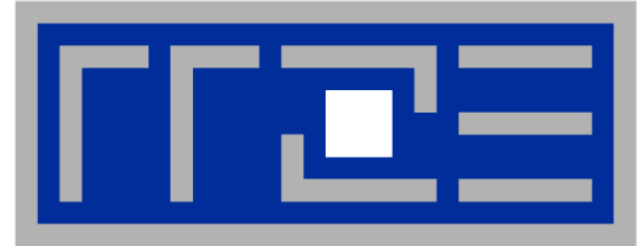


For slides and example code see:

<http://goo.gl/wP2yYF>



Node-Level Performance Engineering

Georg Hager, Jan Eitzinger, Gerhard Wellein

Erlangen Regional Computing Center (RRZE)
and Department of Computer Science

University of Erlangen-Nuremberg



qrme.com

Full-day tutorial

International Workshop “Quantum Dynamics: From Algorithms to Applications”

September 8, 2016

Institut für Physik, University of Greifswald, Germany



- **Preliminaries**

- **Introduction to multicore architecture**

- Threads, cores, SIMD, caches, chips, sockets, ccNUMA

- **Multicore tools**

- **Microbenchmarking for architectural exploration**

- Streaming benchmarks
- Hardware bottlenecks

- **Node-level performance modeling (part I)**

- The Roofline Model and dense MVM

- **Lunch break**

- **Node-level performance modeling (part II)**

- Case studies: Sparse MVM, Jacobi solver

- **Optimal resource utilization**

- SIMD parallelism
- ccNUMA
- OpenMP synchronization and multicores

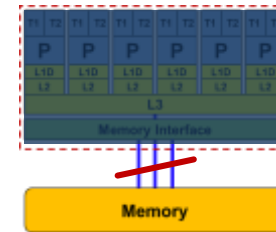


- **What does “clock frequency” mean in computers?**

The “heartbeat” of the CPU. A clock cycle is the smallest unit of time on a CPU chip.
Typically $< 1\text{ns}$ $\rightarrow f \gtrsim 1\text{ GHz}$

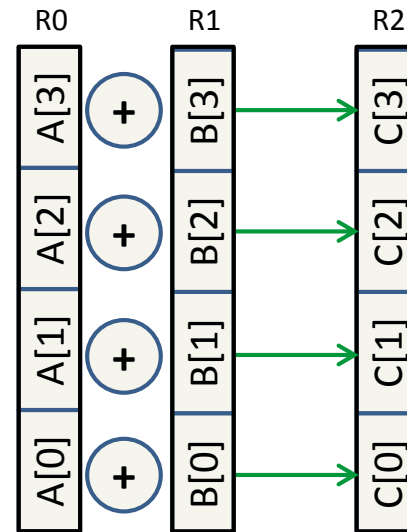
- **What is “memory bandwidth”?**

Rate of data transfer between main memory (RAM) and CPU chip. Typical $b_S \approx 10 \dots 100\text{ GB/s}$

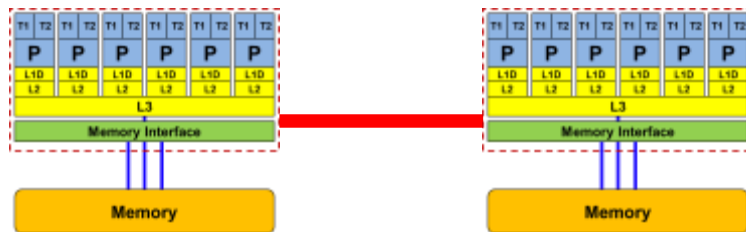


- **What is SIMD vectorization?**

Single Instruction **M**ultiple **D**ata.
Data-parallel load/store and execution units.



- **What is ccNUMA?**





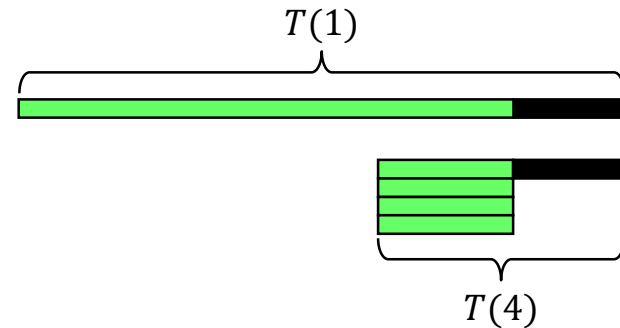
What is a register?

A storage unit in the CPU core that can take one single value (a few values in case of SIMD). Operands for computations reside in registers.

rax	ymm0
rbx	ymm1
rcx	ymm2
rdx	ymm3
rsi	ymm4

What is Amdahl's Law?

$$S_p = \frac{T(1)}{T(N)} = \frac{1}{s + \frac{1-s}{N}}$$



What is a pipelined functional unit?

An instruction execution unit on the core that executes a certain task in several simple sub-steps. The stages of the pipeline can act in parallel on several instructions at once.



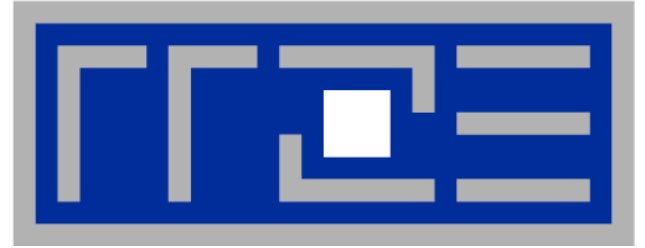


From a student seminar on “Efficient programming of modern multi- and manycore processors”

Student: I have implemented this algorithm on the GPGPU, and it solves a system with 26546 unknowns in 0.12 seconds, so it is really fast.

Me: What makes you think that 0.12 seconds is fast?

Student: It is fast because my baseline C++ code on the CPU is about 20 times slower.



Prelude:
Scalability 4 the win!

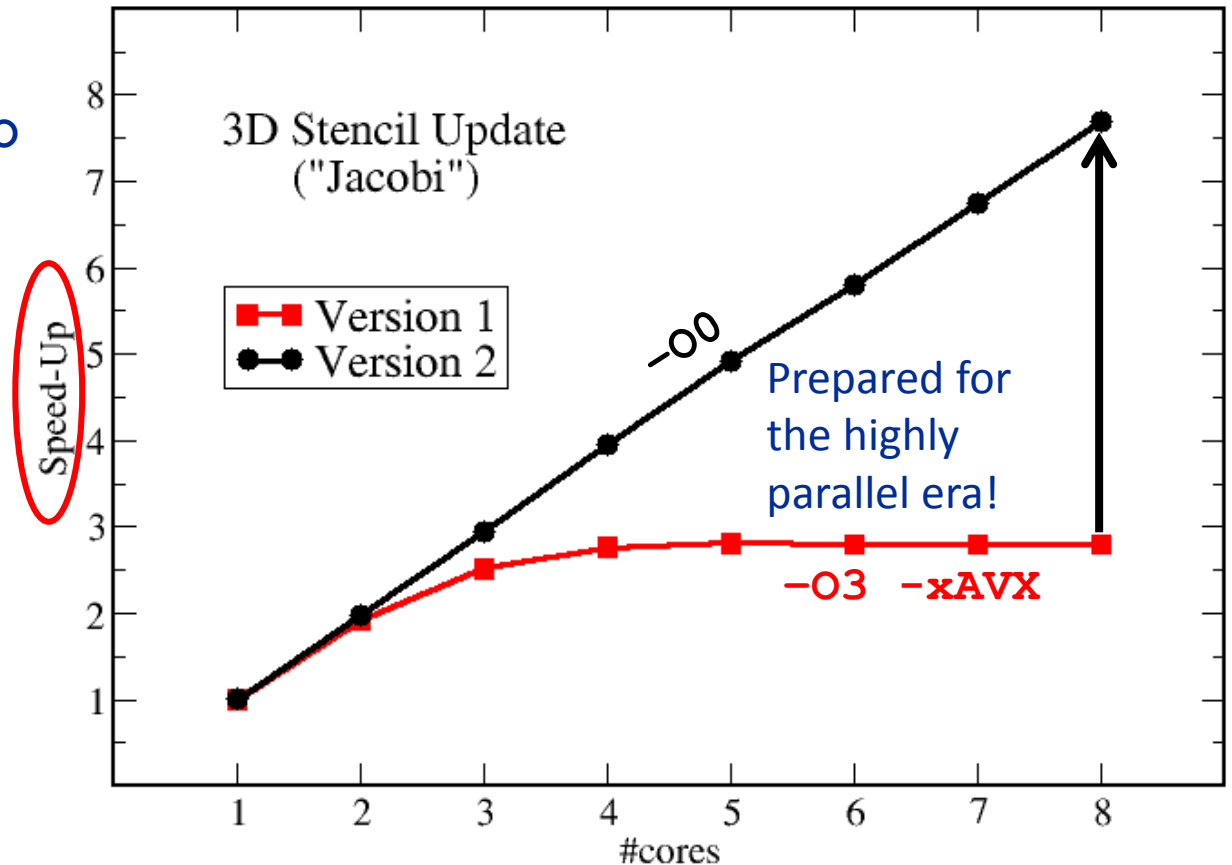
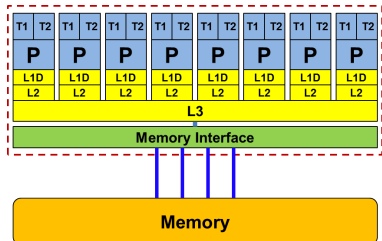
Scalability Myth: Code scalability is the key issue



```

!$OMP PARALLEL DO
do k = 1 , Nk
  do j = 1 , Nj; do i = 1 , Ni
    y(i,j,k) = b*( x(i-1,j,k)+ x(i+1,j,k)+ x(i,j-1,k)+
                  x(i,j+1,k)+ x(i,j,k-1)+ x(i,j,k+1))
  enddo; enddo
enddo
!$OMP END PARALLEL DO
    
```

Changing only the compile options makes this code scalable on an 8-core chip



Scalability Myth: Code scalability is the key issue

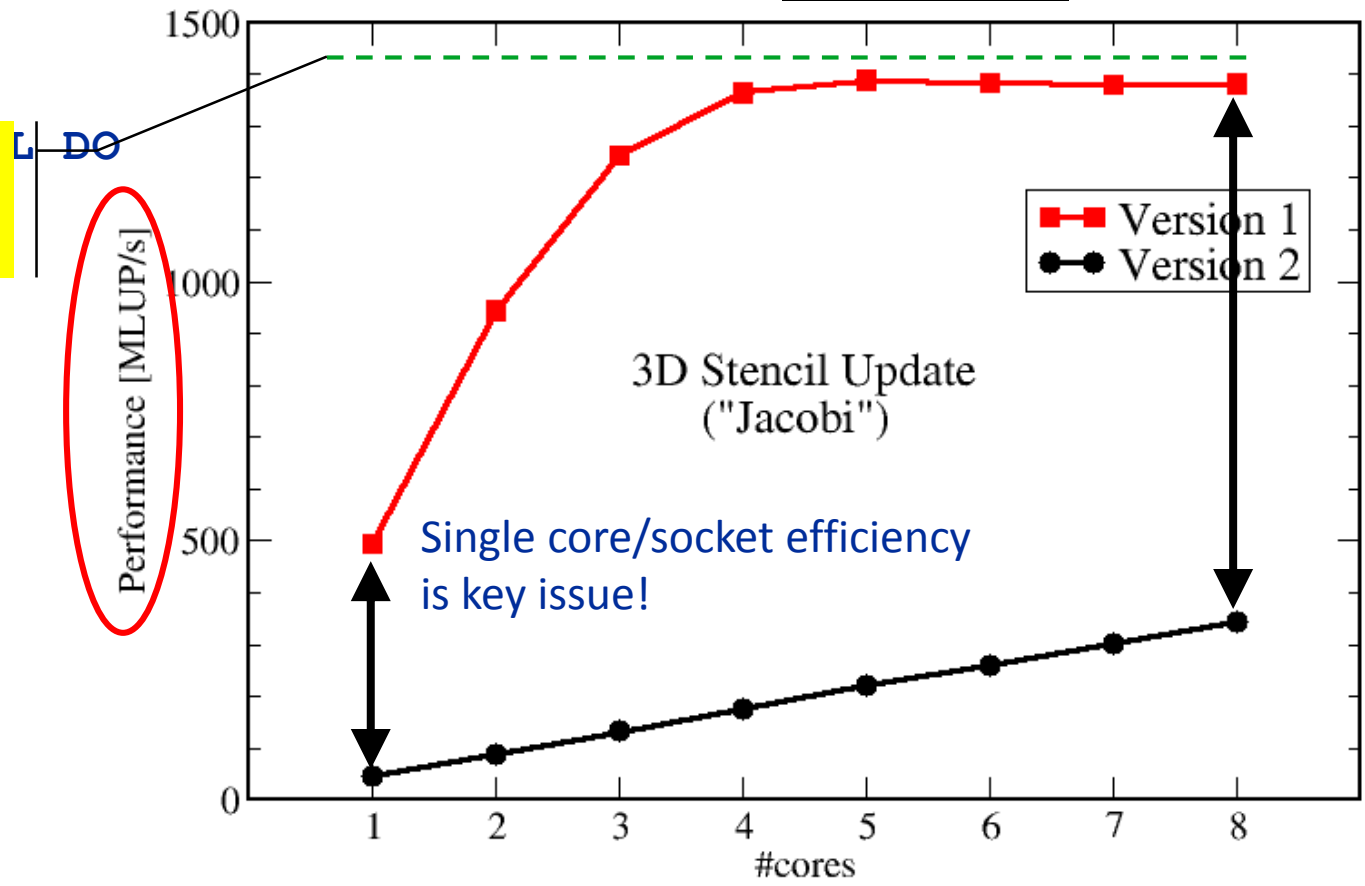
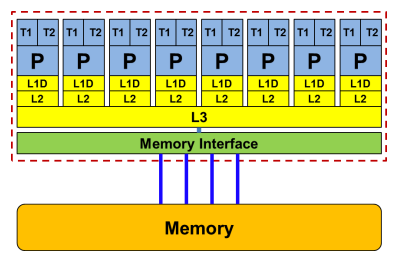


```

!$OMP PARALLEL DO
do k = 1 , Nk
  do j = 1 , Nj; do i = 1 , Ni
    y(i,j,k) = b*( x(i-1,j,k) + x(i+1,j,k) + x(i,j-1,k) +
      x(i,j+1,k) + x(i,j,k-1) + x(i,j,k+1) )
  enddo; enddo
enddo

```

Upper limit from simple performance model:
35 GB/s & 24 Byte/update





- **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



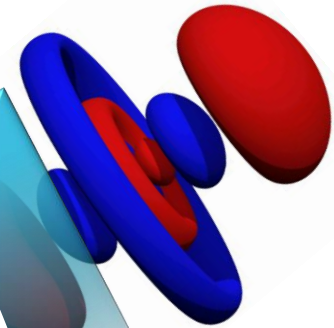
Newtonian mechanics



$$\vec{F} = m\vec{a}$$

Fails @ small scales!

Nonrelativistic quantum mechanics

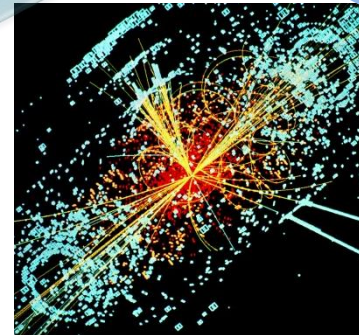


$$i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \psi(\vec{r}, t) = H\psi(\vec{r}, t)$$

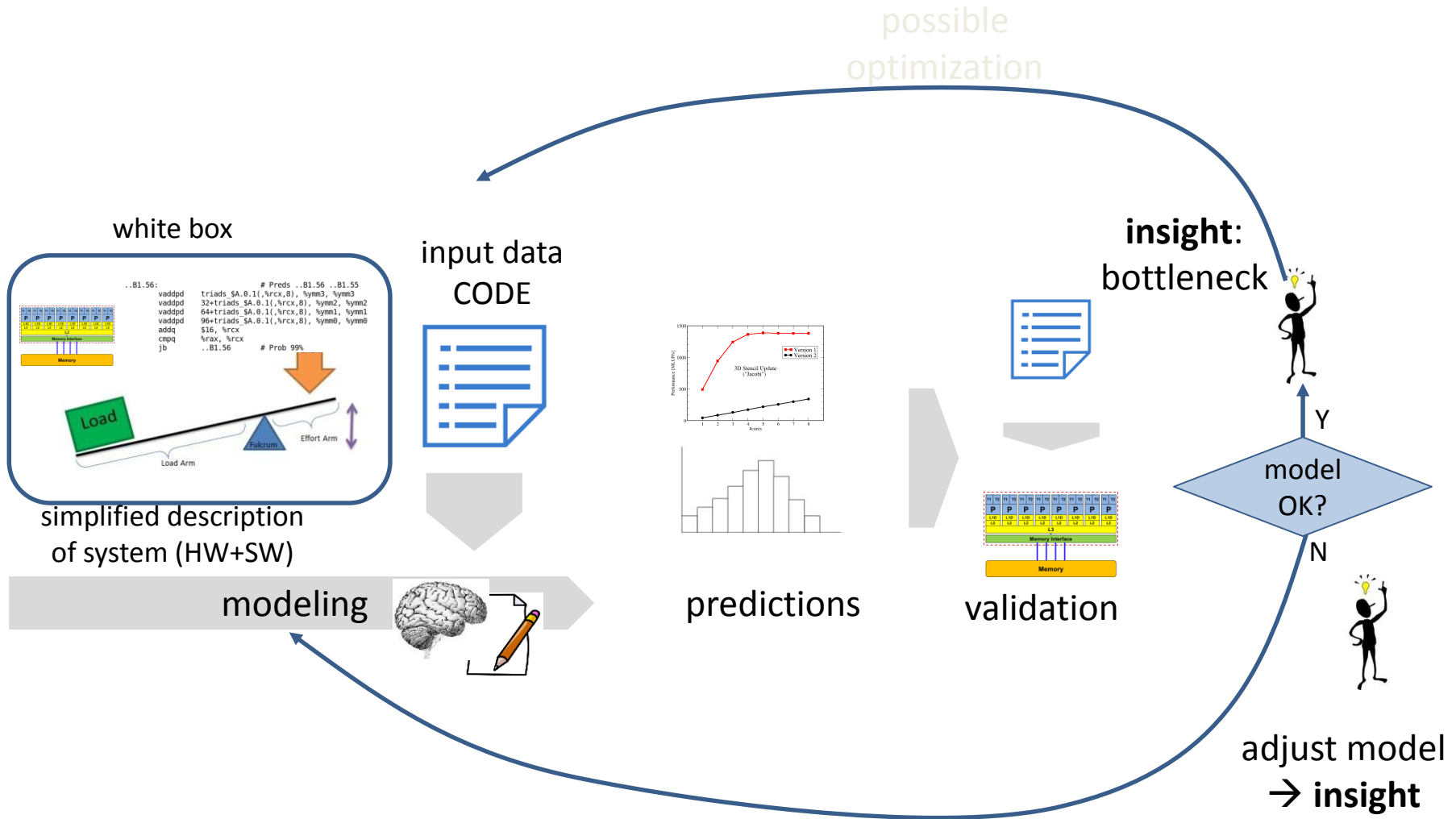
Fails @ even smaller scales!

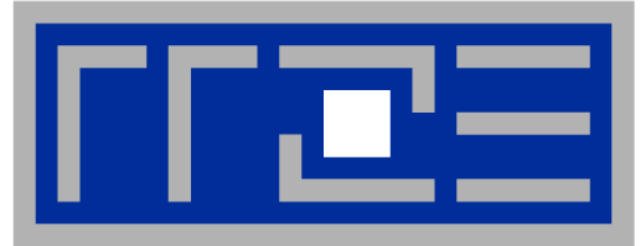
If a model fails,
we learn something!

Relativistic quantum field theory



$$U(1)_Y \otimes SU(2)_L \otimes SU(3)_c$$





Introduction: Modern node architecture

A glance at basic core features:

pipelining, superscalarity, SMT

Caches and data transfers through the memory hierarchy

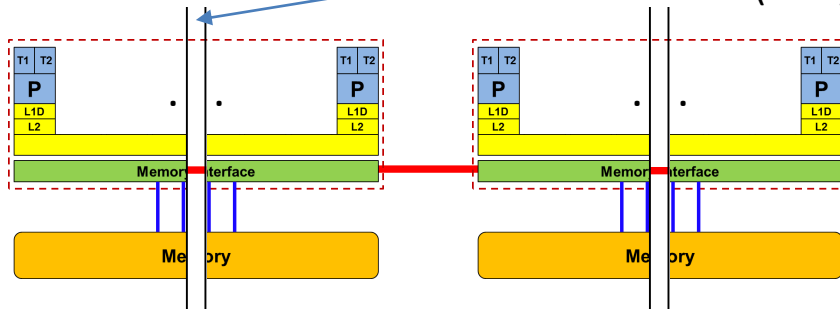
Accelerators

Bottlenecks & hardware-software interaction

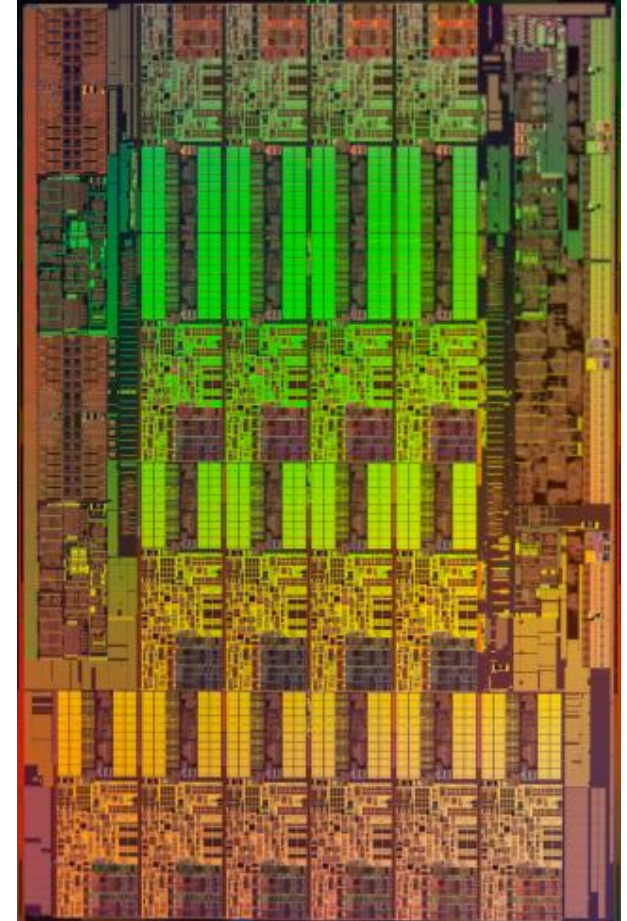


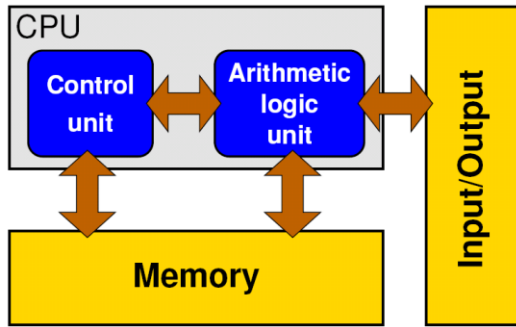
- Xeon E5-2600v3 “Haswell EP”:
Up to 18 cores running at 2+ GHz (+ “Turbo Mode”: 3.5+ GHz)
- Simultaneous Multithreading
→ reports as 36-way chip
- **5.7 Billion** Transistors / 22 nm
- **Die size: 662 mm²**

Optional:
“Cluster on Die”
(CoD) mode



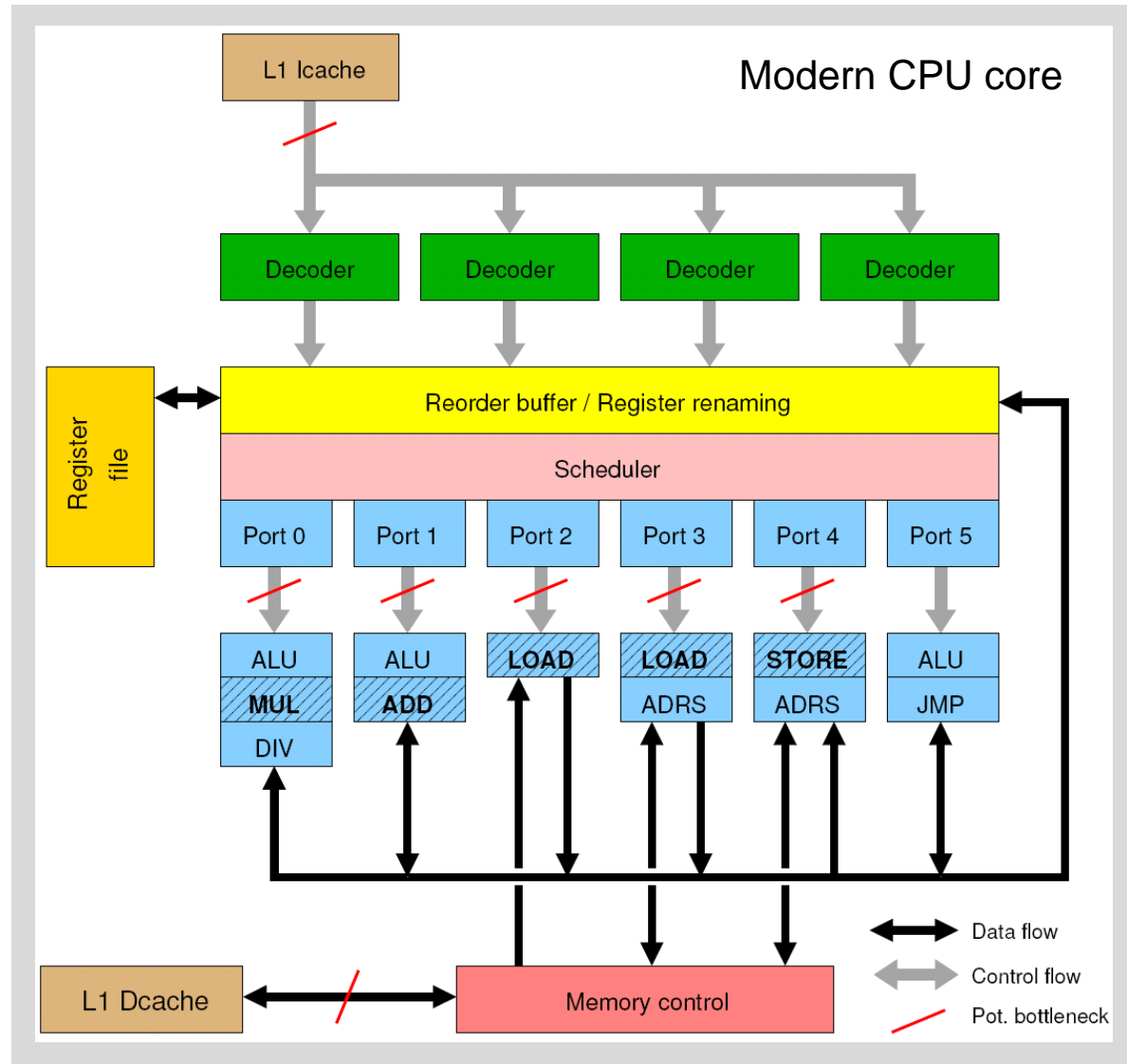
2-socket server





Stored-program computer

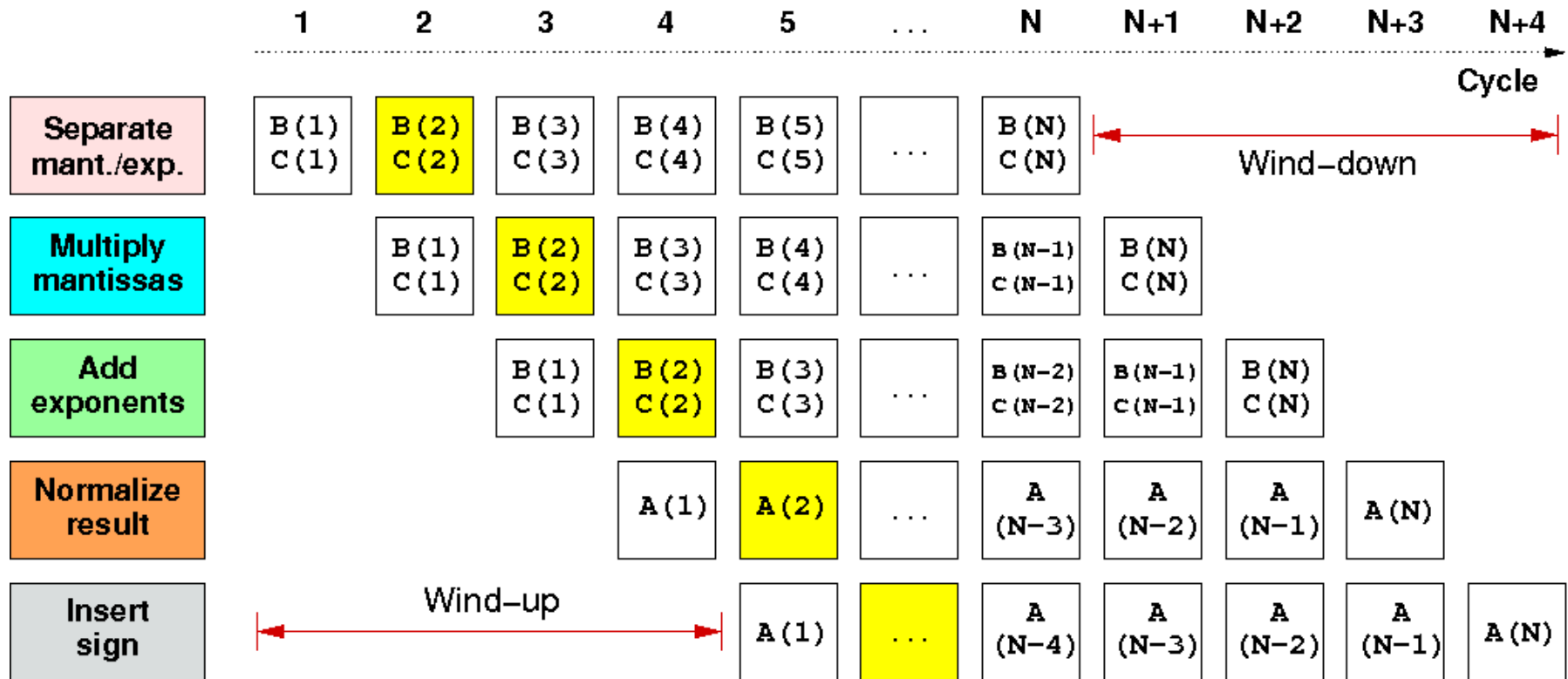
- Implements “Stored Program Computer” concept (Turing 1936)
- Similar designs on all modern systems
- (Still) multiple potential bottlenecks
- The **clock cycle** is the “**heartbeat**” of the core





- **Idea:**
 - Split complex instruction into several simple / fast steps (stages)
 - Each step takes the same amount of time, e.g. a single cycle
 - Execute different steps on different instructions at the same time (in parallel)
- **Allows for shorter cycle times (simpler logic circuits), e.g.:**
 - floating point multiplication takes 5 cycles, but
 - processor can work on 5 different multiplications simultaneously
 - one result at each cycle after the pipeline is full
- **Drawback:**
 - Pipeline must be filled - startup times ($\#Instructions \gg$ pipeline steps)
 - Efficient use of pipelines requires large number of independent instructions → instruction level parallelism
 - Requires complex instruction scheduling by compiler/hardware – software-pipelining / out-of-order
- **Pipelining is widely used in modern computer architectures**

5-stage Multiplication-Pipeline: $A(i)=B(i)*C(i)$; $i=1,\dots,N$



First result is available after 5 cycles (=latency of pipeline)!

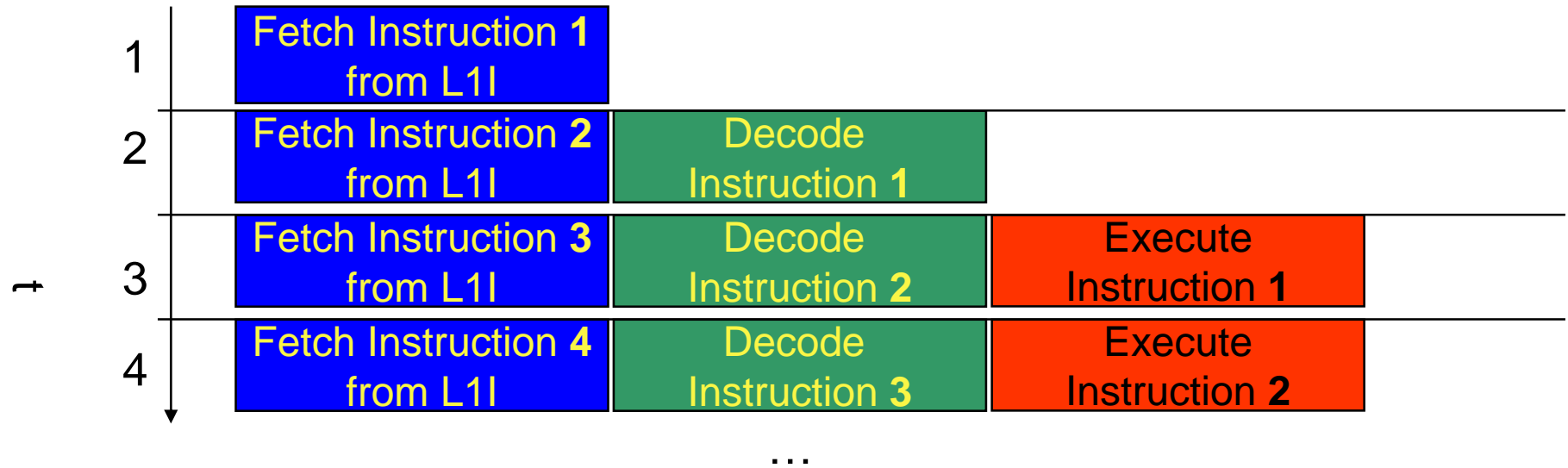
Wind-up/-down phases: Empty pipeline stages



- Besides arithmetic & functional unit, instruction execution itself is pipelined also, e.g.: one instruction performs at least 3 steps:



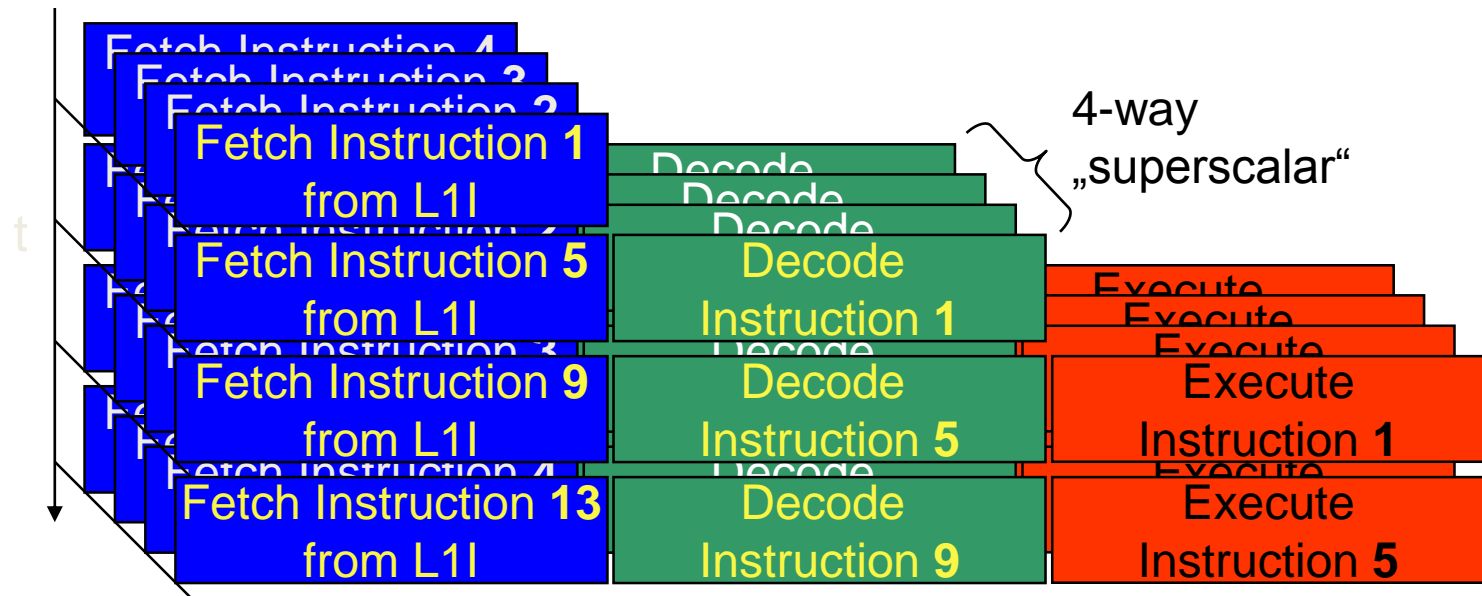
Hardware Pipelining on processor (all units can run concurrently):



- Branches can stall this pipeline! (Speculative Execution, Predication)
- Each unit is pipelined itself (e.g., Execute = Multiply Pipeline)



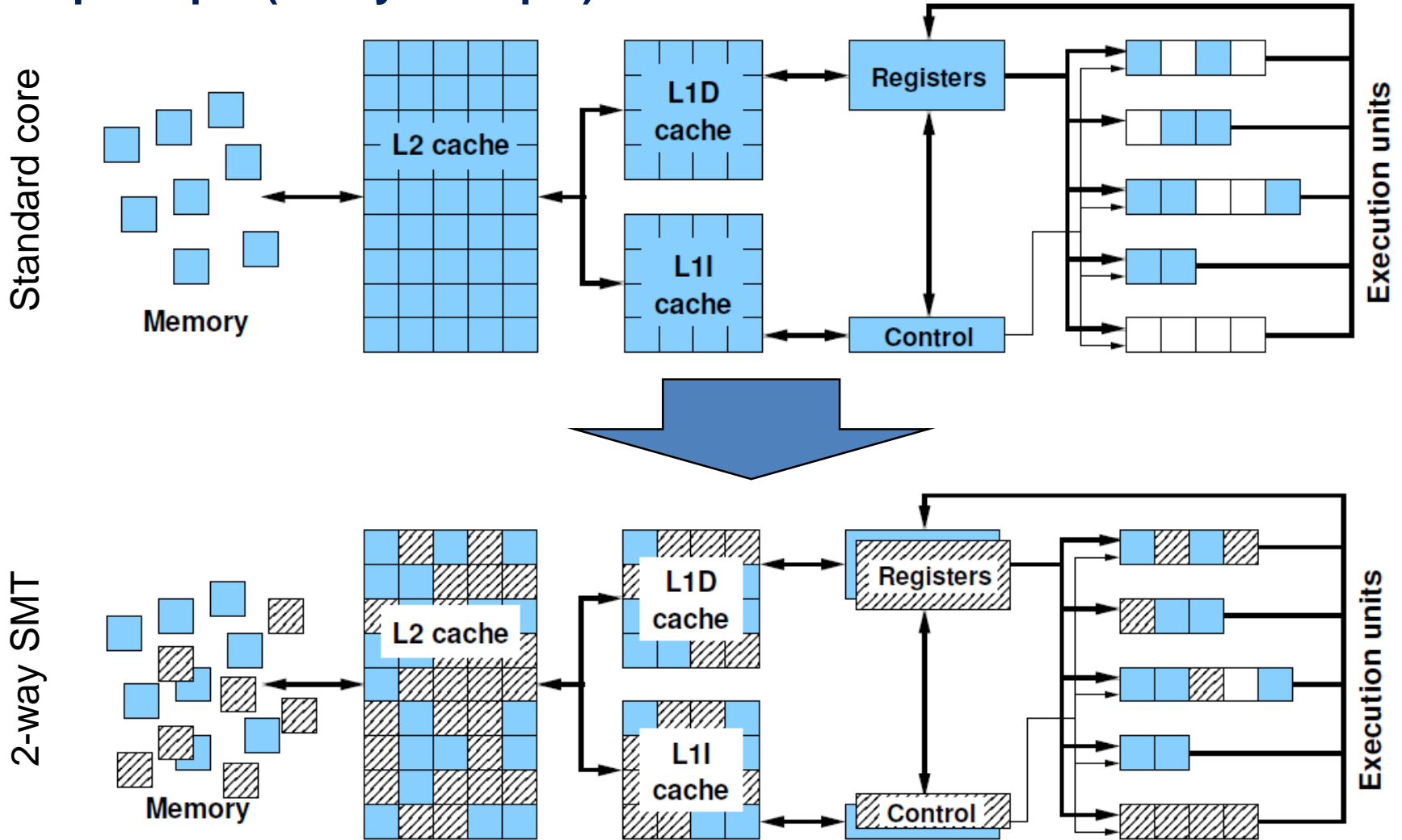
- Multiple units enable use of **I**nstruction **L**evel **P**arallelism (ILP):
Instruction stream is “parallelized” on the fly



- Issuing m concurrent instructions per cycle: m -way superscalar
- Modern processors are 3- to 6-way superscalar & can perform 2 or 4 floating point operations per cycles



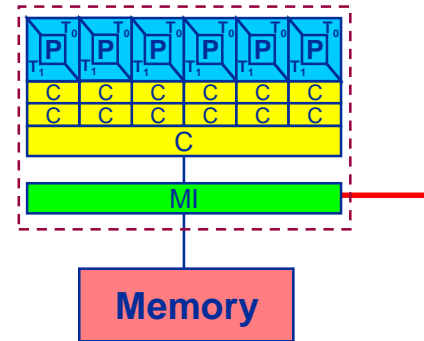
SMT principle (2-way example):



SMT impact



- SMT adds **another layer of topology** (inside the physical core)
- **Caveat: SMT threads share all caches!**
- **Possible benefit: Better pipeline throughput**
 - Filling otherwise unused pipelines
 - Filling pipeline bubbles with other thread's executing instructions:



Thread 0:

```
do i=1,N
  a(i) = a(i-1)*c
enddo
```

Dependency → pipeline stalls until previous MULT is over

Thread 1:

```
do i=1,N
  b(i) = s*b(i-2)+d
enddo
```

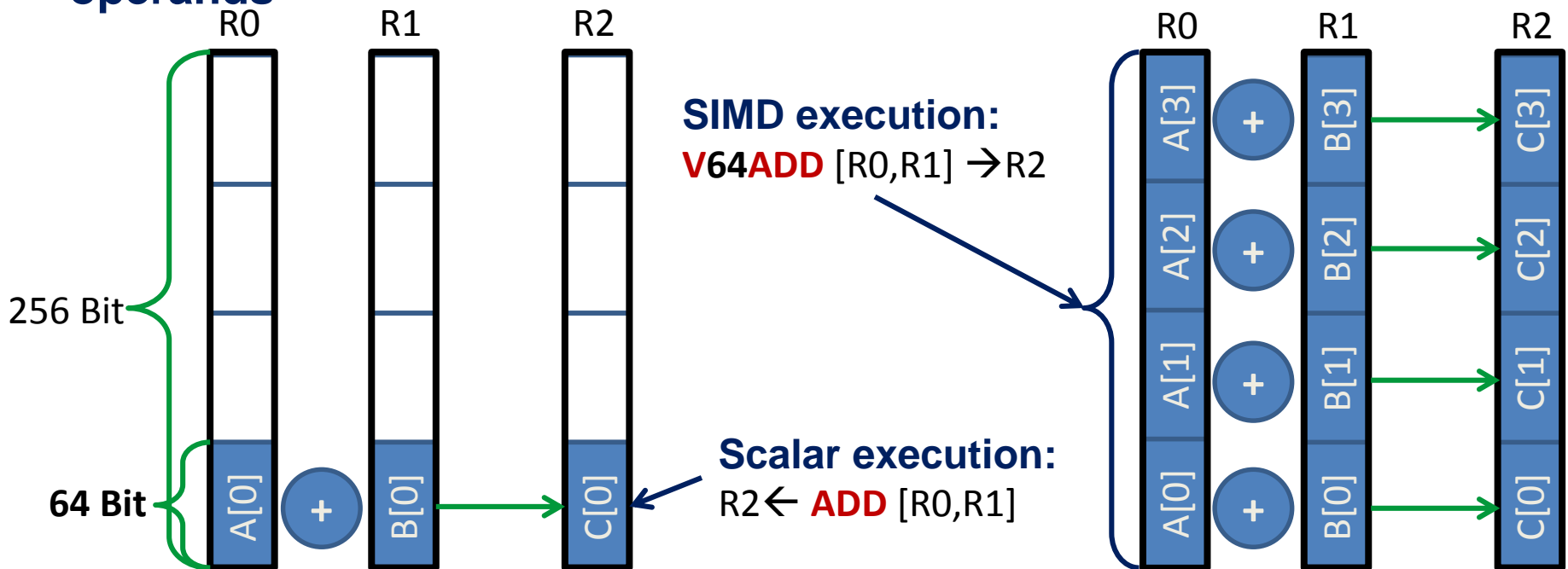
Unrelated work in other thread can fill the pipeline bubbles

- **Beware:** Executing it all in a single thread (if possible) may achieve the same goal without SMT:

```
do i=1,N
  a(i) = a(i-1)*c
  b(i) = s*b(i-2)+d
enddo
```



- **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 handling
```

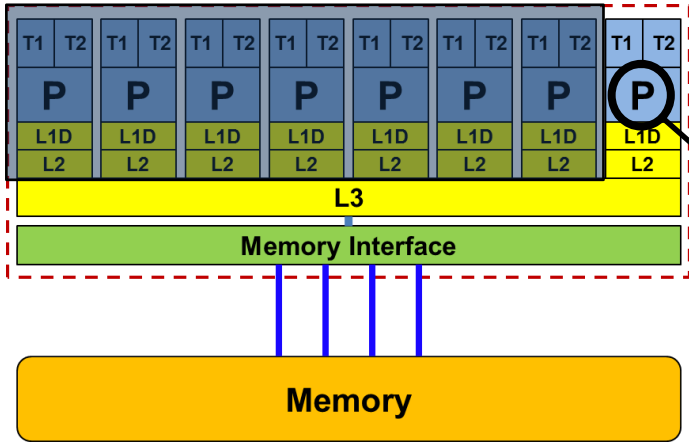
Load 256 Bits starting from address of A[i] to register R0

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 handling
```

There is no single driving force for single core performance!



