Outline



- 1. Why supercomputers?
- 2. Modern processors
- 3. Basic optimization techniques for serial code
- 4. Data access optimization

5. Parallel computers

- → Flynn's taxonomy
- → Basic limitations of par. computing
 - → Amdahl's law
 - → Gustafson's law
- → Multithreaded processors (SMT)
- → Multicore processors
- → Shared-memory computers
 - →UMA
 - →ccNUMA
- → Distributed-memory computers

- → Networks
 - → Basic performance characteristics
 - → Network topologies
 - → Buses
 - → Ring & fully connected networks
 - → Switched & fat-tree networks
 - → Mesh networks
 - → Networks in Top500
- 6. Parallelization and optimization strategies
- 7. Parallel algorithms
- 9. Distributed-memory programming with MPI
- 10. Shared-memory programming with OpenMP
- 11. Hybrid programming (MPI + OpenMP)
- 12. Heterogeneous architectures (GPUs, Xeon Phis)
- 13. Energy efficiency

Parallel computing



- As all modern supercomputer architectures heavily depend on parallelism, this trend will substantially increase in the near future
- Parallel computing has already entered the everyday life
 - → Nearly every desktop pc or notebook sold today includes multicore chips (dual, quad, ...)
- Basic classification of parallel computers
 - → Shared-memory multiprocessors systems: Multiple processors can execute code in parallel but they all share one virtual address space (shared memory)
 - → Distributed-memory systems: Multiple processors/compute nodes are connected over a network. The processors each have their own virtual address space (memory).

Flynn's Taxonomy





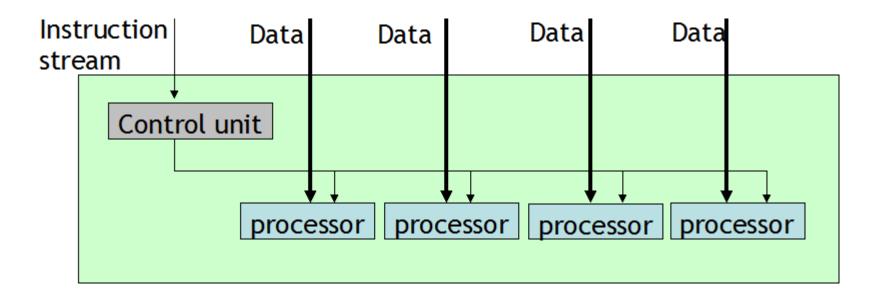
	Single Instruction	Multiple Instruction
Single Data	SISD	MISD
Multiple Data	SIMD	MIMD

- SISD Single instruction, single data
 - → An example is the classical von Neumann architecture
- SIMD Single instruction, multiple data
 - → Vector-processors, SIMD capabilities of modern superscalar microprocessors, GPU's
- MISD Multiple instructions, single data
 - → Not existant: Is commonly not regarded as practical relevant
- MIMD Multiple instructions, multiple data
 - → Shared memory, distributed memory architectures
- Only two still considered meaningful are SIMD and MIMD

Single instruction multiple data (SIMD)







E.g. Vector units like MMX, SSE and AVX also belong to this category

Multiple instruction multiple data (MIMD)





- Most general model: Each processor works on its own data with its own instruction stream
- Very general case:
 - → Every scenario can be mapped to MIMD
- Further breakdown of MIMD is usually based on the organization of memory
 - → Shared-memory systems
 - → Distributed-memory systems

Multiple instruction multiple data (MIMD)





In practice: Single Program Multiple data

- → All processors execute the same code stream
- → Just not the same instruction at the same time
- → Control flow is relatively independent and can be completely different
- → Amount of data to process may vary: Load balancing becomes important

