# Multicore and Multicore programming with OpenMP (Calcul Réparti et Grid Computing)

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for an up-to-date version of the slides: http://buttari.perso.enseeiht.fr

### Section 1

Introduction

# Why multicores? the three walls

What is the reason for the introduction of multicores? Uniprocessors performance is leveling off due to the "three walls":

- ▶ ILP wall: Instruction Level Parallelism is near its limits
- ▶ Memory wall: caches show diminishing returns
- ▶ Power wall: power per chip is getting painfully high

#### The ILP wall

There are two common approaches to exploit ILP:

- Vector instructions (SSE, AltiVec etc.)
- ► Out-of-order issue with in-order retirement, speculation, register renaming, branch prediction etc.

Neither of these can generate much concurrency because:

- irregular memory access patterns
- control dependent computations
- data dependent memory access

Multicore processors, on the other side, exploit Thread Level Parallelism (TLP) which can virtually achieve any degree of concurrency

# The Memory wall

The gap between processors and memory speed has increased dramatically. Caches are used to improve memory performance provided that data locality can be exploited.

To deliver twice the performance with the same bandwidth, the cache miss rate must be cut in half; this means:

- ► For dense matrix-matrix multiply or dense LU, 4x bigger cache
- ► For sorting or FFTs, the square of its former size
- For sparse or dense matrix-vector multiply, forget it

What is the cost of complicated memory hierarchies?

#### LATENCY

TLP (that is, multicores) can help overcome this inefficiency by means of multiple streams of execution where memory access latency can be hidden.



ILP techniques are based on the exploitation of higher clock frequencies.

Processors performance can be improved by a factor k by increasing frequency by the same factor. Is this a problem? yes, it is.

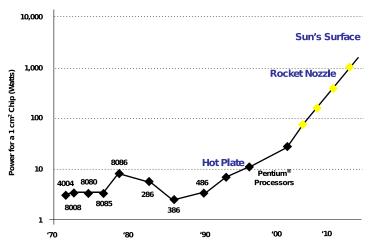
$$P \simeq P_{dynamic} = CV^2 f$$
  
 $P_{dynamic} = dynamic$  power  
 $C = capacitance$   
 $V = voltage$   
 $f = frequency$ 

but

$$f_{max} \sim V$$

Power consumption and heat dissipation grow as  $f^3$ !





Source: Pat Gelsinger, Intel, ISSCC 2001

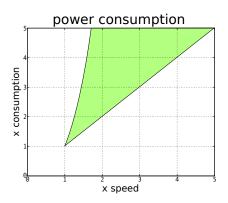
Is there any other way to increase performance without consuming too much power?

Yes, with multicores:

a k-way multicore is k times faster than an unicore and consumes only k times as much power.

$$P_{dynamic} \propto C$$

Thus power consumption and heat dissipation grow linearly with the number of cores (i.e., chip complexity or number of transistors).



It is even possible to reduce power consumption while still increasing performance.

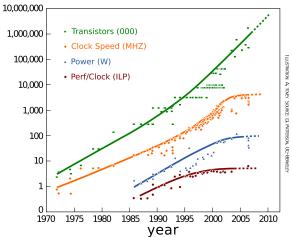
Assume a single-core processor with frequency f and capacitance C.

A quad-core with frequency  $0.6 \times f$  will consume 15% less power while delivering 2.4 higher performance.

#### The Moore's Law

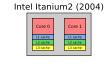
The Moore's law: the number of transistors in microprocessors doubles every two years.

The Moore's law, take 2: the performance of microprocessors doubles every 18 months.

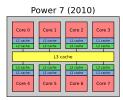


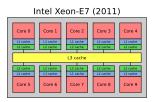
### Examples of multicore architectures

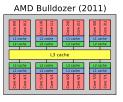












#### Conventional Multicores

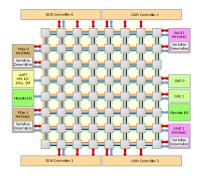
What are the problems with all these designs?

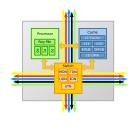
- Core-to-core communication. Although cores lie on the same piece of silicon, there is no direct communication channel between them. The only option is to communicate through main memory.
- Shared memory bus. On modern systems, processors are much faster than memory; example: Intel Woodcrest:
  - ▶ at 3.0 GHz each core can process 3 × 4(SSE) × 2(dualissue) = 24 single-precision floating-point values in a nanosecond.
  - ▶ at 10.5 GB/s the memory can provide  $10.5/4 \simeq 2.6$  single-precision floating-point values in a nanosecond.

One core is 9 times as fast as the memory! Attaching more cores to the same bus only makes the problem worse unless heavy data reuse is possible.

### The future of multicores

TILE64 is a microcontroller manufactured by Tilera. It consists of a mesh network of 64 "tiles", where each tile houses a general purpose processor, cache, and a non-blocking router, which the tile uses to communicate with the other tiles on the processor.





- ▶ 4.5 TB/s on-chip mesh interconnect
- ▶ 25 GB/s towards main memory
- ▶ no floating-point

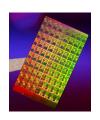


#### Intel Polaris

### Intel Polaris 80 cores prototype:

- $\blacktriangleright$  80 tiles arranged in a 8 imes 10 grid
- on-chip mesh interconnect with 1.62 Tb/s bisection bandwidth
- 3-D stacked memory (future)
- consumes only 62 Watts and is 275 square millimeters
- each tile has:
  - a router
  - 3 KB instruction memory
  - 2 KB data memory
  - 2 SP FMAC units
  - 32 SP registers

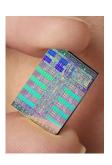
That makes  $4(\bar{F}LOPS) \times 80(tiles) \times 3.16\,GHz \simeq 1\,TFlop/s$ . The first TFlop machine was the ASCII Red made up of 10000 Pentium Pro, taking 250 mq and 500 KW...



### The IBM Cell

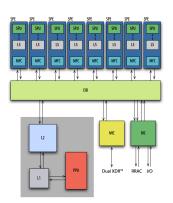
The *Cell Broadband Engine* was released in 2005 by the STI (Sony Toshiba IBM) consortium. It is an 9-way multicore processor.

- ▶ 1 control core + 8 working cores
- computational power is achieved through exploitation of two levels of parallelism:
  - vector units
  - multiple cores
- on-chip interconnect bus for core-to-core communications
- caches are replaced by explicitly managed local memories
- performance comes at a price: the Cell is very hard to program



#### The Cell: architecture

- one POWER Processing Element (PPE): this is almost like a PowerPC processor (it does not have some ILP features) and it is almost exclusively meant for control work.
- ▶ 8 Synergistic Processing Elements (SPEs) (only 6 in the PS3)
- one Element Interconnect Bus (EIB): on-chip ring bus connecting all the SPEs and the PPE
- one Memory Interface Controller (MIC) that connects the EIB to the main memory
- PPE and SPEs have different ISAs and thus we have to write different code and use different compilers

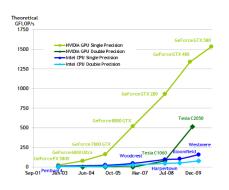


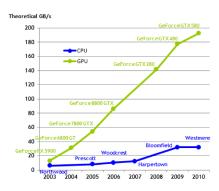
### Hello world! example

The PPU and the SPUs have different ISAs (Instruction Set Architecture), therefore two different compilers must be used.

