

1. Why supercomputers?
2. Modern processors
3. Basic optimization techniques for serial code
- 4. Data access optimization**
 - Balance analysis
 - Algorithm classification and access optimizations
 - $O(N)/O(N)$
 - $O(N^2)/O(N^2)$
 - $O(N^3)/O(N^2)$
 - Case study: sparse matrix-vector multiply
5. Parallel computers
6. Parallelization and optimization strategies
7. Parallel algorithms
8. Distributed-memory programming with MPI
9. Shared-memory programming with OpenMP
10. Hybrid programming (MPI + OpenMP)
11. Heterogeneous architectures (GPUs, Xeon Phis)
12. Energy efficiency

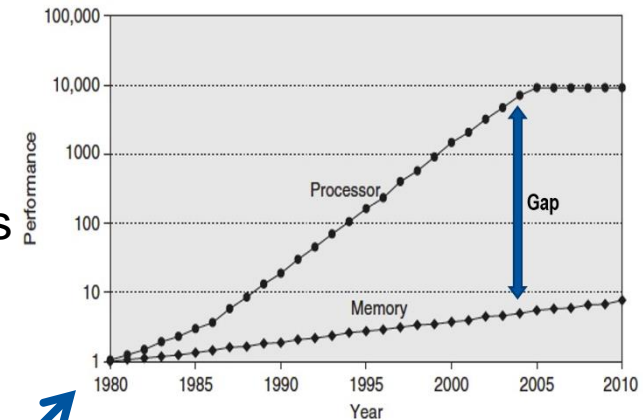
■ Data access: most important performance-limiting factor in HPC

- In science & engineering: often loop-based codes that move large amounts of data in/ out the CPU
- Often on-chip resources are underutilized
- Limited by slowest data path

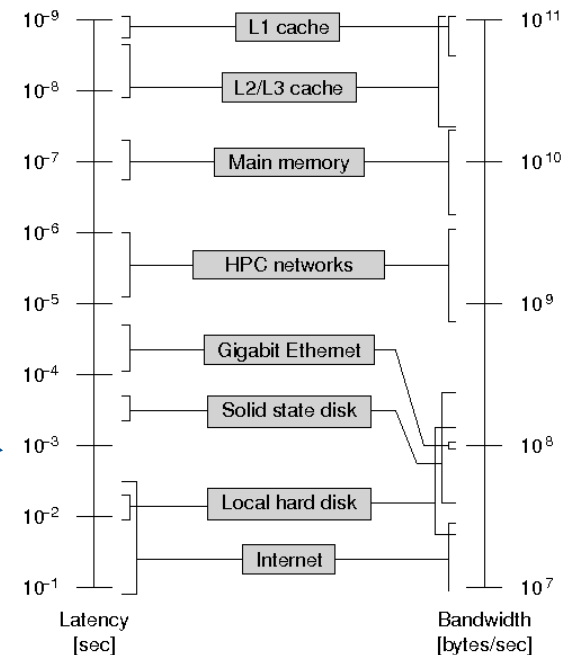
■ Recap

- Imbalance between theoretical peak performance & memory bandwidth on modern microprocessors
- Bandwidth in typical data paths can be ~3 orders of magnitude away from the function units

■ Optimization aim: reduce traffic over slow data paths



Source: Hennessy and Patterson, Computer Architecture: A quantitative Approach



Source: Prof. Dr. G. Wellein, Dr. G. Hager, M. Kreutzer Uni Erlangen-Nürnberg

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- **Before trying to improve the code: check whether resources are already used in the best possible way**
 - Model for theoretical performance of loop-based codes that are bound by bandwidth limitations
- **Balance metric**
 - E.g. machine balance of a processor chip

■ Machine balance B_m of a specific computer for data and memory accesses

→ Ratio of possible *memory* bandwidth [GWords/sec] to peak performance [GFlop/sec] *or*

→ How many operands can be delivered for each FP operation?

→
$$B_m = \frac{b_s}{P_{max}}$$

b_s : achievable bandwidth over slowest data path [words/s]
 P_{max} : peak amount of floating-point operations per seconds [Flop/s]

→ Assumption: latencies are hidden by prefetching, software pipelining,...

