

Computação Paralela

Mest. Engenharia Computacional Mest. Int. Engenharia Computacional

Ano letivo 2022/2023

Rui Costa, Nuno Lau

Apresentação



Computação Paralela (2022/2023)

Escolaridade:

1h TP / semana 2h P / semana

Docentes (aulas TP e P):

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Física (13.3.32.2) IEETA (IRIS Lab / 2.07)

Página web em elearning.ua.pt

login: utilizador universal

Slides adaptados da bibliografia

Objetivos



- Identificar e classificar os diferentes modelos e os diferentes níveis da programação paralela
- Reconhecer programas suscetíveis de ser paralelizados e escolher a melhor abordagem
- Desenvolver, depurar e otimizar um programa paralelo
- Utilizar eficazmente clusters computacionais

Programa (Aulas TeoricoPráticas)



- 1. Computação paralela de alto desempenho
- 2. Modelos de programação paralela
- 3. OpenMP
- 4. CUDA
- 5. MPI
- 6. Otimização

Programa (Aulas Práticas)



As aulas práticas seguem uma filosofia do saber fazer e visam a realização de pequenos trabalhos sobre os diferentes assuntos.

- Paralelização com threads
- Extensões multimédia de processadores
- OpenMP
- CUDA
- MPI

Avaliação



Componente TeoricoPrática

- Teste final (durante época de exames)
- Nota mínima: 8

Componente Prática

- 2 trabalhos
- 50%.TP1 + 50%.TP2
- Nota mínima: 8

Nota final

NF = 40%.CTP + 60%.CP

Trabalhos



- Efetuar uma implementação precisa dos problemas propostos
- Os trabalhos são desenvolvidos também fora das aulas práticas
- O plágio será fortemente penalizado

Bibliografia



- Rauber and G. Rünger, Parallel Programming: for Multicore and Cluster Systems, 2nd edition, Springer, 2013.
- Hager and G. Wellein, Introduction to High Performance Computing for Scientists and Engineers, CRC Press, 2010.
- J. Quinn, Parallel Programming: in C with MPI and OpenMP, McGraw-Hill, 2003.
- S. Pacheco, Parallel Programming with MPI, Morgan Kaufmann, 1997.
- Cheng, M. Grossman, and T. McKercher, Professional CUDA C Programming, Wrox, 2014.

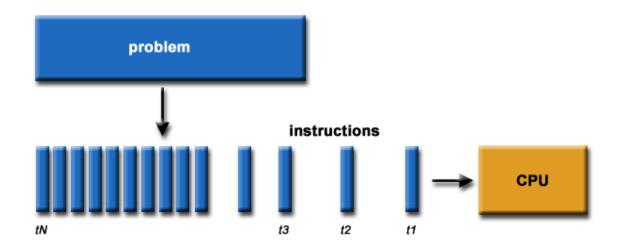
Questões?



What is Parallel Computing? (1)



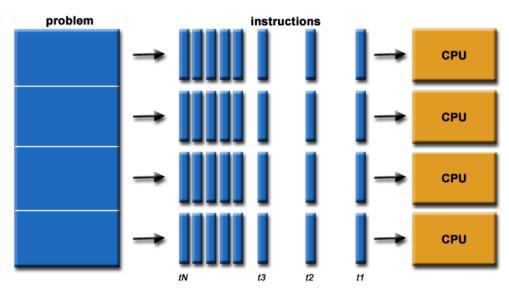
- Traditionally, software has been written for serial computation:
 - To be run on a single computer having a single Central Processing Unit (CPU);
 - A problem is broken into a discrete series of instructions.
 - Instructions are executed one after another.
 - Only one instruction may execute at any moment in time.



What is Parallel Computing? (2)



- In the simplest sense, parallel computing is the simultaneous use
 of multiple compute resources to solve a computational problem.
 - To be run using multiple CPUs
 - A problem is broken into discrete parts that can be solved concurrently
 - Each part is further broken down to a series of instructions
- Instructions from each part execute simultaneously on different CPUs/Cores



Parallel Computing: Resources



- The compute resources can include:
 - A single computer with multiple processors/cores
 - A single computer with (multiple) processor(s) and some specialized computer resources (GPU, FPGA ...)
 - An arbitrary number of computers connected by a network
 - A combination of the above

Parallel Computing: The computational problem



- The computational problem usually demonstrates characteristics such as the ability to be:
 - Broken apart into discrete pieces of work that can be solved simultaneously
 - Execute multiple program instructions at any moment in time
 - Solved in less time with multiple compute resources than with a single compute resource

Parallel Computing: what for? (1)



- Parallel computing is an evolution of serial computing that attempts to emulate what has always been the state of affairs in the natural world:
 - many complex, interrelated events happening at the same time, yet within a sequence.
- Some examples:
 - Planetary and galactic orbits
 - Weather and ocean patterns
 - Tectonic plate drift
 - Rush hour traffic in Paris
 - Automobile assembly line
 - Daily operations within a business
 - Building a shopping mall
 - Ordering a hamburger at the drive through.

Parallel Computing: what for? (2)



- Traditionally, parallel computing has been considered to be "the high end of computing" and has been motivated by numerical simulations of complex systems and "Grand Challenge Problems" such as:
 - Weather and climate
 - Chemical and nuclear reactions
 - Biological, human genome
 - Geological, seismic activity
 - Mechanical devices from prosthetics to spacecraft
 - Electronic circuits
 - Manufacturing processes

Parallel Computing: what for? (3)



- Commercial applications are providing an equal or greater driving force in the development of faster computers. These applications require the processing of large amounts of data in sophisticated ways. Example applications include:
 - Parallel databases
 - Data mining
 - Machine learning
 - Oil exploration
 - Web search engines, web based business services
 - Computer-aided diagnosis in medicine
 - Management of national and multi-national corporations
 - Advanced graphics and virtual reality, particularly in the entertainment industry
 - Networked video and multi-media technologies
 - Collaborative work environments
- Ultimately, parallel computing is an attempt to maximize the infinite but seemingly scarce commodity called time

Why Parallel Computing? (1)



- This is a legitime question!
- Parallel computing is complex on any aspect!
- The primary reasons for using parallel computing:
 - Save time and/or money
 - · wall clock time
 - using multiple "cheap" computing resources instead of paying for time on a supercomputer
 - Solve larger problems
 - Provide concurrency (do multiple things at the same time)



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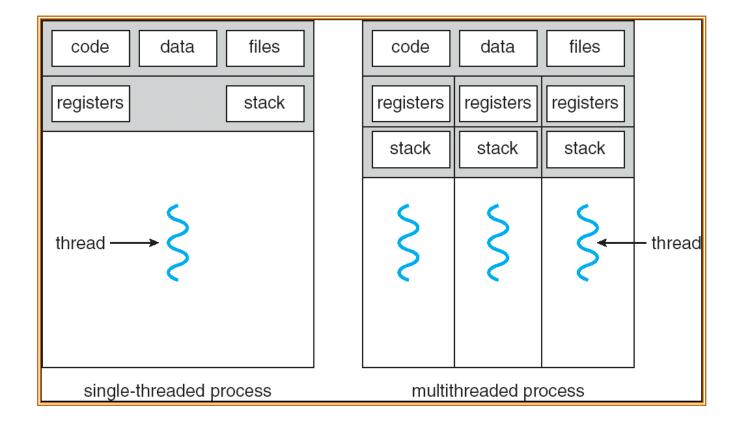
Threads



- Programas têm geralmente de executar diversas atividades distintas
- Usando threads, o programador pode desenvolver o programa como um conjunto de fluxos de execução sequenciais, um para cada atividade
- Cada thread comporta-se como tendo o seu processador próprio.
- Todas as threads do mesmo processo partilham espaço de endereçamento (memória)

Processos Single e Multi threaded





Processos e *Threads*



Per-process items

Address space

Global variables

Open files

Child processes

Pending alarms

Signals and signal handlers

Accounting information

Per-thread items

Program counter

Registers

Stack

State

Servidor Web Multithreaded



- Num servidor web, cada pedido de página pode ser processado numa thread separada
- Há uma (dispatcher) thread que recebe todos os pedidos e os distribui pelas (worker) threads

```
while (TRUE) {
    get_next_request(&buf);
    handoff_work(&buf);
}

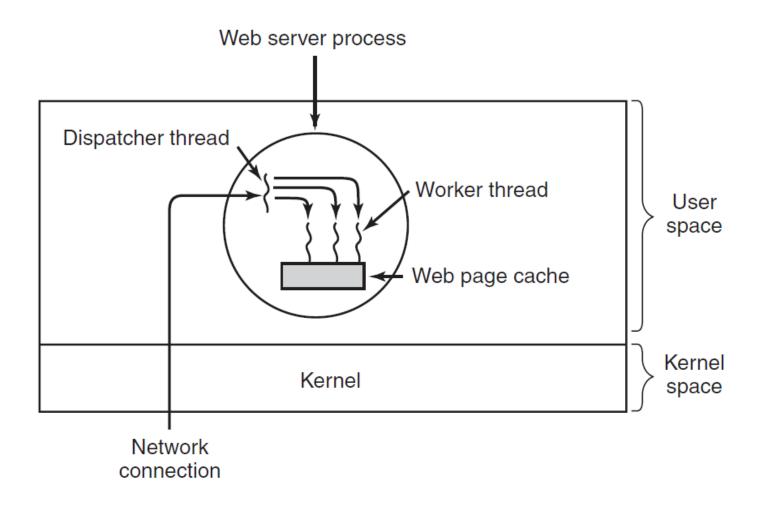
while (TRUE) {
    wait_for_work(&buf)
    look_for_page_in_cache(&buf, &page);
    if (page_not_in_cache(&page))
        read_page_from_disk(&buf, &page);
    return_page(&page);
}

Dispatcher thread

Worker threads
```

Servidor Web Multithreaded





Pthreads



- POSIX standard para a criação e sincronização de threads
- API define comportamento, mas não implementação
- Comum em sistemas UNIX (Linux, Mac OS X)

POSIX Threads



Thread call	Description
Pthread_create	Create a new thread
Pthread_exit	Terminate the calling thread
Pthread_join	Wait for a specific thread to exit
Pthread_yield	Release the CPU to let another thread run
Pthread_attr_init	Create and initialize a thread's attribute structure
Pthread_attr_destroy	Remove a thread's attribute structure

Criar POSIX Threads



```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <pthread.h>
#define NUM THREADS 5
void *PrintMsq(void *threadid) {
   long tid;
   tid = (long) threadid;
   printf("Hello World! Thread ID, %d\n", tid);
   pthread exit (NULL);
int main (int argc, char *argv[]) {
   pthread t threads[NUM THREADS];
   int rc;
   int i;
   for( i = 0; i < NUM THREADS; i++ ) {</pre>
      printf( "main() : creating thread, %d\n",i);
      rc = pthread create(&threads[i], NULL, PrintMsq, (void *)i);
      if (rc) {
         printf("Error: unable to create thread, %d\n", rc);
         exit(1);
   pthread exit (NULL);
```



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Why Parallel Computing? (2)



- Other reasons might include:
 - Taking advantage of non-local resources
 - using available compute resources on a wide area network, or even the Internet when local compute resources are scarce.
 - Example: SETI@Home
 - Overcoming memory constraints

• single computers have very finite memory resources. For large problems, using the memories of multiple computers may overcome this obstacle.

