Getting good performance from your application

Tuning techniques for serial programs on cache-based computer systems

Overview

- Introduction
- Memory Hierarchy
- General Optimization Techniques
- Compilers
- Analysis Tools
- Tuning Guide



Application Tuning



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Introduction

Moore's Law

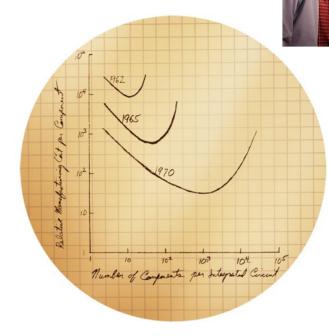
- Popular version:
 - □ "CPU speed usually doubles every 18 months."
- More correct version:
 - "The number of transistors per integrated circuit will double every 18 months."



Gordon Moore - co-founder of Intel

"I never said 18 months. I said one year, and then two years ... Moore's Law has been the name given to everything that changes exponentially. ... If Gore invented the Internet, I invented the exponential."

- Gordon Moore in an interview (2000)



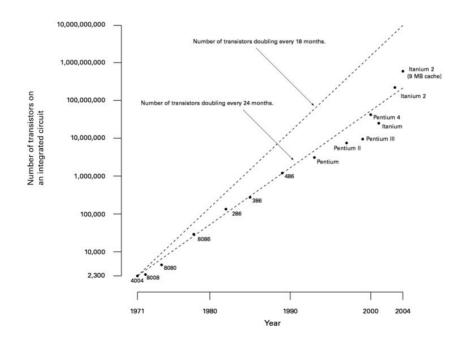


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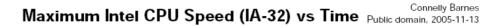
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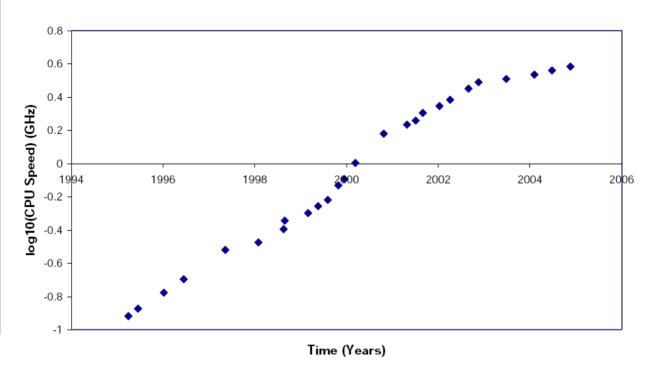
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Moore's Law





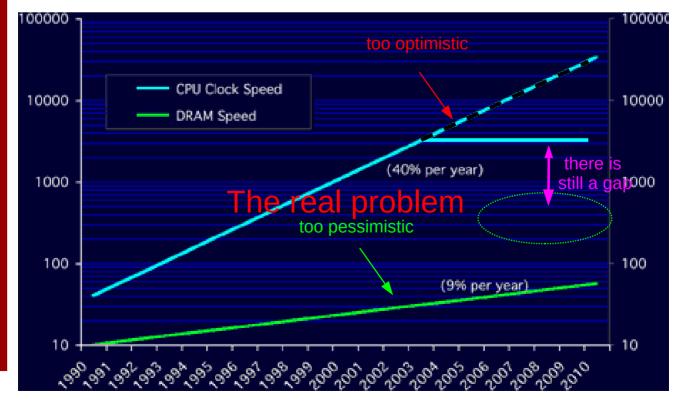




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Introduction

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- □ CPU speed usually doubles every 18-24 months (not true any longer!).
- □ Development on the memory side is much slower (~ 6 years!).
- Memory speeds catch up but also have to serve more cores!
- Something you should have in mind when designing your program!



