of increasing process number as with a traditional gather. Rather, you need to use `MPI_Dist_graph_neighbors` to find their sequencing; see section 11.2.3.

Another neighbor collective is `MPI_Neighbor_alltoall`.

The vector variants are `MPI_Neighbor_allgatherv` and `MPI_Neighbor_alltoallv`.

There is a heterogenous (multiple datatypes) variant: `MPI_Neighbor_alltoallw`.

The list is: `MPI_Neighbor_allgather`, `MPI_Neighbor_allgatherv`, `MPI_Neighbor_alltoall`, `MPI_Neighbor_alltoallv`, `MPI_Neighbor_alltoallw`.

Nonblocking: `MPI_Ineighbor_allgather`, `MPI_Ineighbor_allgatherv`, `MPI_Ineighbor_alltoall`, `MPI_Ineighbor_alltoallv`, `MPI_Ineighbor_alltoallw`.

For unclear reasons there is no `MPI_Neighbor_allreduce`.

Figure 11.8 MPI_Dist_graph_neighbors_count

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
<code>MPI_Dist_graph_neighbors_count (</code>					
<code>comm</code>		communicator with distributed graph topology	<code>MPI_Comm</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Comm)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>indegree</code>		number of edges into this process	<code>int*</code>	<code>INTEGER</code>	<code>OUT</code>
<code>outdegree</code>		number of edges out of this process	<code>int*</code>	<code>INTEGER</code>	<code>OUT</code>
<code>weighted</code>		false if <code>MPI_UNWEIGHTED</code> was supplied during creation, true otherwise	<code>int*</code>	<code>LOGICAL</code>	<code>OUT</code>
<code>)</code>					

Figure 11.9 MPI_Dist_graph_neighbors

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
<code>MPI_Dist_graph_neighbors (</code>					
<code>comm</code>		communicator with distributed graph topology	<code>MPI_Comm</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Comm)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>maxindegree</code>		size of sources and sourceweights arrays	<code>int</code>	<code>INTEGER</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>sources</code>		processes for which the calling process is a destination	<code>int[]</code>	<code>INTEGER (maxindegree)</code>	<code>OUT</code>
<code>sourceweights</code>		weights of the edges into the calling process	<code>int[]</code>	<code>INTEGER(*)</code>	<code>OUT</code>
<code>maxoutdegree</code>		size of destinations and destweights arrays	<code>int</code>	<code>INTEGER</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>destinations</code>		processes for which the calling process is a source	<code>int[]</code>	<code>INTEGER (maxoutdegree)</code>	<code>OUT</code>
<code>destweights</code>		weights of the edges out of the calling process	<code>int[]</code>	<code>INTEGER(*)</code>	<code>OUT</code>
<code>)</code>					

11.2.3 Query

There are two routines for querying the neighbors of a process: `MPI_Dist_graph_neighbors_count` (figure 11.8) and `MPI_Dist_graph_neighbors` (figure 11.9).

While this information seems derivable from the graph construction, that is not entirely true for two reasons.

1. With the nonadjoint version `MPI_Dist_graph_create`, only outdegrees and destinations are specified; this call then supplies the indegrees and sources;
2. As observed above, the order in which data is placed in the receive buffer of a gather call is not determined by the create call, but can only be queried this way.

11.2.4 Graph topology (deprecated)

The original MPI-1 had a graph topology interface `MPI_Graph_create` which required each process to specify the full process graph. Since this is not scalable, it should be considered deprecated. Use the distributed graph topology (section 11.2) instead.

Other legacy routines: `MPI_Graph_neighbors`, `MPI_Graph_neighbors_count`, `MPI_Graph_get`, `MPI_Graphdims_get`.

11.2.5 Re-ordering

The routine `MPI_Graph_map` gives a re-ordered rank for the calling process.

11.3 Sources used in this chapter

11.3.1 Listing of code header

11.3.2 Listing of code examples/mpi/c/cart.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
#include <math.h>
#include "mpi.h"

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

#include "globalinit.c"

    int ndim = 2; int dimensions[2];
    dimensions[0] = 0; dimensions[1] = 0;
    MPI_Dims_create( nprocs,ndim,dimensions );

    MPI_Comm comm2d;
    int periodic[ndim]; periodic[0] = periodic[1] = 0;
    MPI_Cart_create(comm,ndim,dimensions,periodic,1,&comm2d);
    MPI_Cart_coords(comm2d,procno,ndim,coord_2d);
    MPI_Cart_rank(comm2d,coord_2d,&rank_2d);
    printf("I am %d: (%d,%d); originally %d\n",
           rank_2d,coord_2d[0],coord_2d[1],procno);

    int rank_left,rank_right,rank_up,rank_down;
    char indata[4]; int idata=0,sdata=0;
    for (int i=0; i<4; i++)
        indata[i] = 32;
    char mychar = 65+procno;
    MPI_Cart_shift(comm2d,0,+1,&rank_2d,&rank_right);
    MPI_Cart_shift(comm2d,0,-1,&rank_2d,&rank_left);
    MPI_Cart_shift(comm2d,1,+1,&rank_2d,&rank_up);
    MPI_Cart_shift(comm2d,1,-1,&rank_2d,&rank_down);
    int irequest = 0; MPI_Request *requests = malloc(8*sizeof(MPI_Request));
    MPI_Isend(&mychar,1,MPI_CHAR,rank_right, 0,comm, requests+irequest++);
    MPI_Isend(&mychar,1,MPI_CHAR,rank_left, 0,comm, requests+irequest++);
    MPI_Isend(&mychar,1,MPI_CHAR,rank_up, 0,comm, requests+irequest++);
    MPI_Isend(&mychar,1,MPI_CHAR,rank_down, 0,comm, requests+irequest++);
    MPI_Irecv( indata+idata++, 1,MPI_CHAR, rank_right, 0,comm, requests+irequest++);
    MPI_Irecv( indata+idata++, 1,MPI_CHAR, rank_left, 0,comm, requests+irequest++);
    MPI_Irecv( indata+idata++, 1,MPI_CHAR, rank_up, 0,comm, requests+irequest++);
    MPI_Irecv( indata+idata++, 1,MPI_CHAR, rank_down, 0,comm, requests+irequest++);
    MPI_Waitall(irequest,requests,MPI_STATUSES_IGNORE);
    printf("[%d] %s\n",procno,indata);
    /* for (int i=0; i<4; i++) */
    /*     sdata += indata[i]; */
    /* printf("[%d] %d,%d,%d,%d sum=%d\n",procno,indata[0],indata[1],indata[2],indata[3],sdata); */
    if (procno==0)
```

```
    printf("Finished\n");

    MPI_Finalize();
    return 0;
}
```

11.3.3 Listing of code examples/mpi/c/cartcoord.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
#include <math.h>
#include "mpi.h"

void print_grid( int nprocs,int dim,int dimensions[] ) {
    printf("Grid of size %d in %d dimensions:\n ",nprocs,dim);
    for (int idim=0; idim<dim; idim++) {
        printf("%2d",dimensions[idim]);
        if (idim<dim-1) printf(" x ");
    } printf("\n");
}

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

#include "globalinit.c"

const int dim = 3;
if (procno==0)
    printf("dim=%d\n",dim);

/*
 * Create 3D brick
 */
int *dimensions = (int*) malloc(dim*sizeof(int));
for (int idim=0; idim<dim; idim++)
    dimensions[idim] = 0;
MPI_Dims_create(nprocs,dim,dimensions);
int *periods = (int*) malloc(dim*sizeof(int));
for ( int id=0; id<dim; id++)
    periods[id] = 0;
if (procno==0) {
    print_grid( nprocs,dim,dimensions );
}
MPI_Comm cart_comm;
MPI_Cart_create
( comm,dim,dimensions,periods,
  0,&cart_comm );
MPI_Comm period_comm;
for ( int id=0; id<dim; id++)
    periods[id] = id==0 ? 1 : 0;
MPI_Cart_create
( comm,dim,dimensions,periods,
  0,&period_comm );
```

```

/*
 * Translation rank -> coord
 */
if (procno==0) {
    int *coord = (int*) malloc( dim*sizeof(int) );
    for ( int ip=0; ip<nprocs; ip++ ) {
        /*
         * Translate process rank to cartesian coordinate
         */
        MPI_Cart_coords( cart_comm,ip,dim,coord );
        printf("[%2d] coord: [%d",
        for ( int id=0; id<dim; id++ )
            printf("%d,",coord[id]);
        printf("]\n");
    }

    /*
     * Shift the coordinate and translate back to rank
     * This is erroneous for a non-periodic Cartesian grid
     */
    int rank_check;
    coord[0]++;
    MPI_Cart_rank( cart_comm,coord,&rank_check );
    printf("    shifted neighbor : %d\n",rank_check);
    MPI_Cart_rank( period_comm,coord,&rank_check );
    printf("    periodic neighbor: %d\n",rank_check);
}
free(coord);
}

/*
 * Shifted coordinates
 */
if (procno==0) {
    if (dimensions[1]==1) {
        printf("Too few processes: need non-trivial dimensions[1]\n");
    } else {
        printf("\nCartShift\n");
        print_grid(nprocs,dim,dimensions);
        printf("Shifting process 0.\n");
        int pred,succ;
        MPI_Cart_shift
        (period_comm,/* dim: */ 0,/* up: */ 1,
        &pred,&succ);
        printf("periodic dimension 0:\n    src=%d, tgt=%d\n",
        pred,succ);
        MPI_Cart_shift
        (period_comm,/* dim: */ 1,/* up: */ 1,
        &pred,&succ);
        printf("non-periodic dimension 1:\n    src=%d, tgt=%d\n",
        pred,succ);
        printf("cartshift\n\n");
    }
}

```

```
}

/*
 * Subdimensions
 */
{
    int remain[] = {1,0,1};
    int topo_type, hyperdim, dims[3], period[3], coords[3];
    MPI_Comm hyperplane;

    if (procno==0) printf("Hyperplane13\n");
    MPI_Cart_sub( cart_comm,remain,&hyperplane );
    if (procno==0) {
        MPI_Topo_test( hyperplane,&topo_type );
        MPI_Cartdim_get( hyperplane,&hyperdim );
        printf("hyperplane has dimension %d, type %d\n",
               hyperdim,topo_type);
        MPI_Cart_get( hyperplane,dim,dims,period,coords );
        printf(" periodic: ");
        for (int id=0; id<2; id++)
            printf("%d,",period[id]);
        printf("\n");
    }
    MPI_Comm_free( &hyperplane );
    if (procno==0) printf("hyperplane13\n\n");

    if (procno==0) printf("Hyperplane13p\n");
    MPI_Cart_sub( period_comm,remain,&hyperplane );
    if (procno==0) {
        MPI_Topo_test( hyperplane,&topo_type );
        MPI_Cartdim_get( hyperplane,&hyperdim );
        printf("hyperplane has dimension %d, type %d\n",
               hyperdim,topo_type);
        MPI_Cart_get( hyperplane,dim,dims,period,coords );
        printf(" periodic: ");
        for (int id=0; id<2; id++)
            printf("%d,",period[id]);
        printf("\n");
    }
    MPI_Comm_free( &hyperplane );
    if (procno==0) printf("hyperplane13p\n\n");
}

free(dimensions); free(periods);

MPI_Finalize();
return 0;
}
```

Chapter 12

MPI topic: Shared memory

Some programmers are under the impression that MPI would not be efficient on shared memory, since all operations are done through what looks like network calls. This is not correct: many MPI implementations have optimizations that detect shared memory and can exploit it, so that data is copied, rather than going through a communication layer. (Conversely, programming systems for shared memory such as *OpenMP* can actually have inefficiencies associated with thread handling.) The main inefficiency associated with using MPI on shared memory is then that processes can not actually share data.

The one-sided MPI calls (chapter 9) can also be used to emulate shared memory, in the sense that an origin process can access data from a target process without the target's active involvement. However, these calls do not distinguish between actually shared memory and one-sided access across the network.

In this chapter we will look at the ways MPI can interact with the presence of actual shared memory. (This functionality was added in the MPI-3 standard.) This relies on the `MPI_Win` windows concept, but otherwise uses direct access of other processes' memory.

12.1 Recognizing shared memory

MPI's one-sided routines take a very symmetric view of processes: each process can access the window of every other process (within a communicator). Of course, in practice there will be a difference in performance depending on whether the origin and target are actually on the same shared memory, or whether they can only communicate through the network. For this reason MPI makes it easy to group processes by shared memory domains using `MPI_Comm_split_type` (figure 12.1).

Here the `split_type` parameter has to be from the following (short) list:

- `MPI_COMM_TYPE_SHARED`: split the communicator into subcommunicators of processes sharing a memory area.

The following material is for the recently released MPI-4 standard and may not be supported yet.

- `MPI_COMM_TYPE_HW_GUIDED` (MPI-4): split using an `info` value from `MPI_Get_hw_resource_types`.
- `MPI_COMM_TYPE_HW_UNGUIDED` (MPI-4): similar to `MPI_COMM_TYPE_HW_GUIDED`, but the resulting communicators should be a strict subset of the original communicator. On processes where this condition can not be fulfilled, `MPI_COMM_NULL` will be returned.

End of MPI-4 material

12. MPI topic: Shared memory

Figure 12.1 MPI_Comm_split_type

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Comm_split_type		(
comm	communicator		MPI_Comm	TYPE (MPI_Comm)	IN
split_type	type of processes to be grouped together		int	INTEGER	IN
key	control of rank assignment		int	INTEGER	IN
info	info argument		MPI_Info	TYPE (MPI_Info)	INOUT
newcomm	new communicator		MPI_Comm*	TYPE (MPI_Comm)	OUT
)					

Python:

```
MPI.Comm.Split_type(  
    self, int split_type, int key=0, Info info=INFO_NULL)
```

Splitting by shared memory:

Code:

```
// commsplittype.c  
MPI_Info info;  
MPI_Comm_split_type  
    (MPI_COMM_WORLD,  
     MPI_COMM_TYPE_SHARED,  
     procno,info,&sharedcomm);  
MPI_Comm_size  
    (sharedcomm,&new_nprocs);  
MPI_Comm_rank  
    (sharedcomm,&new_procno);
```

Output:

```
make[3]: `commsplittype' is up to date.  
TACC: Starting up job 4356245  
TACC: Starting parallel tasks...  
There are 10 ranks total  
[0] is processor 0 in a shared group of 5, running  
[5] is processor 0 in a shared group of 5, running  
TACC: Shutdown complete. Exiting.
```

Exercise 12.1. Write a program that uses `MPI_Comm_split_type` to analyze for a run

1. How many nodes there are;
2. How many processes there are on each node.

If you run this program on an unequal distribution, say 10 processes on 3 nodes, what distribution do you find?

```
|| Nodes: 3; processes: 10  
|| TACC: Starting up job 4210429  
|| TACC: Starting parallel tasks...  
|| There are 3 nodes  
|| Node sizes: 4 3 3  
|| TACC: Shutdown complete. Exiting.
```

Remark 19 The OpenMPI implementation of MPI has a number of non-standard split types, such as `OMPI_COMM_TYPE_SOCKET`; see https://www.open-mpi.org/doc/v4.1/man3/MPI_Comm_split_type.3.php

Figure 12.2 MPI_Win_allocate_shared

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Win_allocate_shared					
MPI_Win_allocate_shared_c					
size		size of local window in bytes	MPI_Aint	INTEGER (KIND=MPI_ADDRESS_KIND)	IN
disp_unit		local unit size for displacements, in bytes	[int MPI_Aint]	INTEGER	IN
info		info argument	MPI_Info	TYPE (MPI_Info)	IN
comm		intra-communicator	MPI_Comm	TYPE (MPI_Comm)	IN
baseptr		address of local allocated window segment	void*	TYPE(C_PTR)	OUT
win		window object returned by the call	MPI_Win*	TYPE(MPI_Win)	OUT
)					

MPL note 60: Split by shared memory. Similar to ordinary communicator splitting 56:
communicator::split_shared.

12.2 Shared memory for windows

Processes that exist on the same physical shared memory should be able to move data by copying, rather than through MPI send/receive calls – which of course will do a copy operation under the hood. In order to do such user-level copying:

1. We need to create a shared memory area with `MPI_Win_allocate_shared`. This creates a window with the *unified memory model*; and
2. We need to get pointers to where a process' area is in this shared space; this is done with `MPI_Win_shared_query`.

12.2.1 Pointers to a shared window

The first step is to create a window (in the sense of one-sided MPI; section 9.1) on the processes on one node. Using the `MPI_Win_allocate_shared` (figure 12.2) call presumably will put the memory close to the *socket* on which the process runs.

```
// sharedbulk.c
MPI_Win node_window;
MPI_Aint window_size; double *window_data;
if (onnode_procid==0)
    window_size = sizeof(double);
else window_size = 0;
MPI_Win_allocate_shared
    ( window_size,sizeof(double),MPI_INFO_NULL,
```

```
    ||     nodecomm,
    ||     &window_data,&node_window);
```

For the full source of this example, see section 12.3.2

The memory allocated by `MPI_Win_allocate_shared` is contiguous between the processes. This makes it possible to do address calculation. However, if a cluster node has a Non-Uniform Memory Access (NUMA) structure, for instance if two sockets have memory directly attached to each, this would increase latency for some processes. To prevent this, the key `alloc_shared_noncontig` can be set to `true` in the `MPI_Info` object.

The following material is for the recently released MPI-4 standard and may not be supported yet.

In the contiguous case, the `mpi_minimum_memory_alignment` info argument (section 9.1.1) applies only to the memory on the first process; in the noncontiguous case it applies to all.

End of MPI-4 material

```
// numa.c
MPI_Info window_info;
MPI_Info_create(&window_info);
    MPI_Info_set(window_info,"alloc_shared_noncontig","true");
MPI_Win_allocate_shared( window_size,sizeof(double),window_info,
                       nodecomm,
                       &window_data,&node_window);
MPI_Info_free(&window_info);
```

For the full source of this example, see section 12.3.3

Let's explore this. We create a shared window where each process stores exactly one double, that is, 8 bytes. The following code fragment queries the window locations, and prints the distance in bytes to the window on process 0.

```
for (int p=1; p<onnode_nprocs; p++) {
    MPI_Aint window_sizep; int windowp_unit; double *winp_addr;
    MPI_Win_shared_query( node_window,p,
                          &window_sizep,&windowp_unit, &winp_addr );
    distp = (size_t)winp_addr-(size_t)win0_addr;
    if (procno==0)
        printf("Distance %d to zero: %ld\n",p,(long)distp);
```

For the full source of this example, see section 12.3.3

With the default strategy, these windows are contiguous, and so the distances are multiples of 8 bytes. Not so for the the non-contiguous allocation:

Strategy: default behavior of shared window allocation Distance 1 to zero: 8 Distance 2 to zero: 16 Distance 3 to zero: 24 Distance 4 to zero: 32 Distance 5 to zero: 40	Distance 6 to zero: 48 Distance 7 to zero: 56 Distance 8 to zero: 64 Distance 9 to zero: 72
---	--

Figure 12.3 MPI_Win_shared_query

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Win_shared_query					
	MPI_Win_shared_query_c				
win		shared memory window object	MPI_Win	TYPE(MPI_Win)	IN
rank		rank in the group of window	int	INTEGER	IN
	win or MPI_PROC_NULL				
size		size of the window segment	MPI_Aint*	INTEGER (KIND=MPI_ADDRESS_KIND)	OUT
disp_unit		local unit size for displacements, in bytes	[int* MPI_Aint]	INTEGER	OUT
baseptr		address for load/store access to window segment	void*	TYPE(C_PTR)	OUT
)					

Strategy: allow non-contiguous shared window allocation

Distance 1 to zero: 4096	Distance 4 to zero: 16384
Distance 2 to zero: 8192	Distance 5 to zero: 20480
Distance 3 to zero: 12288	Distance 6 to zero: 24576
	Distance 7 to zero: 28672
	Distance 8 to zero: 32768
	Distance 9 to zero: 36864

The explanation here is that each window is placed on its own *small page*, which on this particular system has a size of 4K.

Remark 20 The ampersand operator in C is not a physical address, but a virtual address. The translation of where pages are placed in physical memory is determined by the page table.

12.2.2 Querying the shared structure

Even though the window created above is shared, that doesn't mean it's contiguous. Hence it is necessary to retrieve the pointer to the area of each process that you want to communicate with: `MPI_Win_shared_query` (figure 12.3).

```

||| MPI_Aint window_size0; int window_unit; double *win0_addr;
||| MPI_Win_shared_query
|||   ( node_window,0,
|||     &window_size0,&window_unit, &win0_addr );

```

For the full source of this example, see section 12.3.4

12.2.3 Heat equation example

As an example, which consider the 1D heat equation. On each process we create a local area of three point:

```
// sharedshared.c
MPI_Win_allocate_shared(3,sizeof(int),info,sharedcomm,&shared_baseptr,&shared_window);
```

For the full source of this example, see section [12.3.5](#)

12.2.4 Shared bulk data

In applications such as *ray tracing*, there is a read-only large data object (the objects in the scene to be rendered) that is needed by all processes. In traditional MPI, this would need to be stored redundantly on each process, which leads to large memory demands. With MPI shared memory we can store the data object once per node. Using as above `MPI_Comm_split_type` to find a communicator per NUMA domain, we store the object on process zero of this node communicator.

Exercise 12.2. Let the ‘shared’ data originate on process zero in `MPI_COMM_WORLD`. Then:

- create a communicator per shared memory domain;
- create a communicator for all the processes with number zero on their node;
- broadcast the shared data to the processes zero on each node.

(There is a skeleton for this exercise under the name `shareddata`.)

12.3 Sources used in this chapter

12.3.1 Listing of code header

12.3.2 Listing of code examples/mpi/c/sharedbulk.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <time.h>
#include <unistd.h>
#include <mpi.h>

int main(int argc,char **argv) {
    MPI_Comm comm;
    int nprocs,procid;

    MPI_Init(&argc,&argv);
    comm = MPI_COMM_WORLD;
    MPI_Comm_size(comm,&nprocs);
    MPI_Comm_rank(comm,&procid);

    /*
     * Find the subcommunicator on the node,
     * and get the procid on the node.
     */
    MPI_Comm nodecomm; int onnode_procid;
    MPI_Comm_split_type
        (comm,MPI_COMM_TYPE_SHARED,procid,MPI_INFO_NULL,
         &nodecomm);
    MPI_Comm_rank(nodecomm,&onnode_procid);

    /*
     * Find the subcommunicators of
     * identical `onnode_procid' processes;
     * the procid on that communicator is the node ID
     */
    MPI_Comm crosscomm; int nodeid;
    MPI_Comm_split
        (comm, onnode_procid, procid, &crosscomm);
    MPI_Comm_rank(crosscomm,&nodeid);
    printf("[%d] = (%d,%d)\n",procid,nodeid, onnode_procid);

    /*
     * Create data on global process zero,
     * and broadcast it to the zero processes on other nodes
     */
    double shared_data = 0;
    if (procid==0) shared_data = 3.14;
    if (onnode_procid==0)
        MPI_Bcast(&shared_data,1,MPI_DOUBLE,0,crosscomm);
    if (procid==0)
        printf("Head nodes should have shared data: %e\n",
```

```
    shared_data);

/*
 * Create window on the node communicator;
 * it only has nonzero size on the first process
 */
MPI_Win node_window;
MPI_Aint window_size; double *window_data;
if (onnode_procid==0)
    window_size = sizeof(double);
else window_size = 0;
MPI_Win_allocate_shared
( window_size,sizeof(double),MPI_INFO_NULL,
  nodecomm,
  &window_data,&node_window);

/*
 * Put data on process zero of the node window
 * We use a Put call rather than a straight copy:
 * the Fence calls enforce coherence
 */
MPI_Win_fence(0,node_window);
if (onnode_procid==0) {
    MPI_Aint disp = 0;
    MPI_Put( &shared_data,1,MPI_DOUBLE,0,disp,1,MPI_DOUBLE,node_window);
}
MPI_Win_fence(0,node_window);

/*
 * Now get on each process the address of the window of process zero.
 */
MPI_Aint window_size0; int window_unit; double *win0_addr;
MPI_Win_shared_query
( node_window,0,
  &window_size0,&window_unit, &win0_addr );

/*
 * Check that we can indeed get at the data in the shared memory
 */
printf("[%d,%d] data at shared window %lx: %e\n",
       nodeid,onnode_procid,(unsigned long)win0_addr,*win0_addr);

/*
 * cleanup
 */
MPI_Win_free(&node_window);
MPI_Finalize();
return 0;
}
```

12.3.3 Listing of code examples/mpi/c/numa.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
```

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <time.h>
#include <unistd.h>

#include <mpi.h>
#include "window.c"

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

#include "globalinit.c"

/*
 * Find the subcommunicator on the node,
 * and get the procid on the node.
 */
MPI_Comm nodecomm;
int onnode_procno, onnode_nprocs;
MPI_Comm_split_type
  (comm,MPI_COMM_TYPE_SHARED,procno,MPI_INFO_NULL,
   &nodecomm);
MPI_Comm_size(nodecomm,&onnode_nprocs);
/* if (onnode_nprocs<2) { */
/*   printf("This example needs at least two ranks per node\n"); */
/*   // MPI_Abort(comm,0); */
/* } */
MPI_Comm_rank(nodecomm,&onnode_procno);

for (int strategy=0; strategy<2; strategy++) {
/*
 * Create window on the node communicator;
 * one item on each process
 */
MPI_Aint window_size; double *window_data; MPI_Win node_window;
window_size = sizeof(double);
MPI_Info window_info;
MPI_Info_create(&window_info);
if (strategy==0) {
  if (procno==0)
    printf("Strategy 0 : default behavior of shared window allocation\n");
  MPI_Info_set(window_info,"alloc_shared_noncontig","false");
} else {
  if (procno==0)
    printf("Strategy 1 : allow non-contiguous shared window allocation\n");
  MPI_Info_set(window_info,"alloc_shared_noncontig","true");
}
MPI_Win_allocate_shared( window_size,sizeof(double),window_info,
                       nodecomm,
                       &window_data,&node_window);
MPI_Info_free(&window_info);
test_window(node_window,nodecomm);

/*
 * Now process zero checks on window placement
```

```

/*
if (onnode_procno==0) {
    MPI_Aint window_size0; int window0_unit; double *win0_addr;
    MPI_Win_shared_query( node_window,0,
                          &window_size0,&window0_unit, &win0_addr );
    size_t dist1,distp;
    for (int p=1; p<onnode_nprocs; p++) {
        MPI_Aint window_sizep; int windowp_unit; double *winp_addr;
        MPI_Win_shared_query( node_window,p,
                              &window_sizep,&windowp_unit, &winp_addr );
        distp = (size_t)winp_addr-(size_t)win0_addr;
        if (procno==0)
            printf("Distance %d to zero: %ld\n",p,(long)distp);
        if (p==1)
            dist1 = distp;
        else {
            if (distp%dist1!=0)
                printf("!!!! not a multiple of distance 0--1 !!!!\n");
        }
    }
    MPI_Win_free(&node_window);
}

/*
 * cleanup
 */
MPI_Finalize();
return 0;
}

```

12.3.4 Listing of code code/mpi/shared.c

```

#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
#include "mpi.h"

#ifndef CORES_PER_NODE
#define CORES_PER_NODE 16
#endif

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

#include "globalinit.c"

    if (nprocs<3) {
        printf("This program needs at least three processes\n");

```

```
    return -1;
}

if (procno==0)
    printf("There are %d ranks total\n",nprocs);

int new_procno,new_nprocs;
MPI_Comm sharedcomm;

MPI_Info info;
MPI_Comm_split_type(MPI_COMM_WORLD,MPI_COMM_TYPE_SHARED,procno,info,&sharedcomm);
MPI_Comm_size(sharedcomm,&new_nprocs);
MPI_Comm_rank(sharedcomm,&new_procno);

if (new_nprocs!=nprocs) {
    printf("This example can only run on shared memory\n");
    MPI_Abort(comm,0);
}

MPI_Win shared_window; int *shared_baseptr;
MPI_Win_allocate_shared(3,sizeof(int),info,sharedcomm,&shared_baseptr,&shared_window);

{
    MPI_Aint check_size; int check_unit; int *check_baseptr;
    MPI_Win_shared_query
        (shared_window,new_procno,
         &check_size,&check_unit,&check_baseptr);
    printf("[%d;%d] size=%ld\n",procno,new_procno,check_size);
}

int *left_ptr,*right_ptr;
int left_proc = new_procno>0 ? new_procno-1 : MPI_PROC_NULL,
    right_proc = new_procno<new_nprocs-1 ? new_procno+1 : MPI_PROC_NULL;
MPI_Win_shared_query(shared_window,left_proc,NULL,NULL,&left_ptr);
MPI_Win_shared_query(shared_window,right_proc,NULL,NULL,&right_ptr);

if (procno==0)
    printf("Finished\n");

MPI_Finalize();
return 0;
}
```

Chapter 13

MPI topic: Hybrid computing

While the MPI standard itself makes no mention of threads – process being the primary unit of computation – the use of threads is allowed. Below we will discuss what provisions exist for doing so.

Using threads and other shared memory models in combination with MPI leads of course to the question how *race conditions* are handled. Example of a code with a *data race* that pertains to MPI:

```
|| #pragma omp sections
|| #pragma omp section
||   MPI_Send( x, /* to process 2 */ )
|| #pragma omp section
||   MPI_Recv( x, /* from process 3 */ )
```

The MPI standard here puts the burden on the user: this code is not legal, and behavior is not defined.

13.1 MPI support for threading

In hybrid execution, the main question is whether all threads are allowed to make MPI calls. To determine this, replace the `MPI_Init` call by `MPI_Init_thread` (figure 13.1) Here the required and provided parameters can take the following (monotonically increasing) values:

- `MPI_THREAD_SINGLE`: Only a single thread will execute.
- `MPI_THREAD_FUNNELED`: The program may use multiple threads, but only the main thread will make MPI calls.

The main thread is usually the one selected by the `master` directive, but technically it is the only that executes `MPI_Init_thread`. If you call this routine in a parallel region, the main thread may be different from the master.

- `MPI_THREAD_SERIALIZED`: The program may use multiple threads, all of which may make MPI calls, but there will never be simultaneous MPI calls in more than one thread.
- `MPI_THREAD_MULTIPLE`: Multiple threads may issue MPI calls, without restrictions.

After the initialization call, you can query the support level with `MPI_Query_thread` (figure 13.2).

In case more than one thread performs communication, `MPI_Is_thread_main` (figure 13.3) can determine whether a thread is the main thread.

Python note 29: Thread level. The thread level can be set through the `mpi4py.rc` object (section 2.2.2):

Figure 13.1 MPI_Init_thread

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
<code>MPI_Init_thread (</code>					
<code>argc</code>		desired level of thread support	<code>int*</code>	<code>INTEGER</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>argv</code>		provided level of thread support	<code>char***</code>	<code>INTEGER</code>	<code>OUT</code>
<code>)</code>					

Figure 13.2 MPI_Query_thread

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
<code>MPI_Query_thread (</code>					
<code>provided</code>		provided level of thread support	<code>int*</code>	<code>INTEGER</code>	<code>OUT</code>
<code>)</code>					

```
|| mpi4py.rc.threads # default True
|| mpi4py.rc.thread_level # default "multiple"
```

Available levels are multiple, serialized, funneled, single.

MPL note 61: Threading support. MPL always calls `MPI_Init_thread` requesting the highest level `MPI_THREAD_MULTIPLE`.

```
|| enum mpl::threading_modes {
||     mpl::threading_modes::single = MPI_THREAD_SINGLE,
||     mpl::threading_modes::funneled = MPI_THREAD_FUNNELED,
||     mpl::threading_modes::serialized = MPI_THREAD_SERIALIZED,
||     mpl::threading_modes::multiple = MPI_THREAD_MULTIPLE
|| };
|| threading_modes mpl::environment::threading_mode ();
|| bool mpl::environment::is_thread_main ();
```

The *mvapich* implementation of MPI does have the required threading support, but you need to set this environment variable:

```
export MV2_ENABLE_AFFINITY=0
```

Another solution is to run your code like this:

```
ibrun tacc_affinity <my_multithreaded_mpi_executable
```

Intel MPI uses an environment variable to turn on thread support:

```
I_MPI_LIBRARY_KIND=<value>
```

where

release : multi-threaded with global lock

release_mt : multi-threaded with per-object lock for thread-split

The *mpiexec* program usually propagates *environment variables*, so the value of `OMP_NUM_THREADS` when you call `mpiexec` will be seen by each MPI process.

Figure 13.3 MPI_Is_thread_main

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
<code>MPI_Is_thread_main (</code>					

- It is possible to use blocking sends in threads, and let the threads block. This does away with the need for polling.
- You can not send to a thread number: use the MPI *message tag* to send to a specific thread.

Exercise 13.1. Consider the 2D heat equation and explore the mix of MPI/OpenMP parallelism:

- Give each node one MPI process that is fully multi-threaded.
- Give each core an MPI process and don't use multi-threading.

Discuss theoretically why the former can give higher performance. Implement both schemes as special cases of the general hybrid case, and run tests to find the optimal mix.

```
// thread.c
MPI_Init_thread(&argc,&argv,MPI_THREAD_MULTIPLE,&threading);
comm = MPI_COMM_WORLD;
MPI_Comm_rank(comm,&procno);
MPI_Comm_size(comm,&nprocs);

if (procno==0) {
    switch (threading) {
        case MPI_THREAD_MULTIPLE : printf("Glorious multithreaded MPI\n"); break;
        case MPI_THREAD_SERIALIZED : printf("No simultaneous MPI from threads\n"); break;
        case MPI_THREAD_FUNNELED : printf("MPI from main thread\n"); break;
        case MPI_THREAD_SINGLE : printf("no threading supported\n"); break;
    }
}
MPI_Finalize();
```

For the full source of this example, see section 13.2.2

13.2 Sources used in this chapter

13.2.1 Listing of code header

13.2.2 Listing of code examples/mpi/c/thread.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
#include "mpi.h"

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

    MPI_Comm comm;
    int procno=-1,nprocs,threading,err;

    MPI_Init_thread(&argc,&argv,MPI_THREAD_MULTIPLE,&threading);
    comm = MPI_COMM_WORLD;
    MPI_Comm_rank(comm,&procno);
    MPI_Comm_size(comm,&nprocs);

    if (procno==0) {
        switch (threading) {
            case MPI_THREAD_MULTIPLE : printf("Glorious multithreaded MPI\n"); break;
            case MPI_THREAD_SERIALIZED : printf("No simultaneous MPI from threads\n"); break;
            case MPI_THREAD_FUNNELED : printf("MPI from main thread\n"); break;
            case MPI_THREAD_SINGLE : printf("no threading supported\n"); break;
        }
    }
    MPI_Finalize();
    return 0;
}
```

Chapter 14

MPI topic: Tools interface

Recent versions of MPI have a standardized way of reading out performance variables: the *tools interface* which improves on the old interface described in section 15.6.2.

14.1 Initializing the tools interface

The tools interface requires a different initialization routine `MPI_T_init_thread`

```
|| int MPI_T_init_thread( int required,int *provided );
```

Likewise, there is `MPI_T_finalize`

```
|| int MPI_T_finalize();
```

These matching calls can be made multiple times, after MPI has already been initialized with `MPI_Init` or `MPI_Init_thread`.

Verbosity level is an integer parameter.

```
MPI_T_VERBOSITY_{USER,TUNER,MPIDEV}_{BASIC,DETAIL,ALL}
```

14.2 Control variables

Control variables are implementation-dependent variables that can be used to inspect and/or control the internal workings of MPI. Accessing control variables requires initializing the tools interface; section 14.1.

We query how many *control variables* are available with `MPI_T_cvar_get_num` (figure 14.1). A description of the control variable can be obtained from `MPI_T_cvar_get_info` (figure 14.2).

- An invalid index leads to a function result of `MPI_T_ERR_INVALID_INDEX`.
- Any output parameter can be specified as NULL and MPI will not set this.
- The `bind` variable is an object type or `MPI_T_BIND_NO_OBJECT`.
- The `enumtype` variable is `MPI_T_ENUM_NULL` if the variable is not an enum type.

Figure 14.1 MPI_T_cvar_get_num

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_T_cvar_get_num ()					

Figure 14.2 MPI_T_cvar_get_info

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_T_cvar_get_info ()					

```
// cvar.c
MPI_T_cvar_get_num(&ncvar);
printf("#cvars: %d\n",ncvar);
for (int ivar=0; ivar<ncvar; ivar++) {
    char name[100]; int namelen = 100;
    char desc[256]; int descrlen = 256;
    int verbosity,bind,scope;
    MPI_Datatype datatype;
    MPI_T_enum enumtype;
    MPI_T_cvar_get_info
        (ivar,
         name,&namelen,
         &verbosity,&datatype,&enumtype,desc,&descrlen,&bind,&scope
        );
    printf("cvar %3d: %s\n %s\n",ivar,name,desc);
```

Remark 21 There is no constant indicating a maximum buffer length for these variables. However, you can do the following:

1. Call the info routine with NULL values for the buffers, reading out the buffer lengths;
2. allocate the buffers with sufficient length, that is, including an extra position for the null terminator; and
3. calling the info routine a second time, filling in the string buffers.

Conversely, given a variable name, its index can be retrieved with `MPI_T_cvar_get_index`:

```
|| int MPI_T_cvar_get_index(const char *name, int *cvar_index)
```

If the name can not be matched, the index is `MPI_T_ERR_INVALID_NAME`.

Accessing a control variable is done through a *control variable handle*.

```
|| int MPI_T_cvar_handle_alloc
  (int cvar_index, void *obj_handle,
   MPI_T_cvar_handle *handle, int *count)
```

The handle is freed with `MPI_T_cvar_handle_free`:

```
|| int MPI_T_cvar_handle_free(MPI_T_cvar_handle *handle)
```

Control variable access is done through `MPI_T_cvar_read` and `MPI_T_cvar_write`:

```
|| int MPI_T_cvar_read(MPI_T_cvar_handle handle, void* buf);
|| int MPI_T_cvar_write(MPI_T_cvar_handle handle, const void* buf);
```

14.3 Performance variables

The realization of the tools interface is installation-dependent, you first need to query how much of the tools interface is provided.

```
|| // mpitpvar.c
|| MPI_Init_thread(&argc,&argv,MPI_THREAD_SINGLE,&tlevel);
|| MPI_T_init_thread(MPI_THREAD_SINGLE,&tlevel);
|| int npvar;
|| MPI_T_pvar_get_num(&npvar);
```

For the full source of this example, see section 14.6.2

```
|| int name_len=256,desc_len=256,
||     verbosity,var_class,binding,isreadonly,iscontiguous,isatomic;
|| char var_name[256],description[256];
|| MPI_Datatype datatype; MPI_T_enum enumtype;
|| for (int pvar=0; pvar<npvar; pvar++) {
||     name_len = 256; desc_len=256;
||     MPI_T_pvar_get_info(pvar,var_name,&name_len,
||                          &verbosity,&var_class,
||                          &datatype,&enumtype,
||                          description,&desc_len,
||                          &binding,&isreadonly,&iscontiguous,&isatomic);
||     if (procid==0)
||         printf("pvar %d: %d/%s = %s\n",pvar,var_class,var_name,description);
|| }
```

For the full source of this example, see section 14.6.2

Performance variables come in classes: `MPI_T_PVAR_CLASS_STATE` `MPI_T_PVAR_CLASS_LEVEL` `MPI_T_PVAR_CLASS_SIZE` `MPI_T_PVAR_CLASS_PERCENTAGE` `MPI_T_PVAR_CLASS_HIGHWATERMARK` `MPI_T_PVAR_CLASS_LOWWATERMARK` `MPI_T_PVAR_CLASS_COUNTER` `MPI_T_PVAR_CLASS_AGGREGATE` `MPI_T_PVAR_CLASS_TIMER` `MPI_T_PVAR_CLASS_GENERIC`

Query the number of performance variables with `MPI_T_pvar_get_num`:

```
|| int MPI_T_pvar_get_num(int *num_pvar);
```

Get information about each variable, by index, with `MPI_T_pvar_get_info`:

```
|| int MPI_T_pvar_get_info
|| (int pvar_index, char *name, int *name_len,
||  int *verbosity, int *var_class, MPI_Datatype *datatype,
||  MPI_T_enum *enumtype, char *desc, int *desc_len, int *bind,
||  int *readonly, int *continuous, int *atomic)
```

See general remarks about these in section 14.2.

- The *readonly* variable indicates that the variable can not be written.
- The *continuous* variable requires use of `MPI_T_pvar_start` and `MPI_T_pvar_stop`.

Given a name, the index can be retrieved with `MPI_T_pvar_get_index`:

```
|| int MPI_T_pvar_get_index(const char *name, int var_class, int *pvar_index)
```

Again, see section 14.2.

14.3.1 Performance experiment sessions

To prevent measurements from getting mixed up, they need to be done in *performance experiment sessions*, to be called ‘sessions’ in this chapter. However see section 8.3.

Create a session with `MPI_T_pvar_session_create`

```
|| int MPI_T_pvar_session_create(MPI_T_pvar_session *session)
```

and release it with `MPI_T_pvar_session_free`:

```
|| int MPI_T_pvar_session_free(MPI_T_pvar_session *session)
```

which sets the session variable to `MPI_T_PVAR_SESSION_NULL`.

We access a variable through a handle, associated with a certain session. The handle is created with `MPI_T_pvar_handle_alloc`:

```
|| int MPI_T_pvar_handle_alloc
    (MPI_T_pvar_session session, int pvar_index,
     void *obj_handle, MPI_T_pvar_handle *handle, int *count)
```

(If a routine takes both a session and handle argument, and the two are not associated, an error of `MPI_T_ERR_INVALID_HANDLE` is returned.)

Free the handle with `MPI_T_pvar_handle_free`:

```
|| int MPI_T_pvar_handle_free
    (MPI_T_pvar_session session,
     MPI_T_pvar_handle *handle)
```

which sets the variable to `MPI_T_PVAR_HANDLE_NULL`.

Continuous variables (see `MPI_T_pvar_get_info` above, which outputs this) can be started and stopped with `MPI_T_pvar_start` and `MPI_T_pvar_stop`:

```
|| int MPI_T_pvar_start(MPI_T_pvar_session session, MPI_T_pvar_handle handle);
|| int MPI_T_pvar_stop(MPI_T_pvar_session session, MPI_T_pvar_handle handle)
```

Passing `MPI_T_PVAR_ALL_HANDLES` to the stop call attempts to stop all variables within the session. Failure to stop a variable returns `MPI_T_ERR_PVAR_NO_STARTSTOP`.

Variables can be read and written with `MPI_T_pvar_read` and `MPI_T_pvar_write`:

```
|| int MPI_T_pvar_read
  ||| (MPI_T_pvar_session session, MPI_T_pvar_handle handle,
  |||   void* buf)
  || int MPI_T_pvar_write
  ||| (MPI_T_pvar_session session, MPI_T_pvar_handle handle,
  |||   const void* buf)
```

If the variable can not be written (see the `readonly` parameter of `MPI_T_pvar_get_info`), `MPI_T_ERR_PVAR_NO_WRITE` is returned.

A special case of writing the variable is to reset it with

```
|| int MPI_T_pvar_reset(MPI_T_pvar_session session, MPI_T_pvar_handle handle)
```

The handle value of `MPI_T_PVAR_ALL_HANDLES` is allowed.

A call to `MPI_T_pvar_readreset` is an atomic combination of the read and reset calls:

```
|| int MPI_T_pvar_readreset
  ||| (MPI_T_pvar_session session, MPI_T_pvar_handle handle,
  |||   void* buf)
```

14.4 Categories of variables

Variables, both the control and performance kind, can be grouped into categories by the MPI implementation.

The number of categories is queried with `MPI_T_category_get_num`:

```
|| int MPI_T_category_get_num(int *num_cat)
```

and for each category the information is retrieved with `MPI_T_category_get_info`:

```
|| int MPI_T_category_get_info
  ||| (int cat_index,
  |||   char *name, int *name_len, char *desc, int *desc_len,
  |||   int *num_cvars, int *num_pvars, int *num_categories)
```

For a given category name the index can be found with `MPI_T_category_get_index`:

```
|| int MPI_T_category_get_index(const char *name, int *cat_index)
```

The contents of a category are retrieved with `MPI_T_category_get_cvars`, `MPI_T_category_get_pvars`, `MPI_T_category_get_categories`:

```
|| int MPI_T_category_get_cvars(int cat_index, int len, int indices[])
  || int MPI_T_category_get_pvars(int cat_index, int len, int indices[])
  || int MPI_T_category_get_categories(int cat_index, int len, int indices[])
```

These indices can subsequently be used in the calls `MPI_T_cvar_get_info`, `MPI_T_pvar_get_info`, `MPI_T_category_get_info`.

If categories change dynamically, this can be detected with `MPI_T_category_changed`

```
|| int MPI_T_category_changed(int *stamp)
```

14.5 Events

```
// mpitevent.c
int nsource;
MPI_T_source_get_num(&nsource);

int name_len=256,desc_len=256;
char var_name[256],description[256];
MPI_T_source_order ordering;
MPI_Count ticks_per_second,max_ticks;
MPI_Info info;
MPI_Datatype datatype; MPI_T_enum enumtype;
for (int source=0; source<nsource; source++) {
    name_len = 256; desc_len=256;
    MPI_T_source_get_info(source,var_name,&name_len,
                          description,&desc_len,
                          &ordering,&ticks_per_second,&max_ticks,&info);
```

14.6 Sources used in this chapter

14.6.1 Listing of code header

14.6.2 Listing of code code/mpi/c/mpitpvar.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <mpi.h>

int main(int argc,char **argv) {
    int procid,nprocs;

    int tlevel;
    MPI_Init_thread(&argc,&argv,MPI_THREAD_SINGLE,&tlevel);
    MPI_T_init_thread(MPI_THREAD_SINGLE,&tlevel);
    int npvar;
    MPI_T_pvar_get_num(&npvar);

    MPI_Comm_size(MPI_COMM_WORLD,&nprocs);
    MPI_Comm_rank(MPI_COMM_WORLD,&procid);

    if (procid==0)
        printf("#pvars: %d\n",npvar);
    int name_len=256,desc_len=256,
        verbosity,var_class,binding,isreadonly,iscontiguous,isatomic;
    char var_name[256],description[256];
    MPI_Datatype datatype; MPI_T_enum enumtype;
    for (int pvar=0; pvar<npvar; pvar++) {
        name_len = 256; desc_len=256;
        MPI_T_pvar_get_info(pvar,var_name,&name_len,
                            &verbosity,&var_class,
                            &datatype,&enumtype,
                            description,&desc_len,
                            &binding,&isreadonly,&iscontiguous,&isatomic);
        if (procid==0)
            printf("pvar %d: %d/%s = %s\n",pvar,var_class,var_name,description);
    }

    MPI_T_finalize();
    MPI_Finalize();

    return 0;
}
```

Chapter 15

MPI leftover topics

15.1 Contextual information, attributes, etc.

15.1.1 Info objects

Certain MPI routines can accept `MPI_Info` objects. (For files, see section 15.1.1.3, for windows, see section 9.5.4.) These contain key-value pairs that can offer system or implementation dependent information.

Create an info object with `MPI_Info_create` (figure 15.1) and delete it with `MPI_Info_free` (figure 15.2).

Keys are then set with `MPI_Info_set` (figure 15.3), and they can be queried with `MPI_Info_get` (figure 15.4). Note that the output of the ‘get’ routine is not allocated: it is a buffer that is passed. The maximum length of a key is given by the parameter `MPI_MAX_INFO_KEY`. You can delete a key from an info object with `MPI_Info_delete` (figure 15.5).

There is a straightforward duplication of info objects: `MPI_Info_dup` (figure 15.6).

You can also query the number of keys in an info object with `MPI_Info_get_nkeys` (figure 15.7), after which the keys can be queried in succession with `MPI_Info_get_nthkey`.

Info objects that are marked as ‘In’ or ‘Inout’ arguments are parsed before that routine returns. This means that in nonblocking routines they can be freed immediately, unlike, for instance, send buffers.

The following material is for the recently released MPI-4 standard and may not be supported yet.

The routines `MPI_Info_get` and `MPI_Info_get_valuelen` are not robust with respect to the C language *null terminator*. Therefore, they are deprecated, and should be replaced with `MPI_Info_get_string`, which always returns a null-terminated string.

```
|| int MPI_Info_get_string
  ||   (MPI_Info info, const char *key,
  ||     int *buflen, char *value, int *flag)
```

End of MPI-4 material

15.1.1.1 Environment information

The object `MPI_INFO_ENV` is predefined, containing:

- `command` Name of program executed.

15. MPI leftover topics

Figure 15.1 MPI_Info_create

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Info_create (

Figure 15.2 MPI_Info_free

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Info_free (

Figure 15.3 MPI_Info_set

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Info_set (
	info	info object	MPI_Info	TYPE (MPI_Info)	INOUT
	key	key	const char*	CHARACTER	IN
	value	value	const char*	CHARACTER	IN
)					

Figure 15.4 MPI_Info_get

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Info_get (
	info	info object	MPI_Info	TYPE (MPI_Info)	IN
	key	key	const char*	CHARACTER	IN
	valuelen	length of value associated with key	int	INTEGER	IN
	value	value	char*	CHARACTER	OUT
	flag	true if key defined, false if not	int*	LOGICAL	OUT
)					

Figure 15.5 MPI_Info_delete

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Info_delete			MPI_Info	TYPE (MPI_Info)	INOUT

Figure 15.6 MPI_Info_dup

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Info_dup			MPI_Info	TYPE (MPI_Info)	IN

- argv Space separated arguments to command.
- maxprocs Maximum number of MPI processes to start.
- soft Allowed values for number of processors.
- host Hostname.
- arch Architecture name.
- wdir Working directory of the MPI process.
- file Value is the name of a file in which additional information is specified.
- thread_level Requested level of thread support, if requested before the program started execution.

Note that these are the requested values; the running program can for instance have lower thread support.

15.1.1.2 Communicator and window information

MPI has a built-in possibility of attaching information to *communicators* and *windows* using the calls

`MPI_Comm_get_info` `MPI_Comm_set_info`, `MPI_Win_get_info`, `MPI_Win_set_info`.

Copying a communicator with `MPI_Comm_dup` does not cause the info to be copied; to propagate information to the copy there is `MPI_Comm_dup_with_info` (section 7.2).

15.1.1.3 File information

An `MPI_Info` object can be passed to the following file routines:

- `MPI_File_open`
- `MPI_File_set_view`
- `MPI_File_set_info`; collective. The converse routine is `MPI_File_get_info`.

Figure 15.7 MPI_Info_get_nkeys

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Info_get_nkeys (

The following keys are defined in the MPI-2 standard:

- *access_style*: A comma separated list of one or more of: `read_once`, `write_once`, `read_mostly`, `write_mostly`, `sequential`, `reverse_sequential`, `random`
- *collective_buffering*: true or false; enables or disables buffering on collective I/O operations
- *cb_block_size*: integer block size for collective buffering, in bytes
- *cb_buffer_size*: integer buffer size for collective buffering, in bytes
- *cb_nodes*: integer number of MPI processes used in collective buffering
- *chunked*: a comma separated list of integers describing the dimensions of a multidimensional array to be accessed using subarrays, starting with the most significant dimension (1st in C, last in Fortran)
- *chunked_item*: a comma separated list specifying the size of each array entry, in bytes
- *chunked_size*: a comma separated list specifying the size of the subarrays used in chunking
- *file_perm*: UNIX file permissions at time of creation, in octal
- *io_node_list*: a comma separated list of I/O nodes to use

The following material is for the recently released MPI-4 standard and may not be supported yet.

- *mpi_minimum_memory_alignment*: alignment of allocated memory.

End of MPI-4 material

- *nb_proc*: integer number of processes expected to access a file simultaneously
- *num_io_nodes*: integer number of I/O nodes to use
- *striping_factor*: integer number of I/O nodes/devices a file should be striped across
- *striping_unit*: integer stripe size, in bytes

Additionally, file system-specific keys can exist.

15.1.2 Attributes

Some runtime (or installation dependent) values are available as attributes through `MPI_Comm_set_attr` (figure 15.8) and `MPI_Comm_get_attr` (figure 15.9) for communicators, or `MPI_Win_get_attr`, `MPI_Type_get_attr`. (The MPI-2 routine `MPI_Attr_get` is deprecated). The flag parameter has two functions:

- it returns whether the attributed was found;
- if on entry it was set to false, the value parameter is ignored and the routines only tests whether the key is present.

The return value parameter is subtle: while it is declared `void*`, it is actually the address of a `void*` pointer.

```
// tags.c
int tag_upperbound;
```

Figure 15.8 MPI_Comm_set_attr

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
<code>MPI_Comm_set_attr (</code>					
<code>comm</code>		communicator to which attribute will be attached	<code>MPI_Comm</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Comm)</code>	<code>INOUT</code>
<code>comm_keyval</code>		key value	<code>int</code>	<code>INTEGER</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>attribute_val</code>		attribute value	<code>void*</code>	<code>INTEGER (KIND=MPI_ADDRESS_KIND)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>)</code>					

Figure 15.9 MPI_Comm_get_attr

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
<code>MPI_Comm_get_attr (</code>					
<code>comm</code>		communicator to which the attribute is attached	<code>MPI_Comm</code>	<code>TYPE (MPI_Comm)</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>comm_keyval</code>		key value	<code>int</code>	<code>INTEGER</code>	<code>IN</code>
<code>attribute_val</code>		attribute value, unless flag = false	<code>void*</code>	<code>INTEGER (KIND=MPI_ADDRESS_KIND)</code>	<code>OUT</code>
<code>flag</code>		false if no attribute is associated with the key	<code>int*</code>	<code>LOGICAL</code>	<code>OUT</code>
<code>)</code>					

Python:

```
MPI.Comm.Get_attr(self, int keyval)
```

```
void *v; int flag=1;
ierr = MPI_Comm_get_attr(comm,MPI_TAG_UB,&v,&flag);
tag_upperbound = *(int*)v;
```

For the full source of this example, see section 15.12.2

```
## tags.py
tag_upperbound = comm.Get_attr(MPI.TAG_UB)
if procid==0:
    print("Determined tag upperbound: {}".format(tag_upperbound))
```

For the full source of this example, see section 15.12.3

Attributes are:

- `MPI_TAG_UB` Upper bound for *tag value*. (The lower bound is zero.) Note that `MPI_TAG_UB` is the key, not the actual upper bound! This value has to be at least 32767.
- `MPI_HOST` Host process rank, if such exists, `MPI_PROC_NULL`, otherwise. The standard does not define what it means to be a host, or even whether there should be one to begin with.
- `MPI_IO` rank of a node that has regular I/O facilities. Nodes in the same communicator may return different values for this parameter. If this return `MPI_ANY_SOURCE`, all ranks can perform I/O.
- `MPI_WTIME_IS_GLOBAL` Boolean variable that indicates whether clocks are synchronized.

Also:

Figure 15.10 MPI_Comm_create_keyval

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
<code>MPI_Comm_create_keyval (</code>					

- `MPI_UNIVERSE_SIZE`: the total number of processes that can be created. This can be more than the size of `MPI_COMM_WORLD` if the host list is larger than the number of initially started processes. See section 8.1.
- `MPI_APPNUM`: if MPI is used in MPMD mode (section 15.9.4), or if `MPI_Comm_spawn_multiple` is used (section 8.1), this attribute reports the how-manyeth program we are in.

Fortran note 13: Attribute querying. Fortran has none of this double indirection stuff. The value of the attribute is returned immediately, as an integer of kind `MPI_ADDRESS_KIND`:

```
!! tags.F90
logical :: flag
integer(KIND=MPI_ADDRESS_KIND) :: attr_v,tag_upperbound
call MPI_Comm_get_attr(comm,MPI_TAG_UB,attr_v,flag,ierr)
tag_upperbound = attr_v
      print'("Determined tag upperbound: ",i9)', tag_upperbound
```

Python note 30: Universe size. `mpi4py.MPI.UNIVERSE_SIZE`.

15.1.3 Create new keyval attributes

Create a key value with `MPI_Comm_create_keyval` (figure 15.10), `MPI_Type_create_keyval`, `MPI_Win_create_keyval`. Use this key to set new attributes with `MPI_Comm_set_attr`, `MPI_Type_set_attr`, `MPI_Win_set_attr`. Free the attributed with `MPI_Comm_delete_attr`, `MPI_Type_delete_attr`, `MPI_Win_delete_attr`.

This uses a function type `MPI_Comm_attr_function`. This function is copied when a communicator is duplicated; section 7.2. Free with `MPI_Comm_free_keyval`.

15.1.4 Processor name

You can query the *hostname* of a processor with `MPI_Get_processor_name`. This name need not be unique between different processor ranks.

You have to pass in the character storage: the character array must be at least `MPI_MAX_PROCESSOR_NAME` characters long. The actual length of the name is returned in the `resultlen` parameter.

Figure 15.11 MPI_Get_version

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Get_version (
version	version	version number	int*	INTEGER	OUT
subversion	subversion	subversion number	int*	INTEGER	OUT
)					

15.1.5 Version information

For runtime determination, The *MPI version* is available through two parameters `MPI_VERSION` and `MPI_SUBVERSION` or the function `MPI_Get_version` (figure 15.11).

The library version can be queried with `MPI_Get_library_version`. The result string has to fit in `MPI_MAX_LIBRARY_VERSION_STRING`.

Python note 31: MPI Version. A function is available for version and subversion, as well as explicit parameters:

Code:

```
## version.py
print(MPI.Get_version())
print(MPI.VERSION)
print(MPI.SUBVERSION)
```

Output:

Missing output for version

15.1.6 Python utility functions

Python note 32: Utility functions.

```
## util.py
print(f"Configuration:\n{mpi4py.get_config()}")
print(f"Include dir:\n{mpi4py.get_include()}")
```

Mac OS X with Python installed through *macports*:

```
Configuration:
{'mpicc': '/opt/local/bin/mpicc-mpich-mp'}
Include dir:
/opt/local/Library/Frameworks/Python.framework/Versions/3.8/lib/python3.8/site-packages/mpi4py/include
```

Intel compiler and locally installed Python:

```
Configuration:
{'mpicc': '/opt/intel/compilers_and_libraries_2020.4.304/linux/mpi/intel64/bin/mpicc',
 'mpicxx': '/opt/intel/compilers_and_libraries_2020.4.304/linux/mpi/intel64/bin/mpicxx',
 'mpifort': '/opt/intel/compilers_and_libraries_2020.4.304/linux/mpi/intel64/bin/mpif90',
 'mpif90': '/opt/intel/compilers_and_libraries_2020.4.304/linux/mpi/intel64/bin/mpif90',
 'mpif77': '/opt/intel/compilers_and_libraries_2020.4.304/linux/mpi/intel64/bin/mpif77'}
Include dir:
/opt/apps/intel19/impi19_0/python3/3.9.2/lib/python3.9/site-packages/mpi4py/include
```

15.2 Error handling

Errors in normal programs can be tricky to deal with; errors in parallel programs can be even harder. This is because in addition to everything that can go wrong with a single executable (floating point errors, memory violation) you now get errors that come from faulty interaction between multiple executables.

A few examples of what can go wrong:

- MPI errors: an MPI routine can exit prematurely for various reasons, such as receiving much more data than its buffer can accomodate. Such errors, as well as the more common type mentioned above, typically cause your whole execution to terminate. That is, if one incarnation of your executable exits, the MPI runtime will kill all others.
- Deadlocks and other hanging executions: there are various scenarios where your processes individually do not exit, but are all waiting for each other. This can happen if two processes are both waiting for a message from each other, and this can be helped by using nonblocking calls. In another scenario, through an error in program logic, one process will be waiting for more messages (including nonblocking ones) than are sent to it.

While it is desirable for an MPI implementation to return an error, this is not always possible. Therefore, some scenarios, whether supplying certain procedure arguments, or doing a certain sequence of procedure calls, are simply marked as ‘erroneous’, and the state of MPI after an erroneous call is undefined.

15.2.1 Error codes

There are a bunch of error codes. These are all positive `int` values, while `MPI_SUCCESS` is zero. The maximum value of any built-in error code is `MPI_ERR_LASTCODE`. User-defined error codes are all larger than this.

- `MPI_ERR_ARG`: an argument was invalid that is not covered by another error code.
- `MPI_ERR_BUFFER` The buffer pointer is invalid; this typically means that you have supplied a null pointer.
- `MPI_ERR_COMM`: invalid communicator. A common error is to use a null communicator in a call.
- `MPI_ERR_COUNT` Invalid count argument, usually this is caused by a negative count value; zero is often a valid count.
- `MPI_ERR_INTERN` An internal error in MPI has been detected.
- `MPI_ERR_IN_STATUS` A functioning returning an array of statuses has at least one status where the `MPI_ERROR` field is set to other than `MPI_SUCCESS`. See section 4.3.2.3.
- `MPI_ERR_INFO`: invalid info object.
- `MPI_ERR_NO_MEM` is returned by `MPI_Alloc_mem` if memory is exhausted.
- `MPI_ERR_OTHER`: an error occurred; use `MPI_Error_string` to retrieve further information about this error; see section 15.2.2.3.
- `MPI_ERR_PORT`: invalid port; this applies to `MPI_Comm_connect` and such.

The following material is for the recently released MPI-4 standard and may not be supported yet.

- `MPI_ERR_PROC_ABORTED` is returned if a process tries to communicate with a process that has aborted.

End of MPI-4 material

- `MPI_ERR_RANK`: an invalid source or destination rank is specified. Valid ranks are $0 \dots s - 1$ where s is the size of the communicator, or `MPI_PROC_NULL`, or `MPI_ANY_SOURCE` for receive operations.
- `MPI_ERR_SERVICE`: invalid service in `MPI_Unpublish_name`; section 8.2.3.

15.2.2 Error handling

The MPI library has a general mechanism for dealing with errors that it detects: one can specify an error handler, specific to MPI objects.

- Most commonly, an error handler is associated with a communicator: `MPI_Comm_set_errhandler` (and likewise it can be retrieved with `MPI_Comm_get_errhandler`);
- other possibilities are `MPI_File_set_errhandler`, `MPI_File_call_errhandler`,

The following material is for the recently released MPI-4 standard and may not be supported yet.

`MPI_Session_set_errhandler`, `MPI_Session_call_errhandler`,

End of MPI-4 material

`MPI_Win_set_errhandler`, `MPI_Win_call_errhandler`.

Remark 22 The routine `MPI_Errhandler_set` is deprecated, replaced by its MPI-2 variant `MPI_Comm_set_errhandler`.

Some handlers of type `MPI_Errhandler` are predefined (`MPI_ERRORS_ARE_FATAL`, `MPI_ERRORS_ABORT`, `MPI_ERRORS_RETURN`; see below), but you can define your own with `MPI_Errhandler_create`, to be freed later with `MPI_Errhandler_free`.

By default, MPI uses `MPI_ERRORS_ARE_FATAL`, except for file operations; see section 10.5.

Python note 33: Error policy. The policy for dealing with errors can be set through the `mpi4py.rc` object (section 2.2.2):

```
|| mpi4py.rc.errors # default: "exception"
```

Available levels are `exception`, `default`, `fatal`.

15.2.2.1 Abort

The default behavior, where the full run is aborted, is equivalent to your code having the following call to

```
|| MPI_Comm_set_errhandler(MPI_COMM_WORLD,MPI_ERRORS_ARE_FATAL);
```

The handler `MPI_ERRORS_ARE_FATAL`, even though it is associated with a communicator, causes the whole application to abort.

The following material is for the recently released MPI-4 standard and may not be supported yet.

The handler `MPI_ERRORS_ABORT` (MPI-4) aborts on the processes in the communicator for which it is specified.

End of MPI-4 material

15.2.2.2 Return

Another simple possibility is to specify `MPI_ERRORS_RETURN`:

```
|| MPI_Comm_set_errhandler(MPI_COMM_WORLD,MPI_ERRORS_RETURN);
```

which causes the error code to be returned to the user. This gives you the opportunity to write code that handles the error return value; see the next section.

15.2.2.3 Error printing

If the `MPI_Errhandler` value `MPI_ERRORS_RETURN` is used, you can compare the return code to `MPI_SUCCESS` and print out debugging information:

15. MPI leftover topics

Figure 15.12 MPI_Comm_create_errhandler

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Comm_create_errhandler		(comm_errhandler_fn user defined error handling procedure errhandler MPI error handler)	MPI_Comm_errhandlerFunction* IN (MPI_Comm_errhandler_function) MPI_Errhandler* OUT (MPI_Errhandler)		

```

    int ierr;
    ierr = MPI_Something();
    if (ierr!=MPI_SUCCESS) {
        // print out information about what your programming is doing
        MPI_Abort();
    }
}

```

For instance,

Fatal error in MPI_Waitall:

See the MPI_ERROR field in MPI_Status for the error code

You could then retrieve the MPI_ERROR field of the status, and print out an error string with MPI_Error_string or maximal size MPI_MAX_ERROR_STRING:

```

MPI_Comm_set_errhandler(MPI_COMM_WORLD,MPI_ERRORS_RETURN);
ierr = MPI_Waitall(2*ntids-2,requests,status);
if (ierr!=0) {
    char errtxt[MPI_MAX_ERROR_STRING];
    for (int i=0; i<2*ntids-2; i++) {
        int err = status[i].MPI_ERROR;
        int len=MPI_MAX_ERROR_STRING;
        MPI_Error_string(err,errtxt,&len);
        printf("Waitall error: %d %s\n",err,errtxt);
    }
    MPI_Abort(MPI_COMM_WORLD,0);
}

```

One cases where errors can be handled is that of *MPI file I/O*: if an output file has the wrong permissions, code can possibly progress without writing data, or writing to a temporary file.

MPI operators ([MPI_Op](#)) do not return an error code. In case of an error they call [MPI_Abort](#); if [MPI_ERRORS_RETURN](#) is the error handler, error codes may be silently ignored.

You can create your own error handler with [MPI_Comm_create_errhandler](#) (figure 15.12), which is then installed with [MPI_Comm_set_errhandler](#). You can retrieve the error handler with [MPI_Comm_get_errhandler](#).

MPL note 62: Communicator errhandler. MPL does not allow for access to the wrapped communicators. However, for [MPI_COMM_WORLD](#), the routine [MPI_Comm_set_errhandler](#) can be called directly.

15.2.3 Defining your own MPI errors

You can define your own errors that behave like MPI errors. As an example, let's write a send routine that refuses to send zero-sized data.

The first step to defining a new error is to define an error class with `MPI_Add_error_class`:

```
// int nonzero_class;
MPI_Add_error_class(&nonzero_class);
```

This error number is larger than `MPI_ERR_LASTCODE`, the upper bound on built-in error codes. The attribute `MPI_LASTUSEDCODE` records the last issued value.

Your new error code is then defined in this class with `MPI_Add_error_code`, and an error string can be added with `MPI_Add_error_string`:

```
// int nonzero_code;
MPI_Add_error_code(nonzero_class,&nonzero_code);
MPI_Add_error_string(nonzero_code,"Attempting to send zero buffer");
```

You can then call an error handler with this code. For instance to have a wrapped send routine that will not send zero-sized messages:

```
// errorclass.c
int MyMPI_Send( void *buffer,int n,MPI_Datatype type, int target,int tag,MPI_Comm comm) {
    if (n==0)
        MPI_Comm_call_errhandler( comm,nonzero_code );
    MPI_Ssend(buffer,n,type,target,tag,comm);
    return MPI_SUCCESS;
};
```

Here we used the default error handler associated with the communicator, but one can set a different one with `MPI_Comm_create_errhandler`.

We test our example:

```
for (int msgsize=1; msgsize>=0; msgsize--) {
    double buffer;
    if (procno==0) {
        printf("Trying to send buffer of length %d\n",msgsize);
        MyMPI_Send(&buffer,msgsize,MPI_DOUBLE, 1,0,comm);
        printf(.. success\n");
    } else if (procno==1) {
        MPI_Recv (&buffer,msgsize,MPI_DOUBLE, 0,0,comm,MPI_STATUS_IGNORE);
    }
}
```

which gives:

```
Trying to send buffer of length 1
.. success
Trying to send buffer of length 0
Abort(1073742081) on node 0 (rank 0 in comm 0):
Fatal error in MPI_Comm_call_errhandler: Attempting to send zero buffer
```

15.3 Fortran issues

MPI is typically written in C, what if you program *Fortran*?

See section 6.2.2.3 for MPI types corresponding to *Fortran90 types*.

15.3.1 Assumed-shape arrays

Use of other than contiguous data, for instance `A(1:N:2)`, was a problem in MPI calls, especially nonblocking ones. In that case it was best to copy the data to a contiguous array. This has been fixed in MPI-3.

- Fortran routines have the same signature as C routines except for the addition of an integer error parameter.
- The call for `MPI_Init` in Fortran does not have the commandline arguments; they need to be handled separately.
- The routine `MPI_Sizeof` is only available in Fortran, it provides the functionality of the C/C++ operator `sizeof`.

15.3.2 Prevent compiler optimizations

The Fortran compiler can aggressively optimize by rearranging instructions. This may lead to incorrect behavior in MPI code. In the sequence:

```
|| call MPI_Isend( buf, ..., request )
|| call MPI_Wait(request)
|| print *,buf(1)
```

the wait call does not involve the buffer, so the compiler can translate this into

```
|| call MPI_Isend( buf, ..., request )
|| register = buf(1)
|| call MPI_Wait(request)
|| print *,register
```

Preventing this is possible with a Fortran2018 mechanism. First of all the buffer should be declared asynchronous

```
|| <type>,Asynchronous :: buf
```

and introducing

```
|| IF (.NOT. MPI_ASYNC_PROTECTS_NONBLOCKING) &
||     CALL MPI_F_SYNC_REG( buf )
```

The call to `MPI_F_sync_reg` will be removed at compile time if `MPI_ASYNC_PROTECTS_NONBLOCKING` is true.

15.4 Progress

The concept *asynchronous progress* describes that MPI messages continue on their way through the network, while the application is otherwise busy.

The problem here is that, unlike straight `MPI_Send` and `MPI_Recv` calls, communication of this sort can typically not be off-loaded to the network card, so different mechanisms are needed.

This can happen in a number of ways:

- Compute nodes may have a dedicated communications processor. The *Intel Paragon* was of this design; modern multicore processors are a more efficient realization of this idea.
- The MPI library may reserve a core or thread for communications processing. This is implementation dependent; see *Intel MPI* information below.

- Reserving a core, or a thread in a continuous busy-wait *spin loop*, takes away possible performance from the code. For this reason, Ruhela *et al.* [24] propose using a *pthreads* signal to wake up the progress thread.
- Absent such dedicated resources, the application can force MPI to make progress by occasional calls to a *polling* routine such as `MPI_Iprobe`.

Remark 23 The `MPI_Probe` call is somewhat similar, in spirit if not quite in functionality, as `MPI_Test`. However, they behave differently with respect to progress. Quoting the standard:

The MPI implementation of `MPI_Probe` and `MPI_Iprobe` needs to guarantee progress: if a call to `MPI_Probe` has been issued by a process, and a send that matches the probe has been initiated by some process, then the call to `MPI_Probe` will return.

In other words: probing causes MPI to make progress. On the other hand,

A call to `MPI_Test` returns flag = true if the operation identified by request is complete.

In other words, if progress has been made, then testing will report completion, but by itself it does not cause completion.

A similar problem arises with passive target synchronization: it is possible that the origin process may hang until the target process makes an MPI call.

The following commands force progress: `MPI_Win_test`, `MPI_Request_get_status`.

Intel note. Only available with the `release_mt` and `debug_mt` versions of the Intel MPI library. Set `I_MPI_ASYNC_PROGRESS` to 1 to enable asynchronous progress threads, and `I_MPI_ASYNC_PROGRESS_THREADS` to set the number of progress threads.

See <https://software.intel.com/en-us/mpi-developer-guide-linux-asynchronous-progress-control>,
<https://software.intel.com/en-us/mpi-developer-reference-linux-environment-variables-for-asynchronous-progress-control>

Progress issues play with: `MPI_Test`, `MPI_Request_get_status`, `MPI_Win_test`.

15.5 Fault tolerance

Processors are not completely reliable, so it may happen that one ‘breaks’: for software or hardware reasons it becomes unresponsive. For an MPI program this means that it becomes impossible to send data to it, and any collective operation involving it will hang. Can we deal with this case? Yes, but it involves some programming.

First of all, one of the possible MPI error return codes (section 15.2) is `MPI_ERR_COMM`, which can be returned if a processor in the communicator is unavailable. You may want to catch this error, and add a ‘replacement processor’ to the program. For this, the `MPI_Comm_spawn` can be used (see 8.1 for details). But this requires a change of program design: the communicator containing the new process(es) is not part of the old `MPI_COMM_WORLD`, so it is better to set up your code as a collection of inter-communicators to begin with.

15.6 Performance, tools, and profiling

In most of this book we talk about functionality of the MPI library. There are cases where a problem can be solved in more than one way, and then we wonder which one is the most efficient. In this section we will explicitly address performance. We start with two sections on the mere act of measuring performance.

15. MPI leftover topics

Figure 15.13 MPI_Wtime

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Wtime ()					

Python:

```
MPI.Wtime()
```

Figure 15.14 MPI_Wtick

Name	Param name	Explanation	C type	F type	inout
MPI_Wtick ()					

Python:

```
MPI.Wtick()
```

15.6.1 Timing

MPI has a *wall clock* timer: **MPI_Wtime** (figure 15.13) which gives the number of seconds from a certain point in the past. (Note the absence of the error parameter in the fortran call.)

```
double t;
t = MPI_Wtime();
for (int n=0; n<NEXPERIMENTS; n++) {
    // do something;
}
t = MPI_Wtime()-t; t /= NEXPERIMENTS;
```

The timer has a resolution of **MPI_Wtick** (figure 15.14).

MPL note 63: Timing. The timing routines **wtime** and **wtick** and **wtime_is_global** are environment methods:

```
double mpl::environment::wtime ();
double mpl::environment::wtick ();
bool mpl::environment::wtime_is_global ();
```

Timing in parallel is a tricky issue. For instance, most clusters do not have a central clock, so you can not relate start and stop times on one process to those on another. You can test for a global clock as follows **MPI_WTIME_IS_GLOBAL**:

```
int *v,flag;
MPI_Attr_get( comm, MPI_WTIME_IS_GLOBAL, &v, &flag );
if (mytid==0) printf("Time synchronized? %d->%d\n",flag,*v);
```

Normally you don't worry about the starting point for this timer: you call it before and after an event and subtract the values.

```
t = MPI_Wtime();
// something happens here
t = MPI_Wtime()-t;
```

If you execute this on a single processor you get fairly reliable timings, except that you would need to subtract the overhead for the timer. This is the usual way to measure timer overhead:

```
t = MPI_Wtime();
// absolutely nothing here
t = MPI_Wtime()-t;
```

15.6.1.1 Global timing

However, if you try to time a parallel application you will most likely get different times for each process, so you would have to take the average or maximum. Another solution is to synchronize the processors by using a *barrier* through `MPI_Barrier`:

```
MPI_Barrier(comm)
t = MPI_Wtime();
// something happens here
MPI_Barrier(comm)
t = MPI_Wtime()-t;
```

Exercise 15.1. This scheme also has some overhead associated with it. How would you measure that?

Solution to exercise 15.1. *Two barrier calls in a row.*

15.6.1.2 Local timing

Now suppose you want to measure the time for a single send. It is not possible to start a clock on the sender and do the second measurement on the receiver, because the two clocks need not be synchronized. Usually a *ping-pong* is done:

```
if ( proc_source ) {
    MPI_Send( /* to target */ );
    MPI_Recv( /* from target */ );
} else if ( proc_target ) {
    MPI_Recv( /* from source */ );
    MPI_Send( /* to source */ );
}
```

No matter what sort of timing you are doing, it is good to know the accuracy of your timer. The routine `MPI_Wtick` gives the smallest possible timer increment. If you find that your timing result is too close to this ‘tick’, you need to find a better timer (for CPU measurements there are cycle-accurate timers), or you need to increase your running time, for instance by increasing the amount of data.

15.6.2 Simple profiling

Remark 24 This section describes MPI profiling before the introduction of the MPI tools interface. For that, see chapter 14.

MPI allows you to write your own profiling interface. To make this possible, every routine `MPI_Something` calls a routine `PMPI_Something` that does the actual work. You can now write your `MPI_...` routine which calls `PMPI_...`, and inserting your own profiling calls. See figure 15.1.

By default, the MPI routines are defined as *weak linker symbols* as a synonym of the PMPI ones. In the gcc case:

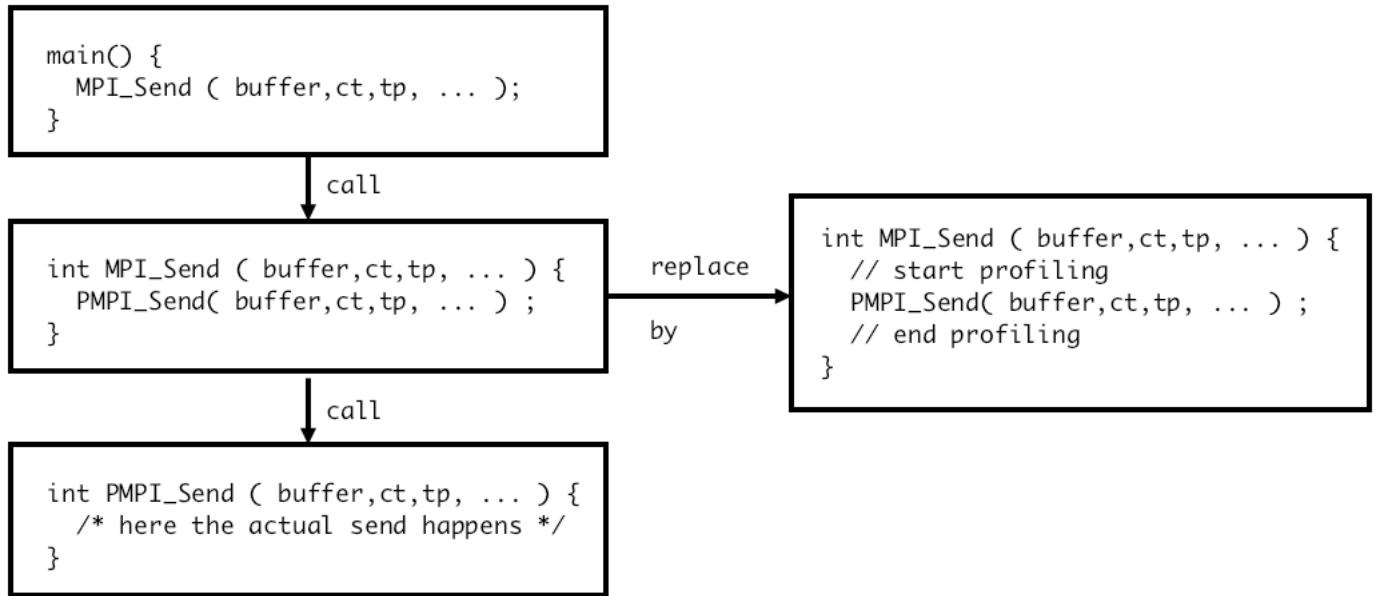


Figure 15.1: Calling hierarchy of MPI and PMPI routines

```
#pragma weak MPI_Send = PMPI_Send
```

As you can see in figure 15.2, normally only the PMPI routines show up in the stack trace.

15.6.3 Programming for performance

We outline some issues pertaining to performance.

Eager limit Short blocking messages are handled by a simpler mechanism than longer. The limit on what is considered ‘short’ is known as the *eager limit* (section 4.1.4.2), and you could tune your code by increasing its value. However, note that a process may likely have a buffer accomodating eager sends for every single other process. This may eat into your available memory.

Blocking versus nonblocking The issue of *blocking versus nonblocking* communication is something of a red herring. While nonblocking communication allows *latency hiding*, we can not consider it an alternative to blocking sends, since replacing nonblocking by blocking calls will usually give *deadlock*.

Still, even if you use nonblocking communication for the mere avoidance of deadlock or serialization (section 4.1.4.3), bear in mind the possibility of overlap of communication and computation. This also brings us to our next point.

Looking at it the other way around, in a code with blocking sends you may get better performance from nonblocking, even if that is not structurally necessary.

Progress MPI is not magically active in the background, especially if the user code is doing scalar work that does not involve MPI. As sketched in section 15.4, there are various ways of ensuring that latency hiding actually happens.

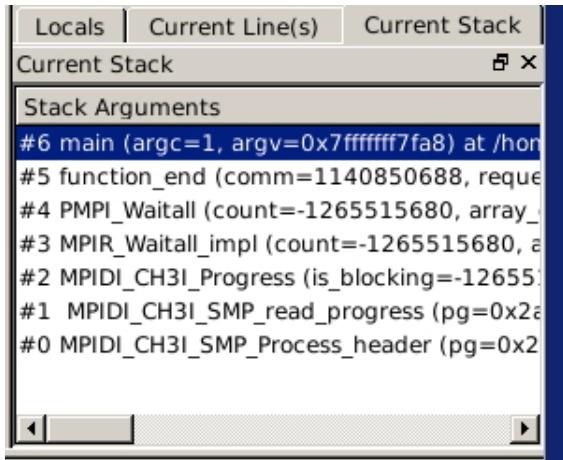


Figure 15.2: A stack trace, showing the PMPI calls.

Persistent sends If a communication between the same pair of processes, involving the same buffer, happens regularly, it is possible to set up a *persistent communication*. See section 5.1.

Buffering MPI uses internal buffers, and the copying from user data to these buffers may affect performance. For instance, derived types (section 6.3) can typically not be streamed straight through the network (this requires special hardware support [17]) so they are first copied. Somewhat surprisingly, we find that *buffered communication* (section 5.5) does not help. Perhaps MPI implementors have not optimized this mode since it is so rarely used.

This issue is extensively investigated in [9].

Graph topology and neighborhood collectives Load balancing and communication minimization are important in irregular applications. There are dedicated programs for this (*ParMetis*, *Zoltan*), and libraries such as *PETSc* may offer convenient access to such capabilities.

In the declaration of a *graph topology* (section 11.2) MPI is allowed to reorder processes, which could be used to support such activities. It can also serve for better message sequencing when *neighborhood collectives* are used.

Network issues In the discussion so far we have assumed that the network is a perfect conduit for data. However, there are issues of port design, in particular caused by *oversubscription* that adversely affect performance. While in an ideal world it may be possible to set up routine to avoid this, in the actual practice of a supercomputer cluster, *network contention* or *message collision* from different user jobs is hard to avoid.

Offloading and onloading There are different philosophies of *network card design*: *Mellanox*, being a network card manufacturer, believes in off-loading network activity to the Network Interface Card (NIC), while *Intel*, being a processor manufacturer, believes in ‘on-loading’ activity to the process. There are arguments either way.

Either way, investigate the capabilities of your network.

15.6.4 MPIR

MPIR is the informally specified debugging interface for processes acquisition and message queue extraction.

15.7 Determinism

MPI processes are only synchronized to a certain extent, so you may wonder what guarantees there are that running a code twice will give the same result. You need to consider two cases: first of all, if the two runs are on different numbers of processors there are already numerical problems; see HPC book, section-[3.6.5](#).

Let us then limit ourselves to two runs on the same set of processors. In that case, MPI is deterministic as long as you do not use wildcards such as `MPI_ANY_SOURCE`. Formally, MPI messages are ‘nonovertaking’: two messages between the same sender-receiver pair will arrive in sequence. Actually, they may not arrive in sequence: they are *matched* in sequence in the user program. If the second message is much smaller than the first, it may actually arrive earlier in the lower transport layer.

15.8 Subtleties with processor synchronization

Blocking communication involves a complicated dialog between the two processors involved. Processor one says ‘I have this much data to send; do you have space for that?’, to which processor two replies ‘yes, I do; go ahead and send’, upon which processor one does the actual send. This back-and-forth (technically known as a *handshake*) takes a certain amount of communication overhead. For this reason, network hardware will sometimes forgo the handshake for small messages, and just send them regardless, knowing that the other process has a small buffer for such occasions.

One strange side-effect of this strategy is that a code that should *deadlock* according to the MPI specification does not do so. In effect, you may be shielded from your own programming mistake! Of course, if you then run a larger problem, and the small message becomes larger than the threshold, the deadlock will suddenly occur. So you find yourself in the situation that a bug only manifests itself on large problems, which are usually harder to debug. In this case, replacing every `MPI_Send` with a `MPI_Ssend` will force the handshake, even for small messages.

Conversely, you may sometimes wish to avoid the handshake on large messages. MPI as a solution for this: the `MPI_Rsend` (‘ready send’) routine sends its data immediately, but it needs the receiver to be ready for this. How can you guarantee that the receiving process is ready? You could for instance do the following (this uses nonblocking routines, which are explained below in section [4.2.1](#)):

```
if ( receiving ) {
    MPI_Irecv() // post nonblocking receive
    MPI_Barrier() // synchronize
} else if ( sending ) {
    MPI_Barrier() // synchronize
    MPI_Rsend() // send data fast
```

When the barrier is reached, the receive has been posted, so it is safe to do a ready send. However, global barriers are not a good idea. Instead you would just synchronize the two processes involved.

Exercise 15.2. Give pseudo-code for a scheme where you synchronize the two processes through the exchange of a blocking zero-size message.

15.9 Shell interaction

MPI programs are not run directly from the shell, but are started through an *ssh tunnel*. We briefly discuss ramifications of this.

15.9.1 Standard input

Letting MPI processes interact with the environment is not entirely straightforward. For instance, *shell input redirection* as in

```
mpiexec -n 2 mpiprogram < someinput
```

may not work.

Instead, use a script `programscript` that has one parameter:

```
#!/bin/bash  
mpirunprogram < $1
```

and run this in parallel:

```
mpiexec -n 2 programscript someinput
```

15.9.2 Standard out and error

The `stdout` and `stderr` streams of an MPI process are returned through the ssh tunnel. Thus they can be caught as the `stdout/err` of `mpiexec`.

```
// outerr.c  
fprintf(stdout,"This goes to std out\n");  
fprintf(stderr,"This goes to std err\n");
```

For the full source of this example, see section 15.12.4

The name of the variable is implementation dependent, for `mpich` and its derivates such as *Intel MPI* it is `PMI_RANK`. (There is a similar `PMI_SIZE`.)

If you are only interested in displaying the rank

- `srun` has an option `--label`.

15.9.3 Process status

The return code of `MPI_Abort` is returned as the *processes status* of `mpiexec`. Running

```
// abort.c  
if (procno==nprocs-1)  
    MPI_Abort(comm,37);
```

For the full source of this example, see section 15.12.5

as

```
mpiexec -n 4 ./abort ; \  
echo "Return code from ${MPIRUN} is <<$$?>>"
```

gives

```
TACC: Starting up job 3760534
TACC: Starting parallel tasks...
application called MPI_Abort(MPI_COMM_WORLD, 37) - process 3
TACC: MPI job exited with code: 37
TACC: Shutdown complete. Exiting.
Return code from ibrun is <<37>>
```

15.9.4 Multiple program start

If the MPI application consists of sub-applications, that is, if we have a true *MPMD* runs, there are usually two ways of starting this up. (Once started, each process can retrieve with `MPI_APPNUM` to which application it belongs.)

The first possibility is that the job starter, `mpiexec` or `mpirun` or a local variant, accepts multiple executables:

```
mpiexec spec0 [ : spec1 [ : spec2 : ... ] ]
```

Absent this mechanism, the sort of script of section 15.9.1 can also be used to implement *MPMD* runs. We let the script start one of a number of programs, and we use the fact that the MPI rank is known in the environment; see section 15.9.2.

Use a script `mpmdscript`:

```
#!/bin/bash
rank=$PMI_RANK
half=$(( ${PMI_SIZE} / 2 ))
if [ $rank -lt $half ] ; then
    ./prog1
else
    ./prog2
fi
```

```
TACC: Starting up job 4032931
TACC: Starting parallel tasks...
Program 1 has process 1 out of 4
Program 2 has process 2 out of 4
Program 2 has process 3 out of 4
Program 1 has process 0 out of 4
TACC: Shutdown complete. Exiting.
```

This script is run in parallel:

```
mpiexec -n 25 mpmdscript
```

15.10 Leftover topics

15.10.1 MPI constants

MPI has a number of built-in *constants*. These do not all behave the same.

- Some are *compile-time* constants. Examples are `MPI_VERSION` and `MPI_MAX_PROCESSOR_NAME`. Thus, they can be used in array size declarations, even before `MPI_Init`.
- Some *link-time* constants get their value by MPI initialization, such as `MPI_COMM_WORLD`. Such symbols, which include all predefined handles, can be used in initialization expressions.
- Some link-time symbols can not be used in initialization expressions, such as `MPI_BOTTOM` and `MPI_STATUS_IGNORE`.

For symbols, the binary realization is not defined. For instance, `MPI_COMM_WORLD` is of type `MPI_Comm`, but the implementation of that type is not specified.

See Annex A of the MPI-3.1 standard for full lists.

The following are the compile-time constants:

- `MPI_MAX_PROCESSOR_NAME`
- `MPI_MAX_LIBRARY_VERSION_STRING`
- `MPI_MAX_ERROR_STRING`
- `MPI_MAX_DATAREP_STRING`
- `MPI_MAX_INFO_KEY`
- `MPI_MAX_INFO_VAL`
- `MPI_MAX_OBJECT_NAME`
- `MPI_MAX_PORT_NAME`
- `MPI_VERSION`
- `MPI_SUBVERSION`

Fortran note 14: Fortran-only compile-time constants.

- `MPI_STATUS_SIZE`. No longer needed with Fortran2008 support; see section 8.
- `MPI_ADDRESS_KIND`
- `MPI_COUNT_KIND`
- `MPI_INTEGER_KIND`
- `MPI_OFFSET_KIND`
- `MPI_SUBARRAYS_SUPPORTED`
- `MPI_ASYNC_PROTECTS_NONBLOCKING`

The following are the link-time constants:

- `MPI_BOTTOM`
- `MPI_STATUS_IGNORE`
- `MPI_STATUSES_IGNORE`
- `MPI_ERRCODES_IGNORE`
- `MPI_IN_PLACE`
- `MPI_ARGV_NULL`
- `MPI_ARGVS_NULL`
- `MPI_UNWEIGHTED`
- `MPI_WEIGHTS_EMPTY`

Assorted constants:

- `MPI_PROC_NULL` and other `..._NULL` constants.
- `MPI_ANY_SOURCE`
- `MPI_ANY_TAG`
- `MPI_UNDEFINED`
- `MPI_BSEND_OVERHEAD`
- `MPI_KEYVAL_INVALID`
- `MPI_LOCK_EXCLUSIVE`
- `MPI_LOCK_SHARED`
- `MPI_ROOT`

(This section was inspired by <http://blogs.cisco.com/performance/mpi-outside-of-c-and-fortran>.)

15.10.2 Cancelling messages

In section 4.3.2.1 we showed a master-worker example where the master accepts in arbitrary order the messages from the workers. Here we will show a slightly more complicated example, where only the result of the first task to complete is needed. Thus, we issue an `MPI_Recv` with `MPI_ANY_SOURCE` as source. When a result comes, we broadcast its source to all processes. All the other workers then use this information to cancel their message with an `MPI_Cancel` operation.

```
// cancel.c
fprintf(stderr,"get set, go!\n");
if (procno==nprocs-1) {
    MPI_Status status;
    MPI_Recv(dummy,0,MPI_INT, MPI_ANY_SOURCE,0,comm,
              &status);
    first_tid = status.MPI_SOURCE;
    MPI_Bcast(&first_tid,1,MPI_INT, nprocs-1,comm);
    fprintf(stderr, "[%d] first msg came from %d\n",procno,first_tid);
} else {
    float randomfraction = (rand() / (double)RAND_MAX);
    int randomwait = (int) ( nprocs * randomfraction );
    MPI_Request request;
    fprintf(stderr, "[%d] waits for %e/%d=%d\n",
            procno,randomfraction,nprocs,randomwait);
    sleep(randomwait);
    MPI_Isend(dummy,0,MPI_INT, nprocs-1,0,comm,
              &request);
    MPI_Bcast(&first_tid,1,MPI_INT, nprocs-1,comm
              );
    if (procno!=first_tid) {
        MPI_Cancel(&request);
        fprintf(stderr, "[%d] canceled\n",procno);
    }
}
```

For the full source of this example, see section [15.12.6](#)

After the cancelling operation it is still necessary to call `MPI_Request_free`, `MPI_Wait`, or `MPI_Test` in order to free the request object.

The `MPI_Cancel` operation is local, so it can not be used for *nonblocking collectives* or one-sided transfers.

Remark 25 As of MPI-3.2, cancelling a send is deprecated.

15.10.3 The origin of one-sided communication in ShMem

The *Cray T3E* had a library called *shmem* which offered a type of shared memory. Rather than having a true global address space it worked by supporting variables that were guaranteed to be identical between processors, and indeed, were guaranteed to occupy the same location in memory. Variables could be declared to be shared a ‘symmetric’ pragma or directive; their values could be retrieved or set by `shmem_get` and `shmem_put` calls.

15.11 Literature

Online resources:

- MPI 1 Complete reference:
<http://www.netlib.org/utk/papers/mpi-book/mpi-book.html>
- Official MPI documents:
<http://www.mpi-forum.org/docs/>
- List of all MPI routines:
<http://www.mcs.anl.gov/research/projects/mpi/www/www3/>

Tutorial books on MPI:

- Using MPI [11] by some of the original authors.

15.12 Sources used in this chapter

15.12.1 Listing of code header

15.12.2 Listing of code examples/mpi/c/tags.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <mpi.h>

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

#ifndef FREQUENCY
#define FREQUENCY -1
#endif

/*
 * Standard initialization
 */
MPI_Comm comm = MPI_COMM_WORLD;
int nprocs, procid;
MPI_Init(&argc,&argv);
MPI_Comm_set_errhandler(comm,MPI_ERRORS_RETURN);
MPI_Comm_size(comm,&nprocs);
MPI_Comm_rank(comm,&procid);
int ierr;

if (nprocs<2) {
    printf("This test needs at least 2 processes, not %d\n",nprocs);
    MPI_Abort(comm,0);
}
int sender = 0, receiver = nprocs-1;
if (procid==0) {
    printf("Running on comm world of %d procs; communicating between %d--%d\n",
    nprocs, sender, receiver);
}

int tag_upperbound;
void *v; int flag=1;
ierr = MPI_Comm_get_attr(comm,MPI_TAG_UB,&v,&flag);
tag_upperbound = *(int*)v;
if (ierr!=MPI_SUCCESS) {
    printf("Error getting attribute: return code=%d\n",ierr);
    if (ierr==MPI_ERR_COMM)
        printf("invalid communicator\n");
    if (ierr==MPI_ERR_KEYVAL)
        printf("errorneous keyval\n");
    MPI_Abort(comm,0);
}
if (!flag) {
    printf("Could not get keyval\n");
    MPI_Abort(comm,0);
}
```

```
    } else {
        if (procid==sender)
            printf("Determined tag upperbound: %d\n",tag_upperbound);
    }

    MPI_Finalize();
    return 0;
}
```

15.12.3 Listing of code examples/mpi/p/tags.py

```
import numpy as np
import random # random.randint(1,N), random.random()
from mpi4py import MPI

comm = MPI.COMM_WORLD
procid = comm.Get_rank()
nprocs = comm.Get_size()
if nprocs<4:
    prin( "Need 4 procs at least")
    sys.exit(1)

tag_upperbound = comm.Get_attr(MPI.TAG_UB)
if procid==0:
    print("Determined tag upperbound: {}".format(tag_upperbound))
```

15.12.4 Listing of code examples/mpi/c/outerr.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
#include "mpi.h"

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

    fprintf(stdout,"This goes to std out\n");
    fprintf(stderr,"This goes to std err\n");

    return 0;
}
```

15.12.5 Listing of code examples/mpi/c/abort.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
#include "mpi.h"

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

    #include "globalinit.c"
```

```
if (procno==nprocs-1)
    MPI_Abort(comm,37);

MPI_Finalize();
return 0;
}
```

15.12.6 Listing of code examples/mpi/c/cancel.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
#include <unistd.h>
#include "mpi.h"

int main(int argc,char **argv) {
    int first_tid,dummy[11];

#include "globalinit.c"

// Initialize the random number generator
 srand((int)(procno*(double)RAND_MAX/nprocs));

fprintf(stderr,"get set, go!\n");
if (procno==nprocs-1) {
    MPI_Status status;
    MPI_Recv(dummy,0,MPI_INT, MPI_ANY_SOURCE,0,comm,
              &status);
    first_tid = status.MPI_SOURCE;
    MPI_Bcast(&first_tid,1,MPI_INT, nprocs-1,comm);
    fprintf(stderr,"%d first msg came from %d\n",procno,first_tid);
} else {
    float randomfraction = (rand() / (double)RAND_MAX);
    int randomwait = (int) ( nprocs * randomfraction );
    MPI_Request request;
    fprintf(stderr,"%d waits for %e/%d=%d\n",
    procno,randomfraction,nprocs,randomwait);
    sleep(randomwait);
    MPI_Isend(dummy,0,MPI_INT, nprocs-1,0,comm,
              &request);
    MPI_Bcast(&first_tid,1,MPI_INT, nprocs-1,comm
              );
    if (procno!=first_tid) {
        MPI_Cancel(&request);
        fprintf(stderr,"%d canceled\n",procno);
    }
}

MPI_Finalize();
return 0;
}
```

Chapter 16

MPI Examples

16.1 Bandwidth and halfbandwidth

Bandwidth is the quantity that measures the number of bytes per second that can go through a connection. This definition seems straightforward, but comes with many footnotes.

- The size of the message used matters, since there is a *latency* cost to merely starting the message. Often, the bandwidth number quoted is an asymptotic figure, hard to achieve in practice.
- If a certain bandwidth figure is attained between a pair of processes, will two pairs, sending simultaneously, reach the same number?
- Does the bandwidth depend on the choice of processes to measure?
- And combinations of these considerations.

A useful measure comes from asking what bandwidth is achievable if all processes are either sending or receiving. As a further refinement, we ask what the least favorable choice is for the communicating pairs:

Halfbandwidth is defined as the minimum total bandwidth, over all possible choices of splitting the processes into a sending and receiving half.

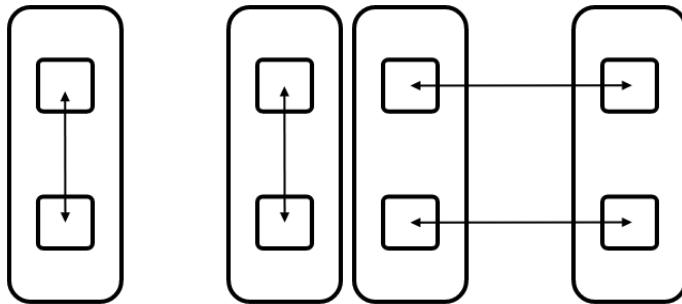


Figure 16.1: Intra and inter schemes for bandwidth

Figure 16.1 illustrates the ‘intra’ (left) and ‘inter’ (right) scheme for letting all processes communicate in pairs. With intra-communication, the messages do not rely on the network so we expect to measure high bandwidth. With inter-communication, all messages go through the network and we expect to measure a lower number.

However, there are more issues to explore, which we will now do.

First of all we need to find pairs of processes. Consecutive pairs:

```
// halfbandwidth.cxx
int sender = procid - procid%2, receiver = sender+1;
```

Pairs that are $P/2$ apart:

```
int sender = procid<halfprocs ? procid : procid-halfprocs,
receiver = sender + halfprocs;
```

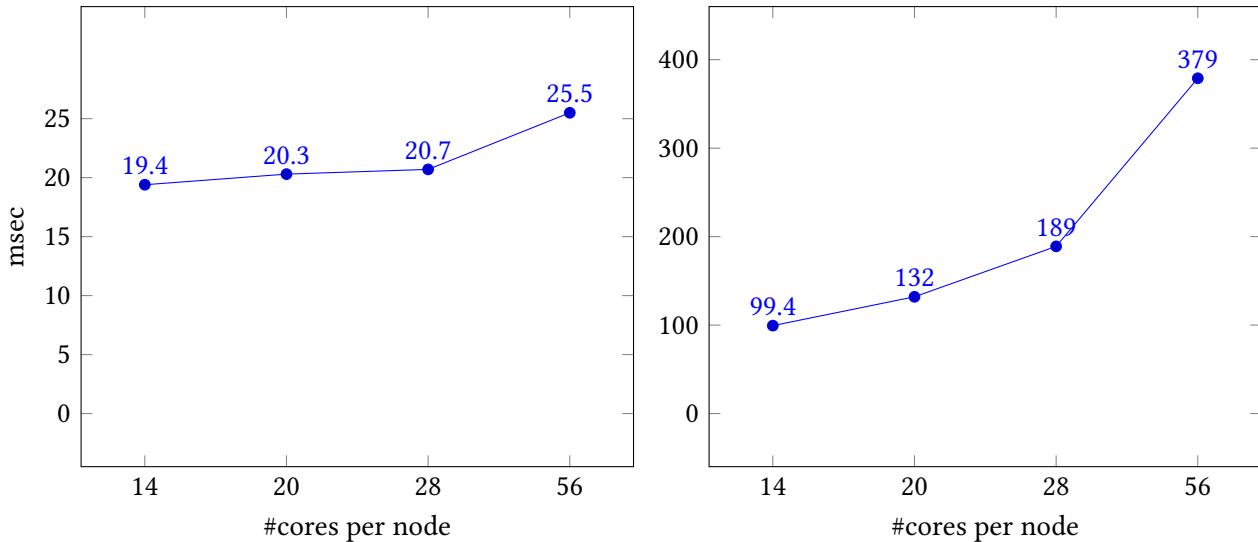


Figure 16.2: Time as a function of core count. Left: on node. Right: between nodes.

The halfbandwidth is measured as the total number of bytes sent divided by the total time. Both numbers are measured outside a repeat loop that does each transaction 100 times.

