LECTURE 5: MESSAGE-ORIENTED COMMUNICATION
Lecture Contents

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• Introduction to Parallel Programming with Message Passing:
  – In MPI
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  – Using both together
SECTION 5.1: BASICS OF MESSAGE PASSING
Introduction to Message Passing

• To now concurrency constructs\(^1\) based on shared memory systems.

• But for n/w architectures & distributed systems where processors are only linked by a comms medium, message passing is more common.

• In message passing the processes which comprise a concurrent program are linked by *channels*.

• If the 2 interacting processes are on the same processor, this channel could simply be the processor’s local memory.

• If the 2 processes are on separate processors, channel btw them is a physical comms medium between corresponding 2 processors

\(^1\)e.g. critical sections, semaphores, monitors
Message Passing Constructs

• There are 2 basic message passing primitives, send & receive

send primitive: sends a message (data) on a specified channel from one process to another,

receive primitive: receives a message on a specified channel from other processes.

• Send has different semantics depending on whether the message passing is synchronous or asynchronous.

• Message passing can be viewed as extending semaphores to convey data as well as synchronisation.
Asynchronous v Synchronous Communication

• **Asynchronous:** (non-blocking)
  – Sender resumes execution as soon as the message is passed to the communication/middleware software

• **Synchronous:** sender is blocked until
  – The OS or middleware notifies acceptance of the message, *or*
  – The message has been delivered to the receiver, *or*
  – The receiver processes it & returns a response
Synchronous Message Passing

- In synchronous message passing each channel forms a direct link between two processes.
- Suppose process A is sending data to process B: When process A executes `send` primitive it waits/blocks until process B executes its `receive` primitive.
- Before data can be sent both A & B must ready to participate in the exchange.
- Similarly the `receive` primitive in one process blocks until `send` primitive in the other process has been executed.
Asynchronous Message Passing

- In asynchronous message passing, `receive` has the same meaning/behaviour as in synchronous.
- `send` primitive has different semantics.
- Now the channel between processes A & B isn’t a direct link but a message queue.
- Therefore when A sends a message to B, it is appended to the asynchronous channel’s message queue and A continues.
- To receive a message from the channel, B executes a `receive`, taking the message at the head of the channel’s queue and continuing.
- If there is no message in the channel, `receive` blocks until some process adds a message to the channel.
Additions to Asynchronous Message Passing

• First, some systems have an **empty** primitive to test if a channel has any messages and returns **true** if there are no messages.

• Used to prevent blocking on a **receive** when there is other work to be done in the absence of messages on a channel.

• Second, most asynchronous message passing systems implement buffered message passing

• Here the message queue has a fixed length.

• In such systems **send** blocks on writing to a full channel.
Types of Processes in Message Passing Programs

• **Filters:**
  – These are data transforming processes.
  – They
    1. receive streams of data from their input channels,
    2. perform some calculation on the data streams,
    3. and send the results to their output channels.

• **Clients:**
  – These are triggering processes.
  – They
    1. make requests of server processes and
    2. trigger reactions from servers.
    3. clients initiate activity, at the time of their choosing, and often delay until the request has been serviced.
Types of Processes in Message Passing Programs (cont’d)

• **Servers:**
  – Server is a non-terminating process often servicing more than one client
  – They are reactive processes.
  – They wait until requests are made, and then react to the request.
  – Specific action depends on the request, the parameters of the request and the server state.
  – The server may respond immediately or it may have to save the request and respond later.

• **Peers:**
  – Have seen peers in the context of distributed architectures/ applications
  – Identical processes that interact to provide a service or solve a problem.
Message Passing Example 1: Synchronous Network of Filters: Sieve of Eratosthenes

- This method finds primes with each prime sieving for its multiples from the number stream following it.

- The trick is to set up a pipeline of filter processes, of which each one will catch a different prime number.

![Diagram showing the network of filters](image-url)
Ex 1: A Synchronous Network of Filters: Sieve of Eratosthenes (/2)

• Pseudocode

Channel sieve[L](x:int)
process p(1)
   // send out all odd numbers
   for (int i := 3 to N, 2) {send sieve [1] (i)}
end
process p(int i:= 2 to L)
   int pn, num
   receive sieve [i-1] (pn)
   while (1) {
      receive sieve [i-1] (num)
      // pass on num if not a multiple of pn – may be prime
      if ((num mod pn) != 0) { send sieve [i] (num) }
   } // kick off another process
end
Asynchronous Heartbeat Algorithms

• Heartbeat algorithms are a typical type of process interaction between peer processes connected by channels.

• Called heartbeat algorithms as each process’ actions akin to a heart;
  – first expanding, sending information out;
  – then contracting, gathering new information in.

• This behaviour is repeated for several iterations.

• An example of an asynchronous heartbeat algorithm is the algorithm for computing the topology of a network.
Ex 2: Asynchronous Heartbeat Algorithm for Computing Network Topology

- Each node has a processor & initially only knows about the other nodes to which it is directly connected.
- Algorithm goal: each node has to determine the overall n/w topology.
- Two phases of the heartbeat algorithm:
  1. transmit current knowledge of network to all neighbours, and
  2. receive the neighbours’ knowledge of the network.
- After iteration 1. a node is aware of nodes connected to its neighbours, (i.e. within two links of itself.)
- After 2 it has sent (to neighbours) all nodes within 2 links of itself; & got info about all nodes within 2 links of its neighbours, (i.e. 3 links of itself).
- In general, after \(i\) iterations knows about all nodes within \((i + 1)\) links of itself.
Ex 2: Asynchronous Heartbeat Algorithm for Computing Network Topology: Algorithm Operation

Firstly from Node 1’s Point of View

Next from Node 8’s Point of View

....and Node 1 is done!

....and Node 8 is done!
Ex 2: Asynchronous Heartbeat Algorithm for Network Topology (/2)

• How many iterations are necessary?
• As network is connected, every node has at least one neighbour.
• If known network topology at any given stage is stored in an \( n \times n \) matrix \( \text{top} \) where
  \[
  \text{top}[i, j] = \text{true} \quad \text{if a link exists between node } i \text{ and } j,
  \]
  then a node knows the complete network topology when every row in \( \text{top}[i, j] \) has at least one true value.

• At this point the node must perform one more iteration of the algorithm
• This is to transmit any new information received from one neighbour to its other neighbours.
Ex 2: Asynchronous Heartbeat Algorithm for Network Topology (/3)

• If $m$ is the max number of neighbours any node has, & $D$ the n/w diameter\(^1\), then number of messages exchanged must be less than $2n \times m \times (D + 1)$.

• A centralised algorithm, in which $\text{top}$ was held in memory shared by each process, requires only $2n$ messages.

• If $m$ & $D$ are small relative to $n$ then relatively few extra messages.

• In addition, these messages must be served sequentially by the centralised server.

• Heartbeat algorithm requires more messages, but these can be exchanged in parallel.

\(^1\) i.e. the max. value of the minimum number of links between any two nodes
Ex 2: Asynchronous Heartbeat Algorithm for Network Topology(/4)

- All heartbeat algorithms have the same basic structure: send messages to neighbours, and then receive messages from them.

