

Node-Level Architecture and Performance Engineering

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Prelude: Scalability 4 the win!





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Basic Performance Modeling

Scalability Myth: Code scalability is the key issue







- Do I understand the performance behavior of my code?
 - Does the performance match a model I have made?
- What is the optimal performance for my code on a given machine?
 - High Performance Computing == Computing at the bottleneck
- Can I change my code so that the "optimal performance" gets higher?
 - Circumventing/ameliorating the impact of the bottleneck
- My model does not work what's wrong?
 - This is the good case, because you learn something
 - Performance monitoring / microbenchmarking may help clear up the situation



A little information on modern computer architecture

Core architecture SIMD Data transfers and caches Memory organization Performance composition Topology



• (Almost) the same basic design in all modern systems



Not shown: most of the control unit, e.g. instruction fetch/decode, branch prediction,...



- 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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Intel Xeon "Sandy Bridge EP" socket 4,6,8 core variants available Floating Point (FP) Performance: $P = n_{core} * F * S * v$ 8 number of cores: n_{core} FP instructions per cycle: 2 (1 MULT and 1 ADD) **FP ops / instruction:** 4 (dp) / 8 (sp) (256 Bit SIMD registers – "AVX")

Clock speed : ∽2.7 GHz

TOP500 rank 1 (mid-90s)

But: P=5.4 GF/s for serial, non-SIMD code



- How does data travel from memory to the CPU and back?
- Remember: Caches are organized in cache lines (e.g., 64 bytes)
- Only complete cache lines are transferred between memory hierarchy levels (except registers)
- MISS: Load or store instruction does not find the data in a cache level
 → CL transfer required

Example: Array copy A(:)=C(:)



Latency and bandwidth in modern computer environments





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



Uniform Memory Architecture (UMA)

Flat memory ; symmetric MPs

But: system "anisotropy"

Today: Dual-socket Intel node: (Nehalem and later)



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!



Parallel and shared resources within a shared-memory node



Multiple accelerators 5

Other I/O resources 10

How does your application react to all of those details?



Case study: OpenMP-parallel sparse matrix-vector multiplication (part 1)

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



- Key ingredient in some matrix diagonalization algorithms
 - Lanczos, Davidson, Jacobi-Davidson
- Store only N_{nz} nonzero elements of matrix and RHS, LHS vectors with N_r (number of matrix rows) entries
- "Sparse": N_{nz} ~ N_r







- **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)





Strongly memory-bound for large data sets

Streaming, with 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

Strong scaling on one XE6 Magny-Cours node



Case 1: Large matrix



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



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- If the problem is "large", bandwidth saturation on the socket is a reality
 - → There are "spare cores"
 - Very common performance pattern
- What to do with spare cores?
 - Let them idle → saves energy with minor loss in time to solution
 - Use them for other tasks, such as MPI communication

Can we predict the saturated performance?

- Bandwidth-based performance modeling!
- What is the significance of the indirect access? Can it be modeled?

Can we predict the saturation point?

• ... and why is this important?





"Simple" performance modeling: The Roofline Model

Loop-based performance modeling: Execution vs. data transfer Example: array summation



- 1. P_{max} = Applicable peak performance of a loop, assuming that data comes from L1 cache (this is not necessarily P_{peak})
- 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



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)



Example: Vector triad A(:)=B(:)+C(:)*D(:) on a 2.7 GHz 8-core Sandy Bridge chip (AVX vectorized)

- *b*_S = **40 GB/s**
- $B_c = (4+1)$ Words / 2 Flops = 2.5 W/F (including write allocate) $\rightarrow I = 0.4$ F/W = 0.05 F/B

 \rightarrow / \cdot b_S = 2.0 GF/s (1.2 % of peak performance)

- P_{peak} = 173 Gflop/s (8 FP units x (4+4) Flops/cy x 2.7 GHz)
- P_{max} ? → Observe LD/ST throughput maximum of 1 AVX Load and ¹/₂ AVX store per cycle → 3 cy / 8 Flops → P_{max} = **57.6 Gflop/s** (33% peak)

$P = \min(P_{\max}, I \cdot b_S) = \min(57.6, 2.0) \text{ GFlop/s}$ = 2.0 GFlop/s



Example: Vector triad A(:)=B(:)+C(:)*D(:) on a 1.05 GHz 60-core Intel Xeon Phi chip (vectorized)

- b_S = 160 GB/s
- $B_c = (4+1)$ Words / 2 Flops = 2.5 W/F (including write allocate) $\rightarrow I = 0.4$ F/W = 0.05 F/B

 \rightarrow / \cdot b_S = 8.0 GF/s (0.8 % of peak performance)

- P_{peak} = 1008 Gflop/s (60 FP units x (8+8) Flops/cy x 1.05 GHz)
- P_{max}? → Observe LD/ST throughput maximum of 1 Load or 1 Store per cycle → 4 cy / 16 Flops → P_{max} = 252 Gflop/s (25% of peak)