Maximum floating point (FP) performance:

$$P_{core} = n_{super}^{FP} \cdot n_{FMA} \cdot n_{SIMD} \cdot f$$

Super-scalar-ity

FMA factor

SIMD factor

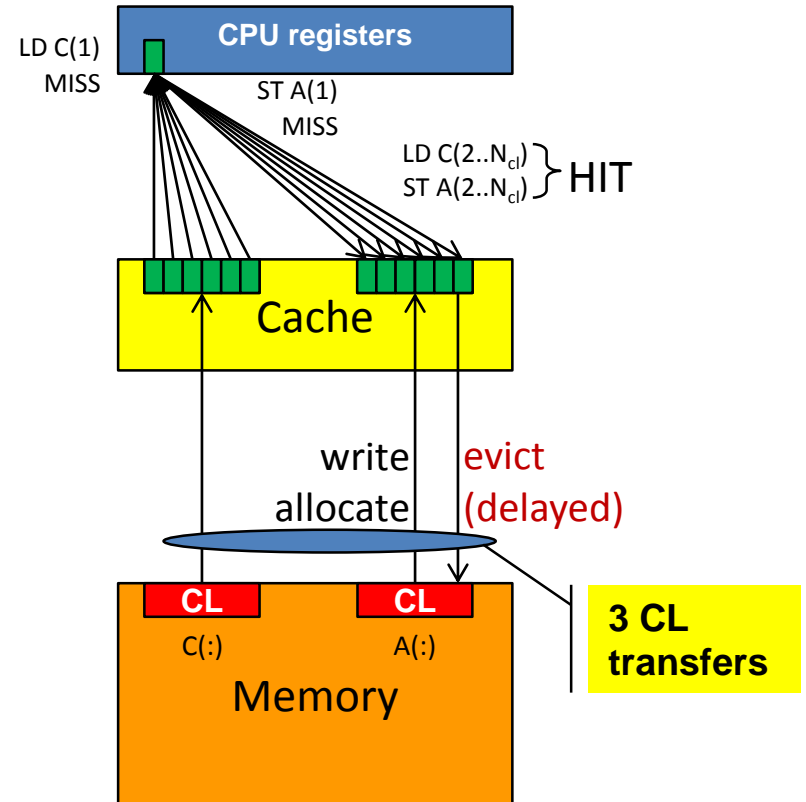
Clock Speed

Typical representatives	n_{super}^{FP} inst./cy	n_{FMA}	n_{SIMD} ops/inst.		Code	f [GHz]	P_{core} [GF/s]
Nehalem	2	1	2	Q1/2009	X5570	2.93	11.7
Westmere	2	1	2	Q1/2010	X5650	2.66	10.6
Sandy Bridge	2	1	4	Q1/2012	E5-2680	2.7	21.6
Ivy Bridge	2	1	4	Q3/2013	E5-2660 v2	2.2	17.6
Haswell	2	2	4	Q3/2014	E5-2695 v3	2.3	36.8
Broadwell	2	2	4	Q1/2016	E5-2699 v4	2.2	35.2
IBM POWER8	2	2	2	Q2/2014	S822LC	2.93	23.4



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 $A(:) = C(:)$

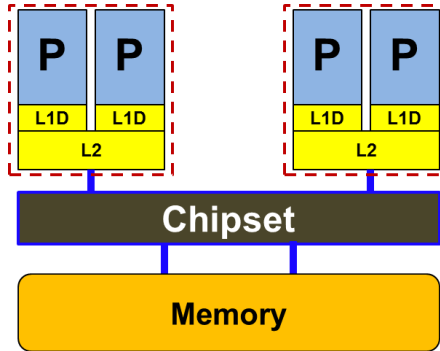


Commodity cluster nodes: From UMA to ccNUMA

Basic architecture of commodity compute cluster nodes



Yesterday (2006): UMA



2-socket server

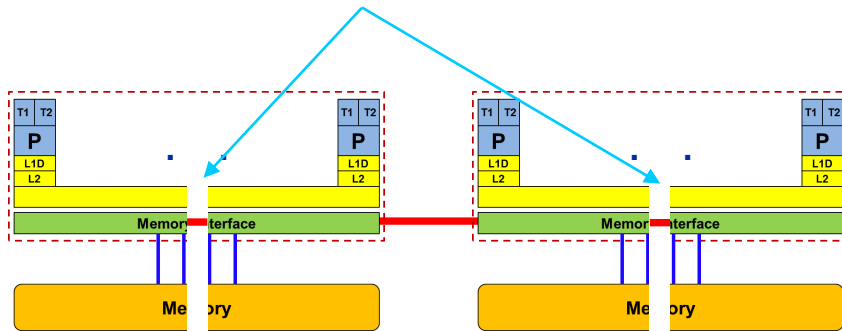
Uniform Memory Architecture (UMA)

Flat memory ; symmetric MPs

But: system “anisotropy”

Haswell(++):
“Cluster on Die”
(CoD) mode

Today: ccNUMA

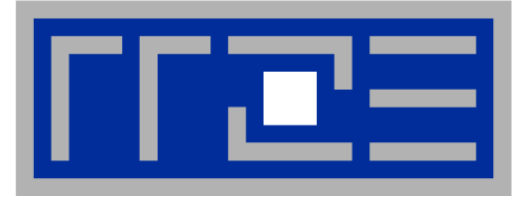


2-socket server

Cache-coherent Non-Uniform Memory Architecture (**ccNUMA**)

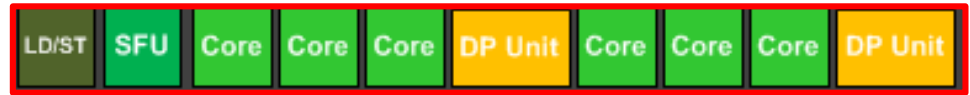
Two or more **NUMA domains** per node

ccNUMA provides scalable bandwidth but:
Where does my data finally end up?



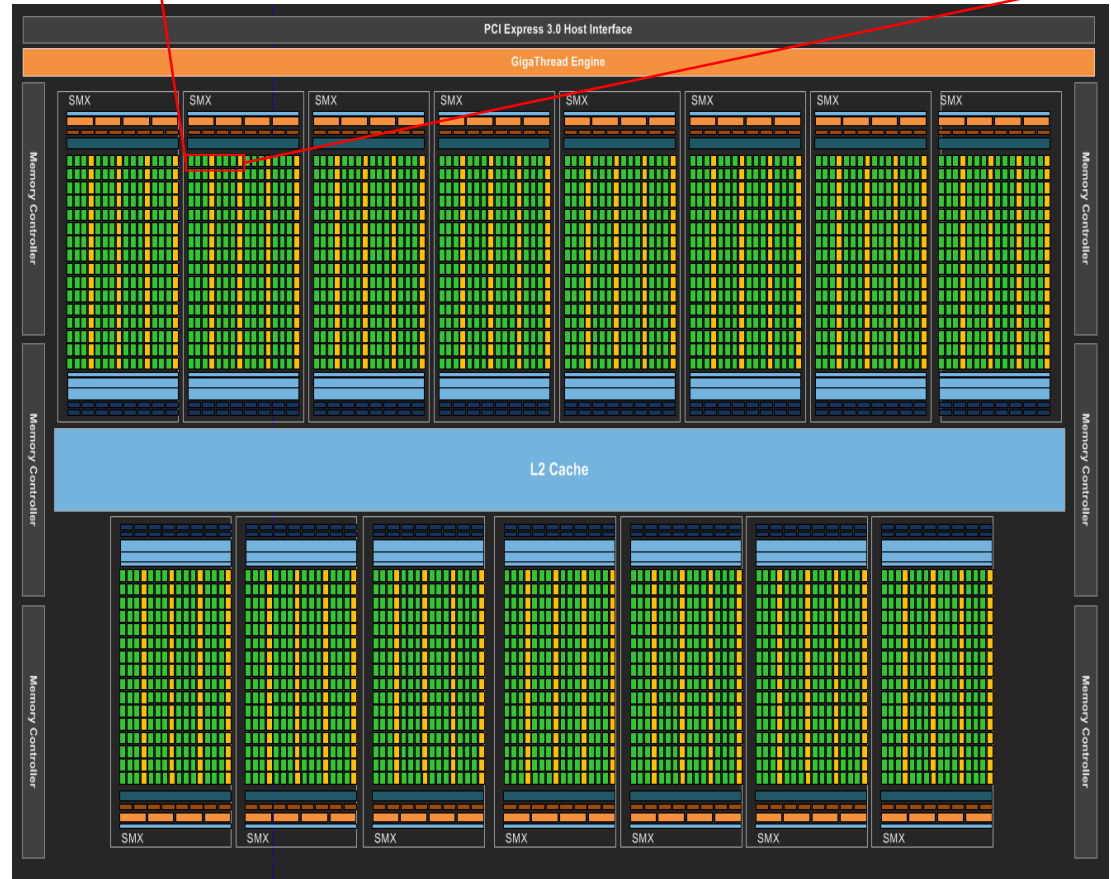
Interlude:
A glance at current accelerator technology

NVIDIA Kepler GK110 Block Diagram



Architecture

- 7.1B Transistors
- 15 “SMX” units
 - 192 (SP) “cores” each
- > 1 TFLOP DP peak
- 1.5 MB L2 Cache
- 384-bit GDDR5
- PCI Express Gen3
- **3:1 SP:DP performance**

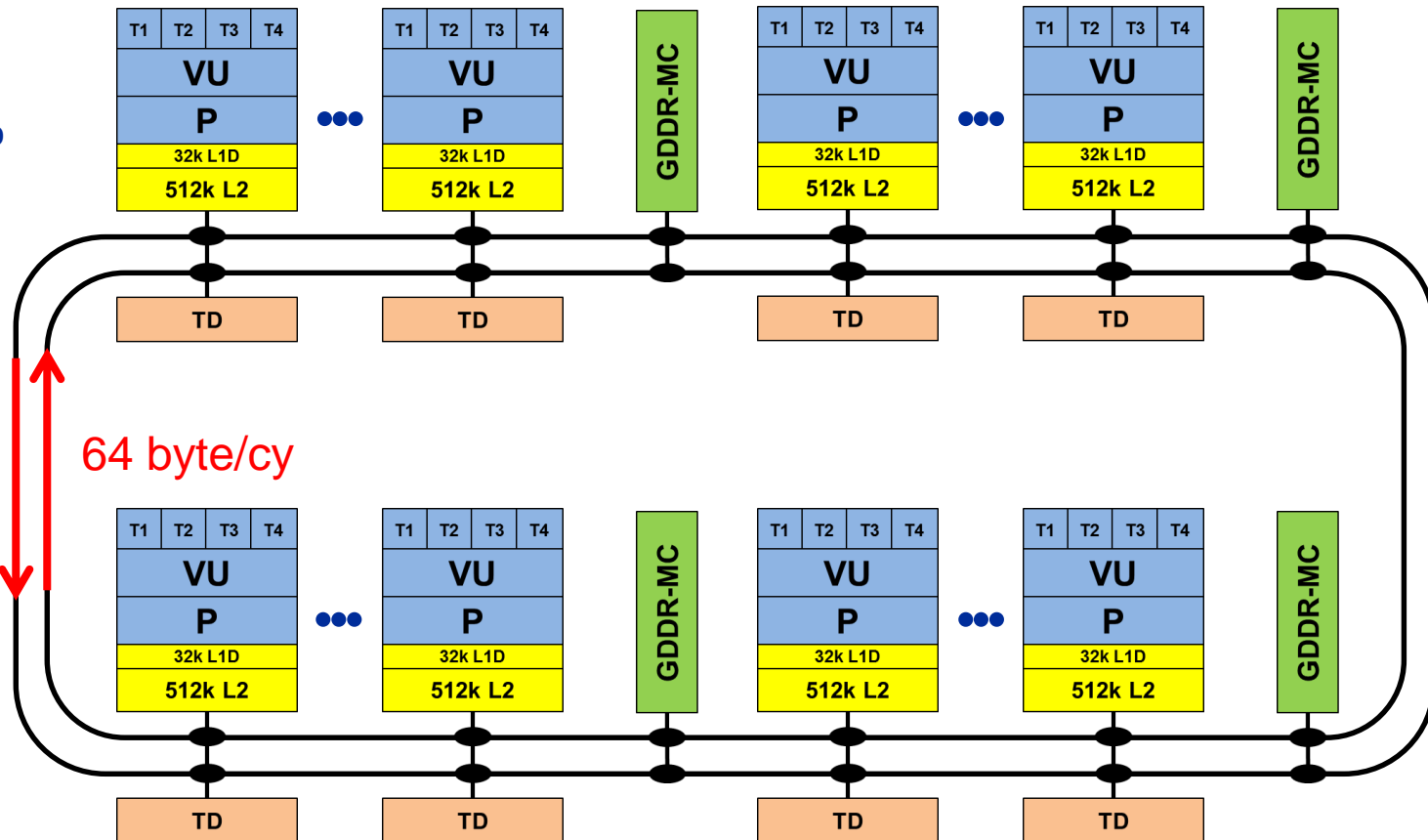


© NVIDIA Corp. Used with permission.



Architecture

- 3B Transistors
- 60+ cores
- 512 bit SIMD
- ≈ 1 TFLOP DP peak
- 0.5 MB L2/core
- GDDR5
- 2:1 SP:DP performance



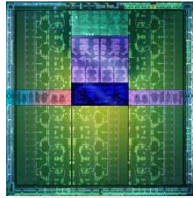
Intel Xeon Phi

- **60+ IA32 cores** each with 512 Bit SIMD FMA unit → **480/960 SIMD DP/SP tracks**
- Clock Speed: ~1000 MHz
- Transistor count: ~3 B (22nm)
- Power consumption: ~250 W
- Peak Performance (DP): ~ 1 TF/s
- Memory BW: ~250 GB/s (GDDR5)
- Threads to execute: 60-240+
- Programming:
Fortran/C/C++ +OpenMP + SIMD



NVIDIA Kepler K20

- 15 SMX units each with 192 “cores” → **960/2880 DP/SP “cores”**
- Clock Speed: ~700 MHz
- Transistor count: 7.1 B (28nm)
- Power consumption: ~250 W
- Peak Performance (DP): ~ 1.3 TF/s
- Memory BW: ~ 250 GB/s (GDDR5)
- Threads to execute: 10,000+
- Programming:
CUDA, OpenCL, (OpenACC)



- TOP7: “Stampede” at Texas Center for Advanced Computing

**TOP500
rankings
Nov 2012**

- TOP1: “Titan” at Oak Ridge National Laboratory

Trading single thread performance for parallelism:

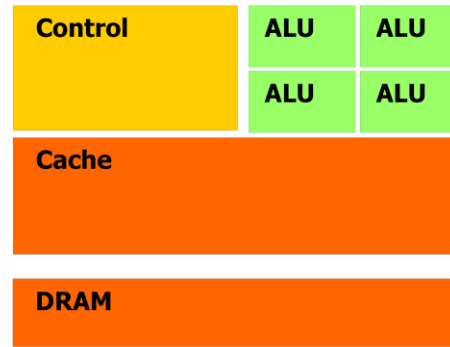
GPGPUs vs. CPUs



GPU vs. CPU

light speed estimate:

1. **Compute bound:** 2-10x
2. **Memory Bandwidth:** 1-5x



CPU



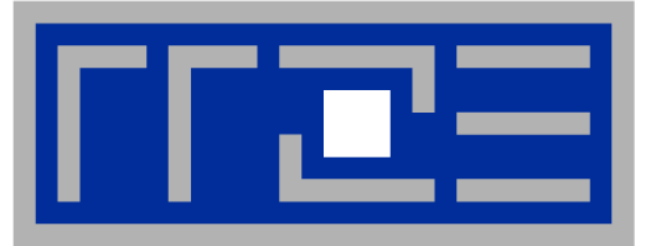
GPU

	Intel Core i5 – 2500 ("Sandy Bridge")	Intel Xeon E5-2680 DP node ("Sandy Bridge")	NVIDIA K20x ("Kepler")
Cores@Clock	4 @ 3.3 GHz	2 x 8 @ 2.7 GHz	2880 @ 0.7 GHz
Performance ⁺ /core	52.8 GFlop/s	43.2 GFlop/s	1.4 GFlop/s
Threads@STREAM	<4	<16	>8000?
Total performance ⁺	210 GFlop/s	691 GFlop/s	4,000 GFlop/s
Stream BW	18 GB/s	2 x 40 GB/s	168 GB/s (ECC=1)
Transistors / TDP	1 Billion* / 95 W	2 x (2.27 Billion/130W)	7.1 Billion/250W

⁺ Single Precision

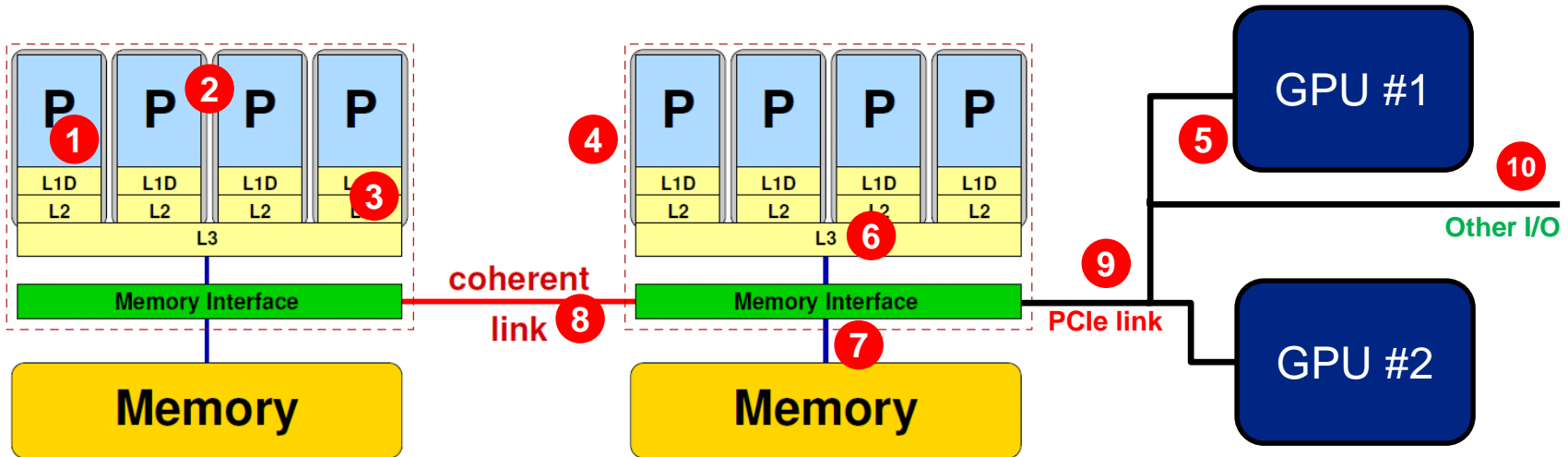
* Includes on-chip GPU and PCI-Express

Complete compute device



Node topology and programming models

- Parallel and shared resources within a shared-memory node



Parallel resources:

- Execution/SIMD units 1
- Cores 2
- Inner cache levels 3
- Sockets / ccNUMA domains 4
- Multiple accelerators 5

Shared resources:

- Outer cache level per socket 6
- Memory bus per socket 7
- Intersocket link 8
- PCIe bus(es) 9
- Other I/O resources 10

How does your application react to all of those details?



- **Shared-memory (intra-node)**
 - Good old MPI
 - OpenMP
 - POSIX threads
 - Intel Threading Building Blocks (TBB)
 - Cilk+, OpenCL, StarSs,... you name it

- **“Accelerated”**
 - OpenMP 4.0+
 - CUDA
 - OpenCL
 - OpenACC

- **Distributed-memory (inter-node)**
 - MPI
 - PGAS (CAF, UPC, ...)

- **Hybrid**
 - Pure MPI + X, X == <you name it>

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

Parallel programming models:

Pure MPI



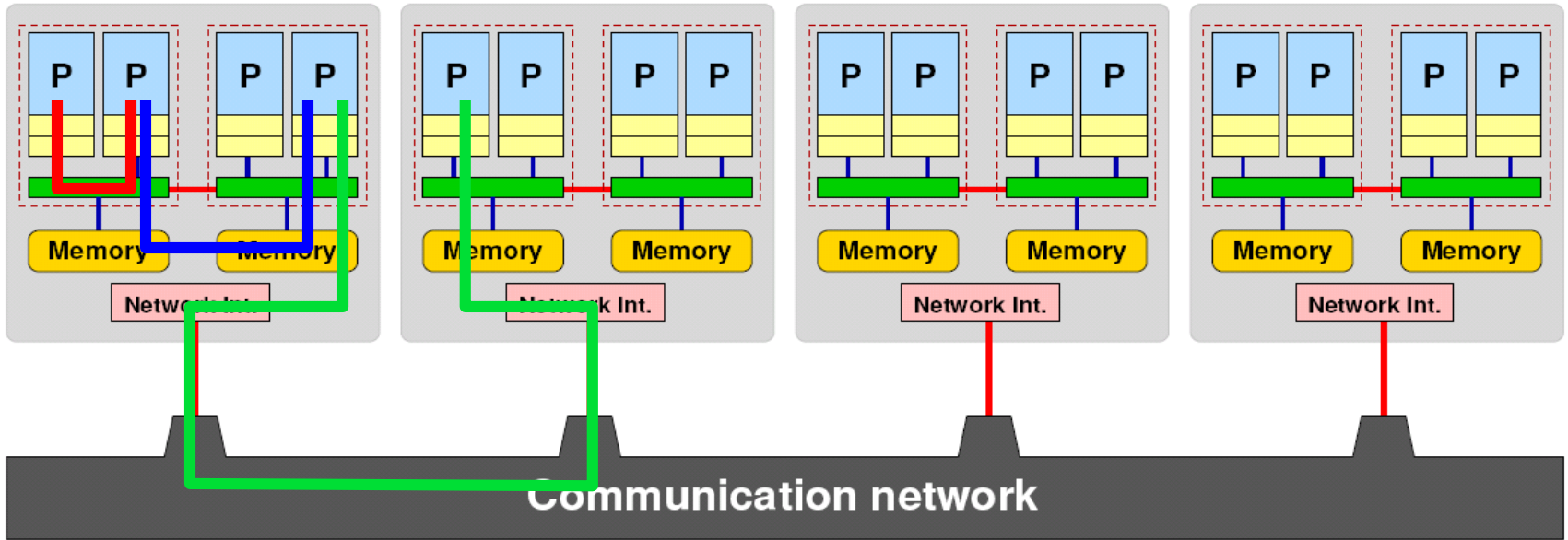
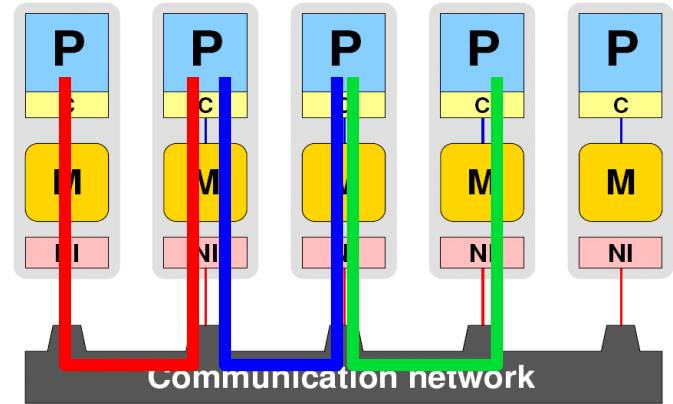
- Machine structure is invisible to user:

- Very simple programming model
- MPI “knows what to do”!?



- Performance issues

- Intranode vs. internode MPI
- Node/system topology



Parallel programming models:

Pure threading on the node

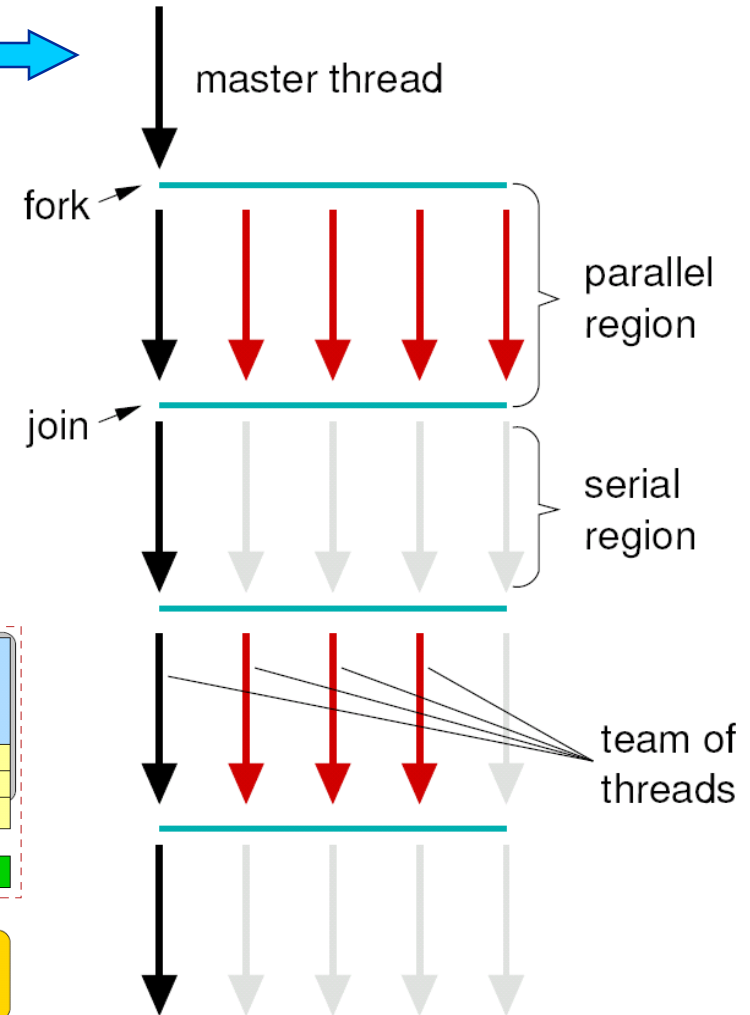
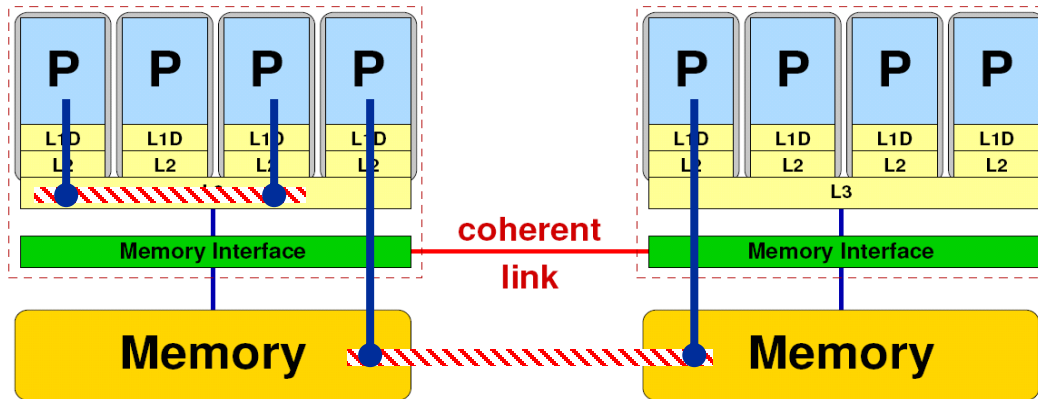


- Machine structure is invisible to user

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

- Performance issues

- Synchronization overhead
- Memory access
- Node topology

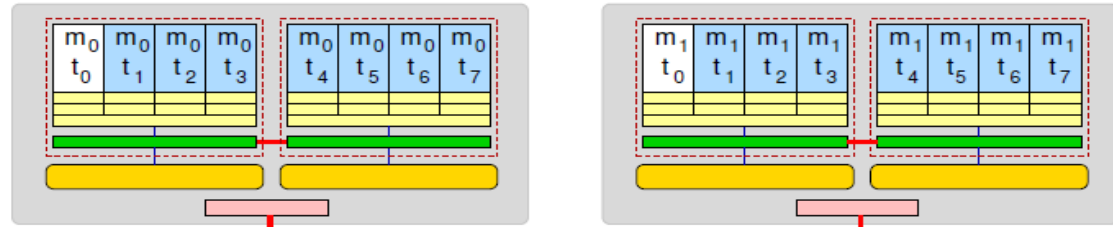


Parallel programming models: Lots of choices

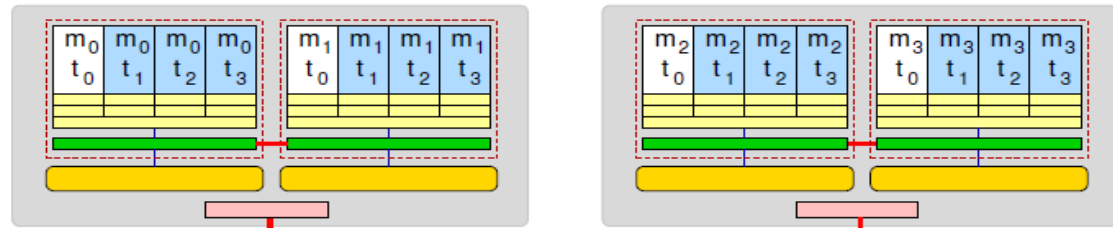
Hybrid MPI+OpenMP on a multicore multisocket cluster



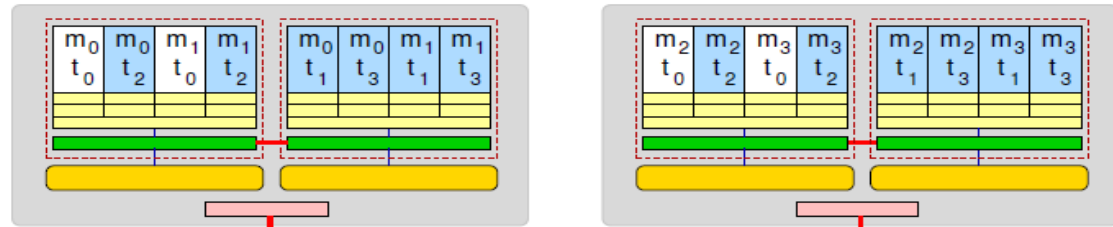
One MPI process / node



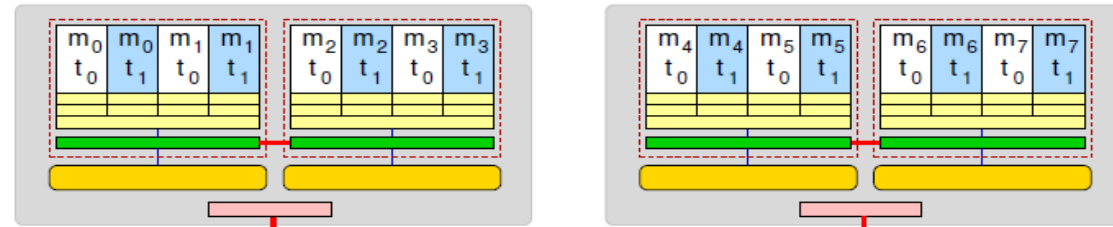
One MPI process / socket:
OpenMP threads on same
socket: “blockwise”



OpenMP threads pinned
“round robin” across
cores in node

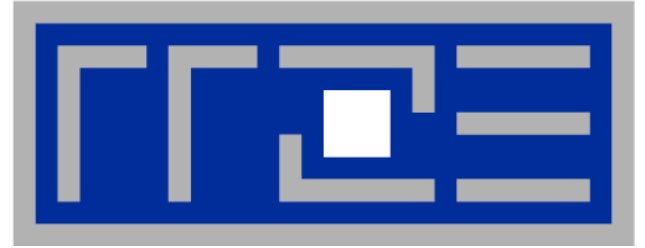


Two MPI processes / socket
OpenMP threads
on same socket





- **Modern computer architecture has a rich “topology”**
- **Node-level hardware parallelism takes many forms**
 - Sockets/devices – CPU: 1-8, GPGPU: 1-6
 - Cores – moderate (CPU: 4-16) to massive (GPGPU: 1000’s)
 - SIMD – moderate (CPU: 2-8) to massive (GPGPU: 10’s-100’s)
 - Superscalarity (CPU: 2-6)
- **Exploiting performance: parallelism + bottleneck awareness**
 - **“High Performance Computing” == computing at a bottleneck**
- **Performance of programming models is sensitive to architecture**
 - Topology/affinity influences overheads
 - Standards do not contain (many) topology-aware features
 - Apart from overheads, performance features are largely independent of the programming model



Multicore Performance and Tools

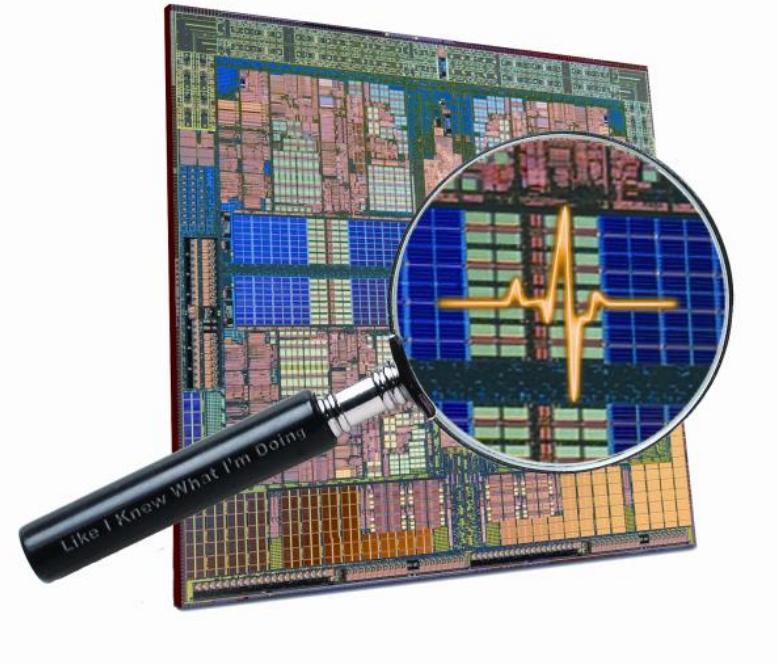


- **Gather Node Information**
*hwloc, **likwid-topology**, likwid-powermeter*
- **Affinity control** and data placement
*OpenMP and MPI runtime environments, hwloc, numactl, **likwid-pin***
- **Runtime Profiling**
Compilers, gprof, HPC Toolkit, ...
- **Performance Profilers**
*Intel Vtune™, **likwid-perfctr**, PAPI based tools, Linux perf, ...*
- **Microbenchmarking**
*STREAM, **likwid-bench**, Imbench*

LIKWID tool suite:

Like
I
Knew
What
I'm
Doing

Open source tool collection
(developed at RRZE):
<https://github.com/RRZE-HPC/likwid>



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

- **Command line tools for Linux:**

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



- **Current tools:**

- **likwid-topology**: Print thread and cache topology
- **likwid-powermeter**: Measure energy consumption
- **likwid-pin**: Pin threaded application without touching code
- **likwid-perfctr**: Measure performance counters
- **likwid-bench**: Microbenchmarking tool and environment
- ... some more

Output of `likwid-topology -g`

on one node of Intel Haswell-EP



```
-----
CPU name:      Intel(R) Xeon(R) CPU E5-2695 v3 @ 2.30GHz
CPU type:      Intel Xeon Haswell EN/EP/EX processor
CPU stepping:  2
*****
Hardware Thread Topology
*****
Sockets:                2
Cores per socket:       14
Threads per core:       2
-----
HWThread   Thread   Core   Socket   Available
0           0         0       0         *
1           0         1       0         *

...

43          1         1       1         *
44          1         2       1         *
-----
Socket 0:      ( 0 28 1 29 2 30 3 31 4 32 5 33 6 34 7 35 8 36 9 37 10 38 11 39 12 40 13 41 )
Socket 1:      ( 14 42 15 43 16 44 17 45 18 46 19 47 20 48 21 49 22 50 23 51 24 52 25 53 26 54 27 55 )
-----
*****
Cache Topology
*****
Level:                1
Size:                  32 kB
Cache groups:  ( 0 28 ) ( 1 29 ) ( 2 30 ) ( 3 31 ) ( 4 32 ) ( 5 33 ) ( 6 34 ) ( 7 35 ) ( 8 36 ) ( 9 37 ) ( 10 38 ) ( 11 39 ) ( 12 40 ) ( 13 41 )
                ( 14 42 ) ( 15 43 ) ( 16 44 ) ( 17 45 ) ( 18 46 ) ( 19 47 ) ( 20 48 ) ( 21 49 ) ( 22 50 ) ( 23 51 ) ( 24 52 ) ( 25 53 ) ( 26 54 ) ( 27 55 )
-----
Level:                2
Size:                  256 kB
Cache groups:  ( 0 28 ) ( 1 29 ) ( 2 30 ) ( 3 31 ) ( 4 32 ) ( 5 33 ) ( 6 34 ) ( 7 35 ) ( 8 36 ) ( 9 37 ) ( 10 38 ) ( 11 39 ) ( 12 40 ) ( 13 41 )
                ( 14 42 ) ( 15 43 ) ( 16 44 ) ( 17 45 ) ( 18 46 ) ( 19 47 ) ( 20 48 ) ( 21 49 ) ( 22 50 ) ( 23 51 ) ( 24 52 ) ( 25 53 ) ( 26 54 ) ( 27 55 )
-----
Level:                3
Size:                  17 MB
Cache groups:  ( 0 28 1 29 2 30 3 31 4 32 5 33 6 34 ) ( 7 35 8 36 9 37 10 38 11 39 12 40 13 41 ) ( 14 42 15 43 16 44 17 45 18 46 19 47 20 48 )
                ( 21 49 22 50 23 51 24 52 25 53 26 54 27 55 )
-----
```

All physical processor IDs

Output of likwid-topology continued



```
*****
NUMA Topology
*****
NUMA domains:                4
-----
Domain:                      0
Processors:                   ( 0 28 1 29 2 30 3 31 4 32 5 33 6 34 )
Distances:                    10 21 31 31
Free memory:                  13292.9 MB
Total memory:                 15941.7 MB
-----
Domain:                      1
Processors:                   ( 7 35 8 36 9 37 10 38 11 39 12 40 13 41 )
Distances:                    21 10 31 31
Free memory:                  13514 MB
Total memory:                 16126.4 MB
-----
Domain:                      2
Processors:                   ( 14 42 15 43 16 44 17 45 18 46 19 47 20 48 )
Distances:                    31 31 10 21
Free memory:                  15025.6 MB
Total memory:                 16126.4 MB
-----
Domain:                      3
Processors:                   ( 21 49 22 50 23 51 24 52 25 53 26 54 27 55 )
Distances:                    31 31 21 10
Free memory:                  15488.9 MB
Total memory:                 16126 MB
-----
```

Output of likwid-topology continued



**Cluster on die mode
and SMT enabled!**

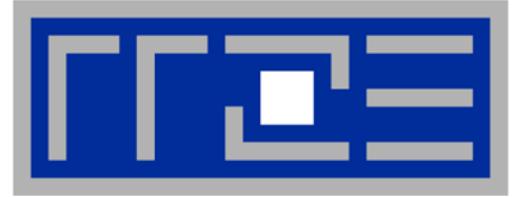
Graphical Topology

Socket 0:

0	28	1	29	2	30	3	31	4	32	5	33	6	34	7	35	8	36	9	37	10	38	11	39	12	40	13	41
32kB	32kB	32kB	32kB	32kB	32kB	32kB	32kB	32kB	32kB	32kB	32kB	32kB	32kB	32kB	32kB	32kB	32kB	32kB	32kB	32kB	32kB	32kB	32kB	32kB	32kB	32kB	32kB
256kB	256kB	256kB	256kB	256kB	256kB	256kB	256kB	256kB	256kB	256kB	256kB	256kB	256kB	256kB	256kB	256kB	256kB	256kB	256kB	256kB	256kB	256kB	256kB	256kB	256kB	256kB	256kB
17MB														17MB													

Socket 1:

14	42	15	43	16	44	17	45	18	46	19	47	20	48	21	49	22	50	23	51	24	52	25	53	26	54	27	55
32kB	32kB	32kB	32kB	32kB	32kB	32kB	32kB	32kB	32kB	32kB	32kB	32kB	32kB	32kB	32kB	32kB	32kB	32kB	32kB	32kB	32kB	32kB	32kB	32kB	32kB	32kB	32kB
256kB	256kB	256kB	256kB	256kB	256kB	256kB	256kB	256kB	256kB	256kB	256kB	256kB	256kB	256kB	256kB	256kB	256kB	256kB	256kB	256kB	256kB	256kB	256kB	256kB	256kB	256kB	256kB
17MB														17MB													

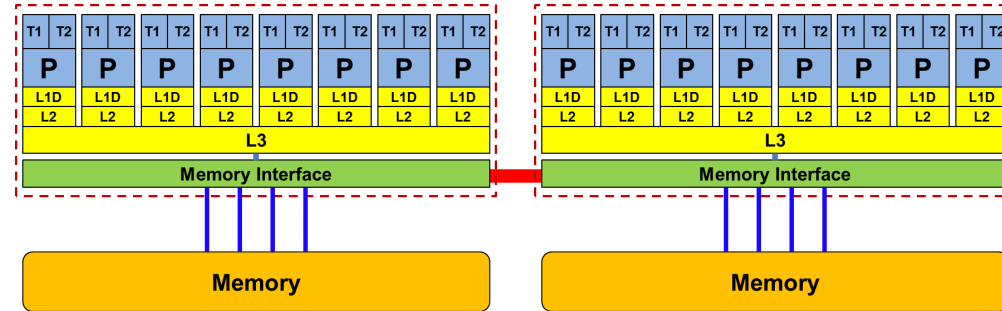
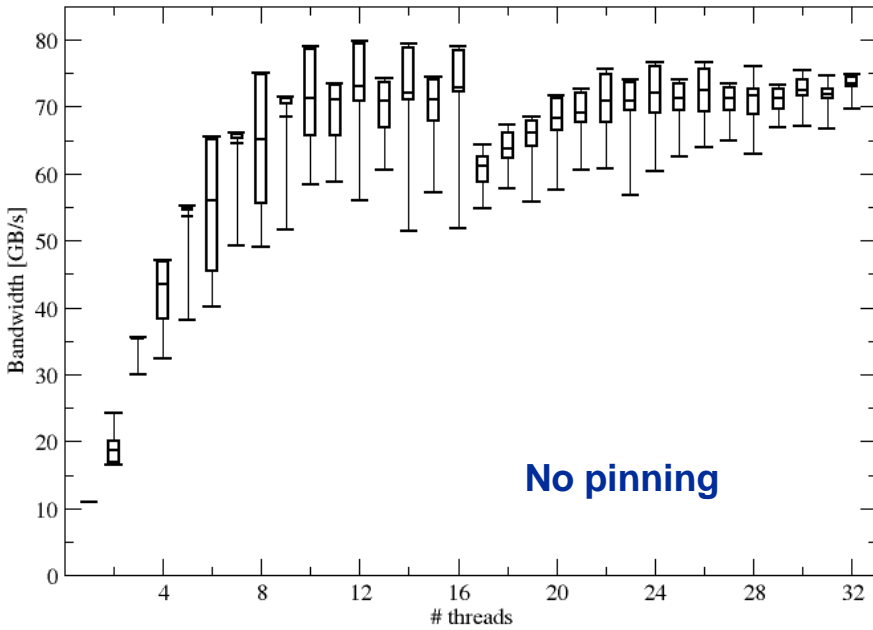


Enforcing thread/process-core affinity under the Linux OS

**Standard tools and OS affinity facilities under
program control**

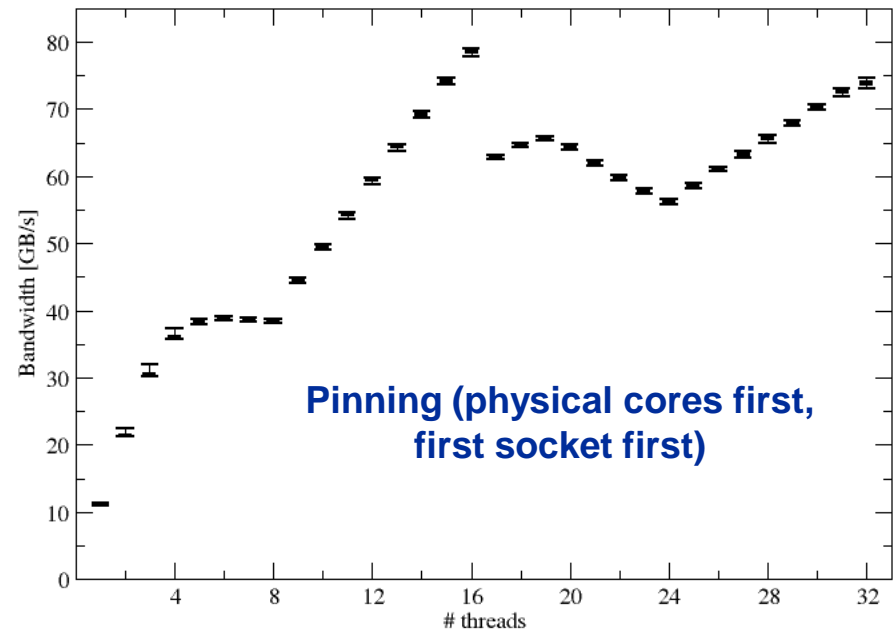
likwid-pin

Example: STREAM benchmark on 16-core Sandy Bridge: Anarchy vs. thread pinning



There are several reasons for caring about affinity:

- Eliminating performance variation
- Making use of architectural features
- Avoiding resource contention





- **Highly OS-dependent system calls**
 - But available on all systems
 - Linux: `sched_setaffinity()`
 - Windows: `SetThreadAffinityMask()`

- **Hwloc project** (<http://www.open-mpi.de/projects/hwloc/>)
- **Support for “semi-automatic” pinning in some compilers/environments**
 - All modern compilers with OpenMP support
 - Generic Linux: `taskset`, `numactl`, `likwid-pin` (see below)
 - OpenMP 4.0 (see OpenMP tutorial)
- **Affinity awareness in MPI libraries**
 - SGI MPT
 - OpenMPI
 - Intel MPI
 - ...