- A major difference between the different algorithms is termination.
  - If the termination condition can be determined locally, as above, then each process can terminate itself.
  - If however, condition depends on a global condition, each process must do a worst-case number of iterations,
  - Alternative is to communicate with a central controller monitoring the global state of the algorithm,
  - This then issues a termination message to each process when required.
Ex 3: Synchronous Heartbeat Algorithm: Parallel Sorting

- To sort an array of \( n \) values in parallel using a synchronous heartbeat algorithm, must partition \( n \) values among processes.
- Assume that we have 2 processes, \( P_1 \) and \( P_2 \), and that \( n \) is even.
- Each process initially has \( n/2 \) values and sorts these values into non descending order, using a sequential sort algorithm.
- Then, each iteration, \( P_1 \) swaps its largest value with \( P_2 \)'s smallest
- Then both processes place new values into correct place in their own sorted list of numbers.
- Note: as both sending & receiving block in synchronous message passing, \( P_1 \) and \( P_2 \) can’t execute send, receive primitives in same order (as could in asynchronous case).
Ex 3: Synchronous Heartbeat Algorithm: Parallel Sorting: Algorithm Operation (/2)

- Demonstration of Odd/Even Sort for 2 Processes:
Ex 3: Synchronous Heartbeat Algorithm: Parallel Sorting: (/3)

• Can extend this to $k$ processes by initially dividing array to give each process $n/k$ values to sort using a sequential algorithm.

• Then sort $n$ elements by repeated applications of the two process compare and exchange algorithm.

• On odd-numbered applications:
  – Every odd-numbered process acts as $P_1$, and every even numbered process acts as $P_2$.
  – Each odd numbered process $P_i$ exchanges data with process $P_{i+1}$.
  – If $k$ is odd, then $P_k$ does nothing on odd numbered applications.

• On even-numbered applications:
  – Even-numbered processes act as $P_1$, odd numbered processes act as $P_2$.
  – $P_1$ does nothing, and $P_k$ does nothing, even if $k$ is even.
Ex 3 (a): Synchronous Heartbeat Algorithm: Parallel Sorting: (/4)

• The algorithm for odd/even exchange sort on $n$ processes can be terminated in many ways; two of which are:

1. Have a separate controller process who is informed by each process, each round, if they have modified their $n/k$ values.
   – If no process has modified its list then the central controller replies with a message to terminate.
   – This adds an extra $2k$ messages overhead per round.

2. Execute enough iterations to guarantee that the list will be sorted. For this algorithm it requires $k$ iterations.
Example 3(a): Odd/Even Exchange Sort: Algorithm Operation (/5)

- Demonstration of *Odd/Even Exchange Sort* for $k$ Processes:
Ex. 3: \( n \) Process Odd/Even Exchange Sort in Java

```java
public class OddEvenSort {
    public static void main(String a[]){
        int i;
        int array[] = {12, 9, 4, 99, 120, 1, 3, 10};
        odd_even(array, array.length);
    }

    public static void odd_even(int array[], int n){
        for (int i = 0; i < n/2; i++){
            /* 1st evens: all these can happen in parallel */
            for (int j = 0; j+1 < n; j += 2)
                if (array[j] > array[j+1]) {
                    int T = array[j];
                    array[j] = array[j+1];
                    array[j+1] = T;
                }

            /* Now odds: all these can happen in parallel */
            for (int j = 1; j+1 < array.length; j += 2)
                if (array[j] > array[j+1]) {
                    int T = array[j];
                    array[j] = array[j+1];
                    array[j+1] = T;
                }
        }
    }
}
```
SECTION 5.2: PARALLEL PROGRAMMING WITH MESSAGE PASSING INTERFACE & OPENMP
When is Parallel Implementation Useful?

• *In general it is useful for large problems*
  – i.e. you know what speed-up to expect,
  – But you need to be able to recognise them!

• Three types of problems are suitable:
  1. (Embarassingly) Parallel Problems
  2. Regular and Synchronous Problems
  3. Irregular and/or Asynchronous Problems

1. (Embarassingly) Parallel problems:
  – Can break problem into subparts, each independent of others
  – No comms required, except to split up problem/ combine results
  – Linear speed-up can be expected
  – Example of this is: Monte-Carlo simulations
When is Parallel Implementation Useful?

2. Regular and Synchronous Problems:

   – Same instruction set (regular algorithm) applied to all data
     • (~) Synchronous comms: each processor finishes its task at the same time
     • Local (neighbour to neighbour) & collective (combine final results) comms

   – Computation: comms ratio dictates speed-up
     • If large, good speed-up for local comms & ok speed-up for non-local comms

   – Ex: matrix-vector products, sorting (loosely synch.)

3. Irregular and/or Asynchronous Problems:

   – Irregular algorithm which cannot be implemented efficiently except with message passing and high communication overhead

   – Comms usually asynchronous - needs care in load balancing
     • Often dynamic data repartitioning between processors required
     • Speed-up hard to predict; easier to split into regular/irregular parts

   – Ex: Melting ice problem (or any moving boundary simulation)
Example 1: matrix-vector product

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
  a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & a_{14} \\
  a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & a_{24} \\
  a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} & a_{34} \\
  a_{41} & a_{42} & a_{43} & a_{44}
\end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix}
  b_1 \\
  b_2 \\
  b_3 \\
  b_4
\end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix}
  c_1 \\
  c_2 \\
  c_3 \\
  c_4
\end{pmatrix}
\]

with

\[
\begin{align*}
  c_1 &= a_{11} \times b_1 + a_{12} \times b_2 + a_{13} \times b_3 + a_{14} \times b_4 \\
  c_2 &= a_{21} \times b_1 + a_{22} \times b_2 + a_{23} \times b_3 + a_{24} \times b_4 \\
  c_3 &= a_{31} \times b_1 + a_{32} \times b_2 + a_{33} \times b_3 + a_{34} \times b_4 \\
  c_4 &= a_{41} \times b_1 + a_{42} \times b_2 + a_{43} \times b_3 + a_{44} \times b_4
\end{align*}
\]

• A parallel approach:
  • Each element of vector \( c \) depends on vector \( b \) and only one line of \( A \)
  • So each \( c \) can be calculated independently from the others
  • Communication only needed to split problem & combine final results
  • => a linear speed-up can be expected for large matrices
Example 2: Monte-Carlo calculation of Pi

- **Monte Carlo Integration**
- \( \pi = 3.14159\ldots \) = area of a circle of radius 1
- \( \pi/4 \approx \) fraction of points in circle quadrant
- More points \( \Rightarrow \) more accurate value for \( \pi \)
- A parallel approach:
  - Each point is randomly placed within the square & so each point’s position is independent of the position of the others
  - Can split problem by letting each node randomly place a given number of points
  - Only need communicate number of points & take in final results

\[ \Rightarrow \] Can expect linear speed-up allowing for a larger number of points and hence greater accuracy in the estimation of \( \pi \).
Example 3: A More Real Problem

- **Knight’s Tour Problem**
- After each move, chess s/w must find best move
  - => This set is large, but finite
- Each move from this set can be evaluated independently & the set can be partitioned

- Comms only needed to split problem and combine the final results
  - => A linear speed-up can be expected
  - => Means that, in reasonable time, can study moves better
  - => This depth of evaluation makes s/w more competitive
SECTION 5.2.1: MESSAGE PASSING INTERFACE (MPI)
Some background on MPI

- **MPI**
  - Developed by MPI forum (Industry, Academia & Govt.)
  - 1994: Set up a standardised Message-Passing Interface (MPI-1)
  - It was intended as an interface to both C and FORTRAN.
  - Aim was to provide a specification implementable on any parallel computer or cluster => portability of code was a big aim
  - BUT Implementation on Shared Memory Architectures often poor

- **MPI provides support for:**
  - Point-to-point & collective (i.e. group) communications
  - Inquiry routines to query the environment (how many nodes, what node number am I, etc.)
  - Constants and data-types

- **Start with basics: initialising MPI & using point-to-point comms**
MPI Preliminaries...

