

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

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# The Rules™



# 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
- Case study: sparse matrix-vector multiplication
  - What we can do if the roofline model "does not work"



# Multicore processor and system architecture – an overview

**Performance composition** 

Memory organization: UMA vs. ccNUMA

**Simultaneous Multi-Threading (SMT)** 

**Data paths in HPC systems** 

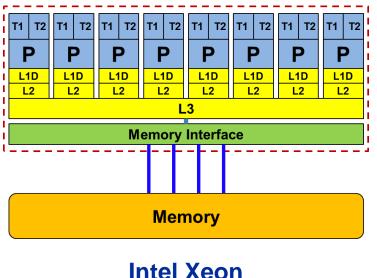
Memory access

Single Instruction Multiple Data (SIMD)

**Topology and programming models** 

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





4,6,8 core variants available

# Floating Point (FP) Performance:

$$P = n_{core} * F * S * v$$

number of cores:

F

S

**FP** instructions per cycle: (1 MULT and 1 ADD)

"Sandy Bridge EP" socket

FP ops / instruction: 4 (dp) / 8 (sp)

(256 Bit SIMD registers – "AVX")

**Clock speed:** 

2.5 GHz

**TOP500** rank 1 (1996)

P = 160 GF/s (dp) / 320 GF/s (sp)

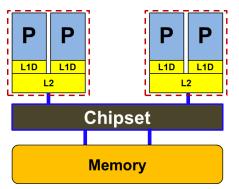
But: P=5 GF/s (dp) for serial, non-SIMD code

#### From UMA to ccNUMA





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

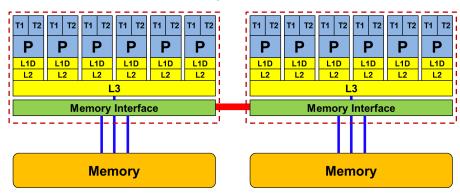


**Uniform Memory Architecture (UMA)** 

Flat memory; symmetric MPs

But: system "anisotropy"

#### **Today:** Dual-socket Intel (Westmere) node:



Cache-coherent Non-Uniform Memory Architecture (ccNUMA)

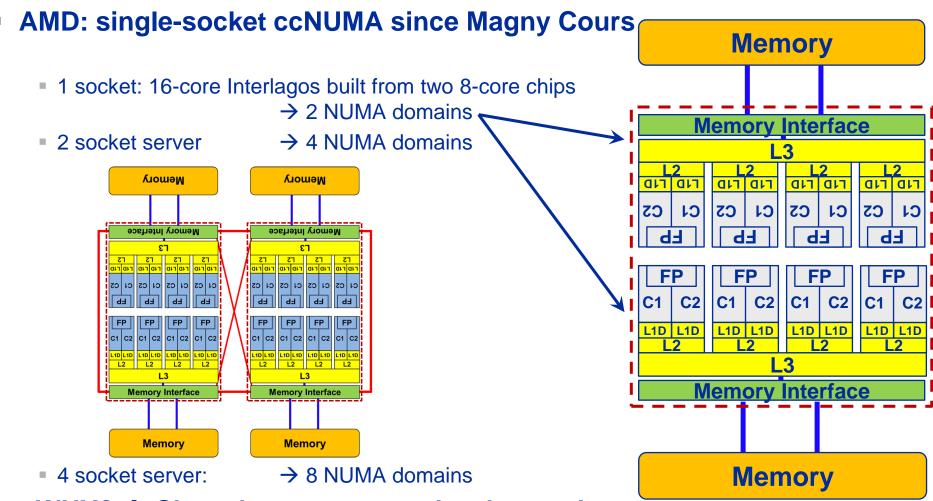
HT / QPI provide scalable bandwidth at the price of ccNUMA architectures: Where does my data finally end up?

On AMD it is even more complicated -> ccNUMA within a socket!

#### Back to the 2-chip-per-case age

16 core AMD Interlagos – a 2x8-core ccNUMA socket



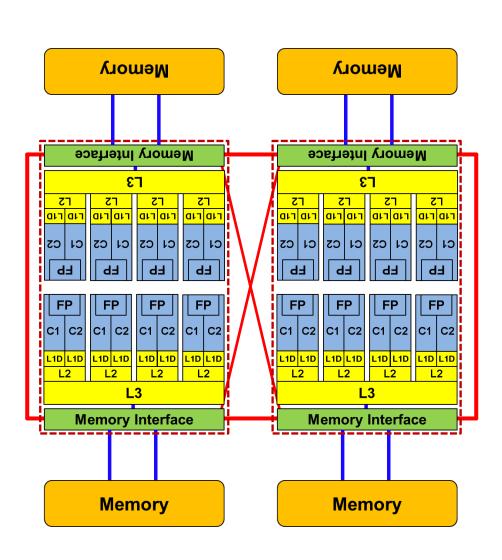


■ WHY? → Shared resources are hard to scale:

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

# Cray XE6 (Hermit) "Interlagos" 16-core dual socket node



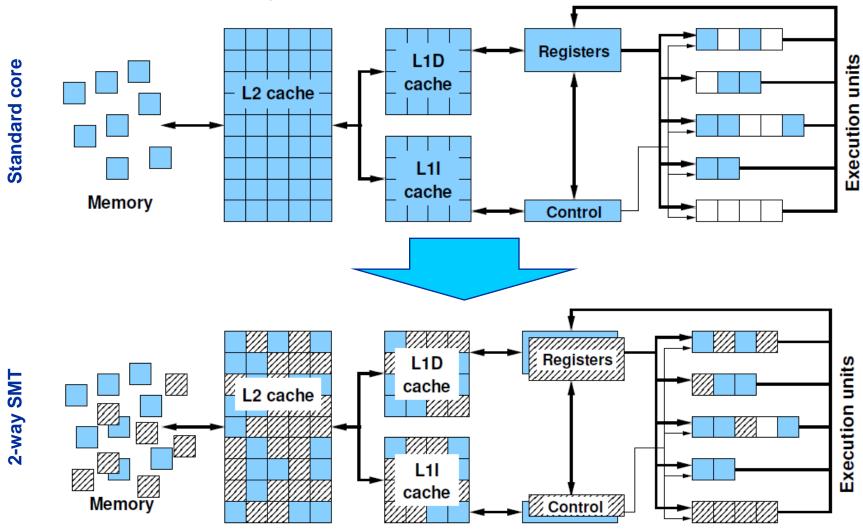


- Two 8- (integer-) core chips per socket @ 2.3 GHz (3.3 @ turbo)
- Separate DDR3 memory interface per chip
  - ccNUMA on the socket!
- Shared FP unit per pair of integer cores ("module")
  - 2 128bit FMA FP units
  - SSE4.2, AVX, FMA4
- 16 kB L1 data cache per core
- 2 MB L2 cache per module
- 8 MB L3 cache per chip (6 MB usable)

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



SMT principle (2-way example):

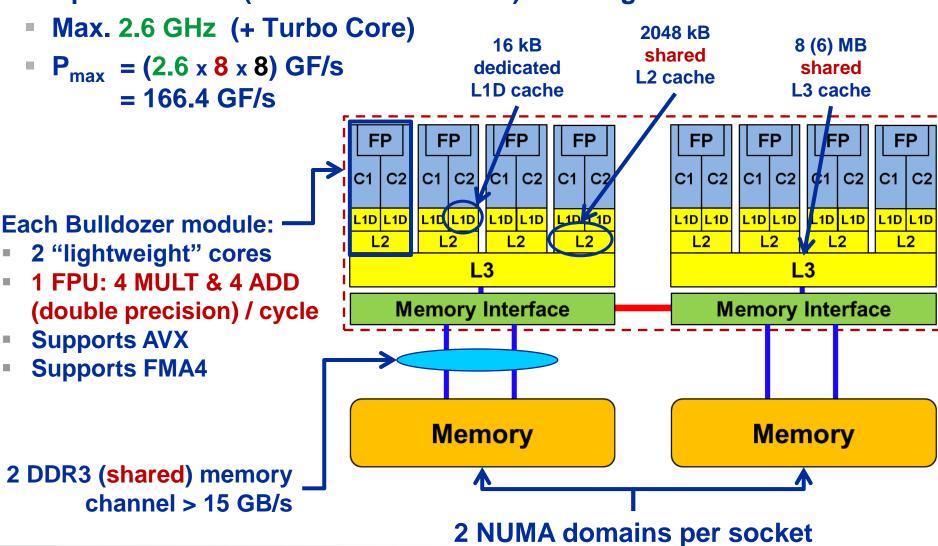


#### **Another flavor of "SMT"**

# AMD Interlagos / Bulldozer

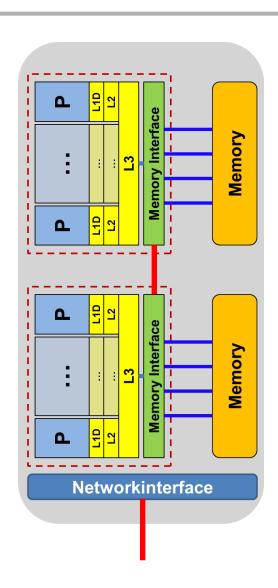


Up to 16 cores (8 Bulldozer modules) in a single socket



## Cray XC30 "SandyBridge-EP" 8-core dual socket node

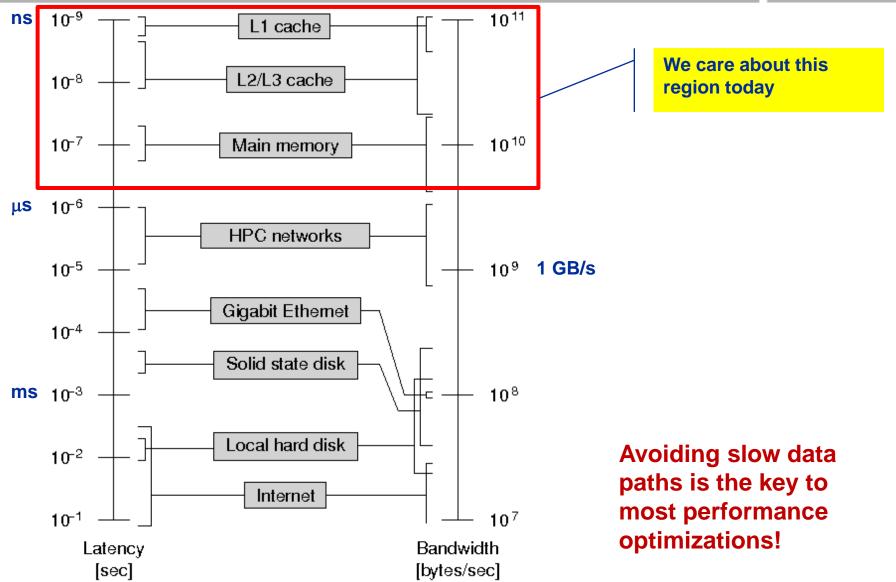




- 8 cores per socket 2.7 GHz
   (3.5 @ turbo)
- DDR3 memory interface with 4 channels per chip
- Two-way SMT
- Two 256-bit SIMD FP units
  - SSE4.2, AVX
- 32 kB L1 data cache per core
- 256 kB L2 cache per core
- 20 MB L3 cache per chip

# Latency and bandwidth in modern computer environments

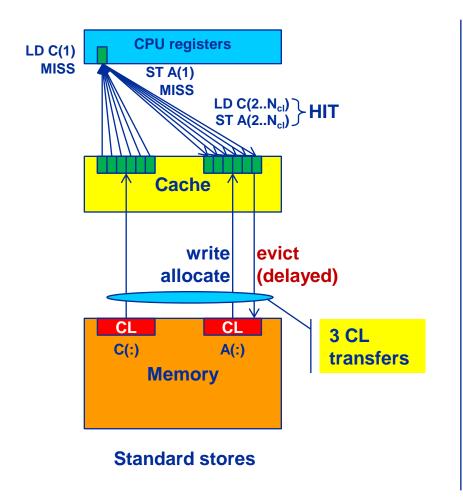


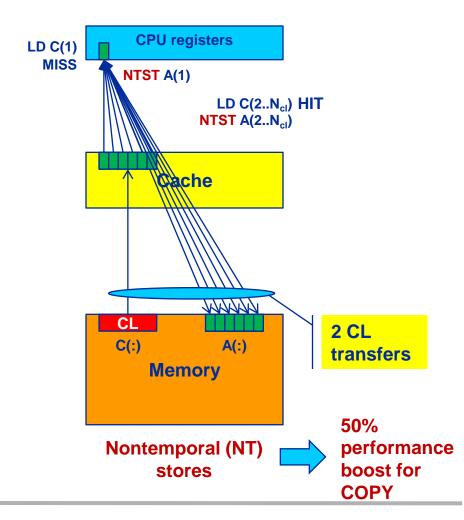


# Interlude: Data transfers in a memory hierarchy



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

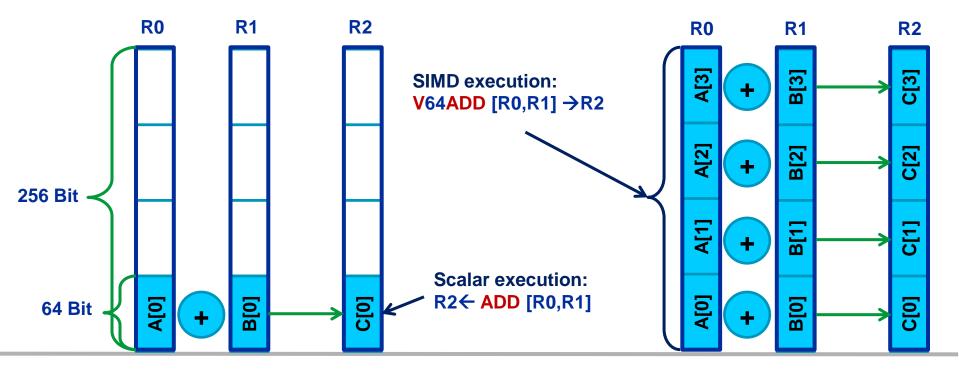




# SIMD-processing – Basics



- 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 → 2 double precision floating point operands
  - AVX: register width = 256 Bit → 4 double precision floating point operands
- Adding two registers holding double precision floating point operands