- 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 be used as a superior **replacement for taskset**
- Supports **logical core numbering** within a node

- Usage examples:
 - `likwid-pin -c 0-3,4,6 ./myApp parameters`
 - `likwid-pin -c S0:0-7 ./myApp parameters`
 - `likwid-pin -c N:0-15 ./myApp parameters`

- `OMP_NUM_THREADS` is set by the tool if not set explicitly



- The OS numbers all processors (hardware threads) on a node
- The numbering is enforced at boot time by the BIOS and may have nothing to do with topological entities
- LIKWID concept: **thread group** consisting of HW threads sharing a topological entity (e.g., socket, shared cache,...)
- A thread group is defined by a single **character + index**

- Example:

```
likwid-pin -c S1:0-3,6,7 ./a.out
```

- Group expression chaining with @:

```
likwid-pin -c S0:0-3@S1:0-3 ./a.out
```

- **Alternative** expression based syntax:

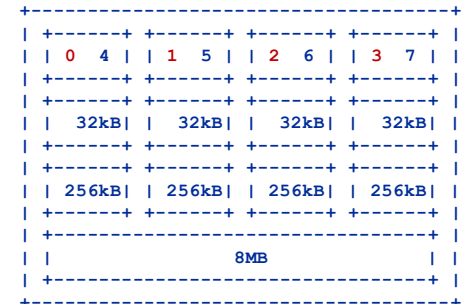
```
likwid-pin -c E:S0:4:2:4 ./a.out
```

E:<thread domain>:<num threads>:<chunk size>:<stride>

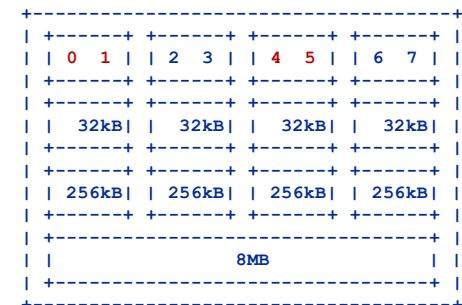
- Expression syntax is convenient for Xeon Phi:

```
likwid-pin -c E:N:120:2:4 ./a.out
```

numbering across physical cores first within the group



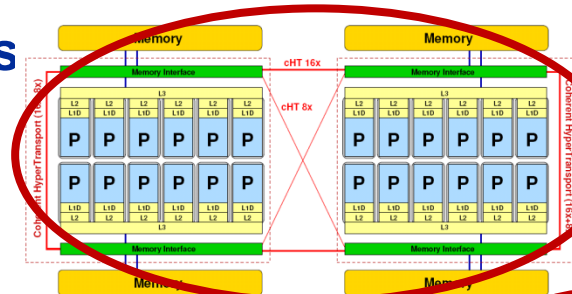
compact numbering within the group





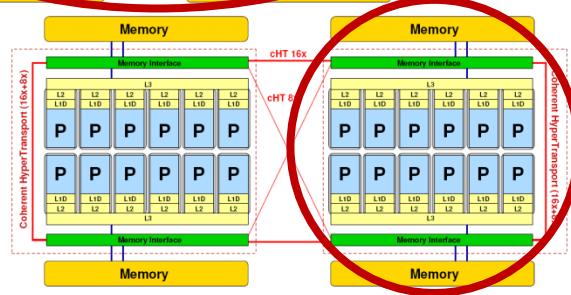
- Possible unit prefixes

N node

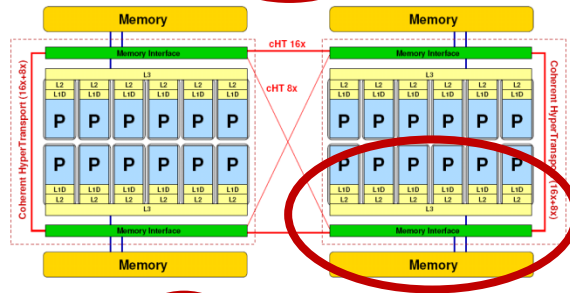


Default if -c is not specified!

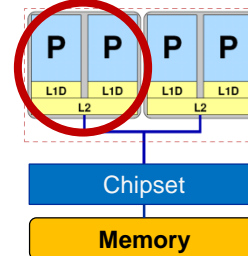
S socket



M NUMA domain



C outer level cache group





Running the STREAM benchmark with likwid-pin:

```
$ likwid-pin -c S0:0-3 ./stream
```

```
-----  
Double precision appears to have 16 digits of accuracy  
Assuming 8 bytes per DOUBLE PRECISION word  
-----
```

```
Array size = 20000000  
Offset = 32  
The total memory requirement is 457 MB  
You are running each test 10 times  
--
```

```
The *best* time for each test is used  
*EXCLUDING* the first and last iterations
```

```
[pthread wrapper] MAIN -> 0  
[pthread wrapper] PIN_MASK: 0->1 1->2 2->3  
[pthread wrapper] SKIP MASK: 0x1  
threadid 140668624234240 -> SKIP  
threadid 140668598843264 -> core 1 - OK  
threadid 140668594644992 -> core 2 - OK  
threadid 140668590446720 -> core 3 - OK
```

```
[... rest of STREAM output omitted ...]
```

Main PID always pinned

Skip shepherd thread if necessary

Pin all spawned threads in turn

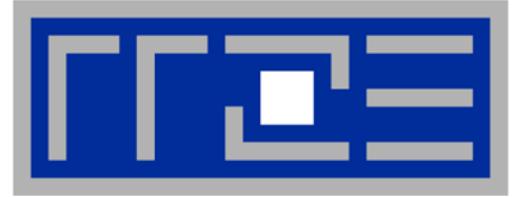


- The “**Turbo Mode**” feature makes reliable benchmarking harder
 - CPU can change clock speed at its own discretion
- Clock speed reduction may **save a lot of energy**

- So how do we set the clock speed? → LIKWID to the rescue!

```
$ likwid-setFrequencies -l
Available frequencies:
2.301, 2.3, 2.2, 2.1, 2.0, 1.9, 1.8, 1.7, 1.6, 1.5, 1.4, 1.3, 1.2
$ likwid-setFrequencies -p
Current frequencies:
CPU 0: governor performance frequency 2.301 GHz
CPU 1: governor performance frequency 2.301 GHz
CPU 2: governor performance frequency 2.301 GHz
CPU 3: governor performance frequency 2.301 GHz
[...]
$ likwid-setFrequencies -f 2.3
$
```

A yellow rectangular box with the text "Turbo mode" in black. A thin blue line originates from the right side of the box and points to the "2.301" value in the "frequency" column of the terminal output above.



Multicore performance tools: Probing performance behavior

likwid-perfctr



1. **Runtime profile** / Call graph (gprof): Where are the hot spots?
2. **Instrument** hot spots (prepare for detailed measurement)
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)

likwid-perfctr
can help here

Goal: Come up with educated guess about a performance-limiting motif
(**Performance Pattern**)



- 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 -C N:0-3 -g FLOPS_DP ./stream.exe
```

```
-----
CPU name:      Intel(R) Xeon(R) CPU E5-2660 v2 @ 2.20GHz
CPU type:      Intel Xeon IvyBridge EN/EP/EX processor
CPU clock:     2.20 GHz
-----
```

```
[... YOUR PROGRAM OUTPUT ...]
```

Group 1: FLOPS_DP

Event	Counter	Core 0	Core 1	Core 2	Core 3
INSTR_RETIRED_ANY	FIXC0	521332883	523904122	519696583	519193
CPU_CLK_UNHALTED_CORE	FIXC1	1379625927	1381900036	1378355460	1376447
CPU_CLK_UNHALTED_REF	FIXC2	1389460886	1393031508	1387504228	1385276
FP_COMP_OPS_EXE_SSE_FP_PACKED_DOUBLE	PMC0	176216849	176176025	177432054	176367
FP_COMP_OPS_EXE_SSE_FP_SCALAR_DOUBLE	PMC1	1554	599	72	27
SIMD_FP_256_PACKED_DOUBLE	PMC2	0	0	0	0

Always measured

Configured metrics (this group)

Metric	Core 0	Core 1	Core 2	Core 3
Runtime (RDTSC) [s]	0.6856	0.6856	0.6856	0.6856
Runtime unhalted [s]	0.6270	0.6281	0.6265	0.6256
Clock [MHz]	2184.6742	2182.6664	2185.7404	2186.2243
CPI	2.6463	2.6377	2.6522	2.6511
MFLOP/s	514.0890	513.9685	517.6320	514.5273
AVX MFLOP/s	0	0	0	0
Packed MUOPS/s	257.0434	256.9838	258.8160	257.2636
Scalar MUOPS/s	0.0023	0.0009	0.0001	3.938426e-05

Derived metrics



- A **marker API** is available to restrict measurements to code regions
- The API only turns counters on/off. The configuration of the counters is still done by **likwid-perfctr**
- Multiple named region support, accumulation over multiple calls
- Inclusive and overlapping regions allowed

```
#include <likwid.h>
. . .
LIKWID_MARKER_INIT;           // must be called from serial region
#pragma omp parallel
{
    LIKWID_MARKER_THREADINIT; // only reqd. if measuring multiple threads
}
. . .
LIKWID_MARKER_START("Compute");
. . .
LIKWID_MARKER_STOP("Compute");
. . .
LIKWID_MARKER_START("Postprocess");
. . .
LIKWID_MARKER_STOP("Postprocess");
. . .
LIKWID_MARKER_CLOSE;         // must be called from serial region
```

- Activate macros with `-DLIKWID_PERFMON`
- Run `likwid-perfctr` with `-m` option to activate markers

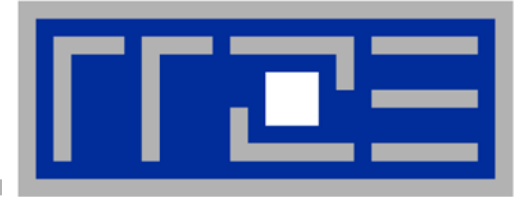


Things to look at (in roughly this order)

- Excess work
- Load balance (flops, instructions, BW)
- In-socket memory 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 sometimes misleading

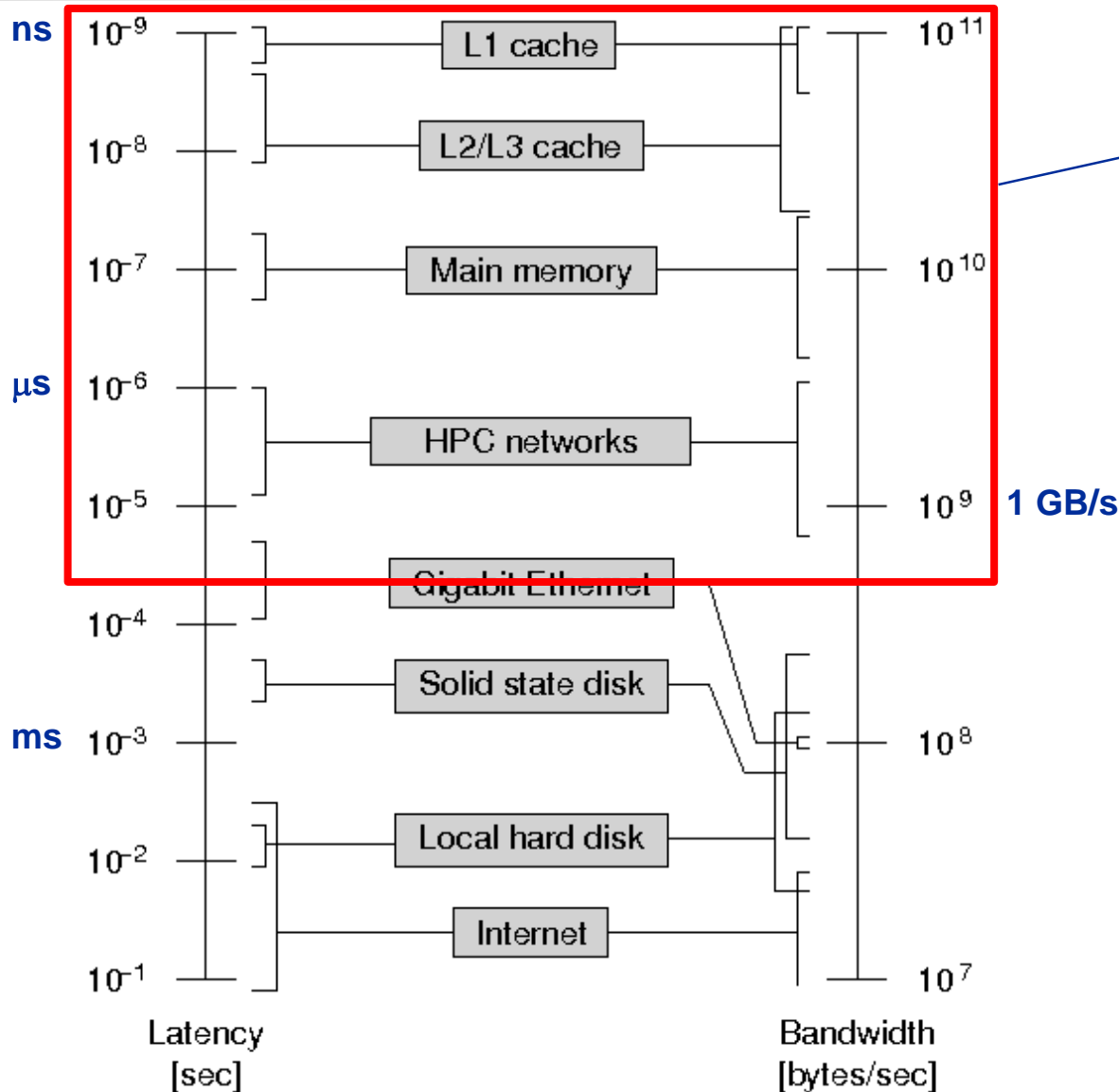


Microbenchmarking for architectural exploration (and more)

Probing of the memory hierarchy

Saturation effects in cache and memory

Latency and bandwidth in modern computer environments



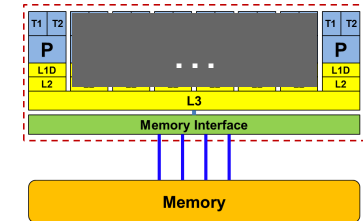
HPC plays here

Avoiding slow data paths is the key to most performance optimizations!

Intel Xeon E5 multicore processors



Microarchitecture	SandyBridge-EP	IvyBridge-EP	Haswell-EP
Shorthand	SNB	IVB	HSW
Xeon Model	E5-2680	E5-2690 v2	E5-2695 v3
Year	03/2012	09/2013	09/2014
Clock speed (fixed)	2.7 GHz	2.2 GHz	2.3 GHz
Cores/Threads	8/16	10/20	14/28
Load/Store throughput per cycle			
AVX(2)	1 LD & 1/2 ST	1 LD & 1/2 ST	2 LD & 1 ST
SSE/scalar	2 LD 1 LD & 1 ST	2 LD 1 LD & 1 ST	2 LD & 1 ST
L1 port width	2×16+1×16 B	2×16+1×16 B	2×32+1×32 B
ADD throughput	1 / cy	1 / cy	1 / cy
MUL throughput	1 / cy	1 / cy	2 / cy
FMA throughput	n/a	n/a	2 / cy
L2-L1 data bus	32 B	32 B	64 B
L3-L2 data bus	32 B	32 B	32 B
LLC size	20 MiB	25 MiB	35 MiB
Main memory	4×DDR3-1600	4×DDR3-1866	4×DDR4-2133
Peak memory BW	51.2 GB/s	51.2 GB/s	68.3 GB/s
Load-only BW	43.6 GB/s (85%)	46.1 GB/s (90%)	60.6 GB/s (89%)
T_{L3Mem} per CL	3.96 cy	3.05 cy	2.43 cy



FP instructions throughput per core

Max. data transfer per cycle between caches

Peak main memory bandwidth



Simple streaming benchmark:

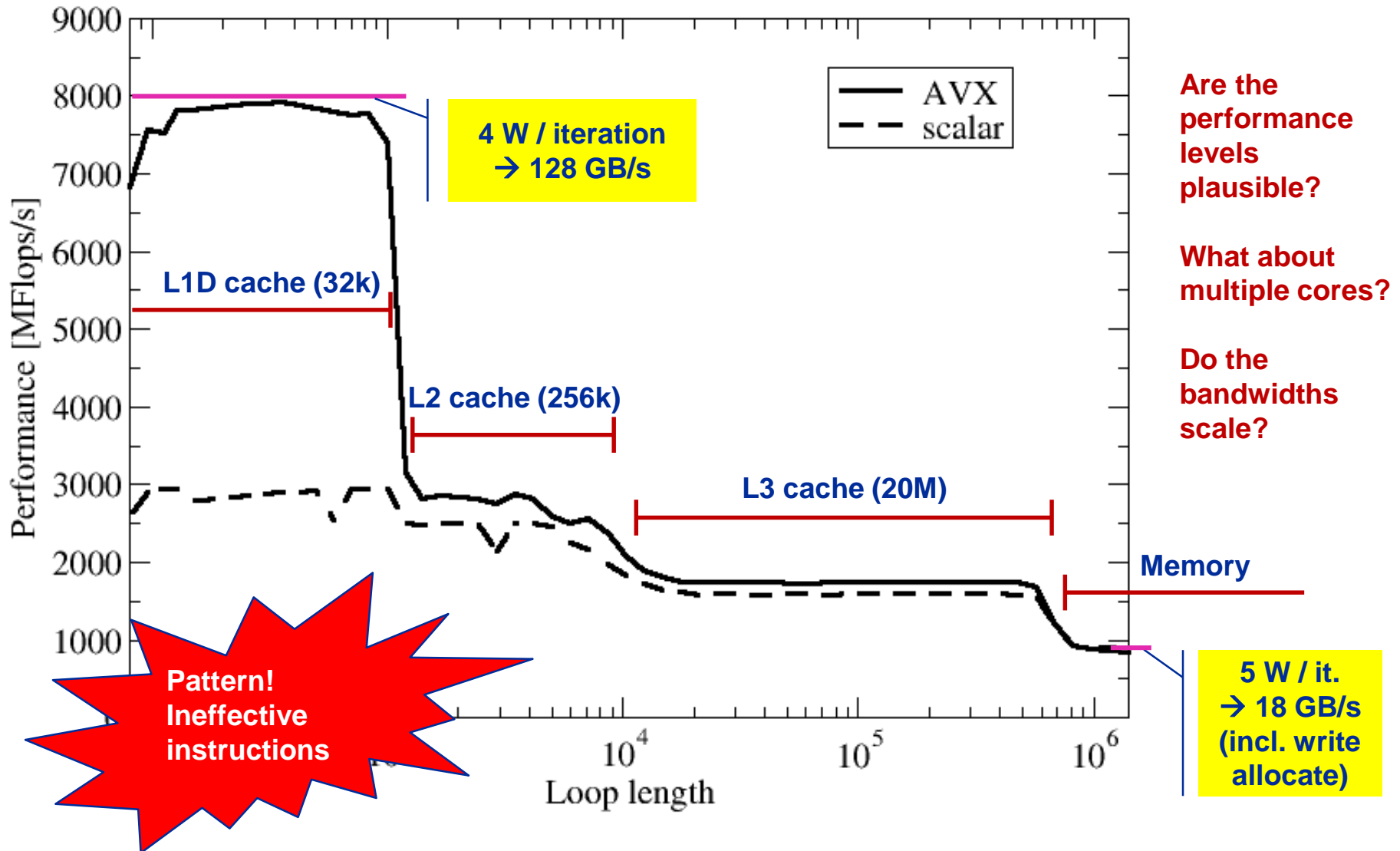
```
double precision, dimension(N) :: A,B,C,D
A=1.d0; B=A; C=A; D=A
```

```
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
```

Prevents smarty-pants compilers from doing “clever” stuff

- 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)



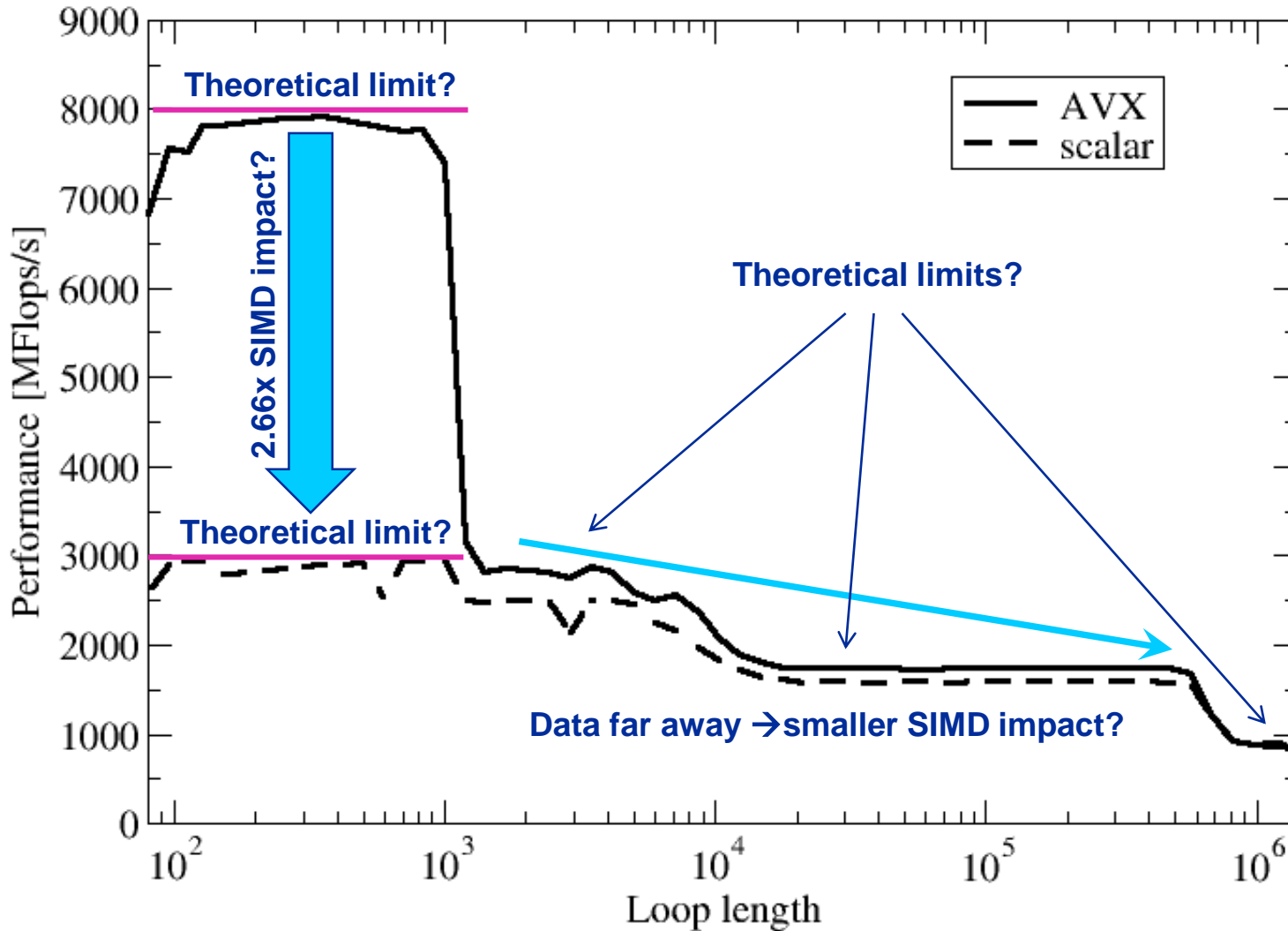
Are the performance levels plausible?

What about multiple cores?

Do the bandwidths scale?

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

Observations and further questions



See later for answers!



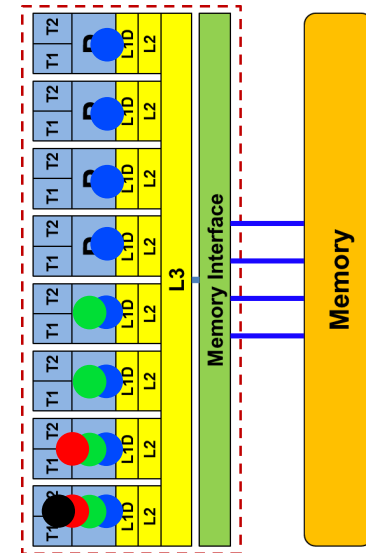
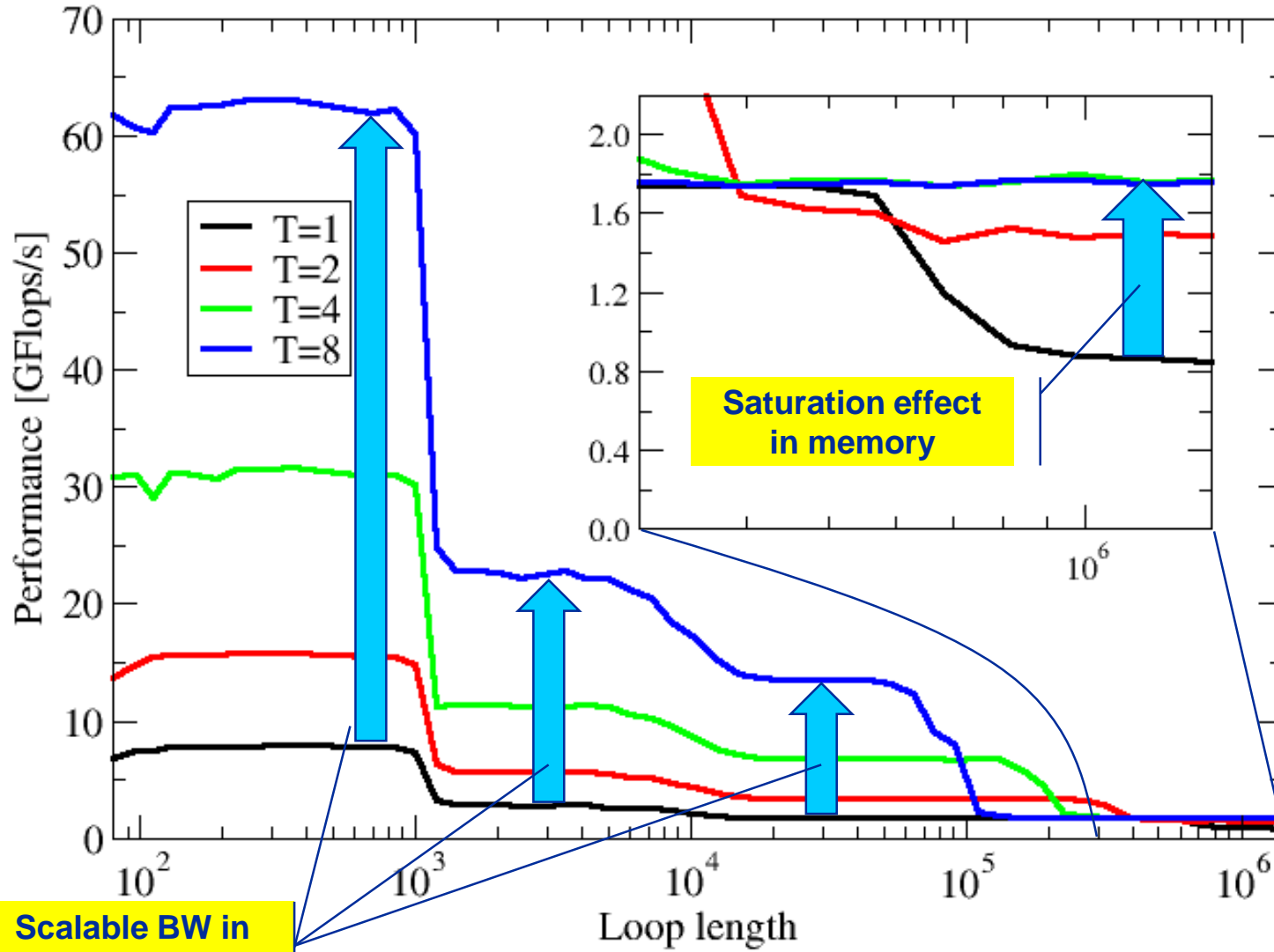
Every core runs its own, independent triad benchmark

```
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
```

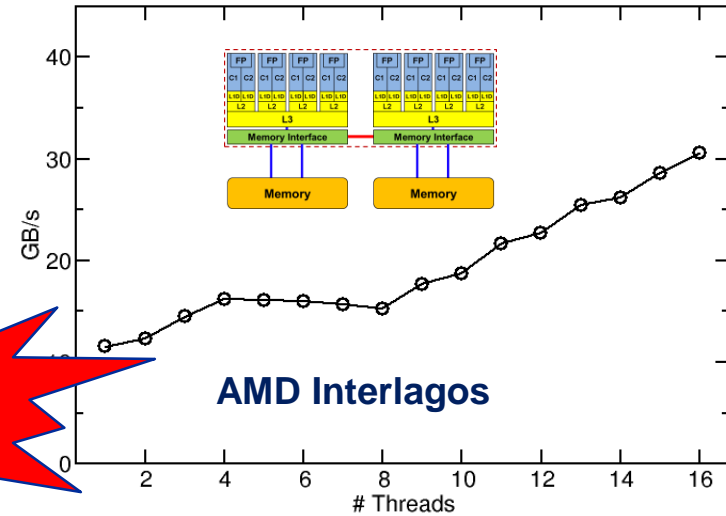
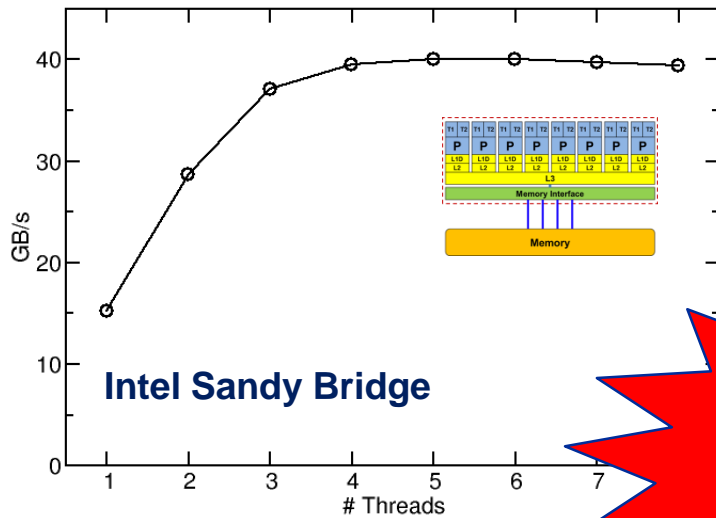
→ pure hardware probing, no impact from OpenMP overhead

Throughput vector triad on Sandy Bridge socket (3 GHz)

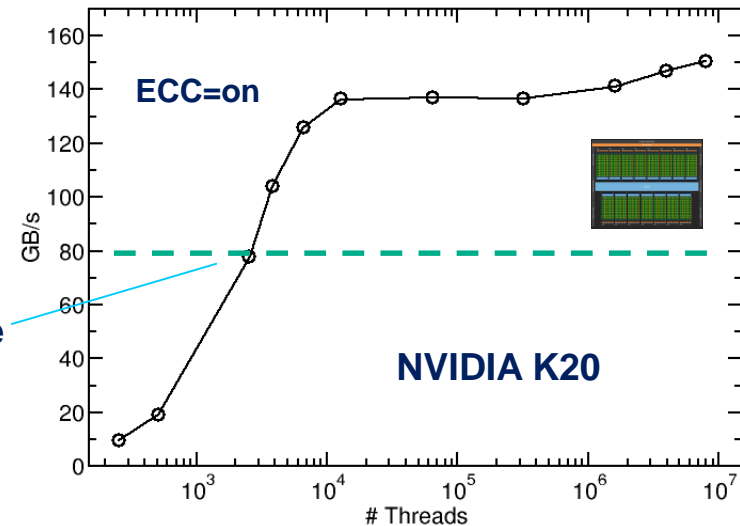
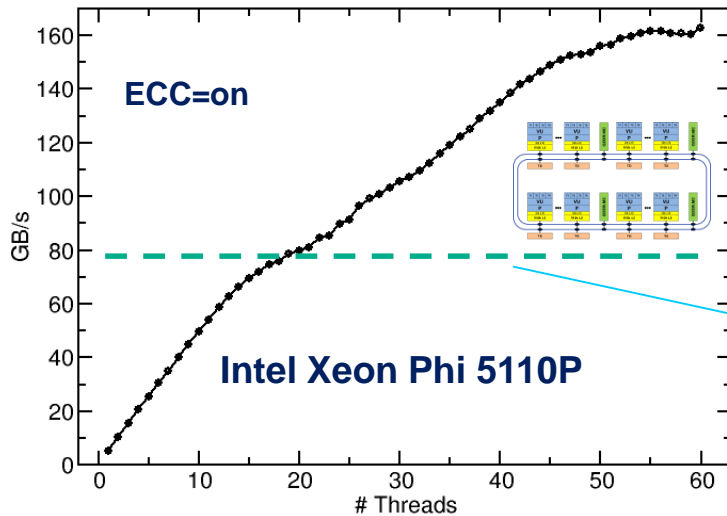


Scalable BW in L1, L2, L3 cache

Attainable memory bandwidth: Comparing architectures

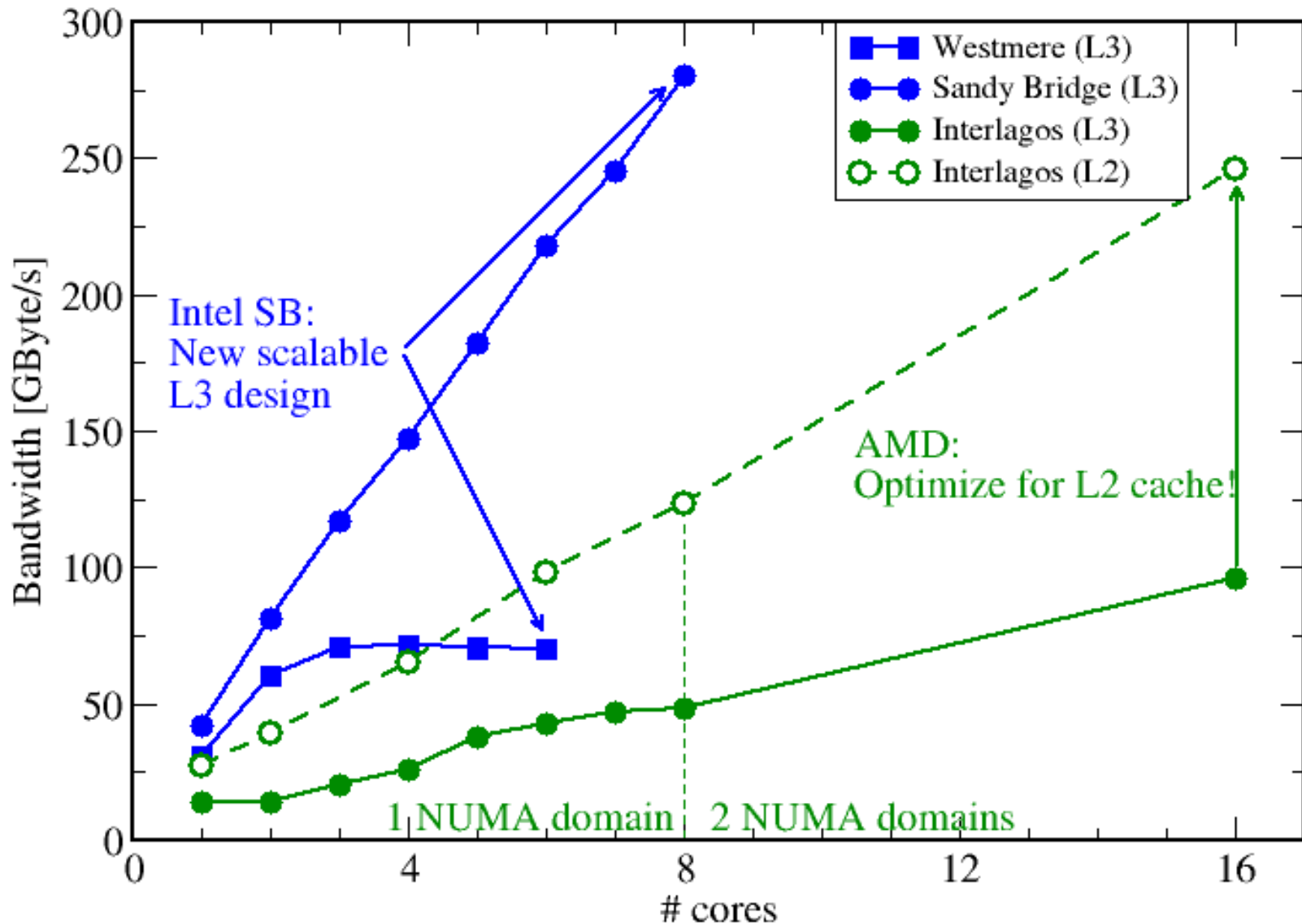


**Pattern!
Bandwidth
saturation**



Bandwidth limitations: Outer-level cache

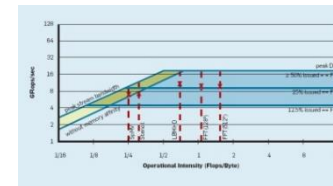
Scalability of shared data paths in L3 cache





- **Affinity matters!**
 - Almost all performance properties depend on the position of
 - Data
 - Threads/processes
 - Consequences
 - Know where your threads are running
 - Know where your data is

- **Bandwidth bottlenecks are ubiquitous**



“Simple” performance modeling: The Roofline Model

Loop-based performance modeling: Execution vs. data transfer

Example: array summation

Example: dense & sparse matrix-vector multiplication

Example: a 3D Jacobi solver

Model-guided optimization

R.W. Hockney and I.J. Curington: $f_{1/2}$: A parameter to characterize memory and communication bottlenecks. *Parallel Computing* 10, 277-286 (1989). DOI: [10.1016/0167-8191\(89\)90100-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/0167-8191(89)90100-2)

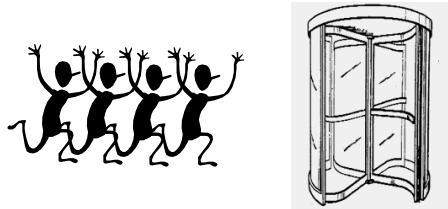
W. Schönauer: *Scientific Supercomputing: Architecture and Use of Shared and Distributed Memory Parallel Computers*. Self-edition (2000)

S. Williams: *Auto-tuning Performance on Multicore Computers*.

UCB Technical Report No. UCB/ECS-2008-164. PhD thesis (2008)



Revolving door
throughput:
 b_S [customers/sec]



Intensity:
/ [tasks/customer]



Processing
capability:
 P_{max} [tasks/sec]



How fast can tasks be processed? P [tasks/sec]

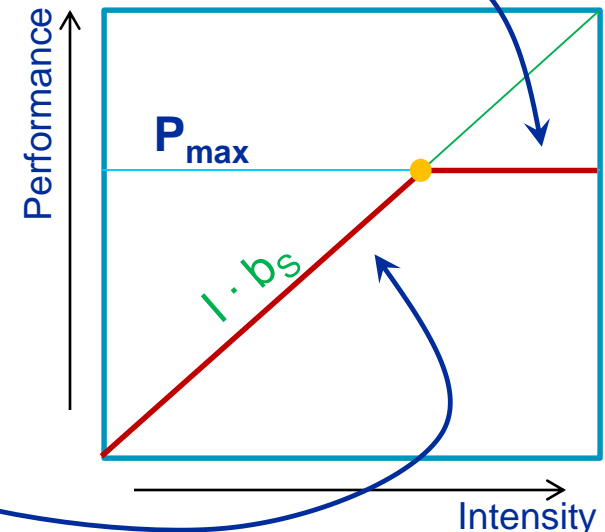
The bottleneck is either

- The service desks (max. tasks/sec): P_{\max}
- The revolving door (max. customers/sec): $I \cdot b_S$

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

This is the “Roofline Model”

- High intensity: P limited by “execution”
- Low intensity: P limited by “bottleneck”
- “Knee” at $P_{\max} = I \cdot b_S$:
Best use of resources
- Roofline is an “optimistic” model:
 (“light speed”)





1. P_{\max} = Applicable peak performance of a loop, assuming that data comes from the level 1 cache (this is not necessarily P_{peak})
→ e.g., $P_{\max} = 176$ GFlop/s
2. I = Computational intensity (“work” per byte transferred) over the slowest data path utilized (code balance $B_C = I^{-1}$)
→ e.g., $I = 0.167$ Flop/Byte → $B_C = 6$ Byte/Flop
3. b_S = Applicable peak bandwidth of the slowest data path utilized
→ e.g., $b_S = 56$ GByte/s

Expected performance:

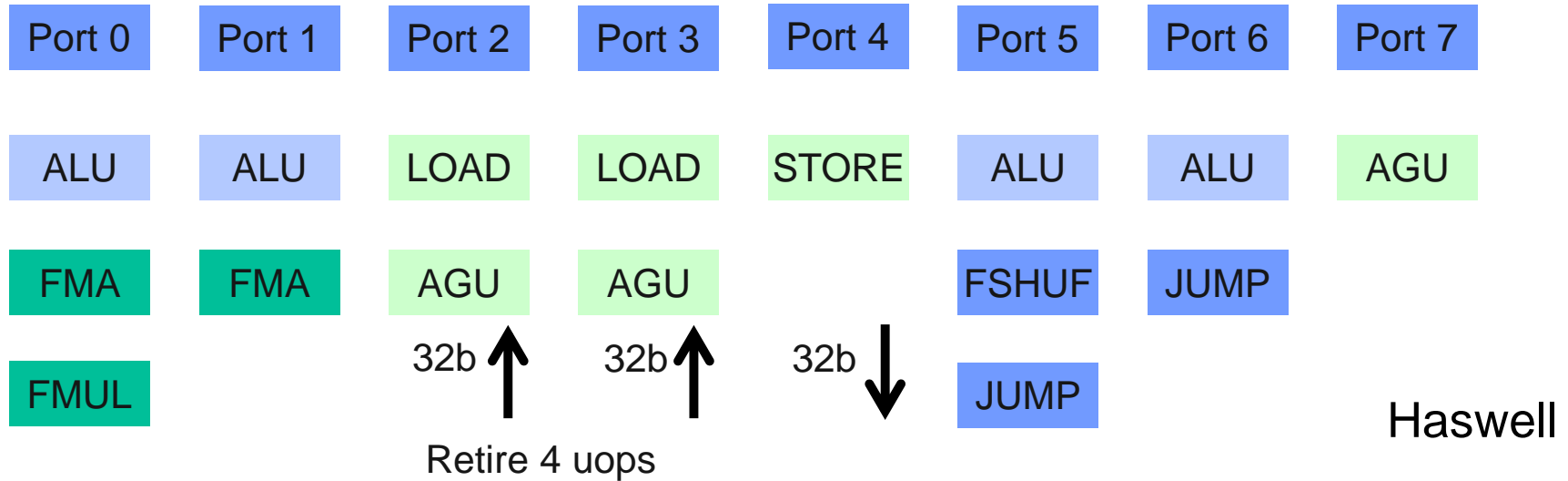
$$P = \min(P_{\max}, I \cdot b_S) = \min\left(P_{\max}, \frac{b_S}{B_C}\right)$$

[Byte/s] (pointing to b_S)

[Byte/Flop] (pointing to B_C)



Every new CPU generation provides incremental improvements.



Haswell

Instruction mix	Execution time
1 ADD	1 cy
2 ADD	2 cy
1 MUL	1 cy
2 MUL	1 cy
1 ADD + 1 MUL	1 cy
2 FMA	1 cy

Instruction mix	Execution time
1 LOAD	1 cy
1 STORE	1 cy
1 LOAD and 1 STORE	1 cy
2 LOADs and 1 STORE	1 cy