Limitations of Serial Computing



 Both physical and practical reasons pose significant constraints to simply building ever faster serial computers:

Transmission speeds

 the speed of a serial computer is directly dependent upon how fast data can move through hardware. Absolute limits are the speed of light (30 cm/ns) and the transmission limit of copper wire (9 cm/ns). Increasing speeds necessitate increasing proximity of processing elements

Limits to miniaturization

 processor technology is allowing an increasing number of transistors to be placed on a chip. However, even with molecular or atomic-level components, a limit will be reached on how small components can be

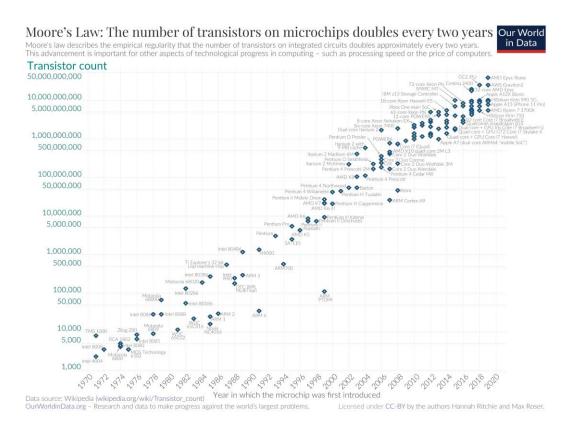
Economic limitations

 it is increasingly expensive to make a single processor faster. Using a larger number of moderately fast commodity processors to achieve the same (or better) performance is less expensive

Moore's Law

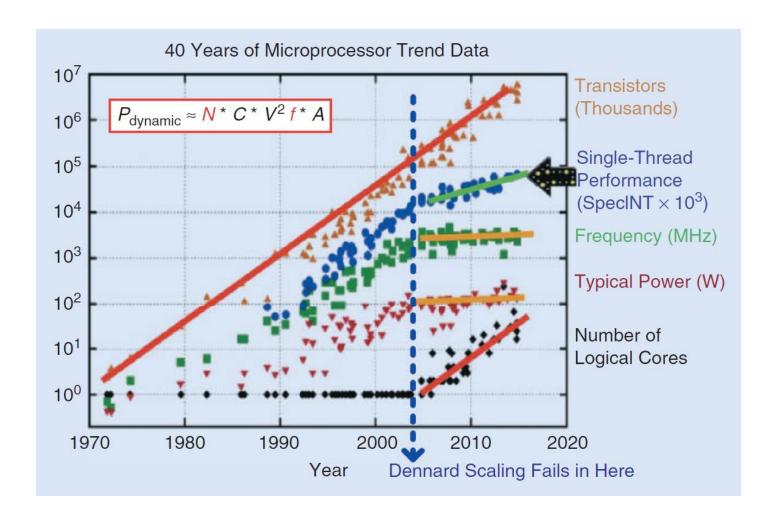


- The number of transistors on integrated circuits doubles approx every 2 years
- Chip performance double every 18-24 months
- Power consumption is proportional to frequency
- Clock speed saturates at 3 to 4 GHz.
 - End of free lunch
 - Future is parallel!



Moore's Law





The Future



- during the past 20 years, the trends indicated by ever faster networks, distributed systems, and multi-processor computer architectures (even at the desktop level) clearly show that *parallelism is the future of computing*.
- Mixing general purpose solutions (your PC...) and very specialized solutions as GPGPU from Nvidia, Tensor Processing Units from Google, Vision Processing Unit ...

Who and What? (1)

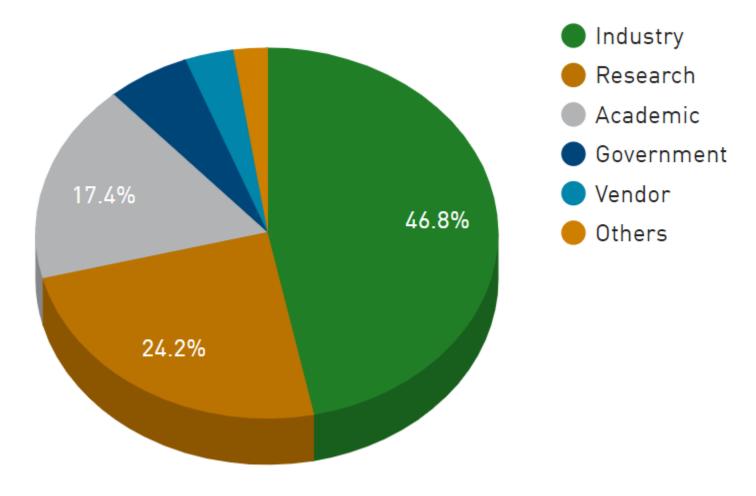


- <u>Top500.org</u> provides statistics on parallel computing users
- Charts that follow are just a small sample
- Some things to note:
 - Sectors may overlap
 - For example, Research may be classified Academic.
 Respondents have to choose between the two.

Who and What? (2)



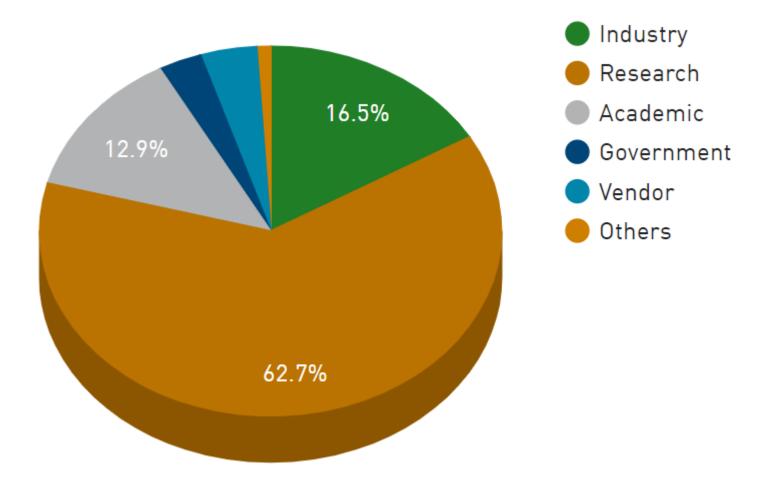
Segments System Share



Who and What? (3)



Segments Performance Share



Von Neumann Architecture



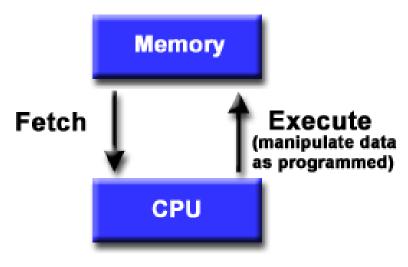
- For over 60 years, virtually all computers have followed a common machine model known as the von Neumann computer. Named after the Hungarian mathematician John von Neumann.
- A von Neumann computer uses the stored-program concept. The CPU executes a stored program that specifies a sequence of read and write operations on the memory.

UA 1²

Basic Design



- Basic design
 - Memory is used to store both program and data instructions
 - Program instructions are coded data which tell the computer to do something
 - Data is simply information to be used by the program
- A central processing unit (CPU) gets instructions and/or data from memory, decodes the instructions and then sequentially performs them.



Flynn's Classical Taxonomy



- There are different ways to classify parallel computers.
 One of the more widely used classifications, in use since 1966, is called Flynn's Taxonomy.
- Flynn's taxonomy distinguishes multi-processor computer architectures according to how they can be classified along the two independent dimensions of *Instruction* and *Data*. Each of these dimensions can have only one of two possible states: *Single* or *Multiple*.

Flynn Matrix



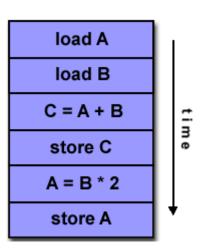
 The matrix below defines the 4 possible classifications according to Flynn

SISD	S I M D	
Single Instruction, Single Data	Single Instruction, Multiple Data	
MISD	MIMD	
Multiple Instruction, Single Data	Multiple Instruction, Multiple Data	

Single Instruction, Single Data (SISD)



- A serial (non-parallel) computer
- Single instruction: only one instruction stream is being acted on by the CPU during any one clock cycle
- Single data: only one data stream is being used as input during any one clock cycle
- Deterministic execution
- This is the oldest and until recently, the most prevalent form of computer
- Examples:
 - PCs with one core, single CPU workstations and mainframes

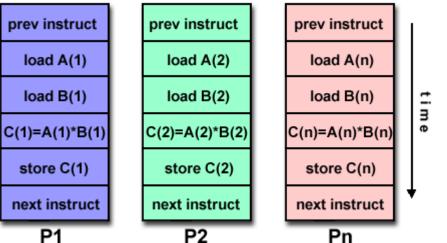


Single Instruction, Multiple Data (SIMD)



- A type of parallel computer
- **Single instruction:** All processing units execute the same instruction at any given clock cycle
- Multiple data: Each processing unit can operate on a different data element
- This type of machine typically has an instruction dispatcher, a very highbandwidth internal network, and a very large array of very small-capacity instruction units.
- Best suited for specialized problems characterized by a high degree of regularity, such as image processing.
- Synchronous (lockstep) and deterministic execution
- Two varieties: Processor Arrays and Vector Pipelines
- Examples:
 - Processor Arrays: Connection Machine CM-2, Maspar MP-1, MP-2
 - Vector Pipelines: IBM 9000, Cray C90, Fujitsu VP, NEC SX-2, Hitachi S820, MMX,

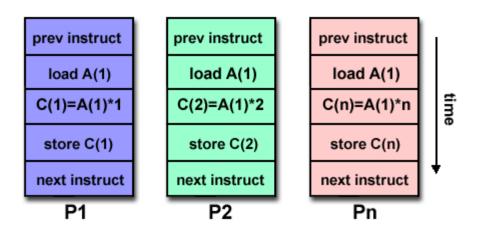
SSE



Multiple Instruction, Single Data (MISD)



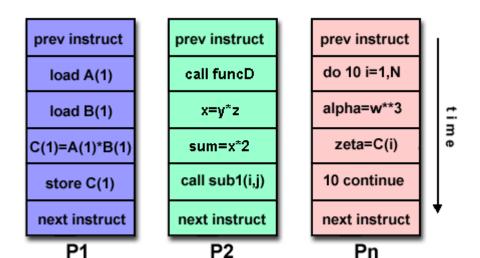
- A single data stream is fed into multiple processing units.
- Each processing unit operates on the data independently via independent instruction streams.
- **Few actual examples** of this class of parallel computer have ever existed. One is the experimental Carnegie-Mellon C.mmp computer (1971) that was capable of this type of processing.
- Some conceivable uses might be:
 - multiple frequency filters operating on a single signal stream
 - Multiple cryptography algorithms attempting to crack a single coded message.



