Design of Parallel and High-Performance Computing

Fall 2013

Lecture: Lock-Free and Distributed Memory

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Administrivia

- Final project presentation: Monday 12/16 during last lecture
 - Send slides to Timo by 12/16, 11am
 - 15 minutes per team (hard limit)
 - Rough guidelines:

Summarize your goal/task

Related work (what exists, literature review!)

Describe techniques/approach (details!)

Final results and findings (details)

Pick one presenter (you may also switch but keep the time in mind)

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Review of last lecture

- Abstract models
 - Amdahl's and Gustafson's Law
 - Little's Law
 - Work/depth models and Brent's theorem
 - I/O complexity and balance (Kung)
 - Balance principles
- Scheduling
 - Greedy
 - Random work stealing
- Balance principles
 - Outlook to the future
 - Memory and data-movement will be more important

DPHPC Overview parallelism concepts & techniques vector ISA shared memory distributed memory - caches - memory hierarchy cache coherency memory distributed models algorithms group communications linearizability Amdahl's and Gustafson's law memory PRAM a - B I/O complexity balance principles I balance principles II Little's Law scheduling

Goals of this lecture

Answer "Why need to lock+validate in contains of optimistic queue"?

- An element may be reused, assume free() is called after remove
- Contains in A may grab pointer to element and suspend
- B frees element and grabs location as new memory and initializes it to V
- Resumed contains in A may now find V even though it was never in the list

Finish wait-free/lock-free

- Consensus hierarchy
- The promised proof!

Distributed memory

- Models and concepts
- Designing optimal communication algorithms

The Future!

Remote Memory Access Programming

Lock-free and wait-free

A lock-free method

 guarantees that infinitely often some method call finishes in a finite number of steps

A wait-free method

- guarantees that each method call finishes in a finite number of steps (implies lock-free)
- Was our lock-free list also wait-free?

Synchronization instructions are not equally powerful!

 Indeed, they form an infinite hierarchy; no instruction (primitive) in level x can be used for lock-/wait-free implementations of primitives in level z>x.

Concept: Consensus Number

- CONSENSUS
- Each level of the hierarchy has a "consensus number" assigned.
 - Is the maximum number of threads for which primitives in level x can solve the consensus problem
- The consensus problem:
 - Has single function: decide(v)
 - Each thread calls it at most once, the function returns a value that meets two conditions:
 - consistency: all threads get the same value valid: the value is some thread's input
 - Simplification: binary consensus (inputs in {0,1})

Understanding Consensus

- Can a particular class solve n-thread consensus wait-free?
 - A class C solves n-thread consensus if there exists a consensus protocol using any number of objects of class C and any number of atomic registers
 - The protocol has to be wait-free (bounded number of steps per thread)
 - The consensus number of a class C is the largest n for which that class solves n-thread consensus (may be infinite)
 - Assume we have a class D whose objects can be constructed from objects out of class C. If class C has consensus number n, what does class D have?

Starting simple ...

- Binary consensus with two threads (A, B)!
 - Each threads moves until it decides on a value
 - May update shared objects
 - Protocol state = state of threads + state of shared objects
 - Initial state = state before any thread moved
 - Final state = state after all threads finished
 - States form a tree, wait-free property guarantees a finite tree
 Example with two threads and two moves each!

Atomic Registers

- Theorem [Herlihy'91]: Atomic registers have consensus number one
 - Really?
- Proof outline:
 - Assume arbitrary consensus protocol, thread A, B
 - Run until it reaches critical state where next action determines outcome (show that it must have a critical state first)
 - Show all options using atomic registers and show that they cannot be used to determine one outcome for all possible executions!
 - 1) Any thread reads (other thread runs solo until end)
 - 2) Threads write to different registers (order doesn't matter)
 - Threads write to same register (solo thread can start after each write)

Atomic Registers

- Theorem [Herlihy'91]: Atomic registers have consensus number one
- Corollary: It is impossible to construct a wait-free implementation of any object with consensus number of >1 using atomic registers
 - "perhaps one of the most striking impossibility results in Computer Science" (Herlihy, Shavit)
 - → We need hardware atomics or TM!
- Proof technique borrowed from:

