

ECE-GY 9143

# Introduction to High Performance Machine Learning

**Lecture 2 02/04/2023**

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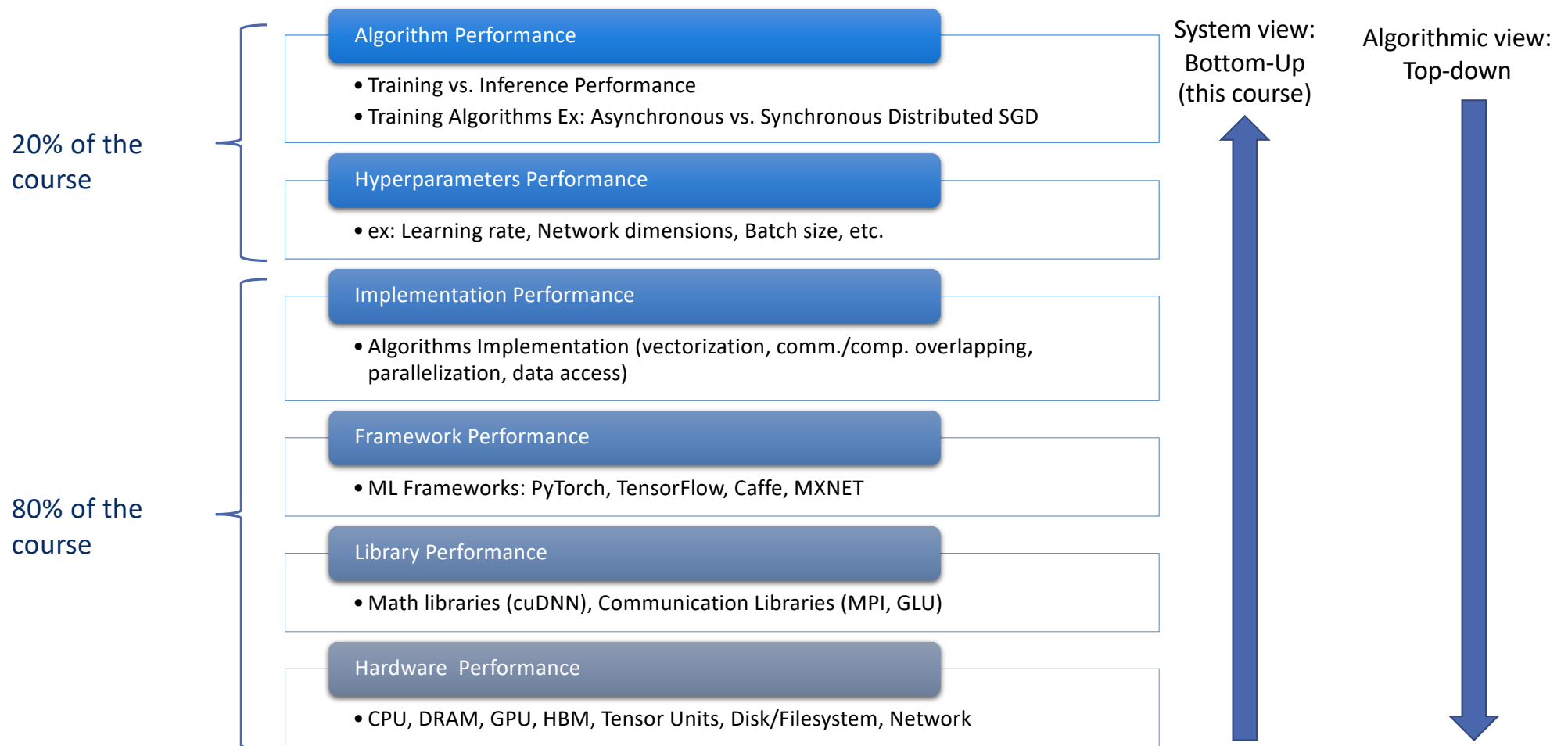
# ML Performance Optimization

# Agenda

- Problem definition
- System vs. Algorithmic view
- Performance Optimization Methodology:
  - Measurement
  - Analysis
  - Optimization

# System vs. Algorithmic view

# ML Performance Factors



# A couple of examples

- Implementation Performance:
  - too many mallocs() in C (or *new* in C++): easily 10 – 100x slowdown
- Algorithmic Performance:
  - Search 1 element in 10 billion stored in an array
    - Linear search:  $O(n)$  – average: about 5 billions comparisons expected (\*)
    - Binary search:  $O(\log n)$  – average: about 32 comparisons expected (\*)

(\*) Assuming exactly one matching element exists and elements are uniformly distributed

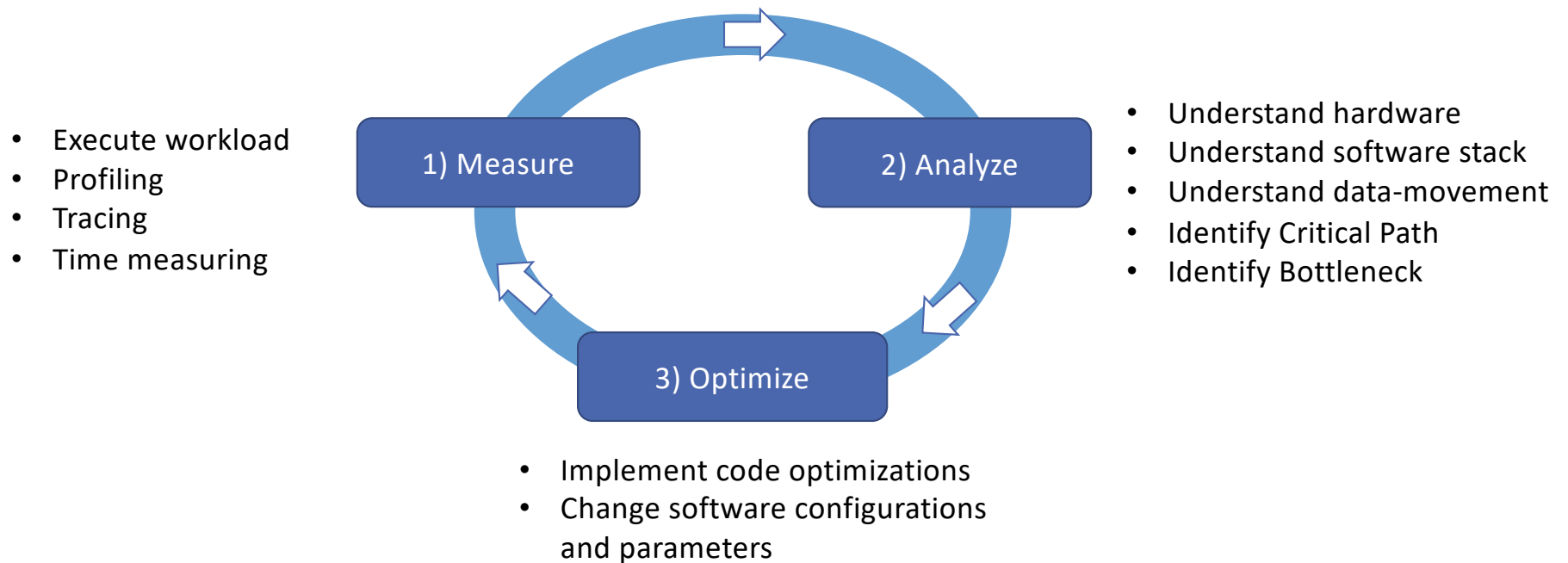
# Software Performance Optimization

# ML Performance Optimization Definition

- Software Performance Optimization for ML
  - Given:
    - A **system** (ex: NYU Compute node + PyTorch)
    - An **algorithm** (ex: Distributed SGD training) + **hyperparameters**
    - A **dataset** (ex: CIFAR100)
  - Obtain the **maximum** performance