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Introduction

□ DDR2 specs (1.8V)

Standard name	Memory clock	Cycle time	I/O Bus clock	Data transfers per second
DDR2-400	100 MHz	10 ns	200 MHz	400 Million
DDR2-533	133 MHz	7.5 ns	266 MHz	533 Million
DDR2-667	166 MHz	6 ns	333 MHz	667 Million
DDR2-800	200 MHz	5 ns	400 MHz	800 Million
DDR2-1066	266 MHz	3.75 ns	533 MHz	1066 Million

■ DDR3 specs (1.5V)

Standard name	Memory clock	Cycle time	I/O Bus clock	Data transfers per second
DDR3-800	100 MHz	10 ns	400 MHz	800 Million
DDR3-1066	133 MHz	7.5 ns	533 MHz	1066 Million
DDR3-1333	166 MHz	6 ns	667 MHz	1333 Million
DDR3-1600	200 MHz	5 ns	800 MHz	1600 Million



Motivation for Application Tuning

time flow in a computational task (simplified picture):





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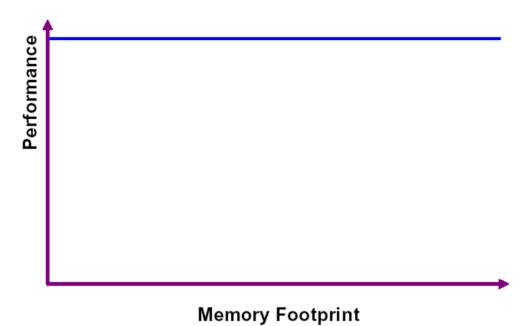
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The Memory Hierarchy



The Memory Hierarchy

Intuitive Performance Graph:

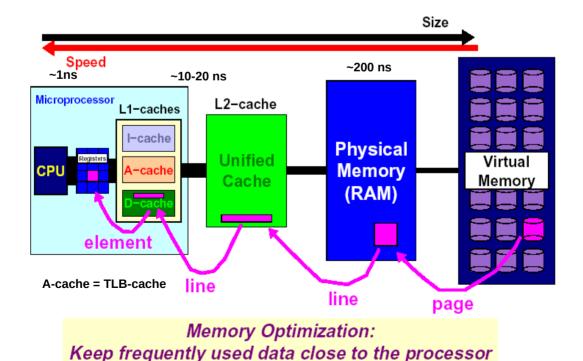




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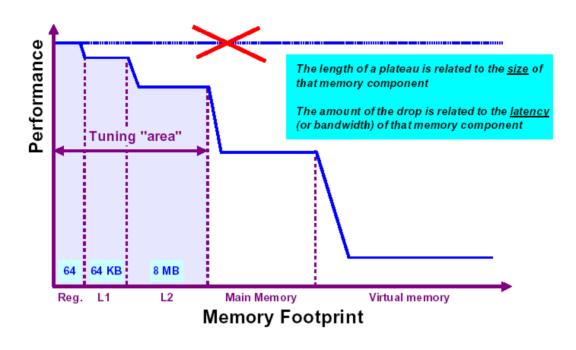
The Memory Hierarchy





The Memory Hierarchy

Performance is not uniform:





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The Memory Hierarchy

- Memory plays a crucial role in performance
- Not accessing memory in the right way will degrade performance on all computer systems
- ☐ The extent of degradation will depend on the system
- Knowledge about the relevant memory characteristics helps to write code that minimizes those problems



Caches – and all that ...

How do those caches work?



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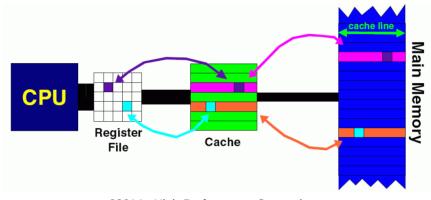
Caches

- Cache memory or cache for short (from French: cacher – to hide): fast buffers that help to hide the memory latency
- One distinguishes between
 - data cache
 - instruction cache
 - address cache (also called TLB Translation Lookaside Buffer) – mapping between virtual and physical addresses



Cache Lines

- To get good performance, optimal use of the caches is crucial
- □ The unit of transfer is a "cache line":
 - linear structure of fixed length (bytes)
 - fixed starting address in memory





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Cache Organisation

Direct Mapped:

- Each memory address maps onto exactly one line in cache
- simple and efficient
- built-in replacement policy
- easy to scale to larger sizes
- downside: no control by usage danger of replacing data that will be needed again soon



Cache Organisation

Fully Associative:

- Every memory address can be mapped anywhere in cache
- Need to track usage of cache lines
- Requires a replacement policy, e.g.
 - □ least recent used (LRU),
 - □ least frequent used (LFU),
 - random, etc
- Doesn't scale well to large sizes
- Costly design