```
auto duration = myclock::now()-start_time;
auto microsec_duration = std::chrono::duration_cast<std::chrono::microseconds>(duration);
int total_ping_count;
MPI_Allreduce(&pingcount,&total_ping_count,1,MPI_INT,MPI_SUM,comm);
long bytes = buffersize * sizeof(double) * total_ping_count;
float fsec = microsec_duration.count() * 1.e-6,
halfbandwidth = bytes / fsec;
```

In the left graph of figure 16.2 we see that the time for $P/2$ simultaneous pingpongs stays fairly constant. This reflects the fact that, on node, the ping pong operations are data copies, which proceed simultaneously. Thus, the time is independent of the number of cores that are moving data. The exception is the final data point: with all cores active we take up more than the available bandwidth on the node.

In the right graph, each pingpong is inter-node, going through the network. Here we see the runtime go up linearly with the number of pingpongs, or somewhat worse than that. This reflects the fact that network transfers are done sequentially. (Actually, message can be broken up in packets, as long as they satisfy MPI message semantics. This does not alter our argument.)

Next we explore the influence of the buffer size on performance. The right graph in figure 16.3 show that inter-node bandwidth is almost independent of the buffer size. This means that even our smallest buffer is large enough to overcome any MPI startup cost.

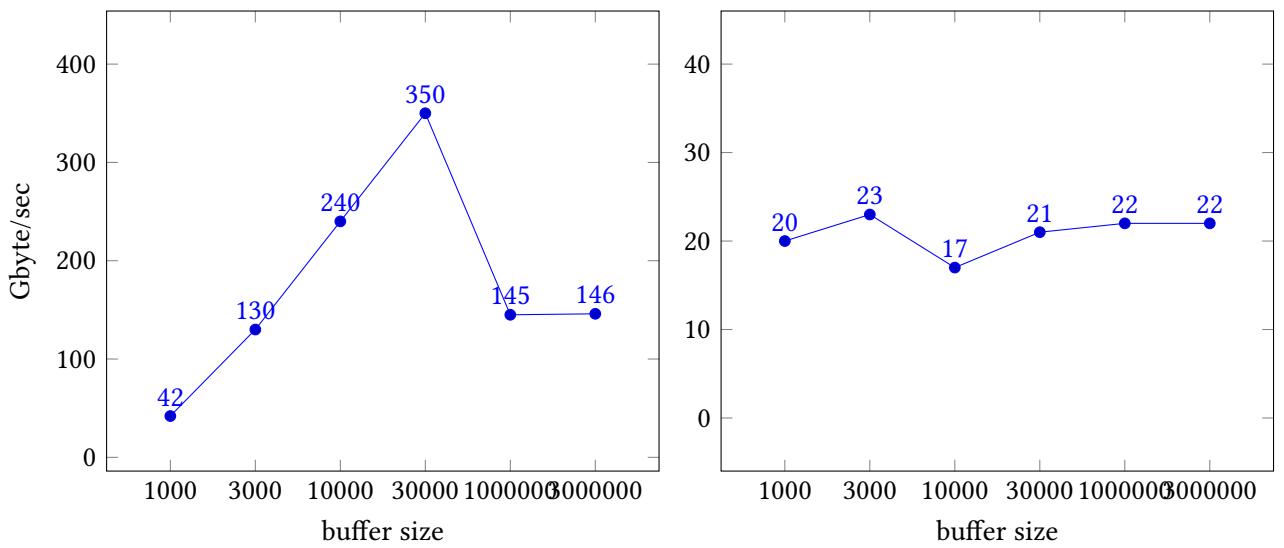


Figure 16.3: Bandwidth as a function of buffer size. Left: on node. Right: between nodes.

On other hand, the left graph shows a more complicated pattern. Initially, the bandwidth increases, possibly reflecting the decreasing importance of MPI startup. For the final data points, however, performance drops again. This is due to the fact that the data size overflows cache size, and we are dominated by bandwidth from memory, rather than cache.

16.2 Sources used in this chapter

16.2.1 Listing of code header

PART II

OPENMP

This section of the book teaches OpenMP ('Open Multi Processing'), the dominant model for shared memory programming in science and engineering. It will instill the following competencies.

Basic level:

- Threading model: the student will understand the threading model of OpenMP, and the relation between threads and cores (chapter 17); the concept of a parallel region and private versus shared data (chapter 18).
- Loop parallelism: the student will be able to parallelize loops, and understand the impediments to parallelization, and iteration scheduling (chapter 19; reductions (chapter 20).
- The student will understand the concept of worksharing constructs, and its implications for synchronization (chapter 21).

Intermediate level:

- The student will understand the abstract notion of synchronization, its implementations in OpenMP, and implications for performance (chapter 23).
- The student will understand the task model as underlying the thread model, be able to write code that spawns tasks, and be able to distinguish when tasks are needed versus simpler worksharing constructs (chapter 24).
- The student will understand thread/code affinity, how to control it, and possible implications for performance (chapter 25).

Advanced level:

- The student will understand the OpenMP memory model, and sequential consistency (chapter 26).
- The student will understand SIMD processing, the extent to which compilers do this outside of OpenMP, and how OpenMP can specify further opportunities for SIMD-ization (chapter 27).
- The student will understand offloading to Graphics Processing Units (GPUs), and the OpenMP directives for effecting this (chapter 28).

Chapter 17

Getting started with OpenMP

This chapter explains the basic concepts of OpenMP, and helps you get started on running your first OpenMP program.

17.1 The OpenMP model

We start by establishing a mental picture of the hardware and software that OpenMP targets.

17.1.1 Target hardware

Modern computers have a multi-layered design. Maybe you have access to a cluster, and maybe you have learned how to use MPI to communicate between cluster nodes. OpenMP, the topic of this chapter, is concerned with a single *cluster node* or *motherboard*, and getting the most out of the available parallelism available there.



Figure 17.1: A node with two sockets and a co-processor

Figure 17.1 pictures a typical design of a node: within one enclosure you find two *sockets*: single processor chips. Your personal laptop or desktop computer will probably have one socket, most supercomputers have nodes with two or four sockets (the picture is of a *Stampede node* with two sockets). In either case there can be a GPU as co-processor; supercomputer clusters can also have other types of *accelerators*.

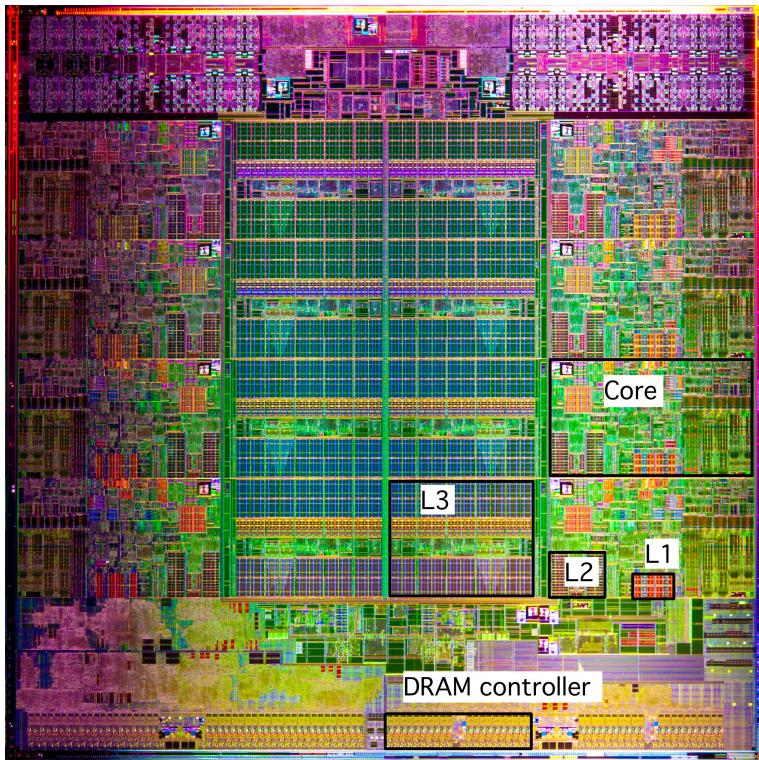


Figure 17.2: Structure of an Intel Sandybridge eight-core socket

To see where OpenMP operates we need to dig into the sockets. Figure 17.2 shows a picture of an *Intel Sandybridge* socket. You recognize a structure with eight *cores*: independent processing units, that all have access to the same memory. (In figure 17.1 you saw four memory chips, or DIMMs, attached to each of the two sockets; all of the sixteen cores have access to all that memory.) OpenMP makes it easy to explore all these cores in the same program. In version OpenMP-5.0, OpenMP also made it possible to offload computations to the GPU or other accelerator.

To summarize the structure of the architecture that OpenMP targets:

- A node has up to four sockets;
- each socket has up to 60 cores;
- each core is an independent processing unit, with access to all the memory on the node.
- There can be an accelerator, which can be used to offload computations to.

17.1.2 Target software

OpenMP is based on two concepts: the use of *threads* and the *fork/join model* of parallelism. For now you can think of a thread as a sort of process: the computer executes a sequence of instructions. The fork/join model says that a thread can split itself ('fork') into a number of threads that are identical copies. At some point these copies go away and the original thread is left ('join'), but while the *team of threads* created by the fork exists, you have parallelism available to you. The part of the execution between fork and join is known as a *parallel region*.

Figure 17.3 gives a simple picture of this: a thread forks into a team of threads, and these threads themselves can fork again.

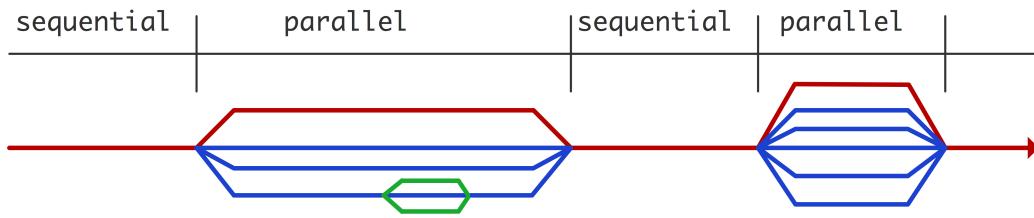


Figure 17.3: Thread creation and deletion during parallel execution

The threads that are forked are all copies of the *master thread*: they have access to all that was computed so far; this is their *shared data*. Of course, if the threads were completely identical the parallelism would be pointless, so they also have private data, and they can identify themselves: they know their thread number. This allows you to do meaningful parallel computations with threads.

This brings us to the third important concept: that of *work sharing* constructs. In a team of threads, initially there will be replicated execution; a work sharing construct divides available parallelism over the threads.

So there you have it: OpenMP uses teams of threads, and inside a parallel region the work is distributed over the threads with a work sharing construct. Threads can access shared data, and they have some private data.

An important difference between OpenMP and MPI is that parallelism in OpenMP is dynamically activated by a thread spawning a team of threads. Furthermore, the number of threads used can differ between parallel regions, and threads can create threads recursively. This is known as as *dynamic mode*. By contrast, in an MPI program the number of running processes is (mostly) constant throughout the run, and determined by factors external to the program.

17.1.3 About threads and cores

OpenMP programming is typically done to take advantage of *multicore* processors. Thus, to get a good speedup you would typically let your number of threads be equal to the number of cores. However, there is nothing to prevent you from creating more threads if that serves the natural expression of your algorithm: the operating system will use *time slicing* to let them all be executed. You just don't get a speedup beyond the number of actually available cores.

On some modern processors there are *hardware threads*, meaning that a core can actually let more than one thread be executed, with some speedup over the single thread. To use such a processor efficiently you would let the number of OpenMP threads be 2 or 4 times the number of cores, depending on the hardware.

17.2 Compiling and running an OpenMP program

17.2.1 Compiling

Your file or Fortran module needs to contain

```
|| #include "omp.h"
```

in C, and

```
|| use omp_lib
```

or

```
|| #include "omp_lib.h"
```

for Fortran.

OpenMP is handled by extensions to your regular compiler, typically by adding an option to your commandline:

```
# gcc
gcc -o foo foo.c -fopenmp
# Intel compiler
icc -o foo foo.c -qopenmp
```

If you have separate compile and link stages, you need that option in both.

When you use the `openmp` compiler option, the *OpenMP macro*, (or *cpp macro*) `_OPENMP` will be defined. Thus, you can have conditional compilation by writing

```
|| #ifdef _OPENMP
    ...
|| #else
    ...
|| #endif
```

The value of this macro is a decimal value `yyyymm` denoting the OpenMP standard release that this compiler supports; see section [29.7](#).

Fortran note 15: OpenMP version. The parameter `openmp_version` contains the version in `yyyymm` format.

17.2.2 Running an OpenMP program

You run an OpenMP program by invoking it the regular way (for instance `./a.out`), but its behavior is influenced by some *OpenMP environment variables*. The most important one is `OMP_NUM_THREADS`:

```
export OMP_NUM_THREADS=8
```

which sets the number of threads that a program will use. See section [29.1](#) for a list of all environment variables.

17.3 Your first OpenMP program

In this section you will see just enough of OpenMP to write a first program and to explore its behavior. For this we need to introduce a couple of OpenMP language constructs. They will all be discussed in much greater detail in later chapters.

17.3.1 Directives

OpenMP is not magic, so you have to tell it when something can be done in parallel. This is mostly done through *directives*; additional specifications can be done through library calls.

In C/C++ the *pragma* mechanism is used: annotations for the benefit of the compiler that are otherwise not part of the language. This looks like:

```

|| #pragma omp somedirective clause(value,othervalue)
||     statement;

|| #pragma omp somedirective clause(value,othervalue)
|| {
||     statement 1;
||     statement 2;
|| }

```

with

- the `#pragma omp sentinel` to indicate that an OpenMP directive is coming;
- a directive, such as `parallel`;
- and possibly clauses with values.
- After the directive comes either a single statement or a block in *curly braces*.

Directives in C/C++ are case-sensitive. Directives can be broken over multiple lines by escaping the line end.

Fortran note 16: OpenMP sentinel. The sentinel in Fortran looks like a comment:

```

|| !$omp directive clause(value)
||     statements
|| !$omp end directive

```

The difference with the C directive is that Fortran does not have code blocks, so there is an explicit *end-of-directive* line.

If you break a directive over more than one line, all but the last line need to have a continuation character, and each line needs to have the sentinel:

```

|| !$OMP parallel do &
|| !%OMP    copyin(x),copyout(y)

```

The directives are case-insensitive. In *Fortran fixed-form source* files (which is the only possibility in Fortran77), `c$omp` and `*$omp` are allowed too.

17.3.2 Parallel regions

The simplest way to create parallelism in OpenMP is to use the `parallel` pragma. A block preceded by the `parallel` pragma is called a *parallel region*; it is executed by a newly created team of threads. This is an instance of the *Single Program Multiple Data (SPMD)* model: all threads execute (redundantly) the same segment of code.

```

|| #pragma omp parallel
|| {
||     // this is executed by a team of threads
|| }

```

Exercise 17.1. Write a ‘hello world’ program, where the print statement is in a parallel region.

Compile and run.

Run your program with different values of the environment variable `OMP_NUM_THREADS`. If you know how many cores your machine has, can you set the value higher?

We will go into much more detail in chapter 18.

17.3.3 An actual OpenMP program!

Let's start exploring how OpenMP handles parallelism, using the following functions:

- `omp_get_num_threads` reports how many threads are currently active, and
- `omp_get_thread_num` reports the number of the thread that makes the call.
- `omp_get_num_procs` reports the number of available cores.

Exercise 17.2. Take the hello world program of exercise 17.1 and insert the above functions, before, in, and after the parallel region. What are your observations?

Solution to exercise 17.2. Use `omp_get_num_threads`. The first print statement will appear only once because it is not in a parallel region. The second statement will appear once for each thread.

Exercise 17.3. Extend the program from exercise 17.2. Make a complete program based on these lines:

Code:

```
// reduct.c
int tsum=0;
#pragma omp parallel
{
    tsum += // expression
}
printf("Sum is %d\n",tsum);
```

Output:

```
With 4 threads, sum s/b 6
Sum is 6
Sum is 5
Sum is 1
Sum is 4
Sum is 6
Sum is 5
Sum is 6
Sum is 5
Sum is 3
Sum is 4
```

Compile and run again. (In fact, run your program a number of times.) Do you see something unexpected? Can you think of an explanation?

If the above puzzles you, read about *race conditions* in section 9.3.7.

17.3.4 Code and execution structure

Here are a couple of important concepts:

- An OpenMP directive is followed by an *structured block*; in C this is a single statement, a compound statement, or a block in braces; In Fortran it is delimited by the directive and its matching ‘end’ directive. A structured block can not be jumped into, so it can not start with a labeled statement, or contain a jump statement leaving the block.
- An OpenMP *construct* is the section of code starting with a directive and spanning the following structured block, plus in Fortran the end-directive. This is a lexical concept: it contains the statements directly enclosed, and not any subroutines called from them.
- A *region of code* is defined as all statements that are dynamically encountered while executing the code of an OpenMP construct. This is a dynamic concept: unlike a ‘construct’, it does include any subroutines that are called from the code in the structured block.

17.4 Thread data

In most programming languages, visibility of data is governed by rules on the *scope of variables*: a variable is declared in a block, and it is then visible to any statement in that block and blocks with a *lexical scope* contained in it, but not in surrounding blocks:

```

|| main () {
||   // no variable `x' define here
|| {
||   int x = 5;
||   if (somecondition) { x = 6; }
||   printf("x=%e\n",x); // prints 5 or 6
|| }
|| printf("x=%e\n",x); // syntax error: `x' undefined
|| }
```

Fortran has simpler rules, since it does not have blocks inside blocks.

OpenMP has similar rules concerning data in parallel regions and other OpenMP constructs. First of all, data is visible in enclosed scopes:

```

|| main() {
||   int x;
|| #pragma omp parallel
|| {
||   // you can use and set `x' here
|| }
|| printf("x=%e\n",x); // value depends on what
||                      // happened in the parallel region
|| }
```

In C, you can redeclare a variable inside a nested scope:

```

|| {
||   int x;
||   if (something) {
||     double x; // same name, different entity
||   }
||   x = ... // this refers to the integer again
|| }
```

Doing so makes the outer variable inaccessible.

OpenMP has a similar mechanism:

```

|| {
||   int x;
|| #pragma omp parallel
|| {
||   double x;
|| }
```

There is an important difference: each thread in the team gets its own instance of the enclosed variable.

This is illustrated in figure 17.4.

In addition to such scoped variables, which live on a *stack*, there are variables on the *heap*, typically created by a call to `malloc` (in C) or `new` (in C++). Rules for them are more complicated.

Summarizing the above, there are

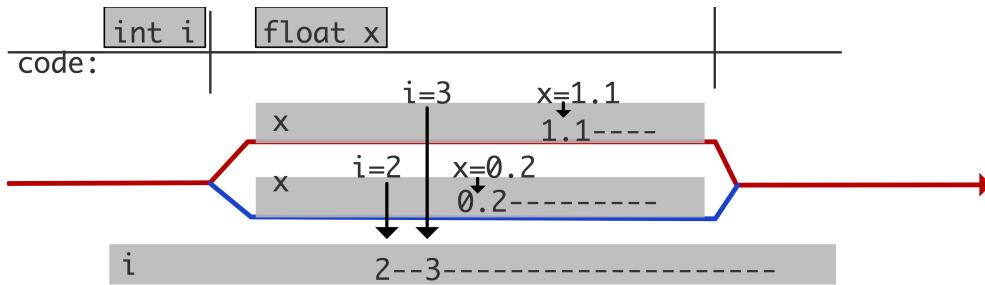


Figure 17.4: Locality of variables in threads

- *shared variables*, where each thread refers to the same data item, and
- *private variables*, where each thread has its own instance.

In addition to using scoping, OpenMP also uses options on the directives to control whether data is private or shared.

Many of the difficulties of parallel programming with OpenMP stem from the use of shared variables. For instance, if two threads update a shared variable, there is no guarantee on the order on the updates.

We will discuss all this in detail in section 22.

17.5 Creating parallelism

The *fork/join model* of OpenMP means that you need some way of indicating where an activity can be forked for independent execution. There are two ways of doing this:

1. You can declare a parallel region and split one thread into a whole team of threads. We will discuss this next in chapter 18. The division of the work over the threads is controlled by *work sharing construct*; see chapter 21.
2. Alternatively, you can use tasks and indicating one parallel activity at a time. You will see this in section 24.

Note that OpenMP only indicates how much parallelism is present; whether independent activities are in fact executed in parallel is a runtime decision.

Declaring a parallel region tells OpenMP that a team of threads can be created. The actual size of the team depends on various factors (see section 29.1 for variables and functions mentioned in this section).

- The *environment variable* `OMP_NUM_THREADS` limits the number of threads that can be created.
- If you don't set this variable, you can also set this limit dynamically with the *library routine* `omp_set_num_threads`. This routine takes precedence over the aforementioned environment variable if both are specified.
- A limit on the number of threads can also be set as a `num_threads` clause on a parallel region:

```
||   #pragma omp parallel num_threads(ndata)
```

If you specify a greater amount of parallelism than the hardware supports, the runtime system will probably ignore your specification and choose a lower value. To ask how much parallelism is actually used in your parallel region, use `omp_get_num_threads`. To query these hardware limits, use `omp_get_max_threads`. You can query the maximum number of threads with `omp_get_max_threads`. This equals the value of `OMP_NUM_THREADS`, not the number of actually active threads in a parallel region.

```
// proccount.c
void nested_report() {
#pragma omp parallel
#pragma omp master
    printf("Nested    : %2d cores and %2d
           ↪threads out of max %2d\n",
           omp_get_num_procs(),
           omp_get_num_threads(),
           omp_get_max_threads());
}
int env_num_threads;
#pragma omp parallel
#pragma omp master
{
    env_num_threads =
    ↪omp_get_num_threads();
    printf("Parallel   : %2d cores and %2d
           ↪threads out of max %2d\n",
           omp_get_num_procs(),
           omp_get_num_threads(),
           omp_get_max_threads());
}

#pragma omp parallel \
    num_threads(2*env_num_threads)
#pragma omp master
{
    printf("Double    : %2d cores and %2d
           ↪threads out of max %2d\n",
           omp_get_num_procs(),
           omp_get_num_threads(),
           omp_get_max_threads());
}

#pragma omp parallel
#pragma omp master
    nested_report();
```

[c:48] for t in 1 2 4 8 16 ; do OMP_NUM_THREADS=\$t ./proccount ; done
----- Parallelism report -----
Sequential: count 4 cores and 1 threads out of max 1
Parallel : count 4 cores and 1 threads out of max 1
Parallel : count 4 cores and 1 threads out of max 1
----- Parallelism report -----
Sequential: count 4 cores and 1 threads out of max 2
Parallel : count 4 cores and 2 threads out of max 2
Parallel : count 4 cores and 1 threads out of max 2
----- Parallelism report -----
Sequential: count 4 cores and 1 threads out of max 4
Parallel : count 4 cores and 4 threads out of max 4
Parallel : count 4 cores and 1 threads out of max 4
----- Parallelism report -----
Sequential: count 4 cores and 1 threads out of max 8
Parallel : count 4 cores and 8 threads out of max 8
Parallel : count 4 cores and 1 threads out of max 8
----- Parallelism report -----
Sequential: count 4 cores and 1 threads out of max 16
Parallel : count 4 cores and 16 threads out of max 16
Parallel : count 4 cores and 1 threads out of max 16

Another limit on the number of threads is imposed when you use nested parallel regions. This can arise if you have a parallel region in a subprogram which is sometimes called sequentially, sometimes in parallel. For details, see section 18.2.

17.6 Sources used in this chapter

17.6.1 Listing of code header

Chapter 18

OpenMP topic: Parallel regions

18.1 Creating parallelism with parallel regions

The simplest way to create parallelism in OpenMP is to use the `parallel` pragma. A block preceded by the `omp parallel` pragma is called a *parallel region*; it is executed by a newly created team of threads. This is an instance of the *SPMD* model: all threads execute the same segment of code.

```
|| #pragma omp parallel
|| {
||     // this is executed by a team of threads
|| }
```

It would be pointless to have the block be executed identically by all threads. One way to get a meaningful parallel code is to use the function `omp_get_thread_num`, to find out which thread you are, and execute work that is individual to that thread. This function gives a number relative to the current team; recall from figure 17.3 that new teams can be created recursively.

For instance, if you program computes

```
|| result = f(x)+g(x)+h(x)
```

you could parallelize this as

```
|| double result,fresult,gresult,hresult;
|| #pragma omp parallel
|| { int num = omp_get_thread_num();
||   if (num==0)      fresult = f(x);
||   else if (num==1) gresult = g(x);
||   else if (num==2) hresult = h(x);
|| }
|| result = fresult + gresult + hresult;
```

The first thing we want to do is create a team of threads. This is done with a *parallel region*. Here is a very simple example:

```
|| // hello.c
|| #pragma omp parallel
|| {
||   int t = omp_get_thread_num();
||   printf("Hello world from %d!\n",t);
|| }
```

For the full source of this example, see section 18.5.2

or in Fortran

```
||| !! hellocount.F90
||| !$omp parallel
|||   nthreads = omp_get_num_threads()
|||   mythread = omp_get_thread_num()
|||   write(*,'("Hello from",i3," out of",i3)') mythread,nthreads
||| !$omp end parallel
```

For the full source of this example, see section 18.5.3

or in C++

```
||| // hello.cxx
||| #pragma omp parallel
||| {
|||   int t = omp_get_thread_num();
|||   stringstream proctext;
|||   proctext << "Hello world from " << t << endl;
|||   cerr << proctext.str();
||| }
```

For the full source of this example, see section 18.5.4

(Note the use of `stringstream`: without that the output lines from the various threads may get mixed up.)

There is also a function `omp_get_num_threads` to find out the total number of threads.

This code corresponds to the model we just discussed:

- Immediately preceding the parallel block, one thread will be executing the code. In the main program this is the *initial thread*.
- At the start of the block, a new *team of threads* is created, and the thread that was active before the block becomes the *master thread* of that team.
- After the block only the master thread is active.
- Inside the block there is team of threads: each thread in the team executes the body of the block, and it will have access to all variables of the surrounding environment. How many threads there are can be determined in a number of ways; we will get to that later.

Remark 26 *In future versions of OpenMP, the master thread will be called the primary thread. In 5.1 the master construct will be deprecated, and masked (with added functionality) will take its place. In 6.0 master will disappear from the Spec, including proc_bind master “variable” and combined master constructs (master taskloop, etc.)*

Exercise 18.1. Make a full program based on this fragment. Insert different print statements before, inside, and after the parallel region. Run this example. How many times is each print statement executed?

You see that the `parallel` directive

- Is preceded by a special marker: a `#pragma omp` for C/C++, and the `!$OMP sentinel` for Fortran;
- Is followed by a single statement or a block in C/C++, or followed by a block in Fortran which is delimited by an `!$omp end` directive.

Directives look like *cpp directives*, but they are actually handled by the compiler, not the preprocessor.

Exercise 18.2. Take the ‘hello world’ program above, and modify it so that you get multiple messages to your screen, saying

```
Hello from thread 0 out of 4!
Hello from thread 1 out of 4!
and so on. (The messages may very well appear out of sequence.)
What happens if you set your number of threads larger than the available cores on your
computer?
```

Solution to exercise 18.2. *For a large number of threads, you will probably get that number of responses, though OpenMP is at liberty to use a lower number.*

Exercise 18.3. What happens if you call `omp_get_thread_num` and `omp_get_num_threads` outside a parallel region?

Solution to exercise 18.3. *There is only thread, which is number zero out of 1.*

```
// hello-inout.c
int mythread,nthreads;
nthreads = omp_get_num_threads();
mythread = omp_get_thread_num();
printf("Hello from %d out of %d outside the region\n",mythread,nthreads);
```

For the full source of this example, see section 18.5.5

See also `OMP_WAIT_POLICY` values: ACTIVE, PASSIVE

18.2 Nested parallelism

What happens if you call a function from inside a parallel region, and that function itself contains a parallel region?

```
int main() {
    ...
#pragma omp parallel
    {
        ...
        func(...)
        ...
    }
} // end of main
void func(...) {
#pragma omp parallel
    {
        ...
    }
}
```

By default, the nested parallel region will have only one thread. To allow nested thread creation, use the environment variable `OMP_MAX_ACTIVE_LEVELS` (default: 1) to set the number of levels of parallel nesting. Equivalently, there are functions `omp_set_max_active_levels` and `omp_get_max_active_levels`:

```
OMP_MAX_ACTIVE_LEVELS=3
or
void omp_set_max_active_levels(int);
int omp_get_max_active_levels(void);
```

Remark 27 A deprecated mechanism is to set `OMP_NESTED` (default: false):

```
OMP_NESTED=true
or
omp_set_nested(1)
```

Nested parallelism can happen with nested loops, but it's also possible to have a `sections` construct and a loop nested. Example:

Code:

```
// sectionnest.c
#pragma omp parallel sections reduction(+:s)
{
#pragma omp section
{
    double s1=0;
    omp_set_num_threads(team);
#pragma omp parallel for reduction(+:s1)
    for (int i=0; i<N; i++) {
```

Output:

Nesting: false	
Threads: 2, speedup: 2.0	
Threads: 4, speedup: 2.0	
Threads: 8, speedup: 2.0	
Threads: 12, speedup: 2.0	
Nesting: true	
Threads: 2, speedup: 1.8	
Threads: 4, speedup: 3.7	
Threads: 8, speedup: 6.9	
Threads: 12, speedup: 10.4	

18.2.1 Subprograms with parallel regions

A common application of nested parallelism is the case where you have a subprogram with a parallel region, which itself gets called from a parallel region.

Exercise 18.4. Test nested parallelism by writing an OpenMP program as follows:

1. Write a subprogram that contains a parallel region.
2. Write a main program with a parallel region; call the subprogram both inside and outside the parallel region.
3. Insert print statements
 - (a) in the main program outside the parallel region,
 - (b) in the parallel region in the main program,
 - (c) in the subprogram outside the parallel region,
 - (d) in the parallel region inside the subprogram.

Run your program and count how many print statements of each type you get.

Writing subprograms that are called in a parallel region illustrates the following point: directives are evaluated with respect to the *dynamic scope* of the parallel region, not just the lexical scope. In the following example:

```
#pragma omp parallel
{
    f();
}
void f() {
    #pragma omp for
    for (....) {
        ...
    }
}
```

the body of the function `f` falls in the dynamic scope of the parallel region, so the for loop will be parallelized.

If the function may be called both from inside and outside parallel regions, you can test which is the case with `omp_in_parallel`.

18.2.2 Fine control

The amount of nested parallelism can be set:

```
OMP_NUM_THREADS=4,2
```

means that initially a parallel region will have four threads, and each thread can create two more threads.

```
OMP_MAX_ACTIVE_LEVELS=123
```

```
||  omp_set_max_active_levels( n )
||  n = omp_get_max_active_levels()
```

```
OMP_THREAD_LIMIT=123
```

```
||  n = omp_get_thread_limit()

||  omp_set_max_active_levels
||  omp_get_max_active_levels
||  omp_get_level
||  omp_get_active_level
||  omp_get_ancestor_thread_num

||  omp_get_team_size(level)
```

18.3 Cancel parallel construct

It is possible to terminate a parallel construct early with the `cancel` directive:

```
|| !$omp cancel construct [if (expr)]
```

where construct is `parallel`, `sections`, `do` or `taskgroup`.

See section 31.3 for an example.

Cancelling is disabled by default for performance reasons. To activate it, set the `OMP_CANCELLATION` variable to true.

The state of cancellation can be queried with `omp_get_cancellation`, but there is no function to set it.

Cancellation can happen at most obvious places where OpenMP is active, but additional cancellation points can be set with

```
|| #pragma omp cancellation point <construct>
```

where the construct is `parallel`, `sections`, `for`, `do`, `taskgroup`.

18.4 Review questions

Exercise 18.5. T/F? The function `omp_get_num_threads()` returns a number that is equal to the number of cores.

Exercise 18.6. T/F? The function `omp_set_num_threads()` can not be set to a higher number than the number of cores.

Exercise 18.7. What function can be used to detect the number of cores?

Solution to exercise 18.7. `omp_get_num_procs()`

18.5 Sources used in this chapter

18.5.1 Listing of code header

18.5.2 Listing of code examples/omp/c/hello.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <omp.h>

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

#pragma omp parallel
{
    int t = omp_get_thread_num();
    printf("Hello world from %d!\n",t);
}

return 0;
}
```

18.5.3 Listing of code examples/omp/f/hellocount.F90

```
Program Hello

use omp_lib
integer :: nthreads,mythread

!$omp parallel
nthreads = omp_get_num_threads()
mythread = omp_get_thread_num()
write(*,'("Hello from",i3," out of",i3)') mythread,nthreads
!$omp end parallel

end Program Hello
```

18.5.4 Listing of code examples/omp/cxx/hello.cxx

```
#include <iostream>
using std::cerr;
using std::cout;
using std::endl;
#include <sstream>
using std::stringstream;

#include <omp.h>

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

#pragma omp parallel
{
```

```
    int t = omp_get_thread_num();
    stringstream proctext;
    proctext << "Hello world from " << t << endl;
    cerr << proctext.str();
}

return 0;
}
```

18.5.5 Listing of code examples/omp/c/hellocount.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>

#include "omp.h"

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

    int mythread,nthreads;
    nthreads = omp_get_num_threads();
    mythread = omp_get_thread_num();
    printf("Hello from %d out of %d outside the region\n",mythread,nthreads);

#pragma omp parallel
{
    int mythread,nthreads;
    nthreads = omp_get_num_threads();
    mythread = omp_get_thread_num();
    printf("Hello from %d out of %d inside the region\n",mythread,nthreads);
}

#pragma omp parallel
{
    nthreads = omp_get_num_threads();
    mythread = omp_get_thread_num();
    printf("Hello from %d out of %d inside the nonprivate region\n",mythread,nthreads);
}

return 0;
}
```

Chapter 19

OpenMP topic: Loop parallelism

19.1 Loop parallelism

Loop parallelism is a very common type of parallelism in scientific codes, so OpenMP has an easy mechanism for it. OpenMP parallel loops are a first example of OpenMP ‘worksharing’ constructs (see section 21.1 for the full list): constructs that take an amount of work and distribute it over the available threads in a parallel region, created with the `parallel` pragma.

The parallel execution of a loop can be handled a number of different ways. For instance, you can create a parallel region around the loop, and adjust the loop bounds:

```
#pragma omp parallel
{
    int threadnum = omp_get_thread_num(),
        numthreads = omp_get_num_threads();
    int low = N*threadnum/numthreads,
        high = N*(threadnum+1)/numthreads;
    for (i=low; i<high; i++)
        // do something with i
}
```

In effect, this is how you would parallelize a loop in MPI.

Exercise 19.1. What is an important difference between the resulting OpenMP and MPI code?

Solution to exercise 19.1. *In MPI each process uses indexing from zero on its local array; in OpenMP each thread uses global indexing.*

A more natural option is to use the `for` pragma:

```
#pragma omp parallel
#pragma omp for
for (i=0; i<N; i++) {
    // do something with i
}
```

This has several advantages. For one, you don’t have to calculate the loop bounds for the threads yourself, but you can also tell OpenMP to assign the loop iterations according to different schedules (section 19.3).

Fortran note 17: OMP do pragma. The `for` pragma only exists in C; there is a correspondingly named `do` pragma in Fortran.

```

|| $!omp parallel
|| $!omp do
||   do i=1,N
||     ! something with i
||   end do
|| $!omp end do
|| $!omp end parallel

```

Figure 19.1 shows the execution on four threads of

```

#pragma omp parallel
{
  code1();
#pragma omp for
  for (i=1; i<=4*N; i++) {
    code2();
  }
  code3();
}

```

The code before and after the loop is executed identically in each thread; the loop iterations are spread over the four threads.

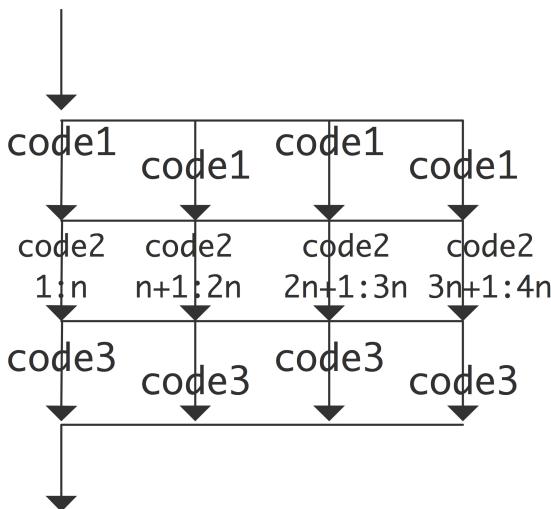


Figure 19.1: Execution of parallel code inside and outside a loop

Note that the `do` and `for` pragmas do not create a team of threads: they take the team of threads that is active, and divide the loop iterations over them. This means that the `omp for` or `omp do` directive needs to be inside a parallel region.

As an illustration:

Code:

```
// parfor.c
#pragma omp parallel
{
    int
    nthreads = omp_get_num_threads(),
    thread_num = omp_get_thread_num();
    printf("Threads entering parallel region: %d\n",
           nthreads);
    #pragma omp for
    for (int iter=0; iter<nthreads; iter++)
        printf("thread %d executing iter %d\n",
               thread_num,iter);
}
```

Exercise 19.2. What would happen in the above example if you increase the number of threads to be larger than the number of cores?

Solution to exercise 19.2. Here I am using a clause to force oversubscription, but you can of course use environment variables.

Code:

```
// parfor.c
#pragma omp parallel num_threads(2*ncores)
{
    int nthreads = omp_get_num_threads(),
        thread_num = omp_get_thread_num();
    printf("Threads entering parallel region: %d\n",
           nthreads);
    #pragma omp for
    for (int iteration=0; iteration<nthreads; iteration++)
        printf("thread %d executing iteration %d\n",
               thread_num,iteration);
}
```

Output:

```
%%%% equal thread/core counts %%%
Threads entering parallel region: 4
thread 3 executing iter 3
Threads entering parallel region: 4
thread 0 executing iter 0
Threads entering parallel region: 4
thread 2 executing iter 2
Threads entering parallel region: 4
thread 1 executing iter 1
```

Output:

```
%%%% equal thread/core counts %%%
% on 4 cores %%
Thread 4 entering parallel region
thread 0 executing iteration 0
Thread 4 entering parallel region
thread 3 executing iteration 3
Thread 4 entering parallel region
thread 1 executing iteration 1
Thread 4 entering parallel region
thread 2 executing iteration 2
%%% oversubscription threads over cores %%%
% on 4 cores %%
Thread 8 entering parallel region
thread 4 executing iteration 4
Thread 8 entering parallel region
thread 7 executing iteration 7
thread 1 executing iteration 1
thread 2 executing iteration 2
Thread 8 entering parallel region
thread 3 executing iteration 3
Thread 8 entering parallel region
thread 6 executing iteration 6
Thread 8 entering parallel region
thread 5 executing iteration 5
thread 0 executing iteration 0
```

It is also possible to have a combined `omp parallel for` or `omp parallel do` directive.

```
|| #pragma omp parallel for
  for (i=0; ....
```

19.1.1 Loops are static

There are some restrictions on the loop: basically, OpenMP needs to be able to determine in advance how many iterations there will be.

- The loop can not contain `break`, `return`, `exit` statements, or `goto` to a label outside the loop.
- The `continue` in OpenMP loops (for C/C++) or `cycle` in OpenMP loops (for Fortran) statement is allowed.
- The index update has to be an increment (or decrement) by a fixed amount.
- The loop index variable is automatically private, and not changes to it inside the loop are allowed. The following loop is not parallelizable in OpenMP:

```

for (int i=0; i<N; ) {
    // something
    if (something)
        i++;
    else
        i += 2;
}
```

Remark 28 *The loop index needs to be an integer value for the loop to be parallelizable. Unsigned values are allowed as of OpenMP-3.*

19.1.2 Exercises

Exercise 19.3. Compute π by *numerical integration*. We use the fact that π is the area of the unit circle, and we approximate this by computing the area of a quarter circle using *Riemann sums*.

- Let $f(x) = \sqrt{1 - x^2}$ be the function that describes the quarter circle for $x = 0 \dots 1$;
- Then we compute

$$\pi/4 \approx \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \Delta x f(x_i) \quad \text{where } x_i = i\Delta x \text{ and } \Delta x = 1/N$$

Write a program for this, and parallelize it using OpenMP parallel for directives.

1. Put a `parallel` directive around your loop. Does it still compute the right result? Does the time go down with the number of threads? (The answers should be no and no.)
2. Change the `parallel` to `parallel for` (or `parallel do`). Now is the result correct? Does execution speed up? (The answers should now be no and yes.)
3. Put a `critical` directive in front of the update. (Yes and very much no.)
4. Remove the `critical` and add a clause `reduction(+:quarterpi)` to the `for` directive. Now it should be correct and efficient.

Use different numbers of cores and compute the speedup you attain over the sequential computation. Is there a performance difference between the OpenMP code with 1 thread and the sequential code?

Solution to exercise 19.3.

1. With the `parallel` directive, the loop gets multiple evaluations. There is no time reduction, and the result π times up to the number of threads; less because of race conditions.
2. With a `for` directive the loop is distributed, so the time goes down. Results are still wrong because of the race condition.

3. *critical* fixes the correctness, but slows everything down.

Remark 29 In this exercise you may have seen the runtime go up a couple of times where you weren't expecting it. The issue here is false sharing; see HPC book, section-3.6.5 for more explanation.

19.2 An example

To illustrate the speedup of perfectly parallel calculations, we consider a simple code that applies the same calculation to each element of an array.

All tests are done on the *TACC Frontera* cluster, which has dual-socket *Intel Cascade Lake* nodes, with a total of 56 cores. We control affinity by setting `OMP_PROC_BIND=true`.

Here is the essential code fragment:

```
// speedup.c
#pragma omp parallel for
for (int ip=0; ip<N; ip++) {
    for (int jp=0; jp<M; jp++) {
        double f = sin( values[ip] );
        values[ip] = f;
    }
}
```

Exercise 19.4. Verify that the outer loop is parallel, but the inner one is not.

Solution to exercise 19.4. *The outer loop is parallel because each iteration only uses `ip` as index. The inner loop is a recursion, so not parallel.*

Exercise 19.5. Compare the time for the sequential code and the single-threaded OpenMP code. Try different optimization levels, and different compilers if you have them.

- Do you sometimes get a significant difference? What would be an explanation?
- Does your compiler have a facility for generating optimization reports? For instance `-qoptreport=5` for the *Intel compiler*.

Solution to exercise 19.5. *The compiler may exchange the outer and inner loop of the sequential version, which*

- *make the inner loop vectorizable, and*
- *makes this variant faster by the vector instruction width. On Frontera I have observed about a factor of 6.*

```
LOOP BEGIN at speedup.c(62,5)
    remark #25444: Loopnest Interchanged: ( 1 2 3 ) --> ( 1 3 2 )
    remark #15542: loop was not vectorized: inner loop was already vectorized
```

Now we investigate the influence of two parameters:

1. the OpenMP thread count: while we have 56 cores, values larger than that are allowed; and
2. the size of the problem: the smaller the problem, the larger the relative overhead of creating and synchronizing the team of threads.

We execute the above computation several times to even out effects of cache loading.

The results are in figure 19.2:

- While the problem size is always larger than the number of threads, only for the largest problem, which has at least 400 points per thread, is the speedup essentially linear.

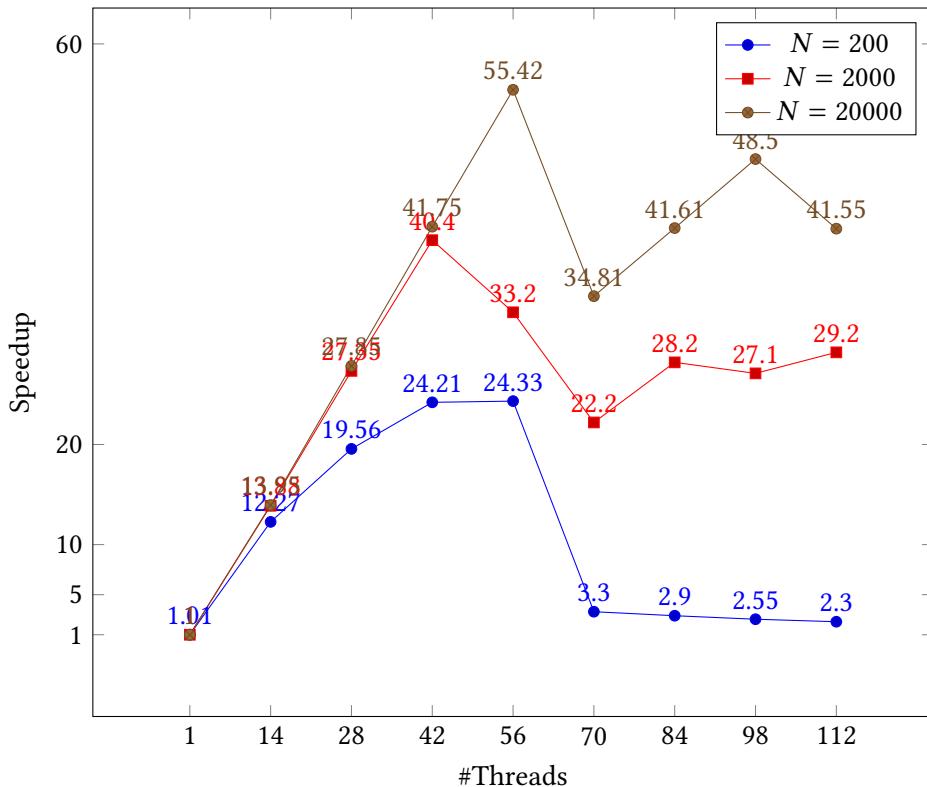


Figure 19.2: Speedup as function of problem size

- OpenMP allows for the number of threads to be larger than the core count, but there is no performance improvement in doing so.

The above tests did not use *hyperthreads*, since that is disabled on Frontera. However, the *Intel Knights Landing* nodes of the *TACC Stampede2* cluster have four *hyperthreads* per core. Table 19.3 shows that this will indeed give a modest speedup.

For reference, the commandlines executed were:

```
# frontera
make localclean run_speedup EXTRA_OPTIONS="--DN=200 NDIV=8 NP=112"
make localclean run_speedup EXTRA_OPTIONS="--DN=2000 NDIV=8 NP=112"
make localclean run_speedup EXTRA_OPTIONS="--DN=20000 NDIV=8 NP=112"
# stampede2
make localclean run_speedup NDIV=8 EXTRA_OPTIONS="-DN=200000 -DM=1000" NP=272
```

C++ note 2: Range syntax. Parallel loops in can use range-based syntax as of OpenMP-5.0:

```
// speedup.cxx
#pragma omp parallel for
for ( auto& v : values ) {
    for ( int jp=0; jp<M; jp++ ) {
        double f = sin( v );
        v = f;
```

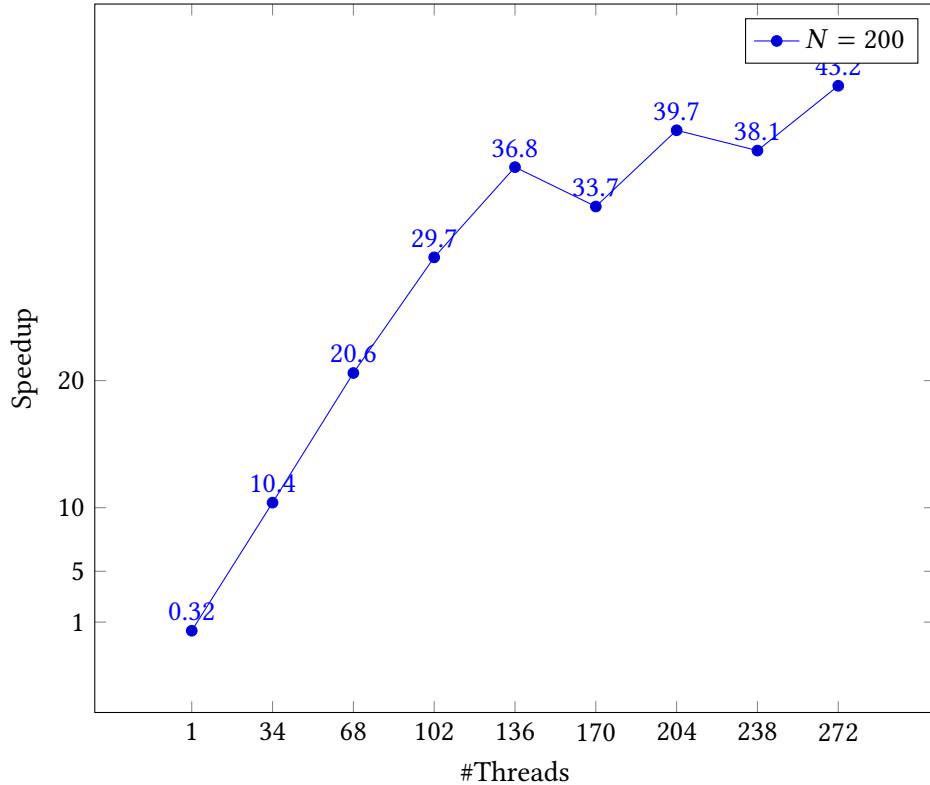


Figure 19.3: Speedup on a hyper-threaded architecture

|| } }

Tests not reported here show exactly the same speedup as the C code.

19.3 Loop schedules

Usually you will have many more iterations in a loop than there are threads. Thus, there are several ways you can assign your loop iterations to the threads. OpenMP lets you specify this with the `schedule` clause.

|| `#pragma omp for schedule(....)`

The first distinction we now have to make is between static and dynamic schedules. With static schedules, the iterations are assigned purely based on the number of iterations and the number of threads (and the `chunk` parameter; see later). In dynamic schedules, on the other hand, iterations are assigned to threads that are unoccupied. Dynamic schedules are a good idea if iterations take an unpredictable amount of time, so that *load balancing* is needed.

Figure 19.4 illustrates this: assume that each core gets assigned two (blocks of) iterations and these blocks take gradually less and less time. You see from the left picture that thread 1 gets two fairly long blocks, where as thread 4 gets two short blocks, thus finishing much earlier. (This phenomenon of threads having unequal amounts of work

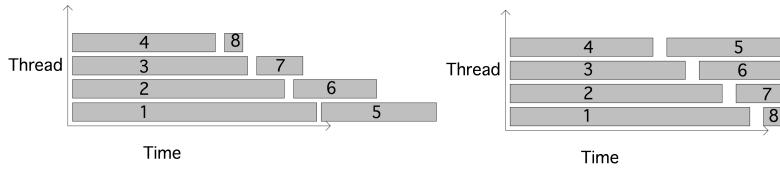


Figure 19.4: Illustration static round-robin scheduling versus dynamic

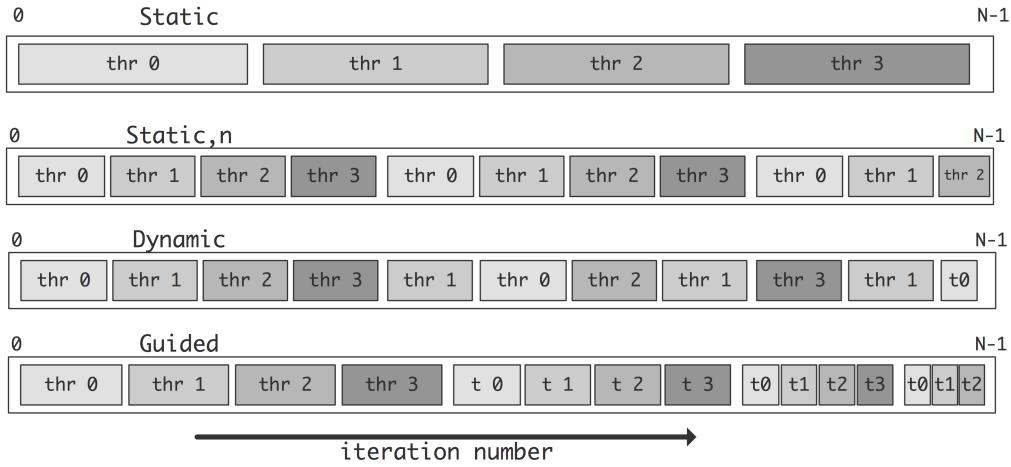


Figure 19.5: Illustration of the scheduling strategies of loop iterations

is known as *load imbalance*.) On the other hand, in the right figure thread 4 gets block 5, since it finishes the first set of blocks early. The effect is a perfect load balancing.

The default static schedule is to assign one consecutive block of iterations to each thread. If you want different sized blocks you can define a chunk size:

```
|| #pragma omp for schedule(static[,chunk])
```

(where the square brackets indicate an optional argument). With static scheduling, the compiler will determine the assignment of loop iterations to the threads at compile time, so, provided the iterations take roughly the same amount of time, this is the most efficient at runtime.

The choice of a chunk size is often a balance between the low overhead of having only a few chunks, versus the load balancing effect of having smaller chunks.

Exercise 19.6. Why is a chunk size of 1 typically a bad idea? (Hint: think about cache lines, and read HPC book, section-1.4.1.2.)

In dynamic scheduling OpenMP will put blocks of iterations (the default chunk size is 1) in a task queue, and the threads take one of these tasks whenever they are finished with the previous.

```
|| #pragma omp for schedule(static[,chunk])
```

While this schedule may give good load balancing if the iterations take very differing amounts of time to execute, it does carry runtime overhead for managing the queue of iteration tasks.

Finally, there is the guided schedule, which gradually decreases the chunk size. The thinking here is that large chunks carry the least overhead, but smaller chunks are better for load balancing. The various schedules are illustrated in figure 19.5.

If you don't want to decide on a schedule in your code, you can specify the `runtime` schedule. The actual schedule will then at runtime be read from the `OMP_SCHEDULE` environment variable. You can even just leave it to the runtime library by specifying `auto`

Exercise 19.7. We continue with exercise 19.3. We add ‘adaptive integration’: where needed, the program refines the step size¹. This means that the iterations no longer take a predictable amount of time.

```

for (i=0; i<nsteps; i++) {
    double
    x = i*h, x2 = (i+1)*h,
    y = sqrt(1-x*x), y2 =
    ↪sqrt(1-x2*x2),
    slope = (y-y2)/h;
    if (slope>15) slope = 15;
    int
    samples = 1+(int)slope, is;
    for (is=0; is<samples; is++) {
        double
        hs = h/samples,
        xs = x+ is*hs,
        ys = sqrt(1-xs*xs);
        quarterpi += hs*ys;
        nsamples++;
    }
    pi = 4*quarterpi;
}

```

1. Use the `omp parallel for` construct to parallelize the loop. As in the previous lab, you may at first see an incorrect result. Use the `reduction` clause to fix this.
2. Your code should now see a decent speedup, but possible not for all cores. It is possible to get completely linear speedup by adjusting the schedule. Start by using `schedule(static,n)`. Experiment with values for `n`. When can you get a better speedup? Explain this.
3. Since this code is somewhat dynamic, try `schedule(dynamic)`. This will actually give a fairly bad result. Why? Use `schedule(dynamic,n)` instead, and experiment with values for `n`.
4. Finally, use `schedule(guided)`, where OpenMP uses a heuristic. What results does that give?

Exercise 19.8. Program the *LU factorization* algorithm without pivoting.

```

for k=1,n:
    A[k,k] = 1./A[k,k]
    for i=k+1,n:
        A[i,k] = A[i,k]/A[k,k]
        for j=k+1,n:
            A[i,j] = A[i,j] - A[i,k]*A[k,j]

```

1. Argue that it is not possible to parallelize the outer loop.
2. Argue that it is possible to parallelize both the `i` and `j` loops.
3. Parallelize the algorithm by focusing on the `i` loop. Why is the algorithm as given here best for a matrix on row-storage? What would you do if the matrix was on column storage?
4. Argue that with the default schedule, if a row is updated by one thread in one iteration, it may very well be updated by another thread in another. Can you find a

1. It doesn't actually do this in a mathematically sophisticated way, so this code is more for the sake of the example.

way to schedule loop iterations so that this does not happen? What practical reason is there for doing so?

The schedule can be declared explicitly, set at runtime through the `OMP_SCHEDULE` environment variable, or left up to the runtime system by specifying `auto`. Especially in the last two cases you may want to enquire what schedule is currently being used with `omp_get_schedule`.

```
|| int omp_get_schedule(omp_sched_t * kind, int * modifier );
```

Its mirror call is `omp_set_schedule`, which sets the value that is used when schedule *runtime* is used. It is in effect equivalent to setting the environment variable `OMP_SCHEDULE`.

```
|| void omp_set_schedule (omp_sched_t kind, int modifier);
```

Type	environment variable <code>OMP_SCHEDULE=</code>	clause <code>schedule(...)</code>	<code>omp_sched_t</code> name	<code>omp_sched_t</code> value	modifier default
static	<code>static[,n]</code>	<code>static[,n]</code>	<code>omp_sched_static</code>	1	<i>N/nthreads</i>
dynamic	<code>dynamic[,n]</code>	<code>dynamic[,n]</code>	<code>omp_sched_dynamic</code>	2	1
guided	<code>guided[,n]</code>	<code>guided[,n]</code>	<code>omp_sched_guided</code>	3	
auto	<code>auto</code>	<code>auto</code>	<code>omp_sched_auto</code>	4	

Here are the various schedules you can set with the `schedule` clause:

affinity Set by using value `omp_sched_affinity`

auto The schedule is left up to the implementation. Set by using value `omp_sched_auto`

static value: 1. The modifier parameter is the *chunk* size. Can also be set by using value `omp_sched_static`

dynamic value: 2. The modifier parameter is the *chunk* size; default 1. Can also be set by using value `omp_sched_dynamic`

guided Value: 3. The modifier parameter is the *chunk* size. Set by using value `omp_sched_guided`

runtime Use the value of the `OMP_SCHEDULE` environment variable. Set by using value `omp_sched_runtime`

19.4 Reductions

So far we have focused on loops with independent iterations. Reductions are a common type of loop with dependencies. There is an extended discussion of reductions in section 20.

19.5 Collapsing nested loops

In general, the more work there is to divide over a number of threads, the more efficient the parallelization will be. In the context of parallel loops, it is possible to increase the amount of work by parallelizing all levels of loops instead of just the outer one.

Example: in

```
|| for ( i=0; i<N; i++ )
    ||   for ( j=0; j<N; j++ )
        A[i][j] = B[i][j] + C[i][j]
```

all N^2 iterations are independent, but a regular `omp for` directive will only parallelize one level. The `collapse` clause will parallelize more than one level:

```

|| #pragma omp for collapse(2)
|| for ( i=0; i<N; i++ )
||   for ( j=0; j<N; j++ )
||     A[i][j] = B[i][j] + C[i][j]

```

It is only possible to collapse perfectly nested loops, that is, the loop body of the outer loop can consist only of the inner loop; there can be no statements before or after the inner loop in the loop body of the outer loop. That is, the two loops in

```

|| for ( i=0; i<N; i++ ) {
||   y[i] = 0.;
||   for ( j=0; j<N; j++ )
||     y[i] += A[i][j] * x[j]
|| }

```

can not be collapsed.

Exercise 19.9. You could rewrite the above code as

```

|| for ( i=0; i<N; i++ )
||   y[i] = 0.;
|| for ( i=0; i<N; i++ ) {
||   for ( j=0; j<N; j++ )
||     y[i] += A[i][j] * x[j]
|| }

```

Is it now correct to have the `collapse` directive on the nested loop?

Exercise 19.10. Consider this code for matrix transposition:

```

|| void transposer(int n, int m, double *dst, const double *src) {
||   int blocksize;
||   for (int i = 0; i < n; i += blocksize) {
||     for (int j = 0; j < m; j += blocksize) {
||       // transpose the block beginning at [i,j]
||       for (int k = i; k < i + blocksize; ++k) {
||         for (int l = j; l < j + blocksize; ++l) {
||           dst[k + l*n] = src[l + k*m];
||         }
||       }
||     }
||   }
|| }

```

Assuming that the `src` and `dst` array are disjoint, which loops are parallel, and how many levels can you collapse?

Solution to exercise 19.10. *The outermost loop can be marked `collapse(4)`, since a matrix transposition writes each destination location precisely once.*

19.6 Ordered iterations

Iterations in a parallel loop that are executed in parallel do not execute in lockstep. That means that in

```

|| #pragma omp parallel for
|| for ( ... i ... ) {
||   ... f(i) ...
||   printf("something with %d\n",i);
|| }
```

it is not true that all function evaluations happen more or less at the same time, followed by all print statements. The print statements can really happen in any order. The *ordered* clause coupled with the *ordered* directive can force execution in the right order:

```

|| #pragma omp parallel for ordered
|| for ( ... i ... ) {
||   ... f(i) ...
||   #pragma omp ordered
||     printf("something with %d\n",i);
|| }
```

Example code structure:

```

|| #pragma omp parallel for shared(y) ordered
|| for ( ... i ... ) {
||   int x = f(i)
||   #pragma omp ordered
||     y[i] += f(x)
||     z[i] = g(y[i])
|| }
```

There is a limitation: each iteration can encounter only one *ordered* directive.

19.7 nowait

The implicit barrier at the end of a work sharing construct can be cancelled with a *nowait* clause. This has the effect that threads that are finished can continue with the next code in the parallel region:

```

|| #pragma omp parallel
|| {
||   #pragma omp for nowait
||     for (i=0; i<N; i++) { ... }
||     // more parallel code
|| }
```

In the following example, threads that are finished with the first loop can start on the second. Note that this requires both loops to have the same schedule. We specify the static schedule here to have an identical scheduling of iterations over threads:

```

|| #pragma omp parallel
|| {
||   x = local_computation()
||   #pragma omp for schedule(static) nowait
||     for (i=0; i<N; i++) {
||       x[i] = ...
||     }
```

```

|| #pragma omp for schedule(static)
||   for (i=0; i<N; i++) {
||     y[i] = ... x[i] ...
||   }
|| }
```

19.8 While loops

OpenMP can only handle ‘for’ loops: *while loops* can not be parallelized. So you have to find a way around that. While loops are for instance used to search through data:

```

|| while ( a[i]!=0 && i<imax ) {
||   i++;
||   // now i is the first index for which \n{a[i]} is zero.
```

We replace the while loop by a for loop that examines all locations:

```

|| result = -1;
|| #pragma omp parallel for
|| for (i=0; i<imax; i++) {
||   if (a[i]!=0 && result<0) result = i;
|| }
```

Exercise 19.11. Show that this code has a race condition.

Solution to exercise 19.11. *The result value is read, then written. Another thread can set it in between those two actions.*

You can fix the race condition by making the condition into a critical section; section 23.2.2. In this particular example, with a very small amount of work per iteration, that is likely to be inefficient in this case (why?). A more efficient solution uses the `lastprivate` pragma:

```

|| result = -1;
|| #pragma omp parallel for lastprivate(result)
|| for (i=0; i<imax; i++) {
||   if (a[i]!=0) result = i;
|| }
```

You have now solved a slightly different problem: the result variable contains the *last* location where `a[i]` is zero.

19.9 Tests

19.9.1 Scaling tests

We take a simple loop and consider the influence of binding parameters.

```

// speedup.c
#pragma omp parallel for
  for (int ip=0; ip<N; ip++) {
    for (int jp=0; jp<M; jp++) {
      double f = sin( values[ip] );
      values[ip] = f;
    }
  }
```

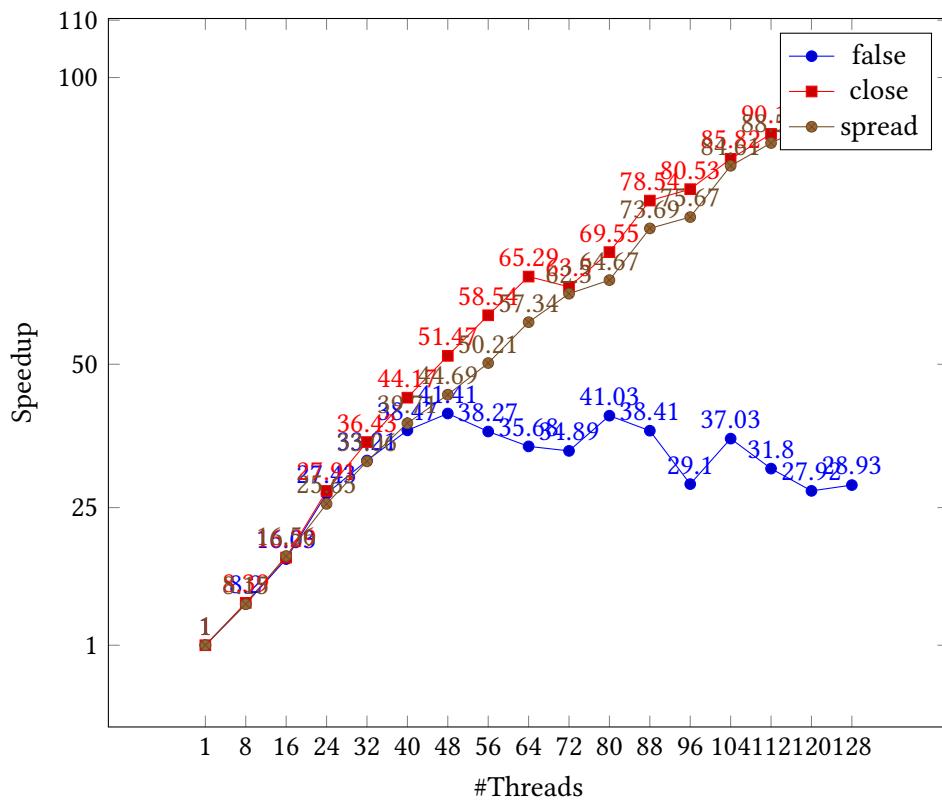


Figure 19.6: Speedup as function of thread count, Lonestar 6 cluster, different binding parameters

19.9.2 Lonestar 6

Lonestar 6, dual socket *AMD Milan*, total 112 cores; figure 19.6.

19.9.3 Frontera

Intel Cascade Lake, dual socket, 56 cores total; figure 19.7.

For all core counts to half the total, performance for all binding strategies seems equal. After that, `close` and `spread` perform equally, but the speedup for the `false` value gives erratic numbers.

19.9.4 Stampede2 skylake

Dual 24-core *Intel Skylake*; figure 19.8.

We see that `close` binding gives worse performance than `spread`. Setting binding to `false` only gives bad performance for large core counts.

19.9.5 Stampede2 Knights Landing

Single socket 68-core *Intel Knights Landing*; 19.9.

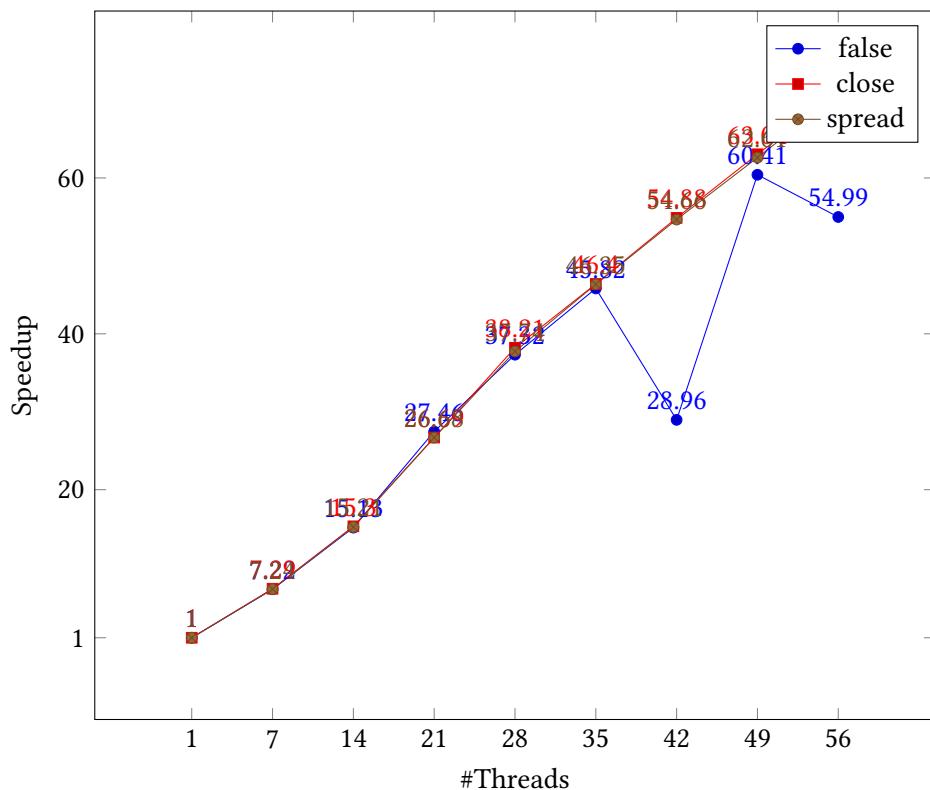


Figure 19.7: Speedup as function of thread count, Frontera cluster, different binding parameters

Since this is a single socket design, we don't distinguish between the `close` and `spread` binding. However, the binding value of `true` shows good speedup – in fact beyond the core count – while `false` gives worse performance than in other architectures.

Single 68 core

19.9.6 Longhorn

Dual 20-core *IBM Power9*, 4 hyperthreads; 19.10

Unlike the Intel processors, here we use the hyperthreads. Figure 19.10 shows dip in the speedup at 40 threads. For higher thread counts the speedup increases to well beyond the physical core count of 40.

19.9.7 Array traversal

Consider arrays

```
|| float Amat[N][N];
|| float xvec[N],yvec[N];
```

and the operation $s \leftarrow y^t A x$.

1. Code this as an OpenMP parallel double loop.

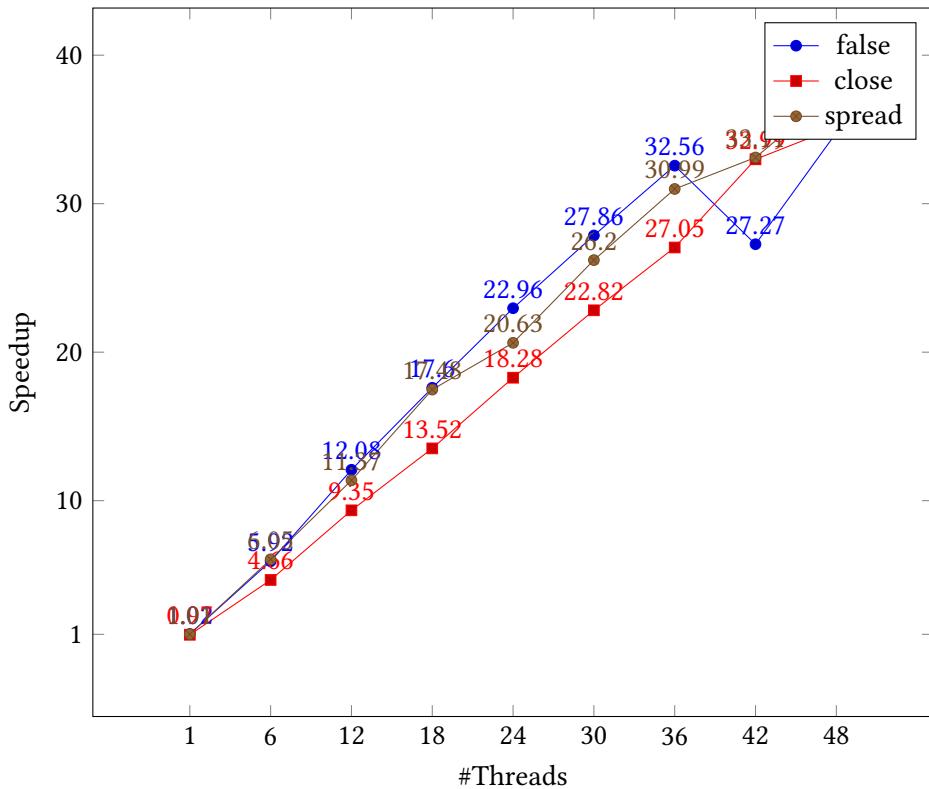


Figure 19.8: Speedup as function of thread count, Stampede2 skylake cluster, different binding parameters

2. Argue that the matrix A can be traversed two ways: by rows and columns, or by columns and rows, both giving the same result (in exact arithmetic).
3. Argue that the loops can be collapsed with `collapse` directive.
4. So now you have 4 variants in addition to the sequential code. Time these.

You should find that the row/column (or *row-major*) variant is faster. Can you find reasons for this?

19.10 Review questions

Exercise 19.12. The following loop can be parallelized with a `parallel for`. Is it correct to add the directive `collapse(2)`?

```

|| for (i=0; i<N; i++) {
    y[i] = 0. ;
    for (j=0; j<N; j++)
        y[i] += A[i][j] * x[j]
}

```

Exercise 19.13. Same question for the nested loop here:

```

|| for (i=0; i<N; i++)
    y[i] = 0. ;

```

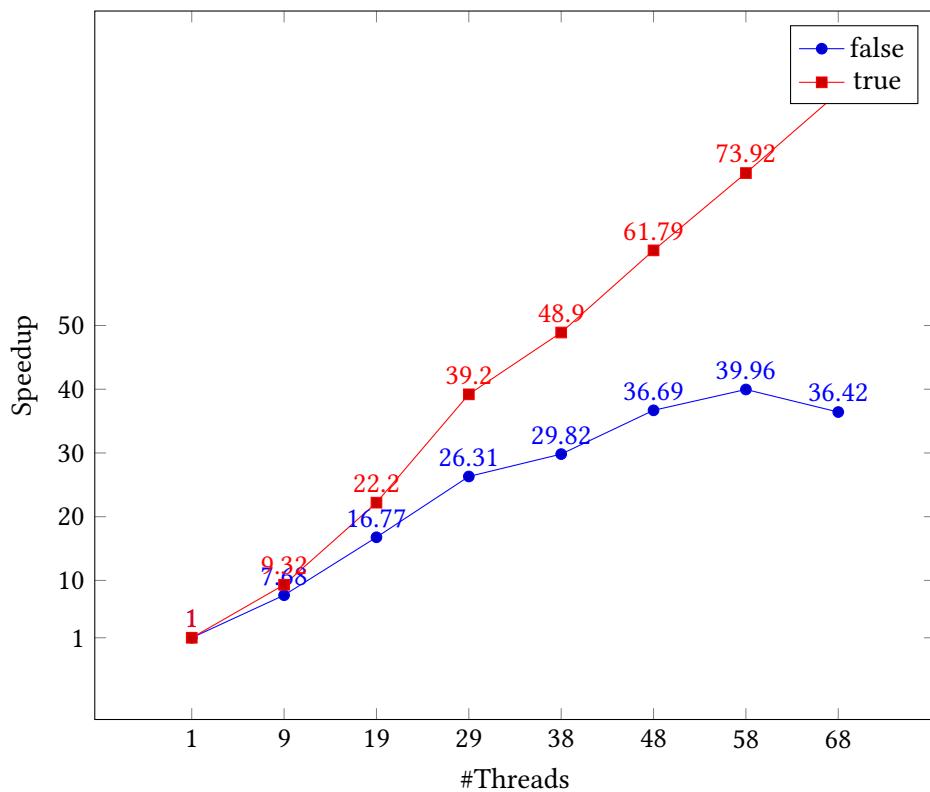


Figure 19.9: Speedup as function of thread count, Stampede2 Knights Landing cluster, different binding parameters

```

    || for (i=0; i<N; i++) {
        ||| for (j=0; j<N; j++)
            y[i] += A[i][j] * x[j]
    }
  
```

Exercise 19.14. In this triple loop:

```

    || for (int i=0; i<n; i++)
        ||| for (int j=0; j<n; j++)
            |||| for (int k=0; k<kmax; k++)
                x[i][j] += f(i,j,k)
  
```

what OpenMP directives do you use? Can you collapse all levels? Does it matter what the loop bounds are?

Solution to exercise 19.14.

- You can not collapse (3) because of the reduction.
- if n is large, use collapse(2) and leave the reduction sequential.
- if k_{max} large and n small, put a reduction on the inner loop.

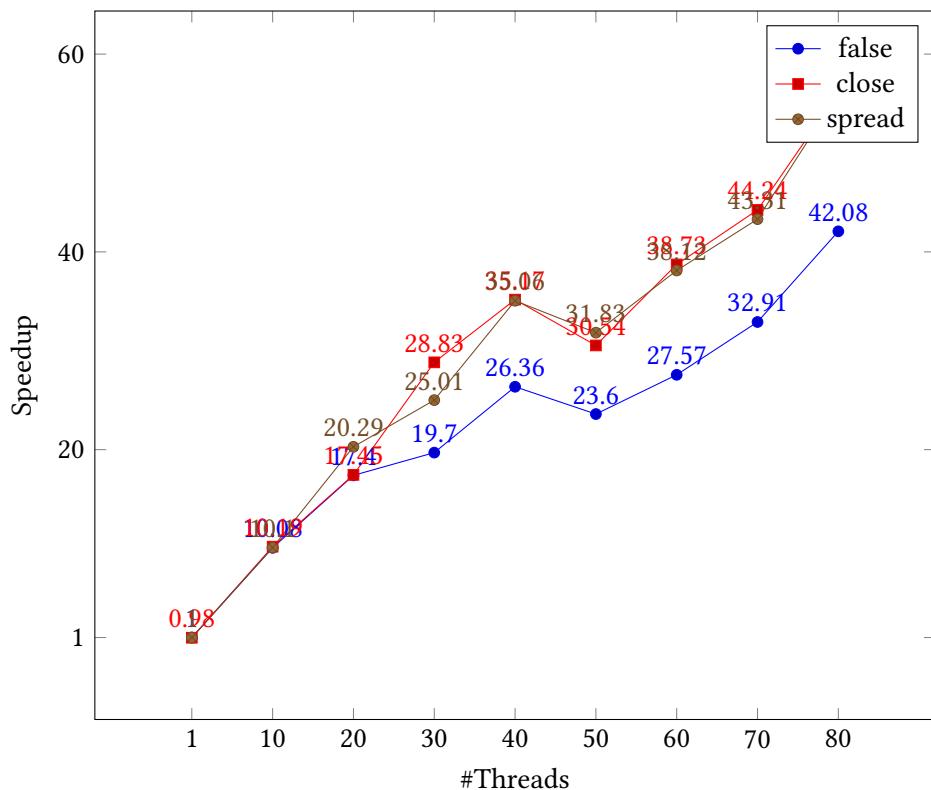


Figure 19.10: Speedup as function of thread count, Longhorn cluster, different binding parameters

19.11 Sources used in this chapter

19.11.1 Listing of code header

Chapter 20

OpenMP topic: Reductions

20.1 Reductions: why, what, how?

Parallel tasks often produce some quantity that needs to be summed or otherwise combined. If you write:

```
// pi.c
#pragma omp parallel for
for (int i=0; i<N; i++)
    sum += f(i);
```

you will find that the `sum` value depends on the number of threads, and is likely not the same as when you execute the code sequentially. The problem here is the *race condition* involving the `sum` variable, since this variable is shared between all threads.

We will discuss several strategies of dealing with this.

20.1.1 Reduction clause

The easiest way to effect a reduction is of course to use the `reduction` clause. Adding this to an `omp parallel` region has the following effect:

- OpenMP will make a copy of the reduction variable per thread, initialized to the identity of the reduction operator, for instance 1 for multiplication.
- Each thread will then reduce into its local variable;
- At the end of the parallel region, the local results are combined, again using the reduction operator, into the global variable.

The simplest case is a reduction over a parallel loop. Here we compute $\pi/4$ as a *Riemann sum*:

```
// pi.c
#pragma omp parallel for reduction(+:pi4)
for (int isample=0; isample<N; isample++) {
    float xsample = isample * h;
    float y = sqrt(1-xsample*xsample);
    pi4 += h*y;
}
```

For the full source of this example, see section 20.7.2

You can also reduce over `sections`:

```
// sectionreduce.c
float y=0;
#pragma omp parallel reduction(+:y)
#pragma omp sections
{
#pragma omp section
    y += f();
#pragma omp section
    y += g();
}
```

Another reduction, this time over a parallel region, without any work sharing:

```
// reductpar.c
m = INT_MIN;
#pragma omp parallel reduction(max:m) num_threads(ndata)
{
    int t = omp_get_thread_num();
    int d = data[t];
    m = d>m ? d : m;
};
```

For the full source of this example, see section 20.7.2

If you want to reduce multiple variables with the same operator, use

```
|| reduction(+:x,y,z)
```

For multiple reduction with different operators, use more than one clause.

A reduction is one of those cases where the parallel execution can have a slightly different value from the one that is computed sequentially, because floating point operations are not associative. See HPC book, section-3.6.5 for more explanation.

20.1.2 Code your own solution

The most immediate way is to eliminate the race condition by declaring a *critical section*:

```
double result = 0;
#pragma omp parallel
{
    double local_result;
    int num = omp_get_thread_num();
    if (num==0) local_result = f(x);
    else if (num==1) local_result = g(x);
    else if (num==2) local_result = h(x);
    #pragma omp critical
        result += local_result;
}
```

This is a good solution if the amount of serialization in the critical section is small compared to computing the functions f, g, h . On the other hand, you may not want to do that in a loop:

```
|| double result = 0;
|| #pragma omp parallel
```

```
{  
    double local_result;  
#pragma omp for  
    for (i=0; i<N; i++) {  
        local_result = f(x,i);  
#pragma omp critical  
        result += local_result;  
    } // end of for loop  
}
```

Exercise 20.1. Can you think of a small modification of this code, that still uses a critical section, that is more efficient? Time both codes.

Solution to exercise 20.1.

```
double result = 0;  
#pragma omp parallel  
{  
    double local_result;  
#pragma omp for  
    for (i=0; i<N; i++) {  
        local_result = f(x,i);  
    } // end of for loop  
#pragma omp critical  
    result += local_result;  
}
```

20.1.2.1 False sharing

If your code can not be easily structured as a reduction, you can realize the above scheme by hand by ‘duplicating’ the global variable and gather the contributions later. This example presumes three threads, and gives each a location of their own to store the result computed on that thread:

```
double result,local_results[3];  
#pragma omp parallel  
{  
    int num = omp_get_thread_num();  
    if (num==0)      local_results[num] = f(x)  
    else if (num==1) local_results[num] = g(x)  
    else if (num==2) local_results[num] = h(x)  
}  
result = local_results[0]+local_results[1]+local_results[2]
```

While this code is correct, it may be inefficient because of a phenomenon called *false sharing*. Even though the threads write to separate variables, those variables are likely to be on the same *cacheline* (see HPC book, section 1.4.1.2 for an explanation). This means that the cores will be wasting a lot of time and bandwidth updating each other’s copy of this cacheline.

False sharing can be prevent by giving each thread its own cacheline:

```
double result,local_results[3][8];  
#pragma omp parallel  
{  
    int num = omp_get_thread_num();
```

```

|| if (num==0)      local_results[num][1] = f(x)
|| // et cetera
|| }
```

A more elegant solution gives each thread a true local variable, and uses a critical section to sum these, at the very end:

```

|| double result = 0;
|| #pragma omp parallel
|| {
||   double local_result;
||   local_result = ....
|| #pragma omp critical
||   result += local_result;
|| }
```

20.2 Built-in reduction

20.2.1 Operators

Arithmetic reductions: `+, *, -, max, min`.

Logical operator reductions in C: `& && | || ^`

Logical operator reductions in Fortran: `.and. .or. .eqv. .neqv. .iand. .ior. .ieor.`

Exercise 20.2. The maximum and minimum reductions were not added to OpenMP until

OpenMP-3.1. Write a parallel loop that computes the maximum and minimum values in an array without using the `reduction` directive. Discuss the various options. Do timings to evaluate the speedup that is attained and to find the best option.

20.2.2 Reduction on arrays

Starting with the OpenMP-4.5 standard, you can reduce on statically allocated arrays:

```

|| int ar[N];
|| #pragma omp parallel for reduction(+:ar[:N])
```

20.2.3 Types

Reduction can be applied to any type for which the operator is defined. The types to which `max/min` are applicable are limited.

20.3 Initial value for reductions

The treatment of initial values in reductions is slightly involved.

```

|| x = init_x
|| #pragma omp parallel for reduction(min:x)
||   for (int i=0; i<N; i++)
||     x = min(x,data[i]);
```

Each thread does a partial reduction, but its initial value is not the user-supplied `init_x` value, but a value dependent on the operator. In the end, the partial results will then be combined with the user initial value. The initialization values are mostly self-evident, such as zero for addition and one for multiplication. For min and max they are respectively the maximal and minimal representable value of the result type.

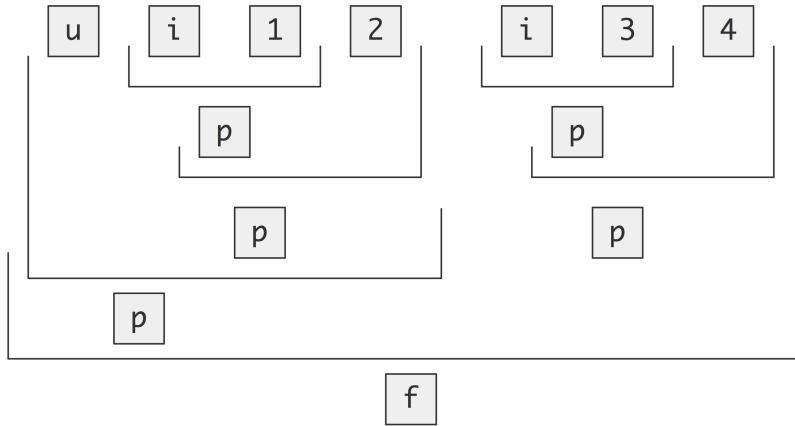


Figure 20.1: Reduction of four items on two threads, taking into account initial values.

Figure 20.1 illustrates this, where `1, 2, 3, 4` are four data items, `i` is the OpenMP initialization, and `u` is the user initialization; each `p` stands for a partial reduction value. The figure is based on execution using two threads.

Exercise 20.3. Write a program to test the fact that the partial results are initialized to the unit of the reduction operator.

Solution to exercise 20.3.

```

int v = 256, i;
#pragma omp parallel for reduction(+:v)
for (i=0; i<16; i++) {
    v += 2*i;
    if (v>450) printf("hitting %d\n", v);
}

```

The if statement in the loop will not print anything.

20.4 User-defined reductions

In a loop that performs a reduction, most of the element-by-element reduction as done in user code. However, in a parallel version of that loop, OpenMP needs to perform that same reduction on the partial results from the threads. Thus, if you want to perform your own reduction, you need to declare this reduction to OpenMP.

With *user-defined reductions*, the programmer specifies the function that does the elementwise comparison. We discuss two strategies:

1. In non-Object-Oriented (OO) languages you can define a function, and declare that to be a reduction operator with the `declare reduction` construct.
2. In OO languages (C++ and Fortran2003) you can overload ordinary operators for a class.

20.4.1 Reduction functions

This takes two steps.

1. You need a function of two arguments that returns the result of the comparison. You can do this yourself, but, especially with the C++ standard library, you can use functions such as `std::vector::insert`.
2. Specifying how this function operates on two variables `omp_out` and `omp_in`, corresponding to the partially reduced result and the new operand respectively. The new partial result should be left in `omp_out`.
3. Optionally, you can specify the value to which the reduction should be initialized.

This is the syntax of the definition of the reduction, which can then be used in multiple `reduction` clauses.

```
|| #pragma omp declare reduction
  ( identifier : typelist : combiner )
  [initializer(initializer-expression)]
```

where:

`identifier` is a name; this can be overloaded for different types, and redefined in inner scopes.

`typelist` is a list of types.

`combiner` is an expression that updates the internal variable `omp_out` as function of itself and `omp_in`.

`initializer` sets `omp_priv` to the identity of the reduction; this can be an expression or a brace initializer.

20.4.1.1 Explicit expressions

For very simple cases:

```
|| for (i=0; i<N; i++) {
  ||   if (abs(data[i]) < result) {
  ||     result = abs(data[i]);
  ||   }
  || }
```

you can declare the reduction through an expression:

```
// reductexpr.c
#pragma omp declare reduction \
(minabs : int : \
  omp_out = abs(omp_in) > omp_out ? omp_out : abs(omp_in)) \
  initializer (omp_priv=LARGENUM)
```

and use that in the `reduction` clause:

```
|| #pragma omp parallel for reduction(minabs:result)
```

20.4.1.2 Reduction functions

For instance, recreating the maximum reduction would look like this:

```
// ireduct.c
int mymax(int r,int n) {
// r is the already reduced value
// n is the new value
  int m;
  if (n>r) {
```

```
m = n;
} else {
    m = r;
}
return m;
}

#pragma omp declare reduction \
    (rwz:int:omp_out=mymax(omp_out,omp_in)) \
    initializer(omp_priv=INT_MIN)
m = INT_MIN;
#pragma omp parallel for reduction(rwz:m)
for (int idata=0; idata<ndata; idata++)
    m = mymax(m,data[idata]);
```

For the full source of this example, see section 20.7.3

Exercise 20.4. Write a reduction routine that operates on an array of nonnegative integers, finding the smallest nonzero one. If the array has size zero, or entirely consists of zeros, return -1.

C++ note 3: Reduction over iterators. Support for C++ iterators

```
#pragma omp declare reduction (merge : std::vector<int>
    : omp_out.insert(omp_out.end(), omp_in.begin(), omp_in.end()))
```

C++ note 4: Templatized reductions. You can reduce with a templated function if you put both the declaration and the reduction in the same templated function:

```
template<typename T>
T generic_reduction( vector<T> tdata ) {
#pragma omp declare reduction \
    (rwzt:T:omp_out=reduce_without_zero<T>(omp_out,omp_in)) \
    initializer(omp_priv=-1.f)

    T tmin = -1;
#pragma omp parallel for reduction(rwzt:tmin)
    for (int id=0; id<tdata.size(); id++)
        tmin = reduce_without_zero<T>(tmin,tdata[id]);
    return tmin;
};
```

which is then called with specific data:

```
auto tmin = generic_reduction<float>(fdata);
```

C++ note 5: Example: reduction over a `std::map`. You can do a reduction over a `std::map` by merging thread-local maps:

```
// mapreduce.cxx
template<typename key>
class bincounter : public map<key,int> {
public:
    void operator+=( const bincounter<key>&
        other ) {
        for ( auto [k,v] : other )
            if ( map<key,int>::this->contains(k) )
                this->at(k) += v;
            else
                this->insert( {k,v} );
    };
    void inc(char k) {
        if ( map<key,int>::this->contains(k) )
            this->at(k) += 1;
        else
            this->insert( {k,1} );
    };
}
```

```

};;
};

string text{"the quick brown fox jumps
             over the lazy dog"};
bincounter<char> charcount;
#pragma omp declare reduction\
( \
    +:bincounter<char>:omp_out +=
    &omp_in \
) \
initializer( omp_priv = bincounter<char>{}
            )
#pragma omp parallel for reduction(+ :
            &charcount)
for ( int i=0; i<text.size(); i++ ) {
    char c = text[i];
    charcount.inc(c);
}

```

20.4.2 Overloaded operators

Fortran note 18: Reductions on derived types. Reduction can be applied to any derived type that has the reduction operator defined.

```

!! reducttype.F90
Type inttype
  integer :: value = 0
end type inttype
Interface operator(+)
  module procedure addints
end Interface operator(+)

Type(inttype),dimension(nsize) :: intarray
Type(inttype) :: intsum = inttype(0)
!$OMP parallel for reduction(:intsum)
do i=1,nsize
  intsum = intsum + intarray(i)
end do
!$OMP end parallel

```

C++ note 6: Reduction on class objects. Reduction can be applied to any class for which the reduction operator is defined as `operator+` or whichever operator the case may be.

```

// reductcomplex.cxx
class Thing {
private:
  float x;
public:
  Thing() : Thing( 0.f ) {};
  Thing( float x ) : x(x) {};
  Thing operator+( const Thing& other ) {
    return Thing( x + other.x );
  };
};
vector< Thing > things(500,Thing(1.f));
Thing result(0.f);
#pragma omp parallel for reduction(
  &+:result )
for ( const auto& t : things )
  result = result + t;

```

A default constructor is required for the internally used init value; see figure 20.1.

20.5 Scan / prefix operations

A ‘scan’ or *prefix operation* is like a reduction, except that you’re interested in the partial results. For this OpenMP, as of OpenMP-5.0, has the *scan* directive. This needs the following:

- The reduction clause gets a modifier *inscan*:

```
|| #pragma omp parallel for reduction(inscan,+:sumvar)
```

- In the body of the parallel loop there is a *scan* directive that allows you to store the partial results:

```
|| #pragma omp scan inclusive(sumvar)
    partials[i] = sumvar
```

Code:

```
// scan.c
partial_sum = 0;
#pragma omp parallel for reduction(inscan,+:partial_sum)
for (int i=0; i<length; i++) {
    partial_sum += amounts[i];
#   pragma omp scan inclusive(partial_sum)
    partials[i] = partial_sum;
}
```

Output:

Missing output for scan

20.6 Reductions and floating-point math

The mechanisms that OpenMP uses to make a reduction parallel go against the strict rules for floating point expression evaluation in C; see HPC book, section-3.7.7. OpenMP ignores this issue: it is the programmer’s job to ensure proper rounding behavior.

20.7 Sources used in this chapter

20.7.1 Listing of code header

20.7.2 Listing of code examples/omp/c/reductpar.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
#include <limits.h>
#include <omp.h>

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

    int m,ndata = 4, data[4] = {2,-3,0,5};

    m = INT_MIN;
    for (int idata=0; idata<ndata; idata++) {
        int d = data[idata];
        m = d>m ? d : m;
    }
    if (m!=5)
        printf("Sequential: wrong reduced value: %d, s/b %d\n",m,2);
    else
        printf("Sequential case succeeded\n");

    m = INT_MIN;
#pragma omp parallel reduction(max:m) num_threads(ndata)
    {
        int t = omp_get_thread_num();
        int d = data[t];
        m = d>m ? d : m;
    };

    if (m!=5)
        printf("Parallel: wrong reduced value: %d, s/b %d\n",m,2);
    else
        printf("Finished with correct parallel result\n");

    return 0;
}
```

20.7.3 Listing of code examples/omp/c/ireduct.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
#include <limits.h>
#include <omp.h>

int mymax(int r,int n) {
```

```
// r is the already reduced value
// n is the new value
int m;
if (n>r) {
    m = n;
} else {
    m = r;
}
printf("combine %d %d : %d\n",r,n,m);
return m;
}

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

    int m,ndata = 4, data[4] = {2,-3,0,5};

#pragma omp declare reduction \
(rwz:int:omp_out=mymax(omp_out,omp_in)) \
initializer(omp_priv=INT_MIN)

    m = INT_MIN;
    for (int idata=0; idata<ndata; idata++)
        m = mymax(m,data[idata]);
    if (m!=5)
        printf("Sequential: wrong reduced value: %d, s/b %d\n",m,2);
    else
        printf("Sequential case succeeded\n");

    m = INT_MIN;
#pragma omp parallel for reduction(rwz:m)
    for (int idata=0; idata<ndata; idata++)
        m = mymax(m,data[idata]);

    if (m!=5)
        printf("Parallel: wrong reduced value: %d, s/b %d\n",m,2);
    else
        printf("Finished\n");

    return 0;
}
```

Chapter 21

OpenMP topic: Work sharing

The declaration of a *parallel region* establishes a team of threads. This offers the possibility of parallelism, but to actually get meaningful parallel activity you need something more. OpenMP uses the concept of a *work sharing construct*: a way of dividing parallelizable work over a team of threads.

21.1 Work sharing constructs

The work sharing constructs are:

- `for` (for C) or `do` (for Fortran). The threads divide up the loop iterations among themselves; see section 19.1.
- `sections` The threads divide a fixed number of sections between themselves; see section 21.2.
- `single` The section is executed by a single thread; section 21.3.
- `task` See section 24.
- `workshare` Can parallelize Fortran array syntax; section 21.4.

21.2 Sections

A parallel loop is an example of independent work units that are numbered. If you have a pre-determined number of independent work units, the `sections` is more appropriate. In a `sections` construct can be any number of `section` constructs. These need to be independent, and they can be execute by any available thread in the current team, including having multiple sections done by the same thread.

```
|| #pragma omp sections
|| {
|| #pragma omp section
||   // one calculation
|| #pragma omp section
||   // another calculation
|| }
```

This construct can be used to divide large blocks of independent work. Suppose that in the following line, both `f(x)` and `g(x)` are big calculations:

```
|| y = f(x) + g(x)
```

You could then write

```
|| double y1,y2;
|| #pragma omp sections
|| {
|| #pragma omp section
||     y1 = f(x)
|| #pragma omp section
||     y2 = g(x)
|| }
|| y = y1+y2;
```

Instead of using two temporaries, you could also use a critical section; see section 23.2.2. However, the best solution is have a *reduction* clause on the `parallel sections` directive. For the sum

```
|| y = f(x) + g(x)
```

You could then write

```
// sectionreduce.c
float y=0;
#pragma omp parallel reduction(+:y)
#pragma omp sections
{
#pragma omp section
    y += f();
#pragma omp section
    y += g();
}
```

21.3 Single/master

The `single` and `master` pragma limit the execution of a block to a single thread. This can for instance be used to print tracing information or doing I/O operations.

```
#pragma omp parallel
{
#pragma omp single
    printf("We are starting this section!\n");
    // parallel stuff
}
```

Another use of `single` is to perform initializations in a parallel region:

```
int a;
#pragma omp parallel
{
#pragma omp single
    a = f(); // some computation
#pragma omp sections
    // various different computations using a
}
```

The point of the `single` directive in this last example is that the computation needs to be done only once, because of the shared memory. Since it's a work sharing construct there is an *implicit barrier* after it, which guarantees that all threads have the correct value in their local memory (see section 26.3).

Exercise 21.1. What is the difference between this approach and how the same computation would be parallelized in MPI?

Solution to exercise 21.1. *In MPI you could let one processor execute `a = f()` and then broadcast it. However, you might as well let everyone compute this redundantly.*

The `master` directive, also enforces execution on a single thread, specifically the master thread of the team, but it does not have the synchronization through the implicit barrier.

Exercise 21.2. Modify the above code to read:

```
||| int a;
||| #pragma omp parallel
||| {
|||     #pragma omp master
|||         a = f(); // some computation
|||     #pragma omp sections
|||         // various different computations using a
||| }
```

This code is no longer correct. Explain.

Solution to exercise 21.2. *The `master` directive does not have an implicit barrier, so other threads may use the value of `a` before it is set by the master thread.*

Above we motivated the `single` directive as a way of initializing shared variables. It is also possible to use `single` to initialize private variables. In that case you add the `copyprivate` clause. This is a good solution if setting the variable takes I/O.

Exercise 21.3. Give two other ways to initialize a private variable, with all threads receiving the same value. Can you give scenarios where each of the three strategies would be preferable?

Solution to exercise 21.3.

- The variable could be computed outside the parallel region, using `copyin` or `firstprivate` to set the private variables. This makes sense if the computation is fairly short.
- The initialization could be done redundantly. This requires the computation to have no side-effects.
- Inside a `single` you can use nested parallelism.

21.4 Fortran array syntax parallelization

The `parallel do` directive is used to parallelize loops, and this applies to both C and Fortran. However, Fortran also has implied loops in its *array syntax*. To parallelize array syntax you can use the `workshare` directive.

The `workshare` directive exists only in Fortran. It can be used to parallelize the implied loops in *array syntax*, as well as `forall` loops.

21.5 Sources used in this chapter

21.5.1 Listing of code header

Chapter 22

OpenMP topic: Controlling thread data

In a parallel region there are two types of data: private and shared. In this sections we will see the various way you can control what category your data falls under; for private data items we also discuss how their values relate to shared data.

22.1 Shared data

In a parallel region, any data declared outside it will be shared: any thread using a variable `x` will access the same memory location associated with that variable.

Example:

```
|| int x = 5;
|| #pragma omp parallel
|| {
||     x = x+1;
||     printf("shared: x is %d\n",x);
|| }
```

All threads increment the same variable, so after the loop it will have a value of five plus the number of threads; or maybe less because of the data races involved. This issue is discussed in HPC book, section-[2.6.1.5](#); see [23.2.2](#) for a solution in OpenMP.

Sometimes this global update is what you want; in other cases the variable is intended only for intermediate results in a computation. In that case there are various ways of creating data that is local to a thread, and therefore invisible to other threads.

22.2 Private data

In the C/C++ language it is possible to declare variables inside a *lexical scope*; roughly: inside curly braces. This concept extends to OpenMP parallel regions and directives: any variable declared in a block following an OpenMP directive will be local to the executing thread.

In the following example, each thread creates a private variable `x` and sets it to a unique value:

Code:

```
// private.c
int x=5;
#pragma omp parallel num_threads(4)
{
    int t = omp_get_thread_num(),
        x = t+1;
    printf("Thread %d sets x to %d\n",t,x);
}
printf("Outer x is still %d\n",x);
```

After the parallel region the outer variable x will still have the value 5: there is no *storage association* between the private variable and global one.

Fortran note 19: Private variables in parallel region. The Fortran language does not have this concept of scope, so you have to use a `private` clause:

Code:

```
!! private.F90
x=5
!$omp parallel private(x,t) num_threads(4)
    t = omp_get_thread_num()
    x = t+1
    print'("Thread ",i2," sets x to ",i2)',t,x
!$omp end parallel
    print'("Outer x is still ",i2)',x
```

The `private` directive declares data to have a separate copy in the memory of each thread. Such private variables are initialized as they would be in a main program. Any computed value goes away at the end of the parallel region. (However, see below.) Thus, you should not rely on any initial value, or on the value of the outer variable after the region.