# Performance Optimization Methodology



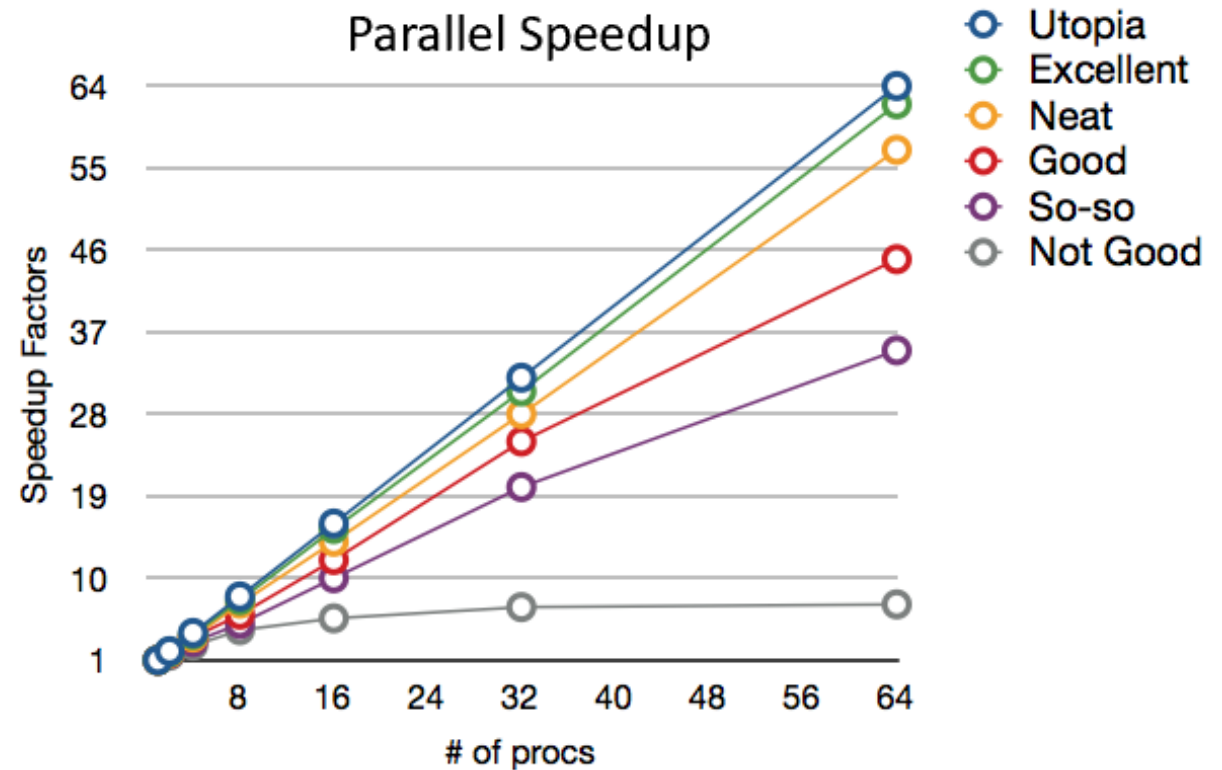
# Performance optimization methodology (1): Measurement

# What is performance?

- Basic metrics:
  - Execution time:  $t$  (for a single operation is called **latency**)
- Derived metrics:
  - Throughput:  $\frac{\# \text{ operations}}{t}$  or  $\frac{\# \text{ programs}}{t}$
  - FLOPS:  $\frac{\# \text{ floating\_point\_operations}}{t}$  (<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/FLOPS>)

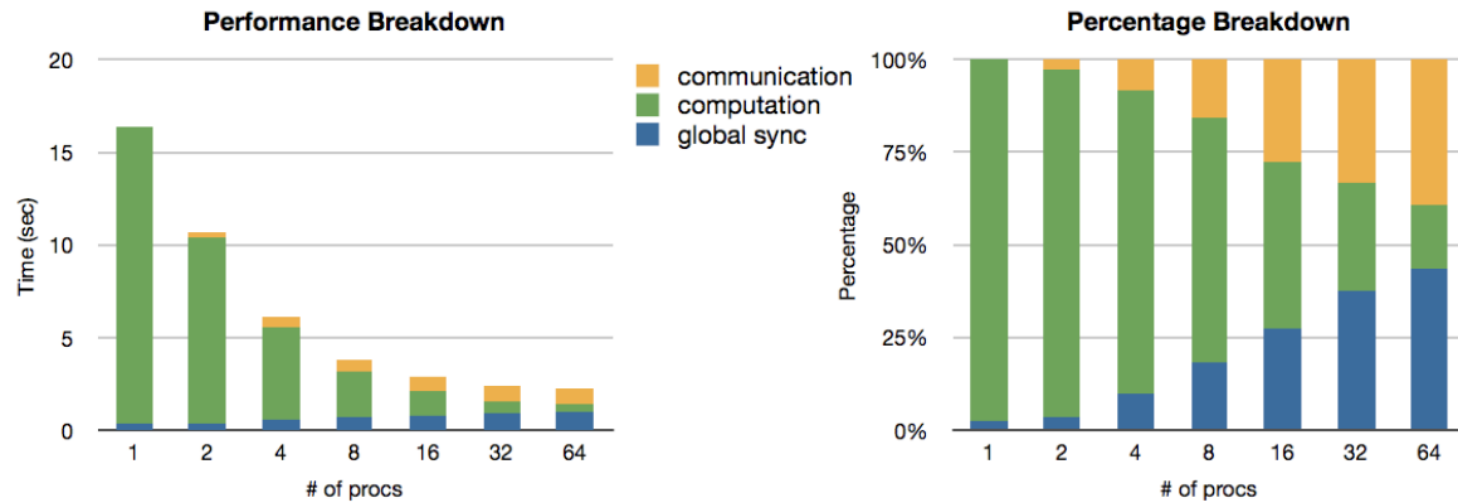
# Speedup

- Speedup of B w.r.t. A:  $\frac{t_A}{t_B}$
- Parallel Speedup:  $\frac{t_{serial}}{t_{parallel}}$
- Slowdown is inverse of Speedup



from: [http://web.eecs.utk.edu/~huangj/hpc/hpc\\_intro.php](http://web.eecs.utk.edu/~huangj/hpc/hpc_intro.php)

# “Not Good” speedup



# Scalability

- **Scaling Efficiency**

- $E = \frac{t_{serial}}{t_{parallel} * p} \leq 1$        $p$  is the number of processes/threads/...

- **Strong Scaling:** Constant problem size while increasing  $p$

- How the solution time varies with the number of processors for a fixed total problem size.
  - Increasing synchronization cost, but fixed amount of work

- **Weak Scaling:** Increasing problem size proportional to  $p$

- Weak scaling is defined as how the solution time varies with the number of processors for a fixed problem size per processor.
  - Work per process is constant
  - Increasing synchronization cost, increasing work

# Weak vs. Strong Scaling

Assume Serial program that solves a problem size  $P$  in time  $T$

E.g., Protein folding simulation in an hour

## Weak Scaling

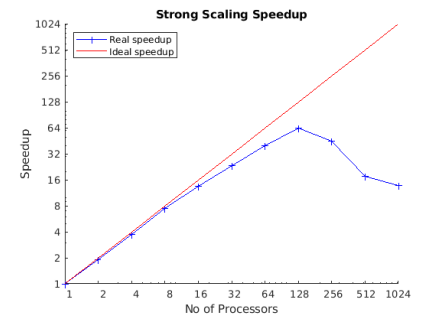
Weak scaling: run a larger problem or more problems within  $T$

- E.g., fold a bigger protein or more small ones in an hour

## Strong Scaling

Strong scaling: run a problem faster than  $T$

- E.g. fold the same protein in a min



# What Scaling?

- When my problem continues to increase in size, I can still solve the problem within the same amount of time by simply dedicating proportionally more resources at it.
- When my problem stays at the same size, I can solve the problem 10 times faster by dedicating 10 times more resources.



# Computing Averages

- Average Execution Time

- Arithmetic mean:  $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n t_i$

- Average Performance or Throughput

- If  $t$  is held constant  $\Rightarrow$  Arithmetic mean
- If  $\#operations$  is held constant  $\Rightarrow$  Harmonic mean:

$$\frac{n}{\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{t_i}{\#operations}}$$

- Average Speedup, Slowdown or any Ratio

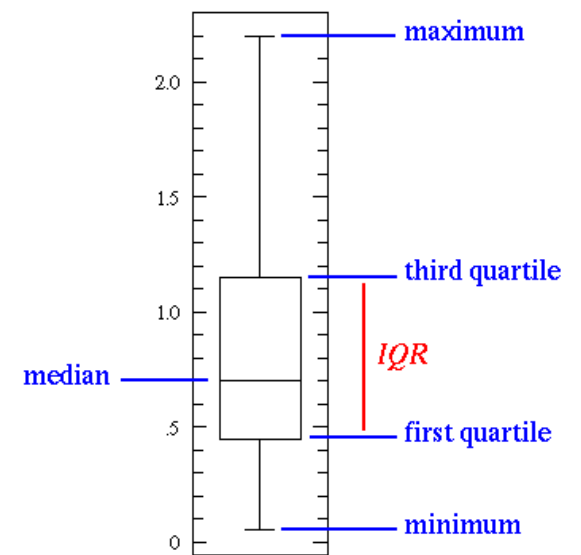
- Geometric mean:  $\sqrt[n]{\prod_{i=1}^n speedup_i}$