■ Typical values for different processors (main memory)

→ AMD Interlagos (2.3 GHz): $B_m \approx 0.029$

→ Intel Sandy Bridge EP (2.7 GHz): $B_m \approx 0.025$

→ NEC SX9 (vectorcomputer): $B_m \approx 0.3$

■ **Memory bandwidth can also be substituted by other bandwidths**

→ E.g. to caches or to the network

→ But, most often used for real memory-bound codes

■ **Typical balance values for different data paths**

Data path	B_m [W/F]
Cache	0.5 – 1.0
Main memory	0.01 – 0.5
Interconnect (Infiniband)	0.001 – 0.002
Interconnect (GBit Ethernet)	0.0001 – 0.0007
Disk	0.0001 – 0.001

Basis: double precision (64 bit), dual-socket nodes (for network and disk values)

■ **Growing DRAM gap + more cores → machine balance will further decrease in future**

■ **Recap: machine balance** $B_m = \frac{b_s}{P_{max}}$

→ How many operands can be delivered for each FP operation?

■ **Reciprocal** $B_m^{-1} = \frac{1}{B_m} = \frac{P_{max}}{b_s}$

→ How many FP operations can be performed for each operand?

b_s :	achievable bandwidth over slowest data path [words/s]
P_{max} :	peak amount of floating-point operations per seconds [Flop/s]

- Machine balance B_m : what the hardware can deliver at most



- Code balance B_c

→ Describes requirements of the code

$$\rightarrow B_c = \frac{\text{data transfers}(\text{LOAD}, \text{STORE}) \text{ [Words]}}{\text{arithmetic operations} \text{ [Flop]}}$$

→ Computational intensity: $\frac{1}{B_c}$

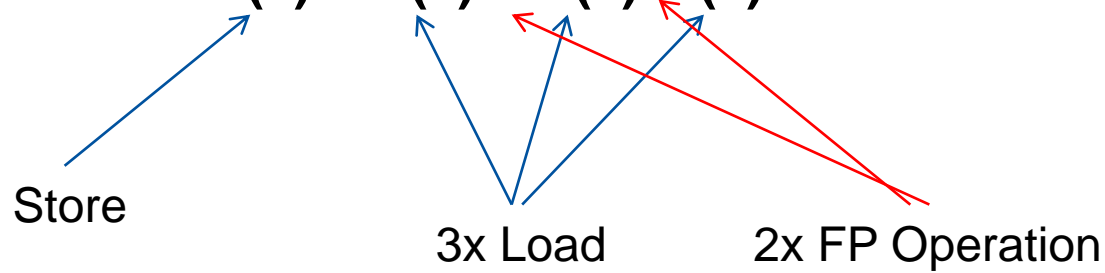
*What the machine can achieve
(what we get)*

- Expected max fraction of peak performance: $l = \min(1, \frac{B_m}{B_c})$

(“lightspeed” of a loop)

*What the algorithm requires
(what we need)*

■ Vector triad: $A(x) = B(x) + C(x) * D(x)$




■ Requires

- 3 Loads (B, C, D)
- 1 Store (+1 load to cache)
- 2 FP operations

■ Balance metric

- Code balance $B_c = \frac{5}{2} = 2.5 \frac{W}{F}$
- $\frac{B_m}{B_c} = \frac{0.029}{2.5} = 0.012$
- On 2.3 GHz Interlagos. 1.2% of peak performance

type	kernel	DP words	Flops	B_c
COPY	for(x=0; x < N; ++x) a[x] = b[x];	2 (3) 	0	N/A
SCALE	for(x=0; x < N; ++x) a[x] = b[x] * s;	2 (3)	1	2.0 (3.0)
ADD	for(x=0; x < N; ++x) a[x] = b[x] + c[x];	3 (4)	1	3.0 (4.0)
TRIAD	for(x=0; x < N; ++x) a[x] = b[x] + c[x]*s;	3 (4)	2	1.5 (2.0)
Sc. Add	for(x=0; x < N; ++x) s =s+a[x]*a[x];	1	2	0.5
Sc. Add	for(x=0; x < N; ++x) s =s+a[x]*b[x];	2	2	1