Impossibility of distributed consensus with one faulty process
MJ Fischer, NA Lynch, MS Paterson - Journal of the ACM (JACM), 1985 - dl.acm.org
Abstract The consensus problem involves an asynchronous system of processes, some of
which may be unreliable. The problem is for the reliable processes to agree on a binary
value. In this paper, it is shown that every protocol for this problem has the possibility of ...
Cited by 3180 Related articles All 164 versions

- Very influential paper, always worth a read!
 - Nicely shows proof techniques that are central to parallel and distributed computing!

Other Atomic Operations

- Simple RMW operations (Test&Set, Fetch&Op, Swap, basically all functions where the op commutes or overwrites) have consensus number 2!
 - Similar proof technique (bivalence argument)
- CAS and TM have consensus number ∞
 - Constructive proof!

1:

Compare and Set/Swap Consensus

```
const int first = -1
volatile int thread = -1;
int proposed[n];
int decide(v) {
    proposed[tid] = v;
    if(CAS(thread, first, tid))
    return v;// I won!
else
    return proposed[thread]; // thread won
}
```



- CAS provides an infinite consensus number
 - Machines providing CAS are asynchronous computation equivalents of the Turing Machine
 - I.e., any concurrent object can be implemented in a wait-free manner (not necessarily fast!)

Now you know everything ©

- Not really ... ;-)
 - We'll argue about **performance** now!
- But you have all the tools for:
 - Efficient locks
 - Efficient lock-based algorithms
 - Efficient lock-free algorithms (or even wait-free)
 - Reasoning about parallelism!
- What now?
 - A different class of problems
 Impact on wait-free/lock-free on actual performance is not well understood
 - Relevant to HPC, applies to shared and distributed memory

 → Group communications

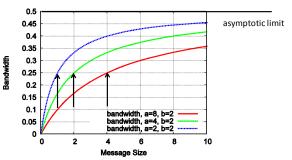
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Remember: A Simple Model for Communication

- Transfer time T(s) = α+βs
 - α = startup time (latency)
 - $\beta = \text{cost per byte (bandwidth=1/\beta)}$
- As s increases, bandwidth approaches 1/β asymptotically
 - $\bullet \quad \text{Convergence rate depends on } \alpha \\$
 - $s_{1/2} = \alpha/\beta$
- Assuming no pipelining (new messages can only be issued from a process after all arrived)

Bandwidth vs. Latency

- s $s_{1/2} = \alpha/\beta$ often used to distinguish bandwidth- and latency-bound messages
 - s_{1/2} is in the order of kilobytes on real systems



.

Quick Example

- Simplest linear broadcast
 - One process has a data item to be distributed to all processes
- Broadcasting s bytes among P processes:
 - T(s) = (P-1) * (α + β s) = $\mathcal{O}(P)$
- Class question: Do you know a faster method to accomplish the same?

k-ary Tree Broadcast

- Origin process is the root of the tree, passes messages to k neighbors which pass them on
 - k=2 -> binary tree
- Class Question: What is the broadcast time in the simple latency/bandwidth model?
 - $T(s) \approx \lceil log_k(P) \rceil \cdot k \cdot (\alpha + \beta \cdot s) = \mathcal{O}(log(P))$ (for fixed k)
- Class Question: What is the optimal k?
 - $0 = \frac{\ln(P) \cdot k}{\ln(k)} \frac{d}{dk} = \frac{\ln(P) \ln(k) \ln(P)}{\ln^2(k)} \rightarrow k = e = 2.71...$
 - Independent of P, α, βs? Really?

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Faster Trees?

- Class Question: Can we broadcast faster than in a ternary tree?
 - Yes because each respective root is idle after sending three messages!
 - Those roots could keep sending!
 - Result is a k-nomial tree
 For k=2, it's a binomial tree
- Class Question: What about the runtime?
 - $T(s) = \lceil \log_k(P) \rceil \cdot (k-1) \cdot (\alpha + \beta \cdot s) = \mathcal{O}(\log(P))$
- Class Question: What is the optimal k here?
 - T(s) d/dk has monotonically increasing for k>1, thus k_{oot}=2
- Class Question: Can we broadcast faster than in a k-nomial tree?
 - $\mathcal{O}(log(P))$ is asymptotically optimal for s=1!
 - But what about large s?