```
double *A, *B, *C, *D;
for (int i=0; i<N; i++) {
    A[i] = B[i] + C[i] * D[i];
}
```

Minimum number of cycles to process **one AVX-vectorized iteration** (one core)?

→ Equivalent to 4 scalar iterations

Cycle 1: **LOAD + LOAD + STORE**

Cycle 2: **LOAD + LOAD + FMA + FMA**

Cycle 3: **LOAD + LOAD + STORE**

Answer: 1.5 cycles

Example: Estimate P_{\max} of vector triad on Haswell (2.3 GHz)



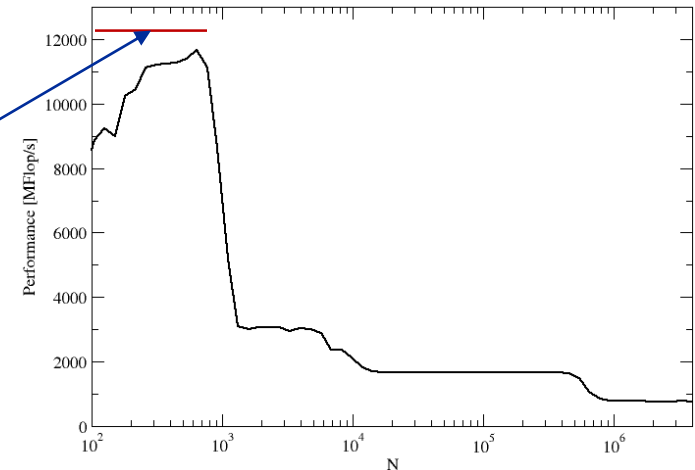
```
double *A, *B, *C, *D;
for (int i=0; i<N; i++) {
    A[i] = B[i] + C[i] * D[i];
}
```

What is the **performance in GFlops/s per core** and the **bandwidth in GBytes/s**?

One AVX iteration (1.5 cycles) does $4 \times 2 = 8$ flops:

$$\frac{2.3 \cdot 10^9 \text{ cy/s}}{1.5 \text{ cy}} \cdot 4 \text{ updates} \cdot \frac{2 \text{ flops}}{\text{update}} = 12.27 \frac{\text{Gflops}}{\text{s}}$$

$$6.13 \cdot 10^9 \frac{\text{updates}}{\text{s}} \cdot 32 \frac{\text{bytes}}{\text{update}} = 196 \frac{\text{Gbyte}}{\text{s}}$$





Vector triad $A(:,) = B(:,) + C(:,) * D(:,)$ on a 2.3 GHz 14-core Haswell chip

Consider full chip (14 cores):

Memory bandwidth: $b_S = 50 \text{ GB/s}$

Code balance (incl. write allocate):

$B_c = (4+1) \text{ Words} / 2 \text{ Flops} = 20 \text{ B/F} \rightarrow I = 0.05 \text{ F/B}$

$\rightarrow I \cdot b_S = 2.5 \text{ GF/s}$ (0.5% of peak performance)

$P_{\text{peak}} / \text{core} = 36.8 \text{ Gflop/s}$ ((8+8) Flops/cy x 2.3 GHz)

$P_{\text{max}} / \text{core} = 12.27 \text{ Gflop/s}$ (see prev. slide)

$\rightarrow P_{\text{max}} = 14 * 12.27 \text{ Gflop/s} = 172 \text{ Gflop/s}$ (33% peak)

$$P = \min(P_{\text{max}}, I \cdot b_S) = \min(172, 2.5) \text{ GFlop/s} = 2.5 \text{ GFlop/s}$$

Code balance: more examples



```
double a[], b[];
for(i=0; i<N; ++i) {
    a[i] = a[i] + b[i];}
```

$$B_C = 24B / 1F = 24 \text{ B/F}$$
$$I = 0.042 \text{ F/B}$$

```
double a[], b[];
for(i=0; i<N; ++i) {
    a[i] = a[i] + (s) * b[i];}
```

$$B_C = 24B / 2F = 12 \text{ B/F}$$
$$I = 0.083 \text{ F/B}$$

```
float s=0, a[];
for(i=0; i<N; ++i) {
    (s) = s + a[i] * a[i];}
```

Scalar – can be kept in register

$$B_C = 4B / 2F = 2 \text{ B/F}$$
$$I = 0.5 \text{ F/B}$$

```
float s=0, a[], b[];
for(i=0; i<N; ++i) {
    (s) = s + a[i] * b[i];}
```

Scalar – can be kept in register

$$B_C = 8B / 2F = 4 \text{ B/F}$$
$$I = 0.25 \text{ F/B}$$

Scalar – can be kept in register

A not so simple Roofline example

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

in single precision on a 2.2 GHz Sandy Bridge socket @ "large" N

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

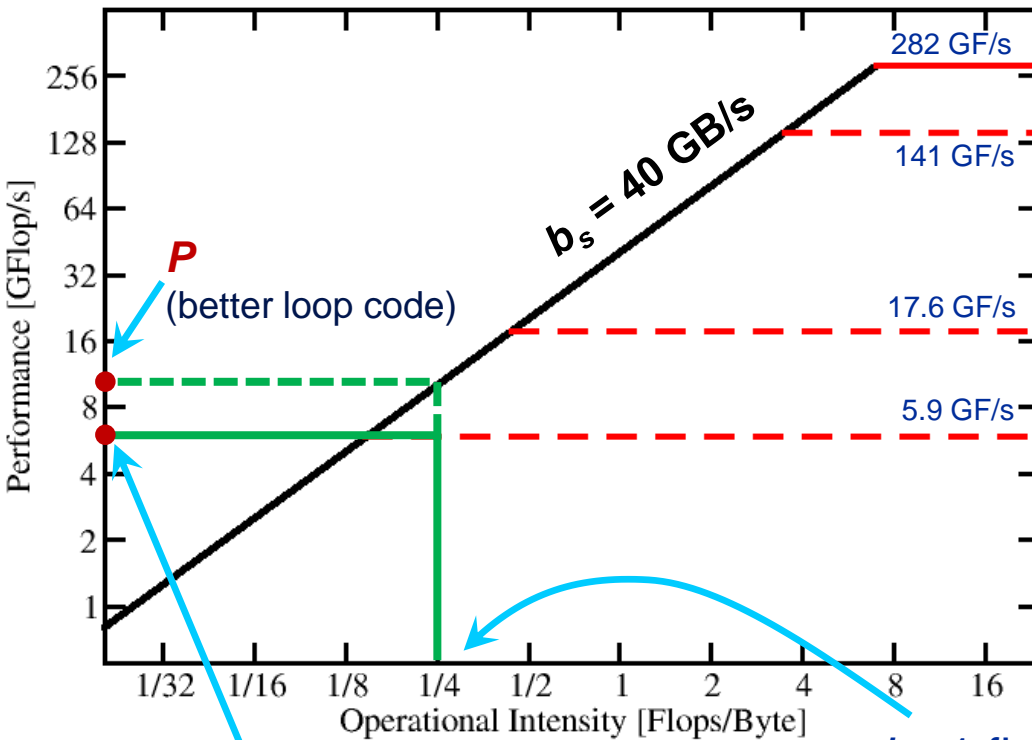
Machine peak
(ADD+MULT)
Out of reach for this
code

ADD peak
(best possible
code)

no SIMD

3-cycle latency
per ADD if not
pipelined

How do we
get these?
→ See next!



$I = 1 \text{ flop} / 4 \text{ byte (SP!)}$

P (worst loop code)

P
(better loop code)

Applicable peak for the summation loop

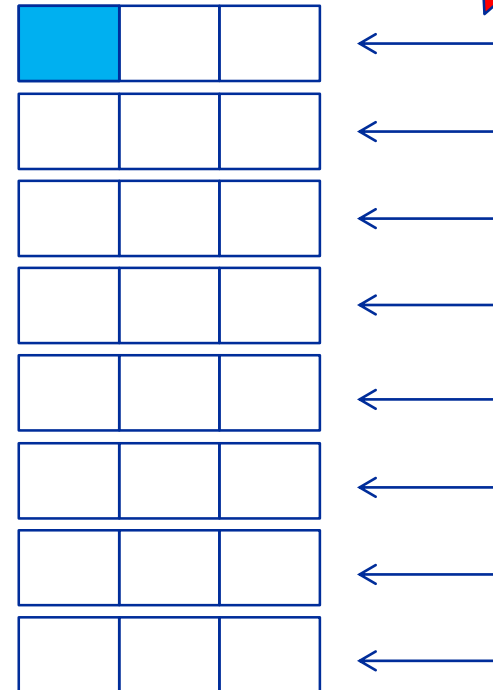


Plain scalar code, no SIMD

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



ADD pipes utilization:



→ 1/24 of ADD peak



Scalar code, 3-way unrolling

```
LOAD r1.0 ← 0  
LOAD r2.0 ← 0  
LOAD r3.0 ← 0  
i ← 1
```

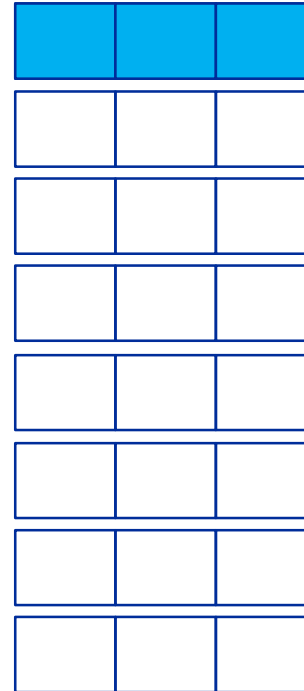
loop:

```
LOAD r4.0 ← a(i)  
LOAD r5.0 ← a(i+1)  
LOAD r6.0 ← a(i+2)  
  
ADD r1.0 ← r1.0 + r4.0  
ADD r2.0 ← r2.0 + r5.0  
ADD r3.0 ← r3.0 + r6.0
```

```
i+=3 →? loop
```

```
result ← r1.0+r2.0+r3.0
```

ADD pipes utilization:



→ 1/8 of ADD peak

Applicable peak for the summation loop



SIMD-vectorized, 3-way unrolled

VLOAD [r1.0,...,r1.7] ← [0,...,0]

VLOAD [r2.0,...,r2.7] ← [0,...,0]

VLOAD [r3.0,...,r3.7] ← [0,...,0]

i ← 1

loop:

VLOAD [r4.0,...,r4.7] ← [a(i),...,a(i+7)]

VLOAD [r5.0,...,r5.7] ← [a(i+8),...,a(i+15)]

VLOAD [r6.0,...,r6.7] ← [a(i+16),...,a(i+23)]

VADD r1 ← r1 + r4

VADD r2 ← r2 + r5

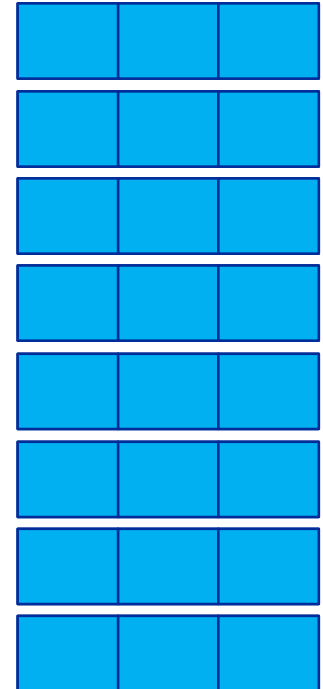
VADD r3 ← r3 + r6

i+=24 →? loop

result ← r1.0+r1.1+...+r3.6+r3.7



ADD pipes utilization:

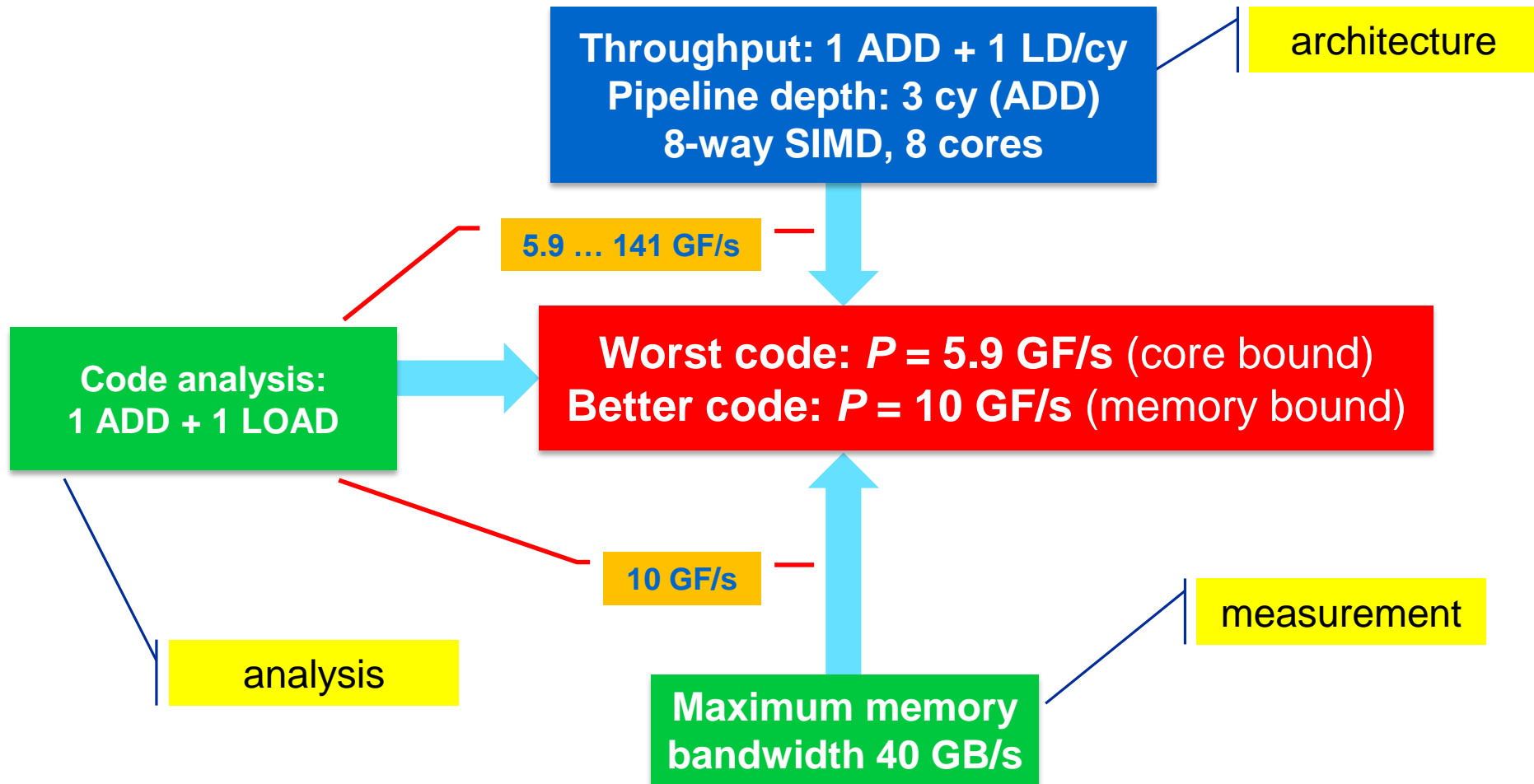


→ ADD peak



... on the example of
in single precision

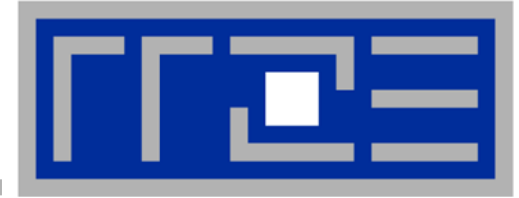
```
do i=1,N; s=s+a(i); enddo
```





- **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!**
 - **Either** the limit is core execution **or** it is data transfer
 - **Slowest limiting factor “wins”;** all others are assumed to have no impact
 - Latency effects are ignored: **perfect data streaming, “steady-state” execution, no start-up effects**





Case study:
Dense Matrix Vector Multiplication



```
do c = 1 , C
  do r = 1 , R
    y(r) = y(r) + A(r, c) * x(c)
  enddo
enddo
```



```
do c = 1 , C
  tmp = x(c)
  do r = 1 , R
    y(r) = y(r) + A(r, c) * tmp
  enddo
enddo
```

- Assume $C = R \approx 10,000$
- Applicable peak performance?
- Relevant data path?
- Computational Intensity?



- Vectorization strategy: 4-way inner loop unrolling
- One register holds `tmp` in each of its 4 entries (“broadcast”)

```
do c = 1, C
```

```
  tmp=x(c)
```

```
  do r = 1, R, 4 ! R is multiple of 4
```

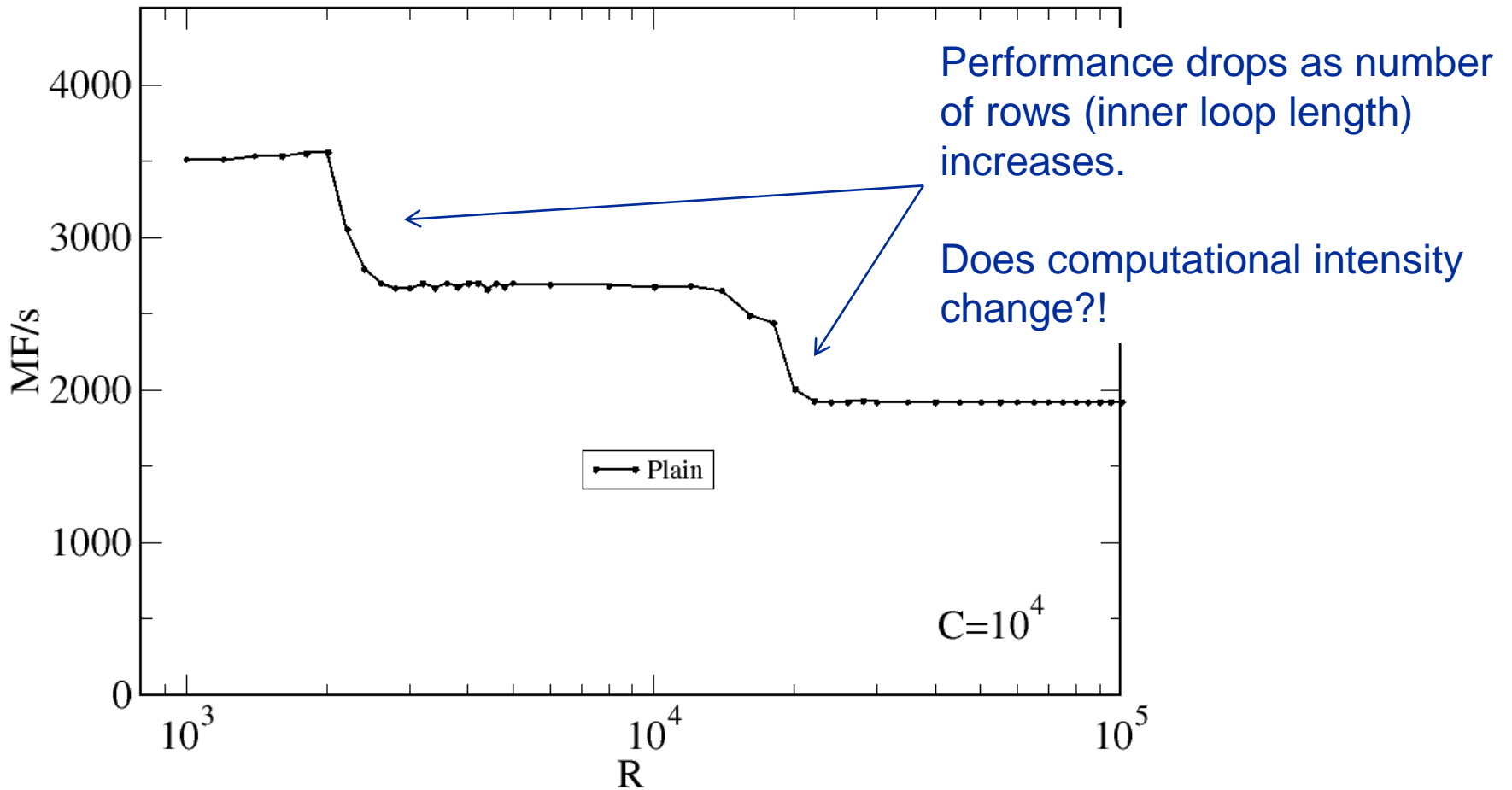
<code>y(r)</code>	<code>=</code>	<code>y(r)</code>	<code>+</code>	<code>A(r,c)</code>	<code>*</code>	<code>tmp</code>
<code>y(r+1)</code>	<code>=</code>	<code>y(r+1)</code>	<code>+</code>	<code>A(r+1,c)</code>	<code>*</code>	<code>tmp</code>
<code>y(r+2)</code>	<code>=</code>	<code>y(r+2)</code>	<code>+</code>	<code>A(r+2,c)</code>	<code>*</code>	<code>tmp</code>
<code>y(r+3)</code>	<code>=</code>	<code>y(r+3)</code>	<code>+</code>	<code>A(r+3,c)</code>	<code>*</code>	<code>tmp</code>

```
  enddo
```

```
enddo
```

- Loop kernel requires/consumes 3 AVX registers

DMVM (DP) – Single core performance vs. column height



Intel Xeon E5 2695 v3 (Haswell-EP), 2.3 GHz, CoD mode, Core P_{peak}=18.4 GF/s,
Caches: 32 KB / 256 KB / 35 MB, PageSize: 2 MB; ifort V15.0.1.133; b_S = 32 Gbyte/s



```

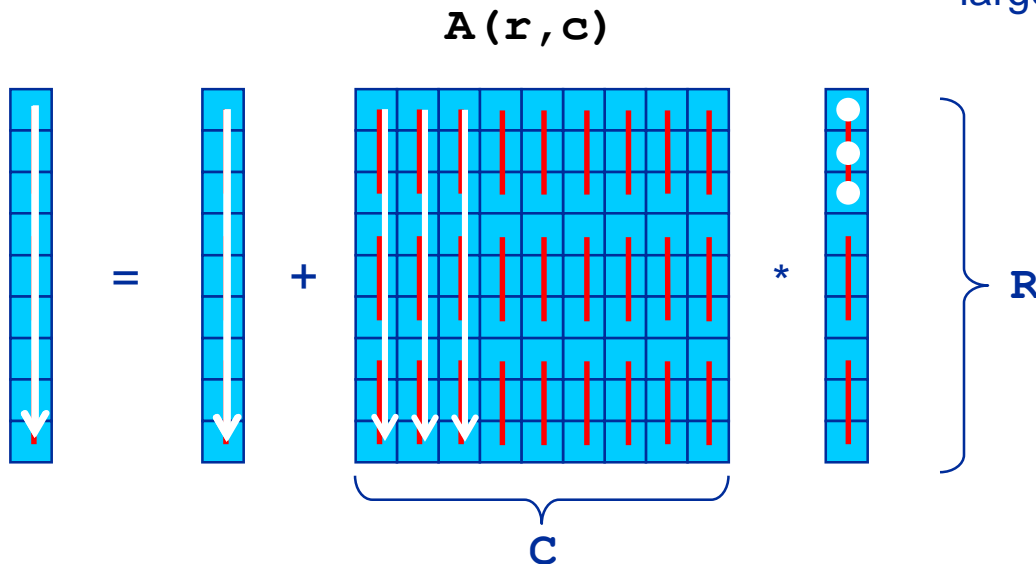
do c = 1 , C
  tmp=x(c)
  do r = 1 , R
    y(r)=y(r) + A(r,c) * tmp
  enddo
enddo
    
```

`tmp` stays in a register during inner loop

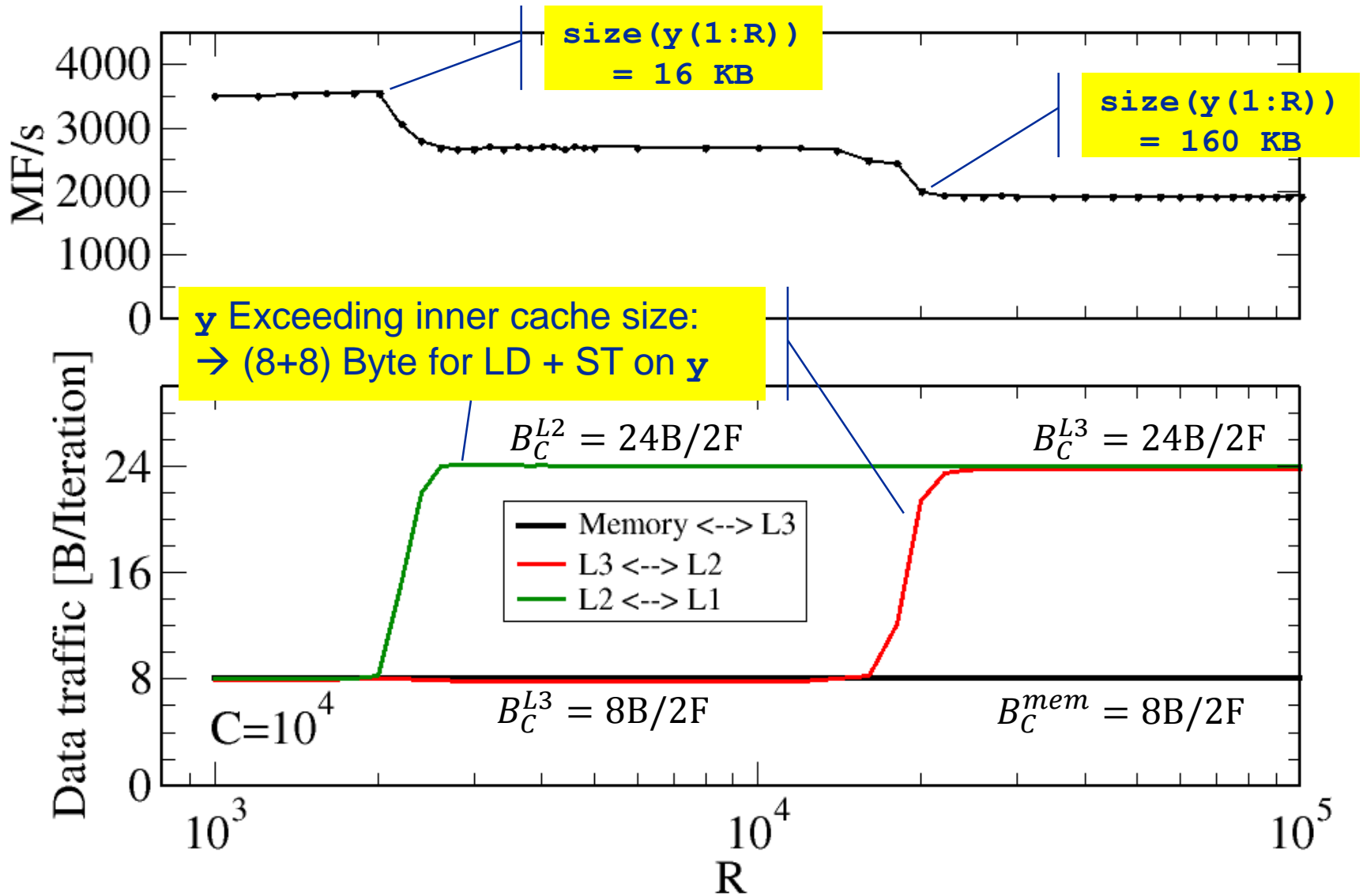
`A(:, :)` is loaded from memory – no data reuse

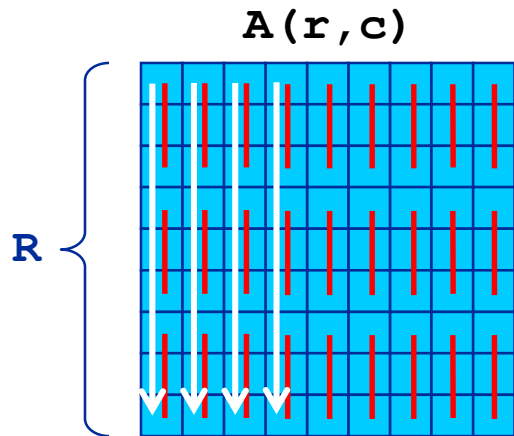
`y(:)` is loaded and stored in each outer iteration → for $c > 1$ update `y(:)` in cache

`y(:)` may not fit in innermost cache → more traffic from lower level caches for larger R



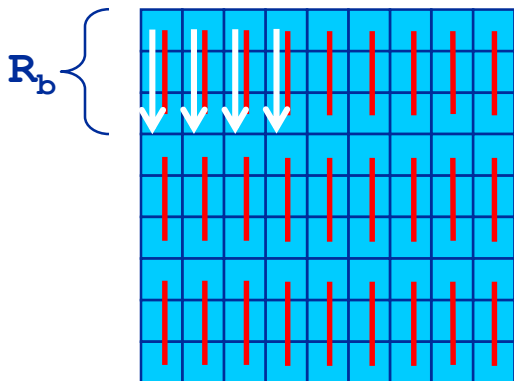
Roofline analysis: Distinguish code balance in memory (B_C^{mem}) from code balance in relevant cache level(s) (B_C^{L3} , B_C^{L2} , ...)!





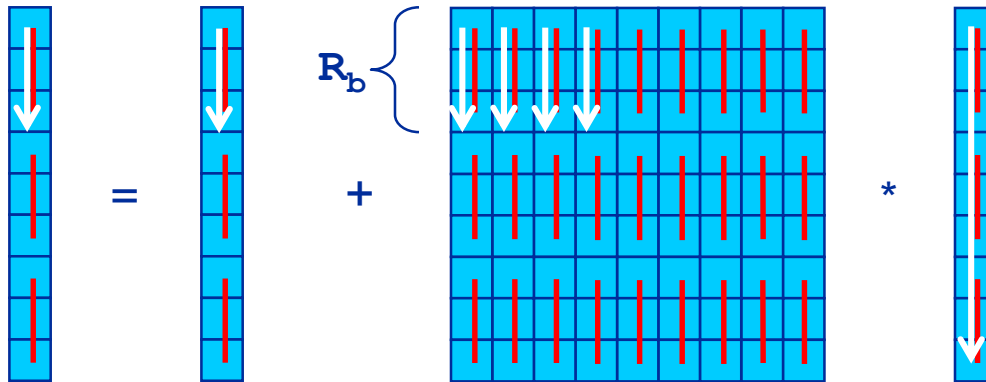
```
do c = 1 , C
  tmp=x(c)
  do r = 1 , R
    y(r)=y(r) + A(r,c) * tmp
  enddo
enddo
```

$y(:)$ may not fit into some cache
 → more traffic for lower level



```
do rb = 1 , R , R_b
  rbS = rb
  rbE = min((rb+R_b-1) , R)
  do c = 1 , C
    do r = rbS , rbE
      y(r)=y(r) + A(r,c)*x(c)
    enddo
  enddo
enddo
```

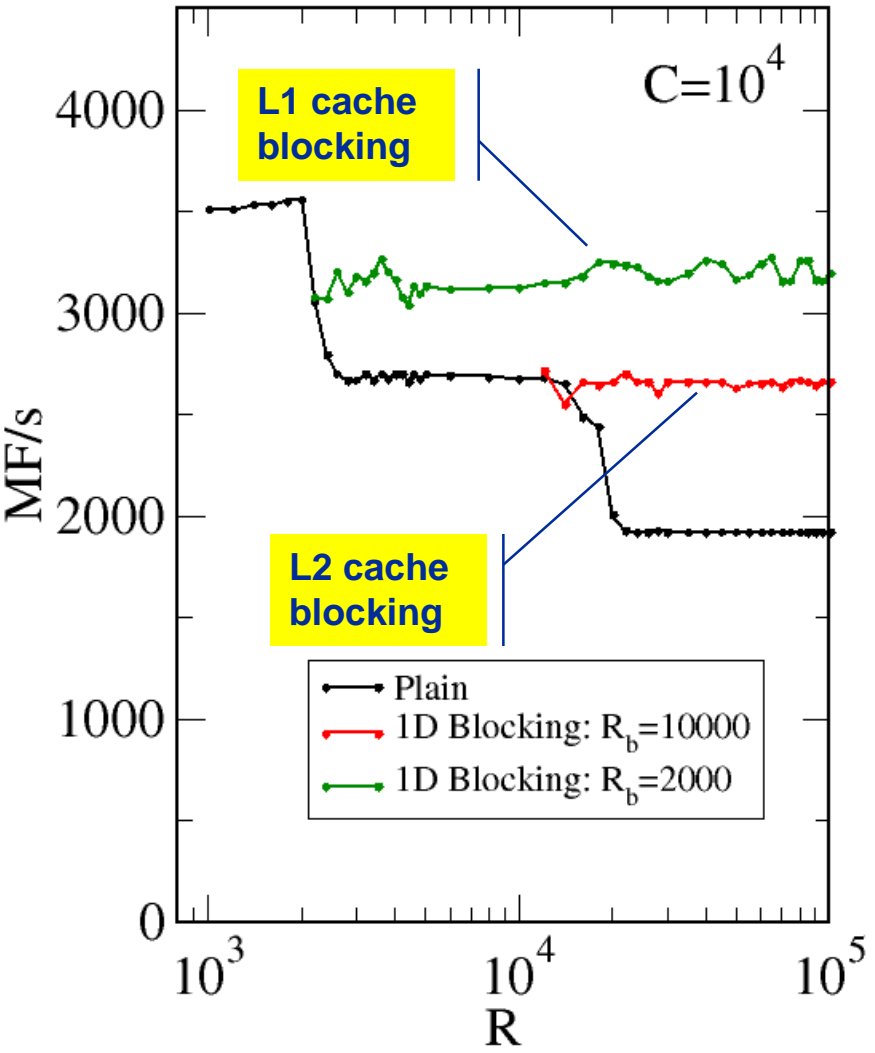
$y(rbS:rbE)$ may fit into some cache if R_b is small enough
 → traffic reduction



- **LHS only updated once** in some cache level if blocking is applied
- **Price:** RHS is loaded multiple times instead of once!
 - How often? $\rightarrow R / R_b$ times
- **Consequence: Traffic reduction of LHS & RHS by a factor of $R / (R_b \times 2C)$**
 - Still a large reduction if block size can be made larger than about 10



optional



- “1D blocking” for inner loop
- Blocking factor $R_b \leftrightarrow$ cache level

```

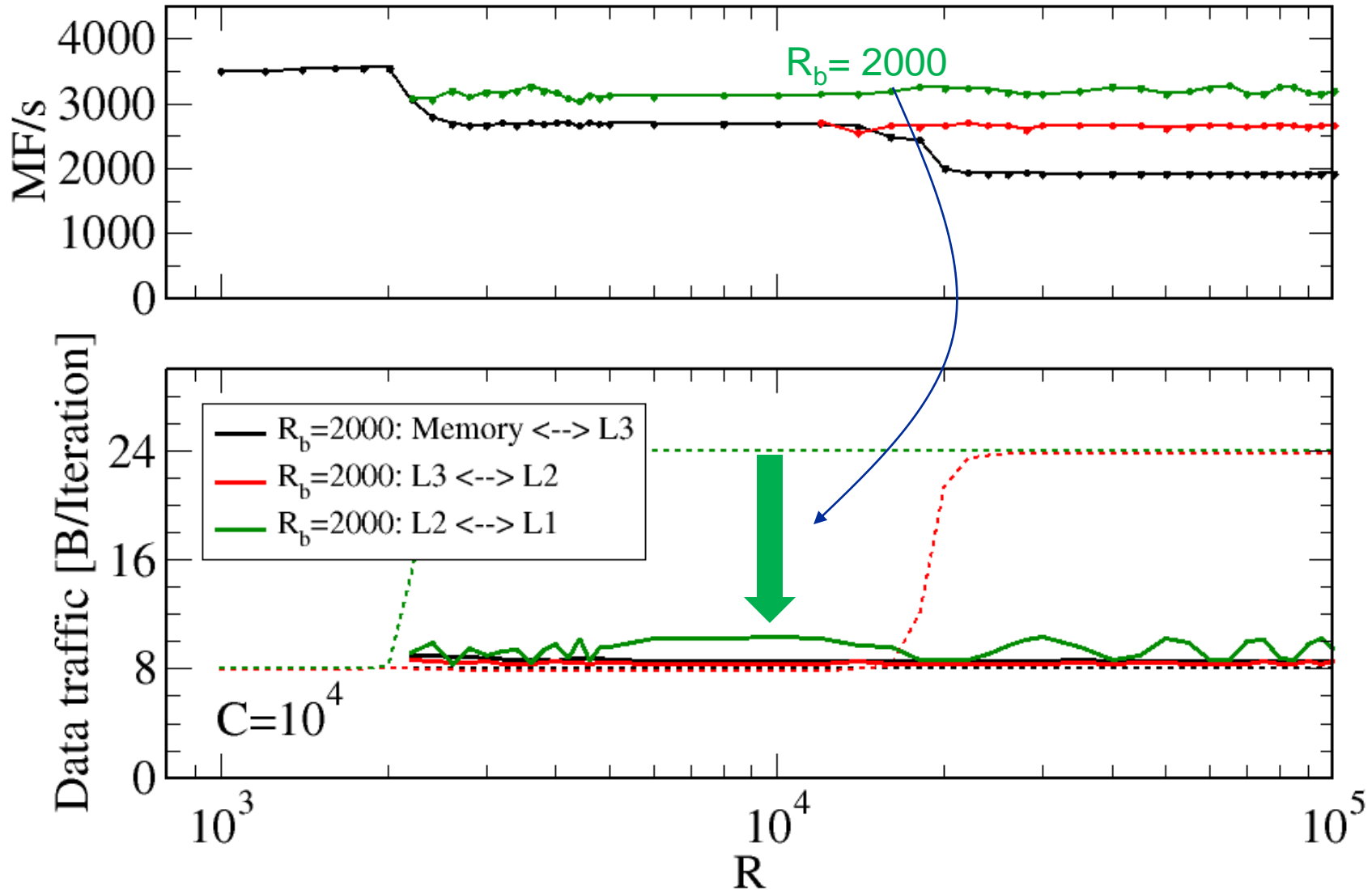
do rb = 1 , R , R_b

  rbS = rb
  rbE = min((rb+R_b-1) , R)

  do c = 1 , C
    do r = rbS , rbE
      y(r) = y(r) + A(r,c)*x(c)
    enddo
  enddo

enddo
    
```

→ Fully reuse subset of $y(rbS:rbE)$ from L1/L2 cache





```
!$omp parallel do reduction(+:y)
do c = 1 , C
  do r = 1 , R
    y(r) = y(r) + A(r,c) * x(c)
  enddo ; enddo
!$omp end parallel do
```

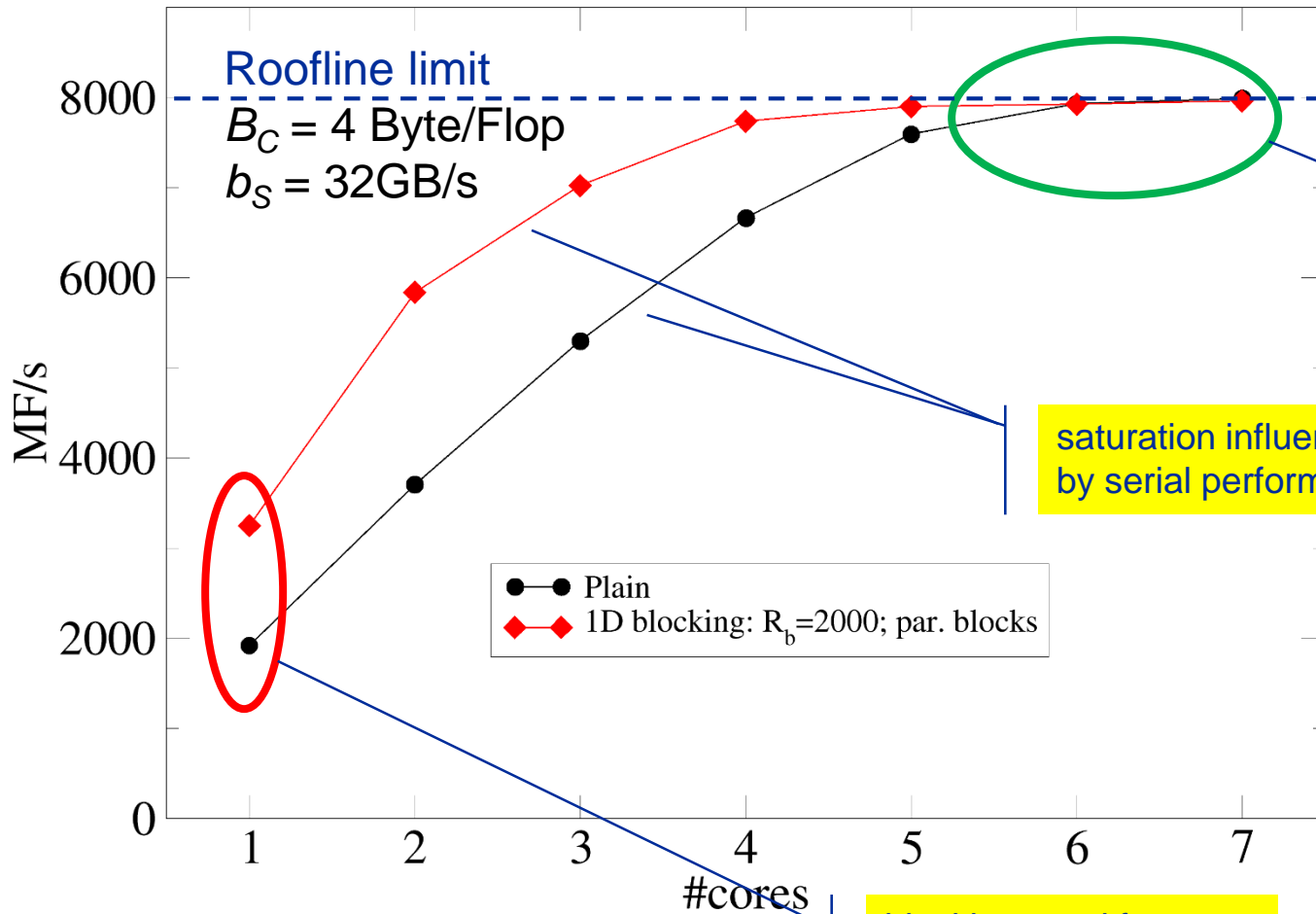
plain code