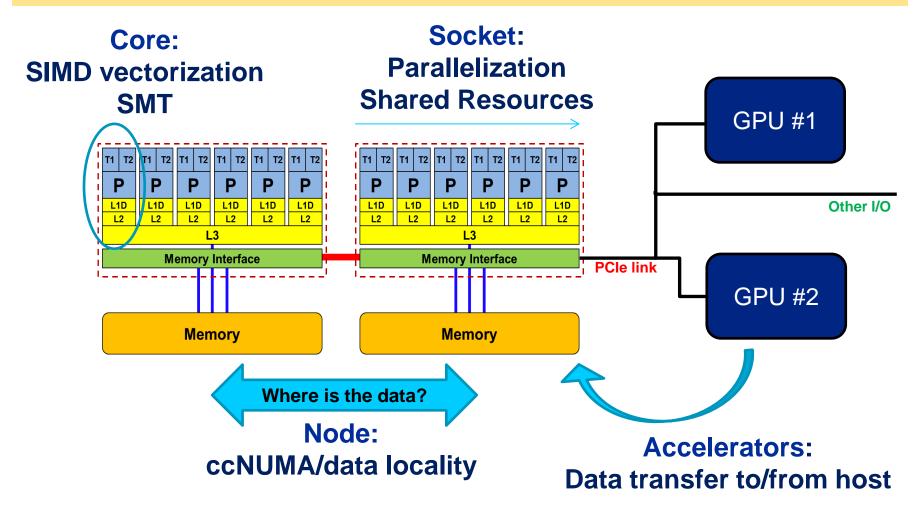


# Challenges of modern compute nodes



15

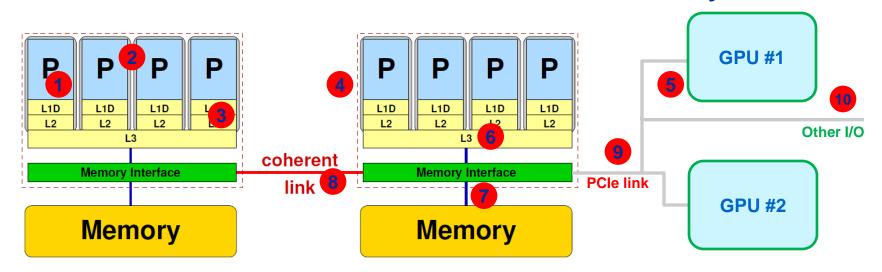
Heterogeneous programming SIMD + OpenMP + MPI + CUDA, OpenCL,...



# Parallelism in modern computer systems



Parallel and shared resources within a shared-memory node



#### Parallel resources:

- Execution/SIMD units
- Cores
- Inner cache levels
- Sockets / memory domains
- Multiple accelerators

#### **Shared resources:**

- Outer cache level per socket
- Memory bus per socket
- Intersocket link 8
- PCle bus(es)
- Other I/O resources

How does your application react to all of those details?

# Parallel programming models

on multicore multisocket nodes



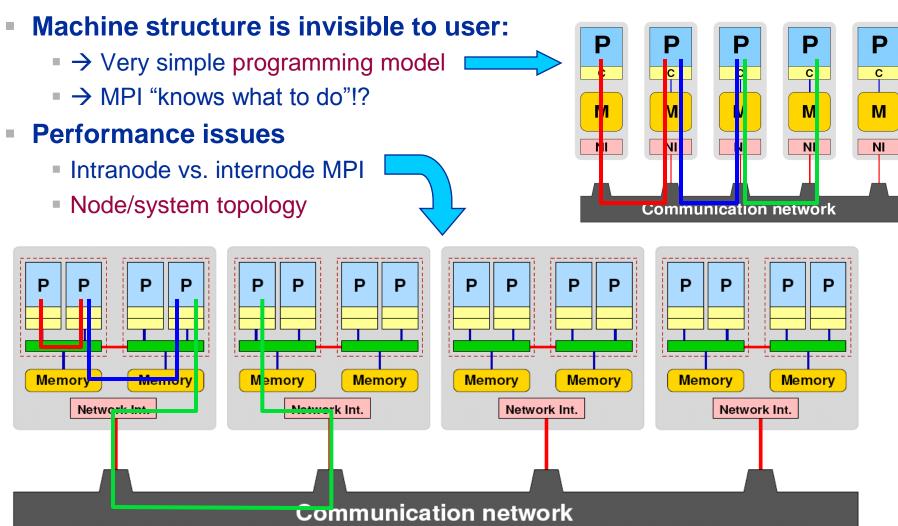
- Shared-memory (intra-node)
  - Good old MPI (current standard: 2.2)
  - OpenMP (current standard: 3.0)
  - POSIX threads
  - Intel Threading Building Blocks
  - Cilk++, OpenCL, StarSs,... you name it
- Distributed-memory (inter-node)
  - MPI (current standard: 2.2)
  - PVM (gone)
- Hybrid
  - Pure 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





#### **Parallel programming models:**

Pure threading on the node

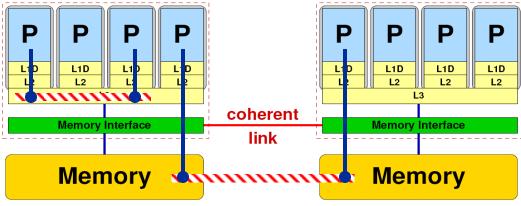


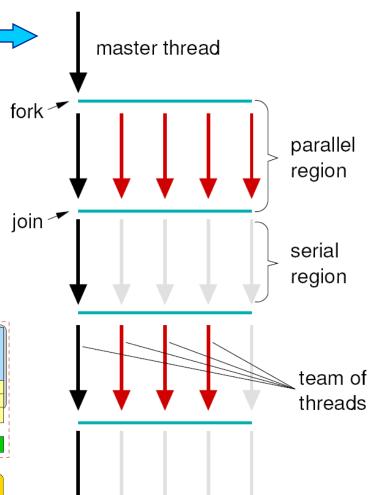
#### Machine structure is invisible to user

- → Very simple programming model
- Threading SW (OpenMP, pthreads, TBB,...) should know about the details

#### Performance issues

- Synchronization overhead
- Memory access
- Node topology







# **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

```
$ numactl --hardware
available: 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 3 size: 8192 MB node 3 free: 7840 MB

node 2 free: 8036 MB

# How do we figure out the node topology?



LIKWID tool suite:

Like

Knew

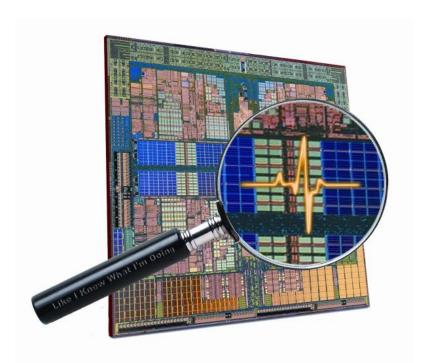
**What** 

ľm

**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**



#### 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:

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

# Output of likwid-topology -g

on one node of Cray XE6 "Hermit"



```
CPU type: AMD Interlagos processor
Hardware Thread Topology
Sockets:
Cores per socket: 16
Threads per core: 1
HWThread
            Thread
                         Core
                                      Socket
0
                         0
                                      0
                                      0
[\ldots]
16
                                      1
                                      1
17
18
19
[...]
Socket 0: ( 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 )
Socket 1: ( 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 )
*******************
Cache Topology
Level: 1
Size: 16 kB
Cache groups: (0)(1)(2)(3)(4)(5)(6)(7)(8)(9)(10)(11)(12)(13
) (14) (15) (16) (17) (18) (19) (20) (21) (22) (23) (24) (25) (26) (27) (
28 ) (29 ) (30 ) (31 )
```

# **Output of likwid-topology continued**



```
Level: 2
Size:
      2 MB
Cache groups: (01)(23)(45)(67)(89)(1011)(1213)(1415)(1617)(18
19 ) ( 20 21 ) ( 22 23 ) ( 24 25 ) ( 26 27 ) ( 28 29 ) ( 30 31 )
Level: 3
Size: 6 MB
Cache groups: (0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ) (8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 ) (16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 ) (24 25 26
27 28 29 30 31 )
*******************
NUMA Topology
**********************
NUMA domains: 4
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
```

# **Output of likwid-topology continued**



	****	*****	*****	***	*****	****	*****	****	*															
cket 0:																								
0	+ L	++   2	3	-+ + 	    4	+ +-· 	+ 5	+ 	6	+	- +   8	+ +	+   9	+ +     10	+ 	+	-+ ·	+   12	-+ + 	++   13	 - +	+ 14	+	 5
+ +	+	++	+	-+ +	+ +	+ +	+	•		+	•		•		+	+	-+ ·	+	-+ + -+ +	++	+ +	+	+	
16kB     16	+	16kB   ++	+	-+ +		+ +	+	+	+	16kB +	+	+	+	+ +	+	+	-+ -	+	-+ +	16kB   ++ 	+ +	16kB   +	+	
2MB	2MB +		  -+ +	•			2MB			  - 	2MB		 + +		MB		 +	2MB						
6MB											+       +	6MB												
ket 1:																								
+ +	 +	++		-+ +			•	•		+	•		•			•		+	-+ +	++		+	+	
16   1 1	 + 7   +	++ ++   18   ++	19   +		•	i i + +	21   +	2	2	23	24 - +	i +	25 +		i +	27 +	 -+ ·   -+ ·	 +   28 +	 -+ + 	++   29   ++		30	   3 +	1
16     1	cB	++ ++   16kB	+ +   16kB	i	    16kB	   + +       1	21   + + 16kB	2 +   16	2   + kB	23 +   16kB	24   +   16k	  +  +  B	25 +   16kB	26 + + + +     16k	  +  +  B	27 +   16kB	Ĺ	+ +   16kB	Ü	++ ++   16kB	ı	+ 16kB	16	kB
16   1 + + 16kB   16	cB	++   16kB   ++	+ +   16kB	  -+ +	+   16kB 		21   + + 16kB   +	2 +   16 +	2   + kB   +	23 +   16kB	24   +   16k   +	 + + B   +	25 +   16kB +		  +  +  B    +	27 +   16kB +	  -+	+ +   16kB +	  -+ + 	++ ++   16kB   ++	  - +-  - +-	16kB	16	kB 



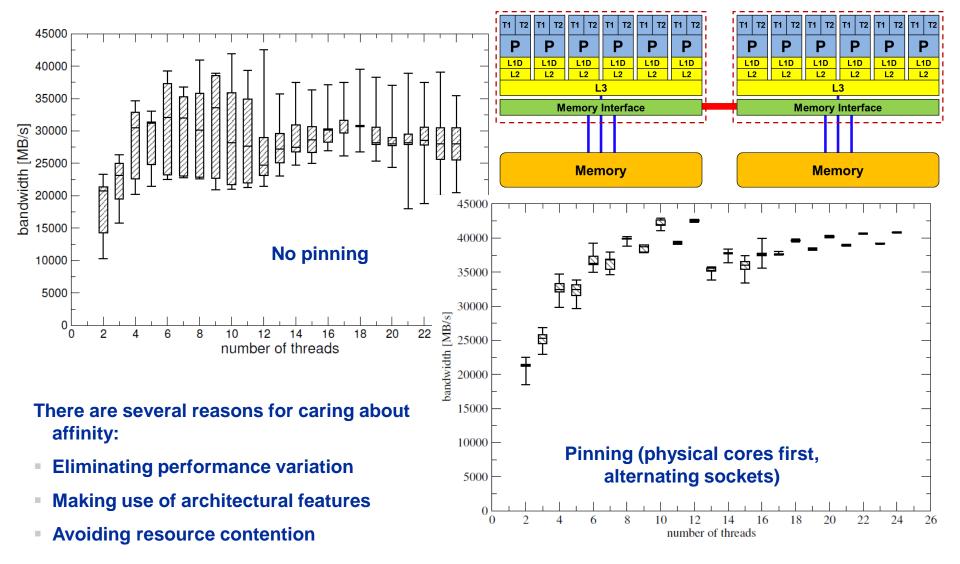
# **Enforcing thread/process-core affinity under the Linux OS**

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

#### **Example: STREAM benchmark on 12-core Intel Westmere:**

Anarchy vs. thread pinning





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

#### Overview



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!
- Disadvantage: which CPUs should you bind to on a non-exclusive machine?
- Still of value on multicore/multisocket cluster nodes, UMA or ccNUMA

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



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

# More thread/Process-core affinity ("pinning") options



- 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

• ...

Example for program trolled affinity: Using PKIPPED affinity!

#### 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

Example: Intel OpenMP



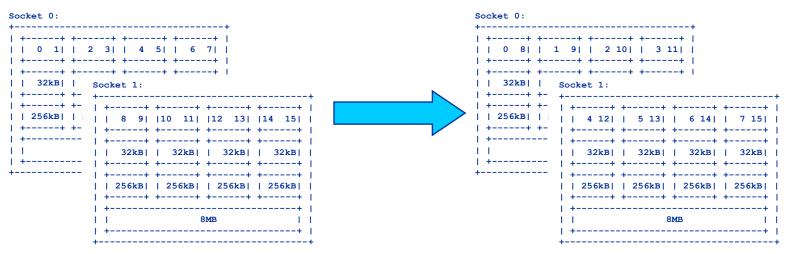
#### Running the STREAM benchmark with likwid-pin:

```
$ export OMP NUM THREADS=4
$ likwid-pin -s 0x1 -c 0,1,4,5 ./stream
[likwid-pin] Main PID -> core 0 - OK —
                                                           Main PID always
                                                                pinned
Double precision appears to have 16 digits of accuracy
Assuming 8 bytes per DOUBLE PRECISION word
[... some STREAM output omitted ...]
The *best* time for each test is used
*EXCLUDING* the first and last iterations
[pthread wrapper] PIN MASK: 0->1 1->4 2->5
                                                          Skip shepherd
[pthread wrapper] SKIP MASK: 0x1 —
[pthread wrapper 0] Notice: Using libpthread.so.0
                                                              thread
       threadid 1073809728 -> SKIP
[pthread wrapper 1] Notice: Using libpthread.so.0
        threadid 1078008128 -> core 1 - OK
[pthread wrapper 2] Notice: Using libpthread.so.0
       threadid 1082206528 -> core 4 - OK
                                                            Pin all spawned
[pthread wrapper 3] Notice: Using libpthread.so.0
                                                             threads in turn
       threadid 1086404928 -> core 5 - OK
[... rest of STREAM output omitted ...]
```

#### Using logical core numbering



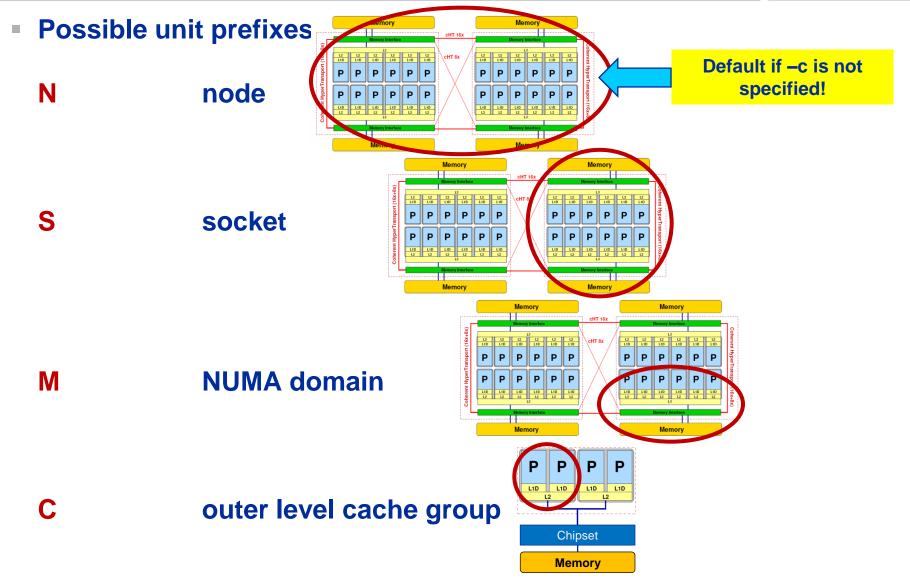
- Core numbering may vary from system to system even with identical hardware
  - Likwid-topology delivers this information, which can then be fed into likwidpin
- Alternatively, likwid-pin can abstract this variation and provide a purely logical numbering (physical cores first)



- 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

## Using logical core numbering

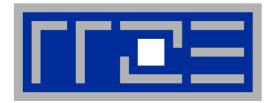




# aprun on Cray



- 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

### Basic approach to performance analysis



- Runtime profile / Call graph (gprof)
- 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

### Example usage with preconfigured metric group



\$ env OMP NUM THREADS=4 likwid-perfctr -C N:0-3 -g FLOPS DP ./stream.exe CPU type: Intel Core Lynnfield processor CPU clock: 2.93 GHz **Configured metrics Always** Measuring group FLOPS DP (this group) measured YOUR PROGRAM OUTPUT Event core 0 core 1 core 2 core 3 INSTR RETIRED ANY 1.97463e+08 | 2.31001e+08 | 2.30963e+08 | 2.31885e+08 CPU CLK UNHALTED CORE 9.56999e+08 l 9.58401e+08 | 9.58637e+08 I 9.57338e+08 I FF COMP OF EYE SSE FF PACKED 4.00294e+07 l 3.08927e+07 | 3.08866e+07 | 3.08904e+07 FP COMP OPS EXE SSE FP SCALAR 882 FP COMP OPS EXE SSE SINGLE PRECISION FR COMP OPS EXE SSE DOUBLE PRECISION 4.00303e+07 | 3.08927e+07 | 3.08866e+07 | 3.08904e+07 core 0 Metric Runtime [s] 0.326242 0.326801 | 0.326358 **Derived** CPI 4.84647 4.15061 1 4.12849 | 4.14891 | DP MFlops/s (DP assumed) | 245.399 189.024 | 189.108 | 189.304 metrics Packed MUOPS/s 122.698 94.5121 94.6519 Scalar MUOPS/s 0.00270351 SP MUOPS/s DP MUOPS/s 94.5121 122.701

### 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

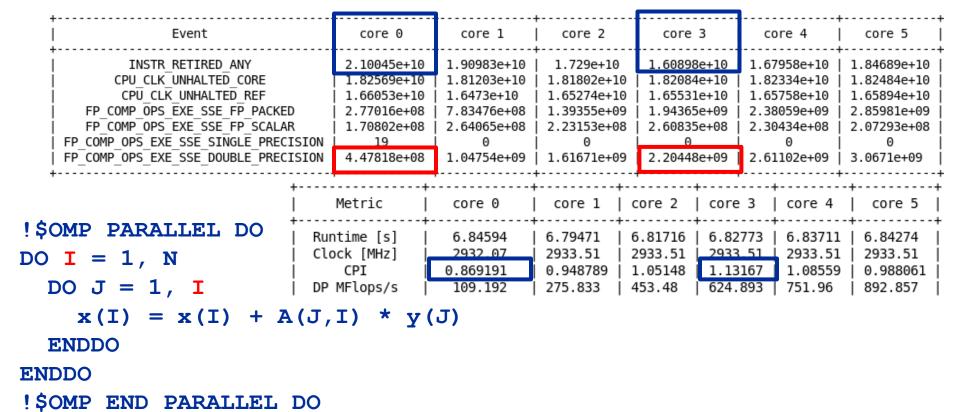
#### **Caveats**

- 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

### 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



### ... and load-balanced codes



env OMP NUM THREADS=6 likwid-perfctr -C S0:0-5 -g FLOPS DP ./a.out

1	L		L	L				- 4
Event	core 0	core 1	core 2	core 3	cor	e 4	core 5	ļ
INSTR_RETIRED_ANY CPU_CLK_UNHALTED_CORE CPU_CLK_UNHALTED_REF FP_COMP_OPS_EXE_SSE_FP_PACKED FP_COMP_OPS_EXE_SSE_FP_SCALAR FP_COMP_OPS_EXE_SSE_SINGLE_PRECISION FP_COMP_OPS_EXE_SSE_DOUBLE_PRECISION	2.24797e+10     2.04416e+10     3.45348e+09     2.93108e+07	1.74784e+10 2.23789e+10 2.03445e+10 3.43035e+09 3.06063e+07 0	1.68453e+10 2.23802e+10 2.03456e+10 3.37573e+09 2.9704e+07 0 3.40543e+09	1.66794e+10 2.23808e+10 2.03462e+10 3.39272e+00 2.96507e+00 0 3.42237e+00	0   2.237 0   2.034 0   3.261 7   2.411	85e+10   99e+10   53e+10   32e+09   41e+07   0	1.91736e+10 2.23805e+10 2.03459e+10 3.2377e+09 2.37397e+07 0 3.26144e+09	)   
Higher CPI but better performance	Metric   Metric   Runtime [s]   Clock [MHz]	core 0   8.4293   2932.7	8   8.39157 3   2933.5	   8.39206     2933.51	core 3 8.3923 2933.51	core 4   core 4   8.39193   2933.51	. i 2933.51 i	+    -  -
!\$OMP PARALLEL DO DO I = 1, N	DP MFlops/s   Packed MUOPS/   Scalar MUOPS/   SP MUOPS/s   DP MUOPS/s	850.72 s 423.56	7   845.212 6   420.729 4   3.75383 -06   0	831.703     414.03     3.64317     0	835.865 416.114 3.63663 0 419.751	802.952   399.997   2.95757   0   402.955	797.113     397.101     2.91165     0	

DO J = 1, N

x(I) = x(I) + A(J,I) \* y(J)

**ENDDO** 

**ENDDO** 

!\$OMP END PARALLEL DO

### **Detecting latency-bound codes**

Example: graph and tree data structures



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%	0.000013%
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.

## Language-induced problems



- 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

### The parallel vector triad benchmark

A "swiss army knife" for microbenchmarking



### Simple streaming benchmark:

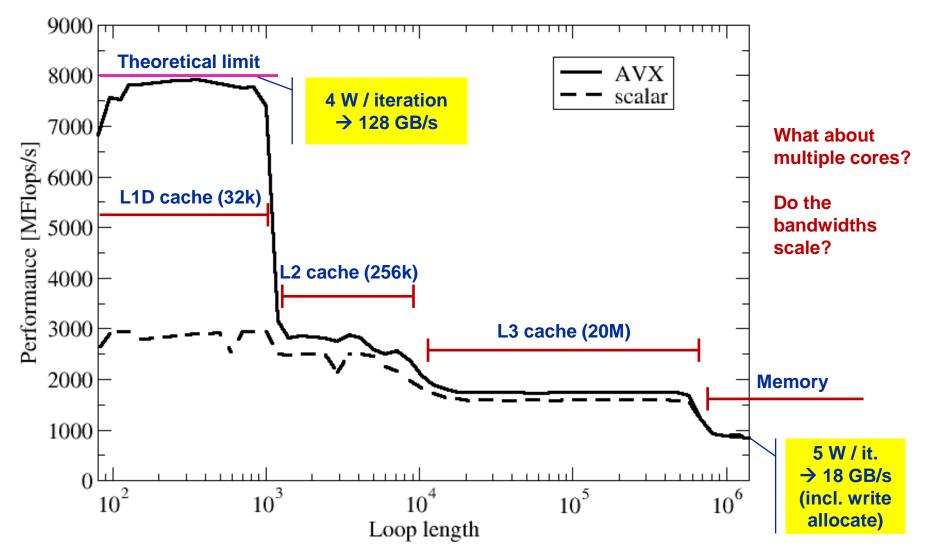
```
double precision, dimension(N) :: A,B,C,D
A=1.d0; B=A; C=A; D=A

