L5: HPC for AI applications & Environmental impact of computation

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Master Calcul Haute Performance et Simulation - GLHPC | UVSQ

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- 2. Introduction to AI applications
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HPC for AI & Environmental

impact of computation

Introduction to AI applications

Al Renaissance: Neural Networks

- 2012: Al renaissance brought by increased data availability and computation ressources
 - breakthroughs in multiple domains
 - many innovations: algorithms, specialized processors, optimizations
- Most systems use neural networks:
 - Training (stochastic gradient descent + backpropagation)
 - Inference (forward pass)
- For both, the bottleneck is matrix multiplication

Objectives

- Explain why dense linear algebra (GEMM) dominates NN compute
- Core SGEMM kernel ideas and common optimizations
- Use Roofline model to identify bottlenecks

Short introduction to Neural Networks

- Neural networks are composed of layers of neurons
- \bullet Each neuron computes a weighted sum of its inputs followed by a non-linear activation function f

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} \to \mathsf{neuron} \to y$$

$$y = f\left(\sum_{i} w_i x_i + b\right)$$

- · Common activation functions: ReLU, sigmoid, ...
- Perceptron: single layer of neurons (1958 Rosenblatt)

Architectures

- Different architectures for different tasks:
 - Fully connected layers
 - Convolutional layers
 - Recursive layers
 - Transformers (attention mechanism)

Inputlayer Hiddenlayer1 Hiddenlayer2 Outputlayer x_2

Inference

- Inference: use the trained model to make predictions on new data
- Forward pass through the network:
 - For each layer, compute the weighted sum and apply activation function
 - The weighted sum is a matrix-vector multiplication for fully connected layers and convolutions (often implemented as GEMM).

Two layer network

Layer 1:

- X: input data [K × B] → K features, B batch size
- W_1 : weights $[H \times K] \rightarrow H$ hidden units
- b_1 : bias [H × 1]

Layer 2:

- W_2 : weights [O × H] \rightarrow O outputs
- b_2 : bias [O × 1]

$$\operatorname{ReLU} f(x) = \max(0,x), f'(x) = 1_{x>0}$$

Forward inference

• Layer 1 Pre-activation hidden (GEMM, $H\times K\times K\times B\to H\times B$)

$$Z_1 = W_1 \cdot X + B_1$$

Layer 1 Activation - ReLU (elementwise)

$$H = f(Z_1)$$

Layer 2 Output pre-activation (GEMM, O×H × H×B → O×B)

$$Z_2 = W_2 \cdot H + B_2$$

Layer 2 Activation - ReLU (elementwise)

$$Y=f(Z_2)$$

Forward is dominated by the two large GEMMs Z1 and Z2.

Training

- Training: adjust weights ${\cal W}$ and biases b to minimize a loss function ${\cal L}$ over a training dataset
- Use backpropagation to compute gradients on each layer (chain rule)
- Example with one neuron and MSE loss:

$$y = f(w_1x_1 + w_2x_2 + b)$$

$$L = (y - y_{true})^2$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial w_1} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial y} \cdot \frac{\partial y}{\partial w_1} = 2(y - y_{true}) \cdot f'(w_1 x_1 + w_2 x_2 + b) \cdot x_1$$

 Backward pass can be efficiently implemented using automatic differentiation and matrix multiplications.

Stochastic Gradient Descent

Use stochastic gradient descent to update weights:

$$\begin{split} w_1 \leftarrow w_1 - \eta \cdot \frac{\partial L}{\partial w_1} \\ w_2 \leftarrow w_2 - \eta \cdot \frac{\partial L}{\partial w_2} \\ b \leftarrow b - \eta \cdot \frac{\partial L}{\partial b} \end{split}$$

- η is the learning rate
- Repeat for many epochs over the training dataset

Training

- 1. Forward pass to compute ${\cal H}$ and ${\cal Y}$
- 2. Compute loss $L(Y,Y_{true})$
- 3. Backward pass to compute gradients.

The backward pass is also dominated by GEMMs.

Frameworks

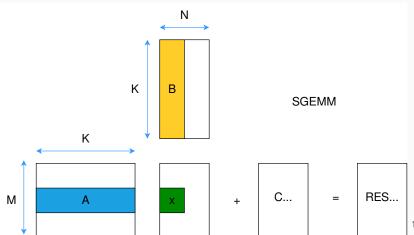
- Popular frameworks: TensorFlow, PyTorch, JAX, ...
- High-level APIs for defining models, automatic differentiation, GPU acceleration

```
# Simple 2-layer NN in PyTorch
import torch
import torch.nn as nn
class Net(nn.Module):
    def __init__(self):
        super().__init__()
        self.fc1 = nn.Linear(28*28, 512)
        self.fc2 = nn.Linear(512, 10)
    def forward(self, x):
        x = torch.flatten(x, 1)
        x = torch.relu(self.fc1(x))
        x = torch.relu(self.fc2(x))
        return x
```