Multiple Instruction, Multiple Data (MIMD)



- Currently, the most common type of parallel computer. Most modern computers fall into this category.
- Multiple Instruction: every processor may be executing a different instruction stream
- Multiple Data: every processor may be working with a different data stream
- Execution can be synchronous or asynchronous, deterministic or non-deterministic
- Examples:
 - most current PCs and supercomputers, networked parallel computer "grids" and multi-processor SMP computers.



Some General Parallel Terminology



Like everything else, parallel computing has its own "jargon". Some of the more commonly used terms associated with parallel computing are listed below. Most of these will be discussed in more detail later.

Task

 A logically discrete section of computational work. A task is typically a program or program-like set of instructions that is executed by a processor.

Parallel Task

 A task that can be executed by multiple processors safely (yields correct results)

Serial Execution

 Execution of a program sequentially, one statement at a time. In the simplest sense, this is what happens on a one processor machine. However, virtually all parallel tasks will have sections of a parallel program that must be executed serially.



Parallel Execution

 Execution of a program by more than one task, with each task being able to execute the same or different statement at the same moment in time.

Shared Memory

 From a strictly hardware point of view, describes a computer architecture where all processors have direct (usually bus based) access to common physical memory. In a programming sense, it describes a model where parallel tasks all have the same "picture" of memory and can directly address and access the same logical memory locations regardless of where the physical memory actually exists.

Distributed Memory

 In hardware, refers to network based memory access for physical memory that is not common. As a programming model, tasks can only logically "see" local machine memory and must use communications to access memory on other machines where other tasks are executing.



Communications

Parallel tasks typically need to exchange data. There are several ways
this can be accomplished, such as through a shared memory bus or
over a network, however the actual event of data exchange is
commonly referred to as communications regardless of the method
employed.

Synchronization

- The coordination of parallel tasks in real time, very often associated with communications. Often implemented by establishing a synchronization point within an application where a task may not proceed further until another task(s) reaches the same or logically equivalent point.
- Synchronization usually involves waiting by at least one task, and can therefore cause a parallel application's wall clock execution time to increase.



Granularity

- In parallel computing, granularity is a qualitative measure of the ratio of computation to communication.
- Coarse: relatively large amounts of computational work are done between communication events
- Fine: relatively small amounts of computational work are done between communication events

Observed Speedup

Observed speedup of a code which has been parallelized, defined as:

wall-clock time of serial execution wall-clock time of parallel execution

 One of the simplest and most widely used indicators for a parallel program's performance.



Parallel Overhead

- The amount of time required to coordinate parallel tasks, as opposed to doing useful work. Parallel overhead can include factors such as:
 - Task start-up time
 - Synchronizations
 - Data communications
 - Software overhead imposed by parallel compilers, libraries, tools, operating system, etc.
 - Task termination time

Massively Parallel

 Refers to the hardware that comprises a given parallel system - having many processors. The meaning of many keeps increasing, but nowadays it can reach millions of processors



Scalability

- Refers to a parallel system's (hardware and/or software) ability to demonstrate a proportionate increase in parallel speedup with the addition of more processors. Factors that contribute to scalability include:
 - Hardware particularly memory-cpu bandwidths and network communications
 - Application algorithm
 - Parallel overhead related
 - Characteristics of your specific application and coding



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Parallel Computer Memory Architectures

Memory architectures

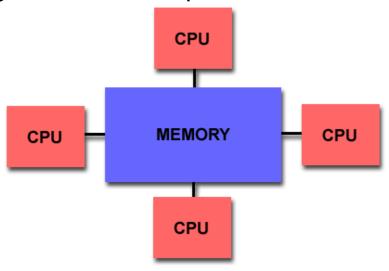


- Shared Memory
- Distributed Memory
- Hybrid Distributed-Shared Memory

Shared Memory



 Shared memory parallel computers vary widely, but generally have in common the ability for all processors to access all memory as global address space.



- Multiple processors can operate independently but share the same memory resources.
- Changes in a memory location effected by one processor are visible to all other processors.
- Shared memory machines can be divided into two main classes based upon memory access times: UMA and NUMA.

Shared Memory: UMA vs. NUMA



Uniform Memory Access (UMA):

- Most commonly represented today by Symmetric Multiprocessor (SMP) machines
- Identical processors
- Equal access and access times to memory
- Sometimes called CC-UMA Cache Coherent UMA. Cache coherent means if one processor updates a location in shared memory, all the other processors know about the update. Cache coherency is accomplished at the hardware level.

Non-Uniform Memory Access (NUMA):

- Often made by physically linking two or more SMPs
- One SMP can directly access memory of another SMP
- Not all processors have equal access time to all memories
- Memory access across link is slower
- If cache coherency is maintained, then may also be called CC-NUMA -Cache Coherent NUMA

Shared Memory: Pro and Con



Advantages

- Global address space provides a user-friendly programming perspective to memory
- Data sharing between tasks is both fast and uniform due to the proximity of memory to CPUs

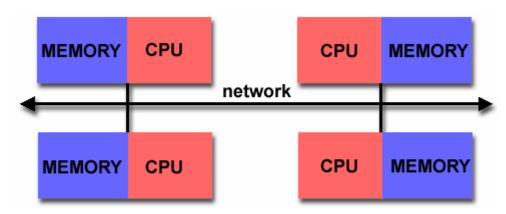
Disadvantages:

- Primary disadvantage is the lack of scalability between memory and CPUs. Adding more CPUs can geometrically increases traffic on the shared memory-CPU path, and for cache coherent systems, geometrically increase traffic associated with cache/memory management.
- Programmer responsibility for synchronization constructs that insure "correct" access of global memory.
- Expense: it becomes increasingly difficult and expensive to design and produce shared memory machines with ever increasing numbers of processors.

Distributed Memory



- Like shared memory systems, distributed memory systems vary widely but share a common characteristic. Distributed memory systems require a communication network to connect inter-processor memory.
- Processors have their own local memory. Memory addresses in one processor do not map to another processor, so there is no concept of global address space across all processors.
- Because each processor has its own local memory, it operates independently.
 Changes it makes to its local memory have no effect on the memory of other processors. Hence, the concept of cache coherency does not apply.
- When a processor needs access to data in another processor, it is usually the task of the programmer to explicitly define how and when data is communicated. Synchronization between tasks is likewise the programmer's responsibility.
- The network "fabric" used for data transfer varies widely, though it can can be as simple as Ethernet.



Distributed Memory: Pro and Con



Advantages

- Memory is scalable with number of processors. Increase the number of processors and the size of memory increases proportionately.
- Each processor can rapidly access its own memory without interference and without the overhead incurred with trying to maintain cache coherency.
- Cost effectiveness: can use commodity, off-the-shelf processors and networking.

Disadvantages

- The programmer is responsible for many of the details associated with data communication between processors.
- It may be difficult to map existing data structures, based on global memory, to this memory organization.
- Non-uniform memory access (NUMA) times

Hybrid Distributed-Shared Memory



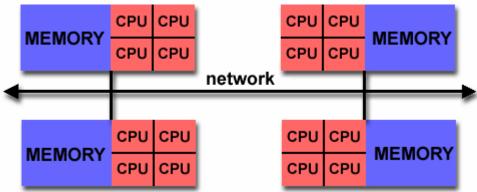
Summarizing a few of the key characteristics of shared and distributed memory machines

Comparison of Shared and Distributed Memory Architectures					
Architecture	CC-UMA	CC-NUMA	Distributed		
Examples	SMPs Sun Vexx DEC/Compaq SGI Challenge IBM POWER3	Bull NovaScale SGI Origin Sequent HP Exemplar DEC/Compaq IBM POWER4 (MCM)	Cray T3E Maspar IBM SP2 IBM BlueGene		
Communications	MPI Threads OpenMP shmem	MPI Threads OpenMP shmem	MPI		
Scalability	to 10s of processors	to 100s of processors	to 1000s of processors		
Draw Backs	Memory-CPU bandwidth	Memory-CPU bandwidth Non-uniform access times	System administration Programming is hard to develop and maintain		
Software Availability	many 1000s ISVs	many 1000s ISVs	100s ISVs		

Hybrid Distributed-Shared Memory



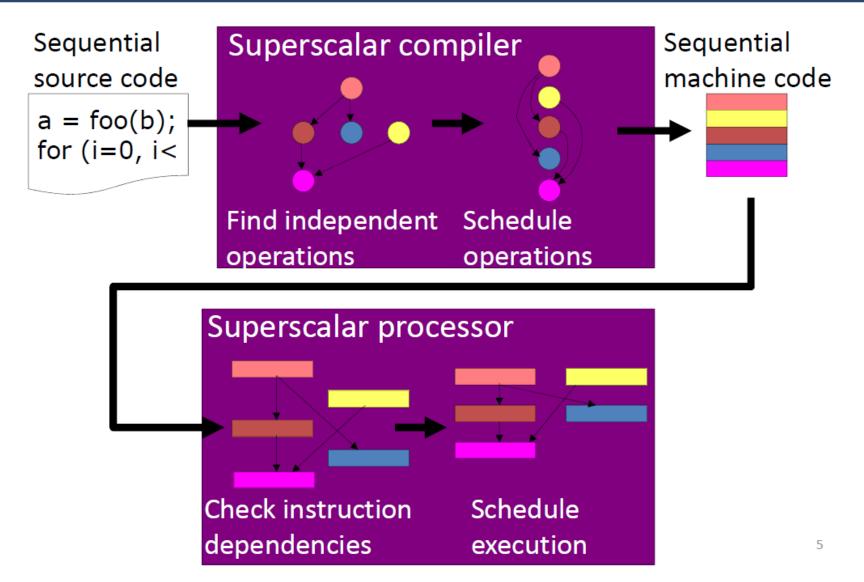
 The largest and fastest computers in the world today employ both shared and distributed memory architectures.



- The shared memory component is usually a cache coherent SMP machine. Processors on a given SMP can address that machine's memory as global.
- The distributed memory component is the networking of multiple SMPs. SMPs know only about their own memory - not the memory on another SMP. Therefore, network communications are required to move data from one SMP to another.
- Current trends seem to indicate that this type of memory architecture will continue to prevail and increase at the high end of computing for the foreseeable future.
- Advantages and Disadvantages: whatever is common to both shared and distributed memory architectures.

Superscalar Compiler and Processor





Multimedia extensions



- Extensions to the base ISA that allow a form of vector computation
- "Vectors" are implemented in dedicated registers

MMX: 64 bits

SSE: 128 bits

AVX: 256 bits

AVX-512: 512 bits

- Registers of N bits may be used as vectors of 2x(N/2) elements, 4x(N/4) elements, etc.
- One multimedia instruction applies simultaneously to all elements of a register

Multimedia extensions



- MMX
 - 57 instructions added to Pentium
- Extended MMX
- SSE
 - Pentium III
 - 71 instructions (52 FP SIMD, 19 MMX)
- SSE2
 - 144 new instructions (Pentium 4)
 - 128 bit registers
 - Cache-control
- SSE3
 - 13 new instructions (Pentium 4 2004)
 - Horizontal processing of values in a register
- SSSE3
 - 32 new instructions (Core)
- SSE4
 - 54 instructions (Penryn 2008)

Multimedia extensions



- 3D Now!
 - AMD
 - 45 instructions (21 FP SIMD, 19 MMX, 5 DSP)
- AltiVec
 - Motorola
 - 162 instructions
- AVX
 - Sandy Bridge 2011
 - 256 bit registers
 - Instructions with 3 operands
- AVX2
 - Haswell New Instructions, 2013
 - Broadcast/permute operations on data elements
 - Vector shift instructions with variable-shift count per data element
 - Instructions to fetch non-contiguous data elements from memory
- AVX-512
 - Proposed in 2013, First Processor 2016
 - 512 bit registers
 - Several extensions: Foundation, Prefetch, Vector Neural Network, etc.