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
```

- 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!

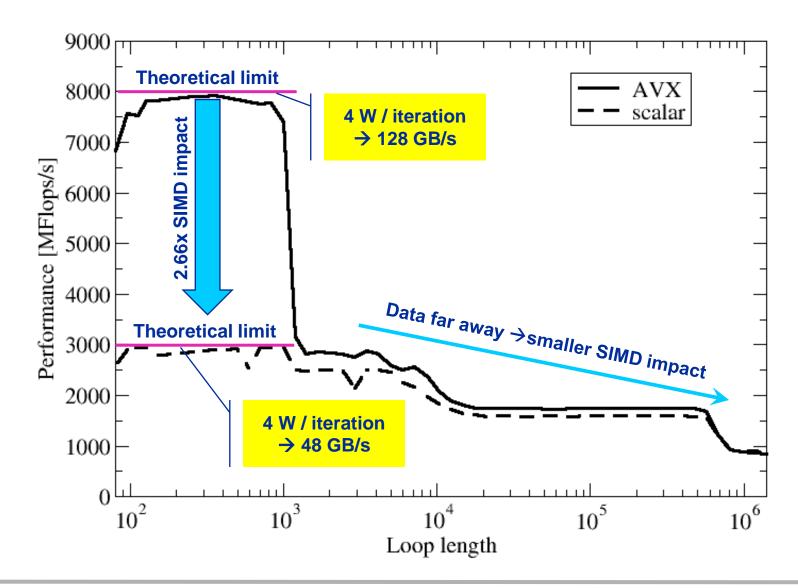
### A(:)=B(:)+C(:)\*D(:) on one Sandy Bridge core (3 GHz)





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





### The throughput-parallel vector triad benchmark



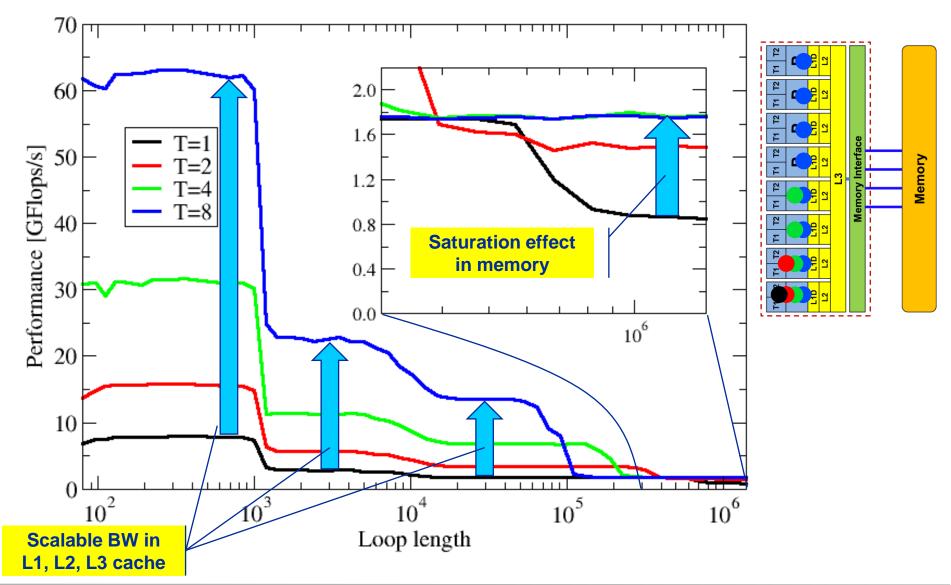
Every core runs its own, independent triad benchmark

```
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)





### The OpenMP-parallel vector triad benchmark

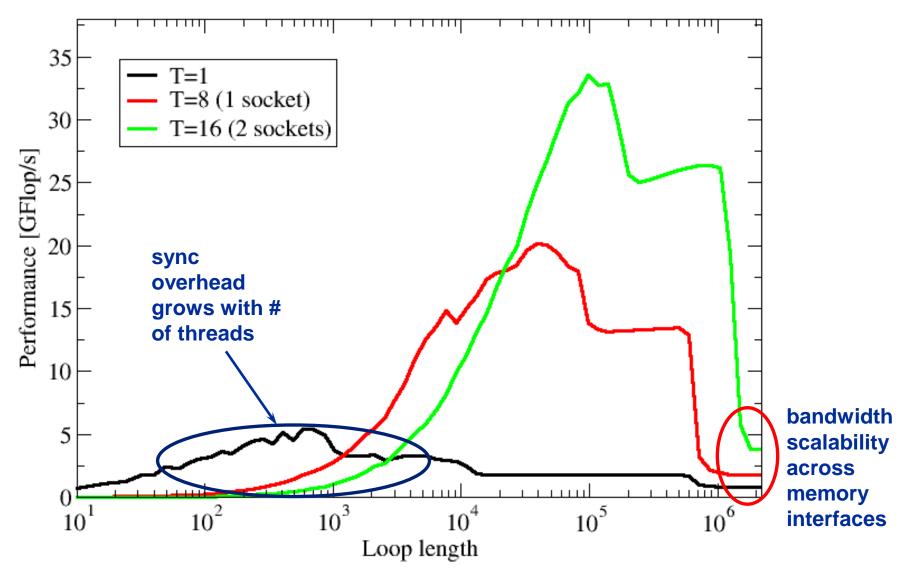


OpenMP work sharing in the benchmark loop

```
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 vector triad on Sandy Bridge socket (3 GHz)







# OpenMP performance issues on multicore

Synchronization (barrier) overhead

### Welcome to the multi-/many-core era

Synchronization of threads may be expensive!



!\$OMP PARALLEL ...
...
!\$OMP 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 •••

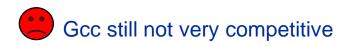


Full domain	Cray 8.03	GCC 4.6.2	PGI 11.8	Intel 12.1.3
Shared L3	2272	27916	5981	151939
Socket	3783	49947	7479	163561
Node	7663	167646	9526	178892

# 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





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

### Thread synchronization overhead on Intel Xeon Phi

Barrier overhead in CPU cycles



2 threads on distinct cores: 1936

36	SMT1	SMT2	SMT3	SMT4
One core	n/a	1597	2825	3557
Full chip	10604	12800	15573	18490

That does not look bad for 240 threads!

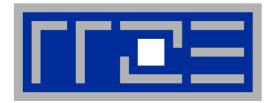
Still the pain may be much larger, as more work can be done in one cycle on Phi compared to a full Sandy Bridge node

- 3.75 x cores (16 vs 60) on Phi
- 2 x more operations per cycle on Phi
- 2.7 x more barrier penalty (cycles) on Phi



7.5 x more work done on Xeon Phi per cycle

One barrier causes 2.7 x 7.5 = 20x more pain ©.



# Simple performance modeling: The Roofline Model

### The Roofline Model<sup>1,2</sup>



- 1.  $P_{\text{max}}$  = 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  $B_C = I^{-1}$
- 3.  $b_S = Applicable peak bandwidth of the slowest data path utilized$

### **Expected performance:**

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

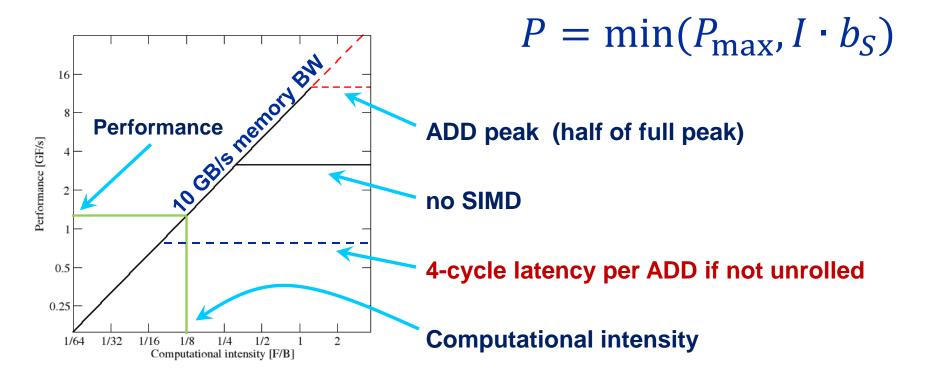
<sup>1</sup>W. Schönauer: Scientific Supercomputing: Architecture and Use of Shared and Distributed Memory Parallel Computers. (2000)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> S. 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



### Applicable peak for the summation loop



### Plain scalar code, no SIMD

```
LOAD r1.0 ← 0

i ← 1

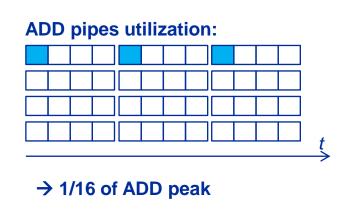
loop:

LOAD r2.0 ← a(i)