Can be kept in register

■ Recap: lightspeed of a loop

$$\rightarrow l = \min\left(1, \frac{B_m}{B_c}\right)$$

$$\text{with } B_m = \frac{b_s}{P_{max}}$$

P_{max} :	CPU's peak performance [Flop/s]
l :	lightspeed of loop [-]
b_s :	achievable bandwidth over slowest data path [words/s]
B_m :	machine balance [words/Flop]
B_c :	code balance [words/Flop]

■ Lightspeed for absolute performance [GFlop/s]

$$\rightarrow P = l \cdot P_{max} = \min\left(P_{max}, \frac{b_s}{B_c}\right)$$

- **Loop code makes use of all available arithmetic units (MULT and ADD) in an optimal way**
 - For other scenarios the input parameter P_{max} has to be adjusted. e.g. $P_{max} \rightarrow cP_{max} \mid c \in (0,1]$
- **Attainable bandwidth of code is known**
 - It can be determined using simple streaming benchmarks
- **Data transfer and arithmetical operations overlap perfectly**
- **Only the slowest data path is modeled**
 - Assumption: others are infinitely fast
- **Latency is ignored**

- **Model is often accurate enough to estimate performance of loop codes**
- **In other cases there exist more sophisticated strategies for performance modeling (see Literature)**
- **Recap: STREAM benchmark**
 - Implements simple synthetic kernel loops
 - ADD, SCALE, COPY, TRIAD.. (not to be confused with the vector triad)
 - Measurements reflect the capabilities of machines in terms of memory bandwidth

- **Neither STREAM nor the vector triad normally reach theoretical performance levels that are predicted by balance metrics**
 - Maximum bandwidth is often not available in a bidirectional way (read + write)
 - A typical proportion from read to write bandwidth is: 2/1
 - Paths between L1 cache & registers can be unidirectional
 - Protocol overhead, error correcting chips, large latencies,...
- **But, no real application performs better than the STREAM benchmark**
 - STREAM measured bandwidth b_s should be used to measure lightspeed l (rather than hardware's theoretical limit)
- **Receiving a significant fraction (e.g. 80%) of the predicted performance based on STREAM results for a code**
 - Indication for the best utilization of the memory interface

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■ Optimization potential can easily be estimated by just investigating basic parameters

- E.g. scaling behavior of data transfers and arithmetic operations vs. problem size
- Decide whether optimization effort make sense

■ Classifications

- $O(N)/O(N)$
- $O(N^2)/O(N^2)$
- $O(N^3)/O(N^2)$

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- **Given (N is problem size or loop length)**
 - O(N) arithmetic operations
 - O(N) data accesses (loads, stores)
- **Examples: scalar product, vector addition, sparse matrix-vector multiplication**
- **Performance is limited by memory bandwidth for large N**
 - “Memory-bound” algorithm
- **Optimization potential usually very limited**
 - Compiler/ architecture often already produce good code (simple analysis)

```
for(i=0; i < N; ++i) {  
    x[i] = b[i] + a[i];  
}  
for(i=0; i < N; ++i) {  
    y[i] = b[i] + c[i];  
}
```

$$B_c = \frac{6}{2} = 3$$

Loop fusion

```
for(i=0; i < N; ++i) {  
    x[i] = b[i] + a[i];  
    y[i] = b[i] + c[i];  
}
```

$$B_c = \frac{5}{2} = 2.5$$

O(N) data reuse!