MMX registers



8 registers of 64 bits

MM0, MM1, ..., MM7

 Are implemented on the same hardware as the FP registers: ST0, ..., ST7

This allowed to mantain compatibility with existing operating

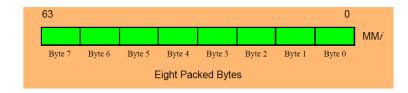
systems

◆ 80 bits →				
	64 bits			
	mm0			
	mm1			
	mm2			
	mm3			
	mm4			
	mm5			
	mm6			
	mm7			
Registos MMX ——				
	— Registos FPU ———			

MMX data types



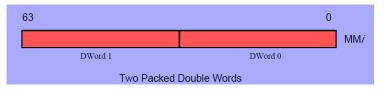
8 bytes array



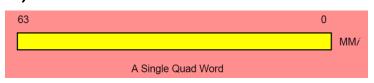
4 words array (16 bit/word)



2 double words array (32 bits)



Quadword (64 bits)

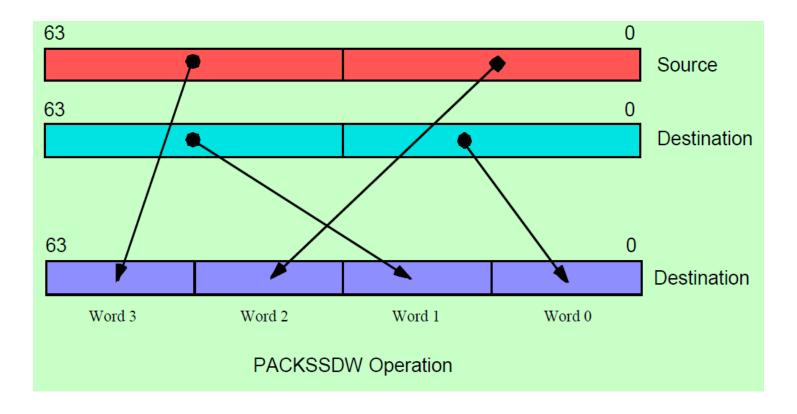




- Data transfer
 - Move data between registers, memory and MMX registers
 - movd (32 bits) and movq (64 bits)
- Conversion
 - Converts larger data types to smaller data types and vice-versa
- Packed arithmetic
- Comparisons
- Logic operations
- Shift and Rotate
- EMMS
 - Prepares the processor to execute FP code again

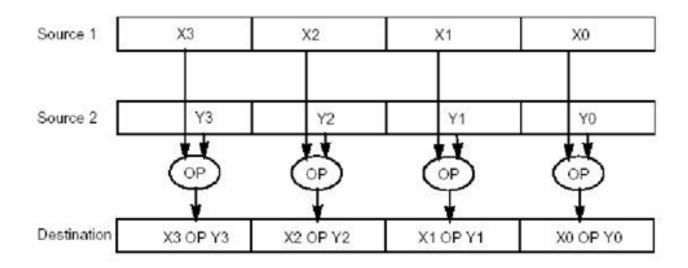


Convertion





- Packed arithmetic
 - SIMD: Single Instruction Multiple Data
 - paddb (8bit), paddw (16bit), paddd (32bit)
 - paddb, paddsb (signed saturation), paddusb (unsigned saturation)



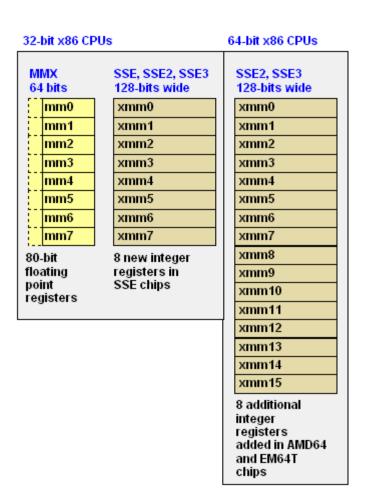


Packed Arithmetic	Wrap Around	Signed Sat	Unsigned Sat
Addition	PADD	PADDS	PADDUS
Subtraction	PSUB	PSUBS	PSUBUS
Multiplication	PMULL/H		
Multiply & add	PMADD		
Shift right Arithmetic	PSRA		
Compare	PCMPcc		
Conversions	Regular	Signed Sat	Unsigned Sat
Pack		PACKSS	PACKUS
Unpack	PUNPCKL/H		
Logical Operations	Packed	Full 64-bit	
And		PAND	
And not		PANDN	
Or		POR	
Exclusive or		PXOR	
Shift left	PSLL	PSLL	
Shift right	PSRL	PSRL	
Transfers and Memory Operations	32-bit	64-bit	
Register-register move	MOVD	MOVQ	
Load from memory	MOVD	MOVQ	
Store to memory	MOVD	MOVQ	
Miscellaneous			
Empty multimedia state	EMMS		

SSE/SSE2 data types



- 8 registers of 128 bits
 - XMM0, ..., XMM7
- 4 FPs simple precision (SSE)
- 2 FPs double precision (SSE2)
- 16 bytes (SSE2)
- 8 words (SSE2)
- 4 double words (SSE2)
- 1 inteiro 128bit (SSE2)



Sum arrays



Code:

```
int A[size], B[size], C[size];
...
for (i = 0 ; i < size ; i++)
    C[i] = A[i] + B[i];</pre>
```

Parallelism?

Sum arrays



```
movdqa (%eax,%edx,4), %xmm0  # load A[i] to A[i+3]
movdqa (%ebx,%edx,4), %xmm1  # load B[i] to B[i+3]
paddd %xmm0, %xmm1  # CCCC = AAAA + BBBB
movdqa %xmm1, (%ecx,%edx,4)  # store C[i] to C[i+3]
addl $4, %edx  # i += 4
```

- movdqa (%eax,%edx,4), %xmm0
 - · mov: transferência
 - dq: double quad
 - **a**: align
 - (%eax,%edx,4): eax + 4*edx

Sum elements of an array



Code:

```
int A[size], total=0;
...
for (i = 0 ; i < size ; i++)
    total += A[i];</pre>
```

Sum elements of an array



Restructured code:

```
int A[size], temp[4], total;
temp[0]=temp[1]=temp[2]=temp[3]=0;
for (i = 0 ; i < size ; i+=4) {
    temp[0] += A[i]; temp[1] += A[i+1];
    temp[2] += A[i+2]; temp[3] += A[i+3];
}
total = temp[0]+temp[1]+temp[2]+temp[3];</pre>
```

Internal product of 2 vectors



Code:

```
int A[size], B[size], iprod;
...
for (i = 0 ; i < size ; i++)
    iprod += A[i]*b[i];</pre>
```

Internal product of 2 vectors



Loop unrolled code:

```
int A[size], B[size], iprod=0;
for (i = 0 ; i < size ; i+=3) {
   iprod += A[i]*B[i];
   iprod += A[i+1]*B[i+1];
   iprod += A[i+2]*B[i+2];
}</pre>
```

Internal product of 2 vectors



Loop unrolled code:

```
int A[size], B[size], iprod=0;
for (i = 0 ; i < size ; i+=3) {
   temp0 = A[i]*B[i];
   temp1 = A[i+1]*B[i+1];
   temp2 = A[i+2]*B[i+2];
   iprod += temp0 + temp1 + temp2
}</pre>
```

SSE with unrolled loop



Internal product of 2 vectors (a and b)

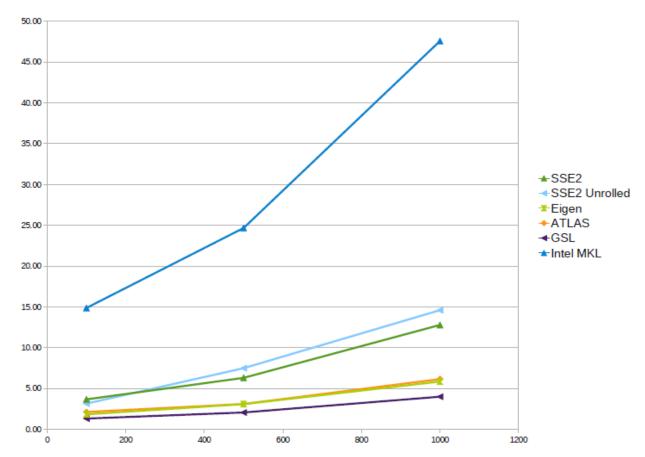
```
length6 = (size/24)*24
for(; i < length6; i += 24){}
   asm volatile
   (// instruction comment
    "\n\t movdqa 0x00(%0),%%xmm2 \t#" "\n\t movdqa 0x10(%0),%%xmm3 \t#"
    "\n\t movdqa 0x20(%0),%%xmm4 \t#" "\n\t movdqa 0x30(%0),%%xmm5 \t#"
    "\n\t movdqa 0x40(%0),%%xmm6 \t#" "\n\t movdqa 0x50(%0),%%xmm7 \t#"
    "\n\t mulps 0x00(\$1), \$\$xmm2 \t#" "\n\t mulps 0x10(\$1), \$\$xmm3 \t#"
    "\n\t mulps 0x20(%1),%%xmm4 \t#" "\n\t mulps 0x30(%1),%%xmm5 \t#"
    "\n\t mulps 0x40(\$1), \$\$xmm6 \t#" "\n\t mulps 0x50(\$1), \$\$xmm7 \t#"
    "\n\t addps %%xmm2,%%xmm0 \t#"
                                       "\n\t addps %%xmm3,%%xmm0 \t#"
                                       "\n\t addps %%xmm5,%%xmm0 \t#"
    "\n\t addps %%xmm4,%%xmm0 \t#"
    "\n\t addps %%xmm6,%%xmm0 \t#"
                                       "\n\t addps %%xmm7,%%xmm0 \t#"
   :"r" (a+i), // %0
   "r" (b+i) // %1
   );
```

SSE with loop unrolling



Comparison with other libraries

MulMatrix Float





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Ano letivo 2022/2023

Rui Costa, Nuno Lau

OpenMP



 Open specifications for Multi Processing via collaborative work between interested parties from the hardware and software industry, government and academia

Acknowledgement: This lecture is based on "A 'Hands-on' Introduction to OpenMP", Tim Mattson, Intel Corp., timothy.g.mattson@intel.com

OpenMP



- Shared Memory Programming Model
- Cooperation of several hardware and software companies (AMD, Intel, arm, Fujitsu, IBM, HP, NASA, NEC, NVIDIA, Siemens, SUSE, ...)
- Parallel Programming API for multiprocessor / multicore architectures
- Languages: C/C++ or Fortran
- OS: Unix/Linux or Windows
- OpenMP is a specification not an implementation!

