

Performance-oriented programming on multicore-based systems, with a focus on the Cray XE6/XC30

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There is no alternative to knowing what is going on between your code and the hardware

Without performance modeling, optimizing code is like stumbling in the dark

Agenda



- Basics of multicore processor and node architecture
- Multicore performance and tools
 - Affinity enforcement
 - Performance counter measurements
 - Basics and best practice for performance counter profiling
- Microbenchmarking for architectural exploration
- Roadblocks for scalability on multicore chips
 - Scaling properties and typical OpenMP overhead
 - Bandwidth saturation in cache and main memory
- Simple Performance Modeling: The Roofline model
- Optimal utilization of parallel resources
 - Programming for SIMD parallelism
 - Programming in ccNUMA environments
- Case study: The roofline model for a 3D Jacobi solver
 - Understanding performance characteristics
 - Model-guided optimization



Multicore processor and system architecture – an overview

Performance composition Memory organization: UMA vs. ccNUMA Simultaneous Multi-Threading (SMT) Data paths in HPC systems Memory access Single Instruction Multiple Data (SIMD) Topology and programming models

There is no longer a single driving force for chip performance!





But: P=5 GF/s (dp) for serial, non-SIMD code



Yesterday (2006): Dual-socket Intel "Core2" node:



Uniform Memory Architecture (UMA)

Flat memory ; symmetric MPs

But: system "anisotropy"

Today: Dual-socket Intel (Westmere) node:



Cache-coherent Non-Uniform Memory Architecture (ccNUMA)

HT / QPI provide scalable bandwidth at the price of ccNUMA architectures: *Where does my data finally end up?*

On AMD it is even more complicated \rightarrow ccNUMA within a socket!



2 x 2 memory channels vs. 1 x 4 memory channels per socket

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- Two 8- (integer-) core chips per socket @ 2.3 GHz (3.3 @ turbo)
- Separate DDR3 memory interface per chip
 - ccNUMA on the socket!

 Shared FP unit per pair of integer cores ("module")

- 2 128bit FMA FP units
- SSE4.2, AVX, FMA4
- 16 kB L1 data cache per core
- 2 MB L2 cache per module
- 8 MB L3 cache per chip (6 MB usable)

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SMT Makes a single physical core appear as two or more "logical" cores → multiple threads/processes run concurrently



SMT principle (2-way example):



• Up to 16 cores (8 Bulldozer modules) in a single socket



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- 8 cores per socket 2.7 GHz (3.5 @ turbo)
- DDR3 memory interface with 4 channels per chip
- Two-way SMT
- Two 256-bit SIMD FP units

SSE4.2, AVX

- 32 kB L1 data cache per core
- 256 kB L2 cache per core
- 20 MB L3 cache per chip

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Latency and bandwidth in modern computer environments





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Interlude: Data transfers in a memory hierarchy



- How does data travel from memory to the CPU and back?
- Example: Array copy A(:)=C(:)





- Single Instruction Multiple Data (SIMD) operations allow the concurrent execution of the same operation on "wide" registers.
- x86 SIMD instruction sets:
 - SSE: register width = 128 Bit \rightarrow 2 double precision floating point operands
 - AVX: register width = 256 Bit \rightarrow 4 double precision floating point operands
- Adding two registers holding double precision floating point operands



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Challenges of modern compute nodes





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Parallel and shared resources within a shared-memory node



How does your application react to all of those details?

Parallel programming models

on multicore multisocket nodes

Shared-memory (intra-node)

- Good old MPI (current standard: 2.2)
- OpenMP (current standard: 3.0)
- POSIX threads
- Intel Threading Building Blocks
- Cilk++, OpenCL, StarSs,... you name it

Distributed-memory (inter-node)

- MPI (current standard: 2.2)
- PVM (gone)

Hybrid

- Pure MPI
- MPI+OpenMP
- MPI + any shared-memory model

All models require awareness of *topology* and *affinity* issues for getting best performance out of the machine!



Parallel programming models: *Pure MPI*







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Multicore Performance and Tools

Probing node topology

- Standard tools
- likwid-topology

How do we figure out the node topology?

Topology =

- Where in the machine does core #n reside? And do I have to remember this awkward numbering anyway?
- Which cores share which cache levels?
- Which hardware threads ("logical cores") share a physical core?
- Linux
 - cat /proc/cpuinfo is of limited use
 - Core numbers may change across kernels and BIOSes even on identical hardware
 - numactl --hardware prints ccNUMA node information
 - Information on caches is harder to obtain

\$ num	nac	ctlh	nardware
avail	.ał	ole: 4	nodes (0-3)
node	0	cpus:	0 1 2 3 4 5
node	0	size:	8189 MB
node	0	free:	3824 MB
node	1	cpus:	6 7 8 9 10 11
node	1	size:	8192 MB
node	1	free:	28 MB
node	2	cpus:	18 19 20 21 22 23
node	2	size:	8192 MB
node	2	free:	8036 MB
node	3	cpus:	12 13 14 15 16 17
node	3	size:	8192 MB
node	3	free:	7840 MB





LIKWID tool suite:

Like I Knew What I'm Doing

 Open source tool collection (developed at RRZE):

http://code.google.com/p/likwid



J. Treibig, G. Hager, G. Wellein: *LIKWID: A lightweight performance-oriented tool suite for x86 multicore environments.* Accepted for PSTI2010, Sep 13-16, 2010, San Diego, CA http://arxiv.org/abs/1004.4431

Likwid Tool Suite

FFBE

Command line tools for Linux:

- easy to install
- works with standard linux 2.6 kernel
- simple and clear to use
- supports Intel and AMD CPU

Current tools:

- Iikwid-topology: Print thread and cache topology
- Iikwid-pin: Pin threaded application without touching code
- Iikwid-perfctr: Measure performance counters
- Iikwid-mpirun: mpirun wrapper script for easy LIKWID integration
- Iikwid-bench: Low-level bandwidth benchmark generator tool
- ... some more



Output of likwid-topology -g

on one node of Cray XE6 "Hermit"

CPU type: **********	AMD Ir	nterlagos processor	****	**
Hardware Thr **********	ead Topolo		*****	**
Sockets:		2		
Cores per so	cket:	16		
Threads per	core:	1		
HWThread	Thread	d Core	Socket	
0	0	0	0	
1	0	1	0	
2	0	2	0	
3 []	0	3	0	
16	0	0	1	
17	0	1	1	
18	0	2	1	
19	0	3	1	
[]				
Socket 0: (0 1 2 3 4	5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12	13 14 15)	
Socket 1: (16 17 18 1	9 20 21 22 23 24 25	26 27 28 29 30 31)
****	********	****	****	**
Cache Topolo	ду			
*****	*****	*****	****	**
Level: 1				
Size: 16 k	В			
Cache groups	: (0)	(1)(2)(3)(4) (5) (6) (7) (8) (9) (10) (11) (12)
) (14) (1	5) (16)	(17)(18)(19) (20) (21) (22) (23) (24) (25) (26) (2
28) (29)	(30) (3	31)		