```
!$omp parallel do private(rbS,rbE)
do rb = 1 , R , Rb
  rbS = rb
  rbE = min((rb+Rb-1) , R)
  do c = 1 , C
    do r = rbS , rbE
      y(r) = y(r) + A(r,c) * x(c)
    enddo ; enddo ; enddo
!$omp end parallel do
```

blocked code

DMVM (DP) – OpenMP parallelization & saturation

“Using more cores can heal bad single-core performance”



memory traffic unchanged
→ saturation unchanged!

saturation influenced by serial performance

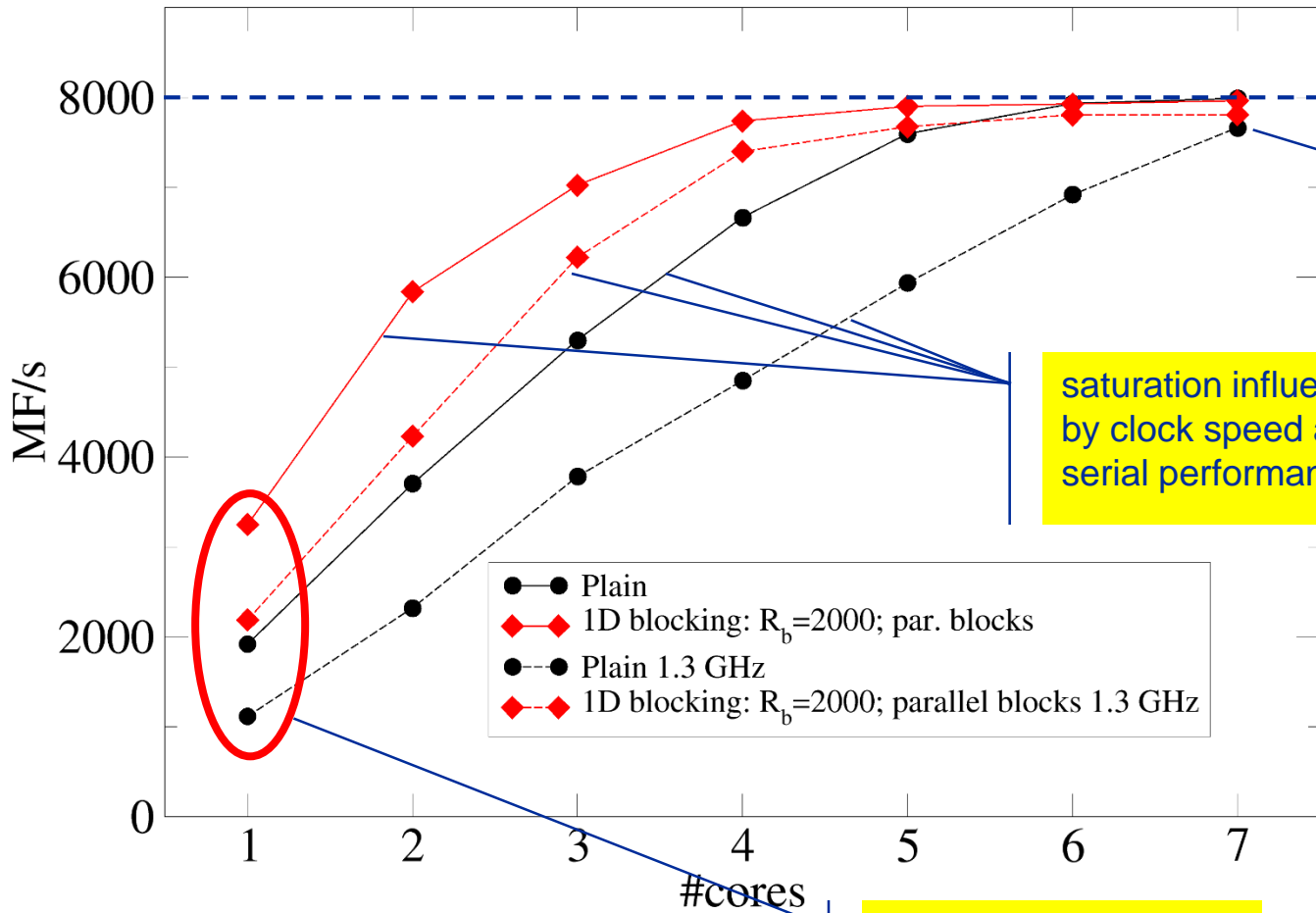
So, is blocking useless?
→ NO (see later)

Can we do anything to improve B_C^{mem} ?
→ NO, not here

Intel Xeon E5 2695 v3 (Haswell-EP)
2.3 GHz base clock speed, $b_S = 32 \text{ GB/s}$

blocking good for single thread performance (reduced in-cache traffic)

DMVM (DP) – saturation & clock speed



Intel Xeon E5 2695 v3 (Haswell-EP)
2.3 GHz base clock speed, $b_s = 32$ GB/s

Even the worst code almost saturates the bandwidth @1.3 GHz

saturation influenced by clock speed and serial performance

Clock speed has high impact on single thread performance

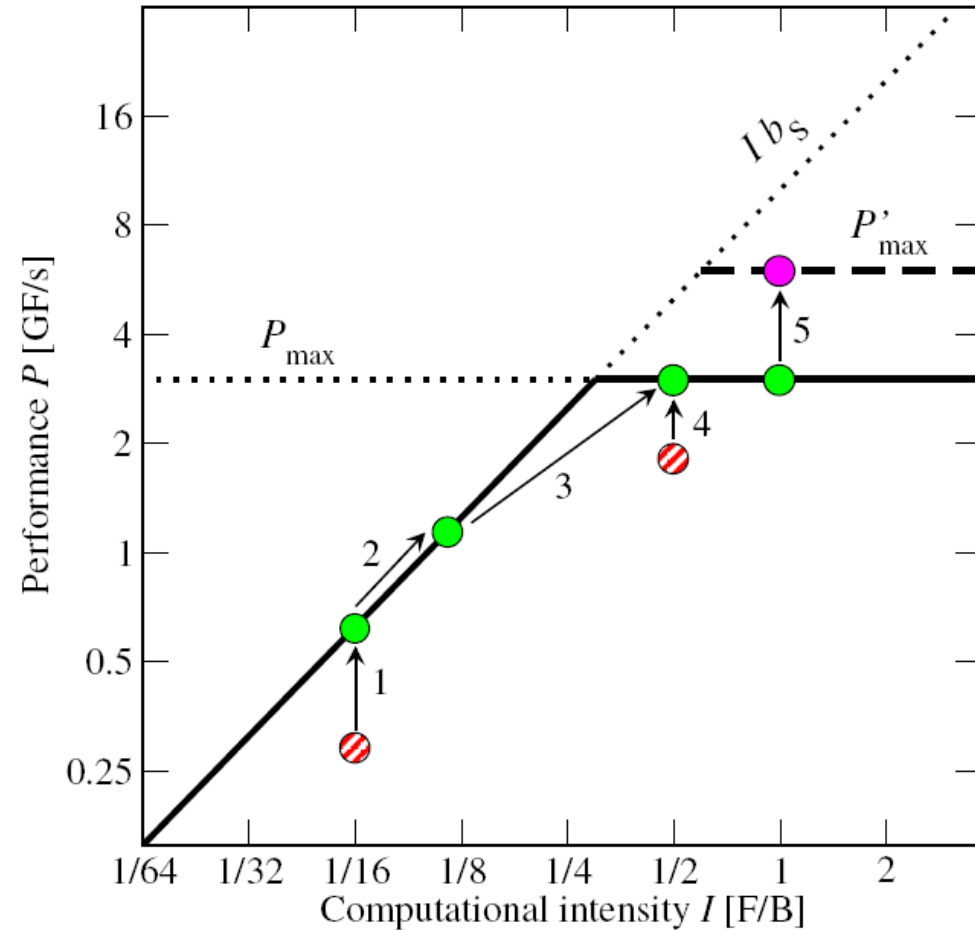
Clock speed or parallelism can "heal" slow code!

Conclusions from the dMVM example



- We have found the reasons for the **breakdown of single-core performance with growing number of matrix rows**
 - LHS vector fitting in different levels of the cache hierarchy
 - Validated theory by performance counter measurements
- **Inner loop blocking** was employed to improve code balance in L3 and/or L2
 - Validated by performance counter measurements
- **Blocking led to better single-threaded performance**
- **Saturated performance unchanged (as predicted by Roofline)**
 - Because the problem is still small enough to fit the LHS at least into the L3 cache

1. Hit the BW bottleneck by good serial code
(e.g., Perl → Fortran)
2. Increase intensity to make better use of BW bottleneck
(e.g., loop blocking → see later)
3. Increase intensity and go from memory-bound to core-bound
(e.g., temporal blocking)
4. Hit the core bottleneck by good serial code
(e.g., `-fno-alias` → see later)
5. Shift P_{\max} by accessing additional hardware features or using a different algorithm/implementation
(e.g., scalar → SIMD)



Using Roofline for monitoring “live” jobs on a cluster

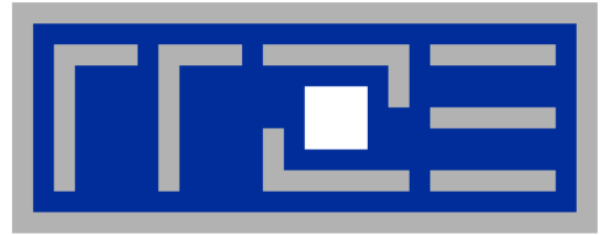
Based on measured BW and Flop/s data via *likwid-perfctr*



Ganglia Data / Roofline (04. Feb. 2016 - 14:12:24)

Click and drag to zoom in. Hold down shift key to x-pan.

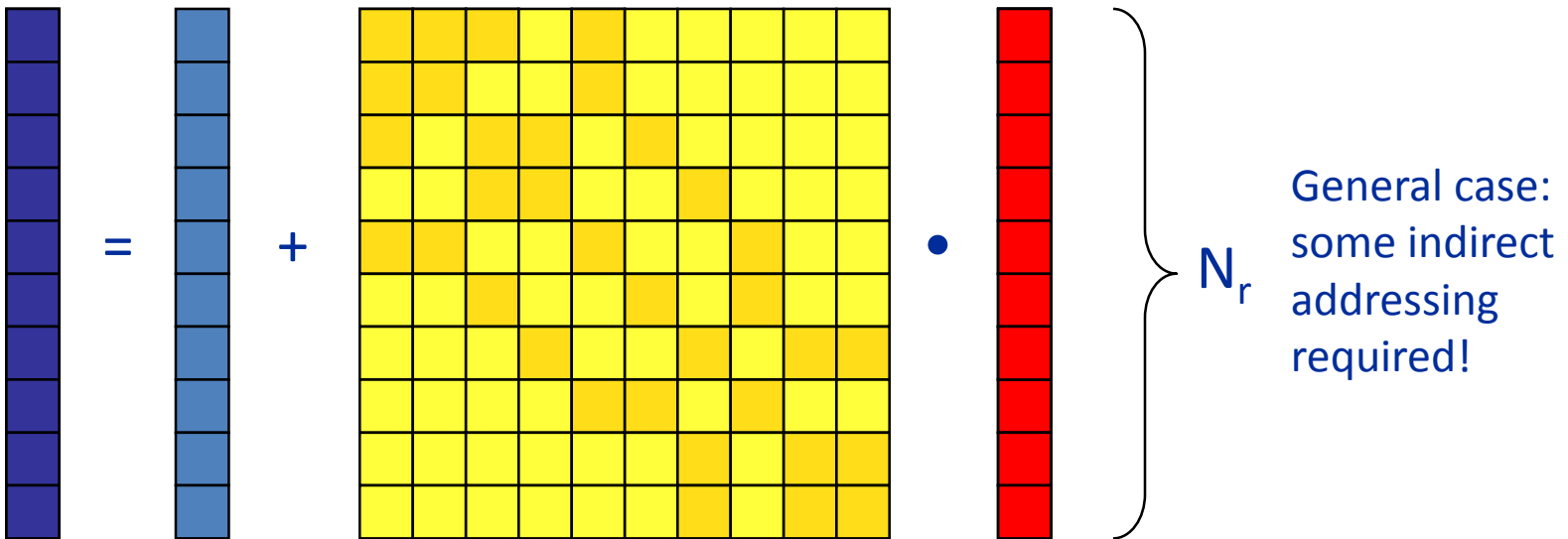




Case study:
Sparse Matrix Vector Multiplication

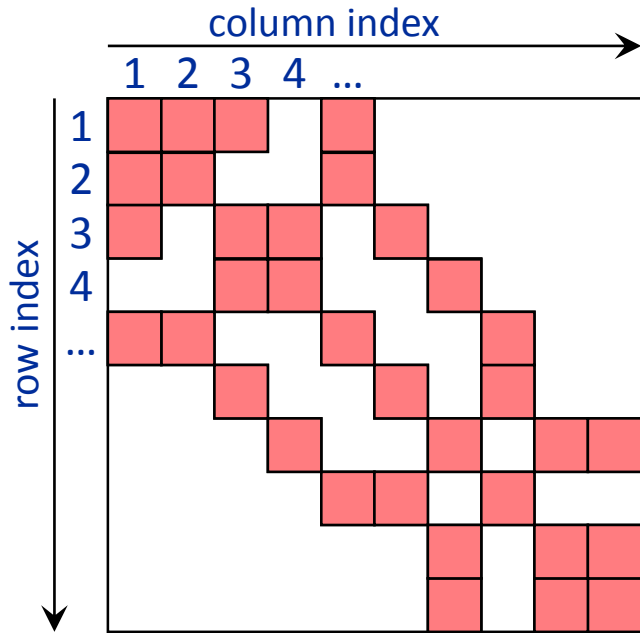


- Key ingredient in some matrix diagonalization algorithms
 - Lanczos, Davidson, Jacobi-Davidson
- Store only N_{nz} nonzero elements of matrix and RHS, LHS vectors with N_r (number of matrix rows) entries
- “Sparse”: $N_{nz} \sim N_r$

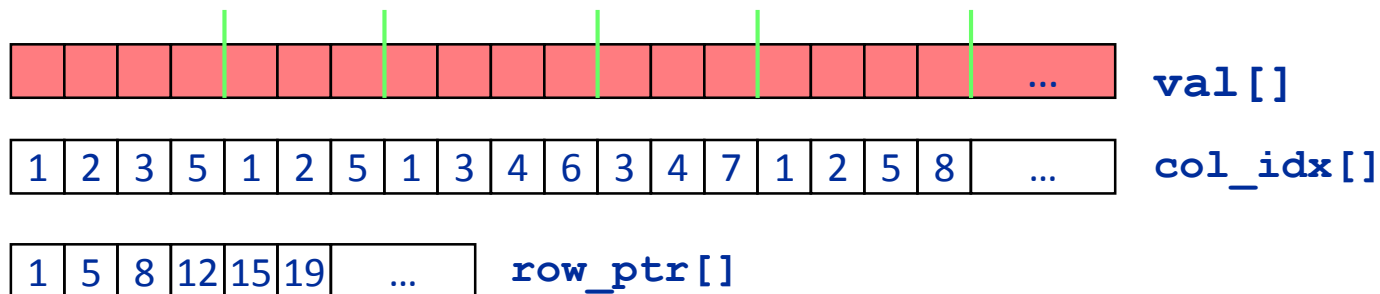




- For large problems, spMVM is inevitably **memory-bound**
 - **Intra-socket saturation effect** on modern multicores
- SpMVM is **easily parallelizable** in shared and distributed memory
- Data storage format is **crucial** for performance properties
 - Most useful general format on CPUs:
Compressed Row Storage (**CRS**)
 - Depending on compute architecture



- **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:

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

- Usually many spMVMs required to solve a problem

- **Now let's look at some performance measurements...**

Performance characteristics

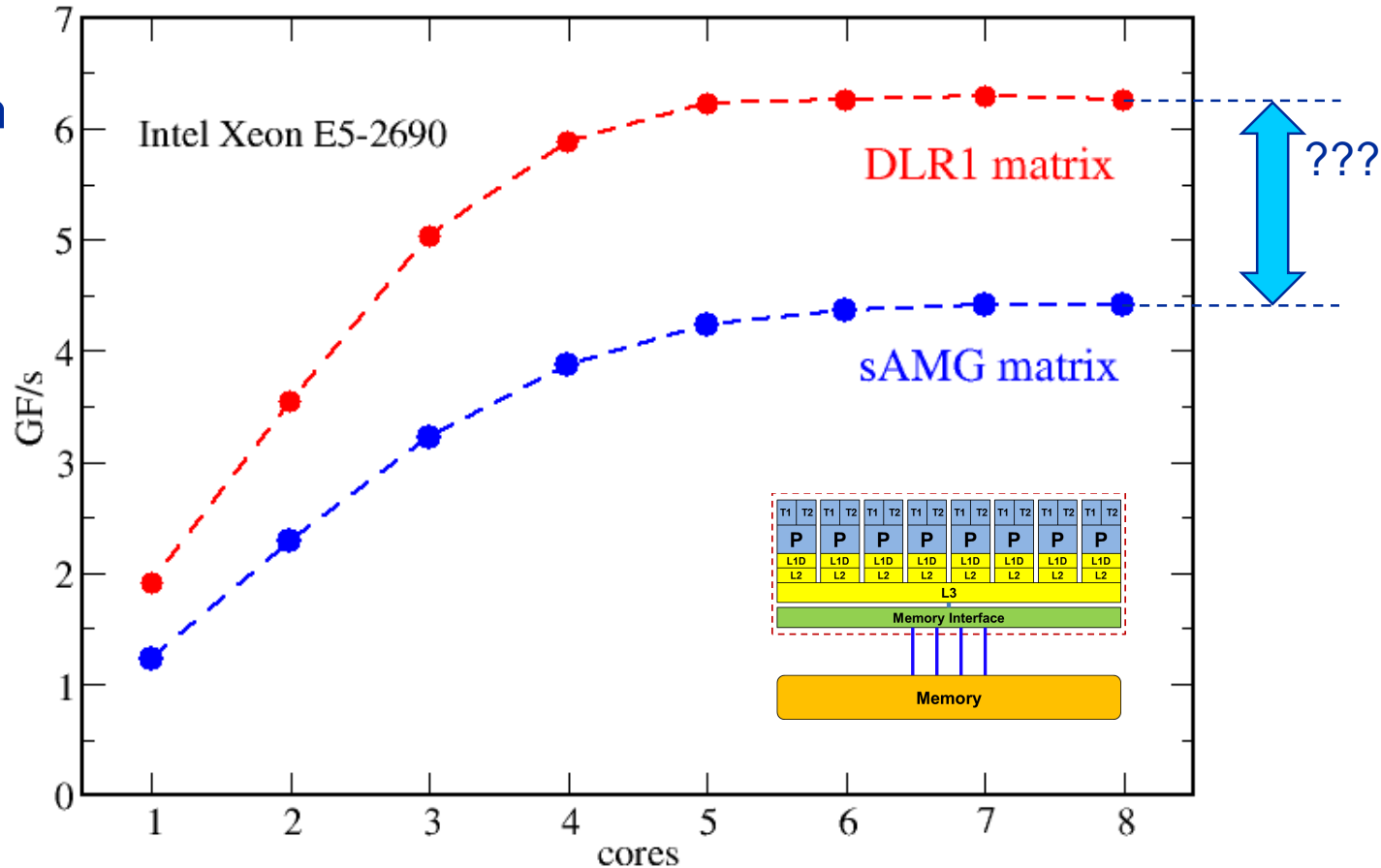


- Strongly memory-bound for large data sets → saturating performance across cores on the chip
- Performance seems to depend on the matrix

Can we explain this?

Is there a “light speed” for spMVM?

Optimization?





- Sparse MVM in double precision w/ CRS data storage:

```
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
```

- DP CRS comp. intensity

- α quantifies traffic for loading RHS
 - $\alpha = 0 \rightarrow$ RHS is in cache
 - $\alpha = 1/N_{nzs} \rightarrow$ RHS loaded once
 - $\alpha = 1 \rightarrow$ no cache
 - $\alpha > 1 \rightarrow$ Houston, we have a problem!

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

“best” in-memory intensity:
 $I = \frac{1}{6} F/B$, or $B_C^{mem} = 6 B/F$

- “Expected” performance = $b_s \times I_{CRS}$
- Determine α by measuring performance and actual memory traffic
 - Maximum memory BW may not be achieved with spMVM

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

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

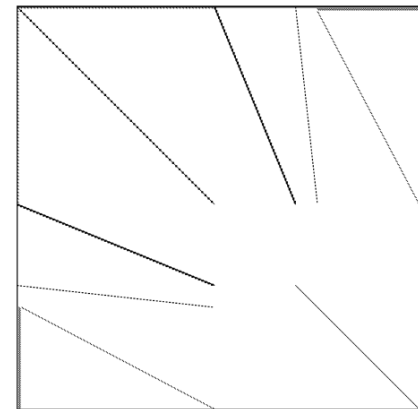
- Solve for α :
$$\alpha = \frac{1}{4} \left(\frac{V_{meas}}{N_{nz} \cdot 2 \text{ bytes}} - 6 - \frac{8}{N_{nzs}} \right)$$

- Example: kkt_power matrix from the UoF collection on one Intel SNB socket

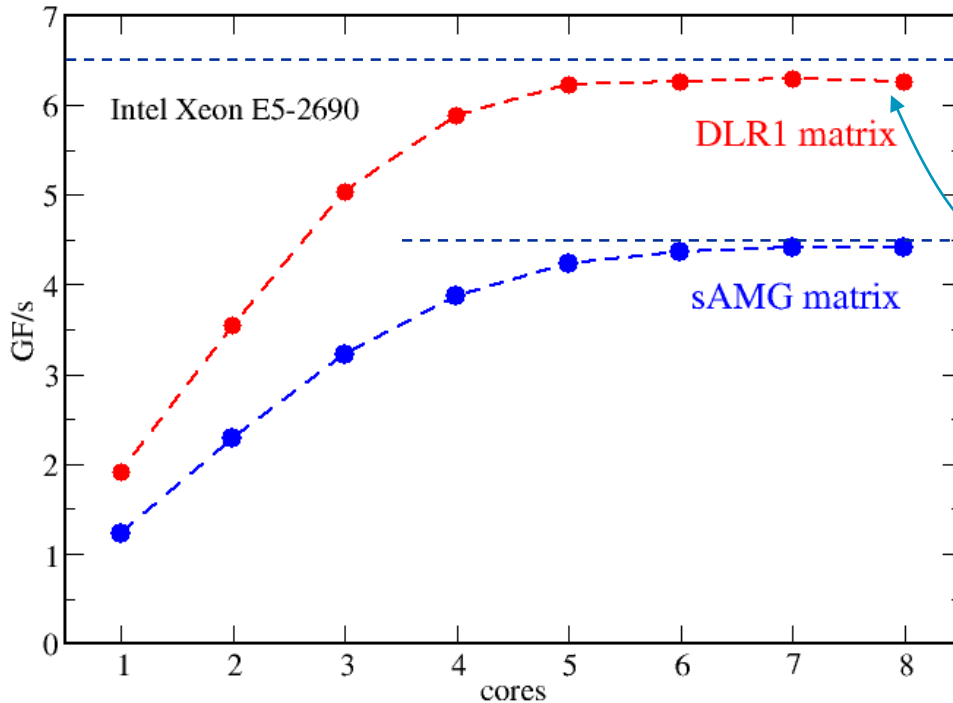
- $N_{nz} = 14.6 \cdot 10^6, N_{nzs} = 7.1$
- $V_{meas} \approx 258 \text{ MB}$
- $\rightarrow \alpha = 0.43, \alpha N_{nzs} = 3.1$
- \rightarrow RHS is loaded 3.1 times from memory
- and:

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

15% extra traffic \rightarrow optimization potential!



Now back to the start...



- $b_S = 39 \text{ GB/s}$
- $B_C^{min} = 6 \text{ B/F}$
- Maximum spMVM performance:

$$P_{max} = 6.5 \text{ GF/s}$$

- → DLR1 causes minimum code balance!
- sAMG matrix code balance:

$$B_C \leq \frac{b_S}{4.5 \text{ GF/s}} = 8.7 \text{ B/F}$$

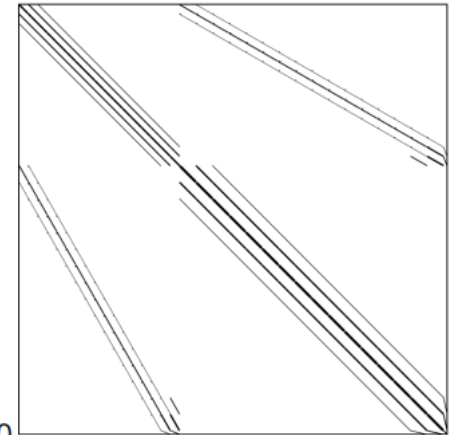
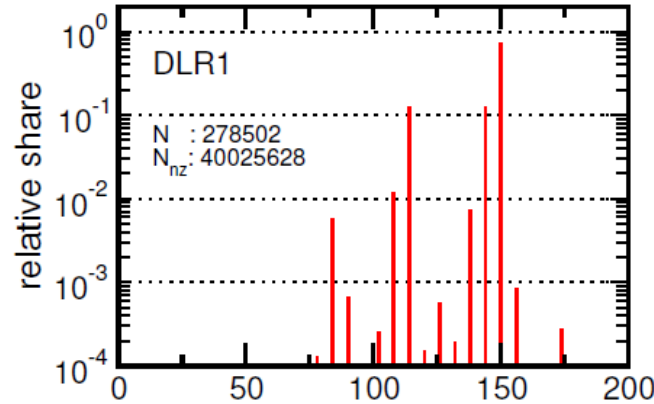
- Why is this only an upper limit?
- What is the next step?
- Could we have predicted this qualitative difference?

Sparse matrix testcases



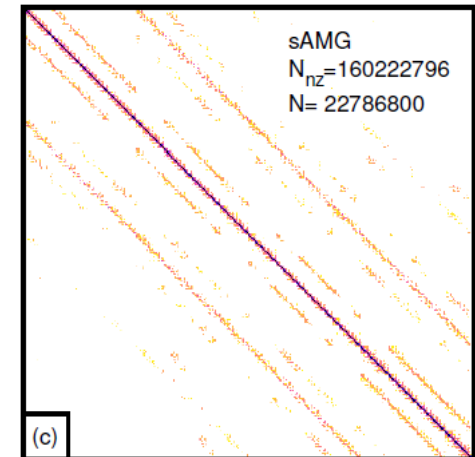
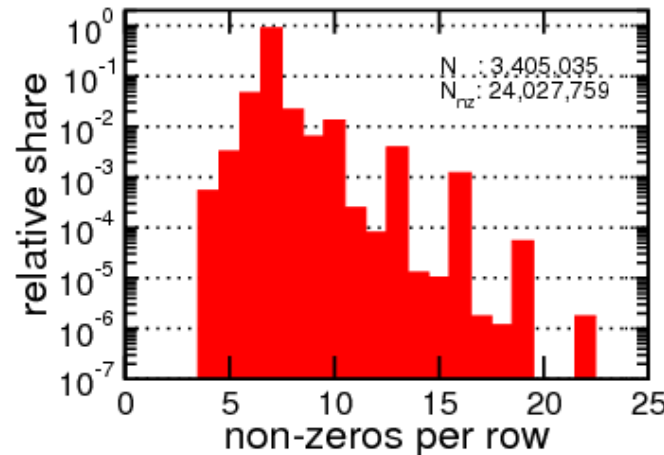
“DLR1” (A. Basermann, DLR)

Adjoint problem computation
(turbulent transonic flow
over a wing) with the TAU
CFD system of the German
Aerospace Center (DLR)
Avg. non-zeros/row ~150



“sAMG” (K. Stüben, FhG-SCAI)

Matrix from FhG’s adaptive
multigrid code sAMG
for the irregular
discretization of a Poisson
problem on a car geometry.
Avg. non-zeros/row ~ 7





- **When number of nonzeros per row is small**

- Significant remainder loop overhead (partial/no vectorization)
- Large impact of row reduction
- Alignment constraints require additional peeling
- Small loop count

- **GPGPUs**

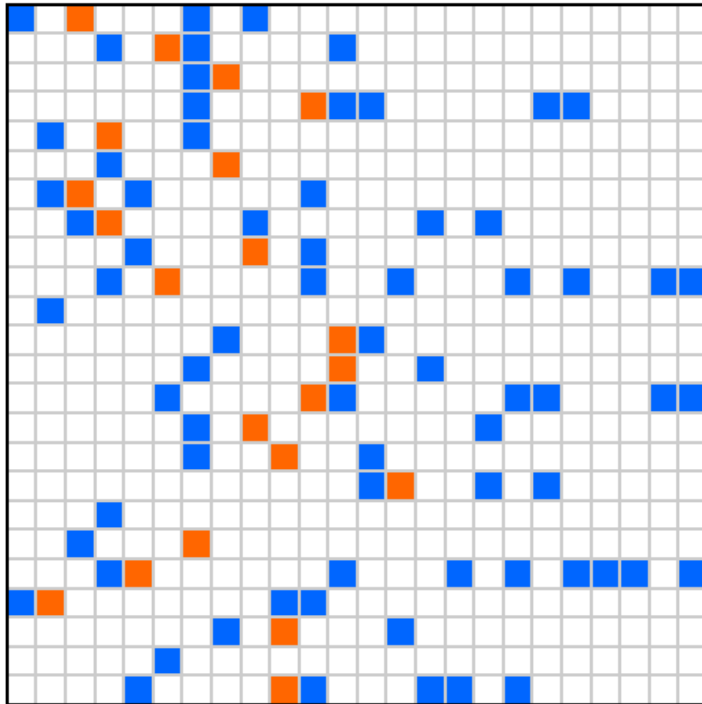
- One warp per row: similar problems
- Outer loop parallelization: Loss of coalescing

- **Can we find a format that is better suited for SIMD?**

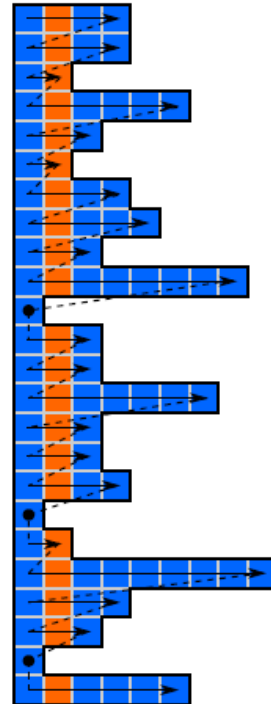
- **Is it relevant at all if the execution is memory bound?**

```
for(i = 0; i < N; ++i)
{
    tmp0 = tmp1 = tmp2 = tmp3 = 0.;
    for(j = rpt[i]; j < rpt[i+1]; j+=4)
    {
        tmp0 += val[j+0] * x[col[j+0]];
        tmp1 += val[j+1] * x[col[j+1]];
        tmp2 += val[j+2] * x[col[j+2]];
        tmp3 += val[j+3] * x[col[j+3]];
    }
    y[i] += tmp0+tmp1+tmp2+tmp3;
    // remainder loop
    for(j = j-4; j < rpt[i+1]; j++)
        y[i] += val[j] * x[col[j]];
}
```

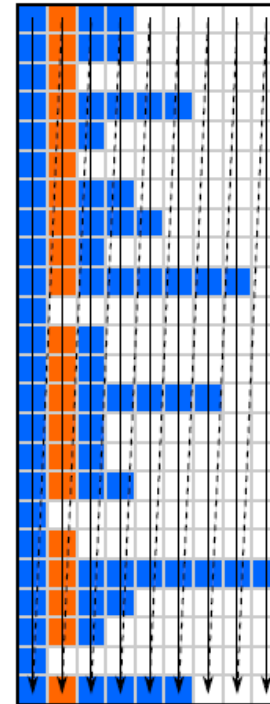
Standard sparse matrix storage formats



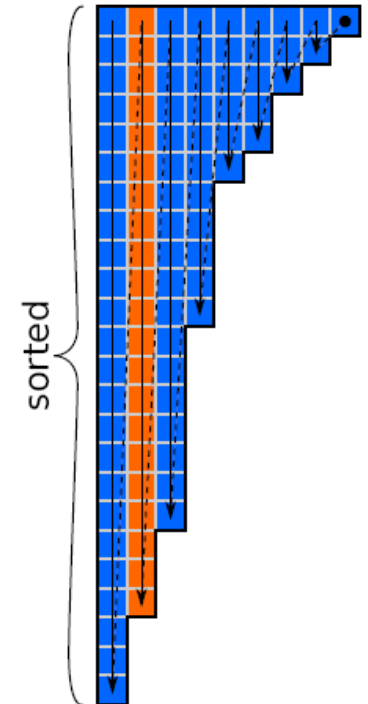
original matrix



CRS



ELLPACK



JDS

Constructing SELL-C- σ

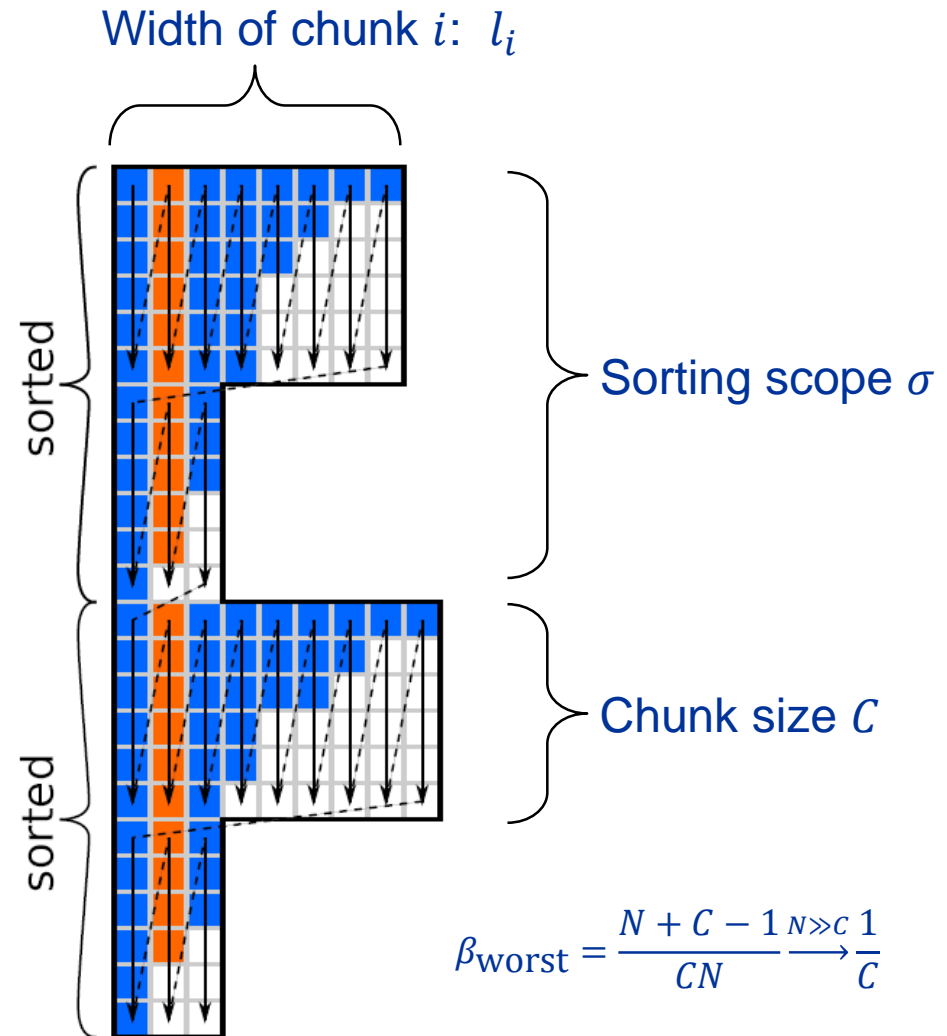
Best of all worlds



1. Pick chunk size C (guided by SIMD/T widths)
2. Pick sorting scope σ
3. Sort rows by length within each sorting scope
4. Pad chunks with zeros to make them rectangular
5. Store matrix data in “chunk column major order”

“Chunk occupancy”: fraction of “useful” matrix entries

$$\beta = \frac{N_{nz}}{\sum_{i=0}^{N_c} C \cdot l_i}$$

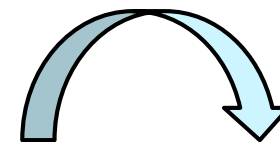


SELL-6-12
 $\beta=0.66$

$$\beta_{\text{worst}} = \frac{N + C - 1}{CN} \xrightarrow{N \gg C} \frac{1}{C}$$



“Corner case” matrices from “Williams Group”:



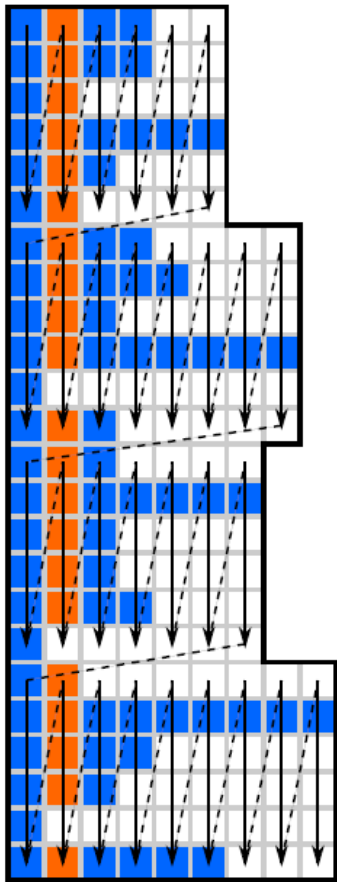
Test case	N	N_{nz}	N_{nzt}	density	$\beta_{\sigma=1}^{C=16}$	$\beta_{\sigma=256}^{C=16}$
RM07R	381,689	37,464,962	98.16	2.57e-04	0.63	0.93
kkt_power	2,063,494	14,612,663	7.08	3.43e-06	0.54	0.92
Hamrle3	1,447,360	5,514,242	3.81	2.63e-06	1.00	1.00
ML_Geer	1,504,002	110,879,972	73.72	4.90e-05	1.00	1.00
pwtk	217,918	11,634,424	53.39	2.45e-04	0.99	1.00
shipsec1	140,874	7,813,404	55.46	3.94e-04	0.89	0.98
consph	83,334	6,010,480	72.13	8.65e-04	0.94	0.97
pdb1HYS	36,417	4,344,765	119.31	3.28e-03	0.84	0.97
cant	62,451	4,007,383	64.17	1.03e-03	0.90	0.98

...

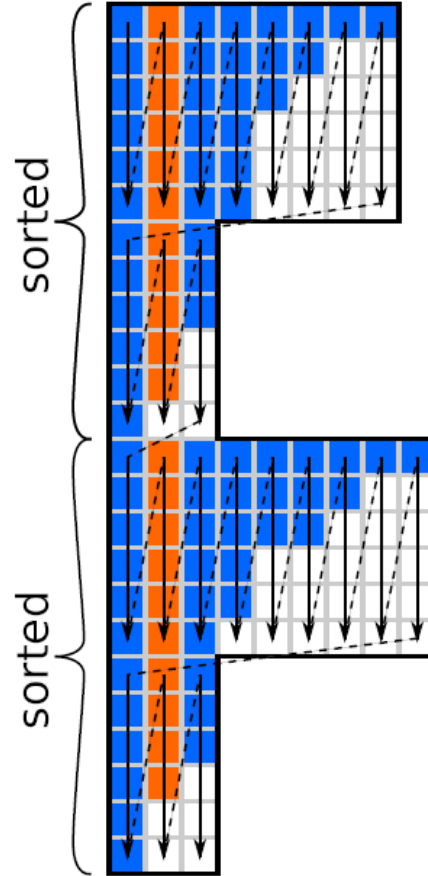