• **Naming convention**
  – All MPI identifiers are prefixed by **MPI_**.
  – C routines contain lower case (i.e. **MPI_Init**),
  – Constants are upper case (e.g. **MPI_FLOAT** is MPI C data-type).
  – C routines are integer functions which return a status code (you should check these for errors!).

• **Running MPI**
  – Number of processors is specified in the command line, when running MPI loader that loads MPI program onto the processors,
  – This is to avoid hard-coding it into the program
  – E.g. `mpirun -np N exec`
MPI Preliminaries... (/2)

• Writing a program using MPI: what is parallel, what is not
  – Only one program is written.
  – By default, each code line run by each node running a program
  – E.g. if code contains `int result=0`, each node will locally create a variable and assign the value.

• When a section of the code needs to be executed by only a subset of nodes, should explicitly specify.
  • E.g., if using 8 nodes, and that `MyID` stores node rank (from 0 to 7), this bit of code assigns to `result` zero for the first half of them, and unity for the second.

```c
int result;
    if(MyID < 4) result = 0;
else result = 1;
```
Common MPI Routines

- MPI has a ‘kitchen sink’ approach of 129 different routines
- Most basic programs can get away with using six.

- As usual use `#include “mpi.h”` in C.
  - `MPI_Init` Initialise MPI computation
  - `MPI_Finalize` Terminate MPI computation
  - `MPI_Comm_size` Determine number of processes
  - `MPI_Comm_rank` Determine my process number
  - `MPI_Send, MPI_Isend` Blocking, non-blocking send
  - `MPI_Recv, MPI_Irecv` Blocking, non-blocking
Common MPI Routines (/2): MPI Initialisation, Finalization

- In all MPI programs, must initialise MPI before use & finalise at end
- Must handle all MPI-related commands, types in this section of code:

```c
MPI_Init

MPI_Finalize
```

- **MPI_Init** takes two parameters as input (argc and argv),
  - It is used to start the MPI environment, create the default communicator (more later) and assign a rank to each node.
- **MPI_Finalize** cleans up all MPI state. Once this routine is called, no MPI routine (even MPI_Init) may be called.
- The user must ensure that all pending communications involving a process completes before the process calls **MPI_Finalize**.
Common MPI Routines (/3): Basic Inquiry Routines

• At various stages in a parallel-implemented function, useful to know how many nodes program is using, or what current node’s rank is.

• **MPI_Comm_size** returns number of processes/ nodes as an integer, taking only one parameter, a communicator.

• Mostly only use the default Communicator: **MPI_COMM_WORLD**.

• The **MPI_Comm_rank** function is used to determine what the rank of the current process/node on a particular communicator.

• E.g. if there are two communicators, it is possible, and quite usual, that the ranks of the same node would differ.

• Again, in most cases, this function will only be used with the default communicator as an input (**MPI_COMM_WORLD**),

• It returns (as an integer) the rank of the node on that communicator.
Common MPI Routines (4/4): Point-to-Point communications in MPI

• Involves communication between two processors, one sending, and the other receiving.

• Certain information is required to specify the message:
  – Identification of sender processor
  – Identification of destination/receiving processor
  – Type of data (MPI_INT, MPI_FLOAT etc)
  – Number of data elements to send (i.e. array/vector info)
  – Where the data to be sent is in memory (pointer)
  – Where the received data should be stored in (pointer)
Common MPI Routines (/5):

Sending data **MPI_Send, MPI_Isend**

- **MPI_Send** used for blocking send, (i.e. process waits for the communication to finish before going to the next command).

```c
int MPI_Send(void *buf, int count, MPI_Datatype datatype, int dest, int tag, MPI_Comm comm)
```

- This function takes six parameters:
  - the location of the data to be sent i.e. a pointer (*input parameter*)
  - the number of data elements to be sent (*input parameter*)
  - the type of data e.g. **MPI_INT, MPI_FLOAT**, etc. (*input parameter*)
  - the rank of the receiving/destination node (*input parameter*)
  - a tag for identification of the communication (*input parameter*)
  - the communicator to be used for transmission (*input parameter*)

- **MPI_Isend** is non-blocking, so an additional parameter, to allow for verification of communication success is needed.

- It is a pointer to an element of type **MPI_Request**.
Common MPI Routines (/6): Receiving data `MPI_Recv, MPI_Irecv`

- **MPI_Recv** is used to perform a blocking receive, (i.e. process waits for the communication to finish before going to the next command).

```c
int MPI_Recv(void *buf, int count, MPI_Datatype datatype, int source, int tag, MPI_Comm comm, MPI_Status *status);
```

- This function takes seven parameters:
  - the location of the receive buffer i.e. a pointer (*output parameter*)
  - the max number of data elements to be received (*input parameter*)
  - the type of data e.g. `MPI_INT, MPI_FLOAT`, etc. (*input parameter*)
  - the rank of the source/sending node (*input parameter*)
  - a tag for identification of the communication (*input parameter*)
  - the communicator to be used for transmission (*input parameter*)
  - a pointer to a structure of type `MPI_Status`, contains source processor’s rank, communication tag, and error status (*output parameter*)

- For the non-blocking `MPI_Irecv`, `MPI_Request` replaces `MPI_Status`.
A first MPI example: Hello World.

```c
#include <mpi.h>

int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
    int myid, size;
    MPI_Init(&argc, &argv);
    MPI_Comm_rank(MPI_COMM_WORLD, &myid);
    MPI_Comm_size(MPI_COMM_WORLD, &size);
    printf("process %d out of %d says Hello\n", myid, size);
    MPI_Finalize();
    return 0;
}
```
Example 2: Exchanging 2 Values

```c
#include <mpi.h>

int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
    int rank, value, size, length = 1, tag = 1;
    MPI_Status status;
    /* initialize MPI and get own id (rank) */
    MPI_Init(&argc, &argv);
    MPI_Comm_rank(MPI_COMM_WORLD, &myid);
    MPI_Comm_size(MPI_COMM_WORLD, &size);
    if (size!=2) {
        printf("use exactly two processes\n");
        exit(1);
    }
    if (myid == 0) {
        otherid = 1; myvalue = 14;
    }
    else {
        otherid = 0; myvalue = 25;
    }
    printf("process %d sending %d to process %d\n", myid, myvalue, otherid);
    /* Send one integer to the other node (i.e. "otherid") */
    MPI_Send(&myvalue, 1, MPI_INT, otherid, tag, MPI_COMM_WORLD);
    /* Receive one integer from any other node */
    MPI_Recv(&othervalue, 1, MPI_INT, MPI_ANY_SOURCE, MPI_ANY_TAG, MPI_COMM_WORLD, &status);
    printf("process %d received a %d\n", myid, othervalue);
    MPI_Finalize(); /* Terminate MPI */
    return 0;
}
```
Compiling and Running MPI Programs