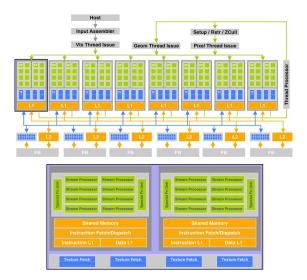
```
PPE code
#include <stdio.h>
#include <libspe.h>
#include <sys/wait.h>
extern spe_program_handle_t ;
extern hello_spu;
int main(void) {
  speid_t speid[8];
 int status[8];
 int i:
 for (i=0:i<8:i++)
    speid[i] = spe_create_thread(0, &hello_spu,
                 NULL, NULL, -1, 0):
  for (i=0:i<8:i++){
      spe_wait(speid[i], &status[i], 0);
      printf("status = %d\n",
                   WEXITSTATUS(status[i]));
  return 0:
```

#### NVIDIA GPUs vs Intel processors: performance





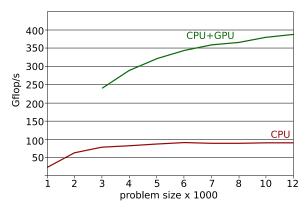
NVIDIA GeForce 8800 GTX:



### How to program GPUs?

- SPMD programming model
  - coherent branches (i.e. SIMD style) preferred
  - penalty for non-coherent branches (i.e., when different processes take different paths)
- directly with OpenGL/DirectX: not suited for general purpose computing
- with higher level GPGPU APIs:
  - ► AMD/ATI HAL-CAL (Hardware Abstraction Level Compute Abstraction Level)
  - NVIDIA CUDA: C-like syntax with pointers etc.
  - RapidMind
  - PeakStream

LU on 8-cores Xeon + GeForce GTX 280:



### Section 2

Single-core performance programming

# Single-core programming

Simple matrix-vector multiply-add c=c+A\*b in real, single precision with A of size 32

```
void matvec(float *A, float *c, float *b)
{
  int m, n;
  for (n = 0; n < 32; n++)
     for (m = 0; m < 32; m++)
        c[m] += A[n*32+m] * b[n];
}</pre>
```

- good news: standard C code will compile and run correctly on basically any computer
- **bad news**: no performance, i.e., 0.63 Gflop/s ( $\sim$  3% peak on a Core i7 @ 2.66 GHz)

#### Code available at:

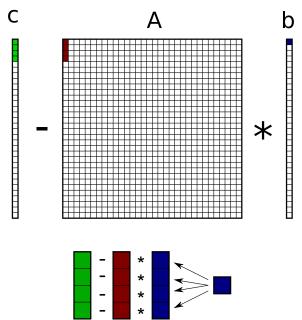
```
http://buttari.perso.enseeiht.fr/stuff/matvec.c
```

#### Vectorization

Most modern processors are equipped with vector units. They make it possible to perform the same operation on multiple data with a single instruction. For this reason they are also called SIMD (Single Instruction Multiple Data) units:

- x86 processors (Intel and AMD) have SSE (Streaming SIMD Extensions) have 128-bit vectors and can do either 4 single or 2 double precision operations
- ▶ Power processors (IBM) have AltiVec have 128-bit vectors and can do either 4 single or 2 double precision operations. AltiVecs moreover can also do fused multiply-add

### Vectorization



#### Vectorization

The Intel compiler includes a library of intrinsics, i.e., instructions that are specific to the x86 architecture. They can be used to vectorize a code. GNU compilers have similar features as well as others (e.g., IBM XL)

```
#include "xmmintrin.h"
__m128 Av, cv, mul, bv;
                                  // declare vectors
for(j=0; j<32; j++){
  bv = _mm_load1_ps(\&b[j]);
                                  // splat one coefficient of b
  for(i=0; i<32; i+=4){
   Av = _{mm}loadu_ps(&A[j*N+i]); // load 4 values in A(:,j)
   cv = _mm_loadu_ps(&c[i]); // load 4 coefficients of c
   mul = _mm_mul_ps(Av, bv);  // multiply
   cv = _mm_add_ps(mul, cv); // add
   _mm_storeu_ps(&c[i], cv); // store the result in c
```

Performance now is 1.26 Gflop/s, i.e.,  $\sim 6\%$  of the peak

## Unrolling

```
m128 b:
__m128 Av0, mul0, c0; ...
__m128 Av7, mul7, c7;
c0 = _{mm}loadu_ps(&c[0]); \dots
c7 = _{mm}loadu_ps(\&c[28]);
for(j=0; j<B; j++){</pre>
  b = _{mm}load1_ps(\&b[j]);
  Av0 = _{mm}loadu_ps(&A[j*N + 0]); ...
  Av7 = _{mm_loadu_ps(&A[j*N + 28]);}
  mul0 = _mm_mul_ps(Av0, b); ...
  mul7 = _mm_mul_ps(Av7, b);
  c0 = _{mm\_add\_ps}(mul0, c0); \dots
  c7 = _{mm\_add\_ps(mul7, c7)};
_mm_storeu_ps(&c[0], c0); ...
_mm_storeu_ps(&c[28], c7);
```

With a complete unrolling of the loop on rows, the c vector gets loaded only once into registers and then the result stored only once at the end.

The performance is now 1.7 Gflop/s, i.e.,  $\sim$  8% of the peak

### Prefetching

```
m128 b:
__m128 Av0, mul0, c0; ...
__m128 Av7, mul7, c7;
c0 = _{mm}loadu_ps(&c[0]); \dots
c7 = _{mm}loadu_ps(\&c[28]);
_mm_prefetch((void *)&A[0]); ...
_mm_prefetch((void *)&A[28]);
for(j=0; j<B; j++){
 _mm_prefetch((void *)&A[(j+1)*N + 0 ]); ...
 _mm_prefetch((void *)&A[(j+1)*N + 28]);
 b = _{mm}load1_ps(\&b[j]);
 Av0 = _{mm}loadu_ps(&A[j*N + 0]); ...
 Av7 = _{mm}loadu_ps(&A[j*N + 28]);
 mul0 = _mm_mul_ps(Av0, b); ...
 mul7 = _mm_mul_ps(Av7, b);
 c0 = _mm_add_ps(mul0, c0); ...
 c7 = _{mm\_add\_ps(mul7, c7)};
_mm_storeu_ps(&c[0], c0); ...
_mm_storeu_ps(&c[28], c7);
```



When column j of A is being multiplied, column j+1 is pre-loaded into cache to reduce the latency of access to data

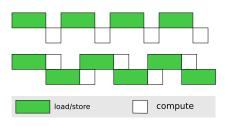


The performance is now 1.9 Gflop/s, i.e., ~ 9% of the peak

#### Performance evaluation

An highly optimized implementation of the matrix-vector product (e.g., the SGEMV routine in MKL BLAS) achieves 3.6 Gflop/s but this is only 17% of the peak. Can we get any better performance?

The processor's SP peak is 21.28 Gflop/s. The memory bandwidth is 17 GB/s (i.e., 4.25 SP values per second). Thus one core is much faster than memory!



Prefetch can totally hide the memory transfers only if many more computations are done on each data in cache/registers. In this case it is possible to get very close to the processor's peak performance. This explains the difference between Level-1, Level-2 and Level-3 BLAS routines.

## **BLAS** operations

- ▶ Level-1 BLAS: vector-vector operations like inner product or vector sum.  $\mathcal{O}(n)$  operations are performed on  $\mathcal{O}(n)$  data. Vectorizable but limited by bus speed
- ▶ Level-2 BLAS: matrix-vector operations like matrix-vector product.  $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$  operations are performed on  $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$  data. Vectorizable but limited by bus speed
- ▶ Level-3 BLAS: matrix-matrix operations like matrix-matrix product or rank-k update.  $\mathcal{O}(n^3)$  operations are performed on  $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$  data. Vectorizable and very efficient thanks to good exploitation of memory hierarchy

### Section 3

OpenMP

## How to program multicores: OpenMP



OpenMP (Open specifications for MultiProcessing) is an Application Program Interface (API) to explicitly direct multi-threaded, shared memory parallelism.

