

Parallel Computing & OpenMP Introduction

Luca Tornatore - I.N.A.F.



“Foundation of HPC” course



DATA SCIENCE &
SCIENTIFIC COMPUTING
2019-2020 @ Università di Trieste

Outline



Introduction



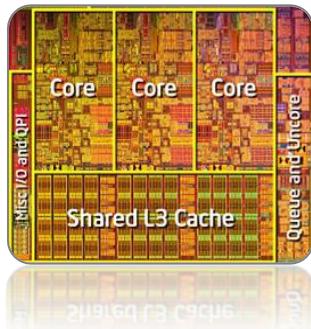
Parallel
Computing



Intro to
basic
OpenMP



Introduction Outline



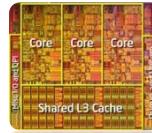
The race
to multicore



Intro to Parallel
Computing



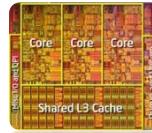
Parallel
Performance



Warm-up



A quick recap of what we have
seen in the Optimization part ...

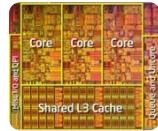


Race to
Multicore



“CRUCIAL PROBLEMS that we can only hope to address computationally REQUIRE US TO DELIVER **EFFECTIVE COMPUTING POWER ORDERS-OF-MAGNITUDE GREATER THAN WE CAN DEPLOY TODAY.**”

DOE’s Office of Science, 2012

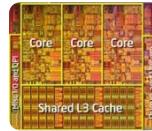


Why there is no more “free lunch”?

Applications no longer
get more performance
for free without
significant re-design,
since 15 years

Since 15 years, the gain in performance
is essentially due to
fundamentally different factors:

1. Multi-core + Multi-threads
2. Enlarging/improving cache
3. Hyperthreading (smaller contribution)



Why there is no more “free lunch”?

For instance:

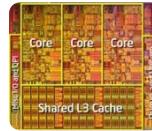
2 Cores at 3GHz are
basically 1 Core at 6GHz.. ?

False

- ✗ Cores coordination for cache-coherence
- ✗ Threads coordination
- ✗ Memory access
- ✗ Increased algorithmic complexity

Since 15 years, the gain in performance
is essentially due to
fundamentally different factors:

1. Multi-core + Multi-threads
2. Enlarging/improving **cache**
3. Hyperthreading (smaller contribution)



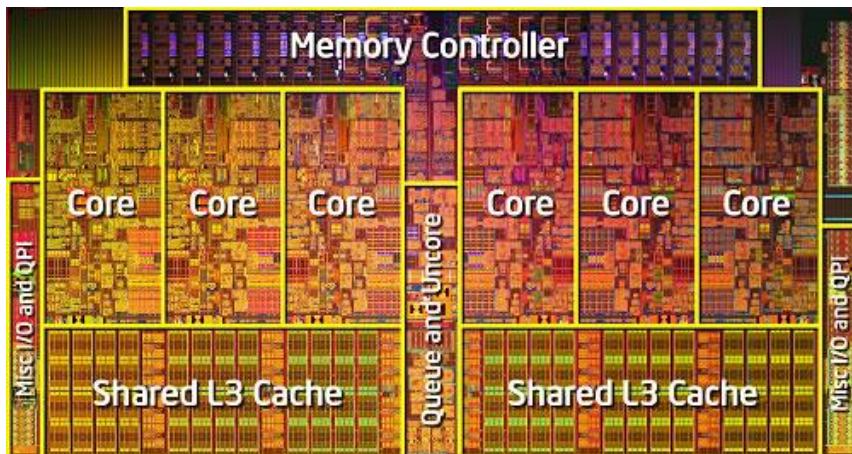
Race to
Multicore

Back to the future

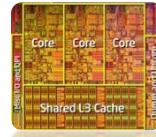


Message I

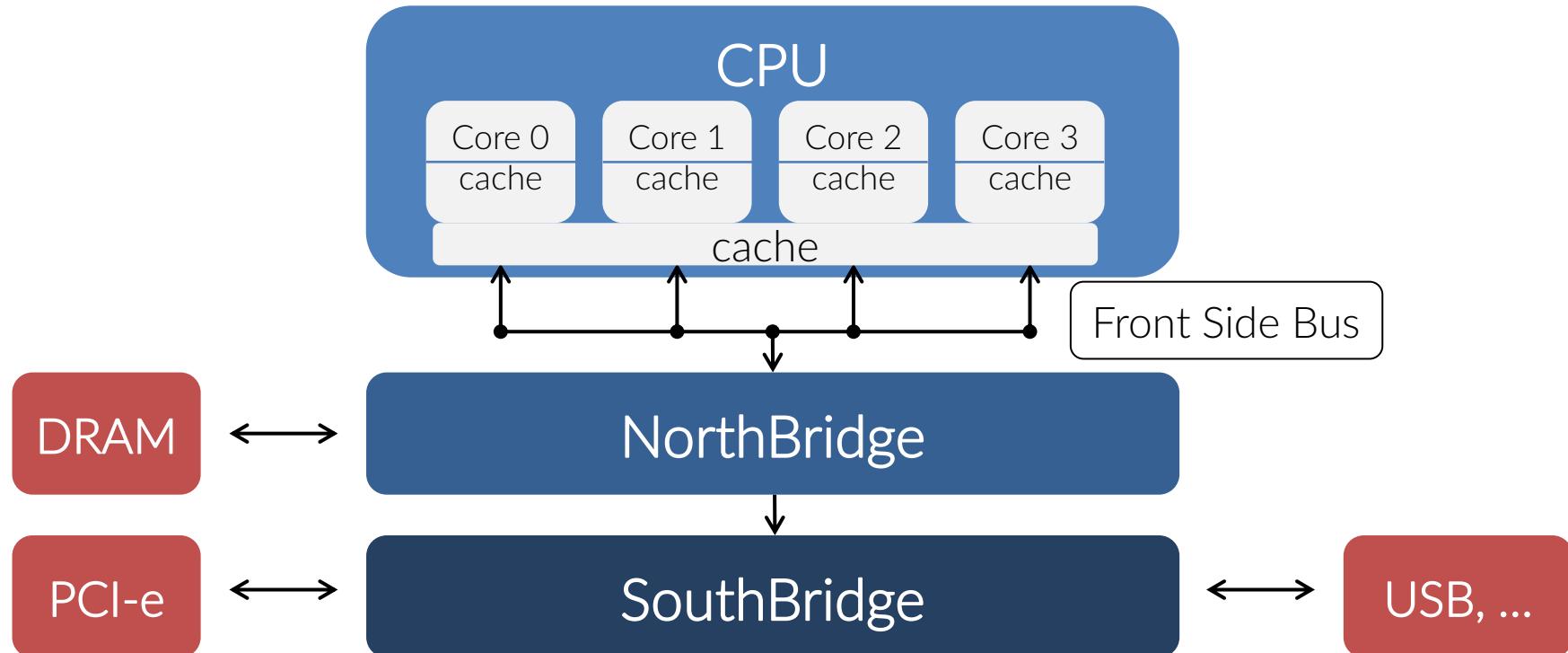
Many-cores CPUs are here to stay

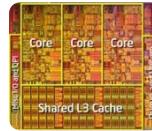


- Concurrency-based model programming (different than both *parallel* and *ILP*): work subdivision in as many independent tasks as possible
- Specialized, heterogeneous cores
- Multiple memory hierarchies



The typical UMA architecture

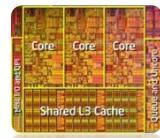




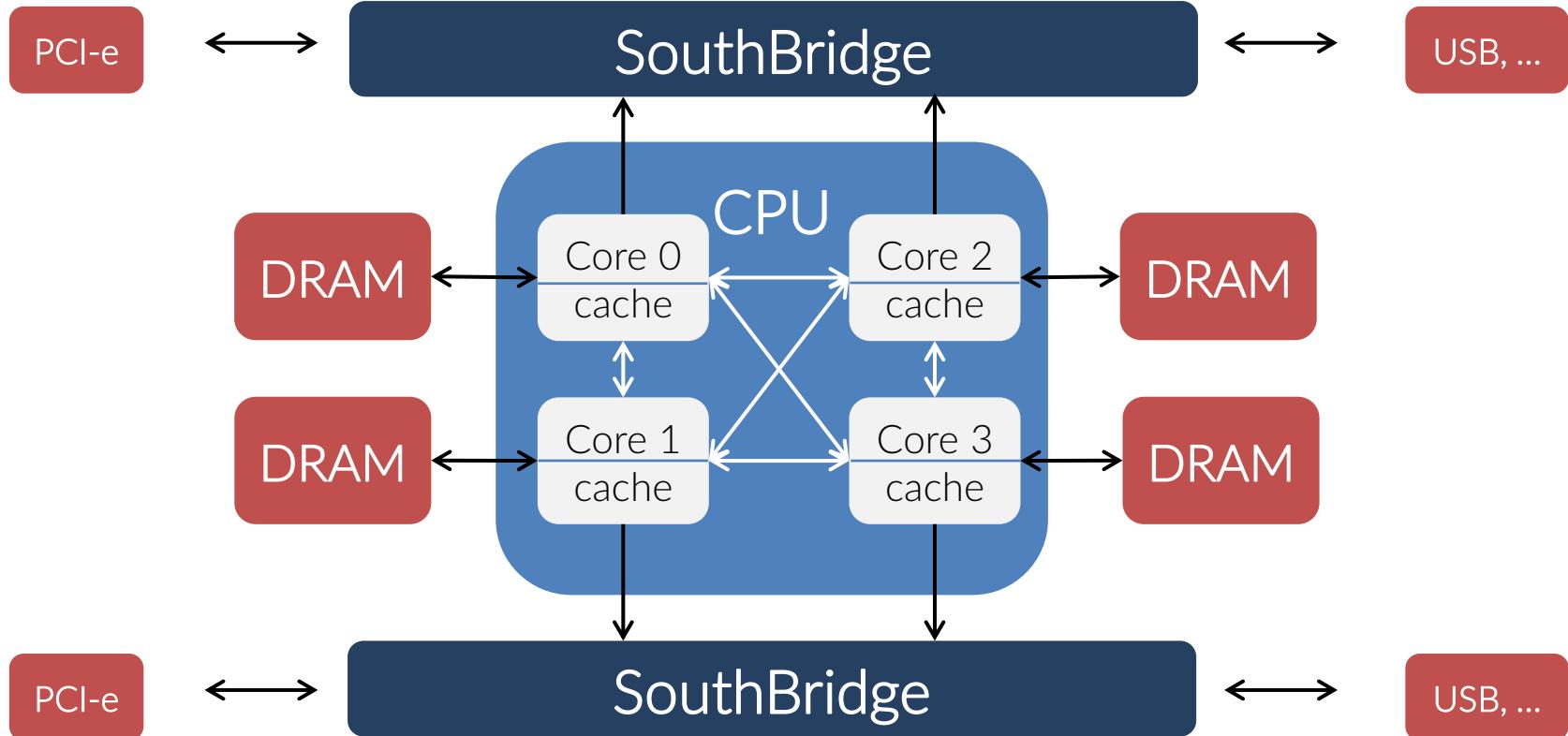
The typical UMA architecture

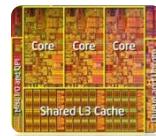


- The RAM can be accessed by one core at a time
 - this lowers the effective bandwidth
 - data coherence is easier
- The faster SRAM was introduced as caches to keep up with the increase of cores' clock
- FSB and RAM access is the main bottleneck

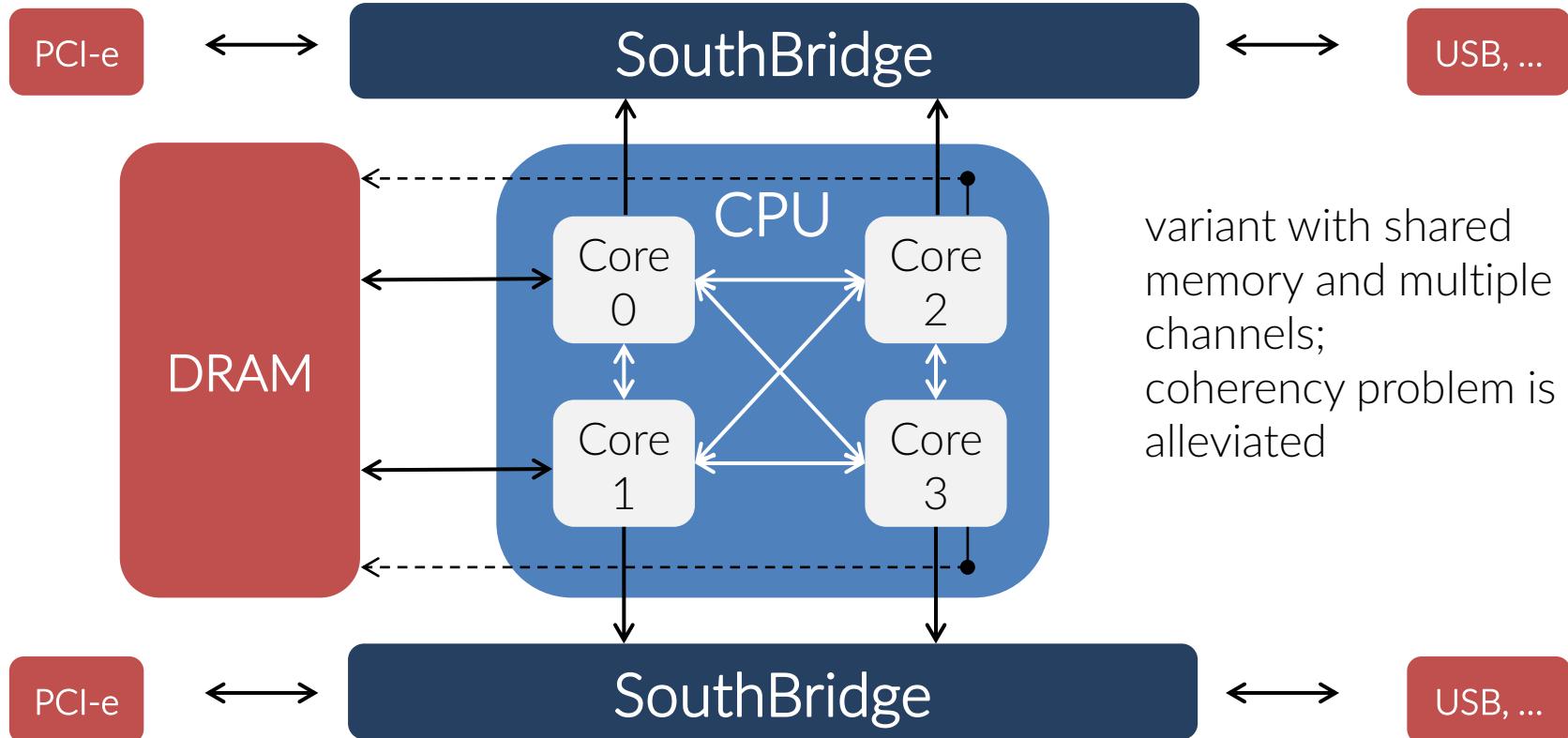


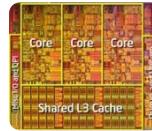
The typical NUMA architecture





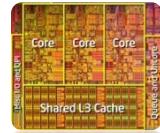
The typical NUMA architecture



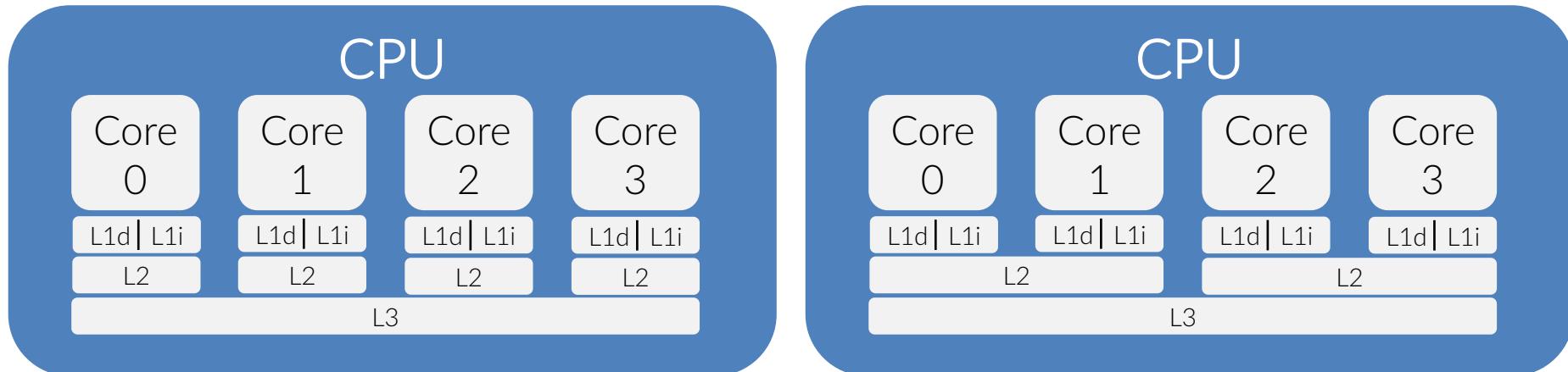


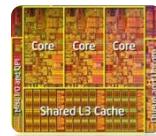
The typical NUMA architecture

- The bottleneck of resources (RAM and southbridge) access is eliminated
 - Each core *may* have its own DRAM module
- NUMA was originally developed to link several sockets, but it also evolved *inside* a single socket
- NEW problems:
 - data coherence (a variable *may* resides in a single DRAM module)
 - accessing DRAM has different costs