```
for (i = 0; i < N/4; ++i)
{
    for (j = 0; j < cl[i]; ++j)
    {
        y[i*4+0] += val[cs[i]+j*4+0] *
                    x[col[cs[i]+j*4+0]];
        y[i*4+1] += val[cs[i]+j*4+1] *
                    x[col[cs[i]+j*4+1]];
        y[i*4+2] += val[cs[i]+j*4+2] *
                    x[col[cs[i]+j*4+2]];
        y[i*4+3] += val[cs[i]+j*4+3] *
                    x[col[cs[i]+j*4+3]];
    }
}
```

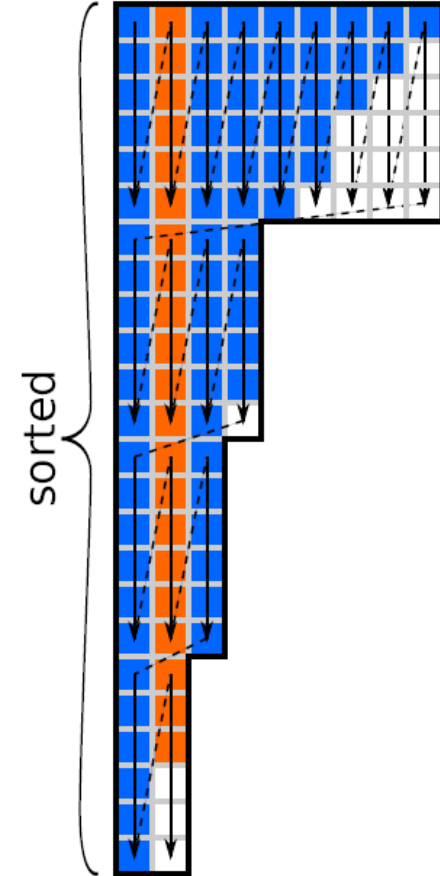
$C = 4$



SELL-6-1
 $\beta=0.51$



SELL-6-12
 $\beta=0.66$



SELL-6-24
 $\beta=0.84$

(SELL-1-1 == CRS / SELL-N-1 == ELLPACK)



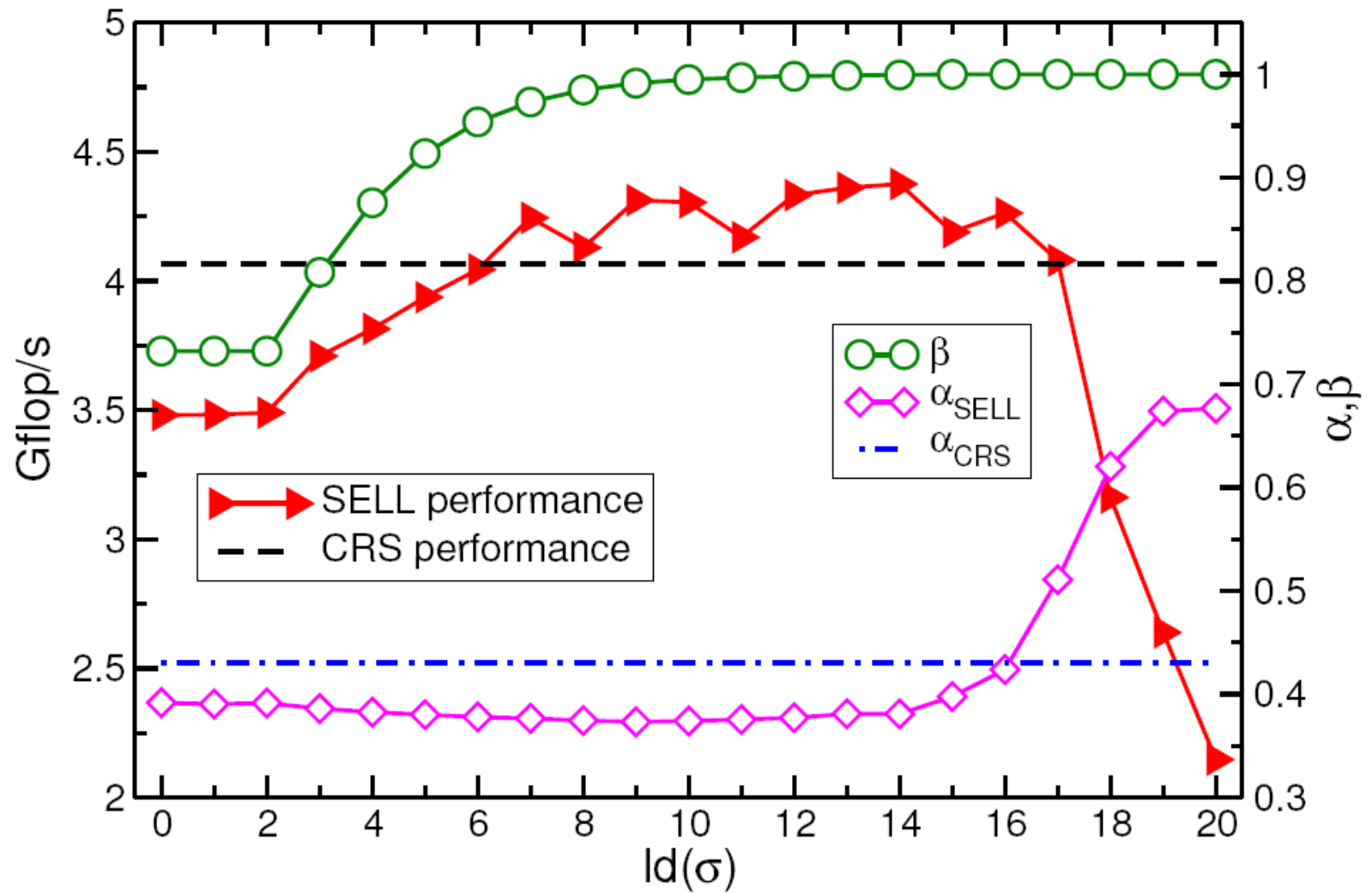
Code balance (double precision FP, 4-byte index):



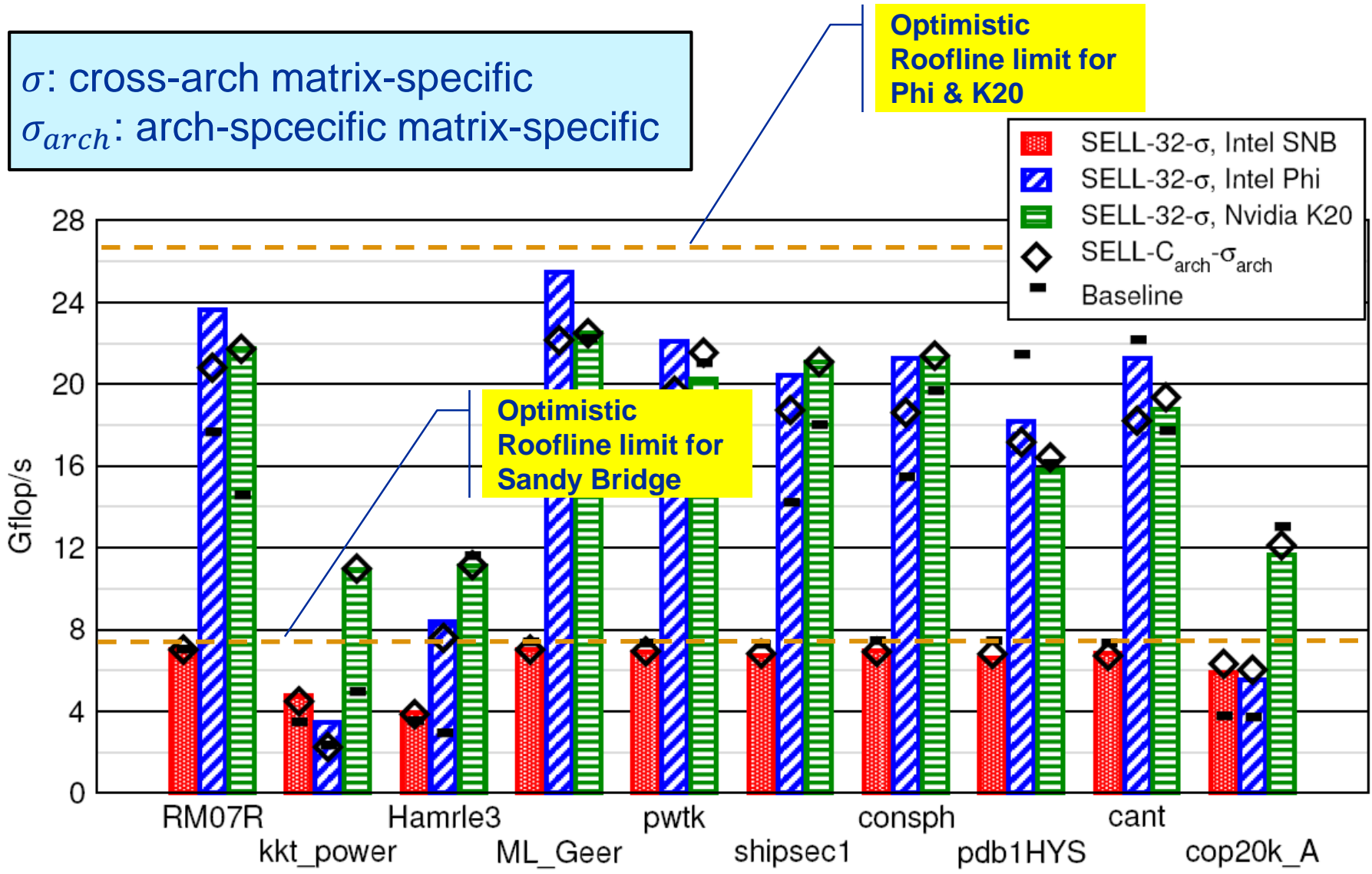
$$B_{SELL}(\alpha, \beta, N_{nzs}) = \left(\frac{1}{\beta} \left(\frac{8 + 4}{2} \right) + 8\alpha + \frac{16}{N_{nzs}} \right) \frac{\text{bytes}}{\text{flop}}$$

$$= \left(\frac{6}{\beta} + 4\alpha + \frac{8}{N_{nzs}} \right) \frac{\text{bytes}}{\text{flop}}$$

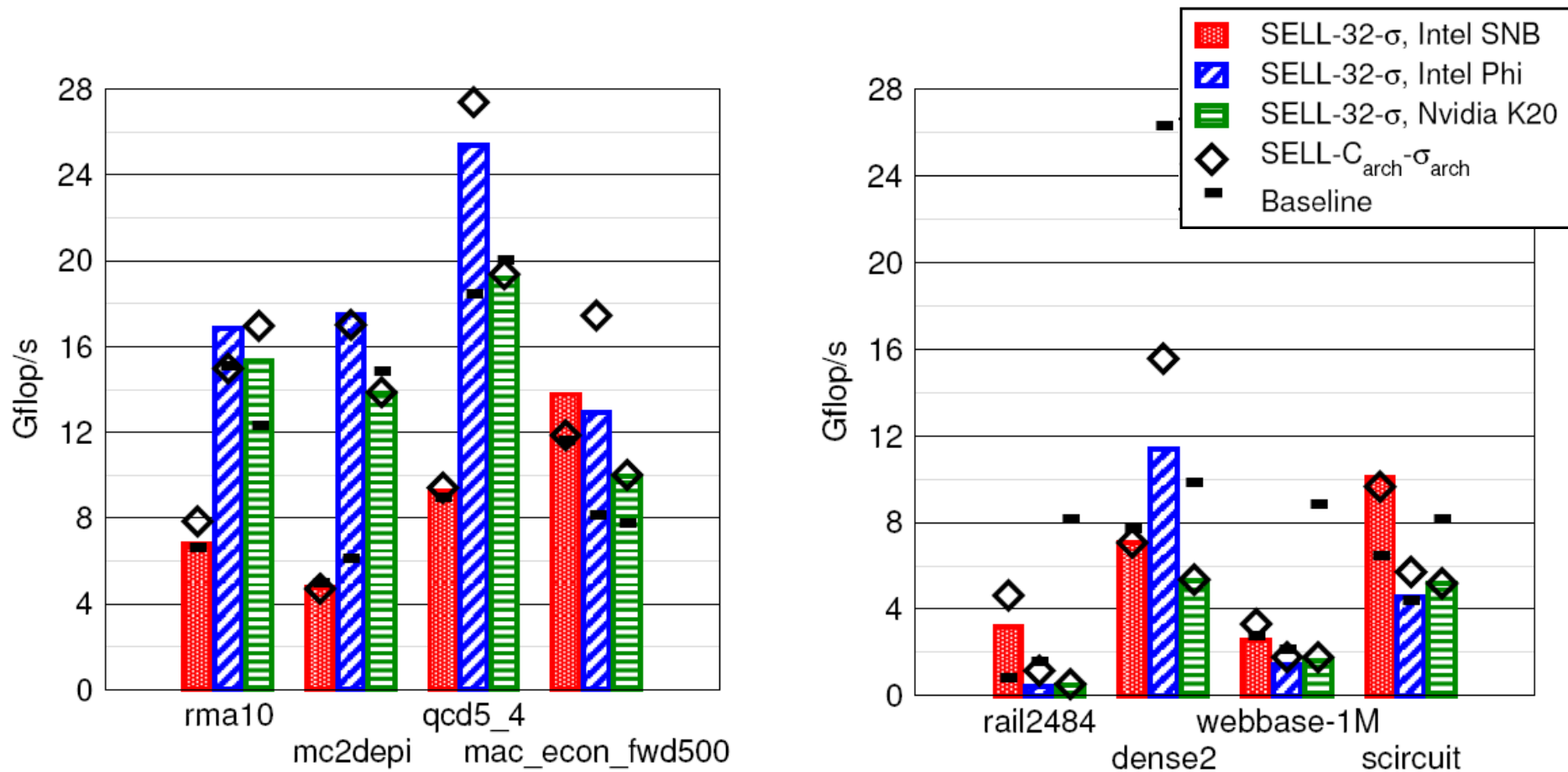
$$P(\alpha, \beta, N_{nzs}, b) = \frac{b}{B_{SELL}(\alpha, \beta, N_{nzs})}$$



Results for memory-bound matrices



Results for cache-bound and pathological cases



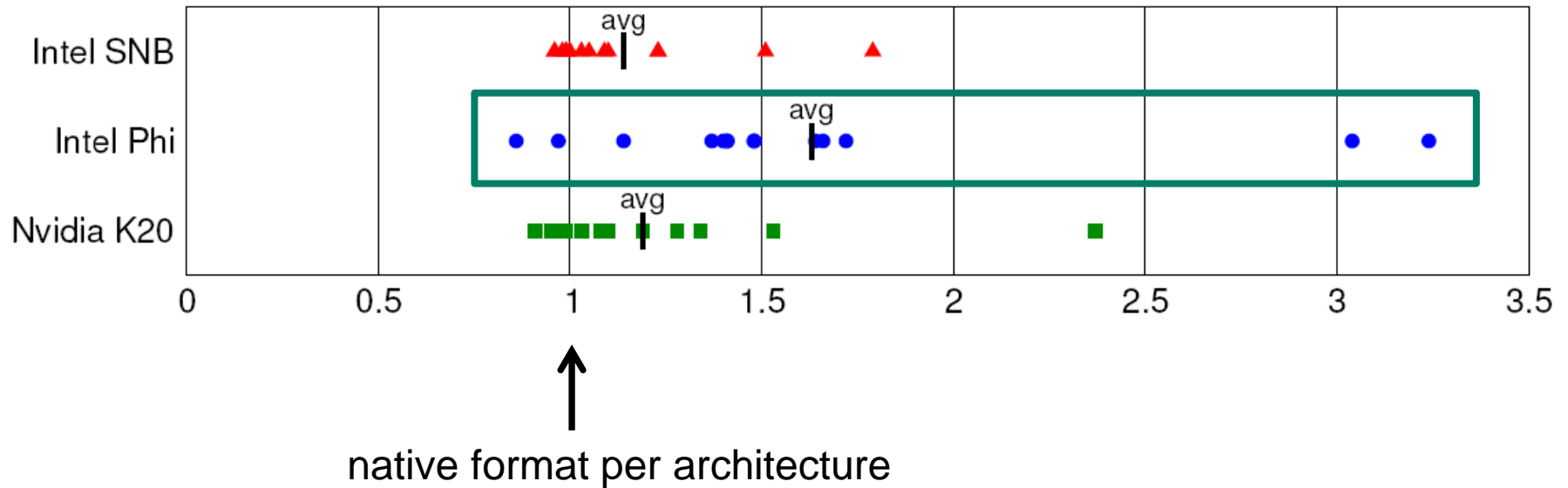
SELL-C- σ : Relative Performance Benefit

(16 square matrices)



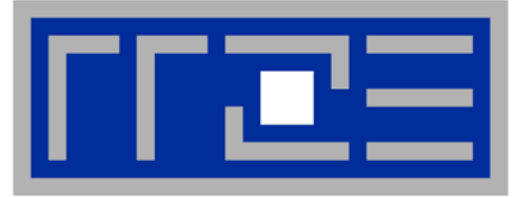
Generic SELL-32- σ format performance vs. baselines:

- CRS (from MKL) for SNB and Xeon Phi
- HYB (CUSPARSE) for K20





- **Conclusion from Roofline analysis**
 - The roofline model does not “work” 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: Modeling is not always 100% predictive. It’s all about *learning more* about performance properties!**
- **SpMVM requires efficient data formats for best performance**
 - CRS OK for CPUs, SELL-C- σ & friends better for wide SIMD/manycore



Case study: A Jacobi smoother

The basic performance properties in 2D

Layer conditions

Optimization by spatial blocking



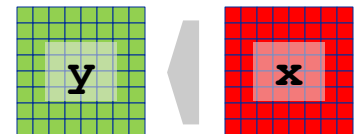
- Stencil schemes frequently occur in PDE solvers on regular lattice structures
- Basically it is a sparse matrix vector multiply (**spMVM**) embedded in an iterative scheme (outer loop)
- but the **regular access structure** allows for **matrix free coding**

```
do iter = 1, max_iterations
```

```
    Perform sweep over regular grid:  $y(:) \leftarrow x(:)$ 
```

```
    Swap  $y \leftrightarrow x$ 
```

```
enddo
```



- **Complexity of implementation and performance depends on**
 - stencil operator, e.g. Jacobi-type, Gauss-Seidel-type, ...
 - spatial extent, e.g. 7-pt or 25-pt in 3D,...

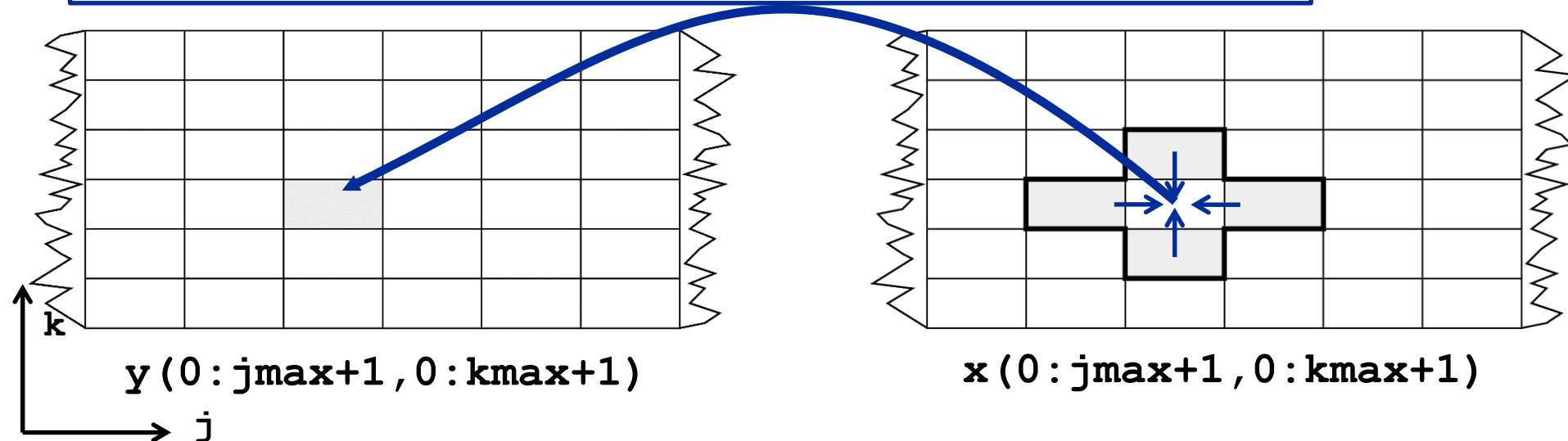
Jacobi-type 5-pt stencil in 2D



sweep

```
do k=1, kmax
  do j=1, jmax
    y(j,k) = const * ( x(j-1,k) + x(j+1,k) &
                      + x(j,k-1) + x(j,k+1) )
  enddo
enddo
```

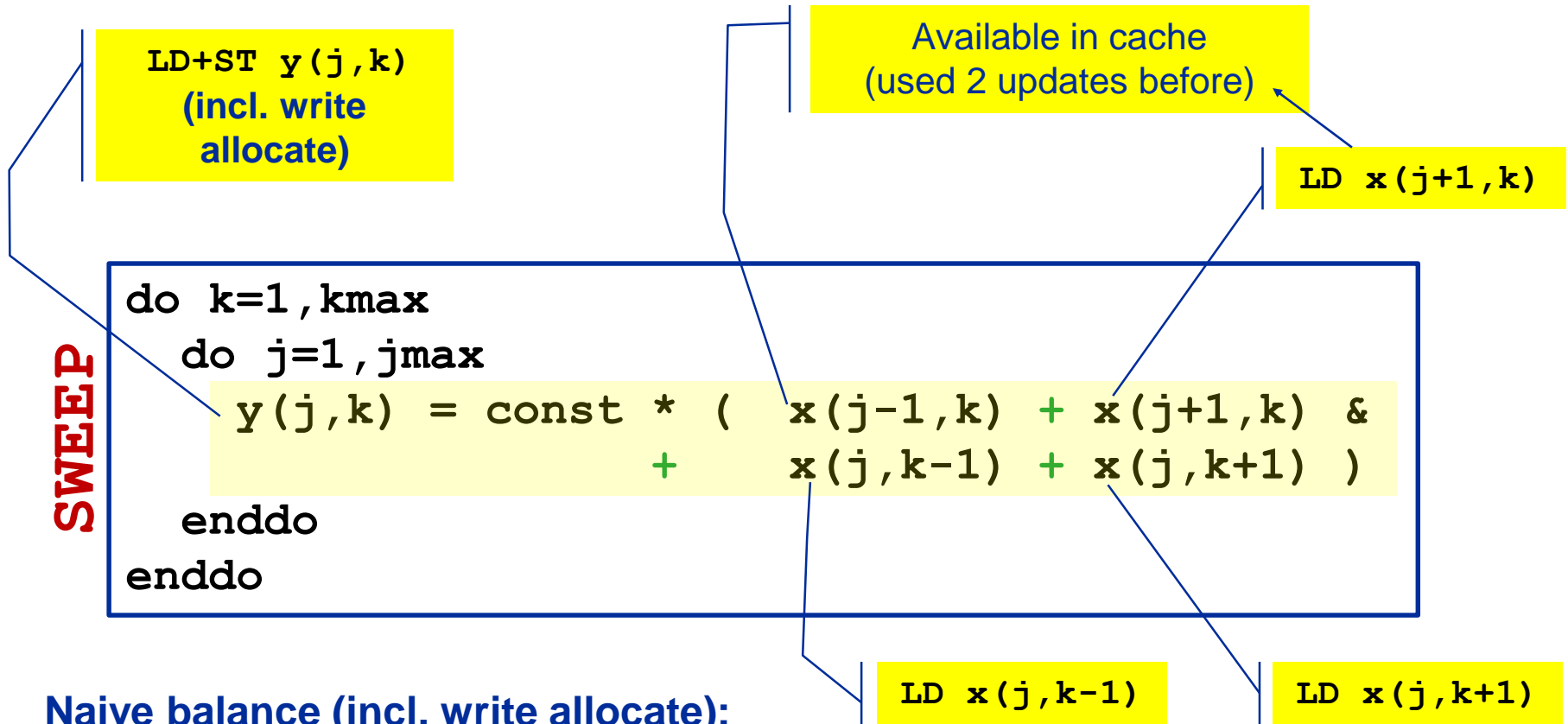
Lattice Update (LUP)



Appropriate performance metric: “**Lattice Updates per second**” [LUP/s]

(here: Multiply by 4 FLOP/LUP to get FLOP/s rate)

Jacobi 5-pt stencil in 2D: data transfer analysis



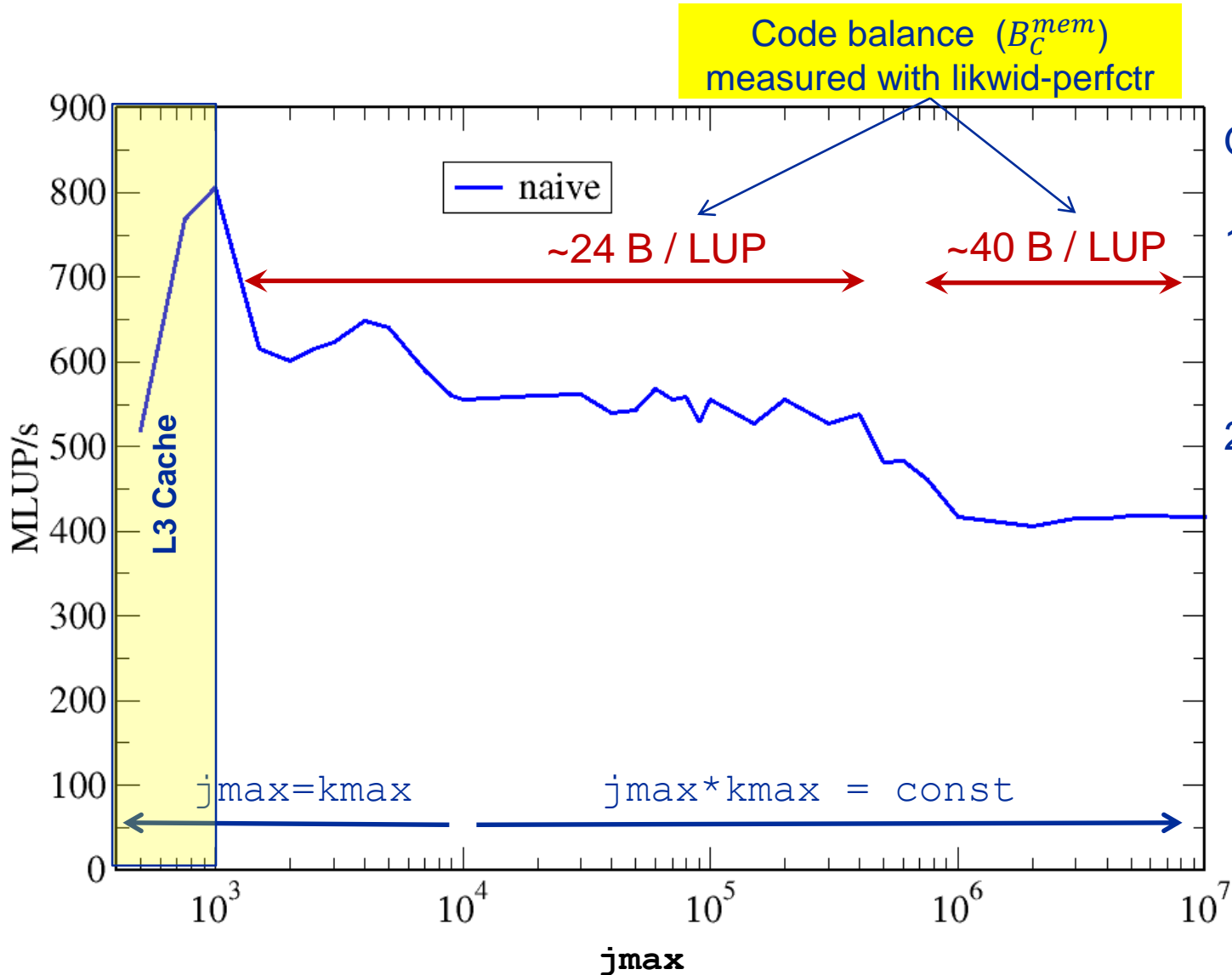
Naive balance (incl. write allocate):

$x(:, :) : 3 \text{ LD} +$

$y(:, :) : 1 \text{ ST} + 1 \text{ LD}$

→ $B_c = 5 \text{ Words} / \text{LUP} = 40 \text{ B} / \text{LUP}$ (assuming double precision)

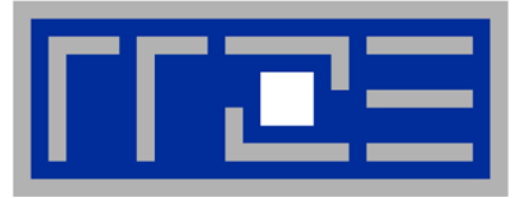
Jacobi 5-pt stencil in 2D: Single core performance



Questions:

1. How to achieve 24 B/LUP also for large j_{\max} ?
2. How to sustain >600 MLUP/s for $j_{\max} > 10^4$?

Intel Compiler
ifort V13.1
Intel Xeon E5-2690 v2
("IvyBridge"@3 GHz)



Case study: A Jacobi smoother

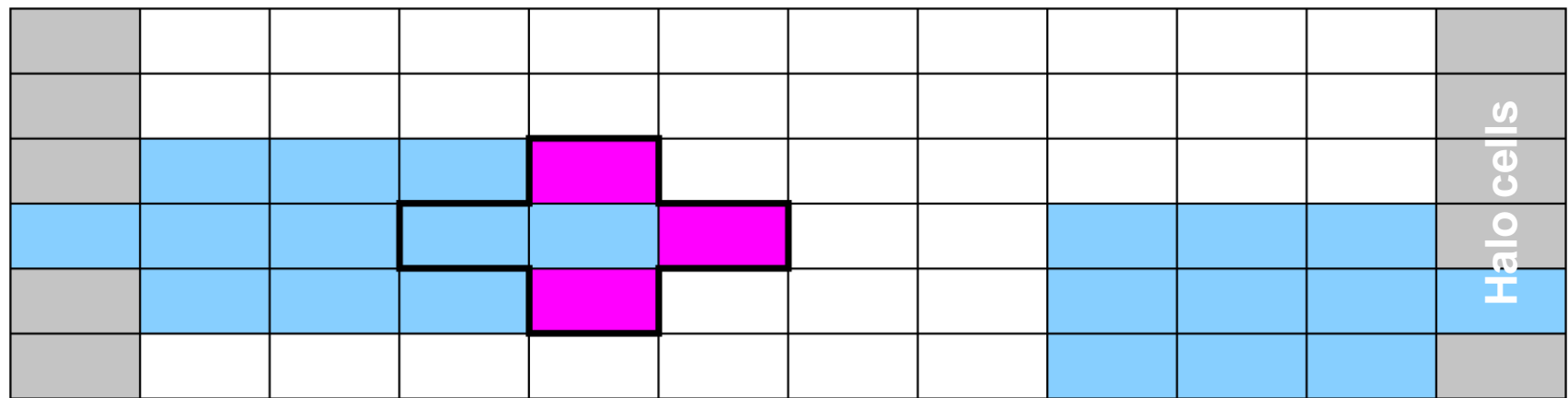
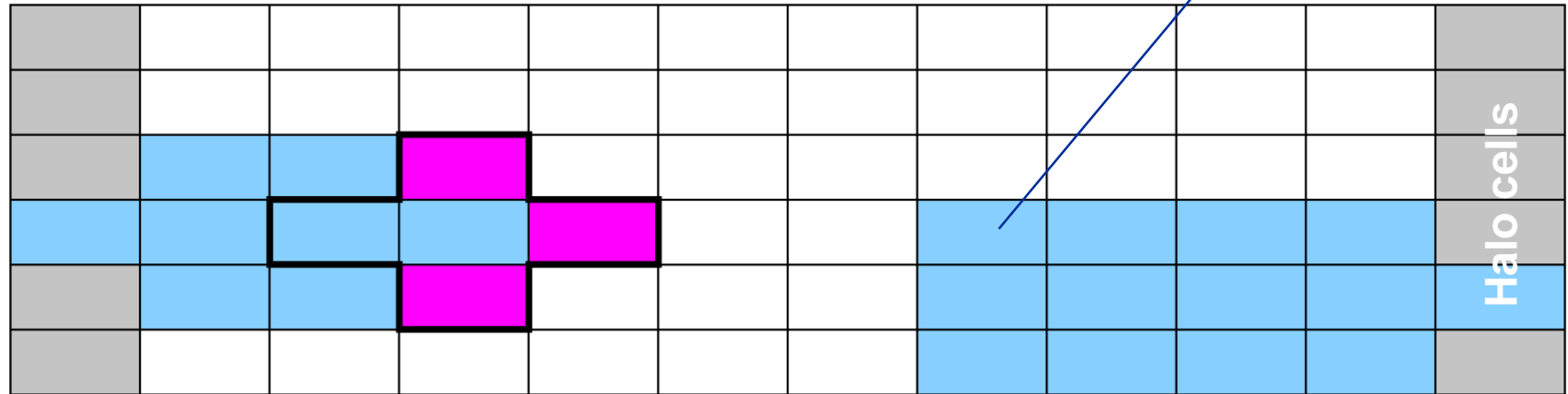
The basics in two dimensions

Layer conditions

Optimization by spatial blocking

Worst case: Cache not large enough to hold 3 layers (rows) of grid
(assume "Least Recently Used" replacement strategy)

cached

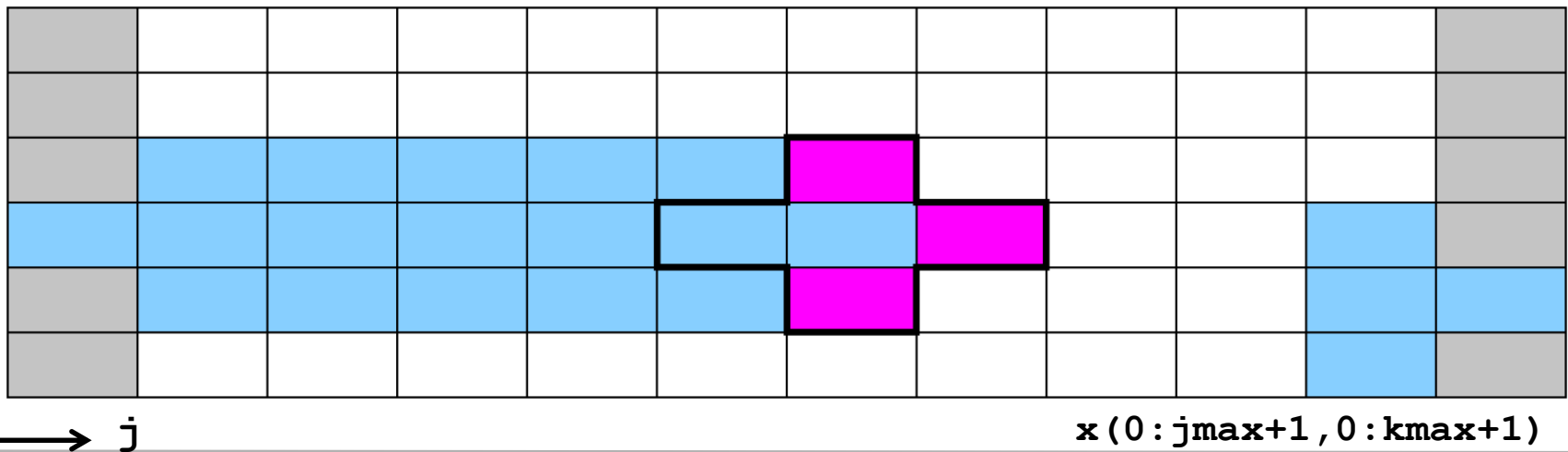
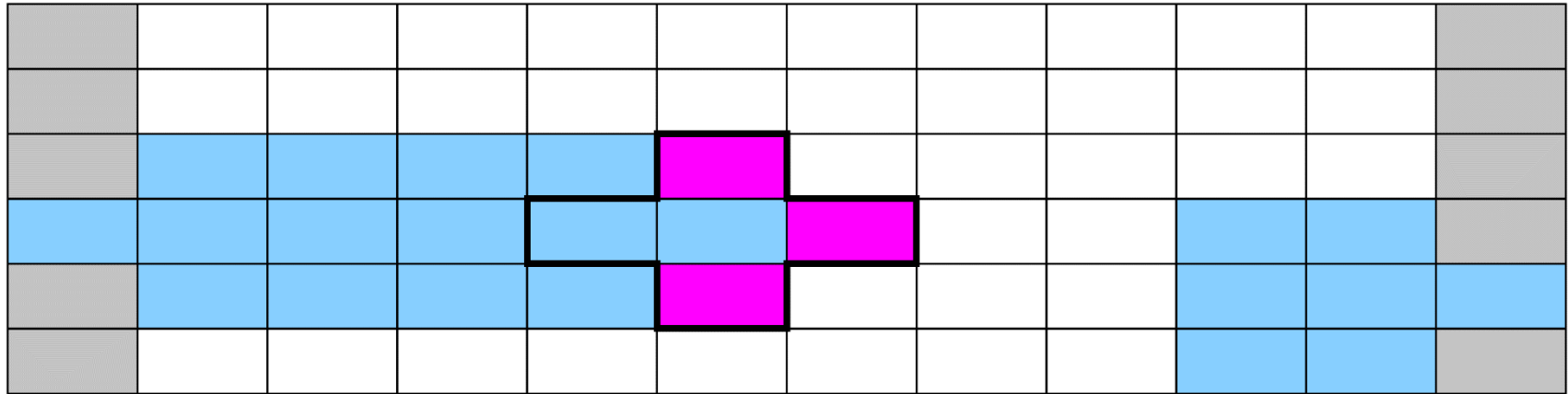


k

j

$x(0:j_{\max}+1, 0:k_{\max}+1)$

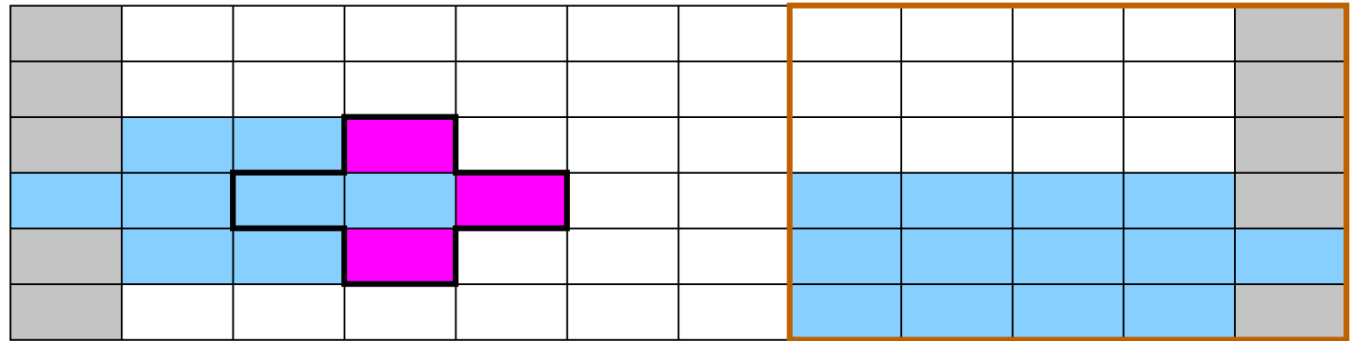
Worst case: Cache not large enough to hold 3 layers (rows) of grid
(+assume „Least Recently Used“ replacement strategy)



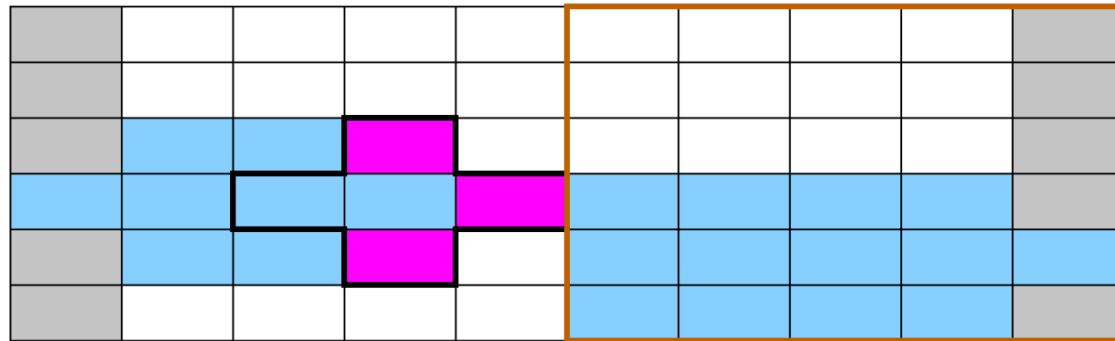
Analyzing the data flow



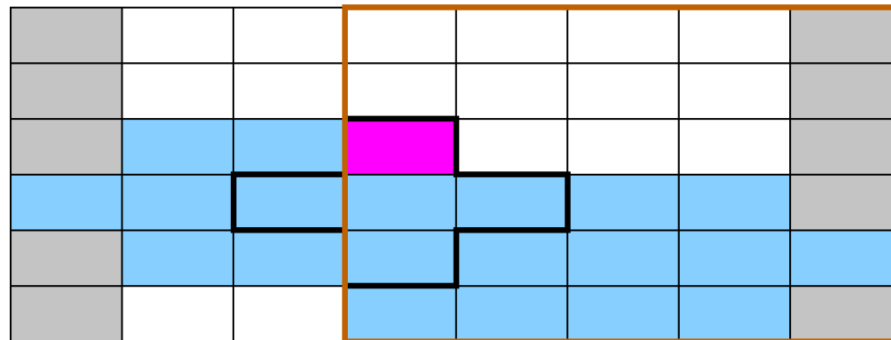
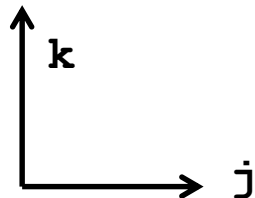
Reduce inner (j-) loop dimension successively



$x(0:j_{\max 1}+1, 0:k_{\max}+1)$



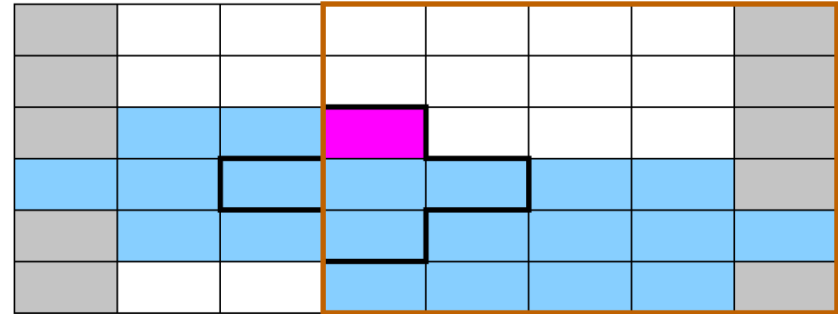
Best case: 3 „layers“ of grid fit into the cache!



$x(0:j_{\max 2}+1, 0:k_{\max}+1)$



2D 5-pt Jacobi-type stencil



```
do k=1, kmax
  do j=1, jmax
    y(j,k) = const * (x(j-1,k) + x(j+1,k) &
                     + x(j,k-1) + x(j,k+1) )
  enddo
enddo
```

$$3 * jmax * 8B < CacheSize / 2$$

“Layer condition”

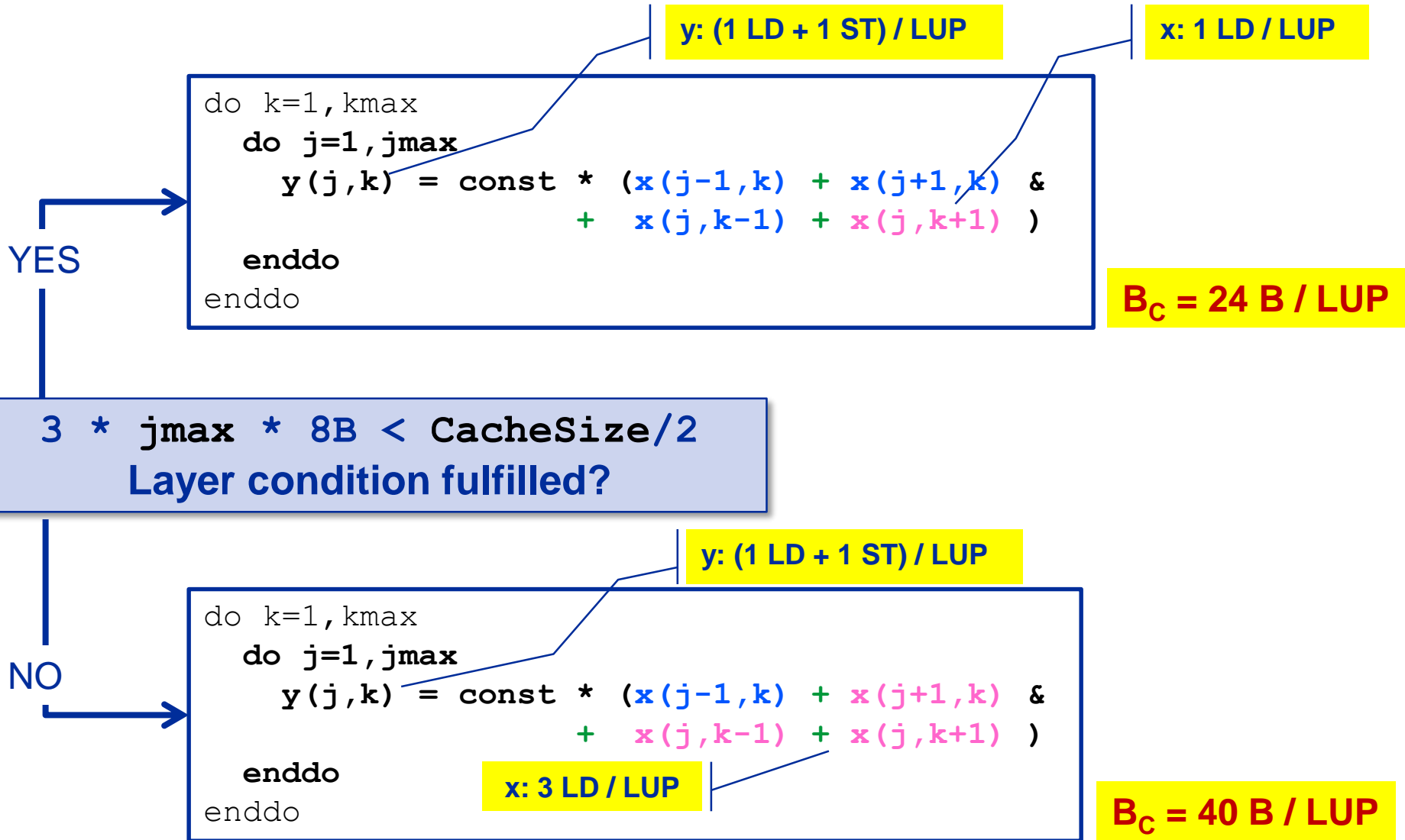
3 rows of
jmax

double
precision

Safety margin
(Rule of thumb)

Layer condition:

- Does not depend on outer loop length (**kmax**)
- No strict guideline (cache associativity – data traffic for y not included)
- Needs to be adapted for other stencils (e.g., 3D 7-pt stencil)





- Establish layer condition for all domain sizes
- Idea: **Spatial blocking**
 - Reuse elements of $x()$ as long as they stay in cache
 - Sweep can be executed in any order, e.g. compute blocks in j-direction

→ “Spatial Blocking” of j-loop:

```
do jb=1, jmax, jbblock !           Assume jmax is multiple of jbblock
  do k=1, kmax
    do j= jb, (jb+jbblock-1) ! Length of inner loop: jbblock
      y(j, k) = const * (x(j-1, k) + x(j+1, k) &
                        + x(j, k-1) + x(j, k+1) )
    enddo
  enddo
enddo
```

$$3 * \mathbf{jbblock} * 8B < \mathbf{CacheSize}/2$$

→ Determine for given CacheSize an appropriate **jbblock** value:

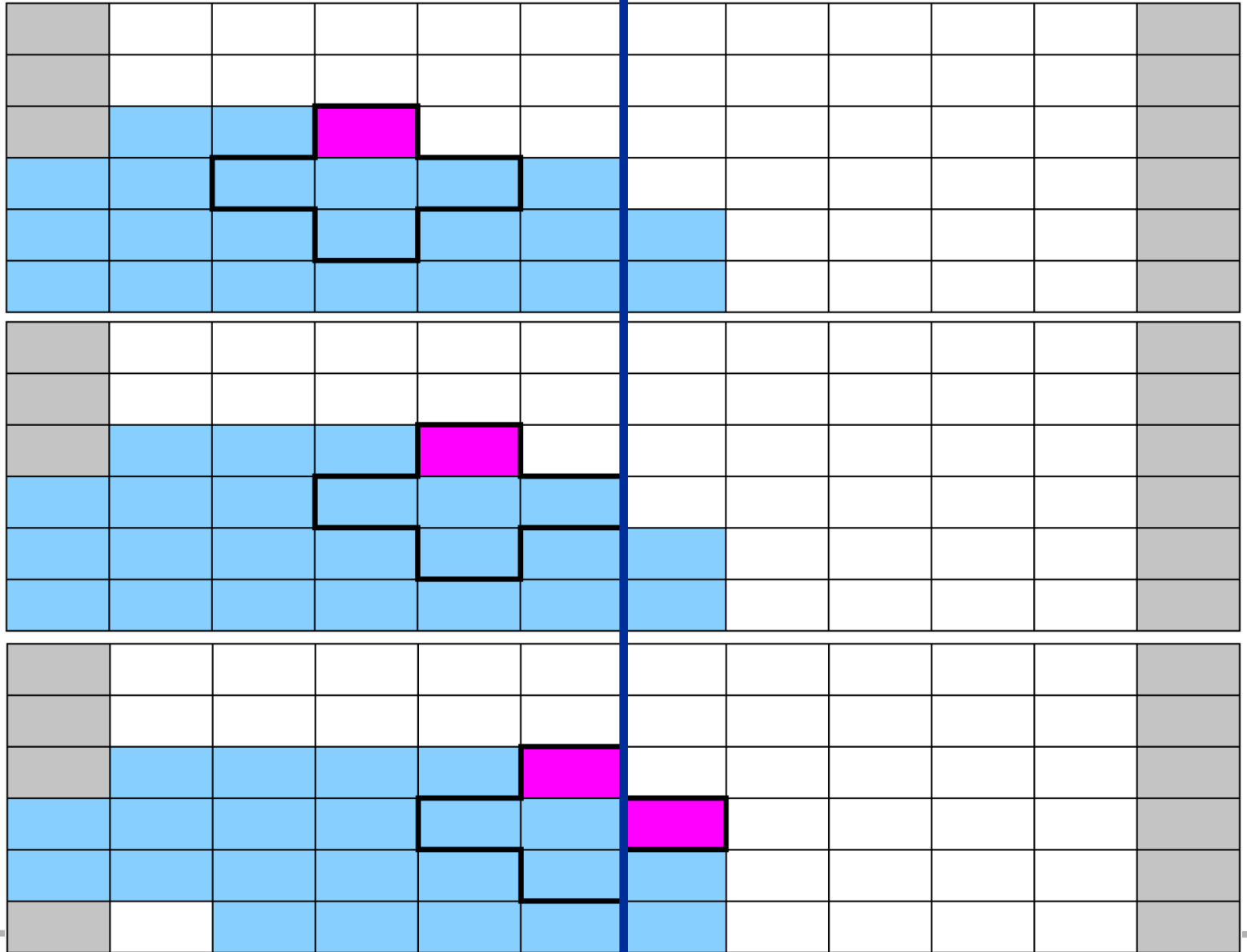
$$\mathbf{jbblock} < \mathbf{CacheSize} / 48 B$$

Establish the layer condition by blocking

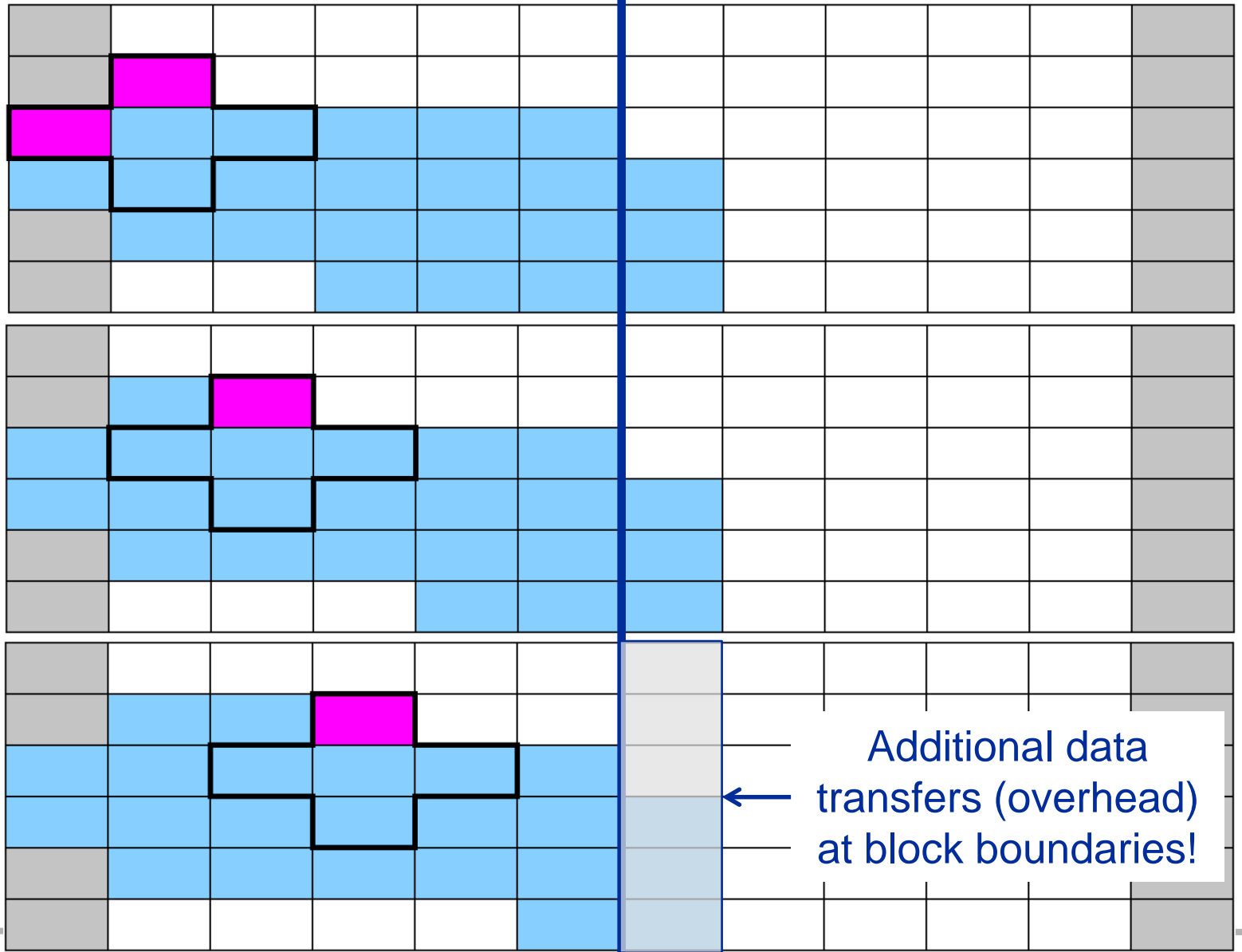


Split up domain into subblocks:

e.g. block size = 5



Establish the layer condition by blocking

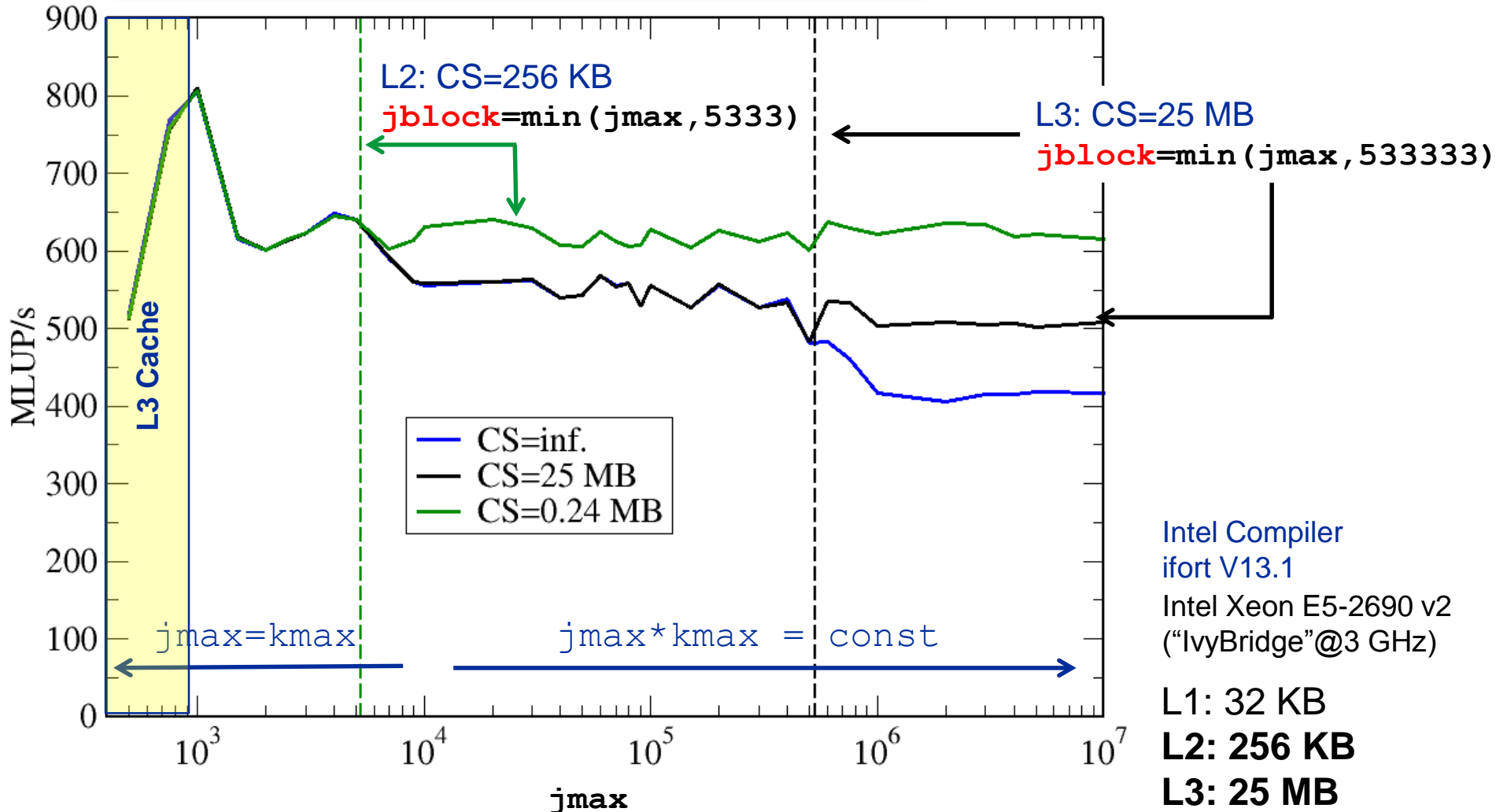


Establish layer condition by spatial blocking

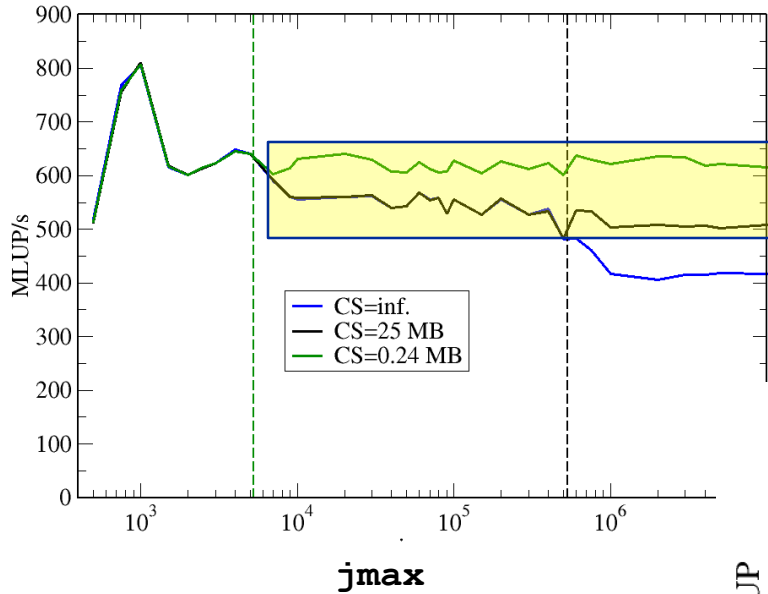


$$jblock < CacheSize / 48 B$$

Which cache to block for?

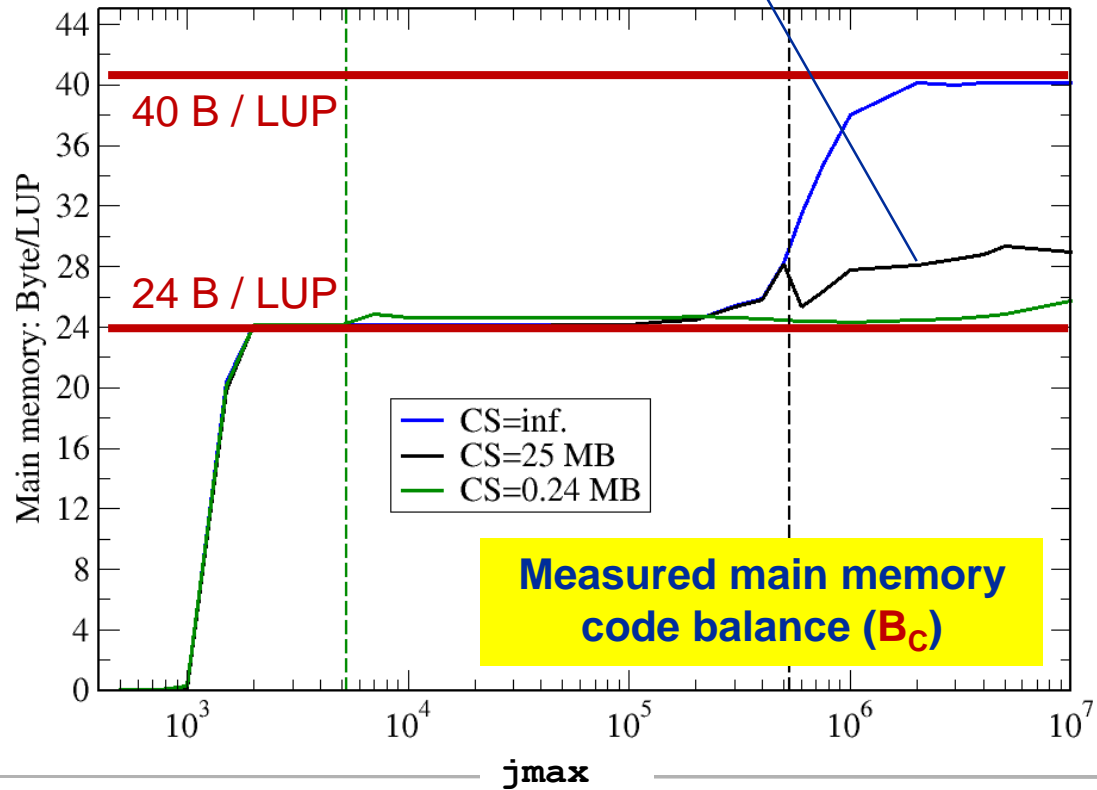


Layer condition & spatial blocking: Memory code balance



Main memory access is not reason for different performance (but L3 access is!)

Blocking factor (CS=25 MB) still a little too large



Intel Compiler
ifort V13.1
Intel Xeon E5-2690 v2
("IvyBridge"@3 GHz)



```
!$OMP PARALLEL DO SCHEDULE (STATIC)
do k=1,kmax
  do j=1,jmax
    y(j,k) = 1/4.* (x(j-1,k)    +x(j+1,k) &
                  + x(j,k-1)    +x(j,k+1) )
  enddo
enddo
```

Basic guideline:
Parallelize outermost loop

Equally large chunks in k-direction
→ “Layer condition” for each thread

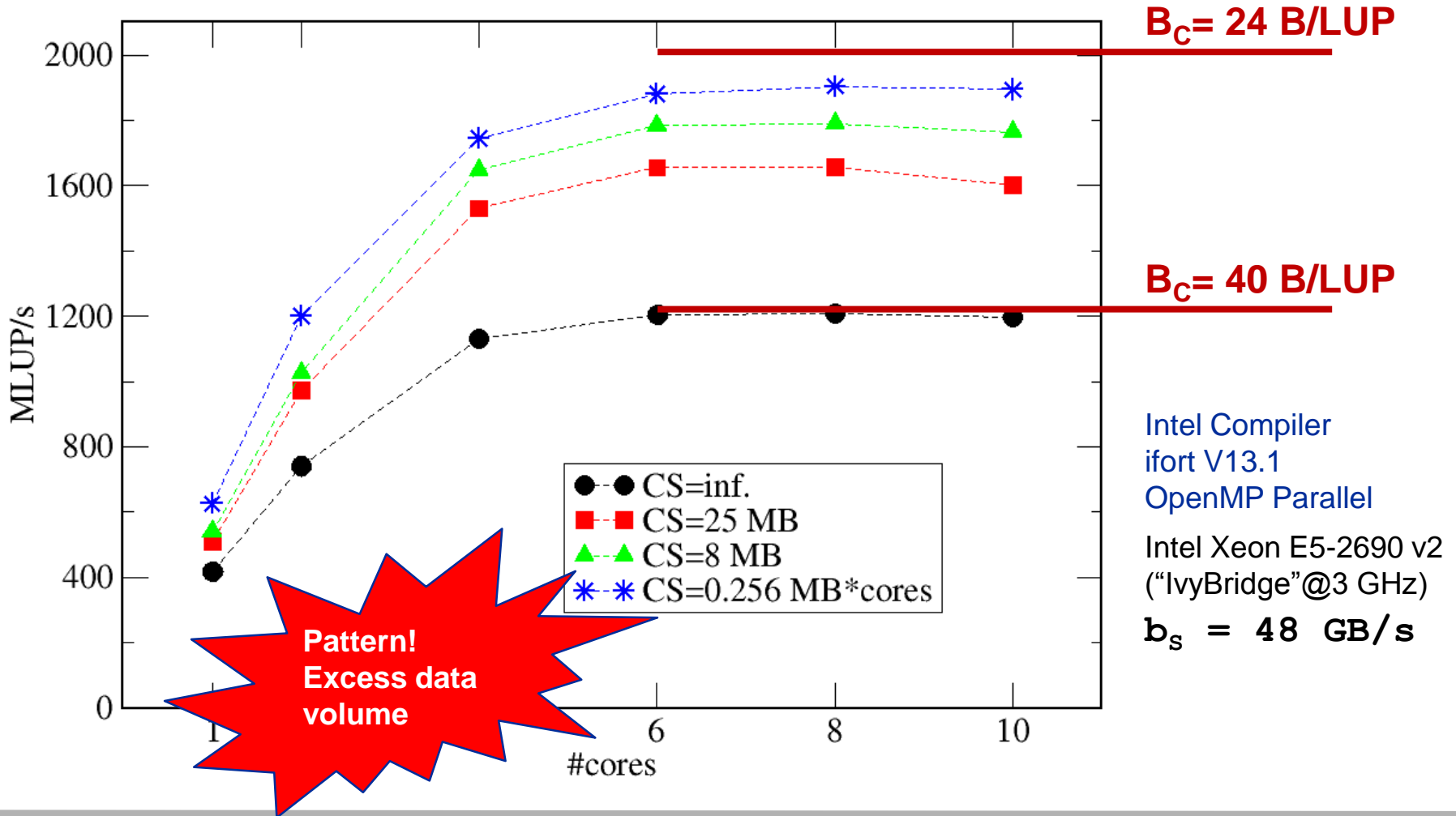
“Layer condition” for shared cache:
 $n_{\text{threads}} * 3 * i_{\text{max}} * 8B < CS/2$

Homework: what about if the cache to block for is not shared among the threads?



$$P = \min(P_{\max}, b_s/B_C)$$

What is P_{\max} here? → homework!





```
!$OMP PARALLEL DO SCHEDULE (STATIC)
do k=1,kmax
  do j=1,jmax
    do i=1,imax
      y(i,j,k) = 1/6. * (x(i-1,j,k)      +x(i+1,j,k) &
                      + x(i,j-1,k)      +x(i,j+1,k)
                      + x(i,j,k-1)      +x(i,j,k+1) )
    enddo
  enddo
enddo
```

“Layer condition” for shared cache:
 $nthreads * 3 * jmax * imax * 8B < CS/2$

Layer condition (cubic domain; CacheSize=25 MB)
1 thread: $imax=jmax < 720 \rightarrow$ 10 threads: $imax=jmax < 230$

Jacobi Stencil in 3D



“Layer condition”: $nthreads * 3 * jmax * imax * 8B < CS/2$

```
!$OMP PARALLEL DO SCHEDULE (STATIC)
```

```
do k=1, kmax
```

```
do j=1, jmax
```

$B_C = 24 B / LUP$

```
do i=1, imax
```

```
    y(i, j, k) = 1/6. * (x(i-1, j, k)    +x(i+1, j, k) &  
                        + x(i, j-1, k)    +x(i, j+1, k) &  
                        + x(i, j, k-1)    +x(i, j, k+1) )
```

```
    enddo
```

```
  enddo
```

```
enddo
```

Roofline model:

$$P = \min(P_{\max}, b_S / (24 B/LUP))$$

What is P_{\max} here? → homework!



- We have **made sense** of the **memory-bound performance** vs. **problem size**
 - “**Layer conditions**” lead to **predictions of code balance**
 - “**What part of the data comes from where**” is a crucial question
 - The model works only if the **bandwidth is “saturated”**
 - In-cache modeling is more involved
- **Avoiding slow data paths == re-establishing the most favorable layer condition**
- **Improved code showed the speedup predicted by the model**
- **Optimal blocking factor can be estimated**
 - Be guided by the cache size the **layer condition**
 - No need for exhaustive scan of “**optimization space**”
- **Food for thought**
 - Multi-dimensional loop blocking – would it make sense?
 - Can we choose a “**better**” OpenMP loop schedule?
 - What would change if we parallelized inner loops?

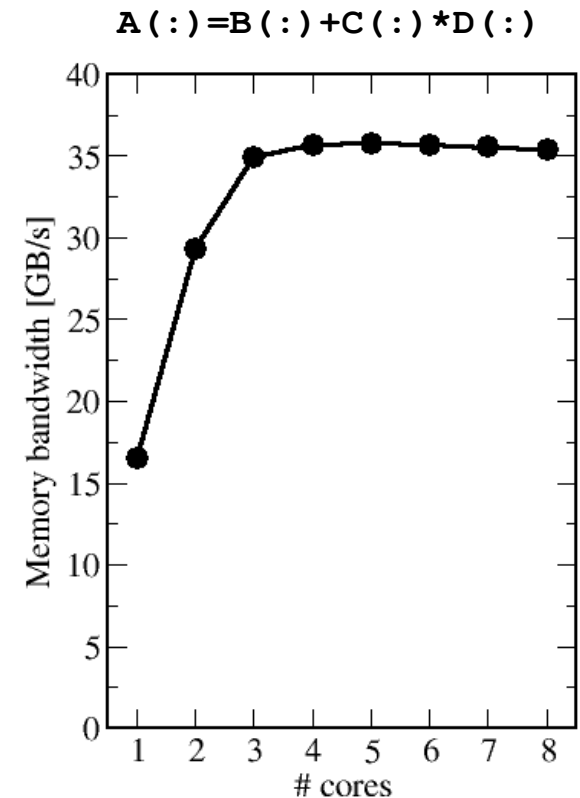


- **Saturation effects** in multicore chips are not explained
 - Reason: “saturation assumption”
 - Cache line transfers and core execution do sometimes not overlap perfectly
 - It is not sufficient to measure single-core STREAM to make it work
 - Only increased “pressure” on the memory interface can saturate the bus
→ need more cores!

- **In-cache performance is not correctly predicted**

- **The ECM performance model gives more insight:**

H. Stengel, J. Treibig, G. Hager, and G. Wellein: *Quantifying performance bottlenecks of stencil computations using the Execution-Cache-Memory model*. Proc. ICS15, the 29th International Conference on Supercomputing, June 8-11, 2015, Newport Beach, CA. DOI: [10.1145/2751205.2751240](https://doi.org/10.1145/2751205.2751240).
Preprint: [arXiv:1410.5010](https://arxiv.org/abs/1410.5010)

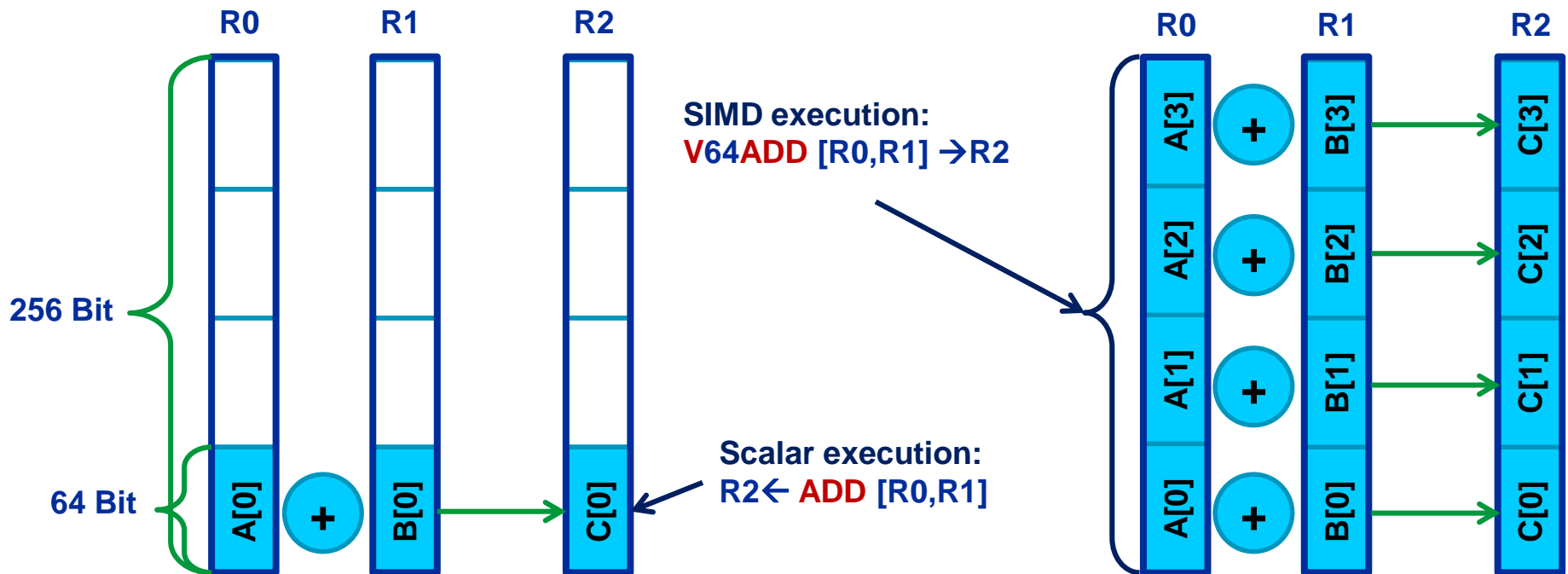




Coding for
Single Instruction Multiple Data processing

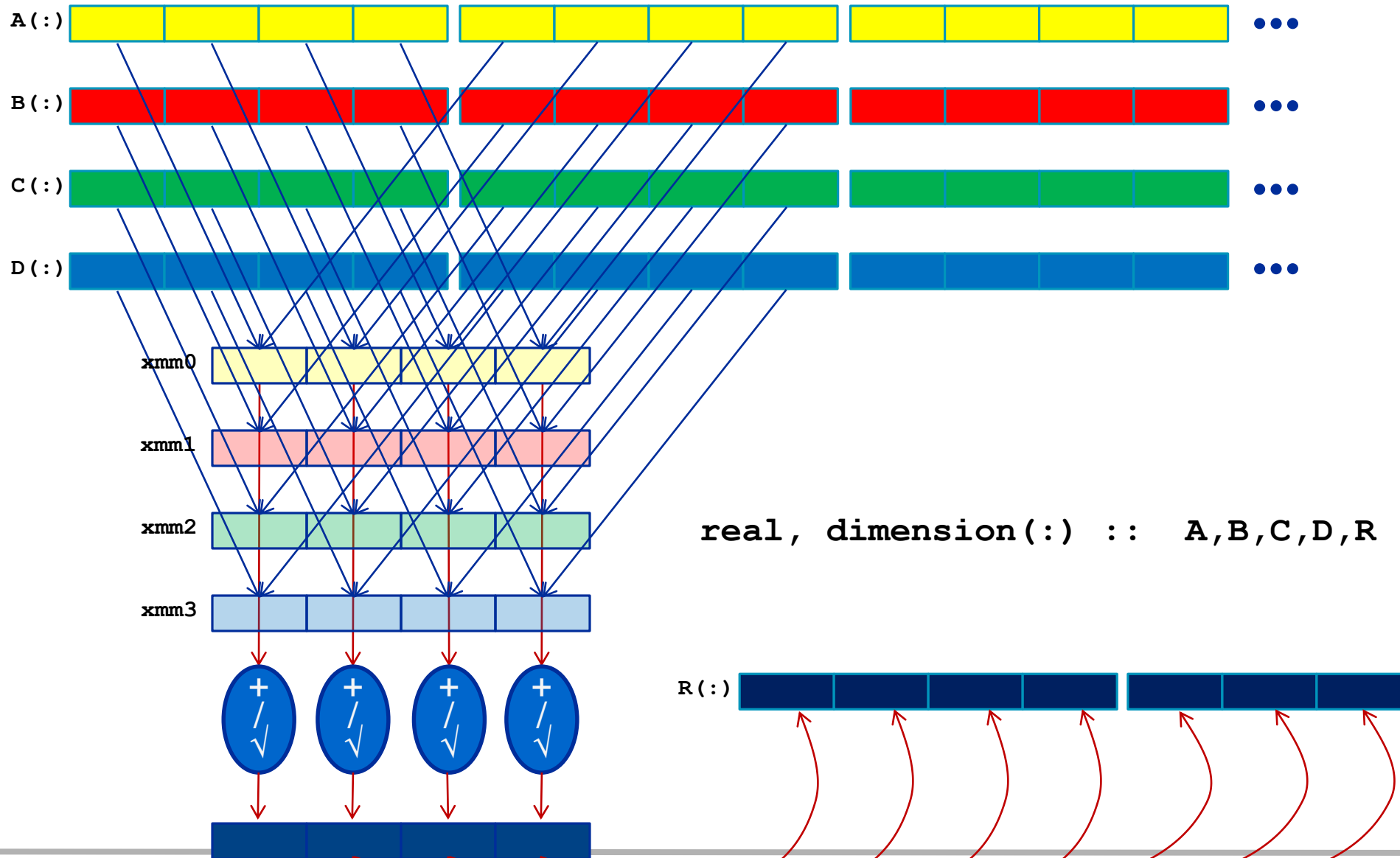


- **Single Instruction Multiple Data (SIMD)** operations allow the **concurrent execution of the same operation on “wide” registers.**
- **x86 SIMD instruction sets:**
 - SSE: register width = 128 Bit → 2 double precision floating point operands
 - AVX: register width = 256 Bit → 4 double precision floating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



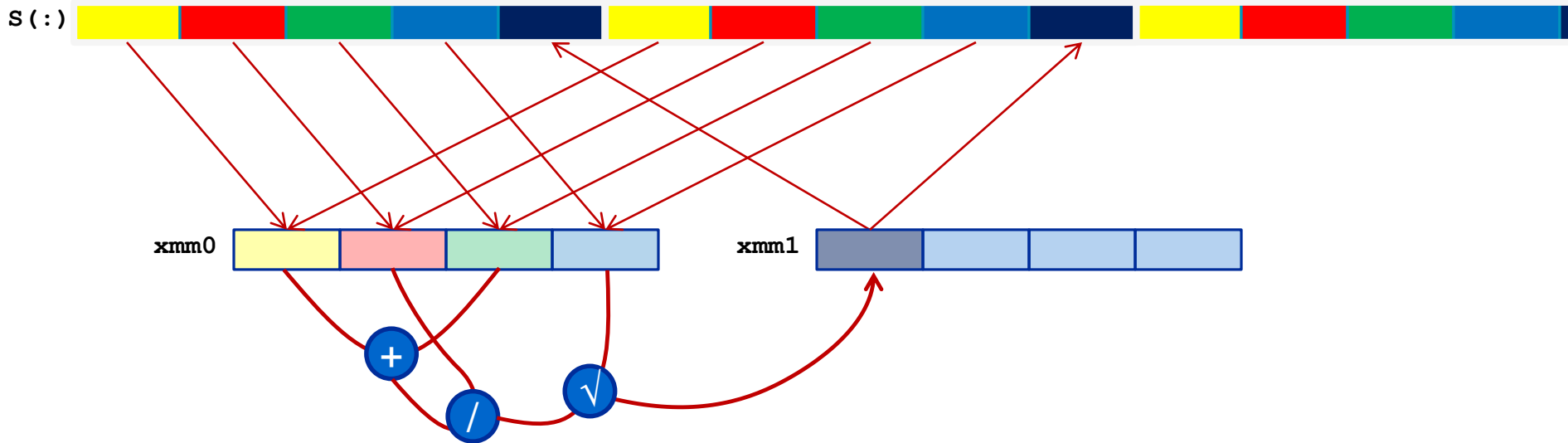
SIMD style structure of arrays processing

LOAD, STORE, arithmetic fully parallel



SIMD style of array of structures processing

Data access may be parallel, but arithmetic isn't



```
type struct
  real*4  A,B,C,D,R
end type struct
```

```
type(struct), dimension(:) :: S
```

→ Efficient SIMD requires appropriate data structures!



- **No SIMD vectorization for loops with data dependencies:**

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

- **“Pointer aliasing” may prevent SIMDification**

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

- C/C++ allows that $A \rightarrow \&C[-1]$ and $B \rightarrow \&C[-2]$
→ $C[i] = C[i-1] + C[i-2]$: **dependency** → **No SIMD**
- **If “pointer aliasing” does not happen, tell it to the compiler:**
 - `-fno-alias` (Intel), `-Msafeptr` (PGI), `-fargument-noalias` (gcc)
 - `restrict` keyword (C only!):

```
void f(double restrict *A, double restrict *B, double restrict *C, int n) {...}
```



- **The compiler will vectorize starting with `-O2`.**
- **To enable specific SIMD extensions use the `-x` option:**
 - **`-xSSE2`** vectorize for SSE2 capable machines

Available SIMD extensions:

`SSE2`, `SSE3`, `SSSE3`, `SSE4.1`, `SSE4.2`, `AVX`

- **`-xAVX(2)`** on Sandy Bridge (Haswell) processors

Recommended 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 (part of the SIMD extensions)**

- `-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



- 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!)



- Since Intel Compiler 12.0 the **simd pragma** is available
- **#pragma simd** enforces vectorization where the other pragmas fail
- **Prerequisites:**
 - 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**

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

- **NOTE:** Using the **#pragma simd** the compiler may generate incorrect code if the loop violates the vectorization rules!



▪ **Alignment issues**

- Alignment of arrays with SSE (AVX) should be on 16-byte (32-byte) boundaries to **allow packed aligned 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**
- Modern x86 CPUs have less (not zero) impact for misaligned LD/ST, but **Xeon Phi relies heavily on it!**
 - How is manual alignment accomplished?

▪ **Dynamic allocation of aligned memory (`align = alignment boundary`):**

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

int posix_memalign(void **ptr,
                  size_t align,
                  size_t size);
```



Reading x86 assembly code and exploiting SIMD parallelism

Understanding SIMD execution by inspecting assembly code

SIMD vectorization how-to

Intel compiler options and features for SIMD



Why check the assembly code?

- **Sometimes the only way to make sure the compiler “did the right thing”**
 - Example: “LOOP WAS VECTORIZED” message is printed, but Loads & Stores may still be scalar!

- **Get the assembler code (Intel compiler):**

```
icc -S -masm=intel -O3 -xHost triad.c -o a.out
```

- **Disassemble Executable:**

```
objdump -d ./a.out | less
```

The x86 ISA is documented in:

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



- Instructions have 0 to 4 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
401ba4: 48 83 c0 08
401ba8: 78 a6
```

```
movaps %xmm3,0x30(%rdi,%rax,8)
add    $0x8,%rax
js     401b50 <triad_asm+0x4b>
```



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 256-bit registers

`yymm0-yymm15` AVX (256bit)

SIMD instructions are distinguished by:

AVX (VEX) prefix: `v`

Operation: `mul, add, mov`

Modifier: nontemporal (`nt`), unaligned (`u`), aligned (`a`), high (`h`)

Width: scalar (`s`), packed (`p`)

Data type: single (`s`), double (`d`)



```
for (int i = 0; i < length; i++) {  
    A[i] = B[i] + D[i] * C[i];  
}
```

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

Assembly code (-O1):

CLANG

```
LBB0_3  
movsd    xmm0, [rdx]  
mulsd    xmm0, [rcx]  
addsd    xmm0, [rsi]  
movsd    [rax], xmm0  
add      rsi, 8  
add      rdx, 8  
add      rcx, 8  
add      rax, 8  
dec      edi  
jne      LBB0_3
```

ICC

```
..B1.6:  
movsd    xmm0, [r12+rax*8]  
mulsd    xmm0, [r13+rax*8]  
addsd    xmm0, [r14+rax*8]  
movsd    [r15+rax*8], xmm0  
inc      rax  
cmp      rax, rbx  
jl       ..B1.6
```

GCC

```
.L4:  
movsd    xmm0, [rbx+rax]  
mulsd    xmm0, [r12+rax]  
addsd    xmm0, [r13+0+rax]  
movsd    [rbp+0+rax], xmm0  
add      rax, 8  
cmp      rax, r14  
jne      .L4
```

7 instructions per loop
iteration



optional

SSE

..B1.19:

```
movsd      xmm0, [r15+rsi*8]
movsd      xmm3, [16+r15+rsi*8]
movsd      xmm5, [32+r15+rsi*8]
movsd      xmm7, [48+r15+rsi*8]
movhpd     xmm0, [8+r15+rsi*8]
movhpd     xmm3, [24+r15+rsi*8]
movhpd     xmm5, [40+r15+rsi*8]
movhpd     xmm7, [56+r15+rsi*8]
mulpd     xmm0, [r14+rsi*8]
mulpd     xmm3, [16+r14+rsi*8]
mulpd     xmm5, [32+r14+rsi*8]
mulpd     xmm7, [48+r14+rsi*8]
movsd     xmm2, [r13+rsi*8]
movsd     xmm4, [16+r13+rsi*8]
movsd     xmm6, [32+r13+rsi*8]
movsd     xmm8, [48+r13+rsi*8]
movhpd   xmm2, [8+r13+rsi*8]
movhpd   xmm4, [24+r13+rsi*8]
movhpd   xmm6, [40+r13+rsi*8]
movhpd   xmm8, [56+r13+rsi*8]
addpd    xmm2, xmm0
addpd    xmm4, xmm3
addpd    xmm6, xmm5
addpd    xmm8, xmm7
movaps   [rdx+rsi*8], xmm2
movaps   [16+rdx+rsi*8], xmm4
movaps   [32+rdx+rsi*8], xmm6
movaps   [48+rdx+rsi*8], xmm8
add      rsi, 8
cmp     rsi, r9
jb     ..B1.19
```

**3.86 instructions per
loop iteration**



optional

AVX

..B1.15:

```
vmovupd    xmm2, [r15+rsi*8]
vmovupd    xmm10, [32+r15+rsi*8]
vmovupd    xmm3, [rdx+rsi*8]
vmovupd    xmm11, [32+rdx+rsi*8]
vmovupd    xmm0, [r14+rsi*8]
vmovupd    xmm9, [32+r14+rsi*8]
vinsertf128 ymm4, ymm2, [16+r15+rsi*8], 1
vinsertf128 ymm12, ymm10, [48+r15+rsi*8], 1
vinsertf128 ymm5, ymm3, [16+rdx+rsi*8], 1
vinsertf128 ymm13, ymm11, [48+rdx+rsi*8], 1
vmulps    ymm7, ymm4, ymm5
vmulps    ymm15, ymm12, ymm13
vmovupd    xmm4, [64+rdx+rsi*8]
vmovupd    xmm12, [96+rdx+rsi*8]
vmovupd    xmm3, [64+r15+rsi*8]
vmovupd    xmm11, [96+r15+rsi*8]
vmovupd    xmm2, [64+r14+rsi*8]
vmovupd    xmm10, [96+r14+rsi*8]
vinsertf128 ymm14, ymm9, [48+r14+rsi*8], 1
vinsertf128 ymm6, ymm0, [16+r14+rsi*8], 1
vaddps    ymm8, ymm6, ymm7
vaddps    ymm0, ymm14, ymm15
```

```
vmovupd    [r13+rsi*8], ymm8
vmovupd    [32+r13+rsi*8], ymm0
vinsertf128 ymm5, ymm3, [80+r15+rsi*8], 1
vinsertf128 ymm13, ymm11, [112+r15+rsi*8], 1
vinsertf128 ymm6, ymm4, [80+rdx+rsi*8], 1
vinsertf128 ymm14, ymm12, [112+rdx+rsi*8], 1
vmulps    ymm8, ymm5, ymm6
vmulps    ymm0, ymm13, ymm14
vinsertf128 ymm7, ymm2, [80+r14+rsi*8], 1
vinsertf128 ymm15, ymm10, [112+r14+rsi*8], 1
vaddps    ymm9, ymm7, ymm8
vaddps    ymm2, ymm15, ymm0
vmovupd    [64+r13+rsi*8], ymm9
vmovupd    [96+r13+rsi*8], ymm2
add        rsi, 16
cmp        rsi, r9
jb        ..B1.15
```

2.44 instructions per loop iteration

Benefit of SIMD limited by serial fraction!

Case Study: Vector Triad (DP) –O3 –xHost

#pragma vector aligned



optional

AVX

SSE

```
..B1.7:
movaps    xmm0, [r13+rcx*8]
movaps    xmm2, [16+r13+rcx*8]
movaps    xmm3, [32+r13+rcx*8]
movaps    xmm4, [48+r13+rcx*8]
mulpd     xmm0, [rbp+rcx*8]
mulpd     xmm2, [16+rbp+rcx*8]
mulpd     xmm3, [32+rbp+rcx*8]
mulpd     xmm4, [48+rbp+rcx*8]
addpd     xmm0, [r12+rcx*8]
addpd     xmm2, [16+r12+rcx*8]
addpd     xmm3, [32+r12+rcx*8]
addpd     xmm4, [48+r12+rcx*8]
movaps    [r15+rcx*8], xmm0
movaps    [16+r15+rcx*8], xmm2
movaps    [32+r15+rcx*8], xmm3
movaps    [48+r15+rcx*8], xmm4
add       rcx, 8
cmp       rcx, rsi
jb       ..B1.7
```

2.38 instructions per loop iteration

```
..B1.7:
vmovupd   ymm0, [r15+rcx*8]
vmovupd   ymm4, [32+r15+rcx*8]
vmovupd   ymm7, [64+r15+rcx*8]
vmovupd   ymm10, [96+r15+rcx*8]
vmulpd    ymm2, ymm0, [rdx+rcx*8]
vmulpd    ymm5, ymm4, [32+rdx+rcx*8]
vmulpd    ymm8, ymm7, [64+rdx+rcx*8]
vmulpd    ymm11, ymm10, [96+rdx+rcx*8]
vaddpd    ymm3, ymm2, [r14+rcx*8]
vaddpd    ymm6, ymm5, [32+r14+rcx*8]
vaddpd    ymm9, ymm8, [64+r14+rcx*8]
vaddpd    ymm12, ymm11, [96+r14+rcx*8]
vmovupd   [r13+rcx*8], ymm3
vmovupd   [32+r13+rcx*8], ymm6
vmovupd   [64+r13+rcx*8], ymm9
vmovupd   [96+r13+rcx*8], ymm12
add       rcx, 16
cmp       rcx, rsi
jb       ..B1.7
```

1.19 instructions per loop iteration

Case Study: Vector Triad (DP) –O3 –xHost

#pragma vector aligned on Haswell-EP



AVX + FMA3