- Comprised of three primary API components:
  - Compiler directives (OpenMP is a compiler technology)
  - Runtime library routines
  - Environment variables
- Portable:
  - ► Specifications for C/C++ and Fortran
  - Already available on many systems (including Linux, Win, IBM, SGI etc.)
- Full specs

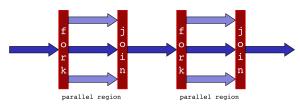
http://openmp.org

Tutorial

https://computing.llnl.gov/tutorials/openMP/

## How to program multicores: OpenMP

OpenMP is based on a fork-join execution model:



- Execution is started by a single thread called master thread
- when a parallel region is encountered, the master thread spawns a set of threads
- ▶ the set of instructions enclosed in a parallel region is executed
- ► at the end of the parallel region all the threads synchronize and terminate leaving only the master

### How to program multicores: OpenMP

Parallel regions and other OpenMP constructs are defined by means of compiler directives:

```
#include <omp.h>
main () {
 int var1, var2, var3:
 /* Serial code */
#pragma omp parallel private(var1, var2) \
                    shared(var3)
    /* Parallel section executed
       by all threads */
  /* Resume serial code */
```

## OpenMP: the PARALLEL construct

The PARALLEL one is the main OpenMP construct and identifies a block of code that will be executed by multiple threads:

```
!$OMP PARALLEL [clause ...]

IF (scalar_logical_expression)

PRIVATE (list)

SHARED (list)

DEFAULT (PRIVATE | SHARED | NONE)

FIRSTPRIVATE (list)

REDUCTION (operator: list)

COPYIN (list)

NUM_THREADS (scalar-integer-expression)

block

!$OMP END PARALLEL
```

- ▶ The master is a member of the team and has thread number 0
- Starting from the beginning of the region, the code is duplicated and all threads will execute that code.
- ▶ There is an implied barrier at the end of a parallel section.
- ▶ If any thread terminates within a parallel region, all threads in the team will terminate.

### OpenMP: the PARALLEL construct

How many threads do we have? The number of threads depends on:

- Evaluation of the IF clause
- ► Setting of the NUM\_THREADS clause
- Use of the omp\_set\_num\_threads() library function
- ► Setting of the OMP\_NUM\_THREADS environment variable
- Implementation default usually the number of CPUs on a node, though it could be dynamic

#### Hello world example:

```
program hello
  integer :: nthreads, tid, &
       & omp_get_num_threads, omp_get_thread_num
  ! Fork a team of threads giving them
  ! their own copies of variables
!$omp parallel private(tid)
  ! Obtain and print thread id
 tid = omp_get_thread_num()
  write(*,'("Hello from thread ",i2)')tid
  ! Only master thread does this
 if (tid .eq. 0) then
     nthreads = omp get num threads()
     write(*,'("# threads: ",i2)')nthreads
  end if
  ! All threads join master thread and disband
!$omp end parallel
end program hello
```

- ▶ the PRIVATE clause says that each thread will have its own copy of the tid variable (more later)
- ▶ the omp\_get\_num\_threads and omp\_get\_thread\_num are runtime library routines

# OpenMP: Data scoping

- Most variables are shared by default
- Global variables include:
  - ► Fortran: COMMON blocks, SAVE and MODULE variables
  - C: File scope variables, static
- Private variables include:
  - Loop index variables
  - Stack variables in subroutines called from parallel regions
  - Fortran: Automatic variables within a statement block
- ► The OpenMP Data Scope Attribute Clauses are used to explicitly define how variables should be scoped. They include:
  - ► PRIVATE
  - ► FIRSTPRIVATE
  - ► LASTPRIVATE
  - SHARED
  - ► DEFAULT
  - ► REDUCTION
  - ► COPYIN



## OpenMP: Data scoping

- PRIVATE(list): a new object of the same type is created for each thread (uninitialized!)
- ► FIRSTPRIVATE(list): Listed variables are initialized according to the value of their original objects prior to entry into the parallel or work-sharing construct.
- ► LASTPRIVATE(list): The value copied back into the original variable object is obtained from the last (sequentially) iteration or section of the enclosing construct.
- ► SHARED(list): only one object exists in memory and all the threads access it
- ▶ DEFAULT(SHARED|PRIVATE|NONE): sets the default scoping
- REDUCTION(operator:list): performs a reduction on the variables that appear in its list.

- A work-sharing construct divides the execution of the enclosed code region among the members of the team that encounter it
- Work-sharing constructs do not launch new threads

#### There are three main workshare constructs:

- ▶ DO/for construct: it is used to parallelize loops
- SECTIONS: used to identify portions of code that can be executed in parallel
- SINGLE: specifies that the enclosed code is to be executed by only one thread in the team.

#### The DO/for directive:

```
program do_example
 integer :: i, chunk
 integer, parameter :: n=1000, &
       & chunksize=100
 real(kind(1.d0)) :: a(n), b(n), c(n)
  ! Some sequential code...
 chunk = chunksize
!$omp parallel shared(a,b,c) private(i)
 do i = 1, n
    c(i) = a(i) + b(i)
 end do
!$omp end parallel
end program do_example
```

#### The DO/for directive:

```
program do_example
 integer :: i, chunk
 integer, parameter :: n=1000, &
       & chunksize=100
 real(kind(1.d0)) :: a(n), b(n), c(n)
  ! Some sequential code...
 chunk = chunksize
!$omp parallel shared(a,b,c) private(i)
!$omp do
 doi = 1, n
    c(i) = a(i) + b(i)
 end do
!$omp end do
!$omp end parallel
end program do_example
```

#### The DO/for directive:

```
!$OMP DO [clause ...]

SCHEDULE (type [,chunk])

ORDERED

PRIVATE (list)

FIRSTPRIVATE (list)

LASTPRIVATE (list)

SHARED (list)

REDUCTION (operator | intrinsic : list)

do_loop

!$OMP END DO [ NOWAIT ]
```

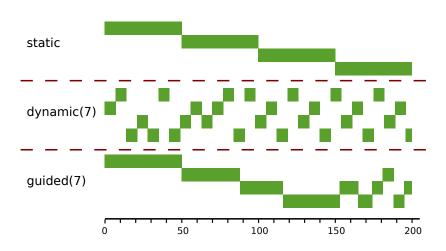
This directive specifies that the iterations of the loop immediately following it must be executed in parallel by the team

There is an implied barrier at the end of the construct

The SCHEDULE clause in the DO/for construct specifies how the cycles of the loop are assigned to threads:

- STATIC: loop iterations are divided into pieces of size chunk and then statically assigned to threads in a round-robin fashion
- ▶ DYNAMIC: loop iterations are divided into pieces of size chunk, and dynamically scheduled among the threads; when a thread finishes one chunk, it is dynamically assigned another
- ▶ GUIDED: for a chunk size of 1, the size of each chunk is proportional to the number of unassigned iterations divided by the number of threads, decreasing to 1. For a chunk size with value k (greater than 1), the size of each chunk is determined in the same way with the restriction that the chunks do not contain fewer than k iterations
- ► RUNTIME: The scheduling decision is deferred until runtime by the environment variable OMP SCHEDULE