# Benchmarking Workloads

- Benchmarks in ascending order of complexity:
  1. Micro-kernels: test a specific processor feature  
Examples: Floating point, L1 Cache, L2 Cache,
  2. Micro-benchmark: small program from a programming assignment  
Examples: Merge sort in isolation
  3. Kernels: a specific algorithm in a real program  
Examples: Quicksort, Binary Search, DGEMM, DAXPY with context
  4. Synthetic Benchmarks: try to reproduce the workload of a class of applications  
Examples: Dhrystone, Linpack
  5. Real Applications: a real application used for a specific purpose  
Examples: Word, MySQL, NAMD (Molecular Dynamics)
  6. Real Workflows: a set of applications working together  
Example: CANDLE workflow

# Measuring and Reporting Performance

- Reproducibility
  - Always include absolute execution time
  - Report relevant hardware and software info:
    - CPU, Memory, Network, Disk, etc.
    - Experiment configuration
    - Code, Pseudo code
    - Compiler ver., Compilation Flags, Libraries ver., OS ver.
- Accuracy
  - Repetitions: 5, 10, 100, ... (depends on variability)
  - If high-variability results:
    - Try to understand why and reduce it
    - Include stddev, variance, max-min, inter-quartile range
    - Use box-plot for chart representation as shown in figure

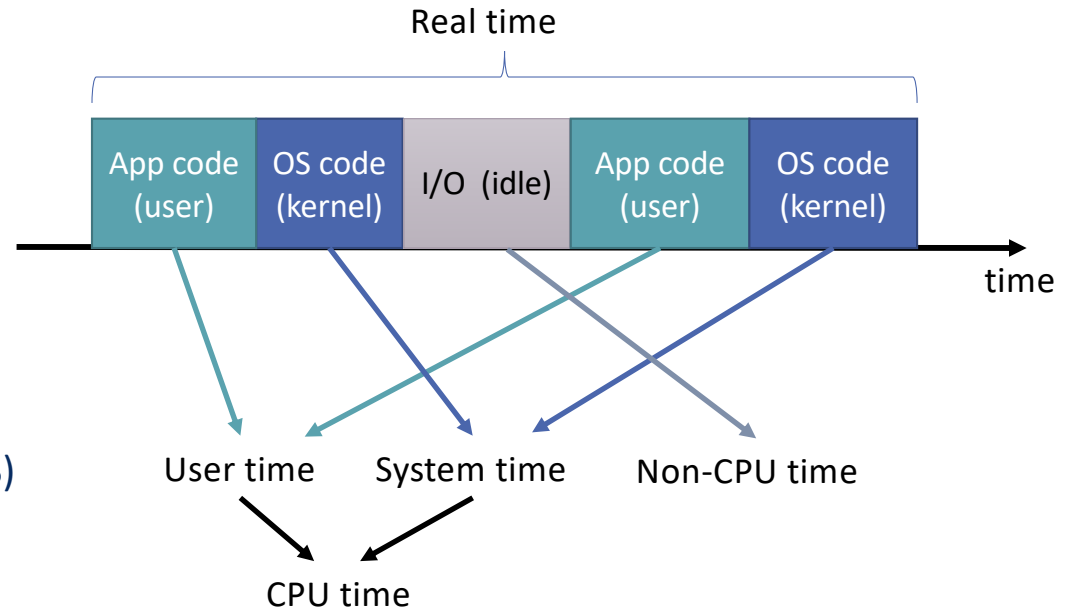


# Basic and advanced measurement techniques

- Basic:
  - Time measurement
  - Application Throughput
  - Breakdown phases or iterations
- Advanced:
  - Profiling
  - Tracing

# Time definitions

- **Real (or Wall Clock or Elapsed) Time** : actual elapsed time from a point in the past
- **CPU (or Process) Time**: time spent executing CPU instructions
  - **User Time** : time spent in user space
  - **System Time** : time spent in kernel space (OS)
- **Non-CPU Time**: time spent waiting (idle CPU) for: I/O, Virtualization, etc.



[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/CPU\\_time](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/CPU_time)

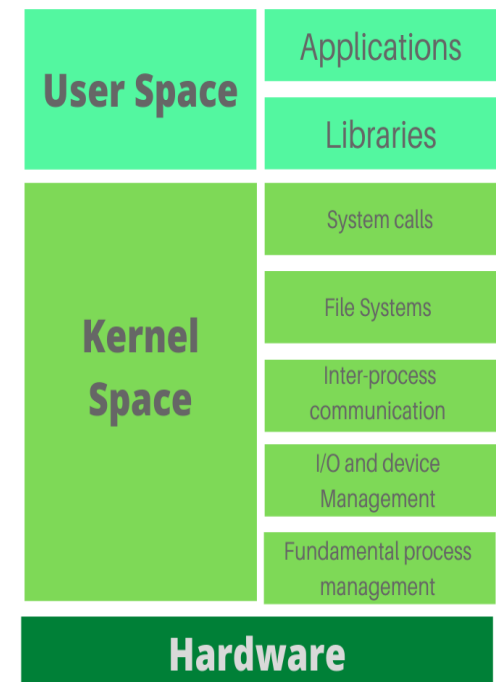
# Time Measurement - Linux

- *time* command - Real, User and System times

```
$ time ./executable
```

```
real    0m1.057s
user    0m1.015s
sys     0m0.000s
```

- millisecond granularity, accuracy may vary betw
- $\text{real} \geq \text{user} + \text{sys}$



# Time measurement in C

- `clock_gettime(CLOCK_MONOTONIC,..)` - Real time
  - Nanosecond granularity - measuring in usec:

```
#include <time.h>
struct timespec start, end;

clock_gettime(CLOCK_MONOTONIC, &start);
<CODE TO MEASURE>
clock_gettime(CLOCK_MONOTONIC, &end);

double time_usec = (((double)end.tv_sec * 1000000 + (double)end.tv_nsec / 1000)
    - ((double)start.tv_sec * 1000000 + (double)start.tv_nsec / 1000));
printf("a=%d time: %.03lf\n", a, time_usec);
```

- <http://btorpey.github.io/blog/2014/02/18/clock-sources-in-linux/>

# Execution Time measurement in Python

- Real Time:

- granularity fractions of seconds – printing in seconds (Python 3.3)

```
import time

start=time.monotonic()
<CODE TO MEASURE>
end=time.monotonic()

print("time: " + str(end-start))
```

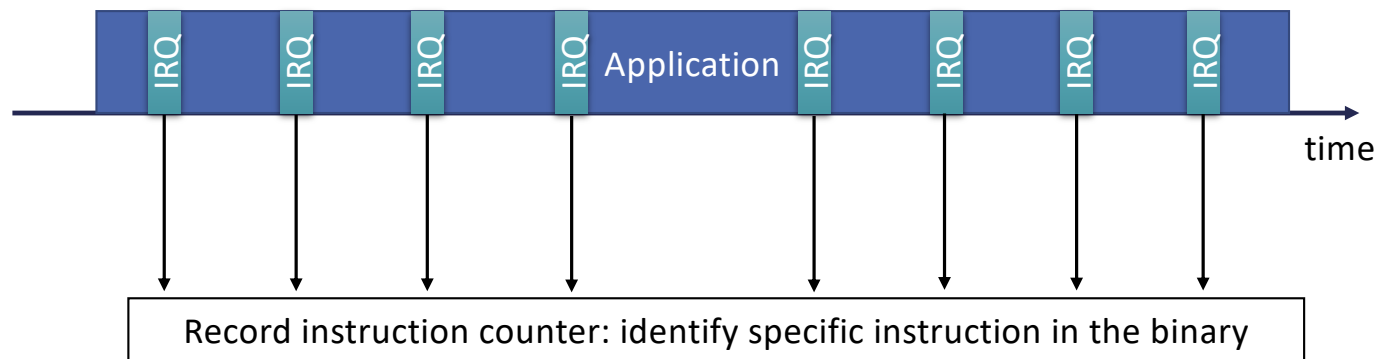
- From Python 3.7: *time.monotonic\_ns()* (granularity in nanoseconds)
  - <https://docs.python.org/3.7/library/time.html>



# Profiling

- Sampling:
  - Sample applications during execution to infer a statistical distribution:  
Example: approximate time spent in each instruction of the code
- Counting:
  - Count exact events
  - Software counters (implemented in kernel): count specific events
    - Example: count number of memory allocations (malloc())
  - **Hardware performance counters (aka Performance Counters)**
    - Counters maintained in registers
    - Examples: count number of L2 misses, Floating-point ops, Integer ops, number of branch mispredictions

# Profiling - Sampling



- IRQ (interrupt request): interruption of the application to execute a different routine
- Profiling uses IRQs to register instruction counter and other metrics at regular intervals
- Relatively low-overhead, depending on IRQ frequency

# Profiling – Sampling 1

```
int
main() {
    long i,a=1;
    for ( i=0; i<1000000; i++)
        a += a*i;
    return a;
}
```