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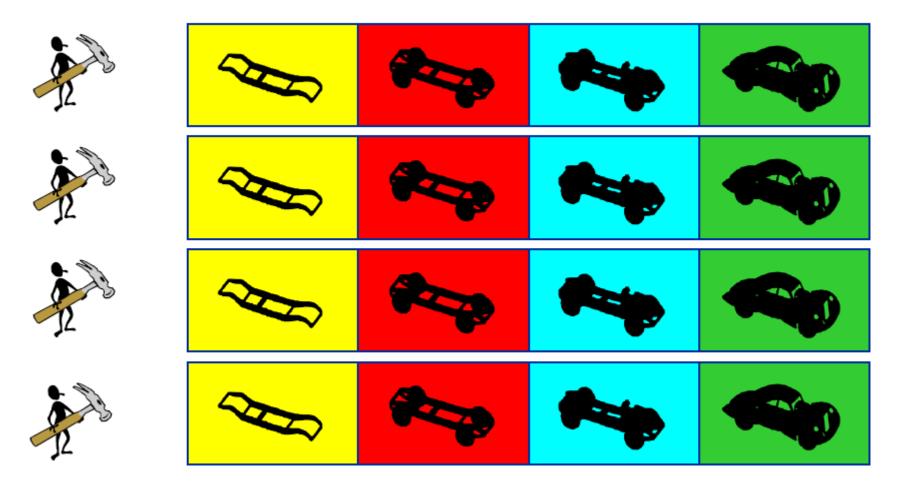
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Example of parallel work





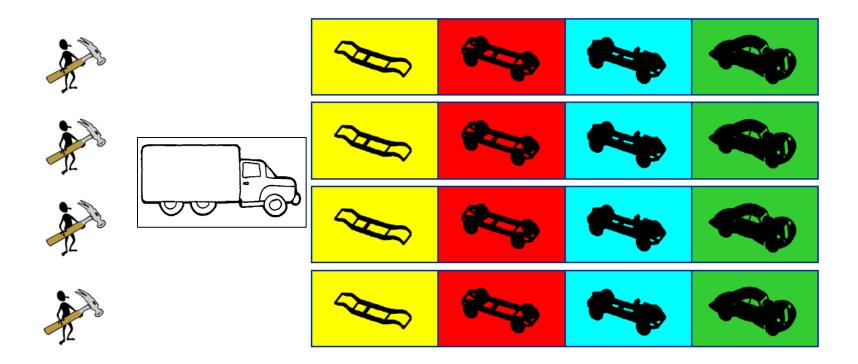
Example: 4 cars are produced in parallel



Limits of scalability



- Parts of the manufacturing process can not be parallelized
 - → Example: Delivery of components (all workers have to wait)

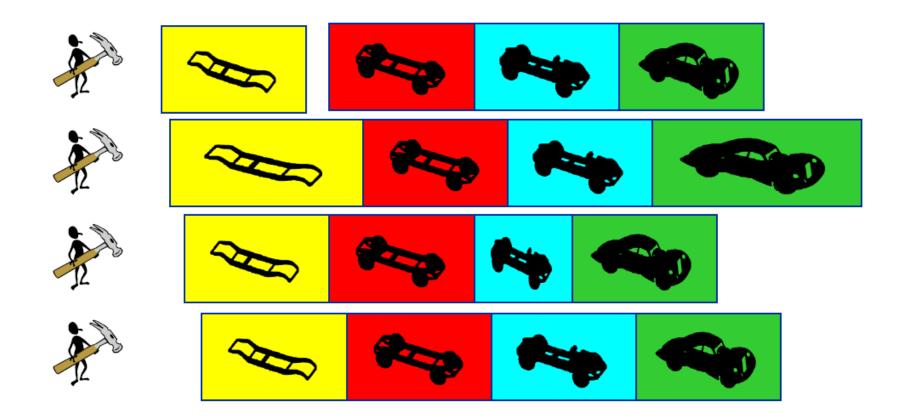


Limits of scalability (cont.)





- Individual steps may take more or less time
 - → Load imbalances lead to unused resources



Performance Evaluation





Definition of Speedup (According to Amdahl)

- → Ratio between serial and parallel Execution of a Program
- → Indicatior for relative performance improvement

Speedup
$$S_p(N) = \frac{T(1)}{T(N)}$$

- → With T(N): runtime of a (parallel) program with N Processors
- Efficiency:

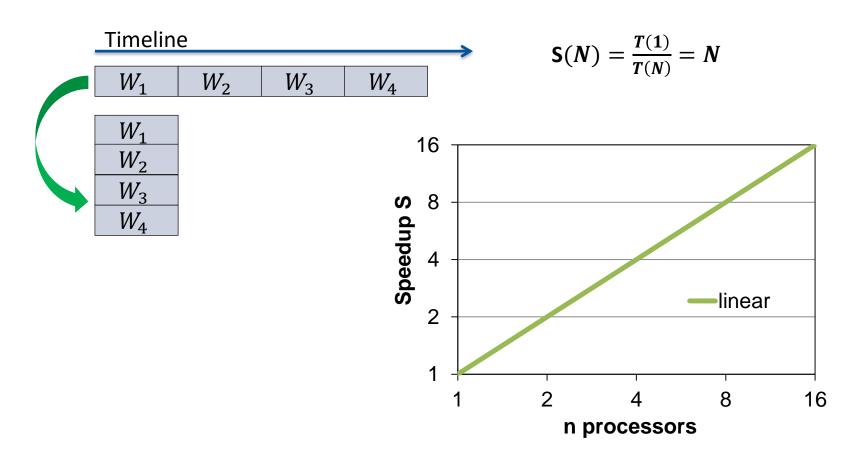
Efficiency
$$E_p(N) = \frac{S_p(N)}{N} = \frac{T(1)}{N \cdot T(N)}$$

Linear Speedup





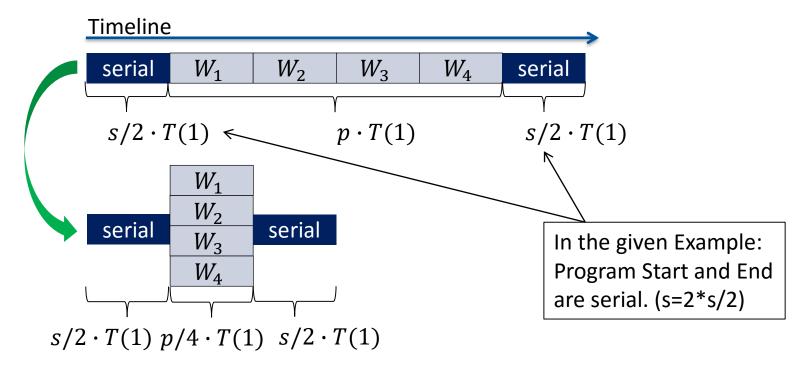
- Ideal situation: All work is perfectly parallelizable: linear Speedup
 - → In general: upper bound for parallel execution of programs



Limitations of scalability



A model more close to reality: There are serial parts which limit the maximum speedup



Amdahl's law assumes the program is dividable into an ideal parallelizable fraction p and a serial fraction s (non-parallelizable)

Amdahl's Law





$$s + p = 1 \rightarrow p = 1 - s$$

$$T(1) = (p + s) \cdot T(1)$$

$$p \cdot T(1)$$

$$s \cdot T(1)$$

The parallelized program's execution time is then assumed to be (with N processors):

$$\rightarrow$$
 T(N) = $(s + \frac{p}{N}) \cdot T(1)$

The speedup thus resembles to:

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

Amdahl's Law (1967) or "strong scaling"

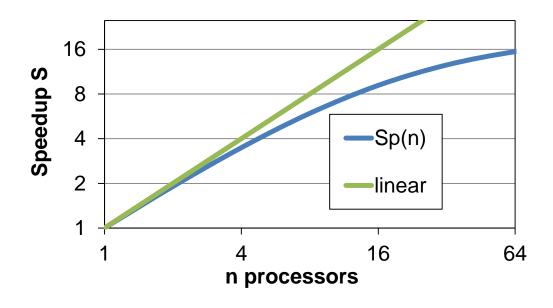
Amdahl's Law (cont.)





- Example: Program with 5% serial and 95% parallel fraction
 - → Speedup according to Amdahl:

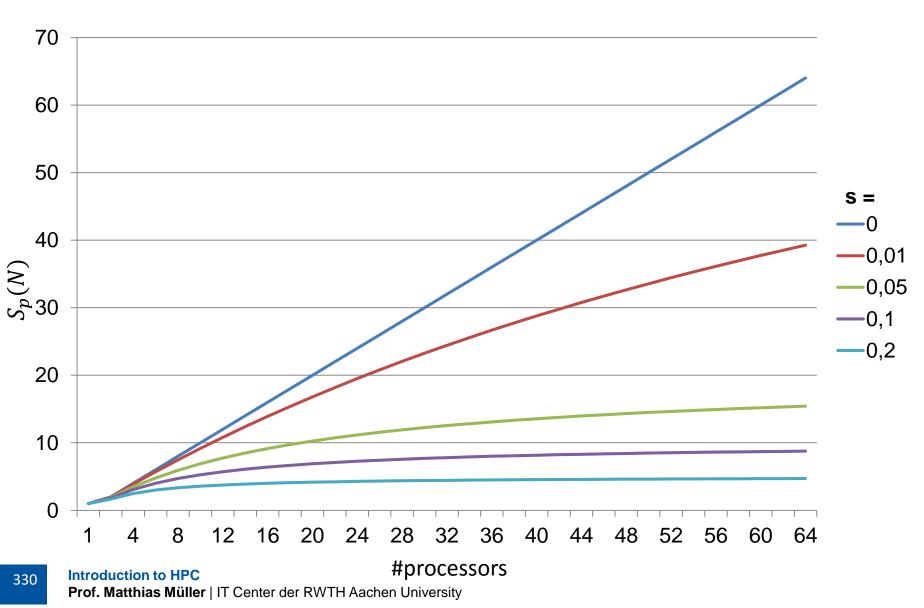
$$S_{0.95}(N) = \frac{T(1)}{T(N)} = \frac{1}{0.05 + \frac{1 - 0.05}{N}}$$



Speedup examples with varying s



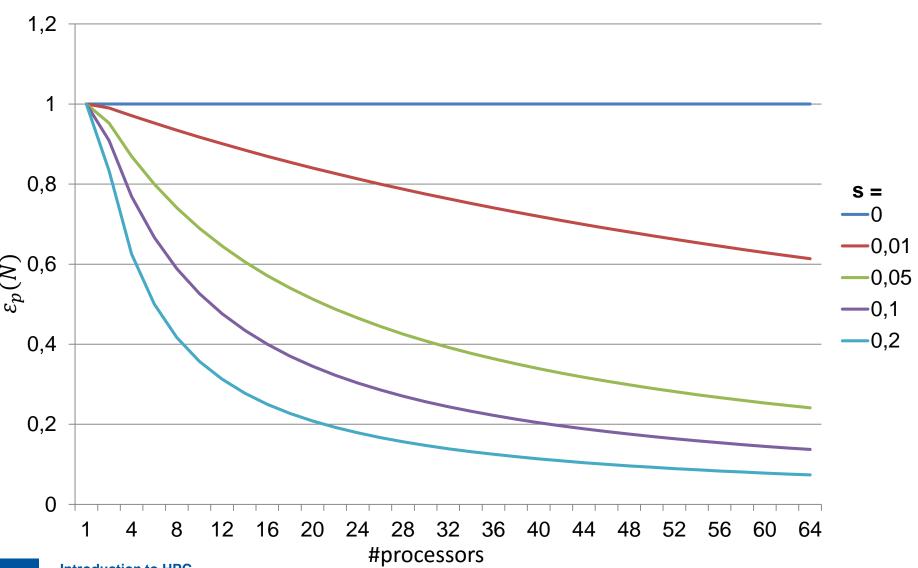




Efficiency examples with varying s







Limit value consideration of S_p

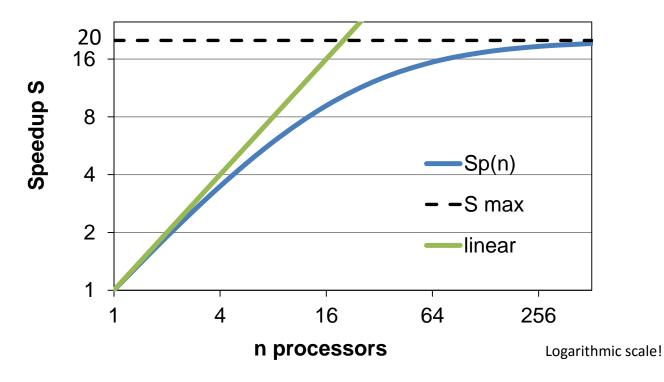




$$S_p(N) = \frac{T(1)}{T(N)} = \frac{1}{s + \frac{1-s}{N}}$$

$$S_{max} = \lim_{N \to \infty} S_p(N) = \lim_{N \to \infty} \frac{1}{s + \frac{1-s}{N}} = \frac{1}{s}$$