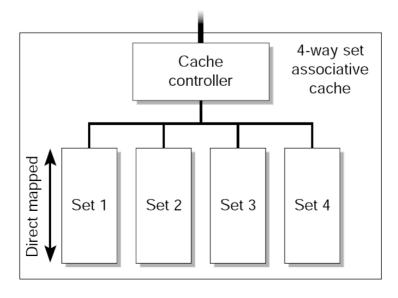
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Cache Organisation

N-way Set Associative:

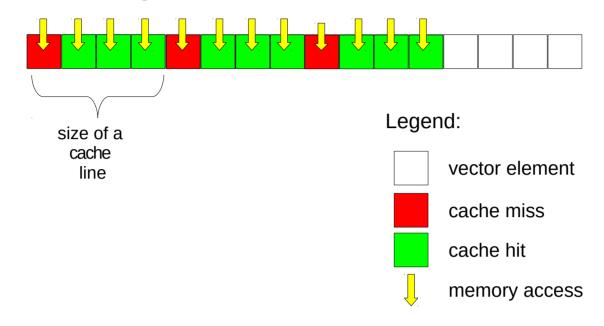
□ Sets of direct mapped caches:





Memory access

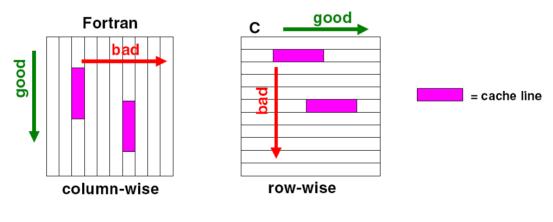
- Memory has a 1-dimensional linear structure
- Accessing vector elements:



Memory access

Access to multi-dimensional arrays depends on how data is stored:

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Bad memory access has a huge impact on performance!!!

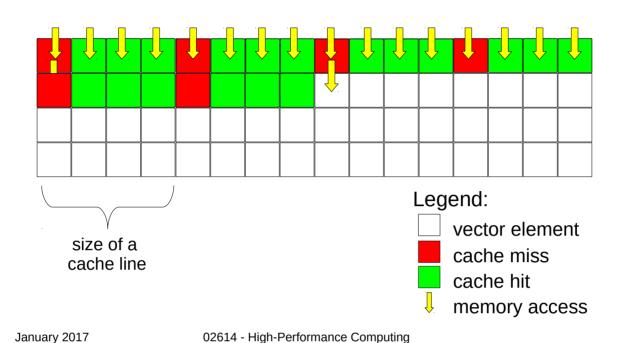


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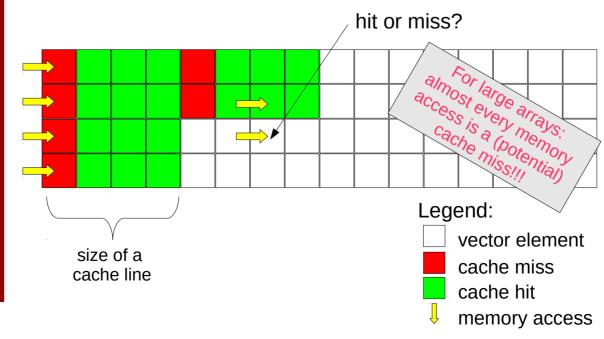
Memory access

Accessing 2d arrays in C – row wise:



Memory access

Accessing 2d arrays in C - column wise:



The TLB cache

- the Translation Lookaside Buffer (TLB) translates virtual memory addresses (in your application) to physical addresses
- also called 'address cache'
- □ unit: page typical size 4kB
- creation of lookup table is an expensive operation
- □ cost: 10 100 clock cycles/miss
- modern CPUs are having advanced TLBs
 - support for variable page sizes

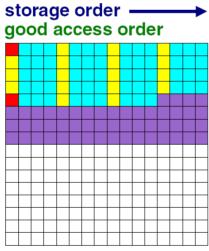


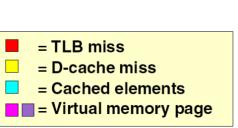
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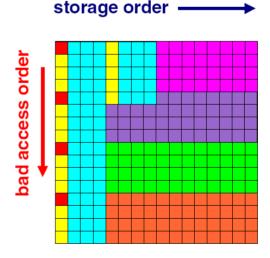
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Memory access – TLB misses