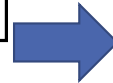


- Example of Linux *perf annotate*
  - Annotated code showing time percentage
  - All the time associated with only 2 instructions ?
  - <https://perf.wiki.kernel.org/index.php/Tutorial>

```
main /mnt/nfs/nfsshare/user_howes/ufsecond/HPML/dummy
Percent
Disassembly of section .text:
00000000004004cd <main>:
main():
    push    %rbp
    mov     %rsp,%rbp
    movq    $0x1,-0x10(%rbp)
    movq    $0x0,-0x8(%rbp)
    ↓ jmp    2f
16: mov     -0x8(%rbp),%rax
    lea     0x1(%rax),%rdx
    mov     -0x10(%rbp),%rax
    imul    %rdx,%rax
    mov     %rax,-0x10(%rbp)
    addq    $0x1,-0x8(%rbp)
2f: cmpq    $0xf423f,-0x8(%rbp)
    ↑ jle    16
    mov     -0x10(%rbp),%rax
    pop     %rbp
    ← retq
```

# Profiling – Sampling 2

```
int
main() {
    long i,a=1;
    for ( i=0; i<1000000000UL; i++)
        a += a*i;
    return a;
}
```



- *Linux perf annotate*

- Annotated code showing time percentage
- More samples => more realistic time association
- <https://perf.wiki.kernel.org/index.php/Tutorial>

```
main /mnt/nfs/nfsshare/user_homes/ufsecond/HPML/dummy
Percent
Disassembly of section .text:
00000000004004cd <main>:
main():
    push    %rbp
    mov     %rsp,%rbp
    movq    $0x1,-0x10(%rbp)
    movq    $0x0,-0x8(%rbp)
    ↓ jmp    2f
    0.04 16: mov     -0x8(%rbp),%rax
    0.04    lea     0x1(%rax),%rdx
    75.86    mov     -0x10(%rbp),%rax
    11.99    imul    %rdx,%rax
    0.16    mov     %rax,-0x10(%rbp)
    0.04    addq    $0x1,-0x8(%rbp)
    0.56 2f: mov     -0x8(%rbp),%rax
    11.31    cmp     $0x3b9ac9ff,%rax
    ↑ jbe    16
    mov     -0x10(%rbp),%rax
    pop     %rbp
    ← retq
```

# Profiling on a different system

Sampling 1

main /root/a.out	
Percent	
Disassembly of section .text:	
00000000000005fa <main>:	
main():	
	push %rbp
	mov %rsp,%rbp
	movq \$0x1,-0x8(%rbp)
	movq \$0x0,-0x10(%rbp)
	↓ jmp 2f
16:	mov -0x10(%rbp),%rax
	lea 0x1(%rax),%rdx
	mov -0x8(%rbp),%rax
20.00	imul %rdx,%rax
40.00	mov %rax,-0x8(%rbp)
40.00	addq \$0x1,-0x10(%rbp)
2f:	cmpq \$0xf423f,-0x10(%rbp)
	↑ jle 16
	mov -0x8(%rbp),%rax
	pop %rbp
	← retq

Sampling 2

main /root/a.out	
Percent	
Disassembly of section .text:	
00000000000005fa <main>:	
main():	
	push %rbp
	mov %rsp,%rbp
	movq \$0x1,-0x8(%rbp)
	movq \$0x0,-0x10(%rbp)
	↓ jmp 2f
12.47	16: mov -0x10(%rbp),%rax
	lea 0x1(%rax),%rdx
	mov -0x8(%rbp),%rax
36.73	imul %rdx,%rax
37.95	mov %rax,-0x8(%rbp)
12.38	addq \$0x1,-0x10(%rbp)
	2f: mov -0x10(%rbp),%rax
	cmp \$0x3b9ac9ff,%rax
0.46	↑ jbe 16
	mov -0x8(%rbp),%rax
	pop %rbp
	← retq

# Profiling Call Trees

```
extern int fa(unsigned size) {
    unsigned j,tmp=0;
    for (j=0;j<size;j++) {
        tmp+=j; tmp = tmp%5555555;
    }
}
extern int fsmall(unsigned size) {
    return fa(size);
}
extern int flarge(unsigned size) {
    return fa(size);
}
int main(void) {
    unsigned j, tmp;
    for (j=0;j<1000;j++) {
        tmp += fsmall(10);
        tmp += flarge(1000000);
    }
    return tmp;
}
```

## Gprof, RHEL7.6

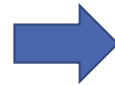
index	%time	self	children	called	name
[1]	100.0	0.00	65.56		main[1]
	0.00	32.78		1000/1000	fsmall[4]
	0.00	32.78		1000/1000	flarge[3]

- Gprof only samples the last stack entry
- Assembles call chains incrementally
- Assumes all calls to the same function F take the same time to derive call tree annotation!

[https://ftp.gnu.org/old-gnu/Manuals/gprof-2.9.1/html\\_chapter/gprof\\_5.html](https://ftp.gnu.org/old-gnu/Manuals/gprof-2.9.1/html_chapter/gprof_5.html)

# Tracing

```
int main(int argc, char **argv) {  
    RECORD_TRACE_EVENT("after_main");  
    struct timespec start, end;  
    int i,a=1;  
    clock_gettime(CLOCK_MONOTONIC,&start);  
    RECORD_TRACE_EVENT("before_loop");  
    for ( i=0; i < 1000000000; i++) {  
        RECORD_TRACE_EVENT("in_loop");  
        a += a*i;  
    }  
    RECORD_TRACE_EVENT("after_loop");  
    clock_gettime(CLOCK_MONOTONIC,&end);  
    RECORD_TRACE_EVENT("before_return");  
    return 0;  
}
```



## TRACE Example

usec	event
[000012]	after_main
[000013]	before_loop
[000021]	in_loop
[000024]	in_loop
...	...
[012122]	in_loop
[012132]	after_loop
[012223]	before_return

- Explicit code instrumentation with tracing primitives
- Higher overhead than profiling
- Linux perf tracing can be applied to any code: Applications, Runtime, Kernel, Etc.
- Tracing utilities: strace (trace system calls made by an application), ftrace (trace execution flow of kernel functions)

# strace

Strace monitors the system calls and signals of a specific program. It is helpful when you do not have the source code and would like to debug the execution of a program. strace provides you the execution sequence of a binary from start to end.

```
$ strace -e open ls
open("/etc/ld.so.cache", O_RDONLY) = 3
open("/lib/libselinux.so.1", O_RDONLY) = 3
open("/lib/librt.so.1", O_RDONLY) = 3
open("/lib/libacl.so.1", O_RDONLY) = 3
open("/lib/libc.so.6", O_RDONLY) = 3
open("/lib/libdl.so.2", O_RDONLY) = 3
open("/lib/libpthread.so.0", O_RDONLY) = 3
open("/lib/libattr.so.1", O_RDONLY) = 3
open("/proc/filesystems", O_RDONLY|O_LARGEFILE) = 3
open("/usr/lib/locale/locale-archive", O_RDONLY|O_LARGEFILE) = 3
open(".", O_RDONLY|O_NONBLOCK|O_LARGEFILE|O_DIRECTORY|O_CLOEXEC) = 3
Desktop Documents Downloads examples.desktop libflashplayer.so
Music Pictures Public Templates Ubuntu_OS Videos
```

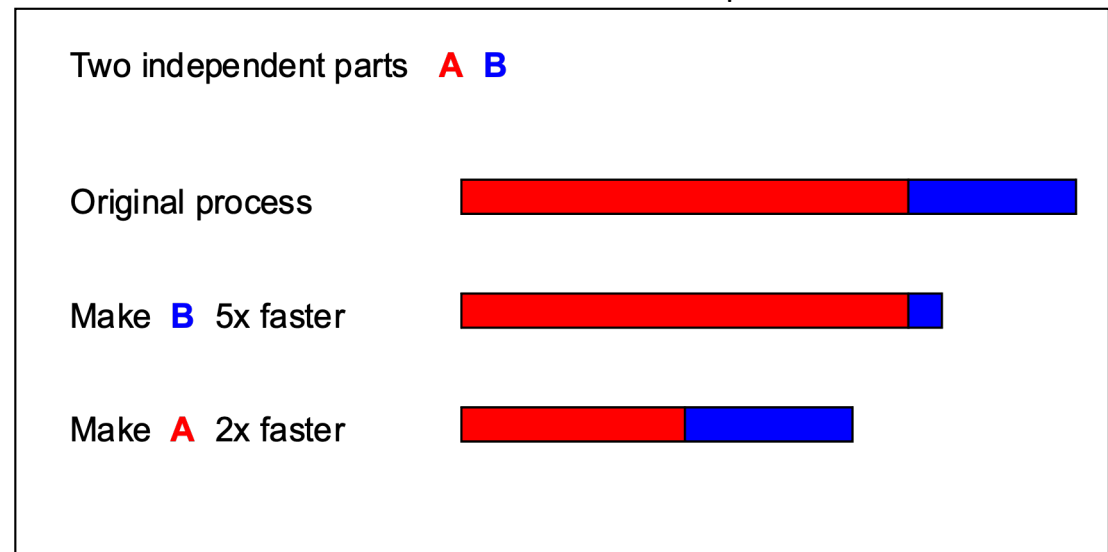


# Performance optimization methodology (2): Analysis

# Amdahl's Law

- $S(p, s) = \frac{1}{(1-p) + p/s}$ 
  - $S$ : speedup of the entire application (or runtime, OS, etc.)
  - $p$ : portion of the execution time that is spent in the code section before improvement (if time for  $p$  is high the section is called **critical section**)
  - $s$ : speedup of the improved code section
- Overall speedup is limited by how much time the improved code takes compared to the rest