Example: s=0.05

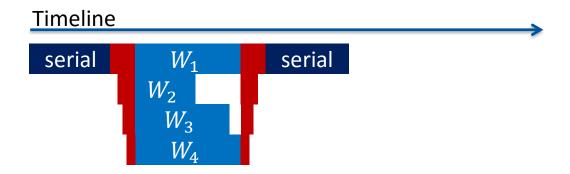


Limitation of Amdahl's Law



Amdahl's law assumption

- → Tasks exist that are perfectly parallelizable
- In reality, no task is perfectly parallelizable
 - → Resources have to be shared. These mostly have to be used serially
 - → Dependencies between tasks exists which have to be communicated
 - → Generally tasks have to communicate information to each other



Limit value consideration of E_p





the benefit of parallelization may be limited

- → Limited scalability leads to inefficient utilization of available resources
- → Parallel efficiency describes the utilization of available computing resources through parallelization:

$$\lim_{N\to\infty} \varepsilon_p(N) = \lim_{N\to\infty} \frac{\mathbf{1}}{s(N-1)+1} = 0$$

Problems of real world applications

- → Load imbalance
- Communication overhead
- → Problem size usually varies with increasing number of processors

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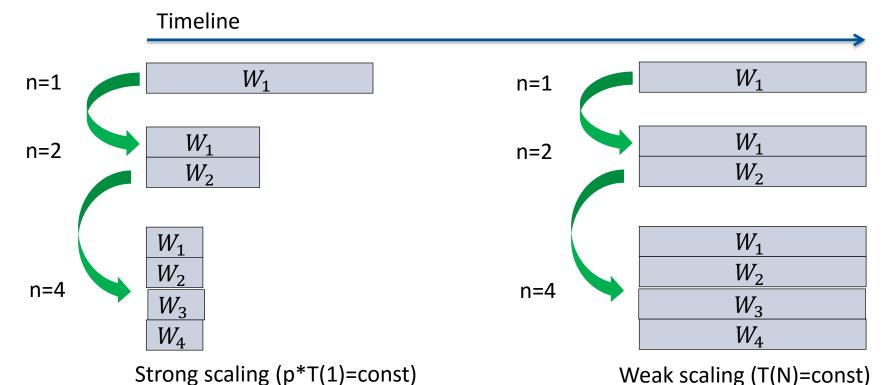
Weak scaling vs. strong scaling





Gustafson's law

- → Addresses the assumption of a fixed Data set, which Amdahl's law is based on
- → Problem size changes for weak scaling, fixed runtime (sketched below)



Gustafson's Law





Gustafson's law

- → Computations involving an arbitrarily large data set can be efficiently parallelized
- → Counterpoint to Amdahl's law, which puts a limit on the speedup of computations involving a fixed-size data set
- Assumption: execution time of a program can be decomposed into

$$s + p = (1 - p) + p = 1$$

- → The key assumption here is that the work that needs to be done varies linearly with the number of involved processors
- \rightarrow Time that a single processor needs: (1-p) + Np = p(N-1) + 1

Gustafson's Law





Speedup with Gustafson's law:

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

"weak scaling"

And efficiency:

$$\varepsilon_p(N) = \frac{S_p(N)}{N} = \frac{(1-p)}{N} + p$$

Implications

- $\rightarrow p$ (=fraction of time that the program executes in parallel) is held fixed
- → (while) the number of processors N is varied
- → With increasing number of processors, the speedup grows linearly
- → The serial part becomes more and more unimportant with more processors involved.