ADD r1.0 ← r1.0+r2.0

++i →? loop

result ← r1.0
```



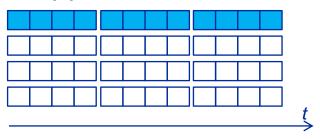
### Applicable peak for the summation loop



### 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 r2.0 \leftarrow r2.0+r6.0
  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:



→ 1/4 of ADD peak

### Applicable peak for the summation loop

result \( \tau \) r1.0+r1.1+...+r4.2+r4.3



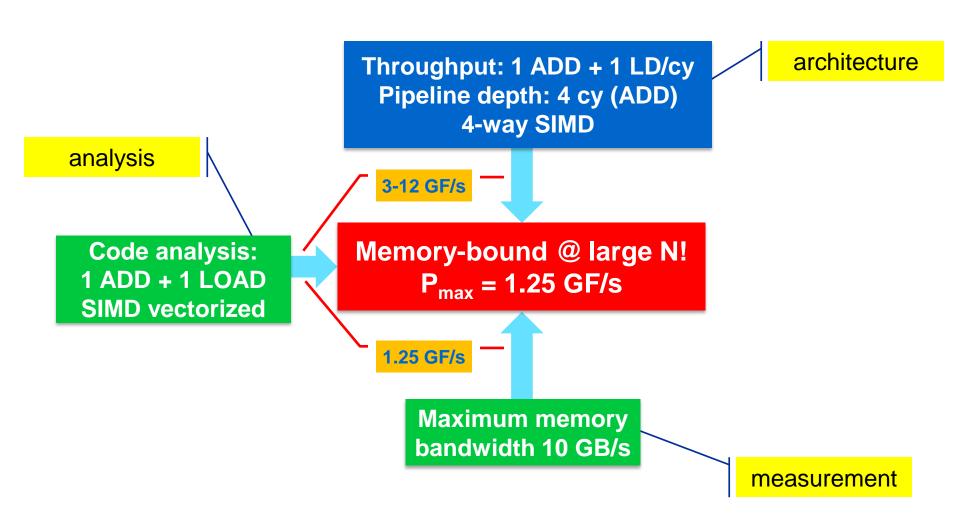
### SIMD-vectorized, 4-way unrolled **ADD** pipes utilization: LOAD $[r1.0,...,r1.3] \leftarrow [0,0]$ LOAD $[r2.0,...,r2.3] \leftarrow [0,0]$ LOAD [r3.0,...,r3.3] $\leftarrow$ [0,0] LOAD $[r4.0,...,r4.3] \leftarrow [0,0]$ i ← 1 → ADD peak loop: LOAD $[r5.0,...,r5.3] \leftarrow [a(i),...,a(i+3)]$ LOAD $[r6.0, ..., r6.3] \leftarrow [a(i+4), ..., a(i+7)]$ LOAD $[r7.0, ..., r7.3] \leftarrow [a(i+8), ..., a(i+11)]$ LOAD [r8.0,...,r8.3] $\leftarrow$ [a(i+12),...,a(i+15)] ADD r1 $\leftarrow$ r1+r5 ADD r2 $\leftarrow$ r2+r6 ADD r3 ← r3+r7 ADD r4 $\leftarrow$ r4+r8

 $i+=16 \rightarrow ? loop$ 

### Input to the roofline model



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



### A very bandwidth-bound kernel



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

- $b_{\rm S} = 34 \, {\rm GB/s}$
- B<sub>c</sub> = (4+1) Words / 2 Flops = 2.5 W/F (including write allocate)

$$\rightarrow$$
 / = 0.4 F/W = 0.05 F/B

### Lightspeed:

 $l \cdot b_S = 1.7$  GF/s (1.2 % of peak performance)

### **Assumptions for the Roofline Model**



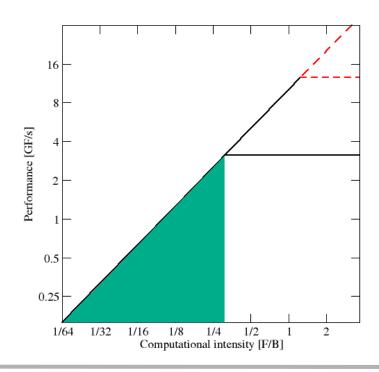
- The balance metric formalism is based on some (crucial) assumptions:
  - There is a clear concept of "work" vs. "traffic"
    - "work" = flops, updates, iterations...
    - "traffic" = required data to do "work"
  - Attainable bandwidth of code = input parameter! Determine effective bandwidth via simple 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

### Factors to consider in the roofline model



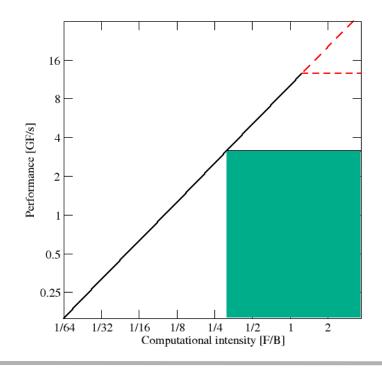
### **Bandwidth-bound (simple case)**

- 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...

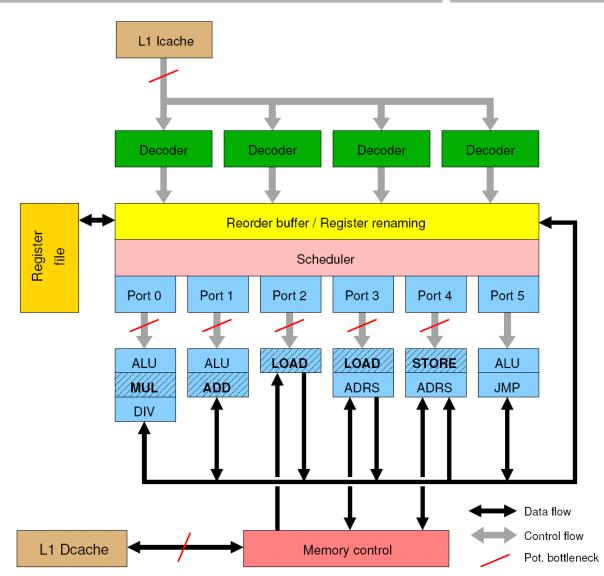


### **Complexities of in-core execution**



### 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



### Shortcomings of the roofline model

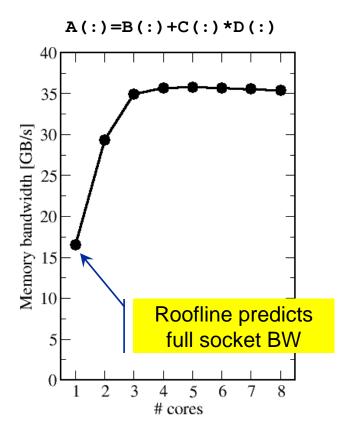


### Saturation effects in multicore chips are not explained

- 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

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 (2013).





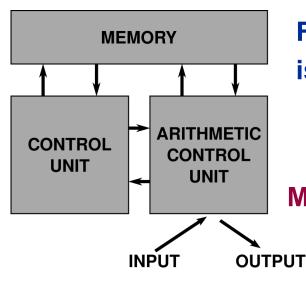
## Optimal utilization of parallel resources

Hardware-software interaction SIMD parallelism

### **Computer Architecture**

The evil of hardware optimizations





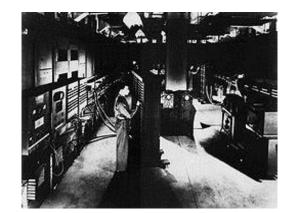
Flexible, but optimization is hard!

Architect's view:

Make the common case fast!



**EDSAC 1949** 



**ENIAC 1948** 

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



What is your relevant aspect of the architecture?

## **Hardware- Software Co-Design?**

From algorithm to execution



Reality:

**Algorithm** 

**Programming language** 



Hardware = Black Box

## The machine view:

ISA (Machine code)





#### **Basic Resources**

## Instruction throughput and data movement



75

#### 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.

# Things to remember



## **Goals for optimization:**

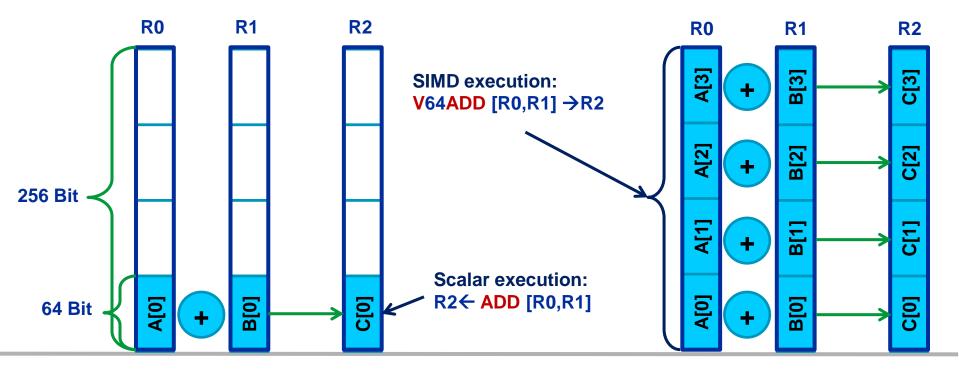
- 1. Map your work to an instruction mix with highest throughput using the most effective instructions.
- 2. Reduce data volume over slow data paths fully utilizing available bandwidth.
- 3. Avoid possible hazards/overhead which prevent reaching goals one and two.



# 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 → 2 double precision floating point operands
  - AVX: register width = 256 Bit → 4 double precision floating point operands
- Adding two registers holding double precision floating point operands





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

```
for(int i=0; i<n;i++)
C[i]=A[i]+B[i];
```

"Loop unrolling"

```
for(int i=0; i<n;i+=4) {
        C[i] =A[i] +B[i];
        C[i+1]=A[i+1]+B[i+1];
        C[i+2]=A[i+2]+B[i+2];
        C[i+3]=A[i+3]+B[i+3];}
//remainder loop omitted</pre>
```

Load 256 Bits starting from address of A[i] to register R0

Add the corresponding 64 Bit entries in R0 and R1 and store the 4 results to R2

Store R2 (256 Bit) to address starting at C[i]

```
LABEL1:

VLOAD R0 ← A[i]

VLOAD R1 ← B[i]

V64ADD[R0,R1] → R2

VSTORE R2 → C[i]

i←i+4

i<(n-4)? JMP LABEL1

//remainder loop omitted
```



No SIMD-processing for loops with data dependencies

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

"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  $A \rightarrow \&C[-1]$  and  $B \rightarrow \&C[-2]$  $\rightarrow$  C[i] = C[i-1] + C[i-2]: dependency  $\rightarrow$  No SIMD-processing
- If no "Pointer aliasing" is used, tell the compiler, e.g. use
  -fno-alias switch for Intel compiler → SIMD-processing



## SIMD processing of a vector norm

```
s=0.0;
for(int i=0; i<n; i++)
    s = s + A[i]*A[i];</pre>
```

Data dependency on s must be resolved for SIMD-processing



```
s0=0.0;
s1=0.0;
s2=0.0;
s3=0.0;
for(int i=0; i<n; i+=4) {
    s0 = s0+ A[i] *A[i];
    s1 = s1+ A[i+1] *A[i+1];
    s2 = s2+ A[i+2] *A[i+2];
    s3 = s3+ A[i+3] *A[i+3];
}
    R0    R1    R2
//remainder omitted
s=s0+s1+s2+s3
```

Compiler does transformation -

if programmer allows it to do so! (-03 instead of -01)

```
...
V64MULT(R1,R2) → R1
V64ADD(R0,R1) → R0
...
```



# Reading x86 assembly code

## Basic approach to check the instruction 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)

```
movaps [rdi + rax*8+48], xmm3
add rax, 8
js 1b
```

```
movaps %xmm4, 48(%rdi,%rax,8)
addq $8, %rax
js ..B1.4
```

```
      401b9f: 0f 29 5c c7 30
      movaps %xmm3,0x30(%rdi,%rax,8)

      401ba4: 48 83 c0 08
      add $0x8,%rax

      401ba8: 78 a6
      js 401b50 <triad_asm+0x4b>
```

#### Basics of the x86-64 ISA II



```
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)

#### Basics of x86-64 ABI



- 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

# **Case Study: summation**



```
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

#### **Instruction code:**

```
401d08: f3 0f 58 04 82
401d0d: 48 83 c0 01
401d11: 39 c7
401d13: 77 f3

Instruction address

Opcodes
```

```
addss (%rdx,%rax,4),%xmm0
add $0x1,%rax
cmp %eax,%edi
ja 401d08

Assembly code
```

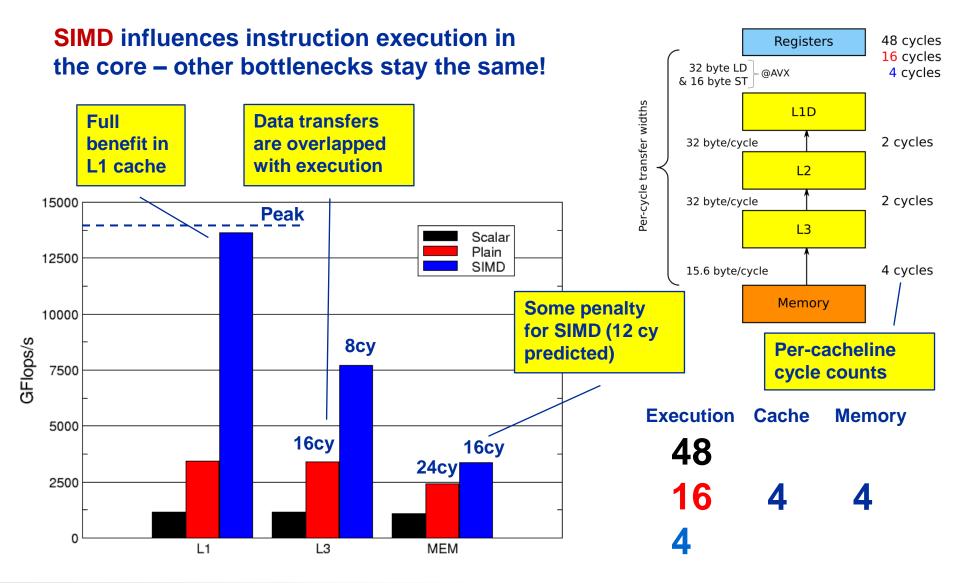
## **Summation code variants**



```
1:
        xmm0, [rsi + rax * 4]
addss
                                      1:
add
        rax, 1
                     3 cycles add
                                      addps xmm0, [rsi + rax * 4]
       eax,edi
cmp
                     pipeline
                     latency
                                      addps xmm1, [rsi + rax * 4 + 16]
js 1b
                                      addps xmm2, [rsi + rax * 4 + 32]
     Unrolling with sub sums to break up
                                      addps xmm3, [rsi + rax * 4 + 48]
     register dependency
                                      add rax, 16
                                           eax,edi
                                       cmp
1:
                                       js 1b
addss xmm0, [rsi + rax * 4]
                                     SSE SIMD vectorization
addss xmm1, [rsi + rax * 4 + 4]
addss xmm2, [rsi + rax * 4 + 8]
addss xmm3, [rsi + rax * 4 + 12]
add
      rax, 4
cmp eax,edi
js 1b
```

# SIMD-processing – Sequential





## SIMD-processing – Full chip (all cores)

Influence of SMT

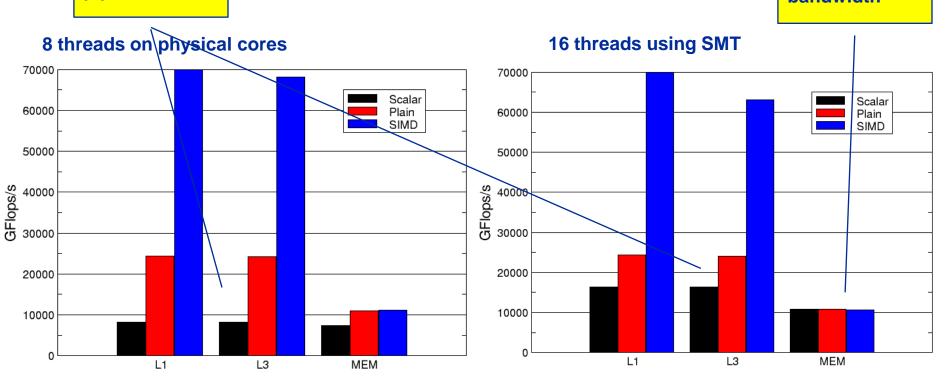


Bandwidth saturation is the primary performance limitation on the chip level!

Full scaling using SMT due to bubbles in pipeline

Conclusion: If the code saturates the bottleneck, all variants are acceptable!

All variants saturate the memory bandwidth



## **How to leverage SIMD**



- 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)
- \*86intrin.h (all instruction set extensions)
- See next slide for an example

## **Example: array summation using C intrinsics**



```
m128 sum0, sum1, sum2, sum3;
                                   sum0 = mm add ps(sum0, sum1);
m128 t0, t1, t2, t3;
                                   sum0 = mm add ps(sum0, sum2);
float scalar sum;
                                    sum0 = mm add ps(sum0, sum3);
sum0 = mm setzero ps();
                                   sum0 = mm hadd ps(sum0, sum0);
sum1 = mm setzero ps();
                                    sum0 = mm hadd ps(sum0, sum0);
sum2 = mm setzero ps();
                                   mm store ss(&scalar sum, sum0);
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);
```

#### **Example: array summation from intrinsics, instruction code**