```
    int x = 5;
#pragma omp parallel private(x)
{
    x = x+1; // dangerous
    printf("private: x is %d\n",x);
}
printf("after: x is %d\n",x); // also dangerous
```

Data that is declared private with the `private` directive is put on a separate *stack per thread*. The OpenMP standard does not dictate the size of these stacks, but beware of *stack overflow*. A typical default is a few megabyte; you can control it with the environment variable `OMP_STACKSIZE`. Its values can be literal or with suffixes:

123 456k 567K 678m 789M 246g 357G

A normal *Unix process* also has a stack, but this is independent of the OpenMP stacks for private data. You can query or set the Unix stack with `ulimit`:

```
[] ulimit -s
64000
[] ulimit -s 8192
[] ulimit -s
8192
```

Output:

```
Thread 3 sets x to 4
Thread 2 sets x to 3
Thread 0 sets x to 1
Thread 1 sets x to 2
Outer x is still 5
```

Output:

```
Thread 0 sets x to 1
Thread 2 sets x to 3
Thread 3 sets x to 4
Thread 1 sets x to 2
Outer x is still 5
```

The Unix stack can grow dynamically as space is needed. This does not hold for the OpenMP stacks: they are immediately allocated at their requested size. Thus it is important not too make them too large.

22.3 Data in dynamic scope

Functions that are called from a parallel region fall in the *dynamic scope* of that parallel region. The rules for variables in that function are as follows:

- Any variables locally defined to the function are private.
- `static` variables in C and `save` variables in Fortran are shared.
- The function arguments inherit their status from the calling environment.

Fortran note 20: Saved variables. Variables in subprograms are private, as in C, except if they have the `Save` attribute. This attribute is implicitly given to any variable that has value-initialized.

22.4 Temporary variables in a loop

It is common to have a variable that is set and used in each loop iteration:

```
|| #pragma omp parallel for
  for ( ... i ... ) {
    x = i*h;
    s = sin(x); c = cos(x);
    a[i] = s+c;
    b[i] = s-c;
  }
```

By the above rules, the variables `x`, `s`, `c` are all shared variables. However, the values they receive in one iteration are not used in a next iteration, so they behave in fact like private variables to each iteration.

- In both C and Fortran you can declare these variables private in the parallel for directive.
- In C, you can also redefine the variables inside the loop.

Sometimes, even if you forget to declare these temporaries as private, the code may still give the correct output. That is because the compiler can sometimes eliminate them from the loop body, since it detects that their values are not otherwise used.

22.5 Default

- Loop variables in an `omp for` are private;
- Local variables in the parallel region are private.

You can alter this default behavior with the `default` clause:

```
|| #pragma omp parallel default(shared) private(x)
  { ... }
  #pragma omp parallel default(private) shared(matrix)
  { ... }
```

and if you want to play it safe:

```
|| #pragma omp parallel default(none) private(x) shared(matrix)
|| { ... }
```

- The `shared` clause means that all variables from the outer scope are shared in the parallel region; any private variables need to be declared explicitly. This is the default behavior.
- The `private` clause means that all outer variables become private in the parallel region. They are not initialized; see the next option. Any shared variables in the parallel region need to be declared explicitly. This value is not available in C.
- The `firstprivate` clause means all outer variables are private in the parallel region, and initialized with their outer value. Any shared variables need to be declared explicitly. This value is not available in C.
- The `none` option is good for debugging, because it forces you to specify for each variable in the parallel region whether it's private or shared. Also, if your code behaves differently in parallel from sequential there is probably a data race. Specifying the status of every variable is a good way to debug this.

22.6 Array data

The rules for arrays are slightly different from those for scalar data:

1. Statically allocated data, that is with a syntax like

```
|| int array[100];
|| integer,dimension(:) :: array(100}
```

can be shared or private, depending on the clause you use.

2. Dynamically allocated data, that is, created with `malloc` or `allocate`, can only be shared.

Example of the first type: in

```
|| int array[nthreads];
|| #pragma omp parallel firstprivate(array)
|| {
||   int t = omp_get_thread_num();
||   array[t] = t;
|| }
|| int array[nthreads];
|| {
||   int t = 2;
||   array += t;
||   array[0] = t;
|| }
```

For the full source of this example, see section 22.10.2

each thread gets a private copy of the array, properly initialized.

On the other hand, in

```
// alloc.c
int *array = (int*) malloc(nthreads*sizeof(int));
#pragma omp parallel firstprivate(array)
{
  int t = omp_get_thread_num();
  array += t;
  array[0] = t;
}
```

For the full source of this example, see section [22.10.2](#)

each thread gets a private pointer, but all pointers point to the same object.

It is possible to perform a reduction on an array; see section [20.2.2](#).

22.7 First and last private

Above, you saw that private variables are completely separate from any variables by the same name in the surrounding scope. However, there are two cases where you may want some *storage association* between a private variable and a global counterpart.

First of all, private variables are created with an undefined value. You can force their initialization with *firstprivate*:

```
|| int t=2;
|| #pragma omp parallel firstprivate(t)
|| {
||     t += f( omp_get_thread_num() );
||     g(t);
|| }
```

The variable *t* behaves like a private variable, except that it is initialized to the outside value.

Secondly, you may want a private value to be preserved to the environment outside the parallel region. This really only makes sense in one case, where you preserve a private variable from the last iteration of a parallel loop, or the last section in an *sections* construct. This is done with *lastprivate*:

```
|| #pragma omp parallel for \
||         lastprivate(tmp)
|| for (i=0; i<N; i+) {
||     tmp = .....
||     x[i] = .... tmp ....
|| }
|| ..... tmp ....
```

22.8 Persistent data through threadprivate

Most data in OpenMP parallel regions is either inherited from the master thread and therefore shared, or temporary within the scope of the region and fully private. There is also a mechanism for *thread-private data*, which is not limited in lifetime to one parallel region. The *threadprivate* pragma is used to declare that each thread is to have a private copy of a variable:

```
|| #pragma omp threadprivate(var)
```

The variable needs be:

- a file or static variable in C,
- a static class member in C++, or
- a program variable or common block in Fortran.

22.8.1 Thread private initialization

If each thread needs a different value in its threadprivate variable, the initialization needs to happen in a parallel region.

In the following example a team of 7 threads is created, all of which set their thread-private variable. Later, this variable is read by a larger team: the variables that have not been set are undefined, though often simply zero:

```
// threadprivate.c
static int tp;
#pragma omp threadprivate(tp)

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

#pragma omp parallel num_threads(7)
    tp = omp_get_thread_num();

#pragma omp parallel num_threads(9)
    printf("Thread %d has %d\n",omp_get_thread_num(),tp);
```

For the full source of this example, see section [22.10.3](#)

Fortran note 21: Private common blocks. Named common blocks can be made thread-private with the syntax

```
|| !$OMP threadprivate( /blockname/ )
```

Example:

Code:

```
!! threadprivate.F90
  common /threaddata/tp
  integer :: tp
!$omp threadprivate(/threaddata/)

!$omp parallel num_threads(7)
  tp = omp_get_thread_num()
!$omp end parallel

!$omp parallel num_threads(9)
  print *, "Thread",omp_get_thread_num(),"has",tp
!$omp end parallel
```

Output:

Thread	3 has	3
Thread	7 has	0
Thread	5 has	5
Thread	2 has	2
Thread	1 has	1
Thread	4 has	4
Thread	0 has	0
Thread	6 has	6
Thread	8 has	0

On the other hand, if the thread private data starts out identical in all threads, the `copyin` clause can be used:

```
#pragma omp threadprivate(private_var)

private_var = 1;
#pragma omp parallel copyin(private_var)
  private_var += omp_get_thread_num()
```

If one thread needs to set all thread private data to its value, the `copyprivate` clause can be used:

```
#pragma omp parallel
{
  ...
#pragma omp single copyprivate(private_var)
```

```

||  private_var = read_data();
||  ...
|| }
```

Threadprivate variables require `OMP_DYNAMIC` to be switched off.

22.8.2 Thread private example

The typical application for thread-private variables is in *random number generators*. A random number generator needs saved state, since it computes each next value from the current one. To have a parallel generator, each thread will create and initialize a private ‘current value’ variable. This will persist even when the execution is not in a parallel region; it gets updated only in a parallel region.

Exercise 22.1. Calculate the area of the *Mandelbrot set* by random sampling. Initialize the random number generator separately for each thread; then use a parallel loop to evaluate the points. Explore performance implications of the different loop scheduling strategies.

C++ note 7: Threadprivate random number generators. The new C++ `random` header has threadsafe generator, by virtue of the statement in the standard that no STL object can rely on global state. The usual idiom

```

|| static random_device rd;
|| static mt19937 rng(rd);
```

can not be made threadsafe because of the initialization. However, the following works:

```

// privaterandom.cxx
static random_device rd;
static mt19937 rng;
#pragma omp threadprivate(rd)
#pragma omp threadprivate(rng)

int main() {

#pragma omp parallel
    rng = mt19937(rd());
```

You can then use the generator safely and independently:

```

#pragma omp parallel
{
    stringstream res;
    uniform_int_distribution<int> uni(1, 100);
    res << "Thread " << omp_get_thread_num() << ":" << uni(rng) << "\n";
    cout << res.str();}
```

22.9 Allocators

The OpenMP was initially designed for shared memory. With accelerators (see chapter 28), non-coherent memory was added to this. In the OpenMP-5 standard, the story is further complicated, to account for new memory types such as *high-bandwidth memory* and *non-volatile memory*.

There are several ways of using the OpenMP memory allocators.

- First, in a directory on a static array:

```
|| float A[N], B[N];  
|| #pragma omp allocate(A) \  
||     allocator(omp_large_cap_mem_alloc)
```

- As a clause on private variables:

```
|| #pragma omp task private(B) allocate(omp_const_mem_alloc: B)
```

- With *omp_alloc*, using a (possibly user-defined) allocator.

Next, there are memory spaces. The binding between OpenMP identifiers and hardware is implementation defined.

22.9.1 Pre-defined types

Allocators: *omp_default_mem_alloc*, *omp_large_cap_mem_alloc*, *omp_const_mem_alloc*, *omp_high_bw_mem_alloc*, *omp_low_lat_mem_alloc*, *omp_cgroup_mem_alloc*, *omp_pteam_mem_alloc*, *omp_thread_mem_alloc*.

Memory spaces: *omp_default_mem_space*, *omp_large_cap_mem_space*, *omp_const_mem_space*, *omp_high_bw_mem_space*, *omp_low_lat_mem_space*.

22.10 Sources used in this chapter

22.10.1 Listing of code header

22.10.2 Listing of code examples/omp/c/alloc.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <omp.h>

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

{
    int nthreads;
#pragma omp parallel
#pragma omp master
    nthreads = omp_get_num_threads();

    int *array = (int*) malloc(nthreads*sizeof(int));
    for (int i=0; i<nthreads; i++)
        array[i] = 0;

#pragma omp parallel firstprivate(array)
{
    int t = omp_get_thread_num();
    array += t;
    array[0] = t;
}

printf("Array result:\n");
for (int i=0; i<nthreads; i++)
    printf("%d:%d, ",i,array[i]);
printf("\n");
}

{
    int nthreads;
#pragma omp parallel
#pragma omp master
    nthreads = omp_get_num_threads();

    int array[nthreads];
    for (int i=0; i<nthreads; i++)
        array[i] = 0;

#pragma omp parallel firstprivate(array)
{
    int t = omp_get_thread_num();
    array[t] = t;
}

printf("Array result:\n");
```

```
for (int i=0; i<nthreads; i++)
    printf("%d:%d, ",i,array[i]);
printf("\n");
}

{
    int nthreads=4;

    int array[nthreads];
    for (int i=0; i<nthreads; i++)
        array[i] = 0;

    {
        int t = 2;
        array += t;
        array[0] = t;
    }

    printf("Array result:\n");
    for (int i=0; i<nthreads; i++)
        printf("%d:%d, ",i,array[i]);
    printf("\n");
}

return 0;
}
```

22.10.3 Listing of code examples/omp/c/threadprivate.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <omp.h>

static int tp;
#pragma omp threadprivate(tp)

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

#pragma omp parallel num_threads(7)
    tp = omp_get_thread_num();

#pragma omp parallel num_threads(9)
    printf("Thread %d has %d\n",omp_get_thread_num(),tp);

    return 0;
}
```

Chapter 23

OpenMP topic: Synchronization

In the constructs for declaring parallel regions above, you had little control over in what order threads executed the work they were assigned. This section will discuss *synchronization* constructs: ways of telling threads to bring a certain order to the sequence in which they do things.

- `critical`: a section of code can only be executed by one thread at a time; see [23.2.2](#).
- `atomic` *Atomic update* of a single memory location. Only certain specified syntax patterns are supported. This was added in order to be able to use hardware support for atomic updates.
- `barrier`: section [23.1](#).
- `ordered`: section [19.6](#).
- `locks`: section [23.3](#).
- `flush`: section [26.3](#).
- `nowait`: section [19.7](#).

23.1 Barrier

A *barrier* defines a point in the code where all active threads will stop until all threads have arrived at that point. With this, you can guarantee that certain calculations are finished. For instance, in this code snippet, computation of `y` can not proceed until another thread has computed its value of `x`.

```
#pragma omp parallel
{
    int mytid = omp_get_thread_num();
    x[mytid] = some_calculation();
    y[mytid] = x[mytid]+x[mytid+1];
}
```

This can be guaranteed with a *barrier* pragma:

```
#pragma omp parallel
{
    int mytid = omp_get_thread_num();
    x[mytid] = some_calculation();
    #pragma omp barrier
    y[mytid] = x[mytid]+x[mytid+1];
}
```

Apart from the barrier directive, which inserts an explicit barrier, OpenMP has *implicit barriers* after a load sharing construct. Thus the following code is well defined:

```
|| #pragma omp parallel
|| {
|| #pragma omp for
||   for (int mytid=0; mytid<number_of_threads; mytid++)
||     x[mytid] = some_calculation();
|| #pragma omp for
||   for (int mytid=0; mytid<number_of_threads-1; mytid++)
||     y[mytid] = x[mytid]+x[mytid+1];
|| }
```

You can also put each parallel loop in a parallel region of its own, but there is some overhead associated with creating and deleting the team of threads in between the regions.

At the end of a parallel region the team of threads is dissolved and only the master thread continues. Therefore, there is an *implicit barrier at the end of a parallel region*. This barrier behavior can be cancelled with the `nowait` clause.

You will often see the idiom

```
|| #pragma omp parallel
|| {
|| #pragma omp for nowait
||   for (i=0; i<N; i++)
||     a[i] = // some expression
|| #pragma omp for
||   for (i=0; i<N; i++)
||     b[i] = ..... a[i] .....
```

Here the `nowait` clause implies that threads can start on the second loop while other threads are still working on the first. Since the two loops use the same schedule here, an iteration that uses `a[i]` can indeed rely on it that that value has been computed.

23.2 Mutual exclusion

Sometimes it is necessary to limit a piece of code so that it can be executed by only one thread at a time. Such a piece of code is called a *critical section*, and OpenMP has several mechanisms for realizing this.

23.2.1 Why critical sections?

The most common use of critical sections is to update a variable. Since updating involves reading the old value, and writing back the new, this has the possibility for a *race condition*: another thread reads the current value before the first can update it; the second thread updates to the wrong value.

Suppose that two processes both try to increment an integer variable `I`:

```
process 1: I=I+2
process 2: I=I+3
```

This is a legitimate activity if the variable is an accumulator for values computed by independent processes. The result of these two updates depends on the sequence in which the processors read and write the variable.

Figure 23.1 illustrates three scenarios. Such a scenario, where the final result depends on ‘micro-timing’ of the actions of a thread, is known as a *race condition* or *data race*. A formal definition would be:

scenario 1.	scenario 2.	scenario 3.
$I = 0$		
read $I = 0$ compute $I = 2$ write $I = 2$	read $I = 0$ compute $I = 3$ write $I = 3$	read $I = 0$ compute $I = 2$ write $I = 3$
	read $I = 0$ compute $I = 3$ write $I = 2$	
$I = 3$	$I = 2$	$I = 5$

Figure 23.1: Three executions of a data race scenario

We talk of a *a data race* if there are two statements S_1, S_2 ,

- that are not causally related;
- that both access a location L ; and
- at least one access is a write.

Enclosing the update statement in a critical section, or making it atomic by some other mechanism, enforces scenario 3 of the above figure.

23.2.2 critical and atomic

There are two pragmas for critical sections: *critical* and *atomic*. Both denote *atomic operations* in a technical sense. The first one is general and can contain an arbitrary sequence of instructions; the second one is more limited but has performance advantages.

Beginning programmers are often tempted to use *critical* for updates in a loop:

```
#pragma omp parallel
{
    int mytid = omp_get_thread_num();
    double tmp = some_function(mytid);
    // This Works, but Not Best Solution:
    #pragma omp critical
    sum += tmp;
}
```

but this should really be done with a *reduction* clause, which will be far more efficient.

A good use of critical sections is doing file writes or database updates.

Exercise 23.1. Consider a loop where each iteration updates a variable.

```
#pragma omp parallel for shared(result)
for ( i ) {
    result += some_function_of(i);
}
```

Discuss qualitatively the difference between:

- turning the update statement into a critical section, versus
- letting the threads accumulate into a private variable tmp as above, and summing these after the loop.

Do an Ahmdal-style quantitative analysis of the first case, assuming that you do n iterations on p threads, and each iteration has a critical section that takes a fraction f . Assume the number of iterations n is a multiple of the number of threads p . Also assume the default static distribution of loop iterations over the threads.

Solution to exercise 23.1. *The first solution has nonparallel work per iteration, the second only once for the whole loop.*

If you have p iterations,

- the parallel fraction takes time f ,
- the critical section takes time $p(1 - f)$.

With the default static chunking of n/p iterations per thread, n iterations takes

- $(n/p)f$ for the parallelizable part,
- $(n/p) \cdot (1 - f)$ for the critical section, on each of p processors, gives a total of $n(1 - f)$

Speedup is

$$S_p = T_1/T_p = \frac{n}{(n/p)f + n(1-f)} = \frac{p}{f + p(1-f)} \rightarrow \frac{1}{1-f}$$

A critical section works by acquiring a lock, which carries a substantial overhead. Furthermore, if your code has multiple critical sections, they are all mutually exclusive: if a thread is in one critical section, the other ones are all blocked.

On the other hand, the syntax for `atomic` sections is limited to the update of a single memory location, but such sections are not exclusive and they can be more efficient, since they assume that there is a hardware mechanism for making them critical. See the next section.

The problem with `critical` sections being mutually exclusive can be mitigated by naming them:

```
|| #pragma omp critical (optional_name_in_parens)
```

Critical sections are an easy way to turn an existing code into a correct parallel code. However, there are performance disadvantages to critical sections, and sometimes a more drastic rewrite is called for.

23.2.3 atomic construct

The `atomic` clause has one of a limited number of forms, for which hardware support is likely.

1. `omp atomic write` is followed by a single assignment statement to a shared variable.
2. `omp atomic read` is followed by a single assignment statement from a shared variable.
3. `omp atomic` is equivalent to `omp atomic update`; it accommodates statements such as

```
||     x++; x += 1.5;
```

4. `omp atomic capture` can accommodate a single statement similar to `omp atomic update`, or a block that essentially combines a `read` and `update` form.

23.3 Locks

OpenMP also has the traditional mechanism of a *lock*. A lock is somewhat similar to a critical section: it guarantees that some instructions can only be performed by one process at a time. However, a critical section is indeed about code; a lock is about data. With a lock you make sure that some data elements can only be touched by one process at a time.

One simple example of the use of locks is generation of a *histogram*. A histogram consists of a number of bins, that get updated depending on some data. Here is the basic structure of such a code:

```

|| int count[100];
|| float x = some_function();
|| int ix = (int)x;
|| if (ix>=100)
||   error();
|| else
||   count[ix]++;

```

It would be possible to guard the last line:

```

|| #pragma omp critical
||   count[ix]++;

```

but that is unnecessarily restrictive. If there are enough bins in the histogram, and if the `some_function` takes enough time, there are unlikely to be conflicting writes. The solution then is to create an array of locks, with one lock for each count location.

Create/destroy:

```

|| void omp_init_lock(omp_lock_t *lock);
|| void omp_destroy_lock(omp_lock_t *lock);

```

Set and release:

```

|| void omp_set_lock(omp_lock_t *lock);
|| void omp_unset_lock(omp_lock_t *lock);

```

Since the set call is blocking, there is also

```

|| omp_test_lock();

```

Unsetting a lock needs to be done by the thread that set it.

Lock operations implicitly have a *flush*.

Exercise 23.2. In the following code, one process sets array A and then uses it to update B; the other process sets array B and then uses it to update A. Argue that this code can deadlock. How could you fix this?

```

|| #pragma omp parallel shared(a, b, nthreads, locka, lockb)
||   #pragma omp sections nowait
||   {
||     #pragma omp section
||     {
||       omp_set_lock(&locka);
||       for (i=0; i<N; i++)
||         a[i] = ...
|
|       omp_set_lock(&lockb);
||       for (i=0; i<N; i++)
||         b[i] = ... a[i] ...
||       omp_unset_lock(&lockb);
||       omp_unset_lock(&locka);
||     }
|
|   #pragma omp section

```

```
{  
    omp_set_lock(&lockb);  
    for (i=0; i<N; i++)  
        b[i] = ...  
  
    omp_set_lock(&locka);  
    for (i=0; i<N; i++)  
        a[i] = ... b[i] ..  
    omp_unset_lock(&locka);  
    omp_unset_lock(&lockb);  
}  
} /* end of sections */  
} /* end of parallel region */
```

23.3.1 Nested locks

A lock as explained above can not be locked if it is already locked. A *nested lock* can be locked multiple times by the same thread before being unlocked.

- `omp_init_nest_lock`
- `omp_destroy_nest_lock`
- `omp_set_nest_lock`
- `omp_unset_nest_lock`
- `omp_test_nest_lock`

23.3.2 Example: object with atomic update

OO languages such as C++ allow for syntactic simplification, for instance building the locking and unlocking actions into the update operator.

C++ note 8: Lock inside overloaded operator.

```
// lockobject.hxx  
class object {  
private:  
    omp_lock_t the_lock;  
    int _value{0};  
public:  
    object() {  
        omp_init_lock(&the_lock);  
    };  
    ~object() {  
        omp_destroy_lock(&the_lock);  
    };  
    int operator +=( int i ) {  
// atomic increment  
        omp_set_lock(&the_lock);  
        _value += (s>0); int rv = _value;  
        omp_unset_lock(&the_lock);  
        return rv;  
    };  
    auto value() { return _value; };  
};
```

For the full source of this example, see section 23.5.2

Running this:

```
for (int ithread=0; ithread<NTHREADS; ithread++) {
    threads.push_back
    ( thread(
        [&my_object] () {
            for (int iop=0; iop<NOPs; iop++)
                my_object += iop; } ) );
}
for ( auto &t : threads )
    t.join();
```

For the full source of this example, see section 23.5.2

lock()

23.4 Example: Fibonacci computation

The *Fibonacci sequence* is recursively defined as

$$F(0) = 1, \quad F(1) = 1, \quad F(n) = F(n - 1) + F(n - 2) \text{ for } n \geq 2.$$

We start by sketching the basic single-threaded solution. The naive code looks like:

```
int main() {
    value = new int[nmax+1];
    value[0] = 1;
    value[1] = 1;
    fib(10);
}

int fib(int n) {
    int i, j, result;
    if (n>=2) {
        i=fib(n-1); j=fib(n-2);
        value[n] = i+j;
    }
    return value[n];
}
```

However, this is inefficient, since most intermediate values will be computed more than once. We solve this by keeping track of which results are known:

```
...
done = new int[nmax+1];
for (i=0; i<=nmax; i++)
    done[i] = 0;
done[0] = 1;
done[1] = 1;
...
int fib(int n) {
    int i, j;
```

```
    if (!done[n]) {
        i = fib(n-1); j = fib(n-2);
        value[n] = i+j; done[n] = 1;
    }
    return value[n];
}
```

The OpenMP parallel solution calls for two different ideas. First of all, we parallelize the recursion by using tasks (section 24:

```
int fib(int n) {
    int i, j;
    if (n>=2) {
#pragma omp task shared(i) firstprivate(n)
        i=fib(n-1);
#pragma omp task shared(j) firstprivate(n)
        j=fib(n-2);
#pragma omp taskwait
        value[n] = i+j;
    }
    return value[n];
}
```

This computes the right solution, but, as in the naive single-threaded solution, it recomputes many of the intermediate values.

A naive addition of the done array leads to data races, and probably an incorrect solution:

```
int fib(int n) {
    int i, j, result;
    if (!done[n]) {
#pragma omp task shared(i) firstprivate(n)
        i=fib(n-1);
#pragma omp task shared(i) firstprivate(n)
        j=fib(n-2);
#pragma omp taskwait
        value[n] = i+j;
        done[n] = 1;
    }
    return value[n];
}
```

For instance, there is no guarantee that the done array is updated later than the value array, so a thread can think that `done[n-1]` is true, but `value[n-1]` does not have the right value yet.

One solution to this problem is to use a lock, and make sure that, for a given index `n`, the values `done[n]` and `value[n]` are never touched by more than one thread at a time:

```
int fib(int n)
{
    int i, j;
    omp_set_lock( &(dolock[n]) );
    if (!done[n]) {
#pragma omp task shared(i) firstprivate(n)
        i = fib(n-1);
```

```
#pragma omp task shared(j) firstprivate(n)
    j = fib(n-2);
#pragma omp taskwait
    value[n] = i+j;
    done[n] = 1;
}
omp_unset_lock( &(dolock[n]) );
return value[n];
}
```

This solution is correct, optimally efficient in the sense that it does not recompute anything, and it uses tasks to obtain a parallel execution.

However, the efficiency of this solution is only up to a constant. A lock is still being set, even if a value is already computed and therefore will only be read. This can be solved with a complicated use of critical sections, but we will forego this.

23.5 Sources used in this chapter

23.5.1 Listing of code header

23.5.2 Listing of code examples/omp/cxx/lockobject.cxx

```
#include <iostream>
#include <thread>
#include <vector>
using namespace std;

#include <cmath>

#include <omp.h>

#ifndef NOLOCK
#define omp_set_lock(x)
#define omp_unset_lock(x)
#endif

class object {
private:
    omp_lock_t the_lock;
    int _value{0};
public:
    object() {
        omp_init_lock(&the_lock);
    };
    ~object() {
        omp_destroy_lock(&the_lock);
    };
    int operator +=( int i ) {
        // let's waste a little time,
        // otherwise the threads finish before they start
        float s = i;
        for (int i=0; i<1000; i++)
            s += sin(i)*sin(i);

        // atomic increment
        omp_set_lock(&the_lock);
        _value += (s>0); int rv = _value;
        omp_unset_lock(&the_lock);
        return rv;
    };
    auto value() { return _value; };
};

#define NTHREADS 50
#define NOPS 100

int main() {
```

```
/*
 * Create a bunch of threads, that
 * each do a bunch of updates
 */
object my_object;
vector<thread> threads;
for (int ithread=0; ithread<NTHREADS; ithread++) {
    threads.push_back
        ( thread(
            [&my_object] () {
        for (int iop=0; iop<NOPS; iop++)
            my_object += iop; } ) );
}
for ( auto &t : threads )
    t.join();

/*
 * Check that no updates have gone lost
 */
cout << "Did " << NTHREADS * NOPS << " updates, over " << threads.size()
    << " threads, resulting in " << my_object.value() << endl;

return 0;
}
```

Chapter 24

OpenMP topic: Tasks

Tasks are a mechanism that OpenMP uses behind the scenes: if you specify something as being a task, OpenMP will create a ‘block of work’: a section of code plus the data environment in which it occurred. This block is set aside for execution at some later point. Thus, task-based code usually looks something like this:

```
|| #pragma omp parallel
|| {
||   // generate a bunch of tasks
||   # pragma omp taskwait
||   // the result from the tasks is now available
|| }
```

For instance, a parallel loop was always implicitly translated to something like:

Sequential loop:

```
|| for (int i=0; i<N; i++)
||   f(i);
```

Parallel loop:

```
for (int ib=0; ib<nblocks; ib++) {
  int first=... last=... ;
# pragma omp task
  for (int i=first; i<last; i++)
    f(i)
}
#pragma omp taskwait
// the results from the loop are available
```

If we stick with this example of implementing a parallel loop through tasks, the next question is: precisely who generates the tasks? The following code has a serious problem:

```
// WRONG. DO NOT WRITE THIS
#pragma omp parallel
for (int ib=0; ib<nblocks; ib++) {
  int first=... last=... ;
# pragma omp task
  for (int i=first; i<last; i++)
    f(i)
}
```

because the parallel region creates a team, and each thread in the team executes the task-generating code. Instead, we use the following idiom:

```

|| #pragma omp parallel
|| #pragma omp single
|| for (int ib=0; ib<nblocks; ib++) {
||   // setup stuff
|| # pragma omp task
||   // task stuff
|| }
|| 
```

1. A parallel region creates a team of threads;
2. a single thread then creates the tasks, adding them to a queue that belongs to the team,
3. and all the threads in that team (possibly including the one that generated the tasks)

Btw, the actual task queue is not visible to the programmer. Another aspect that is out of the programmer's control is the exact timing of the execution of the task: this is up to a *task scheduler*, which operates invisible to the programmer.

The task mechanism allows you to do things that are hard or impossible with the loop and section constructs. For instance, a *while loop* traversing a *linked list* can be implemented with tasks:

Code	Execution
p = head_of_list();	one thread traverses the list
while (!end_of_list(p)) {	
#pragma omp task	a task is created,
process(p);	one for each element
p = next_element(p);	the generating thread goes on without waiting
}	the tasks are executed while more are being generated.

Another concept that was hard to parallelize earlier is the ‘while loop’. This does not fit the requirement for OpenMP parallel loops that the loop bound needs to be known before the loop executes.

Exercise 24.1. Use tasks to find the smallest factor of a large number (using $2999 \cdot 3001$ as test case): generate a task for each trial factor. Start with this code:

```

int factor=0;
#pragma omp parallel
#pragma omp single
for (int f=2; f<4000; f++) {
  { // see if `f` is a factor
    if (N%f==0) { // found factor!
      factor = f;
    }
  }
  if (factor>0)
    break;
}
if (factor>0)
  printf("Found a factor: %d\n",factor);

```

- Turn the factor finding block into a task.
- Run your program a number of times:
`for i in `seq 1 1000` ; do ./taskfactor ; done | grep -v 2999`
Does it find the wrong factor? Why? Try to fix this.

- Once a factor has been found, you should stop generating tasks. Let tasks that should not have been generated, meaning that they test a candidate larger than the factor found, print out a message.

Solution to exercise 24.1.

<pre>// primetasks.c void try_as_factor(int i) { if (the_factor>0) { printf("screech ... %d\n",i); return; } if (bignum%i==0) { #pragma omp critical { printf("found %d\n",i); the_factor = i; } return; } </pre>	<pre>int main() { #pragma omp parallel #pragma omp single for (int i=2; →i<bignum/*maxfactor*/; i++) →{ if (the_factor>0) break; #pragma omp task try_as_factor(i); } #pragma omp taskwait return 0; }</pre>
---	--

For the full source of this example, see section [24.7.2](#)

24.1 Task data

Treatment of data in a task is somewhat subtle. The basic problem is that a task gets created at one time, and executed at some later time. Thus, if shared data is accessed, does the task see the value at creation time or at execution time? In fact, both possibilities make sense depending on the application, so we need to discuss the rules when which possibility applies.

The first rule is that shared data is shared in the task, but private data becomes *firstprivate*. To see the distinction, consider two code fragments.

<pre>int count = 100; #pragma omp parallel #pragma omp single { while (count>0) { # pragma omp task { int countcopy = count; if (count==50) { sleep(1); printf("%d,%d\n", count,countcopy); } // end if } // end task count--; } // end while } // end single</pre>	<pre>#pragma omp parallel #pragma omp single { int count = 100; while (count>0) { # pragma omp task { int countcopy = count; if (count==50) { sleep(1); printf("%d,%d\n", count,countcopy); } // end if } // end task count--; } // end while } // end single</pre>
--	--

In the first example, the variable `count` is declared outside the parallel region and is therefore shared. When the `print` statement is executed, all tasks will have been generated, and so `count` will be zero. Thus, the output will likely be `0,50`.

In the second example, the `count` variable is private to the thread creating the tasks, and so it will be `firstprivate` in the task, preserving the value that was current when the task was created.

24.2 Task synchronization

Even though the above segment looks like a linear set of statements, it is impossible to say when the code after the `task` directive will be executed. This means that the following code is incorrect:

```
x = f();
#pragma omp task
{ y = g(x); }
z = h(y);
```

Explanation: when the statement computing `z` is executed, the task computing `y` has only been scheduled; it has not necessarily been executed yet.

In order to have a guarantee that a task is finished, you need the `taskwait` directive. The following creates two tasks, which can be executed in parallel, and then waits for the results:

Code	Execution
<code>x = f();</code>	the variable <code>x</code> gets a value
<code>#pragma omp task</code>	
<code>{ y1 = g1(x); }</code>	two tasks are created with the current value of <code>x</code>
<code>#pragma omp task</code>	
<code>{ y2 = g2(x); }</code>	
<code>#pragma omp taskwait</code>	the thread waits until the tasks are finished
<code>z = h(y1)+h(y2);</code>	the variable <code>z</code> is computed using the task results

The `task` pragma is followed by a structured block. Each time the structured block is encountered, a new task is generated. On the other hand `taskwait` is a standalone directive; the code that follows is just code, it is not a structured block belonging to the directive.

Another aspect of the distinction between generating tasks and executing them: usually the tasks are generated by one thread, but executed by many threads. Thus, the typical idiom is:

```
#pragma omp parallel
#pragma omp single
{
    // code that generates tasks
}
```

This makes it possible to execute loops in parallel that do not have the right kind of iteration structure for a `omp parallel for`. As an example, you could traverse and process a linked list:

```
#pragma omp parallel
#pragma omp single
{
    while (!tail(p)) {
```

```
    p = p->next();
#pragma omp task
    process(p)
}
#pragma omp taskwait
}
```

One task traverses the linked list creating an independent task for each element in the list. These tasks are then executed in parallel; their assignment to threads is done by the task scheduler.

You can indicate task dependencies in several ways:

1. Using the ‘task wait’ directive you can explicitly indicate the *join* of the *forked* tasks. The instruction after the wait directive will therefore be dependent on the spawned tasks.
2. The `taskgroup` directive, followed by a structured block, ensures completion of all tasks created in the block, even if recursively created.
3. Each OpenMP task can have a `depend` clause, indicating what *data dependency* of the task; section 24.3. By indicating what data is produced or absorbed by the tasks, the scheduler can construct the dependency graph for you.

Another mechanism for dealing with tasks is the `taskgroup`: a task group is a code block that can contain `task` directives; all these tasks need to be finished before any statement after the block is executed.

A task group is somewhat similar to having a `taskwait` directive after the block. The big difference is that that `taskwait` directive does not wait for tasks that are recursively generated, while a `taskgroup` does.

24.3 Task dependencies

It is possible to put a partial ordering on tasks through use of the `depend` clause. For example, in

```
#pragma omp task
x = f()
#pragma omp task
y = g(x)
```

it is conceivable that the second task is executed before the first, possibly leading to an incorrect result. This is remedied by specifying:

```
#pragma omp task depend(out:x)
x = f()
#pragma omp task depend(in:x)
y = g(x)
```

- These dependencies only hold between sibling tasks.
- The depending data items of the various tasks are either identical or disjoint. In particular, dependencies on different sections of an array are not allowed, though a compiler may not always catch this.

Exercise 24.2. Consider the following code:

```
for i in [1:N]:
    x[0,i] = some_function_of(i)
    x[i,0] = some_function_of(i)

for i in [1:N]:
    for j in [1:N]:
        x[i,j] = x[i-1,j]+x[i,j-1]
```

- Observe that the second loop nest is not amenable to OpenMP loop parallelism.
- Can you think of a way to realize the computation with OpenMP loop parallelism?
Hint: you need to rewrite the code so that the same operations are done in a different order.
- Use tasks with dependencies to make this code parallel without any rewriting: the only change is to add OpenMP directives.

Solution to exercise 24.2.

- Both inner and outer loop have dependencies.
- You can rewrite to use wavefronts.

```
|| #pragma omp task depend(out:x[i,j]) depend(in:x[i-j,j],x[i,j-1])
```

Tasks dependencies are used to indicated how two uses of one data item relate to each other. Since either use can be a read or a write, there are four types of dependencies.

RaW (Read after Write) The second task reads an item that the first task writes. The second task has to be executed after the first:

```
|| ... omp task depend(OUT:x)
    foo(x)
|| ... omp task depend( IN:x)
    foo(x)
```

WaR (Write after Read) The first task reads an item, and the second task overwrites it. The second task has to be executed second to prevent overwriting the initial value:

```
|| ... omp task depend( IN:x)
    foo(x)
|| ... omp task depend(OUT:x)
    foo(x)
```

WaW (Write after Write) Both tasks set the same variable. Since the variable can be used by an intermediate task, the two writes have to be executed in this order.

```
|| ... omp task depend(OUT:x)
    foo(x)
|| ... omp task depend(OUT:x)
    foo(x)
```

RaR (Read after Read) Both tasks read a variable. Since neither tasks has an ‘out’ declaration, they can run in either order.

```
|| ... omp task depend(IN:x)
    foo(x)
|| ... omp task depend(IN:x)
    foo(x)
```

24.4 Task reduction

The *reduction* only pertains to ordinary parallel loops, not to `taskgroup` loops of tasks. To do a reduction over computations in tasks you need the `task_reduction` clause (a OpenMP-5.0 feature):

```
|| #pragma omp taskgroup task_reduction(+:sum)
```

The task group can contain both task that contribute to the reduction, and ones that don't. The former type needs a clause `in_reduction`:

```
// #pragma omp task in_reduction(+:sum)
```

As an example, here the sum $\sum_{i=1}^{100} i$ is computed with tasks:

```
// taskreduct.c
#pragma omp parallel
#pragma omp single
{
#pragma omp taskgroup task_reduction(+:sum)
for (int itask=1; itask<=bound; itask++) {
    #pragma omp task in_reduction(+:sum)
    sum += itask;
}
}
```

24.5 More

24.5.1 Scheduling points

Normally, a task stays tied to the thread that first executes it. However, at a *task scheduling point* the thread may switch to the execution of another task created by the same team.

- There is a scheduling point after explicit task creation. This means that, in the above examples, the thread creating the tasks can also participate in executing them.
- There is a scheduling point at `taskwait` and `taskyield`.

On the other hand a task created with them `untied` clause on the task pragma is never tied to one thread. This means that after suspension at a scheduling point any thread can resume execution of the task. If you do this, beware that the value of a thread-id does not stay fixed. Also locks become a problem.

Example: if a thread is waiting for a lock, with a scheduling point it can suspend the task and work on another task.

```
while (!omp_test_lock(lock))
#pragma omp taskyield
;
```

24.5.2 Hints for performance improvement

If a task involves only a small amount of work, the scheduling overhead may negate any performance gain. There are two ways of executing the task code directly:

- The `if` clause will only create a task if the test is true:

```
#pragma omp task if (n>100)
f(n)
```

- The `if` clause may still lead to recursively generated tasks. On the other hand, `final` will execute the code, and will also skip any recursively created tasks:

```
#pragma omp task final(level<3)
```

If you want to indicate that certain tasks are more important than others, use the `priority` clause:

```
// #pragma omp task priority(5)
```

where the priority is any non-negative scalar less than `OMP_MAX_TASK_PRIORITY`.

24.5.3 Task cancelling

It is possible (in OpenMP-4.0) to cancel tasks. This is useful when tasks are used to perform a search: the task that finds the result first can cancel any outstanding search tasks. See section 18.3 for details.

Exercise 24.3. Modify the prime finding example to use `cancel`.

24.6 Examples

24.6.1 Fibonacci

As an example of the use of tasks, consider computing an array of Fibonacci values:

```
// taskgroup0.c
for (int i=2; i<N; i++)
{
    fibo_values[i] = fibo_values[i-1]+fibo_values[i-2];
}
```

For the full source of this example, see section 24.7.3

If you simply turn each calculation into a task, results will be unpredictable (confirm this!) since tasks can be executed in any sequence. To solve this, we put dependencies on the tasks:

```
// taskgroup2.c
for (int i=2; i<N; i++)
#pragma omp task \
depend(out:fibo_values[i]) \
depend(in:fibo_values[i-1],fibo_values[i-2])
{
    fibo_values[i] = fibo_values[i-1]+fibo_values[i-2];
}
```

For the full source of this example, see section 24.7.4

24.6.2 Binomial coefficients

Exercise 24.4. An array of binomial coefficients can be computed as follows:

```
// binomial1.c
for (int row=1; row<=n; row++)
    for (int col=1; col<=row; col++)
        if (row==1 || col==1 || col==row)
            array[row][col] = 1;
        else
            array[row][col] = array[row-1][col-1] + array[row-1][col];
```

For the full source of this example, see section 24.7.5

Putting a single task group around the double loop, and use `depend` clauses to make the execution satisfy the proper dependencies.

Solution to exercise 24.4.

```
// binomial1p.c
#pragma omp parallel
{
    #pragma omp single
    {
        #pragma omp taskgroup
        {
            for (int row=1; row<=n; row++)
                for (int col=1; col<=row; col++)
                    if (row==1 || col==1 || col==row)
                        #pragma omp task depend(out:array[row][col])
                            array[row][col] = 1;
                    else
                        #pragma omp task depend(in:array[row-1][col-1],array[row-1][col])
                            →depend(out:array[row][col])
                                array[row][col] = array[row-1][col-1] + array[row-1][col];
            } // end taskgroup
        } // end single
    } // end parallel
```

For the full source of this example, see section 24.7.6

24.7 Sources used in this chapter

24.7.1 Listing of code header

24.7.2 Listing of code code/omp/c/primetasks.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <math.h>
#include <omp.h>

int bignum = 2000000111, maxfactor = 42000, the_factor = -1;

void try_as_factor( int i ) {
    if (the_factor>0) {
        printf("screech ... %d\n",i);
        return;
    }

    if (bignum%i==0) {
#pragma omp critical
    {
        printf("found %d\n",i);
        the_factor = i;
    }
}
return;
}

int main() {

#pragma omp parallel
#pragma omp single
    for (int i=2; i<bignum/*maxfactor*/; i++) {
        if (the_factor>0) break;
#pragma omp task
        try_as_factor(i);
    }
#pragma omp taskwait

    return 0;
}
```

24.7.3 Listing of code examples/omp/c/taskgroup0.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <omp.h>
#include <string.h>

int main(int argc,char **argv) {
```

```
int N = 1000;
if (argc>1) {
    if (!strcmp(argv[1],"-h")) {
        printf("usage: %s [nnn]\n",argv[0]);
        return 0;
    }
    N = atoi(argv[1]);
    if (N>99) {
        printf("Sorry, this overflows: setting N=99\n");
        N = 99;
    }
}

long int *fibo_values = (long int*)malloc(N*sizeof(long int));

fibo_values[0] = 1; fibo_values[1] = 1;
{
    for (int i=2; i<N; i++)
    {
        fibo_values[i] = fibo_values[i-1]+fibo_values[i-2];
    }
}
printf("F(%d) = %ld\n",N,fibo_values[N-1]);

return 0;
}
```

24.7.4 Listing of code examples/omp/c/taskgroup2.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <omp.h>
#include <string.h>

int main(int argc,char **argv) {
    int N = 1000;
    if (argc>1) {
        if (!strcmp(argv[1],"-h")) {
            printf("usage: %s [nnn]\n",argv[0]);
            return 0;
        }
        N = atoi(argv[1]);
        if (N>99) {
            printf("Sorry, this overflows: setting N=99\n");
            N = 99;
        }
    }

    long int *fibo_values = (long int*)malloc(N*sizeof(long int));

    fibo_values[0] = 1; fibo_values[1] = 1;
#pragma omp parallel
#pragma omp single
```

```

#pragma omp taskgroup
{
    for (int i=2; i<N; i++)
#pragma omp task \
depend(out:fibo_values[i]) \
depend(in:fibo_values[i-1],fibo_values[i-2])
{
    fibo_values[i] = fibo_values[i-1]+fibo_values[i-2];
}
printf("F(%d) = %ld\n",N,fibo_values[N-1]);

return 0;
}

```

24.7.5 Listing of code code/omp/c/binomial1.c

```

#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <omp.h>

#define NMAX 30000/sizeof(int)
long int array[NMAX][NMAX];

long int coeff(int row,int col) {
    if (row==1) return 1;
    else if (col==1) return 1;
    else if (col==row) return 1;
    else return array[row-1][col-1]+array[row-1][col];
};

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

    int n;
    if (argc>1)
        n = atoi(argv[1]);
    else n = 100;
    if (n>NMAX) {
        printf("N too large: keep under %d\n",NMAX);
        return 0; }

    for (int row=1; row<=n; row++)
        for (int col=1; col<=row; col++)
            if (row==1 || col==1 || col==row)
array[row][col] = 1;
            else
array[row][col] = array[row-1][col-1] + array[row-1][col];
//printf("set (%d,%d) = %ld\n",row,col,array[row][col]);

    for (int col=1; col<=n; col++) {
        long int binom = array[n][col];
        printf("%ld ",binom);
}

```

```
    } printf("\n");
    return 0;
}
```

24.7.6 Listing of code code/omp/c/binomial1p.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <omp.h>

#define NMAX 30000/sizeof(int)
long int array[NMAX][NMAX];

long int coeff(int row,int col) {
    if (row==1) return 1;
    else if (col==1) return 1;
    else if (col==row) return 1;
    else return array[row-1][col-1]+array[row-1][col];
};

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

    int n;
    if (argc>1)
        n = atoi(argv[1]);
    else n = 100;
    if (n>NMAX) {
        printf("N too large: keep under %d\n",NMAX);
        return 0; }

    double t = omp_get_wtime();
#pragma omp parallel
    {
#pragma omp single
    {
#pragma omp taskgroup
    {
        for (int row=1; row<=n; row++)
            for (int col=1; col<=row; col++)
                if (row==1 || col==1 || col==row)
#pragma omp task depend(out:array[row][col])
                    array[row][col] = 1;
                else
#pragma omp task depend(in:array[row-1][col-1],array[row-1][col]) depend(out:array[row][col])
                    array[row][col] = array[row-1][col-1] + array[row-1][col];
                } // end taskgroup
        } // end single
    } // end parallel

#pragma omp parallel
#pragma omp single
```

```
{  
    t = omp_get_wtime()-t;  
    printf("Time on %02d threads: %7.4e\n",omp_get_num_threads(),t);  
}  
  
for (int col=1; col<=n; col++) {  
    long int binom = array[n][col];  
    printf("%ld ",binom);  
} printf("\n");  
  
return 0;  
}
```

Chapter 25

OpenMP topic: Affinity

25.1 OpenMP thread affinity control

The matter of thread affinity becomes important on *multi-socket nodes*; see the example in section 25.2.

Thread placement can be controlled with two environment variables:

- the environment variable `OMP_PROC_BIND` describes how threads are bound to *OpenMP places*; while
- the variable `OMP_PLACES` describes these places in terms of the available hardware.
- When you're experimenting with these variables it is a good idea to set `OMP_DISPLAY_ENV` to true, so that OpenMP will print out at runtime how it has interpreted your specification. The examples in the following sections will display this output.

25.1.1 Thread binding

The variable `OMP_PLACES` defines a series of places to which the threads are assigned.

Example: if you have two sockets and you define

`OMP_PLACES=sockets`

then

- thread 0 goes to socket 0,
- thread 1 goes to socket 1,
- thread 2 goes to socket 0 again,
- and so on.

On the other hand, if the two sockets have a total of sixteen cores and you define

`OMP_PLACES=cores`
`OMP_PROC_BIND=close`

then

- thread 0 goes to core 0, which is on socket 0,
- thread 1 goes to core 1, which is on socket 0,
- thread 2 goes to core 2, which is on socket 0,
- and so on, until thread 7 goes to core 7 on socket 0, and
- thread 8 goes to core 8, which is on socket 1,
- et cetera.

The value `OMP_PROC_BIND=close` means that the assignment goes successively through the available places. The variable `OMP_PROC_BIND` can also be set to `spread`, which spreads the threads over the places. With

```
OMP_PLACES=cores
OMP_PROC_BIND=spread
you find that
```

- thread 0 goes to core 0, which is on socket 0,
- thread 1 goes to core 8, which is on socket 1,
- thread 2 goes to core 1, which is on socket 0,
- thread 3 goes to core 9, which is on socket 1,
- and so on, until thread 14 goes to core 7 on socket 0, and
- thread 15 goes to core 15, which is on socket 1.

So you see that `OMP_PLACES=cores` and `OMP_PROC_BIND=spread` very similar to `OMP_PLACES=sockets`. The difference is that the latter choice does not bind a thread to a specific core, so the operating system can move threads about, and it can put more than one thread on the same core, even if there is another core still unused.

The value `OMP_PROC_BIND=master` puts the threads in the same place as the master of the team. This is convenient if you create teams recursively. In that case you would use the `dproc` clause rather than the environment variable, set to `spread` for the initial team, and to `master` for the recursively created team.

25.1.2 Effects of thread binding

Let's consider two example program. First we consider the program for computing π , which is purely compute-bound.

#threads	close/cores	spread/sockets	spread/cores
1	0.359	0.354	0.353
2	0.177	0.177	0.177
4	0.088	0.088	0.088
6	0.059	0.059	0.059
8	0.044	0.044	0.044
12	0.029	0.045	0.029
16	0.022	0.050	0.022

We see pretty much perfect speedup for the `OMP_PLACES=cores` strategy; with `OMP_PLACES=sockets` we probably get occasional collisions where two threads wind up on the same core.

Next we take a program for computing the time evolution of the *heat equation*:

$$t = 0, 1, 2, \dots : \forall_i : x_i^{(t+1)} = 2x_i^{(t)} - x_{i-1}^{(t)} - x_{i+1}^{(t)}$$

This is a bandwidth-bound operation because the amount of computation per data item is low.

#threads	close/cores	spread/sockets	spread/cores
1	2.88	2.89	2.88
2	1.71	1.41	1.42
4	1.11	0.74	0.74
6	1.09	0.57	0.57
8	1.12	0.57	0.53
12	0.72	0.53	0.52
16	0.52	0.61	0.53

Again we see that `OMP_PLACES=sockets` gives worse performance for high core counts, probably because of threads winding up on the same core. The thing to observe in this example is that with 6 or 8 cores the `OMP_PROC_BIND=spread` strategy gives twice the performance of `OMP_PROC_BIND=close`.

The reason for this is that a single socket does not have enough bandwidth for all eight cores on the socket. Therefore, dividing the eight threads over two sockets gives each thread a higher available bandwidth than putting all threads on one socket.

25.1.3 Place definition

There are three predefined values for the `OMP_PLACES` variable: `sockets`, `cores`, `threads`. You have already seen the first two; the `threads` value becomes relevant on processors that have hardware threads. In that case, `OMP_PLACES=cores` does not tie a thread to a specific hardware thread, leading again to possible collisions as in the above example. Setting `OMP_PLACES=threads` ties each OpenMP thread to a specific hardware thread.

There is also a very general syntax for defining places that uses a

`location:number:stride`

syntax. Examples:

- `OMP_PLACES="{}0:8:1},{}8:8:1"`
is equivalent to `sockets` on a two-socket design with eight cores per socket: it defines two places, each having eight consecutive cores. The threads are then placed alternating between the two places, but not further specified inside the place.
- The setting `cores` is equivalent to
`OMP_PLACES="{}0},{}1},{}2},\dots,{}15}"`
- On a four-socket design, the specification
`OMP_PLACES="{}0:4:8}:4:1"`
states that the place `0,8,16,24` needs to be repeated four times, with a stride of one. In other words, thread 0 winds up on core 0 of some socket, the thread 1 winds up on core 1 of some socket, et cetera.

25.1.4 Binding possibilities

Values for `OMP_PROC_BIND` are: `false`, `true`, `master`, `close`, `spread`.

- `false`: set no binding
- `true`: lock threads to a core
- `master`: collocate threads with the master thread
- `close`: place threads close to the master in the places list
- `spread`: spread out threads as much as possible

This effect can be made local by giving the `dproc` clause in the `parallel` directive.

A safe default setting is

```
export OMP_PROC_BIND=true
```

which prevents the operating system from *migrating a thread*. This prevents many scaling problems.

Good examples of *thread placement* on the *Intel Knight's Landing*: <https://software.intel.com/en-us/articles/process-and-thread-affinity-for-intel-xeon-phi-processors-x200>

As an example, consider a code where two threads write to a shared location.

```
// sharing.c
#pragma omp parallel
{ // not a parallel for: just a bunch of reps
    for (int j = 0; j < reps; j++) {
#pragma omp for schedule(static,1)
        for (int i = 0; i < N; i++){
#pragma omp atomic
            a++;
        }
    }
}
```

For the full source of this example, see section [25.4.2](#)

There is now a big difference in runtime depending on how close the threads are. We test this on a processor with both cores and hyperthreads. First we bind the OpenMP threads to the cores:

```
OMP_NUM_THREADS=2 OMP_PLACES=cores OMP_PROC_BIND=close ./sharing
run time = 4752.231836usec
sum = 80000000.0
```

Next we force the OpenMP threads to bind to hyperthreads inside one core:

```
OMP_PLACES=threads OMP_PROC_BIND=close ./sharing
run time = 941.970110usec
sum = 80000000.0
```

Of course in this example the inner loop is pretty much meaningless and parallelism does not speed up anything:

```
OMP_NUM_THREADS=1 OMP_PLACES=cores OMP_PROC_BIND=close ./sharing
run time = 806.669950usec
sum = 80000000.0
```

However, we see that the two-thread result is almost as fast, meaning that there is very little parallelization overhead.

25.2 First-touch

The affinity issue shows up in the *first-touch* phenomenon.

A little background knowledge. Memory is organized in *memory pages*, and what we think of as ‘addresses’ really *virtual addresses*, mapped to *physical addresses*, through a *page table*.

This means that data in your program can be anywhere in physical memory. In particular, on a *dual socket* node, the memory can be mapped to either of the sockets.

The next thing to know is that memory allocated with `malloc` and like routines is not immediately mapped; that only happens when data is written to it. In light of this, consider the following OpenMP code:

```
double *x = (double*) malloc(N*sizeof(double));
for (i=0; i<N; i++)
    x[i] = 0;

#pragma omp parallel for
for (i=0; i<N; i++)
    .... something with x[i] ...
```

Since the initialization loop is not parallel it is executed by the master thread, making all the memory associated with the socket of that thread. Subsequent access by the other socket will then access data from memory not attached to that socket.

Let's consider an example. We make the initialization parallel subject to an option:

```
// heat.c
#pragma omp parallel if (init>0)
{
    #pragma omp for
    for (int i=0; i<N; i++)
        y[i] = x[i] = 0.;
    x[0] = 0; x[N-1] = 1.;
}
```

If the initialization is not parallel, the array will be mapped to the socket of the master thread; if it is parallel, it may be mapped to different sockets, depending on where the threads run.

As a simple application we run a heat equation, which is parallel, though not embarrassingly so:

```
for (int it=0; it<1000; it++) {
#pragma omp parallel for
    for (int i=1; i<N-1; i++)
        y[i] = ( x[i-1]+x[i]+x[i+1] )/3.;
#pragma omp parallel for
    for (int i=1; i<N-1; i++)
        x[i] = y[i];
}
```

On the TACC *Frontera* machine, with dual 28-core *Intel Cascade Lake* processors, we use the following settings:

```
export OMP_PLACES=cores
export OMP_PROC_BIND=close
# no parallel initialization
make heat && OMP_NUM_THREADS=56 ./heat
# yes parallel initialization
make heat && OMP_NUM_THREADS=56 ./heat 1
```

This gives us a remarkable difference in runtime:

- Sequential init: avg=2.089, stddev=0.1083
- Parallel init: avg=1.006, stddev=0.0216

This large difference will be mitigated for algorithms with higher arithmetic intensity.

Exercise 25.1. How do the OpenMP dynamic schedules relate to this issue?

25.2.1 C++

The problem with realizing first-touch in C++ is that `std::vector` fills its allocation with default values. This is known as ‘value-initialization’, and it makes

```
|| vector<double> x(N);
```

equivalent to the non-parallel allocation and initialization above.

Here is a solution.

C++ note 9: Uninitialized containers. We make a template for uninitialized types:

```
// heatalloc.cxx
template<typename T>
struct uninitialized {
    uninitialized() {};
    T val;
    constexpr operator T() const {return val;};
    double operator=( const T& v ) { val = v; return val; };
};
```

so that we can create vectors that behave normally:

```
vector<uninitialized<double>> x(N),y(N);

#pragma omp parallel for
for (int i=0; i<N; i++)
    y[i] = x[i] = 0.;
x[0] = 0; x[N-1] = 1.;
```

Running the code with the regular definition of a vector, and the above modification, reproduces the runtimes of the C variant above.

Another option is to wrap memory allocated with `new` in a `unique_ptr`:

```
// heatptr.cxx
unique_ptr<double[]> x( new double[N] );
unique_ptr<double[]> y( new double[N] );

#pragma omp parallel for
for (int i=0; i<N; i++) {
    y[i] = x[i] = 0.;
}
x[0] = 0; x[N-1] = 1.;
```

Note that this gives fairly elegant code, since square bracket indexing is overloaded for `unique_ptr`. The only disadvantage is that we can not query the `size` of these arrays. Or do bound checking with `at`, but in high performance contexts that is usually not appropriate anyway.

25.2.2 Remarks

You could move pages with `move_pages`.

By regarding affinity, in effect you are adopting an SPMD style of programming. You could make this explicit by having each thread allocate its part of the arrays separately, and storing a private pointer as `threadprivate` [18]. However, this makes it impossible for threads to access each other's parts of the distributed array, so this is only suitable for total *data parallel* or *embarrassingly parallel* applications.

25.3 Affinity control outside OpenMP

There are various utilities to control process and thread placement.

Process placement can be controlled on the Operating system level by `numactl` (the TACC utility `tacc_affinity` is a wrapper around this) on Linux (also `taskset`); Windows `start/affinity`.

25. OpenMP topic: Affinity

Corresponding system calls: pbing on Solaris, sched_setaffinity on Linux, SetThreadAffinityMask on Windows.

Corresponding environment variables: SUNW_MP_PROCBIND on Solaris, KMP_AFFINITY on Intel.

The *Intel compiler* has an environment variable for affinity control:

```
export KMP_AFFINITY=verbose,scatter
```

values: none,scatter,compact

For *gcc*:

```
export GOMP_CPU_AFFINITY=0,8,1,9
```

For the *Sun compiler*:

```
SUNW_MP_PROCBIND
```

25.4 Sources used in this chapter

25.4.1 Listing of code header

25.4.2 Listing of code examples/omp/c/sharing.c

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <omp.h>

int main() {

    int i,j;
    int reps = 1000;
    int N = 8*10000;

    double start, stop, delta;
    double a;

#pragma omp parallel
    a = 0;

    start = omp_get_wtime();
#pragma omp parallel
    { // not a parallel for: just a bunch of reps
        for (int j = 0; j < reps; j++) {
#pragma omp for schedule(static,1)
            for (int i = 0; i < N; i++){
#pragma omp atomic
            a++;
        }
    }
    stop = omp_get_wtime();
    delta = ((double)(stop - start))/reps;
    printf("run time = %fusec\n", 1.0e6*delta);

    printf("sum = %.1f\n", a);

    return 0;
}
```

Chapter 26

OpenMP topic: Memory model

26.1 Thread synchronization

Let's do a *producer-consumer* model¹. This can be implemented with sections, where one section, the producer, sets a flag when data is available, and the other, the consumer, waits until the flag is set.

```
#pragma omp parallel sections
{
    // the producer
    #pragma omp section
    {
        ... do some producing work ...
        flag = 1;
    }
    // the consumer
    #pragma omp section
    {
        while (flag==0) { }
        ... do some consuming work ...
    }
}
```

One reason this doesn't work, is that the compiler will see that the flag is never used in the producing section, and that is never changed in the consuming section, so it may optimize these statements, to the point of optimizing them away.

The producer then needs to do:

```
... do some producing work ...
#pragma omp flush
#pragma atomic write
    flag = 1;
#pragma omp flush(flag)
```

and the consumer does:

```
#pragma omp flush(flag)
while (flag==0) {
    #pragma omp flush(flag)
```

1. This example is from Intel's excellent OMP course by Tim Mattson

```

    ||
    #pragma omp flush
}

```

This code strictly speaking has a *race condition* on the `flag` variable.

The solution is to make this an *atomic operation* and use an `atomic` pragma here: the producer has

```

    ||
    #pragma atomic write
    flag = 1;
}

```

and the consumer:

```

    ||
    while (1) {
        #pragma omp flush(flag)
        #pragma omp atomic read
        flag_read = flag
        if (flag_read==1) break;
    }
}

```

26.2 Data races

OpenMP, being based on shared memory, has a potential for *race conditions*. These happen when two threads access the same data item. The problem with race conditions is that programmer convenience runs counter to efficient execution. For this reason, OpenMP simply does not allow some things that would be desirable.

For a simple example:

```

// race.c
#pragma omp parallel for shared(counter)
for (int i=0; i<count; i++)
    counter++;
printf("Counter should be %d, is %d\n",
       count, counter);
}

```

For the full source of this example, see section 26.4.2

The basic rule about multiple-thread access of a single data item is:

Any memory location that is *written* by one thread, can not be *read* by another thread in the same parallel region, if no synchronization is done.

To start with that last clause: any workshare construct ends with an *implicit barrier*, so data written before that barrier can safely be read after it.

26.2.1 Dekker's algorithm

A standard illustration of the weak memory model is *Dekker's algorithm*. We model that in OpenMP as follows;

```

// weak1.c
int a=0, b=0, r1, r2;
#pragma omp parallel sections shared(a, b, r1, r2)
{
    #pragma omp section
    {

```

```
    a = 1;
    r1 = b;
    tasks++;
}
#pragma omp section
{
    b = 1;
    r2 = a;
    tasks++;
}
}
```

Under any reasonable interpretation of parallel execution, the possible values for r_1, r_2 are 1, 1 0, 1 or 1, 0. This is known as *sequential consistency*: the parallel outcome is consistent with a sequential execution that interleaves the parallel computations, respecting their local statement orderings. (See also HPC book, section-[2.6.1.6](#).)

However, running this, we get a small number of cases where $r_1 = r_2 = 0$. There are two possible explanations:

1. The compiler is allowed to interchange the first and second statements, since there is no dependence between them; or
2. The thread is allowed to have a local copy of the variable that is not coherent with the value in memory.

We fix this by flushing both a, b :

```
// weak2.c
int a=0,b=0,r1,r2;
#pragma omp parallel sections shared(a, b, r1, r2)
{
#pragma omp section
{
    a = 1;
#pragma omp flush (a,b)
    r1 = b;
    tasks++;
}
#pragma omp section
{
    b = 1;
#pragma omp flush (a,b)
    r2 = a;
    tasks++;
}
}
```

26.3 Relaxed memory model

flush

- There is an implicit flush of all variables at the start and end of a *parallel region*.
- There is a flush at each barrier, whether explicit or implicit, such as at the end of a *work sharing*.
- At entry and exit of a *critical section*
- When a *lock* is set or unset.

26.4 Sources used in this chapter

26.4.1 Listing of code header

26.4.2 Listing of code examples/omp/c/race.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
#include <limits.h>
#include <omp.h>

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

    int count = 100000;
    int counter = 0;

#pragma omp parallel for shared(counter)
    for (int i=0; i<count; i++)
        counter++;
    printf("Counter should be %d, is %d\n",
count,counter);

    return 0;
}
```

Chapter 27

OpenMP topic: SIMD processing

You can declare a loop to be executable with *vector instructions* with `simd`.

Remark 30 *Depending on your compiler, it may be necessary to give an extra option enabling SIMD:*

- `-fopenmp-simd` for GCC / Clang, and
- `-qopenmp-simd` for ICC.

The `simd` pragma has the following clauses:

- `safelen(n)`: limits the number of iterations in a SIMD chunk. Presumably useful if you combine `parallel for simd`.
- `linear`: lists variables that have a linear relation to the iteration parameter.
- `aligned`: specifies alignment of variables.

If your SIMD loop includes a function call, you can declare that the function can be turned into vector instructions with `declare simd`

If a loop is both multi-threadable and vectorizable, you can combine directives as `pragma omp parallel for simd`.

Compilers can be made to report whether a loop was vectorized:

```
LOOP BEGIN at simdf.c(61,15)
  remark #15301: OpenMP SIMD LOOP WAS VECTORIZED
LOOP END
```

with such options as `-Qvec-report=3` for the Intel compiler.

Performance improvements of these directives need not be immediately obvious. In cases where the operation is bandwidth-limited, using `simd` parallelism may give the same or worse performance as thread parallelism.

The following function can be vectorized:

```
// simdfns.c
#pragma omp declare simd
double cs(double x1,double x2,double y1,double y2) {
    double
        inprod = x1*x2+y1*y2,
        xnorm = sqrt(x1*x1 + x2*x2),
        ynorm = sqrt(y1*y1 + y2*y2);
    return inprod / (xnorm*ynorm);
}
```

```

|| #pragma omp declare simd uniform(x1,x2,y1,y2) linear(i)
|| double csa(double *x1,double *x2,double *y1,double *y2, int i) {
||     double
||         inprod = x1[i]*x2[i]+y1[i]*y2[i],
||         xnorm = sqrt(x1[i]*x1[i] + x2[i]*x2[i]),
||         ynorm = sqrt(y1[i]*y1[i] + y2[i]*y2[i]);
||     return inprod / (xnorm*ynorm);
|| }

```

For the full source of this example, see section [27.1.2](#)

Compiling this the regular way

```

# parameter 1(x1): %xmm0
# parameter 2(x2): %xmm1
# parameter 3(y1): %xmm2
# parameter 4(y2): %xmm3

movaps    %xmm0, %xmm5      5 <- x1
movaps    %xmm2, %xmm4      4 <- y1
mulsd    %xmm1, %xmm5      5 <- 5 * x2 = x1 * x2
mulsd    %xmm3, %xmm4      4 <- 4 * y2 = y1 * y2
mulsd    %xmm0, %xmm0      0 <- 0 * 0 = x1 * x1
mulsd    %xmm1, %xmm1      1 <- 1 * 1 = x2 * x2
addsd    %xmm4, %xmm5      5 <- 5 + 4 = x1*x2 + y1*y2
mulsd    %xmm2, %xmm2      2 <- 2 * 2 = y1 * y1
mulsd    %xmm3, %xmm3      3 <- 3 * 3 = y2 * y2
addsd    %xmm1, %xmm0      0 <- 0 + 1 = x1*x1 + x2*x2
addsd    %xmm3, %xmm2      2 <- 2 + 3 = y1*y1 + y2*y2
sqrtsd   %xmm0, %xmm0      0 <- sqrt(0) = sqrt( x1*x1 + x2*x2 )
sqrtsd   %xmm2, %xmm2      2 <- sqrt(2) = sqrt( y1*y1 + y2*y2 )

```

which uses the scalar instruction `mulsd`: multiply scalar double precision.

With a `declare SIMD` directive:

```

movaps    %xmm0, %xmm7
movaps    %xmm2, %xmm4
mulpd    %xmm1, %xmm7
mulpd    %xmm3, %xmm4

```

which uses the vector instruction `mulpd`: multiply packed double precision, operating on 128-bit SSE2 registers.

Compiling for the *Intel Knight's Landing* gives more complicated code:

```

# parameter 1(x1): %xmm0
# parameter 2(x2): %xmm1
# parameter 3(y1): %xmm2
# parameter 4(y2): %xmm3

vmulpd    %xmm3, %xmm2, %xmm4          4 <- y1*y2
vmulpd    %xmm1, %xmm1, %xmm5          5 <- x1*x2
vbroadcastsd .L_2i10floatpacket.0(%rip), %zmm21
movl      $3, %eax                      set accumulator EAX
vbroadcastsd .L_2i10floatpacket.5(%rip), %zmm24

```

```

kmove     %eax, %k3
vmulpd   %xmm3, %xmm3, %xmm6
vfmadd231pd %xmm0, %xmm1, %xmm4
vfmadd231pd %xmm5, %xmm0, %xmm0
vmovaps   %zmm21, %zmm18
vmovapd   %zmm0, %zmm3{[%k3]{z}}
vfmadd231pd %xmm6, %xmm2, %xmm2
vpcmpgtq %zmm0, %zmm21, %k1{[%k3]}
vscalefpd .L_2il0floatpacket.1(%rip){1to8}, %zmm0, %zmm3{[%k1]} #25.26 c15
vmovaps   %zmm4, %zmm26
vmovapd   %zmm2, %zmm7{[%k3]{z}}
vpcmpgtq %zmm2, %zmm21, %k2{[%k3]}
vscalefpd .L_2il0floatpacket.1(%rip){1to8}, %zmm2, %zmm7{[%k2]} #25.26 c19
vrsqrt28pd %zmm3, %zmm16{[%k3]{z}}
vpxorq    %zmm4, %zmm4, %zmm26{[%k3]}
vrsqrt28pd %zmm7, %zmm20{[%k3]{z}}
vmulpd   {rn-sae}, %zmm3, %zmm16, %zmm19{[%k3]{z}} #25.26 c27 stall 2
vscalefpd .L_2il0floatpacket.2(%rip){1to8}, %zmm16, %zmm17{[%k3]{z}} #25.26 c27
vmulpd   {rn-sae}, %zmm7, %zmm20, %zmm23{[%k3]{z}} #25.26 c29
vscalefpd .L_2il0floatpacket.2(%rip){1to8}, %zmm20, %zmm22{[%k3]{z}} #25.26 c29
vfnmadd231pd {rn-sae}, %zmm17, %zmm19, %zmm18{[%k3]}
vfnmadd231pd {rn-sae}, %zmm22, %zmm23, %zmm21{[%k3]}
vfmadd231pd {rn-sae}, %zmm19, %zmm18, %zmm19{[%k3]}
vfmadd231pd {rn-sae}, %zmm23, %zmm21, %zmm23{[%k3]}
vfmadd213pd {rn-sae}, %zmm17, %zmm17, %zmm18{[%k3]}
vfnmadd231pd {rn-sae}, %zmm19, %zmm19, %zmm3{[%k3]}
vfmadd213pd {rn-sae}, %zmm22, %zmm22, %zmm21{[%k3]}
vfnmadd231pd {rn-sae}, %zmm23, %zmm23, %zmm7{[%k3]} #25.26 c53
vfmadd213pd %zmm19, %zmm18, %zmm3{[%k3]} #25.26 c57 stall 1
vfmadd213pd %zmm23, %zmm21, %zmm7{[%k3]} #25.26 c59
vscalefpd .L_2il0floatpacket.3(%rip){1to8}, %zmm3, %zmm3{[%k1]} #25.26 c63 stall 1
vscalefpd .L_2il0floatpacket.3(%rip){1to8}, %zmm7, %zmm7{[%k2]} #25.26 c65
vfixupimmpd $112, .L_2il0floatpacket.4(%rip){1to8}, %zmm0, %zmm3{[%k3]} #25.26 c65
vfixupimmpd $112, .L_2il0floatpacket.4(%rip){1to8}, %zmm2, %zmm7{[%k3]} #25.26 c67
vmulpd   %xmm7, %xmm3, %xmm0
vmovaps   %zmm0, %zmm27
vmovaps   %zmm0, %zmm25
vrcp28pd  {sae}, %zmm0, %zmm27{[%k3]}
vfnmadd213pd {rn-sae}, %zmm24, %zmm27, %zmm25{[%k3]} #25.26 c89 stall 3
vfmadd213pd {rn-sae}, %zmm27, %zmm25, %zmm27{[%k3]} #25.26 c95 stall 2
vcmpdd   $8, %zmm26, %zmm27, %k1{[%k3]} #25.26 c101 stall 2
vmulpd   %zmm27, %zmm4, %zmm1{[%k3]{z}} #25.26 c101
kortestw %k1, %k1 #25.26 c103
je       ..B1.3      # Prob 25%
vdivpd   %zmm0, %zmm4, %zmm1{[%k1]} #25.26 c3 stall 1
vmovaps   %xmm1, %xmm0 #25.26 c77
ret      #25.26 c79

|| #pragma omp declare simd uniform(op1) linear(k) notinbranch
||   double SqrtMul(double *op1, double op2, int k) {

```

```
    ||     return (sqrt(op1[k]) * sqrt(op2));  
|| }
```

27.1 Sources used in this chapter

27.1.1 Listing of code header

27.1.2 Listing of code code/omp/c/simd/tools.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <math.h>

#pragma omp declare simd
double cs(double x1,double x2,double y1,double y2) {
    double
        inprod = x1*x2+y1*y2,
        xnorm = sqrt(x1*x1 + x2*x2),
        ynorm = sqrt(y1*y1 + y2*y2);
    return inprod / (xnorm*ynorm);
}

#pragma omp declare simd uniform(x1,x2,y1,y2) linear(i)
double csa(double *x1,double *x2,double *y1,double *y2, int i) {
    double
        inprod = x1[i]*x2[i]+y1[i]*y2[i],
        xnorm = sqrt(x1[i]*x1[i] + x2[i]*x2[i]),
        ynorm = sqrt(y1[i]*y1[i] + y2[i]*y2[i]);
    return inprod / (xnorm*ynorm);
}
```

Chapter 28

OpenMP topic: Offloading

This chapter explains the mechanisms for offloading work to a Graphics Processing Unit (GPU).

The memory of a processor and that of an attached GPU are not *coherent*: there are separate memory spaces and writing data in one is not automatically reflected in the other.

OpenMP transfers data (or maps it) when you enter an `target` construct.

```
|| #pragma omp target
|| {
||   // do stuff on the GPU
|| }
```

You can test whether the target region is indeed executed on a device with `omp_is_initial_device`:

```
|| #pragma omp target
||   if (omp_is_initial_device()) printf("Offloading failed\n");
```

28.0.1 Targets and tasks

The `target` clause causes OpenMP to create a *target task*. This is a task running on the host, dedicated to managing the offloaded region.

The `target` region is executed by a new *initial task*. This is distinct from the initial task that executes the main program.

The task that created the target task is called the *generating task*.

By default, the generating task is blocked while the task on the device is running, but adding the `targetnowait` clause makes it asynchronous. This requires a `taskwait` directive to synchronize host and device.

28.1 Data on the device

- Scalars are treated as `firstprivate`, that is, they are copied in but not out.
- Stack arrays `tofrom`.
- Heap arrays are not mapped by default.

For explicit mapping with `map`:

```
|| #pragma omp target map(...)  
{  
    // do stuff on the GPU  
}
```

The following map options exist:

- `map(to: x,y,z)` copy from host to device when entering the target region.
- `map(from: x,y,z)` copy from device to host when exiting the target region.
- `map(tofrom: x,y,z)` is equivalent to combining the previous two.
- `map(allo: x,y,z)` allocates data on the device.

Fortran note 22: Array sizes in map clause. If the compiler can deduce the array bounds and size, it is not necessary to specify them in the ‘map’ clause.

Data transfer to a device is probably slow, so mapping the data at the start of an offloaded section of code is probably not the best idea. Additionally, in many cases data will stay resident on the device throughout several iterations of, for instance, a time-stepping Partial Differential Equation (PDE) solver. For such reasons, it is possible to move data onto, and off from, the device explicitly, using the `enter` data and `exit` data directives.

```
|| #pragma omp target enter data map(to: x,y)  
|| #pragma omp target  
{  
    // do something  
}  
|| #pragma omp target enter data map(from: x,y)
```

Also update `to` (synchronize data from host to device), update `from` (synchronize data to host from device).

28.2 Execution on the device

For parallel execution of a loop on the device use the `teams` clause:

```
|| #pragma omp target teams distribute parallel do
```

On GPU devices and the like, there is a structure to threads:

- threads are grouped in `teams`, and they can be synchronized only within these teams;
- teams are groups in `leagues`, and no synchronization between leagues is possible inside a `target` region.

The combination `teams distribute` splits the iteration space over teams. By default a static schedule is used, but the option `dist_schedule` can be used to specify a different one. However, this combination only gives the chunk of space to the master thread in each team. Next we need `parallel for` or `parallel do` to spread the chunk over the threads in the team.

When creating teams, it's often useful to limit the number of threads in each with `thread_limit`. This can also be set with the `OMP_THREAD_LIMIT` environment variable. The value can be queried with `omp_get_thread_limit`.

28.3 Sources used in this chapter

28.3.1 Listing of code header

Chapter 29

OpenMP remaining topics

29.1 Runtime functions, environment variables, internal control variables

OpenMP has a number of settings that can be set through *environment variables*, and both queried and set through *library routines*. These settings are called *Internal Control Variables (ICVs)*: an OpenMP implementation behaves as if there is an internal variable storing this setting.

The runtime functions are:

- Counting threads and cores: `omp_set_num_threads`, `omp_get_num_threads`, `omp_get_max_threads`, `omp_get_num_procs`; see section 17.5.
- Querying the current thread: `omp_get_thread_num`, `omp_in_parallel`
- `omp_set_dynamic`
- `omp_get_dynamic`
- `omp_set_nested`
- `omp_get_nested`
- `omp_get_wtime`
- `omp_get_wtick`
- `omp_set_schedule`
- `omp_get_schedule`
- `omp_set_max_active_levels`
- `omp_get_max_active_levels`
- `omp_get_thread_limit`
- `omp_get_level`
- `omp_get_active_level`
- `omp_get_ancestor_thread_num`
- `omp_get_team_size`

Here are the OpenMP *environment variables*:

- `OMP_CANCELLATION` Set whether cancellation is activated; see section 18.3.
- `OMP_DISPLAY_ENV` Show OpenMP version and environment variables
- `OMP_DEFAULT_DEVICE` Set the device used in target regions
- `OMP_DYNAMIC` Dynamic adjustment of threads
- `OMP_MAX_ACTIVE_LEVELS` Set the maximum number of nested parallel regions; section 18.2.
- `OMP_MAX_TASK_PRIORITY` Set the maximum task priority value; section 24.5.2.
- `OMP_NESTED` Nested parallel regions
- `OMP_NUM_THREADS` Specifies the number of threads to use
- `OMP_PROC_BIND` Whether threads may be moved between CPUs; section 25.1.

- **OMP_PLACES** Specifies on which CPUs the threads should be placed; section 25.1.
- **OMP_STACKSIZE** Set default thread stack size
- **OMP_SCHEDULE** How threads are scheduled
- **OMP_THREAD_LIMIT** Set the maximum number of threads; see section 28.2.
- **OMP_WAIT_POLICY** How waiting threads are handled; ICV `wait-policy-var`. Values: ACTIVE for keeping threads spinning, PASSIVE for possibly yielding the processor when threads are waiting.

There are 4 ICVs that behave as if each thread has its own copy of them. The default is implementation-defined unless otherwise noted.

- It may be possible to adjust dynamically the number of threads for a parallel region. Variable: **OMP_DYNAMIC**; routines: `omp_set_dynamic`, `omp_get_dynamic`.
- If a code contains *nested parallel regions*, the inner regions may create new teams, or they may be executed by the single thread that encounters them. Variable: **OMP_NESTED**; routines `omp_set_nested`, `omp_get_nested`. Allowed values are TRUE and FALSE; the default is false.
- The number of threads used for an encountered parallel region can be controlled. Variable: **OMP_NUM_THREADS**; routines `omp_set_num_threads`, `omp_get_max_threads`.
- The schedule for a parallel loop can be set. Variable: **OMP_SCHEDULE**; routines `omp_set_schedule`, `omp_get_schedule`.

Nonobvious syntax:

```
export OMP_SCHEDULE="static,100"
```

Other settings:

- **omp_get_num_threads**: query the number of threads active at the current place in the code; this can be lower than what was set with `omp_set_num_threads`. For a meaningful answer, this should be done in a parallel region.
- **omp_get_thread_num**
- **omp_in_parallel**: test if you are in a parallel region.
- **omp_get_num_procs**: query the physical number of cores available.

Other environment variables:

- **OMP_STACKSIZE** controls the amount of space that is allocated as per-thread *stack*; the space for private variables.
- **OMP_WAIT_POLICY** determines the behavior of threads that wait, for instance for *critical section*:
 - ACTIVE puts the thread in a *spin-lock*, where it actively checks whether it can continue;
 - PASSIVE puts the thread to sleep until the Operating System (OS) wakes it up.
 The ‘active’ strategy uses CPU while the thread is waiting; on the other hand, activating it after the wait is instantaneous. With the ‘passive’ strategy, the thread does not use any CPU while waiting, but activating it again is expensive. Thus, the passive strategy only makes sense if threads will be waiting for a (relatively) long time.
- **OMP_PROC_BIND** with values TRUE and FALSE can bind threads to a processor. On the one hand, doing so can minimize data movement; on the other hand, it may increase load imbalance.

29.2 Timing

OpenMP has a wall clock timer routine `omp_get_wtime`

```
|| double omp_get_wtime(void);
```

The starting point is arbitrary and is different for each program run; however, in one run it is identical for all threads. This timer has a resolution given by `omp_get_wtick`.

Exercise 29.1. Use the timing routines to demonstrate speedup from using multiple threads.

- Write a code segment that takes a measurable amount of time, that is, it should take a multiple of the tick time.
- Write a parallel loop and measure the speedup. You can for instance do this

```

for (int use_threads=1; use_threads<=nthreads; use_threads++) {
    #pragma omp parallel for num_threads(use_threads)
    for (int i=0; i<nthreads; i++) {
        ....
    }
    if (use_threads==1)
        time1 = tend-tstart;
    else // compute speedup
}

```

- In order to prevent the compiler from optimizing your loop away, let the body compute a result and use a reduction to preserve these results.

29.3 Thread safety

With OpenMP it is relatively easy to take existing code and make it parallel by introducing parallel sections. If you're careful to declare the appropriate variables shared and private, this may work fine. However, your code may include calls to library routines that include a *race condition*; such code is said not to be *thread-safe*.

For example a routine

```

static int isave;
int next_one() {
    int i = isave;
    isave += 1;
    return i;
}

...
for (....) {
    int ivalue = next_one();
}

```

has a clear race condition, as the iterations of the loop may get different `next_one` values, as they are supposed to, or not. This can be solved by using an *critical* pragma for the `next_one` call; another solution is to use an `threadprivate` declaration for `isave`. This is for instance the right solution if the `next_one` routine implements a *random number generator*.

29.4 Performance and tuning

The performance of an OpenMP code can be influenced by the following.

Amdahl effects Your code needs to have enough parts that are parallel (see HPC book, section-[2.2.3](#)). Sequential parts may be sped up by having them executed redundantly on each thread, since that keeps data locally.

Dynamism Creating a thread team takes time. In practice, a team is not created and deleted for each parallel region, but creating teams of different sizes, or recursive thread creation, may introduce overhead.

Load imbalance Even if your program is parallel, you need to worry about load balance. In the case of a parallel loop you can set the `schedule` clause to `dynamic`, which evens out the work, but may cause increased communication.

Communication Cache coherence causes communication. Threads should, as much as possible, refer to their own data.

- Threads are likely to read from each other's data. That is largely unavoidable.
- Threads writing to each other's data should be avoided: it may require synchronization, and it causes coherence traffic.
- If threads can migrate, data that was local at one time is no longer local after migration.
- Reading data from one socket that was allocated on another socket is inefficient; see section 25.2.

Affinity Both data and execution threads can be bound to a specific locale to some extent. Using local data is more efficient than remote data, so you want to use local data, and minimize the extent to which data or execution can move.

- See the above points about phenomena that cause communication.
- Section 25.1.1 describes how you can specify the binding of threads to places. There can, but does not need, to be an effect on affinity. For instance, if an OpenMP thread can migrate between hardware threads, cached data will stay local. Leaving an OpenMP thread completely free to migrate can be advantageous for load balancing, but you should only do that if data affinity is of lesser importance.
- Static loop schedules have a higher chance of using data that has affinity with the place of execution, but they are worse for load balancing. On the other hand, the `nowait` clause can alleviate some of the problems with static loop schedules.

Binding You can choose to put OpenMP threads close together or to spread them apart. Having them close together makes sense if they use lots of shared data. Spreading them apart may increase bandwidth. (See the examples in section 25.1.2.)

Synchronization Barriers are a form of synchronization. They are expensive by themselves, and they expose load imbalance. Implicit barriers happen at the end of worksharing constructs; they can be removed with `nowait`.

Critical sections imply a loss of parallelism, but they are also slow as they are realized through *operating system* functions. These are often quite costly, taking many thousands of cycles. Critical sections should be used only if the parallel work far outweighs it.

29.5 Accelerators

In OpenMP-4.0 there is support for offloading work to an *accelerator* or *co-processor*:

```
|| #pragma omp target [clauses]
```

with clauses such as

- `data`: place data
- `update`: make data consistent between host and device

29.6 Tools interface

The OpenMP-5.0 defines a tools interface. This means that routines can be defined that get called by the OpenMP runtime. For instance, the following example defines callback that are evaluated when OpenMP is initialized and finalized, thereby giving the runtime for the application.

```
int ompt_initialize(ompt_function_lookup_t lookup, int initial_device_num,
                     ompt_data_t *tool_data) {
    printf("libomp init time: %f\n",
           omp_get_wtime() - *(double *) (tool_data->ptr));
    *(double *) (tool_data->ptr) = omp_get_wtime();
    return 1; // success: activates tool
}

void ompt_finalize(ompt_data_t *tool_data) {
    printf("application runtime: %f\n",
           omp_get_wtime() - *(double *) (tool_data->ptr));
}

ompt_start_tool_result_t *ompt_start_tool(unsigned int omp_version,
                                         const char *runtime_version) {
    static double time = 0; // static defintion needs constant assigment
    time = omp_get_wtime();
    static ompt_start_tool_result_t ompt_start_tool_result = {
        &ompt_initialize, &ompt_finalize, {.ptr = &time}};
    return &ompt_start_tool_result; // success: registers tool
}
```

(Example courtesy of <https://git.rwth-aachen.de/OpenMPTools/OMPT-Examples>.)

29.7 OpenMP standards

Here is the correspondence between the value of OpenMP versions (given by the `_OPENMP` macro) and the standard versions:

- 201511 OpenMP-4.5,
- 201611 Technical report 4: information about the OpenMP-5.0 but not yet mandated.
- 201811 OpenMP-5.0
- 202011 OpenMP-5.1,
- 202111 OpenMP-5.2.

29.8 Sources used in this chapter

29.8.1 Listing of code header

Chapter 30

OpenMP Review

30.1 Concepts review

30.1.1 Basic concepts

- process / thread / thread team
- threads / cores / tasks
- directives / library functions / environment variables

30.1.2 Parallel regions

execution by a team

30.1.3 Work sharing

- loop / sections / single / workshare
- implied barrier
- loop scheduling, reduction
- sections
- single vs master
- (F) workshare

30.1.4 Data scope

- shared vs private, C vs F
- loop variables and reduction variables
- default declaration
- firstprivate, lastprivate

30.1.5 Synchronization

- barriers, implied and explicit
- nowait
- critical sections
- locks, difference with critical

30.1.6 Tasks

- generation vs execution
- dependencies

30.2 Review questions

30.2.1 Directives

What do the following program output?

```
int main() {
    printf("procs %d\n",
        omp_get_num_procs());
    printf("threads %d\n",
        omp_get_num_threads());
    printf("num %d\n",
        omp_get_thread_num());
    return 0;
}
```

```
int main() {
#pragma omp parallel
{
    printf("procs %d\n",
        omp_get_num_procs());
    printf("threads %d\n",
        omp_get_num_threads());
    printf("num %d\n",
        omp_get_thread_num());
}
return 0;
}
```

```
Program main
use omp_lib
print *, "Procs:", &
    omp_get_num_procs()
print *, "Threads:", &
    omp_get_num_threads()
print *, "Num:", &
    omp_get_thread_num()
End Program
```

```
Program main
use omp_lib
!$OMP parallel
print *, "Procs:", &
    omp_get_num_procs()
print *, "Threads:", &
    omp_get_num_threads()
print *, "Num:", &
    omp_get_thread_num()
!$OMP end parallel
End Program
```

30.2.2 Parallelism

Can the following loops be parallelized? If so, how? (Assume that all arrays are already filled in, and that there are no out-of-bounds errors.)

```
// variant #1
for (i=0; i<N; i++) {
    x[i] = a[i]+b[i+1];
    a[i] = 2*x[i] + c[i+1];
}
```

```
// variant #3
for (i=1; i<N; i++) {
    x[i] = a[i]+b[i+1];
    a[i] = 2*x[i-1] + c[i+1];
}
```

```
// variant #2
for (i=0; i<N; i++) {
    x[i] = a[i]+b[i+1];
    a[i] = 2*x[i+1] + c[i+1];
}
```

```
// variant #4
for (i=1; i<N; i++) {
    x[i] = a[i]+b[i+1];
    a[i+1] = 2*x[i-1] + c[i+1];
}
```

```
! variant #1
do i=1,N
    x(i) = a(i)+b(i+1)
    a(i) = 2*x(i) + c(i+1)
end do
```

```
! variant #3
do i=2,N
    x(i) = a(i)+b(i+1)
    a(i) = 2*x(i-1) + c(i+1)
end do
```

```
! variant #2
do i=1,N
    x(i) = a(i)+b(i+1)
    a(i) = 2*x(i+1) + c(i+1)
end do
```

```
! variant #3
do i=2,N
    x(i) = a(i)+b(i+1)
    a(i+1) = 2*x(i-1) + c(i+1)
end do
```

30.2.3 Data and synchronization

30.2.3.1

What is the output of the following fragments? Assume that there are four threads.

```
// variant #1
int nt;
#pragma omp parallel
{
    nt = omp_get_thread_num();
    printf("thread number: %d\n",nt);
}
```

```
// variant #2
int nt;
#pragma omp parallel private(nt)
{
    nt = omp_get_thread_num();
    printf("thread number: %d\n",nt);
}
```

```
// variant #3
int nt;
#pragma omp parallel
{
#pragma omp single
{
    nt = omp_get_thread_num();
    printf("thread number: %d\n",nt);
}
}
```

```
// variant #4
int nt;
#pragma omp parallel
{
#pragma omp master
{
    nt = omp_get_thread_num();
    printf("thread number: %d\n",nt);
}
}
```

```
// variant #5
int nt;
#pragma omp parallel
{
#pragma omp critical
{
    nt = omp_get_thread_num();
    printf("thread number: %d\n",nt);
}
}
```

```
! variant #1
integer nt
!$OMP parallel
    nt = omp_get_thread_num()
    print *, "thread number:",nt
!$OMP end parallel
```

```
nt = omp_get_thread_num()
print *, "thread number:",nt
!$OMP end single
!$OMP end parallel
```

```
! variant #2
integer nt
!$OMP parallel private(nt)
    nt = omp_get_thread_num()
    print *, "thread number:",nt
!$OMP end parallel
```

```
! variant #3
integer nt
!$OMP parallel
!$OMP single
```

```

! variant #4
integer nt
!$OMP parallel
!$OMP master
    nt = omp_get_thread_num()
    print *, "thread number:",nt
!$OMP end master
!$OMP end parallel

```

```

! variant #5
integer nt
!$OMP parallel
!$OMP critical
    nt = omp_get_thread_num()
    print *, "thread number:",nt
!$OMP end critical
!$OMP end parallel

```

30.2.3.2

The following is an attempt to parallelize a serial code. Assume that all variables and arrays are defined. What errors and potential problems do you see in this code? How would you fix them?

```

#pragma omp parallel
{
    x = f();
    #pragma omp for
    for (i=0; i<N; i++)
        y[i] = g(x,i);
    z = h(y);
}

```

```

!$OMP parallel
    x = f()
    !$OMP do
        do i=1,N
            y(i) = g(x,i)
        end do
    !$OMP end do
    z = h(y)
!$OMP end parallel

```

Solution to exercise 30.0.

- *x needs to be private or the computation of f needs to be single*
- *if x is private, there needs to be a barrier before the loop*
- *note 1: if the f computation is single, there is automatically a barrier*
- *note 2: at the end of a loop there is always a barrier, so none needs to be inserted*

30.2.3.3

Assume two threads. What does the following program output?

```
int a;
#pragma omp parallel private(a) {
    ...
    a = 0;
    #pragma omp for
    for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++)
    {
        #pragma omp atomic
        a++; }
    #pragma omp single
    printf("a=%e\n",a);
}
```

30.2.4 Reductions

30.2.4.1

Is the following code correct? Is it efficient? If not, can you improve it?

```
#pragma omp parallel shared(r)
{
    int x;
    x = f(omp_get_thread_num());
#pragma omp critical
    r += f(x);
}
```

30.2.4.2

Compare two fragments:

```
// variant 1
#pragma omp parallel reduction(+:s)
#pragma omp for
for (i=0; i<N; i++)
    s += f(i);
```

```
// variant 2
#pragma omp parallel
#pragma omp for reduction(+:s)
for (i=0; i<N; i++)
    s += f(i);
```

```
! variant 1
!$OMP parallel reduction(+:s)
!$OMP do
do i=1,N
    s += f(i);
end do
!$OMP end do
!$OMP end parallel
```

```
! variant 2
!$OMP parallel
!$OMP do reduction(+:s)
do i=1,N
    s += f(i);
end do
!$OMP end do
!$OMP end parallel
```

Do they compute the same thing?

30.2.5 Barriers

Are the following two code fragments well defined?

```
#pragma omp parallel
{
#pragma omp for
for (mytid=0; mytid<nthreads; mytid++)
    x[mytid] = some_calculation();
#pragma omp for
for (mytid=0; mytid<nthreads-1; mytid++)
    y[mytid] = x[mytid]+x[mytid+1];
}
```

```
#pragma omp parallel
{
#pragma omp for
for (mytid=0; mytid<nthreads; mytid++)
    x[mytid] = some_calculation();
#pragma omp for nowait
for (mytid=0; mytid<nthreads-1; mytid++)
    y[mytid] = x[mytid]+x[mytid+1];
}
```

30.2.6 Data scope

The following program is supposed to initialize as many rows of the array as there are threads.

```
int main() {
    int i, icount, iarray[100][100];
    icount = -1;
#pragma omp parallel private(i)
    {
#pragma omp critical
        { icount++; }
        for (i=0; i<100; i++)
            iarray[icount][i] = 1;
    }
    return 0;
}
```

```
Program main
integer :: i, icount, iarray(100,100)
icount = 0
!$OMP parallel private(i)
!$OMP critical
icount = icount + 1
!$OMP end critical
do i=1,100
    iarray(icount,i) = 1
end do
!$OMP end parallel
End program
```

Describe the behavior of the program, with argumentation,

- as given;
- if you add a clause `private(icount)` to the `parallel` directive;
- if you add a clause `firstprivate(icount)`.

What do you think of this solution:

```
#pragma omp parallel private(i)
    ↪shared(icount)
{
#pragma omp critical
    { icount++;
        for (i=0; i<100; i++)
            iarray[icount][i] = 1;
    }
}
```

```
    ↪return 0;
}
```

```
!$OMP parallel private(i) shared(icount)
 !$OMP critical
   icount = icount+1
   do i=1,100
```

```
iarray(icount,i) = 1
 end do
 !$OMP critical
 !$OMP end parallel
```

30.2.7 Tasks

Fix two things in the following example:

```
#pragma omp parallel
#pragma omp single
{
    int x,y,z;
#pragma omp task
    x = f();
#pragma omp task
    y = g();
#pragma omp task
    z = h();
    printf("sum=%d\n",x+y+z);
}
```

```
integer :: x,y,z
 !$OMP parallel
 !$OMP single

 !$OMP task
    x = f()
 !$OMP end task

 !$OMP task
    y = g()
 !$OMP end task

 !$OMP task
    z = h()
 !$OMP end task

 print *, "sum=",x+y+z
 !$OMP end single
 !$OMP end parallel
```

Solution to exercise 30.0.

- x, y, z need to be shared;
- `taskwait` missing

30.2.8 Scheduling

Compare these two fragments. Do they compute the same result? What can you say about their efficiency?

```
#pragma omp parallel
#pragma omp single
{
    for (i=0; i<N; i++) {
        #pragma omp task
        x[i] = f(i)
    }
    #pragma omp taskwait
}
```

```
#pragma omp parallel
#pragma omp for schedule(dynamic)
{
    for (i=0; i<N; i++) {
        x[i] = f(i)
    }
}
```

How would you make the second loop more efficient? Can you do something similar for the first loop?

30.3 Sources used in this chapter

30.3.1 Listing of code header

Chapter 31

OpenMP Examples

31.1 N-body problems

So-called *N-body problems* come up with we describe the interactions between a, probably large, number of entities under a force such as gravity. Examples are molecular dynamics and star clusters.

While clever algorithms exist that take into account the decay of the force over distance, we here consider the naive algorithm that explicitly computes all interactions.

A particle has x, y coordinates and a mass c . For two particles $(x_1, y_1, c_1), (x_2, y_2, c_2)$ the force on particle 1 from particle 2 is:

$$\vec{F}_{12} = \frac{c_1 \cdot c_2}{\sqrt{(x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2}} \cdot \vec{r}_{12}$$

where \vec{r}_{12} is the unit vector pointing from particle 2 to 1. With n particles, each particle i feels a force

$$\vec{F}_i = \sum_{j \neq i} \vec{F}_{ij}.$$

Let's start with a couple of building blocks.

```
// molecularstruct.c
struct point{ double x,y; double c; };
struct force{ double x,y; double f; };

/* Force on p1 from p2 */
struct force force_calc( struct point p1,struct point p2 ) {
    double dx = p2.x - p1.x, dy = p2.y - p1.y;
    double f = p1.c * p2.c / sqrt( dx*dx + dy*dy );
    struct force exert = {dx,dy,f};
    return exert;
}
```

Force accumulation:

```
void add_force( struct force *f,struct force g ) {
    f->x += g.x; f->y += g.y; f->f += g.f;
}
void sub_force( struct force *f,struct force g ) {
    f->x -= g.x; f->y -= g.y; f->f += g.f;
}
```

31. OpenMP Examples

In C++ we can have a class with an addition operator and such:

```
// molecular.cxx
class force {
private:
    double _x{0.},_y{0.}; double _f{0.};
public:
    force() {};
    force(double x,double y,double f)
        : _x(x),_y(y),_f(f) {};
};

force operator+( const force& g ) {
    return { _x+g._x, _y+g._y, _f+g._f };
}
```

For reference, this is the sequential code:

```
for (int ip=0; ip<N; ip++) {
    for (int jp=ip+1; jp<N; jp++) {
        struct force f = force_calc(points[ip],points[jp]);
        add_force( forces+ip,f );
        sub_force( forces+jp,f );
    }
}
```

Here \vec{F}_{ij} is only computed for $j > i$, and then added to both \vec{F}_i and \vec{F}_j .