Amdahl's law effect example



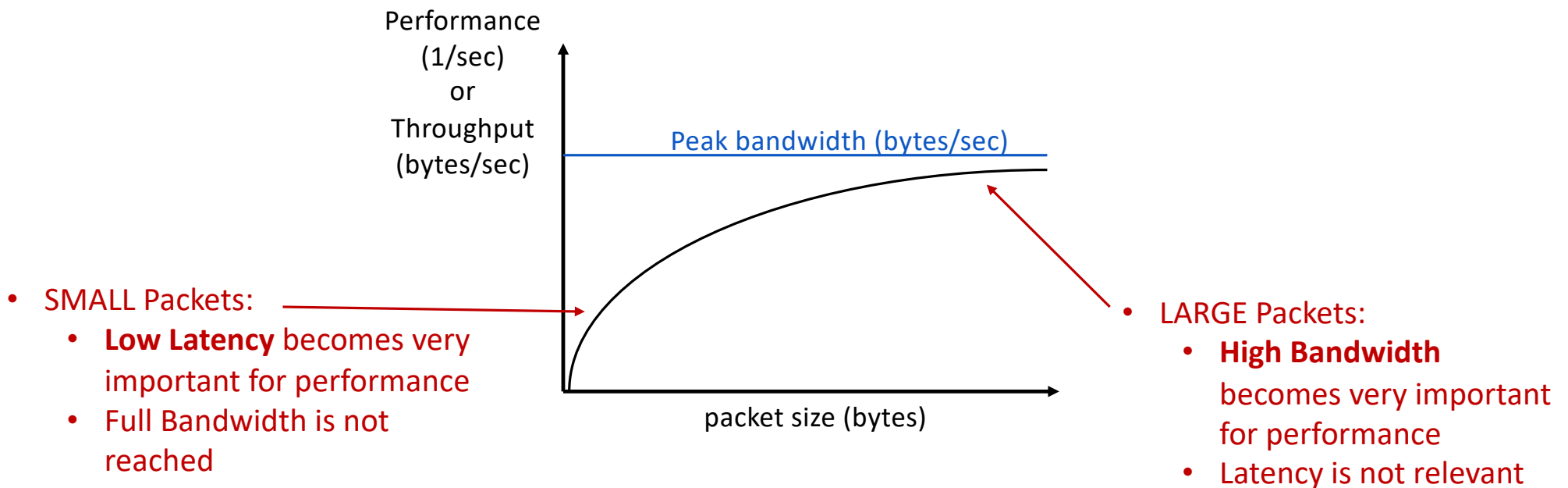
From: [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Amdahl%27s\\_law](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Amdahl%27s_law)

# Performance Analysis Step

1. Identify **Critical Path**: the section of the program that accounts for most of the time (high value of Amdahl's  $p$  )
  - Critical Path characteristics: very slow to execute (high latency) and/or executed many times
  - Use output of performance measurement step (profiling, tracing, etc.)
  - Verify hypothesis of critical path: comment code and run again
2. Identify the **Bottleneck**: the **system resource** that affects the execution time of the critical path
  - Need to understand software/hardware architecture
  - Bottleneck type: **Data Movement** vs. **Computation**

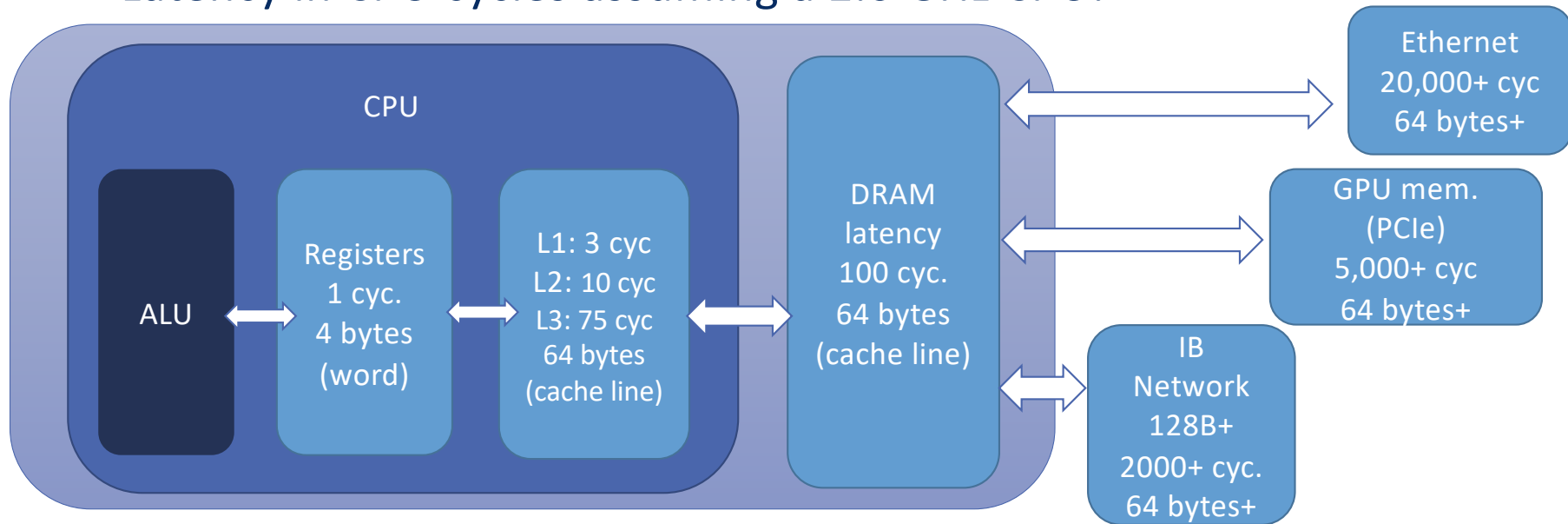
# Data Movement and Packet Size

- True for any **Data Movement**: Network, PCIe, DRAM, etc.



# Data movement Locality Principle - Latency

- Latency in CPU cycles assuming a 2.0 GHz CPU:



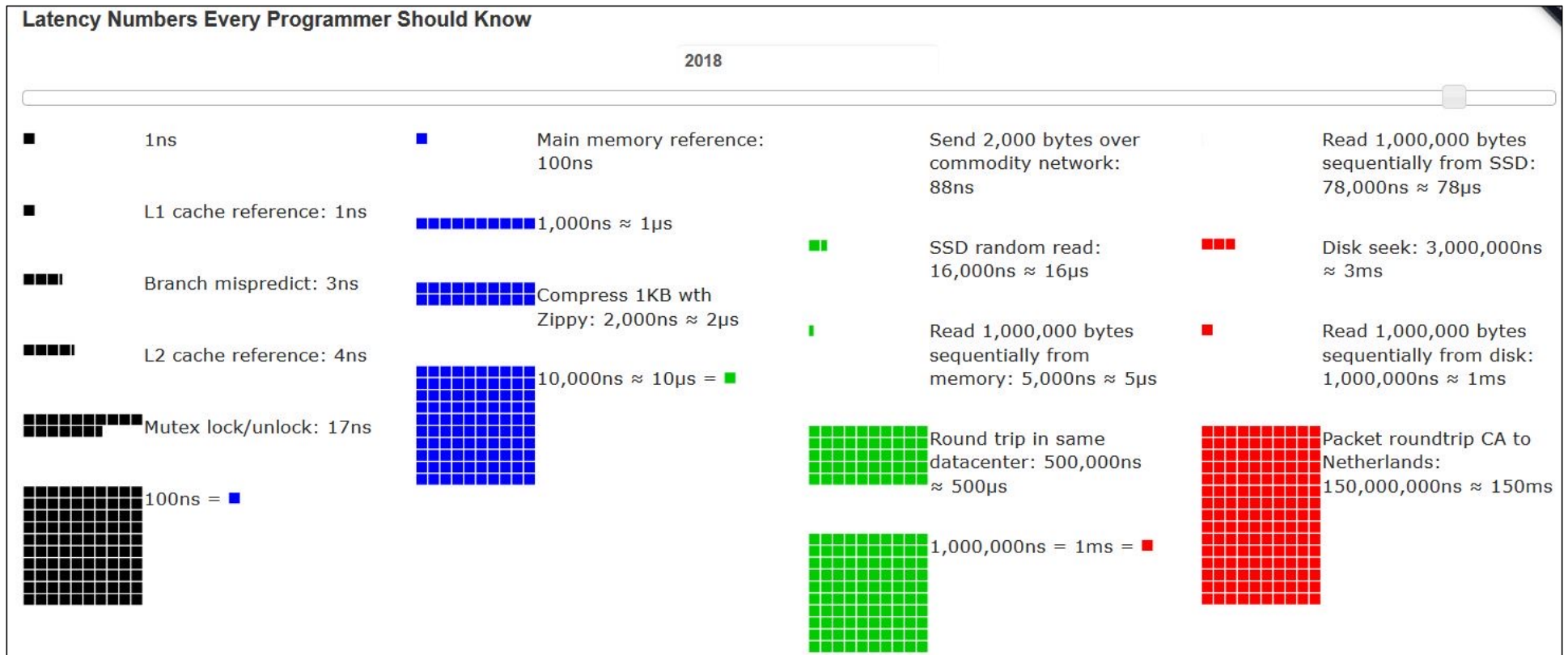
- small granularity
- low latency
- high bandwidth