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Performance for Multicore

Output of likwid-topology continued



Level: 2 Size: 2 MB Cache groups: (01)(23)(45)(67)(89)(10 19)(2021)(2223)(2425)(2627)(2829)(303	11) 31)	(12	13)	(14	15) (16	17)) (18
Level: 3 Size: 6 MB Cache groups: (01234567)(89101112131415) 27 28 29 30 31)) (1	6 17	18 19	20 2	21 22	23) ((24	25 26
**************************************	*								
Domain 0: Processors: 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Memory: 7837.25 MB free of total 8191.62 MB	-								
Domain 1: Processors: 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 Memory: 7860.02 MB free of total 8192 MB	_								
Domain 2: Processors: 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 Memory: 7847.39 MB free of total 8192 MB	-								
Domain 3: Processors: 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 Memory: 7785.02 MB free of total 8192 MB	_								

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Output of likwid-topology continued

		-	
	12	_	

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16kB	16kB	16	kB	16kB	i.	16kB	Í.	16kB	Ì	16kB	l	16kB		16kB	Ť.	16kB		16kB	Ì	16kB	Ť.	16kB	Î I	16kB	i.	16kB	Î Î	16k	B
++	+	+ +	+ +		+-	+	+ +		+ +		+ -	++	-	++	+-	+	- +	++	+ +	+	+		+ +	+	+	+	+ +		+
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2	MB	1.1	2ME	3	1	2	2MB	1		2	2 M I	в І		2	MB	1		2	2MB	8	1		2 M E	3	I.	I	2ME	3	- I
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16	17	1	8	19		20		21		22		23		24		25		26		27		28		29	1	30		31	
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1 16HB 1	1 161-18	1 1 16		161-1		1628		1628		16 k B		1 16 2 8 1		161-1	1	1628		י ו 16% די		1628 1	1	16FB		16 b B	т : Т	1 161-12	т т 1 1	161	+
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+		+ +		4	+-			4	+ +			+	-	+		+	- +	+		+	+				+ -	+			+
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+												+	-	+															+



Enforcing thread/process-core affinity under the Linux OS

- Standard tools and OS affinity facilities under program control
- likwid-pin
- aprun (Cray)

Example: STREAM benchmark on 12-core Intel Westmere:

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Anarchy vs. thread pinning



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Generic thread/process-core affinity under Linux *Overview*



- taskset [OPTIONS] [MASK | -c LIST] \
 [PID | command [args]...]
- taskset binds processes/threads to a set of CPUs. Examples:

```
taskset 0x0006 ./a.out
taskset -c 4 33187
mpirun -np 2 taskset -c 0,2 ./a.out # doesn't always work
```

- Processes/threads can still move within the set!
- Alternative: let process/thread bind itself by executing syscall #include <sched.h> int sched_setaffinity(pid_t pid, unsigned int len, unsigned long *mask);
- Disadvantage: which CPUs should you bind to on a non-exclusive machine?
- Still of value on multicore/multisocket cluster nodes, UMA or ccNUMA



Complementary tool: numactl

Example: numactl --physcpubind=0,1,2,3 command [args] Bind process to specified physical core numbers

Example: numactl --cpunodebind=1 command [args] Bind process to specified ccNUMA node(s)

- Many more options (e.g., interleave memory across nodes)
 - See section on ccNUMA optimization
- Diagnostic command (see earlier): numactl --hardware
- Again, this is not suitable for a shared machine



Highly OS-dependent system calls

But available on all systems

```
Linux: sched_setaffinity(), PLPA (see below) → hwloc
Solaris: processor_bind()
Windows: SetThreadAffinityMask()
```

- Support for "semi-automatic" pinning in some compilers/environments
 - Intel compilers > V9.1 (KMP_AFFINITY environment variable)
 - PGI, Pathscale, GNU
 - SGI Altix dplace (works with logical CPU numbers!)
 - Generic Linux: taskset, numactl, likwid-pin (see below)

Affinity awareness in MPI libraries

- SGI MPT
- OpenMPI
- Intel MPI

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Example for program trolled affinity: Using PSKIPPEnder Linux!

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Likwid-pin Overview



- Pins processes and threads to specific cores without touching code
- Directly supports pthreads, gcc OpenMP, Intel OpenMP
- Based on combination of wrapper tool together with overloaded pthread library

 binary must be dynamically linked!
- Can also be used as a superior replacement for taskset
- Supports logical core numbering within a node and within an existing CPU set
 - Useful for running inside CPU sets defined by someone else, e.g., the MPI start mechanism or a batch system

Usage examples:

- likwid-pin -c 0,2,4-6 ./myApp parameters
- likwid-pin -c S0:0-3 ./myApp parameters



Running the STREAM benchmark with likwid-pin:





- Core numbering may vary from system to system even with identical hardware
 - Likwid-topology delivers this information, which can then be fed into likwidpin
- Alternatively, likwid-pin can abstract this variation and provide a purely logical numbering (physical cores first)



Across all cores in the node:

OMP_NUM_THREADS=8 likwid-pin -c N:0-7 ./a.out

Across the cores in each socket and across sockets in each node: OMP_NUM_THREADS=8 likwid-pin -c S0:0-3@S1:0-3 ./a.out

Likwid-pin Using logical core numbering







See Cray workshop slides

aprun supports only physical core numbering

- This is OK since the cores are always numbered consecutively on Crays
- Use -ss switch to restrict allocation to local NUMA domain (see later for more on ccNUMA)
- Use -d \$OMP_NUM_THREADS or similar for MPI+OMP hybrid code
- See later on how using multiple cores per module/chip/socket affects performance


Multicore performance tools: Probing performance behavior

likwid-perfctr



- 1. Runtime profile / Call graph (gprof)
- 2. Instrument those parts which consume a significant part of runtime
- 3. Find performance signatures

Possible signatures:

- Bandwidth saturation
- Instruction throughput limitation (real or language-induced)
- Latency impact (irregular data access, high branch ratio)
- Load imbalance
- ccNUMA issues (data access across ccNUMA domains)
- Pathologic cases (false cacheline sharing, expensive operations)

Probing performance behavior



How do we find out about the performance properties and requirements of a parallel code?