Cache hierarchy can have different topologies



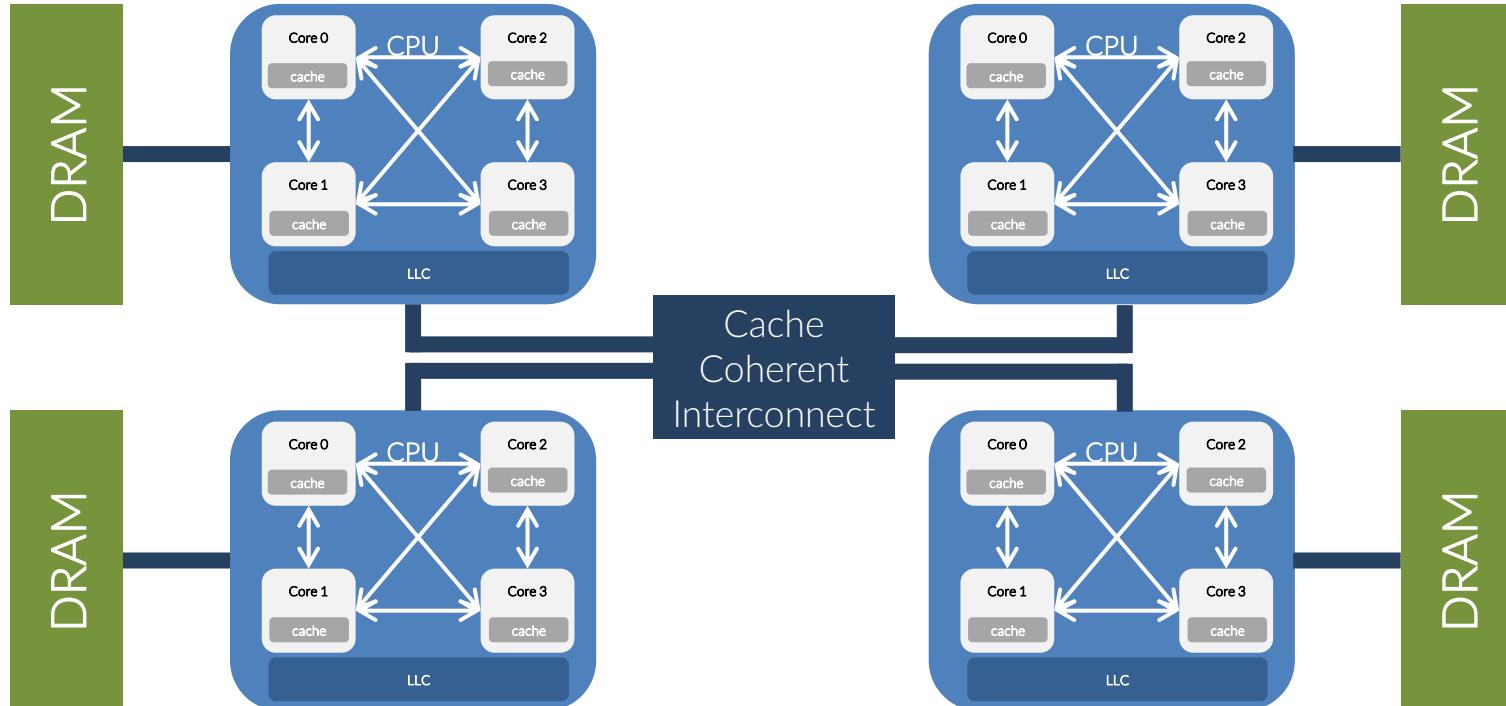


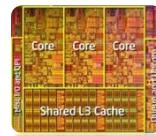
Race to
Multicore

The typical NUMA architecture



A zoom-out to a multi-socket node





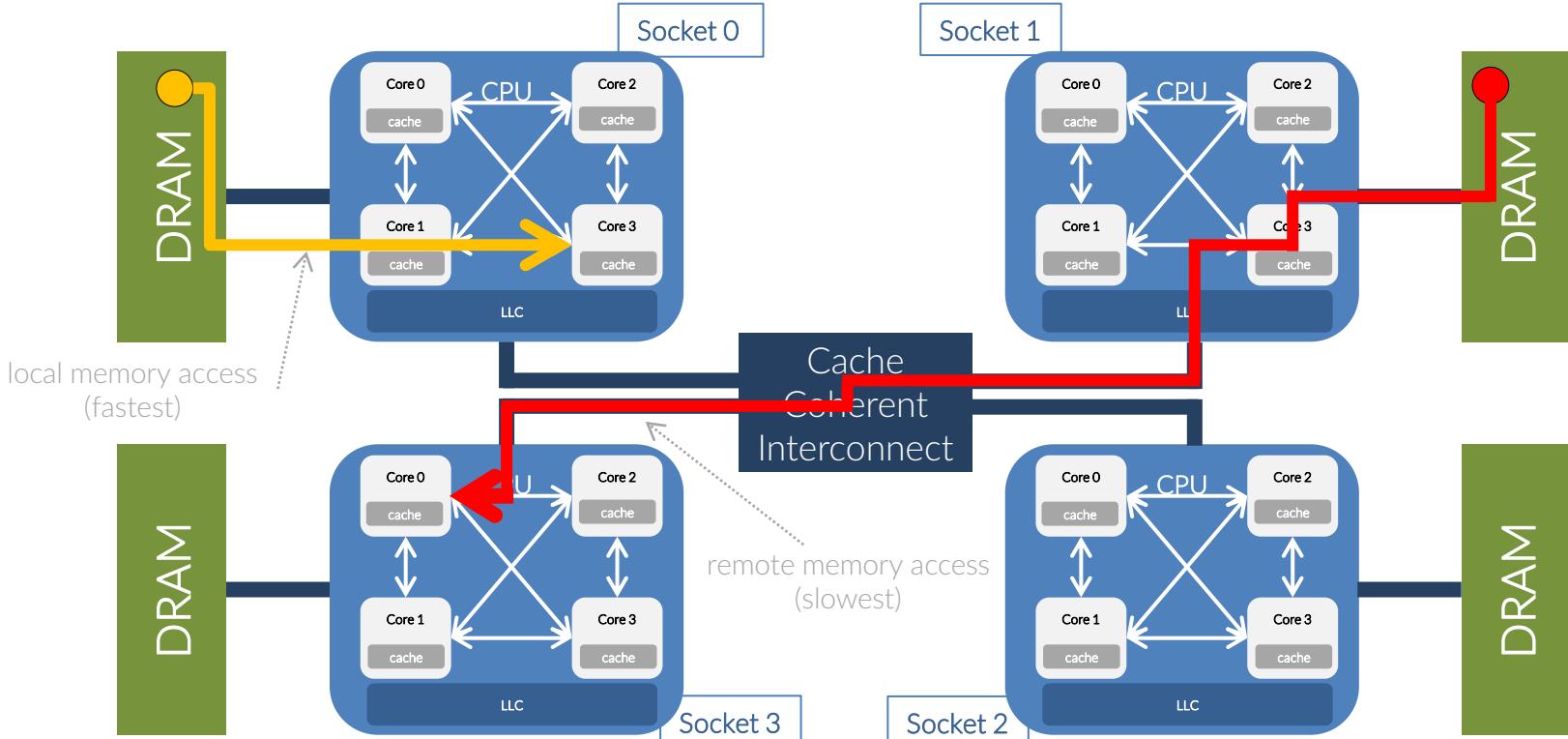
Race to
Multicore

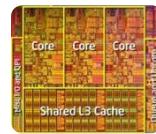
The typical NUMA architecture

Introduction



Zoom-out to a multi-socket node (all the RAM is accessible from every core, i.e. it is shared)





The typical NUMA architecture

Two examples, both of nodes with 4 sockets each

```
[ltornatore@hp10 ~]$ lscpu
Architecture:          x86_64
CPU op-mode(s):        32-bit, 64-bit
Byte Order:            Little Endian
CPU(s):                40
On-line CPU(s) list:  0-39
Thread(s) per core:   1
Core(s) per socket:   10
Socket(s):             4
NUMA node(s):          4
Vendor ID:             GenuineIntel
CPU family:            6
Model:                 63
Model name:            Intel(R) Xeon(R) CPU E5-4627 v3 @ 2.60GHz
Stepping:               2
CPU MHz:               1200.000
CPU max MHz:           2600.000
CPU min MHz:           1200.000
BogoMIPS:              5194.05
Virtualization:        VT-x
L1d cache:              32K
L1i cache:              32K
L2 cache:               256K
L3 cache:               25600K
NUMA node0 CPU(s):     0-4,20-24
NUMA node1 CPU(s):     5-9,25-29
NUMA node2 CPU(s):     10-14,30-34
NUMA node3 CPU(s):     15-19,35-39
```

hyperthreading off

node distances:

node	0	1	2	3
0:	10	21	21	21
1:	21	10	21	21
2:	21	21	10	21
3:	21	21	21	10

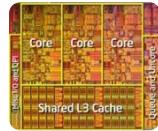
non-uniform access to memory

```
[ltornatore@gen10-01 ~]$ lscpu
Architecture:          x86_64
CPU op-mode(s):        32-bit, 64-bit
Byte Order:            Little Endian
CPU(s):                96
On-line CPU(s) list:  0-95
Thread(s) per core:   2
Core(s) per socket:   12
Socket(s):             4
NUMA node(s):          4
Vendor ID:             GenuineIntel
CPU family:            6
Model:                 85
Model name:            Intel(R) Xeon(R) Gold 5118 CPU @ 2.30GHz
Stepping:               4
CPU MHz:               2663.305
CPU max MHz:           3200.0000
CPU min MHz:           1000.0000
BogoMIPS:              4600.00
Virtualization:        VT-x
L1d cache:              32K
L1i cache:              32K
L2 cache:               1024K
L3 cache:               16896K
NUMA node0 CPU(s):     0-11,48-59
NUMA node1 CPU(s):     12-23,60-71
NUMA node2 CPU(s):     24-35,72-83
NUMA node3 CPU(s):     36-47,84-95
```

hyperthreading on

node distances:

node	0	1	2	3
0:	10	21	21	21
1:	21	10	21	21
2:	21	21	10	21
3:	21	21	21	10

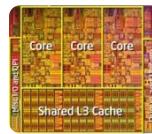


The typical NUMA architecture



How to discover the topology of your node:

- **numactl** tool
 - it also controls the Linux NUMA policy
- **cpuinfo** tool (by Intel)
- **hwloc** (by OpenMPI)



The typical NUMA architecture

How to discover the topology of your node (examples):

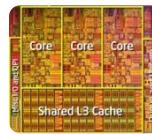
- **numactl** tool

numactl -H

- **cpuinfo** tool (by Intel)

- **hwloc** (by OpenMPI)

```
[ltornatore@hp08 ~]$ numactl -H
available: 4 nodes (0-3)
node 0 cpus: 0 1 2 3 4 20 21 22 23 24
node 0 size: 65411 MB
node 0 free: 40998 MB
node 1 cpus: 5 6 7 8 9 25 26 27 28 29
node 1 size: 65536 MB
node 1 free: 58475 MB
node 2 cpus: 10 11 12 13 14 30 31 32 33 34
node 2 size: 65536 MB
node 2 free: 59344 MB
node 3 cpus: 15 16 17 18 19 35 36 37 38 39
node 3 size: 65536 MB
node 3 free: 59641 MB
node distances:
node   0   1   2   3
 0: 10 21 21 21
 1: 21 10 21 21
 2: 21 21 10 21
 3: 21 21 21 10
```



The typical NUMA architecture

How to discover the topology of your node (examples):

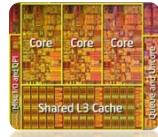
- **numactl** tool

- **cpuinfo** tool (by Intel)
- **hwloc** (by OpenMPI)

```
cpuinfo -d
=====
Placement on packages
=====
Package Id.    Core Id.      Processors
0            0,2,4,9,11,1,3,8,10,12      0,1,2,3,4,20,21,22,23,24
1            0,2,4,9,11,1,3,8,10,12      5,6,7,8,9,25,26,27,28,29
2            0,2,4,9,11,1,3,8,10,12      10,11,12,13,14,30,31,32,33,34
3            0,2,4,9,11,1,3,8,10,12      15,16,17,18,19,35,36,37,38,39
```

```
cpuinfo -g
=====
Processor composition
=====
Processor name      : Intel(R) Xeon(R) E5-4627 v3
Packages(sockets) : 4
Cores             : 40
Processors(CPUs)  : 40
Cores per package: 10
Threads per core  : 1
```

```
cpuinfo -c
=====
Cache sharing
=====
Cache  Size      Processors
L1    32 KB     no sharing
L2    256 KB    no sharing
L3    25 MB     (0,1,2,3,4,20,21,22,23,24)(5,6,7,8,9,25,26,27,28,29)(10,11,12,13,14,30,31,32,33,34)(15,16,17,18,19,35,36,37,38,39)
```



Race to
Multicore

The typical NUMA architecture

How to discover the topology of

- **numactl** tool
- **cpuinfo** tool (by Intel)
- **hwloc** (by OpenMPI)

Machine (256GB total)

NUMANode L#0 (P#0 64GB)

Package L#0 + L3 L#0 (25MB)
L2 L#0 (256KB) + L1d L#0 (32KB) + L1i L#0 (32KB) + Core L#0 + PU L#0 (P#0)
L2 L#1 (256KB) + L1d L#1 (32KB) + L1i L#1 (32KB) + Core L#1 + PU L#1 (P#1)
L2 L#2 (256KB) + L1d L#2 (32KB) + L1i L#2 (32KB) + Core L#2 + PU L#2 (P#2)
L2 L#3 (256KB) + L1d L#3 (32KB) + L1i L#3 (32KB) + Core L#3 + PU L#3 (P#3)
L2 L#4 (256KB) + L1d L#4 (32KB) + L1i L#4 (32KB) + Core L#4 + PU L#4 (P#4)
L2 L#5 (256KB) + L1d L#5 (32KB) + L1i L#5 (32KB) + Core L#5 + PU L#5 (P#20)
L2 L#6 (256KB) + L1d L#6 (32KB) + L1i L#6 (32KB) + Core L#6 + PU L#6 (P#21)
L2 L#7 (256KB) + L1d L#7 (32KB) + L1i L#7 (32KB) + Core L#7 + PU L#7 (P#22)
L2 L#8 (256KB) + L1d L#8 (32KB) + L1i L#8 (32KB) + Core L#8 + PU L#8 (P#23)
L2 L#9 (256KB) + L1d L#9 (32KB) + L1i L#9 (32KB) + Core L#9 + PU L#9 (P#24)

NUMANode L#1 (P#1 64GB) + Package L#1 + L3 L#1 (25MB)

L2 L#10 (256KB) + L1d L#10 (32KB) + L1i L#10 (32KB) + Core L#10 + PU L#10 (P#5)
L2 L#11 (256KB) + L1d L#11 (32KB) + L1i L#11 (32KB) + Core L#11 + PU L#11 (P#6)
L2 L#12 (256KB) + L1d L#12 (32KB) + L1i L#12 (32KB) + Core L#12 + PU L#12 (P#7)
L2 L#13 (256KB) + L1d L#13 (32KB) + L1i L#13 (32KB) + Core L#13 + PU L#13 (P#8)
L2 L#14 (256KB) + L1d L#14 (32KB) + L1i L#14 (32KB) + Core L#14 + PU L#14 (P#9)
L2 L#15 (256KB) + L1d L#15 (32KB) + L1i L#15 (32KB) + Core L#15 + PU L#15 (P#25)
L2 L#16 (256KB) + L1d L#16 (32KB) + L1i L#16 (32KB) + Core L#16 + PU L#16 (P#26)
L2 L#17 (256KB) + L1d L#17 (32KB) + L1i L#17 (32KB) + Core L#17 + PU L#17 (P#27)
L2 L#18 (256KB) + L1d L#18 (32KB) + L1i L#18 (32KB) + Core L#18 + PU L#18 (P#28)
L2 L#19 (256KB) + L1d L#19 (32KB) + L1i L#19 (32KB) + Core L#19 + PU L#19 (P#29)

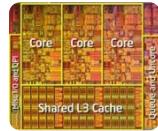
NUMANode L#2 (P#2 64GB) + Package L#2 + L3 L#2 (25MB)

L2 L#20 (256KB) + L1d L#20 (32KB) + L1i L#20 (32KB) + Core L#20 + PU L#20 (P#10)
L2 L#21 (256KB) + L1d L#21 (32KB) + L1i L#21 (32KB) + Core L#21 + PU L#21 (P#11)
L2 L#22 (256KB) + L1d L#22 (32KB) + L1i L#22 (32KB) + Core L#22 + PU L#22 (P#12)
L2 L#23 (256KB) + L1d L#23 (32KB) + L1i L#23 (32KB) + Core L#23 + PU L#23 (P#13)
L2 L#24 (256KB) + L1d L#24 (32KB) + L1i L#24 (32KB) + Core L#24 + PU L#24 (P#14)
L2 L#25 (256KB) + L1d L#25 (32KB) + L1i L#25 (32KB) + Core L#25 + PU L#25 (P#30)
L2 L#26 (256KB) + L1d L#26 (32KB) + L1i L#26 (32KB) + Core L#26 + PU L#26 (P#31)
L2 L#27 (256KB) + L1d L#27 (32KB) + L1i L#27 (32KB) + Core L#27 + PU L#27 (P#32)
L2 L#28 (256KB) + L1d L#28 (32KB) + L1i L#28 (32KB) + Core L#28 + PU L#28 (P#33)
L2 L#29 (256KB) + L1d L#29 (32KB) + L1i L#29 (32KB) + Core L#29 + PU L#29 (P#34)

NUMANode L#3 (P#3 64GB) + Package L#3 + L3 L#3 (25MB)

L2 L#30 (256KB) + L1d L#30 (32KB) + L1i L#30 (32KB) + Core L#30 + PU L#30 (P#15)
L2 L#31 (256KB) + L1d L#31 (32KB) + L1i L#31 (32KB) + Core L#31 + PU L#31 (P#16)
L2 L#32 (256KB) + L1d L#32 (32KB) + L1i L#32 (32KB) + Core L#32 + PU L#32 (P#17)
L2 L#33 (256KB) + L1d L#33 (32KB) + L1i L#33 (32KB) + Core L#33 + PU L#33 (P#18)
L2 L#34 (256KB) + L1d L#34 (32KB) + L1i L#34 (32KB) + Core L#34 + PU L#34 (P#19)
L2 L#35 (256KB) + L1d L#35 (32KB) + L1i L#35 (32KB) + Core L#35 + PU L#35 (P#35)
L2 L#36 (256KB) + L1d L#36 (32KB) + L1i L#36 (32KB) + Core L#36 + PU L#36 (P#36)
L2 L#37 (256KB) + L1d L#37 (32KB) + L1i L#37 (32KB) + Core L#37 + PU L#37 (P#37)
L2 L#38 (256KB) + L1d L#38 (32KB) + L1i L#38 (32KB) + Core L#38 + PU L#38 (P#38)
L2 L#39 (256KB) + L1d L#39 (32KB) + L1i L#39 (32KB) + Core L#39 + PU L#39 (P#39)



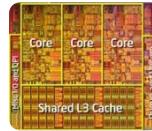


The typical NUMA architecture



How to discover the topology of your node:

- `numactl` tool
- `cpuinfo` tool (by Intel)
- `hwloc` (by OpenMPI)
- directly exploring **/sys/devices/system/**

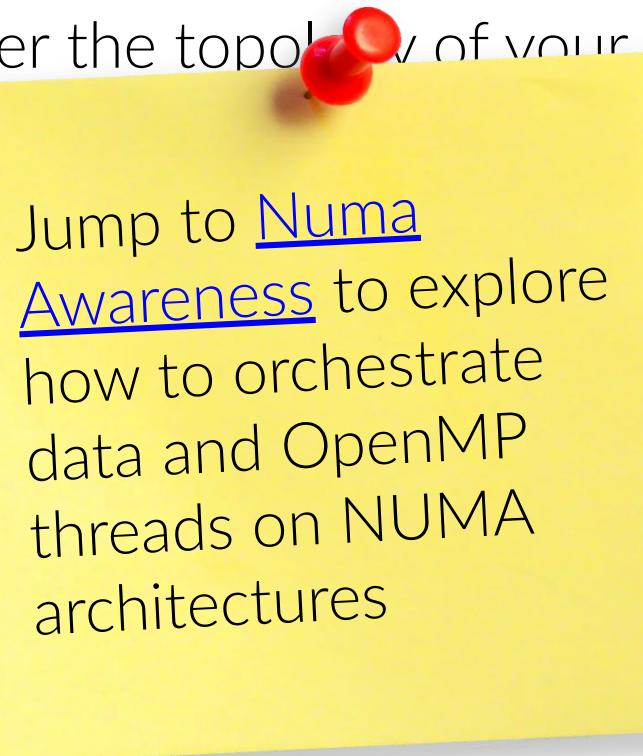


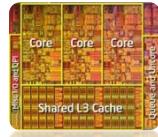
The typical NUMA architecture



How to discover the topology of your node:

- `numactl` to
- `cpuinfo` to
- `hwloc` (by C
- directly exp





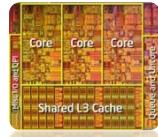
Cache coherence

Data synchronization is one of the main performance killers for multi-core applications.

- when a memory region is accessed by two cores (i.e. by two different threads running on two different cores), it must be present in both L1/L2, and when one core updates the value, the change must be propagate.
- when a thread migrates, the data will still resides on another's core memory.

Memory consistency for the whole system is guaranteed at hardware level, resulting in huge wasting of time if data are not properly handled.

For instance, concurrent access in writing is a main sink of cpu cycles.