- If the entire matrix fits in the cache, the access pattern hardly matters.
- For large (out-of-cache) matrices, the access pattern <u>does</u> matter – both data cache and TLB misses



About cache misses

Some simple rules:

- □ You cannot avoid cache misses they are part of the nature of cache-based systems ...
- ... but you should try to minimize them to get good performance



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Cache Line Utilization

Two key rules: Maximize ...

- □ Spatial locality ⇒ Use all data in one cache line
 - depends on storage layout
 - depends on access patterns
 - □ stride = 1 is good
 - random access is really bad
- □ Temporal locality ⇒ Re-use data in a cache line
 - depends on algorithm used



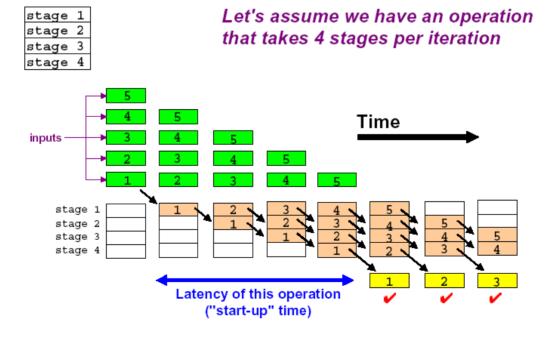
Some Terminology



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Terminology: Pipelining



Rule of thumb: keep the pipeline filled for good performance!



Terminology: Superscalar (or ILP)

- N-way superscalar:
 - Execute N instructions at the same time
- □ This is also called Instruction Level Parallelism (ILP)

	slot 1	slot 2	slot 3	slot 4	
cycle 1 cycle 2 cycle 3 cycle 4 cycle 5		not used	not used		4-way superscalar 3-way superscalar 2-way superscalar 2-way superscalar 3-way superscalar

- □ The hardware has to support this, but it is up to the software to take advantage of it
- Often there are restrictions which instructions can be "bundled"
- These are documented in the Architecture Reference Manual for the microprocessor



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Latency and Bandwidth

Latency:

- the time it takes from the initiation of an action till you have the first result
- unit: time

Bandwidth:

- how many
 - actions can be carried out,
 - results can be obtained,

within a given time

□ unit: #/time



General Optimization Techniques



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Optimization Techniques - Overview

- Most optimization techniques are "loop based"
- Loop based optimizations:
 - Interchange
 - Fission and Fusion
 - Unrolling
 - Blocking



Optimization Techniques - Overview

- Designing your data structures the "right way" can also be important
- Other techniques:
 - De-vectorization
 - Stripmining



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Loop based optimizations



Coding style: array indexing

- To apply safe transformations, the compilers have to analyze data dependencies in a loop
- Explicit expressions will help the compilers to do a good job in loop optimization

```
Good

for(i=0; i<m; i++)

for (j=0; j<n; j++)

.. a[i][j] ..
```

```
(*)Reasonable

for(i=0; i<m; i++)

for (j=0; j<n; j++)

.. a[i*n+j] ..
```

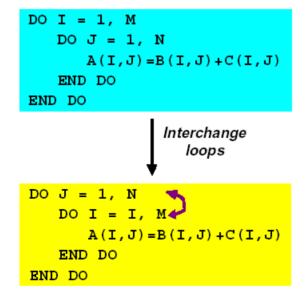
```
for (i=0; i<m; i++)
for (j=0; j<n; j++)
    .. a[indx[i][j]] ..</pre>
```



(*) harder to read for a human, but might be better for the compiler!