Profiling via advanced tools is often overkill

A coarse overview is often sufficient

- likwid-perfctr (similar to "perfex" on IRIX, "hpmcount" on AIX, "lipfpm" on Linux/Altix)
- Simple end-to-end measurement of hardware performance metrics
- "Marker" API for starting/stopping counters
- Multiple measurement region support
- Preconfigured and extensible metric groups, list with likwid-perfctr -a

```
BRANCH: Branch prediction miss rate/ratio
CACHE: Data cache miss rate/ratio
CLOCK: Clock of cores
DATA: Load to store ratio
FLOPS_DP: Double Precision MFlops/s
FLOPS_SP: Single Precision MFlops/s
FLOPS_X87: X87 MFlops/s
L2: L2 cache bandwidth in MBytes/s
L2CACHE: L2 cache miss rate/ratio
L3: L3 cache bandwidth in MBytes/s
L3CACHE: L3 cache miss rate/ratio
MEM: Main memory bandwidth in MBytes/s
TLB: TLB miss rate/ratio
```

likwid-perfctr *Example usage with preconfigured metric group*



<pre>\$ env OMP_NUM_THREADS=4 likv</pre>	vid-perfctr -C	N:0-3 -g	FLOPS_DP	./strea	am.exe		
CPU type: Intel Core I CPU clock: 2.93 GHz	Lynnfield proce	essor		-			
Measuring group FLOPS_DP 		Alv	vays sured		Configured m (this grou	etrics p)	
Event		core 0		e 1	core 2	 core	+ 3
INSTR_RETIRED_ANY CPU_CLK_UNHALTED_CO FP_COMP_OPS_EVE_SSE_FP FP_COMP_OPS_EXE_SSE_FP FP_COMP_OPS_EXE_SSE_SINGLE FP_COMP_OPS_EXE_SSE_DOUBLE	PACKED	1.97463e+(9.56999e+(4.00294e+(882 0 4.00303e+()8 2.310()8 9.584()7 3.0892 (()7 3.0892	01e+08 01e+08 27e+07)) 27e+07	2.30963e+08 9.58637e+08 3.08866e+07 0 3.08866e+07 3.08866e+07	2.3188 9.5733 3.0890 0 0 3.0890 +	5e+08 8e+08 4e+07 4e+07
+	core 0	core 1	core 2	-+ core	+ 3		
Runtime [s] CPI DP MFlops/s (DP assumed) Packed MUOPS/s Scalar MUOPS/s SP MUOPS/s DP MUOPS/s	0.326242 4.84647 245.399 122.698 0.00270351 0 122.701	0.32672 4.14891 189.108 94.554 0 0 94.554	0.326801 4.15061 189.024 94.5121 0 0 94.5121	0.326 4.128 189.3 94.65 0 0 94.65	5358 349 304 519 519 519	Deriv	/ed ics

likwid-perfctr

Best practices for runtime counter analysis



Things to look at (in roughly this order)

- Load balance (flops, instructions, BW)
- In-socket memory BW saturation
- Shared cache BW saturation
- Flop/s, loads and stores per flop metrics
- SIMD vectorization
- CPI metric
- # of instructions, branches, mispredicted branches

Caveats

- Load imbalance may not show in CPI or # of instructions
 - Spin loops in OpenMP barriers/MPI blocking calls
 - Looking at "top" or the Windows Task Manager does not tell you anything useful
- In-socket performance saturation may have various reasons
- Cache miss metrics are overrated
 - If I really know my code, I can often calculate the misses
 - Runtime and resource utilization is much more important

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likwid-perfctr Identify load imbalance...



- Instructions retired / CPI may not be a good indication of useful workload – at least for numerical / FP intensive codes....
- Floating Point Operations Executed is often a better indicator
- Waiting / "Spinning" in barrier generates a high instruction count





env OMP_NUM_THREADS=6 likwid-perfctr -C S0:0-5 -g FLOPS_DP ./a.out





Metric	Red-Black tree	Optimized data structure
Instructions retired	1.34268e+11	1.28581e+11
CPI	9.0176	0.71887
L3-MEM data volume [GB]	301	3.22
TLB misses	3.71447e+09	4077
Branch rate	36%	8.5%
Branch mispredicted ratio	7.8%	0.0000013%
Memory bandwidth [GB/s]	10.5	1.1

Useful likwid-perfctr groups: L3, L3CACHE, MEM, TLB, BRANCH

High CPI, near perfect scaling if using SMT threads (Intel). Note: Latency bound code can still produce significant aggregated bandwidth.



- The object-oriented programming paradigm implements functionality resulting in many calls to small functions
- The ability of the compiler to inline functions (and still generate the best possible machine code) is limited
- Frequent pattern with complex C++ codes

• Symptoms:

- Low ("good") CPI
- Low resource utilization (Flops/s, bandwidth)
- Orders of magnitude more general purpose than arithmetic floating point instructions
- High branch rate
- Solution:
 - Use basic data types and plain arrays in compute intensive loops
 - Use plain C-like code
 - Keep things simple do not obstruct the compiler's view on the code



Microbenchmarking for architectural exploration

The vector triad Serial, throughput, and parallel benchmarks



- Report performance for different N
- Choose NITER so that accurate time measurement is possible
- This kernel is limited by data transfer performance for all memory levels on all current architectures!

A(:)=B(:)+C(:)*D(:) on one Sandy Bridge core (3 GHz)











Every core runs its own, independent triad benchmark

```
double precision, dimension(:), allocatable :: A,B,C,D
```

```
!$OMP PARALLEL private(i,j,A,B,C,D)
allocate(A(1:N), B(1:N), C(1:N), D(1:N))
A=1.d0; B=A; C=A; D=A
do j=1,NITER
  do i=1,N
    A(i) = B(i) + C(i) * D(i)
  enddo
  if(.something.that.is.never.true.) then
    call dummy (A, B, C, D)
  endif
enddo
!$OMP END PARALLEL
```

■ → pure hardware probing, no impact from OpenMP overhead

Throughput vector triad on Sandy Bridge socket (3 GHz)





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OpenMP work sharing in the benchmark loop

```
double precision, dimension(:), allocatable :: A,B,C,D
```

```
allocate (A(1:N), B(1:N), C(1:N), D(1:N))
A=1.d0; B=A; C=A; D=A
!$OMP PARALLEL private(i,j)
do j=1,NITER
!$OMP DO
  do i=1,N
    A(i) = B(i) + C(i) * D(i)
  enddo
                           Implicit barrier
!SOMP END DO
  if(.something.that.is.never.true.) then
    call dummy (A, B, C, D)
  endif
enddo
!$OMP END PARALLEL
```







OpenMP performance issues on multicore

Synchronization (barrier) overhead



!\$OMP PARALLEL ...

\$0MP BARRIER

!\$OMP DO

...

!\$OMP ENDDO !\$OMP END PARALLEL Threads are synchronized at **explicit** AND **implicit** barriers. These are a main source of overhead in OpenMP progams.