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- **Given (N is problem size or length of outer & inner loop)**

- $O(N^2)$ arithmetic operations

- $O(N^2)$ data accesses

A blue curly brace groups the two items in the list above. To the right of the brace is the equation:
$$\frac{\text{arithmetic operations}}{\text{data transfers}} \rightarrow \frac{O(N^2)}{O(N^2)}$$

$$\frac{\text{arithmetic operations}}{\text{data transfers}} \rightarrow \frac{O(N^2)}{O(N^2)}$$

- **Examples: dense matrix-vector multiply, matrix transpose, matrix addition**

- **Problems usually memory-bound for large N**

- **Optimization potential: at most a constant factor of improvement**

- Code balance can often be enhanced by either outer loop unrolling or spatial blocking

■ Dense matrix-vector multiply

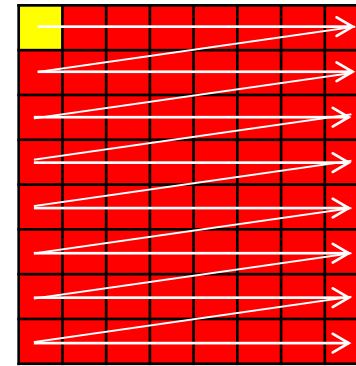
```
for(i=0; i < N; ++i)
{
  for(j=0; j < N; ++j)
  {
    c[i] = c[i] + a[i][j] * b[j];
  }
}
```



=



+



*



2 FP operations 2 loads $\rightarrow B_c = \frac{2}{2} = 1$

loaded once

loaded N times!!!

*updates of c[i] go to
a register (indexed
by outer loop)*

$O(N^2)/O(N^2)$ – Example

Jam \triangleq Fuse
In literature, usually
“jam” is used.



■ Unroll & Jam:

```
for(i=0; i < N; ++i)
{
  for(j=0; j < N; ++j)
  {
    c[i] = c[i] + a[i][j]*b[j];
  }
}
```

Unroll

```
for(i=0; i < N; i+=2)    e.g., stride 2
{
  for(j=0; j < N; ++j)
  {
    c[i] = c[i] + a[i][j]*b[j];
  }
  for(j=0; j < N; ++j)
  {
    c[i+1] = c[i+1] + a[i+1][j]*b[j];
  }
}
```

replication
of inner
loop (2
times)

```
for(i=0; i < N; i+=2)
{
  for(j=0; j < N; ++j)
  {
    c[i] = c[i] + a[i][j] * b[j];
    c[i+1] = c[i+1] + a[i+1][j] * b[j];
  }
}
```

What is
missing?

Jam

B[j] can be reused once. Saves 1 Load.

■ Unroll & Jam:

```
for(i=0; i < N; ++i)
{
    for(j=0; j < N; ++j)
    {
        c[i] = c[i] + a[i][j]*b[j];
    }
}
```

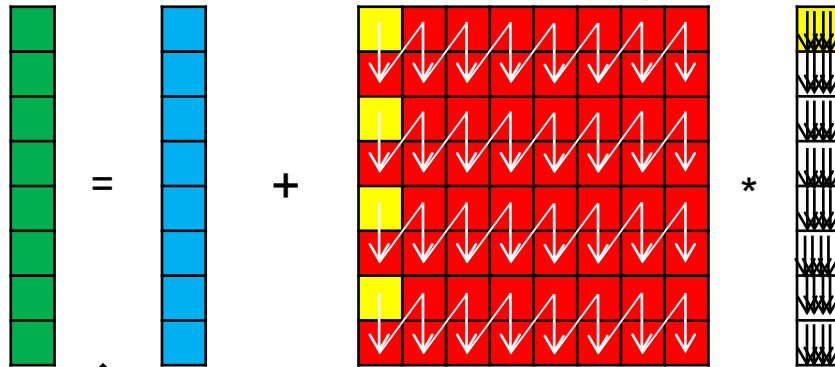
Unroll

```
for(i=0; i < N; i+=2) {
    for(j=0; j < N; ++j) {
        c[i] = c[i] + a[i][j] * b[j];
        c[i+1] = c[i+1] + a[i+1][j]*b[j];
    } }
// remainder loop
for(k=i; k < i + (N % 2); ++k) {
    for (j=0; j < N; ++j) {
        c[k] = c[k] + a[k][j]*b[j];
    } }
```

Jam

```
for(i=0; i < N; i+=2)
{
    for(j=0; j < N; ++j)
    {
        c[i] = c[i] + a[i][j]*b[j];
    }
    for(j=0; j < N; ++j)
    {
        c[i+1] = c[i+1] + a[i+1][j]*b[j];
    }
}
// remainder loop
for(k=i; k < i + (N % 2); ++k)
{
    for (j=0; j < N; ++j)
    {
        c[k] = c[k] + a[k][j]*b[j];
    }
}
```