• To compile programs using MPI, you need an “MPI-enabled” compiler.
• On cluster, use `mpicc` to compile C code with MPI or `mpicxx` for C++.
• Can also create MPI programs using IDE’s like ECLIPSE
• Before running an executable using MPI, ensure "multiprocessing daemon" (MPD) is running.
• It makes the workstations into "virtual machines" to run MPI programs.
• Running MPI code, requests are sent to MPD daemons to start up copies of the program.
• Each copy then uses MPI to communicate with other copies of the same program running in the VM. Just type “mpd &” in the terminal.
• To run the executable, type “`mpirun -np N./executable_file`”, where N is the number to be used to run the program.
• This value is then used in your program by `MPI_Init` to allocate the nodes and create the default communicator.
Example 3: “Ring” Communication

```c
#include <mpi.h>

int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
    int rank, value, size;
    MPI_Status status;
    /* initialize MPI and get own id (rank) */
    MPI_Init(&argc, &argv);
    MPI_Comm_rank(MPI_COMM_WORLD, &rank);
    MPI_Comm_size(MPI_COMM_WORLD, &size);
    do {
        if (rank == 0) {
            scanf("%d", &value);
            /* Master Node sends out the value */
            MPI_Send(&value, 1, MPI_INT, rank + 1, 0, MPI_COMM_WORLD);
        } else {
            /* Slave Nodes block on receive the send on the value */
            MPI_Recv(&value, 1, MPI_INT, rank - 1, 0, MPI_COMM_WORLD, &status);
            if (rank < size - 1) {
                MPI_Send(&value, 1, MPI_INT, rank + 1, 0, MPI_COMM_WORLD);
            }
            printf("process %d got %d\n", rank, value);
        }
    } while (value >= 0);
    /* Terminate MPI */
    MPI_Finalize();
    return 0;
}
```

Lecture 5: Message-Oriented Communication  CA4006 Lecture Notes (Martin Crane 2018)
```c
#include <mpi.h>

int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
    int A[4][4], b[4], c[4], line[4], temp[4], local_value, myid;
    MPI_Init(&argc, &argv); MPI_Comm_rank(MPI_COMM_WORLD, &myid);
    if (myid == 0) {
        for (int i=0; i<4; i++) {
            b[i] = 4 - i;
            for (int j=0; j<4; j++)
                A[i][j] = i + j; /* set some notional values for A, b */
        }
        line[0]=A[0][0]; line[1]=A[0][1];
    }
    else {
        MPI_Recv( line, 4, MPI_INT, 0, myid, MPI_COMM_WORLD, MPI_STATUS_IGNORE);
        MPI_Recv( b, 4, MPI_INT, 0, myid, MPI_COMM_WORLD, MPI_STATUS_IGNORE);
    } /* master node does its share of multiplication too*/
    if (myid != 0) {
        MPI_Send(&c[myid], 1, MPI_INT, 0, myid, MPI_COMM_WORLD);
    }
    else {
        for (int i=1; i<4; i++) {
            MPI_Recv( &c[i], 1, MPI_INT, i, i, MPI_COMM_WORLD, MPI_STATUS_IGNORE);
        }
    }
    MPI_Finalize();
    return 0;
}
```

**Example 4: Matrix-Vector Product Implementation**
```c
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
    MPI_Init(&argc, &argv);
    #define INT_MAX_ 1000000000
    int myid, size, inside=0, outside=0, points=10000;
    double x,y, Pi_comp, Pi_real=3.141592653589793238462643;
    MPI_Comm_rank(MPI_COMM_WORLD, &myid);
    MPI_Comm_size(MPI_COMM_WORLD, &size);
    if (myid == 0) {
        for (int i=1; i<size; i++) /* send out the value of points to all slaves */
            MPI_Send(&points, 1, MPI_INT, i, i, MPI_COMM_WORLD);
    } else
        MPI_Recv(&points, 1, MPI_INT, 0, i, MPI_COMM_WORLD, MPI_STATUS_IGNORE);
    rands=new double[2*points];
    for (int i=0; i<2*points; i++){
        rands[i]=random();
    }
    for (int i=0; i<points; i++) {
        x=rands[2*i]/INT_MAX_;
        y=rands[2*i+1]/INT_MAX_;
        if((x*x+y*y)<1) inside++; /* point is inside unit circle so incr var inside */
    }
    delete[] rands;
    if (myid == 0) {
        for (int i=1; i<size; i++) {
            int temp; /* master receives all inside values from slaves */
            MPI_Recv(&temp, 1, MPI_INT, i, i, MPI_COMM_WORLD, MPI_STATUS_IGNORE);
            inside+=temp; } /* master sums all insides sent to it by slaves */
    } else
        MPI_Send(&inside, 1, MPI_INT, 0, i, MPI_COMM_WORLD); /* send inside to master*/
    if (myid == 0) {
        Pi_comp = 4 * (double) inside / (double)(size*points);
        cout << "Value obtained: " << Pi_comp << endl << "Pi: " << Pi_real << endl;
    }
    MPI_Finalize(); return 0;
}
```

Example 5: Pi Calculation Implementation

All nodes do this part

Lecture 5: Message-Oriented Communication CA4006 Lecture Notes (Martin Crane 2018)
Collective communications in MPI

• Groups are sets of processors interacting with each other in certain way.
• Such communications permit a more flexible mapping of the language to the problem (allocation of nodes to subparts of the problem etc).
• MPI implements Groups using data objects called Communicators.
• A special Communicator is defined (called ‘MPI_COMM_WORLD’) for the group of all processes.
• Each Group member is identified by a number (its Rank 0..n-1).
• There are three steps to create new communication structures:
  – accessing the group corresponding to MPI_COMM_WORLD,
  – using this group to create sub-groups,
  – allocating new communicators for this group.
• We will see this in more detail in the last examples.
Some Sophisticated MPI Routines

- Advantage of global comms routines below is MPI system implements them more efficiently than the coder, with fewer function calls.
- Also, system will have more opportunity to overlap message transfers with internal processing.
- Maybe some parallelism might be available to be exploited in the communications network too.

- **MPI_Barrier**  Synchronise
- **MPI_Bcast**  Broadcast same data to all procs
- **MPI_Gather**  Get data from all procs
- **MPI_Scatter**  Send different data to all procs
- **MPI_Reduce**  Combine data from all onto one proc
- **MPI_Allreduce**  Combine data from all procs onto all procs
Sophisticated MPI Routines:

**MPI_Barrier**

- **MPI_Barrier** is used to synchronise a set of nodes.
  
  ```c
  int MPI_Barrier( MPI_Comm comm )
  ```

- It blocks the caller until all group members have called it.

- ie call returns at any process only after all group members have entered the call.

- This functions takes only parameter, the communicator (i.e. group of nodes) to be synchronised.