Determine costs via modified OpenMP Microbenchmarks testcase (epcc)

On x86 systems there is no hardware support for synchronization!

- Next slide: Test **OpenMP** Barrier performance...
- for different compilers
- and different topologies:
 - shared cache
 - shared socket
 - between sockets
- and different thread counts
 - 2 threads
 - full domain (chip, socket, node)

Thread synchronization overhead on Interlagos

Barrier overhead in CPU cycles



2 Threads	Cray 8.03	GCC 4.6.2	PGI 11.8	Intel 12.1.3
Shared L2	258	3995	1503	128623
Shared L3	698	2853	1076	128611
Same socket	879	2785	1297	128695
Other socket	940	2740 / 4222	1284 / 1325	128718

•••

Intel compiler barrier very expensive on Interlagos

OpenMP & Cray compiler 🙂

Full domain	Cray 8.03	GCC 4.6.2	PGI 11.8	Intel 12.1.3
Shared L3	2272	27916	5981	151939
Socket	3783	49947	7479	163561
Node	7663	167646	9526	178892

Thread synchronization overhead on SandyBridge-EP

Barrier overhead in CPU cycles

-	_		_
		•	

2 Threads	Intel 13.1.0	GCC 4.7.0	GCC 4.6.1
Shared L3	384	5242	4616
SMT threads	2509	3726	3399
Other socket	1375	5959	4909



Gcc still not very competitive



Full domain	Intel 13.1.0	GCC 4.7.0	GCC 4.6.1
Socket	1497	14546	14418
Node	3401	34667	29788
Node SMT	6881	59038	58898



Simple performance modeling: The Roofline Model

The Roofline Model^{1,2}



- 1. *P*_{max} = Applicable peak performance of a loop, assuming that data comes from L1 cache
- 2. *I* = Computational intensity ("work" per byte transferred) over the slowest data path utilized ("the bottleneck")
 - Code balance $B_{\rm C} = I^{-1}$
- 3. $b_s =$ Applicable peak bandwidth of the slowest data path utilized

Expected performance:

$$P = \min(P_{\max}, I \cdot b_S)$$

¹W. Schönauer: <u>Scientific Supercomputing: Architecture and Use of Shared and Distributed Memory Parallel Computers</u>. (2000) ²S. Williams: <u>Auto-tuning Performance on Multicore Computers</u>. UCB Technical Report No. UCB/EECS-2008-164. PhD thesis (2008)

A simple Roofline example



Example: do i=1,N; s=s+a(i); enddo

in double precision on hypothetical 3 GHz CPU, 4-way SIMD, N large





Plain scalar code, no SIMD

```
LOAD r1.0 ← 0
i ← 1
loop:
   LOAD r2.0 ← a(i)
   ADD r1.0 ← r1.0+r2.0
   ++i →? loop
result ← r1.0
```

ADD pipes utilization:



 \rightarrow 1/16 of ADD peak



Scalar code, 4-way unrolling

```
LOAD r1.0 \leftarrow 0
LOAD r2.0 \leftarrow 0
LOAD r3.0 \leftarrow 0
LOAD r4.0 \leftarrow 0
i ← 1
loop:
   LOAD r5.0 \leftarrow a(i)
   LOAD r6.0 \leftarrow a(i+1)
   LOAD r7.0 \leftarrow a(i+2)
   LOAD r8.0 \leftarrow a(i+3)
   ADD r1.0 \leftarrow r1.0 + r5.0
   ADD r_{2.0} \leftarrow r_{2.0+r_{6.0}}
   ADD r3.0 \leftarrow r3.0 + r7.0
   ADD r4.0 \leftarrow r4.0 + r8.0
   i+=4 \rightarrow ? loop
result \leftarrow r1.0+r2.0+r3.0+r4.0
```

ADD pipes utilization:



 \rightarrow 1/4 of ADD peak







... on the example of do i=1,N; s=s+a(i); enddo





Example: Vector triad A(:)=B(:)+C(:)*D(:) on 2.3 GHz Interlagos

Lightspeed:

 $l \cdot b_{\rm S} = 1.7$ GF/s (1.2 % of peak performance)



- The balance metric formalism is based on some (crucial) assumptions:
 - There is a clear concept of "work" vs. "traffic"
 - "work" = flops, updates, iterations...
 - "traffic" = required data to do "work"
 - Attainable bandwidth of code = input parameter! Determine effective bandwidth via simple streaming benchmarks to model more complex kernels and applications
 - Data transfer and core execution overlap perfectly!
 - Slowest data path is modeled only; all others are assumed to be infinitely fast
 - If data transfer is the limiting factor, the bandwidth of the slowest data path can be utilized to 100% ("saturation")
 - Latency effects are ignored, i.e. perfect streaming mode



Bandwidth-bound (simple case)

- Accurate traffic calculation (writeallocate, strided access, ...)
- Practical ≠ theoretical BW limits
- Erratic access patterns

Core-bound (may be complex)

- Multiple bottlenecks: LD/ST, arithmetic, pipelines, SIMD, execution ports
- See next slide...



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Complexities of in-core execution



Multiple bottlenecks:

- L1 Icache bandwidth
- Decode/retirement throughput
- Port contention (direct or indirect)
- Arithmetic pipeline stalls (dependencies)
- Overall pipeline stalls (branching)
- L1 Dcache bandwidth (LD/ST throughput)
- Scalar vs. SIMD execution

Register pressure

. . .

Alignment issues



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Shortcomings of the roofline model

- Saturation effects in multicore chips are not explained
 - Reason: "saturation assumption"
 - Cache line transfers and core execution do sometimes not overlap perfectly
 - Only increased "pressure" on the memory interface can saturate the bus
 → need more cores!
- ECM model gives more insight (see later)







Optimal utilization of parallel resources

Hardware-software interaction SIMD parallelism

Computer Architecture

The evil of hardware optimizations



Provide improvements for relevant software What are the technical opportunities? Economical concerns Multi-way special purpose

What is your relevant aspect of the architecture?



EDSAC 1949



ENIAC 1948

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Hardware- Software Co-Design?

From algorithm to execution




Instruction throughput and data movement



1. Instruction execution

This is the primary resource of the processor. All efforts in hardware design are targeted towards increasing the instruction throughput.

2. Data transfer bandwidth

Data transfers are a consequence of instruction execution and therefore a secondary resource. Maximum bandwidth is determined by the request rate of executed instructions and technical limitations (bus width, speed).

Real machine: Processors are imperfect and have technical limitations. This results in hazards preventing to fully exploit the elementary resources.



Goals for optimization:

- 1. Map your work to an instruction mix with highest throughput using the most effective instructions.
- 2. Reduce data volume over slow data paths fully utilizing available bandwidth.
- 3. Avoid possible hazards/overhead which prevent reaching goals one and two.