OpenMP objectives



- Portable programming model for shared memory architectures
- Simple set of programming directives
- Enable incremental parallelism for sequential programs
- Efficient implementations for different problems

OpenMP Programming model



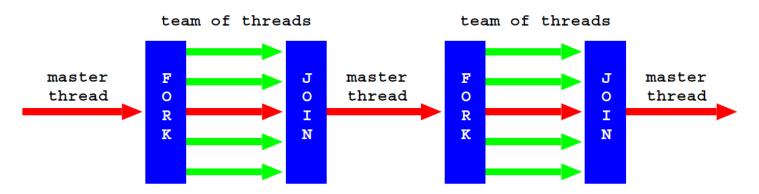
Explicit parallelism

- Programmer is responsible for annotating execution tasks and synchronization points
- Embedded compiler directives
- Implicit multithreading
 - Process is a set of threads that communicate through shared variables
 - Creation and termination of threads is performed implicitly by the execution environment
 - Global address space is shared by all threads
 - Variables may be shared or private for each thread
 - Control, management and synchronization of variables involved in parallel tasks is transparent to the programmer

OpenMP fork-join execution



- Program initiates with a single (master) thread
- Executes sequentially until parallel region is defined by OpenMP constructor, and then:
 - Master thread forks "team of threads"
 - Parallel region code is executed concurrently by all threads (including master thread)
 - There is an implicit barrier at the end of parallel region
 - "team of threads" terminates and master thread continues sequentially



From CP@FCUP

OpenMP API



- API includes
 - Compiler directives: #pragma omp <directive>
 - Library of functions declared at omp.h
 - Environment variables (OMP_NUM_THREADS; ...)
- OpenMP code
 - Must include omp.h header file #include <omp.h>
 - To compile with gcc use -fopenmp option
 gcc -fopenmp myprog.c ...

omp parallel directive



#pragma omp parallel [clause, ...]

- Defines parallel region
- Number of threads determined by:
 - Only master if if (expr) clause is used and expr is false
 - Number defined by num_threads(expr) clause
 - Number defined by last call to omp_set_num_threads(expr)
 - Number defined by environment variable OMP_NUM_THREADS
 - Implementation dependent

Hello.c



```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <omp.h>
int main ()
    #pragma omp parallel
    int ID = omp get thread num();
    printf("Hello (%d) ", ID);
    printf("World (%d) \n", ID);
```

OpenMP basic functions



- int omp_get_thread_num(void);
 - Returns thread id from 0 to n-1, where n is the number of threads
 - Master thread has id 0
- int omp_get_num_threads(void);
 - Returns the number of active threads
- void omp_set_num_threads(int num_threads);
 - Specifies the maximum number of threads to be used in the next parallel regions
 - Can only be called from sequential code

Shared and private variables



#pragma omp parallel shared(list1) private(list2)

- Shared variables
 - Shared by all threads
 - Beware of race conditions!
- Private variables
 - Duplicated in each thread
 - Initial value is undefined
 - Value after parallel region is undefined
- Variables are shared by default
 - Can be changed by using default (mod) clause
 - mod: private, shared, none
- Variables declared inside parallel region are private

Shared and private variables



```
int n = \ldots;
int *v = (int *) malloc(sizeof(int) * n);
int i, j;
#pragma omp parallel num threads(n) default(none) \
                      shared(v,n) private(i,j)
  int tid = omp get thread num();
  \dot{\tau} = 0;
  for (i = 0; i < n * 100000; i++) j += tid;
  v[tid] = j;
```

- private variables: i, j and tid
- shared variables: v and n
- Which is the final value of v[tid]?

Fistprivate variables



#pragma omp parallel firstprivate(list)

- firstprivate variables
 - Duplicated in each thread
 - Initial value is copied from value of variable with the same name
 - Can be used to improve efficiency
 - Latency of reading private variable may be lower than latency of reading shared variable by all threads



```
int dot_product(int* u, int* v, int n) {
    int r = 0;
    for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) {
        r += u[i] * v[i];
    }
    return r;
}</pre>
```

- Partition iterations / vector among threads
- Reduction of partial results



First version (incorrect!):

```
int dot_product(int* u, int* v, int n) {
  int r = 0;
  #pragma omp parallel
  {
    int rank = omp_get_thread_num();
    int my_n = n / omp_get_num_threads();
    for (int i = rank * my_n; i < (rank+1)*my_n; i++)
        r += u[i] * v[i];
  }
  return r;
}</pre>
```

- Manual partition
- Error prone



Better version:

```
int dot_product(int* u, int* v, int n) {
  int r = 0;
  #pragma omp parallel
  {
     #pragma omp for reduction(+:r)
     for (int i = 0; i < n; i++)
        r += u[i] * v[i];
  }
  return r;
}</pre>
```

- #pragma omp for
 - distributes iterations among threads
- Reduction is automatically performed by using reduction clause
- Scheduling may be controlled through schedule clause



Even better version:

```
int dot_product(int* u, int* v, int n) {
  int r = 0;
  #pragma omp parallel for reduction(+:r)
  for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) {
    r += u[i] * v[i];
  }
  return r;
}</pre>
```

- #pragma omp parallel for
 - creates parallel region and distributes iterations among threads

OpenMP Reduction



- OpenMP reduction clause:
 - reduction (op : list)
- Inside a parallel or a work-sharing construct:
 - A local copy of each list variable is made and initialized depending on the "op" (e.g. 0 for "+").
 - Updates occur on the local copy.
 - Local copies are reduced into a single value and combined with the original global value.
- The variables in "list" must be shared in the enclosing parallel region.

```
double ave=0.0, A[MAX]; int i;
#pragma omp parallel for reduction (+:ave)
for (i=0;i< MAX; i++) {
   ave + = A[i];
}
ave = ave/MAX;</pre>
```

OpenMP Reduction



Operator	Initial value
+	0
*	1
-	0
min	Largest pos. number
max	Most neg. number

C/C++ only

Operator	Initial value
&	1
1	0
^	0
&&	1
ll l	0

OpenMP Reduction



Final values a=3, b=8, c=-2, d=0



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Parallel Programming Models



- Overview
- Shared Memory Model
- Threads Model
- Message Passing Model
- Data Parallel Model
- Other Models

Overview



- There are several parallel programming models in common use:
 - Shared Memory
 - Threads
 - Message Passing
 - Data Parallel
 - Hybrid
- Parallel programming models exist as an abstraction above hardware and memory architectures.

Overview



- Although it might not seem apparent, these models are NOT specific to a
 particular type of machine or memory architecture. In fact, any of these
 models can (theoretically) be implemented on any underlying hardware.
- Shared memory model on a distributed memory machine: Kendall Square Research (KSR) ALLCACHE approach.
 - Machine memory was physically distributed, but appeared to the user as a single shared memory (global address space). Generically, this approach is referred to as "virtual shared memory".
 - Note: although KSR is no longer in business, there is no reason to suggest that a similar implementation will not be made available by another vendor in the future.
 - Message passing model on a shared memory machine: MPI on SGI Origin.
- The SGI Origin employed the CC-NUMA type of shared memory architecture, where every task has direct access to global memory. However, the ability to send and receive messages with MPI, as is commonly done over a network of distributed memory machines, is not only implemented but is very commonly used.

Overview



- Which model to use is often a combination of what is available and personal choice.
- There is no "best" model, although there certainly are better implementations of some models over others.
- The following sections describe each of the models mentioned above, and also discuss some of their actual implementations.

Shared Memory Model



- In the shared-memory programming model, tasks share a common address space, which they read and write asynchronously.
- Various mechanisms such as locks / semaphores may be used to control access to the shared memory.
- An advantage of this model from the programmer's point of view is that the notion of data "ownership" is lacking, so there is no need to specify explicitly the communication of data between tasks. Program development can often be simplified.
- An important disadvantage in terms of performance is that it becomes more difficult to understand and manage data locality.

Shared Memory Model: Implementations

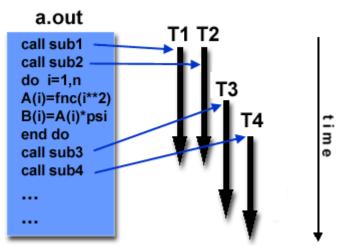


- On shared memory platforms, the native compilers translate user program variables into actual memory addresses, which are global.
- No common distributed memory platform implementations currently exist. However, as mentioned previously in the Overview section, the KSR ALLCACHE approach provided a shared memory view of data even though the physical memory of the machine was distributed.

Threads Model



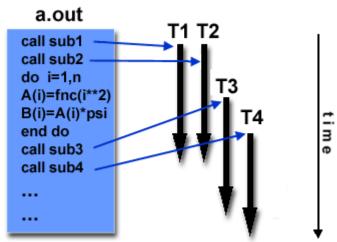
- In the threads model of parallel programming, a single process can have multiple, concurrent execution paths.
- Perhaps the most simple analogy that can be used to describe threads is the concept of a single program that includes a number of parallel subroutines:
 - The main program **a.out** is scheduled to run by the native operating system. **a.out** loads and acquires all of the necessary system and user resources to run.
 - a.out performs some serial work, and then creates a number of tasks (threads) that
 can be scheduled and run by the operating system concurrently.
 - Each thread has local data, but also, shares the entire resources of a.out. This saves the overhead associated with replicating a program's resources for each thread. Each thread also benefits from a global memory view because it shares the memory space of a.out.



Threads Model

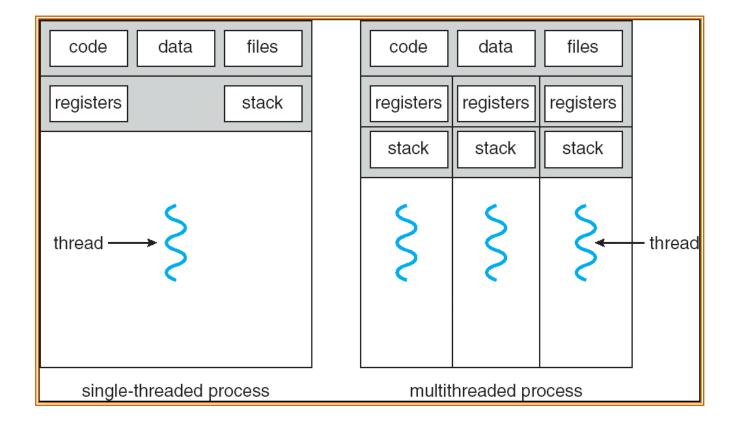


- A thread's work may best be described as a parallel subroutine within the main program. Any thread can execute any subroutine at the same time as other threads.
- Threads communicate with each other through global memory (updating address locations). This requires synchronization constructs to insure that more than one thread is not updating the same global address at any time.
- Threads can come and go, but a.out remains present to provide the necessary shared resources until the application has completed.
- Threads are commonly associated with shared memory architectures and operating systems.