- As we previously saw with other functions, it will most of the times be used with the default communicator, **MPI_COMM_WORLD**.
Sophisticated MPI Routines: \texttt{MPI\_Bcast}

- \texttt{MPI\_Bcast} used to send data from one node to all the others in one single command.

```c
int MPI_Bcast( void *buffer, int count, MPI_Datatype datatype, int root, MPI_Comm comm )
```

- This function takes five parameters:
  - location of data to be sent i.e. a pointer (\textit{input/output} parameter)
  - number of data elements to be sent (\textit{input} parameter)
  - type of data (\textit{input} parameter)
  - rank of the broadcast node (\textit{input} parameter)
  - communicator to be used (\textit{input} parameter)
Sophisticated MPI Routines: **MPI_Gather**

- **MPI_Gather** used to gather on 1 node data scattered over a group.

```c
int MPI_Gather(void *sendbuf, int sendcnt, MPI_Datatype sendtype,
                void *recvbuf, int recvcnt, MPI_Datatype recvtype, int root,
                MPI_Comm comm)
```

- This function takes eight parameters:
  - location of data to be sent i.e. a pointer (**input** parameter)
  - number of data elements to be sent (**input** parameter)
  - type of data to be sent (**input** parameter)
  - location of the receive buffer i.e. a pointer (**output parameter**)
  - number of elements to be received (**input** parameter)
  - type of data to be received (**input** parameter)
  - rank of the sending node (**input** parameter)
  - communicator to be used for transmission. (**input** parameter)
Sophisticated MPI Routines: **MPI_Scatter**

- **MPI_Scatter** used to scatter data from single node to a group

```c
int MPI_Scatter(void *sendbuf, int sendcnt, MPI_Datatype sendtype, 
void *recvbuf, int recvnt, MPI_Datatype recvtype, int root, 
MPI_Comm comm)
```

- This function takes eight parameters:
  - location of data to be sent i.e. a pointer (*input* parameter)
  - number of data elements to be sent (*input* parameter)
  - type of data to be sent (*input* parameter)
  - location of the receive buffer i.e. a pointer (*output* parameter)
  - number of elements to be received (*input* parameter)
  - type of data to be received (*input* parameter)
  - rank of the sending node (*input* parameter)
  - communicator to be used for transmission. (*input* parameter)
Sophisticated MPI Routines: **MPI_Reduce**

- **MPI_Reduce** used to reduce values on all nodes of a group to a single value on one node using some reduction operation (sum etc).

```c
int MPI_Reduce ( void *sendbuf, void *recvbuf, int count, MPI_Datatype datatype, MPI_Op op, int root, MPI_Comm comm )
```

- This function takes seven parameters:
  - location of the data to be sent i.e. a pointer (*input* parameter)
  - location of the receive buffer i.e. a pointer (*output* parameter)
  - number of elements to be sent (*input* parameter)
  - type of data e.g. `MPI_INT`, `MPI_FLOAT`, etc. (*input* parameter)
  - operation to combine the results e.g. `MPI_SUM` (*input* parameter)
  - identity of root (i.e. receiving) node (*input* parameter)
  - communicator used for transmission (*input* parameter)

Before `MPI_Reduce`

```
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Process 1</th>
<th>Process 2</th>
<th>Process 3</th>
<th>Process 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
```

After `MPI_Reduce`

```
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Process 1</th>
<th>Process 2</th>
<th>Process 3</th>
<th>Process 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
```
Sophisticated MPI Routines: **MPI_Allreduce**

- **MPI_Allreduce** is used to reduce values on all group nodes to a one value, and send it back to all (i.e. equals **MPI_Reduce+MPI_Bcast**)

```c
int MPI_Allreduce ( void *sendbuf, void *recvbuf, int count,
                    MPI_Datatype datatype, MPI_Op op, MPI_Comm comm )
```

- This functions takes six parameters:
  - location of the data to be sent i.e. a pointer (*input* parameter)
  - location of the receive buffer i.e. a pointer (*output* parameter)
  - number of elements to be sent (*input* parameter)
  - type of data e.g. **MPI_INT**, **MPI_FLOAT**, etc. (*input* parameter)
  - operation to combine the results e.g. **MPI_SUM** (*input* parameter)
  - communicator used for transmission (*input* parameter)

Before **MPI_Allreduce**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Process 1</th>
<th>Process 2</th>
<th>Process 3</th>
<th>Process 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

After **MPI_Allreduce**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Process 1</th>
<th>Process 2</th>
<th>Process 3</th>
<th>Process 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Example 6: A New Matrix-Vector Product

MPI_Bcast(b, 4, MPI_INT, 0, MPI_COMM_WORLD);
if (myid == 0) {
    for (int i=0; i<4; i++) /* slaves do most multiplying */
        MPI_Send(temp, 4, MPI_INT, i, i, MPI_COMM_WORLD);
    /* No need to send vector b here */
}
else {
    MPI_Recv(line, 4, MPI_INT, 0, myid, MPI_COMM_WORLD, MPI_STATUS_IGNORE);
    /* No need to receive vector b here */
} /* master node does its share of multiplication too*/
if (myid != 0) {MPI_Send(&c[myid], 1, MPI_INT, 0, myid, MPI_COMM_WORLD);}
else {
    for (int i=1; i<4; i++) {
        MPI_Recv(&c[i], 1, MPI_INT, i, i, MPI_COMM_WORLD, MPI_STATUS_IGNORE);
    }
} MPI_Finalize(); return 0;
```c
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
    MPI_Init(&argc, &argv);
    #define INT_MAX_ 1000000000
    int myid, size, inside=0, outside=0, points=10000;
    double x,y, Pi_comp, Pi_real=3.141592653589793238462643;
    MPI_Comm_rank(MPI_COMM_WORLD, &myid);
    MPI_Comm_size(MPI_COMM_WORLD, &size);
    /* Again send/receive replaced by MPI_Bcast */
    MPI_Bcast(&points,1,MPI_INT, 0, MPI_COMM_WORLD);
    rands=new double[2*points];
    for (int i=0; i<2*points; i++) {
        rands[i]=random();
    }
    for (int i=0; i<points; i++) {
        x=rands[2*i]/INT_MAX_; 
        y=rands[2*i+1]/INT_MAX_; 
        if((x*x+y*y)<1) inside++; /* point is inside unit circle so incr var inside */
    }
    delete[] rands;
    if (myid == 0) {
        for (int i=1; i<size; i++) {
            int temp; /* master gets all inside values from slaves */
            MPI_Recv(&temp, 1, MPI_INT, i, i, MPI_COMM_WORLD, MPI_STATUS_IGNORE);
            inside+=temp; } /* master sums all insides sent to it by slaves */
    } else
    MPI_Send(&inside, 1, MPI_INT, 0, i, MPI_COMM_WORLD); /* send inside to master */
    MPI_Reduce(&inside,&total,1,MPI_INT,MPI_SUM,0, MPI_COMM_WORLD);
    if (myid == 0) {
        Pi_comp = 4 * (double) inside / (double)(size*points);
        cout << "Value obtained: " << Pi_comp << endl << "Pi:" << Pi_real << endl;
    }
    MPI_Finalize(); return 0;
}
```

Example 7: A New Pi Calculation Implementation

Lecture 5: Message-Oriented Communication  CA4006 Lecture Notes (Martin Crane 2018)
Using Communicators

• Creating a new group (and communicator) by excluding the first node:

```c
#include <mpi.h>

int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
    ...
    MPI_Comm comm_world, comm_worker;
    MPI_Group group_world, group_worker;
    comm_world = MPI_COMM_WORLD;
    MPI_Comm_group(comm_world, &group_world);
    MPI_Group_excl(group_world, 1, 0, &group_worker);
    /* process 0 not member */
    MPI_Comm_create(comm_world, group_worker, &comm_worker);
    ...
}
```