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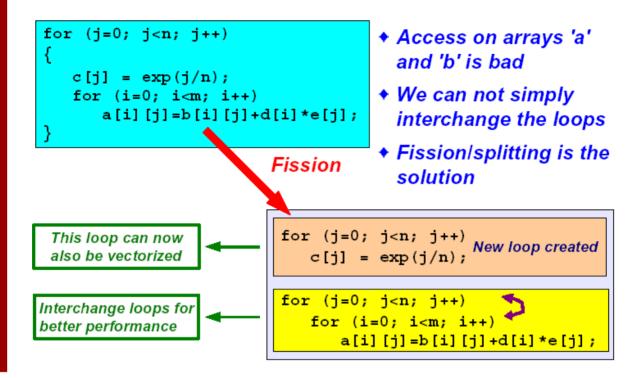
Loop Interchange



- The matrices are accessed over the second dimension first
- This is the wrong order in Fortran
- A loop interchange solves the problem
- In C, the situation is reversed:
 - row access is okay
 - column access is bad



Loop Fission





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Loop Fusion

```
for (i=0; i<n; i++)
   a[i] = 2 * b[i];

for (i=0; i<n; i++)
   c[i] = a[i] + d[i];</pre>
Fusion
```

- Assume that 'n' is large
- In the second loop, a[i] will no longer be in the cache
- Fusing the loops will ensure a[i] is still in the cache when needed

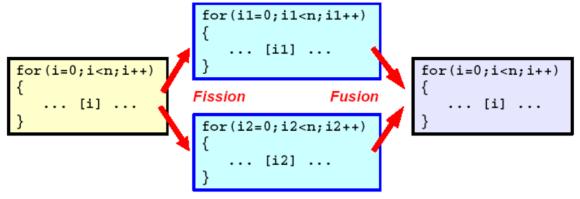
Note that it is possible to apply fusion to loops with (slightly) different boundaries

In such a case, some iterations will have to be 'peeled' off

```
for (i=0; i<n; i++)
{
    a[i] = 2 * b[i];
    c[i] = a[i] + d[i];
}</pre>
```



Fission and Fusion – Summary



Fission

- ✓ Reduce register pressure
- ✓ Enable loop interchange
- ✓ Isolate dependencies
- Increase opportunities for optimization (e.g. vectorization of intrinsics)

Fusion

- ✓ Reduce cache reloads
- ✓ Increase Instruction Level Parallelism (ILP)
- ✓ Reduce loop overhead



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Inner Loop Unrolling

Through unrolling, the loop overhead ('book keeping') is reduced

```
for (i=0; i<n; i++)
    a[i] = b[i] + c[i];

Loop is unrolled
    with a factor of 4

for (i=0; i<n; i+=4)
{
    a[i] = b[i] + c[i];
    a[i+1] = b[i+1] + c[i+1];
    a[i+2] = b[i+2] + c[i+2];
    a[i+3] = b[i+3] + c[i+3];
}
<clean-up loop>
```

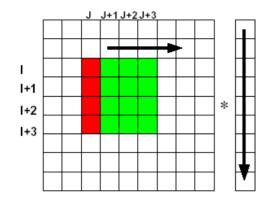
```
Loads : 2
Stores : 1
FP Adds : 1
I=I+1
Test I < N ?
Branch
Addr. incr: 3
```

```
Loads : 8
Stores : 4
FP Adds : 4
I=I+4
Test I < N ?
Branch
Addr. incr: 3
```

Note: the amount of addressing needed in reality is less



Outer Loop Unrolling



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

for (i=0; i<m; i+=4)
  for(j=0; j<n; j++)
  {
    a[i] += b[i][j] * c[j];</pre>
```

a[i+1] += b[i+1][j] * c[j]; a[i+2] += b[i+2][j] * c[j]; a[i+3] += b[i+3][j] * c[j];

- Advantage:
 - c[j] is re-used 3 more times (temporal locality)
- ◆ Deeper unrolling, say 8, requires more fp registers (17 instead of 9), but improves re-use of c[j]



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<clean-up loop>

Outer Loop Unrolling – how to