Cache coherence: MESI

Data consistency is maintained by the **MESI** standard.

It is the successor of the MSI protocol and the ancestor of MESOI one

MODIFIED

X's values has been modified by this core, and then this is the only valid copy in the system

EXCLUSIVE

X is used by this core only; changes do not need to be signalled

SHARED

X is used by multiple cores; changes need to be signalled

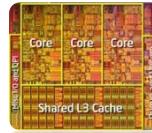
INVALID

X's value has been modified by another core (or X is not used)

see:

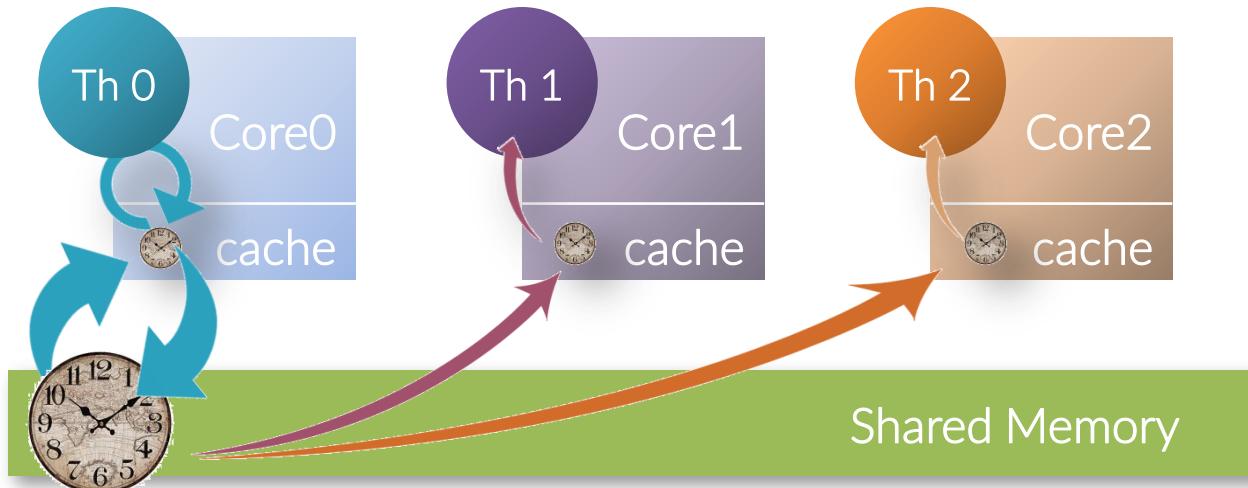
MD64 Architecture Programmer's Manual
Volume 2: System Programming

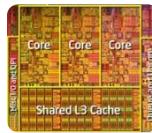
"X" stands for a given memory location



Let's clarify with an example. Let's say that there are 3 threads, running on separate cores, accessing some shared-memory.

Thread0 is running the application `clock()`, which ticks a shared-memory variable that contains the wall-clock time. In time to time, both Thread1 and Thread2 want to know what time it is.





Cache coherence: MESI – an example

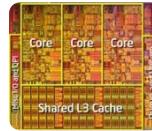
	Time (in secs)	Action	cache status		
M	Modified		Core0	Core1	Core2
E	Exclusive	0	-	I	I
S	Shared	1	Th0 reads	E	I
I	Invalid	2	Th0 writes ⁰	E	I
		2.3	Th1 reads ¹	S	S
		2.7	Th2 reads	S	S
		3	Th0 writes ²	M	I
		4	Th0 writes	M	I
		4.4	Th2 reads ¹	S	S
		5	Th0 writes	M	I

0 Core0 is the only one using the value, that is then “Exclusive”. No signal needs to be sent around.

1 A signal is issued to “the memory”, which recognizes that the only valid copy is in the Core0 cache. Hence, that value is copied back into the shared memory, and from there it is copied in the cache. At that point, everybody has a valid copy, which is then “Shared” **(*)**.

2 A signal about the change is issued to all the interested actors (those who have a copy) because their values are now “Invalid”. O’s copy is instead “Modified”.

(*) In the MESOI protocol, in this case the copy can be sent directly to the other caches, without having to transit by the DRAM



Great powers, great responsibility

A

Variables used by a single core
They should resides in
a single cache

A cache line should contain only one type of data.

B

Read-only variables
No issues in being shared
among many cores

Put variables in the order they will be used.

C

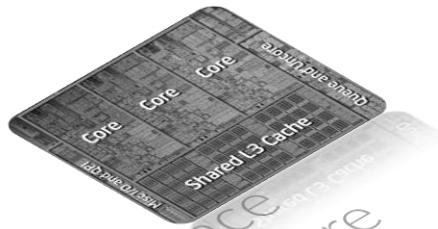
Modified variables
Variables modified by many cores, or read by many cores

Modified variables should stay together, they are the bottlenecks.

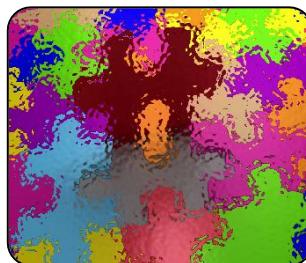
The **false sharing** happens when variables of type A or B resides in the same cache line of a type C. Or when two type C variables, modified by two different cores, reside in the same cache line.



Introduction Outline



The race
to multicore



Intro to Parallel
Computing



Parallel
Performance



What is parallel computing ?



1. A **parallel computer** is a computational system that offers *simultaneous access* to *many computational units* fed by memory units.
The computational units are required to be able to *co-operate* in some way, meaning *exchanging data and instructions* with the other computational units.

2. **Parallel processing** is the ensemble of techniques and algorithms that makes you able to actually use a parallel computer to successfully and efficiently solve a problem.



What is parallel computing ?

The parallel processing is expressed by **software entities** that have an increasing level of granularity:

processes, threads, routines, loops, instructions..

The software entities run on underlying **computational hardware entities** as processors, cores, accelerators

The data to be processed/created live and travel in **storage hardware entities** as

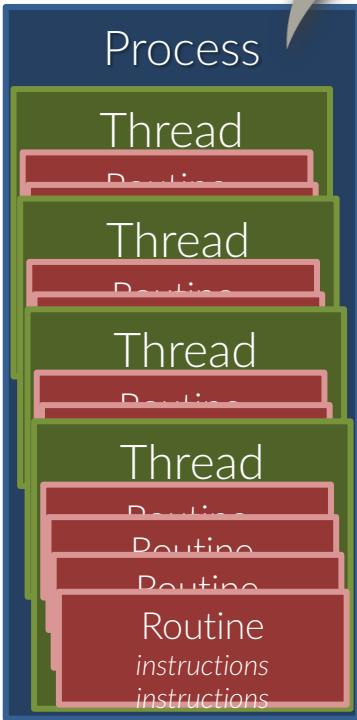
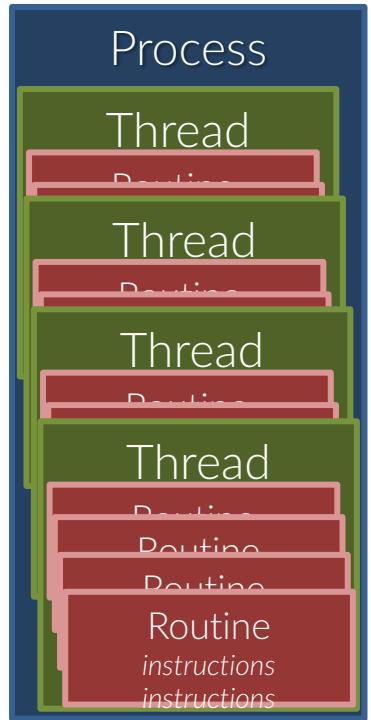
Memory, caches, NVM, networks, DMA

The *exploitation/access* of hardware resources (computational and storage) is **concurrent** among software entities

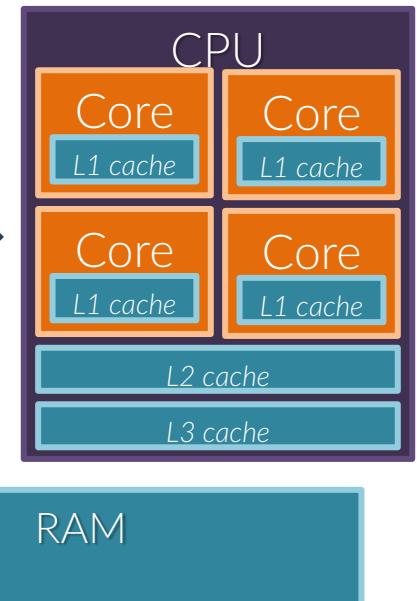
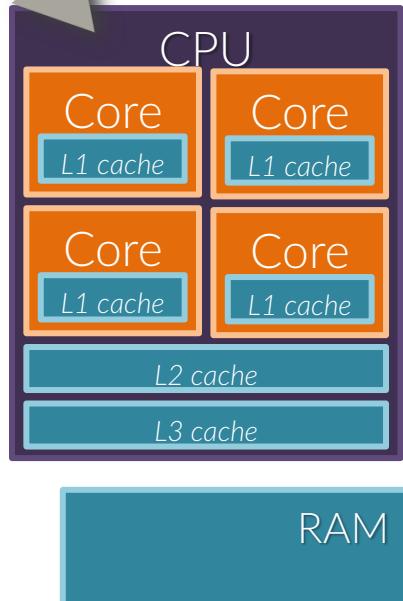


What is parallel computing ?

Software level



Hardware level





Why parallelism ?

For two main reasons:

1. Time-to-solution

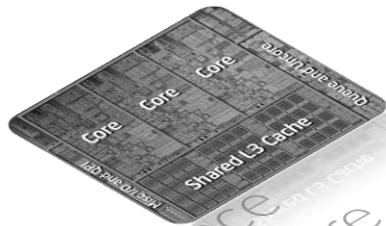
- To solve the same problem in a smaller time
- To solve a larger problem in the same time

2. Problem size (\sim data size)

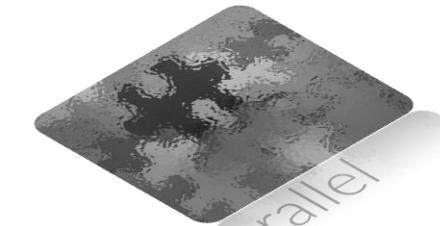
To solve a problem that could *not* fit on the memory addressable by a single computational units (or that could fit in the space around a single computational units without serious performance loss)



Introduction Outline



The race
to multicore



Intro to Parallel
Computing



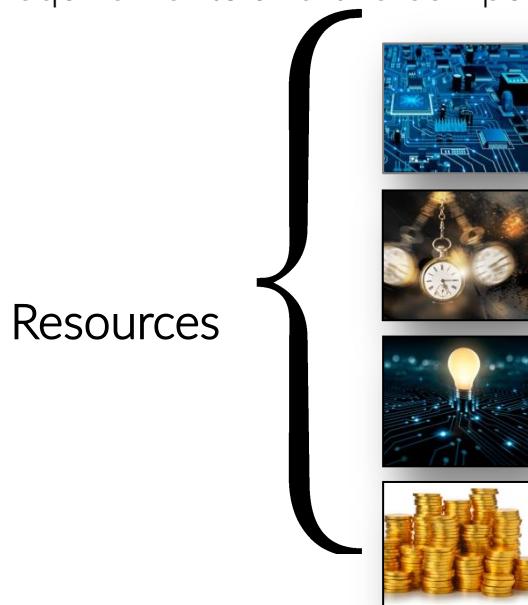
Parallel
Performance



What is parallel performance

Has we have seen, «performance» is a tag that can stand for many things.

In this frame, with «performance» we mean the relation between the computational requirements and the computational resources needed to meet those requirements.



Hardware



Time



Energy



Money



$$\text{Performance} \approx \frac{1}{\text{resources}}$$

$$\text{Performance ratios} \approx \frac{\text{resources}_1}{\text{resources}_2}$$



What is parallel performance



Performance is a measure of how well the computational requirements are met and, at the same time, of how well the computational resources are exploited.

“The most constant difficulty in contriving the engine has arisen from the desire to reduce the time in which the calculations were executed to the shortest which is possible.”

Charles Babbage, 1791 – 1871



Key factors



n	Problem size
$T_s(n)$	Serial run-time
$T_p(n)$	Parallel run-time
p	Number of computing units
f_n	Intrinsic sequential fraction of the problem of size n
$k(n, t)$	Parallel overhead

$$\text{Speedup} \quad Sp(n, t) = \frac{T_s(n)}{T_p(n)}$$

$$\text{Efficiency} \quad Eff(n, t) = \frac{T_s(n)}{p \times T_p(n)} = \frac{Sp(n, t)}{p}$$



Naïve expectations



- If single processor $\sim m$ Mflops, parallel flops performance with p tasks is $p \times m$ Mflops.
- If sequential run-time is T , parallel run-time with p tasks is $\propto T/p$.
- If parallel run-time with p tasks is T , and the run-time with p_1 tasks is T_1 , then $T_1/T_2 \propto p_2/p_1$
- If parallel run-time with p tasks and problem size Z is T , the run-time with size Z_1 is $T_1 \propto T \times Z_1/Z$.

Is that correct ?



Parallel performance



Sequential execution time is

$$T_S = T(n,1) \times f_n + T(n,1) \times (1-f_n)$$

Assuming that the parallel fraction of the computation is *perfectly parallel*, parallel execution time is

$$T_P = T(n,p) = T_S \times f_n + T_S \times (1-f_n)/p + k(n,t)$$

And then

$$\text{speedup} = Sp(n,p) \leq T_S / T_P$$

$$\text{efficiency} = Eff(n,p) \leq Sp(n,p) / p$$



Amdahl's law

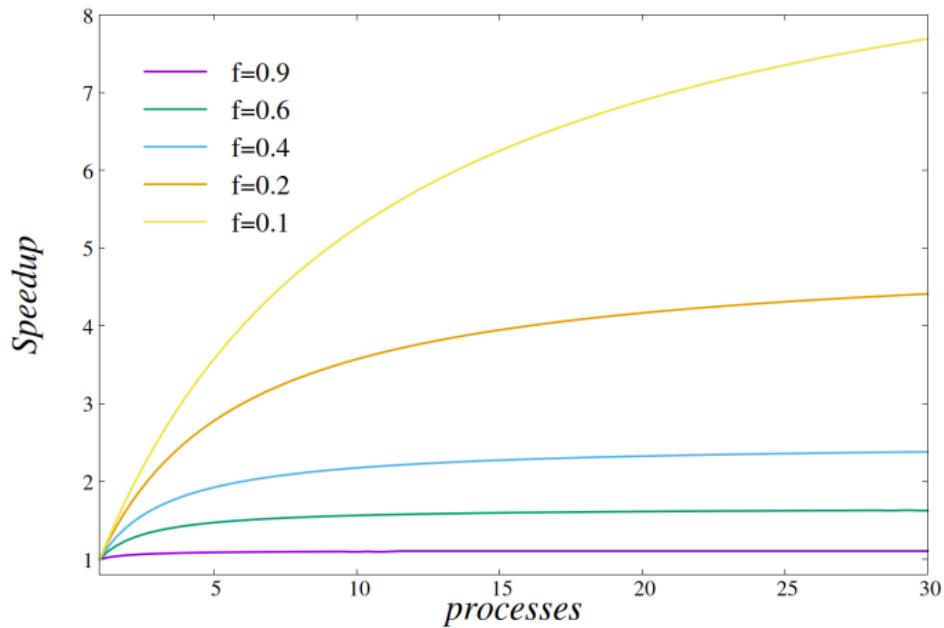


If f is the fraction of the code which is intrinsically sequential,

the speedup is then

$$Sp(n, t) \leq \frac{1}{f + \frac{1-f}{p}} \leq \frac{1}{f}$$

Note that we wrote f instead of f_n





There are some significant issues in the Amdhal's law shown in the previous slide:

- No matter of how many processes p are used, the speedup is determined by f (and is quite low for ordinary problems).
- The problem size n is kept fixed when estimating the possible speedup while the number of processes increases (*strong scaling*).
However, most often the problem size increases as well.
- The parallel overhead $k(n, t)$ is ignored, which leads to an optimistic estimate of the speedup, and usually, $p(n)/t > k(n,t)$
- The fraction of sequential part may decrease when the problem size increases

Then, usually the speedup increases with problem size



Gustafson's law



However, normally when you increase the problem's size, the parallelizable part increases way more than the sequential part.

If we consider the workload as the sum

$$w = a + b$$

where a and b being the serial and the parallel work, and we assign the same amount of workload to every process, that would amount to a serial run-time

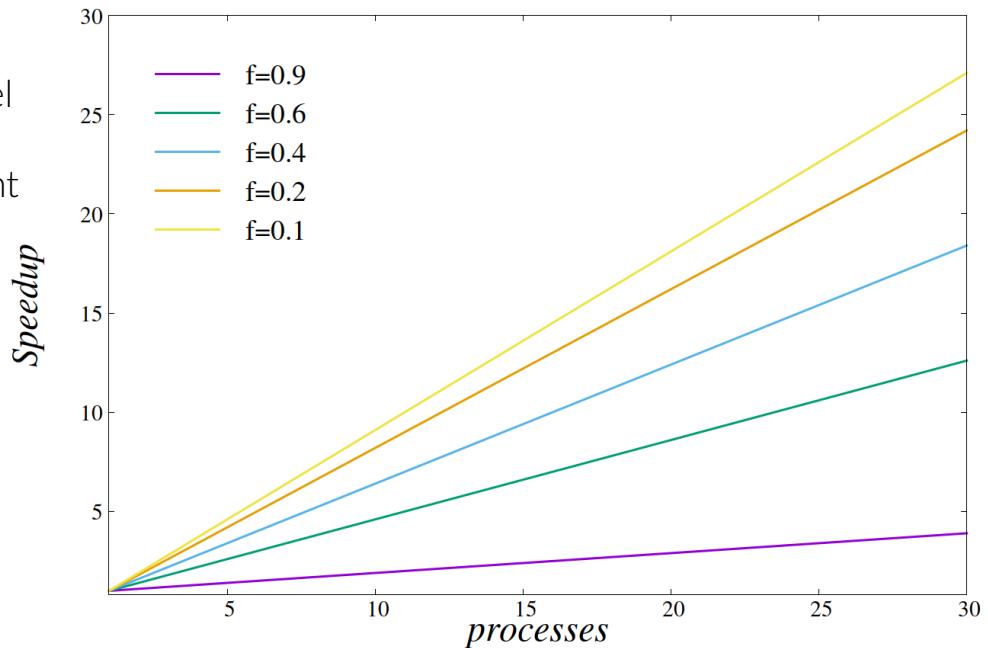
$$T_s \propto a + p \times b$$

while it still takes

$$T_p \propto a + b \text{ using } p \text{ processes}$$

Hence the speedup is $[a + p \times b] / [a + b]$, which if $f_n = a/(a+b)$ we can rewrite as the Gustafson's law for the speedup:

$$Sp_G(n, t) = p - (p - 1)f_n \leq p$$





Scalability



The two lines of reasoning, the former by Amdhal and the latter by Gustafson, lead us to two different concepts for the *scalability*, which is the ability of a parallel system to increase its efficiency when the number of processes and/or the size of the problem get larger.