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Very Large Message Broadcast

- Extreme case (P small, s large): simple pipeline
 - Split message into segments of size z
 - Send segments from PE i to PE i+1
- Class Question: What is the runtime?
 - $T(s) = (P-2+s/z)(\alpha + \beta z)$
- = Compare 2-nomial tree with simple pipeline for α =10, β =1, P=4, s=10 6 , and z=10 5
 - **2.000.020 vs. 1.200.120**
- Class Question: Can we do better for given α, β, P, s?

$$\bullet$$
 Derive by z $z_{opt} = \sqrt{\frac{s \alpha}{(P-2) \beta}}$

- What is the time for simple pipeline for $\alpha=10$, $\beta=1$, P=4, $s=10^6$, z_{opt} ?
 - 1,008,964

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Lower Bounds

- Class Question: What is a simple lower bound on the broadcast time?
 - $T_{BC} \ge \min\{\lceil \log_2(P) \rceil \alpha, s\beta\}$
- How close are the binomial tree for small messages and the pipeline for large messages (approximately)?
 - Bin. tree is a factor of log₂(P) slower in bandwidth
 - Pipeline is a factor of P/log₂(P) slower in latency
- Class Question: What can we do for intermediate message sizes?
 - Combine pipeline and tree → pipelined tree
- Class Question: What is the runtime of the pipelined binary tree algorithm?
 - $T \approx \left(\frac{s}{z} + \lceil \log_2 P \rceil 2\right) \cdot 2 \cdot (\alpha + z\beta)$
- Class Question: What is the optimal z?
 - $z_{opt} = \sqrt{\frac{\alpha s}{\beta(\lceil \log_2 P \rceil 2)}}$

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Towards an Optimal Algorithm

- What is the complexity of the pipelined tree with z_{opt} for small s, large P and for large s, constant P?
 - Small messages, large P: s=1; z=1 (s≤z), will give O(log P)
 - Large messages, constant P: assume α, β, P constant, will give asymptotically $O(s\beta)$

Asymptotically optimal for large P and s but bandwidth is off by a factor of 2! Why?

- Bandwidth-optimal algorithms exist, e.g., Sanders et al. "Full Bandwidth Broadcast, Reduction and Scan with Only Two Trees". 2007
 - Intuition: in binomial tree, all leaves (P/2) only receive data and never send
 → wasted bandwidth
 - Send along two simultaneous binary trees where the leafs of one tree are inner nodes of the other
 - Construction needs to avoid endpoint congestion (makes it complex)
 Can be improved with linear programming and topology awareness (talk to me if you're interested)

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Open Problems

- Look for optimal parallel algorithms (even in simple models!)
 - And then check the more realistic models
 - Useful optimization targets are MPI collective operations
 Broadcast/Reduce, Scatter/Gather, Alltoall, Allreduce, Allgather, Scan/Exscan, ...
 - Implementations of those (check current MPI libraries ⑤)
 - Useful also in scientific computations
 Barnes Hut, linear algebra, FFT, ...
- Lots of work to do!
 - Contact me for thesis ideas (or check SPCL) if you like this topic
 - Usually involve optimization (ILP/LP) and clever algorithms (algebra) combined with practical experiments on large-scale machines (10,000+ processors)

HPC Networking Basics

- Familiar (non-HPC) network: Internet TCP/IP
 - Common model:



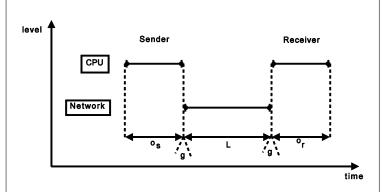
- Class Question: What parameters are needed to model the performance (including pipelining)?
 - Latency, Bandwidth, Injection Rate, Host Overhead

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The LogP Model

- Defined by four parameters:
 - L: an upper bound on the latency, or delay, incurred in communicating a message containing a word (or small number of words) from its source module to its target module.
 - o: the overhead, defined as the length of time that a processor is engaged in the transmission or reception of each message; during this time, the processor cannot perform other operations.
 - g: the gap, defined as the minimum time interval between consecutive message transmissions or consecutive message receptions at a processor. The reciprocal of g corresponds to the available per-processor communication bandwidth.
 - P: the number of processor/memory modules. We assume unit time for local operations and call it a cycle.