In C++ we use the overloaded operators:

```
for (int ip=0; ip<N; ip++) {
    for (int jp=ip+1; jp<N; jp++) {
        force f = points[ip].force_calc(points[jp]);
        forces[ip] += f;
        forces[jp] -= f;
    }
}
```

Exercise 31.1. Argue that both the outer loop and the inner are not directly parallelizable.

Solution to exercise 31.1. *The outer loop has conflicting jp writes, the inner loop has conflicting ip writes.*

We will now explore a number of different strategies for parallelization. All tests are done on the TACC Frontera cluster, which has dual-socket Intel Cascade Lake nodes, with a total of 56 cores. Our code uses 10 thousand particles, and each interaction evaluation is repeated 10 times to eliminate cache loading effects.

31.1.1 Solution 1: no conflicting writes

In our first attempt at an efficient parallel code, we compute the full N^2 interactions. One solution would be to compute the \vec{F}_{ij} interactions for all i, j , so that there are no conflicting writes.

```
for (int ip=0; ip<N; ip++) {
    struct force sumforce;
    sumforce.x=0.; sumforce.y=0.; sumforce.f=0.;

#pragma omp parallel for reduction(+:sumforce)
    for (int jp=0; jp<N; jp++) {
```

```

    if (ip==jp) continue;
    struct force f = force_calc(points[ip],points[jp]);
    sumforce.x += f.x; sumforce.y += f.y; sumforce.f += f.f;
} // end parallel jp loop
add_force( forces+ip, sumforce );
} // end ip loop
}

```

In C++ we use the fact that we can reduce on any class that has an addition operator:

```

for (int ip=0; ip<N; ip++) {
    force sumforce;
#pragma omp parallel for reduction(+:sumforce)
    for (int jp=0; jp<N; jp++) {
        if (ip==jp) continue;
        force f = points[ip].force_calc(points[jp]);
        sumforce += f;
    } // end parallel jp loop
    forces[ip] += sumforce;
} // end ip loop
}

```

This increases the scalar work by a factor of two, but surprisingly, on a single thread the run time improves: we measure a speedup of 6.51 over the supposedly ‘optimal’ code.

Exercise 31.2. What would be an explanation?

Solution to exercise 31.2. *The ip accesses have better cacheline and TLB usage.*

However, increasing the number of threads has limited benefits for this strategy. Figure 31.1 shows that the speedup is not only sublinear: it actually decreases with increasing core count.

Exercise 31.3. What would be an explanation?

Solution to exercise 31.3. *The loop is too short to keep a large number of cores happy.*

31.1.2 Solution 2: using atomics

Next we try to parallelize the outer loop.

```

#pragma omp parallel for schedule(guided,4)
    for (int ip=0; ip<N; ip++) {
        for (int jp=ip+1; jp<N; jp++) {
            struct force f = force_calc(points[ip],points[jp]);
            add_force( forces+ip,f );
            sub_force( forces+jp,f );
        }
    }
}

```

To deal with the conflicting *jp* writes, we make the writes atomic:

```

void sub_force( struct force *f,struct force g ) {
#pragma omp atomic
    f->x -= g.x;
#pragma omp atomic
    f->y -= g.y;
#pragma omp atomic
    f->f += g.f;
}

```

This works fairly well, as figure 31.2 shows.

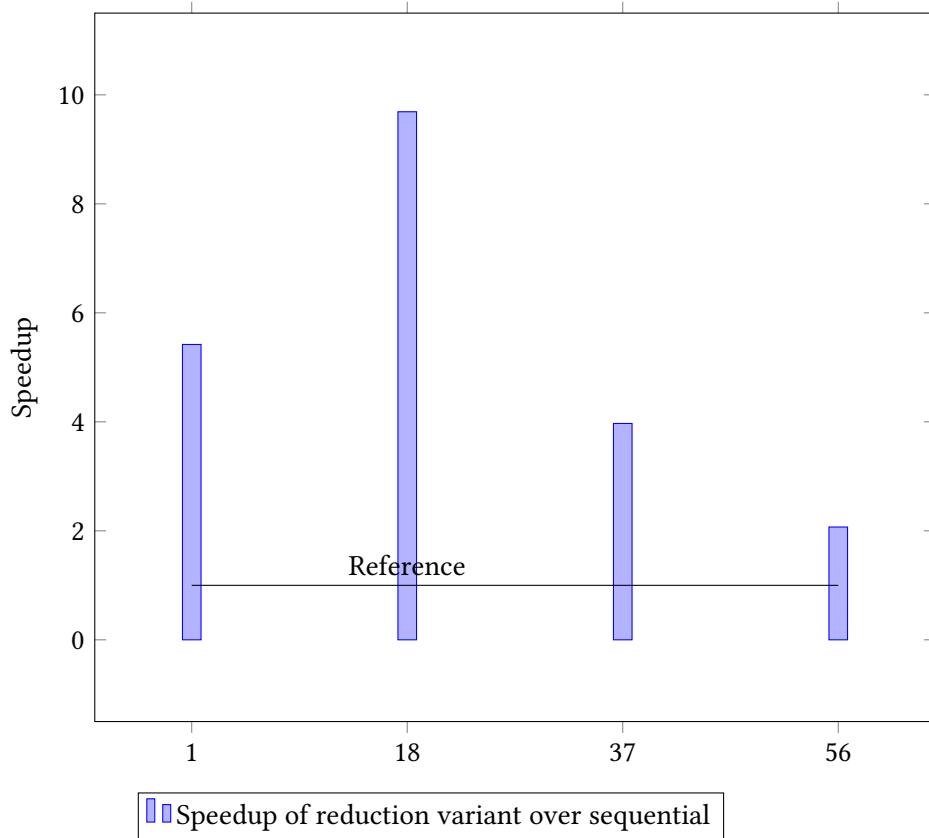


Figure 31.1: Speedup of reduction variant over sequential

31.1.3 Solution 3: all interactions atomic

But if we decide to use atomic updates, we can take the full square loop, collapse the two loops, and make every write atomic.

```
#pragma omp parallel for collapse(2)
    for (int ip=0; ip<N; ip++) {
        for (int jp=0; jp<N; jp++) {
            if (ip==jp) continue;
            struct force f = force_calc(points[ip], points[jp]);
            add_force( forces+ip, f );
        } // end parallel jp loop
    } // end ip loop
```

Figure 31.3 shows that this is pretty close to perfect.

Everything in one plot in figure 31.4.

31.2 Tree traversal

OpenMP tasks are a great way of handling trees.

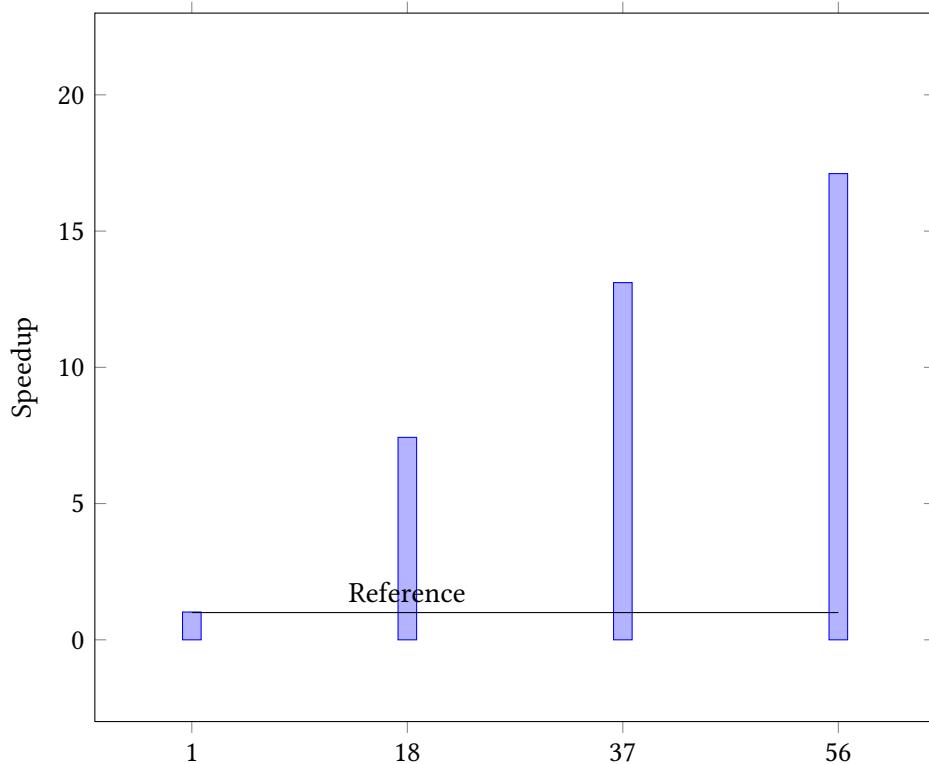


Figure 31.2: Speedup of triangular loop with atomic update

In *post-order tree traversal* you visit the subtrees before visiting the root. This is the traversal that you use to find summary information about a tree, for instance the sum of all nodes, and the sums of nodes of all subtrees:

```
for all children c do
    compute the sum  $s_c$ 
```

$$s \leftarrow \sum_c s_c$$

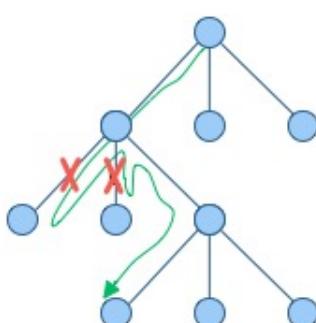
Another example is matrix factorization:

$$S = A_{33} - A_{31}A_{11}^{-1}A_{13} - A_{32}A_{22}^{-1}A_{23}$$

where the two inverses A_{11}^{-1}, A_{22}^{-1} can be computed independently and recursively.

31.3 Depth-first search

In this section we look at the ‘eight queens’ problem, as an example of *Depth First Search (DFS)*: is it possible to put eight queens on a chess board so that none of them threaten each other? With DFS, the search space of possibilities is



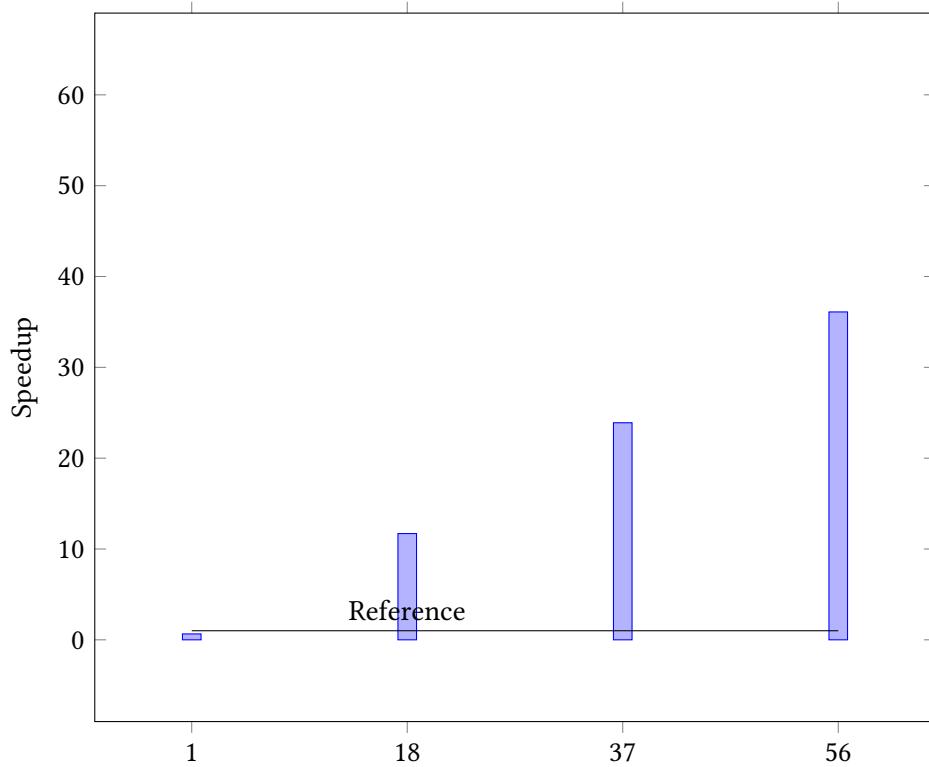


Figure 31.3: Speedup of atomic full interaction calculation

organized as a tree – each partial solution leads to several possibilities for the next steps – which is traversed in a particular manner: a chain of possibilities is extended as far as feasible, after which the search backtracks to the next chain.

The sequential implementation is easy enough. The main program fires off:

```
|| placement initial; initial.fill(empty);  
|| auto solution = place_queen(0,initial);
```

where I hope you can take the details on trust.

The recursive call then has this structure:

```
|| optional<placement> place_queen(int iqueen, const  
|| &placement& current) {  
||   for (int col=0; col<N; col++) {  
||     placement next = current;  
||     next.at(iqueen) = col;  
||     if (feasible(next)) {  
||       if (iqueen==N-1)  
||         return next;  
||       auto attempt = place_queen(iqueen+1,next);
```

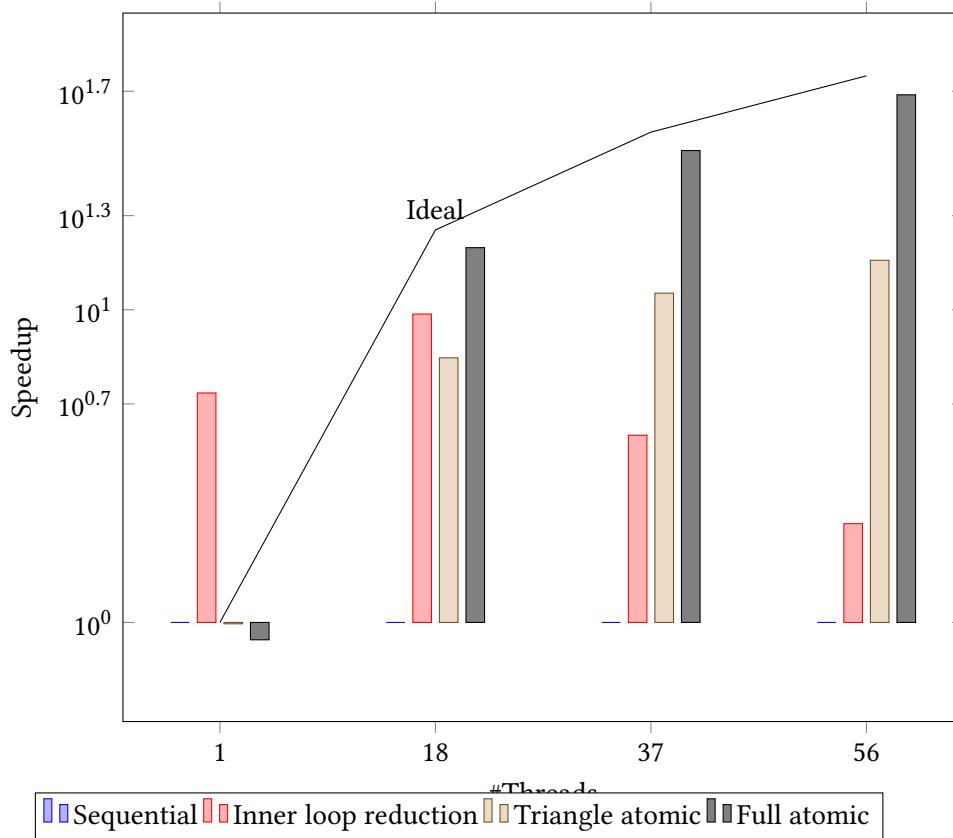


Figure 31.4: All strategies together

```

    if (attempt.has_value())
        return attempt;
    } // end if(feasible)
}
return {};
};
```

(This uses the C++17 *optional* header.) At each *i*queen level we

- go through a loop of all column positions;
- filter out positions that are not feasible;
- report success if this was the last level; or
- recursively continue the next level otherwise.

This problem seems a prime candidate for OpenMP tasks, so we start with the usual idiom for the main program:

```

placement initial; initial.fill(empty);
optional<placement> eightqueens;
#pragma omp parallel
#pragma omp single
eightqueens = place_queen(0,initial);
```

31. OpenMP Examples

We create a task for each column, and since they are in a loop we use `taskgroup` rather than `taskwait`.

```
// queens0.cxx
#pragma omp taskgroup
for (int col=0; col<N; col++) {
    placement next = current;
    next.at(iqueen) = col;
#pragma omp task firstprivate(next)
    if (feasible(next)) {
        // stuff
    } // end if(feasible)
}
```

However, the sequential program had `return` and `break` statements in the loop, which is not allowed in workshare constructs such as `taskgroup`. Therefore we introduce a return variable, declared as shared:

```
// queens0.cxx
optional<placement> result = {};
#pragma omp taskgroup
for (int col=0; col<N; col++) {
    placement next = current;
    next.at(iqueen) = col;
#pragma omp task firstprivate(next) shared(result)
    if (feasible(next)) {
        if (iqueen==N-1) {
            result = next;
        } else { // do next level
            auto attempt = place_queen(iqueen+1,next);
            if (attempt.has_value()) {
                result = attempt;
            }
        } // end if(iqueen==N-1)
    } // end if(feasible)
}
return result;
```

So that was easy, this computes the right solution, and it uses OpenMP tasks. Done?

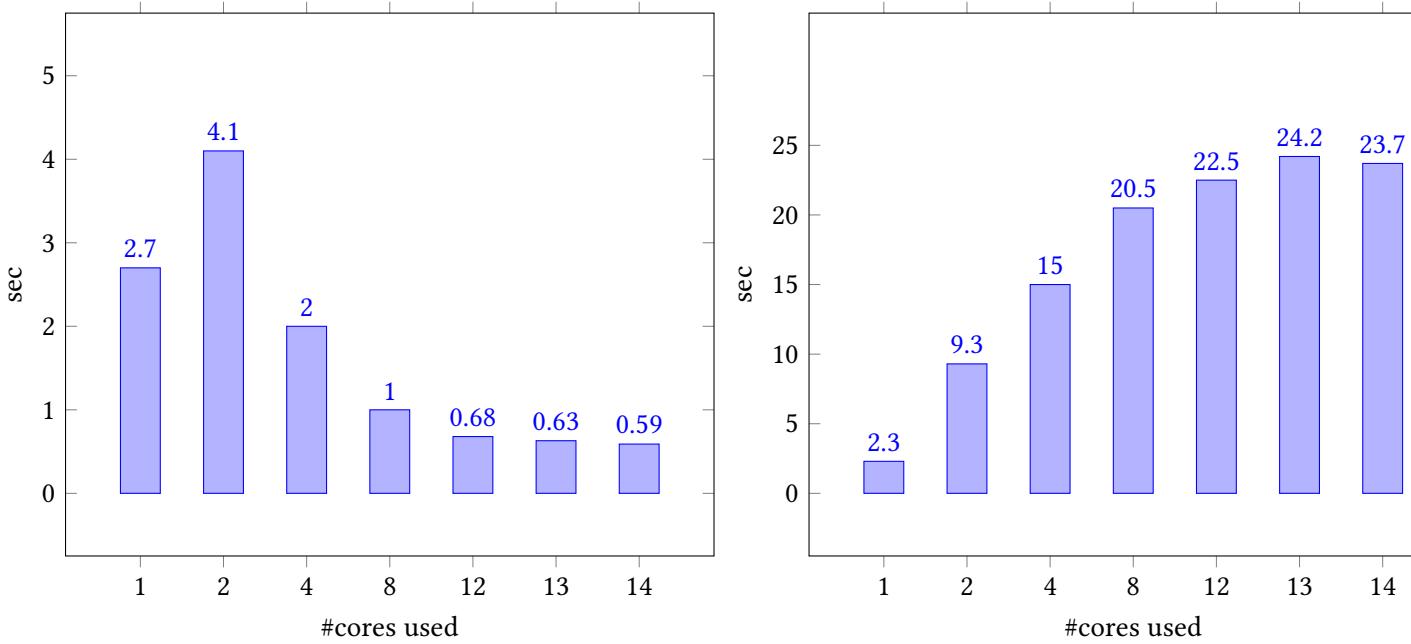
Actually this runs very slowly because, now that we've dispensed with all early breaks from the loop, we in effect traverse the whole search tree. (It's not quite breadth-first, though.) Figure 31.5 shows this for $N = 12$ with the Intel compiler (version 2019) in the left panel, and the GNU compiler (version 9.1) in the middle. In both cases, the blue bars give the result for the code with only the `taskgroup` directive, with time plotted as function of core count.

We see that, for the Intel compiler, running time indeed goes down with core count. So, while we compute too much (the whole search space), at least parallelization helps. With a number of threads greater than the problem size, the benefit of parallelization disappears, which makes some sort of sense.

We also see that the GCC compiler is really bad at OpenMP tasks: the running time actually increases with the number of threads.

Fortunately, with OpenMP-4 we can break out of the loop with a `cancel` of the task group:

```
// queenfinal.cxx
if (feasible(next)) {
    if (iqueen==N-1) {
        result = next;
```

Figure 31.5: Using taskgroups for $N = 12$; left Intel compiler, right GCC

```

    #pragma omp cancel taskgroup
} else { // do next level
    auto attempt = place_queen(iqueen+1,next);
    if (attempt.has_value()) {
        result = attempt;
    #pragma omp cancel taskgroup
    }
} // end if (iqueen==N-1)
} // end if (feasible)

```

Surprisingly, this does not immediately give a performance improvement. The reason for this is that cancellation is disabled by default, and we have to set the environment variable

`OMP_CANCELLATION=true`

With that, we get very good performance, as figure 31.6 shows, which lists sequential time, and multicore running time on the code with `cancel` directives. Running time is now approximately the same as the sequential time. Some questions are still left:

- Why does the time go up with core count?
- Why is the multicore code slower than the sequential code, and would the parallel code be faster than sequential if the amount of scalar work (for instance in the `feasible` function) would be larger?

One observation not reported here is that the GNU compiler has basically the same running time with and without cancellation. This is again shows that the GNU compiler is really bad at OpenMP tasks.

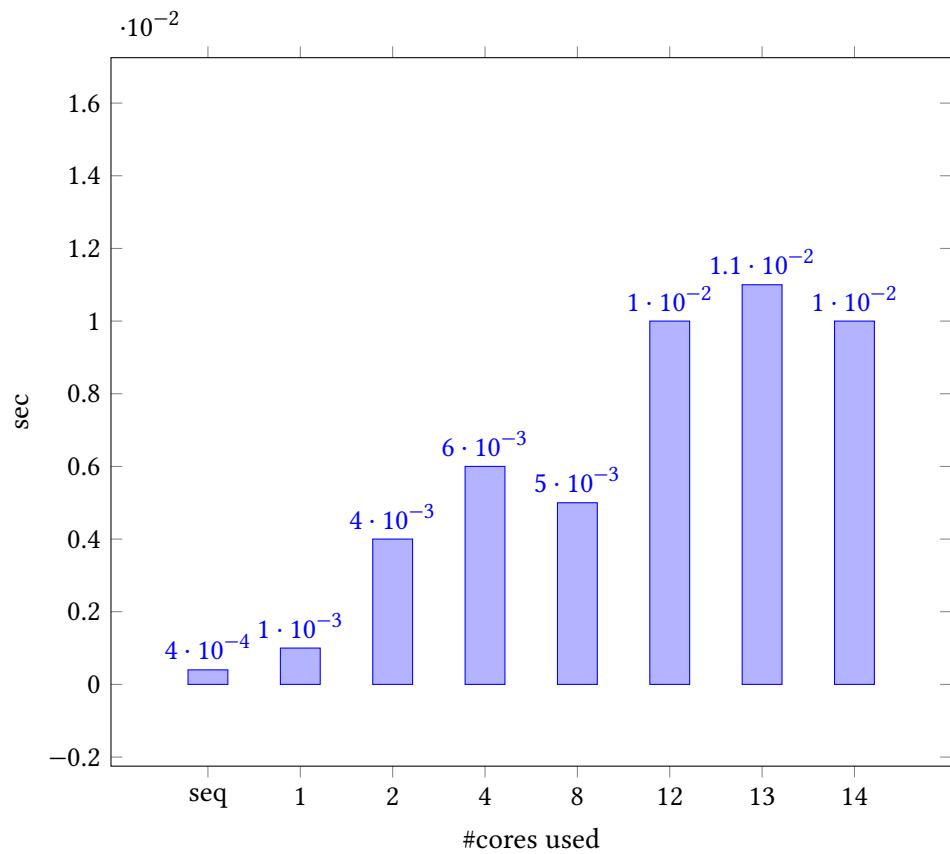


Figure 31.6: Using taskgroup cancelling, Intel compiler

31.4 Sources used in this chapter

31.4.1 Listing of code header

PART III

PETSC

Chapter 32

PETSc basics

32.1 What is PETSc and why?

PETSc is a library with a great many uses, but for now let's say that it's primarily a library for dealing with the sort of linear algebra that comes from discretized PDEs. On a single processor, the basics of such computations can be coded out by a grad student during a semester course in numerical analysis, but on large scale issues get much more complicated and a library becomes indispensable.

PETSc's prime justification is then that it helps you realize scientific computations at large scales, meaning large problem sizes on large numbers of processors.

There are two points to emphasize here:

- Linear algebra with dense matrices is relatively simple to formulate. For sparse matrices the amount of logistics in dealing with nonzero patterns increases greatly. PETSc does most of that for you.
- Linear algebra on a single processor, even a multicore one, is manageable; distributed memory parallelism is much harder, and distributed memory sparse linear algebra operations are doubly so. Using PETSc will save you many, many, Many! hours of coding over developing everything yourself from scratch.

Remark 31 *The PETSc library has hundreds of routines. In this chapter and the next few we will only touch on a basic subset of these. The full list of man pages can be found at <https://petsc.org/release/docs/manualpages/singleindex.html>. Each man page comes with links to related routines, as well as (usually) example codes for that routine.*

32.1.1 What is in PETSc?

The routines in PETSc (of which there are hundreds) can roughly be divided in these classes:

- Basic linear algebra tools: dense and sparse matrices, both sequential and parallel, their construction and simple operations.
- Solvers for linear systems, and to a lesser extent nonlinear systems; also time-stepping methods.
- Profiling and tracing: after a successful run, timing for various routines can be given. In case of failure, there are traceback and memory tracing facilities.

32.1.2 Programming model

PETSc, being based on MPI, uses the SPMD programming model (section 2.1), where all processes execute the same executable. Even more than in regular MPI codes, this makes sense here, since most PETSc objects are collectively created on some communicator, often `MPI_COMM_WORLD`. With the object-oriented design (section 32.1.3) this means that a PETSc program almost looks like a sequential program.

```

|| MatMult(A,x,y);      // y <- Ax
|| VecCopy(y,res);      // r <- y
|| VecAXPY(res,-1.,b); // r <- r - b

```

This is sometimes called *sequential semantics*.

32.1.3 Design philosophy

PETSc has an object-oriented design, even though it is written in C. There are classes of objects, such `Mat` for matrices and `Vec` for Vectors, but there is also the `KSP` (for "Krylov SSpace solver") class of linear system solvers, and `PetscViewer` for outputting matrices and vectors to screen or file.

Part of the object-oriented design is the polymorphism of objects: after you have created a `Mat` matrix as sparse or dense, all methods such as `MatMult` (for the matrix-vector product) take the same arguments: the matrix, and an input and output vector.

This design where the programmer manipulates a ‘handle’ also means that the internal of the object, the actual storage of the elements, is hidden from the programmer. This hiding goes so far that even filling in elements is not done directly but through function calls:

```

|| VecSetValue(i,j,v,mode)
|| MatSetValue(i,j,v,mode)
|| MatSetValues(ni,is,nj,js,v,mode)

```

32.1.4 Language support

32.1.4.1 C/C++

PETSc is implemented in C, so there is a natural interface to C. There is no separate C++ interface.

32.1.4.2 Fortran

A `Fortran90` interface exists. The `Fortran77` interface is only of interest for historical reasons.

To use Fortran, include both a module and a cpp header file:

```
#include "petsc/finclude/petscXXX.h"
use petscXXX
```

(here XXX stands for one of the PETSc types, but including `petsc.h` and using `use petsc` gives inclusion of the whole library.)

Variables can be declared with their type (`Vec`, `Mat`, `KSP` et cetera), but internally they are Fortran `Type` objects so they can be declared as such.

Example:

```

|| #include "petsc/finclude/petscvec.h"
|| use petscvec
|| Vec b
|| type(tVec) x

```

The output arguments of many query routines are optional in PETSc. While in C a generic `NULL` can be passed, Fortran has type-specific nulls, such as `PETSC_NULL_INTEGER`, `PETSC_NULL_OBJECT`.

32.1.4.3 Python

A *python* interface was written by *Lisandro Dalcin*. It can be added to PETSc at installation time; section 32.3.

This book discusses the Python interface in short remarks in the appropriate sections.

32.1.5 Documentation

PETSc comes with a manual in pdf form and web pages with the documentation for every routine. The starting point is the web page <https://petsc.org/release/documentation/>.

There is also a mailing list with excellent support for questions and bug reports.

TACC note. For questions specific to using PETSc on TACC resources, submit tickets to the *TACC or XSEDE portal*.

32.2 Basics of running a PETSc program

32.2.1 Compilation

A PETSc compilation needs a number of include and library paths, probably too many to specify interactively. The easiest solution is to create a makefile and load the standard variables and compilation rules. (You can use `$PETSC_DIR/share/petsc/Makefile.user` for inspiration.)

Throughout, we will assume that variables `PETSC_DIR` and `PETSC_ARCH` have been set. These depend on your local installation; see section 32.3.

In the easiest setup, you leave the compilation to PETSc and your make rules only do the link step, using CLINKER or FLINKER for C/Fortran respectively:

```
include ${PETSC_DIR}/lib/petsc/conf/variables
include ${PETSC_DIR}/lib/petsc/conf/rules
program : program.o
    ${CLINKER} -o $@ $^ ${PETSC_LIB}
```

The two include lines provide the compilation rule and the library variable.

You can use these rules:

```
% : %.F90
    $(LINK.F) -o $@ $^ $(LDLIBS)
%.o: %.F90
    $(COMPILE.F) $(OUTPUT_OPTION) $<
% : %.cxx
    $(LINK.cc) -o $@ $^ $(LDLIBS)
%.o: %.cxx
    $(COMPILE.cc) $(OUTPUT_OPTION) $<
```

```
## example link rule:
```

```
# app : a.o b.o c.o
#     $(LINK.F) -o $@ $^ $(LDLIBS)
```

(The `PETSC_CC_INCLUDES` variable contains all paths for compilation of C programs; correspondingly there is `PETSC_FC_INCLUDES` for Fortran source.)

If don't want to include those configuration files, you can find out the include options by:

```
cd $PETSC_DIR
make getincludedirs
make getlinklibs
and copying the results into your compilation script.
```

There is an example makefile `$PETSC_DIR/share/petsc/Makefile.user` you can take for inspiration. Invoked without arguments it prints out the relevant variables:

```
[c:246] make -f ! $PETSC_DIR/share/petsc/Makefile.user
CC=/Users/eijkhout/Installation/petsc/petsc-3.13/macx-clang-debug/bin/mpicc
CXX=/Users/eijkhout/Installation/petsc/petsc-3.13/macx-clang-debug/bin/mpicxx
FC=/Users/eijkhout/Installation/petsc/petsc-3.13/macx-clang-debug/bin/mpif90
CFLAGS=-Wall -Wwrite-strings -Wno-strict-aliasing -Wno-unknown-pragmas -fstack-protector -Qunused-arguments
CXXFLAGS=-Wall -Wwrite-strings -Wno-strict-aliasing -Wno-unknown-pragmas -fstack-protector -fvisibility=hidden
FFLAGS=-m64 -g
CPPFLAGS=-I/Users/eijkhout/Installation/petsc/petsc-3.13/macx-clang-debug/include -I/Users/eijkhout/Installation/petsc/petsc-3.13/macx-clang-debug/include
LDFLAGS=-L/Users/eijkhout/Installation/petsc/petsc-3.13/macx-clang-debug/lib -Wl,-rpath,/Users/eijkhout/Installation/petsc/petsc-3.13/macx-clang-debug/lib
LDLIBS=-lpetsc -lm
```

TACC note. On TACC clusters, a petsc installation is loaded by commands such as

```
module load petsc/3.16
```

Use `module avail petsc` to see what configurations exist. The basic versions are

```
# development
module load petsc/3.11-debug
# production
module load petsc/3.11
```

Other installations are real versus complex, or 64bit integers instead of the default 32. The command

```
module spider petsc
```

tells you all the available petsc versions. The listed modules have a naming convention such as `petsc/3.11-i64debug` where the 3.11 is the PETSc release (minor patches are not included in this version; TACC aims to install only the latest patch, but generally several versions are available), and `i64debug` describes the debug version of the installation with 64bit integers.

32.2.2 Running

PETSc programs use MPI for parallelism, so they are started like any other MPI program:

```
mpiexec -n 5 -machinefile mf \
    your_petsc_program option1 option2 option3
```

TACC note. On TACC clusters, use `ibrun`.

32.2.3 Initialization and finalization

PETSc has an call that initializes both PETSc and MPI, so normally you would replace `MPI_Init` by `PetscInitialize` (figure 32.1). Unlike with MPI, you do not want to use a NULL value for the `argc`, `argv` arguments, since PETSc makes extensive use of commandline options; see section 39.3.

```
// init.c
ierr = PetscInitialize
    (&argc,&argv,(char*)0,help);
```

Figure 32.1 `PetscInitialize`

C:

```
PetscErrorCode PetscInitialize
    (int *argc,char ***args,const char file[],const char help[])
```

Input Parameters:

```
argc - count of number of command line arguments
args - the command line arguments
file - [optional] PETSc database file.
help - [optional] Help message to print, use NULL for no message
```

Fortran:

```
call PetscInitialize(file,ierr)
```

Input parameters:

```
ierr - error return code
file - [optional] PETSc database file,
      use PETSC_NULL_CHARACTER to not check for code specific file.
```

```
|| int flag;
|| MPI_Initialized(&flag);
|| if (flag)
||   printf("MPI was initialized by PETSc\n");
|| else
||   printf("MPI not yet initialized\n");
```

For the full source of this example, see section 32.5.2

There are two further arguments to `PetscInitialize`:

1. the name of an options database file; and
2. a help string, that is displayed if you run your program with the `-h` option.

Fortran note 23: *Petsc Initialization*.

- The Fortran version has no arguments for commandline options; it also doesn't take a help string.
- The first argument is the name of a database file of options; if none is specified, give `PETSC_NULL_CHARACTER` as argument.
- If your main program is in C, but some of your PETSc calls are in Fortran files, it is necessary to call `PetscInitializeFortran` after `PetscInitialize`.

```
|| ! init.F90
|| call PetscInitialize(PETSC_NULL_CHARACTER,ierr)
|| CHKERRA(ierr)
|| call MPI_Initialized(flag,ierr)
|| CHKERRA(ierr)
|| if (flag) then
||   print *, "MPI was initialized by PETSc"
```

For the full source of this example, see section 32.5.3

Python note 34: *Init, and with commandline options*. The following works if you don't need commandline options.

```
from petsc4py import PETSc
```

To pass commandline arguments to PETSc, do:

```
import sys
from petsc4py import init
init(sys.argv)
from petsc4py import PETSc
```

After initialization, you can use `MPI_COMM_WORLD` or `PETSC_COMM_WORLD` (which is created by `MPI_Comm_dup` and used internally by PETSc):

```
|| MPI_Comm comm = PETSC_COMM_WORLD;
|| MPI_Comm_rank(comm,&mytid);
|| MPI_Comm_size(comm,&ntids);
```

Python note 35: Communicator object.

```
comm = PETSc.COMM_WORLD
nprocs = comm.getSize(self)
procno = comm.getRank(self)
```

The corresponding call to replace `MPI_Finalize` is `PetscFinalize`. You can elegantly capture and return the error code by the idiom

```
|| return PetscFinalize();
```

at the end of your main program.

32.3 PETSc installation

PETSc has a large number of installation options. These can roughly be divided into:

1. Options to describe the environment in which PETSc is being installed, such as the names of the compilers or the location of the MPI library;
2. Options to specify the type of PETSc installation: real versus complex, 32 versus 64-bit integers, et cetera;
3. Options to specify additional packages to download.

For an existing installation, you can find the options used, and other aspects of the build history, in the `configure.log` / `make.log` files:

```
$PETSC_DIR/$PETSC_ARCH/lib/petsc/conf/configure.log
$PETSC_DIR/$PETSC_ARCH/lib/petsc/conf/make.log
```

32.3.1 Debug

For any set of options, you will typically make two installations: one with `-with-debugging=yes` and once no. See section 39.1.1 for more detail on the differences between debug and non-debug mode.

32.3.2 Environment options

Compilers, compiler options, MPI.

While it is possible to specify `-download_mpih`, this should only be done on machines that you are certain do not already have an MPI library, such as your personal laptop. Supercomputer clusters are likely to have an optimized MPI library, and letting PETSc download its own will lead to degraded performance.

32.3.3 Variants

- Scalars: the option `-with-scalar-type` has values `real`, `complex`; `-with-precision` has values `single`, `double`, `_float128`, `_fp16`.

32.4 External packages

PETSc can extend its functionality through external packages such as *mumps*, *HYPRE*, *fftw*. These can be specified in two ways:

1. Referring to an installation already on your system:

```
--with-hdf5-include=${TACC_HDF5_INC}  
--with-hf5_lib=${TACC_HDF5_LIB}
```

2. By letting petsc download and install them itself:

```
--with-parmetis=1 --download-parmetis=1
```

Python note 36: petsc4py interface. The Python interface (section 32.1.4.3) can be installed with the option

```
--download-petsc4py=<no, yes, filename, url>
```

This is easiest if your python already includes `mpi4py`; see section 1.5.4.

Remark 32 *There are two packages that PETSc is capable of downloading and install, but that you may want to avoid:*

- `fblaslapack`: *this gives you BLAS/LAPACK through the Fortran ‘reference implementation’. If you have an optimized version, such as Intel’s mkl available, this will give much higher performance.*
- `mpich`: *this installs a MPI implementation, which may be required for your laptop. However, supercomputer clusters will already have an MPI implementation that uses the high-speed network. PETSc’s downloaded version does not do that. Again, finding and using the already installed software may greatly improve your performance.*

32.4.1 Slep̄c

Most external packages add functionality to the lower layers of Petsc. For instance, the *HYPRE* package adds some preconditioners to Petsc’s repertoire (section 36.1.7.3), while *Mumps* (section 36.2) makes it possible to use the LU preconditioner in parallel.

On the other hand, there are packages that use Petsc as a lower level tool. In particular, the eigenvalue solver package *Slep̄c* [28] can be installed through the options

```
--download-slepc=<no, yes, filename, url>  
    Download and install slepc current: no  
--download-slepc-commit=commitid  
    The commit id from a git repository to use for the build of slepc current: 0  
--download-slepc-configure-arguments=string  
    Additional configure arguments for the build of SLEPc
```

The `slepc` header files wind up in the same directory as the `petsc` headers, so no change to your compilation rules are needed. However, you need to add `-lslepc` to the link line.

32.5 Sources used in this chapter

32.5.1 Listing of code header

32.5.2 Listing of code examples/petsc/c/init.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>

#include <petscsys.h>

int main(int argc,char **argv)
{
    PetscErrorCode ierr;

    char help[] = "\nInit example.\n\n";
    ierr = PetscInitialize
        (&argc,&argv,(char*)0,help); CHKERRQ(ierr);
    int flag;
    MPI_Initialized(&flag);
    if (flag)
        printf("MPI was initialized by PETSc\n");
    else
        printf("MPI not yet initialized\n");

    return PetscFinalize();
}
```

32.5.3 Listing of code examples/petsc/f/init.F90

Program PetscInit

```
#include <petsc/finclude/petscsys.h>
use petsc
implicit none

logical :: flag
PetscErrorCode ierr;
character*80 :: help = "\nInit example.\n\n";
call PetscInitialize(PETSC_NULL_CHARACTER,ierr)
CHKERRA(ierr)
call MPI_Initialized(flag,ierr)
CHKERRA(ierr)
if (flag) then
    print *, "MPI was initialized by PETSc"
else
    print *, "MPI not yet initialized"
end if
call PetscFinalize(ierr); CHKERRQ(ierr);
```

End Program PetscInit

Chapter 33

PETSc objects

33.1 Distributed objects

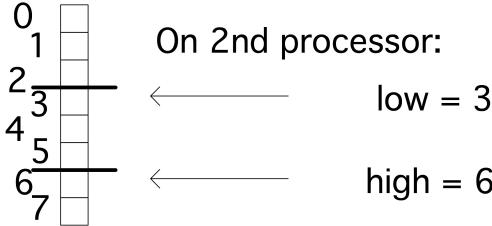
PETSc is based on the SPMD model, and all its objects act like they exist in parallel, spread out over all the processes. Therefore, prior to discussing specific objects in detail, we briefly discuss how PETSc treats distributed objects.

For a matrix or vector you need to specify the size. This can be done two ways:

- you specify the global size and PETSc distributes the object over the processes, or
- you specify on each process the local size

If you specify both the global size and the local sizes, PETSc will check for consistency.

For example, if you have a vector of N components, or a matrix of N rows, and you have P processes, each process will receive N/P components or rows if P divides evenly in N . If P does not divide evenly, the excess is spread over the processes.



The way the distribution is done is by contiguous blocks: with 10 processes and 1000 components in a vector, process 0 gets the range 0 … 99, process 1 gets 1 … 199, et cetera. This simple scheme suffices for many cases, but PETSc has facilities for more sophisticated load balancing.

33.1.1 Support for distributions

Once an object has been created and distributed, you do not need to remember the size or the distribution yourself: you can query these with calls such as `VecGetSize`, `VecGetLocalSize`.

The corresponding matrix routines `MatGetSize`, `MatGetLocalSize` give both information for the distributions in i and j direction, which can be independent. Since a matrix is distributed by rows, `MatGetOwnershipRange` only gives a row range.

Figure 33.1 `PetscSplitOwnership``PetscSplitOwnership`

Synopsis

```
#include "petscsys.h"
PetscErrorCode PetscSplitOwnership
  (MPI_Comm comm,PetscInt *n,PetscInt *N)

Collective (if n or N is PETSC_DECIDE)
```

Input Parameters

comm - MPI communicator that shares the object being divided
 n - local length (or PETSC_DECIDE to have it set)
 N - global length (or PETSC_DECIDE)

```
// split.c
N = 100; n = PETSC_DECIDE;
PetscSplitOwnership(comm,&n,&N);
PetscPrintf(comm,"Global %d, local %d\n",N,n);

N = PETSC_DECIDE; n = 10;
PetscSplitOwnership(comm,&n,&N);
PetscPrintf(comm,"Global %d, local %d\n",N,n);
```

For the full source of this example, see section 33.8.2

While PETSc objects are implemented using local memory on each process, conceptually they act like global objects, with a global indexing scheme. Thus, each process can query which elements out of the global object are stored locally. For vectors, the relevant routine is `VecGetOwnershipRange`, which returns two parameters, `low` and `high`, respectively the first element index stored, and one-more-than-the-last index stored.

This gives the idiom:

```
|| VecGetOwnershipRange(myvector,&low,&high);
  for (int myidx=low; myidx<high; myidx++)
    // do something at index myidx
```

These conversions between local and global size can also be done explicitly, using the `PetscSplitOwnership` (figure 33.1) routine. This routine takes two parameter, for the local and global size, and whichever one is initialized to `PETSC_DECIDE` gets computed from the other.

33.2 Scalars

Unlike programming languages that explicitly distinguish between single and double precision numbers, PETSc has only a single scalar type: `PetscScalar`. The precision of this is determined at installation time. In fact, a `PetscScalar` can even be a complex number if the installation specified that the scalar type is complex.

Even in applications that use complex numbers there can be quantities that are real: for instance, the norm of a complex vector is a real number. For that reason, PETSc also has the type `PetscReal`. There is also an explicit `PetscComplex`.

Furthermore, there is

```
|| #define PETSC_BINARY_INT_SIZE      (32/8)
|| #define PETSC_BINARY_FLOAT_SIZE    (32/8)
|| #define PETSC_BINARY_CHAR_SIZE     (8/8)
|| #define PETSC_BINARY_SHORT_SIZE   (16/8)
|| #define PETSC_BINARY_DOUBLE_SIZE  (64/8)
|| #define PETSC_BINARY_SCALAR_SIZE sizeof(PetscScalar)
```

33.2.1 Integers

Integers in PETSc are likewise of a size determined at installation time: `PetscInt` can be 32 or 64 bits. The latter possibility is useful for indexing into large vectors and matrices. Furthermore, there is a `PetscErrorCode` type for catching the return code of PETSc routines; see section 39.1.2.

For compatibility with other packages there are two more integer types:

- `PetscBLASInt` is the integer type used by the *Basic Linear Algebra Subprograms (BLAS) / Linear Algebra Package (LAPACK)* library. This is 32-bits if the `-download-blas-lapack` option is used, but it can be 64-bit if *MKL* is used. The routine `PetscBLASIntCast` casts a `PetscInt` to `PetscBLASInt`, or returns `PETSC_ERR_ARG_OUTOFRANGE` if it is too large.
- `PetscMPIInt` is the integer type of the MPI library, which is always 32-bits. The routine `PetscMPIIntCast` casts a `PetscInt` to `PetscMPIInt`, or returns `PETSC_ERR_ARG_OUTOFRANGE` if it is too large.

Many external packages do not support 64-bit integers.

33.2.2 Complex

Numbers of type `PetscComplex` have a precision matching `PetscReal`.

Form a complex number using `PETSC_i`:

```
|| PetscComplex x = 1.0 + 2.0 * PETSC_i;
```

The real and imaginary part can be extract with the functions `PetscRealPart` and `PetscImaginaryPart` which return a `PetscReal`.

There are also routines `VecRealPart` and `VecImaginaryPart` that replace a vector with its real or imaginary part respectively. Likewise `MatRealPart` and `MatImaginaryPart`.

33.2.3 MPI Scalars

For MPI calls, `MPIU_REAL` is the MPI type corresponding to the current `PetscReal`.

For MPI calls, `MPIU_SCALAR` is the MPI type corresponding to the current `PetscScalar`.

For MPI calls, `MPIU_COMPLEX` is the MPI type corresponding to the current `PetscComplex`.

33.2.4 Booleans

There is a `PetscBool` datatype with values `PETSC_TRUE` and `PETSC_FALSE`.

33.3 Vec: Vectors

Vectors are objects with a linear index. The elements of a vector are floating point numbers or complex numbers (see section 33.2), but not integers: for that see section 33.5.1.

Figure 33.2 `VecCreate`

```
C:
PetscErrorCode VecCreate(MPI_Comm comm,Vec *v);

F:
VecCreate( comm,v,ierr )
MPI_Comm :: comm
Vec      :: v
PetscErrorCode :: ierr

Python:
vec = PETSc.Vec()
vec.create()
# or:
vec = PETSc.Vec().create()
```

Figure 33.3 `VecDestroy`

Synopsis

```
#include "petscvec.h"
PetscErrorCode VecDestroy(Vec *v)
```

Collective on Vec

Input Parameters:

```
v -the vector
```

33.3.1 Vector construction

Constructing a vector takes a number of steps. First of all, the vector object needs to be created on a communicator with `VecCreate` (figure 33.2)

Python note 37: Vector creation. In python, `PETSc.Vec()` creates an object with null handle, so a subsequent `create()` call is needed. In C and Fortran, the vector type is a keyword; in Python it is a member of `PETSc.Vec.Type`.

```
## setvalues.py
comm = PETSc.COMM_WORLD
x = PETSc.Vec().create(comm=comm)
x.setType(PETSc.Vec.Type.MPI)
```

The corresponding routine `VecDestroy` (figure 33.3) deallocates data and zeros the pointer. (This and all other Destroy routines are collective because of underlying MPI technicalities.)

The vector type needs to be set with `VecSetType` (figure 33.4).

The most common vector types are:

- `VECSEQ` for sequential vectors, that is, living on a single process; This is typically created on the `MPI_COMM_SELF` or `PETSC_COMM_SELF` communicator.
- `VECMPI` for a vector distributed over the communicator. This is typically created on the `MPI_COMM_WORLD` or `PETSC_COMM_WORLD` communicator, or one derived from it.
- `VECSTANDARD` is `VECSEQ` when used on a single process, or `VECMPI` on multiple.

Figure 33.4 `VecSetType`

Synopsis:

```
#include "petscvec.h"
PetscErrorCode VecSetType(Vec vec, VecType method)
```

Collective on Vec

Input Parameters:

vec - The vector object
method - The name of the vector type

Options Database Key

```
-vec_type <type> -Sets the vector type; use -help for a list of available types
```

Figure 33.5 `VecSetSizes`

C:

```
#include "petscvec.h"
PetscErrorCode VecSetSizes(Vec v, PetscInt n, PetscInt N)
Collective on Vec
```

Input Parameters

v : the vector
n : the local size (or PETSC_DECIDE to have it set)
N : the global size (or PETSC_DECIDE)

Python:

```
PETSc.Vec.setSizes(self, size, bsize=None)
size is a tuple of local/global
```

You may wonder why these types exist: you could have just one type, which would be as parallel as possible. The reason is that in a parallel run you may occasionally have a separate linear system on each process, which would require a sequential vector (and matrix) on each process, not part of a larger linear system.

Once you have created one vector, you can make more like it by `VecDuplicate`,

```
|| VecDuplicate(Vec old,Vec *new);
```

or `VecDuplicateVecs`

```
|| VecDuplicateVecs(Vec old,PetscInt n,Vec **new);
```

for multiple vectors. For the latter, there is a joint destroy call `VecDestroyVecs`:

```
|| VecDestroyVecs(PetscInt n,Vec **vecs);
```

(which is different in Fortran).

33.3.2 Vector layout

Next in the creation process the vector size is set with `VecSetSizes` (figure 33.5). Since a vector is typically distributed, this involves the global size and the sizes on the processors. Setting both is redundant, so it is possible to specify one and let the other be computed by the library. This is indicated by setting it to `PETSC_DECIDE`.

Figure 33.6 `VecGetSize``VecGetSize / VecGetLocalSize`

C:

```
#include "petscvec.h"
PetscErrorCode VecGetSize(Vec x,PetscInt *gsize)
PetscErrorCode VecGetLocalSize(Vec x,PetscInt *lsize)
```

Input Parameter
`x` - the vector

Output Parameters
`gsize` - the global length of the vector
`lsize` - the local length of the vector

Python:

```
PETSc.Vec.getLocalSize(self)
PETSc.Vec.getSize(self)
PETSc.Vec.getSizes(self)
```

Figure 33.7 `VecGetOwnershipRange`

```
#include "petscvec.h"
PetscErrorCode VecGetOwnershipRange(Vec x,PetscInt *low,PetscInt *high)
```

Input parameter:
`x` - the vector

Output parameters:
`low` - the first local element, pass in NULL if not interested
`high` - one more than the last local element, pass in NULL if not interested

Fortran note:
use PETSC_NULL_INTEGER for NULL.

Python note 38: Vector size. Use `PETSc.DECIDE` for the parameter not specified:

```
|| x.setSizes([2,PETSc.DECIDE])
```

The size is queried with `VecGetSize` (figure 33.6) for the global size and `VecGetLocalSize` (figure 33.6) for the local size.

Each processor gets a contiguous part of the vector. Use `VecGetOwnershipRange` (figure 33.7) to query the first index on this process, and the first one of the next process.

In general it is best to let PETSc take care of memory management of matrix and vector objects, including allocating and freeing the memory. However, in cases where PETSc interfaces to other applications it maybe desirable to create a `Vec` object from an already allocated array: `VecCreateSeqWithArray` and `VecCreateMPIWithArray`.

```
|| VecCreateSeqWithArray
  (MPI_Comm comm,PetscInt bs,
   PetscInt n,PetscScalar *array,Vec *V);
|| VecCreateMPIWithArray
  (MPI_Comm comm,PetscInt bs,
```

Figure 33.8 VecAXPY

Synopsis:
`#include "petscvec.h"
PetscErrorCode VecAXPY(Vec y,PetscScalar alpha,Vec x)`

Not collective on Vec

Input Parameters:
alpha - the scalar
x, y - the vectors

Output Parameter:
y - output vector

Figure 33.9 VecView

C:
`#include "petscvec.h"
PetscErrorCode VecView(Vec vec,PetscViewer viewer)`

for ascii output use:
`PETSC_VIEWER_STDOUT_WORLD`

Python:
`PETSc.Vec.view(self, Viewer viewer=None)`

ascii output is default or use:
`PETSc.Viewer.STDOUT(type cls, comm=None)`

|| `PetscInt n,PetscInt N,PetscScalar *array,Vec *vv);`

As you will see in section 33.4.1, you can also create vectors based on the layout of a matrix, using **MatCreateVecs**.

33.3.3 Vector operations

There are many routines operating on vectors that you need to write scientific applications. Examples are: norms, vector addition (including BLAS-type ‘AXPY’ routines: **VecAXPY** (figure 33.8)), pointwise scaling, inner products. A large number of such operations are available in PETSc through single function calls to **VecXYZ** routines.

For debugging purposes, the **VecView** (figure 33.9) routine can be used to display vectors on screen as ascii output,

|| `// fftsine.c
ierr = VecView(signal,PETSC_VIEWER_STDOUT_WORLD);
ierr = MatMult(transform,signal,frequencies);
ierr = VecScale(frequencies,1./Nglobal);
ierr = VecView(frequencies,PETSC_VIEWER_STDOUT_WORLD);`

For the full source of this example, see section 33.8.3

but the routine call also use more general **PetscViewer** objects, for instance to dump a vector to file.

Here are a couple of representative vector routines:

|| `PetscReal lambda;`

```

|| ierr = VecNorm(y,NORM_2,&lambda); CHKERRQ(ierr);
|| ierr = VecScale(y,1./lambda); CHKERRQ(ierr);

```

Exercise 33.1. Create a vector where the values are a single sine wave. using `VecGetSize`, `VecGetLocalSize`, `VecGetOwnershipRange`. Quick visual inspection:

ibrun vec -n 12 -vec view
(There is a skeleton for this exercise under the name vec.)

Solution to exercise 33.1. *Different approaches to the solution:*

```

PetscInt globalsize;
VecGetSize(x,&globalsize);
for (int index=0; index<globalsize; index++) {
    PetscScalar value = ... index ...;
    VecSetValue( x,index,value, INSERT_VALUES );
}
VecAssemblyBegin(x);
VecAssemblyEnd(x);

```

This works, but values get set multiple times, which is not elegant, and there is a lot of message traffic in the assembly.

```

PetscInt localsize,myfirst,mylast;
VecGetLocalSize(x,&localsize);
VecGetOwnershipRange(x,&myfirst,&mylast);
for (int index=0; index<localsize; index++) {
    PetscScalar value = ... myfirst+index ...;
    VecSetValue( x,myfirst+index,value, INSERT_VALUES );
}
VecAssemblyBegin(x);
VecAssemblyEnd(x);

```

This set only local values, by iterating precisely of the local array.

```

PetscInt myfirst,mylast;
VecGetOwnershipRange(x,&myfirst,&mylast);
for (int index=myfirst; index<mylast; index++) {
    PetscScalar value = ... index ...;
    VecSetValue( x,index,value, INSERT_VALUES );
}
VecAssemblyBegin(x);
VecAssemblyEnd(x);

```

Also great.

Exercise 33.2. Use the routines `VecDot` (figure 33.10), `VecScale` (figure 33.11) and `VecNorm` (figure 33.12) to compute the inner product of vectors x, y , scale the vector x , and check its norm:

$$\begin{aligned} p &\leftarrow x^t y \\ x &\leftarrow x/p \\ n &\leftarrow \|x\|_2 \end{aligned}$$

Python note 39: Vector operations. The plus operator is overloaded so that

```

|| x+y

```

is defined.

Figure 33.10 VecDot

Synopsis:

```
#include "petscvec.h"
PetscErrorCode VecDot(Vec x,Vec y,PetscScalar *val)
```

Collective on Vec

Input Parameters:

x, y - the vectors

Output Parameter:

val - the dot product

Figure 33.11 VecScale

Synopsis:

```
#include "petscvec.h"
PetscErrorCode VecScale(Vec x, PetscScalar alpha)
```

Not collective on Vec

Input Parameters:

x - the vector

alpha - the scalar

Output Parameter:

x - the scaled vector

Figure 33.12 VecNorm

C:

```
#include "petscvec.h"
PetscErrorCode VecNorm(Vec x,NormType type,PetscReal *val)
where type is
  NORM_1, NORM_2, NORM_FROBENIUS, NORM_INFINITY
```

Python:

```
PETSc.Vec.norm(self, norm_type=None)
```

where norm is variable in PETSc.NormType:

```
NORM_1, NORM_2, NORM_FROBENIUS, NORM_INFINITY or
N1, N2, FRB, INF
```

Figure 33.13 `VecSetValue`

Synopsis

```
#include <petscvec.h>
PetscErrorCode VecSetValue
  (Vec v,PetscInt row,PetscScalar value,InsertMode mode);
```

Not Collective

Input Parameters

v- the vector
 row- the row location of the entry
 value- the value to insert
 mode- either INSERT_VALUES or ADD_VALUES

```
||  x.sum() # max,min,....
||  x.dot(y)
||  x.norm(PETSc.NormType.NORM_INFINITY)
```

33.3.3.1 Split collectives

MPI is capable (in principle) of ‘overlapping computation and communication’, or *latency hiding*. PETSc supports this by splitting norms and inner products into two phases.

- Start inner product / norm with `VecDotBegin` / `VecNormBegin`;
- Conclude inner product / norm with `VecDotEnd` / `VecNormEnd`;

Even if you achieve no overlap, it is possible to use these calls to combine a number of ‘collectives’: do the Begin calls of one inner product and one norm; then do (in the same sequence) the End calls. This means that only a single reduction is performed on a two-word package, rather than two separate reductions on a single word.

33.3.4 Vector elements

Setting elements of a traditional array is simple. Setting elements of a distributed array is harder. First of all, `VecSet` sets the vector to a constant value:

```
|| ierr = VecSet(x,1.); CHKERRQ(ierr);
```

In the general case, setting elements in a PETSc vector is done through a function `VecSetValue` (figure 33.13) for setting elements that uses global numbering; any process can set any elements in the vector. There is also a routine `VecSetValues` (figure 33.14) for setting multiple elements. This is mostly useful for setting dense subblocks of a block matrix.

We illustrate both routines by setting a single element with `VecSetValue`, and two elements with `VecSetValues`. In the latter case we need an array of length two for both the indices and values. The indices need not be successive.

```
|| i = 1; v = 3.14;
|| VecSetValue(x,i,v,INSERT_VALUES);
|| ii[0] = 1; ii[1] = 2; vv[0] = 2.7; vv[1] = 3.1;
|| VecSetValues(x,2,ii,vv,INSERT_VALUES);
```

Figure 33.14 VecSetValues

Synopsis

```
#include "petscvec.h"
PetscErrorCode VecSetValues
  (Vec x,PetscInt ni,const PetscInt
   ix[],const PetscScalar y[],InsertMode iora)
```

Not Collective

Input Parameters:

```
x - vector to insert in
ni - number of elements to add
ix - indices where to add
y - array of values
iora - either INSERT_VALUES or ADD_VALUES, where
       ADD_VALUES adds values to any existing entries, and
       INSERT_VALUES replaces existing entries with new values
```

Figure 33.15 VecAssemblyBegin

```
#include "petscvec.h"
PetscErrorCode VecAssemblyBegin(Vec vec)
PetscErrorCode VecAssemblyEnd(Vec vec)
```

Collective on Vec

Input Parameter
vec -the vector

Fortran note 24: Setting values. The value/values routines work the same way in Fortran. Note that despite type checking, using the ‘values’ routine and passing scalars, is allowed: **missing snippet valuevaluesf**

Python note 40: Setting vector values. Single element:

```
|| x.setValue(0,1.)
```

Multiple elements:

```
|| x.setValues( [2*procno,2*procno+1], [2.,3.] )
```

Using **VecSetValue** for specifying a local vector element corresponds to simple insertion in the local array. However, an element that belongs to another process needs to be transferred. This done in two calls: **VecAssemblyBegin** (figure 33.15) and **VecAssemblyEnd**.

```
|| if (myrank==0) then
    do vecidx=0,globalsize-1
      vecelt = vecidx
      call VecSetValue(vector,vecidx,vecelt,INSERT_VALUES,ierr)
    end do
  end if
  call VecAssemblyBegin(vector,ierr)
  call VecAssemblyEnd(vector,ierr)
```

For the full source of this example, see section 33.8.4

Figure 33.16 `VecGetArray`

```
C:
#include "petscvec.h"
PetscErrorCode VecGetArray(Vec x,PetscScalar **a)
PetscErrorCode VecGetArrayRead(Vec x,const PetscScalar **a)

Input Parameter
x : the vector

Output Parameter
a : location to put pointer to the array

PetscErrorCode VecRestoreArray(Vec x,PetscScalar **a)
PetscErrorCode VecRestoreArrayRead(Vec x,const PetscScalar **a)

Input Parameters
x : the vector
a : location of pointer to array obtained from VecGetArray()

Fortran90:
#include <petsc/finclude/petscvec.h>
use petscvec
VecGetArrayF90(Vec x,{Scalar, pointer :: xx_v(:)},integer ierr)
(there is a Fortran77 version)
VecRestoreArrayF90(Vec x,{Scalar, pointer :: xx_v(:)},integer ierr)

Python:
PETSc.Vec.getArray(self, readonly=False)
?? PETSc.Vec.resetArray(self, force=False)
```

(If you know the MPI library, you'll recognize that the first call corresponds to posting nonblocking send and receive calls; the second then contains the wait calls. Thus, the existence of these separate calls make *latency hiding* possible.)

```
|| VecAssemblyBegin(myvec);
|| // do work that does not need the vector myvec
|| VecAssemblyEnd(myvec);
```

Elements can either be inserted with `INSERT_VALUES`, or added with `ADD_VALUES` in the `VecSetValue / VecSetValues` call. You can not immediately mix these modes; to do so you need to call `VecAssemblyBegin / VecAssemblyEnd` in between add/insert phases.

33.3.4.1 Explicit element access

Since the vector routines cover a large repertoire of operations, you hardly ever need to access the actual elements. Should you still need those elements, you can use `VecGetArray` (figure 33.16) for general access or `VecGetArrayRead` (figure 33.16) for read-only.

PETSc insists that you properly release this pointer again with `VecRestoreArray` (figure 33.17) or `VecRestoreArrayRead` (figure 33.17).

In the following example, a vector is scaled through direct array access. Note the differing calls for the source and target vector, and note the `const` qualifier on the source array:

33. PETSc objects

Figure 33.17 `VecRestoreArray`

C:

```
#include "petscvec.h"
PetscErrorCode VecRestoreArray(Vec x,PetscScalar **a)
```

Logically Collective on Vec

Input Parameters:
x- the vector
a- location of pointer to array obtained from `VecGetArray()`

Fortran90:

```
#include <petsc/finclude/petscvec.h>
use petscvec
VecRestoreArrayF90(Vec x,{Scalar, pointer :: xx_v(:)},integer ierr)
```

Input Parameters:
x- vector
xx_v- the Fortran90 pointer to the array

C:

```
#include "petscvec.h"
PetscErrorCode VecGetArray(Vec x,PetscScalar **a)
PetscErrorCode VecGetArrayRead(Vec x,const PetscScalar **a)
```

Input Parameter
x : the vector

Output Parameter
a : location to put pointer to the array

```
PetscErrorCode VecRestoreArray(Vec x,PetscScalar **a)
PetscErrorCode VecRestoreArrayRead(Vec x,const PetscScalar **a)
```

Input Parameters
x : the vector
a : location of pointer to array obtained from `VecGetArray()`

Fortran90:

```
#include <petsc/finclude/petscvec.h>
use petscvec
VecGetArrayF90(Vec x,{Scalar, pointer :: xx_v(:)},integer ierr)
(the there is a Fortran77 version)
VecRestoreArrayF90(Vec x,{Scalar, pointer :: xx_v(:)},integer ierr)
```

Python:

```
PETSc.Vec.getArray(self, readonly=False)
?? PETSc.Vec.resetArray(self, force=False)
```

This example also uses `VecGetLocalSize` to determine the size of the data accessed. Even running in a distributed context you can only get the array of local elements. Accessing the elements from another process requires explicit communication; see section 33.5.2.

Figure 33.18 VecPlaceArray

Replace the storage of a vector by another array
 Synopsis

```
#include "petscvec.h"
PetscErrorCode  VecPlaceArray(Vec vec,const PetscScalar array[])
PetscErrorCode  VecReplaceArray(Vec vec,const PetscScalar array[])

Input Parameters
vec    - the vector
array - the array
```

There are some variants to the **VecGetArray** operation:

- **VecReplaceArray** (figure 33.18) frees the memory of the **Vec** object, and replaces it with a different array. That latter array needs to be allocated with **PetscMalloc**.
- **VecPlaceArray** (figure 33.18) also installs a new array in the vector, but it keeps the original array; this can be restored with **VecResetArray**.

Putting the array of one vector into another has a common application, where you have a distributed vector, but want to apply PETSc operations to its local section as if it were a sequential vector. In that case you would create a sequential vector, and **VecPlaceArray** the contents of the distributed vector into it.

Fortran note 25: F90 array access through pointer. There are routines such as **VecGetArrayF90** (with corresponding **VecRestoreArrayF90**) that return a (Fortran) pointer to a one-dimensional array.

```
!! vecset.F90
  Vec          :: vector
  PetscScalar,dimension(:),pointer :: elements
  call VecGetArrayF90(vector,elements,ierr)
  write (msg,10) myrank,elements(1)
10 format("First element on process",i3,":",f7.4,"\\n")
  call PetscSynchronizedPrintf(comm,msg,ierr)
  call PetscSynchronizedFlush(comm,PETSC_STDOUT,ierr)
  call VecRestoreArrayF90(vector,elements,ierr)
```

For the full source of this example, see section 33.8.4

```
!! vecarray.F90
  PetscScalar,dimension(:),Pointer :: &
    in_array,out_array
  call VecGetArrayReadF90( x,in_array,ierr )
  call VecGetArrayF90( y,out_array,ierr )
  call VecGetLocalSize( x,localsize,ierr )
  do index=1,localsize
    out_array(index) = 2*in_array(index)
  end do
  call VecRestoreArrayReadF90( x,in_array,ierr )
  call VecRestoreArrayF90( y,out_array,ierr )
```

For the full source of this example, see section 33.8.5

Python note 41: Vector access.

```
||| x.getArray()
||| x.getValues(3)
```

Figure 33.19 MatCreate

C:
PetscErrorCode MatCreate(MPI_Comm comm,Mat *v);

Python:
mat = PETSc.Mat()
mat.create()
or:
mat = PETSc.Mat().create()

|| x.getValues([1, 2])

33.3.5 File I/O

As mentioned above, `VecView` can be used for displaying a vector on the terminal screen. However, viewers are actually much more general. As explained in section 39.2.2, they can also be used to export vector data, for instance to file.

The converse operation, to load a vector that was exported in this manner, is `VecLoad`.

Since these operations are each other's inverses, usually you don't need to know the file format. But just in case:

|| PetscInt VEC_FILE_CLASSID
|| PetscInt number of rows
|| PetscScalar *values of all entries

That is, the file starts with a magic number, then the number of vector elements, and subsequently all scalar values.

33.4 Mat: Matrices

PETSc matrices come in a number of types, sparse and dense being the most important ones. Another possibility is to have the matrix in operation form, where only the action $y \leftarrow Ax$ is defined.

33.4.1 Matrix creation

Creating a matrix also starts by specifying a communicator on which the matrix lives collectively: `MatCreate` (figure 33.19)

Set the matrix type with `MatSetType` (figure 33.20). The main choices are between sequential versus distributed and dense versus sparse, giving types: `MATMPIDENSE`, `MATMPIAIJ`, `MATSEQDENSE`, `MATSEQAIJ`.

Distributed matrices are partitioned by block rows: each process stores a *block row*, that is, a contiguous set of matrix rows. It stores all elements in that block row. In order for a matrix-vector product to be executable, both the input and output vector need to be partitioned conforming to the matrix.

While for dense matrices the block row scheme is not scalable, for matrices from PDEs it makes sense. There, a subdivision by matrix blocks would lead to many empty blocks.

Figure 33.20 MatSetType

```
#include "petscmat.h"
PetscErrorCode MatSetType(Mat mat, MatType matype)

Collective on Mat

Input Parameters:
mat - the matrix object
matype - matrix type

Options Database Key
-mat_type <method> -Sets the type; use -help for a list of available methods (for instance, seqaij)
```

Figure 33.21 MatSetSizes

```
C:
#include "petscmat.h"
PetscErrorCode MatSetSizes(Mat A,
    PetscInt m, PetscInt n, PetscInt M, PetscInt N)

Input Parameters
A : the matrix
m : number of local rows (or PETSC_DECIDE)
n : number of local columns (or PETSC_DECIDE)
M : number of global rows (or PETSC_DETERMINE)
N : number of global columns (or PETSC_DETERMINE)

Python:
PETSc.Mat.setSizes(self, size, bsize=None)
where 'size' is a tuple of 2 global sizes
or a tuple of 2 local/global pairs
```

Figure 33.22 MatSizes

```
C:
#include "petscmat.h"
PetscErrorCode MatGetSize(Mat mat, PetscInt *m, PetscInt *n)
PetscErrorCode MatGetLocalSize(Mat mat, PetscInt *m, PetscInt *n)

Python:
PETSc.Mat.getSize(self) # tuple of global sizes
PETSc.Mat.getLocalSize(self) # tuple of local sizes
PETSc.Mat.getSizes(self) # tuple of local/global size tuples
```

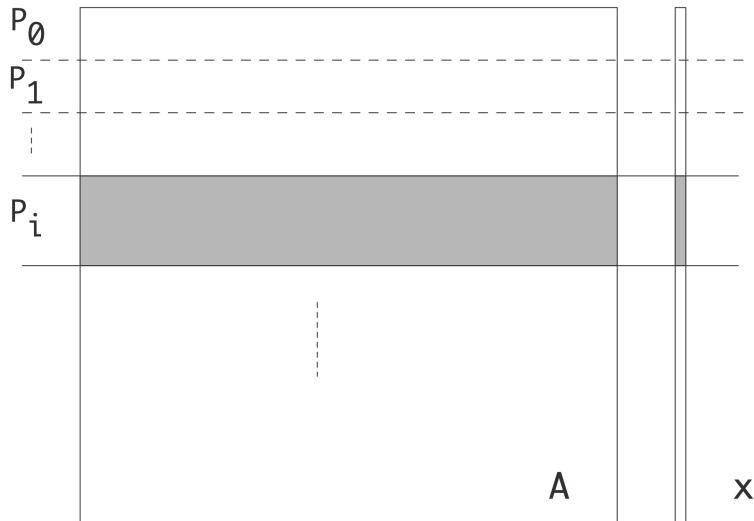


Figure 33.1: Matrix partitioning by block rows

Figure 33.23 `MatCreateVecs`

Synopsis

Get vector(s) compatible with the matrix, i.e. with the same parallel layout

```
#include "petscmat.h"
PetscErrorCode MatCreateVecs(Mat mat,Vec *right,Vec *left)

Collective on Mat

Input Parameter
mat - the matrix

Output Parameter;
right - (optional) vector that the matrix can be multiplied against
left - (optional) vector that the matrix vector product can be stored in
```

Just as with vectors, there is a local and global size; except that that now applies to rows and columns. Set sizes with `MatSetSizes` (figure 33.21) and subsequently query them with `MatSizes` (figure 33.22). The concept of local column size is tricky: since a process stores a full block row you may expect the local column size to be the full matrix size, but that is not true. The exact definition will be discussed later, but for square matrices it is a safe strategy to let the local row and column size to be equal.

Instead of querying a matrix size and creating vectors accordingly, the routine `MatCreateVecs` (figure 33.23) can be used. (Sometimes this is even required; see section 33.4.9.)

33.4.2 Nonzero structure

In case of a dense matrix, once you have specified the size and the number of MPI processes, it is simple to determine how much space PETSc needs to allocate for the matrix. For a sparse matrix this is more complicated, since the matrix can be anywhere between completely empty and completely filled in. It would be possible to have a dynamic

Figure 33.24 MatSeqAIJSetPreallocation

```
#include "petscmat.h"
PetscErrorCode MatSeqAIJSetPreallocation
  (Mat B,PetscInt nz,const PetscInt nnz[])
PetscErrorCode MatMPIAIJSetPreallocation
  (Mat B,PetscInt d_nz,const PetscInt d_nnz[],
   PetscInt o_nz,const PetscInt o_nnz[])

Input Parameters

B - the matrix
nz/d_nz/o_nz - number of nonzeros per row in matrix or
  diagonal/off-diagonal portion of local submatrix
nnz/d_nnz/o_nnz - array containing the number of nonzeros in the various rows of
  the sequential matrix / diagonal / offdiagonal part of the local submatrix
  or NULL (PETSC_NULL_INTEGER in Fortran) if nz/d_nz/o_nz is used.
```

Python:

```
PETSc.Mat.setPreallocationNNZ(self, [nnz_d,nnz_o] )
PETSc.Mat.setPreallocationCSR(self, csr)
PETSc.Mat.setPreallocationDense(self, array)
```

approach where, as elements are specified, the space grows; however, repeated allocations and re-allocations are inefficient. For this reason PETSc puts a small burden on the programmer: you need to specify a bound on how many elements the matrix will contain.

We explain this by looking at some cases. First we consider a matrix that only lives on a single process. You would then use `MatSeqAIJSetPreallocation` (figure 33.24). In the case of a tridiagonal matrix you would specify that each row has three elements:

```
|| MatSeqAIJSetPreallocation(A,3, NULL);
```

If the matrix is less regular you can use the third argument to give an array of explicit row lengths:

```
|| int *rowlengths;
  // allocate, and then:
  for (int row=0; row<nrows; row++)
    rowlengths[row] = // calculation of row length
  MatSeqAIJSetPreallocation(A,NULL,rowlengths);
```

In case of a distributed matrix you need to specify this bound with respect to the block structure of the matrix. As illustrated in figure 33.2, a matrix has a diagonal part and an off-diagonal part. The diagonal part describes the matrix elements that couple elements of the input and output vector that live on this process. The off-diagonal part contains the matrix elements that are multiplied with elements not on this process, in order to compute elements that do live on this process.

The preallocation specification now has separate parameters for these diagonal and off-diagonal parts: with `MatMPIAIJSetPreallocation` (figure 33.24), you specify for both either a global upper bound on the number of nonzeros, or a detailed listing of row lengths. For the matrix of the *Laplace equation*, this specification would seem to be:

```
|| MatMPIAIJSetPreallocation(A, 3, NULL, 2, NULL);
```

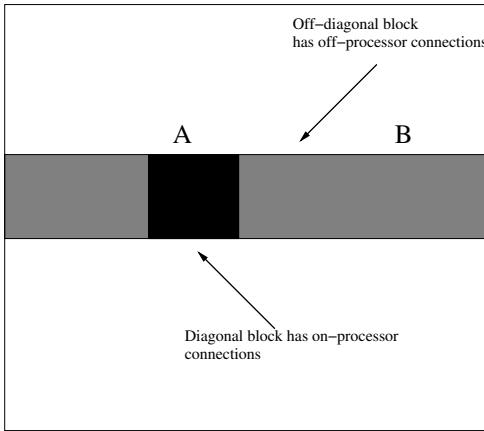


Figure 33.2: The diagonal and off-diagonal parts of a matrix

Figure 33.25 `MatSetValue`

C:

```
#include <petscmat.h>
PetscErrorCode MatSetValue(
    Mat m, PetscInt row, PetscInt col, PetscScalar value, InsertMode mode)

Input Parameters
m : the matrix
row : the row location of the entry
col : the column location of the entry
value : the value to insert
mode : either INSERT_VALUES or ADD_VALUES
```

Python:

```
PETSc.Mat.setValue(self, row, col, value, addv=None)
also supported:
A[row,col] = value
```

However, this is only correct if the block structure from the parallel division equals that from the lines in the domain. In general it may be necessary to use values that are an overestimate. It is then possible to contract the storage by copying the matrix.

Specifying bounds on the number of nonzeros is often enough, and not too wasteful. However, if many rows have fewer nonzeros than these bounds, a lot of space is wasted. In that case you can replace the NULL arguments by an array that lists for each row the number of nonzeros in that row.

33.4.3 Matrix elements

You can set a single matrix element with `MatSetValue` (figure 33.25) or a block of them, where you supply a set of i and j indices, using `MatSetValues`.

After setting matrix elements, the matrix needs to be assembled. This is where PETSc moves matrix elements to the right processor, if they were specified elsewhere. As with vectors this takes two calls: `MatAssemblyBegin` (figure 33.26) and `MatAssemblyEnd` (figure 33.26) which can be used to achieve *latency hiding*.

Figure 33.26 MatAssemblyBegin

```
C:
#include "petscmat.h"
PetscErrorCode MatAssemblyBegin(Mat mat,MatAssemblyType type)
PetscErrorCode MatAssemblyEnd(Mat mat,MatAssemblyType type)

Input Parameters
mat- the matrix
type- type of assembly, either MAT_FLUSH_ASSEMBLY
      or MAT_FINAL_ASSEMBLY

Python:
assemble(self, assembly=None)
assemblyBegin(self, assembly=None)
assemblyEnd(self, assembly=None)

there is a class PETSc.Mat.AssemblyType:
FINAL = FINAL_ASSEMBLY = 0
FLUSH = FLUSH_ASSEMBLY = 1
```

Elements can either be inserted ([INSERT_VALUES](#)) or added ([ADD_VALUES](#)). You can not immediately mix these modes; to do so you need to call [MatAssemblyBegin](#) / [MatAssemblyEnd](#) with a value of [MAT_FLUSH_ASSEMBLY](#).

PETSc sparse matrices are very flexible: you can create them empty and then start adding elements. However, this is very inefficient in execution since the OS needs to reallocate the matrix every time it grows a little. Therefore, PETSc has calls for the user to indicate how many elements the matrix will ultimately contain.

```
|| MatSetOption(A, MAT_NEW_NONZERO_ALLOCATION_ERR, PETSC_FALSE)
```

33.4.3.1 Element access

If you absolutely need access to the matrix elements, there are routines such as [MatGetRow](#) (figure 33.27). With this, any process can request, using global row numbering, the contents of a row that it owns. (Requesting elements that are not local requires the different mechanism of taking submatrices; section 33.4.6.)

Since PETSc is geared towards *sparse matrices*, this returns not only the element values, but also the column numbers, as well as the mere number of stored columns. If any of these three return values are not needed, they can be unrequested by setting the parameter passed to [NULL](#).

PETSc insists that you properly release the row again with [MatRestoreRow](#) (figure 33.27).

It is also possible to retrieve the full Compressed Row Storage (CRS) contents of the local matrix with [MatDenseGetArray](#), [MatDenseRestoreArray](#), [MatSeqAIJGetArray](#), [MatSeqAIJRestoreArray](#). (Routines [MatGetArray](#) / [MatRestoreArray](#) are deprecated.)

33.4.4 Matrix viewers

Matrices can be ‘viewed’ (see section 39.2.2 for a discussion of the [PetscViewer](#) mechanism) in a variety of ways, starting with the [MatView](#) call. However, often it is more convenient to use online options such as

```
yourprogram -mat_view
yourprogram -mat_view draw
yourprogram -ksp_mat_view draw
```

Figure 33.27 **MatGetRow**

Synopsis:

```
#include "petscmat.h"
PetscErrorCode MatGetRow
  (Mat mat,PetscInt row,
   PetscInt *ncols,const PetscInt *cols[],const PetscScalar *vals[])
PetscErrorCode MatRestoreRow
  (Mat mat,PetscInt row,
   PetscInt *ncols,const PetscInt *cols[],const PetscScalar *vals[])
```

Input Parameters:

`mat` - the matrix
`row` - the row to get

Output Parameters

`ncols` - if not NULL, the number of nonzeros in the row
`cols` - if not NULL, the column numbers
`vals` - if not NULL, the values

Figure 33.28 **MatMult**

Synopsis

```
#include "petscmat.h"
PetscErrorCode MatMult(Mat mat,Vec x,Vec y)
PetscErrorCode MatMultTranspose(Mat mat,Vec x,Vec y)
```

Neighbor-wise Collective on Mat

Input Parameters

`mat` - the matrix
`x` - the vector to be multiplied

Output Parameters

`y` - the result

where `-mat_view` is activated by the assembly routine, while `-ksp_mat_view` shows only the matrix used as operator for a **KSP** object. Without further option refinements this will display the matrix elements inside the sparsity pattern. Using a sub-option `draw` will cause the sparsity pattern to be displayed in an *X11* window.

33.4.5 Matrix operations

33.4.5.1 Matrix-vector operations

In the typical application of PETSc, solving large sparse linear systems of equations with iterative methods, matrix-vector operations are most important. Foremost there is the matrix-vector product **MatMult** (figure 33.28) and the transpose product **MatMultTranspose** (figure 33.28). (In the complex case, the transpose product is not the Hermitian matrix product; for that use **MatMultHermitianTranspose**.)

For the BLAS `gemv` semantics $y \leftarrow \alpha Ax + \beta y$, **MatMultAdd** (figure 33.29) computes $z \leftarrow Ax + y$.

Figure 33.29 `MatMultAdd`

Synopsis
`#include "petscmat.h"`
`PetscErrorCode MatMultAdd(Mat mat,Vec x,Vec y,Vec z)`

Neighbor-wise Collective on Mat

Input Parameters
`mat` - the matrix
`x, y` - the vectors

Output Parameters
`z` -the result

Notes

The vectors `x` and `z` cannot be the same.

33.4.5.2 Matrix-matrix operations

There is a number of matrix-matrix routines such as `MatMatMult`.

33.4.6 Submatrices

Given a parallel matrix, there are two routines for extracting submatrices:

- `MatCreateSubMatrix` creates a single parallel submatrix.
- `MatCreateSubMatrices` creates a sequential submatrix on each process.

33.4.7 Shell matrices

In many scientific applications, a matrix stands for some operator, and we are not intrinsically interested in the matrix elements, but only in the action of the matrix on a vector. In fact, under certain circumstances it is more convenient to implement a routine that computes the matrix action than to construct the matrix explicitly.

Maybe surprisingly, solving a linear system of equations can be handled this way. The reason is that PETSc's iterative solvers (section 36.1) only need the matrix-times-vector (and perhaps the matrix-transpose-times-vector) product.

PETSc supports this mode of working. The routine `MatCreateShell` (figure 33.30) declares the argument to be a matrix given in operator form.

33.4.7.1 Shell operations

The next step is then to add the custom multiplication routine, which will be invoked by `MatMult`: `MatShellSetOperation` (figure 33.31)

The routine that implements the actual product should have the same signature as `MatMult`, accepting a matrix and two vectors. The key to realizing your own product routine lies in the 'context' argument to the create routine. With `MatShellSetContext` (figure 33.32) you pass a pointer to some structure that contains all contextual information you need. In your multiplication routine you then retrieve this with `MatShellGetContext` (figure 33.33).

What operation is specified is determined by a keyword `MATOP_<OP>` where `OP` is the name of the matrix routine, minus the `Mat` part, in all caps.

Figure 33.30 MatCreateShell

```
#include "petscmat.h"
PetscErrorCode MatCreateShell
  (MPI_Comm comm,
   PetscInt m,PetscInt n,PetscInt M,PetscInt N,
   void *ctx,Mat *A)

Collective

Input Parameters:
comm- MPI communicator
m- number of local rows (must be given)
n- number of local columns (must be given)
M- number of global rows (may be PETSC_DETERMINE)
N- number of global columns (may be PETSC_DETERMINE)
ctx- pointer to data needed by the shell matrix routines

Output Parameter:
A -the matrix
```

Figure 33.31 MatShellSetOperation

```
#include "petscmat.h"
PetscErrorCode MatShellSetOperation
  (Mat mat,MatOperation op,void (*g)(void))

Logically Collective on Mat

Input Parameters:
mat- the shell matrix
op- the name of the operation
g- the function that provides the operation.
```

Figure 33.32 MatShellSetContext

```
Synopsis
#include "petscmat.h"
PetscErrorCode MatShellSetContext(Mat mat,void *ctx)

Input Parameters
mat - the shell matrix
ctx - the context
```

Figure 33.33 MatShellGetContext

```
#include "petscmat.h"
PetscErrorCode MatShellGetContext(Mat mat,void *ctx)

Not Collective

Input Parameter:
mat -the matrix, should have been created with MatCreateShell()

Output Parameter:
ctx -the user provided context
```

```

|| MatCreate(comm,&A);
|| MatSetSizes(A,localsize,localsize,matrix_size,matrix_size);
|| MatsetType(A,MATSHELL);
|| MatSetFromOptions(A);
|| MatShellSetOperation(A,MATOP_MULT,(void*)&mymatmult);
|| MatShellSetContext(A,(void*)Diag);
|| MatSetUp(A);

```

(The call to `MatSetSizes` needs to come before `MatsetType`.)

33.4.7.2 Shell context

Setting the context means passing a pointer (really: an address) to some allocated structure

```

|| struct matrix_data mystruct;
|| MatShellSetContext( A, &mystruct );

```

The routine signature has this argument as a `void*` but it's not necessary to cast it to that. Getting the context means that a pointer to your structure needs to be set

```

|| struct matrix_data *mystruct;
|| MatShellGetContext( A, &mystruct );

```

Somewhat confusingly, the Get routine also has a `void*` argument, even though it's really a pointer variable.

33.4.8 Multi-component matrices

For multi-component physics problems there are essentially two ways of storing the linear system

1. Grouping the physics equations together, or
2. grouping the domain nodes together.

In both cases this corresponds to a block matrix, but for a problem of N nodes and 3 equations, the respective structures are:

1. 3×3 blocks of size N , versus
2. $N \times N$ blocks of size 3.

The first case can be pictured as

$$\begin{pmatrix} A_{00} & A_{01} & A_{02} \\ A_{10} & A_{11} & A_{12} \\ A_{20} & A_{21} & A_{22} \end{pmatrix}$$

and while it looks natural, there is a computational problem with it. Preconditioners for such problems often look like

$$\begin{pmatrix} A_{00} & & \\ & A_{11} & \\ & & A_{22} \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{or} \quad \begin{pmatrix} A_{00} & & \\ A_{10} & A_{11} & \\ A_{20} & A_{21} & A_{22} \end{pmatrix}$$

With the block-row partitioning of PETSc's matrices, this means at most a 50% efficiency for the preconditioner solve.

It is better to use the second scheme, which requires the `MATMPIBJ` format, and use so-called *field-split preconditioners*; see section 36.1.7.3.5.

33.4.9 Fourier transform

The *Fast Fourier Transform (FFT)* can be considered a matrix-vector multiplication. PETSc supports this by letting you create a matrix with `MatCreateFFT`. This requires that you add an FFT library, such as `fftw`, at configuration time; see section 32.4.

FFT libraries may use padding, so vectors should be created with `MatCreateVecsFFTW`, not with an independent `VecSetSizes`.

The `fftw` library does not scale the output vector, so a forward followed by a backward pass gives a result that is too large by the vector size.