```
14:
      0f 57 c9
                                       %xmm1,%xmm1
                                xorps
17:
      31 c0
                                xor
                                       %eax,%eax
19:
      0f 28 d1
                                movaps %xmm1, %xmm2
      0f 28 c1
                                movaps %xmm1, %xmm0
1c:
      0f 28 d9
                                movaps %xmm1, %xmm3
1f:
22:
      66 Of 1f 44 00 00
                                       0x0(%rax,%rax,1)
                                nopw
28:
      0f 10 3e
                                movups (%rsi),%xmm7
      Of 10 76 10
                                movups 0x10(%rsi),%xmm6
2b:
2f:
      Of 10 6e 20
                                movups 0x20(%rsi),%xmm5
      Of 10 66 30
                                movups 0x30(%rsi),%xmm4
33:
      83 c0 10
                                add
                                       $0x10, %eax
37:
3a:
      48 83 c6 40
                                add
                                       $0x40,%rsi
      0f 58 df
                                addps %xmm7,%xmm3
3e:
      0f 58 c6
                                addps %xmm6,%xmm0
41:
                                addps %xmm5, %xmm2
      0f 58 d5
44:
47:
      0f 58 cc
                                addps %xmm4,%xmm1
      39 c7
                                       %eax,%edi
4a:
                                cmp
      77 da
                                       28 <compute sum SSE+0x18>
4c:
                                jа
                                                                          Loop body
      0f 58 c3
                                addps
                                       %xmm3,%xmm0
<u>4e:</u>
      0f 58 c2
51:
                                addps
                                       %xmm2,%xmm0
      0f 58 c1
                                addps
                                       %xmm1,%xmm0
54:
57:
      f2 Of 7c c0
                                haddps %xmm0, %xmm0
      f2 Of 7c c0
5b:
                                haddps %xmm0, %xmm0
5f:
      с3
                                retq
```

# Vectorization and the Intel compiler



- 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

## **Vectorization compiler options**



- The compiler will vectorize starting with -02.
- To enable specific SIMD extensions use the –x option:
  - -xSSE2 vectorize for SSE2 capable machines Available SIMD extensions: SSE2, 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.

# **Vectorization compiler options**



### 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

## Rules for vectorizable loops



- 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

## **Vectorization source code directives**



- 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!)

### **User mandated vectorization**



- 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>
```

## **x86 Architecture:**

## SIMD and Alignment



#### 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):



# 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

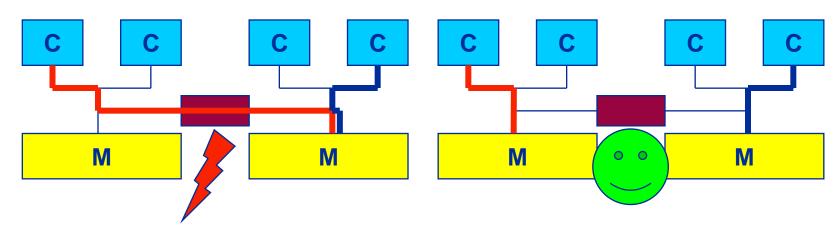
## **ccNUMA** performance problems

"The other affinity" to care about



#### 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)

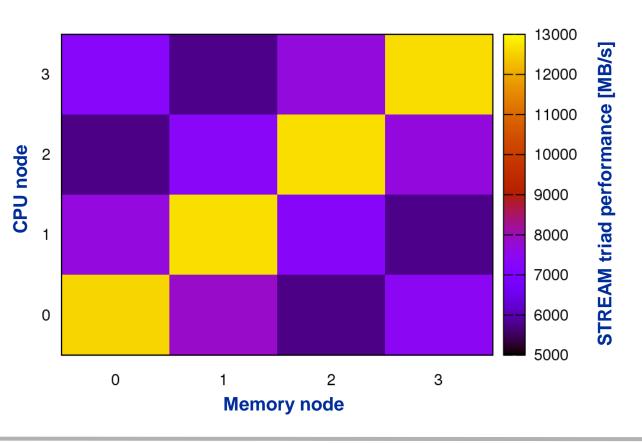
### **Cray XE6 Interlagos node**

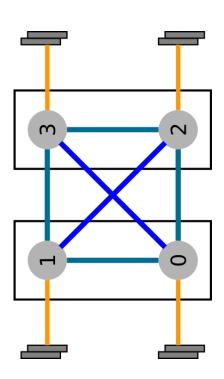
4 chips, two sockets, 8 threads per ccNUMA domain



## ccNUMA map: Bandwidth penalties for remote access

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





#### ccNUMA locality tool numactl:

How do we enforce some locality of access?



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:

But what is the default without numactl?

# ccNUMA default memory locality



"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

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

# **Coding for ccNUMA data locality**



## Most simple case: explicit initialization

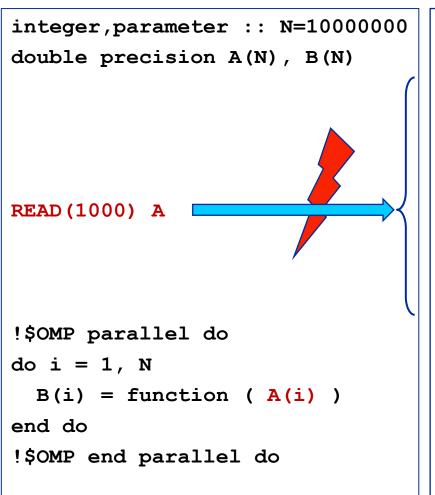
```
integer, parameter :: N=10000000
double precision A(N), B(N)
A=0.d0
!$OMP parallel do
do i = 1, N
 B(i) = function (A(i))
end do
!$OMP end parallel do
```

```
integer, parameter :: N=10000000
double precision A(N),B(N)
!$OMP parallel
!$OMP do schedule(static)
do i = 1, N
 A(i) = 0.d0
end do
!$OMP end do
!$OMP do schedule(static)
do i = 1, N
 B(i) = function (A(i))
end do
!$OMP end do
!$OMP end parallel
```

# Coding for ccNUMA data locality



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



```
integer, parameter :: N=10000000
double precision A(N),B(N)
!$OMP parallel
!$OMP do schedule(static)
do i = 1, N
 A(i) = 0.d0
end do
!$OMP end do
!$OMP single
READ (1000) A
!$OMP end single
!$OMP do schedule(static)
do i = 1, N
 B(i) = function (A(i))
end do
!$OMP end do
!$OMP end parallel
```

# **Coding for Data Locality**



- 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)

# **Diagnosing Bad Locality**



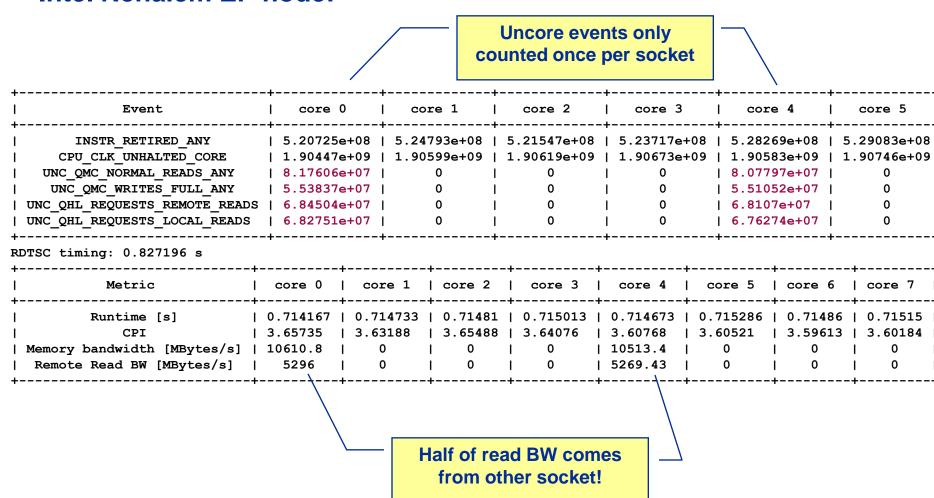
- If your code is cache-bound, you might not notice any locality problems
- Otherwise, bad locality limits scalability at very low CPU numbers (whenever a node boundary is crossed)
  - If the code makes good use of the memory interface
  - But there may also be a general problem in your code...
- Consider 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



#### Intel Nehalem EP node:



#### 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:

# numactl --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
```

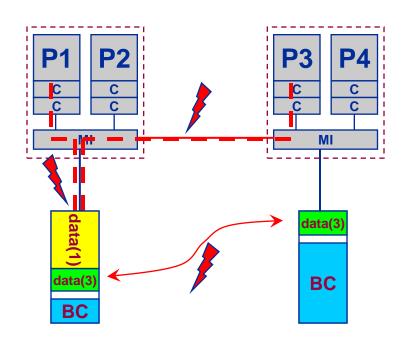
#### ccNUMA problems beyond first touch:

#### 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
- numact1 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



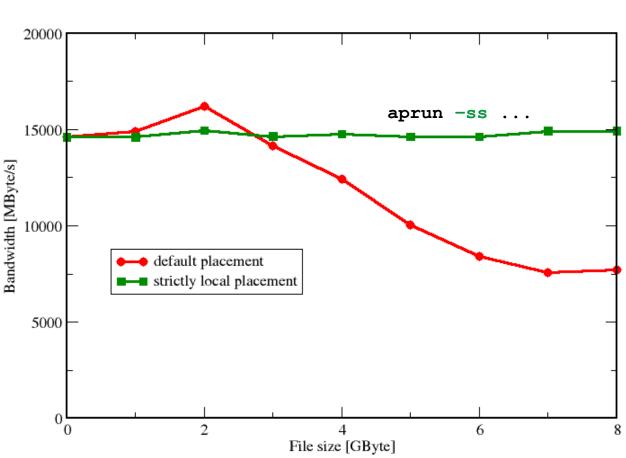
# Real-world example: ccNUMA and the Linux buffer cache Benchmark:

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!



#### 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

#### ccNUMA placement and erratic access patterns



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

```
!$OMP parallel do schedule(static,512)
do i=1,M
   a(i) = ...
enddo
!$OMP end parallel do
```

Observe page alignment of array to get proper placement!

2. Using global control via numactl:

```
numactl --interleave=0-3 ./a.out
```

This is for all memory, not just the problematic arrays!

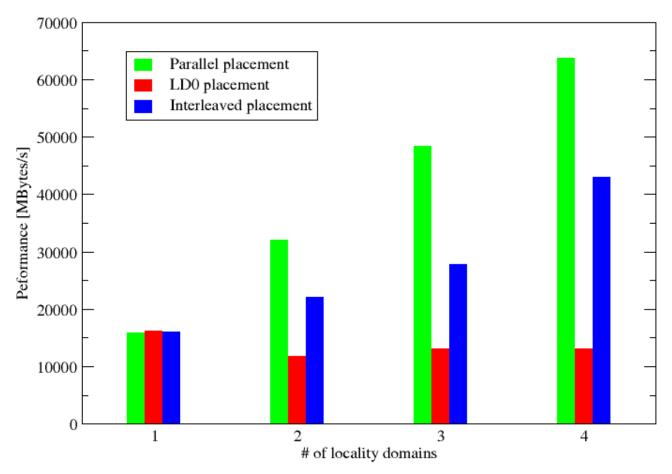
Fine-grained program-controlled placement via libnuma (Linux) using, e.g., numa\_alloc\_interleaved\_subset(), numa\_alloc\_interleaved() and others

#### The curse and blessing of interleaved placement:

OpenMP STREAM on a Cray XE6 Interlagos node



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





# Case study: A 3D Jacobi smoother

The basics in two dimensions

Roofline performance analysis and modeling

#### A Jacobi smoother



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

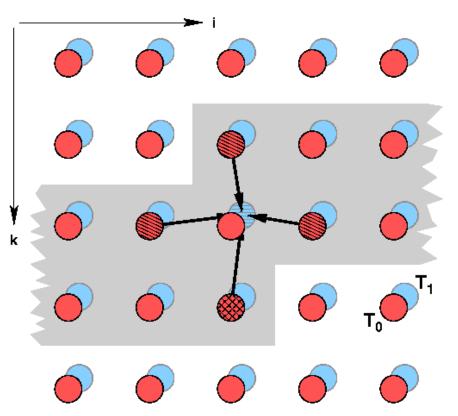
Solve with Dirichlet boundary conditions using Jacobi iteration scheme:

```
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) ) \star 0.25
       enddo
     enddo
                               Naive balance (incl. write allocate):
     ! swap arrays
          0 ; t0=t1 ; t1=i
                             phi(:,:,t0):3 LD +
   enddo
                               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)
```

#### **Balance metric: 2 D Jacobi**



- 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<sub>C</sub> = 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 $\rightarrow B_C = 5 W / 4 F = 1.25 W / F$ 

#### Performance metrics: 2D Jacobi



Alternative implementation ("Macho FLOP version")