- large granularity
- high latency
- low bandwidth

**Latencies every programmer should know: [link](#)**

# Latency values over the years – very cool tool!

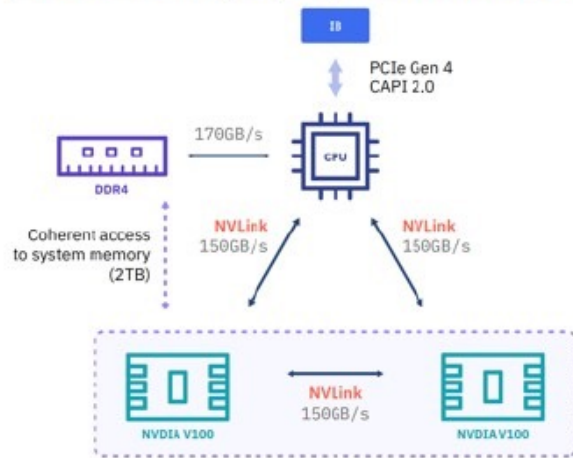


- [https://people.eecs.berkeley.edu/~rcs/research/interactive\\_latency.html](https://people.eecs.berkeley.edu/~rcs/research/interactive_latency.html)

# Data Movement Locality Principle - Bandwidth

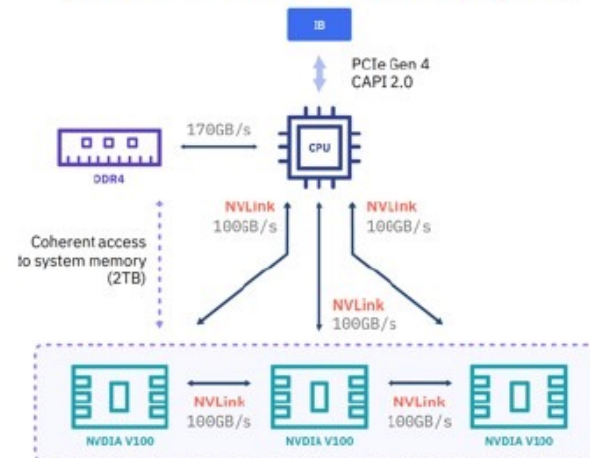
- IBM POWER9 + NVIDIA Volta GPU

## 4 GPUs - Air (4Q'17)/Water Cooled (2Q'18)



- Up to 4 GPUs, air/water cooled options
- 150GB/s of bandwidth from CPU-GPU

## 6 GPUs - Water Cooled (2Q'18)



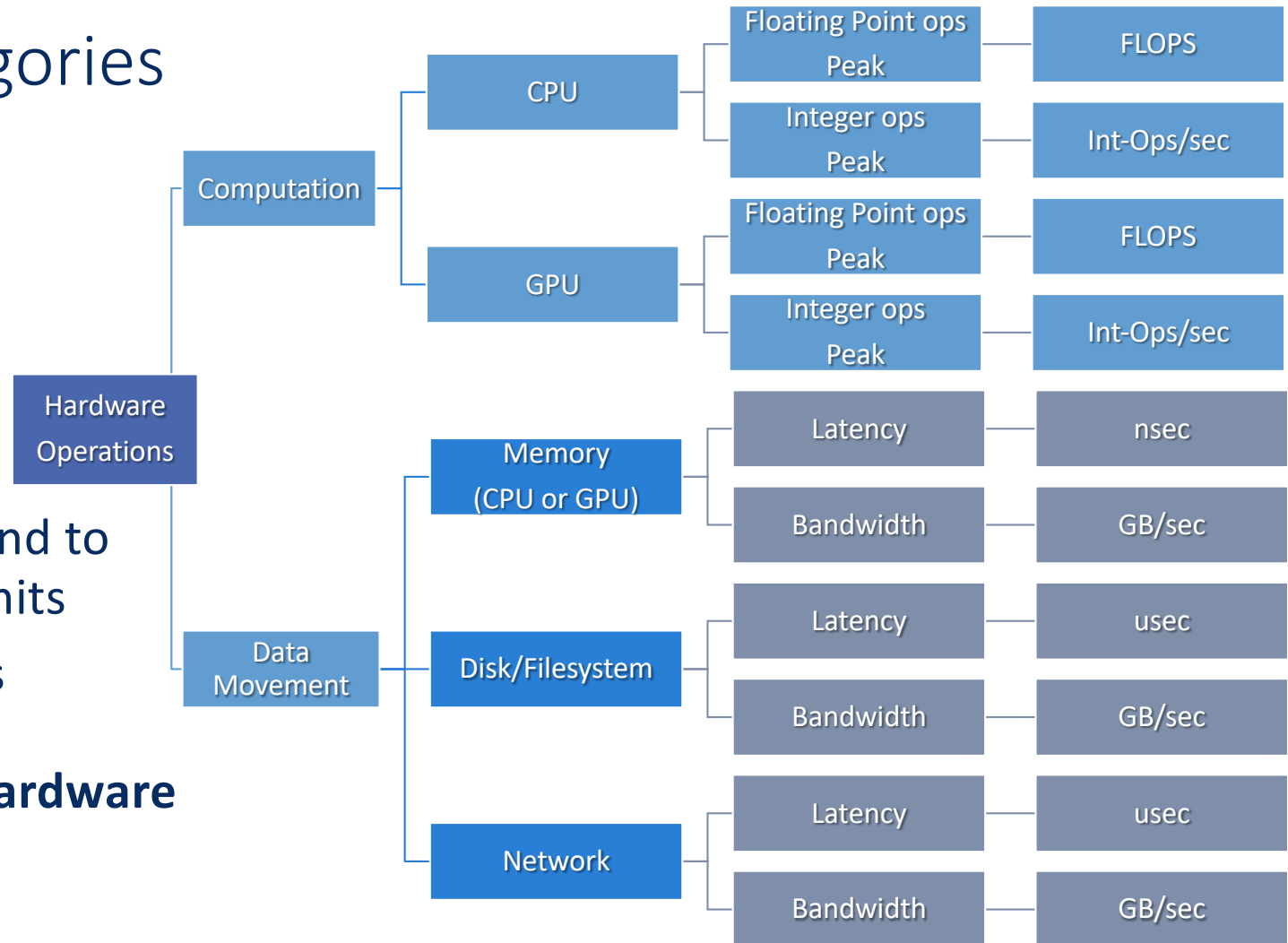
- Up to 6 GPUs, water cooled only
- 100 GB/s of bandwidth from CPU-GPU

- Coherent access to system memory
- PCIe Gen 4 and CAPI 2.0 to InfiniBand
- Water cooled options available in 2Q'18

- (Bi-directional bandwidth)

# Bottleneck categories

- Bottlenecks correspond to specific Hardware Limits
- Performance Analysis Problem: **How far is performance from Hardware Limits?**





# Performance Models Objectives

- Identify performance bottlenecks
- Determines Hardware Limits to Optimization
  - Determines how far we are from hardware limits
  - Motivate algorithmic changes
- Project performance on future hardware or applications

# Peak FLOPS

- Peak FLOPS depend on:
  - Compute unit architecture: CPU, GPU, TPU, FPGA etc.
  - #cores and #threads
  - Clock Frequency
  - Precision: DP (64 bit), SP (32 bit), HP (16 bit)
  - SIMD instructions in the cores: Intel AVX, IBM AltiVec
- CPU formula for Peak FLOPS:  $\#tot\_cores \cdot \frac{cycles}{seconds} \frac{FLOPs}{cycles}$
- see <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/FLOPS>