SGEMM

Single-precision General Matrix-Matrix multiplication (SGEMM):

$$RES = A \times B + C$$



14/48

Naive SGEMM implementation (pseudocode)

```
// Initialize RES to C
for (i = 0; i < M; i++)
    for (j = 0; j < N; j++)
        RES[i][j] = C[i][j];

// Matrix multiply
for (i = 0; i < M; i++) {
    for (j = 0; j < N; j++) {
        for (k = 0; k < K; k++) {
            RES[i][j] += A[i][k] * B[k][j];
        }
}</pre>
```

- FLOPS: $2 \times M \times N \times K$
- min. Memory: 4 bytes $\times (M \times K + K \times N + M \times N)$

Locality issues in naive SGEMM

order in memory ightarrow

$$\begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} & b_{13} & b_{14} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & b_{23} & b_{24} \\ b_{31} & b_{32} & b_{33} & b_{34} \\ b_{41} & b_{42} & b_{43} & b_{44} \end{bmatrix}$$

- Stride in accessing B (column-major)
 - · Poor spatial locality
 - · Difficult to vectorize
 - Cache misses for large matrices (reuse distance too large)
- Low arithmetic intensity: $pprox 0.5\,\mathrm{FLOP/byte}$ for large matrices

Reordering loops (i,k,j)

 Sums RES[i][j] += A[i][k] * B[k][j]; are independent → reorder loops:

```
for (i = 0; i < M; i++)
   for (k = 0; k < K; k++)
      for (j = 0; j < N; j++)
            RES[i][j] += A[i][k] * B[k][j];</pre>
```

- A[i][k] does not depend on $j \rightarrow load$ once, reuse N times
- RES and B accesses are now stride-1 (row-major)

Better spatial locality and easier to vectorize

Vectorization

Inner loop assembly for (i,k,j) ordering with AVX (8 float in a vector):

```
.loop:
                                       # Inner loop
   vmovss xmmO, DWORD PTR A[i][k]
                                       # Load A[i][k]
   vbroadcastss ymm0, xmm0
                                       # Broadcast scalar to
   all lanes
   vmovaps ymm1, YMMWORD PTR B[k][j] # Load B[k][j:j+8]
   vfmadd231ps ymm2, ymm1, ymm0
                                    # Fused multiply-add
   vmovaps YMMWORD PTR RES[i][j], ymm2 # Store RES[i][j:j+8]
           i, 8
                                       # Increment j by 8 (
   add
   vector width)
   cmp j, N
                                       # Compare j with N
                                       # Loop if j < N
   jl .loop
```

Problems with (i,k,j) ordering

- Temporal locality analysis:
 - GOOD: A[i][k] reused in the inner loop, reuse distance 1.
 - MEDIUM : For a given (i,j), each RES[i][j] revisited once per k. So reuse distance K (one full row).
 - To keep RES in cache between uses you would need cache $\geq N imes 4B$
 - BAD : For a given (k,j), B[k][j] used once per i. So reuse distance $K\times N$ (entire B matrix).
 - To keep B in cache between uses you would need cache $> K \times N \times 4B$
- Still poor temporal locality for large matrices
- Solution: tiling / blocking to increase reuse

Blocking (tiling)

Idea: operate on sub-matrices blocks that fit in cache

$$\begin{bmatrix} \textbf{A}_{11} & A_{12} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} B_{11} & B_{12} \\ B_{21} & B_{22} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \textbf{A}_{11}B_{11} + A_{12}B_{21} & A_{11}B_{12} + A_{12}B_{22} \\ A_{21}B_{11} + A_{22}B_{21} & A_{21}B_{12} + A_{22}B_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

Parallelization

• Each block operation is independent → parallelize over blocks

- Each thread works on its own block → no false sharing
- Synchronization only at the end of the parallel region
- NUMA considerations: pin threads to cores, allocate memory close to threads
- Load balancing: static scheduling usually works well for large matrices

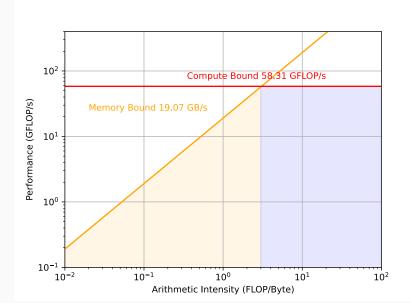
Libraries & autotuners

- Highly optimized SGEMM implementations exist:
 - OpenBLAS, Intel MKL for CPU
 - · NVIDIA cuBLAS for GPU
- Implementations use blocking, vectorization, parallelization, and many architecture-specific optimizations
- Libraries are carefully tuned for different sizes and shapes of matrices.
- Autotuners (e.g., ATLAS, TVM, MLKAPS) can generate optimized code for specific hardware and problem sizes.