Single and Multi threaded Processes





Processes and Threads



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Address space

Global variables

Open files

Child processes

Pending alarms

Signals and signal handlers

Accounting information

Per-thread items

Program counter

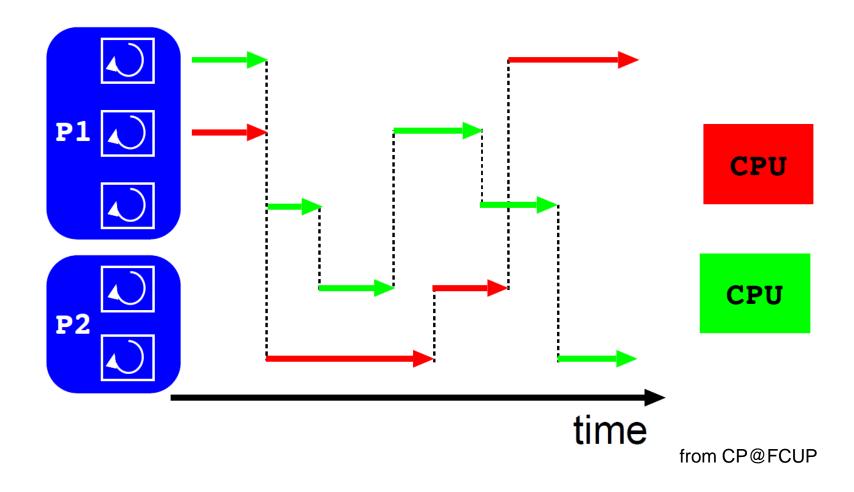
Registers

Stack

State

Processes, Threads and CPUs





Threads Model Implementations



- From a programming perspective, threads implementations commonly comprise:
 - A library of subroutines that are called from within parallel source code
 - A set of compiler directives embedded in either serial or parallel source code
- In both cases, the programmer is responsible for determining all parallelism.
- Threaded implementations are not new in computing.
 Historically, hardware vendors have implemented their own
 proprietary versions of threads. These implementations differed
 substantially from each other making it difficult for programmers
 to develop portable threaded applications.
- Unrelated standardization efforts have resulted in two very different implementations of threads: *POSIX Threads* and *OpenMP*.

Threads Model: POSIX



POSIX Threads

- Library based; require parallel coding
- Specified by the IEEE POSIX 1003.1c standard (1995).
- C Language only
- Commonly referred to as Pthreads.
- Most hardware vendors now offer Pthreads in addition to their proprietary threads implementations.
- Very explicit parallelism; requires significant programmer attention to detail.

POSIX Threads



Thread call	Description
Pthread_create	Create a new thread
Pthread_exit	Terminate the calling thread
Pthread_join	Wait for a specific thread to exit
Pthread_yield	Release the CPU to let another thread run
Pthread_attr_init	Create and initialize a thread's attribute structure
Pthread_attr_destroy	Remove a thread's attribute structure

Create POSIX Threads



```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <pthread.h>
#define NUM THREADS 5
void *PrintMsq(void *threadid) {
   long tid;
   tid = (long) threadid;
   printf("Hello World! Thread ID, %d\n", tid);
   pthread exit (NULL);
int main (int argc, char *argv[]) {
   pthread t threads[NUM THREADS];
   int rc;
   int i;
   for( i = 0; i < NUM THREADS; i++ ) {</pre>
      printf( "main() : creating thread, %d\n",i);
      rc = pthread create(&threads[i], NULL, PrintMsq, (void *)i);
      if (rc) {
         printf("Error: unable to create thread, %d\n", rc);
         exit(1);
   pthread exit (NULL);
```

Threads Model: OpenMP



OpenMP

- Compiler directive based; can use serial code
- Jointly defined and endorsed by a group of major computer hardware and software vendors. The OpenMP Fortran API was released October 28, 1997. The C/C++ API was released in late 1998. Version 2.0 in 2002; version 3.0 in 2008, version 4.0 in 2013; version 5.1 in 2020
- Portable / multi-platform, including Unix and Windows platforms
- Available in C/C++ and Fortran implementations
- Can be very easy and simple to use provides for "incremental parallelism"
- Microsoft has its own implementation for threads, which is not related to the UNIX POSIX standard or OpenMP (see Parallel Programming in .NET).

Message Passing Model



- The message passing model demonstrates the following characteristics:
 - A set of tasks that use their own local memory during computation. Multiple tasks can reside on the same physical machine as well across an arbitrary number of machines.
 - Tasks exchange data through communications by sending and receiving messages.
 - Data transfer usually requires cooperative operations to be performed by each process. For example, a send operation must have a matching receive operation.

Message Passing Model Implementations: MPI

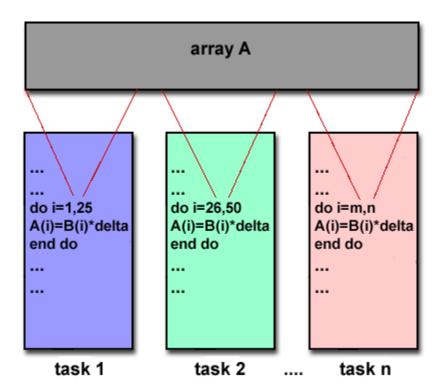


- From a programming perspective, message passing implementations commonly comprise a library of subroutines that are imbedded in source code. The programmer is responsible for determining all parallelism.
- Historically, a variety of message passing libraries have been available since the 1980s. These implementations differed substantially from each other making it difficult for programmers to develop portable applications.
- In 1992, the MPI Forum was formed with the primary goal of establishing a standard interface for message passing implementations.
- Part 1 of the Message Passing Interface (MPI) was released in 1994. Part 2 (MPI-2) was released in 1996. MPI-3 was approved in 2012, MPI-4 was approved in June 2021. MPI specifications are available on the web at https://www.mpi-forum.org/docs/.

Message Passing Model Implementations: MPI



- MPI is now the "de facto" industry standard for message passing, replacing virtually all other message passing implementations used for production work. Most, if not all of the popular parallel computing platforms offer at least one implementation of MPI.
- For shared memory architectures, MPI implementations usually don't use a network for task communications. Instead, they use shared memory (memory copies) for performance reasons.



Data Parallel Model



- The data parallel model demonstrates the following characteristics:
 - Most of the parallel work focuses on performing operations on a data set. The data set is typically organized into a common structure, such as an array or cube.
 - A set of tasks work collectively on the same data structure, however, each task works on a different partition of the same data structure.
 - Tasks perform the same operation on their partition of work, for example, "add 4 to every array element".
- On shared memory architectures, all tasks may have access to the data structure through global memory.
- On distributed memory architectures the data structure is split up and resides as "chunks" in the local memory of each task.

Other Models



- Other parallel programming models besides those previously mentioned certainly exist, and will continue to evolve along with the ever changing world of computer hardware and software.
- Only three of the more common ones are mentioned here.
 - Hybrid
 - Single Program Multiple Data
 - Multiple Program Multiple Data

Hybrid



- In this model, any two or more parallel programming models are combined.
- Currently, a common example of a hybrid model is the combination of the message passing model (MPI) with either the threads model (POSIX threads) or the shared memory model (OpenMP). This hybrid model lends itself well to the increasingly common hardware environment of networked SMP machines.
- Another common example of a hybrid model is combining data parallel with message passing. Data parallel implementations (F90, HPF) on distributed memory architectures actually use message passing to transmit data between tasks, transparently to the programmer.

Single Program Multiple Data (SPMD)



- Single Program Multiple Data (SPMD)
- SPMD is actually a "high level" programming model that can be built upon any combination of the previously mentioned parallel programming models.
- A single program is executed by all tasks simultaneously.
- At any moment in time, tasks can be executing the same or different instructions within the same program.
- SPMD programs usually have the necessary logic programmed into them to allow different tasks to branch or conditionally execute only those parts of the program they are designed to execute. That is, tasks do not necessarily have to execute the entire program perhaps only a portion of it.

All tasks may use different data

Multiple Program Multiple Data (MPMD)



- Multiple Program Multiple Data (MPMD)
- Like SPMD, MPMD is actually a "high level" programming model that can be built upon any combination of the previously mentioned parallel programming models.
- MPMD applications typically have multiple executable object files (programs). While the application is being run in parallel, each task can be executing the same or different program as other tasks.
- All tasks may use different data



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OpenMP

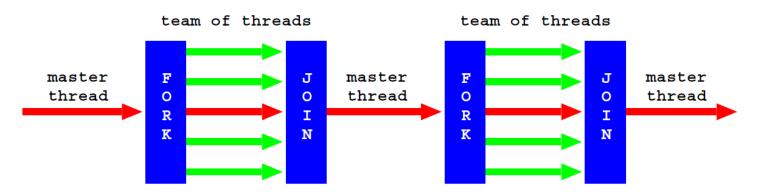


- Shared Memory Programming Model
- Cooperation of several hardware and software companies (AMD, Intel, arm, Fujitsu, IBM, HP, NASA, NEC, NVIDIA, Siemens, SUSE, ...)
- Parallel Programming API for multiprocessor / multicore architectures
- Languages: C/C++ or Fortran
- OS: Unix/Linux or Windows
- OpenMP is a specification not an implementation!

OpenMP fork-join execution



- Program initiates with a single (master) thread
- Executes sequentially until parallel region defined by OpenMP constructor, and then:
 - Master thread forks "team of threads"
 - Parallel region code is executed concurrently by all threads (including master thread)
 - There is an implicit barrier at the end of parallel region
 - "team of threads" terminates and master thread continues sequentially



From CP@FCUP



- OpenMP has constructs to enable mutual exclusion among threads
- 3 different ways:
 - omp critical
 - Defines critical region
 - Can be used for any code
 - omp atomic
 - Mutual exclusion for atomic variable updates
 - Only for simple memory updates
 - x binop= expr, x++; ++x; x--; --x
 - Explicit use of locks



omp critical

```
int dot product(int* u, int* v, int n) {
  int r = 0;
  #pragma omp parallel
    int private r = 0;
    #pragma omp for
    for (int i = 0; i < n; i++)
      private r += u[i] * v[i];
    #pragma omp critical
    r += private r;
  return r;
```



omp atomic

```
int dot product(int* u, int* v, int n) {
  int r = 0;
  #pragma omp parallel
    int private r = 0;
    #pragma omp for
    for (int i = 0; i < n; i++)
      private r += u[i] * v[i];
    #pragma omp atomic
    r += private r;
  return r;
```



Locks

```
int dot product(int* u, int* v, int n) {
  int r = 0;
 omp lock t lock;
 omp init lock(&lock); // initialize lock
  #pragma omp parallel
    int private r = 0;
    #pragma omp for
    for (int i = 0; i < n; i++)
     private r += u[i] * v[i];
    omp set lock(&lock); // acquire lock
    r += private r;
    omp unset lock(&lock); // release lock
  omp destroy lock(&lock); // destroy lock
  return r;
```