```
..B1.7:
vmovupd   ymm2, [r15+rcx*8]
vmovupd   ymm4, [32+r15+rcx*8]
vmovupd   ymm6, [64+r15+rcx*8]
vmovupd   ymm8, [96+r15+rcx*8]
vmovupd   ymm0, [rdx+rcx*8]
vmovupd   ymm3, [32+rdx+rcx*8]
vmovupd   ymm5, [64+rdx+rcx*8]
vmovupd   ymm7, [96+rdx+rcx*8]
vfmadd213pd ymm2, ymm0, [r14+rcx*8]
vfmadd213pd ymm4, ymm3, [32+r14+rcx*8]
vfmadd213pd ymm6, ymm5, [64+r14+rcx*8]
vfmadd213pd ymm8, ymm7, [96+r14+rcx*8]
vmovupd   [r13+rcx*8], ymm2
vmovupd   [32+r13+rcx*8], ymm4
vmovupd   [64+r13+rcx*8], ymm6
vmovupd   [96+r13+rcx*8], ymm8
add       rcx, 16
cmp       rcx, rsi
jb       ..B1.7
```

On X86 ISA instruction are converted to so-called **μops** (elementary ops like load, add, mult). For performance the number of μops is important.

23 uops vs. 27 μops (AVX)

1.19 instructions per loop iteration



Analysis performed for Haswell-EP

Throughput for arithmetic instructions:

Instruction mix	Execution time
1 ADD	1 cy
2 ADD	2 cy
1 MUL	1 cy
2 MUL	1 cy
1 ADD + 1 MUL	1 cy
2 FMA	1 cy

Throughput for loads and stores:

Instruction mix	Execution time
1 LOAD	1 cy
1 STORE	2 cy
1 LOAD and 1 STORE	1 cy
2 LOADs and 1 STORE	1 cy

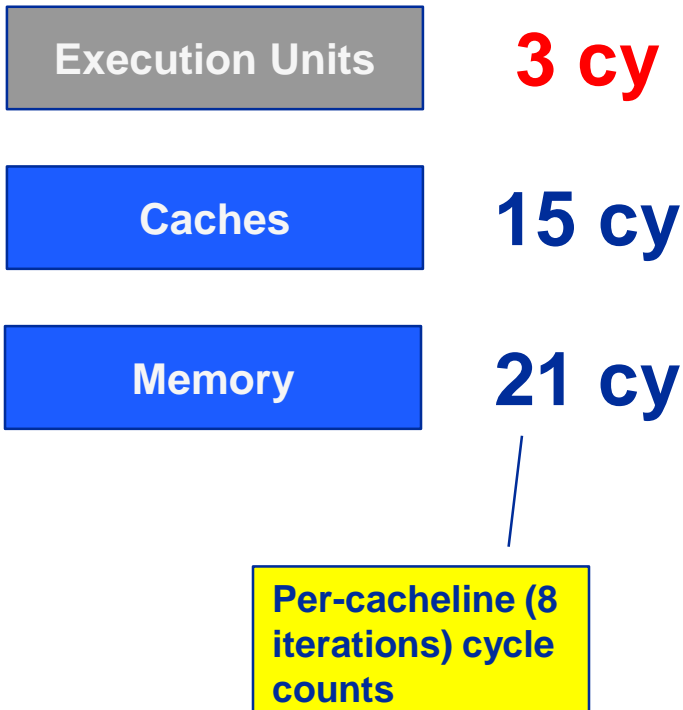
- Throughput performance for steady state **optimal execution**
- Instruction throughput for **scalar or SIMD** instructions
- Load/Store units on Haswell are 32 byte wide. Was 16 bytes on previous Intel architectures.

SIMD processing – The whole picture



SIMD influences instruction execution in the core – other runtime contributions stay the same!

AVX example (Haswell-EP):



Comparing total execution time (cycles):

	Execution	Cache	Memory
Scalar	12	15	21
SSE	6	15	21
AVX	3	15	21

Total runtime with data loaded from memory:

Scalar	48 cy
SSE	42 cy
AVX	39 cy

SIMD is only effective if runtime is dominated by instruction execution!



Alternatives:

- The **compiler** does it for you (but: 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:

- `xmmintrin.h` (SSE)
- `pmmmintrin.h` (SSE2)
- `immintrin.h` (AVX)

- `x86intrin.h` (all extensions)

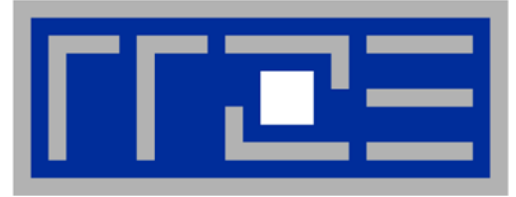
```
for (int j=0; j<size; j+=16){
    t0 = _mm_loadu_ps(data+j);
    t1 = _mm_loadu_ps(data+j+4);
    t2 = _mm_loadu_ps(data+j+8);
    t3 = _mm_loadu_ps(data+j+12);
    sum0 = _mm_add_ps(sum0, t0);
    sum1 = _mm_add_ps(sum1, t1);
    sum2 = _mm_add_ps(sum2, t2);
    sum3 = _mm_add_ps(sum3, t3);
}
```



1. Inner loop
2. Countable (loop length can be determined at loop entry)
3. Single entry and single exit
4. Straight line code (no conditionals)
5. No (unresolvable) read-after-write data dependencies
6. No function calls (exception intrinsic math functions)

Better performance with:

1. Simple inner loops with unit stride (contiguous data access)
2. Minimize indirect addressing
3. Align data structures to SIMD width boundary
4. In C use the `restrict` keyword for pointers to rule out aliasing



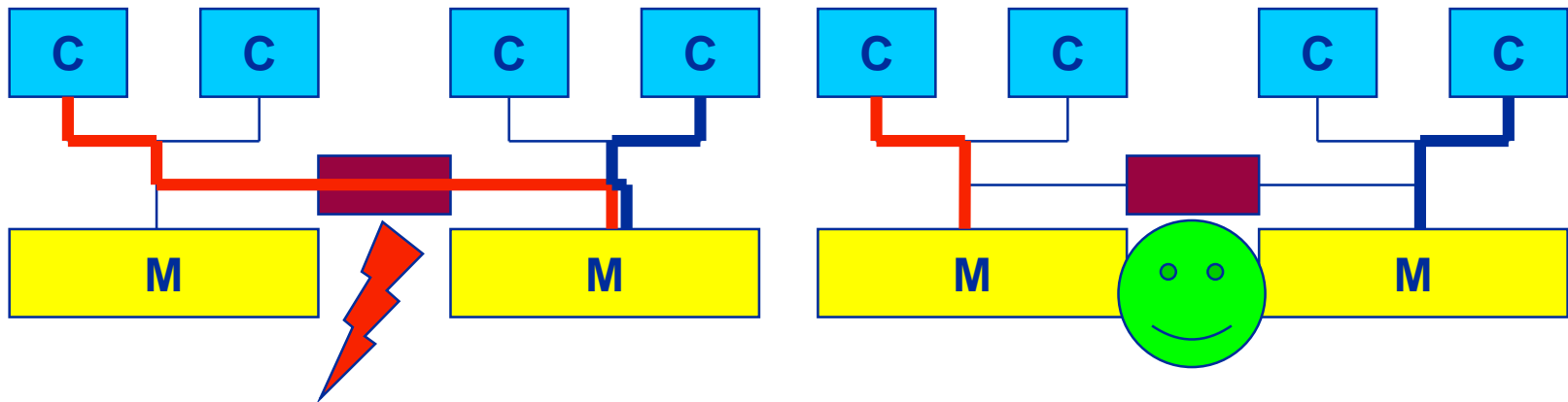
Efficient parallel programming on ccNUMA nodes

Performance characteristics of ccNUMA nodes
First touch placement policy



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)

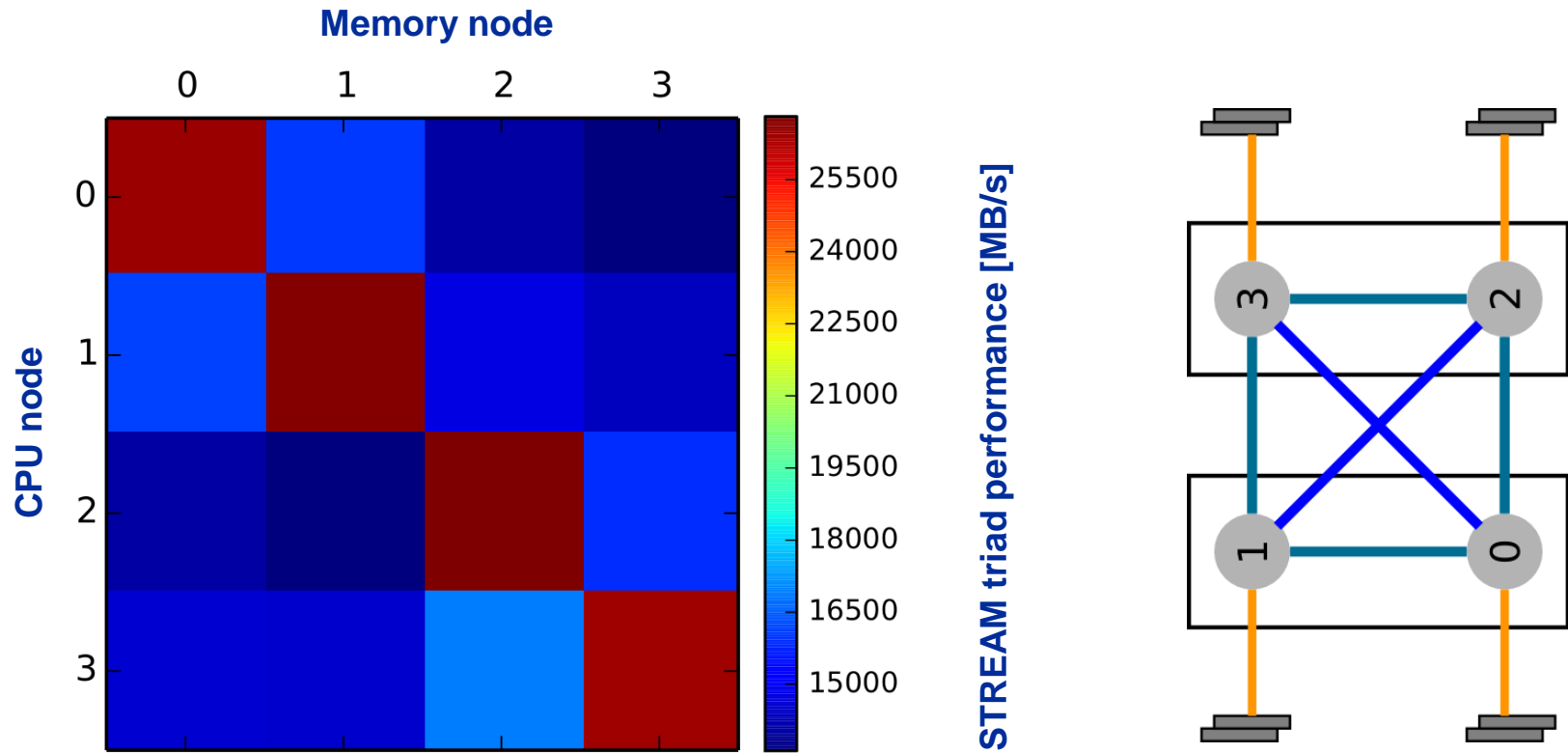
Intel Broadwell EP node

2 chips, 2 sockets, 11 cores per ccNUMA domain (**CoD** mode)



- **ccNUMA map: Bandwidth penalties for remote access**

- Run 11 threads per ccNUMA domain (half chip)
- Place memory in different domain → 4x4 combinations
- STREAM copy benchmark using standard stores



numactl as a simple ccNUMA locality tool :

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:**

```
for m in `seq 0 3`; do
    for c in `seq 0 3`; do
        env OMP_NUM_THREADS=8 \
            numactl --membind=$m --cpunodebind=$c ./stream
    enddo
enddo
```

ccNUMA map scan

```
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:**

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

```
for(i=0; i<N; i++) // or i+=PAGE_SIZE  
    huge[i] = 0.0;
```

Memory not mapped here yet

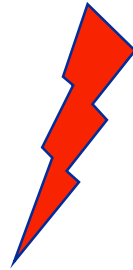
Mapping takes place here

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

- 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
```

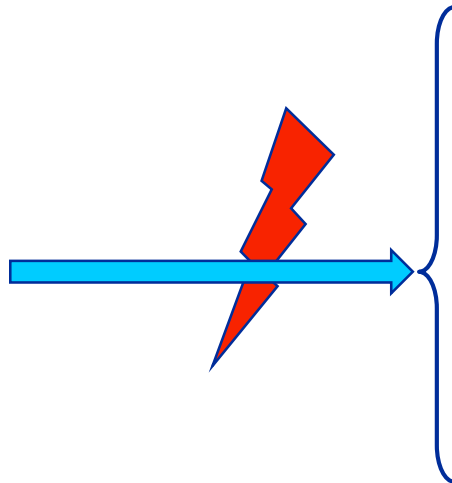


- Sometimes initialization is not so obvious: I/O cannot be easily parallelized, so “localize” arrays before I/O

```
integer,parameter :: N=10000000
double precision A(N), B(N)
```

```
READ(1000) A
```

```
!$OMP parallel do
do i = 1, N
  B(i) = function ( A(i) )
end do
!$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 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
```





- **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`**
 - If **`dynamic scheduling/tasking`** is unavoidable, more advanced methods may be in order
 - See below
- **How about `global objects`?**
 - Better not use them
 - If communication vs. computation is favorable, might consider **`properly placed copies`** of global data
- **C++: Arrays of objects and `std::vector<>` are by default initialized sequentially**
 - **`STL allocators`** provide an elegant solution



- **Don't forget that constructors tend to touch the data members of an object. Example:**

```
class D {
    double d;
public:
    D(double _d=0.0) throw() : d(_d) {}
    inline D operator+(const D& o) throw() {
        return D(d+o.d);
    }
    inline D operator*(const D& o) throw() {
        return D(d*o.d);
    }
    ...
};
```

→ placement problem with

```
D* array = new D[1000000];
```


Coding for Data Locality:

Parallel first touch for arrays of objects



- **Solution: Provide overloaded `D::operator new[]`**

```
void* D::operator new[](size_t n) {
    char *p = new char[n];    // allocate

    size_t i, j;

    #pragma omp parallel for private(j) schedule(...)
    for(i=0; i<n; i += sizeof(D))
        for(j=0; j<sizeof(D); ++j)
            p[i+j] = 0;
    return p;
}

void D::operator delete[](void* p) throw() {
    delete [] static_cast<char*>p;
}
```

parallel first touch

- **Placement of objects is then done automatically by the C++ runtime via “placement new”**

Coding for Data Locality:

NUMA allocator for parallel first touch in `std::vector<>`



```
template <class T> class NUMA_Allocator {
public:
    T* allocate(size_type numObjects, const void
               *localityHint=0) {
        size_type ofs, len = numObjects * sizeof(T);
        void *m = malloc(len);
        char *p = static_cast<char*>(m);
        int i, pages = len >> PAGE_BITS;
#pragma omp parallel for schedule(static) private(ofs)
        for(i=0; i<pages; ++i) {
            ofs = static_cast<size_t>(i) << PAGE_BITS;
            p[ofs]=0;
        }
        return static_cast<pointer>(m);
    }
    ...
};
```

Application:

```
vector<double, NUMA_Allocator<double> > x(10000000)
```



- 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...
- Running with **numactl --interleave** might give you a hint
 - See later
- Consider using performance counters
 - **LIKWID-perfctr** can be used to measure nonlocal memory accesses
 - Example for Intel Westmere dual-socket system (Core i7, hex-core):

```
env OMP_NUM_THREADS=12 likwid-perfctr -g MEM -C N:0-11 ./a.out
```

Using performance counters for diagnosing bad ccNUMA access locality



- Intel Westmere EP node (2x6 cores):

Only one memory BW per socket ("Uncore")

Metric	core 0	core 1	...	core 6	core 7	...
Runtime [s]	0.730168	0.733754		0.732808	0.732943	
CPI	10.4164	10.2654		10.5002	10.7641	
Memory bandwidth [MBytes/s]	11880.9	0	...	11732.4	0	...
Remote Read BW [MBytes/s]	4219	0		4163.45	0	
Remote Write BW [MBytes/s]	1706.19	0		1705.09	0	
Remote BW [MBytes/s]	<u>5925.19</u>	0		<u>5868.54</u>	0	



Half of BW comes from other socket!

If all fails...



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

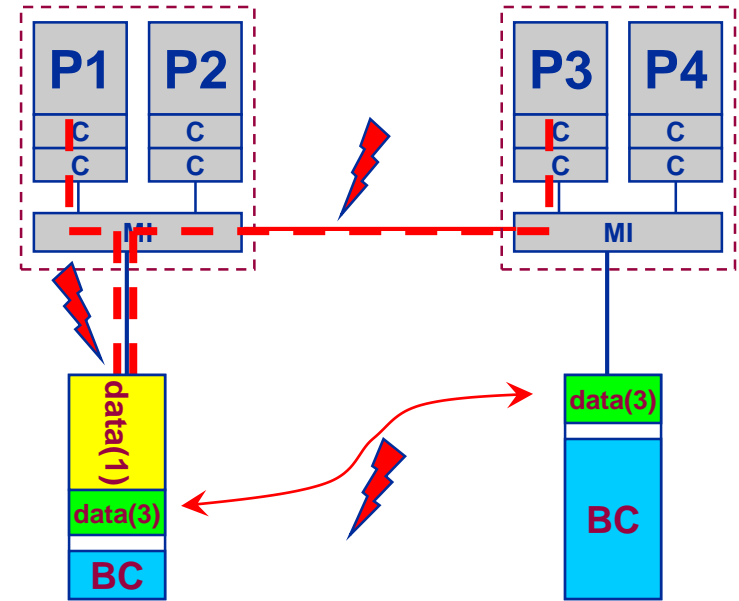
```
# numactl --hardware      # idle node!  
available: 2 nodes (0-1)  
node 0 size: 2047 MB  
node 0 free: 906 MB  
node 1 size: 1935 MB  
node 1 free: 1798 MB
```

```
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
```



- **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



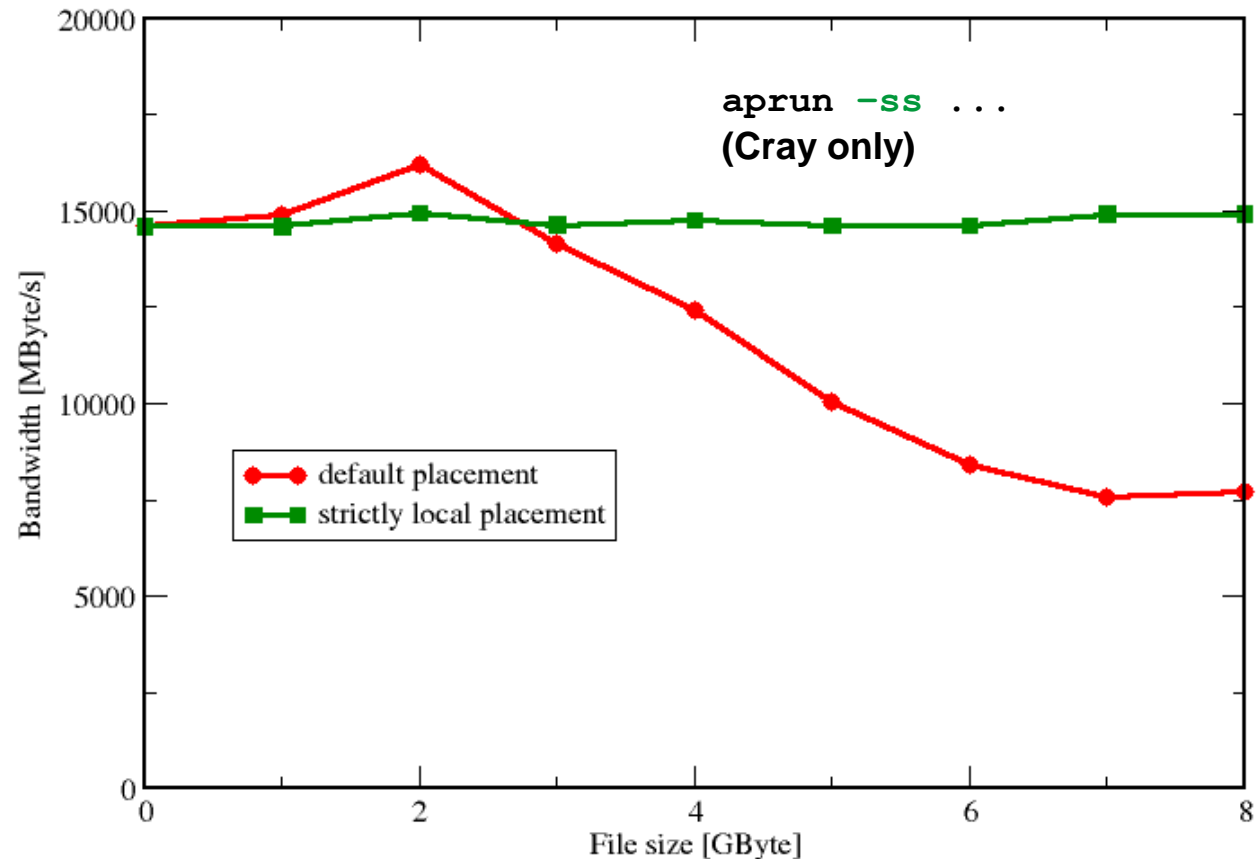
Real-world example: ccNUMA and the Linux buffer cache

Benchmark:

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

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

→ restrict to local domain if possible!

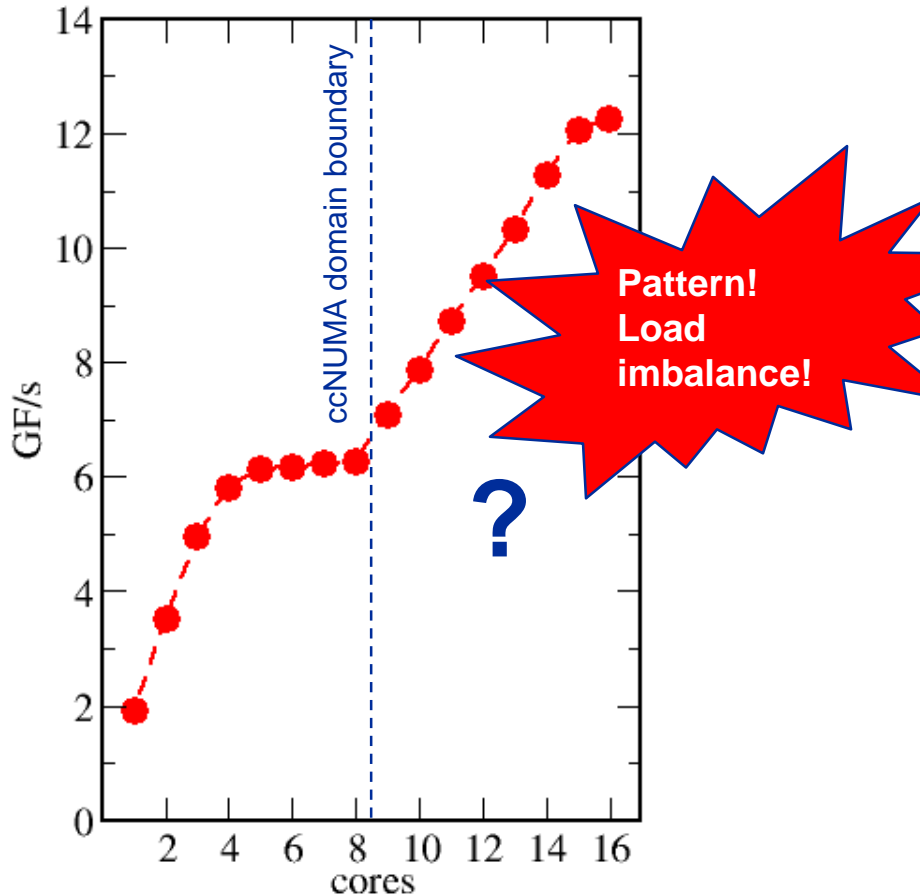


Back to the spMVM code: a little riddle

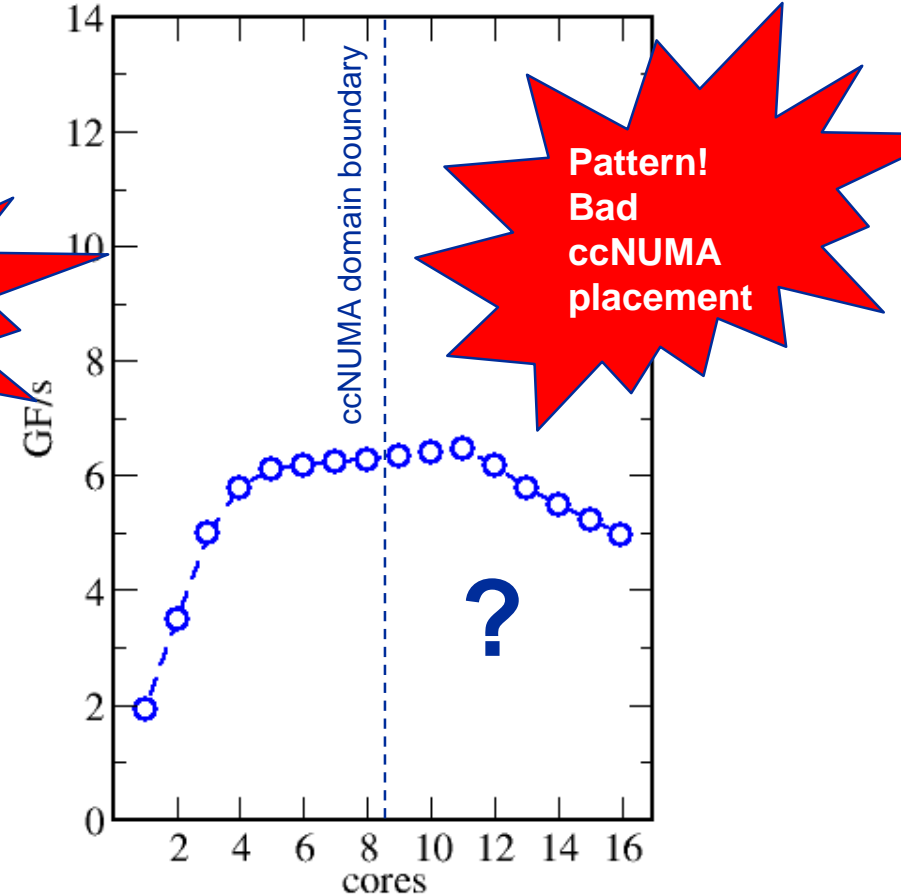


DLR1 matrix on 2x 8-core Sandy Bridge node

parallel first touch init.



serial init.

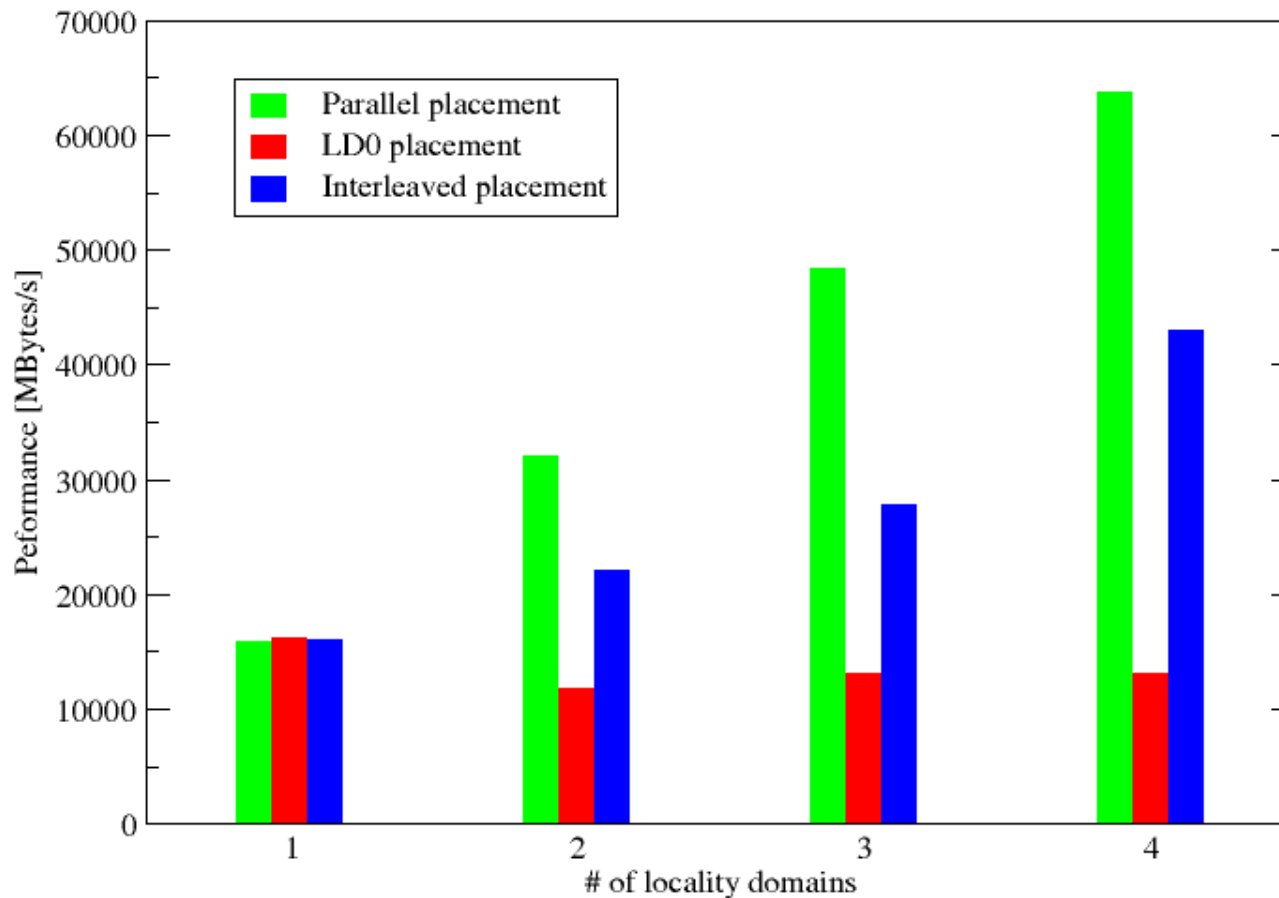


The curse and blessing of interleaved placement:

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>`

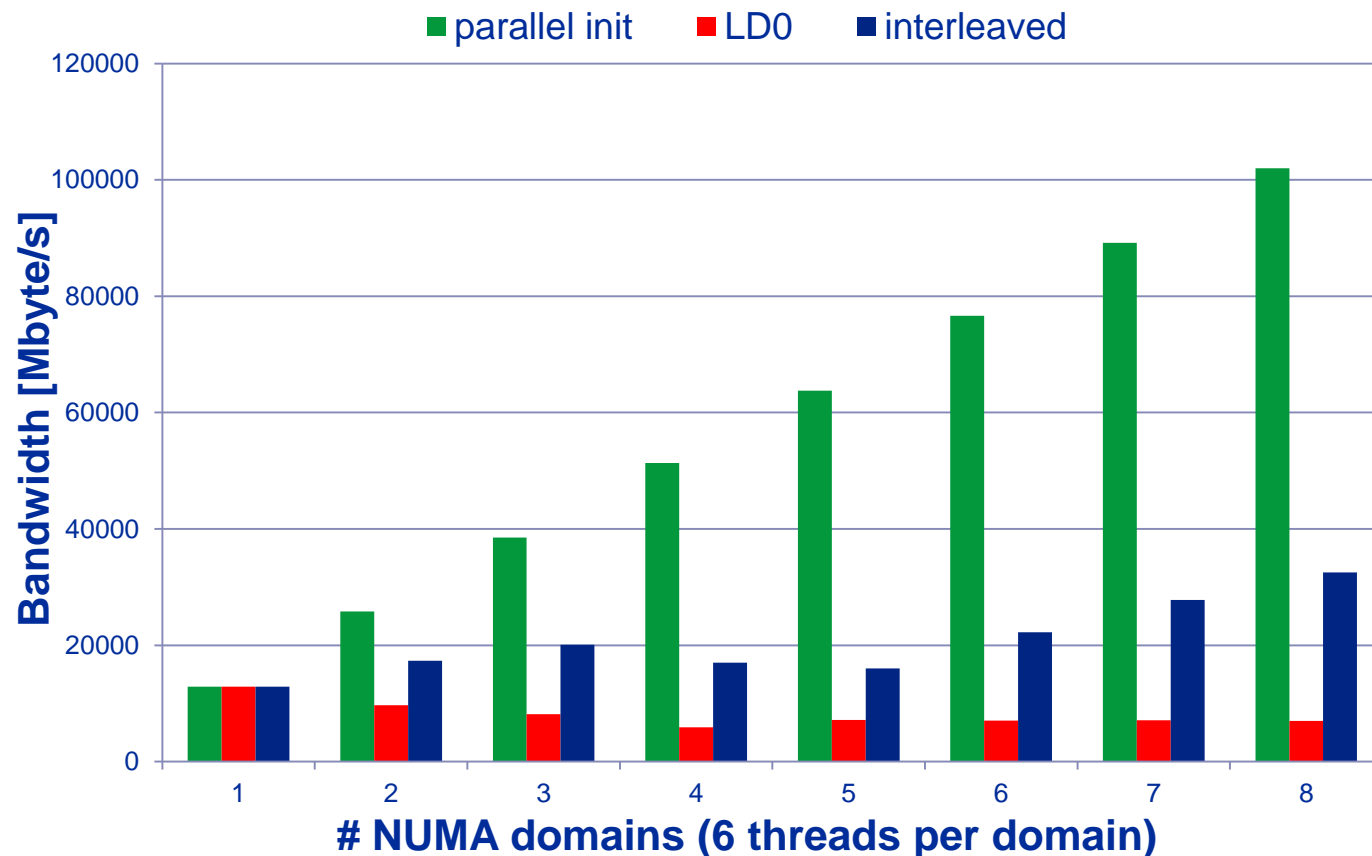


The curse and blessing of interleaved placement:

OpenMP STREAM triad on 4-socket (48 core) Magny Cours node



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





- **Identify the problem**
 - Is ccNUMA an issue in your code?
 - Simple test: run with `numactl --interleave`
- **Apply first-touch placement**
 - Look at initialization loops
 - Consider loop lengths and static scheduling
 - C++ and global/static objects may require special care
- **If dynamic scheduling cannot be avoided**
 - Distribute the data anyway, just **do not use sequential placement!**
- **OS file buffer cache may impact proper placement**



OpenMP performance issues on multicore

Barrier synchronization overhead

Topology dependence



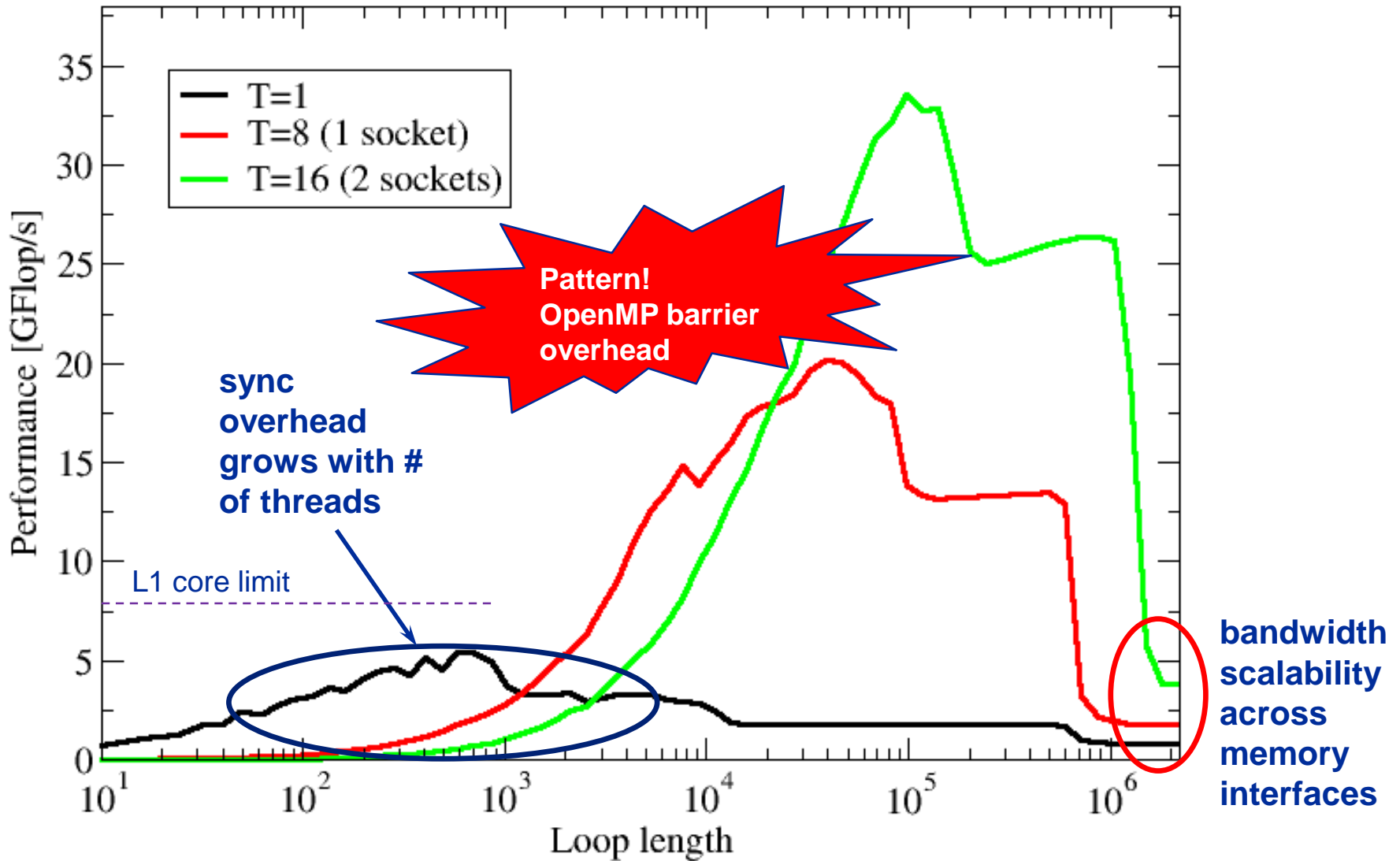
OpenMP work sharing in the benchmark loop

```
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
!$OMP END DO
  if(.something.that.is.never.true.) then
    call dummy(A,B,C,D)
  endif
enddo
!$OMP END PARALLEL
```

Implicit barrier

OpenMP vector triad on Sandy Bridge sockets (3 GHz)



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 programs.

Determine costs via modified OpenMP
Microbenchmarks testcase (epcc)

On x86 systems there is no hardware support for synchronization!

- Next slides: 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)

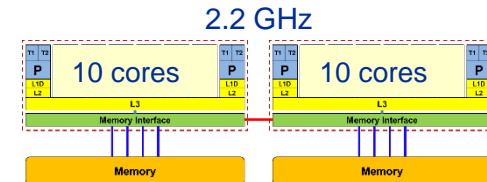
Thread synchronization overhead on IvyBridge-EP

Barrier overhead in CPU cycles



2 Threads	Intel 16.0	GCC 5.3.0
Shared L3	599	425
SMT threads	612	423
Other socket	1486	1067

Strong topology dependence!



Full domain	Intel 16.0	GCC 5.3.0
Socket (10 cores)	1934	1301
Node (20 cores)	4999	7783
Node +SMT	5981	9897



Overhead grows with thread count

- Strong dependence on compiler, CPU and system environment!
- `OMP_WAIT_POLICY=ACTIVE` can make a big difference

Thread synchronization overhead on Intel Xeon Phi

Barrier overhead in CPU cycles



2 threads on
distinct cores:
1936

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

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

3.75x cores (16 vs 60) on Phi

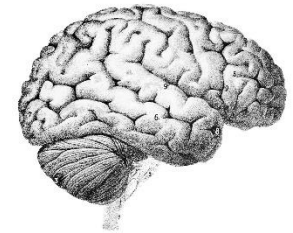
2x more operations per cycle on Phi

→ $2 \cdot 3.75 = 7.5x$ more work done on Xeon Phi per cycle

2.7x more barrier penalty (cycles) on Phi

→ One barrier causes $2.7 \cdot 7.5 \approx 20x$ more pain 😊.

- **Multicore architecture == multiple complexities**
 - Affinity matters → pinning/binding is essential
 - Bandwidth bottlenecks → inefficiency is often made on the chip level
 - Topology dependence of performance features → know your hardware!
- **Put cores to good use**
 - Bandwidth bottlenecks → surplus cores → functional parallelism!?
 - Shared caches → fast communication/synchronization → better implementations/algorithms?
- **Simple modeling techniques and patterns help us**
 - ... understand the limits of our code on the given hardware
 - ... identify optimization opportunities
 - ... learn more, especially when they do not work!
- **Simple tools get you 95% of the way**
 - e.g., with the LIKWID tool suite



**Moritz Kreutzer
Markus Wittmann
Thomas Zeiser
Michael Meier
Holger Stengel
Thomas Röhl
Faisal Shahzad
Julian Hammer**



THANK YOU.



**Bundesministerium
für Bildung
und Forschung**

Presenter Biographies



Georg Hager holds a PhD in computational physics from the University of Greifswald. He is a senior research scientist in the HPC group at Erlangen Regional Computing Center (RRZE). Recent research includes architecture-specific optimization for current microprocessors, performance modeling on processor and system levels, and the efficient use of hybrid parallel systems. His textbook “Introduction to High Performance Computing for Scientists and Engineers” is required or recommended reading in many HPC-related courses around the world. See his blog at <http://blogs.fau.de/hager> for current activities, publications, and talks.



Jan Eitzinger (formerly Treibig) holds a PhD in Computer Science from the University of Erlangen. He is now a postdoctoral researcher in the HPC Services group at Erlangen Regional Computing Center (RRZE). His current research revolves around architecture-specific and low-level optimization for current processor architectures, performance modeling on processor and system levels, and programming tools. He is the developer of LIKWID, a collection of lightweight performance tools. In his daily work he is involved in all aspects of user support in High Performance Computing: training, code parallelization, profiling and optimization, and the evaluation of novel computer architectures.



Gerhard Wellein holds a PhD in solid state physics from the University of Bayreuth and is a professor at the Department for Computer Science at the University of Erlangen. He leads the HPC group at Erlangen Regional Computing Center (RRZE) and has more than ten years of experience in teaching HPC techniques to students and scientists from computational science and engineering programs. His research interests include solving large sparse eigenvalue problems, novel parallelization approaches, performance modeling, and architecture-specific optimization.



Book:

- G. Hager and G. Wellein: [Introduction to High Performance Computing for Scientists and Engineers](#). CRC Computational Science Series, 2010. ISBN 978-1439811924
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- K. Iglberger, G. Hager, J. Treibig, and U. Rde: **Expression Templates Revisited: A Performance Analysis of Current ET Methodologies**. *SIAM Journal on Scientific Computing* 34(2), C42-C69 (2012). [DOI: 10.1137/110830125](https://doi.org/10.1137/110830125), Preprint: [arXiv:1104.1729](https://arxiv.org/abs/1104.1729)
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[DOI: 10.1007/978-3-642-13872-0_1](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-642-13872-0_1), Preprint: [arXiv:0910.4865](https://arxiv.org/abs/0910.4865).



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- G. Hager, G. Jost, and R. Rabenseifner: **Communication Characteristics and Hybrid MPI/OpenMP Parallel Programming on Clusters of Multi-core SMP Nodes**. In: Proceedings of the Cray Users Group Conference 2009 (CUG 2009), Atlanta, GA, USA, May 4-7, 2009. [PDF](#)
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