Coding for SingleInstructionMultipleData-processing



- Single Instruction Multiple Data (SIMD) operations allow the concurrent execution of the same operation on "wide" registers.
- x86 SIMD instruction sets:
 - SSE: register width = 128 Bit \rightarrow 2 double precision floating point operands
 - AVX: register width = 256 Bit \rightarrow 4 double precision floating point operands
- Adding two registers holding double precision floating point operands



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SIMD processing – Basics

Steps (done by the compiler) for "SIMD processing"







No SIMD-processing for loops with data dependencies

for(int i=0; i<n; i++)
 A[i]=A[i-1]*s;</pre>

Pointer aliasing" may prevent compiler from SIMD-processing

```
void scale_shift(double *A, double *B, double *C, int n) {
    for(int i=0; i<n; ++i)
        C[i] = A[i] + B[i];
}</pre>
```

• C/C++ allows that $\mathbf{A} \rightarrow \&C[-1]$ and $\mathbf{B} \rightarrow \&C[-2]$ $\rightarrow C[i] = C[i-1] + C[i-2]$: dependency $\rightarrow No$ SIMD-processing

If no "Pointer aliasing" is used, tell it to the compiler, e.g. use -fno-alias switch for Intel compiler → SIMD-processing



SIMD processing of a vector norm





Reading x86 assembly code



- Get the assembler code (Intel compiler): icc -S -O3 -xHost triad.c -o triad.s
- Disassemble Executable: objdump -d ./cacheBench | less
- Things to check for:
 - Is the code vectorized? Search for pd/ps suffix. mulpd, addpd, vaddpd, vmulpd
 - Is the data loaded with 16 byte moves?
 movapd, movaps, vmovupd
 - For memory-bound code: Search for nontemporal stores: movntpd, movntps

The x86 ISA is documented in:

Intel Software Development Manual (SDM) 2A and 2B AMD64 Architecture Programmer's Manual Vol. 1-5

Basics of the x86-64 ISA



- Instructions have 0 to 2 operands
- Operands can be registers, memory references or immediates
- Opcodes (binary representation of instructions) vary from 1 to 17 bytes
- There are two syntax forms: Intel (left) and AT&T (right)
- Addressing Mode: BASE + INDEX * SCALE + DISPLACEMENT
- C: A[i] equivalent to * (A+i) (a pointer has a type: A+i*8)

<pre>movaps [rdi + rax*8+48], xmm3 add rax, 8 js 1b</pre>	movaps%xmm4, 48(%rdi,%rax,8)addq\$8, %raxjsB1.4
401b9f: 0f 29 5c c7 30 movaps 401ba4: 48 83 c0 08 add 401ba8: 78 a6 js	<pre>\$ %xmm3,0x30(%rdi,%rax,8) \$0x8,%rax 401b50 <triad_asm+0x4b></triad_asm+0x4b></pre>



```
16 general Purpose Registers (64bit):
rax, rbx, rcx, rdx, rsi, rdi, rsp, rbp, r8-r15
alias with eight 32 bit register set:
eax, ebx, ecx, edx, esi, edi, esp, ebp
```

Floating Point SIMD Registers:

xmm0-xmm15	SSE (128bit)	alias with 256bit registers
ymm0-ymm15	AVX (256bit)	

```
SIMD instructions are distinguished by:
AVX (VEX) prefix: v
Operation: mul, add, mov
Modifier: non temporal (nt), unaligned (u), aligned (a), high (h)
Data type: single (s), double (d)
```



- Regulations how functions are called on binary level
- Differs between 32 bit / 64 bit and Operating Systems

x86-64 on Linux:

- Integer or address parameters are passed in the order : rdi, rsi, rdx, rcx, r8, r9
- Floating Point parameters are passed in the order xmm0-xmm7
- Registers which must be preserved across function calls: rbx, rbp, r12-r15
- Return values are passed in rax/rdx and xmm0/xmm1



float sum = 0.0;

```
for (int j=0; j<size; j++) {
    sum += data[j];
}</pre>
```

To get object code use objdump -d on object file or executable or compile with -S



addss	(%rdx,%rax,4),%xmm0		
add	\$0x1,%rax		
cmp	<pre>%eax,%edi</pre>		
ja	401d08		
	Assembly code		

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Summation code variants





SIMD-processing – Sequential





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SIMD-processing – Full chip (all cores) Influence of SMT

Bandwidth saturation is the primary performance limitation on the chip level!



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- The compiler does it for you (aliasing, alignment, language)
- Compiler directives (pragmas)
- Alternative programming models for compute kernels (OpenCL, ispc)
- Intrinsics (restricted to C/C++)
- Implement directly in assembler

To use **intrinsics** the following headers are available. To enable instruction sets often additional flags are necessary:

- xmmintrin.h (SSE)
- pmmintrin.h (SSE2)
- immintrin.h (AVX)
- x86intrin.h (all instruction set extensions)
- See next slide for an example

Example: array summation using C intrinsics



- _m128 sum0, sum1, sum2, sum3;
- __m128 t0, t1, t2, t3;

float scalar_sum;

- sum0 = _mm_setzero_ps();
- sum1 = _mm_setzero_ps();
- sum2 = _mm_setzero_ps();
- sum3 = _mm_setzero_ps();

```
for (int j=0; j<size; j+=16) {
    t0 = _mm_loadu_ps(data+j);
    t1 = _mm_loadu_ps(data+j+4);
    t2 = _mm_loadu_ps(data+j+8);
    t3 = _mm_loadu_ps(data+j+12);
    sum0 = _mm_add_ps(sum0, t0);
    sum1 = _mm_add_ps(sum1, t1);
    sum2 = _mm_add_ps(sum2, t2);
    sum3 = _mm_add_ps(sum3, t3);
}</pre>
```

- sum0 = _mm_add_ps(sum0, sum1); sum0 = _mm_add_ps(sum0, sum2); sum0 = _mm_add_ps(sum0, sum3); sum0 = _mm_hadd_ps(sum0, sum0);
- sum0 = mm hadd ps(sum0, sum0);
- _mm_store_ss(&scalar_sum, sum0);