• **Warning:**

`MPI_Comm_create()` is a collective operation, so all processes in the old communicator must call it - even those not going in the new communicator.
Example 8: Using Communicators

```c
#include <mpi.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#define NPROCS 8
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {

    int rank, newrank, sendbuf, recvbuf;
    ranks1[4]={0,1,2,3}, ranks2[4]={4,5,6,7};
    MPI_Group orig_group, new_group;
    MPI_Comm new_comm

    MPI_Init(&argc, &argv);
    MPI_Comm_rank(MPI_COMM_WORLD, &rank);
    sendbuf = rank;
        /* Extract the original group handle */
    MPI_Comm_group(MPI_COMM_WORLD, &orig_group);
    if (rank < NPROCS/2) {        /* Split tasks into 2 distinct groups based on rank */
        MPI_Group_incl(orig_group, NPROCS/2, ranks1, &new_group);
    } else
        MPI_Group_incl(orig_group, NPROCS/2, ranks2, &new_group);
        /* Create new communicator and then perform collective communications */
    MPI_Comm_create(MPI_COMM_WORLD, new_group, &new_comm);
    MPI_Allreduce(&sendbuf, &recvbuf, 1, MPI_INT, MPI_SUM, new_comm);
    MPI_Group_rank (new_group, &new_rank);

    printf("rank= %d newrank= %d recvbuf= %d\n", rank, newrank, recvbuf);

    MPI_Finalize();
}
```
SECTION 5.2.2: OPEN MULTIPROCESSING (OPENMP)
Introduction to OpenMP

• Stands for *Open Multi-Processing*, or *Open specifications for Multi-Processing*

• Represents collaboration between interested parties from h/w and s/w industry, government and academia.

• An API to facilitate explicitly direct multi-threaded, shared memory parallelism.

• Supported in C, C++, and Fortran, and on most processor architectures and OS.

• Comprises a set of compiler directives, library routines, and environment variables affecting run-time behaviour.

• Introduce it here as complementary to and usable in conjunction with MPI to achieve speedup
Motivations to use OpenMP

• Provides a standard among a variety of shared memory architectures/platforms.
  – Currently at OpenMP Version 4.5 (as of July 2017)
  – More details at openmp.org/wp/resources/

• Establishes a simple and limited set of directives for programming shared memory machines.
  – As with MPI, can get quite good parallelism using 3 or 4 directives.

• Unlike MPI:
  – Facilitates incremental parallelization of a serial program,
  – Does not require ‘all or nothing’ approach to parallelization,
  – MPI scales well but is non-trivial to implement for codes originally written for serial machines & not good for shared memory

• Can implement both coarse-grain & fine-grain parallelism.
What OpenMP is not

• OpenMP Is Not:
  – Meant for distributed memory parallel systems (by itself)
  – Necessarily implemented identically by all vendors
  – Guaranteed to make the most efficient use of shared memory

• NB OpenMP will not:
  – Check for data dependencies, data conflicts, race conditions, or deadlocks
  – Check for code lines that cause program to be classified as non-conforming
  – Cover compiler-generated automatic parallelization and directives to the compiler to assist such parallelization
OpenMP Programming Model

• Shared Memory Model:
  – OpenMP is designed for multi-processor/core, shared memory machines.
  – The underlying architecture can be shared memory UMA or NUMA.
OpenMP Programming Model (/2)

– The *Fork-Join* Model

Data Dependencies

• Data on one thread can be dependent on data on another one

  – Thread 0 may require a variable that is calculated on thread 1
  – Answer depends on timing – When thread 0 does the calculation, has thread 1 calculated it’s value yet?

• Example – Fibonacci Sequence 0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, … more bunnies!

  \[
  A[1] = 0;
  \text{for}(i = 3; i \leq 100; i++)\{
  \hspace{1em} A[i] = A[i-1] + A[i-2];
  \}
  \]

• Parallelize on 2 threads
  – Thread 0 gets \(i = 3\) to 51, Thread 1 gets \(i = 52\) to 100
    • Look carefully at calculation for \(i = 52\) on thread 1
    • What will be values of for \(i - 1\) and \(i - 2\)?
Data Dependencies (/2)

- **A Test for Dependency:**
  - If serial loop is executed in reverse order, will it give same result?
  - If so, it’s ok
  - You can test this on your serial code

- What about subprogram calls?

```c
for(i = 0; i < 100; i++) {
    mycalc(i, x, y);
}
```

- Does the subprogram write `x` or `y` to memory?
  - If so, they need to be private
  - Variables local to subprogram are local to each thread

- Be careful with global variables and common blocks
Parallelism in OpenMP

- **Thread-Based Parallelism**
  - OpenMP programs accomplish parallelism solely using *threads*.
  - A *thread of execution* is smallest processing unit schedulable by OS.
    - Analogous conceptually to a subroutine that can be scheduled to run autonomously.
  - These threads exist within resources of a single process, without which they cannot exist.
  - Usually number of threads match the number of machine processors/cores.
    - However, the actual use of threads is up to the application.
Parallelism in OpenMP (/2)

• **Explicit Parallelism**
  
  – OpenMP is an explicit (not automatic) programming model, offering the programmer full control over parallelization.
  
  – Parallelization can be as simple as taking a serial program and inserting compiler directives....
  
  – The general form of these are:

    ```
    #pragma omp construct [clause [clause]...]  
    ```

  – Example of this:

    ```
    #pragma omp parallel num_threads(4)  
    ```

  – Note about **#pragma**

    • These are special preprocessor instructions.
    
    • Typically added to system to allow behaviours that aren’t part of the basic language specification.
    
    • Compilers that don’t support the pragmas ignore them.
Example 1: My first OpenMP Code.

```c
#include <stdio.h>
int main(void)
{
    #pragma omp parallel num_threads(2)
    printf("Hello, world.\n");
    return 0;
}
```

- **Thread Creation**
  - `pragma omp parallel` used to fork additional threads (here 2) to carry out the work enclosed in the construct in parallel.
  - The original thread is denoted as **master** thread with thread ID 0.
  - `num_threads(2)` is one of a number of clauses that can be specified e.g. `private` variables, `shared` variables, `reduction` operation.
  - Simple Example: Display "Hello, world." using multiple threads.
  - Complex: insert subroutines to set multiple levels of parallelism, locks and even nested locks.
Example 1: My first OpenMP Code (/2).

- **Thread Creation (/2)**
  - When a thread reaches a `parallel` directive, creates a team of threads & becomes master of the team.
  - From the start of this parallel region, code is duplicated and all threads execute that code.
  - Implicit barrier at the end of a parallel section.
    - Only the master thread continues execution past this point.
  - If any thread terminates in a parallel region, all threads in team stop.
  - If this happens, the work done up until that point is undefined.
Running this Example in OpenMP

• Use flag \texttt{-fopenmp} to compile using GCC:

\begin{verbatim}
$ gcc -fopenmp hello.c -o hello
\end{verbatim}

• Outputs on a computer with 2 cores, and thus 2 threads:

\begin{verbatim}
Hello, world.
Hello, world.
\end{verbatim}

• However, output may also be garbled due to race condition caused from the two threads sharing the standard output:

\begin{verbatim}
Hello, wHello, woorld.
rlld.
\end{verbatim}

• A helpful step by step example on how to run can be found at dartmouth.edu/~rc/classes/intro_openmp/compile_run.html
Example 2: More Complex OpenMP Code.

```c
#include <stdio.h>
int main(int argc, char **argv) {
    int a[100];
    #pragma omp parallel for
    int i;
    for (i = 0; i < 100; i++)
        a[i] = 2 * i;
    return 0;
}
```

- **Work-sharing constructs**
  - `omp for`/`omp do` for forking extra threads to do work enclosed in `parallel` (aka `loop` constructs).
  - This is equivalent to:

```c
{   // stuff here
    #pragma omp parallel //nb omp twice
    int i;
    #pragma omp for (i = 0; i < 100; i++)
        a[i] = 2 * i;
    return 0;
}
```
Other Work Constructs in OpenMP

• **sections**
  
  Used to assign consecutive but independent code blocks to different threads

• **single**
  
  Specifying a code block that is executed by only one thread, a barrier is implied in the end
  
  Uses first thread that encounters the construct.