1. STRONG SCALABILITY: the problem size is fixed, p increases
2. WEAK SCALABILITY: the workload is fixed, the problem size *and* p increase



Parallel overhead



In parallel computing there may be several sources of overhead due to the parallelization itself:

- Communication overhead
- Algorithmic overhead
- Synchronization
 - Critical paths - Dependencies across different processes
 - Bottlenecks (some processes are stuck and make all the others to waste time)
 - Work-load imbalance
- Thread/processes creation

Hence, if $k(n,t)$ is the overhead of some kind, t_S and t_P the run-time for the serial and the parallel part, the parallel run-time can be written as

$$T_P(n, p) = t_S + \frac{t_P}{p} + k(n, t)$$

Let's define an experimentally measured serial fraction of time:

$$e(n, p) = \frac{t_S + k(n, p)}{t_S + t_P}$$



Parallel overhead

With a little bit of math: $e(n, p) = \frac{\frac{1}{Sp(n,t)} - \frac{1}{p}}{1 - \frac{1}{p}}$

Let's check a couple of examples:

p	2	4	8	10	20
$Sp(p)$	1.69	2.6	3.52	3.79	4.49
$E(p)$	0.18	0.18	0.18	0.18	0.18

The measured serial fraction is constant, the lack of scaling is due to the 0.18 fraction of serial workload.

p	2	4	8	10	20
$Sp(p)$	1.67	2.47	3.11	3.22	3.15
$E(p)$	0.2	0.21	0.22	0.23	0.28

The measured serial fraction keep increasing: the lack of scaling is also due parallelization overhead

Outline



Intro to
basic
OpenMP



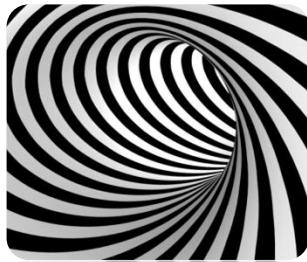
OpenMP Outline



Introduction
&
Concept



Parallel
Regions



Parallel
Loops



Sections
& Task



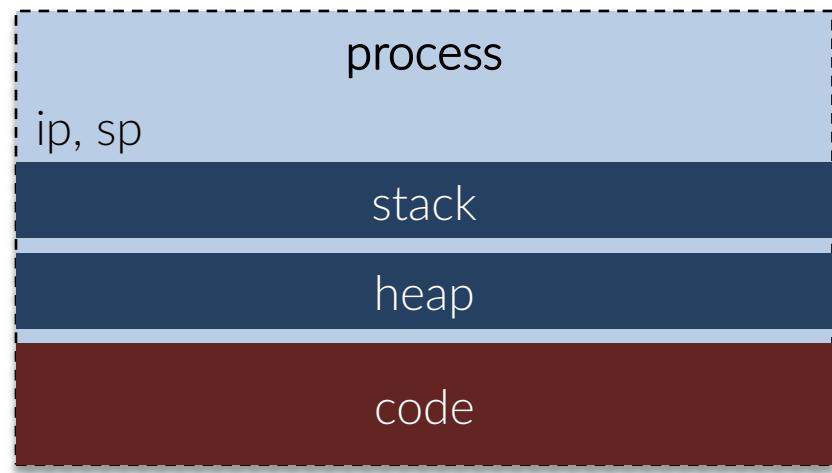
Threads and processes

A **process** is an independent sequence of instructions *and* the ensemble of resources needed for their execution.

A program needs much more than just its binary code (i.e. the list of ops to be executed): it needs to access to a protected memory space and to access system resources (e.g. files and network).

A “process” is then a program that has been allocated with the necessary resources by the operating system.

There may be different **instances** of the same program as different, independent processes





Threads and processes

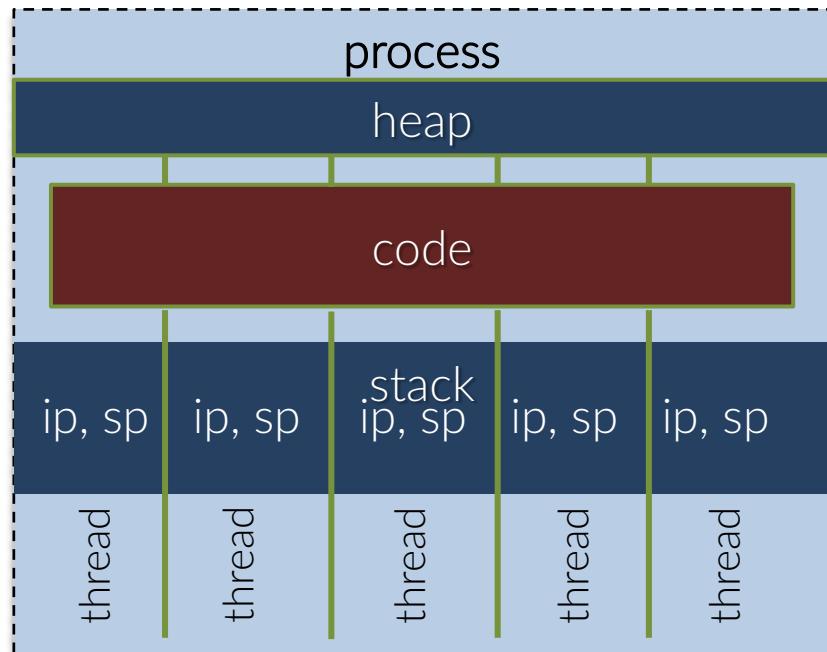


A **thread** is an independent instance of code execution *within* a process. There may be from one to many threads within the same process.

Each thread shares the same code, memory address space and resources than its father process.

While each thread has its own stack, ip and sp, the heap will be shared among threads, which then operate in *shared-memory*.

Spawning threads inside a process is much less costly than creating processes.

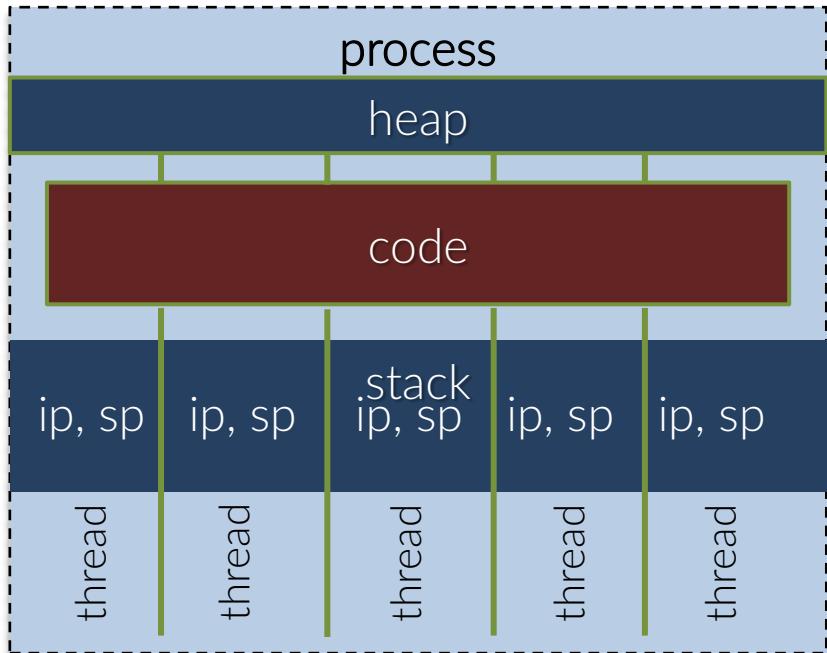




Threads and processes

A thread can run either on the same computational units of its father process or on a different one.

A computational unit nowadays amounts to a **core**, either inside the same CPU (socket) on which the father process runs, or inside a sibling socket in the same NUMA region.





| What is OpenMP



OpenMP is a standard API to enable shared-memory parallel programming:
Open specifications for MultiProcessing

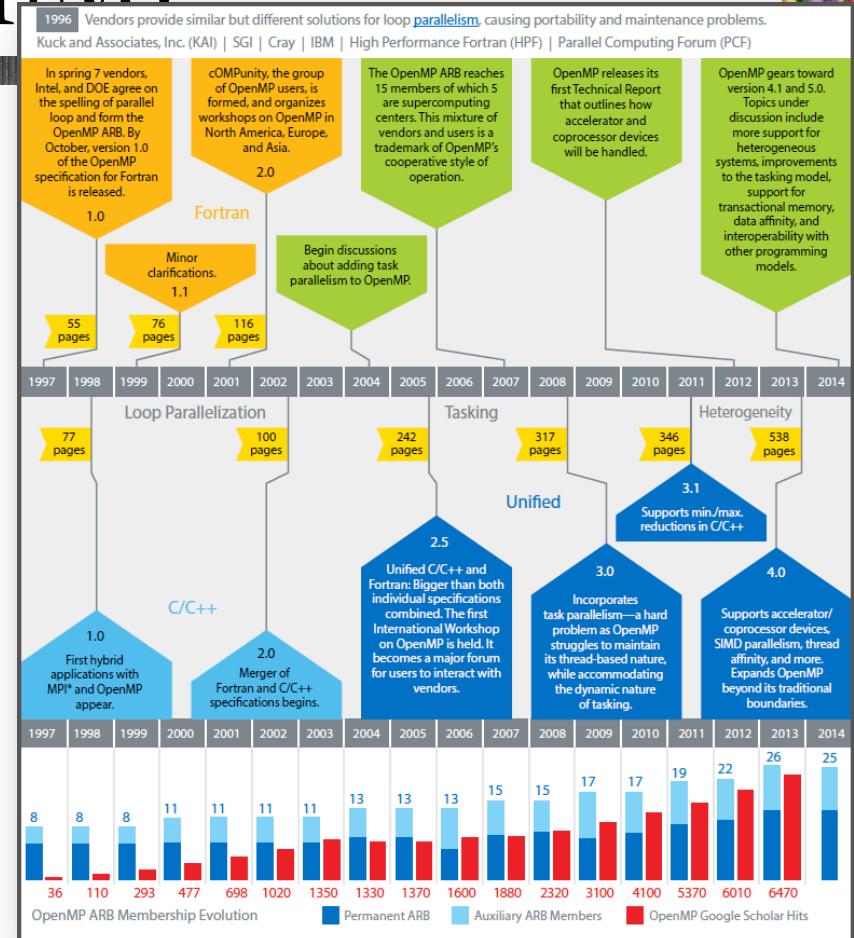
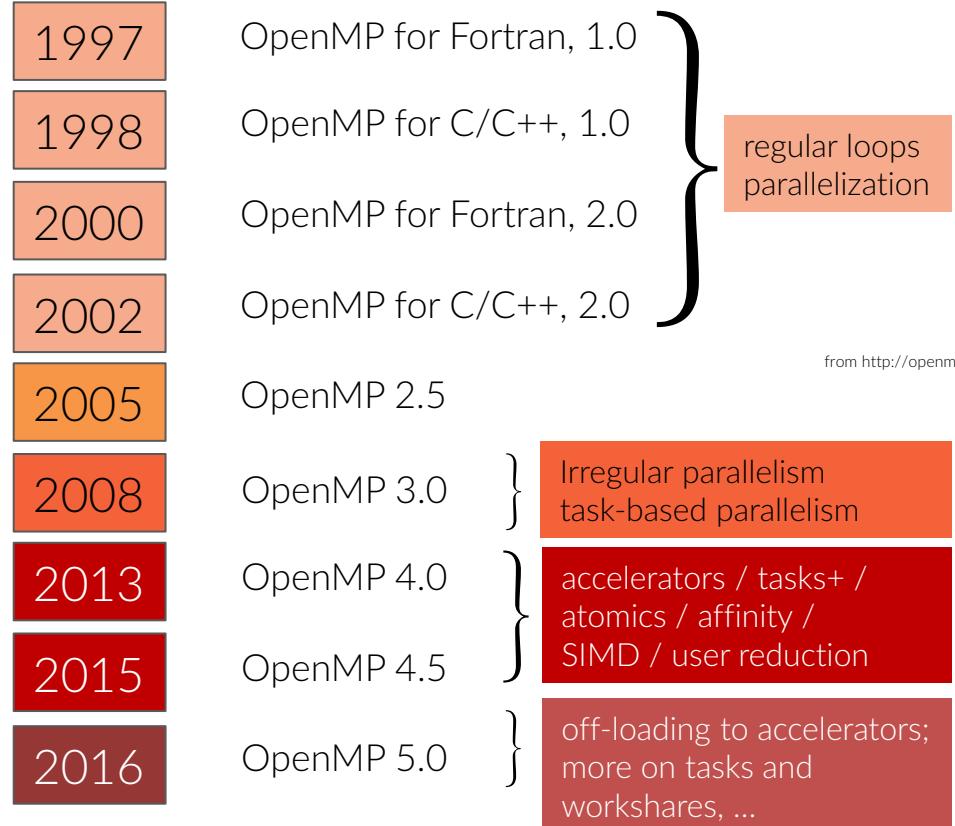
It allows to write multi-threaded programs with a standard behaviour through the usage of a set of compiler directives to be inserted in the source code:

- Pragmas '#' in C/C++
- Specially formatted comments in Fortran

Both fine- and coarse-grain parallelism are possible, from loop-level to explicit assignment to threads.



What is OpenMP





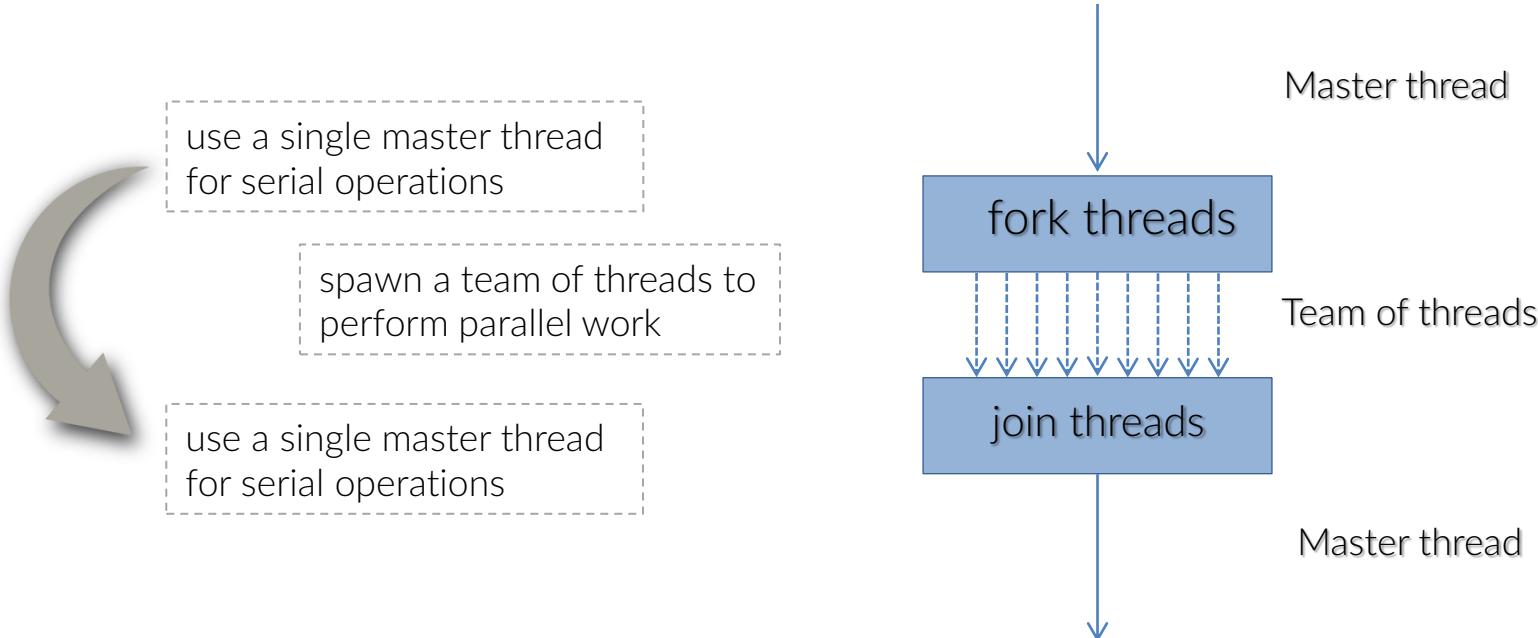
What is OpenMP

Advantages of a
directive-based
approach

- **Abstraction**
Subtleties of `pthread` and hardware-specific aspects are hidden. You can focus on data and workflow much more easily.
- **Efficiency.**
The learning curve to achieve reasonable results is much shallower. The code's design is easier, the result/effort ratio is favourable with respect to `pthread`.
- **Incremental approach**
No need to re-write your whole code. You start concentrating on some sections only, following the suggestions from profiling.
- **Portability.**
The compiler will take care of this for you. You still have to develop a design able to adapt to different topologies.
- **One source**
Through conditional compilation, serial and parallel versions can easily coexist.



OpenMP programming model

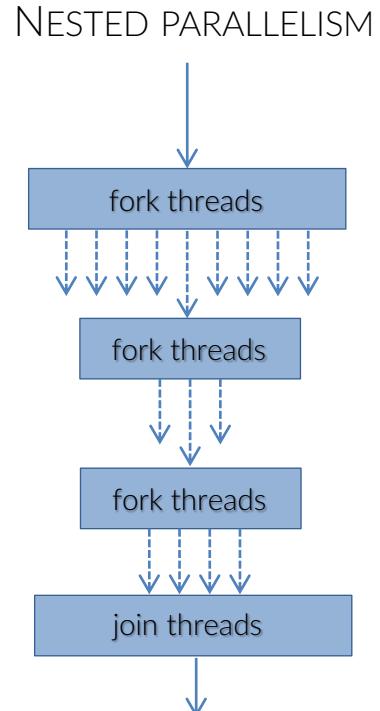




OpenMP programming model



- Threads access and modify shared memory regions
 - explicit or implicit synchronization protect against race conditions
 - there is no concept like explicit “message-passing”
 - loop-carried dependencies hamper any parallel speedup
 - shared-variable attributes are vital to reduce or avoid race conditions or the need for synchronization
- Each thread performs its part of parallel work in a separate space and stack that are not visible to other threads or outside the parallel region
- Nested parallelism is explicitly permitted
- The number of threads can be dynamically changed before a parallel region





OpenMP directives



An OpenMP directive is a specially-formatted pragma for C/C++ and comment for FORTRAN codes.

Most of the directives apply to *structured code block*, i.e. a block with a single input and a single output points and no branch within it.

The directives allows to

- create team of threads for parallel execution
- manage the sharing of workload among threads
- specify which memory regions (i.e. variables) are shared and which are private to each threads
- drive the update of shared memory regions
- synchronize threads and determine atomic/exclusive operations

DECLARE PARALLEL REGION

!\$OMP PARALLEL

...

!\$OMP END PARALLEL

#pragma omp parallel

{

...

}



Dynamic extent



As we have seen in the previous slide, the lexical scope of structured blocks defines the *static extent* of an OpenMP parallel region.

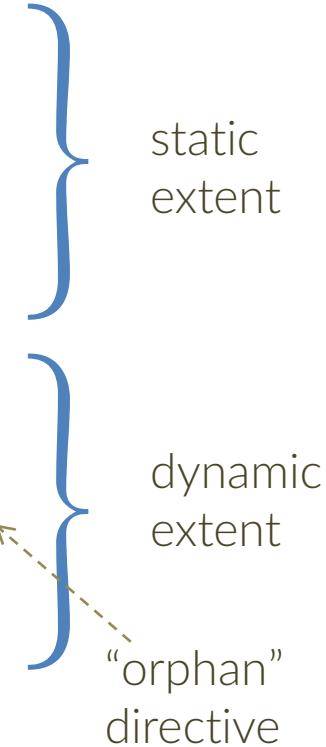
Every function call from within a parallel region determines the creation of a *dynamic extent* to which the same directives apply.

The *dynamic extent* includes the original static extent and all the instructions and further calls along the call tree.