OpenMP other synchronization



omp master

- Executed only be master thread
- Ignored by others; no synchronization

omp single

- Executed by a single thread
- Implicit barrier for all threads
 - Except nowait clause is used

omp barrier

Explicit barrier

OpenMP other synchronization



omp master

- Executed only be master thread
- Ignored by others; no synchronization

omp single

- Executed by a single thread
- Implicit barrier for all threads
 - Except nowait clause is used

omp barrier

Explicit barrier

OpenMP schedule clause



- schedule(static[,chunk])
 - Each thread has fixed number of iterations
- schedule(dynamic[,chunk])
 - Each thread grabs "chunk" iterations off a queue until all iterations have been handled
- schedule(guided[,chunk])
 - Threads dynamically grab blocks of iterations
 - The size of the block starts large and shrinks down to size "chunk" as the calculation proceeds.
- schedule(runtime)
 - Schedule and chunk size taken from the OMP_SCHEDULE environment variable (or the runtime library).
- schedule(auto)
 - Schedule is left up to the runtime to choose (does not have to be any of the above).

nowait ordered lastprivate clauses



nowait

threads do not need to synchronize at the end of cycle

ordered

Allows #pragma ordered blocks that must execute in the cycle iteration order

lastprivate(list)

- Variables in list are private
- Their last value is transported to after the cycle

nowait ordered lastprivate clauses



```
#pragma omp for nowait
for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) a[i] = x*i;
#pragma omp for
for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) b[i] = i*i;
#pragma omp for
for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) c[i] = a[i] + b[i];
#pragma omp for ordered lastprivate(x)
for (int i = 1; i < n; i++)
#pragma omp ordered
{
    c[i] += c[i-1]; x = c[i];
    printf("c[%d] = %d\n", c[i]);
}</pre>
```

- threads may go to 2nd cycle even before all threads terminated 1st cycle (nowait)
- In the last cycle, each thread only executes after previous iterations are concluded (ordered)
- x gets the value of c[n-1] (lastprivate)

OpenMP omp sections directive



```
#pragma omp sections [clause, ...]
{
    #pragma omp section
    { ... }
    ...
    #pragma omp section
    { ... }
}
```

- The omp sections directive defines a set of code sections that can perform concurrently, allowing functional parallelism between sections.
- Each section is identified by an omp section directive and is performed by just one thread.
- All threads, including those that are not involved in any section, synchronize at the end of the omp sections region, unless the nowait clause is specified.

OpenMP omp sections directive



```
x = f1();
a = f2(x);
b = f3(x,1);
c = f4(x,a);
d = f5(a,b);
e = f6(d);
```

- Assuming that f1 to f6 can execute concurrently correct, how to parallelize the code?
- Dependencies allow for the following processing order:

```
    x = f1() for just one thread.
    a = f2(x) and b = f3(x, 1) for 2 threads in parallel.
    c = f4(x, a) and d = f5(a, b) for 2 threads in parallel.
    e = f6(d) for only one thread.
```

OpenMP omp sections directive



```
#pragma omp parallel
  #pragma omp single
 x = f1();
 #pragma omp sections
    #pragma omp section
    a = f2(x);
    #pragma omp section
   b = f3(x,1);
  #pragma omp sections
    #pragma omp section
    c = f4(x, a);
    #pragma omp section
   d = f5(a,b);
  #pragma omp single
  e = f6(d);
```

OpenMP task



- A task has
 - Code to execute
 - Data environment (it owns its data)
 - An assigned thread that executes the code and used the data
- Two activities: packaging and execution
 - Each encountering thread packages a new instance of a task (code and data)
 - Some thread in the team executes the task at some later time

OpenMP task



- Tasks have been fully integrated into OpenMP
- Key concept: OpenMP has always had tasks, we just never called them that.
 - Thread encountering parallel construct packages up a set of implicit tasks, one per thread.
 - Team of threads is created.
 - Each thread in team is assigned to one of the tasks (and tied to it).
 - Barrier holds original master thread until all implicit tasks are finished.
- We have simply added a way to create a task explicitly for the team to execute.
- Every part of an OpenMP program is part of one task or another!

OpenMP task example



 omp task used to process elements of a linked list:

```
#pragma omp parallel
{
 #pragma omp single private(p)
    p = listhead ;
    while (p) {
       #pragma omp task
      process (p)
      p = next(p);
```



Computação Paralela

Mest. Engenharia Computacional Mest. Int. Engenharia Computacional

Ano letivo 2022/2023

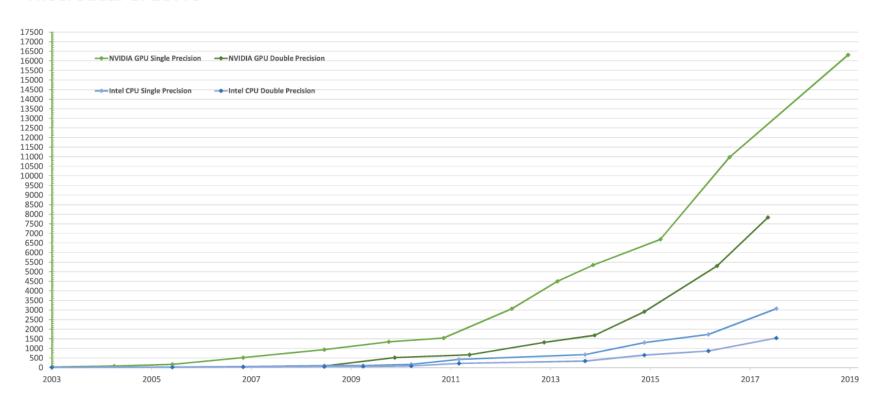
Rui Costa, Nuno Lau



- Parallel general purpose computation model
- Introduced by NVIDIA in 2006
- Allows using the GPU for the execution of general purpose applications

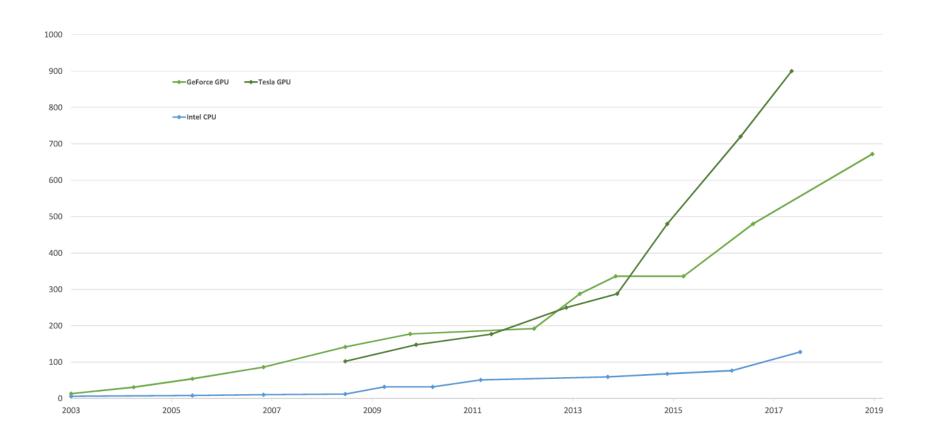


Theoretical GFLOP/s



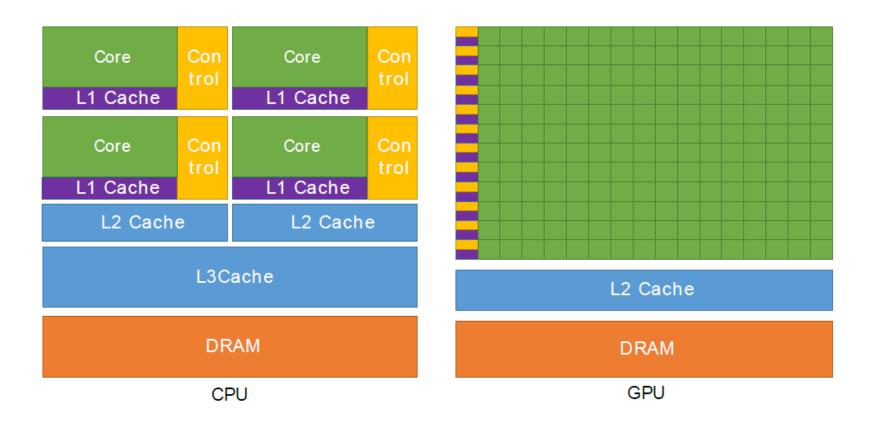


Theoretical GB/s



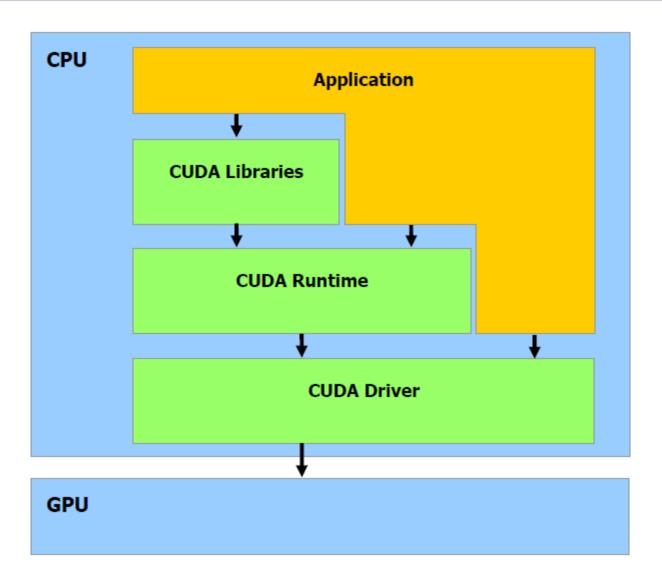
CUDA – CPU and GPU Architecure





CUDA Architecture





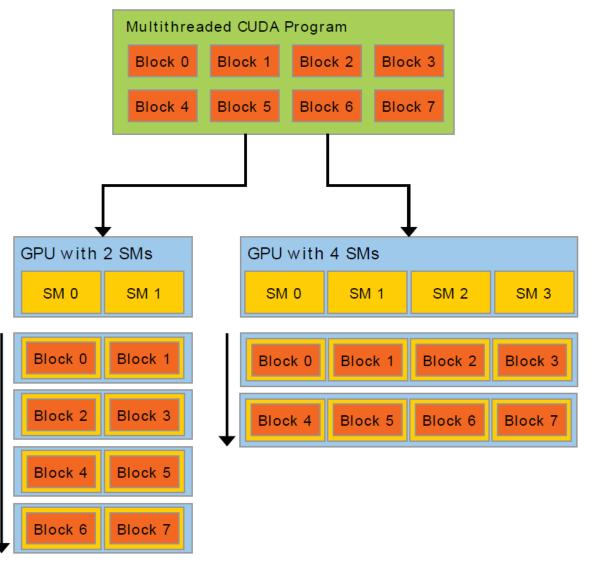
CUDA Computing Applications



GPU Computing Applications											
Libraries and Middleware											
cuDNN TensorRT	cuFFT cuBLAS cuRAND cuSPARSE		CULA MAGMA	Thrust NPP		VSIPL SVM OpenCurre		ent	PhysX OptiX iRay		MATLAB Mathematica
Programming Languages											
С	C++		Fortran		Java Python Wrappe				ute	Directives (e.g. OpenACC)	
CUDA-Enabled NVIDIA GPUs											
NVIDIA Ampere Architecture (compute capabilities 8.x)									Tesl		A Series
NVIDIA Turing Architecture (compute capabilities 7.x)			GeForce		2000 Series		Quadro RTX Series		eries	Tesla T Series	
NVIDIA Volta Architecture (compute capabilities 7.x)		DRIVE/JETSON AGX Xavier					Quadro GV Series		Tesla V Series		
NVIDIA Pascal Architecture (compute capabilities 6.x)		Tegra X2		GeForce 1000 Series			Quadro P Series		es	Tesla	P Series
		Embe	dded		sumer pp/Laptop			ofessio orksta			Sata Center