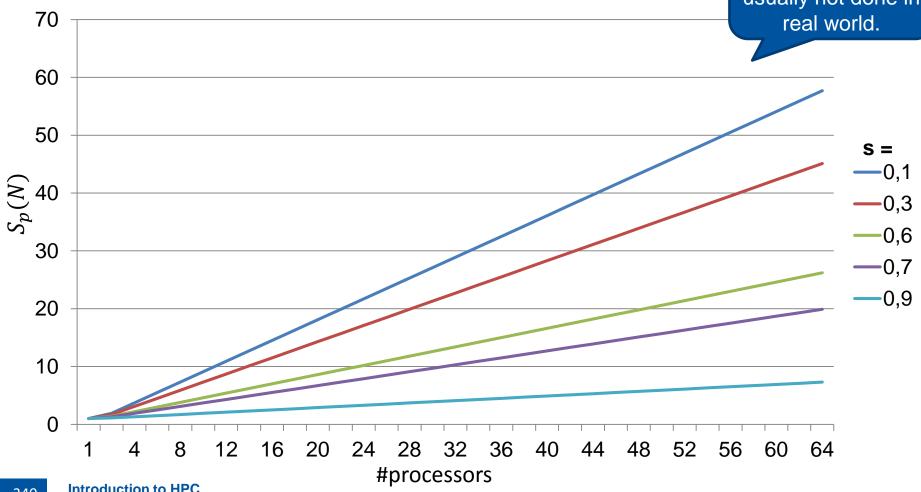
Speedup examples with varying s





$$\lim_{N\to\infty} S_p(N) = \lim_{N\to\infty} (Np + s) = \infty$$

These speedup measurements are usually not done in



Introduction to HPC

Prof. Matthias Müller | IT Center der RWTH Aachen University

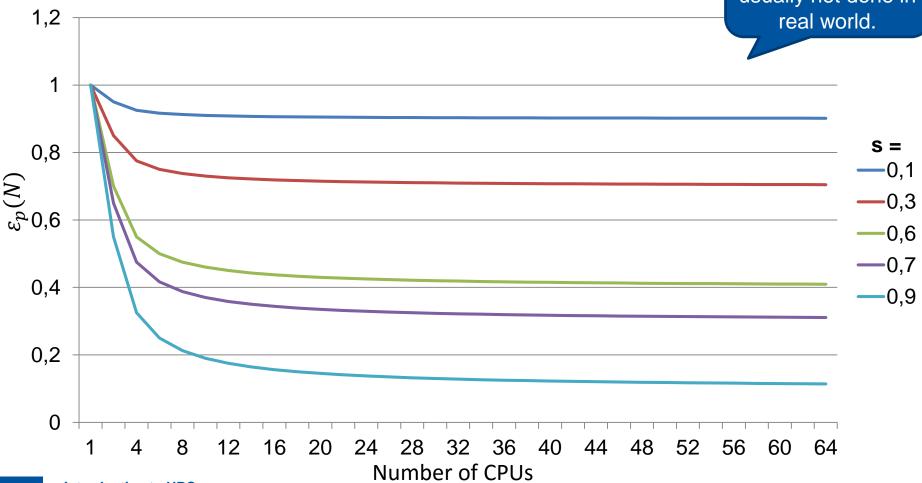
Efficiency examples with varying s





$$\lim_{N\to\infty} \varepsilon_p(N) = \lim_{N\to\infty} (\frac{(\mathbf{1}-\boldsymbol{p})}{\boldsymbol{N}} + \boldsymbol{p}) = p$$

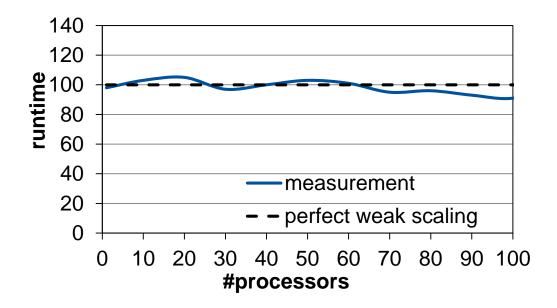
These efficiency measurements are usually not done in real world.



Real-world example



- In real world, you usually measure runtimes
 - → Increase data set with increasing number of processors
- Perfect weak scaling: constant runtime among varying #processors



General considerations



- The serial fraction of execution time depends on the algorithm
- In practice, "s" is determined empirically
 - → Non parallelizable parts of the application
 - → I/O (e.g. when reading input data)
 - → Communication pattern of the application
 - → Worksharing (load balance) while both Amdahl's and Gustafson's Law assume perfect load balance
 - → Processor details: cache, memory bandwidth, etc..
 - → Implementation of the parallel runtime (OpenMP + MPI)