# Performance Model – Constants (HW specs)

- Examples of HW Specs for the performance model
  - **CPU peak DP/SP FLOPS:** GFLOPS/s
  - **DRAM peak Bandwidth:** GB/s
  - **GPU peak DP FLOPS:** TFLOPS/s
  - **HBM peak Bandwidth:** TB/s
- How to obtain:
  - Vendor hardware specifications
  - Alternative: run micro-benchmarks for compute and memory (lower bounds than specs)

# Performance Model - Variables

- Actual Experimental Measurements :
  - Computation (CPU/GPU) Performance: FLOPS
  - Memory throughput: GB/s or TB/s
- How to measure:
  - FLOPS: **hw performance counters** for FLOP divided by time
  - GB/s: **hw performance counters** for memory-ops divided by time

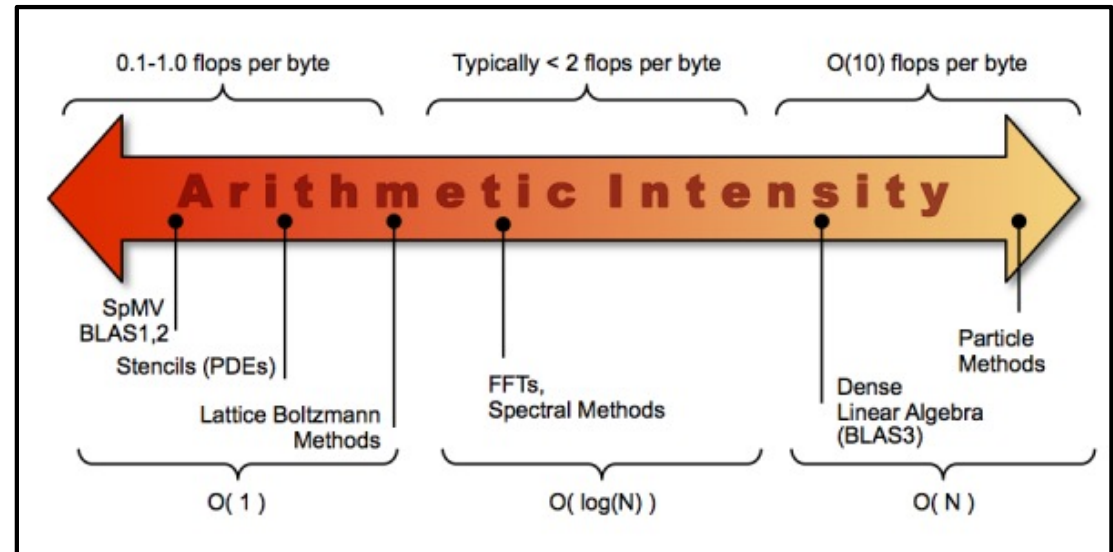
# Roofline Performance Model (1)

- Throughput-based model
- Developed at DOE Lawrence Berkeley Labs
- Metrics:
  - Peak FLOPS
  - Memory Bandwidth:  $\frac{\text{data}}{\text{time}} \left[ \frac{\text{bytes}}{\text{sec}} \right]$
  - Arithmetic Intensity (program property):

$$\frac{\# \text{arithmetic ops}}{\text{DRAM data}} \left[ \frac{\text{FLOP}}{\text{bytes}} \right]$$

(bytes as seen from DRAM)

**note: FLOP  $\neq$  FLOPS**



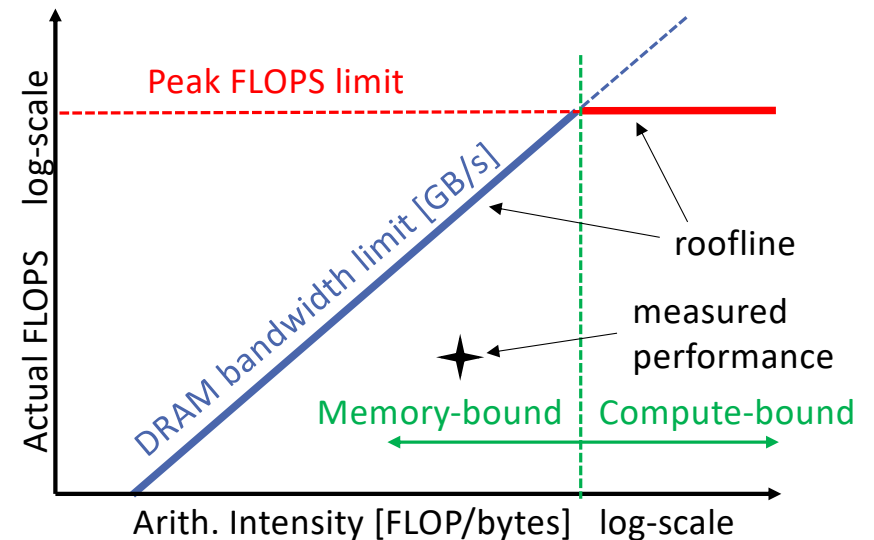
<https://crd.lbl.gov/departments/computer-science/PAR/research/roofline>

# Arithmetic Intensity

- The ratio between the number of executed operations and the number of bytes transferred between the CPU and the memory is called arithmetic intensity.
- Smaller arithmetic intensity means a larger pressure on the memory subsystem, and conversely, larger arithmetic intensity means a larger pressure on the CPUs computational resources.

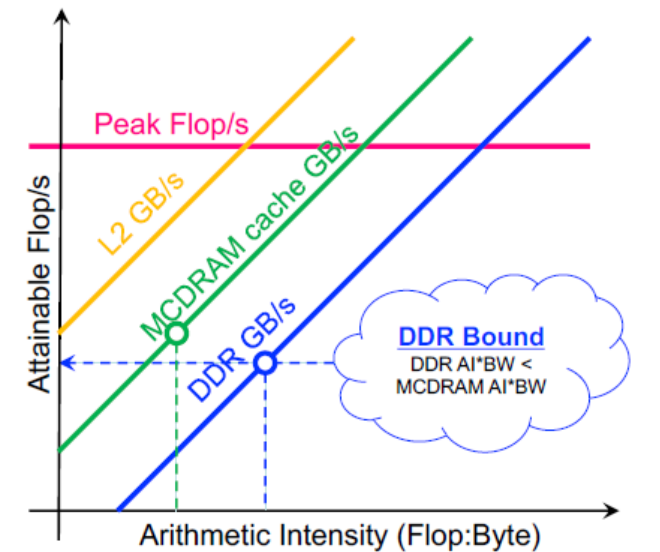
# Roofline Performance Model

- Actual FLOPS are limited first by DRAM bandwidth (memory-bound) and then by CPU (or GPU) Peak FLOPS (compute-bound)
- Actual measured performance is below the roofline
- Depending on Arithmetic Intensity:
  - **memory-bound** code
  - **compute-bound** code
- **Log-log scale is used for clarity**



# More complex Roofline Models

- We considered a basic **DRAM-only Roofline Model**:
  - Bytes as seen from DRAM access
- Not covered: Hierarchical Roof-line
  - for problems that fit in the cache we can add:
    - L1, L2, L3 bandwidth
  - Each Cache Level has its own A.I. (different bytes going through that level of the mem. Hierarchy)
- Also not covered: Cache-aware Roof-line
  - FLOP/bytes as seen from CORE
  - Different roof but same A.I.
  - Need to know from which level data is coming
  - <http://www.inesc-id.pt/ficheiros/publicacoes/9068.pdf>



Hierarchical Roofline  
from: LBNL (SC17 Roofline Model Workshop slides)



# *crackle1.cims.nyu.edu* compute node @NYU

- Intel Xeon E5630@2.53GHz performance:
  1. #cores: 4
  2. LLC (L3) size: 12MB
  3. Clock frequency: 2.53GHz
  4. **DRAM peak bandwidth:** 25.6 GB/s
  5. **CPU Peak FLOPS:** 81.3 DP GFLOPS – 162.56 SP GFLOPS
- DRAM peak bandwidth:
  - [https://ark.intel.com/products/47924/Intel-Xeon-Processor-E5630-12M-Cache-2\\_53-GHz-5\\_86-GTs-Intel-QPI](https://ark.intel.com/products/47924/Intel-Xeon-Processor-E5630-12M-Cache-2_53-GHz-5_86-GTs-Intel-QPI)
- CPU peak FLOPS :
  - $\text{FLOPS} = \text{frequency} * \text{total\_cores} * \text{FLOPS/cyc}$
  - <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/FLOPS> (architectures list - this is a *Sandy Bridge*)

```
$ ssh username@access.cims.nyu.edu
```

```
$ ssh crackle1.cims.nyu.edu
```

```
$ cat /proc/cpuinfo
```

```
processor      : 0
vendor_id     : GenuineIntel
cpu family    : 6
model         : 44
model name    : Intel(R) Xeon(R) CPU E5630 @ 2.53GHz
stepping      : 2
microcode     : 0x15
cpu MHz       : 2527.014
cache size    : 12288 KB
physical id   : 0
siblings      : 8
core id       : 10
cpu cores     : 4
```