■ Data access pattern of 2-way unroll & jam



loaded $N/2$ times

$$\rightarrow B_c = \frac{3}{4} < 1$$

→ Data transfers could be reduced further by unrolling more “aggressively”

→ m-way instead of 2-way

→ For m-way unrolling: $B_c = \frac{(m+1)}{(2m)}$

and thus clearly < 1

→ At max ($n \gg m, m \rightarrow \infty$): $B_c = \frac{1}{2}$

can be reached by unrolling

→ Total memory traffic: $N^2 \left(1 + \frac{1}{m}\right) + N$

→ As unrolling implies significant bulks of code, try to use compiler directives if possible

```
for(i=0; i < N; i+=2)
{
  for(j=0; j < N; ++j)
  {
    c[i] = c[i] + a[i][j] * b[j];
    c[i+1] = c[i+1] + a[i+1][j] * b[j];
  }
}
```


- **Can be done by the compiler at high optimization levels**
- **But: Complex loop bodies may hide important information from the compiler and prevent it from doing so**
 - Knowledge of the “concept” of unrolling & jamming is important for possibly needed manual optimizations
 - Directives are the preferred alternative for “manual” unrolling as explicit commands to the compiler to unroll a certain loop
- **Assumption**
 - CPU has enough registers to avoid register spilling
 - If m grows to large, it might be required to *spill* register data to cache temporarily, slowing down the computation.

■ Makes better use of caches

→ Depending on the blocking factor B

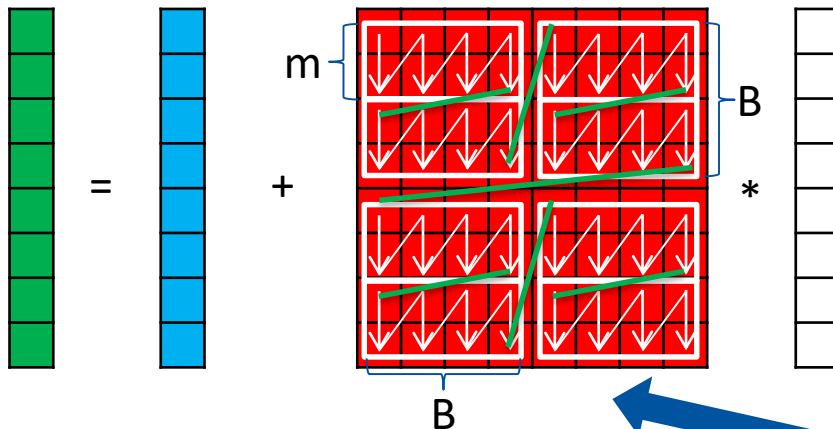
■ Can often not be performed by compilers

■ Example

→ 2D blocking with each blocking factor B

→ No change in no of needed registers

→ Better cache line access characteristic



```
for(ii=0; ii < N; ii+=B)
{
    istrict = ii; iend = ii+B;
    for(jj=0; jj < N; jj+=B)
    {
        jstart = jj; jend = jj+B;
        for(i=istrict; i < iend; i+=m)
        {
            for(j=jstart; j < jend; ++j)
            {
                c[i] = c[i] + a[i][j] * b[j]; jam
                [...]
                c[i+m-1] = c[i+1] + a[i+m-1][j]*b[j];
            }
        }
    }
}
```

blocking

unroll & jam

■ Block factor has to be chosen carefully:

- Mostly experimentally, through benchmarking
- Value may depend on actual cache sizes
 - If blocking for a certain cache, chose factor so that working set size fills not more than half the cache
- Can be chosen for different cache levels
 - No general guideline which cache level the optimization should target

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■ Given

→ $O(N^3)$ arithmetic operations

→ $O(N^2)$ data accesses

$$\frac{\text{arithmetic operations}}{\text{data transfers}} \rightarrow \frac{O(N^3)}{O(N^2)}$$