Example showing scheduling policies for a loop of size 200



```
program do_example
 integer :: i, chunk
 integer, parameter :: n=1000, &
       & chunksize=100
 real(kind(1.d0)) :: a(n), b(n), c(n)
  ! Some sequential code...
 chunk = chunksize
!$omp parallel shared(a,b,c,chunk) private(i)
!$omp do schedule(dynamic,chunk)
 do i = 1, n
     c(i) = a(i) + b(i)
 end do
!$omp end do
!$omp end parallel
end program do_example
```

The SECTIONS directive is a non-iterative work-sharing construct. It specifies that the enclosed section(s) of code are to be divided among the threads in the team.

```
!$OMP SECTIONS [clause ...]
PRIVATE (list)
FIRSTPRIVATE (list)
LASTPRIVATE (list)
REDUCTION (operator | intrinsic : list)

!$OMP SECTION
block
!$OMP SECTION
block
!$OMP END SECTIONS [ NOWAIT ]
```

There is an implied barrier at the end of the construct

#### Example of the SECTIONS worksharing construct

```
program vec_add_sections
 integer :: i
 integer, parameter :: n=1000
 real(kind(1.d0)) :: a(n), b(n), c(n), d(n)
  ! some sequential code
!$omp parallel shared(a,b,c,d), private(i)
!$omp sections
!$omp section
 do i = 1, n
    c(i) = a(i) + b(i)
 end do
!$omp section
 do i = 1. n
    d(i) = a(i) * b(i)
 end do
!$omp end sections
!$omp end parallel
end program vec add sections
```

The SINGLE directive specifies that the enclosed code is to be executed by only one thread in the team.

```
!$OMP SINGLE [clause ...]
PRIVATE (list)
FIRSTPRIVATE (list)

block

!$OMP END SINGLE [ NOWAIT ]
```

There is an implied barrier at the end of the construct

# OpenMP: synchronization constructs

The CRITICAL construct enforces exclusive access with respect to all critical constructs with the same name in all threads

```
!$OMP CRITICAL [ name ]

block
!$OMP END CRITICAL
```

The MASTER directive specifies a region that is to be executed only by the master thread of the team

```
!$OMP MASTER

block
!$OMP END MASTER
```

The BARRIER directive synchronizes all threads in the team

```
!$OMP BARRIER
```

# OpenMP: synchronization all-in-one example

```
I $OMP PARALLEL
! all the threads do some stuff in parallel
I $OMP CRITICAL
! only one thread at a time will execute these instructions.
! Critical sections can be used to prevent simultaneous
I writes to some data
call one_thread_at_a_time()
! $OMP END CRITICAL
I $OMP MASTER
! only the master thread will execute these instructions.
! Some parts can be inherently sequential or need not be
! executed by all the threads
call only master()
!$OMP END MASTER
! each thread waits for all the others to reach this point
!$OMP BARRIER
! After the barrier we are sure that every thread sees the
! results of the work done by other threads
. . .
! all the threads do more stuff in parallel
! $OMP END PARALLEL
```

# OpenMP: synchronization constructs: ATOMIC

The ATOMIC directive specifies that a specific memory location must be updated atomically, rather than letting multiple threads attempt to write to it.

```
!$OMP ATOMIC

statement_expression

[!$OMP END ATOMIC]
```

#### What is the difference with CRITICAL?

```
!$omp atomic
    x = some_function()
```

With ATOMIC the function some\_function will be evaluated in parallel since only the update is atomical.

#### Another advantage:

```
!$omp critical
   x[i] = v
!$omp end critical
```

```
!$omp atomic
  x[i] = v
```

With atomic different coefficients of x will be updated in parallel



## OpenMP: synchronization constructs: ATOMIC

With ATOMIC it is possible to specify the access mode to the data:

#### Read a variable atomically

```
!$omp atomic read
v = x
```

#### Write a variable atomically

```
!$omp atomic write x = v
```

## Update a variable atomically

```
!$omp atomic update
x = x+1
```

## Capture a variable atomically

```
!$omp atomic capture
x = x+1
v = x
!$omp end atomic
```

atomic regions enforce exclusive access with respect to other atomic regions that access the same storage location x among all the threads in the program without regard to the teams to which the threads belong

# OpenMP: reductions and conflicts

#### How to do reductions with OpenMP?

```
| sum = 0
| do i=1,n
| sum = sum+a(i)
| end do
```

#### Here is a wrong way of doing it:

```
sum = 0
!$omp parallel do shared(sum)
do i=1,n
    sum = sum+a(i)
end do
```

#### What is wrong?

Concurrent access has to be synchronized otherwise we will end up in a WAW conflict!

#### Conflicts

Read-After-Write (RAW)
 A data is read after an instruction that modifies it.
 It is also called true dependency

a = b+c d = a+c

```
do i=2, n
    a(i) = a(i-1)*b(i)
end do
```

Write-After-Read (WAR) A data is written after an instruction that reads it. It is also called anti-dependency

a = b+c b = c\*2

```
do i=1, n-1
a(i) = a(i+1)*b(i)
end do
```

Write-After-Write (WAW)
 A data is written after an instruction that modifies it.
 It is also called output dependency

c = a(i)\*b(i) c = 4

```
do i=1, n
    c = a(i)*b(i)
end do
```

## OpenMP: reductions

#### We could use the CRITICAL construct:

```
sum = 0
!$omp parallel do shared(sum)
do i=1,n
!$omp critical
    sum = sum+a(i)
!$omp end critical
end do
```

#### but there's a more intelligent way

```
sum = 0
!$omp parallel do reduction(+:sum)
do i=1,n
    sum = sum+a(i)
end do
```

The reduction clause specifies an operator and one or more list items. For each list item, a private copy is created in each implicit task, and is initialized appropriately for the operator. After the end of the region, the original list item is updated with the values of the private copies using the specified operator.

#### The TASK construct defines an explicit task

```
!$OMP TASK [clause ...]

IF (scalar-logical-expression)
UNTIED

DEFAULT (PRIVATE | SHARED | NONE)
PRIVATE (list)
FIRSTPRIVATE (list)
SHARED (list)
block

!$OMP END TASK
```

When a thread encounters a TASK construct, a task is **generated** (not executed!!!) from the code for the associated structured block.

The encountering thread may immediately execute the task, or defer its execution. In the latter case, any thread in the team may be assigned the task.

But, then, when are tasks executed? Execution of a task may be assigned to a thread whenever it reaches a task scheduling point:

- the point immediately following the generation of an explicit task
- after the last instruction of a task region
- ▶ in taskwait regions
- in implicit and explicit barrier regions

At a task scheduling point a thread can:

- begin execution of a tied or untied task
- resume a suspended task region that is tied to it
- resume execution of a suspended, untied task

All the clauses in the TASK construct have the same meaning as for the other constructs except for:

- ▶ IF: when the IF clause expression evaluates to false, the encountering thread must suspend the current task region and begin execution of the generated task immediately, and the suspended task region may not be resumed until the generated task is completed
- UNTIED: by default a task is tied. This means that, if the task is suspended, then its execution may only be resumed by the thread that started it. If, instead, the UNTIED clause is present, any thread can resume its execution

#### Example of the TASK construct:

```
program example_task
 integer :: i, n
 n = 10
!$omp parallel
!$omp master
 do i=1, n
!$omp task
     call tsub(i)
!$omp end task
 end do
!$omp end master
!$omp end parallel
 stop
end program example_task
subroutine tsub(i)
 integer :: i
 integer :: iam, nt, omp_get_num_threads, &
       &omp get thread num
 iam = omp_get_thread_num()
 nt = omp_get_num_threads()
 write(*,'("iam:",i2," nt:",i2," i:",i4)')iam,nt,i
  return
end subroutine tsub
```