The LogP Model



Simple Examples

- Sending a single message
 - T = 20+L
- Ping-Pong Round-Trip
 - T_{RTT} = 4o+2L
- Transmitting n messages
 - T(n) = L+(n-1)*max(g, o) + 2o

Simplifications

- o is bigger than g on some machines
 - g can be ignored (eliminates max() terms)
 - be careful with multicore!
- Offloading networks might have very low o
 - Can be ignored (not yet but hopefully soon)
- L might be ignored for long message streams
 - If they are pipelined
- Account g also for the first message
 - Eliminates "-1"

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Benefits over Latency/Bandwidth Model

- Models pipelining
 - L/g messages can be "in flight"
 - Captures state of the art (cf. TCP windows)
- Models computation/communication overlap
 - Asynchronous algorithms
- Models endpoint congestion/overload
 - Benefits balanced algorithms

Example: Broadcasts

- Class Question: What is the LogP running time for a linear broadcast of a single packet?
 - T_{lin} = L + (P-2) * max(o,g) + 2o
- Class Question: Approximate the LogP runtime for a binary-tree broadcast of a single packet?
 - $T_{bin} \le log_2 P * (L + max(o,g) + 2o)$
- Class Question: Approximate the LogP runtime for an k-ary-tree broadcast of a single packet?
 - $T_{k-n} \le log_k P * (L + (k-1)max(o,g) + 2o)$

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Example: Broadcasts

- Class Question: Approximate the LogP runtime for a binomial tree broadcast of a single packet?
 - $T_{bin} \le log_2 P * (L + 2o)$ (assuming L > g!)
- Class Question: Approximate the LogP runtime for a k-nomial tree broadcast of a single packet?
 - $T_{k-n} \le log_k P * (L + (k-2)max(o,g) + 2o)$
- Class Question: What is the optimal k (assume o>g)?
 - Derive by k: 0 = o * In(k_{opt}) L/k_{opt} + o (solve numerically)
 For larger L, k grows and for larger o, k shrinks
 - Models pipelining capability better than simple model!

Example: Broadcasts

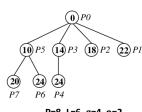
- Class Question: Can we do better than k_{opt}-ary binomial broadcast?
 - Problem: fixed k in all stages might not be optimal
 Only a constant away from optimum
 - We can construct a schedule for the optimal broadcast in practical settings
 - First proposed by Karp et al. in "Optimal Broadcast and Summation in the LogP Model"

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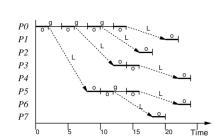
Example: Optimal Broadcast

Broadcast to P-1 processes

 Each process who received the value sends it on; each process receives exactly once



P=8, L=6, g=4, o=2



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Optimal Broadcast Runtime

- This determines the maximum number of PEs (P(t)) that can be reached in time t
- P(t) can be computed with a generalized Fibonacci recurrence (assuming o>g):

$$P(t) = \begin{cases} 1: & t < 2o + L \\ P(t-o) + P(t-L-2o): & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$
 (1)

- Which can be bounded by (see [1]): $2^{\left\lfloor \frac{t}{L+2o}
 ight
 floor} \leq P(t) \leq 2^{\left\lfloor \frac{t}{o}
 ight
 floor}$
 - A closed solution is an interesting open problem!