```
for (1=0; 1< m-m%4; 1+=4)
for (i=0; i< m; i++)
  for(j=0; j<n; j++)
                                    for(j=0; j< n; j++)
   a[i] += b[i][j] * c[j];
                                      a[i] += b[i][j] * c[j];
                                    for(j=0; j<n; j++)
                  Outer loop
                                      a[i+1] += b[i+1][j] * c[j];
                   unrolling
                                    for(j=0; j<n; j++)
                                      a[i+2] += b[i+2][j] * c[j];
                                    for (j=0; j< n; j++)
Unroll and Jam
                                      a[i+3] += b[i+3][j] * c[j];
                                  for (1=m-m%4; 1<m; 1++)
                                                          clean-up loop
                                    for (j=0; j< n; j++)
for (i=0; i< m-m%4; i+=4)
                                      a[1] += b[1][1] * c[1];
  for(j=0; j< n; j++)
                                                     Jam the loops
    a[i] += b[i][j] * c[j];
                                                     together again
    a[i+1] += b[i+1][j] * c[j];
    a[i+2] += b[i+2][j] * c[j];
    a[i+3] += b[i+3][j] * c[j];
for (i=m-m%4; i<m; i++)
                            clean-up loop
  for(j=0; j< n; j++)
    a[i] += b[i][j] * c[j];
```



Loop unrolling - structure

```
(i=0; i< n; i++)
                                          DO I = 1, N
                                                    (I)
              [i] ...
                                          END DO
                          Loop unroll factor
                              is "unroll"
for(i=0;i<n-n%unroll;i+=unroll)</pre>
                                      DO I = 1, N-mod(N,unroll), unroll
                                         ...(I)
                                         ...(I+1)...
    ..[1+1]...
                                         ...(I+2)...
      [1+2]...
                            Unrolled Loop
                                         ...(I+unroll-1)...
   ...[i+unroll-1]...
                            Cleanup Loop
for(i=n-n%unroll;i<n;i++
                                      DO I = N-mod(N,unroll)+1,N
                                         ... (I) ...
   . . . [1] . . .
                                      END DO
```



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Loop Unrolling – Summary

- More than one iteration per loop pass
- Inner loop unrolling:
 - reduce loop overhead
 - better instruction scheduling
- Outer loop unrolling:
 - improve cache line usage (spatial locality)
 - re-use data (temporal locality)
- Disadvantages:
 - more registers needed, clean-up code required



Loop Unrolling – Compilers

- Compilers do usually a good job in loop unrolling
- there are options to control the unroll depth
 - □ Sun: -xunroll=n (1: no unroll, 2..n: unroll n times)
 - □ gcc: -funroll-loops --params max-unroll-times=n
 - Intel: -unroll[n] (0: disable loop unrolling)



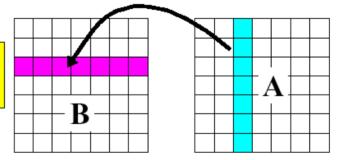
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Loop Blocking – 1

Transposing a matrix

for (j=0; j<n; j++) for (i=0; i<n; i++) b[j][i] = a[i][j];



- ◆ Loop interchange will not help here:
 - Role of 'a' and 'b' will only be interchanged
- ◆ Change of programming language won't help either
- Unrolling the i-loop can be beneficial, but requires more registers and doesn't address TLB-misses
- Loop blocking achieves good memory performance, without the need for additional registers

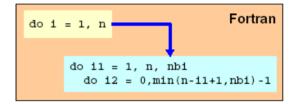


Loop Blocking – 2

Blocking and interchanging the I-loop

```
for(i1=0; i1<n; i1+=nbi)
  for (j=0; j<n; j++)
    for (i2=0;i2<MIN(n-i1,nbi);i2++)
    b[j][i1+i2] = a[i1+i2][j];</pre>
```

- j storage order
- ◆ Parameter 'nbi' is the blocking size
- ◆ Should be chosen as large as possible
- * Actual value depends on the cache to block for:
 - ✓ L1-cache
 - ✓ L2-cache
 - ✓ TLB
 - ٧





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Loop Blocking – Summary

- Powerful technique to improve:
 - memory access (spatial locality)
 - data re-use (temporal locality)
- Preserves portability but blocking size depends on:
 - cache type/level/capacity
 - data requirements



Loop Blocking – Summary

Recommendations:

- choose blocking size as large as possible
- leave space for other data
- parameterize cache characteristics, especially size



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Tricked by the compiler

Fortran code example: long and bulky loop

```
DO I1=1, NAT (IMT)

IA1=IM1+(I1-1)*3

DO I2=1, NAT (JMT)

IA2=IM2+(I2-1)*3

... statements removed ...