$P = \min(P_{\max}, I \cdot b_S) = \min(252, 8.0) \text{ GFlop/s}$ = 8.0 GFlop/s



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

in double precision on a 2.7 GHz Sandy Bridge socket @ "large" N





Plain scalar code, no SIMD

```
LOAD r1.0 \leftarrow 0

i \leftarrow 1

loop:

LOAD r2.0 \leftarrow a(i)

ADD r1.0 \leftarrow r1.0+r2.0

++i \rightarrow? loop

result \leftarrow r1.0
```



 \rightarrow 1/12 of ADD peak



Scalar code, 3-way unrolling LOAD $r1.0 \leftarrow 0$ LOAD $r2.0 \leftarrow 0$ LOAD $r3.0 \leftarrow 0$ $i \leftarrow 1$

loop:

LOAD r4.0 \leftarrow a(i) LOAD r5.0 \leftarrow a(i+1) LOAD r6.0 \leftarrow a(i+2)

ADD r1.0 \leftarrow r1.0+r4.0 ADD r2.0 \leftarrow r2.0+r5.0 ADD r3.0 \leftarrow r3.0+r6.0

```
i+=3 \rightarrow? loop
result \leftarrow r1.0+r2.0+r3.0
```

ADD pipes utilization:



→ 1/4 of ADD peak

Applicable peak for the summation loop



 \rightarrow ADD peak

ADD pipes utilization: SIMD-vectorized, 3-way unrolled LOAD $[r1.0,...,r1.3] \leftarrow [0,0]$ LOAD $[r2.0, ..., r2.3] \leftarrow [0,0]$ LOAD $[r3.0, ..., r3.3] \leftarrow [0,0]$ i ← 1 loop: LOAD $[r4.0,...,r4.3] \leftarrow [a(i),...,a(i+3)]$ LOAD $[r5.0,...,r5.3] \leftarrow [a(i+4),...,a(i+7)]$ LOAD $[r6.0,...,r6.3] \leftarrow [a(i+8),...,a(i+11)]$ ADD r1 \leftarrow r1+r4 ADD r2 \leftarrow r2+r5 ADD r3 \leftarrow r3+r6 $i+=12 \rightarrow ?$ loop

result \leftarrow r1.0+r1.1+...+r3.2+r3.3

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The roofline 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
- Limit is linear in # of cores



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Complexities of in-core execution



Multiple bottlenecks:

- L1 Icache (LD/ST) 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



Basic Performance Modeling

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Typical code optimizations in the Roofline Model



- 1. Hit the BW bottleneck by good serial code
- 2. Increase intensity to make better use of BW bottleneck
- 3. Increase intensity and go from memory-bound to core-bound
- 4. Hit the core bottleneck by good serial code
- 5. Shift P_{max} by accessing additional hardware features or using a different algorithm/implementation





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

G. Hager, J. Treibig, J. Habich, and G. Wellein: Exploring performance and power properties of modern multicore chips via simple machine models. Concurrency and Computation: Practice and Experience. DOI: 10.1002/cpe.3180 Preprint: <u>arXiv:1208.2908</u>





Putting Roofline to use where it should not work

Sparse matrix-vector multiplication, part 2



 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

$$I_{CRS}^{DP} = \frac{2}{8+4+8\alpha+16/N_{nzr}} \text{ byte}$$

- α quantifies traffic for loading RHS
 - $\alpha = 0 \rightarrow \text{RHS}$ is in cache
 - $\alpha = 1/N_{nzr} \rightarrow RHS$ loaded once
 - $\alpha = 1 \rightarrow$ no cache
 - $\alpha > 1 \rightarrow$ Houston, we have a problem!
- "Expected" performance = b_S x l_{CRS}
- Determine α by measuring the actual memory traffic
 - Maximum memory BW may not be achieved with spMVM



$$I_{CRS}^{DP} = \frac{2}{8+4+8\alpha+16/N_{nzr}} \frac{\text{flops}}{\text{byte}} = \frac{N_{nz} \cdot 2 \text{ flops}}{V_{meas}}$$

V_{meas} is the measured overall memory data traffic (using, e.g., likwid-perfctr)

$$\alpha = \frac{1}{4} \left(\frac{V_{meas}}{N_{nz} \cdot 2 \text{ bytes}} - 6 - \frac{8}{N_{nzr}} \right)$$

 Example: kkt_power matrix from the UoF collection on one Intel SNB socket
 N_{nz} = 14.6 · 10⁶, N_{nzr} = 7.1
 V_{meas} ≈ 258 MB

•
$$\rightarrow \alpha = 0.43, \alpha N_{nzr} = 3.1$$

 $\blacksquare \rightarrow$ RHS is loaded 3.1 times from memory

and:

• Solve for α :

$$\frac{I_{CRS}^{DP}(1/N_{nzr})}{I_{CRS}^{DP}(\alpha)} = 1.15$$

15% extra traffic → optimization potential!



Conclusion from Roofline analysis

- The roofline model does not work 100% for spMVM due to the RHS traffic uncertainties
- We have "turned the model around" and measured the actual memory traffic to determine the RHS overhead
- Result indicates:
 - 1. how much actual traffic the RHS generates
 - 2. how efficient the RHS access is (compare BW with max. BW)
 - 3. how much optimization potential we have with matrix reordering

Consequence: If the model does not work, we learn something!