[1]: Hoefler et al.: "Scalable Communication Protocols for Dynamic Sparse Data Exchange" (Lemma 1)

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The Bigger Picture

■ We learned how to program shared memory systems

- Coherency & memory models & linearizability
- Locks as examples for reasoning about correctness and performance
- List-based sets as examples for lock-free and wait-free algorithms
- Consensus number

We learned about general performance properties and parallelism

- Amdahl's and Gustafson's laws
- Little's law, Work-span, ...
- Balance principles & scheduling

We learned how to perform model-based optimizations

- Distributed memory broadcast example with two models
- What next? MPI? OpenMP? UPC?
 - Next-generation machines "merge" shared and distributed memory concepts → Partitioned Global Address Space (PGAS)

Partitioned Global Address Space

- Two developments:
 - 1. Cache coherence becomes more expensive

 May react in software! Scary for industry ;-)
 - 2. Novel RDMA hardware enables direct access to remote memory May take advantage in software! An opportunity for HPC!

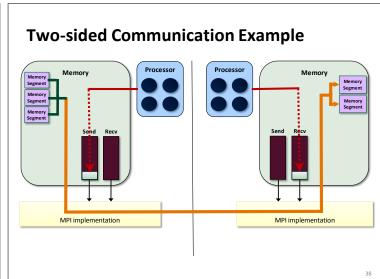
Still ongoing research! Take nothing for granted @

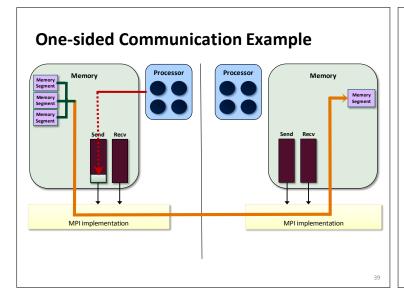
- Very interesting opportunities
- Wide-open research field
- Even more thesis ideas on next generation parallel programming

I will introduce the concepts behind the MPI-3.0 interface

It's nearly a superset of other PGAS approaches (UPC, CAF, ...)

The basic idea of one-sided communication models is to decouple data movement with process synchronization Should be able move data without requiring that the remote process synchronize Each process exposes a part of its memory to other processes Other processes can directly read from or write to this memory | Process | Process | Process | Process | Process | Private | Private | Memory | Region |





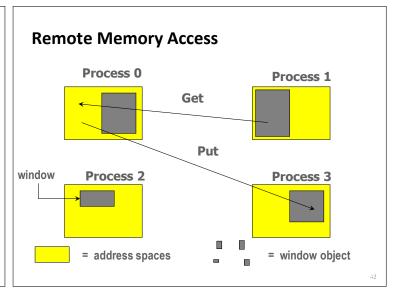
What we need to know in RMA

- How to create remote accessible memory?
- Reading, Writing and Updating remote memory
- Data Synchronization
- Memory Model

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Creating Public Memory

- Any memory used by a process is, by default, only locally accessible
 - X = malloc(100);
- Once the memory is allocated, the user has to make an explicit MPI call to declare a memory region as remotely accessible
 - MPI terminology for remotely accessible memory is a "window"
 - A group of processes collectively create a "window"
- Once a memory region is declared as remotely accessible, all processes in the window can read/write data to this memory without explicitly synchronizing with the target process



Basic RMA Functions

- MPI_Win_create exposes local memory to RMA operation by other processes in a communicator
 - Collective operation
 - Creates window object
- MPI Win free deallocates window object
- MPI_Put moves data from local memory to remote memory
- MPI Get retrieves data from remote memory into local memory
- MPI_Accumulate atomically updates remote memory using local values
 - Data movement operations are non-blocking
 - Data is located by a displacement relative to the start of the window
- Subsequent synchronization on window object needed to ensure operation is complete

Window creation models

- Four models exist
 - MPI_WIN_CREATE

You already have an allocated buffer that you would like to make remotely accessible

MPI WIN ALLOCATE

You want to create a buffer and directly make it remotely accessible

■ MPI_WIN_CREATE_DYNAMIC

You don't have a buffer yet, but will have one in the future
You may want to dynamically add/remove buffers to/from the window

■ MPI WIN ALLOCATE SHARED

You want multiple processes on the same node share a buffer

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Data movement: Get

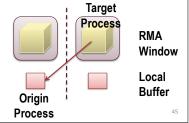
MPI_Get(void * origin_addr, int origin_count,