• **master**
  
  Similar to single, but code block is executed by *master* thread only – all others skip it
  
  No barrier implied in the end.
OpenMP Work Constructs (Summary)

- **do / for** - shares loop iterations across team.
- Akin to "data parallelism"

- **sections** - breaks work into separate, discrete sections.
- Each executed by a thread.
- Can be used to implement a type of "functional parallelism".

- **single** - serializes a chunk of code
Example 3: *Sections* Construct.

```c
void XAXIS(); void YAXIS(); void ZAXIS();
void sect_example()
{
#pragma omp parallel sections
{
#pragma omp section
  XAXIS();
#pragma omp section
  YAXIS();
#pragma omp section
  ZAXIS();
}
```

- **Purpose**
  - This *sections* directive is used to execute routines *XAXIS*, *YAXIS*, and *ZAXIS* concurrently.
Example 4: **single** Construct.

```c
#include <stdio.h>
void work1() {}
void work2() {}
void single_example() {
    #pragma omp parallel
    {
        #pragma omp single
        printf("Beginning work1.\n");
        work1();
        #pragma omp single
        printf("Finishing work1.\n");
        #pragma omp single nowait
        printf("Finished work1, starting work2.\n");
        work2();
    }
}
```

- **Purpose**
  - **single** directive specifies that the enclosed code is to be executed by only one thread in the team.
  - Useful dealing with sections of code that are not thread safe (such as I/O)
  - There is an implicit barrier at end of each except where a **nowait** clause is specified
Synchronisation Constructs in OpenMP

- **master**
  Strictly speaking, *master* is a synchronisation directive - master thread only and no barrier implied in the end.

- **critical**
  Specifies a critical section i.e. a region of code that must be executed by only one thread at a time.

- **atomic**
  Commonly used to update counters and other simple variables that are accessed by multiple threads simultaneously.

- **barrier**
  Synchronizes all threads in the team.
  When reached, a thread waits there until all other threads have reached that barrier.
  All then resume executing in parallel the code that follows the barrier.
Example 5: Data Scope Attributes

```c
#include <stdio.h>
int a, b=0;
#pragma omp parallel for private(a) shared(b)
for(a=0; a<50; ++a)
{
    #pragma omp atomic // means that either happens or doesn't.
    b += a; // one thread can't interrupt another here
}
```

- **Purpose**
  - These attribute clauses specify data scoping/sharing.
  - As OpenMP based on shared memory programming model, most variables shared by default.
  - Used with directives e.g. `Parallel`, `Do/for`, `Sections` to control the scope of enclosed variables.
  - `a` is explicitly specified `private` (each thread has own copy) and `b` is `shared` (each thread accesses same variable).
Example 6: A more Complex HelloWorld

```cpp
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;
#include <omp.h>
int main(int argc, char *argv[])
{
  int th_id, nthreads;
  #pragma omp parallel private(th_id) shared(nthreads)
  {
    th_id = omp_get_thread_num(); // returns thread id
    #pragma omp critical // only one thread can access this at a time!
    {
      cout << "Hello World from thread " << th_id << '\n';
    }
    #pragma omp barrier // one thread waits for all others
    #pragma omp master // master thread access only!
    {
      nthreads = omp_get_num_threads(); // returns number of thread
      cout << "There are " << nthreads << " threads" << '\n';
    }
  }
  return 0;
}
```

- **Purpose**
  - *Private, shared* declares that threads have their own copy of the variable or share a copy, respectively.
Reduction Clauses

• **Reduction**

  – Like MPI, OpenMP supports the Reduction operation.

    ```c
    int t;
    #pragma omp parallel reduction(+:t)
    {
        t = omp_get_thread_num() + 1;
        printf("local %d\n", t);
    }
    printf("reduction %d\n", t);
    ```

  – Reduction Operators: `+ * -` logical operators and `Min()`, `Max()`
  – The operation makes the specified variable private to each thread.
  – At the end of the computation it combines private results
  – Very useful when combined with `for` as shown below see below:

    ```c
    sum = 0;
    #pragma omp parallel for reduction(+:sum)
    for (i=0; i < 100; i++)
        { sum += array[i]; }
    ```
• The code fragment will be successfully compiled, and the `#pragma omp for` directive will be simply ignored by the compiler.
• So only one thread executes the loop, and it could be tricky for a developer to uncover.
• The correct form should be:

```c
#pragma omp parallel //this is correct
{
    #pragma omp for
    ... //your code
}
```
Common Mistakes in OpenMP: 
#2 Missing for keyword

- `#pragma omp parallel`

  This directive may be applied to a single code line as well as to a code fragment. This may cause unexpected behaviour of the `for` loop:

  ```
  #pragma omp parallel num_threads(2) // incorrect as for keyword omitted
  for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++)
      myFunc();
  ```

- If the developer wanted to share the loop between two threads, they should use the `#pragma omp parallel for` directive.

- Here the loop would have been executed 10 times indeed.

- However, the code above will be executed once in every thread. As the result, the `myFunc();` function will be called 20 times.

- The correct version of the code is provided below:

  ```
  #pragma omp parallel for num_threads(2) // now correct
  for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++)
      myFunc();
  ```
Common Mistakes in OpenMP: 
#3 Redundant Parallelization

- Applying the `#pragma omp parallel` directive to a large code fragment can lead to unexpected behaviour in cases like below:

```c
#pragma omp parallel num_threads(2)
{
    ... // some lines of code
    #pragma omp parallel for
    for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++)
    {
        myFunc();
    }
}
```

- A naïve programmer wanting to share the loop execution between two threads placed the `parallel` keyword inside a parallel section.

- The result of execution is similar to previous example: the `myFunc` function will be called 20 times, not 10.