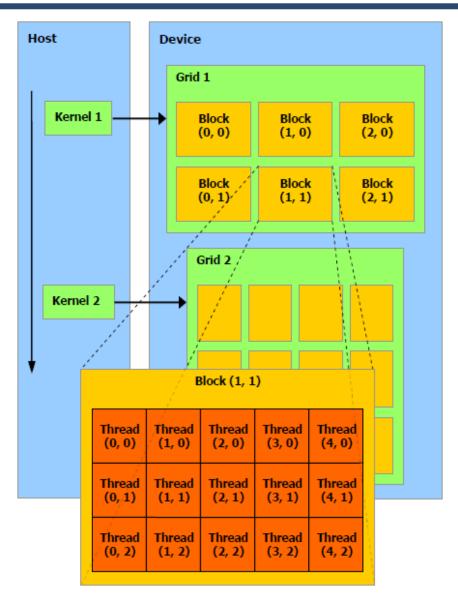
CUDA Automatic Scalability





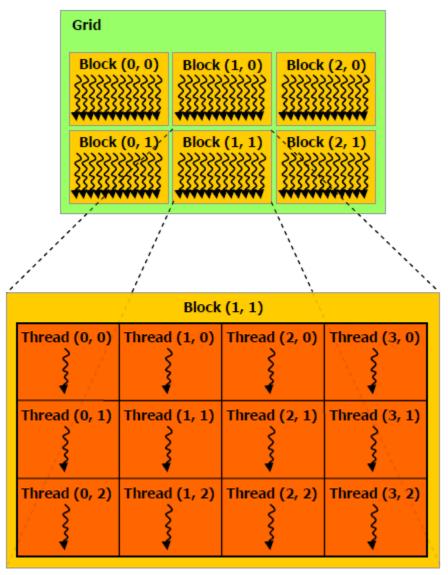
CUDA Kernel, Grid, Block, Thread





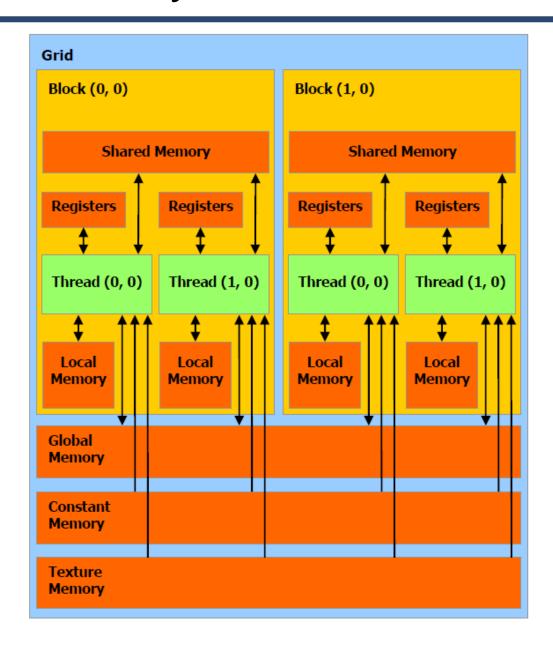
CUDA Grid of Threads





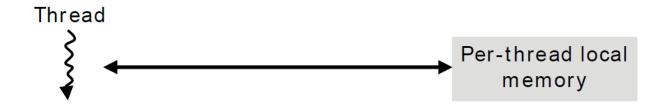
CUDA memory

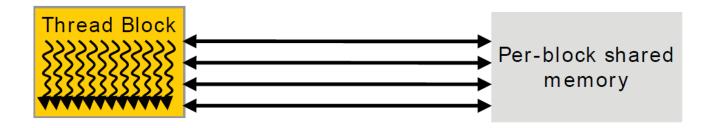




CUDA memory

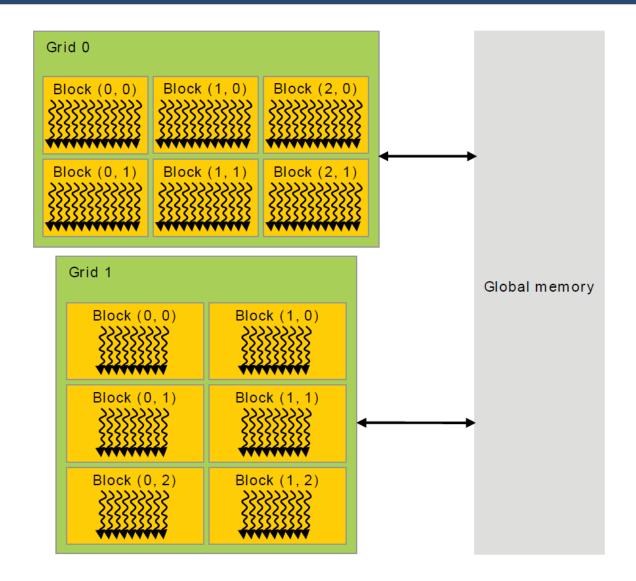






CUDA memory





CUDA Compute Capability



Compute Capability 1.x

- Global memory (read and write)
 - Slow and uncached
 - Requires sequential and aligned 16 byte reads and writes to be fast
- Texture memory (read only)
 - Cache optimized for 2D spatial access pattern
- Constant memory
 - This is where constants and kernel arguments are stored
 - Slow, but with small cache
- Shared memory (16 kb per MP)
 - Fast, but take care of bank conflicts
 - Can be used to exchange data between threads in a block
- Local memory (used for data that does not fit into registers)
 - Slow and uncached
- Registers
 - Fastest, scope is thread local

CUDA Compute Capability



Compute Capability 2.x

- Global memory (read and write)
 - Slow, but now with cache
- Texture memory (read only)
 - Cache optimized for 2D spatial access pattern
- Constant memory
 - Slow, but with cache (8 kb)
- Shared memory
 - Fast, but slightly different rules for bank conflicts now
- Local memory
 - Slow, but now with cache
- Registers (32768 32-bit registers per MP)

CUDA Compute Capability



Compute Capability 3.x

- Global memory (read and write)
 - Generally cached in L2, but not in L1
- Constant memory
 - Cache shared by all functional units
- Shared memory
 - 32 banks with two addressing modes
- Local memory
 - Cached in L1

Compute Capability 5.x

- Global memory
 - Identical to cp 3.x
- Shared memory
 - 32 banks organized such that successive 32-bit words map to successive banks

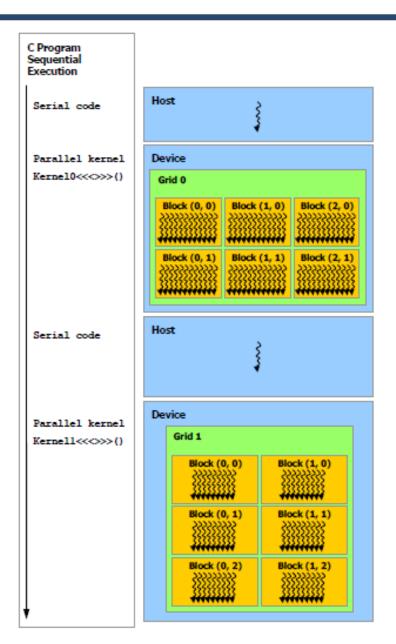
Compute Capability 6.x

Compute Capability 7.x

Compute Capability 8.x

CUDA Heterogeneous Programming







Kernel invocation

kernel<<< Dg, Db, Ns, S >>>

- Dg is the grid dimension (dim3 type)
- Db is the block dimension (dim3 type)
- Ns is the number of shared memory bytes
- **S** is the stream



Block

- threadIdx.x, threadIdx.y, threadIdx.z
 - Identify the thread in the block
- blockDim.x, blockDim.y, blockDim.z
- threadID = x+y*Dx+z*Dx*Dy
- Threads are executed in warps
 - 32 threads of the same block with consecutive ids
 - Blocks should have more than 32 threads



```
// Kernel definition
  global void VecAdd(float* A, float* B, float* C)
    int i = threadIdx.x;
    C[i] = A[i] + B[i];
int main()
    // Kernel invocation with N threads
    VecAdd<<<1, N>>>(A, B, C);
```



Grid

- blockIdx.x, blockIdx.y, blockIdx.z
 - Identify the block in the grid
- gridDim.x, gridDim.y, gridDim.z



- __global___
 - Used to define kernel functions
 - Called by CPU; Run in GPU
- device___
 - Used to define device functions
 - Called by GPU; Run in GPU
- shared
 - Used to declare variables that reside in shared memory

CUDA main()



```
int main(void)
    float A[SIZE], B[SIZE], C[SIZE];
    float *devPtrA; float *devPtrB; float *devPtrC;
    int memsize = SIZE * sizeof(float);
   // Initialize arrays
    srand (time(NULL));
    for(int i=0; i < $IZE; i++) {
        A[i]=rand() % 100; B[i]=rand() % 100;
    }
    cudaSetDevice(0); // Select GPU device (can be 0 to 1)
    // Allocate device memory for A, B and C arrays
    cudaMalloc((void**)&devPtrA, memsize);
    cudaMalloc((void**)&devPtrB, memsize);
    cudaMalloc((void**)&devPtrC, memsize);
    // Copy data (data to process) from host to device (from CPU to GPU)
    cudaMemcpy(devPtrA, A, memsize, cudaMemcpyHostToDevice);
    cudaMemcpy(devPtrB, B, memsize, cudaMemcpyHostToDevice);
    // Execute the Kernel
    arrAdd <<<1, SIZE>>> (devPtrA, devPtrB, devPtrC); // launch 1 block with SIZE threads
    // Copy data from device (results) back to host
   cudaMemcpy(C, devPtrC, memsize, cudaMemcpyDeviceToHost);
    // Show results
    printf("
                                C\n");
   for (int i=0; i < $IZE; i++) {
       printf("%2d: %4.1f + %4.1f = %5.1f\n", i, A[i], B[i], C[i]);
    }
    // Free device memory
   cudaFree(devPtrA); cudaFree(devPtrB); cudaFree(devPtrC);
}
```

CUDA kernel



```
// Kernel definition, see also section 2.1 of NUIDIA CUDA Programming Guide
__global__ void arrAdd(float *A, float *B, float *C)

(
    // threadIdx.x is a built-in variable provided by CUDA at runtime
    // It represents the thread index inside the block

int id = threadIdx.x; // id: unique thread identifier

C[id] = A[id] + B[id];
}
```