# result iam: 3 nt: 4 i: 3 iam: 2 nt: 4 i: 2 iam: 0 nt: 4 i: 4 iam: 1 nt: 4 i: 1 iam: 3 nt: 4 i: 5 iam: 0 nt: 4 i: 7 iam: 2 nt: 4 i: 6 iam: 1 nt: 4 i: 8 iam: 3 nt: 4 i: 9 iam: 0 nt: 4 i: 10

## OpenMP Locks

Lock can be used to prevent simultaneous access to shared resources according to the schema

- acquire (or set or lock) the lock
- access data
- release (on unset or unlock) the lock

Acquisition of the lock is exclusive in the sense that only one threads can hold the lock at a given time. A lock can be in one of the following states:

- uninitialized: the lock is not active and cannot be acquired/released by any thread;
- unlocked: the lock has been initialized and can be acquired by any thread;
- ▶ locked: the lock has been acquired by one thread and cannot be acquired by any other thread until the owner releases it.

## OpenMP Locks

#### Locks are used through the following routines:

- omp\_init\_lock: initializes a lock
- omp\_destroy\_lock: uninitializes a lock
- omp\_set\_lock: waits until a lock is available, and then sets it
- omp\_unset\_lock: unsets a lock
- omp\_test\_lock: routine tests a lock, and sets it if it is available

## OpenMP Locks

#### Examples:

```
omp.set_lock

!$OMP MASTER
! initialize the lock
call omp.init.lock(lock)
!$OMP END MASTER
...
call omp.set_(lock)
! exclusive access to data
...
call omp.unset_lock(lock)
...
! do more work in parallel
...
! destroy the lock
call omp.destroy_lock(lock)
```

```
____ omp_test_lock
I $OMP MASTER
I initialize the lock
call omp_init_lock(lock)
!$OMP END MASTER
! do work in parallel
if(omp_set_(lock)) then
   ! the lock is available: acquire it and
   ! have exclusive access to data
  call omp_unset_lock(lock)
else
   ! do other stuff and check for availability
   | later
end if
! do more work in parallel
! destroy the lock
call omp_destroy_lock(lock)
```

## Section 4

OpenMP examples

## Loop parallelism vs parallel region

Note that these two codes are essentially equivalent:

```
Loop parallelism

!$OMP PARALLEL DO

do i=1, n
    a(i) = b(i) + c(i)
end do
```

```
Parallel region

!$OMP PARALLEL PRIVATE(iam, nth, b, nl, i)
iam = omp.get.thread.num()
nth = omp.get.num_threads()

! compute the number of loop iterations
! done by each thread
nl = (n-1)/nth+1

! compute the first iteration number
! for this thread
b = iam*nl+1

do i=b, min(b+nl-1,n)
    a(i) = b(i) + c(i)
end do
!$OMP END PARALLEL
```

Loop parallelism is not always possible or may not be the best way of parallelizing a code.

## Loop parallelism vs parallel region

Another example: parallelize the maxval(x) routine which computes the maximum value of an array x of length n

```
Parallel region 

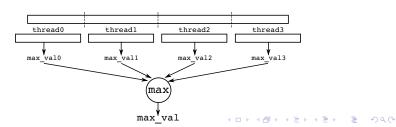
!$OMP PARALLEL PRIVATE(iam, nth, beg, loc_n, i) REDUCTION(max:max_value)
iam = omp_get_thread_num()
nth = omp_get_num_threads()

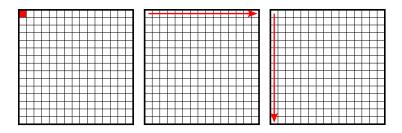
! each thread computes the length of its local part of the array
loc_n = (n-1)/nth+1

! each thread computes the beginning of its local part of the array
beg = iam*loc_n+1

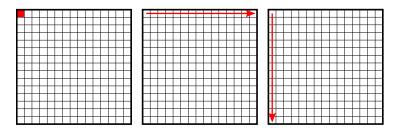
! for the last thread the local part may be smaller
if(iam == nth-1)
loc_n = n-beg;

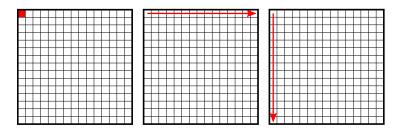
max_value = maxval(x(beg:beg*loc_n-1))
!$OMP END PARALLEL
```



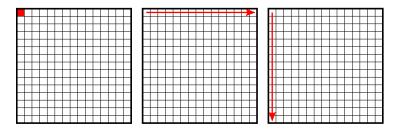


## Sequential version

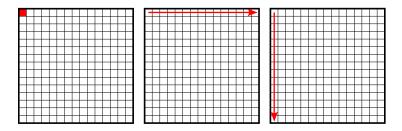




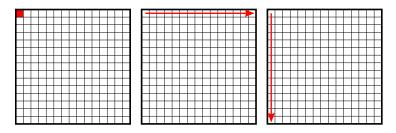
Incorrect parallel with WAW, WAR and RAW conflict on c(i,j)



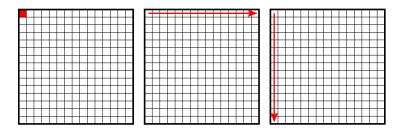
```
subroutine mmproduct(a, b, c)
!$omp parallel private(i,j)
do i=1, n
    do j=1, n
    !$omp do
    do k=1, n
        c(i,j) = c(i,j)+a(i,k)*b(k,j)
    end do
    !$omp end do
    end
```



Incorrect parallel with WAW, WAR and RAW conflict on c(i,j)

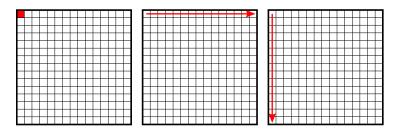


```
subroutine mmproduct(a, b, c)
!$omp parallel reduction(+,c) private(i,j)
do i=1, n
    do j=1, n
    !$omp do
    do k=1, n
        c(i,j) = c(i,j)+a(i,k)*b(k,j)
    end do
    !$omp end do
    end do
```



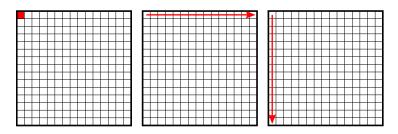
Correct parallel but enormous waste of memory (c is replicated)

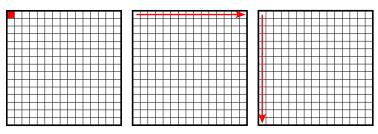




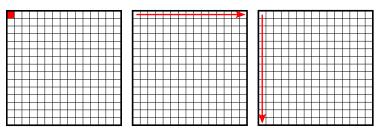
```
subroutine mmproduct(a, b, c)

do i=1, n
    do j=1, n
    acc = 0
!$omp parallel do reduction(+:acc)
    do k=1, n
     acc = acc+a(i,k)*b(k,j)
    end do
    !$omp end do
    c(i,j) = c(i,j)+acc
    end do
    end subroutine mmproduct
```