```
// fftsine.c
ierr = VecView(signal,PETSC_VIEWER_STDOUT_WORLD);
ierr = MatMult(transform,signal,frequencies);
ierr = VecScale(frequencies,1./Nglobal);
ierr = VecView(frequencies,PETSC_VIEWER_STDOUT_WORLD);
```

For the full source of this example, see section 33.8.3

One full cosine wave:

```
1.
0.809017 + 0.587785 i
0.309017 + 0.951057 i
-0.309017 + 0.951057 i
-0.809017 + 0.587785 i
-1. + 1.22465e-16 i
-0.809017 - 0.587785 i
-0.309017 - 0.951057 i
0.309017 - 0.951057 i
0.809017 - 0.587785 i
```

Frequency $n = 1$ amplitude $\equiv 1$:

```
-2.22045e-17 + 2.33487e-17 i
1. - 9.23587e-17 i
2.85226e-17 + 1.56772e-17 i
-4.44089e-17 + 1.75641e-17 i
-3.35828e-19 + 3.26458e-18 i
0. - 1.22465e-17 i
-1.33873e-17 + 3.26458e-18 i
-4.44089e-17 + 7.59366e-18 i
7.40494e-18 + 1.56772e-17 i
0. + 1.8215e-17 i
```

Strangely enough, the backward pass does not need to be scaled:

```
Vec confirm;
ierr = VecDuplicate(signal,&confirm);
ierr = MatMultTranspose(transform,frequencies,confirm);
ierr = VecAXPY(confirm,-1,signal);
PetscReal nrm;
ierr = VecNorm(confirm,NORM_2,&nrm);
PetscPrintf(MPI_COMM_WORLD,"FFT accuracy %e\n",nrm);
ierr = VecDestroy(&confirm);
```

For the full source of this example, see section 33.8.3

33.5 Index sets and Vector Scatters

In the PDE type of applications that PETSc was originally intended for, vector data can only be real or complex: there are no vector of integers. On the other hand, integers are used for indexing into vector, for instance for gathering boundary elements into a *halo region*, or for doing the *data transpose* of an *FFT* operation.

To support this, PETSc has the following object types:

Figure 33.34 VecScatterCreate

Synopsis

Creates a vector scatter context. Collective on Vec

```
#include "petscvec.h"
PetscErrorCode VecScatterCreate(Vec xin,IS ix,Vec yin,IS iy,VecScatter *newctx)
```

Input Parameters:

xin : a vector that defines the layout of vectors from which we scatter
yin : a vector that defines the layout of vectors to which we scatter
ix : the indices of xin to scatter (if NULL scatters all values)
iy : the indices of yin to hold results (if NULL fills entire vector yin)

Output Parameter

newctx : location to store the new scatter context

- An **IS** object describes a set of integer indices;
- a **VecScatter** object describes the correspondence between a group of indices in an input vector and a group of indices in an output vector.

33.5.1 IS: index sets

An **IS** object contains a set of **PetscInt** values. It can be created with

- **ISCreate** for creating an empty set;
- **ISCreateStride** for a strided set;
- **ISCreateBlock** for a set of contiguous blocks, placed at an explicitly given list of starting indices.
- **ISCreateGeneral** for an explicitly given list of indices.

For example, to describe odd and even indices (on two processes):

```
// oddeven.c
IS oddeven;
if (procid==0) {
    ierr = ISCreateStride(comm,Nglobal/2,0,2,&oddeven);
} else {
    ierr = ISCreateStride(comm,Nglobal/2,1,2,&oddeven);
}
```

For the full source of this example, see section 33.8.6

After this, there are various query and set operations on index sets.

You can read out the indices of a set by **ISGetIndices** and **ISRestoreIndices**.

33.5.2 VecScatter: all-to-all operations

A **VecScatter** object is a generalization of an all-to-all operation. However, unlike MPI **MPI_Alltoall**, which formulates everything in terms of local buffers, a **VecScatter** is more implicit in only describing indices in the input and output vectors.The **VecScatterCreate** (figure 33.34) call has as arguments:

- An input vector. From this, the parallel layout is used; any vector being scattered from should have this same layout.

- An `IS` object describing what indices are being scattered; if the whole vector is rearranged, `NULL` (Fortran: `PETSC_NULL_IS`) can be given.
- An output vector. From this, the parallel layout is used; any vector being scattered into should have this same layout.
- An `IS` object describing what indices are being scattered into; if the whole vector is a target, `NULL` can be given.

As a simple example, the odd/even sets defined above can be used to move all components with even index to process zero, and the ones with odd index to process one:

```
|| VecScatter separate;
ierr = VecScatterCreate
  (in,oddeven,out,NULL,&separate);
ierr = VecScatterBegin
  (separate,in,out,INSERT_VALUES,SCATTER_FORWARD);
ierr = VecScatterEnd
  (separate,in,out,INSERT_VALUES,SCATTER_FORWARD);
```

For the full source of this example, see section [33.8.6](#)

Note that the index set is applied to the input vector, since it describes the components to be moved. The output vector uses `NULL` since these components are placed in sequence.

Exercise 33.3. Modify this example so that the components are still separated odd/even, but now placed in descending order on each process.

Exercise 33.4. Can you extend this example so that process p receives all indices that are multiples of p ? Is your solution correct if N_{global} is not a multiple of n_{procs} ?

33.5.2.1 More `VecScatter` modes

There is an added complication, in that a `VecScatter` can have both sequential and parallel input or output vectors. Scattering onto process zero is also a popular option.

33.6 AO: Application Orderings

PETSc's decision to partition a matrix by contiguous block rows may be a limitation in the sense an application can have a natural ordering that is different. For such cases the `AO` type can translate between the two schemes.

33.7 Partitionings

By default, PETSc uses partitioning of matrices and vectors based on consecutive blocks of variables. In regular cases that is not a bad strategy. However, for some matrices a permutation and re-division can be advantageous. For instance, one could look at the *adjacency graph*, and minimize the number of *edge cuts* or the sum of the *edge weights*.

This functionality is not built into PETSc, but can be provided by *graph partitioning packages* such as *ParMetis* or *Zoltan*. The basic object is the `MatPartitioning`, with routines for

- Create and destroy: `MatPartitioningCreate`, `MatPartitioningDestroy`;
- Setting the type `MatPartitioningSetType` to an explicit partitioner, or something generated as the dual or a refinement of the current matrix;

- Apply with `MatPartitioningApply`, giving a distributed `IS` object, which can then be used in `MatCreateSubMatrix` to repartition.

Illustrative example:

```
|| MatPartitioning part;
|| MatPartitioningCreate(comm,&part);
|| MatPartitioningSetType(part,MATPARTITIONINGPARMETIS);
|| MatPartitioningApply(part,&is);
|| /* get new global number of each old global number */
|| ISPartitioningToNumbering(is,&isn);
|| ISBuildTwoSided(is,NULL,&isrows);
|| MatCreateSubMatrix(A,isrows,isrows,MAT_INITIAL_MATRIX,&perA);
```

Other scenario:

```
|| MatPartitioningSetAdjacency(part,A);
|| MatPartitioningSetType(part,MATPARTITIONINGHIERARCH);
|| MatPartitioningHierarchicalSetNcoarseparts(part,2);
|| MatPartitioningHierarchicalSetNfineparts(part,2);
```

33.8 Sources used in this chapter

33.8.1 Listing of code header

33.8.2 Listing of code examples/petsc/c/split.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <math.h>

static char help[] = "\nOwnership example.\n\n";

#include <petscvec.h>

int main(int argc,char **argv)
{
    Vec           x,y;                  /* vectors */
    int nprocs,procid;
    PetscErrorCode ierr;

    PetscInitialize(&argc,&argv,(char*)0,help);
    MPI_Comm comm = PETSC_COMM_WORLD;
    MPI_Comm_size(comm,&nprocs);
    MPI_Comm_rank(comm,&procid);

    PetscInt N,n;
    N = 100; n = PETSC_DECIDE;
    PetscSplitOwnership(comm,&n,&N);
    PetscPrintf(comm,"Global %d, local %d\n",N,n);

    N = PETSC_DECIDE; n = 10;
    PetscSplitOwnership(comm,&n,&N);
    PetscPrintf(comm,"Global %d, local %d\n",N,n);

    return PetscFinalize();
}
```

33.8.3 Listing of code examples/petsc/c/fftsine.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <math.h>

static char help[] = "\nFFT example.\n\n";

#include <petscmat.h>

int main(int argc,char **argv)
{
    Vec           x,y;                  /* vectors */
    int nprocs,procid;
```

```

PetscErrorCode ierr;

PetscInitialize(&argc,&argv,(char*)0,help);
MPI_Comm comm = PETSC_COMM_WORLD;
MPI_Comm_size(comm,&nprocs);
MPI_Comm_rank(comm,&procid);

PetscInt Nlocal = 10, Nglobal = Nlocal*nprocs;
PetscPrintf(comm,"FFT examples on N=%d n=%d\n",Nglobal,Nlocal);

Mat transform;
int dimensionality=1;
PetscInt dimensions[dimensionality]; dimensions[0] = Nglobal;
PetscPrintf(comm,"Creating fft D=%d, dim=%d\n",dimensionality,dimensions[0]);
ierr = MatCreateFFT(comm,dimensionality,dimensions,MATFFTW,&transform); CHKERRQ(ierr);
{
    PetscInt fft_i,fft_j;
    ierr = MatGetSize(transform,&fft_i,&fft_j); CHKERRQ(ierr);
    PetscPrintf(comm,"FFT global size %d x %d\n",fft_i,fft_j);
}
Vec signal,frequencies;
ierr = MatCreateVecsFFTW(transform,&frequencies,&signal,PETSC_NULL); CHKERRQ(ierr);
ierr = PetscObjectSetName((PetscObject)signal,"signal"); CHKERRQ(ierr);
ierr = PetscObjectSetName((PetscObject)frequencies,"frequencies"); CHKERRQ(ierr);
ierr = VecAssemblyBegin(signal); CHKERRQ(ierr);
ierr = VecAssemblyEnd(signal); CHKERRQ(ierr);
{
    PetscInt nlocal,nglobal;
    ierr = VecGetLocalSize(signal,&nlocal); CHKERRQ(ierr);
    ierr = VecGetSize(signal,&nglobal); CHKERRQ(ierr);
    ierr = PetscPrintf(comm,"Signal local=%d global=%d\n",nlocal,nglobal); CHKERRQ(ierr);
}

PetscInt myfirst,mylast;
ierr = VecGetOwnershipRange(signal,&myfirst,&mylast); CHKERRQ(ierr);
printf("Setting %d -- %d\n",myfirst,mylast);
for (PetscInt vecindex=0; vecindex<Nglobal; vecindex++) {
    PetscScalar
        pi = 4. * atan(1.0),
        h = 1./Nglobal,
        phi = 2* pi * vecindex * h,
        puresine = cos( phi )
#if defined(PETSC_USE_COMPLEX)
        + PETSC_I * sin(phi)
#endif
;
    ierr = VecSetValue(signal,vecindex,puresine,INSERT_VALUES); CHKERRQ(ierr);
}
ierr = VecAssemblyBegin(signal); CHKERRQ(ierr);
ierr = VecAssemblyEnd(signal); CHKERRQ(ierr);

ierr = VecView(signal,PETSC_VIEWER_STDOUT_WORLD); CHKERRQ(ierr);
ierr = MatMult(transform,signal,frequencies); CHKERRQ(ierr);

```

```
ierr = VecScale(frequencies,1./Nglobal); CHKERRQ(ierr);
ierr = VecView(frequencies,PETSC_VIEWER_STDOUT_WORLD); CHKERRQ(ierr);

{
  Vec confirm;
  ierr = VecDuplicate(signal,&confirm); CHKERRQ(ierr);
  ierr = MatMultTranspose(transform,frequencies,confirm); CHKERRQ(ierr);
  ierr = VecAXPY(confirm,-1,signal); CHKERRQ(ierr);
  PetscReal nrm;
  ierr = VecNorm(confirm,NORM_2,&nrm); CHKERRQ(ierr);
  PetscPrintf(MPI_COMM_WORLD,"FFT accuracy %e\n",nrm);
  ierr = VecDestroy(&confirm); CHKERRQ(ierr);
}

ierr = MatDestroy(&transform); CHKERRQ(ierr);
ierr = VecDestroy(&signal); CHKERRQ(ierr);
ierr = VecDestroy(&frequencies); CHKERRQ(ierr);

return PetscFinalize();
}
```

33.8.4 Listing of code examples/petsc/f/vecset.F90

```
Program VecSetF90

#include <petsc/finclude/petsc.h>
use petsc
implicit none

Vec           :: vector
PetscScalar,dimension(:),pointer :: elements
PetscErrorCode :: ierr
PetscInt       :: globalsize
integer        :: myrank,vecidx,comm
PetscScalar    :: vecelt
character*80   :: msg

call PetscInitialize(PETSC_NULL_CHARACTER,ierr)
CHKERRA(ierr)
comm = MPI_COMM_WORLD
call MPI_Comm_rank(comm,myrank,ierr)

call VecCreate(comm,vector,ierr)
call VecSetType(vector,VECMPI,ierr)
call VecSetSizes(vector,2,PETSC_DECIDE,ierr)
call VecGetSize(vector,globalsize,ierr)

if (myrank==0) then
  do vecidx=0,globalsize-1
    vecelt = vecidx
    call VecSetValue(vector,vecidx,vecelt,INSERT_VALUES,ierr)
  end do
end if
```

```

call VecAssemblyBegin(vector,ierr)
call VecAssemblyEnd(vector,ierr)
call VecView(vector,PETSC_VIEWER_STDOUT_WORLD,ierr)

call VecGetArrayF90(vector,elements,ierr)
write (msg,10) myrank,elements(1)
10 format("First element on process",i3,":",f7.4,"\\n")
call PetscSynchronizedPrintf(comm,msg,ierr)
call PetscSynchronizedFlush(comm,PETSC_STDOUT,ierr)
call VecRestoreArrayF90(vector,elements,ierr)

call VecDestroy(vector,ierr)
call PetscFinalize(ierr); CHKERRQ(ierr);

End Program VecSetF90

```

33.8.5 Listing of code examples/petsc/f08/vecarray.F90

```

program VecArray
#include <petsc/finclude/petsc.h>
use petsc
implicit none

MPI_Comm      :: comm
Vec           :: x,y
PetscInt       :: n=1, procno
PetscScalar    :: one=1.0, two=2.0, value, inprod,scaling,xnorm,ynorm
PetscScalar,dimension(:,),Pointer :: &
    in_array,out_array
PetscInt       :: globalsize,localsize,myfirst,mylast,index
Character*80 :: message
PetscBool      :: flag
PetscErrorCode :: ierr

call PetscInitialize(PETSC_NULL_CHARACTER,ierr)
CHKERRA(ierr)
comm = PETSC_COMM_WORLD
call MPI_Comm_rank(comm,procno,ierr)

!!
!! Get a commandline argument for the size of the problem
!!
call PetscOptionsGetInt( &
    PETSC_NULL_OPTIONS,PETSC_NULL_CHARACTER, &
    "-n",n,flag,ierr)
CHKERRA(ierr)

!!
!! Create vector `x' with a default layout
!!
call VecCreate(comm,x,ierr); CHKERRA(ierr)
call VecSetSizes(x,n,PETSC_DECIDE,ierr); CHKERRA(ierr)
call VecSetFromOptions(x,ierr); CHKERRA(ierr)

```

```
!!  
!! Set x,y to constant values  
!!  
call VecSet(x,one,ierr); CHKERRA(ierr)  
  
!!  
!! Make another vector, just like x  
!!  
call VecDuplicate(x,y,ierr); CHKERRA(ierr)  
  
!!  
!! Get arrays and operate on them  
!!  
call VecGetArrayReadF90( x,in_array,ierr )  
call VecGetArrayF90( y,out_array,ierr )  
call VecGetLocalSize( x,localsize,ierr )  
do index=1,localsize  
    out_array(index) = 2*in_array(index)  
end do  
call VecRestoreArrayReadF90( x,in_array,ierr )  
call VecRestoreArrayF90( y,out_array,ierr )  
  
!!  
!! Sanity check printout  
!!  
call VecNorm(x,NORM_2,xnorm,ierr)  
call VecNorm(y,NORM_2,ynorm,ierr)  
write(message,10) xnorm,ynorm  
10 format("Norm x: ",f6.3,", y: ",f6.3,"\\n")  
call PetscPrintf(comm,message,ierr)  
  
!!  
!! Free work space. All PETSc objects should be destroyed when they  
!! are no longer needed  
!!  
call VecDestroy(x,ierr)  
call VecDestroy(y,ierr)  
  
call PetscFinalize(ierr);  
CHKERRA(ierr)  
  
END program VecArray
```

33.8.6 Listing of code examples/petsc/c/oddeven.c

```
#include "petscksp.h"  
  
#undef __FUNCT__  
#define __FUNCT__ "main"  
int main(int argc,char **args)  
{  
    PetscErrorCode ierr;
```

```

MPI_Comm comm;

PetscFunctionBegin;
PetscInitialize(&argc,&args,0,0);

comm = MPI_COMM_WORLD;

int nprocs,procid;
MPI_Comm_rank(comm,&procid);
MPI_Comm_size(comm,&nprocs);
if (nprocs!=2) {
  PetscPrintf(comm,"This example only works on 2 processes, not %d\n",nprocs);
  PetscFunctionReturn(-1); }

PetscInt Nglobal = 2*nprocs;
{
  PetscInt x=1;
  ierr = PetscOptionsGetInt(PETSC_NULL,PETSC_NULL,"-x",&x,NULL); CHKERRQ(ierr);
  Nglobal *= x;
}

Vec in,out;
ierr = VecCreate(comm,&in); CHKERRQ(ierr);
ierr = VecSetType(in,VECMPI); CHKERRQ(ierr);
ierr = VecSetSizes(in,PETSC_DECIDE,Nglobal); CHKERRQ(ierr);
ierr = VecDuplicate(in,&out); CHKERRQ(ierr);

{
  PetscInt myfirst,mylast;
  ierr = VecGetOwnershipRange(in,&myfirst,&mylast); CHKERRQ(ierr);
  for (PetscInt index=myfirst; index<mylast; index++) {
    PetscScalar v = index;
    ierr = VecSetValue(in,index,v,INSERT_VALUES); CHKERRQ(ierr);
  }
  ierr = VecAssemblyBegin(in); CHKERRQ(ierr);
  ierr = VecAssemblyEnd(in); CHKERRQ(ierr);
}

IS oddeven;
if (procid==0) {
  ierr = ISCreateStride(comm,Nglobal/2,0,2,&oddeven); CHKERRQ(ierr);
} else {
  ierr = ISCreateStride(comm,Nglobal/2,1,2,&oddeven); CHKERRQ(ierr);
}
ISView(oddeven,0);

VecScatter separate;
ierr = VecScatterCreate
  (in,oddeven,out,NULL,&separate); CHKERRQ(ierr);
ierr = VecScatterBegin
  (separate,in,out,INSERT_VALUES,SCATTER_FORWARD); CHKERRQ(ierr);
ierr = VecScatterEnd
  (separate,in,out,INSERT_VALUES,SCATTER_FORWARD); CHKERRQ(ierr);

```

```
ierr = ISDestroy(&oddeven); CHKERRQ(ierr);
ierr = VecScatterDestroy(&separate); CHKERRQ(ierr);

ierr = VecView(in,0); CHKERRQ(ierr);
ierr = VecView(out,0); CHKERRQ(ierr);

ierr = VecDestroy(&in); CHKERRQ(ierr);
ierr = VecDestroy(&out); CHKERRQ(ierr);

return PetscFinalize();
}
```

Chapter 34

Grid support

PETSc's `DM` objects raise the abstraction level from the linear algebra problem to the physics problem: they allow for a more direct expression of operators in terms of their domain of definition. In this section we look at the `DMDA` 'distributed array' objects, which correspond to problems defined on Cartesian grids. Distributed arrays make it easier to construct the coefficient matrix of an operator that is defined as a *stencil* on a 1/2/3-dimensional *Cartesian grid*.

The main creation routine exists in three variants that mostly differ their number of parameters. For instance, `DMDACreate2d` has parameters along the x, y axes. However, `DMDACreate1d` has no parameter for the stencil type, since in 1D those are all the same, or for the process distribution.

34.1 Grid definition

A two-dimensional grid is created with `DMDACreate2d` (figure 34.1)

```
||| DMDACreate2d( communicator,
    x_boundary,y_boundary,
    stenciltypes,
    gridx,gridy, procx,procy, dof, width,
    partitionx,partitiony,
    grid);
```

- Boundary type is a value of type `DMBoundaryType`. Values are:
 - `DM_BOUNDARY_NONE`
 - `DM_BOUNDARY_GHOSTED`,
 - `DM_BOUNDARY_PERIODIC`,
- The stencil type is of type `DMStencilType`, with values
 - `DMDA_STENCIL_BOX`,
 - `DMDA_STENCIL_STAR`.(See figure 34.1)
- The `gridx,gridy` values are the global grid size. This can be set with commandline options `-da_grid_x/y/z`.
- The `procx,procy` variables are an explicit specification of the processor grid. Failing this specification, PETSc will try to find a distribution similar to the domain grid.
- `dof` indicates the number of 'degrees of freedom', where 1 corresponds to a scalar problem.
- `width` indicates the extent of the stencil: 1 for a 5-point stencil or more general a 2nd order stencil for 2nd order PDEs, 2 for 2nd order discretizations of a 4th order PDE, et cetera.

34. Grid support

Figure 34.1 `DMDACreate2d`

```
#include "petscdmda.h"
PetscErrorCode DMDACreate2d(MPI_Comm comm,
                           DMBoundaryType bx,DMBoundaryType by,DMDAStencilType stencil_type,
                           PetscInt M,PetscInt N,PetscInt m,PetscInt n,PetscInt dof,
                           PetscInt s,const PetscInt lx[],const PetscInt ly[],
                           DM *da)
```

Input Parameters

comm - MPI communicator
bx,by - type of ghost nodes: DM_BOUNDARY_NONE, DM_BOUNDARY_GHOSTED, DM_BOUNDARY_PERIODIC.
stencil_type - stencil type: DMDA_STENCIL_BOX or DMDA_STENCIL_STAR.
M,N - global dimension in each direction of
m,n - corresponding number of processors in each dimension (or PETSC_DECIDE)
dof - number of degrees of freedom per node
s - stencil width
lx, ly - arrays containing the number of
nodes in each cell along the x and y coordinates, or NULL.

Output Parameter

da -the resulting distributed array object

Figure 34.2 `DMDAGetLocalInfo`

```
#include "petscdmda.h"
PetscErrorCode DMDAGetLocalInfo(DM da,DMDALocalInfo *info)
```

- partitionx,partitiony are arrays giving explicit partitionings of the grid over the processors, or PETSC_NULL for default distributions.

Code:

```
// dmrhs.c
DM grid;
ierr = DMDACreate2d
  ( comm,
    DM_BOUNDARY_NONE,DM_BOUNDARY_NONE,
    DMDA_STENCIL_STAR,
    100,100,
    PETSC_DECIDE,PETSC_DECIDE,
    1,
    1,
    NULL,NULL,
    &grid
  );
ierr = DMSetFromOptions(grid);
ierr = DMSetUp(grid);
ierr = DMViewFromOptions(grid,NULL,"-dm_view");
```

Output:

```
ld: warning: dylib (/Users/eijkhout/Installation/petsc/lib/libpetscdmda.dylib) has no initializers
[0] Local = 0-50 x 0-50, halo = 0-51 x 0-51
[1] Local = 50-100 x 0-50, halo = 49-100 x 0-51
[2] Local = 0-50 x 50-100, halo = 0-51 x 49-100
[3] Local = 50-100 x 50-100, halo = 49-100 x 49-100
```

After you define a `DM` object, each process has a contiguous subdomain out of the total grid. You can query its size and location with `DMDAGetCorners`, or query that and all other information with `DMDAGetLocalInfo` (figure 34.2), which returns an `DMDALocalInfo` (figure 34.3) structure.

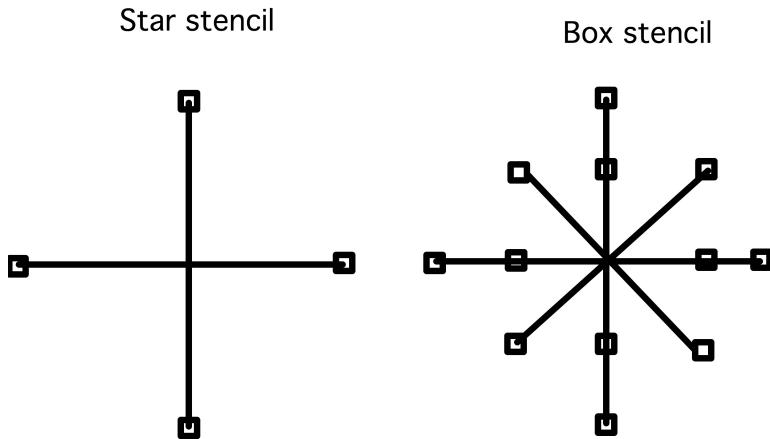


Figure 34.1: Star and box stencils

(A `DMDALocalInfo` struct is the same for 1/2/3 dimensions, so certain fields may not be applicable to your specific PDE.)

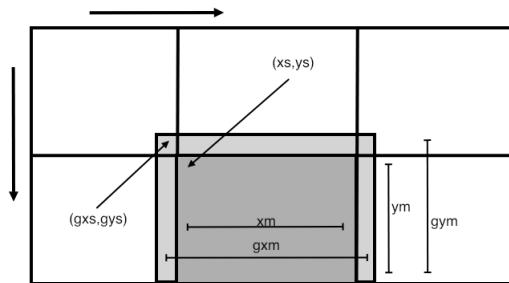


Figure 34.2: Illustration of various fields of the DMDALocalInfo structure

34.1.1 Associated vectors

Using the fields in this structure, each process can now iterate over its own subdomain. For instance, the ‘top left’ corner of the owned subdomain is at `xs`, `ys` and the number of points is `xm`, `ym` (see figure 34.2), so we can iterate over the subdomain as:

```

|| for (int j=info.ys; j<info.ys+info.ym; j++) {
||   for (int i=info.xs; i<info.xs+info.xm; i++) {
||     // actions on point i,j
||   }
|| }
```

On each point of the domain, we describe the stencil at that point. First of all, we now have the information to compute the x, y coordinates of the domain points:

```

|| PetscReal **xyarray;
|| DMADVecGetArray(grid,xy,&xyarray);
```

34. Grid support

Figure 34.3 DMDALocalInfo

```
typedef struct {
    PetscInt      dim,dof,sw;
    PetscInt      mx,my,mz; /* global number of grid points in each direction */
    PetscInt      xs,ys,zs; /* starting point of this processor, excluding ghosts */
    PetscInt      xm,ym,zm; /* number of grid points on this processor, excluding ghosts */
    PetscInt      gxs,gys,gzs; /* starting point of this processor including ghosts */
    PetscInt      gxm,gym,gzm; /* number of grid points on this processor including ghosts */
    DMBoundaryType bx,by,bz; /* type of ghost nodes at boundary */
    DMDAStencilType st;
    DM            da;
} DMDALocalInfo;
```

Fortran Notes - This should be declared as

```
DMDALocalInfo :: info(DMDA_LOCAL_INFO_SIZE)
```

and the entries accessed via

```
info(DMDA_LOCAL_INFO_DIM)
info(DMDA_LOCAL_INFO_DOF) etc.
```

The entries `bx,by,bz, st, and da` are not accessible from Fortran.

```
for (int j=info.ys; j<info.ys+info.ym; j++) {
    for (int i=info.xs; i<info.xs+info.xm; i++) {
        PetscReal x = i*hx, y = j*hy;
        xyarray[j][i] = x*y;
    }
}
DMDAVecRestoreArray(grid,xy,&xyarray);
```

For the full source of this example, see section 34.5.2

In some circumstances, we want to perform stencil operations on the vector of a `DMDA` grid. This requires having the *halo region*. Above, you already saw the `gxs,gxm` and other quantities relating to the halo of each process' subdomain.

What we need is a way to make vectors that contain these halo points.

- You can make a traditional vector corresponding to a grid with `DMCreateGlobalVector`; if you need this vector only for a short while, use `DMGetGlobalVector` and `DMRestoreGlobalVector`.
- You can make a vector including halo points with `DMCreateLocalVector`; if you need this vector only for a short while, use `DMGetLocalVector` and `DMRestoreLocalVector`.
- If you have a ‘global’ vector, you can make the corresponding ‘local’ vector, filling in its halo points, with `DMGlobalToLocal`; after operating on a local vector, you can copy its non-halo part back to a global vector with `DMLocalToGlobal`.

Here we set up a local vector for operations:

```
Vec ghostvector;
ierr = DMGetLocalVector(grid,&ghostvector);
ierr = DMGlobalToLocal(grid,xy,INSERT_VALUES,ghostvector);
PetscReal **xyarray,**gh;
```

```

|| ierr = DMDAVecGetArray(grid,xy,&xyarray);
|| ierr = DMDAVecGetArray(grid,ghostvector,&gh);
// computation on the arrays
|| ierr = DMDAVecRestoreArray(grid,xy,&xyarray);
|| ierr = DMDAVecRestoreArray(grid,ghostvector,&gh);
|| ierr = DMLocalToGlobal(grid,ghostvector,INSERT_VALUES,xy);
|| ierr = DMRestoreLocalVector(grid,&ghostvector);

```

For the full source of this example, see section 34.5.2

The actual operations involve some tests for the actual presence of the halo:

```

|| for (int j=info.ys; j<info.ys+info.ym; j++) {
||   for (int i=info.xs; i<info.xs+info.xm; i++) {
||     if (info.gxs<info.xs && info.gys<info.ys)
||       if (i-1>=info.gxs && i+1<=info.gxs+info.gxm &&
||           j-1>=info.gys && j+1<=info.gys+info.gym )
||         xyarray[j][i] =
||           ( gh[j-1][i] + gh[j][i-1] + gh[j][i+1] + gh[j+1][i] )
||             /4.;

```

For the full source of this example, see section 34.5.2

34.1.2 Associated matrix

We construct a matrix on a **DMDA** by constructing a stencil on every (i,j) coordinate on a process:

```

|| for (int j=info.ys; j<info.ys+info.ym; j++) {
||   for (int i=info.xs; i<info.xs+info.xm; i++) {
||     PetscReal x = i*hx, y = j*hy;
||     ...
||     // set the row, col, v values
||     ierr = MatSetValuesStencil(A,1,&row,ncols,col,v,INSERT_VALUES);CHKERRQ(ierr);
||   }
|| }

```

Each matrix element `row, col` is a combination of two **MatStencil** objects. Technically, this is a **struct** with members `i, j, k, s` for the domain coordinates and the number of the field.

```

|| MatStencil row;
|| row.i = i; row.j = j;

```

We could construct the columns in this row one by one, but **MatSetValuesStencil** can set multiple rows or columns at a time, so we construct all columns at the same time:

```

|| MatStencil col[5];
|| PetscScalar v[5];
|| PetscInt ncols = 0;
|| /*** diagonal element ***/
|| col[ncols].i = i; col[ncols].j = j;
|| v[ncols++] = 4.;
|| /*** off diagonal elements ***/
|| ....

```

The other ‘legs’ of the stencil need to be set conditionally: the connection to $(i-1, j)$ is missing on the top row of the domain, and the connection to $(i, j-1)$ is missing on the left column. In all:

```
// grid2d.c
for (int j=info.ys; j<info.ys+info.ym; j++) {
    for (int i=info.xs; i<info.xs+info.xm; i++) {
        MatStencil row,col[5];
        PetscScalar v[5];
        PetscInt ncols = 0;
        row.j      = j; row.i = i;
        /***** local connection: diagonal element ****/
        col[ncols].j = j; col[ncols].i = i; v[ncols++] = 4.;
        /* boundaries: top and bottom row */
        if (i>0) {col[ncols].j = j; col[ncols].i = i-1; v[ncols++] = -1.;}
        if (i<info.mx-1) {col[ncols].j = j; col[ncols].i = i+1; v[ncols++] = -1.;}
        /* boundary left and right */
        if (j>0) {col[ncols].j = j-1; col[ncols].i = i; v[ncols++] = -1.;}
        if (j<info.my-1) {col[ncols].j = j+1; col[ncols].i = i; v[ncols++] = -1.}

        ierr = MatSetValuesStencil(A,1,&row,ncols,col,v,INSERT_VALUES);
    }
}
```

34.2 Constructing a vector on a grid

A [DMDA](#) object is a description of a grid, so we now need to concern how to construct a linear system defined on that grid.

We start with vectors: we need a solution vector and a right-hand side. Here we have two options:

1. we can build a vector from scratch that has the right structure; or
2. we can use the fact that a grid object has a vector that can be extracted.

34.2.1 Create confirming vector

If we create a vector with [VecCreate](#) and [VecSetSizes](#), it is easy to get the global size right, but the default partitioning will probably not be conformal to the grid distribution. Also, getting the indexing scheme right is not trivial.

First of all, the local size needs to be set explicitly, using information from the [DMDALocalInfo](#) object:

```
||| Vec xy;
ierr = VecCreate(comm,&xy);
ierr = VecSetType(xy,VECMP);
PetscInt nlocal = info.xm*info.ym, nglobal = info.mx*info.my;
ierr = VecSetSizes(xy,nlocal,nglobal);
```

After this, you don't use [VecSetValues](#), but set elements directly in the raw array, obtained by [DMDAVecGetArray](#):

```
||| PetscReal **xyarray;
DMDAVecGetArray(grid,xy,&xyarray);
for (int j=info.ys; j<info.ys+info.ym; j++) {
    for (int i=info.xs; i<info.xs+info.xm; i++) {
        PetscReal x = i*hx, y = j*hy;
        xyarray[j][i] = x*y;
```

```

    }
}

DMDAVecRestoreArray(grid,xy,&xyarray);

```

34.2.2 Extract vector from DMDA

34.2.3 Refinement

The routine `DMDASetRefinementFactor` can be activated with the options `-da_refine` or separately `-da_refine_x/y/z` for the directions.

34.3 Vectors of a distributed array

A distributed array is similar to a distributed vector, so there are routines of extracting the values of the array in the form of a vector. This can be done in two ways: of ways. (The routines here actually pertain to the more general `DM` ‘Data Management’ object, but we will for now discuss them in the context of `DMDA`.)

1. You can create a ‘global’ vector, defined on the same communicator as the array, and which is disjointly partitioned in the same manner. This is done with `DMCreateGlobalVector`:

```

|| PetscErrorCode DMCreateGlobalVector(DM dm,Vec *vec)

```

2. You can create a ‘local’ vector, which is sequential and defined on `PETSC_COMM_SELF`, that has not only the points local to the process, but also the ‘halo’ region with the extent specified in the definition of the `DMDACreate` call. For this, use `DMCreateLocalVector`:

```

|| PetscErrorCode DMCreateLocalVector(DM dm,Vec *vec)

```

Values can be moved between local and global vectors by:

- `DMGlobalToLocal`: this establishes a local vector, including ghost/halo points from a disjointly distributed global vector. (For overlapping communication and computation, use `DMGlobalToLocalBegin` and `DMGlobalToLocalEnd`.)
- `DMLocalToGlobal`: this copies the disjoint parts of a local vector back into a global vector. (For overlapping communication and computation use `DMLocalToGlobalBegin` and `DMLocalToGlobalEnd`.)

34.4 Matrices of a distributed array

Once you have a grid, can create its associated matrix:

```

|| DMSetUp(grid);
|| DMCreateMatrix(grid,&A)

```

With this subdomain information you can then start to create the coefficient matrix:

```

|| DM grid;
|| PetscInt i_first,j_first,i_local,j_local;
|| DMDAGetCorners(grid,&i_first,&j_first,NULL,&i_local,&j_local,NULL);
|| for ( PetscInt i_index=i_first; i_index<i_first+i_local; i_index++ ) {
||   for ( PetscInt j_index=j_first; j_index<j_first+j_local; j_index++ ) {
||     // construct coefficients for domain point (i_index,j_index)
||   }
|| }

```

Note that indexing here is in terms of the grid, not in terms of the matrix.

For a simple example, consider 1-dimensional smoothing. From `DMDAGetCorners` we need only the parameters in i -direction:

```
// grid1d.c
PetscInt i_first,i_local;
ierr = DMDAGetCorners(grid,&i_first,NULL,NULL,&i_local,NULL,NULL);
for (PetscInt i_index=i_first; i_index<i_first+i_local; i_index++) {
```

For the full source of this example, see section 34.5.3

We then use a single loop to set elements for the local range in i -direction:

```
MatStencil row = {0},col[3] = {{0}};
PetscScalar v[3];
PetscInt ncols = 0;
row.i = i_index;
col[ncols].i = i_index; v[ncols] = 2.;
ncols++;
if (i_index>0) { col[ncols].i = i_index-1; v[ncols] = 1.; ncols++; }
if (i_index<i_global-1) { col[ncols].i = i_index+1; v[ncols] = 1.; ncols++; }
ierr = MatSetValuesStencil(A,1,&row,ncols,col,v,INSERT_VALUES);
```

For the full source of this example, see section 34.5.3

34.5 Sources used in this chapter

34.5.1 Listing of code header

34.5.2 Listing of code examples/petsc/c/dmrhs.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include "petsc.h"
#include "petscdmda.h"

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

  PetscErrorCode ierr;
  ierr = PetscInitialize(&argc,&argv,0,0); CHKERRQ(ierr);

  MPI_Comm comm = MPI_COMM_WORLD;
  int nprocs,procno;
  MPI_Comm_size(comm,&nprocs);
  MPI_Comm_rank(comm,&procno);

  /*
   * Create a 2d grid and a matrix on that grid.
   */
  DM grid;
  ierr = DMDACreate2d
  ( comm,
    DM_BOUNDARY_NONE,DM_BOUNDARY_NONE,
    DMDA_STENCIL_STAR,
    100,100,
    PETSC_DECIDE,PETSC_DECIDE,
    1,
    1,
    NULL,NULL,
    &grid
  ); CHKERRQ(ierr);
  ierr = DMSetFromOptions(grid); CHKERRQ(ierr);
  ierr = DMSetUp(grid); CHKERRQ(ierr);
  ierr = DMViewFromOptions(grid,NULL,"-dm_view"); CHKERRQ(ierr);

  /*
   * Print out how the grid is distributed over processors
   */
  DMDALocalInfo info;
  ierr = DMDAGetLocalInfo(grid,&info); CHKERRQ(ierr);
  ierr = PetscPrintf(comm,"Create\n"); CHKERRQ(ierr);
  ierr = PetscSynchronizedPrintf
  (comm,
    "[%d] Local = %d-%d x %d-%d, halo = %d-%d x %d-%d\n",
    procno,
    info.xs,info.xs+info.xm,info.ys,info.ys+info.ym,
    info.gxs,info.gxs+info.gxm,info.gys,info.gys+info.gym
```

```
); CHKERRQ(ierr);
ierr = PetscSynchronizedFlush(comm,stdout); CHKERRQ(ierr);
ierr = PetscPrintf(comm,"create\n"); CHKERRQ(ierr);

Vec xy;
ierr = VecCreate(comm,&xy); CHKERRQ(ierr);
ierr = VecSetType(xy,VECMPI); CHKERRQ(ierr);
PetscInt nlocal = info.xm*info.ym, nglobal = info.mx*info.my;
ierr = VecSetSizes(xy,nlocal,nglobal); CHKERRQ(ierr);
{
    PetscReal
        hx = 1. / ( info.mx-1 ),
        hy = 1. / ( info.my-1 );
    PetscReal **xyarray;
    DMADAVecGetArray(grid,xy,&xyarray); CHKERRQ(ierr);
    for (int j=info.ys; j<info.ys+info.ym; j++) {
        for (int i=info_xs; i<info_xs+info.xm; i++) {
            PetscReal x = i*hx, y = j*hy;
            xyarray[j][i] = x*y;
        }
    }
    DMADAVecRestoreArray(grid,xy,&xyarray); CHKERRQ(ierr);
}
ierr = VecAssemblyBegin(xy); CHKERRQ(ierr);
ierr = VecAssemblyEnd(xy); CHKERRQ(ierr);
// ierr = VecView(xy,0); CHKERRQ(ierr);

{
    Vec ghostvector;
    ierr = DMGetLocalVector(grid,&ghostvector); CHKERRQ(ierr);
    ierr = DMGlobalToLocal(grid,xy,INSERT_VALUES,ghostvector); CHKERRQ(ierr);
    PetscReal **xyarray,**gh;
    ierr = DMADAVecGetArray(grid,xy,&xyarray); CHKERRQ(ierr);
    ierr = DMADAVecGetArray(grid,ghostvector,&gh); CHKERRQ(ierr);
    // computation on the arrays
    for (int j=info.ys; j<info.ys+info.ym; j++) {
        for (int i=info_xs; i<info_xs+info.xm; i++) {
if (info.gxs<info_xs && info.gys<info.ys)
    if (i-1>=info.gxs && i+1<=info.gxs+info.gxm &&
        j-1>=info.gys && j+1<=info.gys+info.gym )
        xyarray[j][i] =
            ( gh[j-1][i] + gh[j][i-1] + gh[j][i+1] + gh[j+1][i] )
            /4.;
    goto exit;
}
    } exit:
    ierr = DMADAVecRestoreArray(grid,xy,&xyarray); CHKERRQ(ierr);
    ierr = DMADAVecRestoreArray(grid,ghostvector,&gh); CHKERRQ(ierr);
    ierr = DMLocalToGlobal(grid,ghostvector,INSERT_VALUES,xy); CHKERRQ(ierr);
    ierr = DMRestoreLocalVector(grid,&ghostvector); CHKERRQ(ierr);

/* printf("x: %d+%d in %d+%d, y: %d+%d in %d+%d\n", */
/*       info_xs,info_xm,info_gxs,info_gxm, */
/*       info.ys,info.ym,info.gys,info.gym, */
/*       info.gxs,info.gxm, */
/*       info.gys,info.gym, */
/*       info.ys,info.ym); */
}
```

```

/*      info.ys,info.ym,info.gys,info.gym */
/*      );
//      if ( ! (info.ys==info.gys || info.ys==info.gys ) ) goto exit;
}

ierr = VecDestroy(&xy); CHKERRQ(ierr);
ierr = DMDestroy(&grid); CHKERRQ(ierr);

return PetscFinalize();
}

```

34.5.3 Listing of code examples/petsc/c/grid1d.c

```

#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include "petsc.h"
#include "petscdmda.h"

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

PetscErrorCode ierr;
ierr = PetscInitialize(&argc,&argv,0,0); CHKERRQ(ierr);

MPI_Comm comm = MPI_COMM_WORLD;
int nprocs,procno;
MPI_Comm_size(comm,&nprocs);
MPI_Comm_rank(comm,&procno);

PetscInt i_global = 10*nprocs;

/*
 * Create a 2d grid and a matrix on that grid.
 */
DM grid;
ierr = DMDACreate1d           // IN:
  ( comm,                  // collective on this communicator
    DM_BOUNDARY_NONE,       // no periodicity and such
    i_global,               // global size 100x100; can be changed with options
    1,                      // degree of freedom per node
    1,                      // stencil width
    NULL,                   // arrays of local sizes in each direction
    &grid                   // OUT: resulting object
  ); CHKERRQ(ierr);
ierr = DMSetUp(grid); CHKERRQ(ierr);

Mat A;
ierr = DMCreateMatrix(grid,&A); CHKERRQ(ierr);

/*
 * Print out how the grid is distributed over processors
 */
PetscInt i_first,i_local;
ierr = DMDAGetCorners(grid,&i_first,NULL,NULL,&i_local,NULL,NULL);CHKERRQ(ierr);

```

```
/* ierr = PetscSynchronizedPrintf */
/*   (comm, */
/*    "[%d] Local part = %d-%d x %d-%d\n", */
/*    procno,info.xs,info.xs+info.xm,info.ys,info.ys+info.ym); CHKERRQ(ierr); */
/* ierr = PetscSynchronizedFlush(comm,stdout); CHKERRQ(ierr); */

/*
 * Fill in the elements of the matrix
 */
for (PetscInt i_index=i_first; i_index<i_first+i_local; i_index++) {
  MatStencil row = {0},col[3] = {{0}};
  PetscScalar v[3];
  PetscInt ncols = 0;
  row.i = i_index;
  col[ncols].i = i_index; v[ncols] = 2.;
  ncols++;
  if (i_index>0) { col[ncols].i = i_index-1; v[ncols] = 1.; ncols++; }
  if (i_index<i_global-1) { col[ncols].i = i_index+1; v[ncols] = 1.; ncols++; }
  ierr = MatSetValuesStencil(A,1,&row,ncols,col,v,INSERT_VALUES);CHKERRQ(ierr);
}

ierr = MatAssemblyBegin(A,MAT_FINAL_ASSEMBLY); CHKERRQ(ierr);
ierr = MatAssemblyEnd(A,MAT_FINAL_ASSEMBLY); CHKERRQ(ierr);

/*
 * Create vectors on the grid
 */
Vec x,y;
ierr = DMCreateGlobalVector(grid,&x); CHKERRQ(ierr);
ierr = VecDuplicate(x,&y); CHKERRQ(ierr);

/*
 * Set vector values: first locally, then global
 */
PetscReal one = 1.0;
{
  Vec xlocal;
  ierr = DMCreateLocalVector(grid,&xlocal); CHKERRQ(ierr);
  ierr = VecSet(xlocal,one); CHKERRQ(ierr);
  ierr = DMLocalToGlobalBegin(grid,xlocal,INSERT_VALUES,x); CHKERRQ(ierr);
  ierr = DMLocalToGlobalEnd(grid,xlocal,INSERT_VALUES,x); CHKERRQ(ierr);
  ierr = VecDestroy(&xlocal); CHKERRQ(ierr);
}

/*
 * Solve a linear system on the grid
 */
KSP solver;
ierr = KSPCreate(comm,&solver); CHKERRQ(ierr);
ierr = KSPSetType(solver,KSPBCGS); CHKERRQ(ierr);
ierr = KSPSetOperators(solver,A,A); CHKERRQ(ierr);
ierr = KSPSetFromOptions(solver); CHKERRQ(ierr);
ierr = KSPSolve(solver,x,y); CHKERRQ(ierr);
```

```
/*
 * Report on success of the solver, or lack thereof
 */
{
    PetscInt its; KSPConvergedReason reason;
    ierr = KSPGetConvergedReason(solver,&reason);
    ierr = KSPGetIterationNumber(solver,&its); CHKERRQ(ierr);
    if (reason<0) {
        PetscPrintf(comm,"Failure to converge after %d iterations; reason %s\n",
        its,KSPConvergedReasons[reason]);
    } else {
        PetscPrintf(comm,"Number of iterations to convergence: %d\n",its);
    }
}

/*
 * Clean up
 */
ierr = KSPDestroy(&solver); CHKERRQ(ierr);
ierr = VecDestroy(&x); CHKERRQ(ierr);
ierr = VecDestroy(&y); CHKERRQ(ierr);
ierr = MatDestroy(&A); CHKERRQ(ierr);
ierr = DMDestroy(&grid); CHKERRQ(ierr);

return PetscFinalize();
}
```

Chapter 35

Finite Elements support

35.1 General Data Management

```
|| ierr = DMCreate(PETSC_COMM_WORLD, &dm);
|| ierr = DMSetType(dm, DMPLEX);
```

A `DMPLEX` is by default two-dimensional. Use

```
plexprogram -dm_plex_dim k
```

for other dimensions. In two dimensions there are three levels of cells:

- 0-cells are vertices,
- 1-cells are edges, and
- 2-cells are triangles.

The default 2×2 grid has, sequentially:

Code:

```
|| ierr = DMSetFromOptions(dm);
|| ierr = PetscObjectSetName((PetscObject) dm, "Sphere");
|| ierr = DMViewFromOptions(dm, NULL, "-dm_view");
```

Output:

```
mpiexec -n 1 plexsphere -dm_view
DM Object: Sphere 1 MPI processes
  type: plex
Sphere in 2 dimensions:
  Number of 0-cells per rank: 9
  Number of 1-cells per rank: 16
  Number of 2-cells per rank: 8
Labels:
  celltype: 3 strata with value/size (0 (9), 3 (8),
  depth: 3 strata with value/size (0 (9), 1 (16),
  marker: 1 strata with value/size (1 (16))
  Face Sets: 1 strata with value/size (1 (8))
```

and parallel:

Code:

```
ierr = DMSetFromOptions(dm);
ierr = PetscObjectSetName((PetscObject) dm, "Sphere");
ierr = DMViewFromOptions(dm, NULL, "-dm_view");
```

Output:

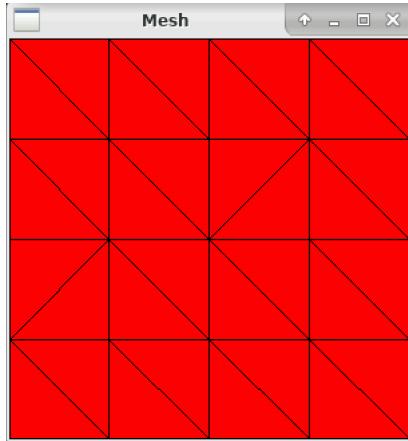
```
mpiexec -n 4 plexsphere -dm_view
DM Object: Sphere 4 MPI processes
  type: plex
Sphere in 2 dimensions:
  Number of 0-cells per rank: 5 5 6 4
  Number of 1-cells per rank: 6 6 6 5
  Number of 2-cells per rank: 2 2 2 2
Labels:
  depth: 3 strata with value/size (0 (5), 1 (6), 2
  celltype: 3 strata with value/size (0 (5), 1 (6),
  marker: 1 strata with value/size (1 (7))
  Face Sets: 1 strata with value/size (1 (3))
```

For larger grids:

```
plexprogram -dm_plex_box_faces 4,4
```

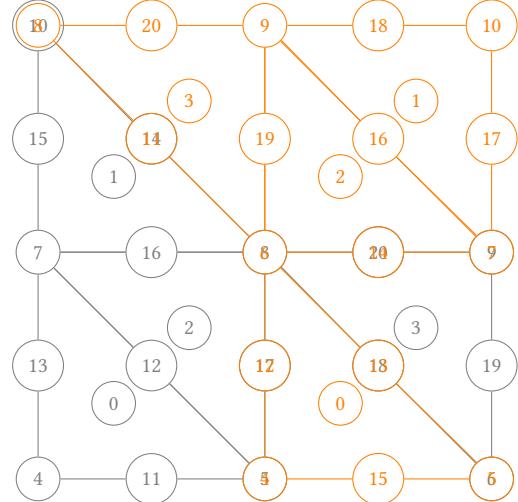
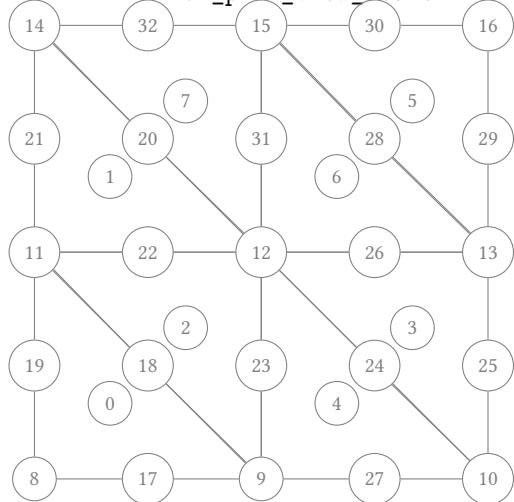
Graphics output from

```
plexprogram -dm_view draw -draw_pause 20
```



```
plexprogram -dm_view :outputfile.tex:ascii_latex \
```

```
-dm_plex_view_scale 4
```



35.1.1 Matrix from dmplex

Loop over batch of elements (e):

 Loop over element matrix entries (f,fc,g,gc -> i,j):

 Loop over quadrature points (q):

 Make u_q and gradU_q (loops over fields,Nb,Ncomp)
 elemMat[i,j] += $\psi_f^{fc}(q)g_{fc,gc}^{(0)}(u, \nabla u)\phi_g^{gc}(q)$
 + $\psi_f^{fc}(q) \cdot g_{fc,gc,dg}^{(1)}(u, \nabla u)\nabla\phi_g^{gc}(q)$
 + $\nabla\psi_f^{fc}(q) \cdot g_{fc,gc,df}^{(2)}(u, \nabla u)\phi_g^{gc}(q)$
 + $\nabla\psi_f^{fc}(q) \cdot g_{fc,gc,df,dg}^{(3)}(u, \nabla u)\nabla\phi_g^{gc}(q)$

```
// plexsphere.c
ierr = DM PlexGetDepthStratum(dm, 0, &vStart, &vEnd);
ierr = PetscSectionCreate(PetscObjectComm((PetscObject) dm), &s);
ierr = DMSetLocalSection(dm, s);
ierr = PetscSectionDestroy(&s);

ierr = PetscSectionSetNumFields(s, 1);
ierr = PetscSectionSetFieldComponents(s, 0, 1);
ierr = PetscSectionSetChart(s, vStart, vEnd);
// printf("start-end: %d -- %d\n", vStart, vEnd);
for (v = vStart; v < vEnd; ++v) {
    ierr = PetscSectionSetDof(s, v, 1);
    ierr = PetscSectionSetFieldDof(s, v, 0, 1);
}
ierr = PetscSectionSetUp(s);
```

35.2 Sources used in this chapter

35.2.1 Listing of code header

Chapter 36

PETSc solvers

Probably the most important activity in PETSc is solving a linear system. This is done through a solver object: an object of the class [KSP](#). (This stands for Krylov SPace solver.) The solution routine [KSPSolve](#) takes a matrix and a right-hand-side and gives a solution; however, before you can call this some amount of setup is needed.

There two very different ways of solving a linear system: through a direct method, essentially a variant of Gaussian elimination; or through an iterative method that makes successive approximations to the solution. In PETSc there are only iterative methods. We will show how to achieve direct methods later. The default linear system solver in PETSc is fully parallel, and will work on many linear systems, but there are many settings and customizations to tailor the solver to your specific problem.

36.1 KSP: linear system solvers

36.1.1 Math background

Many scientific applications boil down to the solution of a system of linear equations at some point:

$$?_x : Ax = b$$

The elementary textbook way of solving this is through an *LU factorization*, also known as *Gaussian elimination*:

$$LU \leftarrow A, \quad Lz = b, \quad Ux = z.$$

While PETSc has support for this, its basic design is geared towards so-called iterative solution methods. Instead of directly computing the solution to the system, they compute a sequence of approximations that, with luck, converges to the true solution:

```
while not converged  
   $x_{i+1} \leftarrow f(x_i)$ 
```

The interesting thing about iterative methods is that the iterative step only involves the *matrix-vector product*:

```
while not converged  
   $r_i = Ax_i - b$   
   $x_{i+1} \leftarrow f(r_i)$ 
```

This *residual* is also crucial in determining whether to stop the iteration: since we (clearly) can not measure the distance to the true solution, we use the size of the residual as a proxy measurement.

Figure 36.1 `KSPCreate`

C:

```
PetscErrorCode KSPCreate(MPI_Comm comm,KSP *v);
```

Python:

```
ksp = PETSc.KSP()
ksp.create()
# or:
ksp = PETSc.KSP().create()
```

The remaining point to know is that iterative methods feature a *preconditioner*. Mathematically this is equivalent to transforming the linear system to

$$M^{-1}Ax = M^{-1}b$$

so conceivably we could iterate on the transformed matrix and right-hand side. However, in practice we apply the preconditioner in each iteration:

```
while not converged
     $r_i = Ax_i - b$ 
     $z_i = M^{-1}r_i$ 
     $x_{i+1} \leftarrow f(z_i)$ 
```

In this schematic presentation we have left the nature of the `f()` update function unspecified. Here, many possibilities exist; the primary choice here is of the iterative method type, such as ‘conjugate gradients’, ‘generalized minimum residual’, or ‘bi-conjugate gradients stabilized’. (We will go into direct solvers in section 36.2.)

Quantifying issues of convergence speed is difficult; see HPC book, section-5.5.14.

36.1.2 Solver objects

First we create a KSP object, which contains the coefficient matrix, and various parameters such as the desired accuracy, as well as method specific parameters: `KSPCreate` (figure 36.1).

After this, the basic scenario is:

```
||| Vec rhs,sol;
||| KSP solver;
||| KSPCreate(comm,&solver);
||| KSPSetOperators(solver,A,A);
||| KSPSetFromOptions(solver);
||| KSPSolve(solver,rhs,sol);
||| KSPDestroy(&solver);
```

using various default settings. The vectors and the matrix have to be conformly partitioned. The `KSPSetOperators` call takes two operators: one is the actual coefficient matrix, and the second the one that the preconditioner is derived from. In some cases it makes sense to specify a different matrix here. (You can retrieve the operators with `KSPGetOperators`.) The call `KSPSetFromOptions` can cover almost all of the settings discussed next.

KSP objects have many options to control them, so it is convenient to call `KSPView` (or use the commandline option `-ksp_view`) to get a listing of all the settings.

Figure 36.2 `KSPSetTolerances`

```
#include "petscksp.h"
PetscErrorCode KSPSetTolerances
  (KSP ksp,PetscReal rtol,PetscReal abstol,PetscReal dtol,PetscInt maxits)
```

Logically Collective on `ksp`

Input Parameters:

```
ksp- the Krylov subspace context
rtol- the relative convergence tolerance, relative decrease in the
      (possibly preconditioned) residual norm
abstol- the absolute convergence tolerance absolute size of the
      (possibly preconditioned) residual norm
dtol- the divergence tolerance, amount (possibly preconditioned)
      residual norm can increase before KSPConvergedDefault() concludes that
      the method is diverging
maxits- maximum number of iterations to use
```

Options Database Keys

```
-ksp_atol <abstol>- Sets abstol
-ksp_rtol <rtol>- Sets rtol
-ksp_divtol <dtol>- Sets dtol
-ksp_max_it <maxits>- Sets maxits
```

36.1.3 Tolerances

Since neither solution nor solution speed is guaranteed, an iterative solver is subject to some tolerances:

- a relative tolerance for when the residual has been reduced enough;
- an absolute tolerance for when the residual is objectively small;
- a divergence tolerance that stops the iteration if the residual grows by too much; and
- a bound on the number of iterations, regardless any progress the process may still be making.

These tolerances are set with `KSPSetTolerances` (figure 36.2), or options `-ksp_atol`, `-ksp_rtol`, `-ksp_divtol`, `-ksp_max_it`. Specify to `PETSC_DEFAULT` to leave a value unaltered.

In the next section we will see how you can determine which of these tolerances caused the solver to stop.

36.1.4 Why did my solver stop? Did it work?

On return of the `KSPSolve` routine there is no guarantee that the system was successfully solved. Therefore, you need to invoke `KSPGetConvergedReason` (figure 36.3) to get a `KSPConvergedReason` parameter that indicates what state the solver stopped in:

- The iteration can have successfully converged; this corresponds to `reason > 0`;
- the iteration can have diverged, or otherwise failed: `reason < 0`;
- or the iteration may have stopped at the maximum number of iterations while still making progress; `reason = 0`.

For more detail, `KSPConvergedReasonView` (before version 3.14: `KSPReasonView`) can print out the reason in readable form; for instance

```
|| KSPConvergedReasonView(solver,PETSC_VIEWER_STDOUT_WORLD);
|| // before 3.14:
|| KSPReasonView(solver,PETSC_VIEWER_STDOUT_WORLD);
```

Figure 36.3 `KSPGetConvergedReason`

C:

```
PetscErrorCode KSPGetConvergedReason
  (KSP ksp,KSPConvergedReason *reason)
Not Collective
```

Input Parameter
`ksp` -the KSP context

Output Parameter
`reason` -negative value indicates diverged, positive value converged,
 see `KSPConvergedReason`

Python:
`r = KSP.getConvergedReason(self)`
 where `r` in `PETSc.KSP.ConvergedReason`

Figure 36.4 `KSPSetType`

```
#include "petscksp.h"
PetscErrorCode KSPSetType(KSP ksp, KSPType type)

Logically Collective on ksp
```

Input Parameters:
`ksp` : the Krylov space context
`type` : a known method

(This can also be activated with the `-ksp_converged_reason` commandline option.)

In case of successful convergence, you can use `KSPGetIterationNumber` to report how many iterations were taken.

The following snippet analyzes the status of a `KSP` object that has stopped iterating:

```
// shellvector.c
PetscInt its; KSPConvergedReason reason;
Vec Res; PetscReal norm;
ierr = KSPGetConvergedReason(Solve,&reason);
ierr = KSPConvergedReasonView(Solve,PETSC_VIEWER_STDOUT_WORLD);
if (reason<0) {
  PetscPrintf(comm,"Failure to converge: reason=%d\n",reason);
} else {
  ierr = KSPGetIterationNumber(Solve,&its);
  PetscPrintf(comm,"Number of iterations: %d\n",its);
}
```

For the full source of this example, see section 36.4.2

36.1.5 Choice of iterator

There are many iterative methods, and it may take a few function calls to fully specify them. The basic routine is `KSPSetType` (figure 36.4), or use the option `-ksp_type`.

Here are some values (the full list is in `petscksp.h`:

Figure 36.5 `KSPMatSolve`

```
PetscErrorCode KSPMatSolve(KSP ksp, Mat B, Mat X)
```

Input Parameters

`ksp` – iterative context
`B` – block of right-hand sides

Output Parameter

`X` – block of solutions

- **KSPCG**: only for symmetric positive definite systems. It has a cost of both work and storage that is constant in the number of iterations.

There are variants such as **KSPPIPECG** that are mathematically equivalent, but possibly higher performing at large scale.

- **KSPGMRES**: a minimization method that works for nonsymmetric and indefinite systems. However, to satisfy this theoretical property it needs to store the full residual history to orthogonalize each compute residual to, implying that storage is linear, and work quadratic, in the number of iterations. For this reason, GMRES is always used in a truncated variant, that regularly restarts the orthogonalization. The restart length can be set with the routine **KSPGMRESSetRestart** or the option `-ksp_gmres_restart`.
- **KSPBCGS**: a quasi-minimization method; uses less memory than GMRES.

Depending on the iterative method, there can be several routines to tune its workings. Especially if you're still experimenting with what method to choose, it may be more convenient to specify these choices through commandline options, rather than explicitly coded routines. In that case, a single call to **KSPSetFromOptions** is enough to incorporate those.

36.1.6 Multiple right-hand sides

For the case of multiple right-hand sides, use **KSPMatSolve** (figure 36.5).

36.1.7 Preconditioners

Another part of an iterative solver is the *preconditioner*. The mathematical background of this is given in section 36.1.1. The preconditioner acts to make the coefficient matrix better conditioned, which will improve the convergence speed; it can even be that without a suitable preconditioner a solver will not converge at all.

36.1.7.1 Background

The mathematical requirement that the preconditioner M satisfy $M \approx A$ can take two forms:

1. We form an explicit approximation to A^{-1} ; this is known as a *sparse approximate inverse*.
2. We form an operator M (often given in factored or other implicit) form, such that $M \approx A$, and solving a system $Mx = y$ for x can be done relatively quickly.

In deciding on a preconditioner, we now have to balance the following factors.

1. What is the cost of constructing the preconditioner? This should not be more than the gain in solution time of the iterative method.
2. What is the cost per iteration of applying the preconditioner? There is clearly no point in using a preconditioner that decreases the number of iterations by a certain amount, but increases the cost per iteration much more.

3. Many preconditioners have parameter settings that make these considerations even more complicated: low parameter values may give a preconditioner that is cheaply to apply but does not improve convergence much, while large parameter values make the application more costly but decrease the number of iterations.

36.1.7.2 Usage

Unlike most of the other PETSc object types, a `PC` object is typically not explicitly created. Instead, it is created as part of the `KSP` object, and can be retrieved from it.

```
|| PC prec;
|| KSPGetPC(solver,&prec);
|| PCSetType(prec,PCILU);
```

Beyond setting the type of the preconditioner, there are various type-specific routines for setting various parameters. Some of these can get quite tedious, and it is more convenient to set them through commandline options.

36.1.7.3 Types

Method	PCType	Options Database Name
Jacobi	PCJACOBI	jacobi
Block Jacobi	PCBJACOBI	bjacobi
SOR (and SSOR)	PCSOR	sor
SOR with Eisenstat trick	PCEISENSTAT	eisenstat
Incomplete Cholesky	PCICC	icc
Incomplete LU	PCILU	ilu
Additive Schwarz	PCASM	asm
Generalized Additive Schwarz	PCGASM	gasm
Algebraic Multigrid	PCGAMG	gamg
Balancing Domain Decomposition by Constraints Linear solver	PCBDDC	bddc
Use iterative method	PCKSP	ksp
Combination of preconditioners	PCCOMPOSITE	composite
LU	PCLU	lu
Cholesky	PCCHOLESKY	cholesky
No preconditioning	PCNONE	none
Shell for user-defined PC	PCSHELL	shell

Here are some of the available preconditioner types.

The *Hypre* package (which needs to be installed during configuration time) contains itself several preconditioners. In your code, you can set the preconditioner to `PCHYPRE`, and use `PCHYPRESetType` to one of: euclid, pilut, parasails, boomeramg, ams, ads. However, since these preconditioners themselves have options, it is usually more convenient to use commandline options:

```
-pc_type hypre -pc_hypre_type xxxx
```

36.1.7.3.1 Sparse approximate inverses The inverse of a sparse matrix (at least, those from PDEs) is typically dense. Therefore, we aim to construct a *sparse approximate inverse*.

PETSc offers two such preconditioners, both of which require an external package.

- **PCSPAI**. This is a preconditioner that can only be used in single-processor runs, or as local solver in a block preconditioner; section 36.1.7.3.3.
- As part of the **PCHYPRE** package, the parallel variant *parasails* is available.
`-pc_type hypre -pc_hypre_type parasails`

36.1.7.3.2 Incomplete factorizations The *LU* factorization of a matrix stemming from PDEs problems has several practical problems:

- It takes (considerably) more storage space than the coefficient matrix, and
- it correspondingly takes more time to apply.

For instance, for a three-dimensional PDE in N variables, the coefficient matrix can take storage space $7N$, while the *LU* factorization takes $O(N^{5/3})$.

For this reason, often incompletely *LU* factorizations are popular.

- PETSc has of itself a **PCILU** type, but this can only be used sequentially. This may sound like a limitation, but in parallel it can still be used as the subdomain solver in a block methods; section 36.1.7.3.3.
- As part of *Hypre*, *pilut* is a parallel ILU.

There are many options for the ILU type, such as **PCFactorSetLevels** (option `-pc_factor_levels`), which sets the number of levels of fill-in allowed.

36.1.7.3.3 Block methods Certain preconditioners seem almost intrinsically sequential. For instance, an ILU solution is sequential between the variables. There is a modest amount of parallelism, but that is hard to explore.

Taking a step back, one of the problems with parallel preconditioners lies in the cross-process connections in the matrix. If only those were not present, we could solve the linear system on each process independently. Well, since a preconditioner is an approximate solution to begin with, ignoring those connections only introduces an extra degree of approxomaticity.

There are two preconditioners that operate on this notion:

- **PCBJACOBI**: block Jacobi. Here each process solves locally the system consisting of the matrix coefficients that couple the local variables. In effect, each process solves an independent system on a subdomain. The next question is then what solver is used on the subdomains. Here any preconditioner can be used, in particular the ones that only existed in a sequential version. Specifying all this in code gets tedious, and it is usually easier to specify such a complicated solver through commandline options:
`-pc_type jacobi -sub_ksp_type preonly \ -sub_pc_type ilu -sub_pc_factor_levels 1`
(Note that this also talks about a `sub_ksp`: the subdomain solver is in fact a **KSP** object. By setting its type to `preonly` we state that the solver should consist of solely applying its preconditioner.)
The block Jacobi preconditioner can asymptotically only speed up the system solution by a factor relating to the number of subdomains, but in practice it can be quite valuable.
- **PCASM**: additive Schwarz method. Here each process solves locally a slightly larger system, based on the local variables, and one (or a few) levels of connections to neighboring processes. In effect, the processes solve system on overlapping subdomains. This preconditioner can asymptotically reduce the number of iterations to $O(1)$, but that requires exact solutions on the subdomains, and in practice it may not happen anyway.

Figure 36.1 illustrates these preconditioners both in matrix and subdomain terms.

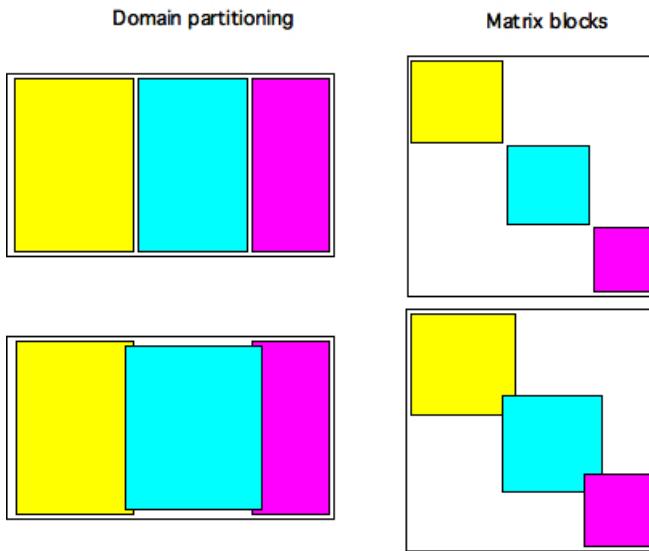


Figure 36.1: Illustration of block Jacobi and Additive Schwarz preconditioners: left domains and subdomains, right the corresponding submatrices

36.1.7.3.4 Multigrid preconditioners

- There is a Algebraic MultiGrid (AMG) type built into PETSc: [PCGAMG](#);
- the external packages *Hypre* and *ML* have AMG methods.
- There is a general Multi-Grid (MG) type: [PCMG](#).

36.1.7.3.5 Field split preconditioners

For background refer to section [33.4.8](#).

Exercise 36.1. The example code `ksp.c` generates a five-point matrix, possibly nonsymmetric, on a unit square. Your assignment is to explore the convergence behavior of different solvers on linear systems with this coefficient matrix.

The example code takes two commandline arguments:

- `-n 123` set the domain size, meaning that the matrix size will be the square of that;
- `-unsymmetry .5` introduces a skew-symmetric component to the matrix.

Investigate the following:

- Some iterative methods, such as Conjugate Gradients (CG), are only mathematically defined for symmetric (and positive definite) matrices. How tolerant are iterative methods actually towards nonsymmetry?
- The number of iterations can sometimes be proved to depend on the *condition number* of the matrix, which is itself related to the size of the matrix. Can you find a relation between the matrix size and the number of iterations?
- A more sophisticated iterative methods (for instance, increasing the GMRES restart length) or a more sophisticated preconditioner (for instance using more fill levels in an ILU preconditioner), may lead to fewer iterations. (Does it, actually?) But it will not necessarily give a faster solution time, since each iteration is now more expensive.

See section [36.1.1](#) for the background on this, as well as the various specific subsections.

36.1.8 Customization: monitoring and convergence tests

PETSc solvers can do various *callbacks* to user functions.

36.1.8.0.1 Shell preconditioners You already saw that, in an iterative methods, the coefficient matrix can be given operationally as a *shell matrix*; section 33.4.7. Similarly, the preconditioner matrix can be specified operationally by specifying type `PCSHELL`.

This needs specification of the application routine through `PCShellSetApply`:

```
|| PCShellSetApply(PC pc,PetscErrorCode (*apply)(PC,Vec,Vec));
```

and probably specification of a context pointer through `PCShellSetContext`:

```
|| PCShellSetContext(PC pc,void *ctx);
```

The application function then retrieves this context with `PCShellGetContext`:

```
|| PCShellGetContext(PC pc,void **ctx);
```

If the shell preconditioner requires setup, a routine for this can be specified with `PCShellSetSetUp`:

```
|| PCShellSetSetUp(PC pc,PetscErrorCode (*setup)(PC));
```

36.1.8.0.2 Combining preconditioners It is possible to combine preconditioners with `PCCOMPOSITE`

```
|| PCSetType(pc,PCCOMPOSITE);
|| PCCompositeAddPC(pc,type1);
|| PCCompositeAddPC(pc,type2);
```

By default, the preconditioners are applied additively; for multiplicative application

```
|| PCCompositeSetType(PC pc,PCCompositeType PC_COMPOSITE_MULTIPLICATIVE);
```

36.1.8.1 Convergence tests

For instance, you can set your own convergence test with `KSPSetConvergenceTest`.

```
|| KSPSetConvergenceTest
  (KSP ksp,
   PetscErrorCode (*test)(
     KSP ksp,PetscInt it,PetscReal rnorm,
     KSPConvergedReason *reason,void *ctx),
   void *ctx,PetscErrorCode (*destroy)(void *ctx));
```

This routines accepts

- the custom stopping test function,
- a ‘context’ void pointer to pass information to the tester, and
- optionally a custom destructor for the context information.

By default, PETSc behaves as if this function has been called with `KSPConvergedDefault` as argument.

36.1.8.2 Convergence monitoring

There is also a callback for monitoring each iteration. It can be set with `KSPMonitorSet`.

```
|| KSPMonitorSet
  ||| (KSP ksp,
    ||| PetscErrorCode (*mon)(
      |||   KSP ksp,PetscInt it,PetscReal rnorm,void *ctx),
      |||   void *ctx,PetscErrorCode (*mondestroy)(void**));
```

By default no monitor is set, meaning that the iteration process runs without output. The option `-ksp_monitor` activates printing a norm of the residual. This corresponds to setting `KSPMonitorDefault` as the monitor.

This actually outputs the ‘preconditioned norm’ of the residual, which is not the L2 norm, but the square root of $r^T M^{-1} r$, a quantity that is computed in the course of the iteration process. Specifying `KSPMonitorTrueResidualNorm` (with corresponding option `-ksp_monitor_true_residual`) as the monitor prints the actual norm $\sqrt{r^T r}$. However, to compute this involves extra computation, since this quantity is not normally computed.

36.1.8.3 Auxiliary routines

```
KSPGetSolution KSPGetRhs KSPBuildSolution KSPBuildResidual
|| KSPGetSolution(KSP ksp,Vec *x);
|| KSPGetRhs(KSP ksp,Vec *rhs);
|| KSPBuildSolution(KSP ksp,Vec w,Vec *v);
|| KSPBuildResidual(KSP ksp,Vec t,Vec w,Vec *v);
```

36.2 Direct solvers

PETSc has some support for direct solvers, that is, variants of LU decomposition. In a sequential context, the `PCLU` preconditioner can be used for this: a direct solver is equivalent to an iterative method that stops after one preconditioner application. This can be forced by specifying a KSP type of `KSPPREONLY`.

Distributed direct solvers are more complicated. PETSc does not have this implemented in its basic code, but it becomes available by configuring PETSc with the `scalapack` library.

You need to specify which package provides the LU factorization:

```
|| PCFactorSetMatSolverType(pc, MatSolverType solver )
```

where the solver variable is of type `MatSolverType`, and can be `MATSOLVERMUMPS` and such when specified in source:

```
// direct.c
ierr = KSPCreate(comm,&Solver);
ierr = KSPSetOperators(Solver,A,A);
ierr = KSPSetType(Solver,KSPPREONLY);
{
  PC Prec;
  ierr = KSPGetPC(Solver,&Prec);
  ierr = PCSetType(Prec,PCLU);
  ierr = PCFactorSetMatSolverType(Prec,MATSOLVERMUMPS);
}
```

Figure 36.6 KSPSetFromOptions**Synopsis**

```
#include "petscksp.h"
PetscErrorCode KSPSetFromOptions(KSP ksp)
```

Collective on ksp

Input Parameters

ksp - the Krylov space context

As specified on the commandline

```
yourprog -ksp_type preonly -pc_type lu -pc_factor_mat_solver_type mumps
```

the choices are mumps, superlu, umfpack, or a number of others. Note that availability of these packages depends on how PETSc was installed on your system.

36.3 Control through command line options

From the above you may get the impression that there are lots of calls to be made to set up a PETSc linear system and solver. And what if you want to experiment with different solvers, does that mean that you have to edit a whole bunch of code? Fortunately, there is an easier way to do things. If you call the routine **KSPSetFromOptions** (figure 36.6) with the *solver* as argument, PETSc will look at your command line options and take those into account in defining the solver. Thus, you can either omit setting options in your source code, or use this as a way of quickly experimenting with different possibilities. Example:

```
myprogram -ksp_max_it 200 \
           -ksp_type gmres -ksp_type_gmres_restart 20 \
           -pc_type ilu -pc_type_ilu_levels 3
```

36.4 Sources used in this chapter

36.4.1 Listing of code header

36.4.2 Listing of code code/petsc/c

Chapter 37

PETSC nonlinear solvers

37.1 Nonlinear systems

Nonlinear system solving means finding the zero of a general nonlinear function, that is:

$$\underset{x}{?} : f(x) = 0$$

with $f : \mathbb{R}^n - \mathbb{R}^n$. In the special case of a linear function,

$$f(x) = Ax - b,$$

we solve this by any of the methods in chapter 36.

The general case can be solved by a number of methods, foremost *Newton's method*, which iterates

$$x_{n+1} = x_n - F(x_n)^{-1} f(x_n)$$

where F is the *Hessian* $F_{ij} = \partial f_i / \partial x_j$.

You see that you need to specify two functions that are dependent on your specific problem: the objective function itself, and its Hessian.

37.1.1 Basic setup

The PETSc nonlinear solver object is of type *SNES*: ‘simple nonlinear equation solver’. As with linear solvers, we create this solver on a communicator, set its type, incorporate options, and call the solution routine *SNESolve* (figure 37.1):

```
|| Vec value_vector,solution_vector;
/* vector creation code missing */
SNES solver;
SNESCreate( comm,&solver );
SNESSetFunction( solver,value_vector,formfunction, NULL );
SNESSetFromOptions( solver );
SNESolve( solver,NULL,solution_vector );
```

The function has the type

```
|| PetscErrorCode formfunction(SNES,Vec,Vec,void*)
```

Figure 37.1 SNESolve

```
#include "petscsnes.h"
PetscErrorCode SNESolve(SNES snes,Vec b,Vec x)

Collective on SNES

Input Parameters
snes - the SNES context
b    - the constant part of the equation F(x) = b, or NULL to use zero.
x    - the solution vector.
```

where the parameters are:

- the solver object, so that you can access to its internal parameters
- the x value at which to evaluate the function
- the result vector $f(x)$ for the given input
- a context pointer for further application-specific information.

Example:

```
PetscErrorCode evaluation_function( SNES solver,Vec x,Vec fx, void *ctx ) {
  const PetscReal *x_array;
  PetscReal *fx_array;
  VecGetArrayRead(fx,&fx_array);
  VecGetArray(x,&x_array);
  for (int i=0; i<localsize; i++)
    fx_array[i] = pointfunction( x_array[i] );
  VecRestoreArrayRead(fx,&fx_array);
  VecRestoreArray(x,&x_array);
};
```

Comparing the above to the introductory description you see that the Hessian is not specified here. An analytic Hessian can be dispensed with if you instruct PETSc to approximate it by finite differences:

$$H(x)y \approx \frac{f(x + hy) - f(x)}{h}$$

with h some finite difference. The commandline option `-snes_fd` forces the use of this finite difference approximation. However, it may lead to a large number of function evaluations. The option `-snes_fd_color` applies a coloring to the variables, leading to a drastic reduction in the number of function evaluations.

If you can form the analytic Jacobian / Hessian, you can specify it with `SNESSetJacobian` (figure 37.2), where the Jacobian is a function of type `SNESJacobianFunction` (figure 37.3).

Specifying the Jacobian:

```
Mat J;
ierr = MatCreate(comm,&J); CHKERRQ(ierr);
ierr = MatSetType(J,MATSEQDENSE); CHKERRQ(ierr);
ierr = MatSetSizes(J,n,n,N,N); CHKERRQ(ierr);
ierr = MatSetUp(J); CHKERRQ(ierr);
ierr = SNESSetJacobian(solver,J,J,&Jacobian,NULL); CHKERRQ(ierr);
```

Figure 37.2 SNESSet Jacobian

```
#include "petscsnes.h"
PetscErrorCode SNESSet Jacobian(SNES snes,Mat Amat,Mat Pmat,PetscErrorCode (*J)(SNES,Vec,Mat,Mat,void*),void *ctx)

Logically Collective on SNES

Input Parameters
snes - the SNES context
Amat - the matrix that defines the (approximate) Jacobian
Pmat - the matrix to be used in constructing the preconditioner, usually the same as Amat.
J - Jacobian evaluation routine (if NULL then SNES retains any previously set value)
ctx - [optional] user-defined context for the Jacobian evaluation routine
```

Figure 37.3 SNES Jacobian Function

```
#include "petscsnes.h"
PetscErrorCode SNES Jacobian Function(SNES snes,Vec x,Mat Amat,Mat Pmat,void *ctx);

Collective on snes

Input Parameters
x - input vector, the Jacobian is to be computed at this value
ctx - [optional] user-defined Jacobian context

Output Parameters
Amat - the matrix that defines the (approximate) Jacobian
Pmat - the matrix to be used in constructing the preconditioner, usually the same as Amat.
```

37.2 Time-stepping

For cases

$$u_t = G(t, u)$$

call *TSSetRHSFunction*.

```
|| #include "petscts.h"
  PetscErrorCode TSSetRHSFunction
  (TS ts,Vec r,
   PetscErrorCode (*f)(TS,PetscReal,Vec,Vec,void*),
   void *ctx);
```

For implicit cases

$$F(t, u, u_t) = 0$$

call *TSSetIFunction*

```
|| #include "petscts.h"
  PetscErrorCode TSSetIFunction
  (TS ts,Vec r,TSIFunction f,void *ctx)
```

37.3 Sources used in this chapter

37.3.1 Listing of code header

Chapter 38

PETSc GPU support

38.1 Installation with GPUs

PETSc can be configured with options

--with-cuda --with-cudac=nvcc?

You can test the presence of CUDA with:

```
// cudainstalled.c
#ifndef PETSC_HAVE_CUDA
#error "CUDA is not installed in this version of PETSC"
#endif
```

Some GPUs can accomodate MPI by being directly connected to the network through *GPUDirect* Remote Memory Access (RMA). If not, use this runtime option:

-use_gpu_aware_mpi 0

More conveniently, add this to your .petscrc file; section 39.3.3.

38.2 Setup for GPU

GPUs need to be initialized. This can be done implicitly when a GPU object is created, or explicitly through `PetscCUDAInitialize`.

```
// cudainit.c
ierr = PetscCUDAInitialize(comm,PETSC_DECIDE);
ierr = PetscCUDAInitializeCheck();
```

38.3 Distributed objects

Objects such as matrices and vectors need to be create explicitly with a CUDA type. After that, most PETSc calls are independent of the presence of GPUs.

Should you need to test, there is a C PreProcessor (CPP) macro `PETSC_HAVE_CUDA`.

38.3.1 Vectors

Analogous to vector creation as before, there are specific create calls `VecCreateSeqCUDA`, `VecCreateMPICUDAWithArray`, or the type can be set in `VecSetType`:

```
// kspcu.c
#ifndef PETSC_HAVE_CUDA
    ierr = VecCreateMPICUDA(comm,localsize,PETSC_DECIDE,&Rhs);
#else
    ierr = VecCreateMPI(comm,localsize,PETSC_DECIDE,&Rhs);
#endif
```

The type `VECCUDA` is sequential or parallel dependent on the run; specific types are `VECSEQCUDA`, `VECMPICUDA`.

38.3.2 Matrices

```
ierr = MatCreate(comm,&A);
#ifndef PETSC_HAVE_CUDA
    ierr = MatSetType(A,MATMPIAIJCUSPARSE);
#else
    ierr = MatSetType(A,MATMPIAIJ);
#endif
```

Dense matrices can be created with specific calls `MatCreateDenseCUDA`, `MatCreateSeqDenseCUDA`, or by setting types `MATDENSECUDA`, `MATSEQDENSECUDA`, `MATMPIDENSECUDA`.

Sparse matrices: `MATAIJJCUSPARSE` which is sequential or distributed depending on how the program is started. Specific types are: `MATMPIAIJCUSPARSE`, `MATSEQAIJCUSPARSE`.

38.3.3 Array access

All sorts of ‘array’ operations such as `MatDenseCUDAGetArray`, `VecCUDAGetArray`,

Set `PetscMalloc` to use the GPU: `PetscMallocSetCUDAHost`, and switch back with `PetscMallocResetCUDAHost`.

38.4 Other

The memories of a CPU and GPU are not coherent. This means that routines such as `PetscMalloc1` can not immediately be used for GPU allocation. Use the routines `PetscMallocSetCUDAHost` and `PetscMallocResetCUDAHost` to switch the allocator to GPU memory and back.

```
// cudamatself.c
Mat cuda_matrix;
PetscScalar *matdata;
ierr = PetscMallocSetCUDAHost();
ierr = PetscMalloc1(global_size*global_size,&matdata);
ierr = PetscMallocResetCUDAHost();
ierr = MatCreateDenseCUDA
    (comm,
    global_size,global_size,global_size,global_size,
    matdata,
    &cuda_matrix);
```

38.5 Sources used in this chapter

38.5.1 Listing of code header

Chapter 39

PETSc tools

39.1 Error checking and debugging

39.1.1 Debug mode

During installation (see section 32.3), there is an option of turning on debug mode. An installation with debug turned on:

- Does more runtime checks on numerics, or array indices;
- Does a memory analysis when you insert the `CHKMEMQ` macro (section 39.1.3);
- Has the macro `PETSC_USE_DEBUG` set to 1.

39.1.2 Error codes

PETSc performs a good amount of runtime error checking. Some of this is for internal consistency, but it can also detect certain mathematical errors. To facilitate error reporting, the following scheme is used.

1. Every PETSc routine is a function returning a parameter of type `PetscErrorCode`.
2. For a good traceback, surround the executable part of any subprogram with `PetscFunctionBeginUser` and `PetscFunctionReturn`, where the latter has the return value as parameter. (The routine `PetscFunctionBegin` does the same, but should only be used for PETSc library routines.)
3. Calling the macro `CHKERRQ` on the error code will cause an error to be printed and the current routine to be terminated. Recursively this gives a traceback of where the error occurred.

```
// PetscErrorCode ierr;
ierr = AnyPetscRoutine( arguments ); CHKERRQ(ierr);
```

4. Other error checking macros are `CHKERRABORT` which aborts immediately, and `CHKERRMPI`.
5. You can effect your own error return by using `SETERRQ` (figure 39.1) `SETERRQ1` (figure 39.1), `SETERRQ2` (figure 39.1).

Fortran note 26: Error code handling. In the main program, use `CHKERRA` and `SETERRA`. Also beware that these error ‘commands’ are macros, and after expansion may interfere with *Fortran line length*, so they should only be used in .F90 files.

Example. We write a routine that sets an error:

```
// backtrace.c
PetscErrorCode this_function_bombs() {
  PetscFunctionBegin;
  SETERRQ(PETSC_COMM_SELF,1,"We cannot go on like this");
  PetscFunctionReturn(0);
}
```

Figure 39.1 SETERRQ

```
#include <petscsys.h>
PetscErrorCode SETERRQ (MPI_Comm comm,PetscErrorCode ierr,char *message)
PetscErrorCode SETERRQ1(MPI_Comm comm,PetscErrorCode ierr,char *formatmessage,arg1)
PetscErrorCode SETERRQ2(MPI_Comm comm,PetscErrorCode ierr,char *formatmessage,arg1,arg2)
PetscErrorCode SETERRQ3(MPI_Comm comm,PetscErrorCode ierr,char *formatmessage,arg1,arg2,arg3)

Input Parameters:
comm - A communicator, so that the error can be collective
ierr - nonzero error code, see the list of standard error codes in include/petscerror.h
message - error message in the printf format
arg1,arg2,arg3 - argument (for example an integer, string or double)
```

For the full source of this example, see section 39.6.2

Running this gives, in process zero, the output

```
[0]PETSC ERROR: We cannot go on like this
[0]PETSC ERROR: See https://www.mcs.anl.gov/petsc/documentation/faq.html for trouble shooting.
[0]PETSC ERROR: Petsc Release Version 3.12.2, Nov, 22, 2019
[0]PETSC ERROR: backtrace on a [computer name]
[0]PETSC ERROR: Configure options [all options]
[0]PETSC ERROR: #1 this_function_bombs() line 20 in backtrace.c
[0]PETSC ERROR: #2 main() line 30 in backtrace.c
```

Fortran note 27: Backtrace on error. In Fortran the backtrace is not quite as elegant.

```
!! backtrace.F90
Subroutine this_function_bombs(ierr)
  implicit none
  integer,intent(out) :: ierr

  SETERRQ(PETSC_COMM_SELF,1,"We cannot go on like this")
  ierr = -1

end Subroutine this_function_bombs
```

For the full source of this example, see section 39.6.3

```
[0]PETSC ERROR: ----- Error Message -----
[0]PETSC ERROR: We cannot go on like this
[...]
[0]PETSC ERROR: #1 User provided function() line 0 in User file
```

Remark 33 In this example, the use of `PETSC_COMM_SELF` indicates that this error is individually generated on a process; use `PETSC_COMM_WORLD` only if the same error would be detected everywhere.

Exercise 39.1. Look up the definition of `SETERRQ1`. Write a routine to compute square roots that is used as follows:

```
x = 1.5; ierr = square_root(x,&rootx); CHKERRQ(ierr);
PetscPrintf(PETSC_COMM_WORLD,"Root of %f is %f\n",x,rootx);
x = -2.6; ierr = square_root(x,&rootx); CHKERRQ(ierr);
PetscPrintf(PETSC_COMM_WORLD,"Root of %f is %f\n",x,rootx);
```

This should give as output:

```
Root of 1.500000 is 1.224745
[0]PETSC ERROR: ----- Error Message -----
[0]PETSC ERROR: Cannot compute the root of -2.600000
[...]
[0]PETSC ERROR: #1 square_root() line 23 in root.c
[0]PETSC ERROR: #2 main() line 39 in root.c
```

39.1.3 Memory corruption

PETSc has its own memory management (section 39.5) and this facilitates finding memory corruption errors. The macro `CHKMEMQ` (`CHKMEMA` in void functions) checks all memory that was allocated by PETSc, either internally or through the allocation routines, for corruption. Sprinkling this macro through your code can detect memory problems before they lead to a *segfault*.

This testing is only done if the commandline argument `-malloc_debug` (`-malloc_test` in debug mode) is supplied, so it carries no overhead for production runs.

39.1.3.1 Valgrind

Valgrind is rather verbose in its output. To limit the number of processes that run under valgrind:

```
mpiexec -n 3 valgrind --track-origins=yes ./app -args : -n 5 ./app -args
```

39.2 Program output

PETSc has a variety of mechanisms to export or visualize program data. We will consider a few possibilities here.

39.2.1 Screen I/O

Printing screen output in parallel is tricky. If two processes execute a print statement at more or less the same time there is no guarantee as to in what order they may appear on screen. (Even attempts to have them print one after the other may not result in the right ordering.) Furthermore, lines from multi-line print actions on two processes may wind up on the screen interleaved.

39.2.1.1 printf replacements

PETSc has two routines that fix this problem. First of all, often the information printed is the same on all processes, so it is enough if only one process, for instance process 0, prints it. This is done with `PetscPrintf` (figure 39.2).

If all processes need to print, you can use `PetscSynchronizedPrintf` (figure 39.3) that forces the output to appear in process order.

To make sure that output is properly flushed from all system buffers use `PetscSynchronizedFlush` (figure 39.4) where for ordinary screen output you would use `stdout` for the file.

Fortran note 28: Print string construction. Fortran does not have the variable-number-of-arguments mechanism from C, so you can only use `PetscPrintf` on a buffer that you construct with a `Write` statement:

Figure 39.2 `PetscPrintf`

C:
PetscErrorCode PetscPrintf(MPI_Comm comm,const char format[],...)

Fortran:
PetscPrintf(MPI_Comm, character(*), PetscErrorCode ierr)

Python:
PETSc.Sys.Print(type cls, *args, **kwargs)
kargs:
comm : communicator object

Figure 39.3 `PetscSynchronizedPrintf`

C:
PetscErrorCode PetscSynchronizedPrintf(
MPI_Comm comm,const char format[],...)

Fortran:
PetscSynchronizedPrintf(MPI_Comm, character(*), PetscErrorCode ierr)

python:
PETSc.Sys.syncPrint(type cls, *args, **kwargs)
kargs:
comm : communicator object
flush : if True, do synchronizedFlush
other keyword args as for python3 print function

Figure 39.4 `PetscSynchronizedFlush`

C:
PetscErrorCode PetscSynchronizedFlush(MPI_Comm comm,FILE *fd)
fd : output file pointer, needs to be valid on process zero

Fortran:
PetscSynchronizedFlush(comm,fd,err)
Integer :: comm
fd is usually PETSC_STDOUT
PetscErrorCode :: err

python:
PETSc.Sys.syncFlush(type cls, comm=None)

Figure 39.5 `PetscViewerRead`

Synopsis

```
#include "petscviewer.h"
PetscErrorCode PetscViewerRead(PetscViewer viewer, void *data, PetscInt num, PetscInt *count, PetscDataType dtype)

Collective

Input Parameters
viewer - The viewer
data - Location to write the data
num - Number of items of data to read
datatype - Type of data to read

Output Parameters
count -number of items of data actually read, or NULL
```

```
|| Character*80 :: message
|| write(message,10) xnorm,ynorm
|| 10 format("Norm x: ",f6.3,", y: ",f6.3,"\\n")
|| call PetscPrintf(comm,message,ierr)
```

Fortran note 29: Printing and newlines. The Fortran calls are only wrappers around C routines, so you can use `\n` newline characters in the Fortran string argument to `PetscPrintf`.

The file to flush is typically `PETSC_STDOUT`.

Python note 42: Petsc print and python print. Since the print routines use the python print call, they automatically include the trailing newline. You don't have to specify it as in the C calls.

39.2.1.2 *scanf replacement*

Using `scanf` in Petsc is tricky, since integers and real numbers can be of different sizes, depending on the installation. Instead, use `PetscViewerRead` (figure 39.5), which operates in terms of `PetscDataType`.

39.2.2 Viewers

In order to export PETSc matrix or vector data structures there is a `PetscViewer` object type. This is a quite general concept of viewing: it encompasses ascii output to screen, binary dump to file, or communication to a running Matlab process. Calls such as `MatView` or `KSPView` accept a `PetscViewer` argument.

In cases where this makes sense, there is also an inverse ‘load’ operation. See section 33.3.5 for vectors.

Some viewers are predefined, such as `PETSC_VIEWER_STDOUT_WORLD` for ascii rendering to standard out. (In C, specifying zero or `NULL` also uses this default viewer; for Fortran use `PETSC_NULL_VIEWER`.)

39.2.2.1 *Viewer types*

For activities such as dumping to file you first need create the viewer with `PetscViewerCreate` and set its type with `PetscViewerSetType`.

```
|| PetscViewerCreate(comm,&viewer);
|| PetscViewerSetType(viewer,PETSCVIEWERBINARY);
```

Popular types include PETSCVIEWERASCII, PETSCVIEWERBINARY, PETSCVIEWERSTRING, PETSCVIEWERDRAW, PETSCVIEWERSOCKET, PETSCVIEWERHDF5, PETSCVIEWERVTK; the full list can be found in `include/petscviewer.h`.

39.2.2.2 Viewer formats

Viewers can take further format specifications by using `PetscViewerPushFormat`:

```
|| PetscViewerPushFormat
||   (PETSC_VIEWER_STDOUT_WORLD,
||    PETSC_VIEWER_ASCII_INFO_DETAIL);
```

and afterwards a corresponding `PetscViewerPopFormat`

Python note 43: HDF5 file generation.

```
## hdf5.py
file_name = "hdf5.dat"
viewer = PETSc.Viewer().createHDF5(file_name, 'w', comm)
x.view(viewer)
viewer = PETSc.Viewer().createHDF5(file_name, 'r', comm)
x.load(viewer)
```

39.2.2.3 Commandline option for viewers

Petsc objects viewers can be activated by calls such as `MatView`, but often it is more convenient to do this through commandline options, such as `-mat_view`, `-vec_view`, or `-ksp_view`. By default, these output to `stdout` in `ascii` form, but this can be controlled by further option values:

```
program -mat_view binary:matrix.dat
```

where `binary` forces a binary dump (`ascii` is the default) and a file name is explicitly given.

Binary dump may not be supported for all datatypes, in particular `DM`. For that case, do

```
program -dm_view draw \
-draw_pause 20
```

which pops up an `X11` window, for the duration of the indicated pause.

If a viewer needs to be triggered at a specific location, calls such as `VecViewFromOptions` can be used. These routines all have a similar calling sequence:

```
#include "petscsys.h"
PetscErrorCode PetscObjectViewFromOptions(PetscObject obj,PetscObject bobj,const char
                                         ↴optionname[])
PetscErrorCode VecViewFromOptions(Vec A,PetscObject obj,const char name[])

AOViewFromOptions, DMViewFromOptions, ISViewFromOptions, ISLocalToGlobalMappingViewFromOptions,
KSPConvergedReasonViewFromOptions, KSPViewFromOptions, MatPartitioningViewFromOptions,
MatCoarsenViewFromOptions, MatViewFromOptions, PetscObjectViewFromOptions,
PetscPartitionerViewFromOptions, PetscDrawViewFromOptions, PetscRandomViewFromOptions,
PetscDualSpaceViewFromOptions, PetscSFViewFromOptions, PetscFEViewFromOptions,
```

```
PetscFVViewFromOptions, PetscSectionViewFromOptions, PCViewFromOptions, PetscSpaceViewFromOptions,
PFViewFromOptions, PetscLimiterViewFromOptions, PetscLogViewFromOptions, PetscDSViewFromOptions,
PetscViewerViewFromOptions, SNESConvergedReasonViewFromOptions, SNESViewFromOptions,
TSTrajectoryViewFromOptions, TSViewFromOptions, TaoLineSearchViewFromOptions, TaoViewFromOptions,
VecViewFromOptions, VecScatterViewFromOptions,
```

39.2.2.4 Naming objects

A helpful facility for viewing is to name an object: that name will then be displayed when the object is viewed.

```
||| Vec i_local;
||| ierr = VecCreate(comm,&i_local); CHKERRQ(ierr);
||| ierr = PetscObjectSetName((PetscObject)i_local,"space local"); CHKERRQ(ierr);
```

giving:

```
Vec Object: space local 4 MPI processes
  type: mpi
Process [0]
[ ... et cetera ... ]
```

39.3 Commandline options

PETSc has as large number of commandline options, most of which we will discuss later. For now we only mention `-log_summary` which will print out profile of the time taken in various routines. For these options to be parsed, it is necessary to pass `argc`, `argv` to the `PetscInitialize` call.

39.3.1 Adding your own options

You can add custom commandline options to your program. Various routines such as `PetscOptionsGetInt` scan the commandline for options and set parameters accordingly. For instance,

```
// ksp.c
PetscBool flag;
int domain_size = 100;
ierr = PetscOptionsGetInt
  (NULL,PETSC_NULL,"-n",&domain_size,&flag);
PetscPrintf(comm,"Using domain size %d\n",domain_size);
```

For the full source of this example, see section 39.6.4

declares the existence of an option `-n` to be followed by an integer.

Now executing

```
mpiexec yourprogram -n 5
```

will

1. set the `flag` to true, and
2. set the parameter `domain_size` to the value on the commandline.

Omitting the `-n` option will leave the default value of `domain_size` unaltered.

For flags, use `PetscOptionsHasName`.

Python note 44: Petsc options. In Python, do not specify the initial hyphen of an option name. Also, the functions such as `getInt` do not return the boolean flag; if you need to test for the existence of the commandline option, use:

```
hasn = PETSc.Options().hasName("n")
```

There is a related mechanism using `PetscOptionsBegin / PetscOptionsEnd`:

```
// optionsbegin.c
ierr = PetscOptionsBegin(comm,NULL,"Parameters",NULL);
ierr = PetscOptionsInt("-i","i value",__FILE__,i_value,&i_value,&i_flag);
ierr = PetscOptionsInt("-j","j value",__FILE__,j_value,&j_value,&j_flag);
ierr = PetscOptionsEnd();
if (i_flag)
    PetscPrintf(comm,"Option `i' was used\n");
if (j_flag)
    PetscPrintf(comm,"Option `j' was used\n");
```

For the full source of this example, see section [39.6.5](#)

The selling point for this approach is that running your code with

```
mpiexec yourprogram -help
```

will display these options as a block. Together with a ton of other options, unfortunately.

39.3.2 Options prefix

In many cases, your code will have only one `KSP` solver object, so specifying `-ksp_view` or `-ksp_monitor` will display / trace that one. However, you may have multiple solvers, or nested solvers. You may then not want to display all of them.

As an example of the nest solver case, consider the case of a *block jacobi preconditioner*, where the block is itself solved with an iterative method. You can trace that one with `--sub_ksp_monitor`.

The `sub_` is an *option prefix*, and you can defined your own with `KSPSetOptionsPrefix`. (There are similar routines for other PETSc object types.)

Example:

```
KSPCreate(comm,&time_solver);
KSPCreate(comm,&space_solver);
KSPSetOptionsPrefix(time_solver,"time_");
KSPSetOptionsPrefix(space_solver,"space_");
```

You can then use options `-time_ksp_monitor` and such. Note that the prefix does not have a leading dash, but it does have the trailing underscore.

Similar routines: `MatSetOptionsPrefix`, `PCSetOptionsPrefix`, `PetscObjectSetOptionsPrefix`, `PetscViewerSetOptionsPrefix`, `SNESSetOptionsPrefix`, `TSSetOptionsPrefix`, `VecSetOptionsPrefix`, and some more obscure ones.

Figure 39.6 `PetscTime`**Synopsis**

Returns the CPU time in seconds used by the process.

```
#include "petscsys.h"
#include "petsctime.h"
PetscErrorCode PetscGetCPUTime(PetscLogDouble *t)
PetscErrorCode PetscTime(PetscLogDouble *v)
```

39.3.3 Where to specify options

Commandline options can obviously go on the commandline. However, there are more places where they can be specified.

Options can be specified programmatically with `PetscOptionsSetValue`:

```
// PetscOptionsSetValue( NULL, // for global options
                      "-some_option", "value_as_string");
```

Options can be specified in a file `.petscrc` in the user's home directory or the current directory.

Finally, an environment variable `PETSC_OPTIONS` can be set.

The `rc` file is processed first, then the environment variable, then any commandline arguments. This parsing is done in `PetscInitialize`, so any values from `PetscOptionsSetValue` override this.

39.4 Timing and profiling

PETSc has a number of timing routines that make it unnecessary to use system routines such as `getrusage` or MPI routines such as `MPI_Wtime`. The main (wall clock) timer is `PetscTime` (figure 39.6). Note the return type of `PetscLogDouble` which can have a different precision from `PetscReal`.

The routine `PetscGetCPUTime` is less useful, since it measures only time spent in computation, and ignores things such as communication.

39.4.1 Logging

Petsc does a lot of logging on its own operations. Additionally, you can introduce your own routines into this log.

The simplest way to display statistics is to run with an option `-log_view`. This takes an optional file name argument:

```
mpiexec -n 10 yourprogram -log_view :statistics.txt
```

The corresponding routine is `PetscLogView`.

39.5 Memory management

Allocate the memory for a given pointer: `PetscNew`, allocate arbitrary memory with `PetscMalloc`, allocate a number of objects with `PetscMalloc1` (figure 39.7) (this does not zero the memory allocated, use `PetscCalloc1` to obtain memory that has been zeroed); use `PetscFree` (figure 39.8) to free.

Figure 39.7 `PetscMalloc1`

Synopsis

Allocates an array of memory aligned to PETSC_MEMALIGN

C:

```
#include <petscsys.h>
PetscErrorCode PetscMalloc1(size_t m1,type **r1)
```

Input Parameter:

m1 - number of elements to allocate (may be zero)

Output Parameter:

r1 - memory allocated

Figure 39.8 `PetscFree`

Synopsis

Frees memory, not collective

C:

```
#include <petscsys.h>
PetscErrorCode PetscFree(void *memory)
```

Input Parameter:

memory - memory to free (the pointer is ALWAYS set to NULL upon success)

```
||| PetscInt *idxs;
||| PetscMalloc1(10,&idxs);
||| // better than:
||| // PetscMalloc(10*sizeof(PetscInt),&idxs);
||| for (PetscInt i=0; i<10; i++)
|||   idxs[i] = f(i);
||| PetscFree(idxs);
```

Allocated memory is aligned to PETSC_MEMALIGN.

The state of memory allocation can be written to file or standard out with `PetscMallocDump`. The commandline option `-malloc_dump` outputs all not-freed memory during `PetscFinalize`.

39.5.1 GPU allocation

The memories of a CPU and GPU are not coherent. This means that routines such as `PetscMalloc1` can not immediately be used for GPU allocation. See section 38.4 for details.

39.6 Sources used in this chapter

39.6.1 Listing of code header

39.6.2 Listing of code examples/petsc/c/backtrace.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>

#include <petsc.h>

PetscErrorCode this_function_bombs() {
    PetscFunctionBegin;
    SETERRQ(PETSC_COMM_SELF,1,"We cannot go on like this");
    PetscFunctionReturn(0);
}

int main(int argc,char **argv)
{
    PetscErrorCode ierr;

    char help[] = "\nInit example.\n\n";
    ierr = PetscInitialize(&argc,&argv,(char*)0,help); CHKERRQ(ierr);
    ierr = this_function_bombs(); CHKERRQ(ierr);
    return PetscFinalize();
}
```

39.6.3 Listing of code examples/petsc/f/backtrace.F90

Program BackTrace

```
#include <petsc/f/include/petsc.h>
use petsc
implicit none

PetscErrorCode :: ierr

call PetscInitialize(PETSC_NULL_CHARACTER,ierr)
CHKERRA(ierr)
call this_function_bombs(ierr)
CHKERRA(ierr)
call PetscFinalize(ierr)
CHKERRA(ierr)

contains

Subroutine this_function_bombs(ierr)
    implicit none
    integer,intent(out) :: ierr

    SETERRQ(PETSC_COMM_SELF,1,"We cannot go on like this")
```

```
ierr = -1

end Subroutine this_function_bombs

End Program BackTrace
```

39.6.4 Listing of code examples/petsc/c/kspcg.c

```
#include "petscksp.h"

#undef __FUNCT__
#define __FUNCT__ "main"
int main(int argc,char **args)
{
    PetscErrorCode ierr;
    MPI_Comm comm;
    KSP solver;
    Mat A;
    Vec Rhs,Sol;
    PetscScalar one = 1.0;

    PetscFunctionBegin;
    PetscInitialize(&argc,&args,0,0);

    comm = PETSC_COMM_SELF;

/*
 * Read the domain size, and square it to get the matrix size
 */
    PetscBool flag;
    int matrix_size = 100;
    ierr = PetscOptionsGetInt
        (NULL,PETSC_NULL,"-n",&matrix_size,&flag); CHKERRQ(ierr);
    PetscPrintf(comm,"Using matrix size %d\n",matrix_size);

/*
 * Create the five-point laplacian matrix
 */
    ierr = MatCreate(comm,&A); CHKERRQ(ierr);
    ierr = MatSetType(A,MATSEQAIJ); CHKERRQ(ierr);
    ierr = MatSetSizes(A,matrix_size,matrix_size,matrix_size,matrix_size); CHKERRQ(ierr);
    ierr = MatSeqAIJSetPreallocation(A,3,PETSC_NULL); CHKERRQ(ierr);
    ierr = MatCreateVecs(A,&Rhs,PETSC_NULL); CHKERRQ(ierr);
    for (int i=0; i<matrix_size; i++) {
        PetscScalar
            h = 1./(matrix_size+1), pi = 3.1415926,
            sin1 = i * pi * h, sin2 = 2 * i * pi * h, sin3 = 3 * i * pi * h,
            coefs[3] = {-1,2,-1};
        PetscInt cols[3] = {i-1,i,i+1};
        ierr = VecSetValue(Rhs,i,sin1 + .5 * sin2 + .3 * sin3, INSERT_VALUES); CHKERRQ(ierr);
        if (i==0) {
            ierr = MatSetValues(A,1,&i,2,cols+1,coefs+1,INSERT_VALUES); CHKERRQ(ierr);
        } else if (i==matrix_size-1) {
```

```

    ierr = MatSetValues(A,1,&i,2,cols,coefs,INSERT_VALUES); CHKERRQ(ierr);
} else {
    ierr = MatSetValues(A,1,&i,2,cols,coefs,INSERT_VALUES); CHKERRQ(ierr);
}
}

ierr = MatAssemblyBegin(A,MAT_FINAL_ASSEMBLY); CHKERRQ(ierr);
ierr = MatAssemblyEnd(A,MAT_FINAL_ASSEMBLY); CHKERRQ(ierr);
//MatView(A,PETSC_VIEWER_STDOUT_WORLD);

/*
 * Create right hand side and solution vectors
 */
ierr = VecDuplicate(Rhs,&Sol); CHKERRQ(ierr);
ierr = VecSet(Rhs,one); CHKERRQ(ierr);

/*
 * Create iterative method and preconditioner
 */
ierr = KSPCreate(comm,&solver);
ierr = KSPSetOperators(solver,A,A); CHKERRQ(ierr);
ierr = KSPSetType(solver,KSPCG); CHKERRQ(ierr);
{
    PC prec;
    ierr = KSPGetPC(solver,&prec); CHKERRQ(ierr);
    ierr = PCSetType(prec,PCNONE); CHKERRQ(ierr);
}

/*
 * Incorporate any commandline options for the KSP
 */
ierr = KSPSetFromOptions(solver); CHKERRQ(ierr);

/*
 * Solve the system and analyze the outcome
 */
ierr = KSPSolve(solver,Rhs,Sol); CHKERRQ(ierr);
{
    PetscInt its; KSPConvergedReason reason;
    ierr = KSPGetConvergedReason(solver,&reason);
    ierr = KSPGetIterationNumber(solver,&its); CHKERRQ(ierr);
    if (reason<0) {
        PetscPrintf
            (comm,"Failure to converge after %d iterations; reason %s\n",
             its,KSPConvergedReasons[reason]);
    } else {
        PetscPrintf
            (comm,"Number of iterations to convergence: %d\n",
             its);
    }
}

ierr = MatDestroy(&A); CHKERRQ(ierr);
ierr = KSPDestroy(&solver); CHKERRQ(ierr);

```

```
ierr = VecDestroy(&Rhs); CHKERRQ(ierr);
ierr = VecDestroy(&Sol); CHKERRQ(ierr);

    return PetscFinalize();
}
```

39.6.5 Listing of code examples/petsc/c/optionsbegin.c

```
#include "petsc.h"

#undef __FUNCT__
#define __FUNCT__ "main"
int main(int argc,char **args)
{
    PetscErrorCode ierr;
    MPI_Comm comm;

    PetscFunctionBegin;
    PetscInitialize(&argc,&args,0,0);
    comm = MPI_COMM_WORLD;

    PetscInt i_value = 1, j_value = 1;
    PetscBool i_flag = 0, j_flag = 0;

    ierr = PetscOptionsBegin(comm,NULL,"Parameters",NULL); CHKERRQ(ierr);
    ierr = PetscOptionsInt("-i","i value",__FILE__,i_value,&i_value,&i_flag); CHKERRQ(ierr);
    ierr = PetscOptionsInt("-j","j value",__FILE__,j_value,&j_value,&j_flag); CHKERRQ(ierr);
    ierr = PetscOptionsEnd(); CHKERRQ(ierr);
    if (i_flag)
        PetscPrintf(comm,"Option `‐i' was used\n");
    if (j_flag)
        PetscPrintf(comm,"Option `‐j' was used\n");

    PetscPrintf(comm,"i=%d, j=%d\n",i_value,j_value);

    return PetscFinalize();
}
```

Chapter 40

PETSc topics

40.1 Communicators

PETSc has a ‘world’ communicator, which by default equals `MPI_COMM_WORLD`. If you want to run PETSc on a subset of processes, you can assign a subcommunicator to the variable `PETSC_COMM_WORLD` in between the calls to `MPI_Init` and `PetscInitialize`. Petsc communicators are of type `PetscComm`.

40.2 Sources used in this chapter

40.2.1 Listing of code header

PART IV

OTHER PROGRAMMING MODELS

Chapter 41

Co-array Fortran

This chapter explains the basic concepts of Co-array Fortran (CAF), and helps you get started on running your first program.

41.1 History and design

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Coarray_Fortran

41.2 Compiling and running

CAF is built on the same SPMD design as MPI. Where MPI talks about processes or ranks, CAF calls the running instances of your program *images*.

The Intel compiler uses the flag `-coarray=xxx` with values `single`, `shared`, `distributed` `gpu`.

It is possible to bake the number of ‘images’ into the executable, but by default this is not done, and it is determined at runtime by the variable `FOR_COARRAY_NUM_IMAGES`.

CAF can not be mixed with OpenMP.

41.3 Basics

Co-arrays are defined by giving them, in addition to the `Dimension`, a `Codimension`

```
|| Complex, codimension(*) :: number  
|| Integer, dimension(:, :, :), codimension[-1:1, *] :: grid
```

This means we are respectively declaring an array with a single number on each image, or a three-dimensional grid spread over a two-dimensional processor grid.

Traditional-like syntax can also be used:

```
|| Complex :: number[*]  
|| Integer :: grid(10,20,30)[-1:1,*]
```

Unlike Message Passing Interface (MPI), which normally only supports a linear process numbering, CAF allows for multi-dimensional process grids. The last dimension is always specified as `*`, meaning it is determined at runtime.

41.3.1 Image identification

As in other models, in CAF one can ask how many images/processes there are, and what the number of the current one is, with `num_images` and `this_image` respectively.