The functions called in the dynamic extent can contain additional OpenMP directives.

```
#pragma omp parallel
{
    double *array;
    int N;
    ...
    sum = foo(array, N);
    ...
}

double foo( double *A, int N )
{
    double sum = 0;
    #pragma parallel for reduction(+:sum)
    for ( int ii = 0; ii < N; ii++ )
        sum += array[ii];
    return sum;
}
```





OpenMP toolbox



OpenMP is made of 3 components:

- 1. Compiler directives**

give indication to the compiler about how to manage threads internals

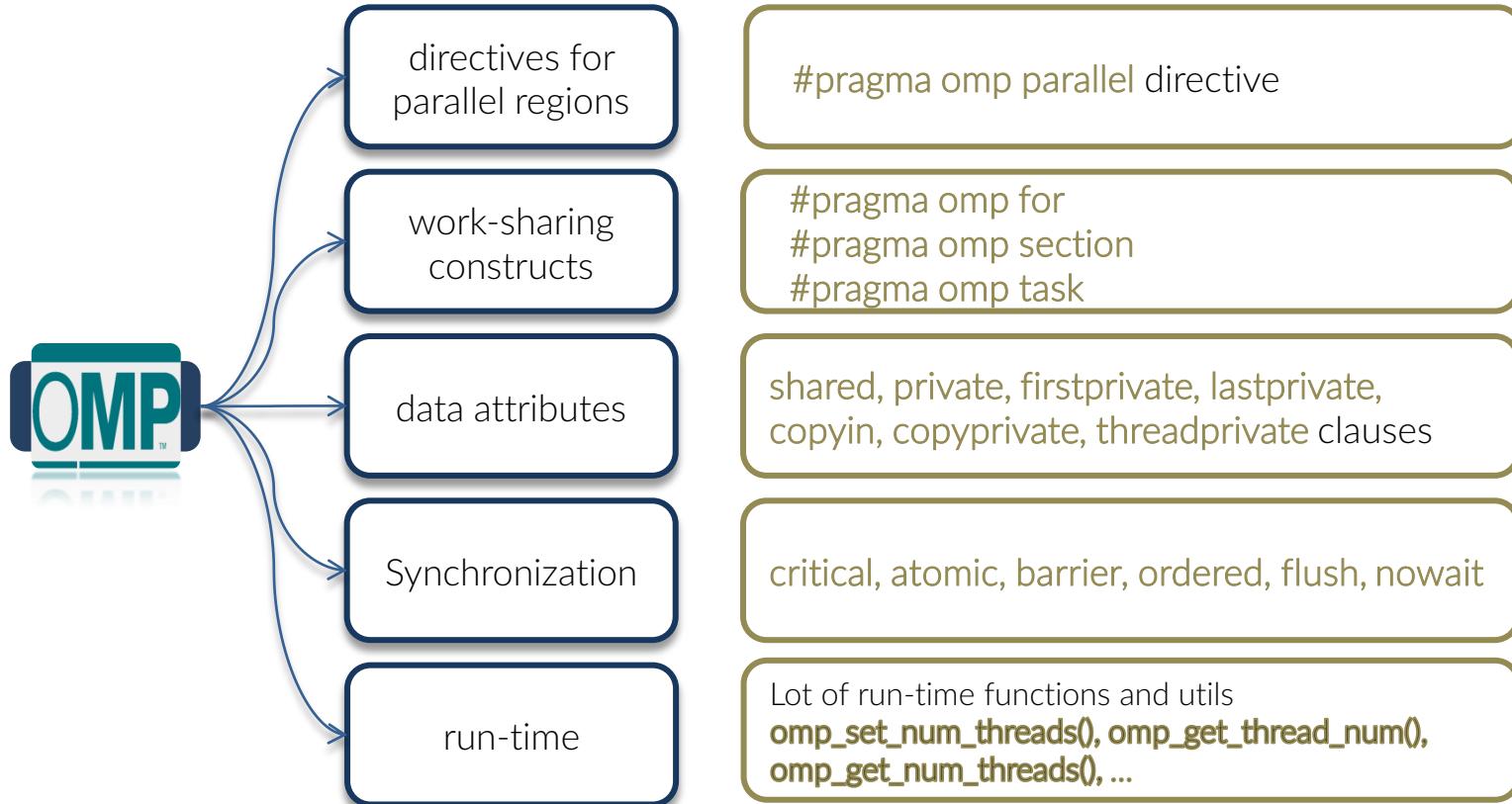
- 2. Run-time libraries linked by the compiler**

- 3. Environment variables**

set by the user, determine the behaviour of the omp library; for instance, the number of threads to be spawned or the requirements about the thread-cores-memory affinity



OpenMP toolbox





Conditional compilation



By default, when the compiler is instructed to activate the processing of OpenMP directives,

```
gcc -fopenmp ...
icc -fopenmp ...
pgcc -mp ...
```

it defines a macro that let you to conditionally compile sections of the code:

```
...
#ifndef _OPENMP
...
...
#endif
...
```



omp_versions.c : with this example, you see how to determine what version of OpenMP standard is supported by your compiler



Conditional compilation



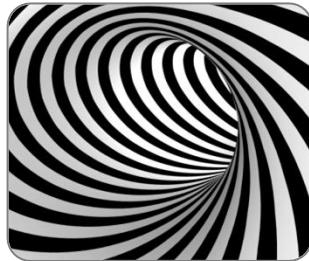
What is this useful for?

To write code that works as well also without OpenMP.

That helps you in assessing the correctness and portability of your code (mostly if you are writing an hybrid code, for instance MPI+OpenMP).



OpenMP Outline



Parallel
Regions

Parallel
Loops

Sections
& Task



NUMA
AWARENESS



Parallel Regions

```
#pragma omp parallel _some_clauses_here_
single-line-here
```

```
#pragma omp parallel _some_clauses_here_
{ ... }
```

```
#pragma omp parallel for _some_clauses_here_
{ ... }
```

```
#pragma omp sections _some_clauses_here_
{ ... }
```

```
#pragma omp task _some_clauses_here_
{ ... }
```

A parallel region can be as short as a single line

There are no limits on the size of the code included within {}.

The specific construct about `for` loops

A more general work-sharing construct

This allows task-based parallelism

The region starts at the opening { brace and ends at the closing } one.

An implicit synchronization barrier is present at the end of the region (*).

However, for efficiency reasons, it may be that the threads do not die at the end of the region but remain alive until the father process dies

(*) we'll see the details about synchronization later on



| The threads factory

When you create a parallel region, through an OpenMP directive, a pool of threads is created.

Each one receives an ID, ranging from 0 to $n-1$, where n is the number of threads.

Their stack and IP are separated from the others' ones and from the father-process' ones.

Can we check that?

What is the fate of the creating process (thread) ?

```
int      i;

register unsigned long long base_of_stack asm("rbp");
register unsigned long long top_of_stack asm("rsp");

printf( "\nmain thread (pid: %d, tid: %d) data:\n"
        "base of stack is: %p\n"
        "top of stack is : %p\n"
        "&i is          : %p\n"
        "#    rbp - &i   : %td\n"
        "#    &i - rsp   : %td\n"
        "\n\n",
        getpid(), syscall(SYS_gettid),
        (void*)base_of_stack,
        (void*)top_of_stack,
        &i,
        (void*)base_of_stack - (void*)&i,
        (void*)&i - (void*)top_of_stack );

#pragma omp parallel private(i)
{
    int me = omp_get_thread_num();
    unsigned long long my_stackbase;
    __asm__("mov %%rbp,%0" : "=mr" (my_stackbase));

    printf( "\nthread (tid: %ld) nr %d:\n"
            "\t\tmy base of stack is %p ( %td from main's stack ) \n",
            "\t\tmy i address is %p\n"
            "\t\t\t%td from my stackbase and %td from main's\n",
            syscall(SYS_gettid), me,
            (void*)my_stackbase, (void*)base_of_stack - (void*)my_stackbase,
            &i, (void*)&i - (void*)my_stackbase,
            (void*)&i - (void*)base_of_stack);
}
```





The threads factory

serial section

```
main thread (pid: 26291, tid: 26291) data:  
base of stack is: 0x7ffe6f51efc0  
top of stack is : 0x7ffe6f51ef60  
&i is           : 0x7ffe6f51ef7c  
    rbp - &i   : 68  
    &i - rsp  : 28
```

parallel region

```
thread (tid: 26291) nr 0:  
    my base of stack is 0x7ffe6f51eee0 ( 224 from main's stack )  
    my i address is 0x7ffe6f51eea0  
        -64 from my stackbase and -288 from main's  
thread (tid: 26293) nr 2:  
    my base of stack is 0x7f7342c82ba0 ( 597747680288 from main's stack )  
    my i address is 0x7f7342c82b60  
        -64 from my stackbase and -597747680352 from main's  
thread (tid: 26294) nr 3:  
    my base of stack is 0x7f7342880ba0 ( 597751882784 from main's stack )  
    my i address is 0x7f7342880b60  
        -64 from my stackbase and -597751882848 from main's  
thread (tid: 26292) nr 1:  
    my base of stack is 0x7f7343084b20 ( 597743477920 from main's stack )  
    my i address is 0x7f7343084ae0  
        -64 from my stackbase and -597743477984 from main's
```

-4202256

- ▶ Each thread has its own stack; thread 0 inherits its own stack, which has grown to host the data relative to OpenMP parallel region;
- ▶ the private `i`s are actually in the threads stacks, and so different memory regions than the shared `i`.





The threads factory

How large is the stack of each thread? The default value is system dependent.

That is the output of the `00_stack_and_scope` code example: it prints the BP and SP pointers of each thread. Then, we know how large is the threads' stack at a given moment (only an integer is defined, plus the system's thread structure), and how much memory is reserved for the stack to grow:

```
thread 0: bp @ 0x7ffc6edea2f0, tp @ 0x7ffc6edea280: 112 B
thread 1: bp @ 0x7fa371d18b20, tp @ 0x7fa371d18ab0: 112 B      --> -382202615648 B from top of thread 0
thread 2: bp @ 0x7fa371916ba0, tp @ 0x7fa371916b30: 112 B      --> -4202256 B from top of thread 1
thread 3: bp @ 0x7fa371514ba0, tp @ 0x7fa371514b30: 112 B      --> -4202384 B from top of thread 2
```

`you did not define OMP_STACKSIZE: try to set it and check what happens to the threads' stack pointers`

In this case, compiled with gcc, it seems that about 4MB are reserved for each thread. The same value holds with pgi, whereas clang seems to reserve 132MB (i.e., the addresses in the virtual space are spaced by 132MB).

However, you can control the size of the threads' stack using the environmental variable `OMP_STACKSIZE`:

```
export OMP_STACKSIZE=N
```

Where N is a number, followed by a letter: 'B', 'K', 'M', 'G' mean bytes, kilobytes, megabytes and gigabytes respectively (if no letter is specified, the number is interpreted as kilobytes).



The threads factory

```
export OMP_STACKSIZE=32K
```

```
thread 0: bp @ 0x7ffd1a2bbc70, tp @ 0x7ffd1a2bbbb0: 160 B
thread 1: bp @ 0x7f18b4be4af0, tp @ 0x7f18b4be4a50: 160 B      --> -980954214624 B from top of thread 0
thread 2: bp @ 0x7f18b4bdab70, tp @ 0x7f18b4bdaad0: 160 B      --> -40672 B from top of thread 1
thread 3: bp @ 0x7f18b4bd0b70, tp @ 0x7f18b4bd0ad0: 160 B      --> -40800 B from top of thread 2
```

you defined OMP_STACKSIZE as 32K: try to change that value and check what happens to the threads' stack pointers

```
export OMP_STACKSIZE=1M
```

```
thread 0: bp @ 0x7ffc6f8b97f0, tp @ 0x7ffc6f8b9750: 160 B
thread 1: bp @ 0x7fd5bf930af0, tp @ 0x7fd5bf930a50: 160 B      --> -166161058912 B from top of thread 0
thread 2: bp @ 0x7fd5bec96b70, tp @ 0x7fd5bec96ad0: 160 B      --> -13213408 B from top of thread 1
thread 3: bp @ 0x7fd5beb94b70, tp @ 0x7fd5beb94ad0: 160 B      --> -1056608 B from top of thread 2
```

you defined OMP_STACKSIZE as 1M: try to change that value and check what happens to the threads' stack pointers



| The threads factory



How many thread can be created by a single process?

Also this limit is system-dependent.

On Linux, it depends on the amount of total physical memory: basically, the maximum number of threads is the amount of physical memory divided by the memory amount needed to describe and run a thread, times a factor that accounts for the fact that you don't want all the memory allocated only to make the threads alive.

You can check this limit by

```
cat /proc/sys/kernel/threads-max
```

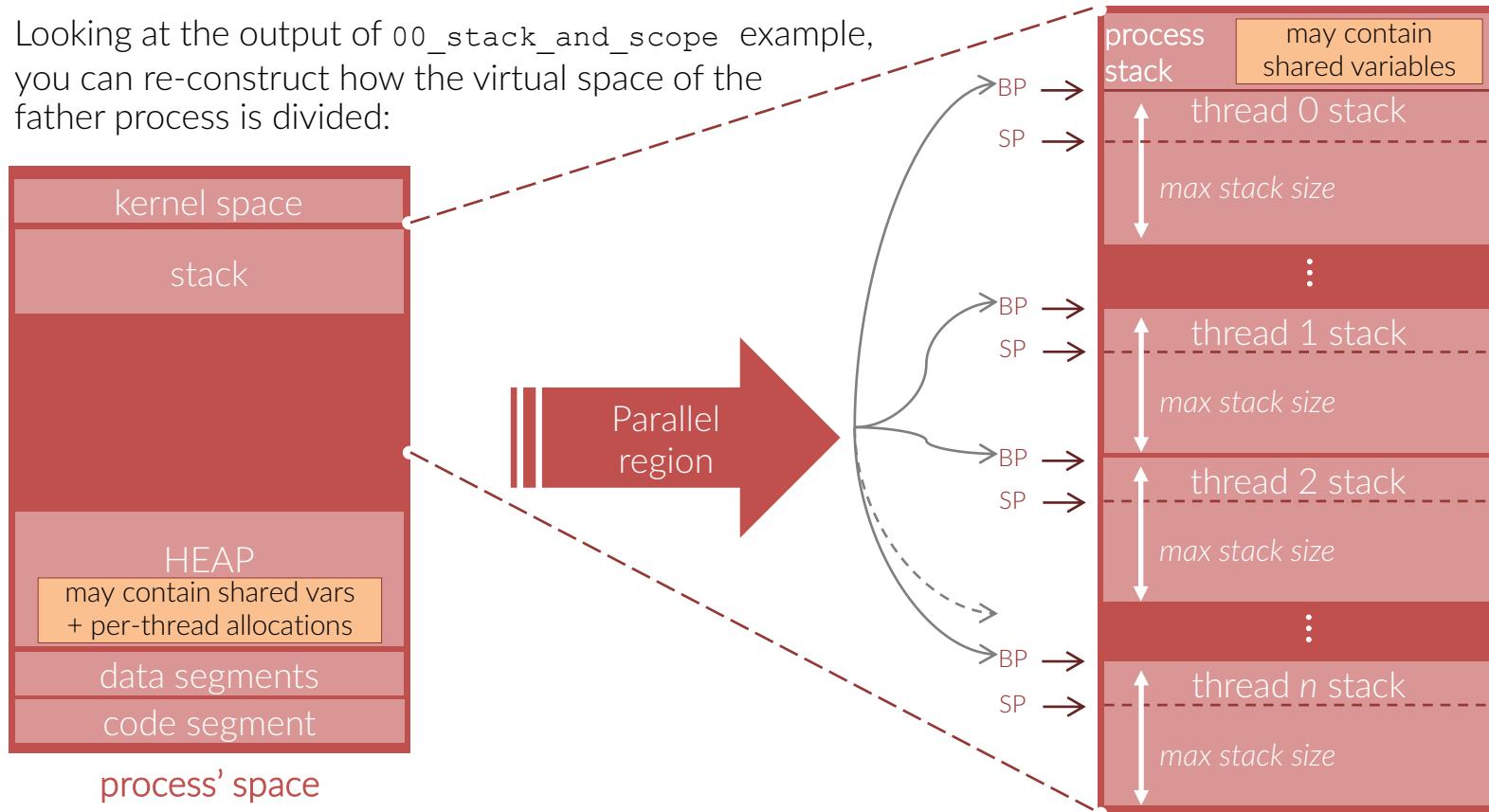
or calling the omp library function

```
int omp_get_max_threads()
```



The threads factory

Looking at the output of `00_stack_and_scope` example, you can re-construct how the virtual space of the father process is divided:





The threads factory

Looking at the output of `00_stack_and_scope` example,
you can re-construct how the virtual space of the

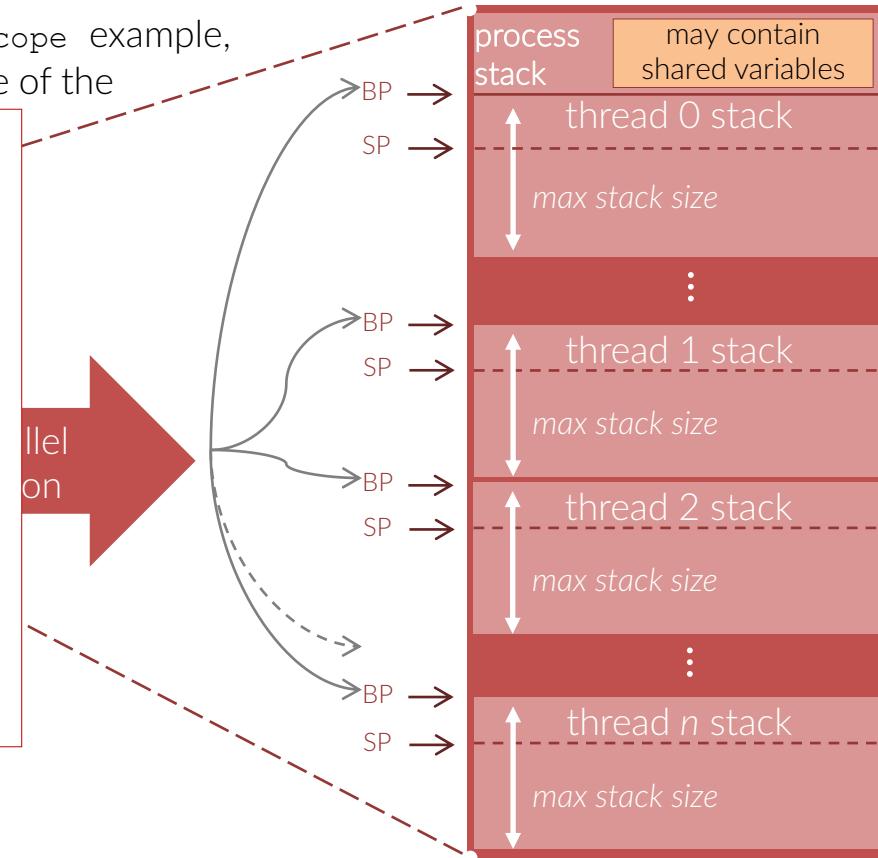
Be aware:

When the threads are created, the space needed for their stack is also allocated. If that space is quite large, you may run out of memory.

Conversely, if the stack is not large enough, you may incur into `seg fault` error (but due to lack of memory in the stack)

code segment

process' space





Parallel Regions

```
int nthreads      = 1;
int my_thread_id = 0;

#ifndef _OPENMP
#pragma omp parallel
{
    my_thread_id = omp_get_thread_num();
    #pragma master
    nthreads     = omp_get_num_threads();
}
#endif
```

returns the ID of the calling thread

returns the number of threads active in that parallel region

By default rules, variables declared outside a parallel region are *shared*, whereas those declared inside a region are *private*.
Then both `nthreads` and `my_thread_id` are shared.