Example: array summation from intrinsics, instruction code



14:	0f 57 c9	xorps	%xmm1,%xmm1	
17:	31 c0	xor	%eax,%eax	
19:	0f 28 d1	movaps	%xmm1,%xmm2	
1c:	0f 28 c1	movaps	%xmm1,%xmm0	
1f:	0f 28 d9	movaps	%xmm1,%xmm3	
22:	66 Of 1f 44 00 00	nopw	0x0(%rax,%rax,1)	
28:	0f 10 3e	movups	(%rsi),%xmm7	
2b:	0f 10 76 10	movups	0x10(%rsi),%xmm6	
2f:	0f 10 6e 20	movups	0x20(%rsi),%xmm5	
33:	0f 10 66 30	movups	0x30(%rsi),%xmm4	
37:	83 c0 10	add	\$0x10,%eax	
3a:	48 83 c6 40	add	\$0x40,%rsi	
3e:	0f 58 df	addps	%xmm7,%xmm3	
41:	0f 58 c6	addps	%xmm6,%xmm0	
44:	0f 58 d5	addps	%xmm5,%xmm2	
47:	0f 58 cc	addps	%xmm4,%xmm1	
4a:	39 c7	cmp	%eax,%edi	
4c:	77 da	ja	<pre>28 <compute_sum_sse+0x18></compute_sum_sse+0x18></pre>	Loop body
4e:	0f 58 c3	addps	%xmm3,%xmm0	
51:	0f 58 c2	addps	%xmm2,%xmm0	
54:	0f 58 c1	addps	<pre>%xmm1,%xmm0</pre>	
57:	f2 0f 7c c0	haddps	%xmm0,%xmm0	
5b:	f2 0f 7c c0	haddps	%xmm0,%xmm0	
5f:	c3	retq		



- Intel compiler will try to use SIMD instructions when enabled to do so
 - "Poor man's vector computing"
 - Compiler will emit messages about vectorized loops:

```
plain.c(11): (col. 9) remark: LOOP WAS VECTORIZED.
```

- Use option -vec_report3 to get full compiler output about which loops were vectorized and which were not and why (data dependencies!)
- Some obstructions will prevent the compiler from applying vectorization even if it is possible
- You can use source code directives to provide more information to the compiler



To enable specific SIMD extensions use the –x option:

```
    -xSSE2 vectorize for SSE2 capable machines
    Available SIMD extensions:
    SSE2, SSE3, SSE3, SSE4.1, SSE4.2, AVX
```

-xAVX on Sandy Bridge processors

Recommend option:

-xHost will optimize for the architecture you compile on

On AMD Opteron: use plain –o3 as the –x options may involve CPU type checks.



- Controlling non-temporal stores
 - -opt-streaming-stores always|auto|never
 - **always** use NT stores, assume application is memory bound (use with caution!)
 - **auto** compiler decides when to use NT stores
 - **never** do not use NT stores unless activated by source code directive



- 1. Countable
- 2. Single entry and single exit
- 3. Straight line code
- 4. No function calls (exception intrinsic math functions)

Better performance with:

- 1. Simple inner loops with unit stride
- 2. Minimize indirect addressing
- 3. Align data structures (SSE 16 bytes, AVX 32 bytes)
- 4. In C use the restrict keyword for pointers to rule out aliasing

Obstacles for vectorization:

- Non-contiguous memory access
- Data dependencies



- Fine-grained control of loop vectorization
- Use !DEC\$ (Fortran) or #pragma (C/C++) sentinel to start a compiler directive
- #pragma vector always vectorize even if it seems inefficient (hint!)
- #pragma novector
 do not vectorize even if possible
- #pragma vector nontemporal use NT stores when allowed (i.e. alignment conditions are met)
- #pragma vector aligned specifies that all array accesses are aligned to 16-byte boundaries (DANGEROUS! You must not lie about this!)

- Starting with Intel Compiler 12.0 the simd pragma is available
- #pragma simd enforces vectorization where the other pragmas fail
- Prerequesites:
 - Countable loop
 - Innermost loop
 - Must conform to for-loop style of OpenMP worksharing constructs
- There are additional clauses: reduction, vectorlength, private
- Refer to the compiler manual for further details
- NOTE: Using the #pragma simd the compiler may generate incorrect code if the loop violates the vectorization rules!

```
#pragma simd reduction(+:x)
for (int i=0; i<n; i++) {
    x = x + A[i];
}</pre>
```





Alignment issues

- Alignment of arrays in SSE calculations should be on 16-byte boundaries to allow packed loads and NT stores (for Intel processors)
 - AMD has a scalar nontemporal store instruction
- Otherwise the compiler will revert to unaligned loads and not use NT stores – even if you say vector nontemporal
- How is manual alignment accomplished?
- Dynamic allocation of aligned memory (align = alignment boundary):

```
#define _XOPEN_SOURCE 600
#include <stdlib.h>
```



Efficient parallel programming on ccNUMA nodes

Performance characteristics of ccNUMA nodes First touch placement policy C++ issues ccNUMA locality and dynamic scheduling ccNUMA locality beyond first touch

ccNUMA:

- Whole memory is transparently accessible by all processors
- but physically distributed
- with varying bandwidth and latency
- and potential contention (shared memory paths)
- How do we make sure that memory access is always as "local" and "distributed" as possible?



 Page placement is implemented in units of OS pages (often 4kB, possibly more)

Cray XE6 Interlagos node 4 chips, two sockets, 8 threads per ccNUMA domain

ccNUMA map: Bandwidth penalties for remote access

- Run 8 threads per ccNUMA domain (1 chip)
- Place memory in different domain \rightarrow 4x4 combinations
- STREAM triad benchmark using nontemporal stores







numactl can influence the way a binary maps its memory pages:

```
numactl --membind=<nodes> a.out  # map pages only on <nodes>
    --preferred=<node> a.out  # map pages on <node>
    # and others if <node> is full
    --interleave=<nodes> a.out  # map pages round robin across
    # all <nodes>
```

Examples:

```
env OMP_NUM_THREADS=2 numactl --membind=0 --cpunodebind=1 ./stream
env OMP_NUM_THREADS=4 numactl --interleave=0-3 \
likwid-pin -c N:0,4,8,12 ./stream
```

But what is the default without numactl?



Golden Rule" of ccNUMA:

A memory page gets mapped into the local memory of the processor that first touches it!

- Except if there is not enough local memory available
- This might be a problem, see later
- Caveat: "touch" means "write", not "allocate"
- Example:

Memory not mapped here yet

double *huge = (double*)malloc(N*sizeof(double));



It is sufficient to touch a single item to map the entire page

Coding for ccNUMA data locality



Most simple case: explicit initialization



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Coding for ccNUMA data locality



 Sometimes initialization is not so obvious: I/O cannot be easily parallelized, so "localize" arrays before I/O



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- Required condition: OpenMP loop schedule of initialization must be the same as in all computational loops
 - Only choice: static! Specify explicitly on all NUMA-sensitive loops, just to be sure...
 - Imposes some constraints on possible optimizations (e.g. load balancing)
 - Presupposes that all worksharing loops with the same loop length have the same thread-chunk mapping
 - Guaranteed by OpenMP 3.0 only for loops in the same enclosing parallel region and static schedule
 - In practice, it works with any compiler even across regions
 - If dynamic scheduling/tasking is unavoidable, more advanced methods may be in order

How about global objects?