→ Most favorable case

→ Computation outweighs data traffic by factor of N

■ Examples: dense matrix multiplication, dense matrix diagonalization

■ Problems have tremendous optimization potential

→ Proper optimization can render the problem cache-bound if N is large enough

- Examples for $O(N^3)/O(N^2)$ algorithms are complex
- To simplify, we use an $O(N^2)/O(N)$ algorithm to illustrate possible optimization:

```
for(i = 0; i < N; ++i )  
{  
  for(j=0; j < N; ++j)  
  {  
    sum += a[i] * b[j];  
  }  
}
```

b is loaded from memory N times
a is loaded once per inner loop

Thus memory traffic amounts to $N(N+1)$ words.

- Loop unroll & jam will reduce this to $N(N/m + 1)$
→ with m-way unrolling

■ Blocking the inner loop: →

→ With blocking factor B

■ Introduces two effects

→ Array b is only loaded once from memory now

→ as long as factor B is small enough that parts loaded from

b fit into the cache and stay there as long as needed

→ Array a is loaded from memory N/B times instead of once

■ Effective memory traffic: $N(N/B+1)$

■ Blocking is the method of choice here, as the blocking factor can be increased to higher values than the unrolling factor

```
for(jj=0; jj < N; jj+=B)
{
    jstart=jj; jend=jj+B;
    for(i = 0; i < N; ++i )
    {
        for(j=jstart; j < jend; ++j)
        {
            sum += a[i] * b[j];
        }
    }
}
```

- Algorithms of the $O(N^3)/O(N^2)$ class are generally candidates that can be optimized to performance near the theoretical maximum.
- E.g. dense matrix multiplication can reach up to 90% of theoretical peak performance
 - with blocking, unrolling and appropriate chosen factors
 - for $N \times N$ matrices if the dimension N is sufficiently high
- Highly-optimized libraries for linear algebra are provided, so there is no need to hand code these algorithms
 - The BLAS Library (Basic Linear Algebra Subsystem)
 - But: The principle of blocking and/or unroll + jam can be applied in many real-world codes

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- **Interesting algorithm for the application of the previously discussed strategies**
- **Relevant in many real-world codes**
 - E.g. matrix diagonalization, iterative solvers for sparse systems
- **“Sparse” matrix**
 - Number of nonzero entries NNZ grows linearly with number of matrix rows N_r
 - In special storage forms, only the nonzero entries of the matrix are stored in memory (e.g. CRS)
- **$O(N_r)/O(N_r)$ problem**