DX(1)=XNOW(IMT, IA1+1)-XNOW(JMT, IA2+1)

DX(2)=XNOW(IMT, IA1+2)-XNOW(JMT, IA2+2)

DX(3)=XNOW(IMT, IA1+3)-XNOW(JMT, IA2+3)

CX(1)=CM1(1)-CM2(1)

CX(2)=CM1(2)-CM2(2)

CX(3)=CM1(3)-CM2(3)

... statements removed ...

ENDDO

ENDDO
```

Moved the 3 lines above the DO loops – no improvement! Compiler had done this already!



Only the programmer knows ...

```
subroutine do calc(...)
subroutine do calc(...)
                            real(8), dimension(N, M, O, P) :: r, s, t
real(8), dimension(N, M, O, P):
                            !---- data initialization
!--- data initialization r = 0.0d0; s = 0.0d0
r = 0.0d0; s = 0.0d0; t = 0
                            select case(calc type)
select case(calc type)
                               case (most of the time)
   case(most of the time)
                                 r(i,j,k,l) = r(i,j,k,l) + ...
     r(i,j,k,l) = r(i,j,k,l)
                                 s(i,j,k,l) = s(i,j,k,l) + .
     s(i,j,k,l) = s(i,j,k,l)
                               case(rare event)
   case(rare event)
                                 t = 0.0d0
     r(i,j,k,l) = r(i,j,k,l)
                                 r(i,j,k,l) = r(i,j,k,l) + ...
     s(i,j,k,l) = s(i,j,k,l)
                                 s(i,j,k,l) = s(i,j,k,l) + ...
    |t(i,j,k,l)| = t(i,j,k,l)
                                 t(i,j,k,l) = t(i,j,k,l) + ...
end select
                            end select
```

Data structure design

Access your data in the right way



- "Good advice" from a HPC tutorial: Use data structures to avoid too many index calculations
- □ Example: particle simulation in 3D with x, y, z coordinates and some other information about each particle, e.g. distance to i+1

```
x[i], y[i], z[i], distance[i],
someinfo[][i]
```

uturn this into a data structure ...



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Data structure design

□ Particle data structure