MPI_Datatype origin_datatype, int target_rank,

MPI_Aint target_disp, int target_count,

MPI_Datatype target_datatype, MPI_Win win)

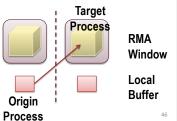
- Move data to origin, from target
- Separate data description triples for origin and target



Data movement: Put

MPI_Put(void * origin_addr, int origin_count,
MPI_Datatype origin_datatype, int target_rank,
MPI_Aint target_disp, int target_count,
MPI_Datatype target_datatype, MPI_Win win)

- Move data <u>from</u> origin, <u>to</u> target
- Same arguments as MPI_Get



Atomic Data Aggregation: Accumulate

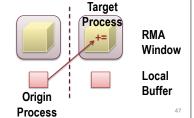
MPI_Accumulate(void * origin_addr, int origin_count,

MPI_Datatype origin_datatype, int target_rank,

MPI_Aint target_disp, int target_count,

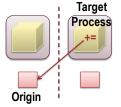
MPI_Datatype target_dtype, MPI_Op op, MPI_Win win)

- Atomic update operation, similar to a put
 - Reduces origin and target data into target buffer using op argument as combiner
 - Predefined ops only, no user-defined operations
- Different data layouts between target/origin OK
 - Basic type elements must match
- Op = MPI_REPLACE
 - Implements f(a,b)=b
 - Atomic PUT



Atomic Data Aggregation: Get Accumulate

- Atomic read-modify-write
 - Op = MPI_SUM, MPI_PROD, MPI_OR, MPI_REPLACE, MPI_NO_OP, ...
 - Predefined ops only
- Result stored in target buffer
- Original data stored in result buf
- Different data layouts between target/origin OK
 - Basic type elements must match
- Atomic get with MPI_NO_OP
- Atomic swap with MPI_REPLACE



RMA Window

Local Buffer

Process

Atomic Data Aggregation: CAS and FOP

MPI_Compare_and_swap(void *origin_addr, void *compare_addr, void *result_addr, MPI_Datatype datatype, int target_rank, MPI_Aint target_disp, MPI_Win win)

- CAS: Atomic swap if target value is equal to compare value
- FOP: Simpler version of MPI_Get_accumulate
 - All buffers share a single predefined datatype
 - No count argument (it's always 1)
 - Simpler interface allows hardware optimization

MPI_Fetch_and_op(void*origin_addr, void*result_addr, MPI_Datatype datatype, int target_rank, MPI_Aint target_disp, MPI_Op op, MPI_Win win)

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RMA Synchronization Models

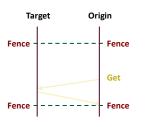
- RMA data access model
 - When is a process allowed to read/write remotely accessible memory?
 - When is data written by process X available for process Y to read?
 - RMA synchronization models define these semantics
- Three synchronization models provided by MPI:
 - Fence (active target)
 - Post-start-complete-wait (generalized active target)
 - Lock/Unlock (passive target)
- Data accesses occur within "epochs"
 - Access epochs: contain a set of operations issued by an origin process
 - Exposure epochs: enable remote processes to update a target's window
 - Epochs define ordering and completion semantics
 - Synchronization models provide mechanisms for establishing epochs
 E.g., starting, ending, and synchronizing epochs

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Fence: Active Target Synchronization

MPI_Win_fence(int assert, MPI_Win win)

- Collective synchronization model
- Starts and ends access and exposure epochs on all processes in the window
- All processes in group of "win" do an MPI WIN FENCE to open an epoch
- Everyone can issue PUT/GET operations to read/write data
- Everyone does an MPI_WIN_FENCE to close the epoch
- All operations complete at the second fence synchronization



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PSCW: Generalized Active Target

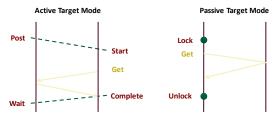
MPI_Win_post/start(MPI_Group, int assert, MPI_Win win)
MPI_Win_complete/wait(MPI_Win win)

- Like FENCE, but origin and target specify who they communicate with
- Target: Exposure epoch
 - Opened with MPI_Win_post
 - Closed by MPI_Win_wait
- Origin: Access epoch
 - Opened by MPI_Win_start
 - Closed by MPI_Win_compete
- All synchronization operations may block, to enforce P-S/C-W ordering
 - Processes can be both origins and targets



.