- Better not use them
- If communication vs. computation is favorable, might consider properly placed copies of global data
- In C++, STL allocators provide an elegant solution (see hidden slides)



- If your code is cache-bound, you might not notice any locality problems
- Otherwise, bad locality limits scalability at very low CPU numbers (whenever a node boundary is crossed)
 - If the code makes good use of the memory interface
 - But there may also be a general problem in your code...
- Consider using performance counters
 - LIKWID-perfctr can be used to measure nonlocal memory accesses
 - Example for Intel Nehalem (Core i7):

env OMP_NUM_THREADS=8 likwid-perfctr -g MEM -C N:0-7 ./a.out

Using performance counters for diagnosing bad ccNUMA access locality




If all fails...



- Even if all placement rules have been carefully observed, you may still see nonlocal memory traffic. Reasons?
 - Program has erratic access patters → may still achieve some access parallelism (see later)
 - OS has filled memory with buffer cache data:

<pre># numact1h</pre>	hardware # idle node!	
available: 2	nodes (0-1)	
node 0 size:	2047 MB	
node 0 free:	906 MB	
node 1 size:	1935 MB	
node 1 free:	1798 MB	

top - 14:18:25 up 92 days, 6:07, 2 users, load average: 0.00, 0.02, 0.00 Mem: 4065564k total, 1149400k used, 2716164k free, 43388k buffers Swap: 2104504k total, 2656k used, 2101848k free, 1038412k cached

ccNUMA problems beyond first touch: Buffer cache

OS uses part of main memory for disk buffer (FS) cache

- If FS cache fills part of memory, apps will probably allocate from foreign domains
- non-local access!
- "sync" is not sufficient to drop buffer cache blocks



Remedies

- Drop FS cache pages after user job has run (admin's job)
 - seems to be automatic after aprun has finished on Crays
- User can run "sweeper" code that allocates and touches all physical memory before starting the real application
- numactl tool or aprun can force local allocation (where applicable)
- Linux: There is no way to limit the buffer cache size in standard kernels



ccNUMA problems beyond first touch: Buffer cache



Real-world example: ccNUMA and the Linux buffer cache Benchmark:

- 1. Write a file of some size from LD0 to disk
- 2. Perform bandwidth benchmark using all cores in LD0 and maximum memory available in LD0

Result: By default, Buffer cache is given priority over local page placement → restrict to local

domain if possible!



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ccNUMA placement and erratic access patterns



 Sometimes access patterns are just not nicely grouped into contiguous chunks:

```
double precision :: r, a(M)
!$OMP parallel do private(r)
do i=1,N
    call RANDOM_NUMBER(r)
    ind = int(r * M) + 1
    res(i) = res(i) + a(ind)
enddo
!OMP end parallel do
```

 Or you have to use tasking/dynamic scheduling:

```
!$OMP parallel
!$OMP single
do i=1,N
    call RANDOM_NUMBER(r)
    if(r.le.0.5d0) then
!$OMP task
      call do_work_with(p(i))
!$OMP end task
    endif
enddo
!$OMP end single
!$OMP end parallel
```

In both cases page placement cannot easily be fixed for perfect parallel access



- Worth a try: Interleave memory across ccNUMA domains to get at least some parallel access
 - 1. Explicit placement:



- numacti --interieave=0-3 ./a.out
- Fine-grained program-controlled placement via libnuma (Linux) using, e.g., numa_alloc_interleaved_subset(), numa alloc interleaved() and others



- Parallel init: Correct parallel initialization
- LD0: Force data into LD0 via numact1 -m 0
- Interleaved: numactl --interleave <LD range>





Case study: A 3D Jacobi smoother

The basics in two dimensions Roofline performance analysis and modeling



- Laplace equation in 2D: $\Delta \Phi = 0$

Solve with Dirichlet boundary conditions using Jacobi iteration scheme:

```
double precision, dimension(0:imax+1,0:kmax+1,0:1) :: phi
   integer :: t0,t1
   t0 = 0; t1 = 1
   do it = 1, itmax ! choose suitable number of sweeps
     do k = 1, kmax
                                                            Reuse when computing
       do i = 1, imax
                                                            phi(i+2,k,t1)
          ! four flops, one store, four loads
          phi(i,k,t1) = (phi(i+1,k,t0) + phi(i-1,k,t0))
                          + phi(i, k+1, t0) + phi(i, k-1, t0) ) * 0.25
       enddo
     enddo
                               Naive balance (incl. write allocate):
     ! swap arrays
          0 ; t0=t1 ; t1=i
                            phi(:,:,t0):3 LD +
   enddø
                               phi(:,:,t1):1 ST+1LD
                               \rightarrow B<sub>c</sub> = 5 W / 4 FLOPs = 1.25 W / F
WRITE ALLOCATE:
LD + ST phi(i,k,t1)
```



Modern cache subsystems may further reduce memory traffic

■ → "layer conditions"



If cache is large enough to hold at least 2 rows (shaded region): Each phi(:,:,t0) is loaded once from main memory and re-used 3 times from cache:

phi(:,:,t0): 1 LD + phi(:,:,t1): 1 ST+ 1LD $\rightarrow B_c = 3 W / 4 F = 0.75 W / F$

If cache is too small to hold one row: phi(:,:,t0): 2 LD + phi(:,:,t1): 1 ST + 1LD $\rightarrow B_c = 5 W / 4 F = 1.25 W / F$



Alternative implementation ("Macho FLOP version")

- MFlops/sec increases by 7/4 but time to solution remains the same
- Better metric (for many iterative stencil schemes): Lattice Site Updates per Second (LUPs/sec)

2D Jacobi example: Compute LUPs/sec metric via

$$P[LUPs/s] = \frac{it_{\max} \cdot i_{\max} \cdot k_{\max}}{T_{\text{wall}}}$$

$2D \rightarrow 3D$



3D sweep:

- Best case balance: 1 LD phi(i,j,k+1,t0) 1 ST + 1 write allocate phi(i,j,k,t1) 6 flops \rightarrow B_c = 0.5 W/F (24 bytes/LUP)
- No 2-layer condition but 2 rows fit: B_c = 5/6 W/F (40 bytes/LUP)
- Worst case (2 rows do not fit): B_c = 7/6 W/F (56 bytes/LUP)

3D Jacobi solver

Performance of vanilla code on one Interlagos chip (8 cores)





- We have made sense of the memory-bound performance vs. problem size
 - "Layer conditions" lead to predictions of code balance
 - Achievable memory bandwidth is input parameter

- The model works only if the bandwidth is "saturated"
 - In-cache modeling is more involved

 Optimization == reducing the code balance by code transformations

See below





Data access optimizations

Case study: Optimizing the 3D Jacobi solver

Remember the 3D Jacobi solver on Interlagos?