```
do k = 1, kmax

do i = 1, imax

phi(i,k,t1) = 0.25 * phi(i+1,k,t0) + 0.25 * phi(i-1,k,t0)

+ 0.25 * phi(i,k+1,t0) + 0.25 * phi(i,k-1,t0)

enddo

enddo
```

- 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

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



3D sweep:

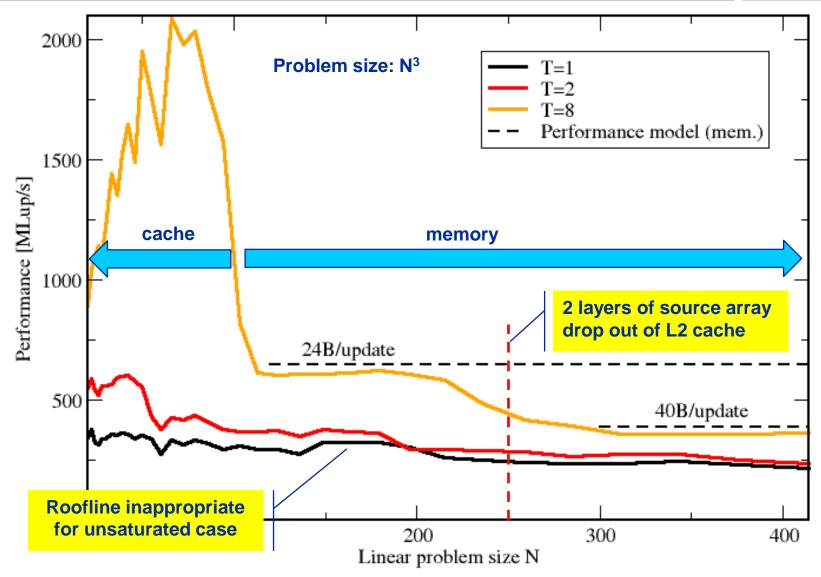
```
do k=1,kmax
  do j=1,jmax
    do i=1,imax
      phi(i,j,k,t1) = 1/6. *(phi(i-1,j,k,t0)+phi(i+1,j,k,t0) &
                            + phi(i,j-1,k,t0)+phi(i,j+1,k,t0) &
                            + phi(i,j,k-1,t0)+phi(i,j,k+1,t0))
    enddo
  enddo
enddo
Best case balance: 1 LD
                                              phi(i,j,k+1,t0)
                     1 ST + 1 write allocate phi(i,j,k,t1)
                     6 flops
\rightarrow B<sub>c</sub> = 0.5 W/F (24 bytes/LUP)
```

- No 2-layer condition but 2 rows fit: B<sub>c</sub> = 5/6 W/F (40 bytes/LUP)
- Worst case (2 rows do not fit): B<sub>c</sub> = 7/6 W/F (56 bytes/LUP)

#### 3D Jacobi solver

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





# **Conclusions from the Jacobi example**



- 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

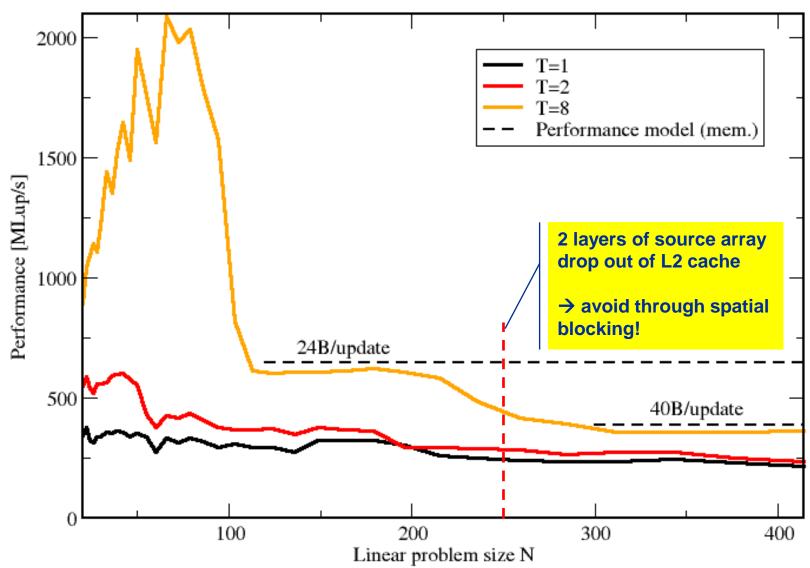


# **Data access optimizations**

**Case study: Optimizing the 3D Jacobi solver** 

# Remember the 3D Jacobi solver on Interlagos?



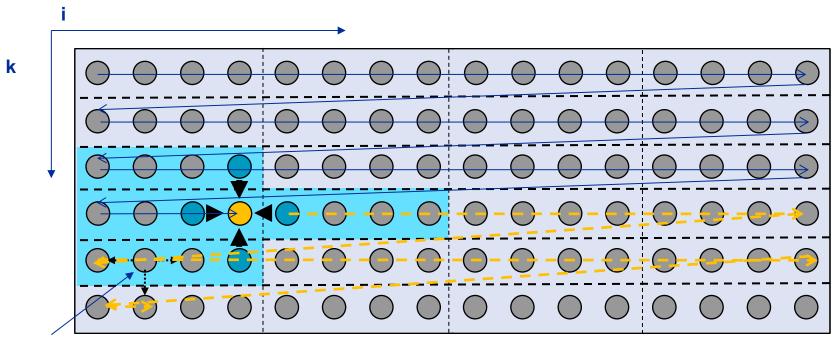


# Jacobi iteration (2D): No spatial Blocking



#### Assumptions:

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



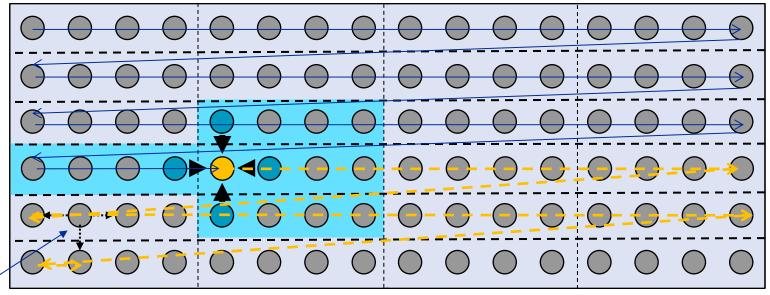
This element is needed for three more updates; but 29 updates happen before this element is used for the last time

# Jacobi iteration (2D): No spatial blocking



#### Assumptions:

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

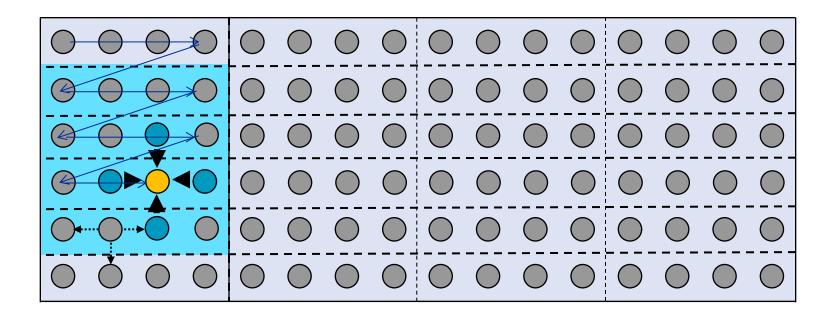


This element is needed for three more updates but has been evicted

# Jacobi iteration (2D): Spatial Blocking



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

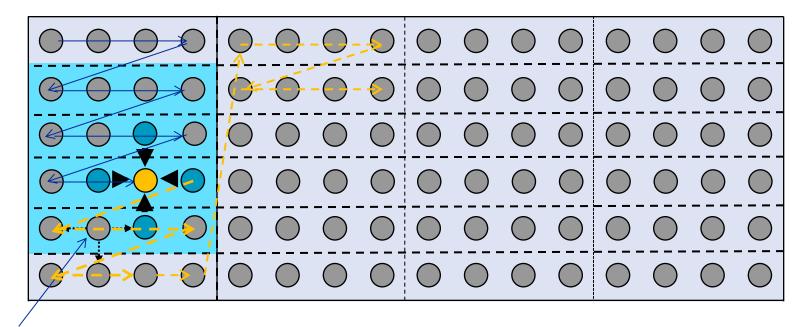


# Jacobi iteration (2D): Spatial Blocking



- 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



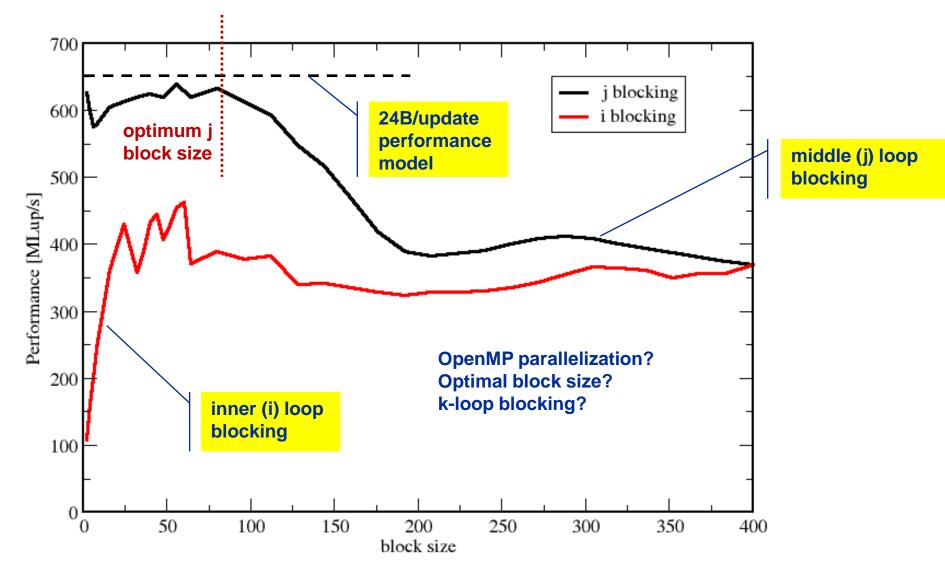
#### Guidelines:

- 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 400<sup>3</sup>)

Blocking different loop levels (8 cores Interlagos)





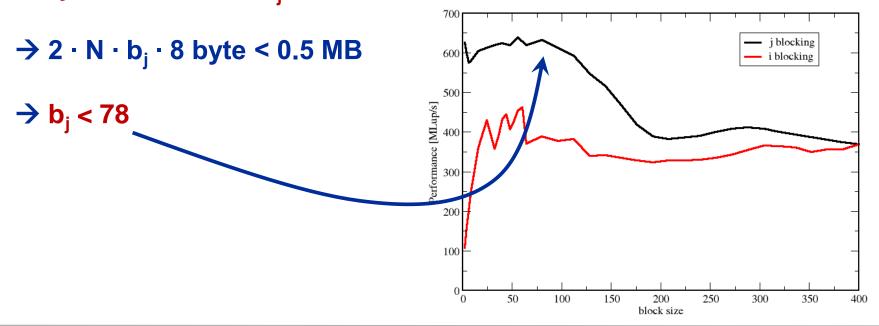
#### 3D Jacobi solver (problem size 400<sup>3</sup>)

Calculating the optimal block size (8 cores Interlagos)



- Interlagos chip: aggregate L2 size of 8 MB (say 4 MB to be safe)
- Static OpenMP scheduling → 0.5 MB cache per core
- Layer condition with j-loop blocking:

2 layers of size N x b<sub>i</sub> must fit into the cache



# Jacobi iteration (3D): Nontemporal stores



- 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 → 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

#### Jacobi iteration (3D): Nontemporal stores for Cray



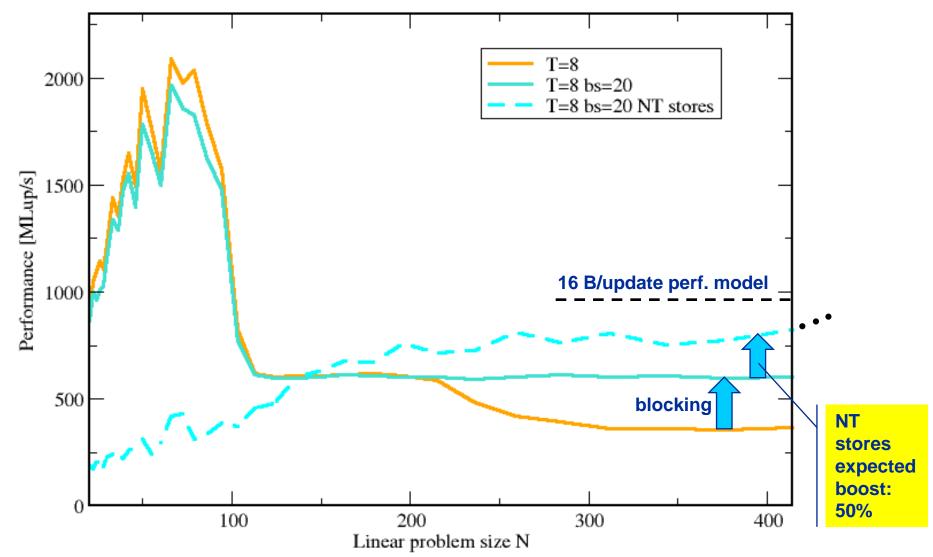
Line update kernel (separate compilation unit or -fno-inline):