```
|| !! hello.F90
||   write(*,*) "Hello from image ", this_image(), &
||   "out of ", num_images()," total images"
```

For the full source of this example, see section 41.4.2

If you call `this_image` with a co-array as argument, it will return the image index, as a tuple of cosubscripts, rather than a linear index. Given such a set of subscripts, `image_index` will return the linear index.

The functions `lcobound` and `ucobound` give the lower and upper bound on the image subscripts, as a linear index, or a tuple if called with a co-array variable.

41.3.2 Remote operations

The appeal of CAF is that moving data between images looks (almost) like an ordinary copy operation:

```
|| real :: x(2) [*]
|| integer :: p
|| p = this_image()
|| x(1)[ p+1 ] = x(2)[ p ]
```

Exchanging grid boundaries is elegantly done with array syntax:

```
|| Real,Dimension( 0:N+1,0:N+1 )[*] :: grid
|| grid( N+1,: )[p] = grid( 0,: )[p+1]
|| grid( 0,: )[p] = grid( N,: )[p-1]
```

41.3.3 Synchronization

The fortran standard forbids *race conditions*:

If a variable is defined on an image in a segment, it shall not be referenced, defined or become undefined in a segment on another image unless the segments are ordered.

That is, you should not cause them to happen. The language and runtime are certainly not going to help you with that.

Well, a little. After remote updates you can synchronize images with the `sync` call. The easiest variant is a global synchronization:

```
|| sync all
```

Compare this to a wait call after MPI nonblocking calls.

More fine-grained, one can synchronize with specific images:

```
|| sync images( (/ p-1,p,p+1 /) )
```

While remote operations in CAF are nicely one-sided, synchronization is not: if image `p` issues a call

```
|| sync(q)
```

then q also needs to issue a mirroring call to synchronize with p.

As an illustration, the following code is not a correct implementation of a *ping-pong*:

```
|| ! pingpong.F90
|| sync all
|| if (procid==1) then
||   number[procid+1] = number[procid]
|| else if (procid==2) then
||   number[procid-1] = 2*number[procid]
|| end if
|| sync all
```

We can solve this with a global synchronization:

```
|| sync all
|| if (procid==1) &
||   number[procid+1] = number[procid]
|| sync all
|| if (procid==2) &
||   number[procid-1] = 2*number[procid]
|| sync all
```

or a local one:

```
|| if (procid==1) &
||   number[procid+1] = number[procid]
|| if (procid<=2) sync images( (/1,2/) )
|| if (procid==2) &
||   number[procid-1] = 2*number[procid]
|| if (procid<=2) sync images( (/2,1/) )
```

Note that the local sync call is done on both images involved.

Example of how you would synchronize a collective:

```
|| if ( this_image() .eq. 1 ) sync images( * )
|| if ( this_image() .ne. 1 ) sync images( 1 )
```

Here image 1 synchronizes with all others, but the others don't synchronize with each other.

```
|| if (procid==1) then
||   sync images( (/procid+1/) )
|| else if (procid==nprocs) then
||   sync images( (/procid-1/) )
|| else
||   sync images( (/procid-1,procid+1/) )
|| end if
```

For the full source of this example, see section 41.4.3

41.3.4 Collectives

Collectives are not part of CAF as of the 2008 Fortran standard.

41.4 Sources used in this chapter

41.4.1 Listing of code header

41.4.2 Listing of code examples/caf/f08/hello.F90

```
program hello_image

  write(*,*) "Hello from image ", this_image(), &
  "out of ", num_images()," total images"

end program hello_image
```

41.4.3 Listing of code examples/caf/f08/rightcopy.F90

```
program RightCopy

  integer,dimension(2),codimension[*] :: numbers
  integer :: procid,nprocs

  procid = this_image()
  nprocs = num_images()
  numbers(:)[procid] = procid
  if (procid<nprocs) then
    numbers(1)[procid+1] = procid
  end if
  if (procid==1) then
    sync images( (/procid+1/) )
  else if (procid==nprocs) then
    sync images( (/procid-1/) )
  else
    sync images( (/procid-1,procid+1/) )
  end if

  write(*,*) "After shift,",procid," has",numbers(:)[procid]

end program RightCopy
```

Chapter 42

Kokkos

Much of this material is based on the Kokkos Tutorial that Jeff Miles and Christian Trott gave April 21-24, 2020.

Include file:

```
// hello.cxx
#include "Kokkos_Core.hpp"
```

For the full source of this example, see section 42.5.2

42.1 Data-parallel constructs

Parallel constructs, what you use directives for in OpenMP, are explicitly called.

```
Kokkos::parallel_for
Kokkos::parallel_reduce
Kokkos::parallel_scan
```

42.1.1 1D loop

Hello world:

```
Kokkos::parallel_for
( 10,
  [](int i){ cout << "hello " << i << "\n"; }
);
```

For the full source of this example, see section 42.5.2

- How many iterations,
- Function of the iteration number. You can use a function pointer here, but often we will use lambda expressions. If you're iterating over an array, it needs to be captured in the lambda expression.

42.1.2 Reduction

Reductions add a parameter to the construct: the reduction variable.

```
// pi{0.};
int n{100};
Kokkos::parallel_reduce
( "PI",
  n,
  KOKKOS_LAMBDA ( int i, double& partial ) {
    double h = 1./n, x = i*h;
    partial += h * sqrt( 1-x*x );
  },
  pi
);
```

For the full source of this example, see section 42.5.3

- The parallel construct has an optional name. This is useful for profiling and debugging.
- Instead of an explicit lambda capture, we use *KOKKOS_LAMBDA* which does a [=] capture, and adds clauses for GPU execution, if needed.
- The lambda expression now takes two parameters: the iteration number, and the reduction variable. This is the thread-private variable, not the final one.
- The final argument is the global reduction variable.

For reductions other than summing, a *reducer* is needed.

```
// reduxmax.cxx
double max=0.;
Kokkos::parallel_reduce
( npoints,
  KOKKOS_LAMBDA ( int i, double& m) {
    if (x(i)>m)
      m = x(i);
  },
  Kokkos::Max<double>(max)
);
cout << "max: " << max << "\n";
```

42.1.3 Multi-D loops

You can of course parallelize over the outer loop, and do the inner loops in the functor. This code computes $r \leftarrow y^t Ax$:

```
Kokkos::parallel_reduce( "yAx", N,
  KOKKOS_LAMBDA ( int j, double &update ) {
    double temp2 = 0;

    for ( int i = 0; i < M; ++i ) {
      temp2 += A[ j * M + i ] * x[ i ];
    }

    update += y[ j ] * temp2;
  },
  result
);
```

You can also leave all the loops to Kokkos, with an *RangePolicy* or *MDRangePolicy*. Here you indicate the rank (as in: number of dimensions) of the object, as well as arrays of first/last values. In the above examples

```
// Kokkos::parallel_reduce( N, ... );
// equivalent:
Kokkos::parallel_reduce( Kokkos::RangePolicy<>(0,N), ... );
```

An example with a higher rank than one:

```
// matyax.cxx
Kokkos::parallel_reduce
( "ytAx product",
  Kokkos::MDRangePolicy<Kokkos::Rank<2>>( {0,0}, {m,n} ),
  KOKKOS_LAMBDA (int i,int j,double &partial ) {
    partial += yvec(i) * matrix(i,j) * xvec(j); },
  sum
);
```

For the full source of this example, see section 42.5.4

Note the multi-D indexing in this example: this parenthesis notation gets translated to the correct row/column-major depending on whether the code runs on a CPU or GPU; see section 19.9.7.

42.2 Data

One of the problems Kokkos addresses is the coherence of data between main processor and attached devicees such GPUs. This is handled through the *Kokkos::View* mechanism.

```
// matsum.cxx
int m=10,n=100;
Kokkos::View<double**> matrix("flat",m,n);
assert( matrix.extent(0)==10 );
```

For the full source of this example, see section 42.5.5

These act like C++ *shared_ptr*, so capturing them by value gives you the data by reference anyway. Storage is automatically freed, RAII-style, when they go out of scope.

Indexing is best done with a Fortran-style notation:

```
|| matrix(i,j)
```

which makes indexing in your algorithm independent of the actual layout.

Compile-time dimensions can be accomodated:

```
|| View<double*[2]> tallskinny("tallthin",100);
|| View<double*[2][3]> tallthin(100);
```

with the compile-time dimensions trailing. Naming is optional.

Methods:

- *extent(int)* gives the extent in a certain dimensions;
- *data* gives a raw pointer to the data.

42.2.1 Data layout

The view declaration has an optional template argument for the data layout.

```
|| View<double***, Layout, Space> name(...);
```

Values are

- *LayoutLeft* where, Fortran-style, the leftmost index is stride 1; this is the default for *CudaSpace*.
- *LayoutRight* where, C-style, the leftmost index is stride 1; this is the default for *HostSpace*.
- *LayoutStride*, *LayoutTiled* and others.
- User-defined.

Practically speaking, the traversal of a two-dimensional array is now a function of

- the layout, possibly determined by the memory space, and
- the indexing in in the functor:

```
|| Kokkos::parallel_whatever(
    N,
    KOKKOS_LAMBDA ( size_t i ) {
        matrix(i,j) or matrix(j,i); }
);
```

It is probably best to stick with this Rule of Thumb:

With a layout determined by the memory space,
let the iterator index be first,
and let loops inside the functor range over subsequent indexes.

42.3 Execution and memory spaces

The body of the functor can be executed on the CPU or on a GPU. Those are the *execution spaces*. Kokkos needs to be installed with support for such spaces.

To indicate that a function or lambda expression can be executed on more than one possible execution space:

- use *KOKKOS_LAMBDA* as the capture for lambda expressions, or
- prefix explicitly defined functions with *KOKKOS_INLINE_FUNCTION*.

Execution spaces can be explicitly indicated using the *RangePolicy* keyword:

```
|| Kokkos::parallel_for
  ( Kokkos::RangePolicy<>( 0,10 ), # default execution space
    [] (int i) {} );
Kokkos::parallel_for
  ( Kokkos::RangePolicy<SomeExecutionSpace>( 0,10 ),
    [] (int i) {} );
```

The default

```
|| Kokkos::parallel_for( N, ...
```

is equivalent to

```
|| Kokkos::parallel_for( RangePolicy<>(N), ...
```

42.3.1 Memory spaces

Where data is stored is an independent story. Each execution space has a *memory space*. When creating a *View*, you can optionally indicate a memory space argument:

```
// View<double***,MemorySpace> data(...);
```

Available memory spaces include: *HostSpace*, *CudaSpace*, *CudaUVMSpace*. Leaving out the memory space argument is equivalent to

```
// View<double**,DefaultExecutionSpace::memory_space> x(1,2);
```

Examples:

```
// View<double*,HostSpace> hostarray(5);
// View<double*,CudaSpace> cudaarray(5);
```

42.3.2 Space coherence

Kokkos never makes implicit deep copies, so you can not immediately run a functor in the Cuda execution space on a view in Host space.

You can create a mirror of CUDA data on the host:

```
CuMatrix matrix(m,n);
CuMatrix::HostMirror hostmatrix =
    Kokkos::create_mirror_view(matrix);
// populate matrix on the host
for (i) for (j) hostmatrix(i,j) = ....;
// deep copy to GPU
Kokkos::deep_copy(matrix,hostmatrix);
// do something on the GPU
Kokkos::parallel_whatever(
    RangePolicy<CudaSpace>( 0,n ),
    some_lambda );
// if needed, deep copy back.
```

42.4 Stuff

There are init/finalize calls, which are not always needed.

```
// pi.cxx
Kokkos::initialize(argc,argv);
Kokkos::finalize();
```

For the full source of this example, see section [42.5.3](#)

42.4.1 OpenMP integration

Cmake flag to enable OpenMP: -D Kokkos_ENABLE_OPENMP=ON

After that, all the usual OpenMP environment variables work.

Alternatively:

```
|| int nthreads = Kokkos::OpenMP::concurrency();
|| Kokkos::initialize(Kokkos::InitializationSettings().set_num_threads(nthreads))
```

Parallelism control:

```
--kokkos-threads=123 # threads
--kokkos-numa=45      # numa regions
--kokkos-device=6     * GPU id to use
```

42.5 Sources used in this chapter

42.5.1 Listing of code header

42.5.2 Listing of code code/kokkos/cxx/hello.cxx

```
#include <iostream>
using std::cout;
#include "Kokkos_Core.hpp"

int main() {
    Kokkos::parallel_for
    ( 10,
        [](int i){ cout << "hello " << i << "\n"; }
    );
    return 0;
}
```

42.5.3 Listing of code code/kokkos/cxx/pi.cxx

```
#include <iostream>
using std::cout;
#include <cmath>

#include "Kokkos_Core.hpp"

int main(int argc,char *argv[]) {
    Kokkos::initialize(argc,argv);

    double pi{0.};
    int n{100};
    Kokkos::parallel_reduce
    ( "PI",
        n,
        KOKKOS_LAMBDA ( int i, double& partial ) {
            double h = 1./n, x = i*h;
            partial += h * sqrt( 1-x*x );
        },
        pi
    );
    cout << "Pi: " << 4*pi << "\n";

    Kokkos::finalize();

    return 0;
}
```

42.5.4 Listing of code code/kokkos/css/matyax.cxx

42.5.5 Listing of code code/kokkos/cxx/matsum.cxx

```
#include <iostream>
using std::cout;
#include <cassert>

#include "Kokkos_Core.hpp"

int main(int argc,char *argv[]) {
    Kokkos::initialize(argc,argv);

    {
        /*
         * This scope is to RAIII the View's
         */
        int m=10,n=100;
        Kokkos::View<double**> matrix("flat",m,n);
        assert( matrix.extent(0)==10 );

        for (int i=0; i<m; i++)
            for (int j=0; j<n; j++)
                matrix(i,j) = 1.;

        double sum=0.;
        Kokkos::parallel_reduce
        (
            m,
            KOKKOS_LAMBDA (int i,double &partial ) {
        for (int j=0; j<n; j++)
            partial += matrix(i,j);
        },
        sum
        );
        cout << "Sum s/b 1000, is: " << sum << "\n";
    }

    Kokkos::finalize();
    return 0;
}
```

Chapter 43

Sycl, OneAPI, DPC++

This chapter explains the basic concepts of Sycl/Dpc++, and helps you get started on running your first program.

- SYCL is a C++-based language for portable parallel programming.
- Data Parallel C++ (DPCPP) is Intel's extension of Sycl.
- OneAPI is Intel's compiler suite, which contains the DPCPP compiler.

Intel DPC++ extension. The various Intel extensions are listed here: <https://spec.oneapi.com/versions/latest/elements/dpcpp/source/index.html#extensions-table>

43.1 Logistics

Headers:

```
|| #include <CL/sycl.hpp>
```

You can now include namespace, but with care! If you use

```
|| using namespace cl;
```

you have to prefix all SYCL class with *sycl*::, which is a bit of a bother. However, if you use

```
|| using namespace cl::sycl;
```

you run into the fact that SYCL has its own versions of many Standard Template Library (STL) commands, and so you will get name collisions. The most obvious example is that the *cl::sycl* name space has its own versions of *cout* and *endl*. Therefore you have to use explicitly *std::cout* and *std::end*. Using the wrong I/O will cause tons of inscrutable error messages. Additionally, SYCL has its own version of *free*, and of several math routines.

Intel DPC++ extension.

```
||     using namespace sycl;
```

43.2 Platforms and devices

Since DPCPP is cross-platform, we first need to discover the devices.

First we list the platforms:

```
// devices.cxx
std::vector<sycl::platform> platforms = sycl::platform::get_platforms();
for (const auto &plat : platforms) {
    // get_info is a template. So we pass the type as an `arguments`.
    std::cout << "Platform: "
    << plat.get_info<sycl::info::platform::name>() << " "
    << plat.get_info<sycl::info::platform::vendor>() << " "
    << plat.get_info<sycl::info::platform::version>() << std::endl;
```

For the full source of this example, see section [43.11.2](#)

Then for each platform we list the devices:

```
std::vector<sycl::device> devices = plat.get_devices();
for (const auto &dev : devices) {
    std::cout << "-- Device: "
    << dev.get_info<sycl::info::device::name>()
    << (dev.is_host() ? ": is the host" : "")
    << (dev.is_cpu() ? ": is a cpu" : "")
    << (dev.is_gpu() ? ": is a gpu" : "")
    << std::endl;
```

For the full source of this example, see section [43.11.2](#)

You can query what type of device you are dealing with by `is_host`, `is_cpu`, `is_gpu`.

43.3 Queues

The execution mechanism of SYCL is the *queue*: a sequence of actions that will be executed on a selected device. The only user action is submitting actions to a queue; the queue is executed at the end of the scope where it is declared.

Queue execution is asynchronous with host code.

43.3.1 Device selectors

You need to select a device on which to execute the queue. A single queue can only dispatch to a single device.

A queue is coupled to one specific device, so it can not spread work over multiple devices. You can find a default device for the queue with

```
sycl::queue myqueue;
```

The following example explicitly assigns the queue to the CPU device using the `sycl::cpu_selector`.

```
// cpuname.cxx
sycl::queue myqueue( sycl::cpu_selector{} );
```

For the full source of this example, see section [43.11.3](#)

The `sycl::host_selector` bypasses any devices and make the code run on the host.

It is good for your sanity to print the name of the device you are running on:

```
// devname.cxx
std::cout << myqueue.get_device().get_info<sycl::info::device::name>()
    << std::endl;
```

For the full source of this example, see section [43.11.4](#)

If you try to select a device that is not available, a `sycl::runtime_error` exception will be thrown.

Intel DPC++ extension.

```
#include "CL/sycl/intel/fpga_extensions.hpp"
fpga_selector
```

43.3.2 Queue execution

It seems that queue kernels will also be executed when only they go out of scope, but not the queue:

```
cpu_selector selector;
queue q(selector);
{
    q.submit( /* some kernel */ );
} // here the kernel executes
```

43.3.3 Kernel ordering

Kernels are not necessarily executed in the order in which they are submitted. You can enforce this by specifying an *in-order queue*:

```
sycl::queue myqueue{property::queue::inorder()};
```

43.4 Kernels

One kernel per submit.

```
myqueue.submit( [&] ( handler &commandgroup ) {
    commandgroup.parallel_for<uniquename>
        ( range<1>[N],
            [=] ( id<1> idx ) { ... idx }
        )
    } );
```

Note that the lambda in the kernel captures by value. Capturing by reference makes no sense, since the kernel is executed on a device.

```
cgh.single_task(
    [=]() {
        // kernel function is executed EXACTLY once on a SINGLE work-item
});
```

The `submit` call results in an event object:

```
|| auto myevent = myqueue.submit( /* stuff */ );
```

This can be used for two purposes:

1. It becomes possible to wait for this specific event:

```
|| myevent.wait();
```

2. It can be used to indicate kernel dependencies:

```
|| myqueue.submit( [=] (handler &h) {
    h.depends_on(myevent);
    /* stuff */
} );
```

43.5 Parallel operations

43.5.1 Loops

```
cgh.parallel_for(
    range<3>(1024,1024,1024),
    // using 3D in this example
    [=](id<3> myID) {
        // kernel function is executed on an n-dimensional range (NDrange)
    });

cgh.parallel_for(
    nd_range<3>( {1024,1024,1024}, {16,16,16} ),
    // using 3D in this example
    [=](nd_item<3> myID) {
        // kernel function is executed on an n-dimensional range (NDrange)
    });

cgh.parallel_for_work_group(
    range<2>(1024,1024),
    // using 2D in this example
    [=](group<2> myGroup) {
        // kernel function is executed once per work-group
    });

grp.parallel_for_work_item(
    range<1>(1024),
    // using 1D in this example
    [=](h_item<1> myItem) {
        // kernel function is executed once per work-item
    });
}
```

43.5.1.1 Loop bounds: ranges

SYCL adopts the modern C++ philosophy that one does not iterate over by explicitly enumerating indices, but by indicating their range. This is realized by the `range` class, which is templated over the number of space dimensions.

```
|| sycl::range<2> matrix{10,10};
```

Some compilers are sensitive to the type of the integer arguments:

```
|| sycl::range<1> array{ static_cast<size_t>(size) } ;
```

43.5.1.2 Loop indices

Kernels such as `parallel_for` expects two arguments:

- a `range` over which to index; and
- a lambda of one argument: an index.

There are several ways of indexing. The `id<nd>` class of multi-dimensional indices.

```
|| myHandle.parallel_for<class uniqueID>
  ( mySize,
    [=]( id<1> index ) {
      float x = index.get(0) * h;
      deviceAccessorA[index] *= 2. ;
    }
  )

|| cgh.parallel_for<class foo>(
  range<1>{D*D*D},
  [=](id<1> item) {
    xx[ item[0] ] = 2 * item[0] + 1;
  }
)
```

While the C++ vectors remain one-dimensional, DPCPP allows you to make multi-dimensional buffers:

```
|| std::vector<int> y(D*D*D);
  buffer<int,1> y_buf(y.data(), range<1>(D*D*D));
cgh.parallel_for<class foo2D>
  (range<2>{D,D*D},
   [=](id<2> item) {
     yy[ item[0] + D*item[1] ] = 2;
   }
 );
```

Intel DPC++ extension. There is an implicit conversion from the one-dimensional `sycl::id<1>` to `size_t`, so

```
|| [=](sycl::id<1> i) {
  data[i] = i;
```

is legal, which in SYCL requires

```
|| data[i[0]] = i[0];
```

43.5.1.3 Multi-dimensional indexing

```
// stencil2d.cxx
sycl::range<2> stencil_range(N, M);
sycl::range<2> alloc_range(N + 2, M + 2);
std::vector<float>
    input(alloc_range.size()),
    output(alloc_range.size());
sycl::buffer<float, 2> input_buf(input.data(), alloc_range);
sycl::buffer<float, 2> output_buf(output.data(), alloc_range);

constexpr size_t B = 4;
sycl::range<2> local_range(B, B);
sycl::range<2> tile_range = local_range + sycl::range<2>(2, 2); // Includes boundary cells
auto tile = local_accessor<float, 2>(tile_range, h); // see templated def'n above
```

We first copy global data into an array local to the work group:

```
sycl::id<2> offset(1, 1);
h.parallel_for
    ( sycl::nd_range<2>(stencil_range, local_range, offset),
      [=] ( sycl::nd_item<2> it ) {
// Load this tile into work-group local memory
    sycl::id<2> lid = it.get_local_id();
    sycl::range<2> lrange = it.get_local_range();
    for (int ti = lid[0]; ti < B + 2; ti += lrange[0]) {
        for (int tj = lid[1]; tj < B + 2; tj += lrange[1]) {
            int gi = ti + B * it.get_group(0);
            int gj = tj + B * it.get_group(1);
            tile[ti][tj] = input[gi][gj];
        }
    }
}
```

Global coordinates in the input are computed from the `nd_item`'s coordinate and group:

```
[=] ( sycl::nd_item<2> it ) {
for (int ti ... ) {
    for (int tj ... ) {
        int gi = ti + B * it.get_group(0);
        int gj = tj + B * it.get_group(1);
        ... = input[gi][gj];
```

Local coordinates in the tile, including boundary, I DON'T QUITE GET THIS YET.

```
[=] ( sycl::nd_item<2> it ) {
sycl::id<2> lid = it.get_local_id();
sycl::range<2> lrange = it.get_local_range();
for (int ti = lid[0]; ti < B + 2; ti += lrange[0]) {
    for (int tj = lid[1]; tj < B + 2; tj += lrange[1]) {
        tile[ti][tj] = ..
```

43.5.2 Task dependencies

Each `submit` call can be said to correspond to a ‘task’. Since it returns a token, it becomes possible to specify task dependencies by referring to a token as a dependency in a later specified task.

```
queue myQueue;
auto myTokA = myQueue.submit
( [&](handler& h) {
    h.parallel_for<class taskA>(...);
}
);
auto myTokB = myQueue.submit
( [&](handler& h) {
    h.depends_on(myTokA);
    h.parallel_for<class taskB>(...);
}
);
```

43.5.3 Race conditions

Sycl has the same problems with *race conditions* that other shared memory system have:

```
// sum1d.cxx
auto array_accessor =
    array_buffer.get_access<sycl::access::mode::read>(h);
auto scalar_accessor =
    scalar_buffer.get_access<sycl::access::mode::read_write>(h);
h.parallel_for<class uniqueID>
( array_range,
  [=](sycl::id<1> index)
{
    scalar_accessor[0] += array_accessor[index];
}
); // end of parallel for
```

To get this working correctly would need either a reduction primitive or atomics on the accumulator. The 2020 proposed standard has improved atomics.

```
// reduct1d.cxx
auto input_values = array_buffer.get_access<sycl::access::mode::read>(h);
auto sum_reduction = sycl::reduction( scalar_buffer,h,std::plus<>() );
h.parallel_for
( array_range,sum_reduction,
  [=]( sycl::id<1> index,auto& sum )
{
    sum += input_values[index];
}
); // end of parallel for
```

43.5.4 Reductions

Reduction operations were added in the the SYCL 2020 Provisional Standard, meaning that they are not yet finalized.

Here is one approach, which works in *hipsycl*:

```
// reductscalar.cxx
auto reduce_to_sum =
    sycl::reduction( sum_array, static_cast<float>(0.), std::plus<float>() );
```

```

myqueue.parallel_for</> parallel_for<reduction_kernel<T, BinaryOp, __LINE__>>
    ( array_range,           // sycl::range<1>(input_size),
      reduce_to_sum,        // sycl::reduction(output, identity, op),
      [=] (sycl::id<1> idx, auto& reducer) { // type of reducer is impl-dependent, so use auto
          reducer.combine(shared_array[idx[0]]); //((input[idx[0]]);
      //reducer += shared_array[idx[0]]; // see line 216: add_reducer += input0[idx[0]];
      } ).wait();

```

Here a `sycl::reduction` object is created from the target data and the reduction operator. This is then passed to the `parallel_for` and its `combine` method is called.

43.6 Memory access

Memory treatment in SYCL is a little complicated, because is (at the very least) host memory and device memory, which are not necessarily coherent.

There are also three mechanisms:

- Unified Shared Memory, based on ordinary C/C++ ‘star’-pointers.
- Buffers, using the `buffer` class; this needs the `accessor` class to access the data.
- Images.

Table 43.1: Memory types and treatments

Location	allocation	coherence	copy to/from device
Host	<code>malloc</code>	explicit transfer	<code>queue::memcpy</code>
	<code>malloc_host</code>	coherent host/device	
Device	<code>malloc_device</code>	explicit transfer	<code>queue::memcpy</code>
Shared	<code>malloc_shared</code>	coherent host/device	

43.6.1 Unified shared memory

Memory allocated with `malloc_host` is visible on the host:

```

// outshared.cxx
floattype
*host_float = (floattype*)malloc_host( sizeof(floattype), ctx ),
*shar_float = (floattype*)malloc_shared( sizeof(floattype), dev, ctx );
cgh.single_task
( [=] () {
    shar_float[0] = 2 * host_float[0];
    sout << "Device sets " << shar_float[0] << sycl::endl;
} );

```

For the full source of this example, see section 43.11.5

Device memory is allocated with `malloc_device`, passing the queue as parameter:

```

// reductimpl.cxx
floattype
*host_float = (floattype*)malloc( sizeof(floattype) ),

```

```
    *devc_float = (floattype*)malloc_device( sizeof(floattype), dev, ctx );
    [&](sycl::handler &cgh) {
        cgh.memcpy(devc_float, host_float, sizeof(floattype));
    }
```

Note the corresponding `free` call that also has the queue as parameter.

Note that you need to be in a parallel task. The following gives a segmentation error:

```
    [&](sycl::handler &cgh) {
        shar_float[0] = host_float[0];
    }
```

Ordinary memory, for instance from `malloc`, has to be copied in a kernel:

```
[&](sycl::handler &cgh) {
    cgh.memcpy(devc_float, host_float, sizeof(floattype));
}
[&](sycl::handler &cgh) {
    sycl::stream sout(1024, 256, cgh);
    cgh.single_task(
    [
    [=] () {
        sout << "Number " << devc_float[0] << sycl::endl;
    }
    );
}
// end of submitted lambda
free(host_float);
sycl::free(devc_float, myqueue);
```

For the full source of this example, see section 43.11.6

43.6.2 Buffers and accessors

Arrays need to be declared in a way such that they can be accessed from any device.

```
// forloop.cxx
std::vector<int> myArray(SIZE);
range<1> mySize{myArray.size()};
buffer<int, 1> bufferA(myArray.data(), myArray.size());
```

For the full source of this example, see section 43.11.7

Inside the kernel, the array is then unpacked from the buffer:

```
myqueue.submit([&] (handler &h) {
    auto deviceAccessorA =
        bufferA.get_access<access::mode::read_write>(h);
```

For the full source of this example, see section 43.11.7

However, the `get_access` function results in a `sycl::accessor`, not a pointer to a simple type. The precise type is templated and complicated, so this is a good place to use `auto`.

Accessors can have a mode associated: `sycl::access::mode::read` `sycl::access::mode::write`

Intel DPC++ extension.

```

    array<floattype,1> leftsum{0.};
#define __INTEL_CLANG_COMPILER
    sycl::buffer leftbuf(leftsum);
#else
    sycl::range<1> scalar{1};
    sycl::buffer<floattype,1> leftbuf(leftsum.data(),scalar);

```

Intel DPC++ extension. there are modes

```

// standard
sycl::accessor acc = buffer.get_access<sycl::access::mode::write>(h);
// dpcpp extension
sycl::accessor acc( buffer,h,sycl::read_only );
sycl::accessor acc( buffer,h,sycl::write_only );

```

43.6.3 Querying

The function `get_range` can query the size of either a buffer or an accessor:

```

// range2.cxx
sycl::buffer<int, 2>
a_buf(a.data(), sycl::range<2>(N, M)),
b_buf(b.data(), sycl::range<2>(N, M)),
c_buf(c.data(), sycl::range<2>(N, M));

sycl::range<2>
a_range = a_buf.get_range(),
b_range = b_buf.get_range();

if (a_range==b_range) {

```

For the full source of this example, see section 43.11.8

```

sycl::accessor c = c_buf.get_access<sycl::access::mode::write>(h);

sycl::range<2> c_range = c.get_range();
if (a_range==c_range) {
    h.parallel_for
        (
            a_range,
            [=]( sycl::id<2> idx ) {
                c[idx] = a[idx] + b[idx];
            }
        );

```

For the full source of this example, see section 43.11.8

43.7 Parallel output

There is a `sycl::cout` and `sycl::endl`.

```

// hello.cxx
[&](sycl::handler &cgh) {
    sycl::stream sout(1024, 256, cgh);
    cgh.parallel_for<class hello_world>

```

```
    (
        sycl::range<1>(global_range), [=](sycl::id<1> idx) {
            sout << "Hello, World: World rank " << idx << sycl::endl;
        });
    } // End of the kernel function
}
```

For the full source of this example, see section 43.11.9

Since the end of a queue does not flush stdout, it may be necessary to call `sycl::queue::wait`

```
|| myQueue.wait();
```

43.8 DPCPP extensions

Intel has made some extensions to SYCL:

- Unified Shared Memory,
- Ordered queues.

43.9 Intel devcloud notes

`qsub -I` for interactive session.

`gdb-oneapi` for debugging.

<https://community.intel.com/t5/Intel-oneAPI-Toolkits/ct-p/oneapi> for support.

43.10 Examples

43.10.1 Kernels in a loop

The following idiom works:

```
sycl::event last_event = queue.submit( [&] (sycl::handler &h) {
    for (int iteration=0; iteration<N; iteration++) {
        last_event = queue.submit( [&] (sycl::handler &h) {
            h.depends_on(last_event);
```

For the full source of this example, see section 43.11.10

43.10.2 Stencil computations

The problem with stencil computations is that only interior points are updated. Translated to SYCL: we need to iterate over a subrange of the range over which the buffer is defined. First let us define these ranges:

```
// jacobi1d.cxx
sycl::range<1> unknowns(N);
sycl::range<1> with_boundary(N + 2);
std::vector<float>
    old_values(with_boundary.size(), 0.),
    new_values(with_boundary.size(), 0.);
old_values.back() = 1.; new_values.back() = 1.;
```

For the full source of this example, see section [43.11.10](#)

Note the boundary value 1. on the right boundary.

Restricting the iteration to the interior points is done through the `offset` parameter of the `parallel_for`:

```
||| sycl::id<1> offset(1);
||| h.parallel_for
|||   ( unknowns, offset,
|||     [=] (sycl::id<1> idx) {
|||       int i = idx[0];
|||       float self = old_array[i];
|||       float left = old_array[i - 1];
|||       float righ = old_array[i + 1];
|||       new_array[i] = (self + left + righ) / 3.0f;
|||     } );
```

For the full source of this example, see section [43.11.10](#)

43.11 Sources used in this chapter

43.11.1 Listing of code header

43.11.2 Listing of code code/dpcpp/cxx/devices.cxx

```
#include <CL/sycl.hpp>
#include <vector>

namespace sycl = cl::sycl;

int main() {

    std::cout << "List Platforms and Devices" << std::endl;
    std::vector<sycl::platform> platforms = sycl::platform::get_platforms();
    for (const auto &plat : platforms) {
        // get_info is a template. So we pass the type as an `arguments`.
        std::cout << "Platform: "
              << plat.get_info<sycl::info::platform::name>() << " "
              << plat.get_info<sycl::info::platform::vendor>() << " "
              << plat.get_info<sycl::info::platform::version>() << std::endl;

        std::vector<sycl::device> devices = plat.get_devices();
        for (const auto &dev : devices) {
            std::cout << "-- Device: "
                  << dev.get_info<sycl::info::device::name>()
                  << (dev.is_host() ? ": is the host" : "")
                  << (dev.is_cpu() ? ": is a cpu" : "")
                  << (dev.is_gpu() ? ": is a gpu" : "")
                  << std::endl;
            // sycl::info::device::device_type exist, but do not overload the <<
            // operator
        }
    }
}
```

43.11.3 Listing of code code/dpcpp/cxx/cpuname.cxx

```
#include <CL/sycl.hpp>
#include <iostream>
#include <array>
#include <cstdio>

using namespace cl;

int main() {

    sycl::queue myqueue( sycl::cpu_selector{} );

    std::cout << myqueue.get_device().get_info<sycl::info::device::name>() << std::endl;
```

```
    return 0;
}
```

43.11.4 Listing of code code/dpcpp/cxx/devname.cxx

```
#include <CL/sycl.hpp>
#include <iostream>
#include <array>
#include <cstdio>

using namespace cl;

int main() {

#ifndef _WIN32
    sycl::cpu_selector selector;
    sycl::queue myqueue(selector);
#else
    sycl::queue myqueue;
#endif

    std::cout << myqueue.get_device().get_info<sycl::info::device::name>()
        << std::endl;

    return 0;
}
```

43.11.5 Listing of code code/dpcpp/cxx/outshared.cxx

```
#include <CL/sycl.hpp>
#include <vector>

namespace sycl = cl::sycl;
using floattype = float;

int main(int argc, char **argv) {

    sycl::queue myqueue;
    std::cout << "Hello example running on "
        << myqueue.get_device().get_info<sycl::info::device::name>()
        << std::endl;

    auto ctx = myqueue.get_context();
    auto dev = myqueue.get_device();
    floattype
        *host_float = (floattype*)malloc_host( sizeof(floattype),ctx ),
        *shar_float = (floattype*)malloc_shared( sizeof(floattype),dev,ctx );
    host_float[0] = 3.14;

    myqueue.submit
    ( [&](sycl::handler &cgh) {
        // WRONG shar_float[0] = host_float[0];
        sycl::stream sout(1024, 256, cgh);
```

```
    cgh.single_task
      [=] () {
        shar_float[0] = 2 * host_float[0];
        sout << "Device sets " << shar_float[0] << sycl::endl;
      } );
  } ); // end of lambda submission
myqueue.wait();

std::cout << "Host receives " << shar_float[0] << std::endl;

return 0;
}
```

43.11.6 Listing of code code/dpcpp/cxx/outdevice.cxx

```
#include <CL/sycl.hpp>
#include <vector>

namespace sycl = cl::sycl;
using floattype = float;

int main(int argc, char **argv) {

    sycl::queue myqueue;
    std::cout << "Hello example running on "
          << myqueue.get_device().get_info<sycl::info::device::name>()
          << std::endl;

    auto ctx = myqueue.get_context();
    auto dev = myqueue.get_device();
    floattype
      *host_float = (floattype*)malloc( sizeof(floattype) ),
      *devc_float = (floattype*)malloc_device( sizeof(floattype), myqueue );
    host_float[0] = 3.14;

    myqueue.submit
    (
      [&](sycl::handler &cgh) {
        cgh.memcpy(devc_float, host_float, sizeof(floattype));
      }
    );
    myqueue.wait();

    myqueue.submit
    (
      [&](sycl::handler &cgh) {
        sycl::stream sout(1024, 256, cgh);
        cgh.single_task
        (
          [=] () {
            sout << "Number " << devc_float[0] << sycl::endl;
          }
        );
      }
    );
}
```

```
    } // end of submitted lambda
    );
myqueue.wait();

free(host_float);
sycl::free(devc_float,myqueue);

return 0;
}
```

43.11.7 Listing of code code/dpcpp/cxx/forloop.cxx

```
#include <CL/sycl.hpp>
#include <iostream>
#include <array>
#include <vector>
#include <cstdio>

#define SIZE 1024
using namespace cl::sycl;

int main() {
    std::vector<int> myArray(SIZE);
    for (int i = 0; i<SIZE; ++i)
        myArray[i] = i;

    printf("Value at start: myArray[42] is %d.\n",myArray[42]);
    {

        cpu_selector selector;
        queue myqueue(selector);

        range<1> mySize{myArray.size()};
        buffer<int, 1> bufferA(myArray.data(), myArray.size());

        myqueue.submit( [&] (handler &h) {
            auto deviceAccessorA =
                bufferA.get_access<access::mode::read_write>(h);
            h.parallel_for<class uniqueID>
                ( mySize,
                  [=](id<1> index) {
                      deviceAccessorA[index] *= 2;
                  });
        });
        printf("Value after submit: myArray[42] is %d.\n",myArray[42]);
        auto hostAccessorA =
            bufferA.get_access<access::mode::read>();
        printf("Value through host access: myArray[42] is %d.\n",myArray[42]);
    }
    printf("Value at finish: myArray[42] is %d.\n",myArray[42]);

    return 0;
}
```

```
/*
( [&](handler &myHandle) {
    auto deviceAccessorA =
        bufferA.get_access<access::mode::read_write>(myHandle);
    myHandle
*/
```

43.11.8 Listing of code code/dpcpp/cxx/range2.cxx

```
#include <CL/sycl.hpp>
#include <algorithm>
#include <iostream>
namespace sycl = cl::sycl;

int main() {
    // Set up queue on any available device
    sycl::queue Q;

    // Initialize input and output memory on the host
    constexpr size_t N = 256;
    constexpr size_t M = 256;
    std::vector<int> a(N * M), b(N * M), c(N * M);
    std::fill(a.begin(), a.end(), 1);
    std::fill(b.begin(), b.end(), 2);
    std::fill(c.begin(), c.end(), 0);

    {
        // Create buffers associated with inputs and output
        sycl::buffer<int, 2>
            a_buf(a.data(), sycl::range<2>(N, M)),
            b_buf(b.data(), sycl::range<2>(N, M)),
            c_buf(c.data(), sycl::range<2>(N, M));

        sycl::range<2>
            a_range = a_buf.get_range(),
            b_range = b_buf.get_range();

        if (a_range==b_range) {

            // Submit the kernel to the queue
            Q.submit( [&]( sycl::handler &h ) {
                sycl::accessor a = a_buf.get_access<sycl::access::mode::read>(h);
                sycl::accessor b = b_buf.get_access<sycl::access::mode::read>(h);
                sycl::accessor c = c_buf.get_access<sycl::access::mode::write>(h);

                sycl::range<2> c_range = c.get_range();
                if (a_range==c_range) {
                    h.parallel_for
                        ( a_range,
                            [=]( sycl::id<2> idx ) {
                                c[idx] = a[idx] + b[idx];
                            } );
                }
            });
        }
    }
}
```

```
        }
    } );
} else
    throw(std::out_of_range("array size mismatch"));
// Q.submit( [&]( sycl::handler &h ) {
//     sycl::id<2> one{1,1};
//     sycl::accessor c = c_buf.get_access<sycl::access::mode::write>(h);
//     sycl::range<2> c_range = c.get_range();
//     c_range -= one;

//     h.single_task( [&] () {} );
// });
}

// Check that all outputs match expected value
bool passed = std::all_of(c.begin(), c.end(), [](int i) {
    return (i == 3);
});
std::cout << ((passed) ? "SUCCESS" : "FAILURE") << std::endl;
return (passed) ? 0 : 1;
}
```

43.11.9 Listing of code code/dpcpp/cxx/hello.cxx

```
#include <CL/sycl.hpp>
#include <vector>

namespace sycl = cl::sycl;

int main(int argc, char **argv) {

    const auto global_range = 4;

    sycl::queue myQueue;
    std::cout << "Hello example running on "
        << myQueue.get_device().get_info<sycl::info::device::name>()
        << std::endl;
// Create a command_group to issue command to the group
myQueue.submit
(
    [&](sycl::handler &cgh) {
        sycl::stream sout(1024, 256, cgh);
        cgh.parallel_for<class hello_world>
        (
            sycl::range<1>(global_range), [=](sycl::id<1> idx) {
                sout << "Hello, World: World rank " << idx << std::endl;
            }); // End of the kernel function
    }
); // End of the queue commands.
myQueue.wait();

return 0;
}
```

43.11.10 Listing of code code/dpcpp/cxx/jacobi1d.cxx

```
#include <algorithm>
#include <iostream>
#include <iomanip>
#include <numeric>
#include <random>
#include <vector>

#include <CL/sycl.hpp>
namespace sycl = cl::sycl;

int main() {
    sycl::queue queue;

    const size_t N = 16;
    sycl::range<1> unknowns(N);
    sycl::range<1> with_boundary(N + 2);
    std::vector<float>
        old_values(with_boundary.size(), 0.),
        new_values(with_boundary.size(), 0.);
    old_values.back() = 1.; new_values.back() = 1.;

    {
        sycl::buffer<float,1> new_buf(new_values.data(), with_boundary);
        sycl::buffer<float,1> old_buf(old_values.data(), with_boundary);

        sycl::event last_event = queue.submit( [&] (sycl::handler &h) {
            sycl::accessor
                old_array = old_buf.get_access<sycl::access::mode::write>(h);
            sycl::id<1> offset(1);
            h.parallel_for
                ( unknowns, offset,
                  [=] (sycl::id<1> idx) {
                      int i = idx[0];
                      old_array[i] = 0.;
                  } );
            } );
        for (int iteration=0; iteration<N; iteration++) {
            last_event = queue.submit( [&] (sycl::handler &h) {
                h.depends_on(last_event);
                sycl::accessor
                    new_array = new_buf.get_access<sycl::access::mode::write>(h);
                sycl::accessor
                    old_array = old_buf.get_access<sycl::access::mode::read>(h);
                sycl::id<1> offset(1);
                h.parallel_for
                    ( unknowns, offset,
                      [=] (sycl::id<1> idx) {
                          int i = idx[0];
                          float self = old_array[i];
                          float left = old_array[i - 1];
                          float right = old_array[i + 1];
                          new_array[i] = (self + left + right) / 3.0f;
                      } );
            } );
        }
    }
}
```

```
        } );
    } );
last_event = queue.submit( [&] (sycl::handler &h) {
    h.depends_on(last_event);
    sycl::accessor
        new_array = new_buf.get_access<sycl::access::mode::read>(h);
    sycl::accessor
        old_array = old_buf.get_access<sycl::access::mode::write>(h);
    sycl::id<1> offset(1);
    h.parallel_for
        ( unknowns, offset,
        [=] (sycl::id<1> idx) {
            int i = idx[0];
            old_array[i] = new_array[i];
        } );
    } );
queue.wait();

for (int i=0; i<with_boundary.size(); i++) {
    std::cout << std::scientific << std::setprecision(3)
        << new_values[i] << " ";
}
std::cout << std::endl;

}
return 0;
}
```

Chapter 44

Python multiprocessing

Python has a *multiprocessing* toolbox. This is a parallel processing library that relies on subprocesses, rather than threads.

44.1 Software and hardware

```
## pool.py
nprocs = mp.cpu_count()
print(f"I detect {nprocs} cores")
```

44.2 Process

A process is an object that will execute a python function:

```
## quicksort.py
import multiprocessing as mp
import random
import os

def quicksort( numbers ) :
    if len(numbers)==1:
        return numbers
    else:
        median = numbers[0]
        left = [ i for i in numbers if i<median ]
        right = [ i for i in numbers if i>=median ]
        with mp.Pool(2) as pool:
            [sortleft,sortright] = pool.map( quicksort,[left,right] )
        return sortleft.append( sortright )

if __name__ == '__main__':
    numbers = [ random.randint(1,50) for i in range(32) ]
    process = mp.Process(target=quicksort,args=[numbers])
    process.start()
    process.join()
```

For the full source of this example, see section [44.5.2](#)

Creating a process does not start it: for that use the `start` function. Execution of the process is not guaranteed until you call the `join` function on it:

```
|| if __name__ == '__main__':
    for p in processes:
        p.start()
    for p in processes:
        p.join()
```

For the full source of this example, see section [44.5.2](#)

By making the start and join calls less regular than in a loop like this, arbitrarily complicated code can be produced.

44.2.1 Arguments

Arguments can be passed to the function of the process with the `args` keyword. This accepts a list (or tuple) of arguments, leading to a somewhat strange syntax for a single argument:

```
|| proc = Process(target=print_func, args=(name,))
```

44.2.2 Process details

Note the test on `__main__`: the processes started read the current file in order to execute the function specified. Without this clause, the import would first execute more process start calls, before getting to the function execution.

Processes have a name that you can retrieve as `current_process().name`. The default is `Process-5` and such, but you can specify custom names:

```
|| Process(name="Your name here")
```

The target function of a process can get hold of that process with the `current_process` function.

Of course you can also query `os.getpid()` but that does not offer any further possibilities.

```
|| def say_name(iproc):
    print(f"Process {os.getpid()} has name: {mp.current_process().name}")
if __name__ == '__main__':
    processes = [ mp.Process(target=say_name, name=f"proc{iproc}", args=[iproc])
                  for iproc in range(6) ]
```

For the full source of this example, see section [44.5.2](#)

44.3 Pools and mapping

Often you want a number of processes to do apply to a number of arguments, for instance in a *parameter sweep*. For this, create a `Pool` object, and apply the `map` method to it:

```
|| pool = mp.Pool( nprocs )
results = pool.map( print_value, range(1,2*nprocs) )
```

For the full source of this example, see section [44.5.3](#)

Note that this is also the easiest way to get return values from a process, which is not directly possible with a `Process` object. Other approaches are using a shared object, or an object in a `Queue` or `Pipe` object; see below.

44.4 Shared data

The best way to deal with shared data is to create a `Value` or `Array` object, which come equipped with a lock for safe updating.

```
|| pi = mp.Value('d')
|| pi.value = 0
```

For instance, one could stochastically calculate π by

1. generating random points in $[0, 1]^2$, and
2. recording how many fall in the unit circle, after which
3. π is $4 \times$ the ratio between points in the circle and the total number of points.

```
## pi.py
def calc_pi1(pi,n):
    for i in range(n):
        x = random.random()
        y = random.random()
        with pi.get_lock():
            if x*x+y*y<1:
                pi.value += 1.
```

Exercise 44.1. Do you see a way to improve the speed of this calculation?

Solution to exercise 44.1.

```
def calc_pi2(pi,n):
    count = 0
    for i in range(n):
        x = random.random()
        y = random.random()
        if x*x+y*y<1:
            count += 1
    with pi.get_lock():
        pi.value += count
```

44.4.1 Pipes

A `pipe`, object type `Pipe`, corresponds to what used to be called a *channel* in older parallel programming systems: a First-In / First-Out (FIFO) object into which one process can place items, and from which another process can take them. However, a pipe is not associated with any particular pair: creating the pipe gives the entrance and exit from the pipe

```
|| q_entrance,q_exit = mp.Pipe()
```

And they can be passed to any process

```
|| producer1 = mp.Process(target=add_to_pipe,args=([1,q_entrance]))
|| producer2 = mp.Process(target=add_to_pipe,args=([2,q_entrance]))
|| printer = mp.Process(target=print_from_pipe,args=(q_exit,))
```

which can then can put and get items, using the `send` and `recv` commands.

```
## pipemulti.py
def add_to_pipe(v,q):
    for i in range(10):
        print(f"put {v}")
        q.send(v)
        time.sleep(1)
    q.send("END")

def print_from_pipe(q):
    ends = 0
    while True:
        v = q.recv()
        print(f"Got: {v}")
        if v=="END":
            ends += 1
        if ends==2:
            break
    print("pipe is empty")
```

44.4.2 Queues

44.5 Sources used in this chapter

44.5.1 Listing of code header

44.5.2 Listing of code code/multiprocessing/p/hello.py

```
import multiprocessing as mp
import os

def say_hello(iproc):
    print(f"Process has input value: {iproc}")

if __name__ == '__main__':
    processes = [ mp.Process(target=say_hello,args=[iproc])
                  for iproc in range(6) ]

if __name__ == '__main__':
    for p in processes:
        p.start()
    for p in processes:
        p.join()

def say_name(iproc):
    print(f"Process {os.getpid()} has name: {mp.current_process().name}")
if __name__ == '__main__':
    processes = [ mp.Process(target=say_name,name=f"proc{iproc}",args=[iproc])
                  for iproc in range(6) ]
    for p in processes:
        p.start()
    for p in processes:
        p.join()
```

44.5.3 Listing of code code/multiprocessing/p/pool.py

```
import multiprocessing as mp

def print_value(ivalue):
    mp.current_process()
    #print( f"Value: {ivalue}" )
    return 2*ivalue

if __name__ == '__main__':
    print("Test 1: what does cpu_count() return?")
    nprocs = mp.cpu_count()
    print(f"I detect {nprocs} cores")
    print("Test 2: create a pool and process an array on it")
    pool = mp.Pool( nprocs )
    results = pool.map( print_value,range(1,2*nprocs) )
    print(results)
```

PART V

THE REST

Chapter 45

Exploring computer architecture

There is much that can be said about computer architecture. However, in the context of parallel programming we are mostly concerned with the following:

- How many networked nodes are there, and does the network have a structure that we need to pay attention to?
- On a compute node, how many sockets (or other Non-Uniform Memory Access (NUMA) domains) are there?
- For each socket, how many cores and hyperthreads are there? Are caches shared?

45.1 Tools for discovery

An easy way for discovering the structure of your parallel machine is to use tools that are written especially for this purpose.

45.1.1 Intel cpufreq

The *Intel compiler suite* comes with a tool *cpufreq* that reports on the structure of the node you are running on. It reports on the number of *packages*, that is: sockets, cores, and threads.

45.1.2 hwloc

The open source package *hwloc* does similar reporting to *cpufreq*, but it has been ported to many platforms. Additionally, it can generate ascii and pdf graphic renderings of the architecture.

45.2 Sources used in this chapter

45.2.1 Listing of code header

Chapter 46

Hybrid computing

So far, you have learned to use MPI for distributed memory and OpenMP for shared memory parallel programming. However, distributed memory architectures actually have a shared memory component, since each cluster node is typically of a multicore design. Accordingly, you could program your cluster using MPI for inter-node and OpenMP for intra-node parallelism.

You now have to find the right balance between processes and threads, since each can keep a core fully busy. Complicating this story, a node can have more than one *socket*, and corresponding *NUMA* domain. Figure 46.1

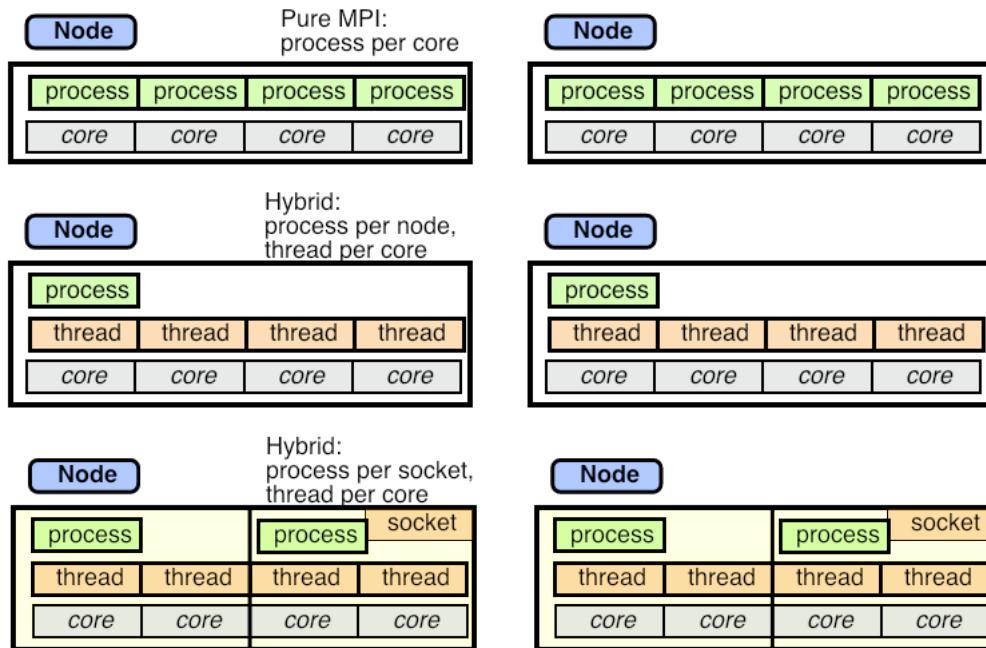


Figure 46.1: Three modes of MPI/OpenMP usage on a multi-core cluster

illustrates three modes: pure MPI with no threads used; one MPI process per node and full multi-threading; two MPI processes per node, one per socket, and multiple threads on each socket.

46.1 Affinity

In the preceding chapters we mostly considered all MPI nodes or OpenMP thread as being in one flat pool. However, for high performance you need to worry about *affinity*: the question of which process or thread is placed where, and how efficiently they can interact.

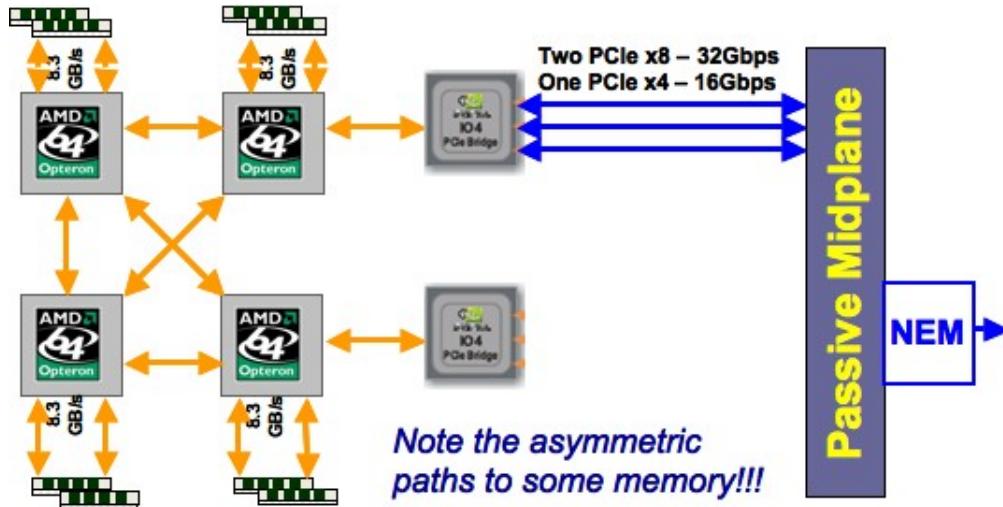


Figure 46.2: The NUMA structure of a Ranger node

Here are some situations where you affinity becomes a concern.

- In pure MPI mode processes that are on the same node can typically communicate faster than processes on different nodes. Since processes are typically placed sequentially, this means that a scheme where process p interacts mostly with $p + 1$ will be efficient, while communication with large jumps will be less so.
- If the cluster network has a structure (*processor grid* as opposed to *fat-tree*), placement of processes has an effect on program efficiency. MPI tries to address this with *graph topology*; section 11.2.
- Even on a single node there can be asymmetries. Figure 46.2 illustrates the structure of the four sockets of the *Ranger* supercomputer (no longer in production). Two cores have no direct connection. This asymmetry affects both MPI processes and threads on that node.
- Another problem with multi-socket designs is that each socket has memory attached to it. While every socket can address all the memory on the node, its local memory is faster to access. This asymmetry becomes quite visible in the *first-touch* phenomenon; section 25.2.
- If a node has fewer MPI processes than there are cores, you want to be in control of their placement. Also, the operating system can migrate processes, which is detrimental to performance since it negates data locality. For this reason, utilities such as numactl (and at TACC tacc_affinity) can be used to *pin a thread* or process to a specific core.
- Processors with *hyperthreading* or *hardware threads* introduce another level of worry about where threads go.

46.2 What does the hardware look like?

If you want to optimize affinity, you should first know what the hardware looks like. The `hwloc` utility is valuable here [10] (<https://www.open-mpi.org/projects/hwloc/>).

46. Hybrid computing

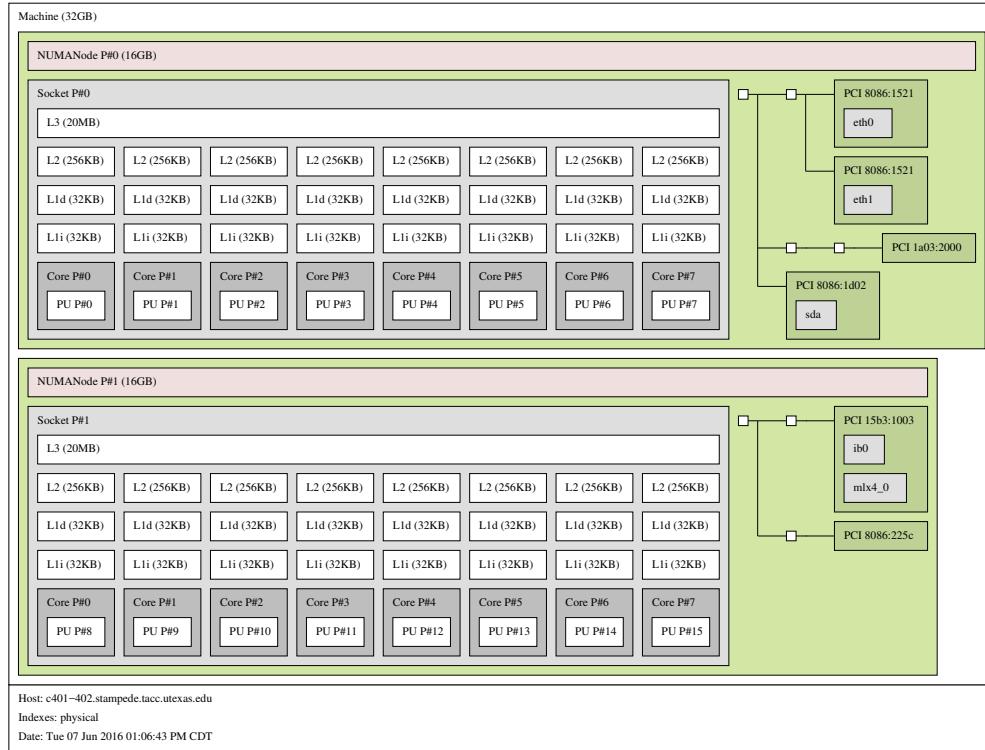


Figure 46.3: Structure of a Stampede compute node

Figure 46.3 depicts a *Stampede compute node*, which is a two-socket *Intel Sandybridge* design; figure 46.4 shows a *Stampede largemem node*, which is a four-socket design. Finally, figure 46.5 shows a *Lonestar5* compute node, a two-socket design with 12-core *Intel Haswell* processors with two hardware threads each.

46.3 Affinity control

See chapter 25 for OpenMP affinity control.

46.4 Discussion

The performance implications of the pure MPI strategy versus hybrid are subtle.

- First of all, we note that there is no obvious speedup: in a well balanced MPI application all cores are busy all the time, so using threading can give no immediate improvement.
- Both MPI and OpenMP are subject to Amdahl's law that quantifies the influence of sequential code; in hybrid computing there is a new version of this law regarding the amount of code that is MPI-parallel, but not OpenMP-parallel.
- MPI processes run unsynchronized, so small variations in load or in processor behavior can be tolerated. The frequent barriers in OpenMP constructs make a hybrid code more tightly synchronized, so load balancing becomes more critical.

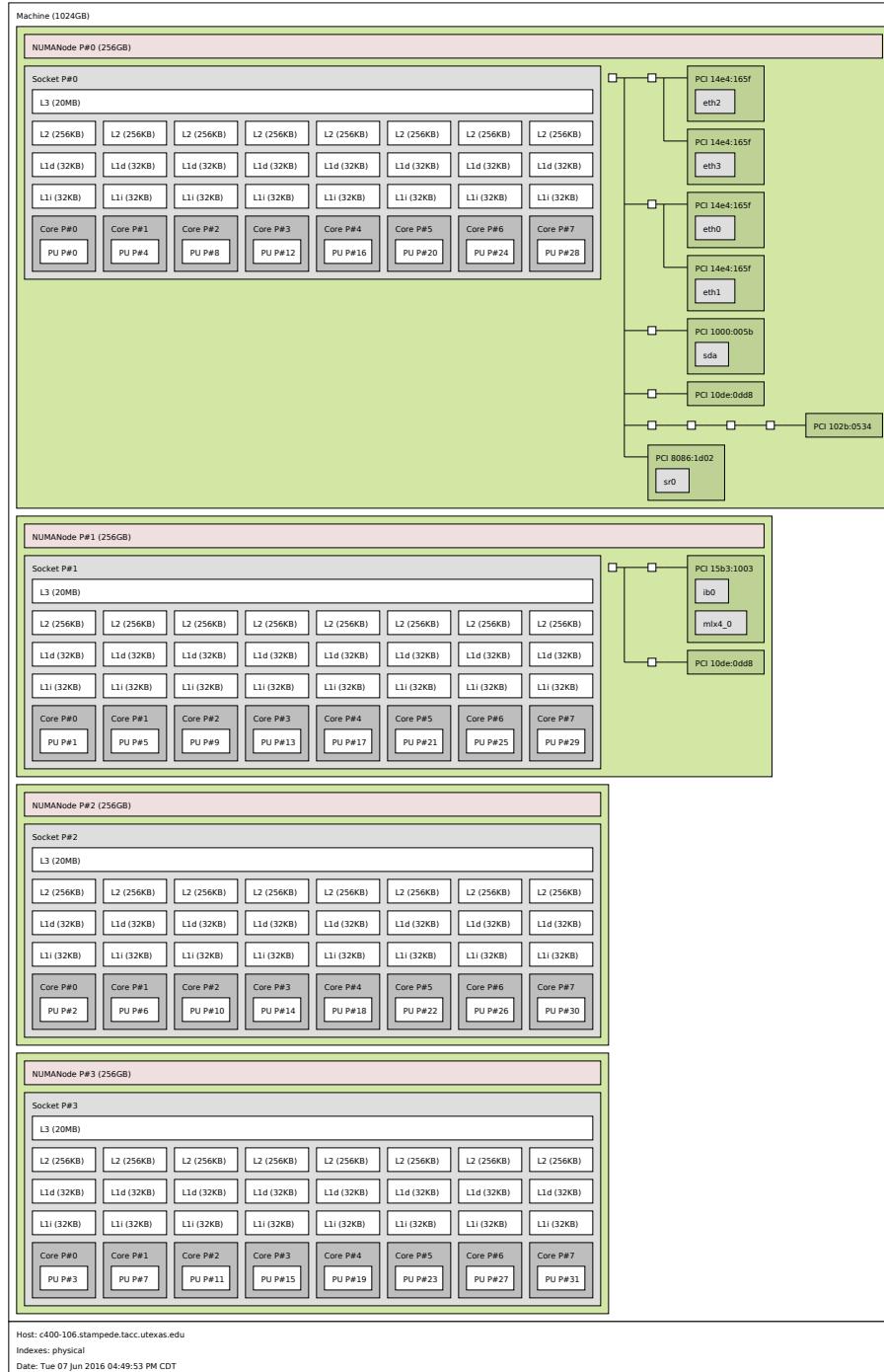


Figure 46.4: Structure of a Stampede largemem four-socket compute node

46. Hybrid computing

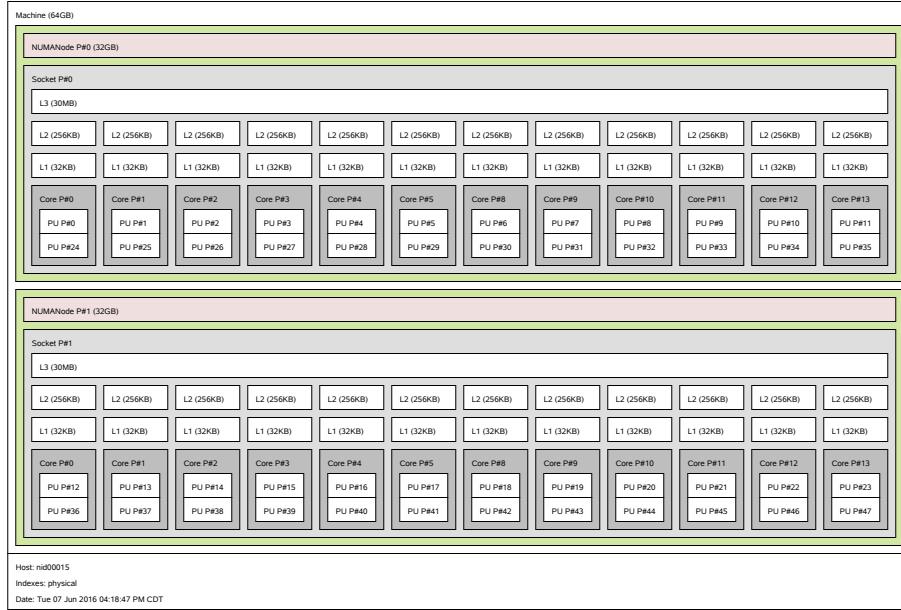


Figure 46.5: Structure of a Lonestar5 compute node

- On the other hand, in OpenMP codes it is easier to divide the work into more tasks than there are threads, so statistically a certain amount of load balancing happens automatically.
- Each MPI process has its own buffers, so hybrid takes less buffer overhead.

Exercise 46.1. Review the scalability argument for 1D versus 2D matrix decomposition in HPC book, section-6.2. Would you get scalable performance from doing a 1D decomposition (for instance, of the rows) over MPI processes, and decomposing the other directions (the columns) over OpenMP threads?

Solution to exercise 46.1. *No. You'd still get the too-large messages between MPI processes.*

Another performance argument we need to consider concerns message traffic. If let all threads make MPI calls (see section 13.1) there is going to be little difference. However, in one popular hybrid computing strategy we would keep MPI calls out of the OpenMP regions and have them in effect done by the master thread. In that case there are only MPI messages between nodes, instead of between cores. This leads to a decrease in message traffic, though this is hard to quantify. The number of messages goes down approximately by the number of cores per node, so this is an advantage if the average message size is small. On the other hand, the amount of data sent is only reduced if there is overlap in content between the messages.

Limiting MPI traffic to the master thread also means that no buffer space is needed for the on-node communication.

46.5 Processes and cores and affinity

In OpenMP, threads are purely a software construct and you can create however many you want. The hardware limit of the available cores can be queried with `omp_get_num_procs` (section 17.5). How does that work in a hybrid context? Does the ‘proc’ count return the total number of cores, or does the MPI scheduler limit it to a number exclusive to each MPI process?

The following code fragment explore this:

```
// procthread.c
int ncores;
#pragma omp parallel
#pragma omp master
ncores = omp_get_num_procs();

int totalcores;
MPI_Reduce(&ncores,&totalcores,1,MPI_INT,MPI_SUM,0,comm);
if (procid==0) {
    printf("Omp procs on this process: %d\n",ncores);
    printf("Omp procs total: %d\n",totalcores);
}
```

For the full source of this example, see section 46.7.2

Running this with *Intel MPI* (version 19) gives the following:

```
---- nprocs: 14
Omp procs on this process: 4
Omp procs total: 56
---- nprocs: 15
Omp procs on this process: 3
Omp procs total: 45
---- nprocs: 16
Omp procs on this process: 3
Omp procs total: 48
```

We see that

- Each process get an equal number of cores, and
- Some cores will go unused.

While the OpenMP ‘proc’ count is such that the MPI processes will not oversubscribe cores, the actual placement of processes and threads is not expressed here. This assignment is known as *affinity* and it is determined by the MPI/OpenMP runtime system. Typically it can be controlled through environment variables, but one hopes the default assignment makes sense. Figure 46.6 illustrates this for the *Intel Knights Landing*:

- Placing four MPI processes on 68 cores gives 17 cores per process.
- Each process receives a contiguous set of cores.
- However, cores are grouped in ‘tiles’ of two, so processes 1 and 3 start halfway a tile.
- Therefore, thread zero of that process is bound to the second core.

46.6 Practical specification

Say you use 100 cluster nodes, each with 16 cores. You could then start 1600 MPI processes, one for each core, but you could also start 100 processes, and give each access to 16 OpenMP threads.

In your slurm scripts, the first scenario would be specified `-N 100 -n 1600`, and the second as

```
##SBATCH -N 100
##SBATCH -n 100

export OMP_NUM_THREADS=16
```

46. Hybrid computing

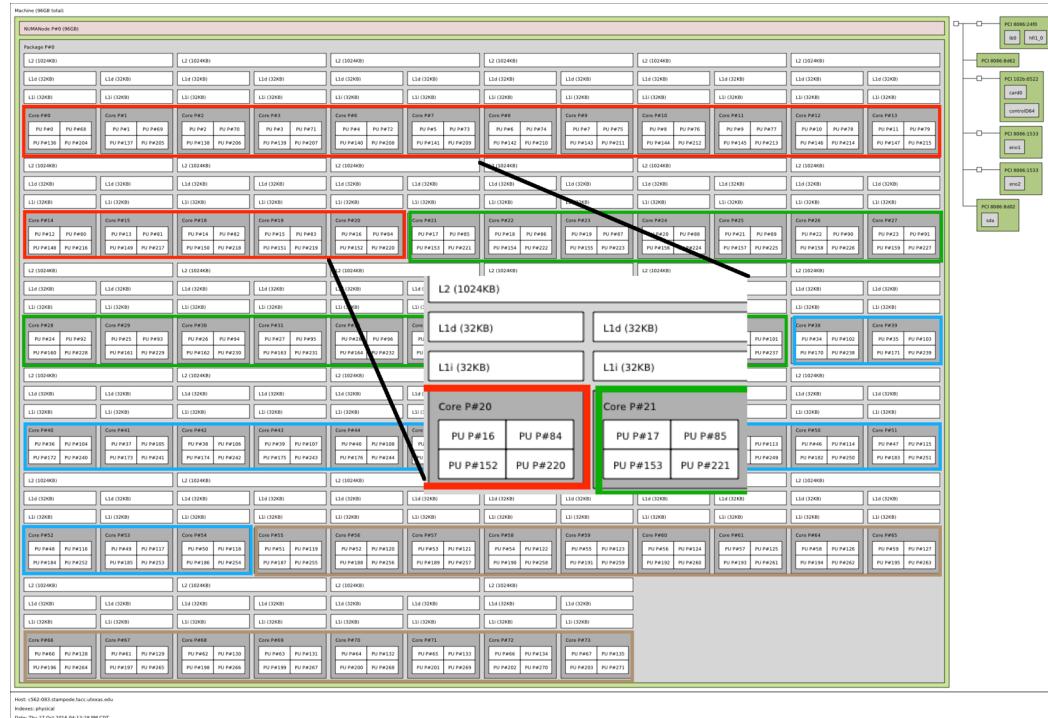


Figure 46.6: Process and thread placement on an Intel Knights Landing

There is a third choice, in between these extremes, that makes sense. A cluster node often has more than one socket, so you could put one MPI process on each *socket*, and use a number of threads equal to the number of cores per socket.

The script for this would be:

```
#$ SBATCH -N 100
#$ SBATCH -n 200
```

```
export OMP_NUM_THREADS=8
ibrun tacc_affinity yourprogram
```

The *tacc_affinity* script unsets the following variables:

```
export MV2_USE_AFFINITY=0
export MV2_ENABLE_AFFINITY=0
export VIADEV_USE_AFFINITY=0
export VIADEV_ENABLE_AFFINITY=0
```

If you don't use *tacc_affinity* you may want to do this by hand, otherwise *mvapich2* will use its own affinity rules.

46.7 Sources used in this chapter

46.7.1 Listing of code header

46.7.2 Listing of code examples/hybrid/c/procthread.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
#include "mpi.h"
#include "omp.h"

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

    int procid,nprocs;
    int requested=MPI_THREAD_MULTIPLE,provided;

    MPI_Init_thread(&argc,&argv,requested,&provided);
    MPI_Comm comm = MPI_COMM_WORLD;
    MPI_Comm_rank(comm,&procid);
    MPI_Comm_size(comm,&nprocs);
    if (procid==0)
        printf("Threading level requested=%d, provided=%d\n",
               requested,provided);

    int ncores;
#pragma omp parallel
#pragma omp master
    ncores = omp_get_num_procs();

    int totalcores;
    MPI_Reduce(&ncores,&totalcores,1,MPI_INT,MPI_SUM,0,comm);
    if (procid==0) {
        printf("Omp procs on this process: %d\n",ncores);
        printf("Omp procs total: %d\n",totalcores);
    }

    MPI_Finalize();
    return 0;
}
```

Chapter 47

Parallel I/O

Parallel I/O is a tricky subject. You can try to let all processors jointly write one file, or to write a file per process and combine them later. With the standard mechanisms of your programming language there are the following considerations:

- On clusters where the processes have individual file systems, the only way to write a single file is to let it be generated by a single processor.
- Writing one file per process is easy to do, but
 - You need a post-processing script;
 - if the files are not on a shared file system (such as *Lustre*), it takes additional effort to bring them together;
 - if the files *are* on a shared file system, writing many files may be a burden on the metadata server.
- On a shared file system it is possible for all files to open the same file and set the file pointer individually. This can be difficult if the amount of data per process is not uniform.

Illustrating the last point:

```
// pseek.c
FILE *pfile;
pfile = fopen("pseek.dat","w");
fseek(pfile,procid*sizeof(int),SEEK_CUR);
// fseek(pfile,procid*sizeof(char),SEEK_CUR);
fprintf(pfile,"%d\n",procid);
fclose(pfile);
```

For the full source of this example, see section 47.1.2

MPI also has its own portable I/O: *MPI I/O*, for which see chapter 10.

Alternatively, one could use a library such as *hdf5*.

47.1 Sources used in this chapter

47.1.1 Listing of code header

47.1.2 Listing of code code/mpi/c/pseek.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <mpi.h>

int main(int argc,char **argv) {

    int nprocs,procid;
    MPI_Init(&argc,&argv);
    MPI_Comm_size(MPI_COMM_WORLD,&nprocs);
    MPI_Comm_rank(MPI_COMM_WORLD,&procid);

    FILE *pfile;
    pfile = fopen("pseek.dat","w");
    fseek(pfile,procid*sizeof(int),SEEK_CUR);
    // fseek(pfile,procid*sizeof(char),SEEK_CUR);
    fprintf(pfile,"%d\n",procid);
    fclose(pfile);

    MPI_Finalize();

    return 0;
}
```

Chapter 48

Support libraries

There are many libraries related to parallel programming to make life easier, or at least more interesting, for you.

48.1 SimGrid

SimGrid [15] is a simulator for distributed systems. It can for instance be used to explore the effects of architectural parameters. It has been used to simulate large scale operations such as High Performance Linpack (HPL) [4].

48.2 Other

ParaMesh

Global Arrays

Hdf5 and Silo

48.3 Sources used in this chapter

48.3.1 Listing of code header

PART VI

TUTORIALS

here are some tutorials specific to parallel programming.

1. Debugging, first sequential, then parallel. Chapter [49](#).
2. Tracing and profiling. Chapter [50](#).
3. SimGrid: a simulation tool for cluster execution. Chapter [51](#).
4. Batch systems, in particular Simple Linux Utility for Resource Management (SLURM). Chapter [52](#).
5. Parallel I/O. Chapter [53](#).

Chapter 49

Debugging

When a program misbehaves, *debugging* is the process of finding out *why*. There are various strategies of finding errors in a program. The crudest one is debugging by print statements. If you have a notion of where in your code the error arises, you can edit your code to insert print statements, recompile, rerun, and see if the output gives you any suggestions. There are several problems with this:

- The edit/compile/run cycle is time consuming, especially since
- often the error will be caused by an earlier section of code, requiring you to edit, compile, and rerun repeatedly. Furthermore,
- the amount of data produced by your program can be too large to display and inspect effectively, and
- if your program is parallel, you probably need to print out data from all processors, making the inspection process very tedious.

For these reasons, the best way to debug is by the use of an interactive *debugger*, a program that allows you to monitor and control the behaviour of a running program. In this section you will familiarize yourself with *gdb*, which is the open source debugger of the *GNU* project. Other debuggers are proprietary, and typically come with a compiler suite. Another distinction is that *gdb* is a commandline debugger; there are graphical debuggers such as *ddd* (a frontend to *gdb*) or *DDT* and *TotalView* (debuggers for parallel codes). We limit ourselves to *gdb*, since it incorporates the basic concepts common to all debuggers.

In this tutorial you will debug a number of simple programs with *gdb* and *valgrind*. The files can be found in the repository in the directory `tutorials/debug_tutorial_files`.

49.1 Step 0: compiling for debug

You often need to recompile your code before you can debug it. A first reason for this is that the binary code typically knows nothing about what variable names corresponded to what memory locations, or what lines in the source to what instructions. In order to make the binary executable know this, you have to include the *symbol table* in it, which is done by adding the `-g` option to the compiler line.

Usually, you also need to lower the *compiler optimization level*: a production code will often be compiled with flags such as `-O2` or `-Xhost` that try to make the code as fast as possible, but for debugging you need to replace this by `-O0` ('oh-zero'). The reason is that higher levels will reorganize your code, making it hard to relate the execution to the source¹.

1. Typically, actual code motion is done by `-O3`, but at level `-O2` the compiler will inline functions and make other simplifications.

49.2 Invoking gdb

There are three ways of using gdb: using it to start a program, attaching it to an already running program, or using it to inspect a *core dump*. We will only consider the first possibility.

Here is an example of how to start gdb with program that has no arguments (Fortran users, use `hello.F`):

```
tutorials/gdb/c/hello.c

%% cc -g -o hello hello.c
# regular invocation:
%% ./hello
hello world
# invocation from gdb:
%% gdb hello
GNU gdb 6.3.50-20050815 # ..... version info
Copyright 2004 Free Software Foundation, Inc. .... copyright info ....
(gdb) run
Starting program: /home/eijkhout/tutorials/gdb/hello
Reading symbols for shared libraries +. done
hello world

Program exited normally.
(gdb) quit
%%
```

Important note: the program was compiled with the *debug flag* `-g`. This causes the *symbol table* (that is, the translation from machine address to program variables) and other debug information to be included in the binary. This will make your binary larger than strictly necessary, but it will also make it slower, for instance because the compiler will not perform certain optimizations².

To illustrate the presence of the symbol table do

```
%% cc -g -o hello hello.c
%% gdb hello
GNU gdb 6.3.50-20050815 # ..... version info
(gdb) list
```

and compare it with leaving out the `-g` flag:

```
%% cc -o hello hello.c
%% gdb hello
GNU gdb 6.3.50-20050815 # ..... version info
(gdb) list
```

For a program with commandline input we give the arguments to the `run` command (Fortran users use `say.F`):

```
tutorials/gdb/c/say.c

%% cc -o say -g say.c
%% ./say 2
hello world
```

2. Compiler optimizations are not supposed to change the semantics of a program, but sometimes do. This can lead to the nightmare scenario where a program crashes or gives incorrect results, but magically works correctly with compiled with debug and run in a debugger.

```

hello world
%% gdb say
.... the usual messages ...
(gdb) run 2
Starting program: /home/eijkhout/tutorials/gdb/c/say 2
Reading symbols for shared libraries +. done
hello world
hello world

Program exited normally.

```

49.3 Finding errors

Let us now consider some programs with errors.

49.3.1 C programs

```

tutorials/gdb/c/square.c
%% cc -g -o square square.c
%% ./square
5000
Segmentation fault

```

The *segmentation fault* (other messages are possible too) indicates that we are accessing memory that we are not allowed to, making the program stop. A debugger will quickly tell us where this happens:

```

%% gdb square
(gdb) run
50000

```

```

Program received signal EXC_BAD_ACCESS, Could not access memory.
Reason: KERN_INVALID_ADDRESS at address: 0x000000000000eb4a
0x00007fff824295ca in __svfscanf_1 ()

```

Apparently the error occurred in a function `__svfscanf_1`, which is not one of ours, but a system function. Using the `backtrace` (or `bt`, also `where` or `w`) command we quickly find out how this came to be called:

```

(gdb) backtrace
#0 0x00007fff824295ca in __svfscanf_1 ()
#1 0x00007fff8244011b in fscanf ()
#2 0x0000000100000e89 in main (argc=1, argv=0x7fff5fbfc7c0) at square.c:7

```

We take a close look at line 7, and see that we need to change `nmax` to `&nmax`.

There is still an error in our program:

```

(gdb) run
50000

Program received signal EXC_BAD_ACCESS, Could not access memory.
Reason: KERN_PROTECTION_FAILURE at address: 0x000000010000f000
0x0000000100000ebe in main (argc=2, argv=0x7fff5fbfc7a8) at square1.c:9
9         squares[i] = 1.0/(i*i); sum += squares[i];

```

We investigate further:

```
(gdb) print i  
$1 = 11237  
(gdb) print squares[i]  
Cannot access memory at address 0x10000f000  
and we quickly see that we forgot to allocate squares.
```

By the way, we were lucky here: this sort of memory errors is not always detected. Starting our programm with a smaller input does not lead to an error:

```
(gdb) run  
50  
Sum: 1.625133e+00  
  
Program exited normally.
```

49.3.2 Fortran programs

Compile and run the following program:

tutorials/gdb/f/square.F It should end prematurely with a message such as ‘Illegal instruction’. Running the program in gdb quickly tells you where the problem lies:

```
(gdb) run  
Starting program: tutorials/gdb//fsquare  
Reading symbols for shared libraries +++. done  
  
Program received signal EXC_BAD_INSTRUCTION, Illegal instruction/operand.  
0x0000000100000da3 in square () at square.F:7  
7           sum = sum + squares(i)
```

We take a close look at the code and see that we did not allocate squares properly.

49.4 Memory debugging with Valgrind

Insert the following allocation of squares in your program:

```
squares = (float *) malloc( nmax*sizeof(float) );
```

Compile and run your program. The output will likely be correct, although the program is not. Can you see the problem?

To find such subtle memory errors you need a different tool: a memory debugging tool. A popular (because open source) one is *valgrind*; a common commercial tool is *purify*.

tutorials/gdb/c/square1.c Compile this program with `cc -o square1 square1.c` and run it with `valgrind square1` (you need to type the input value). You will lots of output, starting with:

```
%% valgrind square1  
==53695== Memcheck, a memory error detector  
==53695== Copyright (C) 2002-2010, and GNU GPL'd, by Julian Seward et al.  
==53695== Using Valgrind-3.6.1 and LibVEX; rerun with -h for copyright info
```

```

==53695== Command: a.out
==53695==
10
==53695== Invalid write of size 4
==53695==   at 0x100000EB0: main (square1.c:10)
==53695==   Address 0x10027e148 is 0 bytes after a block of size 40 alloc'd
==53695==   at 0x1000101EF: malloc (vg_replace_malloc.c:236)
==53695==   by 0x100000E77: main (square1.c:8)
==53695==
==53695== Invalid read of size 4
==53695==   at 0x100000EC1: main (square1.c:11)
==53695==   Address 0x10027e148 is 0 bytes after a block of size 40 alloc'd
==53695==   at 0x1000101EF: malloc (vg_replace_malloc.c:236)
==53695==   by 0x100000E77: main (square1.c:8)

```

Valgrind is informative but cryptic, since it works on the bare memory, not on variables. Thus, these error messages take some exegesis. They state that a line 10 writes a 4-byte object immediately after a block of 40 bytes that was allocated. In other words: the code is writing outside the bounds of an allocated array. Do you see what the problem in the code is?

Note that valgrind also reports at the end of the program run how much memory is still in use, meaning not properly freed.

If you fix the array bounds and recompile and rerun the program, valgrind still complains:

```

==53785== Conditional jump or move depends on uninitialised value(s)
==53785==   at 0x10006FC68: __dtoa (in /usr/lib/libSystem.B.dylib)
==53785==   by 0x10003199F: __vfprintf (in /usr/lib/libSystem.B.dylib)
==53785==   by 0x1000738AA: vfprintf_l (in /usr/lib/libSystem.B.dylib)
==53785==   by 0x1000A1006: printf (in /usr/lib/libSystem.B.dylib)
==53785==   by 0x100000EF3: main (in ./square2)

```

Although no line number is given, the mention of `printf` gives an indication where the problem lies. The reference to an ‘uninitialized value’ is again cryptic: the only value being output is `sum`, and that is not uninitialized: it has been added to several times. Do you see why valgrind calls is uninitialized all the same?

49.5 Stepping through a program

Often the error in a program is sufficiently obscure that you need to investigate the program run in detail. Compile the following program

`tutorials/gdb/c/roots.c` and run it:

```

%% ./roots
sum: nan

```

Start it in gdb as follows:

```

%% gdb roots
GNU gdb 6.3.50-20050815 (Apple version gdb-1469) (Wed May  5 04:36:56 UTC 2010)
Copyright 2004 Free Software Foundation, Inc.
...
(gdb) break main

```

49. Debugging

```
Breakpoint 1 at 0x100000ea6: file root.c, line 14.  
(gdb) run  
Starting program: tutorials/gdb/c/roots  
Reading symbols for shared libraries +. done  
  
Breakpoint 1, main () at roots.c:14  
14      float x=0;
```

Here you have done the following:

- Before calling `run` you set a *breakpoint* at the main program, meaning that the execution will stop when it reaches the main program.
- You then call `run` and the program execution starts;
- The execution stops at the first instruction in `main`.

If execution is stopped at a breakpoint, you can do various things, such as issuing the `step` command:

```
Breakpoint 1, main () at roots.c:14  
14      float x=0;  
(gdb) step  
15      for (i=100; i>-100; i--)  
(gdb)  
16          x += root(i);  
(gdb)
```

(if you just hit return, the previously issued command is repeated). Do a number of `steps` in a row by hitting return. What do you notice about the function and the loop?

Switch from doing `step` to doing `next`. Now what do you notice about the loop and the function?

Set another breakpoint: `break 17` and do `cont`. What happens?

Rerun the program after you set a breakpoint on the line with the `sqrt` call. When the execution stops there do `where` and `list`.

- If you set many breakpoints, you can find out what they are with `info breakpoints`.
- You can remove breakpoints with `delete n` where `n` is the number of the breakpoint.
- If you restart your program with `run` without leaving `gdb`, the breakpoints stay in effect.
- If you leave `gdb`, the breakpoints are cleared but you can save them: `save breakpoints <file>`. Use `source <file>` to read them in on the next `gdb` run.

49.6 Inspecting values

Run the previous program again in `gdb`: set a breakpoint at the line that does the `sqrt` call before you actually call `run`. When the program gets to line 8 you can do `print n`. Do `cont`. Where does the program stop?

If you want to repair a variable, you can do `set var=value`. Change the variable `n` and confirm that the square root of the new value is computed. Which commands do you do?

If a problem occurs in a loop, it can be tedious keep typing `cont` and inspecting the variable with `print`. Instead you can add a condition to an existing breakpoint: the following:

```
condition 1 if (n<0)
```

or set the condition when you define the breakpoint:

```
break 8 if (n<0)
```

Another possibility is to use `ignore 1 50`, which will not stop at breakpoint 1 the next 50 times.

Remove the existing breakpoint, redefine it with the condition `n<0` and rerun your program. When the program breaks, find for what value of the loop variable it happened. What is the sequence of commands you use?

49.7 Parallel debugging

Debugging parallel programs is harder than sequential programs, because every sequential bug may show up, plus a number of new types, caused by the interaction of the various processes.

Here are a few possible parallel bugs:

- Processes can *deadlock* because they are waiting for a message that never comes. This typically happens with blocking send/receive calls due to an error in program logic.
- If an incoming message is unexpectedly larger than anticipated, a memory error can occur.
- A collective call will hang if somehow one of the processes does not call the routine.

There are few low-budget solutions to parallel debugging. The main one is to create an xterm for each process. We will describe this next. There are also commercial packages such as *DDT* and *TotalView*, that offer a GUI. They are very convenient but also expensive. The *Eclipse* project has a parallel package, *Eclipse PTP*, that includes a graphic debugger.

49.7.1 MPI debugging with gdb

You can not run parallel programs in gdb, but you can start multiple gdb processes that behave just like MPI processes! The command

```
mpirun -np <NP> xterm -e gdb ./program
```

create a number of xterm windows, each of which execute the commandline `gdb ./program`. And because these xterms have been started with `mpirun`, they actually form a communicator.

49.8 Further reading

A good tutorial: <http://www.dirac.org/linux/gdb/>.

Reference manual: http://www.ofb.net-gnu/gdb/gdb_toc.html.

Chapter 50

Tracing, timing, and profiling

50.1 Timing

Many systems have their own timers:

- MPI see section [15.6.1](#);
- OpenMP see section [29.2](#);
- PETSc see section [39.4](#).

50.1.1 Parallel timing

Timing parallel operations is fraught with peril, as processes or threads can interact with each other. This means that you may be measuring the wait time induced by synchronization. Sometimes that is actually what you want, as in the case of a *ping-pong* operation; section [4.1.1](#).

Other times, this is not what you want. Consider the code

```
|| if (procno==0)
    do_big_setup();
t = timer();
mpi_some_collective();
duration = timer() - t;
```

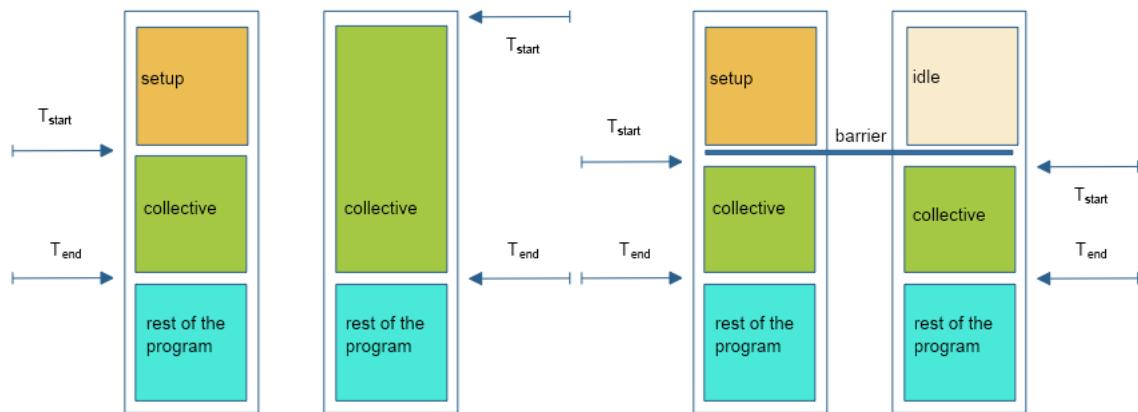


Figure 50.1: Timing a parallel code without and with barrier

Figure 50.1 illustrates this:

- in the naive scenario, processes other than zero start the collective immediately, but process zero first does the setup;
- all processes presumably finish more or less together.

On the non-zero processes we now get a time measurement, which we intended to be just the collective operation, that includes the setup time of process zero.

The solution is to put a barrier around the section that you want to time; see again figure 50.1.

50.2 Tau

TAU <http://www.cs.uoregon.edu/Research/tau/home.php> is a utility for profiling and tracing your parallel programs. Profiling is the gathering and displaying of bulk statistics, for instance showing you which routines take the most time, or whether communication takes a large portion of your runtime. When you get concerned about performance, a good profiling tool is indispensable.

Tracing is the construction and displaying of time-dependent information on your program run, for instance showing you if one process lags behind others. For understanding a program's behaviour, and the reasons behind profiling statistics, a tracing tool can be very insightful.

50.2.1 Instrumentation

Unlike such tools as *VTune* which profile your binary as-is, TAU works by adding *instrumentation* to your code: in effect it is a source-to-source translator that takes your code and turns it into one that generates run-time statistics.

This instrumentation is largely done for you; you mostly need to recompile your code with a script that does the source-to-source translation, and subsequently compiles that instrumented code. You could for instance have the following in your makefile:

```
ifdef TACC_TAU_DIR
    CC = tau_cc.sh
else
    CC = mpicc
endif

% : %.c
<TAB>${CC} -o $@ $^
```

If TAU is to be used (which we detect here by checking for the environment variable TACC_TAU_DIR), we define the CC variable as one of the TAU compilation scripts; otherwise we set it to a regular MPI compiler.

Fortran note 30: Cpp includes. If your source contains

```
|| #include "something.h"
```

directives, add the option
`-optPreProcess`
 to the TAU compiler.

To use TAU on TACC resources, do `module load tau`.

50.2.2 Running

You can now run your instrumented code; trace/profile output will be written to file if environment variables TAU_PROFILE and/or TAU_TRACE are set:

```
export TAU_PROFILE=1
export TAU_TRACE=1
```

A TAU run can generate many files: typically at least one per process. It is therefore advisable to create a directory for your tracing and profiling information. You declare them to TAU by setting the environment variables PROFILEDIR and TRACEDIR.

```
mkdir tau_trace
mkdir tau_profile
export PROFILEDIR=tau_profile
export TRACEDIR=tau_trace
```

The actual program invocation is then unchanged:

```
mpirun -np 26 myprogram
```

TACC note. At TACC, use ibrun without a processor count; the count is derived from the queue submission parameters.

While this example uses two separate directories, there is no harm in using the same for both.

50.2.3 Output

The tracing/profiling information is spread over many files, and hard to read as such. Therefore, you need some further programs to consolidate and display the information.

You view profiling information with paraprof

```
paraprof tau_profile
```

Viewing the traces takes a few steps:

```
cd tau_trace
rm -f tau.trc tau.edf align.trc align.edf
tau_treemerge.pl
tau_timecorrect tau.trc tau.edf align.trc align.edf
tau2slog2 align.trc align.edf -o yourprogram.slog2
```

If you skip the tau_timecorrect step, you can generate the slog2 file by:

```
tau2slog2 tau.trc tau.edf -o yourprogram.slog2
```

The slog2 file can be viewed with jumpshot:

```
jumpshot yourprogram.slog2
```

50.2.4 Without instrumentation

Event-based sampling on uninstrumented code:

```
tau_exec -ebs yourprogram
```

The resulting .trc file can be viewed with paraprof.

50.2.5 Examples

50.2.5.1 Bucket brigade

Let's consider a *bucket brigade* implementation of a broadcast: each process sends its data to the next higher rank.

```
// bucketblock.c
int sendto =
( procno<nprocs-1 ? procno+1 : MPI_PROC_NULL )
;
int recvfrom =
( procno>0 ? procno-1 : MPI_PROC_NULL )
;

MPI_Recv( leftdata,1,MPI_DOUBLE,recvfrom,0,comm,MPI_STATUS_IGNORE);
myvalue = leftdata
MPI_Send( myvalue,1,MPI_DOUBLE,sendto,0,comm);
```

We implement the bucket brigade with blocking sends and receives: each process waits to receive from its predecessor, before sending to its successor.

```
// bucketblock.c
if (procno>0)
    MPI_Recv(leftdata, N, MPI_DOUBLE,recvfrom,0, comm, MPI_STATUS_IGNORE);
for (int i=0; i<N; i++)
    myvalue[i] = (procno+1)*(procno+1) + leftdata[i];
if (procno<nprocs-1)
    MPI_Send(myvalue,N, MPI_DOUBLE,sendto,0, comm);
```

The TAU trace of this is in figure 50.2, using 4 nodes of 4 ranks each. We see that the processes within each node are fairly well synchronized, but there is less synchronization between the nodes. However, the bucket brigade then imposes its own synchronization on the processes because each has to wait for its predecessor, no matter if it posted the receive operation early.

Next, we introduce pipelining into this operation: each send is broken up into parts, and these parts are sent and received with non-blocking calls.

```
// bucketpipenonblock.c
MPI_Request rrequests[PARTS];
for (int ipart=0; ipart<PARTS; ipart++) {
    MPI_Irecv
    (
        leftdata+partition_starts[ipart],partition_sizes[ipart],
        MPI_DOUBLE,recvfrom,ipart,comm,rrequests+ipart);
}
```

The TAU trace is in figure 50.3.

50.2.5.2 Butterfly exchange

The NAS Parallel Benchmark suite [22] contains a CG implementation that spells out its all-reduce operations as a *butterfly exchange*.