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Assumptions:

- cache can hold 32 elements (16 for each array)
- Cache line size is 4 elements
- Perfect eviction strategy for source array



This element is needed for three more updates; but 29 updates happen before this element is used for the last time

FFEE

Assumptions:

- cache can hold 32 elements (16 for each array)
- Cache line size is 4 elements
- Perfect eviction strategy for source array



This element is needed for three more updates but has been evicted



- divide system into blocks
- update block after block
- same performance as if three complete rows of the systems fit into cache



- Spatial blocking reorders traversal of data to account for the data update rule of the code
- →Elements stay sufficiently long in cache to be fully reused
- → Spatial blocking improves temporal locality!

(Continuous access in inner loop ensures spatial locality)



This element remains in cache until it is fully used (only 6 updates happen before last use of this element)

Jacobi iteration (3D): Spatial blocking





Guidelines:

- Blocking of inner loop levels (traversing continuously through main memory)
- Blocking sizes large enough to fulfill "layer condition"
- Cache size is a hard limit!
- Blocking loops may have some impact on ccNUMA page placement

3D Jacobi solver (problem size 400³)

Blocking different loop levels (8 cores Interlagos)





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- Static OpenMP scheduling → 0.5 MB cache per core
- Layer condition with j-loop blocking:
 - 2 layers of size N x b_i must fit into the cache



Intel x86: NT stores are packed SIMD stores with 16-byte aligned address

- Sometimes hard to apply
- AMD x86: Scalar NT stores without alignment restrictions available

Options for using NT stores

- Let the compiler decide \rightarrow unreliable
- Use compiler options
 - Intel: -opt-streaming-stores never|always|auto
- Use compiler directives
 - Intel: !DIR\$ vector [non]temporal
 - Cray: !DIR\$ LOOP_INFO cache[_nt](...)
- Compiler must be able to "prove" that the use of SIMD and NT stores is "safe"!
 - "line update kernel" concept: Make critical loop its own subroutine





Line update kernel (separate compilation unit or -fno-inline):

```
subroutine jacobi_line(d,s,top,bottom,front,back,n)
integer :: n,i,start
double precision, dimension(*) :: d,s,top,bottom,front,back
double precision, parameter :: oos=1.d0/6.d0
!DIR$ LOOP_INFO cache_nt(d)
    do i=2,n-1
        d(i) = oos*(s(i-1)+s(i+1)+top(i)+bottom(i)+front(i)+back(i))
        enddo
end subroutine
```

Main loop:

enddo enddo enddo

3D Jacobi solver

Spatial blocking + nontemporal stores







- "What part of the data comes from where" is a crucial question
- Avoiding slow data paths == re-establishing the layer condition
- Improved code showed the speedup predicted by the model
- Optimal blocking factor can be predicted
 - Be guided by the cache size the layer condition
 - No need for exhaustive scan of "optimization space"



Case study: OpenMP-parallel sparse matrix-vector multiplication

A simple (but sometimes not-so-simple) example for bandwidth-bound code and saturation effects in memory

Sparse matrix-vector multiply (spMVM)



- Key ingredient in some matrix diagonalization algorithms
 - Lanczos, Davidson, Jacobi-Davidson
- Important for sparse solvers (CG,...)
- Store only N_{nz} nonzero elements of matrix and RHS, LHS vectors with N_r (number of matrix rows) entries









- val[] stores all the nonzeros (length N_{nz})
- col_idx[] stores the column
 index of each nonzero (length N_{nz})
- row_ptr[] stores the starting
 index of each new row in val[]
 (length: N_r)



Case study: Sparse matrix-vector multiply



- Important kernel in many applications (matrix diagonalization, solving linear systems)
- Strongly memory-bound for large data sets
 - Streaming + partially indirect access:

```
!$OMP parallel do
do i = 1,N<sub>r</sub>
  do j = row_ptr(i), row_ptr(i+1) - 1
    c(i) = c(i) + val(j) * b(col_idx(j))
  enddo
enddo
!$OMP end parallel do
```

- Usually many spMVMs required to solve a problem
- Following slides: Performance data on one 24-core AMD Magny Cours node

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Bandwidth-bound parallel algorithms: Sparse MVM



- Data storage format is crucial for performance properties
 - Most useful general format: Compressed Row Storage (CRS)
 - SpMVM is easily parallelizable in shared and distributed memory
- For large problems, spMVM is inevitably memory-bound
 - Intra-LD saturation effect on modern multicores
- Problem for Roofline
 - Possibly erratic (non-streaming) access
 - Memory BW saturates @ lower value than with simple benchmarks

 MPI-parallel spMVM is often communication-bound





Sparse MVM in double precision w/ CRS data storage:

do i = 1,
$$N_r$$

do j = row_ptr(i), row_ptr(i+1) - 1
 $C(i) = C(i) + val(j) * B(col_idx(j))$
enddo
enddo

- **DP CRS comp. intensity**
 - κ quantifies extra traffic for loading RHS more than once

$$= \frac{2}{12 + 24/N_{\text{nzr}} + \kappa} \frac{\text{Flops}}{\text{Byte}}$$
$$= \left(6 + \frac{12}{N_{\text{nzr}}} + \frac{\kappa}{2}\right)^{-1} \frac{\text{Flops}}{\text{Byte}}$$

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- Predicted Performance = $b_{\rm S} \cdot I_{\rm CRS}$
- Determine κ by measuring performance and actual memory bandwidth

 $I_{\rm CRS}$

"If the model does not work we can still learn something from deviations"

G. Schubert, H. Fehske, G. Hager, and G. Wellein: Hybrid-parallel sparse matrix-vector multiplication with explicit communication overlap on current multicore-based systems. Parallel Processing Letters 21(3), 339-358 (2011). DOI: 10.1142/S0129626411000254, Preprint: arXiv:1106.5908

Flops

Application: Sparse matrix-vector multiply

Strong scaling on one XE6 Magny-Cours node



Case 1: Large matrix



Application: Sparse matrix-vector multiply

Strong scaling on one XE6 Magny-Cours node



Case 2: Medium size



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Application: Sparse matrix-vector multiply

Strong scaling on one Magny-Cours node



Case 3: Small size



Conclusions from the spMVM example

- spMVM shows "typical" bandwidth-bound scaling behavior
- Roofline is good for a first shot at modeling
- Deviations are to be expected
 - Erratic RHS access
 - Saturation bandwidth is lower than the maximum
- Deviations can be used to learn more about the code execution
 - How much excess memory traffic is generated from the indirect access?


There is no alternative to knowing what is going on between your code and the hardware

Without performance modeling, optimizing code is like stumbling in the dark