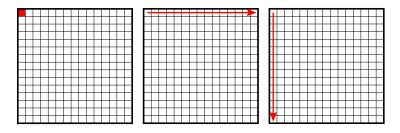


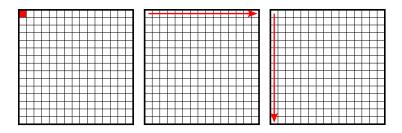


```
subroutine mmproduct(a, b, c)
!$omp parallel private(i,j,acc)
do i=1, n
  do j=1, n
      acc = 0
     !$omp do reduction(+:acc)
      do k=1, n
         acc = acc+a(i,k)*b(k,j)
      end do
     !$omp end do
     !$omp single
      c(i,j) = c(i,j) + acc
      !$omp end single
   end do
end do
end subroutine mmproduct
```



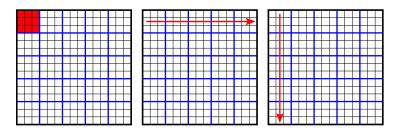
```
subroutine mmproduct(a, b, c)
!$omp parallel private(i,j,acc)
do i=1, n
  do j=1, n
      acc = 0
     !$omp do reduction(+:acc)
      do k=1, n
         acc = acc+a(i,k)*b(k,j)
      end do
     !$omp end do
     !$omp single
      c(i,j) = c(i,j) + acc
      !$omp end single
   end do
end do
end subroutine mmproduct
```

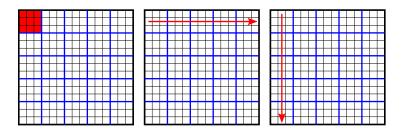




### Correct parallel and good performance

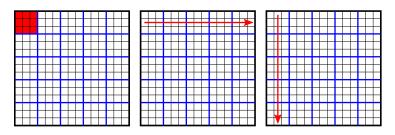


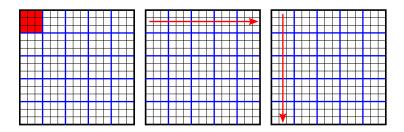




### Optimized version by blocking







### Optimized parallel version



```
1 Threads ---> 4.29 Gflop/s
2 Threads ---> 8.43 Gflop/s
4 Threads ---> 16.57 Gflop/s
8 Threads ---> 31.80 Gflop/s
16 Threads ---> 55.11 Gflop/s
```

```
 \begin{pmatrix} l_{11} & & & & \\ l_{21} & l_{22} & & & \\ l_{31} & l_{32} & \tilde{a}_{33} & & \\ l_{41} & l_{42} & \tilde{a}_{43} & \tilde{a}_{44} & & \\ l_{51} & l_{52} & \tilde{a}_{53} & \tilde{a}_{54} & \tilde{a}_{55} & & \\ l_{61} & l_{62} & \tilde{a}_{63} & \tilde{a}_{64} & \tilde{a}_{65} & \tilde{a}_{66} & & \\ l_{71} & l_{72} & \tilde{a}_{73} & \tilde{a}_{74} & \tilde{a}_{75} & \tilde{a}_{76} & \tilde{a}_{77} & \\ l_{81} & l_{82} & \tilde{a}_{83} & \tilde{a}_{84} & \tilde{a}_{85} & \tilde{a}_{86} & \tilde{a}_{87} & \tilde{a}_{88} \end{pmatrix}
```

```
do k=1, n
    a(k,k) = sqrt(a(k,k))

do i=k+1, n
    a(i,k) = a(i,k)/a(k,k)

do j=k+1, n
    a(i,j) = a(i,j) - a(i,k)*a(j,k)
    end do
end do
end do
```

The unblocked Cholesky factorization is extremely inefficient due to a poor cache reuse. No level-3 BLAS operations possible.

```
ã<sub>33</sub>
                  ã
ã43
                  ã<sub>54</sub>
                                     ãss
                  ã<sub>64</sub>
                                     ã
                                                       ã
                                                      ã<sub>76</sub>
                                     ã<sub>75</sub>
                                                                         ã<sub>77</sub>
                  ã<sub>84</sub>
                                                                         ã<sub>87</sub>
ã<sub>83</sub>
                                     ãgs
                                                        ã<sub>86</sub>
                                                                                           \tilde{a}_{88}
```

```
do k=1, n, nb

call dpotf2( a(k:k+nb-1,k:k+nb-1) )

call dtrsm ( a(k+nb:n, k:k+nb-1), & & & a(k:k+nb-1,k:k+nb-1) )

call dsyrk ( a(k+nb:n,k+nb:n), & & & & & (k+nb:n,k+nb-1) )

end do
```

The blocked Cholesky factorization is highly efficient thanks to the usage of level-3 BLAS routines.



No potential for parallelism?



```
ã<sub>33</sub>
                 ã
ã43
                  ã<sub>54</sub>
                                     ãss
\tilde{a}_{63}
                  ã<sub>64</sub>
                                    ã
                                                      ã
                                                     ã<sub>76</sub>
                                    ã<sub>75</sub>
                                                                        ã<sub>77</sub>
                  ã<sub>84</sub>
                                                                        ã<sub>87</sub>
 ã<sub>83</sub>
                                     ãgs
                                                       ã<sub>86</sub>
                                                                                          \tilde{a}_{88}
```

The blocked Cholesky factorization is highly efficient thanks to the usage of level-3 BLAS routines.



No potential for parallelism? FALSE



```
 \begin{pmatrix} l_{11} & & & & & \\ l_{21} & l_{22} & & & & \\ l_{31} & l_{32} & \tilde{a}_{33} & & & \\ l_{41} & l_{42} & \tilde{a}_{43} & \tilde{a}_{44} & & \\ l_{51} & l_{52} & \tilde{a}_{53} & \tilde{a}_{54} & \tilde{a}_{55} & & \\ l_{61} & l_{62} & \tilde{a}_{63} & \tilde{a}_{64} & \tilde{a}_{65} & \tilde{a}_{66} & \\ l_{71} & l_{72} & \tilde{a}_{73} & \tilde{a}_{74} & \tilde{a}_{75} & \tilde{a}_{76} & \tilde{a}_{77} \\ l_{81} & l_{82} & \tilde{a}_{83} & \tilde{a}_{84} & \tilde{a}_{85} & \tilde{a}_{86} & \tilde{a}_{87} & \tilde{a}_{88} \end{pmatrix}
```

The matrix can be logically split into blocks of size  $nb \times nb$  and the factorization written exactly as the non blocked where operations on single values are replaced by equivalent operations on blocks.

#### First tentative:

### WRONG!

This parallelization will lead to incorrect results. The steps of the blocked factorization have to be performed in the right order.

#### Second tentative:

```
do k=1, n, nb
    call dpotf2( a(k:k+nb-1,k:k+nb-1) )
!$omp parallel do
    do i=k+nb, n, nb
        call dtrsm ( a(i:i+nb-1, k:k+nb-1), a(k:k+nb-1,k:k+nb-1) )

    do j=k+nb, i, nb
        call dpoup ( a(i:i+nb-1,j:j+nb-1), a(i:i+nb-1, k:k+nb-1), a(j:j+nb-1, k:k+nb-1) )
    end do
end do
!$omp end parallel do
end do
```

### WRONG!

This parallelization will lead to incorrect results. At step step, the dpoup operation on block a(row,col) depends on the result of the dtrsm operations on blocks a(row,step) and a(col,step). This parallelization only respects the dependency on the first one.

#### Third tentative:

```
do k=1, n, nb
    call dpotf2( a(k:k+nb-1,k:k+nb-1) )

    do i=k+nb, n, nb
        call dtrsm ( a(i:i+nb-1, k:k+nb-1), a(k:k+nb-1,k:k+nb-1) )
!Somp parallel do
        do j=k+nb, i, nb
            call dpoup ( a(i:i+nb-1,j:j+nb-1), a(i:i+nb-1, k:k+nb-1), a(j:j+nb-1, k:k+nb-1) )
        end do
!Somp end parallel do
    end do
end do
```

### CORRECT!

This parallelization will lead to correct results. Because, at each step, the order of the dtrsm operations is respected, once the dtrsm operation on block a(row,step) is done, all the updates along row row can be done independently. Not really efficient.