As a consequence, in this example:

- all threads are writing in `my_thread_id`, in undefined order
- only the master thread is writing in `nthreads`

The value of `my_thread_id` is unpredictable, because it depends on the run-time order by which the threads access it and by each a thread accesses it again to write it.





Controlling the number of threads



By default the number of threads spawned in a parallel regions is the number of cores available.
However, you can vary that number in several way

- `OMP_NUM_THREADS` environmental variable
- `#pragma omp parallel num_threads(n)`
- `omp_set_num_threads(n);`
`#pragma omp parallel`





Controlling the number of threads



By default the number of threads spawned in a parallel regions is the number of cores available.
However, you can vary that number in several way

- `OMP_NUM_THREADS` environmental variable
- `#pragma omp parallel num_threads(n)`
- `omp_set_num_threads(n);`
`#pragma omp parallel`

That works if `OMP_DYNAMIC` variable is set to `TRUE`, otherwise the number of threads spawned is strictly equal to `OMP_NUM_THREADS`.

This setting can be changed through `omp_set_dynamics(true)`





The ordering of the threads

```
#pragma omp parallel
{
    int my_thread_id = omp_get_thread_num();
    printf( "greetings from thread num %d\n",
            my_thread_id );
}
```

The order by which the greetings appear in the output is not deterministic.

In general, unless either you explicitly requires so – and that is possible only for some constructs, or you directly code it, there is no given order, since the threads are independent entities.

How would you build-up an enforcement of the order in the parallel region here on the left ?



The ordering of the threads

```
int order = 0;  
  
#pragma omp parallel  
{  
    int myid = omp_get_thread_num();  
  
    #pragma omp critical  
    if ( order == myid ) {  
        printf( "greetings from thread num %d\n",  
                my_thread_id );  
        order++; }  
}
```

The CRITICAL directive defines a region which is executed by all threads but by a single thread at a time. Which starts to sound like an “ordering”.

However, although the threads queue at the begin of the region, no particular order is imposed to that queue. As a consequence, the result is unpredictable, aside the fact that thread 0 will print the message and increase order.

For instance, if thread 2 is queued immediately after, it will execute the `if` evaluation which will fail (`order` would be equal to 1) and the thread 2 will not print the message.



parallel_regions/
04_order_of_threads_wrong.c





The ordering of the threads

```
int order = 0;

#pragma omp parallel
{
    int myid = omp_get_thread_num();
    int done = 0

    while (!done) {
        #pragma omp critical
        if ( order == myid ) {
            printf( "greetings from thread num %d\n",
                    my_thread_id );
            order++; done=1; } }
}
```



parallel_regions/
05_order_of_threads.c



In this second implementation, the `while` cycle enforces the threads that fails the `if` condition to keep trying until the correct order is ensured.

Once a thread has executed the `critical` region, it then exits the `while` and join the implicit synchronization barrier at the end of the parallel region.

A note: without the `critical` directive, this code could work as well on most platform. However, it is still unreliable since it is not guaranteed that each thread complete the region *before* the successive threads enter in it. For instance, the compiler could have been reshuffled the `order++` to be before the print and so the thread `n+1` could enter the region before of the print of the thread `n` and its message could appear as first.



Specializing execution in PR

```
#pragma omp parallel  
{
```

```
    #pragma omp critical  
    { code block  
    }
```

```
    #pragma omp atomic  
    assignment instruction
```

```
    #pragma omp single  
    { code block  
    }
```

```
    #pragma omp master  
    { code block  
    }
```

The `critical` directive ensures that only a thread at a time executes the block. All the threads will execute it, although in unspecified order.

Like `critical` but limited to the following single line.
The instruction can only be an assignment in the form
`x binop = expr`

Only one among the threads will enter the code block

Only the master thread will enter the code block



Specializing execution in PR

```
#pragma omp parallel
{
    #pragma omp critical
    { code block
    }

    #pragma omp atomic
    assignment instruction

    #pragma omp single
    { code block
    }

    #pragma omp master
    { code block
    }
}
```

A barrier (in the form of queuing) is present at the entry point; no one at the end point, i.e. the threads exiting the region will continue the run.

Synchronization as in `critical` region.

}

No explicit synchronization at all (but see relative tips in the following slides).

Only the executing thread is inside the region, the other ones can be everywhere else.



Specializing execution in PR



Rationale of

`#pragma omp atomic
assignment instruction`

When you deal with shared variables, ensuring that the workflow maintains the semantic correctness of your code is fundamental.
For instance, the assignment

$$a += b$$

(where either `a`, `b` or both are shared) is meaningful only if the value of `a` (or `b`, or both) does not change in the middle of the instruction itself.

In fact, while a single assembly instruction is guaranteed not to be ever interrupted on the fly, we have to take into account that even a single C line translates in several asm instructions. So, the value of a shared variable could have been changed in the middle of that groups of asm instructions, breaking the correctness of the code.

To avoid that, it is necessary to “protect” the sensible regions.

An `atomic` assignment has, obviously, a much lower overhead than a `critical` region and must be preferred in the appropriate cases.



Specializing execution in PR



```
#pragma omp critical
{
    "A" code block
}

#pragma omp critical
{
    "B" code block
}

#pragma omp critical(my_loop)
{
    code block
}
```

Named critical regions

In OpenMP it exists a unique global `critical` section. Hence, when you define a `critical` section, it is logically considered to be part of the global one. As a consequence *only one thread can be inside any of the unnamed `critical` sections*, which of course limits the performance when more than one region is present.

However, that can be cured by the *named regions*, defined as the last one in the code snippet here on the left.

In that example, only one thread can be either in region "A" or in region "B": so, if one thread is executing "A", another one is forced to delay entering "B" even if it would have been reading for it.

Instead, the named `critical` regions can be executed at the same time (by different threads, of course, and only by one thread at a time).



Specializing execution in PR



```
#pragma omp critical
{
    ...
    some_assignment_to_x;
    ...
}

#pragma omp atomic
x op= value
```

critical and **atomic**

Consider that by design **atomic** protects memory regions, while **critical** protects code regions.

Hence they are not mutually exclusive: a thread may be executing the **critical** region while another may be executing the **atomic**.



Specializing execution in PR



TIPS

```
#pragma omp single
{ ...code block... }
```

```
#pragma omp master
{ ...code block... }
```

Is there any difference between using `single` or `master` ?

There obviously is if you're assigning some special workflow to `thread 0`.

If not, the entity of the difference depends on the implementation details.

In general, using `master` requires only a simple test on the thread id, while using `single` requires more synchronization (the `openmp` infrastructure has to keep track about what thread is in the region and so on).

In general, if you have some insight about the fact that the workload before that point may be systematically unbalanced, so that some thread will likely arrive first, using `single` is ok.
Otherwise, it may be better to use `master`.



Work assignment

Inside a parallel region, the work can be assigned to each threads (actually, that's why PR are created..):

```
...
results[0] = heavy_work_0();
results[1] = heavy_work_1();
results[2] = heavy_work_2();
...

```



```
#pragma omp parallel
{
    if( myid % 3 == 0)
        result = heavy_work_0( );
    else if ( myid % 3 == 1 )
        result = heavy_work_1( );
    else if ( myid % 3 == 2 )
        result = heavy_work_2( );

    if ( myid < 3 )
        results[myid] = result;
}
```

dynamic extent



parallel_region/
06_assign_work.c

run with a second
argument >0 to check
about it



parallel_region/
06_assign_work.c





Conditional creation of PR

It is possible to spawn a parallel region only if some conditions are met:

- `#pragma omp parallel if(any valid C expression)`

```
#pragma omp parallel if( amount_of_work > high )
{
    if( myid % 3 == 0)
        result = heavy_work_0( );
    else if ( myid % 3 == 1 )
        result = heavy_work_1( );
    else if ( myid % 3 == 2 )
        result = heavy_work_2( );

    if ( myid < 3 )
        results[myid] = result;
}
```

If the condition is not fulfilled, the threads are not created and only the master thread will execute the code block.



parallel_region/
06_assign_work.c

if the first argument, that determines the amount of work, is ≤ 10 , the parallel region is **not** created



Conditional creation of PR



What is this useful for?

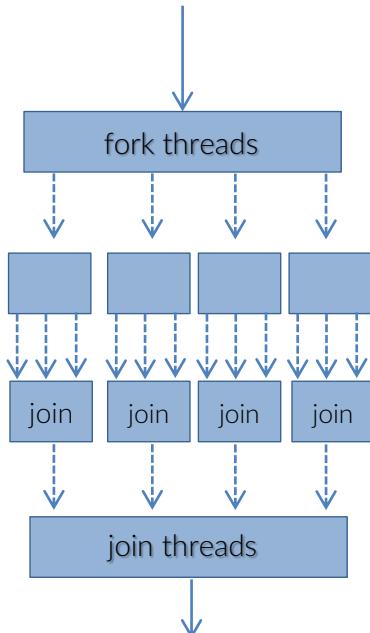
The overhead of the creation of a parallel region is of the order of $\sim 10 \mu\text{seconds}$ (that figure is dependent on the system, the compiler, the number of threads,...).

Then, you may want to create a parallel region (i.e. to spawn more threads) only if the serial execution of that code section is at least several times this overhead.



Nested Parallel Regions

NESTED PARALLELISM



Nested parallelism is explicitly_permitted in OpenMP. Whether it is *active* or not, depends on the value of some environmental variables:

`OMP_NESTED=<TRUE | FALSE>`
`OMP_NUM_THREADS=N0, N1, ... >`
`OMP_MAX_ACTIVE_LEVELS=n`

(*) default value is FALSE

Which you can change by calling the appropriate OMP_ functions

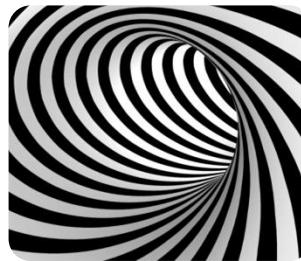
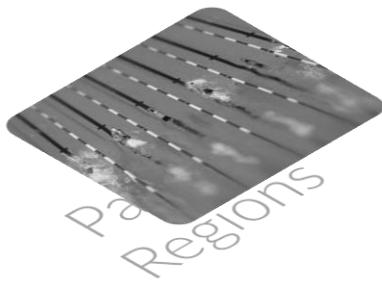
`omp_get_nested()`, `omp_set_nested(cond)`

(*) OMP_NESTED is deprecated in new OpenMP 5.0. You should use only OMP_MAX_ACTIVE_LEVELS and OMP_NUM_THREADS. OMP_NESTED is in fact redundant. However, at the moment of writing the compilers still support OMP_NESTED.





OpenMP Outline



Parallel
Loops



NUMA
AWARENESS

Sections
& Task



OpenMP parallel loops



Loops are one of the most common work structure in HPC, and it is quite common that a vast amount of compute-intensive code resides in loops.

In fact, OpenMP, up to version 2.x, was essentially about quickly and effectively parallelizing loops without much effort.

Hence, OpenMP standard presents a broad amount of features dedicated to parallel `for` loops.



Building up a parallel loop



```
int N = some_workload;
#pragma omp parallel
{
    int myid = omp_get_thread_num();
    int team = omp_get_num_threads();

    int size      = N / team;
    int remainder = N % team;
    int mystart  = size*myid + (myid<remainder)*myid;
    int myend    = size + (myid < remainder);

    printf("task %d is running from %d to %d\n",
           myid, mystart, myend);

    for ( int i = mystart, i < myend; i++ )
    {
        do_smething(i);
    }
}
```

Splitting the work of a for loop among the threads can easily be achieved by directly assigning the boundaries of the loop to each thread.

In this example, we statically assign an equal share N/n_{threads} of iterations per thread, while distributing the remaining $N \% n_{\text{threads}}$ iteration to the first $N \% n_{\text{threads}}$ threads.

However, OpenMP has dedicated constructs that offer easier and more flexible mechanisms to share the work within a for loop.



OpenMP basic loop



Let's start with a classical and very common problem in order to understand the appropriate OpenMP work-sharing construct relative to loops.

```
double *a;  
double sum = 0  
int N;  
  
...  
for ( int i = 0; i < N; i++ )  
    sum += a[i];
```



OpenMP basic loop



```
#include <omp.h>
double *a, sum = 0;
int i, N;
```

```
#pragma omp parallel for implicit(none) shared(a,sum,N) private(i)
for ( i = 0; i < N; i++ )
    sum += a[i];
```

This is a **work-sharing** construct; workload is subdivided among threads (the default choice is implementation-dependent)

declares what variables are private: despite their name is the same within the parallel region, they have different memory locations and die with the parallel reg.

no implicit assumptions about variables scope

declares what variables are shared; all threads can access and modify those memory locations



OpenMP basic loop



However, variables defined (outside)within the parallel region are automatically (shared) private, and so are the integer indexes used as cycles counter.

```
#include <omp.h>
double *a, sum = 0;
int N;

#pragma omp parallel for
for ( int i = 0; i < N; i++ )
    #pragma omp atomic
    sum += a[i];
```



parallel_loops/
00_array_sum_with_race.c

What happens if you drop
the atomic directive?
You obtain a result that is
smaller than the correct
one: why?

How is the work assigned to single threads ?



OpenMP basic loop



```
#pragma omp parallel for [implicit(None)] shared(a,sum,N) private(i)
```

The default policy for memory regions is actually that all are shared. However, that is a **very** common source of error – when you have lots of variables, you forgot what is what in your code.

It may be considered a good practice to add `implicit (none)` to all your constructs so that to spot any error alike.



OpenMP basic loop



TIPS

```
#include <omp.h>
double *a, sum = 0;
int N;

#pragma omp parallel for
for ( int i = 0; i < N; i++ )
    sum += a[i];
```

Without the `atomic` directive, the assignment

```
sum += a[i];
```

determines a **data race**: between two synchronization points at least one thread writes to a data location from which another threads reads.



Loops

| Anatomy of a data race

OpenMP



TBD



| After having solved the data race



Let's say that we solve the data race introducing the critical region `local_sum`, or an `atomic` directive. Does it scale ?

```
#include <omp.h>
double *a, sum = 0;
int N;

#pragma omp parallel for
for ( int i = 0; i < N; i++ )
    #pragma omp critical local_sum
    sum += a[i];
```



parallel_loops/
00_array_sum_with_race.c

Try to run it with a fixed, large enough, `N` on an increasing number of cores, and take note about the speedup. Then, measure the [Parallel overhead](#)

Of course no! why?



| Solving the reduction

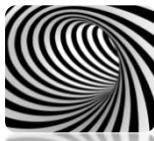


Of course no! why?

Because this solution makes the threads to wait for each other too frequently.

A critical region has **synchronization points** at the start and the end of critical regions, meaning that threads have to communicate with each other and decide who's waiting and who's not.

Other **sync points** are implicit and explicit barriers, locks and flush directives.



| Solving the reduction / 2



However, that is so important that the OpenMP standard offers a simple solution:

```
#include <omp.h>
double *a, sum = 0;
int N;

#pragma omp parallel for reduction(+: sum)
for ( int i = 0; i < N; i++ )
    sum += a[i];
```

parallel_loops/
01_array_sum.c

Note that *shared* clause has disappeared; implicit assumptions are ok for us.. in this simple case.



| Solving the reduction / 3



There is another way in which we can solve the conflicts on the `sum`

```
#include <omp.h>
double *a;
int N;
int nthreads;

#pragma omp master
nthreads = omp_get_num_threads();

double sum[nthreads];

#pragma omp parallel
{
    int me = omp_get_thread_num();
    #pragma omp for
    for (int i = 0; i < N; i++)
        [sum[me] += a[i]];
}
```

Does this scale ?



Solving the reduction /4



There is another way in which we can solve the conflicts on the `sum`

```
#include <omp.h>
double *a;
int N;
int nthreads;

parallel_loops/
02_falsesharing.c #pragma omp master
nthreads = omp_get_num_threads();

double sum[nthreads];
#pragma omp parallel
{
    int me = omp_get_thread_num();
    #pragma omp for
    for ( int i = 0; i < N; i++ )
        sum[me] += a[i];
}
```

Does this scale ?

Hardly

Because the values of `sum[nthreads]` reside in the same cache line(s); hence, when a thread access and modify its location, to maintain the coherence the cache must write-back and flush.
Every time.

That is called **false sharing**



| Solving the reduction /5



There is another way in which we can solve the conflicts on the `sum`

```
#include <omp.h>
double *a;
int N;
int nthreads;

#pragma omp master
nthreads = omp_get_num_threads();

double sum[nthreads*8];
#pragma omp parallel
{
    int me = omp_get_thread_num();
    #pragma omp for
    for ( int i = 0; i < N; i++ )
        sum[me*8] += a[i];
}
```



Does this scale ?
Better.

However, we are using much more memory than needed.
And, above all, we hard-coded a magic number (which is not a good move, in general, since it is not portable).



A subtlety to note

These two “*i*”s are two different variables,
although both are thread-private.

```
#include <omp.h>
#pragma omp parallel
{
    int i;
    #pragma omp for
    for (i = 0; i < N; i++)
    {
        ...
    };
}
```



parallel_loops/
01b_array_sum.c

```
Luca@6666:~/work/TEACHING/CODES/OpenMP/parallel_loops$ ./01b_array_sum
omp summation with 4 threads
thread 0 : &i is 0x7ffc27c4b954
            thread 0 : &loopcounter is 0x7ffc27c4b958
thread 1 : &i is 0x7f59f56c3ae4
            thread 1 : &loopcounter is 0x7f59f56c3ae8
thread 2 : &i is 0x7f59f52c1b64
            thread 2 : &loopcounter is 0x7f59f52c1b68
thread 3 : &i is 0x7f59f4ebfb64
            thread 3 : &loopcounter is 0x7f59f4ebfb68
Sum is 4950, process took 0.000830412 of wall-clock time
```



OpenMP work assignment in loops

How the work is assigned to the single threads ?

```
#pragma omp parallel for schedule(scheduling-type)
for ( int i = 0; i < N, i++ )
```

schedule(static, chunk-size)

The iteration is divided in chunks of size *chunk-size* (or in ~equal size) distributed to threads in circular order

schedule(dynamic, chunk-size)

The iteration is divided in chunks of size *chunk-size* (or size 1) distributed to threads in no given order (a thread requests the first available chunks)

schedule(guided, chunk-size)

The iteration is divided in chunks of minimum size *chunk-size* (or size 1) distributed to threads in no given order like *dynamic*. The chunk size is proportional to the number of unassigned iterations divided by the number of threads.

runtime

, default

The policy is set at runtime via env. OMP_SCHEDULE or to intern. var. def-sched-var.