- The correct version of the code is the same as the above except for

```c
#pragma omp parallel for
for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++)
```
Common Mistakes in OpenMP:

#4 Redefining the Number of Threads in a *Parallel* section

- By OpenMP 2.0 spec no. of threads cannot be redefined inside a *parallel* section without run-time errors and program termination:

```c
#pragma omp parallel
{
omp_set_num_threads(2); // incorrect to call this routine here
#pragma omp for
for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++)
    myFunc();
}
```

- A correct version of the code is:

```c
#pragma omp parallel num_threads(2) // correct!
{
#pragma omp for
for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++)
    myFunc();
}
```

- Or:

```c
omp_num_threads(2) // also
#pragma omp parallel // correct!
{
    #pragma omp for
    ... // more code
```
**SECTION 5.2.3: THE BEST OF BOTH WORLDS... HYBRIDIZATION OF MPI & OPENMP**
MPI & OpenMP: Advantages & Disadvantages

– Pure MPI Pros:
  • Portable to distributed and shared memory machines.
  • Scales beyond one node
  • No data placement problem

– Pure MPI Cons:
  • Difficult to develop and debug
  • Explicit communication
  • High latency, low bandwidth
  • Coarse granularity
  • Difficult load balancing

– Pure OpenMP Pros:
  • Easy to implement parallelism
  • Coarse\(^1\) and fine granularity
  • Implicit Communication
  • Low latency, high bandwidth
  • Dynamic load balancing

– Pure OpenMP Cons:
  • Only on shared memory machines
  • No specific thread order
  • Scale within one node
  • Data placement problem possible

\(^1\)e.g. Parallel Regions \(^2\)e.g. Loop-level
Hybridization: What it is & How it Helps

- **What it is:**
  - Using inherently different models of programming in a complimentary manner, to achieve a benefit not possible otherwise.
  - A way to use different models of parallelization in a way that takes advantage of the good points of each.
  - Hybrid MPI/OpenMP paradigm is the software trend for clusters of SMP architectures.
  - Elegant in concept and architecture: using MPI across nodes and OpenMP within nodes.
  - Good usage of shared memory system resource (memory, latency, and bandwidth).
Hybridization: How it Helps

• **Generalities:**
  
  – Some problems have two-level parallelism naturally.
  – Some problems could only use restricted number of MPI tasks.
  – *Could have* better scalability than both pure MPI and pure OpenMP.

• **How it helps:**
  
  – Adding MPI to OpenMP code can help scale across multiple SMP nodes;
  – Adding OpenMP to MPI code can use shared memory on SMP nodes more efficiently, and reduce explicit intra-node communication needs;
  – Adding MPI & OpenMP in design/coding of a program can help maximize efficiency, performance, and scaling;
  – Avoids the extra communication overhead with MPI within node.
  – OpenMP adds fine granularity (larger message sizes) and allows increased and/or dynamic load balancing.
Hybrid MPI + OpenMP programming

- Each MPI process spawns multiple OpenMP threads
Hybrid MPI + OpenMP Example 1:

```c
#include <stdio.h>
#include "mpi.h"
#include <omp.h>

int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
    int numprocs, rank, namelen;
    char processor_name[MPI_MAX_PROCESSOR_NAME];
    int iam, np;
    MPI_Init(&argc, &argv);
    MPI_Comm_size(MPI_COMM_WORLD, &numprocs);
    MPI_Comm_rank(MPI_COMM_WORLD, &rank);
    MPI_Get_processor_name(processor_name, &namelen);
    #pragma omp parallel default(shared) private(iam, np)
    {
        np =omp_get_num_threads();
        iam = omp_get_thread_num();
        printf("Hello from thread %d out of %d from process %d out of %d on%s\n", iam, np, rank, numprocs, processor_name);
    }
    MPI_Finalize();
}
```
Hybrid MPI + OpenMP Example 1 (/2):
Sample Output

Hello from thread 0 out of 4 from process 0 out of 2 on morab006
Hello from thread 1 out of 4 from process 0 out of 2 on morab006
Hello from thread 2 out of 4 from process 0 out of 2 on morab006
Hello from thread 3 out of 4 from process 0 out of 2 on morab006
Hello from thread 0 out of 4 from process 1 out of 2 on morab001
Hello from thread 3 out of 4 from process 1 out of 2 on morab001
Hello from thread 1 out of 4 from process 1 out of 2 on morab001
Hello from thread 2 out of 4 from process 1 out of 2 on morab001
Hybrid MPI + OpenMP
Example 2: Calculate $\pi$

- $\int_0^1 \frac{dx}{1+x^2} = \tan^{-1} 1 = \frac{\pi}{4}$
- Integrating the function $f(x)$ from $[0,1]$ will give approximation to $\pi$
- Each MPI process integrates over a range of width $1/\text{numproc}$, as a discrete sum of $\text{num\_steps}$ steps, each of width $\text{step}$
- In each MPI process, $\text{num\_steps}$ OpenMP threads perform part of the sum in OPENMP alone.
Hybrid MPI + OpenMP Example 2 (/2): 

**omppi.c code**

```c
#include <omp.h>
static long num_steps = 100000; double step;
#define NUM_THREADS 2
void main ()
{
    int i; double x, pi, sum = 0.0;
    step = 1.0/(double) num_steps;
    omp_set_num_threads(NUM_THREADS);
    #pragma omp parallel for reduction(+:sum) private(x)
    for (i = 0; i < num_steps; i++){
        x = (i+0.5)*step; // scales x in terms of step
        sum = sum + 4.0/(1.0+x*x); // sum is private til threads done
    }
    pi = step * sum;
}
```

This is the OpenMP version Of the Monte-Carlo calculation on its own
Hybrid MPI + OpenMP Example 2 (/3)

`mpipi.c`

```c
#include <mpi.h>

void main (int argc, char *argv[])
{
    int i, my_id, numprocs;
    long num_steps = 100000
    double x, pi, mysteps, step, sum = 0.0;
    step = 1.0/(double) num_steps;
    MPI_Init(&argc, &argv);
    MPI_Comm_Rank(MPI_COMM_WORLD, &my_id);
    MPI_Comm_Size(MPI_COMM_WORLD, &numprocs);
    my_steps = num_steps/numprocs; // divides num_steps among numprocs

    // each will get a bit of the range to do in its part of for loop
    for (i=my_id*my_steps; i<(my_id+1)*my_steps ; i++)
    {
        x = (i+0.5)*step;
        sum += 4.0/(1.0+x*x);
    }
    sum *= step;
    MPI_Reduce(&sum,&pi,1,MPI_DOUBLE,MPI_SUM,0,MPI_COMM_WORLD);
}
```

This is the MPI version
Of the Monte-Carlo
calculation on its own
#include <mpi.h>
#include "omp.h"

void main (int argc, char *argv[])
{
    int i, my_id, numprocs;
    long num_steps = 100000;
    double x, pi, mysteps, step, sum = 0.0;
    step = 1.0/(double) num_steps;
    MPI_Init(&argc, &argv);
    MPI_Comm_Rank(MPI_COMM_WORLD, &my_id);
    MPI_Comm_Size(MPI_COMM_WORLD, &numprocs);
    my_steps = num_steps/numprocs;
    #pragma omp parallel for private(x) reduction(+:sum)
    for (i=myid*my_steps; i<(myid+1)*my_steps; i++)
    {
        x = (i+0.5)*step;
        sum += 4.0/(1.0+x*x);
    }
    sum *= step;
    MPI_Reduce(&sum, &pi, 1, MPI_DOUBLE, MPI_SUM, 0, MPI_COMM_WORLD);
}
Lecture Summary

• 2 Message Passing Primitives: Send & Receive with many different combos of each synch/asynch, persistent/transient

• Different types of procs in Message Passing: Peers/C+S/Filters

• Quite a lot of things to remember in MPI:
  – MPI programs need specific compilers (e.g. mpicc), MPD, mpirun.
  – Four functions for point-to-point comms, 6 more advanced ones, to synchronise, and perform collective comms,

• Unlike MPI, OpenMP:
  – Facilitates incremental parallelization of a serial program, so doesn’t require ‘all or nothing’ approach to parallelization,
  – MPI scales well but is non-trivial to implement for codes originally written for serial machines & not good for shared memory
  – Can implement both coarse-grain & fine-grain parallelism.

• Together, they can form a good team!