```
!! cgb.f
do i = 1, l2ncols
```

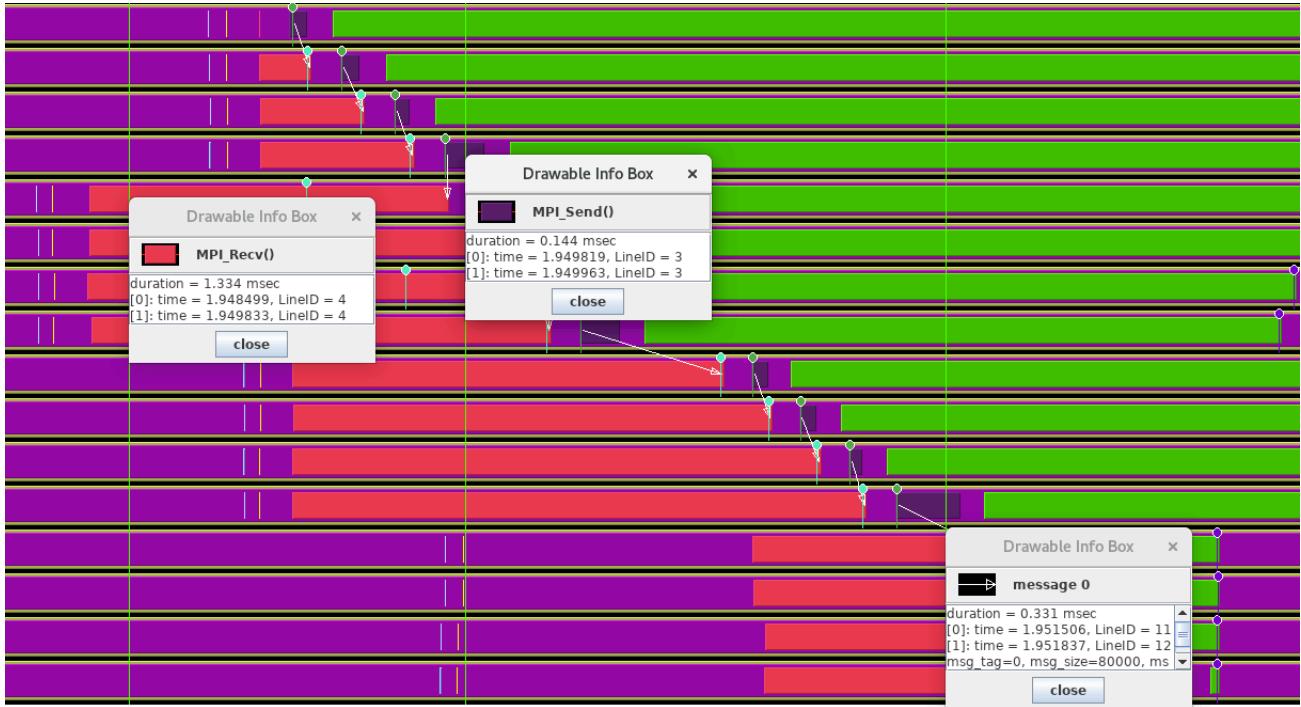


Figure 50.2: Trace of a bucket brigade broadcast

```

    call mpi_irecv( d,
>                 1,
>                 dp_type,
>                 reduce_exch_proc(i),
>                 i,
>                 mpi_comm_world,
>                 request,
>                 ierr )
    call mpi_send( sum,
>                 1,
>                 dp_type,
>                 reduce_exch_proc(i),
>                 i,
>                 mpi_comm_world,
>                 ierr )

    call mpi_wait( request, status, ierr )

    sum = sum + d
enddo

```

We recognize this structure in the TAU trace: figure 50.4. Upon closer examination, we see how this particular algorithm induces a lot of wait time. Figures 50.6 and 50.7 show a whole cascade of processes waiting for each other.

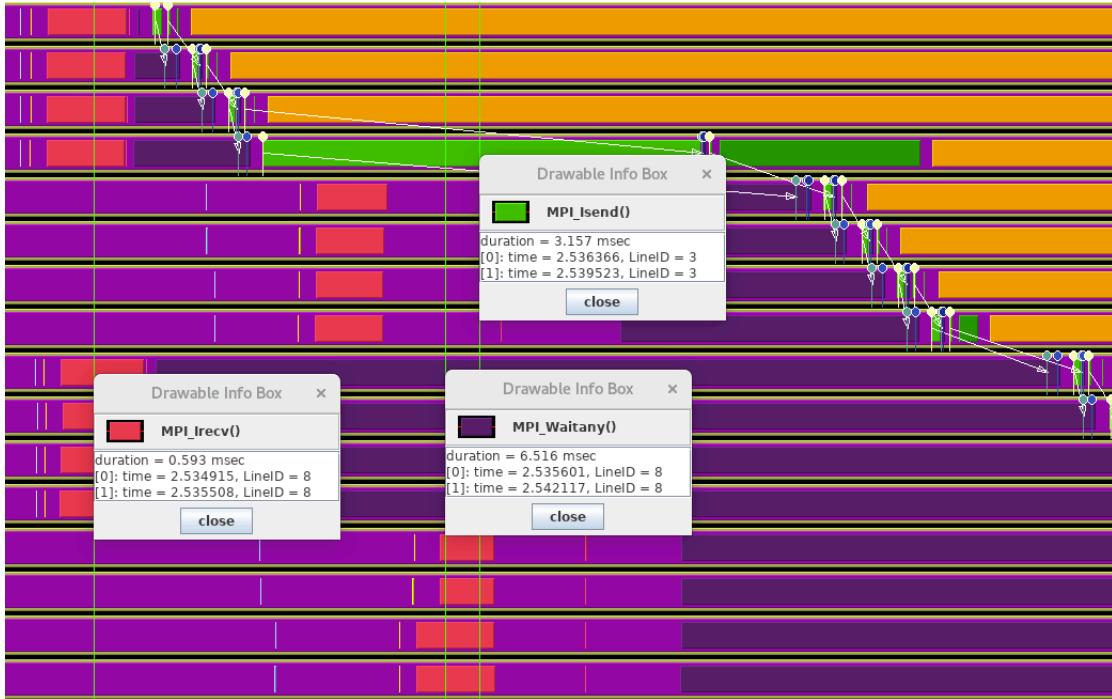


Figure 50.3: Trace of a pipelined bucket brigade broadcast

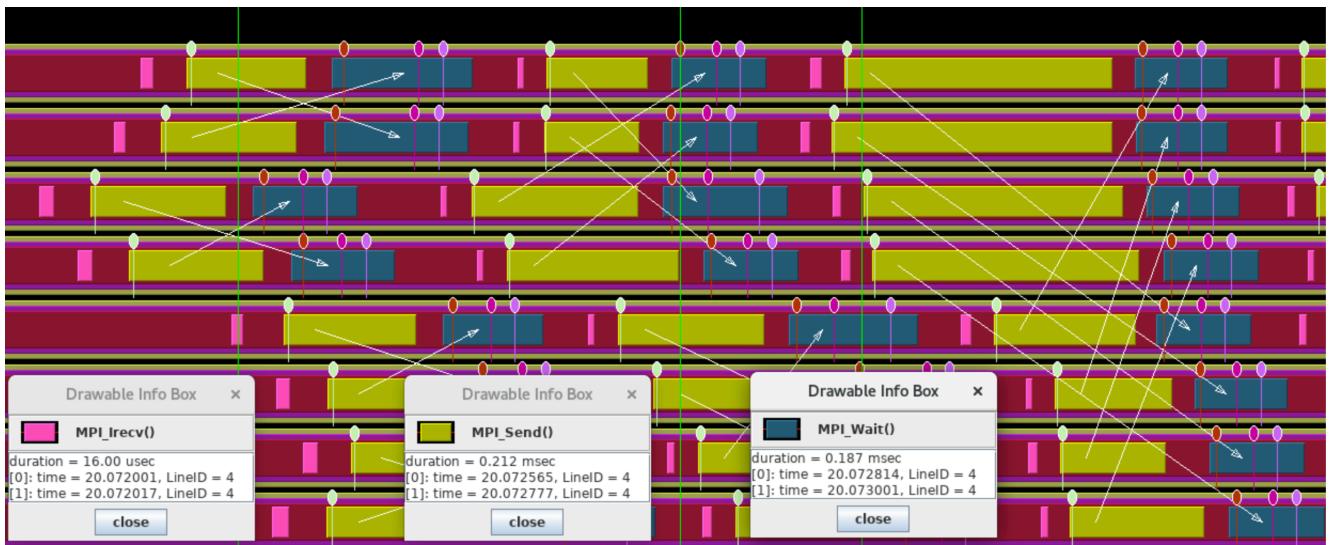


Figure 50.4: Trace of a butterfly exchange

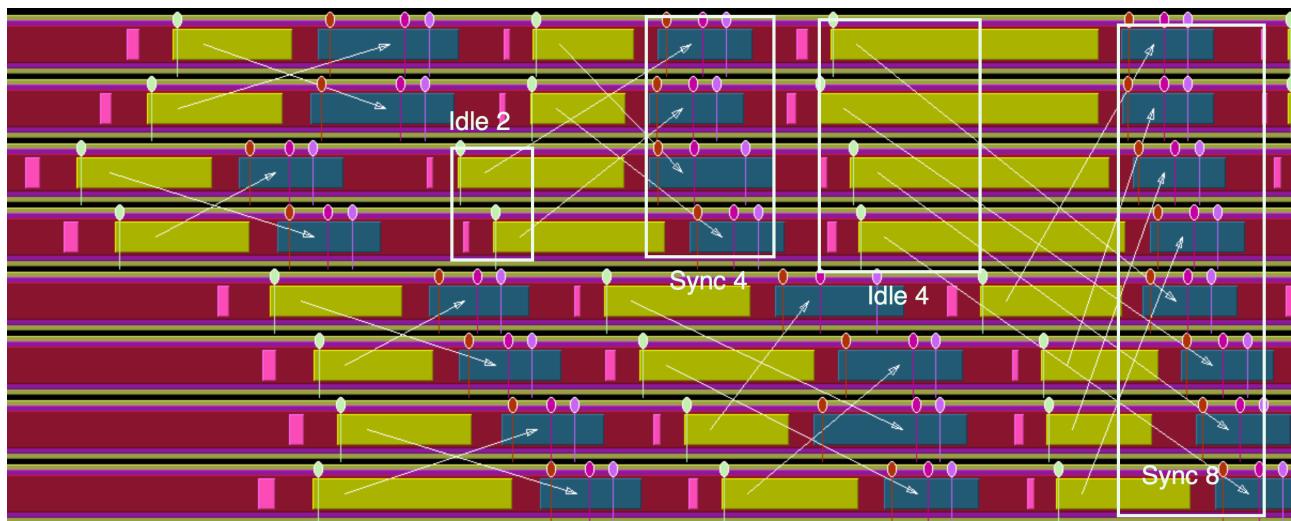


Figure 50.5: Trace of a butterfly exchange

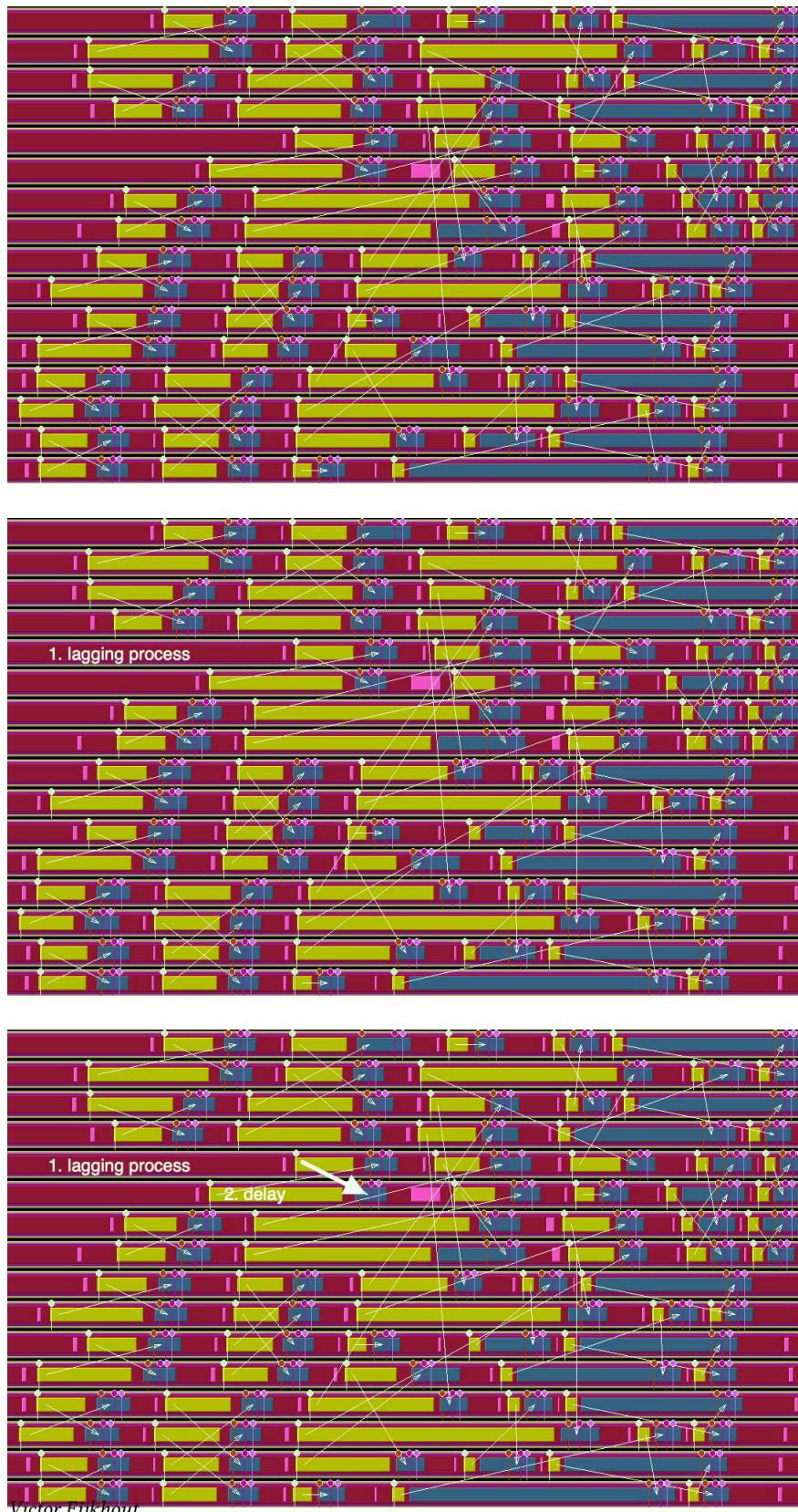


Figure 50.6: Four stages of processes waiting caused by a single lagging process

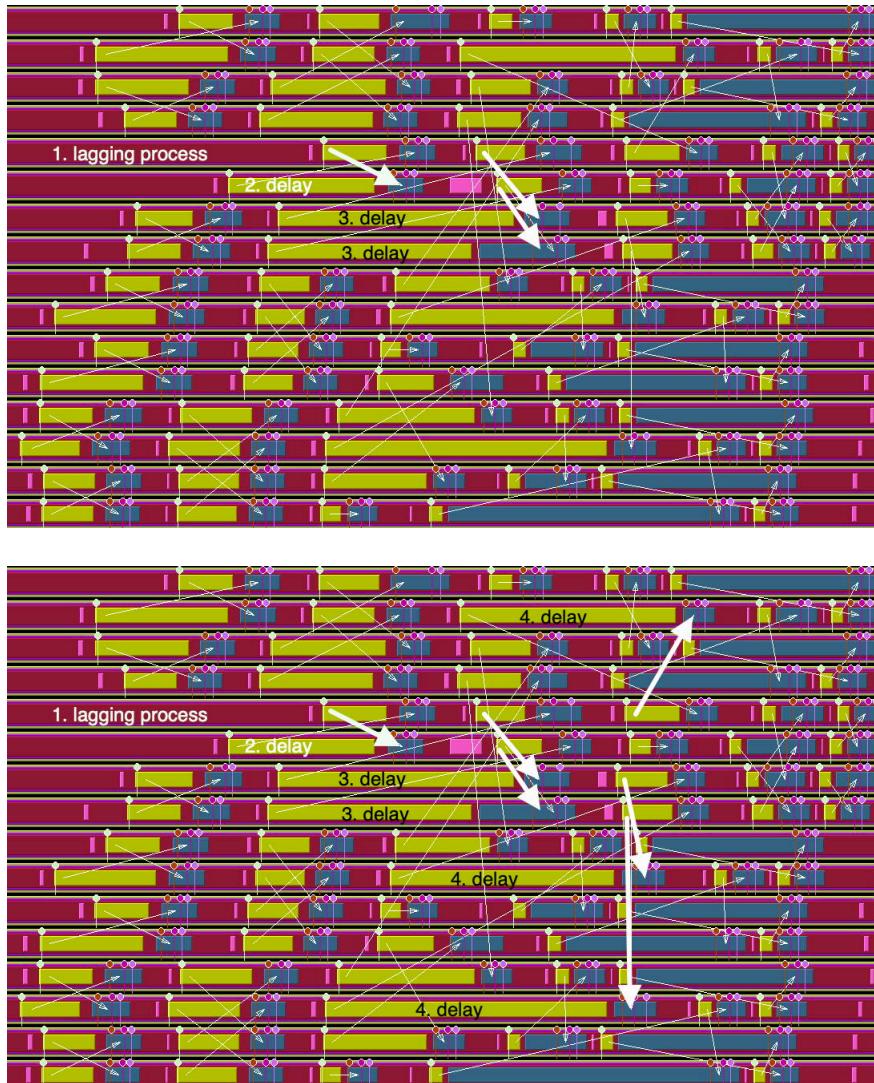


Figure 50.7: Four stages of processes waiting caused by a single lagging process

Chapter 51

SimGrid

Many readers of this book will have access to some sort of parallel machine so that they can run simulations, maybe even some realistic scaling studies. However, not many people will have access to more than one cluster type so that they can evaluate the influence of the *interconnect*. Even then, for didactic purposes one would often wish for interconnect types (fully connected, linear processor array) that are unlikely to be available.

In order to explore architectural issues pertaining to the network, we then resort to a simulation tool, *SimGrid*.

Installation

Compilation You write plain MPI files, but compile them with the *SimGrid compiler* `smpicc`.

Running SimGrid has its own version of `mpirun`: `smpirun`. You need to supply this with options:

- `-np 123456` for the number of (virtual) processors;
- `-hostfile simgridhostfile` which lists the names of these processors. You can basically make these up, but are defined in:
- `-platform arch.xml` which defines the connectivity between the processors.

For instance, with a hostfile of 8 hosts, a linearly connected network would be defined as:

```
<?xml version='1.0'?>
<!DOCTYPE platform SYSTEM "http://simgrid.gforge.inria.fr/simgrid/simgrid.dtd">

<platform version="4">

<zone id="first zone" routing="Floyd">
  <!-- the resources -->
  <host id="host1" speed="1Mf"/>
  <host id="host2" speed="1Mf"/>
  <host id="host3" speed="1Mf"/>
  <host id="host4" speed="1Mf"/>
  <host id="host5" speed="1Mf"/>
  <host id="host6" speed="1Mf"/>
  <host id="host7" speed="1Mf"/>
  <host id="host8" speed="1Mf"/>
  <link id="link1" bandwidth="125MBps" latency="100us"/>
```

```
<!-- the routing: specify how the hosts are interconnected -->
<route src="host1" dst="host2"><link_ctn id="link1"/></route>
<route src="host2" dst="host3"><link_ctn id="link1"/></route>
<route src="host3" dst="host4"><link_ctn id="link1"/></route>
<route src="host4" dst="host5"><link_ctn id="link1"/></route>
<route src="host5" dst="host6"><link_ctn id="link1"/></route>
<route src="host6" dst="host7"><link_ctn id="link1"/></route>
<route src="host7" dst="host8"><link_ctn id="link1"/></route>
</zone>

</platform>
```

(such files can be generated with a short shell script).

The Floyd designation of the routing means that any route using the transitive closure of the paths given can be used. It is also possible to use `routing="Full"` which requires full specification of all pairs that can communicate.

Chapter 52

Batch systems

Supercomputer *clusters* can have a large number of *nodes*, but not enough to let all their users run simultaneously, and at the scale that they want. Therefore, users are asked to submit *jobs*, which may start executing immediately, or may have to wait until resources are available.

The decision when to run a job, and what resources to give it, is not done by a human operator, but by software called a *batch system*. (The *Stampede* cluster at TACC ran close to 10 million jobs over its lifetime, which corresponds to starting a job every 20 seconds.)

This tutorial will cover the basics of such systems, and in particular Simple Linux Utility for Resource Management (SLURM).

52.1 Cluster structure

A supercomputer cluster usually has two types of nodes:

- *login nodes*, and
- *compute nodes*.

When you make an *ssh connection* to a cluster, you are connecting to a login node. The number of login nodes is small, typically less than half a dozen.

Exercise 52.1. Connect to your favourite cluster. How many people are on that login node? If you disconnect and reconnect, do you find yourself on the same login node?

Compute nodes are where your jobs are run. Different clusters have different structures here:

- Compute nodes can be shared between users, or they can be assigned exclusively.
 - Sharing makes sense if user jobs have less parallelism than the core count of a node.
 - ... on the other hand, it means that users sharing a node can interfere with each other's jobs, with one job using up memory or bandwidth that the other job needs.
 - With exclusive nodes, a job has access to all the memory and all the bandwidth of that node.
- Clusters can be homogeneous, having the same processor type on each compute node, or they can have more than one processor type. For instance, the TACC *Stampede2* cluster has *Intel Knightslanding* and *Intel Skylake* nodes.
- Often, clusters have a number of 'large memory' nodes, on the order of a Terabyte of memory or more. Because of the cost of such hardware, there is usually only a small number of these nodes.

52.2 Queues

Jobs often can not start immediately, because not enough resources are available, or because other jobs may have higher priority (see section 52.7). It is thus typical for a job to be put on a *queue*, scheduled, and started, by a batch system such as SLURM.

Batch systems do not put all jobs in one big pool: jobs are submitted to any of a number of queues, that are all scheduled separately.

Queues can differ in the following ways:

- If a cluster has different processor types, those are typically in different queues. Also, there may be separate queues for the nodes that have a GPU attached. Having multiple queues means you have to decide what processor type you want your job to run on, even if your executable is binary compatible with all of them.
- There can be ‘development’ queues, which have restrictive limits on runtime and node count, but where jobs typically start faster.
- Some clusters have ‘premium’ queues, which have a higher charge rate, but offer higher priority.
- ‘Large memory nodes’ are typically also in a queue of their own.
- There can be further queues for jobs with large resource demands, such as large core counts, or longer-than-normal runtimes.

For slurm, the `sinfo` command can tell you much about the queues.

```
# what queues are there?  
sinfo -o "%P"  
# what queues are there, and what is their status?  
sinfo -o "%20P %.5a"
```

Exercise 52.2. Enter these commands. How many queues are there? Are they all operational at the moment?

52.2.1 Queue limits

Queues have limits on

- the runtime of a job;
- the node count of a job; or
- how many jobs a user can have in that queue.

52.3 Job running

There are two main ways of starting a job on a cluster that is managed by slurm. You can start a program run synchronously with `srun`, but this may hang until resources are available. In this section, therefore, we focus on asynchronously executing your program by submitting a job with `sbatch`.

52.3.1 The job submission cycle

In order to run a *batch job*, you need to write a *job script*, or *batch script*. This script describes what program you will run, where its inputs and outputs are located, how many processes it can use, and how long it will run.

In its simplest form, you submit your script without further parameters:

```
sbatch yoursbatch
```

All options regarding the job run are contained in the script file, as we will now discuss.

As a result of your job submission you get a job id. After submission you can query your job with squeue:

```
squeue -j 123456
```

or query all your jobs:

```
squeue -u yourname
```

The squeue command reports various aspects of your job, such as its status (typically pending or running); and if it is running, the queue (or ‘partition’) where it runs, its elapsed time, and the actual nodes where it runs.

```
squeue -j 5807991
```

JOBID	PARTITION	NAME	USER	ST	TIME	NODES	NODELIST(REASON)
5807991	development	packingt	eijkhout	R	0:04	2	c456-[012,034]

If you discover errors in your script after submitting it, including when it has started running, you can cancel your job with scancel:

```
scancel 1234567
```

52.4 The script file

A job script looks like an executable shell script:

- It has an ‘interpreter’ line such as

```
#!/bin/bash
```

at the top, and
- it contains ordinary unix commands, including
- the (parallel) startup of your program:

```
# sequential program:  
./yourprogram youroptions  
# parallel program, general:  
mpiexec -n 123 parallelprogram options  
# parallel program, TACC:  
ibrun parallelprogram options
```
- ... and then it has many options specifying the parallel run.

52.4.1 sbatch options

In addition to the regular unix commands and the interpreter line, your script has a number of SLURM directives, each starting with #SBATCH. (This makes them comments to the shell interpreter, so a batch script is actually a legal shell script.)

Directives have the form

```
#SBATCH -option value
```

Common options are:

- -J: the jobname. This will be displayed when you call squeue.
- -o: name of the output file. This will contain all the stdout output of the script.
- -e: name of the error file. This will contain all the stderr output of the script, as well as slurm error messages.

It can be a good idea to make the output and error file unique per job. To this purpose, the macro %j is available, which at execution time expands to the job number. You will then get an output file with a name such as myjob.o2384737.

- **-p**: the *partition* or queue. See above.
- **-t hh:mm:ss**: the maximum running time. If your job exceeds this, it will get *cancelled*. Two considerations:
 1. You can not specify a duration here that is longer than the queue limit.
 2. The shorter your job, the more likely it is to get scheduled sooner rather than later.
- **-w c452-[101-104,111-112,115]** specific nodes to place the job.
- **-A**: the name of the account to which your job should be billed.
- **--mail-user=you@where** Slurm can notify you when a job starts or ends. You may for instance want to connect to a job when it starts (to run `top`), or inspect the results when it's done, but not sit and stare at your terminal all day. The action of which you want to be notified is specified with (among others) **--mail-type=begin/end/fail/all**
- **--dependency=after:123467** indicates that this job is to start after jobs 1234567 finished. Use `afterok` to start only if that job successfully finished. (See https://cvw.cac.cornell.edu/slurm/submission_depend for more options.)
- **--nodelist** allows you to specify specific nodes. This can be good for getting reproducible timings, but it will probably increase your wait time in the queue.
- **--array=0-30** is a specification for ‘array jobs’: a task that needs to be executed for a range of parameter values.
TACC note. Array jobs are not supported at TACC; use a launcher instead; section 52.5.3.
- **--mem=10000** specifies the desired amount of memory per node. Default units are megabytes, but can be explicitly indicated with K/M/G/T.
TACC note. This option can not be used to request arbitrary memory: jobs always have access to all available physical memory, and use of shared memory is not allowed.

See <https://slurm.schedmd.com/sbatch.html> for a full list.

Exercise 52.3. Write a script that executes the `date` command twice, with a `sleep` in between.
Submit the script and investigate the output.

52.4.2 Environment

Your job script acts like any other shell script when it is executed. In particular, it inherits the calling *environment* with all its environment variables. Additionally, slurm defines a number of environment variables, such as the job ID, the hostlist, and the node and process count.

52.5 Parallelism handling

We discuss parallelism options separately.

52.5.1 MPI jobs

On most clusters there is a structure with compute nodes, that contain one or more multi-core processors. Thus, you want to specify the node and core count. For this, there are options **-N** and **-n** respectively.

```
#SBATCH -N 4          # Total number of nodes  
#SBATCH -n 4          # Total number of mpi tasks
```

It would be possible to specify only the node count or the core count, but that takes away flexibility:

- If a node has 40 cores, but your program stops scaling at 10 MPI ranks, you would use:

```
#SBATCH -N 1
#SBATCH -n 10
• If your processes use a large amount of memory, you may want to leave some cores unused. On a 40-core
node you would either use
#SBATCH -N 2
#SBATCH -n 40
or
#SBATCH -N 1
#SBATCH -n 20
```

Rather than specifying a total core count, you can also specify the core count per node with `--ntasks-per-node`.

Exercise 52.4. Go through the above examples and replace the `-n` option by an equivalent `--ntasks-per-node` values.

Python note 45: Python MPI programs. Python programs using `mpi4py` should be treated like other MPI programs, except that instead of an executable name you specify the python executable and the script name:

```
ibrun python3 mympi4py.py
```

52.5.2 Threaded jobs

The above discussion was mostly of relevance to MPI programs. Some other cases:

- For pure-OpenMP programs you need only one node, so the `-N` value is 1. Maybe surprisingly, the `-n` value is also 1, since only one process needs to be created: OpenMP uses thread-level parallelism, which is specified through the `OMP_NUM_THREADS` environment variable.
- A similar story holds for the *Matlab parallel computing toolbox* (note: note the distributed computing toolbox), and the *Python multiprocessing* module.

Exercise 52.5. What happens if you specify an `-n` value greater than 1 for a pure-OpenMP program?

Solution to exercise 52.5. Same as with value 1: the `-n` option controls the number of processes started by `mpiexec`. OpenMP programs are started directly from the shell, so if you start only one, only one will run.

Most likely, no memory will be reserved for a potential second process, so that one OpenMP program even has full access to the node.

For *hybrid computing* MPI-OpenMP programs, you use a combination of slurm options and environment variables, such that, for instance, the product of the `--tasks-per-node` and `OMP_NUM_THREADS` is less than the core count of the node.

52.5.3 Parameter sweeps / ensembles / massively parallel

So far we have focused on jobs where a single parallel executable is scheduled. However, there are use cases where you want to run a sequential (or very modestly parallel) executable for a large number of inputs. This is called variously a *parameter sweep* or an *ensemble*.

Slurm can support this itself with *array jobs*, though there are more sophisticated launcher tools for such purposes.

TACC note. TACC clusters do not support array jobs. Instead, use the `launcher` or `pylauncher` modules.

52.6 Job running

When your job is running, its status is reported as R by `squeue`. That command also reports which nodes are allocated to it.

```
squeue -j 5807991
      JOBID   PARTITION     NAME     USER ST      TIME  NODES NODELIST(REASON)
      5807991 development packingt eijkhout    R      0:04      2 c456-[012,034]
```

You can then `ssh` into the compute nodes of your job; normally, compute nodes are off-limits. This is useful if you want to run `top` to see how your processes are doing.

52.7 Scheduling strategies

Such a system looks at resource availability and the user's priority to determine when a job can be run.

Of course, if a user is requesting a large number of nodes, it may never happen that that many become available simultaneously, so the batch system will force the availability. It does so by determining a time when that job is set to run, and then let nodes go *idle* so that they are available at that time.

An interesting side effect of this is that, right before the really large job starts, a 'fairly' large job can be run, if it only has a short running time. This is known as *backfill*, and it may cause jobs to be run earlier than their priority would warrant.

52.8 File systems

File systems come in different types:

- They can be backed-up or not;
- they can be shared or not; and
- they can be permanent or purged.

On many clusters each node has a local disc, either spinning or a *RAM disc*. This is usually limited in size, and should only be used for temporary files during the job run.

Most of the file system lives on discs that are part of *RAID arrays*. These discs have a large amount of redundancy to make them fault-tolerant, and in aggregate they form a *shared file system*: one unified file system that is accessible from any node and where files can take on any size, or at least much larger than any individual disc in the system.

TACC note. The `HOME` file system is limited in size, but is both permanent and backed up. Here you put scripts and sources.

The `WORK` file system is permanent but not backed up. Here you can store output of your simulations. However, currently the work file system can not immediately sustain the output of a large parallel job.

The `SCRATCH` file system is purged, but it has the most bandwidth for accepting program output. This is where you would write your data. After post-processing, you can then store on the work file system, or write to tape.

Exercise 52.6. If you install software with `cmake`, you typically have

1. a script with all your `cmake` options;
2. the sources,
3. the installed header and binary files
4. temporary object files and such.

How would you organize these entities over your available file systems?

52.9 Examples

Very sketchy section.

52.9.1 Job dependencies

```
JOB=`sbatch my_batchfile.sh | egrep -o -e "\b[0-9]+\$" `

#!/bin/sh

# Launch first job
JOB=`sbatch job.sh | egrep -o -e "\b[0-9]+\$" `

# Launch a job that should run if the first is successful
sbatch --dependency=afterok:${JOB} after_success.sh

# Launch a job that should run if the first job is unsuccessful
sbatch --dependency=afternotok:${JOB} after_fail.sh
```

52.9.2 Multiple runs in one script

```
iBrun stuff &
sleep 10
for h in hostlist ; do
    ssh $h "top"
done
wait
```

52.10 Review questions

For all true/false questions, if you answer False, what is the right answer and why?

Exercise 52.7. T/F? When you submit a job, it starts running immediately once sufficient resources are available.

Exercise 52.8. T/F? If you submit the following script:

```
#!/bin/bash
#SBATCH -N 10
#SBATCH -n 10
echo "hello world"
you get 10 lines of 'hello world' in your output.
```

Exercise 52.9. T/F? If you submit the following script:

```
#!/bin/bash
#SBATCH -N 10
#SBATCH -n 10
hostname
you get the hostname of the login node from which your job was submitted.
```

Exercise 52.10. Which of these are shared with other users when your job is running:

- Memory;

- CPU;
- Disc space?

Exercise 52.11. What is the command for querying the status of your job?

- sinfo
- squeue
- sacct

Exercise 52.12. On 4 nodes with 40 cores each, what's the largest program run, measured in

- MPI ranks;
- OpenMP threads?

Chapter 53

Parallel I/O

Parallel I/O is a tricky subject. You can try to let all processors jointly write one file, or to write a file per process and combine them later. With the standard mechanisms of your programming language there are the following considerations:

- On clusters where the processes have individual file systems, the only way to write a single file is to let it be generated by a single processor.
- Writing one file per process is easy to do, but
 - You need a post-processing script;
 - if the files are not on a shared file system (such as *Lustre*), it takes additional effort to bring them together;
 - if the files *are* on a shared file system, writing many files may be a burden on the metadata server.
- On a shared file system it is possible for all files to open the same file and set the file pointer individually. This can be difficult if the amount of data per process is not uniform.

Illustrating the last point:

```
// pseek.c
FILE *pfile;
pfile = fopen("pseek.dat", "w");
fseek(pfile, procid*sizeof(int), SEEK_CUR);
// fseek(pfile,procid*sizeof(char),SEEK_CUR);
fprintf(pfile, "%d\n", procid);
fclose(pfile);
```

For the full source of this example, see section [47.1.2](#)

MPI also has its own portable I/O: *MPI I/O*, for which see chapter [10](#).

Alternatively, one could use a library such as *hdf5*; see Tutorials book, section-[7](#).

For a great discussion see [\[20\]](#), from which figures here are taken.

53.1 Use sequential I/O

MPI processes can do anything a regular process can, including opening a file. This is the simplest form of parallel I/O: every MPI process opens its own file. To prevent write collisions,

- you use `MPI_Comm_rank` to generate a unique file name, or
- you use a local file system, typically `/tmp`, that is unique per process, or at least per the group of processes on a node.

For reading it is actually possible for all processes to open the same file, but for reading this is not really feasible. Hence the unique files.

53.2 MPI I/O

In chapter 10 we discussed MPI I/O. This is a way for all processes on a communicator to open a single file, and write to it in a coordinated fashion. This has the big advantage that the end result is an ordinary Unix file.

53.3 Higher level libraries

Libraries such as *NetCDF* or *HDF5* offer advantages over MPI I/O:

- Files can be OS-independent, removing worries such as about *little-endian* storage.
- Files are self-documenting: they contain the metadata describing their contents.

PART VII

CLASS PROJECTS

Chapter 54

A Style Guide to Project Submissions

Here are some guidelines for how to submit assignments and projects. As a general rule, consider programming as an experimental science, and your writeup as a report on some tests you have done: explain the problem you're addressing, your strategy, your results.

Turn in a writeup in pdf form (Word and text documents are not acceptable) that was generated from a text processing program such (preferably) L^AT_EX (for a tutorial, see Tutorials book, section-14).

54.1 Structure of your writeup

54.1.1 Write as if it's an article

Consider this project writeup an opportunity to practice writing a scientific article.

Start with the obvious stuff.

- Your writeup should have a title. Not ‘Project’ or ‘parallel programming’, but something like ‘Parallelization of Chronosynclastic Enfundibula in MPI’.
- Author and contact information. This differs per publication. Here it is: your name, EID, TACC username, and email.
- Introductory section that is extremely high level: what is the problem, what did you do, what did you find.
- Conclusion: what do your findings mean, what are limitations, opportunities for future extensions.
- Bibliography.

54.1.2 Consider your audience

An article is written for a specific audience: a journal, a conference, or in this case: your instructors. So don't go into details that mean nothing to your audience, and try giving them what they find interesting.

In other words: give enough background on your application, but not too much. You're not writing for your thesis supervisor, you're writing to interested outsiders to your field.

On the other hand, your instructors know everything about parallelism. So don't show a differential equation and say ‘and I made this parallel with OpenMP’. Go into detail how you translated your problem into something computational, and then show relevant bits of code.

That does not mean that turning in the code is sufficient, nor code plus sample output. Write an article.

54.1.3 Observe, measure, hypothesize, deduce

Your project may be a scientific investigation of some phenomenon. Formulate hypotheses as to what you expect to observe, report on your observations, and draw conclusions.

Quite often your program will display unexpected behaviour. It is important to observe this, and hypothesize what the reason might be for your observed behaviour.

In most applications of computing machinery we care about the efficiency with which we find the solution. Thus, make sure that you do measurements. In general, make observations that allow you to judge whether your program behaves the way you would expect it to.

54.1.4 Reporting

Include both code snippets and graphs.

Screenshots of code snippets are not acceptable. Use at least a verbatim/monospace mode in your text processor, but better, use the `LATEX listings` package or equivalent.

Graphs can be generated any number of ways. Kudos if you can figure out the `LATEX tikz` package, but Matlab or Excel are acceptable too. No screenshots though.

For parallel runs you can, but are not required to, use TAU plots; see [50.2](#).

54.1.5 Repository organization

If you submit your work through a repository have your pdf file at the top level; organize your sources in clearly named subdirectories. Object files and binaries should not be in a repository since they are dependent on hardware and things like compilers.

54.2 The parallel part

The parallelization part is the most important of your writeup. So don't write 3 pages about your application and 1 about the parallel code. Discuss in detail:

- Did you use MPI or OpenMP? Why?
- What is the parallel structure of your problem? What does the parallel work correspond to in terms of your application?
- What kind of parallelism did you use? Mostly MPI collectives or point-to-point operations? OpenMP loop parallelism or tasks? Why?

54.2.1 Running your code

A single run doesn't prove anything. For a good report, you need to run your code for more than one input dataset (if available) and in more than one processor configuration. When you choose problem sizes, be aware that an average processor can do a billion operations per second: you need to make your problem large enough for the timings to rise above the level of random variations and startup phenomena.

When you run a code in parallel, beware that on clusters the behaviour of a parallel code will always be different between one node and multiple nodes. On a single node the MPI implementation is likely optimized to use the shared memory. This means that results obtained from a single node run will be unrepresentative. In fact, in timing and scaling tests you will often see a drop in (relative) performance going from one node to two. Therefore you need to run your code in a variety of scenarios, using more than one node.

54.2.2 Graphs

In parallel programming, speedup and scaling are the test of how good your work is. So it's up to you to report this as well as you can.

If you do a scaling analysis, a graph reporting runtimes should not have a linear time axis. (Curved graphs are hard to read. Can you see the difference between $O(\sqrt{n})$ and $O(\log n)$ behavior in a graph?) Try to find a way to compare your results to a straight line, such as constant time, or linearly increasing performance.

It is up to you to decide what quantity to report. This may depend on your application.

Use enough data points! Writing a short script to run your program multiple times takes very little time.

54.3 Helpful remarks

54.3.1 Parallel performance or the lack thereof

In a perfect world, the performance of your code should grow with the number of available resources. If your program shows disappointing performance, consider the following.

Synchronizing OpenMP threads at the end of a parallel region takes maybe a few hundred cycles. This means that the amount of work in that region should be considerably more.

If your OpenMP program stops scaling at a certain core count, consider affinity settings; section [25.1](#).

MPI messages takes a couple of microseconds. Again, this implies that the amount of work between messages needs to be large enough.

54.3.2 Code formatting

Included code snippets should be readable. At a minimum you could indent the code correctly in an editor before you include it in a `verbatim` environment. (Screenshots of your terminal window are a decidedly suboptimal solution.) But it's better to use the `listing` package which formats your code, include syntax coloring. For instance,

```
\lstset{language=C++} % or Fortran or so
\begin{lstlisting}
for (int i=0; i<N; i++)
    s += 1;
\end{lstlisting}
|| for (int i=0; i<N; i++)
   s += 1;
```

Chapter 55

Warmup Exercises

We start with some simple exercises.

55.1 Hello world

For background, see section 2.3.

First of all we need to make sure that you have a working setup for parallel jobs. The example program `helloworld.c` does the following:

```
// helloworld.c
MPI_Init(&argc,&argv);
MPI_Comm_size(MPI_COMM_WORLD,&ntids);
MPI_Comm_rank(MPI_COMM_WORLD,&mytid);
printf("Hello, this is processor %d out of %d\n",mytid,ntids);
MPI_Finalize();
```

Compile this program and run it in parallel. Make sure that the processors do *not* all say that they are processor 0 out of 1!

55.2 Trace output

We want to make trace files of the parallel runs, for which we'll use the TAU utility of the University of Oregon. (For documentation, go to <http://www.cs.uoregon.edu/Research/tau/docs.php>.) Here are the steps:

- Load two modules:
`module load tau`
`module load jdk64`
- Recompile your program with `make yourprog`. You'll notice a lot more output: that is the TAU preprocessor.
- Now run your program, setting environment variables `TAU_TRACE` and `TAU_PROFILE` to 1, and `TRACEDIR` and `PROFILEDIR` to where you want the output to be. Big shortcut: do
`make submit EXECUTABLE=yourprog`
for a batch job or
`make idevrun EXECUTABLE=yourprog`
for an interactive parallel run. These last two set all variables for you. See if you can find where the output went...
- Now you need to postprocess the TAU output. Do `make tau EXECUTABLE=yourprog` and you'll get a file `taulog_yourprog.slog2` which you can view with the `jumpshot` program.

55.3 Collectives

It is a good idea to be able to collect statistics, so before we do anything interesting, we will look at MPI collectives; section 3.1.

Take a look at `time_max.cxx`. This program sleeps for a random number of seconds: and measures how long the sleep actually was: In the code, this quantity is called ‘jitter’, which is a term for random deviations in a system.

Exercise 55.1. Change this program to compute the average jitter by changing the reduction operator.

Exercise 55.2. Now compute the standard deviation

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_i (x_i - m)^2}{n}}$$

where m is the average value you computed in the previous exercise.

- Solve this exercise twice: once by following the reduce by a broadcast operation and once by using an Allreduce.
- Run your code both on a single cluster node and on multiple nodes, and inspect the TAU trace. Some MPI implementations are optimized for shared memory, so the trace on a single node may not look as expected.
- Can you see from the trace how the allreduce is implemented?

Exercise 55.3. Finally, use a gather call to collect all the values on processor zero, and print them out.

Is there any process that behaves very differently from the others?

For each exercise, submit code, a TAU trace, and an analysis of what you see in the traces. Submit your work by leaving a code, graphics, and a writeup in your repository.

55.4 Linear arrays of processors

In this section you are going to write a number of variations on a very simple operation: all processors pass a data item to the processor with the next higher number.

- In the file `linear-serial.c` you will find an implementation using blocking send and receive calls.
- You will change this code to use non-blocking sends and receives; they require an `MPI_Wait` call to finalize them.
- Next, you will use `MPI_Sendrecv` to arrive at a synchronous, but deadlock-free implementation.
- Finally, you will use two different one-sided scenarios.

In the reference code `linear-serial.c`, each process defines two buffers:

```
// linear-serial.c
int my_number = mytid, other_number=-1.;
```

where `other_number` is the location where the data from the left neighbour is going to be stored.

To check the correctness of the program, there is a gather operation on processor zero:

```
int *gather_buffer=NULL;
if (mytid==0) {
    gather_buffer = (int*) malloc(ntids*sizeof(int));
    if (!gather_buffer) MPI_Abort(comm,1);
}
MPI_Gather(&other_number,1,MPI_INT,
```

```

        gather_buffer,1,MPI_INT, 0,comm);
if (mytid==0) {
    int i,error=0;
    for (i=0; i<ntids; i++)
        if (gather_buffer[i]!=i-1) {
            printf("Processor %d was incorrect: %d should be %d\n",
                   i,gather_buffer[i],i-1);
            error =1;
        }
    if (!error) printf("Success!\n");
    free(gather_buffer);
}

```

55.4.1 Coding with blocking calls

Passing data to a neighbouring processor should be a very parallel operation. However, if we code this naively, with MPI_Send and MPI_Recv, we get an unexpected serial behaviour, as was explained in section 4.1.4.

```

if (mytid<ntids-1)
    MPI_Ssend( /* data: */ &my_number,1,MPI_INT,
               /* to: */ mytid+1, /* tag: */ 0, comm);
if (mytid>0)
    MPI_Recv( /* data: */ &other_number,1,MPI_INT,
              /* from: */ mytid-1, 0, comm, &status);

```

(Note that this uses an Ssend; see section 15.8 for the explanation why.)

Exercise 55.4. Compile and run this code, and generate a TAU trace file. Confirm that the execution is serial. Does replacing the Ssend by Send change this?

Let's clean up the code a little.

Exercise 55.5. First write this code more elegantly by using MPI_PROC_NULL.

55.4.2 A better blocking solution

The easiest way to prevent the serialization problem of the previous exercises is to use the MPI_Sendrecv call. This routine acknowledges that often a processor will have a receive call whenever there is a send. For border cases where a send or receive is unmatched you can use MPI_PROC_NULL.

Exercise 55.6. Rewrite the code using MPI_Sendrecv. Confirm with a TAU trace that execution is no longer serial.

Note that the Sendrecv call itself is still blocking, but at least the ordering of its constituent send and recv are no longer ordered in time.

55.4.3 Non-blocking calls

The other way around the blocking behaviour is to use Isend and Irecv calls, which do not block. Of course, now you need a guarantee that these send and receive actions are concluded; in this case, use MPI_Waitall.

Exercise 55.7. Implement a fully parallel version by using MPI_Isend and MPI_Irecv.

55.4.4 One-sided communication

Another way to have non-blocking behaviour is to use one-sided communication. During a Put or Get operation, execution will only block while the data is being transferred out of or into the origin process, but it is not blocked by the target. Again, you need a guarantee that the transfer is concluded; here use `MPI_Win_fence`.

Exercise 55.8. Write two versions of the code: one using `MPI_Put` and one with `MPI_Get`. Make TAU traces.

Investigate blocking behaviour through TAU visualizations.

Exercise 55.9. If you transfer a large amount of data, and the target processor is occupied, can you see any effect on the origin? Are the fences synchronized?

Chapter 56

Mandelbrot set

If you've never heard the name *Mandelbrot set*, you probably recognize the picture; figure 56.1 Its formal definition

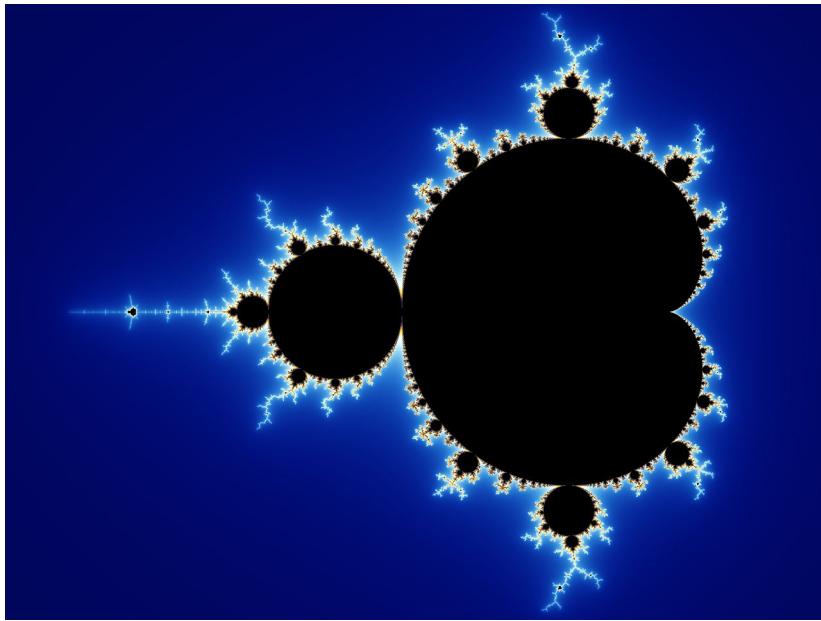


Figure 56.1: The Mandelbrot set

is as follows:

A point c in the complex plane is part of the Mandelbrot set if the series x_n defined by

$$\begin{cases} x_0 = 0 \\ x_{n+1} = x_n^2 + c \end{cases}$$

satisfies

$$\forall n : |x_n| \leq 2.$$

It is easy to see that only points c in the bounding circle $|c| < 2$ qualify, but apart from that it's hard to say much without a lot more thinking. Or computing; and that's what we're going to do.

In this set of exercises you are going to take an example program `mandel_main.cxx` and extend it to use a variety of MPI programming constructs. This program has been set up as a *manager-worker* model: there is one manager processor (for a change this is the last processor, rather than zero) which gives out work to, and accepts results from, the worker processors. It then takes the results and constructs an image file from them.

56.1 Invocation

The `mandel_main` program is called as

```
mpirun -np 123 mandel_main steps 456 iters 789
```

where the `steps` parameter indicates how many steps in x, y direction there are in the image, and `iters` gives the maximum number of iterations in the belong test.

If you forget the parameter, you can call the program with

```
mandel_serial -h
```

and it will print out the usage information.

56.2 Tools

The driver part of the Mandelbrot program is simple. There is a circle object that can generate coordinates **missing snippet circledef** and a global routine that tests whether a coordinate is in the set, at least up to an iteration bound. It returns zero if the series from the given starting point has not diverged, or the iteration number in which it diverged if it did so.

```
int belongs(struct coordinate xy,int itbound) {
    double x=xy.x, y=xy.y; int it;
    for (it=0; it<itbound; it++) {
        double xx,yy;
        xx = x*x - y*y + xy.x;
        yy = 2*x*y + xy.y;
        x = xx; y = yy;
        if (x*x+y*y>4.) {
            return it;
        }
    }
    return 0;
}
```

In the former case, the point could be in the Mandelbrot set, and we colour it black, in the latter case we give it a colour depending on the iteration number.

```
if (iteration==0)
    memset(colour,0,3*sizeof(float));
else {
    float rfloat = ((float) iteration) / workcircle->infty;
    colour[0] = rfloat;
    colour[1] = MAX((float)0,(float)(1-2*rfloat));
    colour[2] = MAX((float)0,(float)(2*(rfloat-.5)));
}
```

We use a fairly simple code for the worker processes: they execute a loop in which they wait for input, process it, return the result.

```
void queue::wait_for_work(MPI_Comm comm,circle *workcircle) {
    MPI_Status status; int ntids;
    MPI_Comm_size(comm,&ntids);
    int stop = 0;

    while (!stop) {
        struct coordinate xy;
        int res;

        MPI_Recv(&xy,1,coordinate_type,ntids-1,0, comm,&status);
        stop = !workcircle->is_valid_coordinate(xy);
        if (stop) break; //res = 0;
        else {
            res = belongs(xy,workcircle->infty);
        }
        MPI_Send(&res,1,MPI_INT,ntids-1,0, comm);
    }
    return;
}
```

A very simple solution using blocking sends on the manager is given:

```
// mandel_serial.cxx
class serialqueue : public queue {
private :
    int free_processor;
public :
    serialqueue(MPI_Comm queue_comm,circle *workcircle)
        : queue(queue_comm,workcircle) {
        free_processor=0;
    };
    /**
     The `addtask' routine adds a task to the queue. In this
     simple case it immediately sends the task to a worker
     and waits for the result, which is added to the image.

     This routine is only called with valid coordinates;
     the calling environment will stop the process once
     an invalid coordinate is encountered.
    */
    int addtask(struct coordinate xy) {
        MPI_Status status; int contribution, err;

        err = MPI_Send(&xy,1,coordinate_type,
                      free_processor,0,comm); CHK(err);
        err = MPI_Recv(&contribution,1,MPI_INT,
                      free_processor,0,comm, &status); CHK(err);

        coordinate_to_image(xy,contribution);
        total_tasks++;
        free_processor = (free_processor+1)% (ntids-1);
    }
}
```

```

    ||     return 0;
    || };

```

Exercise 56.1. Explain why this solution is very inefficient. Make a trace of its execution that bears this out.



Figure 56.2: Trace of a serial Mandelbrot calculation

56.3 Bulk task scheduling

The previous section showed a very inefficient solution, but that was mostly intended to set up the code base. If all tasks take about the same amount of time, you can give each process a task, and then wait on them all to finish. A first way to do this is with non-blocking sends.

Exercise 56.2. Code a solution where you give a task to all worker processes using non-blocking sends and receives, and then wait for these tasks with MPI_Waitall to finish before you give a new round of data to all workers. Make a trace of the execution of this and report on the total time.

You can do this by writing a new class that inherits from queue, and that provides its own addtask method:

```

// mandel_bulk.cxx
class bulkqueue : public queue {
public :
    bulkqueue(MPI_Comm queue_comm, circle *workcircle)
        : queue(queue_comm, workcircle) {

```

You will also have to override the `complete` method: when the circle object indicates that all coordinates have been generated, not all workers will be busy, so you need to supply the proper `MPI_Waitall` call.

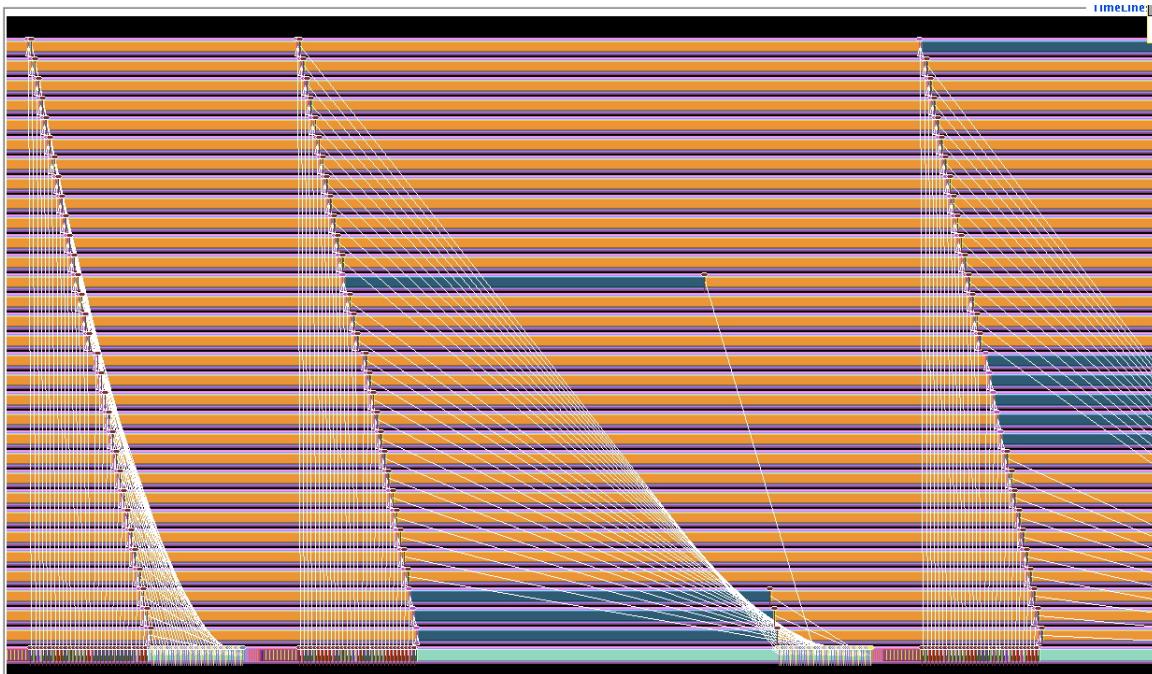


Figure 56.3: Trace of a bulk Mandelbrot calculation

56.4 Collective task scheduling

Another implementation of the bulk scheduling of the previous section would be through using collectives.

Exercise 56.3. Code a solution which uses scatter to distribute data to the worker tasks, and gather to collect the results. Is this solution more or less efficient than the previous?

56.5 Asynchronous task scheduling

At the start of section 56.3 we said that bulk scheduling mostly makes sense if all tasks take similar time to complete. In the Mandelbrot case this is clearly not the case.

Exercise 56.4. Code a fully dynamic solution that uses `MPI_Probe` or `MPI_Waitany`. Make an execution trace and report on the total running time.

56.6 One-sided solution

Let us reason about whether it is possible (or advisable) to code a one-sided solution to computing the Mandelbrot set. With active target synchronization you could have an exposure window on the host to which the worker tasks

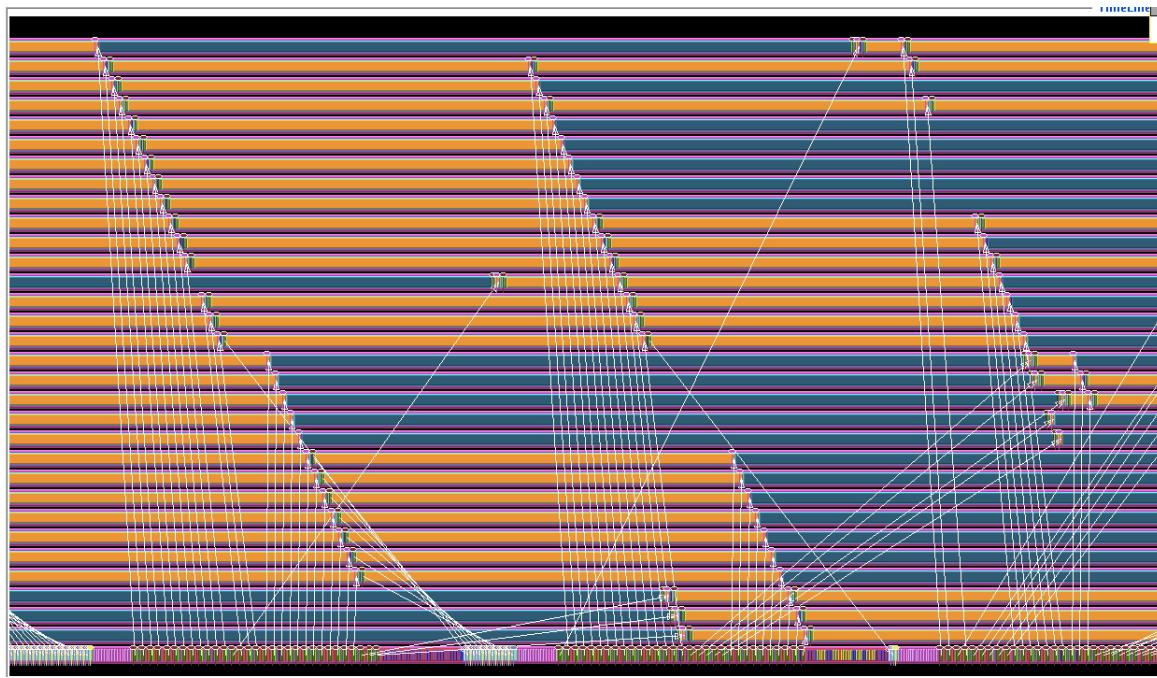


Figure 56.4: Trace of an asynchronous Mandelbrot calculation

would write. To prevent conflicts you would allocate an array and have each worker write to a separate location in it. The problem here is that the workers may not be sufficiently synchronized because of the differing time for computation.

Consider then passive target synchronization. Now the worker tasks could write to the window on the manager whenever they have something to report; by locking the window they prevent other tasks from interfering. After a worker writes a result, it can get new data from an array of all coordinates on the manager.

It is hard to get results into the image as they become available. For this, the manager would continuously have to scan the results array. Therefore, constructing the image is easiest done when all tasks are concluded.

Chapter 57

Data parallel grids

In this section we will gradually build a semi-realistic example program. To get you started some pieces have already been written: as a starting point look at `code/mpi/c/grid.cxx`.

57.1 Description of the problem

With this example you will investigate several strategies for implementing a simple iterative method. Let's say you have a two-dimensional grid of datapoints $G = \{g_{ij} : 0 \leq i < n_i, 0 \leq j < n_j\}$ and you want to compute G' where

$$g'_{ij} = 1/4 \cdot (g_{i+1,j} + g_{i-1,j} + g_{i,j+1} + g_{i,j-1}). \quad (57.1)$$

This is easy enough to implement sequentially, but in parallel this requires some care.

Let's divide the grid G and divide it over a two-dimension grid of $p_i \times p_j$ processors. (Other strategies exist, but this one scales best; see section HPC book, section-6.5.) Formally, we define two sequences of points

$$0 = i_0 < \dots < i_{p_i} < i_{p_i+1} = n_i, \quad 0 < j_0 < \dots < j_{p_j} < j_{p_j+1} = n_j$$

and we say that processor (p, q) computes g_{ij} for

$$i_p \leq i < i_{p+1}, \quad j_q \leq j < j_{q+1}.$$

From formula (57.1) you see that the processor then needs one row of points on each side surrounding its part of the grid. A picture makes this clear; see figure 57.1. These elements surrounding the processor's own part are called the *halo* or *ghost region* of that processor.

The problem is now that the elements in the halo are stored on a different processor, so communication is needed to gather them. In the upcoming exercises you will have to use different strategies for doing so.

57.2 Code basics

The program needs to read the values of the grid size and the processor grid size from the commandline, as well as the number of iterations. This routine does some error checking: if the number of processors does not add up to the size of MPI_COMM_WORLD, a nonzero error code is returned.

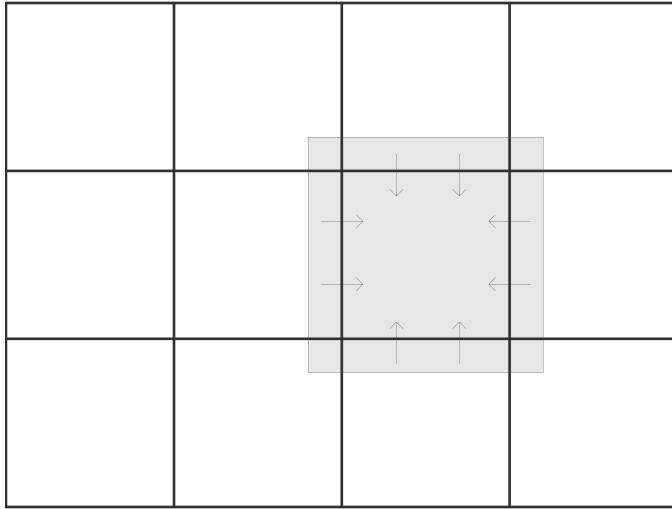


Figure 57.1: A grid divided over processors, with the ‘ghost’ region indicated

```
ierr = parameters_from_commandline
(argc,argv,comm,&ni,&nj,&pi,&pj,&nit);
if (ierr) return MPI_Abort(comm,1);
```

From the processor parameters we make a processor grid object:

```
processor_grid *pgrid = new processor_grid(comm,pi,pj);
```

and from the numerical parameters we make a number grid:

```
number_grid *grid = new number_grid(pgrid,ni,nj);
```

Number grids have a number of methods defined. To set the value of all the elements belonging to a processor to that processor’s number:

```
grid->set_test_values();
```

To set random values:

```
grid->set_random_values();
```

If you want to visualize the whole grid, the following call gathers all values on processor zero and prints them:

```
grid->gather_and_print();
```

Next we need to look at some data structure details.

The definition of the `number_grid` object starts as follows:

```
class number_grid {
public:
    processor_grid *pgrid;
    double *values,*shadow;
```

where `values` contains the elements owned by the processor, and `shadow` is intended to contain the values plus the ghost region. So how does `shadow` receive those values? Well, the call looks like

```
grid->build_shadow();
```

and you will need to supply the implementation of that. Once you’ve done so, there is a routine that prints out the `shadow` array of each processor

```
grid->print_shadow();
```

In the file `code/mpi/c/grid_impl.cxx` you can see several uses of the macro INDEX. This translates from a two-dimensional coordinate system to one-dimensional. Its main use is letting you use (i, j) coordinates for indexing the processor grid and the number grid: for processors you need the translation to the linear rank, and for the grid you need the translation to the linear array that holds the values.

A good example of the use of INDEX is in the `number_grid::relax` routine: this takes points from the shadow array and averages them into a point of the values array. (To understand the reason for this particular averaging, see HPC book, section-4.2.3 and HPC book, section-5.5.3.) Note how the INDEX macro is used to index in a $i\text{length} \times j\text{length}$ target array `values`, while reading from a $(i\text{length} + 2) \times (j\text{length} + 2)$ source array `shadow`.

```
for (i=0; i<ilength; i++) {
    for (j=0; j<jlength; j++) {
        int c=0;
        double new_value=0.;
        for (c=0; c<5; c++) {
            int ioff=i+1+ioffsets[c],joff=j+1+joffsets[c];
            new_value += coefficients[c] *
                shadow[ INDEX(ioff,joff,ilength+2,jlength+2) ];
        }
        values[ INDEX(i,j,ilength,jlength) ] = new_value/8.;
    }
}
```

Chapter 58

N-body problems

N-body problems describe the motion of particles under the influence of forces such as gravity. There are many approaches to this problem, some exact, some approximate. Here we will explore a number of them.

For background reading see HPC book, section-[10](#).

58.1 Solution methods

It is not in the scope of this course to give a systematic treatment of all methods for solving the N-body problem, whether exactly or approximately, so we will just consider a representative selection.

1. Full N^2 methods. These compute all interactions, which is the most accurate strategy, but also the most computationally demanding.
2. Cutoff-based methods. These use the basic idea of the N^2 interactions, but reduce the complexity by imposing a cutoff on the interaction distance.
3. Tree-based methods. These apply a coarsening scheme to distant interactions to lower the computational complexity.

58.2 Shared memory approaches

58.3 Distributed memory approaches

PART VIII

DIDACTICS

Chapter 59

Teaching guide

Based on two lectures per week, here is an outline of how MPI can be taught in a college course. Links to the relevant exercises.

Topic	Exercises	Week
Block 1: SPMD and collectives		
Intro: cluster structure	hello: 2.1 , 2.2	
Functional parallelism	commrank: 2.4 , 2.5 , prime: 2.6	week 1
Allreduce, broadcast	3.1 , randommax: 3.2 jordan: 3.8	week 2
Scan, Gather	3.13 , scangather: 3.11, 3.15	
Block 2: Two-sided point-to-point		week 3
Send and receive	pingpong: 4.1 , rightsend: 4.4	
Sendrecv	bucketblock: 4.6 , sendrecv: 4.8, 4.9	
Nonblocking	isendirecv: 4.13 , isendirecvarray: 4.14 bucketpipenonblock: 4.11	week 4
Block 3: Derived datatypes		week 5
Contiguous, Vector, Indexed	stridesend: 6.4 , cubegather: 6.6	
Extent and resizing		
Block 4: Communicators		
Duplication, split Groups	procgrid: 7.1 , 7.2	week 6
Block 5: I/O		
File open, write, views	blockwrite: 10.1 , viewwrite 10.4	
Block 6: Neighborhood collectives		week 7
Neighbor allgather	rightgraph: 11.1	

59.1 Sources used in this chapter

59.1.1 Listing of code header

Chapter 60

Teaching from mental models

Distributed memory programming, typically through the MPI library, is the *de facto* standard for programming large scale parallelism, with up to millions of individual processes. Its dominant paradigm of Single Program Multiple Data (SPMD) programming is different from threaded and multicore parallelism, to an extent that students have a hard time switching models. In contrast to threaded programming, which allows for a view of the execution with central control and a central repository of data, SPMD programming has a symmetric model where all processes are active all the time, with none privileged, and where data is distributed.

This model is counterintuitive to the novice parallel programmer, so care needs to be taken how to instill the proper ‘mental model’. Adoption of an incorrect mental model leads to broken or inefficient code.

We identify problems with the currently common way of teaching MPI, and propose a structuring of MPI courses that is geared to explicit reinforcing the symmetric model. Additionally, we advocate starting from realistic scenarios, rather than writing artificial code just to exercise newly-learned routines.

60.1 Introduction

The MPI library [25, 21] is the *de facto* tool for large scale parallelism as it is used in engineering sciences. In this paper we want to discuss the manner it is usually taught, and propose a rethinking.

We argue that the topics are typically taught in a sequence that is essentially dictated by level of complexity in the implementation, rather than by conceptual considerations. Our argument will be for a sequencing of topics, and use of examples, that is motivated by typical applications of the MPI library, and that explicitly targets the required mental model of the parallelism model underlying MPI.

We have written an open-source textbook [8] with exercise sets that follows the proposed sequencing of topics and the motivating applications.

60.1.1 Short background on MPI

The MPI library dates back to the early days of cluster computing, the first half of the 1990s. It was an academic/industrial collaboration to unify earlier, often vendor-specific, message passing libraries. MPI is typically used to code large-scale Finite Element Method (FEM) and other physical simulation applications, which share characteristics of a relatively static distribution of large amounts of data – hence the use of clusters to increase size of the target problem – and the need for very efficient exchange of small amounts of data.

The main motivation for MPI is the fact that it can be scaled to more or less arbitrary scales, currently up to millions of cores [1]. Contrast this with threaded programming, which is limited more or less by the core count on a single node, currently about 70.

Considering this background, the target audience for MPI teaching consists of upper level undergraduate students, graduate students, and even post-doctoral researchers who are engaging for the first time in large scale simulations. The typical participant in an MPI course is likely to understand more than the basics of linear algebra and some amount of numerics of Partial Differential Equation (PDE).

60.1.2 Distributed memory parallelism

Corresponding to its origins in cluster computing, MPI targets distributed memory parallelism¹. Here, network-connected cluster nodes run codes that share no data, but synchronize through explicit messages over the network. Its main model for parallelism is described as Single Program Multiple Data (SPMD): multiple instances of a single program run on the processing elements, each operating on their own data. The MPI library then implements the communication calls that allow processes to combine and exchange data.

While MPI programs can solve many or all of the same problems that can be solved with a multicore approach, the programming approach is different, and requires an adjustment in the programmer's 'mental model' [6, 30] of the parallel execution. This paper addresses the question of how to teach MPI to best effect this shift in mindset.

Outline of this paper. We use section 60.2 to address explicitly the mental models that govern parallel thinking and parallel programming, pointing out why MPI is different, and difficult initially. In section 60.3 we consider the way MPI is usually taught, while in section 60.4 we offer an alternative that is less likely to lead to an incorrect mental model.

Some details of our proposed manner of teaching are explored in sections 60.5, 60.6, 60.7. We conclude with discussion in sections 60.8 and 60.9.

60.2 Implied mental models

Denning [7] argued how computational thinking consists in finding an abstract machine (a 'computational model') that solves the problem in a simple algorithmic way. In our case of teaching parallel programming, the complication to this story is that the problem to be solved is already a computational system. That doesn't lessen the need to formulate an abstract model, since the full explanation of MPI's workings are unmanageable for a beginning programmer, and often not needed for practical purposes.

In this section we consider in more detail the mental models that students may implicitly be working under, and the problems with them; targeting the right mental model will then be the subject of later sections. The two (interrelated) aspects of a correct mental model for distributed memory programming are control and synchronization. We here discuss how these can be misunderstood by students.

60.2.1 The traditional view of parallelism

The problem with mastering the MPI library is that beginning programmers take a while to overcome a certain mental model for parallelism. In this model, which we can call 'sequential semantics' (or more whimsically the 'big index finger' model), there is only a single strand of execution², which we may think of as a big index finger going down the source code.

1. Recent additions to the MPI standard target shared memory too.

2. We carefully avoid the word 'thread' which carries many connotations in the context of parallel programming.

This mental model corresponds closely to the way algorithms are described in the mathematical literature of parallelism, and it is actually correct to an extent in the context of threaded libraries such as OpenMP, where there is indeed initially a single thread of execution, which in some places spawns a team of threads to execute certain sections of code in parallel. However, in MPI this model is factually incorrect, since there are always multiple processes active, with none essentially privileged over others, and no shared or central data store.

60.2.2 The misconceptions of centralized control

The sequential semantics mental model that, as described above, underlies much of the theoretical discussion of parallelism, invites the student to adopt certain programming techniques, such as the master-worker approach to parallel programming. While this is often the right approach with thread-based coding, where we indeed have a master thread and spawned threads, it is usually incorrect for MPI. The strands of execution in an MPI run are all long-living processes (as opposed to dynamically spawned threads), and are *symmetric* in their capabilities and execution.

Lack of recognition of this process symmetry also induces students to solve problems by having a form of ‘central data store’ on one process, rather than adopting a symmetric, distributed, storage model. For instance, we have seen a student solve a data transposition problem by collecting all data on process 0, and subsequently distributing it again in transposed form. While this may be reasonable³ in shared memory with OpenMP, with MPI it is unrealistic in that no process is likely to have enough storage for the full problem. Also, this introduces a sequential bottleneck in the execution.

In conclusion, we posit that beginning MPI programmers may suffer from a mental model that makes them insufficiently realize the symmetry of MPI processes, and thereby arrive at inefficient and nonscalable solutions.

60.2.3 The reality of distributed control

An MPI program run consists of multiple independent threads of control. One problem in recognizing this is that there is only a single source code, so there is an inclination to envision the program execution as a single thread of control: the above-mentioned ‘index finger’ going down the statements of the source. A second factor contributing to this view is that a parallel code incorporates statements with values (`int x = 1.5;`) that are replicated over all processes. It is easy to view these as centrally executed.

Interestingly, work by Ben-David Kolikant [2] shows that students with no prior knowledge of concurrency, when invited to consider parallel activities, will still think in terms of centralized solutions. This shows that distributed control, such as it appears in MPI, is counterintuitive and needs explicit enforcement in its mental model. In particular, we explicitly target process symmetry and process differentiation.

The centralized model can still be maintained in MPI to an extent, since the scalar operations that would be executed by a single thread become replicated operations in the MPI processes. The distinction between sequential execution and replicated execution escapes many students at first, and in fact, since nothing it gained by explaining this, we do not do so.

60.2.4 The misconception of synchronization

Even with multiple threads of control and distributed data, there is still a temptation to see execution as ‘bulk synchronous processing’ (BSP [29]). Here, the execution proceeds by supersteps, implying that processes are largely synchronized. (The BSP model has several components more, which are usually ignored, notably one-sided communication and processor oversubscription.)

3. To first order; second order effects such as affinity complicate this story.

Supersteps as a computational model allow for small differences in control flow, for instance conditional inside a big parallelizable loop, but otherwise imply a form of centralized control (as above) on the level of major algorithm steps. However, codes using the pipeline model of parallelism, such idioms as

```
MPI_Recv( /* from: */ my_process-1)
// do some major work
MPI_Send( /* to : */ my_process+1)
```

fall completely outside either the sequential semantics or BSP model and require an understanding of one process' control being dependent on another's. Gaining a mental model for this sort of unsynchronized execution is nontrivial to achieve. We target this explicitly in section [60.5.1](#).

60.3 Teaching MPI, the usual way

The MPI library is typically taught as follows. After an introduction about parallelism, covering concepts such as speedup and shared versus distributed memory parallelism, students learn about the initialization and finalization routines, and the `MPI_Comm_size` and `MPI_Comm_rank` calls for querying the number of processes and the rank of the current process.

After that, the typical sequence is

1. two-sided communication, with first blocking and later nonblocking variants;
2. collectives; and
3. any number of advanced topics such as derived data types, one-sided communication, subcommunicators, MPI I/O et cetera, in no particular order.

This sequence is defensible from a point of the underlying implementation: the two-sided communication calls are a close map to hardware behavior, and collectives are both conceptually equivalent to, and can be implemented as, a sequence of point-to-point communication calls. However, this is not a sufficient justification for teaching this sequence of topics.

60.3.1 Criticism

We offer three points of criticism against this traditional approach to teaching MPI.

First of all, there is no real reason for teaching collectives after two-sided routines. They are not harder, nor require the latter as prerequisite. In fact, their interface is simpler for a beginner, requiring one line for a collective, as opposed to at least two for a send/receive pair, probably surrounded by conditionals testing the process rank. More importantly, they reinforce the symmetric process view, certainly in the case of the `MPI_All...` routines.

Our second point of criticism is regarding the blocking and nonblocking two-sided communication routines. The blocking routines are typically taught first, with a discussion of how blocking behavior can lead to load unbalance and therefore inefficiency. The nonblocking routines are then motivated from a point of latency hiding and solving the problems inherent in blocking. In our view such performance considerations should be secondary. Nonblocking routines should instead be taught as the natural solution to a conceptual problem, as explained below.

Thirdly, starting with point-to-point routines stems from a Communicating Sequential Processes (CSP)[\[12\]](#) view of a program: each process stands on its own, and any global behavior is an emergent property of the run. This may make sense for the teacher who know how concepts are realized 'under the hood', but it does not lead to additional insight with the students. We believe that a more fruitful approach to MPI programming starts from the global behavior, and then derives the MPI process in a top-down manner.

60.3.2 Teaching MPI and OpenMP

In scientific computing, another commonly used parallel programming system is OpenMP [23]. OpenMP and MPI are often taught together, with OpenMP taught earlier because it is supposedly easier, or because its parallelism would be easier to grasp. Regardless our opinion on the first estimate, we argue that OpenMP should be taught *after* MPI because of its ‘central control’ parallelism model. If students come to associate parallelism with a model that has a ‘master thread’ and ‘parallel regions’ they will find it much harder to make idiomatic use of the symmetric model of MPI.

60.4 Teaching MPI, our proposal

As alternative to the above sequence of introducing MPI concepts, we propose a sequence that focuses on practical scenarios, and that actively reinforces the mental model of SPMD execution.

Such reinforcement is often an immediate consequence of our strategy of illustrating MPI constructs in the context of an application: most MPI applications (as we shall briefly discuss next) operate on large ‘distributed objects’. This immediately leads to a mental model of the workings of each process being the ‘projection’ onto that process of the global calculation. The opposing view, where the overall computation is emergent from the individual processes, is the CSP model mentioned above.

60.4.1 Motivation from applications

The typical application for MPI comes from Computational Science and Engineering, such as N-body problems, aerodynamics, shallow water equations, Lattice Boltzman methods, weather modeling with Fast Fourier Transform. Of these, the PDE based applications can readily be explained to need a number of MPI mechanisms.

Nonnumeric applications exist:

- Graph algorithms such as shortest-path or PageRank are straightforward to explain sequentially. However, the distributed memory algorithms need to be approached fundamentally different from the more naive shared memory variants. Thus they require a good amount of background knowledge. Additionally, they do not feature the regular communications that one-dimensional PDE applications have. Scalability arguments make this story even more complicated. Thus, these algorithms are in fact a logical next topic *after* discussion of parallel PDE algorithm.
- N-body problems, in their naive implementation, are easy to explain to any student who knows inverse-square laws such as gravity. It is a good illustration of some collectives, but nothing beyond that.
- Sorting. Sorting algorithms based on a sorting network (this includes bubblesort, but not quicksort) can be used as illustration. In fact, we use odd-even transposition sort as a ‘midterm’ exam assignment, which can be solved with MPI_Sendrecv. Algorithms such as bitonic sort can be used to illustrate some advanced concepts, but quicksort, which is relatively easy to explain as a serial algorithm, or even in shared memory, is quite hard in MPI.
- Point-to-point operations can also be illustrated by graphics operations such as a ‘blur’, since these correspond to a ‘stencil’ applied to a cluster of pixels. Unfortunately, this example suffers from the fact that neither collectives, nor irregular communications have a use in this application. Also, using graphics to illustrate simple MPI point-to-point communication is unrealistic in two ways: first, to start out simple we have to posit a one-dimensional pixel array; secondly, graphics is hardly ever of the scale that necessitates distributed memory, so this example is far from ‘real world’. (Ray tracing is naturally done distributed, but that has a completely different computational structure.)

Based on this discussion of possible applications, and in view of the likely background of course attendants, we consider Finite Difference solution of PDEs as a prototypical application that exercises both the simplest and more sophisticated mechanisms. During a typical MPI training, even a one-day short course, we insert a lecture on sparse matrices and their computational structure to motivate the need for various MPI constructs.

60.4.2 Process symmetry

Paradoxically, the first way to get students to appreciate the notion of process symmetry in MPI is to run a non-MPI program. Thus, students are asked to write a ‘hello world’ program, and execute this with `mpiexec`, as if it were an MPI program. Every process executes the print statement identically, bearing out the total symmetry between the processes.

Next, students are asked to insert the initialize and finalize statements, with three different ‘hello world’ statements before, between, and after them. This will prevent any notion of the code between initialization and finalization being considered as an OpenMP style ‘parallel region’.

A simple test to show that while processes are symmetric they are not identical is offered by the exercise of using the `MPI_Get_processor_name` function, which will have different output for some or all of the processes, depending on how the hostfile was arranged.

60.4.3 Functional parallelism

The `MPI_Comm_rank` function is introduced as a way of distinguishing between the MPI processes. Students are asked to write a program where only one process prints the output of `MPI_Comm_size`.

Having different execution without necessarily different data is a case of ‘functional parallelism’. At this point there are few examples that we can assign. For instance, in order to code the evaluation of an integral by Riemann sums ($\pi/4 = \int_0^1 \sqrt{1-x^2} dx$ is a popular one) would need a final sum collective, which has not been taught at this point.

A possible example would be primality testing, where each process tries to find a factor of some large integer N by traversing a subrange of $[2, \sqrt{N}]$, and printing a message if a factor is found. Boolean satisfiability problems form another example, where again a search space is partitioned without involving any data space; a process finding a satisfying input can simply print this fact. However, this example requires background that students typically don’t have.

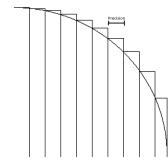


Figure 60.1:
Calculation of
 $\pi/4$ by Riemann
sums

60.4.4 Introducing collectives

At this point we can introduce collectives, for instance to find the maximum of a random value that is computed locally on each process. This requires teaching the code for random number generation and, importantly, setting a process-dependent random number seed. Generating random 2D or 3D coordinates and finding the center of mass is an examples that requires a send and receive buffer of length greater than 1, and illustrates that reductions are then done pointwise.

These examples evince both process symmetry and a first form of local data. However, a thorough treatment of distributed parallel data will come in the discussion of point-to-point routines.

It is an interesting question whether we should dispense with ‘rooted’ collectives such as `MPI_Reduce` at first, and start with `MPI_Allreduce`⁴. The latter is more symmetric in nature, and has a buffer treatment that is easier to

4. The `MPI_Reduce` call performs a reduction on data found on all processes, leaving the result on a ‘root’ process. With `MPI_Allreduce` the result is left on *all* processes.

explain; it certainly reinforces the symmetric mindset. There is also essentially no difference in efficiency.

Certainly, in most applications the ‘allreduce’ is the more common mechanism, for instance where the algorithm requires computations such as

$$\bar{y} \leftarrow \bar{x}/\|\bar{x}\|$$

where x, y are distributed vectors. The quantity $\|\bar{x}\|$ is then needed on all processes, making the Allreduce the natural choice. The rooted reduction is typically only used for final results. Therefore we advocate introducing both rooted and nonrooted collectives, but letting the students initially do exercises with the nonrooted variants.

This has the added advantage of not bothering the students initially with the asymmetric treatment of the receive buffer between the root and all other processes.

60.4.5 Distributed data

As motivation for the following discussion of point-to-point routines, we now introduce the notion of distributed data. In its simplest form, a parallel program operates on a linear array the dimensions of which exceed the memory of any single process.

```
int n;
double data[n];
```

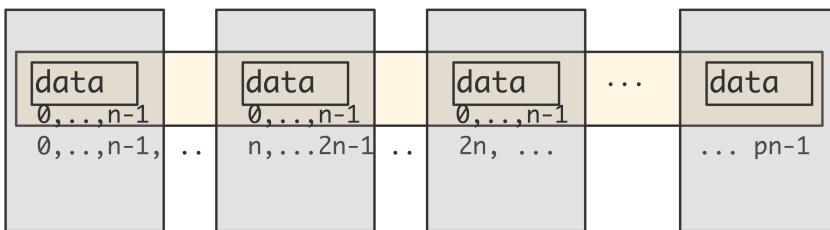


Figure 60.2: A distributed array versus multiple local arrays

The lecturer stresses that the global structure of the distributed array is only ‘in the programmer’s mind’: each MPI process sees an array with indexing starting at zero. The following snippet of code is given for the students to use in subsequent exercises:

```
int myfirst = ....;
for (int ilocal=0; ilocal<nlocal; ilocal++) {
    int iglobal = myfirst+ilocal;
    array[ilocal] = f(iglobal);
}
```

At this point, the students can code a second variant of the primality testing exercise above, but with an array allocated to store the integer range. Since collectives are now known, it becomes possible to have a single summary statement from one process, rather than a partial result statement from each.

The inner product of two distributed vectors is a second illustration of working with distributed data. In this case, the reduction for collecting the global result is slightly more useful than the collective in the previous examples. For this example no translation from local to global numbering is needed.

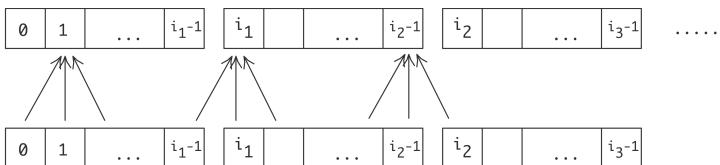
60.4.6 Point-to-point motivated from operations on distributed data

We now state the importance of local combining operations such as

$$y_i = (x_{i-1} + x_i + x_{i+1})/3 : i = 1, \dots, N - 1$$

applied to an array. Students who know about PDEs will recognize that with different coefficients this is the heat equation; for others a graphics ‘blur’ operation can be used as illustration, if they accept that a one-dimensional pixel array is a stand-in for a true graphic.

Under the ‘owner computes’ regime, where the process that stores location y_i performs the full calculation of that quantity, we see the need for communication in order to compute the first and last element of the local part of y :



We then state that this data transfer is realized in MPI by two-sided send/receive pairs.

60.4.7 Detour: deadlock and serialization

The concept of ‘blocking’ is now introduced, and we discuss how this can lead to deadlock. A more subtle behavior is ‘unexpected serialization’: processes interacting to give serial behavior on a code that conceptually should be parallel. (The classroom protocol is discussed in detail in section 60.5.1.) For completeness, the ‘eager limit’ can be discussed.

This introduces students to an interesting phenomenon in the concept of parallel correctness: a program may give the right result, but not with the proper parallel efficiency. Asking a class to come up with a solution that does not have a running time proportional to the number of processes, will usually lead to at least one student suggesting splitting processes in odd and even subsets. The limits to this approach, code complexity and the reliance on regular process connectivity, are explained to the students as a preliminary to the motivation for nonblocking sends; section 60.4.10.

60.4.8 Detour: ping-pong

At this point we briefly abandon the process symmetry, and consider the ping-pong operation between two processes A and B⁵. We ask students to consider what the ping-pong code looks like for A and, for B. Since we are working with SPMD code, we arrive at a program where the A code and B code are two branches of a conditional.

We ask the students to implement this, and do timing with MPI_Wtime. The implementation of the ping-pong is itself a good exercise in SPMD thinking; finding the right sender/receiver values usually takes the students a nontrivial amount of time. Many of them will initially write a code that deadlocks.

The concepts of latency and bandwidth can be introduced, as the students test the ping-pong code on messages of increasing size. The concept of halfbandwidth can be introduced by letting half of all processes execute a ping-pong with a partner process in the other half.

5. In this operations, process A sends to B, and B subsequently sends to A. Thus the time for a message is half the time of a ping-pong. It is not possible to measure a single message directly, since processes can not be synchronized that finely.

60.4.9 Back to data exchange

The foregoing detours into the behavior of two-sided send and receive calls were necessary, but they introduced asymmetric behavior in the processes. We return to the averaging operation given above, and with it to a code that treats all processes symmetrically. In particular, we argue that, except for the first and last, each process exchanges information with its left and right neighbor.

This could be implemented with blocking sends and receive calls, but students recognize how this could be somewhere between tedious and error-prone. Instead, to prevent deadlock and serialization as described above, we now offer the MPI_Sendrecv routine⁶. Students are asked to implement the classroom exercise above with the sendrecv routine. Ideally, they use timing or tracing to gather evidence that no serialization is happening.

As a nontrivial example (in fact, this takes enough programming that one might assign it as an exam question, rather than an exercise during a workshop) students can now implement an odd-even transposition sort algorithm using MPI_Sendrecv as the main tool. For simplicity they can use a single array element per process. (If each process has a subarray one has to make sure their solution has the right parallel complexity. It is easy to make errors here and implement a correct algorithm that, however, performs too slowly.)

Note that students have at this point not done any serious exercises with the blocking communication calls, other than the ping-pong. No such exercises will in fact be done.

60.4.10 Nonblocking sends

Nonblocking sends are now introduced as the solution to a specific problem: the above schemes required paired-up processes, or careful orchestration of send and receive sequences. In the case of irregular communications this is no longer possible or feasible. Life would be easy if we could declare ‘this data needs to be sent’ or ‘these messages are expected’, and then wait for these messages collectively. Given this motivation, it is immediately clear that multiple send or receive buffers are needed, and that requests need to be collected.

Implementing the three-point averaging with nonblocking calls is at this point an excellent exercise.

Note that we have here motivated the nonblocking routines to solve a symmetric problem. Doing this should teach the students the essential point that each nonblocking call needs its own buffer and generates its own request. Viewing nonblocking routines as a performance alternative to blocking routines is likely to lead to students reusing buffers or failing to save the request objects. Doing so is a correctness bug that is very hard to find, and at large scale it induces a memory leak since many requests objects are lost.

60.4.11 Taking it from here

At this point various advanced topics can be discussed. For instance, Cartesian topologies can be introduced, extending the linear averaging operation to a higher dimensional one. Subcommunicators can be introduced to apply collectives to rows and columns of a matrix. The recursive matrix transposition algorithm is also an excellent application of subcommunicators.

However, didactically these topics do not require the careful attention that the introduction of the basic concepts needs, so we will not go into further detail here.

6. The MPI_Sendrecv call combines a send a receive operation, specifying for each process both a sending and receiving communication. The execution guarantees that no deadlock or serialization will occur.

60.5 ‘Parallel computer games’

Part of the problem in developing an accurate mental model of parallel computation is that there is no easy way to visualize the execution. While sequential execution can be imagined with the ‘big index finger’ model (see section 60.2.1), the possibly unsynchronized execution of an MPI program makes this a gross simplification. Running a program in a parallel graphical environment (such as the DDT debugger or the Eclipse PTP IDE) would solve this, but they introduce much learning overhead. Ironically, the low tech solution of

```
mpiexec -n 4 xterm -e gdb program
```

is fairly insightful, but having to learn gdb is again a big hurdle.

We have arrived at the somewhat unusual solution of having students act out the program in front of the class. With each student acting out the program, any interaction is clearly visible to an extent that is hard to achieve any other way.

60.5.1 Sequentialization

Our prime example is to illustrate the blocking behavior of `MPI_Send` and `MPI_Recv`⁷. Deadlock is easy enough to understand as a consequence of blocking – in the simplest case of deadlock two processes are both blocked expecting a receive from the other – but there are more subtle effects that will come as a surprise to students. (This was alluded to in section 60.4.7.)

Consider the following basic program:

- Pass a data item to the next higher numbered process.

Note that this is conceptually a fully parallel program, so it should execute in time $O(1)$ in terms of the number of processes.

In terms of send and receive calls, the program becomes

- Send data to the next higher process;
- Receive data from the next lower process.

The final detail concerns the boundary conditions: the first process has nothing to receive and the last one has nothing to send. This makes the final version of the program:

- If you are not the last process, send data to the next higher process; then
- If you are not the first process, receive data from the next lower process.

To have students act this out, we tell them to hold a pen in their right hand, and put the left hand in a pocket or behind their back. Thus, they have only one ‘communication channel’. The ‘send data’ instruction becomes ‘turn to your right and give your pen’, and ‘receive data’ becomes ‘turn to your left and receive a pen’.

Executing this program, the students first all turn to the right, and they see that giving data to a neighbor is not possible because no one is executing the receive instruction. The last process is not sending, so moves on to the receive instruction, after which the penultimate process can receive, et cetera.

This exercise makes the students see, better than any explanation or diagram, how a parallel program can compute the right result, but with unexpectedly low performance because of the interaction of the processes. (In fact, we have had explicit feedback that this game was the biggest lightbulb moment of the class.)

7. Blocking is defined as the process executing a send or receive call halting until the corresponding operation is executing.

60.5.2 Ping-pong

While in general we emphasize the symmetry of MPI processes, during the discussion of send and receive calls we act out the ping-pong operation (one process sending data to another, followed by the other sending data back), precisely to demonstrate how asymmetric actions are handled. For this, two students throw a pen back and forth between them, calling out ‘send’ and ‘receive’ when they do so.

The teacher then asks each student what program they executed, which is ‘send-receive’ for the one, and ‘receive-send’ for the other student. Incorporating this in the SPMD model then leads to a code with conditionals to determine the right action for the right process.

60.5.3 Collectives and other games

Other operations can be acted out by the class. For instance, the teacher can ask one student to add the grades of all students, as a proxy for a reduction operation. The class quickly sees that this will take a long time, and strategies such as taking by-row sums in the classroom quickly suggest themselves.

We have at one point tried to have a pair of student act out a ‘race condition’ in shared memory programming, but modeling this quickly became too complicated to be convincing.

60.5.4 Remaining questions

Even with our current approach, however, we still see students writing idioms that are contrary to the symmetric model. For instance, they will write

```
for (p=0; p<nprocs; p++)
    if (p==myrank)
        // do some function of p
```

This code computes the correct result, and with the correct performance behavior, but it still shows a conceptual misunderstanding. As one of the ‘parallel computer games’ (section 60.5) we have put a student stand in front of the class with a sign ‘I am process 5’, and go through the above loop out loud (‘Am I process zero? No. Am I process one? No.’) which quickly drives home the point about the futility of this construct.

60.6 Further course summary

We have taught MPI based on the above ideas in two ways. First, we teach an academic class, that covers MPI, OpenMP, and general theory of parallelism in one semester. The typical enrollment is around 30 students, who do lab exercises and a programming project of their own choosing. We also teach a two-day intensive workshop (attendance 10–40 students depending on circumstances) of 6–8 hours per day. Students of the academic class are typically graduate or upper level undergraduate students; the workshops get attendance from post-docs, academics, and industry too. The typical background is applied math, engineering, physical sciences.

We cover the following topics, with division over two days in the workshop format:

- Day 1: familiarity with SPMD, collectives, blocking and nonblocking two-sided communication.
- Day 2: exposure to: sub-communicators, derived datatypes. Two of the following: MPI-I/O, one-sided communication, process management, the profiling and tools interfaces, neighborhood collectives.

60.6.1 Exercises

On day 1 the students do approximately 10 programming exercises, mostly finishing a skeleton code given by the instructor. For the day 2 material students do two exercises per topic, again starting with a given skeleton. (Skeleton codes are available as part of the repository [8].)

The design of these skeleton codes is an interesting problem in view of our concern with mental models. The skeletons are intended to take the grunt work away from the students, to both indicate a basic code structure and relieve them from making elementary coding errors that have no bearing on learning MPI. On the other hand, the skeletons should leave enough unspecified that multiple solutions are possible, including wrong ones: we want students to be confronted with conceptual errors in their thinking, and a too-far-finished skeleton would prevent them from doing that.

Example: the prime finding exercise mentioned above (which teaches the notion of functional parallelism) has the following skeleton:

```
int myfactor;
// Specify the loop header:
// for ( ... myfactor ... )
for (
    **** your code here ****/
)
{
if (bignum%myfactor==0)
    printf("Process %d found factor %d\n",
           procno,myfactor);
}
```

This leaves open the possibility of both a blockwise and a cyclic distribution of the search space, as well as incorrect solutions where each process runs through the whole search space.

60.6.2 Projects

Students in our academic course do a programming project in place of a final exam. Students can choose between one of a set of standard projects, or doing a project of their own choosing. In the latter case, some students will do a project in context of their graduate research, which means that they have an existing codebase; others will write code from scratch. It is this last category, that will most clearly demonstrate their correct understanding of the mental model underlying SPMD programs. However, we note that this is only a fraction of the students in our course, a fraction made even smaller by the fact that we also give a choice of doing a project in OpenMP rather than MPI. Since OpenMP is, at least to the beginning programmer, simpler to use, there is an in fact a clear preference for it among the students who pick their own project.

60.7 Prospect for an online course

Currently the present author teaches MPI in the form of an academic course or short workshop, as outlined in section 60.6. In both cases, lecture time is far less than lab time, making the setup very intensive in teacher time. It also means that this setup is not scalable to a larger number of students. Indeed, while the workshops are usually webcast, we have not sufficiently solved the problem of supporting remote students. (The Pittsburgh Supercomputing Center offers courses that have remotely located teaching assistants, which seems a promising approach.) Such problems of support would be even more severe with an online course, where in-person support is completely absent.

One obvious solution to online teaching is automated grading: a student submits an exercise, which is then run through a checker program that tests the correct output. Especially if the programming assignment takes input, a checker script can uncover programming errors, notably in boundary cases.

However, the whole target of this paper is to uncover conceptual misunderstandings, for instance such as can lead to correct results with sub-optimal performance. In a classroom situation such misunderstandings are quickly caught and cleared up, but to achieve this in a context of automated grading we need to go further.

We have started experiments with actually parsing code submitted by the students. This effort started in a beginning programming class taught by the present author, but is now being extended to the MPI courses.

It is possible to uncover misconceptions in students' understanding by detecting the typical manifestations of such misconceptions. For instance, the code in section 60.5.4 can be uncovered by detecting a loop where the upper bound involves a variable that was set by `MPI_Comm_size`. Many MPI codes have no need for such a loop over all processes, so detecting one leads to an alert for the student.

Note that no tools exist for such automated evaluation. The source code analysis needed falls far short of full parsing. On the other hand, the sort of constructs it supposed to detect, are normally not of interest to the writers of compilers and source translators. This means that by writing fairly modest parsers (say, less than 200 lines of python) we can perform a sophisticated analysis of the students' codes. We hope to report on this in more detail in a follow-up paper.

60.8 Evaluation and discussion

At the moment, no rigorous evaluation of the efficacy of the above ideas has been done. We intend to perform a comparison between outcomes of the proposed way of teaching and the traditional way by comparing courses at two (or more) different institutions and from different syllabi. The evaluation will then be based on evaluating the independent programming project.

However, anecdotal evidence suggests that students are less likely to develop 'centralized' solutions as described in section 60.2.2. This was especially the case in our semester-long course, where the students have to design and implement a parallel programming project of their own choosing. After teaching the 'symmetric' approach, no students wrote code based on a manager-worker model, or using centralized storage. In earlier semesters, we had seen students do this, even though this model was never taught as such.

60.9 Summary

In this paper we have introduced a nonstandard sequence for presenting the basic mechanisms in MPI. Rather than starting with sends and receives and building up from there, we start with mechanisms that emphasize the inherent symmetry between processes in the SPMD programming model. This symmetry requires a substantial shift in mindset of the programmer, and therefore we target it explicitly.

In general, it is the opinion of this author that it pays off to teach from the basis of instilling a mental model, rather than of presenting topics in some order of (perceived) complexity or sophistication.

Comparing our presentation as outlined above to the standard presentation, we recognize the downplaying of the blocking send and receive calls. While students learn these, and in fact learn them before other send and receive mechanisms, they will recognize the dangers and difficulties in using them, and will have the combined `sendrecv` call as well as nonblocking routines as standard tools in their arsenal.

60.10 Sources used in this chapter

60.10.1 Listing of code header

PART IX

BIBLIOGRAPHY, INDEX, AND LIST OF ACRONYMS

Chapter 61

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Chapter 62

List of acronyms

API Application Programmer Interface
AMG Algebraic MultiGrid
AVX Advanced Vector Extensions
BLAS Basic Linear Algebra Subprograms
BSP Bulk Synchronous Parallel
CAF Co-array Fortran
CPP C PreProcessor
CRS Compressed Row Storage
CSP Communicating Sequential Processes
CG Conjugate Gradients
CUDA Compute-Unified Device Architecture
DAG Directed Acyclic Graph
DFS Depth First Search
DPCPP Data Parallel C++
DSP Digital Signal Processing
FEM Finite Element Method
FIFO First-In / First-Out
FPU Floating Point Unit
FFT Fast Fourier Transform
FSA Finite State Automaton
GPU Graphics Processing Unit
HPC High-Performance Computing
HPF High Performance Fortran
HPL High Performance Linpack
ICV Internal Control Variable
LAPACK Linear Algebra Package
MG Multi-Grid
MIC Many Integrated Cores
MIMD Multiple Instruction Multiple Data
MPI Message Passing Interface
MPL Message Passing Layer
MPMD Multiple Program Multiple Data

MTA Multi-Threaded Architecture
NIC Network Interface Card
NUMA Non-Uniform Memory Access
OO Object-Oriented
OOP Object-Oriented Programming
OS Operating System
PGAS Partitioned Global Address Space
PDE Partial Differential Equation
PRAM Parallel Random Access Machine
RDMA Remote Direct Memory Access
RMA Remote Memory Access
SAN Storage Area Network
SaaS Software as-a Service
SFC Space-Filling Curve
SIMD Single Instruction Multiple Data
SIMT Single Instruction Multiple Thread
SLURM Simple Linux Utility for Resource Management
SM Streaming Multiprocessor
SMP Symmetric Multi Processing
SOR Successive Over-Relaxation
SP Streaming Processor
SPMD Single Program Multiple Data
SPD symmetric positive definite
SSE SIMD Streaming Extensions
STL Standard Template Library
TACC Texas Advanced Computing Center
TLB Translation Look-aside Buffer
UMA Uniform Memory Access
UPC Unified Parallel C
URI Uniform Resource Identifier
WAN Wide Area Network

Chapter 63

General Index

Index

-malloc_debug, 661
-malloc_test, 661
.petscrc, 667

accelerator, 447

active target synchronization, 317, 322

adaptive integration, *see* quadrature, adaptive address

- physical, 397, 535
- virtual, 397, 535

adjacency

- graph, 614

affinity, 717, 721

- process and thread, 717–718
- thread
 - on multi-socket nodes, 532

alignment, 232

all-to-all, 44

allocate

- and private/shared data, 500

allreduce, 44

AMD

- Milan, 477

argc, 29, 32

argv, 29, 32

array

- static, 125

asynchronous, 426

atomic operation, 507, 541

- file, 372
- MPI, 331–337
- OpenMP, 509–510

backfill, 754

bandwidth, 90

- bisection, 95

barrier

- for timing, 429
- implicit, 541

nonblocking, 87

Basic Linear Algebra Subprograms (BLAS), 590

batch

- job, 18, 750
- scheduler, 18
- script, 750
- system, 749

Beowulf cluster, 17

block row, 602

Boolean satisfiability, 38

boost, 20

breakpoint, 736

broadcast, 42

btl_openib_eager_limit, 131

btl_openib_rndv_eager_limit, 131

bucket brigade, 68, 94, 133, 741

buffer

- MPI, in C, 48
- MPI, in Fortran, 49
- MPI, in MPL, 50
- MPI, in Python, 49
- receive, 126

butterfly exchange, 741

C

- C99, 202
- MPI bindings, *see* MPI, C bindings

C++

- bindings, *see* MPI, C++ bindings
- first-touch, *see* first-touch, in C++
 - standard library, 223
 - vector, 223

C++ iterators

- in OMP reduction, 488

c_sizeof, 208

cacheline, 484

callback, 648

cast, 49

-
- CC, 739
 channel, 710
 Charmpp, 18
 chunk, 473
 chunk, 473
 Clang, 544
 clang, 19
 client, 299
 CLINKER, 582
 cluster, 749
 cmake, 754
 Codimension, 676
 coherent memory, *see* memory, coherence
 collective
 split, 368
 collectives, 42
 neighborhood, 382, 431
 nonblocking, 84
 canceling, 436
 column-major storage, 216
 combiner, 240
 communication
 asynchronous, 194
 blocking, 128–133
 vs nonblocking, 430
 buffered, 195, 195, 431
 local, 194–195
 nonblocking, 139–153
 nonlocal, 194–195
 one-sided, 317–346
 one-sided, implementation of, 345–346
 partitioned, *see* partitioned, communication
 persistent, 431
 synchronous, 194
 two-sided, 165
 communicator, 33, 277–287
 info object, 417
 inter, 283, 284, 284, 295
 from socket, 302
 intra, 284, 286
 object, 34
 peer, 284
 variable, 33
 compare-and-swap, 136
 compiler, 227
 optimization level, 731
 completion, 339
 local, 339
 remote, 340
 compute
 node, 749
 condition number, 647
 configure.log, 585
 construct, 452
 contention, 95
 contiguous
 data type, 209
 control variable
 access, 410
 handle, 409
 core, 26, 448
 core dump, 732
 cosubscript, 677
 cpp, 450
 cpuidinfo, 714
 Cray
 MPI, 19
 T3E, 436
 critical section, 483, 508, 553
 flush at, 542
 curly braces, 451
 Dalcin
 Lisandro, 21, 582
 data dependency, 522
 Data Parallel C++ (DPCPP), 688
 data race, *see* race condition, *see* race condition
 datatype, 201–242
 big, 228–231
 derived, 201, 209–364
 different on sender and receiver, 213
 elementary, 201–209
 in C, 202
 in Fortran, 202
 in Python, 205
 signature, 224
 date, 752
 ddd, 731
 DDT, 731, 737
 deadlock, 87, 125, 129, 139, 430, 432, 737
 debug flag, 732
 debug_mt, 427
 debugger, 731
 debugging, 731–737
 parallel, 737
 Dekker’s algorithm, 541
 dense linear algebra, 279
 Depth First Search (DFS), 573

destructor, 276
directive
 end-of, 451
directives, 450, 450–451
 cpp, 458
displacement unit, 342
distributed array, 38
distributed shared memory, 317
doubling
 recursive, *see* recursive doubling
dynamic mode, 449

eager limit, 129–131, 430
eager send
 and non-blocking, 131
Eclipse, 737
 PTP, 737
edge
 cuts, 614
 weight, 614
ensemble, 753
envelope, *see* message, envelope
environment
 of batch job, 752
environment variables, 405
epoch, 322
 access, 323, 324, 337
 communication, 322
 completion, 341
 exposure, 323, 324
 passive target, 337
error return, 20
ethernet, 20
execution space, 683

false sharing, 468, 484
Fast Fourier Transform (FFT), 61, 612
fat-tree, 717
fence, 322
fftw, 586, 612
Fibonacci sequence, 513–515
file
 pointer
 advance by write, 370
 individual, 369
 system
 shared, 754
file system
 shared, 364
first-touch, 535, 717

 in C++, 536
five-point stencil, 87
FLINKER, 582
fork/join model, 448, 454, 522
Fortran
 1-based indexing, 145
 2008, 33
 array syntax, 495
 assumed-shape arrays in MPI, 426
 fixed-form source, 451
 forall loops, 495
 Fortran2003, 157, 486
 Fortran2008, 210, 215, 327
 MPI bindings, *see* MPI, Fortran2008 bindings
 Fortran2018, 426
 Fortran77, 80, 451
 PETSc interface, 581
 Fortran90, 23, 29, 157, 204, 215
 bindings, 21
 Fortran9090
 PETSc interface, 581
 line length, 659
 MPI bindings, *see* MPI, Fortran bindings
 MPI equivalences of scalar types, 204
 MPI issues, 425–426

gather, 42
Gauss-Jordan algorithm, 57
Gaussian elimination, 640
GCC, 544
gcc
 thread affinity, 538
gdb, 731–737
gemv, 608
getrusage, 667
ghost region, 773
GNU, 731
 gdb, *see* gdb
GPUDirect, 656
Gram-Schmidt, 48
graph
 partitioning
 packages, 614
 topology, 382, 431, 717
 unweighted, 384
grid
 Cartesian, 376, 623
 periodic, 376
 processor, 717

group, 324
group of
processors, 325

halo, 773
 update, 329

halo region, 612, 626

handshake, 432

HDF5, 758

hdf5, 364, 724, 757

heap, 453

heat equation, 533

Hessian, 652

hipsycl, 694

histogram, 510

hostname, 420

hwloc, 714, 717

hybrid
 computing, 753

hydra, 301

hyperthread, 469

hyperthreading, 717

Hypre, 586, 645, 647
 pilut, 646

I/O
 in OpenMP, 494

I_MPI_ASYNC_PROGRESS, 427

I_MPI_ASYNC_PROGRESS_THREADS, 427

I_MPI_EAGER_THRESHOLD, 131

I_MPI_SHM_EAGER_THRESHOLD, 131

IBM
 Power9, 478

ibrun, 18, 298, 583, 740

ICC, 544

idle, 754

image, 676

image_index, 677

immediate operation, 139

incomplete operation, *see* operation, incomplete indexed
 data type, 209

inner product, 48

input redirection
 shell, 433

instrumentation, 739

Intel, 431
 Cascade Lake, 468, 477, 536, 570
 compiler
 optimization report, 468

 thread affinity, 538
 compiler suite, 714
 Haswell, 718
 Knight's Landing, 545
 thread placement, 534
 Knights Landing, 469, 477, 721
 Knightslanding, 749
 MPI, 19, 96, 131, 298, 426, 433, 721
 Paragon, 426
 Sandybridge, 448, 718
 Skylake, 477, 749

interconnect, 747

Internal Control Variable (ICV), 552–553

Java, 17

job, 749
 array, 753
 cancel, 752

job script, 750

jumpshot, 740

KIND, 207

KMP_AFFINITY, 538

Kokkos
 and OpenMP, 684–685

Laplace equation, 605

latency, 90, 441
 hiding, 150, 430, 597, 599, 606

launcher, 753

lcobound, 677

league(OpenMP), 550

lexical scope, 497

Linear Algebra Package (LAPACK), 590

linked list, 519

linker
 weak symbol, 429

listing, 762

listings, 761

little-endian, 758

load
 balancing, 470
 imbalance, 471

local
 operation, 195, 195

local operation, 151

local refinement, 88

lock, 510, 510–513
 flush at, 542
 nested, 512

login
 node, 749
Lonestar5, 718
LU factorization, 472, 640
Lustre, 724, 757

macports, 421
`make.log`, 585
malloc
 and private/shared data, 500
`malloc`, 453, 535
manager-worker, 151, 156, 161, 768
Mandelbrot set, 38, 94, 503, 767
matching, 432
matching queue, 154
Matlab
 parallel computing toolbox, 753
matrix
 sparse, 84, 607
 transposition, 281
matrix-vector product, 640
 dense, 68
 sparse, 70
Mellanox, 431
memory
 coherent, 341
 high-bandwidth, 503
 model, *see* window, memory, model
 non-volatile, 503
 page, 535
 shared, MPI, 320
memory leak, 152
memory space, 684
message
 collision, 431
 count, 158
 envelope, 129, 161
 source, 126
 status, 127, 155–161
 error, 158
 source, 156
 tag, 157
 synchronous, 129
 tag, 125, 406
Message Passing Layer (MPL), 20, 36
messsgage
 target, 125
MKL, 590
mkl, 586

ML, 647
Monte Carlo codes, 37
motherboard, 447
`move_pages`, 537
MPI
 C bindings, 20
 C++ bindings, 20
 constants, 434–435
 compile-time, 434
 link-time, 434
 datatype
 extent, 231
 size, 208
 subarray, 233
 vector, 208
 Fortran bindings, 20–21
 Fortran issues, *see* Fortran, MPI issues
 Fortran2008 bindings, 20–21
I/O, 424, 724, 757
initialization, 29
MPI-1, 376, 388
MPI-2, 295, 418, 423
MPI-3, 46, 84, 220, 223, 230, 332, 393, 426
 C++ bindings removed, 20
 Fortran2008 interface, 21
MPI-3.1, 435
MPI-3.2, 436
MPI-4, 20, 46, 208, 228, 393, 423
MPI-4.1, 203
Python bindings, 21
semantics, 432
tools interface, 408–413, 429
version, 421
`mpi.h`, 21, 29
MPI/O, 364–373
`mpi4py`, 21, 36, 586, 753
`mpi_f08`, 21, 29, 155, 229, 327
`mpicc`, 19
`mpich`, 19
`mpich`, 433
`mpicxx`, 19
`mpiexec`
 and environment variables, 405
 options, 19
 stdout/err of, 433
`mpiexec`, 18–20, 24, 28, 32, 272, 295, 298, 405, 433,
 434, 785
`mpif.h`, 29
`mpif90`, 19

MPIR, 432
mpirun, 18, 32
mpirun, 434
MPL, 20
 compiling and linking, 20
mulpd, 545
mulsd, 545
multicore, 449
Multiple Program Multiple Data (MPMD), 28, 434
multiprocessing, 708
Mumps, 586
mumps, 586
MV2_IBA_EAGER_THRESHOLD, 131
mvapich, 405
mvapich2, 131, 722
N-body problem, 569
name server, 301
nested parallelism, 459–461
NetCDF, 758
netcdf, 364
network
 card, 431
 contention, 431
 port
 oversubscription, 431
new, 453
Newton’s method, 652
node, 26, 749
 cluster, 447
non-blocking communication, 137
Non-Uniform Memory Access (NUMA), 716
norm
 one, 83
np.frombuffer, 82
NULL, 408
null terminator, 415
num_images, 677
numactl, 537, 717
numerical integration, 467
Numpy, 205
 1.20, 205
numpy, 21, 49, 207, 320

od, 364
offloading
 vs onloading, 431
omp
 reduction, 482–490
 user-defined, 486–489

OMP_NUM_THREADS, 405, 753
OneAPI, 688
onloading, *see* offloading, vs onloading
opaque handle, 33, 48
OpenMP, 393
 accelerator support in, 555
 co-processor support in, 555
 compiling, 449–450
 environment variables, 450, 454, 552–553
 library routines, 454
 library routines, 552–553
 macro, 450
 OpenMP-3, 467
 OpenMP-3.1, 485
 OpenMP-4, 576
 OpenMP-4.0, 525, 555
 OpenMP-4.5, 485, 556
 OpenMP-5, 503
 OpenMP-5.0, 448, 469, 490, 523, 555, 556
 OpenMP-5.1, 556
 OpenMP-5.2, 556
 places, 532
 running, 450
 tasks, 518–526
 data, 520–521
 dependencies, 522–523
 synchronization, 521–522
OpenMPI, 19, 131, 394
operating system, 555
operation
 non-local, 128
operator, 79–84
 predefined, 79
 user-defined, 81
option
 prefix, 666
origin, 317, 324
overlapping computation and communication, *see*
 latency, hiding
owner computes, 122

package, 714
packing, 240
page
 small, 397
 table, 397, 535
page, memory, *see* memory, page
parallel
 data, 537

- embarrassingly, 537
 - parallel region, 448, 457–461, 493
 - dynamic scope, 460, 499
 - flush at, 542
 - parallel regions
 - nested, 553
 - parameter sweep, 709, 753
 - paraprof, 740
 - parasails, 646
 - ParMetis, 431, 614
 - partition, 752
 - partitioned communication, 191–193
 - passive target synchronization, 318, 334, 337
 - pbing, 538
 - persistent
 - collectives, 190–191
 - communication, 191
 - point-to-point, 188–189
 - persistent communication, 137, *see* communication, persistent
 - PETSc, 431
 - interoperability with BLAS, 590
 - interoperability with MPI, 590
 - log files, 585
 - PETSC_OPTIONS, 667
 - pin a thread, 717
 - ping-pong, 123, 429, 678, 738
 - pipe, 710
 - PMI_RANK, 433
 - PMI_SIZE, 433
 - point-to-point, 122
 - pointer
 - null, 65
 - polling, 147, 427
 - posting
 - of send/receive, 140
 - pragma, 450
 - preconditioner, 641, 644
 - block jacobi, 666
 - field-split, 611
 - prefix
 - operation, 490
 - prefix operation, 59
 - private variables, 454
 - proc_bind, 458
 - process, 26
 - set, 304
 - processes status of, 433
 - producer-consumer, 540
- PROFILEDIR, 740
 - progress
 - asynchronous, 150, 426
 - protocol, 129
 - rendezvous, 129
 - pthreads, 427
 - purify, 734
 - PVM, 18, 295
 - pylauncher, 753
 - Python
 - MPI bindigs, *see* MPI, Python bindings
 - multiprocessing, 753
 - PETSc interface, 582
 - quadrature
 - adaptive, 472
 - queue, 750
 - in-order, 690
 - SYCL, 689
 - race condition, 332, 404, 452, 467, 482, 508, 508, 541, 554
 - in co-array Fortran, 677
 - in MPI/OpenMP, 404
 - in OpenMP, 541–542
 - in SYCL, 694
 - radix sort, 70
 - RAID
 - array, 754
 - RAM
 - disc, 754
 - random number generator, 503, 554
 - Ranger, 717
 - rar, 343
 - raw, 343
 - ray tracing, 398
 - recursive doubling, 95
 - redirection, *see* shell, input redirection
 - reduction, 42
 - region of code, 452
 - register
 - SSE2, 545
 - release_mt, 427
 - residual, 640
 - Riemann
 - sum, 482
 - Riemann sums, 467
 - RMA
 - active, 317
 - passive, 318

root, 51
root process, 42
row-major, 479

sbatch, 750
scalable
 in space, 94
 in time, 94
scalapack, 649
scan, 44
 exclusive, 60
 inclusive, 59
scancel, 751
scanf, 663
scatter, 42
sched_setaffinity, 538
scope
 lexical, 452
 of variables, 452
SEEK_SET, 372
segfault, 661
segmentation fault, 733
segmented scan, 63
send
 buffer, 125
 ready mode, 195
 synchronous, 195
sentinel, 451, 458
sequential
 semantics, 581
sequential consistency, 542
serialization, 132
server, 299
session, 303
 performance experiment, 411
session model, 303, 303
sessions model, 30
SetThreadAffinityMask, 538
shared data, 449
shared memory, *see* memory, shared
shared variables, 454
shell
 matrix, 648
shmem, 436
silo, 364
SimGrid, 94, 747–748
 compiler, 747
sinfo, 750
Single Program Multiple Data (SPMD), 451, 457

sizeof, 320, 426
sleep, 752
Slepc, 586
SLURM, 374
smpicc, 747
smpirun, 747
socket, 26, 302, 395, 447, 716, 722
 dual, 535
sort
 odd-even transposition, 136
 radix, 70
 swap, 136
sparse approximate inverse, 644, 645
sparse matrix vector product, 63
spin loop, 427
spin-lock, 553
squeue, 751, 754
srun, 433, 750
ssh, 18
 connection, 749
ssh, 754
stack, 453, 553
 overflow, 498
 per thread, 498
Stampede, 749
 compute node, 718
 largemem node, 718
 node, 447
Stampede2, 749
standard deviation, 44
start/affinity, 537
status
 of received message, 155
stderr, 433
stdout, 433
stencil, 623
storage association, 498, 501
storage_size, 208
stride, 216
stringstream, 458
struct
 data type, 209
structured block, 452
Sun
 compiler, 538
SUNW_MP_PROCBIND, 538
superstep, 318
SYCL, 688
symbol table, 731, 732

sync, 677
synchronization
 in OpenMP, 507–515

T3PIO, 370
TACC, 749
 Frontera, 468, 536, 570
 portal, 582
 Stampede2, 469

tacc_affinity, 537, 717, 722

TACC_TAU_DIR, 739

tag, *see* message, tag
 bound on value, 419

target, 317, 324
 active synchronization, *see* active target
 synchronization
 passive synchronization, *see* passive target
 synchronization

task
 generating, 549
 initial, 549
 scheduler, 519
 scheduling point, 524
 target, 549

taskset, 537

TAU, 739–742
 on TACC resources, 739

TAU_PROFILE, 740

tau_timecorrect, 740

TAU_TRACE, 740

team(OpenMP), 550

this_image, 677

thread
 affinity, 532–535
 initial, 458
 master, 458
 migrating a, 534
 primary, 458
 private data, 501

thread-safe, 554

threads, 448
 hardware, 449, 717
 master, 449
 team of, 448, 458

tikz, 761

time slicing, 26, 449

time-slicing, 295

timing
 MPI, 428–429

top, 752, 754
topology
 virtual, 376

TotalView, 731, 737

TRACEDIR, 740

transpose, 87
 and all-to-all, 69–70
 data, 612
 recursive, 281
 through derived types, 239

tree
 traversal
 post-order, 573

tunnel
 ssh, 433

ucobound, 677

ulimit, 498

Unix
 process, 498

valgrind, 734–735

vector
 data type, 209
 instructions, 544

verbatim, 762

virtual shared memory, 317

VTune, 739

wall clock, 428

war, 343

waw, 343

weak symbol, *see* linker, weak symbol

while loop, 519

while loops, 476

window, 317–322
 consistency, 339, 340
 displacement, 326
 displacement unit, 343
 info object, 417
 memory, *see also* memory model
 model, 341
 separate, 341
 memory allocation, 319–322
 private, 341
 public, 341

work sharing, 449

work sharing construct, 454, 493

workshare
 flush after, 542

- world model, 302, 303
wormhole routing, 95
wraparound connections, 376
X11, 608, 664
- XSEDE
portal, 582
Zoltan, 431, 614

Chapter 64

Lists of notes

64.1 MPI-4 notes

List of MPI-4 notes

1	Non-blocking/persistent sendrecv	137
2	Persistent collectives	190
3	Neighborhood collectives, init	191
4	Partitioned communication	191
5	Count type	203
6	MPI Count type	228
7	Extent result as count	234
8	Session model	303
9	Info key for alignment	321
10	Split by guided types	393
11	Window memory alignment	396
12	Info with null terminator	415
13	Memory alignment	418
14	Error code for aborted process	422
15	Error handler for session	423
16	Abort on communicator	423

64.2 Fortran notes

List of Fortran notes

MPI	16
1 Formatting of Fortran notes	20
2 New developments only in f08 module	29
3 Processor name	33
4 Communicator type	33
5 MPI send/recv buffers	49
6 Min/maxloc types	80
7 Index of requests	145
8 Status object in f08	155
9 Derived types for handles	201
10 Subarrays	218
11 Displacement unit	327
12 Offset literals	371
13 Attribute querying	420
14 Fortran-only compile-time constants	435
OpenMP	446
15 OpenMP version	450
16 OpenMP sentinel	451
17 OMP do pragma	464
18 Reductions on derived types	489
19 Private variables in parallel region	498
20 Saved variables	499
21 Private common blocks	502
22 Array sizes in map clause	550
PETSc	580
23 Petsc Initialization	584
24 Setting values	598
25 F90 array access through pointer	601
26 Error code handling	659
27 Backtrace on error	660
28 Print string construction	661
29 Printing and newlines	663
Other	676
Tutorials	730
30 Cpp includes	739

64.3 C++ notes

List of C++ notes

MPI	16
1 Buffer treatment	49
OpenMP	446
2 Range syntax	469
3 Reduction over iterators	488
4 Templatized reductions	488
5 Example: reduction over a map	488
6 Reduction on class objects	489
7 Threadprivate random number generators	503
8 Lock inside overloaded operator	512
9 Uninitialized containers	536
PETSc	580

64.4 The MPL C++ interface

List of Mpl notes

1 Notes format	20
2 Header file	29
3 Init, finalize	30
4 Processor name	33
5 World communicator	34
6 Communicator copying	34
7 Communicator passing	34
8 Rank and size	37
9 Reduction operator	47
10 Scalar buffers	50
11 Vector buffers	50
12 Iterator buffers	50
13 Reduce in place	54
14 Reduce on non-root	55
15 Broadcast	57

16	Scan operations	60
17	Gather/scatter	65
18	Gather on nonroot	66
19	Operators	80
20	User-defined operators	82
21	Lambda operator	83
22	Nonblocking collectives	85
23	Blocking send and receive	125
24	Sending arrays	125
25	Iterator buffers	126
26	Iterator layout	126
27	Any source	126
28	Send-recv call	135
29	Requests from nonblocking calls	142
30	Request pools	146
31	Wait any	147
32	Request handling	147
33	Status object	156
34	Status source querying	157
35	Message tag	158
36	Receive count	159
37	Persistent requests	187
38	Buffered send	197
39	Buffer attach and detach	197
40	Other types	202
41	Data types	202
42	Derived type handling	210
43	Contiguous type	213
44	Contiguous composing	213
45	Vector type	216
46	Subarray layout	218
47	Indexed type	222
48	Layouts for gatherv	223
49	Indexed block type	223
50	Struct type scalar	227
51	Struct type general	227
52	Extent resizing	238
53	Predefined communicators	273
54	Raw communicators	273
55	Communicator duplication	274
56	Communicator splitting	280
57	Distributed graph creation	383
58	Graph communicators	385
59	Graph communicator querying	385
60	Split by shared memory	395
61	Threading support	405
62	Communicator errhandler	424
63	Timing	428

64.5 Python notes*List of Python notes*

MPI	16
1 Running mpi4py programs	20
2 Python notes	21
3 Import mpi module	29
4 Initialize/finalize	30
5 Communicator objects	34
6 Communicator rank and size	36
7 Buffers from numpy	49
8 Buffers from subarrays	50
9 In-place collectives	54
10 Sending objects	56
11 Define reduction operator	81
12 Reduction function	82
13 Handling a single request	144
14 Request arrays	145
15 Status object	156
16 Data types	202
17 Derived type handling	210
18 Vector type	215
19 Sending from the middle of a matrix	217
20 Big data	231
21 Communicator types	273
22 Communicator duplication	273
23 Comm split key is optional	280
24 Displacement byte computations	320
25 Window buffers	322
26 MPI one-sided transfer routines	327
27 File open is class method	365
28 Graph communicators	385
29 Thread level	404
30 Universe size	420
31 MPI Version	421
32 Utility functions	421
33 Error policy	423
OpenMP	446
PETSc	580
34 Init, and with commandline options	584
35 Communicator object	585
36 petsc4py interface	586

37	Vector creation	591
38	Vector size	593
39	Vector operations	595
40	Setting vector values	598
41	Vector access	601
42	Petsc print and python print	663
43	HDF5 file generation	664
44	Petsc options	666
Other		676
Tutorials		730
45	Python MPI programs	753

Chapter 65

Index of MPI commands and keywords

MPI_2REAL, **80**
MPI_Abort, **30**, **83**, **424**, **433**
MPI_Accumulate, **323**, **330**, **336**, **343**
MPI_Add_error_class, **425**
MPI_Add_error_code, **425**
MPI_Add_error_string, **425**
MPI_Address (deprecated), **223**
MPI_ADDRESS_KIND, **203**, **207**, **327**, **420**, **435**
MPI_AINT, **206**
MPI_Aint, **202**, **203**, **206**, **206**, **229**, **322**, **326**
 in Fortran, **207**
MPI_Aint_add, **206**, **322**
MPI_Aint_diff, **206**, **322**
MPI_Allgather, **67**, **98**
MPI_Allgather_init, **191**
MPI_Allgatherv, **75**
MPI_Allgatherv_init, **191**
MPI_Alloc_mem, **319**, **321**, **337**, **422**
MPI_Allreduce, **45**, **46**, **53**, **70**, **98**
MPI_Allreduce_init, **190**, **191**
MPI_Alltoall, **68**, **70**, **613**
MPI_Alltoall_init, **191**
MPI_Alltoallv, **70**, **70**, **75**, **79**, **223**
MPI_Alltoallv_init, **191**
MPI_Alltoallw_init, **191**
MPI_ANY_SOURCE, **74**, **92**, **126**, **126**, **151**, **155**, **156**, **160**,
 317, **419**, **422**, **432**, **435**, **436**
MPI_ANY_TAG, **127**, **135**, **155**, **157**, **158**, **435**
MPI_APPNUM, **298**, **420**, **434**
MPI_ARGV_NULL, **435**
MPI_ARGVS_NULL, **435**
MPI_ASYNC_PROTECTS_NONBLOCKING, **426**, **435**
MPI_Attr_get, **418**
MPI_BAND, **80**
MPI_Barrier, **74**, **372**, **429**
MPI_Barrier_init, **191**

MPI_Bcast, 55, 98
MPI_Bcast_init, 191
MPI_BOR, 80
MPI_BOTTOM, 206, 344, 434, 435
MPI_Bsend, 195, 195, 196
MPI_Bsend_init, 189, 195, 197, 198
MPI_BSEND_OVERHEAD, 196, 197, 435
MPI_Buffer_attach, 196, 197
MPI_Buffer_detach, 196, 197
MPI_BXOR, 80
MPI_BYTE, 203, 204, 209, 231
MPI_C_BOOL, 203
MPI_C_COMPLEX, 203
MPI_C_DOUBLE_COMPLEX, 203
MPI_C_FLOAT_COMPLEX, 203
MPI_C_LONG_DOUBLE_COMPLEX, 203
MPI_Cancel, 436, 436
MPI_CART, 376
MPI_Cart_coords, 378
MPI_Cart_create, 377, 379
MPI_Cart_get, 378
MPI_Cart_map, 381
MPI_Cart_rank, 378
MPI_Cart_sub, 380
MPI_Cartdim_get, 378
MPI_CHAR, 203
MPI_CHARACTER, 204
MPI_Close_port, 300
MPI_COMBINER_VECTOR, 240
MPI_Comm, 21–23, 33, 272, 273, 435
MPI_Comm_accept, 299, 299
MPI_Comm_attr_function, 420
MPI_Comm_compare, 274, 286, 305
MPI_Comm_connect, 299, 300, 300, 422
MPI_Comm_create, 277, 281
MPI_Comm_create_errhandler, 424, 425
MPI_Comm_create_group, 281
MPI_Comm_create_keyval, 420
MPI_Comm_delete_attr, 420
MPI_Comm_disconnect, 278, 300
MPI_Comm_dup, 34, 273, 274, 276, 277, 287, 417, 585
MPI_Comm_dup_with_info, 273, 417
MPI_Comm_free, 276, 278
MPI_Comm_free_keyval, 420
MPI_Comm_get_attr, 295, 418
MPI_Comm_get_errhandler, 423, 424
MPI_Comm_get_info, 417
MPI_Comm_get_parent, 286, 297, 298, 303
MPI_Comm_group, 281, 286
MPI_Comm_idup, 273
MPI_Comm_idup_with_info, 273
MPI_Comm_join, 302, 303
MPI_COMM_NULL, 272, 273, 275, 278, 286, 297, 378, 393
MPI_Comm_rank, 35, 35, 36, 279, 286, 384, 757
MPI_Comm_remote_group, 286
MPI_Comm_remote_size, 286, 298
MPI_COMM_SELF, 272, 273, 591
MPI_Comm_set_attr, 418, 420
MPI_Comm_set_errhandler, 423, 423, 424
MPI_Comm_set_info, 417
MPI_Comm_set_name, 273
MPI_Comm_size, 35, 35, 36, 125, 286, 384
MPI_Comm_spawn, 277, 295, 427
MPI_Comm_spawn_multiple, 298, 420
MPI_Comm_split, 74, 277, 278, 287, 380
MPI_Comm_split_type, 280, 393, 394, 398
MPI_Comm_test_inter, 286
MPI_COMM_TYPE_HW_GUIDED, 393
MPI_COMM_TYPE_HW_UNGUIDED, 393
MPI_COMM_TYPE_SHARED, 393
MPI_COMM_WORLD, 33, 272, 273, 277, 278, 283, 284, 287,
295, 298, 303, 304, 398, 420, 424, 427, 434, 435,
580, 585, 591
MPI_Compare_and_swap, 334
MPI_COMPLEX, 204
MPI_CONGRUENT, 275
MPI_Count, 46, 203, 228, 229, 230, 234
MPI_COUNT_KIND, 203, 435
MPI_Datatype, 65, 201, 210
MPI_DATATYPE_NULL, 202, 211
MPI_Dims_create, 376
MPI_DISPLACEMENT_CURRENT, 370
MPI_DIST_GRAPH, 376, 376
MPI_Dist_graph_create, 382, 382, 383, 385, 387
MPI_Dist_graph_create_adjacent, 382, 385
MPI_Dist_graph_neighbors, 384–386, 387
MPI_Dist_graph_neighbors_count, 384, 385, 387
MPI_DOUBLE, 202, 203
MPI_DOUBLE_COMPLEX, 204
MPI_DOUBLE_INT, 80, 80
MPI_DOUBLE_PRECISION, 202, 204
MPI_ERR_ARG, 422
MPI_ERR_BUFFER, 197, 422
MPI_ERR_COMM, 161, 422, 427
MPI_ERR_COUNT, 161, 422
MPI_ERR_IN_STATUS, 148, 158, 422
MPI_ERR_INFO, 422
MPI_ERR_INTERN, 197, 422

MPI_ERR_LASTCODE, 422, 425
MPI_ERR_NO_MEM, 321, 422
MPI_ERR_OTHER, 422
MPI_ERR_PORT, 300, 422
MPI_ERR_PROC_ABORTED, 422
MPI_ERR_RANK, 161, 422
MPI_ERR_SERVICE, 302, 422
MPI_ERR_TAG, 161
MPI_ERR_TYPE, 161
MPI_ERRCODES_IGNORE, 295, 435
MPI_Errhandler, 423, 423
MPI_Errhandler_c2f, 306
MPI_Errhandler_create, 423
MPI_Errhandler_f2c, 306
MPI_Errhandler_free, 306, 423
MPI_ERROR, 155, 158, 422, 424
MPI_Error_class, 306
MPI_Error_string, 306, 422, 424
MPI_ERRORS_ABORT, 423, 423
MPI_ERRORS_ARE_FATAL, 372, 423, 423
MPI_ERRORS_RETURN, 372, 423, 423, 424
MPI_Exscan, 59, 60, 63
MPI_Exscan_init, 191
MPI_F08_status, 156
MPI_F_sync_reg, 426
MPI_Fetch_and_op, 332, 332, 336, 340, 341
MPI_File, 283, 365
MPI_File_call_errhandler, 423
MPI_File_close, 365
MPI_File_delete, 366
MPI_File_get_errhandler, 373
MPI_File_get_group, 283
MPI_File_get_info, 417
MPI_File_get_size, 371
MPI_File_get_view, 371
MPI_File_iread, 368
MPI_File_iread_all, 368
MPI_File_iread_at, 368
MPI_File_iread_at_all, 368
MPI_File_iread_shared, 368, 371
MPI_File_iwrite, 368
MPI_File_iwrite_all, 368
MPI_File_iwrite_at, 368
MPI_File_iwrite_at_all, 368
MPI_File_iwrite_shared, 368, 371
MPI_FILE_NULL, 373
MPI_File_open, 44, 365, 417
MPI_File_preallocate, 371
MPI_File_read, 367, 374
MPI_File_read_all, 367
MPI_File_read_all_begin, 368
MPI_File_read_all_end, 368
MPI_File_read_at, 368
MPI_File_read_at_all, 368
MPI_File_read_ordered, 371
MPI_File_read_shared, 371, 374
MPI_File_seek, 366, 370, 374
MPI_File_seek_shared, 371, 374
MPI_File_set_atomicity, 372
MPI_File_set_errhandler, 373, 423
MPI_File_set_info, 417
MPI_File_set_size, 371
MPI_File_set_view, 370, 371, 374, 417
MPI_File_sync, 366
MPI_File_write, 367, 370, 371
MPI_File_write_all, 367
MPI_File_write_all_begin, 368
MPI_File_write_all_end, 368
MPI_File_write_at, 368, 369, 369
MPI_File_write_at_all, 368
MPI_File_write_ordered, 371
MPI_File_write_shared, 371
MPI_Finalize, 29, 30, 31, 302, 303, 585
MPI_Finalized, 30, 31, 306
MPI_Fint, 156
MPI_FLOAT, 202, 203
MPI_FLOAT_INT, 80
MPI_Free_mem, 321
MPI_Gather, 64, 65, 75, 98, 218, 364
MPI_Gather_init, 191
MPI_Gatherv, 67, 75, 75, 223
MPI_Gatherv_init, 191
MPI_Get, 323, 328, 335, 338, 340, 342
MPI_Get_accumulate, 331, 332, 332, 343
MPI_Get_address, 206, 223, 226, 342
MPI_Get_count, 153, 155, 158, 230
MPI_Get_elements, 159, 230
MPI_Get_elements_x, 159, 230, 231
MPI_Get_hw_resource_types, 393
MPI_Get_library_version, 306, 421
MPI_Get_processor_name, 31, 32, 33, 420
MPI_Get_version, 306, 421
MPI_GRAPH, 376
MPI_Graph_create, 388
MPI_Graph_get, 388
MPI_Graph_map, 388
MPI_Graph_neighbors, 388
MPI_Graph_neighbors_count, 388

MPI_Graphdims_get, 388
MPI_Group, 281, 281
MPI_Group_difference, 281
MPI_GROUP_EMPTY, 283
MPI_Group_excl, 281
MPI_Group_free, 283
MPI_Group_incl, 281
MPI_GROUP_NULL, 283
MPI_HOST (deprecated), 419
MPI_Iallgather, 85
MPI_Iallgatherv, 85
MPI_Iallreduce, 85
MPI_Ialltoall, 85
MPI_Ialltoallv, 85
MPI_Ialltoallw, 85
MPI_Ibarrier, 84, 85, 87
MPI_Ibcast, 85
MPI_Ibsend, 195, 197
MPI_IDENT, 274
MPI_Iexscan, 85
MPI_Igather, 85, 87
MPI_Igatherv, 85
MPI_IN_PLACE, 46, 53, 65, 137, 435
MPI_Ineighbor_allgather, 386
MPI_Ineighbor_allgatherv, 386
MPI_Ineighbor_alltoall, 386
MPI_Ineighbor_alltoallv, 386
MPI_Ineighbor_alltoallw, 386
MPI_Info, 190, 191, 303, 321, 343, 370, 396, 415, 417
MPI_Info_c2f, 306
MPI_Info_create, 306, 415
MPI_Info_create_env, 306
MPI_Info_delete, 306, 415
MPI_Info_dup, 306, 415
MPI_INFO_ENV, 31, 32, 415
MPI_Info_f2c, 306
MPI_Info_free, 306, 415
MPI_Info_get (deprecated), 415
MPI_Info_get, 306, 415
MPI_Info_get_nkeys, 306, 415
MPI_Info_get_nthkey, 306, 415
MPI_Info_get_string, 415
MPI_Info_get_valuelen (deprecated), 415
MPI_Info_get_valuelen, 306
MPI_INFO_NULL, 370
MPI_Info_set, 306, 415
MPI_Init, 29, 30–32, 302, 303, 404, 408, 434, 583, 673
 in Fortran, 426
MPI_Init_thread, 30, 302, 303, 404, 404, 405, 408
MPI_Initialized, 31, 306
MPI_INT, 201, 203
MPI_INT16_T, 204
MPI_INT32_T, 204
MPI_INT64_T, 204
MPI_INT8_T, 204
MPI_INTEGER, 202, 204
MPI_INTEGER1, 204
MPI_INTEGER16, 202, 204
MPI_INTEGER2, 204
MPI_INTEGER4, 204
MPI_INTEGER8, 204
MPI_INTEGER_KIND, 435
MPI_Intercomm_create, 277, 284
MPI_Intercomm_merge, 286
MPI_IO, 419
MPI_Iprobe, 89, 153, 427
MPI_Irecv, 85, 96, 139, 140, 141, 148, 150, 152, 156, 165,
 188
MPI_Ireduce, 85
MPI_Ireduce_scatter, 85
MPI_Ireduce_scatter_block, 85
MPI_Irsend, 195
MPI_Is_thread_main, 404
MPI_Iscan, 85
MPI_Iscatter, 85, 87
MPI_Iscatterv, 85
MPI_Isend, 96, 139, 140, 165, 188, 197, 331
 in Python, 144
MPI_Isendrecv, 137
MPI_Isendrecv_replace, 137
MPI_Issend, 194, 195
MPI_KEYVAL_INVALID, 435
MPI_LAND, 80
MPI_LASTUSEDCODE, 425
MPI_LOCK_EXCLUSIVE, 338, 435
MPI_LOCK_SHARED, 338, 435
MPI_LOGICAL, 204
MPI_LONG, 203
MPI_LONG_DOUBLE, 203
MPI_LONG_DOUBLE_INT, 80
MPI_LONG_INT, 80, 202
MPI_LONG_LONG_INT, 203
MPI_LOR, 80
MPI_LXOR, 80
MPI_MAX, 51, 60, 80
MPI_MAX_DATAREP_STRING, 435
MPI_MAX_ERROR_STRING, 424, 435
MPI_MAX_INFO_KEY, 415, 435

MPI_MAX_INFO_VAL, 435
MPI_MAX_LIBRARY_VERSION_STRING, 421, 435
MPI_MAX_OBJECT_NAME, 435
MPI_MAX_PORT_NAME, 299, 435
MPI_MAX_PROCESSOR_NAME, 32, 420, 434, 435
MPI_MAXLOC, 80, 80
MPI_Message, 154
MPI_MIN, 60, 80
mpi_minimum_memory_alignment, 321, 396, 418
MPI_MINLOC, 80, 80
MPI_MODE_APPEND, 366
MPI_MODE_CREATE, 366
MPI_MODE_DELETE_ON_CLOSE, 366
MPI_MODE_EXCL, 366
MPI_MODE_NOCHECK, 339, 344, 345
MPI_MODE_NOPRECEDE, 323, 329, 330, 345
MPI_MODE_NOPUT, 323, 330, 345
MPI_MODE_NOSTORE, 323, 329, 330, 344, 345
MPI_MODE_NOSUCCEED, 323, 329, 330, 345
MPI_MODE_RDONLY, 365
MPI_MODE_RDWR, 365
MPI_MODE_SEQUENTIAL, 366, 367
MPI_MODE_UNIQUE_OPEN, 366
MPI_MODE_WRONLY, 366
MPI_Mprobe, 154
MPI_Mrecv, 154
MPI_Neighbor_allgather, 385, 386
MPI_Neighbor_allgather_init, 191
MPI_Neighbor_allgatherv, 386
MPI_Neighbor_allgatherv_init, 191
MPI_Neighbor_allreduce, 386
MPI_Neighbor_alltoall, 386
MPI_Neighbor_alltoall_init, 191
MPI_Neighbor_alltoallv, 386
MPI_Neighbor_alltoallv_init, 191
MPI_Neighbor_alltoallw, 386
MPI_Neighbor_alltoallw_init, 191
MPI_NO_OP, 80, 331, 332, 343
MPI_Offset, 204, 229, 369
MPI_OFFSET_KIND, 204, 371, 435
MPI_Op, 48, 60, 64, 79, 79, 81, 84, 326, 332, 424
MPI_Op_commutative, 83
MPI_Op_create, 63, 81, 83
MPI_Op_free, 83
MPI_OP_NULL, 83
MPI_Open_port, 299, 299
MPI_ORDER_C, 220
MPI_ORDER_FORTRAN, 220
MPI_Pack, 240
MPI_Pack_size, 196, 241
MPI_PACKED, 203, 204, 231, 240
MPI_Parrived, 193
MPI_Pready, 192, 192
MPI_Pready_list, 192
MPI_Pready_range, 192
MPI_Precv_init, 193
MPI_Probe, 126, 153, 154, 427
MPI_PROC_NULL, 126, 133, 135, 136, 136, 149, 285, 326, 380, 419, 422, 435, 765
MPI_PROD, 51, 60, 80
MPI_Psend_init, 191, 192
MPI_Publish_name, 301
MPI_Put, 323, 326, 327, 329, 335, 336, 338–341
MPI_Query_thread, 404
MPI_Raccumulate, 331
MPI_REAL, 202, 204
MPI_REAL2, 204
MPI_REAL4, 204
MPI_REAL8, 204
MPI_Recv, 126, 126–128, 132, 133, 138, 150, 155, 156, 159, 426, 436
MPI_Recv_init, 188
MPI_Reduce, 51, 53, 75, 98, 330
MPI_Reduce_init, 191
MPI_Reduce_local, 84
MPI_Reduce_scatter, 70, 73, 73, 74, 98, 345
MPI_Reduce_scatter_block, 70, 71
MPI_Reduce_scatter_block_init, 191
MPI_Reduce_scatter_init, 191
MPI_REPLACE, 80, 330, 331, 332
MPI_Request, 23, 84, 140, 152, 187, 190, 192, 193, 368
MPI_Request_free, 152, 152, 187, 191, 436
MPI_Request_get_status, 153, 427
MPI_REQUEST_NULL, 142, 151, 152
MPI_Rget, 331
MPI_Rget_accumulate, 331
MPI_ROOT, 285, 435
MPI_Rput, 331
MPI_Rsend, 195, 432
MPI_Rsend_init, 189
MPI_Scan, 59, 59, 61, 63
MPI_Scan_init, 191
MPI_Scatter, 63, 64, 98
MPI_Scatter_init, 191
MPI_Scatterv, 75
MPI_Scatterv_init, 191
MPI_SEEK_CUR, 366, 370
MPI_SEEK_END, 366

MPI_SEEK_SET, 366, 372
 MPI_Send, 85, 94, 124, 126, 128–130, 132, 133, 138, 150, 155, 228, 426, 432
 MPI_Send_c, 228
 MPI_Send_init, 188, 191
 MPI_Sendrecv, 133, 135, 136, 138, 150, 379, 765
 MPI_Sendrecv_init, 137
 MPI_Sendrecv_replace, 137
 MPI_Sendrecv_replace_init, 137
 MPI_Session_call_errhandler, 306, 423
 MPI_Session_create_errhandler, 304, 306
 MPI_Session_finalize, 303
 MPI_Session_get_info, 304
 MPI_Session_get_nth_pset, 304
 MPI_Session_get_num_psets, 304
 MPI_Session_get_pset_info, 305
 MPI_Session_init, 303
 MPI_Session_set_errhandler, 423
 MPI_SHORT, 203
 MPI_SHORT_INT, 80
 MPI_SIGNED_CHAR, 203
 MPI_SIMILAR, 275
 mpi_size, 305
 MPI_Sizeof, 206, 208, 426
 MPI_SOURCE, 148, 151, 155, 156, 160, 161
 MPI_Ssend, 130, 194, 195, 432
 MPI_Ssend_init, 189, 195
 MPI_Start, 187, 188, 190, 192
 MPI_Startall, 187, 188, 190
 MPI_Status, 127, 135, 141, 143, 148, 152, 155, 155, 160, 161, 367
 MPI_Status_f082f, 156
 MPI_Status_f2f08, 155
 MPI_STATUS_IGNORE, 127, 128, 141, 148, 155, 434, 435
 MPI_STATUS_SIZE, 435
 MPI_STATUSES_IGNORE, 143, 148, 435
 MPI_SUBARRAYS_SUPPORTED, 220, 435
 MPI_SUBVERSION, 421, 435
 MPI_SUCCESS, 22, 161, 197, 422, 423
 MPI_SUM, 51, 60, 75, 80
 MPI_T_BIND_NO_OBJECT, 408
 MPI_T_category_changed, 412
 MPI_T_category_get_categories, 412
 MPI_T_category_get_cvrs, 412
 MPI_T_category_get_index, 412
 MPI_T_category_get_info, 412, 412
 MPI_T_category_get_num, 412
 MPI_T_category_get_pvars, 412
 MPI_T_cvar_get_index, 409
 MPI_T_cvar_get_info, 408, 412
 MPI_T_cvar_get_num, 408
 MPI_T_cvar_handle_free, 409
 MPI_T_cvar_read, 410
 MPI_T_cvar_write, 410
 MPI_T_ENUM_NULL, 408
 MPI_T_ERR_INVALID_HANDLE, 411
 MPI_T_ERR_INVALID_INDEX, 408
 MPI_T_ERR_INVALID_NAME, 409
 MPI_T_ERR_PVAR_NO_STARTSTOP, 411
 MPI_T_ERR_PVAR_NO_WRITE, 412
 MPI_T_finalize, 408
 MPI_T_init_thread, 408
 MPI_T_PVAR_ALL_HANDLES, 411, 412
 MPI_T_PVAR_CLASS_AGGREGATE, 410
 MPI_T_PVAR_CLASS_COUNTER, 410
 MPI_T_PVAR_CLASS_GENERIC, 410
 MPI_T_PVAR_CLASS_HIGHWATERMARK, 410
 MPI_T_PVAR_CLASS_LEVEL, 410
 MPI_T_PVAR_CLASS_LOWWATERMARK, 410
 MPI_T_PVAR_CLASS_PERCENTAGE, 410
 MPI_T_PVAR_CLASS_SIZE, 410
 MPI_T_PVAR_CLASS_STATE, 410
 MPI_T_PVAR_CLASS_TIMER, 410
 MPI_T_pvar_get_index, 411
 MPI_T_pvar_get_info, 410, 411, 412
 MPI_T_pvar_get_num, 410
 MPI_T_pvar_handle_alloc, 411
 MPI_T_pvar_handle_free, 411
 MPI_T_PVAR_HANDLE_NULL, 411
 MPI_T_pvar_read, 411
 MPI_T_pvar_readreset, 412
 MPI_T_pvar_session_create, 411
 MPI_T_pvar_session_free, 411
 MPI_T_PVAR_SESSION_NULL, 411
 MPI_T_pvar_start, 411, 411
 MPI_T_pvar_stop, 411, 411
 MPI_T_pvar_write, 411
 MPI_TAG, 155, 158
 MPI_TAG_UB, 125, 158, 419, 419
 MPI_Test, 89, 151, 152, 152, 368, 427, 436
 MPI_Testall, 148, 152
 MPI_Testany, 152
 MPI_Testsome, 148, 152
 MPI_THREAD_FUNNELED, 404
 MPI_THREAD_MULTIPLE, 404, 405
 MPI_THREAD_SERIALIZED, 404
 MPI_THREAD_SINGLE, 404
 MPI_Topo_test, 376, 378

MPI_Txxx, 306
MPI_Type_commit, 211
MPI_Type_contiguous, 210, 211
MPI_Type_create_f90_complex, 204
MPI_Type_create_f90_integer, 204
MPI_Type_create_f90_real, 204
MPI_Type_create_hindexed, 206, 223
MPI_Type_create_hindexed_block, 223
MPI_Type_create_keyval, 420
MPI_Type_create_resized, 235, 237
MPI_Type_create_struct, 210, 223
MPI_Type_create_subarray, 210, 218, 218
MPI_Type_delete_attr, 420
MPI_Type_extent (deprecated), 232
MPI_Type_free, 211
MPI_Type_get_attr, 418
MPI_Type_get_contents, 240
MPI_Type_get_envelope, 240
MPI_Type_get_extent, 231, 232
MPI_Type_get_extent_c, 234
MPI_Type_get_extent_x, 231, 234
MPI_Type_get_true_extent, 233
MPI_Type_get_true_extent_c, 234
MPI_Type_get_true_extent_x, 231, 234
MPI_Type_hindexed, 210
MPI_Type_indexed, 210, 220, 223
MPI_Type_lb (deprecated), 232
MPI_Type_match_size, 207
MPI_Type_set_attr, 420
MPI_Type_size, 208
MPI_Type_size_x, 203
MPI_Type_struct, 223
MPI_Type_ub (deprecated), 233
MPI_Type_vector, 210, 213
MPI_TYPECLASS_COMPLEX, 207
MPI_TYPECLASS_INTEGER, 207
MPI_TYPECLASS_REAL, 207
MPI_UB, 227, 238
MPI_UINT16_T, 204
MPI_UINT32_T, 204
MPI_UINT64_T, 204
MPI_UINT8_T, 204
MPI_UNDEFINED, 376, 435
MPI_UNEQUAL, 275
MPI_UNIVERSE_SIZE, 295, 420
MPI_Unpack, 240
MPI_Unpublish_name, 302, 422
MPI_UNSIGNED, 203
MPI_UNSIGNED_CHAR, 203
MPI_UNSIGNED_LONG, 203
MPI_UNSIGNED_SHORT, 203
MPI_UNWEIGHTED, 384, 435
MPI_VERSION, 421, 434, 435
MPI_Wait, 84, 141, 142, 148, 152, 192, 193, 368, 436
 in Python, 144
MPI_Wait..., 155, 156
MPI_Waitall, 143, 148, 152, 158, 188, 318
 in Python, 145
MPI_Waitany, 145, 147, 148, 152
MPI_Waitsome, 148, 152
MPI_WEIGHTS_EMPTY, 384, 435
MPI_Win, 206, 283, 318, 393
MPI_Win_allocate, 320, 321, 341, 344
MPI_Win_allocate_shared, 320, 321, 341, 344, 395,
 395, 396
MPI_Win_attach, 341
MPI_WIN_BASE, 343
MPI_Win_call_errhandler, 423
MPI_Win_complete, 321, 324
MPI_Win_create, 207, 319, 320, 321, 337, 341, 344
MPI_Win_create_dynamic, 320, 341, 344
MPI_WIN_CREATE_FLAVOR, 344
MPI_Win_create_keyval, 420
MPI_Win_delete_attr, 420
MPI_Win_detach, 343
MPI_WIN_DISP_UNIT, 343
MPI_Win_fence, 321, 322, 337, 340, 344, 345, 766
MPI_WIN_FLAVOR_ALLOCATE, 344
MPI_WIN_FLAVOR_CREATE, 344
MPI_WIN_FLAVOR_DYNAMIC, 344
MPI_WIN_FLAVOR_SHARED, 344
MPI_Win_flush, 340
MPI_Win_flush..., 331
MPI_Win_flush_all, 340
MPI_Win_flush_local, 340, 340
MPI_Win_flush_local_all, 340
MPI_Win_free, 318, 321, 321
MPI_Win_get_attr, 341, 418
MPI_Win_get_group, 283
MPI_Win_get_info, 417
MPI_Win_lock, 334, 337, 337, 338, 344, 345
MPI_Win_lock_all, 337, 338, 339, 340, 345
MPI_Win_lockall, 344
MPI_WIN_MODEL, 341, 344
MPI_WIN_NULL, 321
MPI_Win_post, 324, 344
MPI_WIN_SEPARATE, 341
MPI_Win_set_attr, 420

MPI_Win_set_errhandler, 423
MPI_Win_set_info, 417
MPI_Win_shared_query, 395, 397
MPI_WIN_SIZE, 343
MPI_Win_start, 324, 344
MPI_Win_sync, 341
MPI_Win_test, 324, 427
MPI_WIN_UNIFIED, 341
MPI_Win_unlock, 321, 338, 340
MPI_Win_unlock_all, 338, 339, 340
MPI_Win_wait, 321, 324, 324
MPI_Wtick, 428, 429
MPI_Wtime, 127, 428, 667
MPI_WTIME_IS_GLOBAL, 419, 428

nb_proc, 418
no_locks, 343
num_io_nodes, 418

OMPI_COMM_TYPE_SOCKET, 394

performance variable, 410–412
PMPPI_..., 429
pvar, *see* performance variable

same_op, 343
same_op_no_op, 343
striping_factor, 418
striping_unit, 418

testany, 147
thread_support, 304

vector_layout, 213

wtime, 428

65.1 From the standard document

This is an automatically generated list of every function, type, and constant in the MPI standard document. Where these appear in this book, a page reference is given.

65.1.1 List of all functions

- MPI_Abort 30
- MPI_Accumulate 330
- MPI_Address ??
- MPI_Add_error_class 425
- MPI_Add_error_string 425
- MPI_Aint_add 206
- MPI_Aint_diff 206
- MPI_Allgather 67
- MPI_Allgatherv 75
- MPI_Allgatherv_init 191
- MPI_Allgather_init 191
- MPI_Alloc_mem 321
- MPI_Alloc_mem_cptr ??
- MPI_Allreduce 45
- MPI_Allreduce_init 190
- MPI_Alltoall 68
- MPI_Alltoallv 70
- MPI_Alltoallv_init 191
- MPI_Alltoallw ??
- MPI_Alltoallw_init 191
- MPI_Alltoalll_init 191
- MPI_Attr_delete ??
- MPI_Attr_get 418
- MPI_Attr_put ??
- MPI_Accumulate 330
- MPI_Barrier 74
- MPI_Barrier_init 191
- MPI_Bcast 55
- MPI_Bcast_init 191
- MPI_Bsend 195
- MPI_Bsend_init 198
- MPI_Buffer_attach 196
- MPI_Buffer_detach 196
- MPI_Cancel 436
- MPI_Cartdim_get 378
- MPI_Cart_coords 378
- MPI_Cart_create 377
- MPI_Cart_get 378
- MPI_Cart_map 381
- MPI_Cart_rank 378
- MPI_Cart_shift ??
- MPI_Cart_sub 380
- MPI_Close_port 300
- MPI_Comm_accept 299
- MPI_Comm_call_errhandler ??
- MPI_Comm_compare 274
- MPI_Comm_connect 300
- MPI_Comm_create 281
- MPI_Comm_create_errhandler 424
- MPI_Comm_create_from_group ??
- MPI_Comm_create_group 281
- MPI_Comm_create_keyval 420
- MPI_Comm_delete_attr 420
- MPI_Comm_disconnect 278
- MPI_Comm_dup 273
- MPI_Comm_dup_fn ??
- MPI_Comm_dup_with_info 273
- MPI_Comm_free 278
- MPI_Comm_free_keyval 420
- MPI_Comm_get_attr 418
- MPI_Comm_get_errhandler 423
- MPI_Comm_get_info 417
- MPI_Comm_get_name ??
- MPI_Comm_get_parent 286
- MPI_Comm_group 281
- MPI_Comm_idup 273
- MPI_Comm_idup_with_info 273
- MPI_Comm_join 302
- MPI_Comm_null_copy_fn ??
- MPI_Comm_null_delete_fn ??
- MPI_Comm_rank 35
- MPI_Comm_remote_size 286
- MPI_Comm_set_attr 418
- MPI_Comm_set_errhandler 423
- MPI_Comm_set_info 417
- MPI_Comm_set_name 273
- MPI_Comm_size 35
- MPI_Comm_spawn 295
- MPI_Comm_spawn_multiple 298
- MPI_Comm_split 278
- MPI_Comm_split_type 393
- MPI_Comm_test_inter 286
- MPI_Compare_and_swap 334
- MPI_Conversion_fn_null ??
- MPI_Conversion_fn_null_c ??
- MPI_Compare_and_swap 334
- MPI_Dims_create 376
- MPI_Dist_graph_create 382
- MPI_Dist_graph_create_adjacent ??
- MPI_Dist_graph_neighbors 387
- MPI_Dist_graph_neighbors_count 387
- MPI_Dup_fn ??
- MPI_Errhandler_create 423
- MPI_Errhandler_free 423
- MPI_Errhandler_get ??
- MPI_Errhandler_set ??
- MPI_Error_class ??
- MPI_Error_string 424
- MPI_Exscan 60
- MPI_Exscan_init 191
- MPI_Fetch_and_op 332
- MPI_File_call_errhandler 423
- MPI_File_close 365
- MPI_File_create_errhandler ??
- MPI_File_delete 366
- MPI_File_get_amode ??
- MPI_File_get_atomicity ??
- MPI_File_get_byte_offset ??
- MPI_File_get_errhandler ??
- MPI_File_get_group ??
- MPI_File_get_info ??
- MPI_File_get_position ??
- MPI_File_get_position_shared ??
- MPI_File_get_size 371
- MPI_File_get_type_extent ??
- MPI_File_get_view 371
- MPI_File_iread 368
- MPI_File_iread_all 368
- MPI_File_iread_at 368
- MPI_File_iread_at_all 368
- MPI_File_iread_shared 371
- MPI_File_iwrite 368
- MPI_File_iwrite_all 368
- MPI_File_iwrite_at 368
- MPI_File_iwrite_at_all 368
- MPI_File_iwrite_shared 371
- MPI_File_open 365
- MPI_File_reallocate 371
- MPI_File_read 367
- MPI_File_read_all 367
- MPI_File_read_all_begin 368
- MPI_File_read_all_end 368
- MPI_File_read_at 368
- MPI_File_read_at_all 368
- MPI_File_read_at_all_begin ??

- MPI_File_read_at_all_end??
- MPI_File_read_ordered 371
- MPI_File_read_ordered_begin??
- MPI_File_read_ordered_end??
- MPI_File_read_shared 371
- MPI_File_seek 366
- MPI_File_seek_shared 371
- MPI_File_set_atomicity 372
- MPI_File_set_errhandler 423
- MPI_File_set_info ??
- MPI_File_set_size 371
- MPI_File_set_view 370
- MPI_File_sync 366
- MPI_File_write 367
- MPI_File_write_all 367
- MPI_File_write_all_begin 368
- MPI_File_write_all_end 368
- MPI_File_write_at 369
- MPI_File_write_at_all 368
- MPI_File_write_at_all_begin??
- MPI_File_write_at_all_end??
- MPI_File_write_ordered 371
- MPI_File_write_ordered_begin??
- MPI_File_write_ordered_end??
- MPI_File_write_shared 371
- MPI_Finalize 29
- MPI_Finalized 31
- MPI_Free_mem 321
- MPI_F_sync_reg ??
- MPI_Gather 65
- MPI_Gatherv 75
- MPI_Gatherv_init 191
- MPI_Gather_init 191
- MPI_Get 328
- MPI_Get_accumulate 332
- MPI_Get_address 223
- MPI_Get_count 158
- MPI_Get_count_c ??
- MPI_Get_elements 159
- MPI_Get_elements_c ??
- MPI_Get_elements_x 230
- MPI_Get_library_version 421
- MPI_Get_processor_name 32
- MPI_Get_version 421
- MPI_Graphdims_get 388
- MPI_Graph_create 388
- MPI_Graph_get 388
- MPI_Graph_map 388
- MPI_Graph_neighbors 388
- MPI_Graph_neighbors_count 388
- MPI_Grequest_complete ??
- MPI_Grequest_start ??
- MPI_Group_compare ??
- MPI_Group_excl 281
- MPI_Group_free ??
- MPI_Group_from_session_pset ??
- MPI_Group_incl 281
- MPI_Group_range_excl ??
- MPI_Group_range_incl ??
- MPI_Group_rank ??
- MPI_Group_size ??
- MPI_Group_translate_ranks ??
- MPI_Iallgather 85
- MPI_Iallgatherv 85
- MPI_Iallreduce 85
- MPI_Ialltoall 85
- MPI_Ialltoallv 85
- MPI_Ialltoallw 85
- MPI_Ibarrier 87
- MPI_Ibcast 85
- MPI_Ibsend ??
- MPI_Iexscan 85
- MPI_Igather 85
- MPI_Igatherv 85
- MPI_Improbe ??
- MPI_Imrecv ??
- MPI_Ineighbor_allgather ??
- MPI_Ineighbor_allgatherv ??
- MPI_Ineighbor_alltoall ??
- MPI_Ineighbor_alltoallv ??
- MPI_Ineighbor_alltoallw ??
- MPI_Info_create 415
- MPI_Info_create_env ??
- MPI_Info_delete 415
- MPI_Info_dup 415
- MPI_Info_free 415
- MPI_Info_get 415
- MPI_Info_get_nkeys 415
- MPI_Info_get_nthkey 415
- MPI_Info_get_string 415
- MPI_Info_get_valuelen ??
- MPI_Info_set 415
- MPI_Init 29
- MPI_Initialized 31
- MPI_Init_thread 404
- MPI_Intercomm_create 284
- MPI_Intercomm_create_from_groups??MPI_Reduce_local 84
- MPI_Intercomm_merge 286
- MPI_Iprobe 153
- MPI_Irecv 139
- MPI_Ireduce 85
- MPI_Ireduce_scatter 85
- MPI_Ireduce_scatter_block 85
- MPI_Iscan 85
- MPI_Iscatter 85
- MPI_Iscatterv 85
- MPI_Isend 139
- MPI_Isendrecv 137
- MPI_Isendrecv_replace 137
- MPI_Is_thread_main 404
- MPI_Keyval_create ??
- MPI_Keyval_free ??
- MPI_Lookup_name ??
- MPI_Mprobe 154
- MPI_Mrecv 154
- MPI_Neighbor_allgather 385
- MPI_Neighbor_allgatherv ??
- MPI_Neighbor_allgatherv_init 191
- MPI_Neighbor_alltoall ??
- MPI_Neighbor_alltoallv ??
- MPI_Neighbor_alltoallv_init 191
- MPI_Neighbor_alltoallw ??
- MPI_Neighbor_alltoallw_init 191
- MPI_Null_copy_fn ??
- MPI_Null_delete_fn ??
- MPI_Open_port 299
- MPI_Op_commutative 83
- MPI_Op_create 81
- MPI_Op_create_c ??
- MPI_Pack ??
- MPI_Pack_external ??
- MPI_Pack_size 241
- MPI_Parrived 193
- MPI_Pcontrol ??
- MPI_Pready 192
- MPI_Pready_list 192
- MPI_Pready_range 192
- MPI_Precv_init 193
- MPI_Probe 153
- MPI_Psend_init 191
- MPI_Publish_name 301
- MPI_Put 326
- MPI_Put 326
- MPI_Query_thread 404
- MPI_Raccumulate ??
- MPI_Recv 126
- MPI_Recv_init 188
- MPI_Reduce 51
- MPI_Reduce_init 191
- MPI_Reduce_local 84
- MPI_Reduce_scatter 73
- MPI_Reduce_scatter_block 70
- MPI_Reduce_scatter_block_init 191
- MPI_Reduce_scatter_init 191
- MPI_Register_datarep ??
- MPI_Request_free 152
- MPI_Request_get_status 153
- MPI_Rget ??
- MPI_Rget_accumulate ??

-
- MPI_Rput 331
 - MPI_Rsend ??
 - MPI_Register_datarep_c??
 - MPI_Scan 59
 - MPI_Scan_init 191
 - MPI_Scatter 64
 - MPI_Scatterv 75
 - MPI_Scatterv_init 191
 - MPI_Scatter_init 191
 - MPI_Send 124
 - MPI_Sendrecv 133
 - MPI_Send_init 188
 - MPI_Session_call_errhandler 423
 - MPI_Session_create_errhandler 304
 - MPI_Session_finalize 303
 - MPI_Session_get_info 304
 - MPI_Session_get_nth_pset 304
 - MPI_Session_get_num_psets 304
 - MPI_Session_init 303
 - MPI_Sizeof 208
 - MPI_Start 188
 - MPI_Startall 188
 - MPI_Status_set_cancelled??
 - MPI_Status_set_elements??
 - MPI_Status_set_elements_c??
 - MPI_Status_set_elements_x??
 - MPI_Send 124
 - MPI_Test 152
 - MPI_Testall 152
 - MPI_Testany 152
 - MPI_Testsome 152
 - MPI_Test_cancelled ??
 - MPI_Topo_test 378
 - MPI_Type_commit 211
 - MPI_Type_contiguous 211
 - MPI_Type_create_darray ??
 - MPI_Type_create_hindexed ??
 - MPI_Type_create_hindexed_block 223
 - MPI_Type_create_hvector ??
 - MPI_Type_create_indexed_block ??
 - MPI_Type_create_keyval 420
 - MPI_Type_create_resized 235
 - MPI_Type_create_struct 223
 - MPI_Type_create_subarray 218
 - MPI_Type_delete_attr 420
 - MPI_Type_dup ??
 - MPI_Type_dup_fn ??
 - MPI_Type_extent ??
 - MPI_Type_free 211
 - MPI_Type_get_attr ??
 - MPI_Type_get_contents 240
 - MPI_Type_get_envelope 240
 - MPI_Type_get_extent 231
 - MPI_Type_get_extent_x 231
 - MPI_Type_get_name ??
 - MPI_Type_get_true_extent 233
 - MPI_Type_get_true_extent_x 231
 - MPI_Type_hindexed ??
 - MPI_Type_hvector ??
 - MPI_Type_indexed 220
 - MPI_Type_lb ??
 - MPI_Type_match_size 207
 - MPI_Type_null_copy_fn ??
 - MPI_Type_null_delete_fn ??
 - MPI_Type_set_attr 420
 - MPI_Type_set_name ??
 - MPI_Type_size 208
 - MPI_Type_size_x ??
 - MPI_Type_struct ??
 - MPI_Type_ub ??
 - MPI_Type_vector 213
 - MPI_T_category_changed 412
 - MPI_T_category_get_categories 412
 - MPI_T_category_get_cvrs 412
 - MPI_T_category_get_events ??
 - MPI_T_category_get_index 412
 - MPI_T_category_get_info 412
 - MPI_T_category_get_num_events ??
 - MPI_T_category_get_pvars 412
 - MPI_T_cvar_get_index 409
 - MPI_T_cvar_get_info 408
 - MPI_T_cvar_get_num 408
 - MPI_T_cvar_handle_alloc ??
 - MPI_T_cvar_handle_free 409
 - MPI_T_enum_get_info ??
 - MPI_T_enum_get_item ??
 - MPI_T_event_callback_get_info ??
 - MPI_T_event_callback_set_info ??
 - MPI_T_event_copy ??
 - MPI_T_event_get_index ??
 - MPI_T_event_get_info ??
 - MPI_T_event_get_source ??
 - MPI_T_event_get_timestamp ??
 - MPI_T_event_handle_alloc ??
 - MPI_T_event_handle_free ??
 - MPI_T_event_handle_get_info ??
 - MPI_T_event_handle_set_info ??
 - MPI_T_event_read ??
 - MPI_T_event_register_callback ??
 - MPI_T_event_set_dropped_handler ??
 - MPI_T_finalize 408
 - MPI_T_init_thread 408
 - MPI_T_pvar_get_index 411
 - MPI_T_pvar_get_info 410
 - MPI_T_pvar_get_num 410
 - MPI_T_pvar_handle_alloc 411
 - MPI_T_pvar_handle_free 411
 - MPI_T_pvar_read 411
 - MPI_T_pvar_readreset ??
 - MPI_T_pvar_reset ??
 - MPI_T_pvar_start 411
 - MPI_T_pvar_stop 411
 - MPI_T_pvar_write ??
 - MPI_T_source_get_info ??
 - MPI_T_source_get_num ??
 - MPI_T_source_get_timestamp ??
 - MPI_Unpack ??
 - MPI_Unpack_external ??
 - MPI_Unpublish_name 302
 - MPI_Wait 141
 - MPI_Waitall 143
 - MPI_Waitany 145
 - MPI_Waitsome ??
 - MPI_Win_allocate 320
 - MPI_Win_allocate_cptr ??
 - MPI_Win_allocate_shared 395
 - MPI_Win_allocate_shared_cptr ??
 - MPI_Win_attach 341
 - MPI_Win_call_errhandler 423
 - MPI_Win_complete 324
 - MPI_Win_create 319
 - MPI_Win_create_dynamic 341
 - MPI_Win_create_errhandler ??
 - MPI_Win_create_keyval 420
 - MPI_Win_detach 343
 - MPI_Win_dup_fn ??
 - MPI_Win_fence 322
 - MPI_Win_flush 340
 - MPI_Win_flush_all ??
 - MPI_Win_flush_local 340
 - MPI_Win_flush_local_all ??
 - MPI_Win_free 321
 - MPI_Win_get_attr 341
 - MPI_Win_get_group ??
 - MPI_Win_get_info 417
 - MPI_Win_lock 337
 - MPI_Win_lock_all 339
 - MPI_Win_null_copy_fn ??
 - MPI_Win_null_delete_fn ??
 - MPI_Win_post ??
 - MPI_Win_set_attr 420
 - MPI_Win_set_info 417
 - MPI_Win_shared_query 397
 - MPI_Win_shared_query_cptr ??
 - MPI_Win_start 324
 - MPI_Win_sync 341
 - MPI_Win_test 324
 - MPI_Win_unlock 338
 - MPI_Win_unlock_all 338

- MPI_Win_wait 324
- MPI_Wtick 428
- MPI_Wtime 428
- PMPI_ ??
- PMPI_Aint_add ??
- PMPI_Aint_diff ??
- PMPI_Isend ??
- PMPI_Wtick ??
- PMPI_Wtime ??

65.1.2 List of all dtypes

65.1.3 List of all ctypes

- Datatype ??
- Group ??
- MPI_Aint 206
- MPI_Comm_copy_attr_function??
- MPI_Comm_delete_attr_function??
- MPI_Copy_function ??
- MPI_Count 229
- MPI_Datarep_conversion_function?? _Bool ??
- MPI_Datarep_conversion_function_c _Bool ??
- MPI_Delete_function ??
- MPI_Offset 369
- MPI_Type_copy_attr_function??
- MPI_Type_delete_attr_function??
- MPI_Win_copy_attr_function??
- MPI_Win_delete_attr_function??
- Status ??
- char ??
- class ??
- double ??
- enum ??
- float ??
- int ??
- long ??
- short ??
- wchar_t ??

65.1.4 List of all ftypes

- ALLOCATABLE ??
- ASYNCHRONOUS ??
- BLOCK ??
- CHARACTER ??
- COMMON ??
- COMM_COPY_ATTR_FUNCTION ??
- COMM_DELETE_ATTR_FUNCTION ??
- COMPLEX ??
- CONTAINS ??
- CONTIGUOUS ??
- COPY_FUNCTION ??
- C_F_POINTER ??
- C_PTR ??
- DATAREP_CONVERSION_FUNCTION ??
- DELETE_FUNCTION ??
- EXTERNAL ??
- FUNCTION ??
- IN ??
- INCLUDE ??
- INOUT ??
- INTEGER ??
- INTENT ??
- INTERFACE ??
- ISO_C_BINDING ??
- ISO_FORTRAN_ENV ??
- KIND ??
- LOGICAL ??
- MODULE ??
- MPI_Send 124
- MPI_Status 155
- MPI_User_function ??
- MPI_Waitall 143
- OPTIONAL ??
- OUT ??
- POINTER ??
- PROCEDURE ??
- REAL ??
- SEQUENCE ??
- TARGET ??
- TYPE ??
- TYPE_COPY_ATTR_FUNCTION ??
- TYPE_DELETE_ATTR_FUNCTION ??
- USER_FUNCTION ??
- VOLATILE ??
- WIN_COPY_ATTR_FUNCTION ??
- WIN_DELETE_ATTR_FUNCTION ??
- base ??
- foo ??
- int ??
- separated_sections ??

65.1.5 List of all constants

- MPI_ADDRESS_KIND 207
- MPI_ANY_SOURCE 126
- MPI_ANY_TAG 127
- MPI_APPNUM 298
- MPI_ARGVS_NULL ??
- MPI_ARGV_NULL ??
- MPI_ASYNC_PROTECTS_NONBLOCKING ??
- MPI_Aint 206
- MPI_BAND 80
- MPI_BOR 80
- MPI_BOTTOM ??
- MPI_BSEND_OVERHEAD 196
- MPI_BXOR 80
- MPI_CART 376
- MPI_COMBINER_CONTIGUOUS ??
- MPI_COMBINER_DARRAY ??
- MPI_COMBINER_DUP ??
- MPI_COMBINER_HINDEXED ??
- MPI_COMBINER_HINDEXED_BLOCK ??
- MPI_COMBINER_HINDEXED_INTEGER ??
- MPI_COMBINER_VECTOR 240
- MPI_COMBINER_HVECTOR ??
- MPI_COMBINER_HVECTOR_INTEGER ??
- MPI_COMBINER_INDEXED ??
- MPI_COMBINER_INDEXED_BLOCK ??
- MPI_COMBINER_NAMED ??
- MPI_COMBINER_RESIZED ??
- MPI_COMBINER_STRUCT ??
- MPI_COMBINER_STRUCT_INTEGER ??
- MPI_COMBINER_SUBARRAY ??

-
- MPI_COMM_NULL ??
 - MPI_COMM_SELF ??
 - MPI_COMM_TYPE_HW_GUIDED ??
 - MPI_COMM_TYPE_HW_UNGUIDED ??
 - MPI_COMM_TYPE_SHARED ??
 - MPI_COMM_WORLD ??
 - MPI_CONGRUENT 275
 - MPI_COUNT_KIND 203
 - MPI_Comm 272
 - MPI_Count 229
 - MPI_DATATYPE_NULL 211
 - MPI_DISPLACEMENT_CURRENT 370
 - MPI_DISTRIBUTE_BLOCK ??
 - MPI_DISTRIBUTE_CYCLIC ??
 - MPI_DISTRIBUTE_DFLT_DARG ??
 - MPI_DISTRIBUTE_NONE ??
 - MPI_DIST_GRAPH 376
 - MPI_Datatype 201
 - MPI_ERRCODES_IGNORE 295
 - MPI_ERRHANDLER_NULL ??
 - MPI_ERROR 158
 - MPI_ERRORS_ABORT 423
 - MPI_ERRORS_ARE_FATAL 423
 - MPI_ERRORS_RETURN 423
 - MPI_ERR_ARG 422
 - MPI_ERR_BUFFER 422
 - MPI_ERR_COMM 422
 - MPI_ERR_COUNT 422
 - MPI_ERR_DIMS ??
 - MPI_ERR_GROUP ??
 - MPI_ERR_INTERN 422
 - MPI_ERR_IN_STATUS 148
 - MPI_ERR_LASTCODE 422
 - MPI_ERR_OP ??
 - MPI_ERR_OTHER 422
 - MPI_ERR_PENDING ??
 - MPI_ERR_RANK 422
 - MPI_ERR_REQUEST ??
 - MPI_ERR_RMA_ATTACH ??
 - MPI_ERR_RMA_FLAVOR ??
 - MPI_ERR_RMA_RANGE ??
 - MPI_ERR_RMA_SHARED ??
 - MPI_ERR_ROOT ??
 - MPI_ERR_SESSION ??
 - MPI_ERR_TAG ??
 - MPI_ERR_TOPOLOGY ??
 - MPI_ERR_TRUNCATE ??
 - MPI_ERR_TYPE ??
 - MPI_ERR_UNKNOWN ??
 - MPI_ERR_VALUE_TOO_LARGE ??
 - MPI_Errhandler 423
 - MPI_FILE_NULL ??
 - MPI_FLOAT_INT 80
 - MPI_F_ERROR ??
 - MPI_F_SOURCE ??
 - MPI_F_STATUSES_IGNORE ??
 - MPI_F_STATUS_IGNORE ??
 - MPI_F_STATUS_SIZE ??
 - MPI_F_TAG ??
 - MPI_File 365
 - MPI_Fint ??
 - MPI_GRAPH 376
 - MPI_GROUP_EMPTY 283
 - MPI_GROUP_NULL 283
 - MPI_Group 281
 - MPI_HOST ??
 - MPI_IDENT ??
 - MPI_INFO_ENV 415
 - MPI_INFO_NULL ??
 - MPI_INTEGER_KIND ??
 - MPI_IN_PLACE ??
 - MPI_IO ??
 - MPI_Info 415
 - MPI_KEYVAL_INVALID ??
 - MPI_LAND 80
 - MPI_LASTUSEDCODE 425
 - MPI_LB ??
 - MPI_LOCK_EXCLUSIVE ??
 - MPI_LOCK_SHARED ??
 - MPI_LOR 80
 - MPI_LXOR 80
 - MPI_MAX 80
 - MPI_MAXLOC 80
 - MPI_MAX_DATAREP_STRING ??
 - MPI_MAX_ERROR_STRING 424
 - MPI_MAX_INFO_KEY 415
 - MPI_MAX_INFO_VAL ??
 - MPI_MAX_LIBRARY_VERSION_STRING 421
 - MPI_MAX_OBJECT_NAME ??
 - MPI_MAX_PORT_NAME 299
 - MPI_MAX_PROCESSOR_NAME ??
 - MPI_MAX_PSET_NAME_LEN ??
 - MPI_MAX_STRINGTAG_LEN ??
 - MPI_MESSAGE_NO_PROC ??
 - MPI_MESSAGE_NULL ??
 - MPI_MIN 80
 - MPI_MINLOC 80
 - MPI_MODE_APPEND 366
 - MPI_MODE_CREATE 366
 - MPI_MODE_DELETE_ON_CLOSE 366
 - MPI_MODE_EXCL 366
 - MPI_MODE_NOCHECK 339
 - MPI_MODE_NOPRECEDE 323
 - MPI_MODE_NOPUT 323
 - MPI_MODE_NOSTORE 323
 - MPI_MODE_NOSUCCEED 323
 - MPI_MODE_RDONLY 365
 - MPI_MODE_RDWR 365
 - MPI_MODE_SEQUENTIAL 366
 - MPI_MODE_UNIQUE_OPEN 366
 - MPI_MODE_WRONLY 366
 - MPI_Message 154
 - MPI_NO_OP 80
 - MPI_OFFSET_KIND 204
 - MPI_OP_NULL ??
 - MPI_ORDER_C 220
 - MPI_ORDER_FORTRAN 220
 - MPI_Offset 369
 - MPI_Op 79
 - MPI_PROC_NULL 136
 - MPI_PROD 80
 - MPI_REPLACE 330
 - MPI_REQUEST_NULL ??
 - MPI_ROOT ??
 - MPI_Request 140
 - MPI_SEEK_CUR 366
 - MPI_SEEK_END 366
 - MPI_SEEK_SET 366
 - MPI_SESSION_NULL ??
 - MPI_SHORT_INT 80
 - MPI_SIMILAR 275
 - MPI_SOURCE 156
 - MPI_STATUSES_IGNORE ??
 - MPI_STATUS_IGNORE 127
 - MPI_STATUS_SIZE ??
 - MPI_SUBARRAYS_SUPPORTED 220
 - MPI_SUBVERSION 421
 - MPI_SUCCESS 423
 - MPI_SUM 80
 - MPI_Session ??
 - MPI_TAG 158
 - MPI_TAG_UB 419
 - MPI_THREAD_FUNNELED 404
 - MPI_THREAD_MULTIPLE 404
 - MPI_THREAD_SERIALIZED 404
 - MPI_THREAD_SINGLE 404
 - MPI_TYPECLASS_COMPLEX ??
 - MPI_TYPECLASS_INTEGER ??
 - MPI_TYPECLASS_REAL ??
 - MPI_T_BIND_MPI_COMM ??
 - MPI_T_BIND_MPI_DATATYPE ??
 - MPI_T_BIND_MPI_ERRHANDLER ??
 - MPI_T_BIND_MPI_FILE ??
 - MPI_T_BIND_MPI_GROUP ??
 - MPI_T_BIND_MPI_INFO ??
 - MPI_T_BIND_MPI_MESSAGE ??
 - MPI_T_BIND_MPI_OP ??
 - MPI_T_BIND_MPI_REQUEST ??

- MPI_T_BIND_MPI_SESSION ??
- MPI_T_BIND_MPI_WIN ??
- MPI_T_BIND_NO_OBJECT 408
- MPI_T_CB_REQUIRE_ASYNC_SIGNAL_SAFE
- MPI_T_CB_REQUIRE_MPI_RESTRICTED ??
- MPI_T_CB_REQUIRE_NONE ??
- MPI_T_CB_REQUIRE_THREAD_SAFE ??
- MPI_T_CVAR_HANDLE_NULL ??
- MPI_T_ENUM_NULL ??
- MPI_T_ERR_CANNOT_INIT ??
- MPI_T_ERR_CVAR_SET_NEVER ??
- MPI_T_ERR_CVAR_SET_NOT_NOW ??
- MPI_T_ERR_INVALID ??
- MPI_T_ERR_INVALID_HANDLE 411
- MPI_T_ERR_INVALID_INDEX 408
- MPI_T_ERR_INVALID_ITEM ??
- MPI_T_ERR_INVALID_NAME 409
- MPI_T_ERR_INVALID_SESSION ??
- MPI_T_ERR_MEMORY ??
- MPI_T_ERR_NOT_ACCESSIBLE ??
- MPI_T_ERR_NOT_INITIALIZED ??
- MPI_T_ERR_NOT_SUPPORTED ??
- MPI_T_ERR_OUT_OF_HANDLES ??
- MPI_T_ERR_OUT_OF_SESSIONS ??
- MPI_T_ERR_PVAR_NO_ATOMIC ??
- MPI_T_ERR_PVAR_NO_STARTSTOP 411
- MPI_T_ERR_PVAR_NO_WRITE 412
- MPI_T_PVAR_ALL_HANDLES 411
- MPI_T_PVAR_CLASS_AGGREGATE 410
- MPI_T_PVAR_CLASS_COUNTER 410
- MPI_T_PVAR_CLASS_GENERIC 410
- MPI_T_PVAR_CLASS_HIGHWATERMARK 410
- MPI_T_PVAR_CLASS_LEVEL 410
- MPI_T_PVAR_CLASS_LOWWATERMARK 410
- MPI_T_PVAR_CLASS_PERCENTAGE 410
- MPI_T_PVAR_CLASS_SIZE 410
- MPI_T_PVAR_CLASS_STATE 410
- MPI_T_PVAR_CLASS_TIMER 410
- MPI_T_PVAR_HANDLE_NULL 411
- MPI_T_PVAR_SESSION_NULL 411
- MPI_T_SCOPE_ALL ??
- MPI_T_SCOPE_ALL_EQ ??
- MPI_T_SCOPE_CONSTANT ??
- MPI_T_SCOPE_GROUP ??
- MPI_T_SCOPE_GROUP_EQ ??
- MPI_T_SCOPE_LOCAL ??
- MPI_T_SCOPE_READONLY ??
- MPI_T_SOURCE_ORDERED ??
- MPI_T_SOURCE_UNORDERED ??
- MPI_T_VERBOSITY_MPIDEV_ALL ??
- MPI_T_VERBOSITY_MPIDEV_BASIC ??
- MPI_T_VERBOSITY_MPIDEV_DETAIL ??
- MPI_T_VERBOSITY_TUNER_ALL ??
- MPI_T_VERBOSITY_TUNER_BASIC ??
- MPI_T_VERBOSITY_TUNER_DETAIL ??
- MPI_T_VERBOSITY_USER_ALL ??
- MPI_T_VERBOSITY_USER_BASIC ??
- MPI_T_VERBOSITY_USER_DETAIL ??
- MPI_T_cb_safety ??
- MPI_T_cvar_handle ??
- MPI_T_enum ??
- MPI_T_event_instance ??
- MPI_T_event_registration ??
- MPI_T_pvar_handle ??
- MPI_T_pvar_session ??
- MPI_T_source_order ??
- MPI_UB ??
- MPI_UNDEFINED ??
- MPI_UNEQUAL 275
- MPI_UNIVERSE_SIZE 295
- MPI_UNWEIGHTED ??
- MPI_VAL ??
- MPI_VERSION 421
- MPI_WEIGHTS_EMPTY 384
- MPI_WIN_BASE ??
- MPI_WIN_CREATE_FLAVOR ??
- MPI_WIN_DISP_UNIT ??
- MPI_WIN_FLAVOR_ALLOCATE ??
- MPI_WIN_FLAVOR_CREATE ??
- MPI_WIN_FLAVOR_DYNAMIC ??
- MPI_WIN_FLAVOR_SHARED ??
- MPI_WIN_MODEL 341
- MPI_WIN_NULL ??
- MPI_WIN_SEPARATE ??
- MPI_WIN_SIZE ??
- MPI_WIN_UNIFIED ??
- MPI_WTIME_IS_GLOBAL ??
- MPI_Win 318

65.1.6 List of all callbacks

- COMM_COPY_ATTR_FUNCTION ??
- COMM_DELETE_ATTR_FUNCTION ??
- COPY_FUNCTION ??
- DELETE_FUNCTION ??
- MPI_Comm_copy_attr_function??
- MPI_Comm_delete_attr_function??
- MPI_Comm_errhandler_function ??
- MPI_Copy_function ??
- MPI_Datarep_conversion_function??
- MPI_Datarep_conversion_function_c
- MPI_Delete_function ??
- MPI_File_errhandler_function ??
- MPI_Handler_function ??
- MPI_Session_errhandler_function ??
- MPI_Type_delete_attr_function??
- MPI_User_function ??
- MPI_User_function_c ??
- MPI_Win_errhandler_function ??

65.2 MPI for Python

65.2.1 Buffer specifications

65.2.2 Listing of python routines

Class Comm: Class Cartcomm: Class Distgraphcomm: Class Graphcomm: Class Intercomm: Class Intracomm: Class Topocomm: Class Group:	Class Request: Class Grequest: Class Prequest: Class Status: Class Win:	Class Datatype: Class File: Class Info: Class Op: Class Errhandler: Class Message:
--	---	--

Chapter 66

Index of OpenMP keywords

final, 524
firstprivate, 501, 520, 521, 549, 565
flush, 511, 542
for, 461, 464, 467

if, 524
implicit barrier
 after single directive, 494
in_reduction, 524
inscan, 490

_OPENMP, 450, 556

aligned, 544
atomic, 509, 510, 541

barrier
 cancelled by nowait, 475
barrier, 507, 507

cancel, 461, 525, 576, 577
chunk, 470
collapse, 473, 474, 479
copyin, 502
copyprivate, 495, 502
critical, 467, 468, 509, 554

declare, 486
declare simd, 544
default
 firstprivate, 500
 none, 500
 private, 500
 shared, 500
default, 499
depend, 522, 526
dist_schedule, 550
do, 461, 464
dynamic, 555

lastprivate, 476, 501
league, 550
linear, 544

master, 404, 494, 495, 533

nowait, 475, 508, 555, 555
num_threads, 454

omp
 barrier
 implicit, 507
 omp for, 499
 omp_alloc, 504
 OMP_CANCELLATION, 461, 552
 omp_cgroup_mem_alloc, 504
 omp_const_mem_alloc, 504
 omp_const_mem_space, 504
 OMP_DEFAULT_DEVICE, 552
 omp_default_mem_alloc, 504
 omp_default_mem_space, 504
 omp_destroy_nest_lock, 512
 OMP_DISPLAY_ENV, 532, 552
 OMP_DYNAMIC, 503, 552, 553
 omp_get_active_level, 552
 omp_get_ancestor_thread_num, 552

```

omp_get_cancellation, 461
omp_get_dynamic, 552, 553
omp_get_level, 552
omp_get_max_active_levels, 459, 552
omp_get_max_threads, 454, 552, 553
omp_get_nested, 552, 553
omp_get_num_procs, 452, 454, 552, 553, 720
omp_get_num_threads, 452, 454, 458, 459, 552, 553
omp_get_schedule, 473, 552, 553
omp_get_team_size, 552
omp_get_thread_limit, 550, 552
omp_get_thread_num, 452, 457, 459, 552, 553
omp_get_wtick, 552, 553
omp_get_wtime, 552, 553
omp_high_bw_mem_alloc, 504
omp_high_bw_mem_space, 504
omp_in, 487
omp_in_parallel, 460, 552, 553
omp_init_nest_lock, 512
omp_is_initial_device, 549
omp_large_cap_mem_alloc, 504
omp_large_cap_mem_space, 504
omp_low_lat_mem_alloc, 504
omp_low_lat_mem_space, 504
OMP_MAX_ACTIVE_LEVELS, 459, 552
OMP_MAX_TASK_PRIORITY, 525, 552
OMP_NESTED (deprecated), 459
OMP_NESTED, 552, 553
OMP_NUM_THREADS, 450, 451, 454, 552, 553
omp_out, 487
OMP_PLACES, 532, 532, 534, 553
omp_priv, 487
OMP_PROC_BIND, 532, 534, 552, 553
omp_pteam_mem_alloc, 504
omp_sched_affinity, 473
omp_sched_auto, 473
omp_sched_dynamic, 473
omp_sched_guided, 473
omp_sched_runtime, 473
omp_sched_static, 473
omp_sched_t, 473
OMP_SCHEDULE, 472, 473, 553, 553
omp_set_dynamic, 552, 553
omp_set_max_active_levels, 459, 552
omp_set_nest_lock, 512
omp_set_nested, 552, 553
omp_set_num_threads, 454, 552, 553
omp_set_schedule, 473, 552, 553
OMP_STACKSIZE, 498, 553, 553

omp_test_nest_lock, 512
OMP_THREAD_LIMIT, 550, 553
omp_thread_mem_alloc, 504
omp_unset_nest_lock, 512
OMP_WAIT_POLICY, 459, 553, 553
openmp_version, 450
ordered, 475, 475

parallel, 451, 451, 457, 458, 461, 464, 467, 534, 565
parallel region
    barrier at the end of, 508
pragma, see see under pragma name
priority, 525
private, 498, 565
proc_bind, 533, 534

reduction, 467, 472, 482, 485, 486, 487, 509, 523

safelen( $n$ ), 544
scan, 490, 490
schedule
    auto, 472
    chunk, 471
    guided, 472
    runtime, 472
schedule, 470, 472, 473, 555
section, 493
sections, 460, 461, 482, 493, 501
simd, 544, 544
single, 494, 562

target
    enter data, 550
    exit data, 550
    map, 549
    update from, 550
    update to, 550
target, 549, 550
task, 521, 522
task_reduction, 523
taskgroup, 461, 522, 523, 576
taskwait, 521, 522, 524, 549, 566, 576
taskyield, 524
team, 550
teams, 550
thread_limit, 550
threadprivate, 501, 537, 554
tofrom, 549

untied, 524

```

`wait-policy-var`, [553](#)
`workshare`, [495](#)

Chapter 67

Index of PETSc keywords

ADD_VALUES, 599, 607
AO, 614
AOViewFromOptions, 664

--sub_ksp_monitor, 666
-da_grid_x, 623
-da_refine, 629
-da_refine_x, 629
-download-blas-lapack, 590
-download_mpich, 585
-ksp_atol, 642
-ksp_converged_reason, 643
-ksp_divtol, 642
-ksp_gmres_restart, 644
-ksp_mat_view, 608
-ksp_max_it, 642
-ksp_monitor, 649, 666
-ksp_monitor_true_residual, 649
-ksp_rtol, 642
-ksp_type, 643
-ksp_view, 641, 664, 666
-log_summary, 665
-log_view, 667
-malloc_dump, 668
-mat_view, 608, 664
-pc_factor_levels, 646
-snes_fd, 653
-snes_fd_color, 653
-vec_view, 664
-with-precision, 586
-with-scalar-type, 586

CHKERRA, 659
CHKERRABORT, 659
CHKERRMPI, 659
CHKERRQ, 659
CHKMMA, 661
CHKMEMQ, 659, 661

DM, 623, 624, 629, 664
DM_BOUNDARY_GHOSTED, 623
DM_BOUNDARY_NONE, 623
DM_BOUNDARY_PERIODIC, 623
DMBoundaryType, 623
DMCreateGlobalVector, 626, 629
DMCreateLocalVector, 626, 629

DMDA, 623, 626, 628, 629
DMDA_STENCIL_BOX, 623
DMDA_STENCIL_STAR, 623
DMDACreate1d, 623
DMDACreate2d, 623, 623
DMDAGetCorners, 624, 630
DMDAGetLocalInfo, 624
DMDALocalInfo, 624, 625, 628
DMDASetRefinementFactor, 629
DMDAVecGetArray, 628

DMGetGlobalVector, 626
DMGetLocalVector, 626

DMGlobalToLocal, 626, 629
DMGlobalToLocalBegin, 629
DMGlobalToLocalEnd, 629
DMLocalToGlobal, 626, 629
DMLocalToGlobalBegin, 629
DMLocalToGlobalEnd, 629

DMPLEX, 636
DMRestoreGlobalVector, 626
DMRestoreLocalVector, 626
DMStencilType, 623
DMViewFromOptions, 664

INSERT_VALUES, 599, 607
IS, 615
ISCreate, 613
ISCreateBlock, 613
ISCreateGeneral, 613
ISCreateStride, 613
ISGetIndices, 613
ISLocalToGlobalMappingViewFromOptions, 664
ISRestoreIndices, 613
ISViewFromOptions, 664

KSP, 608, 640
KSPBuildResidual, 649
KSPBuildSolution, 649
KSPConvergedDefault, 648
KSPConvergedReason, 642
KSPConvergedReasonView, 642
KSPConvergedReasonViewFromOptions, 664
KSPCreate, 641
KSPGetConvergedReason, 642
KSPGetIterationNumber, 643
KSPGetOperators, 641
KSPGetRhs, 649
KSPGetSolution, 649
KSPGMRESSetRestart, 644
KSPMatSolve, 644
KSPMonitorDefault, 649
KSPMonitorSet, 649
KSPMonitorTrueResidualNorm, 649
KSPReasonView (deprecated), 642
KSPSetConvergenceTest, 648
KSPSetFromOptions, 641, 644, 650
KSPSetOperators, 641
KSPSetOptionsPrefix, 666
KSPSetTolerances, 642
KSPSetType, 643
KSPView, 641, 663
KSPViewFromOptions, 664

MAT_FLUSH_ASSEMBLY, 607
MATAIJJCUSPARSE, 657
MatAssemblyBegin, 606, 607
MatAssemblyEnd, 606, 607
MatCoarsenViewFromOptions, 664

MatCreate, 602
MatCreateDenseCUDA, 657
MatCreateFFT, 612
MatCreateSeqDenseCUDA, 657
MatCreateShell, 609
MatCreateSubMatrices, 609
MatCreateSubMatrix, 609, 615
MatCreateVecs, 594, 604
MatCreateVecsFFT, 612
MATDENSECUDA, 657
MatDenseCUDAGetArray, 657
MatDenseGetArray, 607
MatDenseRestoreArray, 607
MatGetArray (deprecated), 607
MatGetRow, 607
MatImaginaryPart, 590
MatMatMult, 609
MATMPIAIJ, 602
MATMPIAIJCUSPARSE, 657
MatMPIAIJSetPreallocation, 605
MATMPIBIJ, 611
MATMPIDENSE, 602
MATMPIDENSECUDA, 657
MatMult, 608, 609
MatMultAdd, 608
MatMultHermitianTranspose, 608
MatMultTranspose, 608
MatPartitioning, 614
MatPartitioningApply, 615
MatPartitioningCreate, 614
MatPartitioningDestroy, 614
MatPartitioningSetType, 614
MatPartitioningViewFromOptions, 664
MatRealPart, 590
MatRestoreArray (deprecated), 607
MatRestoreRow, 607
MATSEQAIJ, 602
MATSEQAIJCUSPARSE, 657
MatSeqAIJGetArray, 607
MatSeqAIJRestoreArray, 607
MatSeqAIJSetPreallocation, 605
MATSEQDENSE, 602
MATSEQDENSECUDA, 657
MatSetOptionsPrefix, 666
MatSetSizes, 604
MatSetType, 602
MatSetValue, 606
MatSetValues, 606
MatSetValuesStencil, 627

MatShellGetContext, 609
MatShellSetContext, 609
MatShellSetOperation, 609
MatSizes, 604
MATSOLVERMUMS, 649
MatSolverType, 649
MatStencil, 627
MatView, 607, 663, 664
MatViewFromOptions, 664
MPIU_COMPLEX, 590
MPIU_REAL, 590
MPIU_SCALAR, 590

PCCOMPOSITE, 648
PCFactorSetLevels, 646
PCGAMG, 647
PCHYPRESetType, 645
PCMG, 647
PCSetOptionsPrefix, 666
PCSHELL, 648
PCShellGetContext, 648
PCShellSetApply, 648
PCShellSetContext, 648
PCShellSetSetUp, 648
PCViewFromOptions, 665
PETSC_ARCH, 582
PETSC_CC_INCLUDES, 582
PETSC_COMM_SELF, 591, 629, 660
PETSC_COMM_WORLD, 585, 591, 660
PETSC_DECIDE, 589, 592
PETSC_DEFAULT, 642
PETSC_DIR, 582
PETSC_ERR_ARG_OUTOFRANGE, 590
PETSC_FALSE, 590
PETSC_FC_INCLUDES, 582
PETSC_HAVE_CUDA, 656
PETSC_i, 590
PETSC_MEMALIGN, 668
PETSC_NULL, 624
PETSC_NULL_CHARACTER, 584
PETSC_NULL_INTEGER, 581
PETSC_NULL_IS, 614
PETSC_NULL_OBJECT, 581
PETSC_NULL_VIEWER, 663
PETSC_STDOUT, 663
PETSC_TRUE, 590
PETSC_USE_DEBUG, 659
PETSC_VIEWER_STDOUT_WORLD, 663
PetscBLASInt, 590, 590

PetscBLASIntCast, 590
PetscBool, 590
PetscCalloc1, 667
PetscComm, 673
PetscComplex, 589, 590
PetscCUDAInitialize, 656
PetscDataType, 663
PetscDrawViewFromOptions, 664
PetscDSViewFromOptions, 665
PetscDualSpaceViewFromOptions, 664
PetscErrorCode, 590, 659
PetscFEViewFromOptions, 664
PetscFinalize, 585, 668
PetscFree, 667
PetscFunctionBegin, 659
PetscFunctionBeginUser, 659
PetscFunctionReturn, 659
PetscFVViewFromOptions, 665
PetscGetCPUTime, 667
PetscImaginaryPart, 590
PetscInitialize, 583, 584, 665, 667, 673
PetscInitializeFortran, 584
PetscInt, 590, 590, 613
petscksp.h, 643
PetscLimiterViewFromOptions, 665
PetscLogDouble, 667
PetscLogView, 667
PetscLogViewFromOptions, 665
PetscMalloc, 601, 657, 667
PetscMalloc1, 657, 667, 668
PetscMallocDump, 668
PetscMallocResetCUDAHost, 657, 657
PetscMallocSetCUDAHost, 657, 657
PetscMPIInt, 590, 590
PetscMPIIntCast, 590
PetscNew, 667
PetscObjectSetOptionsPrefix, 666
PetscObjectViewFromOptions, 664
PetscOptionsBegin, 666
PetscOptionsEnd, 666
PetscOptionsGetInt, 665
PetscOptionsHasName, 666
PetscOptionsSetValue, 667, 667
PetscPartitionerViewFromOptions, 664
PetscPrintf, 661, 661, 663
PetscRandomViewFromOptions, 664
PetscReal, 207, 589, 590, 667
PetscRealPart, 590
PetscScalar, 207, 589, 590

PetscSectionViewFromOptions, 665
PetscSFViewFromOptions, 664
PetscSpaceViewFromOptions, 665
PetscSplitOwnership, 589
PetscSynchronizedFlush, 661
PetscSynchronizedPrintf, 661
PetscTime, 667
PetscViewer, 607, 663
PETSCVIEWERASCII, 664
PETSCVIEWERBINARY, 664
PetscViewerCreate, 663
PETSCVIEWERDRAW, 664
PETSCVIEWERHDF5, 664
PetscViewerPopFormat, 664
PetscViewerPushFormat, 664
PetscViewerRead, 663
PetscViewerSetOptionsPrefix, 666
PetscViewerSetType, 663
PETSCVIEWERSOCKET, 664
PETSCVIEWERSTRING, 664
PetscViewerViewFromOptions, 665
PETSCVIEWERTK, 664
PFViewFromOptions, 665

SETERRA, 659
SETERRQ, 659
SETERRQ1, 659, 660
SETERRQ2, 659
SNES, 652
SNESConvergedReasonViewFromOptions, 665
SNESJacobianFunction, 653
SNESSet Jacobian, 653
SNESSetOptionsPrefix, 666
SNESSo lve, 652
SNESViewFromOptions, 665

TaoLineSearchViewFromOptions, 665
TaoViewFromOptions, 665
TSSetIFunction, 654
TSSetOptionsPrefix, 666
TSSetRHSFunction, 654
TSTrajectoryViewFromOptions, 665
TSViewFromOptions, 665

VecAssemblyBegin, 598, 599
VecAssemblyEnd, 598, 599
VecAXPY, 594
VecCreate, 591, 628
VecCreateMPICUDAWithArray, 657
VecCreateMPIWithArray, 593

VecCreateSeqCUDA, 657
VecCreateSeqWithArray, 593
VECCUDA, 657
VecCUDAGetArray, 657
VecDestroy, 591
VecDestroyVecs, 592
VecDot, 595
VecDotBegin, 597
VecDotEnd, 597
VecDuplicate, 592
VecDuplicateVecs, 592
VecGetArray, 599
VecGetArrayF90, 601
VecGetArrayRead, 599
VecGetLocalSize, 593, 595, 600
VecGetOwnershipRange, 593, 595
VecGetSize, 593, 595
VecImaginaryPart, 590
VecLoad, 602
VECMPI, 591
VECMPCUDA, 657
VecNorm, 595
VecNormBegin, 597
VecNormEnd, 597
VecPlaceArray, 601, 601
VecRealPart, 590
VecReplaceArray, 601
VecResetArray, 601
VecRestoreArray, 599
VecRestoreArrayF90, 601
VecRestoreArrayRead, 599
VecScale, 595
VecScatter, 613
VecScatterCreate, 613
VecScatterViewFromOptions, 665
VECSEQ, 591
VECSEQCUDA, 657
VecSet, 597
VecSetOptionsPrefix, 666
VecSetSizes, 592, 612, 628
VecsetType, 591, 657
VecSetValue, 597, 597, 599
VecSetValues, 597, 597, 599, 628
VECSTANDARD, 591
VecView, 594, 602
VecViewFromOptions, 664, 665

Chapter 68

Index of KOKKOS keywords

CudaSpace, 683, 684

CudaUVMSpace, 684

HostSpace, 683, 684

KOKKOS_INLINE_FUNCTION, 683

KOKKOS_LAMBDA, 683

LayoutLeft, 683

LayoutRight, 683

LayoutStride, 683

LayoutTiled, 683

MDRangePolicy, 682

RangePolicy, 682, 683

reducer, 681

View, 684

Chapter 69

Index of SYCL keywords

offset, 699
parallel_for, 692, 695, 699
queue::memcpy, 695
range, 691, 692
read, 696
reduction, 695
runtime_error, 690
accessor, 695, 696
buffer, 695
combine, 695
cout, 697
cpu_selector, 689
endl, 697
free, 696
get_access, 696
get_range, 697
host_selector, 689
id<1>, 692
id<nd>, 692
is_cpu, 689
is_gpu, 689
is_host, 689
malloc, 696
malloc_device, 695
malloc_host, 695
malloc_shared, 695
nd_item, 693