#### Fourth tentative:

```
do k=1, n, nb
    call dpotf2( a(k:k+nb-1,k:k+nb-1) )

!$omp parallel do
    do i=k+nb, n, nb
        call dtrsm ( a(i:i+nb-1, k:k+nb-1), a(k:k+nb-1,k:k+nb-1) )
    end do

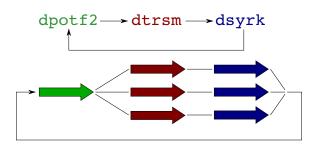
!$omp parallel do

do i=k+nb, n, nb
    do j=k+nb, i, nb
    call dpoup ( a(i:i+nb-1,j:j+nb-1), a(i:i+nb-1, k:k+nb-1), a(j:j+nb-1, k:k+nb-1) )
    end do
end do

!$omp end parallel do
end do
end do
```

### CORRECT and more EFFICIENT!

All the dtrsm operations at step step are independent and can be done in parallel. Because all the dtrsm are done before the updates, these can be done in parallel too. But not optimal.



### Fork-join parallelism suffers from:

- poor parallelism: some operations are inherently sequential and pose many constraints to the parallelization of the whole code
- synchronizations: any fork or join point is a synchronization point. This makes the parallel flow of execution extremely constrained, increases the idle time, limits the scalability

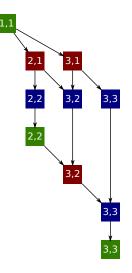
All the previous parallelization approaches are based on the assumption that step step+1 can be started only when all the operations related to step step are completed. This constraint is too strict and can be partially relaxed.

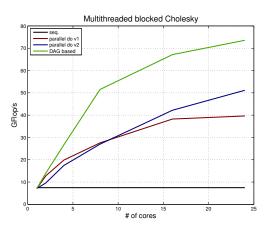
Which conditions have to be necessarily respected?

- the dpotf2 operation on the diagonal block a(step, step) can be done only if the block is up to date with respect to step step-1
- 2. the dtrsm operation on block a(row,step) can be done only if the block is up to date with respect to step step-1 and the dpotf2 of block a(step,step) is completed
- 3. the dpoup of block a(row,col) at step step can be done only if the block is up to date with respect to step step-1 and the dtrsm of blocks a(row,step) and a(col,step) at step step are completed

How is it possible to handle all this complexity? The order of the operations may be captured in a Directed Acyclic Graph where nodes define the computational tasks and edges the dependencies among them. Tasks in the DAG may be dynamically scheduled.

- fewer dependencies, i.e., fewer synchronizations and high flexibility for the scheduling of tasks
- no idle time
- adaptativity
- better scaling





### download the code at:

http://buttari.perso.enseeiht.fr/stuff/ompchol.F90



### OpenMP: the task construct

```
recursive subroutine traverse ( p )
  type node
     type(node), pointer :: left, right
 end type node
 type(node) :: p
 if (associated(p%left)) then
!$omp task ! p is firstprivate by default
    call traverse(p%left)
!$omp end task
 end if
 if (associated(p%right)) then
!$omp task ! p is firstprivate by default
    call traverse(p%right)
!$omp end task
 end if
 call process ( p )
end subroutine traverse
```

Although the sequential code will traverse the tree in postorder, this is not true for the parallel execution since no synchronizations are performed.

### OpenMP: the task construct

```
recursive subroutine traverse ( p )
  type node
     type(node), pointer :: left, right
 end type node
 type(node) :: p
 if (associated(p%left)) then
!$omp task ! p is firstprivate by default
    call traverse(p%left)
!$omp end task
 end if
 if (associated(p%right)) then
!$omp task ! p is firstprivate by default
    call traverse(p%right)
!$omp end task
 end if
!$omp taskwait
 call process ( p )
end subroutine traverse
```

The TASKWAIT construct is a synchronization which forces a thread to wait until the execution of the children tasks is terminated.

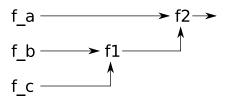
### OMP tasks: example

Write a parallel version of the following subroutine using OpenMP tasks:

```
function foo()
  integer :: foo
  integer :: a, b, c, x, y;

a = f_a()
b = f_b()
c = f_c()
x = f1(b, c)
y = f2(a, x)

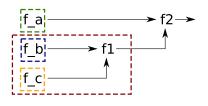
return y;
end function foo
```



### OMP tasks: example

Write a parallel version of the following subroutine using OpenMP tasks:

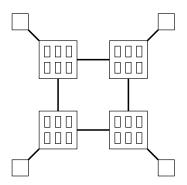
```
!$omp parallel
!$omp single
!$omp task
 a = f_a()
!$omp end task
!$omp task
!$omp task
 b = f b()
!$omp end task
!$omp task
 c = f_c()
!$omp end task
!$omp taskwait
 x = f1(b, c)
!$omp end task
!$omp taskwait
 y = f2(a, x)
!$omp end single
!$omp end parallel
```



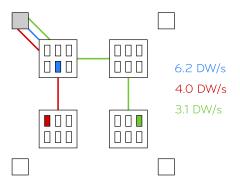
### Section 5

OpenMP: odds & ends

Even if every core can access any memory module, data will be transferred at different speeds depending on the distance (number of hops)

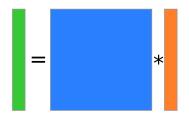


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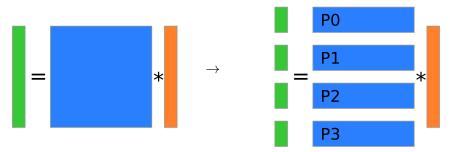
If an OpenMP parallel DGEMV (matrix operation) operation is not correctly coded on such an architecture, only a speedup of 1.5 can be achieved using all the 24 cores. Why?

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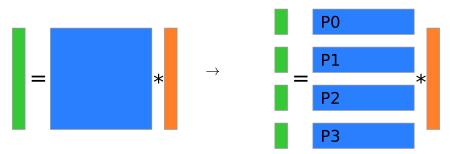
If all the data is stored on only one memory module, the memory bandwidth will be low and the conflicts/contentions will be high.

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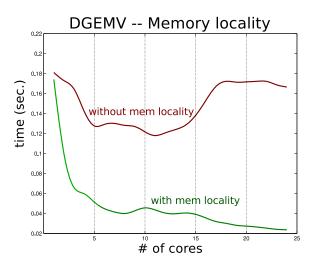
If all the data is stored on only one memory module, the memory bandwidth will be low and the conflicts/contentions will be high. When possible, it is good to partition the data, store partitions on different memory modules and force each core to access only local data.

### Implementing all this requires the ability to:

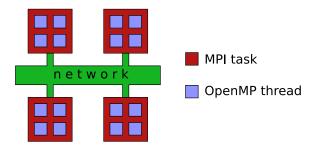
- control the placement of threads: we have to bind each thread to a single core and prevent threads migrations. This can be done in a number of ways, e.g. by means of tools such as hwloc which allows thread pinning
- control the placement of data: we have to make sure that one front physically resides on a specific NUMA module. This can be done with:
  - the first touch rule: the data is allocated close to the core that makes the first reference
  - hwloc or numalib which provide NUMA-aware allocators
- detect the architecture we have to figure out the memory/cores layout in order to guide the work stealing. This can be done with hwloc

# NUMA: memory locality

When this optimization is applied much better performance and scalability is achieved:



# Hybrid parallelism



How to exploit parallelism in a cluster of SMPs/Multicores? There are two options:

- Use MPI all over: MPI works on distributed memory systems as well as on shared memory
- Use an MPI/OpenMP hybrid approach: define one MPI task for each node and one OpenMP thread for each core in the node.