Question 1: Determine the code balance B_c of the loop nest of the following code. Assume that a store goes directly to the main memory (no temporal stores).

```
double a[N][N];
double b[N];
double c;

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

a)
$$B_c = \frac{3 \text{ words}}{3 \text{ Flops}}$$

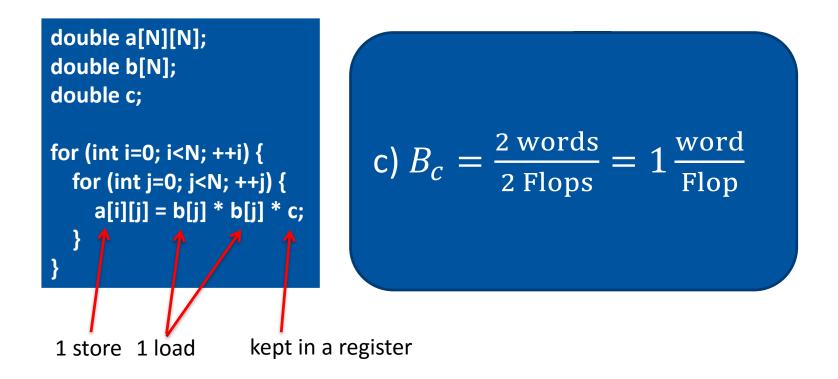
$$b) B_c = \frac{3 \text{ words}}{2 \text{ Flops}}$$

$$C) B_c = \frac{2 \text{ words}}{2 \text{ Flops}}$$

$$\frac{d}{d}B_c = \frac{4 \text{ words}}{2 \text{ Flops}}$$



Question 1: Determine the code balance B_c of the loop nest of the following code. Assume that a store goes directly to the main memory (no temporal stores).





Question 2: Determine the theoretical double precision peak performance (Flop/s) of the following exemplary architecture:

- → 10 cores, 3.0 GHz clock frequency
- → Fused-Multiply add (FMA): 1 ADD & 1 MULT per cycle
- → width of vector registers: 256 bit
- → One double precision value takes 64 bit

a)
$$10 \cdot 3.0 \text{ GHz} \cdot 2 = 60 \text{ GFlop/s}$$

b)
$$10 \cdot 3.0 \text{ GHz } \cdot 4 = 120 \text{ GFlop/s}$$

c)
$$10 \cdot 3.0 \text{ GHz} \cdot 8 = 240 \text{ GFlop/s}$$

d)
$$10 \cdot 3.0 \text{ GHz } \cdot 512 = 15.36 \text{ TFlop/s}$$



Question 2: Determine the theoretical double precision peak performance (Flop/s) of the following exemplary architecture:

- → 10 cores, 3.0 GHz clock frequency
- → Fused-Multiply add (FMA): 1 ADD & 1 MULT per cycle
- → width of vector registers: 256 bit
- → One double precision value takes 64 bit

c) #cores
$$\cdot$$
 frequency \cdot $\frac{\text{operations}}{\text{cycle}}$

$$= 10 \cdot 3.0 \, \text{GHz} \cdot 2 \cdot 4 = 240 \, \text{GFlop/s}$$



Question 3: From an experiment we know that for a given problem an application runs for 16 minutes with one thread and 4 minutes with 8 threads. What speedup and parallel efficiency does the parallel execution reach?

- a) Speedup = 1, parallel efficiency = 1
- b) Speedup = 4, parallel efficiency = 0.5
- c) Speedup = 4, parallel efficiency = 2
- d) Speedup = 0.25, parallel efficiency = 0.5



Question 3: From an experiment we know that for a given problem an application runs for 16 minutes with one thread and 4 minutes with 8 threads. What speedup and parallel efficiency does the parallel execution reach?

b) Speedup
$$S_p = \frac{T_s}{T_p} = \frac{16 \text{ min}}{4 \text{ min}} = 4$$

Parallel efficiency =
$$\frac{S_p}{N} = \frac{4}{8} = 0.5$$



Question 4: Given is an application with two parts A and B. The serial execution time of part A is 10 seconds and of part B 40 seconds. Only part B can be sped up by utilizing multiple threads. How many threads are required to achieve a speedup of 2 according to Amdahl's law?

- a) 2 threads
- b) 3 threads
- c) 4 threads
- d) 8 threads



Question 4: Given is an application with two parts A and B. The serial execution time of part A is 10 seconds and of part B 40 seconds. Only part B can be sped up by utilizing multiple threads. How many threads are required to achieve a speedup of 2 according to Amdahl's law?

b)
$$S_p(N) = \frac{1}{s + \frac{1-s}{N}} \rightarrow N = \frac{1-s}{\frac{1}{S_p(N)} - s} = \frac{1-0.2}{\frac{1}{2} - 0.2} = 2.\overline{6}$$

→ minimum 3 threads