Lock/Unlock: Passive Target Synchronization



- Passive mode: One-sided, asynchronous communication
 - Target does **not** participate in communication operation
- Shared memory-like model

Passive Target Synchronization

MPI_Win_lock(int lock_type, int rank, int assert, MPI_Win win)
MPI_Win_unlock(int rank, MPI_Win win)

- Begin/end passive mode epoch
 - Target process does not make a corresponding MPI call
 - Can initiate multiple passive target epochs top different processes
 - Concurrent epochs to same process not allowed (affects threads)
- Lock type
 - SHARED: Other processes using shared can access concurrently
 - EXCLUSIVE: No other processes can access concurrently

Advanced Passive Target Synchronization

MPI_Win_lock_all(int assert, MPI_Win win)
MPI_Win_unlock_all(MPI_Win win)

MPI_Win_flush/flush_local(intrank, MPI_Win win)
MPI_Win_flush_all/flush_local_all(MPI_Win win)

- Lock_all: Shared lock, passive target epoch to all other processes
 - Expected usage is long-lived: lock_all, put/get, flush, ..., unlock_all
- Flush: Remotely complete RMA operations to the target process
 - Flush_all remotely complete RMA operations to all processes
 - After completion, data can be read by target process or a different process
- Flush_local: Locally complete RMA operations to the target process
 - Flush_local_all locally complete RMA operations to all processes

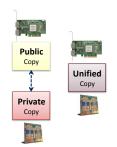
Which synchronization mode should I use, when?

- RMA communication has low overheads versus send/recv
 - Two-sided: Matching, queueing, buffering, unexpected receives, etc...
 - One-sided: No matching, no buffering, always ready to receive
 - Utilize RDMA provided by high-speed interconnects (e.g. InfiniBand)
- Active mode: bulk synchronization
 - E.g. ghost cell exchange
- Passive mode: asynchronous data movement
 - Useful when dataset is large, requiring memory of multiple nodes
 - Also, when data access and synchronization pattern is dynamic
 - Common use case: distributed, shared arrays
- Passive target locking mode
 - Lock/unlock Useful when exclusive epochs are needed
 - Lock_all/unlock_all Useful when only shared epochs are needed

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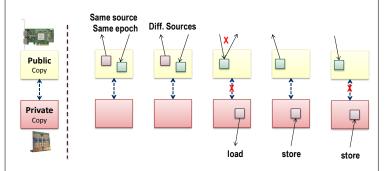
MPI RMA Memory Model

- MPI-3 provides two memory models: separate and unified
- MPI-2: Separate Model
 - Logical public and private copies
 - MPI provides software coherence between window copies
 - Extremely portable, to systems that don't provide hardware coherence
- MPI-3: New Unified Model
 - Single copy of the window
 - System must provide coherence
 - Superset of separate semantics
 - E.g. allows concurrent local/remote access
 - Provides access to full performance potential of hardware



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MPI RMA Memory Model (separate windows)



- Very portable, compatible with non-coherent memory systems
- Limits concurrent accesses to enable software coherence

MPI RMA Memory Model (unified windows)









load





- Allows concurrent local/remote accesses
- Concurrent, conflicting operations don't "corrupt" the window
 - Outcome is not defined by MPI (defined by the hardware)
- Can enable better performance by reducing synchronization

That's it folks

- Thanks for your attention and contributions to the class [©]
- Good luck (better: success!) with your project
 - Don't do it last minute!
- Same with the final exam!
 - Di 21.01., 09:00-11:00 (watch date and room in edoz)
- Do you have any generic questions?
 - Big picture?
 - Why did we learn certain concepts?
 - Why did we not learn certain concepts?
 - Anything else (comments are very welcome!)