## Hybrid parallelism

```
program hybrid
 use mpi
 integer :: mpi_id, ierr, mpi_nt
 integer :: omp_id, omp_nt, &
              & omp_get_num_threads, &
              & omp_get_thread_num
 call mpi_init(ierr)
 call mpi comm rank(mpi comm world, mpi id, ierr)
 call mpi_comm_size(mpi_comm_world, mpi_nt, ierr)
!$omp parallel
 omp_id = omp_get_thread_num()
 omp_nt = omp_get_num_threads()
 write(*,'("Thread ",i1,"(",i1,") &
        & within MPI task ",i1,"(",i1,")")') &
       & omp_id,omp_nt,mpi_id,mpi_nt
!$omp end parallel
end program hybrid
```

```
result
Thread 0(2) within MPI task 0(2)
Thread 0(2) within MPI task 1(2)
Thread 1(2) within MPI task 1(2)
Thread 1(2) within MPI task 0(2)
```

#### Section 6

Mixed-precision Iterative refinement

On modern systems, single-precision arithmetic has a clear performance advantage over double-precision arithmetic for the following reasons:

- Vector instructions: vector units can normally do twice as many SP operations as DP ones every clock cycle. For example SSE units can do either 4 SP or 2 DP.
- Bus bandwidth: because SP values are twice as small as DP ones, the memory transfer rate for SP values is twice as big as for DP
- ▶ Data locality: again, because SP data are twice as small DP, you can put twice as many SP values in the cache as DP

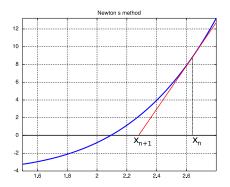
Performance comparison between single and double precision arithmetic for matrix-matrix and matrix-vector product operations on square matrices.

	Size	SGEMM/	Size	SGEMV/
		DGEMM		DGEMV
AMD Opteron 246	3000	2.00	5000	1.70
Sun UltraSparc-Ile	3000	1.64	5000	1.66
Intel PIII Copp.	3000	2.03	5000	2.09
PowerPC 970	3000	2.04	5000	1.44
Intel Woodcrest	3000	1.81	5000	2.18
Intel XEON	3000	2.04	5000	1.82
Intel Centrino Duo	3000	2.71	5000	2.21

Is there a way to do computations at the speed of single-precision while achieving the accuracy of double-precision? Sort of. For some operations it is possible to do the bulk of computations in single-precision and then recover the accuracy to double-precision by means of an iterative method like the Newton's method.

The Newton's method says that given an approximate root of the function f(x), we can refine it through iterations of the type:

$$x_{k+1} = x_k - \frac{f(x_k)}{f'(x_k)}$$



The Newton's method can be applied, for example, to refine the root of the function f(x) = b - Ax (equivalent to solving the linear system Ax = b).

$$x_{k+1} = x_k - A^{-1}r_k$$
 where  $r_k = b - Ax_k$ 

This leads to the well known iterative refinement method:

$$x_0 \leftarrow A^{-1}b$$
repeat
 $r_k \leftarrow b - Ax_{k-1}$ 
 $z_k \leftarrow A^{-1}r_k$ 
 $x_k \leftarrow x_{k-1} - z_k$ 
until convergence

The Newton's method can be applied, for example, to refine the root of the function f(x) = b - Ax (equivalent to solving the linear system Ax = b).

$$x_{k+1} = x_k - A^{-1}r_k$$
 where  $r_k = b - Ax_k$ 

This leads to the well known iterative refinement method:

$$x_0 \leftarrow A^{-1}b$$
  $O(n^3)$ 
repeat
 $r_k \leftarrow b - Ax_{k-1}$   $O(n^2)$ 
 $z_k \leftarrow A^{-1}r_k$   $O(n^2)$ 
 $x_k \leftarrow x_{k-1} - z_k$   $O(n)$ 
until convergence

The Newton's method can be applied, for example, to refine the root of the function f(x) = b - Ax (equivalent to solving the linear system Ax = b).

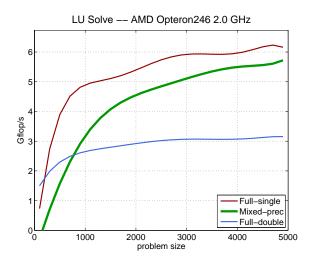
$$x_{k+1} = x_k - A^{-1}r_k$$
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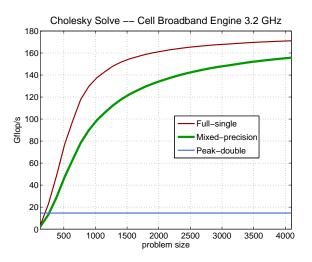
$$x_0 \leftarrow A^{-1}b$$
  $\varepsilon_s$ 
repeat
 $r_k \leftarrow b - Ax_{k-1}$   $\varepsilon_d$ 
 $z_k \leftarrow A^{-1}r_k$   $\varepsilon_s$ 
 $x_k \leftarrow x_{k-1} - z_k$   $\varepsilon_d$ 
until convergence

We can perform the expensive factorization in single precision and then do the refinement in double.

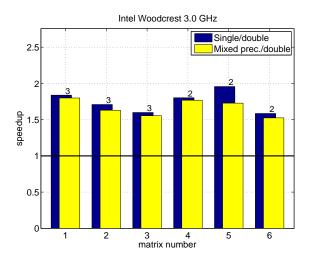
#### Mixed Precision Iterative Refinement: results



#### Mixed Precision Iterative Refinement: results



#### Mixed Precision Iterative Refinement: results



# Appendix: routines for blocked Cholesky

- dpotf2: this LAPACK routine does the unblocked Cholesky factorization of a symmetric positive definite matrix using only the lower or upper triangular part of the matrix
- dtrsm: this BLAS routine does the solution of the problem AX=B where A is a lower or upper triangular matrix and B is a matrix containing multiple right-hand-sides
- dgemm: this BLAS routine performs a product of the type C=alpha\*A\*B+beta\*c where alpha and beta are scalars, A, B and C are dense matrices
- dsyrk: this BLAS routine performs a symmetric rank-k update of the type A=B\*B'+alpha\*A where alpha is a scalar, A is a symmetric matrix and B a rank-k matrix updating only the upper or lower triangular part of A
- dpoup: this routine (not in BLAS nor in LAPACK) calls the dgemm or the dsyrk routine to perform an update on an off-diagonal block or a diagonal block, respectively



## Reference and examples

The OpenMP reference document can be found at this address: http://www.openmp.org/mp-documents/OpenMP3.1.pdf
The file contains detailed documentation about all the OpenMP directives (included those that were not discussed in the lectures) and many examples.

It is warmly recommended to study and analyze (at least) the following examples:

- ► A.1 parallel loop
- ► A.5 parallel
- ► A.12 sections
- ► A.14 single
- ► A.15.5 task
- ► A.15.6 task
- ► A.18 master

- A.19 critical
- A.21 barrier
- A.22.1 atomic
- ► A.22.2 atomic
- ► A.32.1 private
- ► A.32.2 private
- ► A.36 reduction