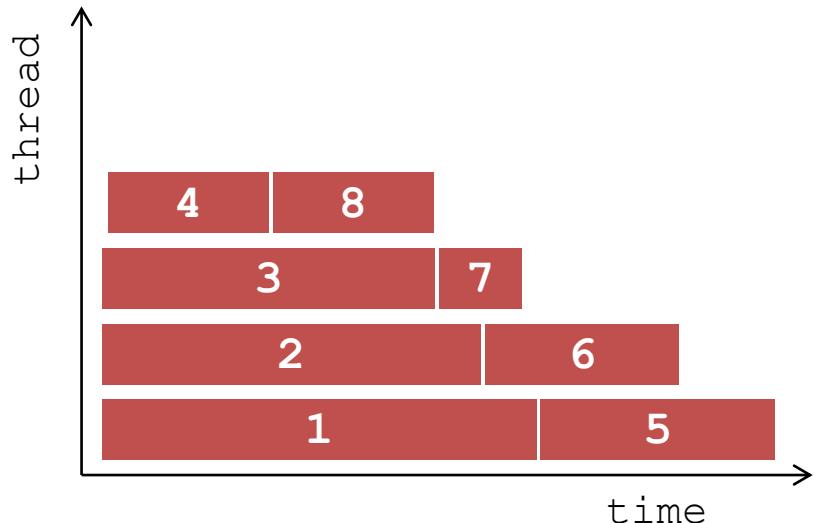


Loops

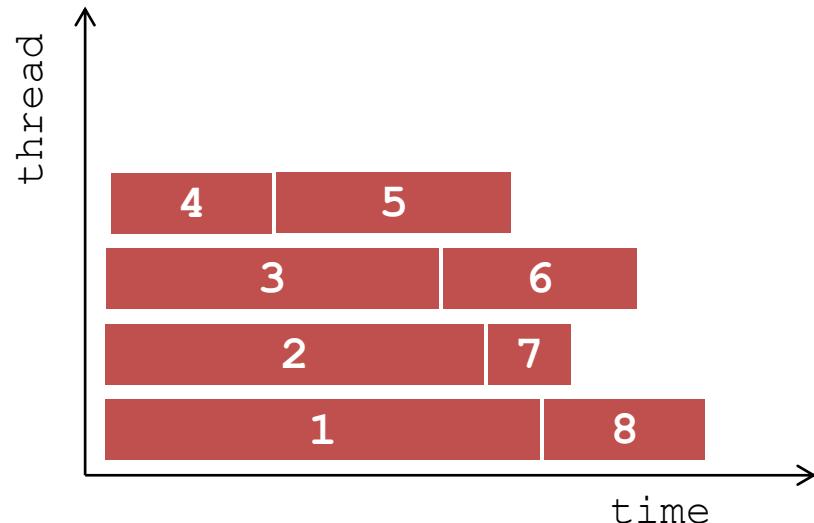
OpenMP work assignment in loops



Static vs Dynamic



Static assignment



Dynamic assignment



| Clauses in *parallel for*



```
#pragma omp for
    schedule( policy [,chunk])
    ordered
    private ( var list )
    firstprivate ( var list )
    lastprivate (var list )
    shared ( var list )
    reduction ( op: var list )
    collapse (n)
    nowait
```



| Clauses in *parallel for*



private (var list)

vars in the list will be private to each thread; despite their name is the same out of the parallel region, they have different memory locations and die with the parallel region.

firstprivate (var list)

the variables in the list are private (in the same sense than in *private*) and are initialized at the value that shared variables have at the begin of the parallel region.

lastprivate (var list)

the shared variables will have the value of the private var in the last thread that ends the work in the parallel region.



| Clauses in *parallel for*



firstprivate & lastprivate

```
double PI          = 3.1415blablabla;
int   morning_coffees = MAX_INTEGER;
char  password[]     = "dont_ask_dont_tell"
int   final_mark;

#pragma omp parallel firstprivate( pi, morning_coffees) private(password) lastprivate( final_mark)
{
    drink_mycoffees( morning_coffees );
    use_pi( PI );

    password = setup_mypassword();
    int exam_passed = 0;
    while (!exam_passed) { exam_passed = try() }

    final_mark = exam_passed;
}
```



| Clauses in *parallel for*



reduction (op: var list)

Possible operators are: +, ×, -, max, min, &, &&, |, ||

The initial value of vars is taken into account *at the end* of the parallel for; at the begin of the for, initialization values are what you logically expect: 0 for add, 1 for mul, min and max of the result type for max and min.

collapse (n)

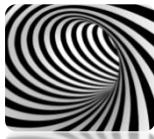
Enable the parallelization of multiple loops level (must be perfectly nested)

nowait

Ignore the implicit barrier at the end of parallel region or work-sharing construct

```
#pragma omp for collapse(2)
for ( int ii = 0; ii < Nrows; ii++ )
    for ( int jj = 0; jj < Ncol; jj++ )
        A[i][j] = B[i][j] * C[i][j];

#pragma omp for collapse(2)
for ( int ii = 0; ii < Nrows; ii++ ) {
    D[i] = function_of_(i);
    for ( int jj = 0; jj < Ncol; jj++ )
        A[i][j] = B[i][j] * C[i][j] + D[i]; }
```



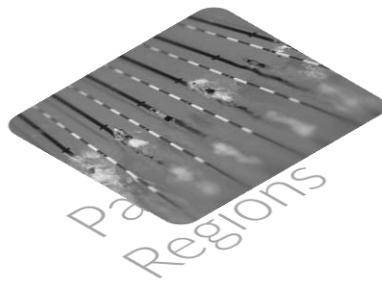
| SPMD & Work-sharing



- A parallel construct amounts to create a “Single Program Multiple Data” instance: all the threads execute the same code but on different data.
- The work-sharing constructs is instead about assigning different execution paths through the code among the threads.
 - **section** construct
 - **single** construct
 - **tasks**



OpenMP Outline



Sections
& Task



NUMA
AWARENESS



NUMA Outline

OpenMP

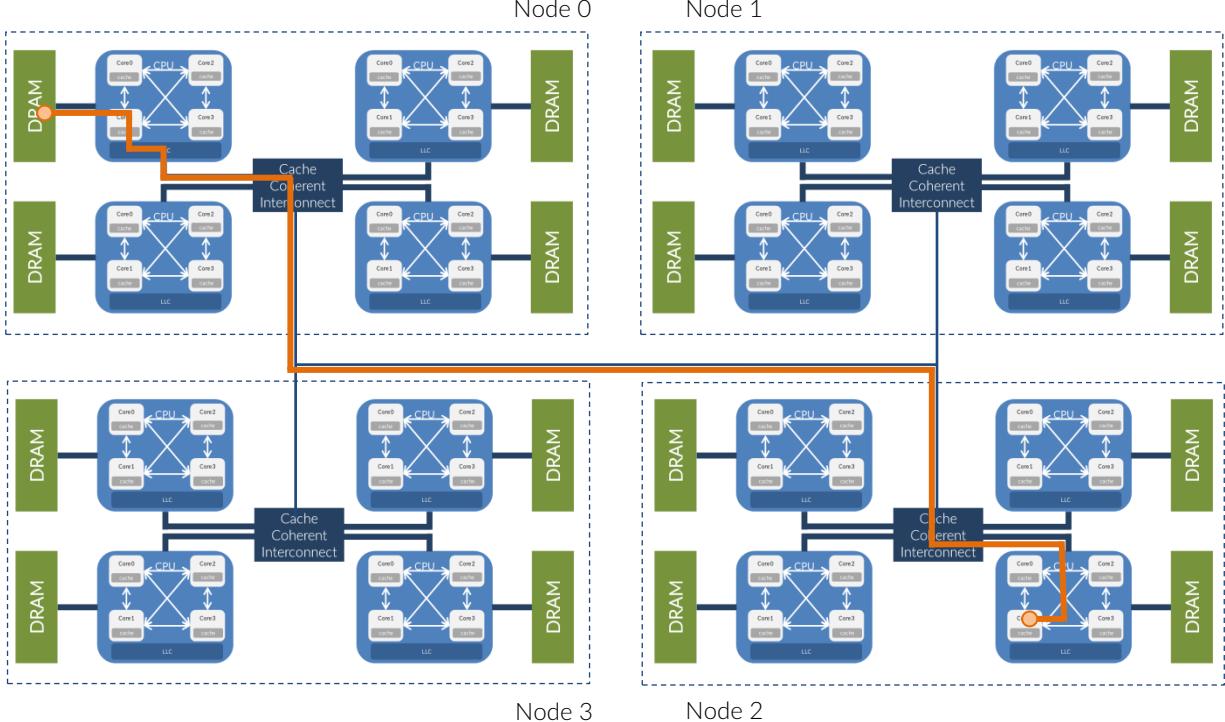


- The problem: “Where? Who? What?”
- Touch-first and touch-by-all policy
- Threads affinity

Remind: get back to [The typical NUMA architecture](#)



Where? Who? What?



The aim is to have as few *remote memory accesses* as possible. That depends on

- **Where:** i.e. in what memory bank the data are;
- **Who:** is accessing them, i.e. which thread → how are the threads distributed on the cores;
- **What:** how is the work-load distributed among the threads;

NU
AW

there is this problems were are they running
how to profile when it fluctuates are run on hardware entities system dependent

is not written in the stone binding a thread in a given core for some reasons it is still here

O everithing seems to be ok

hnever able to obtain a stable mapping. tools that work, not very precise

Or

Where do threads run?

how many Hardware entities we have hardware core

W SMT symultaneous multi threading

or SW threads vs HW threads,, of threads in general what runs under the hood is P3 library

In

threads affinity placement of threads in cores

di

"S' optimal position, no resource contention no threads exploits at !00% a resource

Th explicit way to bind threads to node

migrate SW threads to HW threads



(*!)The Hyper-Threading is the proprietary technology, and trademark, of Intel's SMT





NUMA rationale



In principle, you want to be able to distribute the work in an optimal way, i.e. without any resource (computational power, caches and memory) contention.

To do that, you must be able to place each OpenMP *swthread* to a dedicated computational resource, and to grant it the fastest possible access to “its own” data.

So, you need to:

- explicitly bind the threads to “cores”, i.e. *hwthreads*
- explicitly allocate memory on the best suited physical memory
- minimize the remote memory access
- In case, to migrate memory and/or *swthreads* to one NUMA node to another, or to one *hwthreads* to another respectively



Threads affinity



OpenMP offers

places physical
entities binding:
mapping
between threads
and places

same binding
and different
places

PLACES

i.e. to what physical entities
(*hwthread*) we are referring to
with our affinity request:
“where” the threads run.

tools to set and control the affinity:

BINDING

i.e. whether there is some request
about the relationship between
threads and PLACES
(in other words: between swthreads
and hwthreads), and what that
request is.



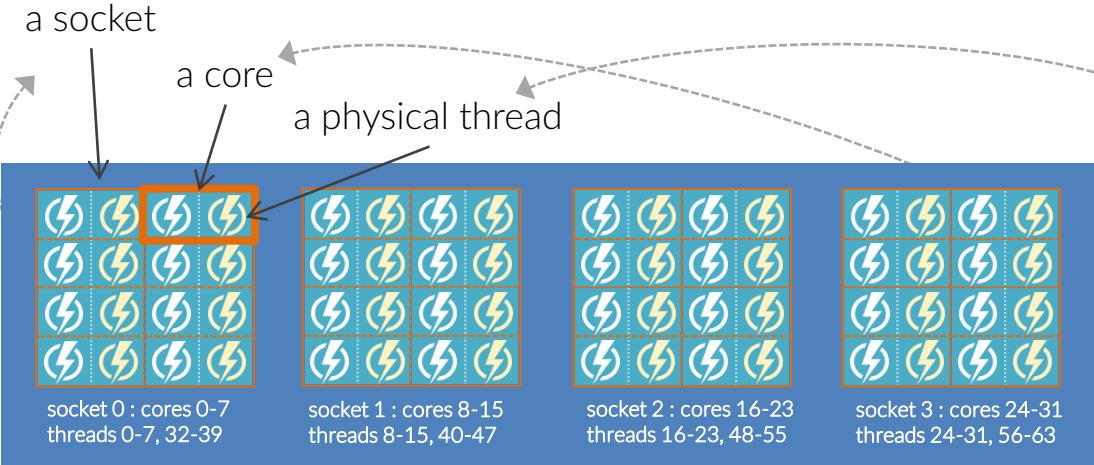
N
A
distant from each other from that places_aggregate bandwidth grows - contention of bandwidth
each core has L1 and maybe L2 cache it is shared in fat nodes with many cores
much probably (contending level 2 and level3 threads) better utilization of the cache

- hyperthreading is trademark of smt by intel implementation with two threads per core
 - in a core you have different ports and multipipelines for each port
 - smt works scheduling c+the opearations of threads so that they occupy free ports
 - you may ask for a core and there are two threads are they chrunching floating points numbers:
 - cpu clock of the core is computed as different regions
 - running more than one threads on one core can be done, the opearating system scheduler does multitasking on them
 - user time is the time in which the cpu was running that code
 - for a fraction of the wallclock time What you obtain depends on the time that you are using
 - you can always run many threads just one thread is running on that core in a nanosecond, that is not simultaneously, instruction on more than one cores that you
 - number of cores that you have(some might be virtual) smt factorXnumber of phisical cores you have
- on openmp you cannot exit from a node
 -
 - distant sw threads distant and close are concepts
 - or close from each other





Threads affinity - PLACES



A typical example of configuration for a multicore, multisocket node: 4 sockets, each with 8 cores, each with 2 hwthreads.

Physical threads are exposed as “cores”, numbered in a round robin fashion.

PLACES are where *swthreads* run.

The names for PLACES are:

- **THREADS** each place corresponds to a hwthread, or strand, on cores
- **CORES** each place corresponds to a single core (which may have more strands) on sockets
- **SOCKETS** each place corresponds to a physical socket, with its multiple cores



Threads affinity - BINDING



The **BINDING** defines how the swthreads are mapped onto the PLACES.

The names for BINDING are:

- **NONE** the placement is up to the system
- **CLOSE** the swthreads are placed on as close as possible to each other
- **SPREAD** the swthreads are placed on places as far as possible to each other filled in a round-robin fashion
- **MASTER** the swthreads run onto the place than master thread

defined a place
we can BIND
as much as
possible close
spaces

`OMP_BINDING`
=SPREAD
master all
threads will run
on the same
place as master

2 hardware
threads



Threads affinity - examples



places binding	THREADS	CORES	SOCKETS
CLOSE	swt are placed on close hwt, saturating all the SMT hwt in each core before using new cores	swt are placed on close hwt, using 1 hwt/core before starting to use SMT	swt are placed round-robin per socket, 1/core; after saturation, SMT is used by round-robin +1 hwt/socket
SPREAD	swt are placed round-robin sockets, onto free cores in sockets	similar to ← SMT is avoided until saturation	similar to ← swt are placed by round-robin sockets and hwt
MASTER	all swt are placed on the same hwt on the same core on the same socket	all swt are placed on the same core on the same socket, using all its hwt	all swt are placed on the same socket, saturing all hwt starting from SMT ones

note:

swt = software threads

hwt = hardware threads



Threads affinity - examples



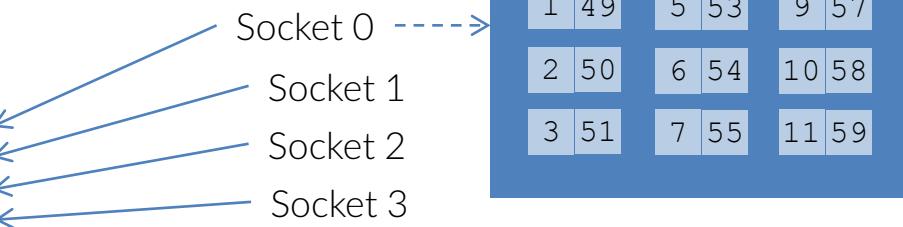
```
Architecture:          x86_64
CPU op-mode(s):       32-bit, 64-bit
Byte Order:           Little Endian
CPU(s):               96
On-line CPU(s) list: 0-95
Thread(s) per core:   2
Core(s) per socket:  12
Socket(s):            4
NUMA node(s):         4
Vendor ID:            GenuineIntel
CPU family:           6
Model:                85
Model name:           Intel(R) Xeon(R) Gold 5118 CPU @ 2.30GHz
Stepping:              4
CPU MHz:              1000.073
CPU max MHz:          3200.0000
CPU min MHz:          1000.0000
BogoMIPS:              4600.00
Virtualization:       VT-x
L1d cache:             32K
L1i cache:             32K
L2 cache:              1024K
L3 cache:              16896K
NUMA node0 CPU(s):    0-11,48-59
NUMA node1 CPU(s):    12-23,60-71
NUMA node2 CPU(s):    24-35,72-83
NUMA node3 CPU(s):    36-47,84-95
```

The diagram illustrates the mapping of 96 CPUs across four NUMA nodes. Each node contains 24 CPUs, represented by blue arrows pointing from the CPU list to the node label. The nodes are labeled Socket 0, Socket 1, Socket 2, and Socket 3.

The following examples will refer to a node like the one reported here on the left:

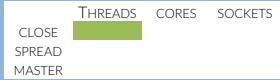
4 sockets
12 cores / socket
2 hwthreads / core

first socket
numbering from
smt
numbering the
id you saturate
the fisical cores
one by one and
you run all over
the sockets
again





Threads affinity - examples



OMP_PLACES = threads

OMP_PROC_BIND = close

swt are placed on close hwt, saturating all the siblings SMT hwt in each core before using new cores



4 swthreads

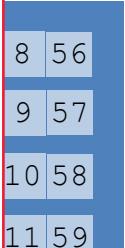


Socket 0

socket 0 closest possible choice is to stay in the same socket

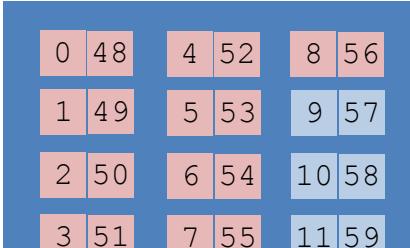
the closest threads you get when you ask not guaranteed that the numbering is this one

swt



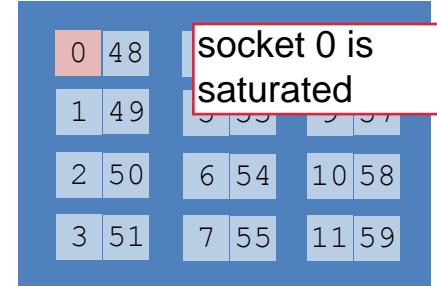
Socket 0

18 swthreads



Socket 0

25 swthreads

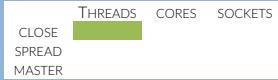


Socket 1 (S0 saturated)

socket 0 is saturated

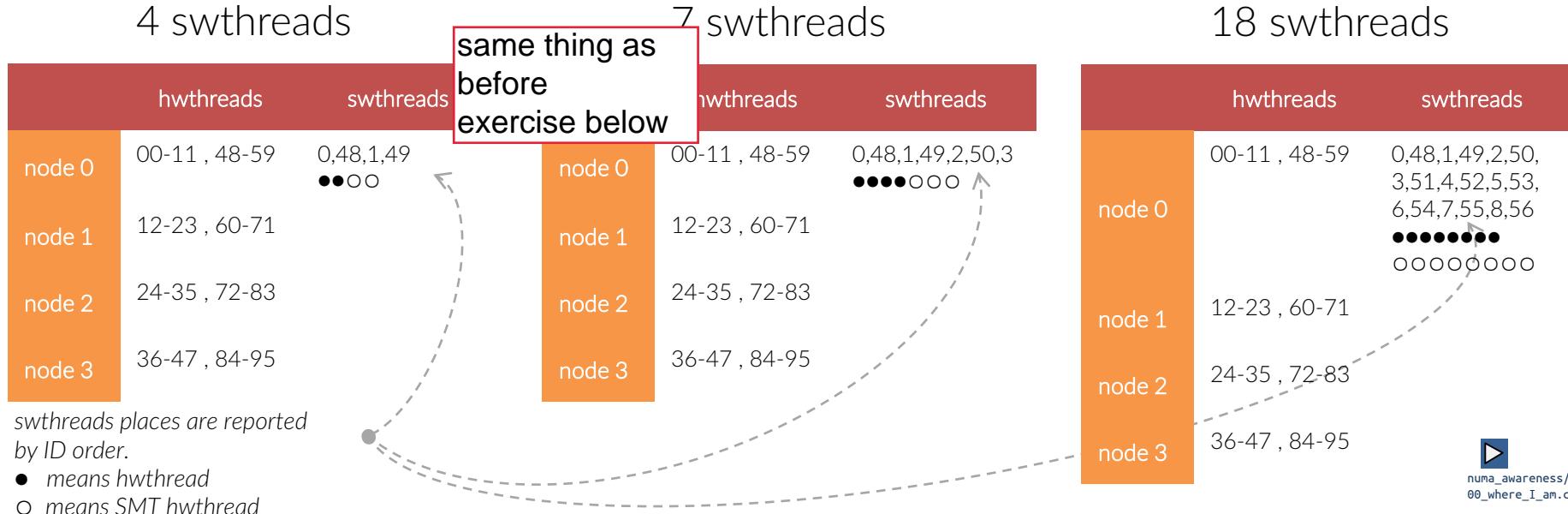


Threads affinity - examples



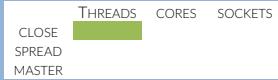
OMP_PLACES = threads
OMP_PROC_BIND = close

swt are placed on close hwt, saturating all the siblings SMT hwt in each core before using new cores