```
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:
do joffset=1,jmax,jblock
  do k=1,kmax
    do j=joffset, min(jmax,joffset+jblock-1)
      call jacobi line (phi (1,j,k,t1), phi (1,j,k,t0), phi (1,j,k-1,t0), &
                         phi(1,j,k+1,t0), phi(1,j-1,k,t0), phi(1,j+1,k,t0)
                         ,size)
    enddo
  enddo
enddo
```

#### 3D Jacobi solver

Spatial blocking + nontemporal stores

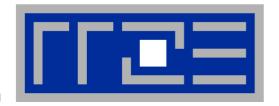




#### **Conclusions from the Jacobi optimization example**



- "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"



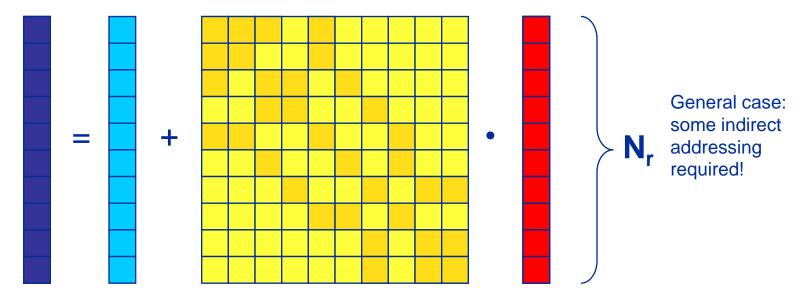
# Case study: OpenMP-parallel sparse matrix-vector multiplication

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

# Sparse matrix-vector multiply (spMVM)

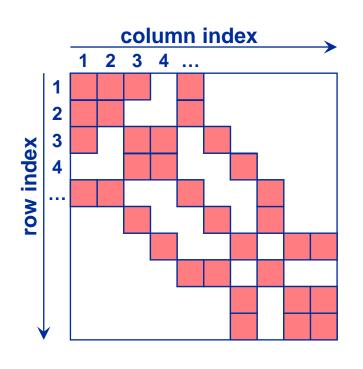


- Key ingredient in some matrix diagonalization algorithms
  - Lanczos, Davidson, Jacobi-Davidson
- Important for sparse solvers (CG,...)
- Store only N<sub>nz</sub> nonzero elements of matrix and RHS, LHS vectors with N<sub>r</sub> (number of matrix rows) entries
- "Sparse": N<sub>nz</sub> ~ N<sub>r</sub>

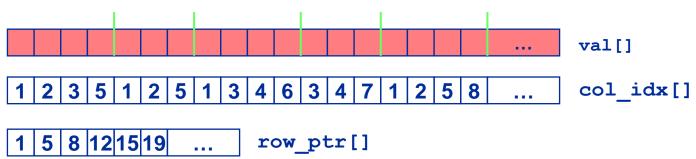


# **CRS** matrix storage scheme





- val[] stores all the nonzeros (length N<sub>nz</sub>)
- col\_idx[] stores the column index of each nonzero (length N<sub>nz</sub>)
- row\_ptr[] stores the starting index of each new row in val[] (length: N<sub>r</sub>)



# **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:

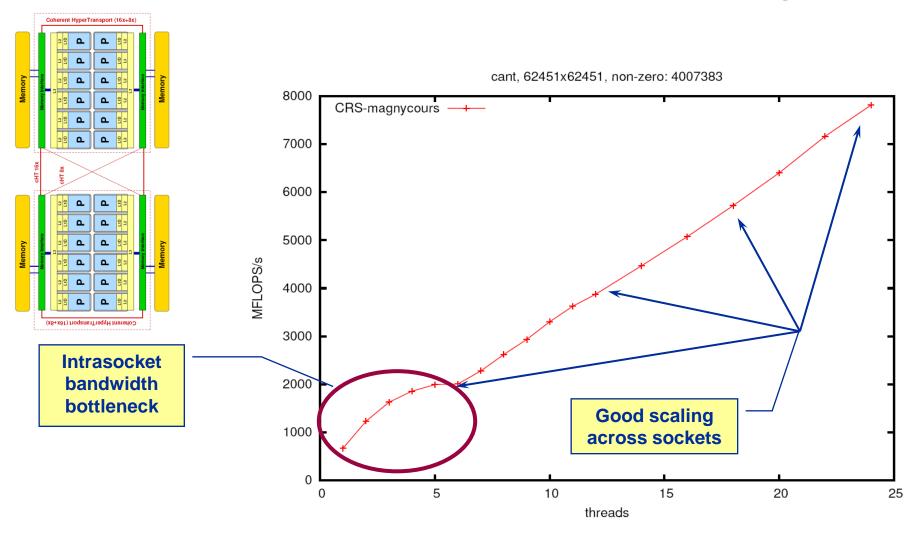
```
!$OMP parallel do
do i = 1,Nr
do j = row_ptr(i), row_ptr(i+1) - 1
   c(i) = c(i) + val(j) * b(col_idx(j))
   enddo
enddo
!$OMP end parallel do
```

- Usually many spMVMs required to solve a problem
- Code balance / computational intensity? (erratic RHS access!)
- Saturation / scaling behavior?

Strong scaling on one XE6 Magny-Cours node



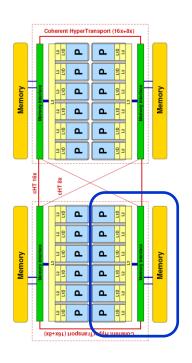
#### **Case 1: Large matrix**

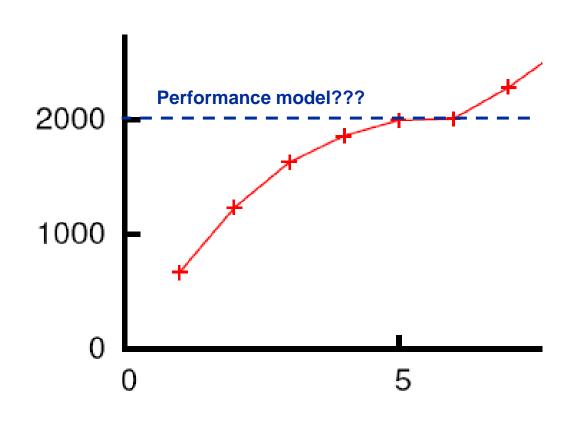


Strong scaling on one XE6 Magny-Cours node



**Case 1: Large matrix** 

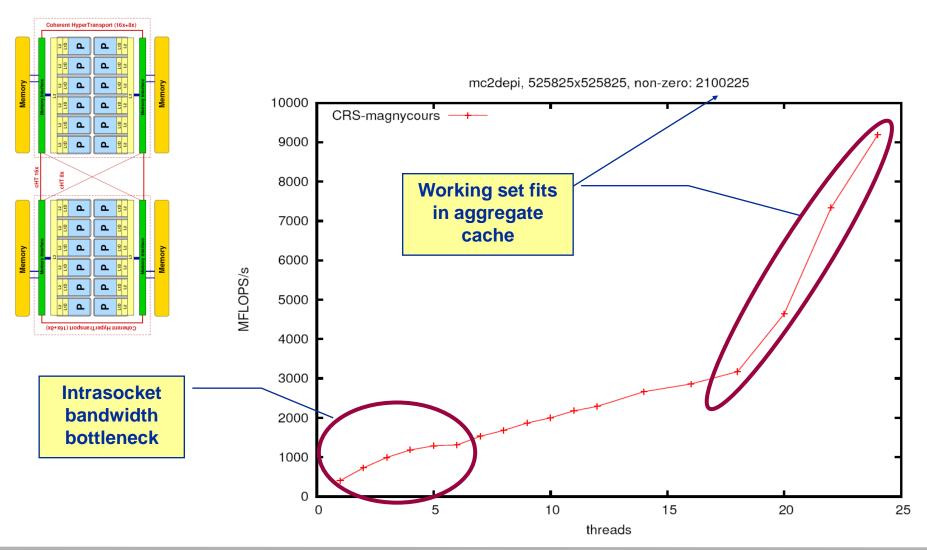




Strong scaling on one XE6 Magny-Cours node



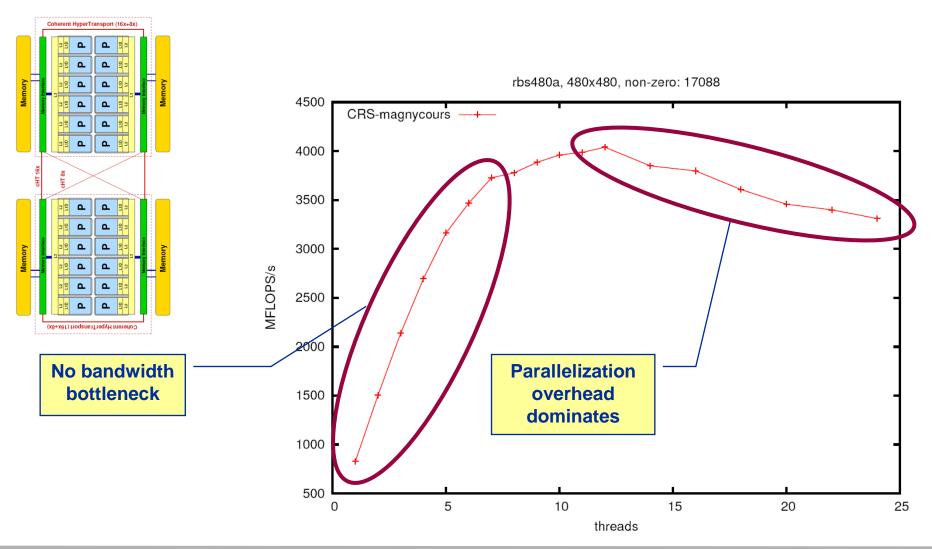
#### Case 2: Medium size



Strong scaling on one Magny-Cours node



#### Case 3: Small size

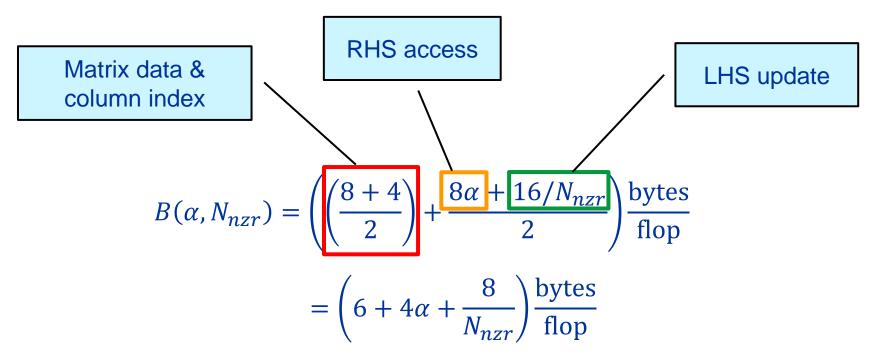


# Roofline performance model for CRS spMVM



# Code balance for double precision FP and 4-byte index:

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



M. Kreutzer, G. Hager, G. Wellein, H. Fehske, and A. R. Bishop: *A unified sparse matrix data format for modern processors with wide SIMD units*. Submitted. Preprint: <u>arXiv:1307.6209</u>

# The $\alpha$ parameter



#### **Corner case scenarios:**

- 1.  $\alpha = 0$   $\rightarrow$  RHS in cache
- 2.  $\alpha = \frac{1}{N_{nzc}}$   $\rightarrow$  Load RHS vector exactly once

If 
$$N_{nzc} \gg 1$$
, RHS traffic is insignificant:  $\bar{P} = \frac{b\beta}{6 \text{ bytes/flop}}$ 

- 3.  $\alpha \approx 1$   $\rightarrow$  Each RHS load goes to memory
- 4.  $\alpha > 1$   $\rightarrow$  Houston, we've got a problem  $\odot$

Determine  $\alpha$  by measuring actual spMVM memory traffic (HPM)

#### **Determine RHS traffic**



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

#### Determine $\alpha$ :

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

#### Example: kkt\_power matrix on one Intel SNB socket

$$N_{nz} = 14.6 \cdot 10^6$$
,  $N_{nzr} = 7.1$ 

■ 
$$V_{meas} \approx 258 \text{ MB}$$

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

- → RHS is loaded 3.1 times from memory
- and:



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

15% extra traffic

→ optimization potential!

# **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?

#### **Conclusions**



# 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