```
typedef struct particle {
    double x, y, z;
    char someinfo[NBYTES];
    double distance;
} particle_t;
```

□ Is this a good idea?



- Answer: It depends ...
 - ... on problem size
 - ... how you access the data
 - □ ... cache, CPU, etc.
- □ Example: program with 2 functions/routines
 - calc() accesses all parts of particle_t
 - re-use() accesses particle.distance only
 - usage ratio of both functions is 1:1



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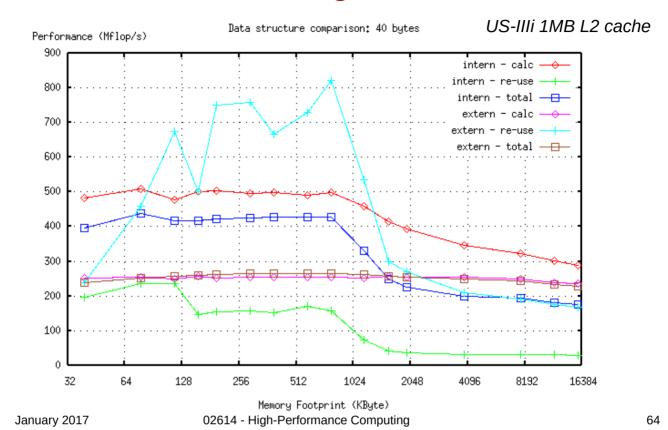
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Data structure design

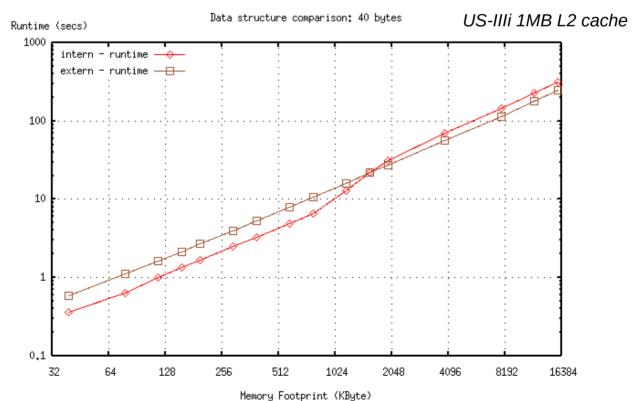
Comparison – two versions:

- □ intern use data structure from above
- extern distance peeled off the data structure as an external vector
- different problem sizes:
 - number of particles
 - size of data structure
- 2 different L2 cache sizes



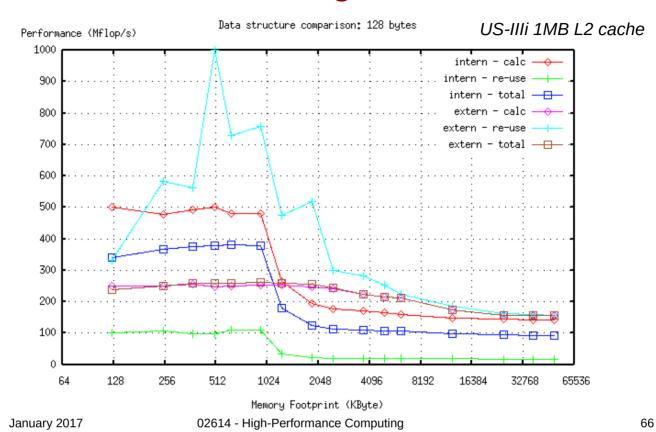


Data structure design

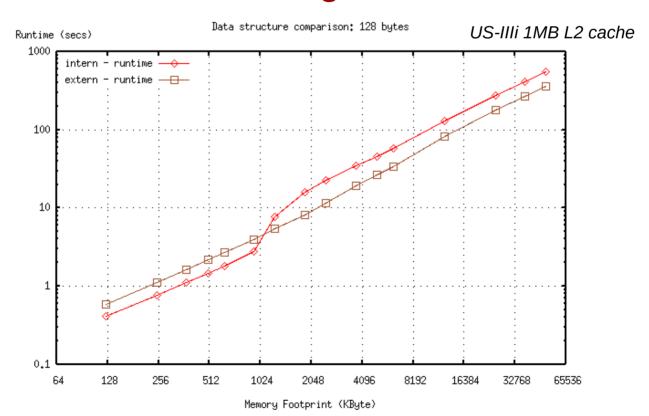




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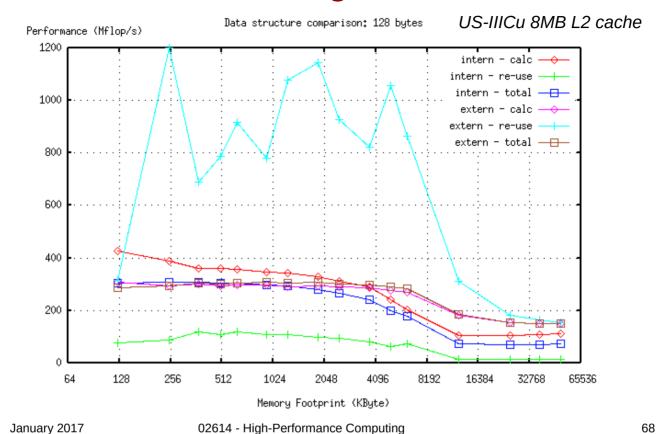


Data structure design

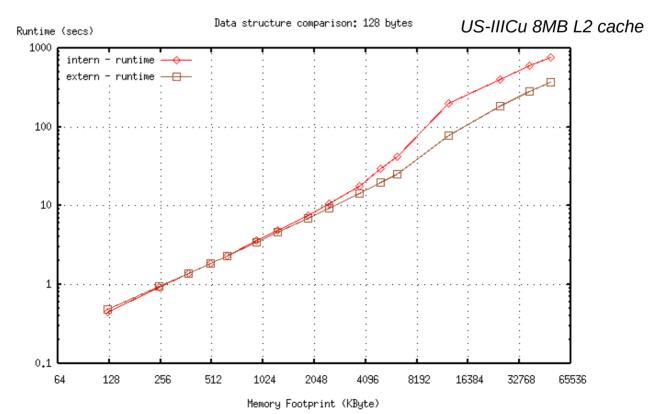




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