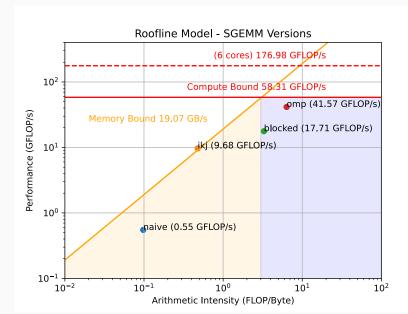
Roofline model - Definitions

- Hypothesis: performance is limited by either compute or memory bandwidth
 - performance: FLOP/s (vertical axis)
 - memory bandwidth: Bytes/s
 - arithmetic intensity: FLOP/byte (horizontal axis)
- Simple visual model to understand bottlenecks

Roofline model - Bounds



Roofline model - SGEMM analysis



Environmental impact of

computation

Introduction

- Major ecological crisis: French roadmap targets carbon neutrality in 2050 (Stratégie Nationale Bas Carbone).
- Requires a 40% energy consumption reduction.
- HPC part of the solution: modeling and improving complex systems

HPC part of the problem

- Frontier system at ORNL
 - ${\ \cdot\ }$ More than 10^{18} floating point operations per second
 - Consumes 21MW: the energy of a small town ($16\,000$ french houses)



Environmental impact of computation

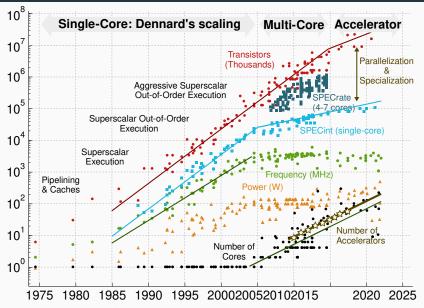
- The ICT sector consumes pprox 5% of the energy wordwide
- It accounts for 1.8% 2.8% of emitted GHG [Freitag, 2021]:
 - · Accounts for embodied emissions.
 - Shadow energy during the whole life-cycle: mining, fabrication, transportation, recycling.
- GHG emmissions are only one of the sustainability issues
 - rare-earth mining and waste disposal (eg. Agbogbloshie).
 - human-right abuses, health issues, pollution.
- This presentation focus on energy consumption of HPC

What about renewable energies?

- Low-carbon electricity is a limited ressource
- ullet Decarbonation o huge increase in electricity demand
 - Heating, Transportation, Industry
 - Computing will compete for low-carbon electricity.

Energy consumption of HPC

Evolution of processing units [Batten, 2023]



Dennard's scaling 1970-2005

$$\text{CMOS Power} \quad P = \underbrace{1/2.C.V^2.f}_{P_{\text{dynamic}}} + \underbrace{V.I_{\text{leak}}}_{P_{\text{static}}}$$

For each generation, transistors dimensions reduced by 30%,

- Voltage and capacitance reduced by 30%
- Frequency increases: $\times 1.4 \approx 1/0.7$
- Surface halved: $0.5 \approx 0.7 \times 0.7$
- Power halved: $\Delta P = 0.7 \times 0.7^2 \times 1/0.7 \approx 0.5$

Power per surface unit remains constant but manufacturers double number of transistors and frequency increases:

- Power efficiency doubles every 1.57 years
- Total power increases

Multicore 2005-2020

- At current scale, leak currents start increasing ($P_{\rm static}$ /). Power wall slows Dennard's scaling.
- Computing demand ightarrow parallelism and specialization.
- Number of cores increases exponentially since 2005.
- Power efficiency still improving:
 - · selectively turning-off inactive transistors;
 - · architecture design optimizations;
 - software optimizations.

Al Accelerators 2020-2024

- For domain specific applications, such as Al, specialized accelerators are used
 - Memory and compute units tuned for a specific problem (matrix multiplication);
 - Faster and better power efficiency: GPU, TPU, FPGA, ASIC.

Analysis of TOP-100 HPC systems

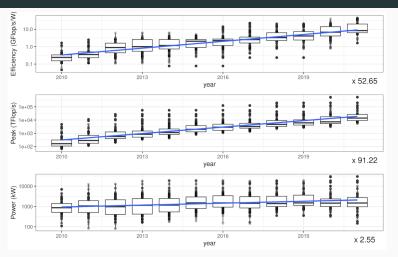


Figure 7: Evolution of TOP 100 systems

Efficiency and Peak computation exponential increase.