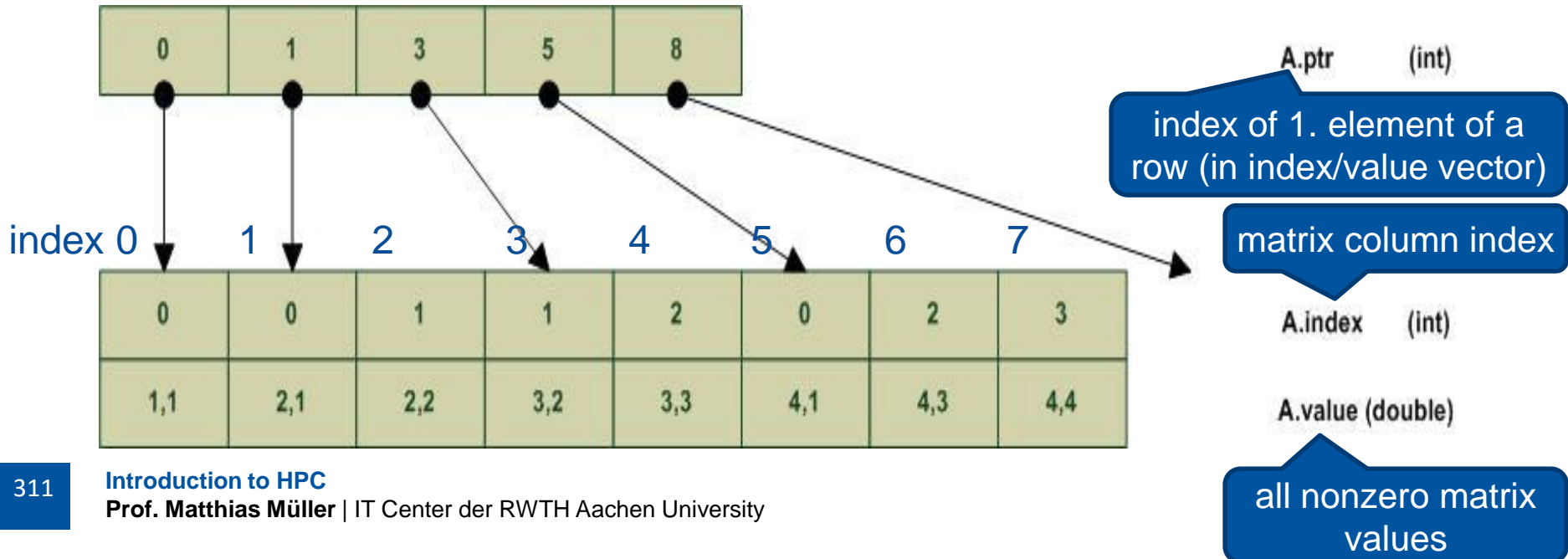
■ CRS = Compress Row Storage

→ Just stores nonzero entries

■ Suppose we have a matrix

$$A = \begin{matrix} \text{column} & 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 \\ \begin{pmatrix} 1.1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 2.1 & 2.2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3.2 & 3.3 & 0 \\ 4.1 & 0 & 4.3 & 4.4 \end{pmatrix} \end{matrix}$$

■ The CRS format encodes only the nonzeros in a row based way:



$y = Ax$:

```
for(i=0; i < Nr; ++i)
{
    y[i] = 0;
    for(j=A.ptr[i]; j < A.ptr[i+1]; ++j)
    {
        y[i] += A.value[j] * x[A.index[j]];
    }
}
```

- (Long) outer loop over matrix rows N_r
- Access to result vector $y[i]$ is linear
 - Only loaded once from memory
- Nonzeros ($A.value[j]$) are accesses with stride 1
- RHS accessed indirectly ($x[A.index[j]]$)
 - Spatial locality cannot be predicted
 - But generally not a problem if most NNZ entries are around diagonal

“Naive” approach: unroll & jam



```
/* Computes:  $y = A * x$ ;  
 * A: sparse matrix, stored in CRS format */  
for(i=0; i <  $N_r$ ; i+=2) {  
    y[i] = 0;  
    y[i+1] = 0;  
    len1 = A.ptr[i+1] - A.ptr[i];  
    len2 = A.ptr[i+2] - A.ptr[i+1];  
    minLen = min(len1, len2);  
    jstart1 = A.ptr[i];  
    jstart2 = A.ptr[i+1];  
    for(j=0; j < minLen; ++j) {  
        y[i] += A.value[jstart1+j] * x[A.index[jstart1+j]];  
        y[i+1] += A.value[jstart2+j] * x[A.index[jstart2+j]];  
    }  
    for(; j < len1; ++j)  
        y[i] += A.value[jstart1+j] * x[A.index[jstart1+j]];  
    for(; j < len2; ++j)  
        y[i+1] += A.value[jstart2+j] * x[A.index[jstart2+j]];  
}  
for(k=i; k < i + ( $N_r \% 2$ ); ++k) {  
    y[k] = 0;  
    for (j=A.ptr[k]; j < A.ptr[k+1]; ++j) {  
        y[k] += A.value[j] * x[A.index[j]];  
    }  
}
```

← unroll factor 2

← jammed loop

← remainder loops
with respect to

← *min* computation

← remainder loop
with respect to
unrolling

■ What can be modelled with the balance metric?

- How are lightspeed, machine and code balance defined?
- How can we get values for lightspeed, machine and code balance?
- What are the limitations of this model?

■ How can algorithms be classified depending on the number of arithmetic operations and data transfers?

- Which algorithm types have potential for optimizations?
- Which optimizations should be applied?

■ Sparse matrix-vector multiply

- How can sparse matrices be stored and why?
- How is the sparse matrix-vector multiply computed and optimized?