Threads affinity - examples



OMP_PLACES = threads
OMP_PROC_BIND = close

swt are placed on close hwt, saturating all the siblings SMT hwt in each core before using new cores

25 swthreads

	hwthreads	swthreads
node 0	00-11 , 48-59	SATURATED
node 1	12-23 , 60-71	12 ●
node 2	24-35 , 72-83	
node 3	36-47 , 84-95	

50 swthreads

	hwthreads	swthreads
node 0	00-11 , 48-59	SATURATED
node 1	12-23 , 60-71	SATURATED
node 2	24-35 , 72-83	24, 72 ●○
node 3	36-47 , 84-95	





Threads affinity - examples



THREADS CORES SOCKETS

CLOSE
SPREAD
MASTER

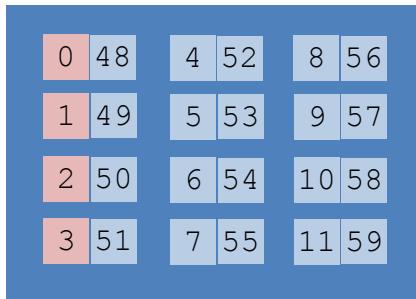
OMP_PLACES = cores

OMP_PROC_BIND = close

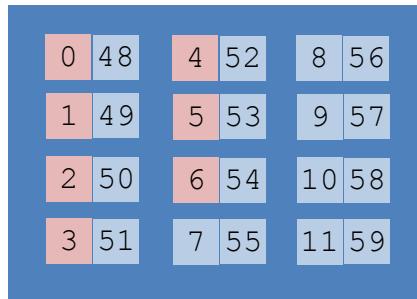
avoid to place multiple threads on physical cores, one thread per physical core one thread per place and place =core

ed on close hwt, using 1 core starting to use SMT

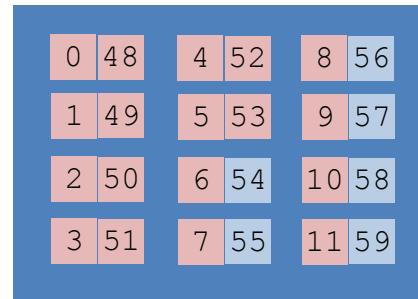
4 swthreads



7 swthread



8 swthreads



Socket 0

Socket 0

Socket 0



Threads affinity - examples



OMP_PLACES = sockets
OMP_PROC_BIND = close

swt are placed round-robin per socket,
1/core; after saturation, SMT is used by
round-robin +1 hwt/socket



numa_awareness/
00_where_I_am.c

4 swthreads

0 48	4 52	8 56
1 49	5 53	9 57
2 50	6 54	10 58
3 51	7 55	11 59

Socket 0

12 60	16 64	20 68
13 61	17 65	21 69
14 62	18 66	22 70
15 63	19 67	23 71

Socket 1

24 72	28 76	32 80
25 73	29 77	33 81
26 74	30 78	34 82
27 75	31 79	35 83

Socket 2

36 84	40 88	44 92
37 85	41 89	45 93
38 86	42 90	46 94
39 87	43 91	47 95

Socket 3



Threads affinity - examples



THREADS CORES SOCKETS

CLOSE SPREAD MASTER

OMP_PLACES = sockets
OMP_PROC_BIND = SPREAD

swt are placed round-robin per socket,
1/core; after saturation, SMT is used by
round-robin +1 hwt/socket



numa_awareness/
00_where_I_am.c

14 swthreads

you go
roundrobin
trying to
equilibrate

0 48	4 52	8 56
1 49	5 53	9 57
2 50	6 54	10 58
3 51	7 55	11 59

12 60	16 64	20 68
13 61	17 65	21 69
14 62	18 66	22 70
15 63	19 67	23 71

24 72	28 76	32 80
25 73	29 77	33 81
26 74	30 78	34 82
27 75	31 79	35 83

36 84	40 88	44 92
37 85	41 89	45 93
38 86	42 90	46 94
39 87	43 91	47 95

Socket 0

Socket 1

Socket 2

Socket 3



Threads affinity - examples



THREADS CORES SOCKETS
CLOSE SPREAD
MASTER

OMP_PLACES = threads
OMP_PROC_BIND = spread

swt are placed round-robin sockets, onto free cores in sockets



numa_awareness/
00_where_I_am.c

4 swthreads

0 48	4 52	8 56
1 49	5 53	9 57
2 50	6 54	10 58
3 51	7 55	11 59

Socket 0

12 60	16 64	20 68
13 61	17 65	21 69
14 62	18 66	22 70
15 63	19 67	23 71

Socket 1

24 72	28 76	32 80
25 73	29 77	33 81
26 74	30 78	34 82
27 75	31 79	35 83

Socket 2

36 84	40 88	44 92
37 85	41 89	45 93
38 86	42 90	46 94
39 87	43 91	47 95

Socket 3



Threads affinity - examples



THREADS CORES SOCKETS
CLOSE SPREAD MASTER

OMP_PLACES = threads
OMP_PROC_BIND = spread

swt are placed round-robin sockets, onto free cores in sockets



numa_awareness/
00_where_I_am.c

14 swthreads

0 48	4 52	8 56
1 49	5 53	9 57
2 50	6 54	10 58
3 51	7 55	11 59

Socket 0

12 60	16 64	20 68
13 61	17 65	21 69
14 62	18 66	22 70
15 63	19 67	23 71

Socket 1

24 72	28 76	32 80
25 73	29 77	33 81
26 74	30 78	34 82
27 75	31 79	35 83

Socket 2

36 84	40 88	44 92
37 85	41 89	45 93
38 86	42 90	46 94
39 87	43 91	47 95

Socket 3



Threads affinity - examples



OMP_PLACES = cores

OMP_PROC_BIND = spread



OMP_PLACES = sockets

OMP_PROC_BIND = spread

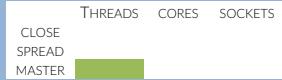
Similar to (thread, spread), just infer the differences from the [table](#) description.
And, run on your own `00_where_I_am` to check what is happening.



numa_awareness/
00_where_I_am.c



Threads affinity - examples



OMP_PLACES = threads
OMP_PROC_BIND = master

4 swthreads

• 4 swthreads are running on this same hwthread

0	48	4	52	8	56
1	49	5	53	9	57
2	50	6	54	10	58
3	51	7	55	11	59

Socket 0

12	60	16	64	20	68
13	61	17	65	21	69
14	62	18	66	22	70
15	63	19	67	23	71

Socket 1

24	72	28	76	32	80
25	73	29	77	33	81
26	74	30	78	34	82
27	75	31	79	35	83

Socket 2

36	84	40	88	44	92
37	85	41	89	45	93
38	86	42	90	46	94
39	87	43	91	47	95

Socket 3



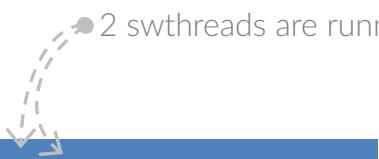
Threads affinity - examples



OMP_PLACES = cores

OMP_PROC_BIND = master

4 swthreads



0	48	4	52	8	56
1	49	5	53	9	57
2	50	6	54	10	58
3	51	7	55	11	59

Socket 0

12	60	16	64	20	68
13	61	17	65	21	69
14	62	18	66	22	70
15	63	19	67	23	71

Socket 1

24	72	28	76	32	80
25	73	29	77	33	81
26	74	30	78	34	82
27	75	31	79	35	83

Socket 2

36	84	40	88	44	92
37	85	41	89	45	93
38	86	42	90	46	94
39	87	43	91	47	95

Socket 3



Threads affinity - examples



OMP_PLACES = sockets
OMP_PROC_BIND = master

4 swthreads

0 48	4 52	8 56
1 49	5 53	9 57
2 50	6 54	10 58
3 51	7 55	11 59

12 60	16 64	20 68
13 61	17 65	21 69
14 62	18 66	22 70
15 63	19 67	23 71

24 72	28 76	32 80
25 73	29 77	33 81
26 74	30 78	34 82
27 75	31 79	35 83

36 84	40 88	44 92
37 85	41 89	45 93
38 86	42 90	46 94
39 87	43 91	47 95

Socket 0

Socket 1

Socket 2

Socket 3



Threads affinity - examples



OMP_PLACES = sockets
OMP_PROC_BIND = master

20 swthreads

0 48	4 52	8 56
1 49	5 53	9 57
2 50	6 54	10 58
3 51	7 55	11 59

Socket 0

12 60	16 64	20 68
13 61	17 65	21 69
14 62	18 66	22 70
15 63	19 67	23 71

Socket 1

24 72	28 76	32 80
25 73	29 77	33 81
26 74	30 78	34 82
27 75	31 79	35 83

Socket 2

36 84	40 88	44 92
37 85	41 89	45 93
38 86	42 90	46 94
39 87	43 91	47 95

Socket 3



Threads affinity - examples



OMP_PLACES = sockets
OMP_PROC_BIND = master

35 swthreads

When all the hwthreads are saturated, more than 1 swthread is placed on hwthreads by round-robin, on the same socket

0	48	4	52	8	56
1	49	5	53	9	57
2	50	6	54	10	58
3	51	7	55	11	59

Socket 0

12	60	16	64	20	68
13	61	17	65	21	69
14	62	18	66	22	70
15	63	19	67	23	71

Socket 1

24	72	28	76	32	80
25	73	29	77	33	81
26	74	30	78	34	82
27	75	31	79	35	83

Socket 2

36	84	40	88	44	92
37	85	41	89	45	93
38	86	42	90	46	94
39	87	43	91	47	95

Socket 3



Threads affinity - PLACES



A “place” can be defined by numbers enclosed in brackets, defining execution on that hardware.

{ 0, 1 }

define a place
by keywords OR
more precisely
defined by an
ordered set of
comma
separated
values
of socket 0

ordered set of comma-separated non-negative numbers are the IDs of the smallest unit of vthread).

made by hwt 0 and hwt 1

in the frame of the previous examples, these are the hwt on core 0 and core 1

{ 0, 49 }

this defines a place made by hwt 0 and hwt 49

in the frame of the previous examples, these are the hwt and the SMT hwt on core 0 of socket 0

{ 0, 12, 24, 36 }

physical threads on different sockets

in the frame of the previous examples, these are the hwt on cores 0 of sockets 0, 1, 2 and 3



Threads affinity - PLACES



OMP_PLACES can be defined as an explicit ordered list of comma-separated places (see the previous slide for a definition of “places”).

Intervals can be used, specified as start:counter:stride in the serie

```
start, start+stride, start + (start + (
```

initial value, how many counting you want, stride, distance

second 48 cores are in SMT no perfect scalability first 48 cores are

OMP_PLACES =
{ 0, 48 }, {1, 49 }

sets OMP_PLACES to 2 places in the frame of the previous examples, these are the hwt and SMT hwt on cores 0 and 1, of socket 0

OMP_PLACES =
{ 0:1:48 }, {1:2:49 }

2 places without any kind of interval

than previous line

OMP_PLACES =
{ 0, 12, 24, 36 }

all physical threads on

PLACES to 1 place

of the previous examples, these are the hwt on cores 0 of sockets 0, 1, 2 and 3

OMP_PLACES =
{ 0:4:12 }

the same than previous line



Other examples of places definition by intervals:

elements are hw threads

{ 0 }:4:12

{ 0 }, { 12 }, { 24 }, { 36 }

{ 0:4:1 }:4:12

{ 0,1,2,3 }, { 12,13,14,15 }, { 24,25,26,27 }, { 36,37,38,39 }

{ 0:4}:4:4

{ 0:4 }, { 4:4 }, { 8:4 }, { 12:4 }

{ 0,1,2,3 }, { 4,5,6,7 }, { 8,9,10,11 }, { 12,13,14,15 }

{ 0:12 }:4:12

Equivalent to OMP_PLACES=sockets on a system with 4 sockets with 12 cores each

implicit 0:12:1



Threads affinity



If you compile `00_where_I_am.c` with `-DSPY`, it will load the hwthreads with some amount of work so that meanwhile you can inspect what is happening by using the top utility:

On my laptop
using
2 swthreads {

```
top - 14:11:56 up 5:29, 4 users, load average: 3.01, 2.10, 1.81
Threads: 899 total, 3 running, 828 sleeping, 0 stopped, 0 zombie
%Cpu0 : 16.4 us, 7.0 sy, 0.0 ni, 76.6 id, 0.0 wa, 0.0 hi, 0.0 si, 0.0 st
%Cpu1 : 100.0 us, 0.0 sy, 0.0 ni, 0.0 id, 0.0 wa, 0.0 hi, 0.0 si, 0.0 st
%Cpu2 : 100.0 us, 0.0 sy, 0.0 ni, 0.0 id, 0.0 wa, 0.0 hi, 0.0 si, 0.0 st
%Cpu3 : 9.8 us, 3.9 sy, 0.0 ni, 86.3 id, 0.0 wa, 0.0 hi, 0.0 si, 0.0 st
KiB Mem : 27.7/16241208 [███████████] 16%
KiB Swap: 0.0/35639292 [
```

{ {

PID	PPID	UID	USER	RUSER	TTY	TIME+	%CPU	%MEM	S	COMMAND
20037	15584	1000	luca	luca	pts/1	1:17.54	99.9	0.0	R	00_where_I_am_s
20036	15584	1000	luca	luca	pts/1	1:14.71	99.9	0.0	R	00_where_I_am_s
3271	3240	1000	luca	luca	?	5:24.05	5.3	0.7	S	kwin_x11
2660	2656	0	root	root	tty1	11:13.78	4.3	1.0	S	Xorg
4181	3223	1000	luca	luca	?	4:05.04	3.9	1.8	S	Wavebox
3279	1	1000	luca	luca	?	3:20.64	3.0	3.0	S	plasmashell



The OpenMP standard offers several `omp_` functions to deal with the affinity...

TBD



Memory allocation



1. By carefully touching data
2. By changing default mem allocation with numactl
3. By explicit memory migration

... TBCompleted



Memory allocation

1. Careful data touching

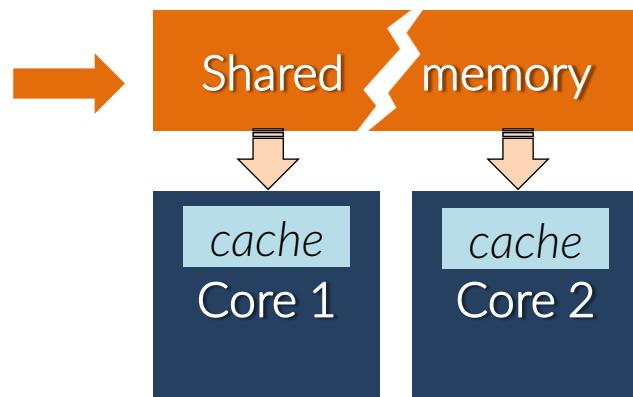


“touch-first” policy



The matter is: who “owns” the data?

```
double *a = (double*)calloc( N, sizeof(double);  
  
for ( int i = 0; ii < N; ii++ ) {  
    a[i] = initialize(i);  
  
#pragma omp parallel for reduction(+: sum)  
for ( int i = 0; i < N; i++ )  
    sum += a[i];
```

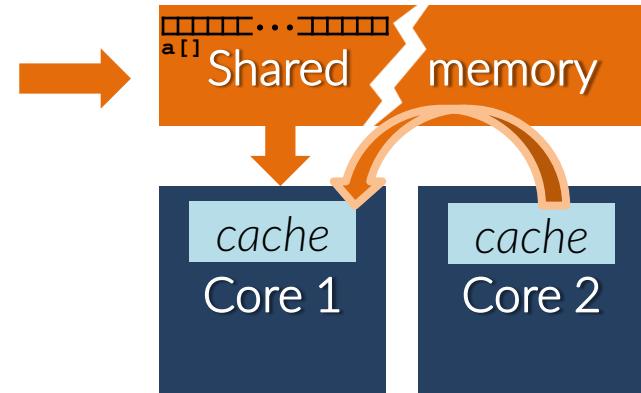




“touch-first” policy



```
double *a = (double*)calloc( N, sizeof(double);  
  
for ( int i = 0; ii < N; ii++ ) {  
    a[i] = initialize(i);  
  
#pragma omp parallel for reduction(+: sum)  
for ( int i = 0; i < N; i++ )  
    sum += a[i];
```



In this way, the cache of the thread that initialize (first touch) the data is warmed-up and the data are allocated in the memory connected to it.



“touch-first” policy



In the “touch-first” policy, the data pages are allocated in the physical memory that is the closest to the physical core which is running the thread that access the data first.

If a single thread is initializing all the data, then all the data will reside in its memory and the number of remote accesses will be maximized.

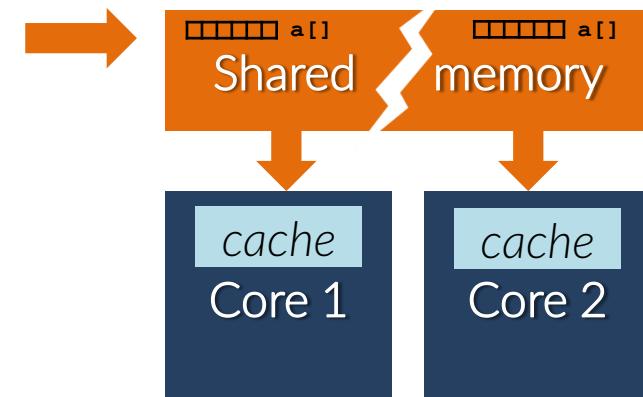


“touch-by-all” policy



parallel_loops/
06_touch_by_all.c

```
double *a = (double*)calloc( N, sizeof(double);  
  
#pragma omp parallel for  
for ( int i = 0; ii < N; ii++ ) {  
    a[i] = initialize(i);  
  
#pragma omp parallel for reduction(+: sum)  
for ( int i = 0; i < N; i++ )  
    sum += a[i];
```



In this way, the cache of each thread is warmed-up with the data it will use afterwards **and the data are allocated into each thread's memory** (the scheduling must be the same!)



“touch-by-all” policy



If each thread “touches” as first the data it will operate on subsequently, those data – by the “touch-first” policy – are allocated in the physical memory that is the closest.
Hence, each thread will have its data placed in the most convenient memory and the remote accesses will be minimized



Global private



```
double *global_pointer;  
double global_damnimportant_variable;  
  
#pragma omp threadprivate(global_pointer, global_damnimportant_variable)
```

threadprivate preserves the global scope of the variable, but make it private for every thread.

Basically, every thread has its own copy if it everywhere you create a thread team.



Memory allocation



2. Change allocation policy

TBD

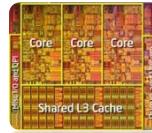


Memory allocation



3. Explicit memory migration

TBD



End of basic

There is way more in OpenMP than this very brief introduction could unveil.

However, you now have a basic toolbox that however allows you to start using OpenMP on more demanding loops in your codes.

that's all, have fun

"So long
and thanks
for all the fish"