Rebound effects

- In 1865, Jevons shows that steam engine improvements translate into increased coal consumption.
- In HPC, efficiency gains contribute to the rising computation demand.
 - net increase of the total power consumption.
- Rebound effects for data-centers [Masanet, 2020]
 - 6% increase in energy consumption from 2010 to 2018 (255 % increase in nodes).
- Indirect rebound effects: computation advances can contribute to the acceleration of other fields.

Al energy and computation costs

Training cost doubles every 3.4 months [OpenAI, 2020]

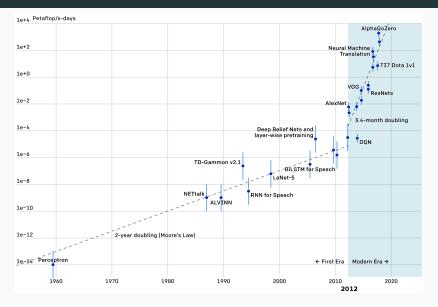
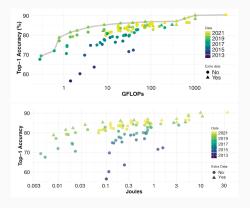


Figure 8: OpenAl, 2020

Should we study training or inference?

- Training: huge cost but done once
 - GPT3, 175 billion parameters, ≈ 314 ZettaFLOP
 - GPT4, 1.7 trillion parameters
- Inference: millions of users and requests
 - 80-90% cost of a deployed AI system is spend on inference [NVIDIA, 2019]

Inference cost - Diminishing returns for computer vision



Exponential increase in compute for linear accuracy gain [Desislavov, 2023 / Schwartz, 2019]

More frugal computing?

Smaller precision / Smaller models for AI

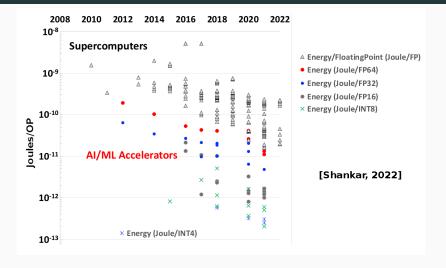


Figure 9: Shankar 2022

Tradeoff: Model complexity - Cost - Explainability

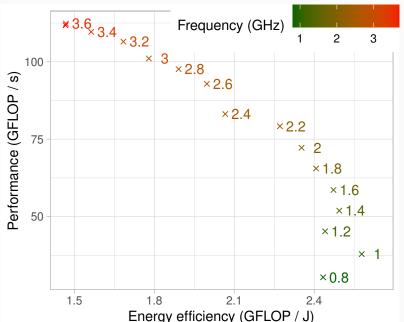
- Inference cost grows with model complexity
- Simpler models are often more interpretable
 - Traditional science also prefers simpler models
- DNN not necessary for all tasks

DVFS study of LU decomposition

- Knights Mill 72 cores
- Intel MKL dgetrf
- $n \in [1000, 3000]$
- RAPL estimation

(Thomas Roglin, M1 UVSQ/INTEL internship 2023)

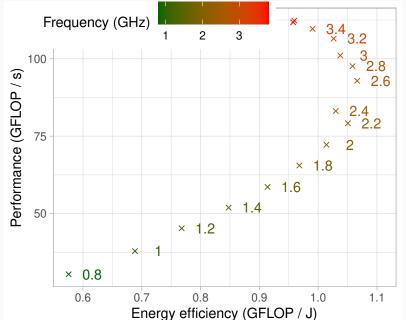
Save energy by computing slower: 1GHz



When accounting for the whole system

- Model: RAPL + 40W
- System power dominates at low frequencies

Race to idle: 2.6 GHz compute faster and turn off machine



Need for an interdisciplinary discussion

- Al / HPC can contribute towards sustainability (eg. acceleration of weather forecast models) ... but its energy cost must be reduced
- · Efficiency:
 - Improve hardware and software
 - Use smaller models / smaller precision

... subject to rebound effects

- Frugality in computing:
 - Balance computation cost vs. outcomes for each task
 - · Choose the right sized model
 - Assess the environmental impact

Exemple: e-health solution in Tanzania [d'Acremont, 2021]

Treatment of febrile children illnesess in dispensaries.

- IMCI: Paper-based decision tree WHO
- e-POCT CART tree tailored to real data on a standalone tablet
 - Final CART tree easy to interpret and manually checked
 - Randomized-trial ightarrow better clinical outcomes and antibiotic prescription reduction
- Sophisticated AI that continuously collects patient data and adapts the algorithm?
 - Increase in hardware and computation costs.
 - Loss in explainability and verification of the algorithm.

References - HPC for AI applications

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References - Environmental impact of computation

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