# Roofline Model Example – crackle1

- *crackle1*:

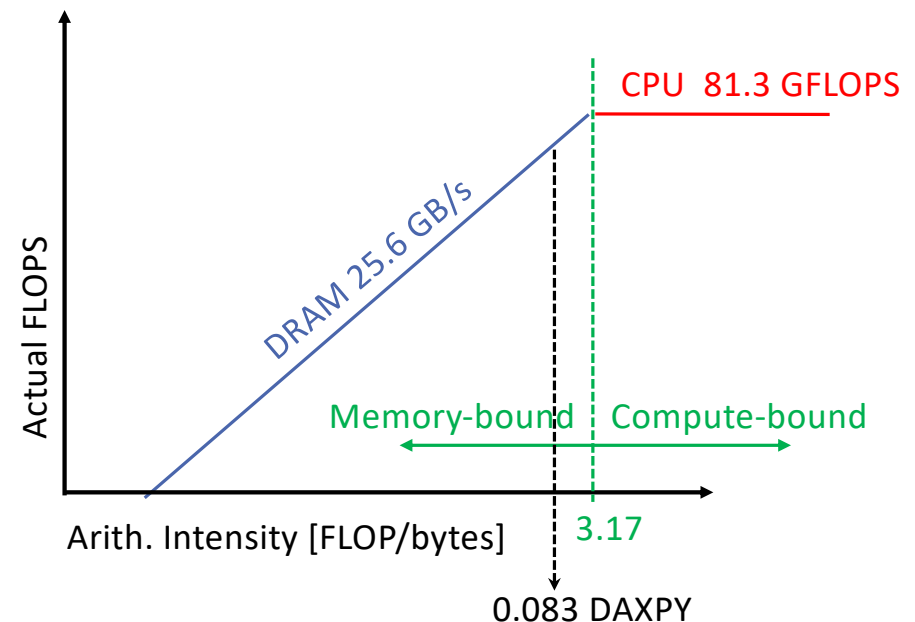
- CPU peak: 81.3 DP GFLOPS
- DRAM peak BW: 25.6 GB/s

- DAXPY code:

```
for (i=0;i<N;i++) {  
  Z[i]= A * (X[i] + Y[i])  
}
```

- Y,A,X are 64 bit float (DP)
- DRAM and CPU cross at:
  - $81.3 \text{ GFLOPS} / 25.6 \text{ GB/s} = 3.17 \text{ FLOP/byte}$
  - CPU\_peak/DRAM\_BW
    - Where DP-bytes=8, SP-bytes=4, HP-bytes=2

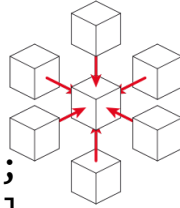
- A.I. =  $2 \text{ FLOP} / (3 \cdot 8) \text{ bytes} = 0.083 \text{ FLOP/byte}$
- Result:  $0.083 < 3.17 \Rightarrow$  **Memory-bound**  $\Rightarrow$  how far for DRAM BW?



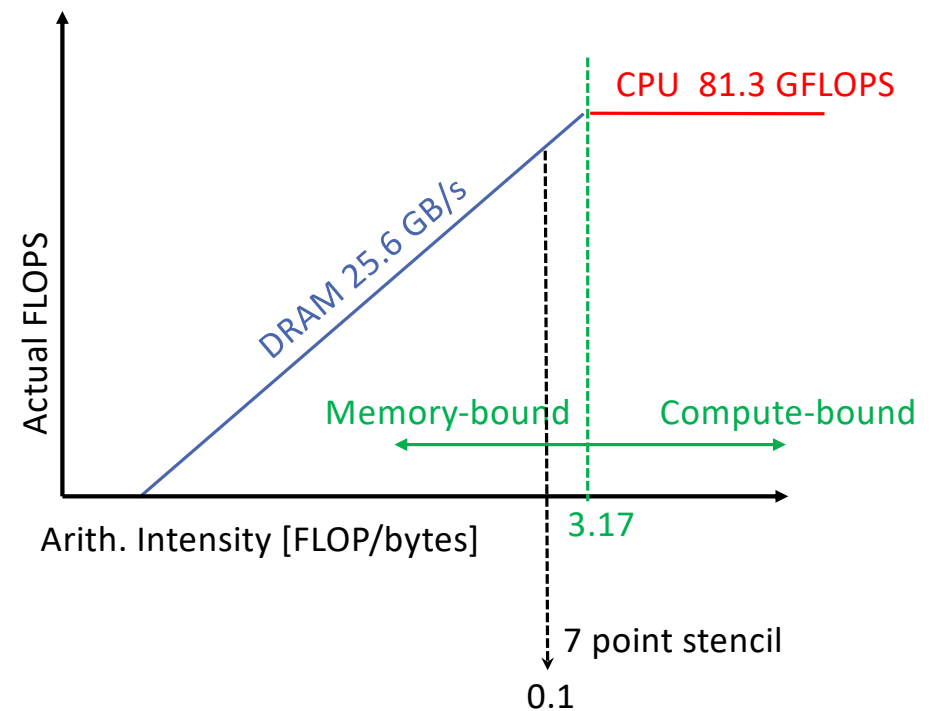
# Roofline Model Example (2) – crackle1

- 7-Points Stencil code:

```
for(k=1;k<N;k++){
for(j=1;j<N;j++){
for(i=1;i<N;i++){
  int ijk = i+j*jStride+k*kStride;
  new[ijk] = -6.0*old[ijk
                +old[ijk-1
                +old[ijk+1
                +old[ijk-jStride ]
                +old[ijk+jStride ]
                +old[ijk-kStride ]
                +old[ijk+kStride ];}}}]
```

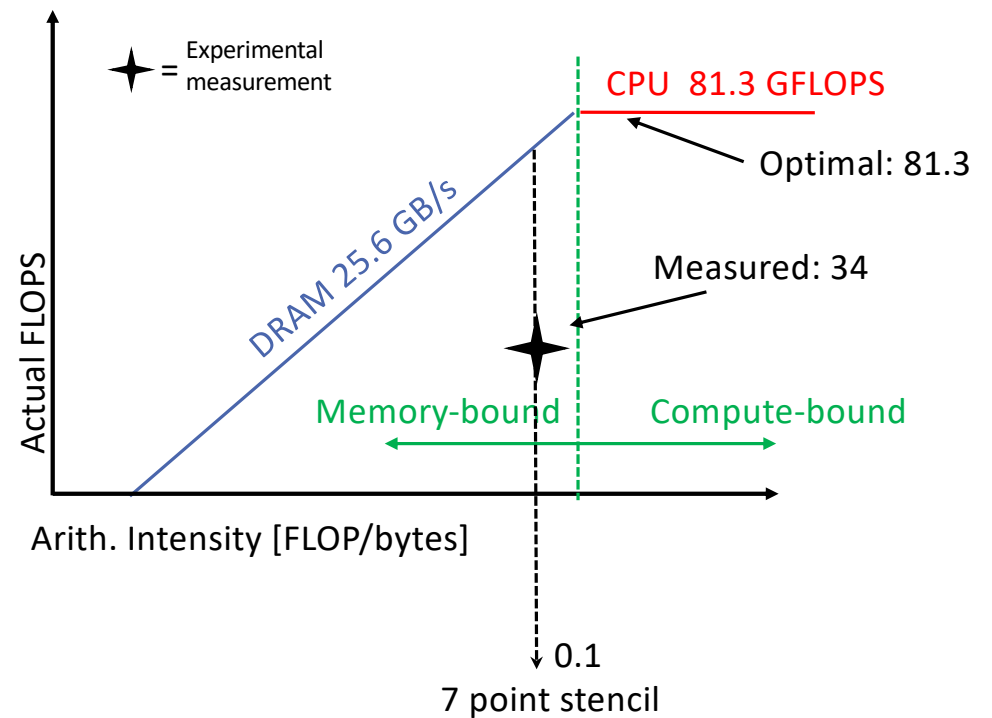


- 7 DP flops (new[] is 64bits)
- 8 memory references
- DRAM/CPU cross = 3.17 FLOP/byte
- $AI = 7 \text{ FLOP} / (8 * 8) \text{ bytes} = 0.109 \text{ FLOP/byte}$
- Result:  $0.109 < 3.17 \Rightarrow$  still **Memory Bound**  $\Rightarrow$  how to optimize?



# Next steps - Optimization

1. Know the limitation from the model: CPU vs. DRAM
2. Measure actual performance:  
Example: 34 GFLOPS
3. Optimize to get close to max FLOPS! (81.3 GFLOPS)



# Performance optimization methodology (3): Optimization

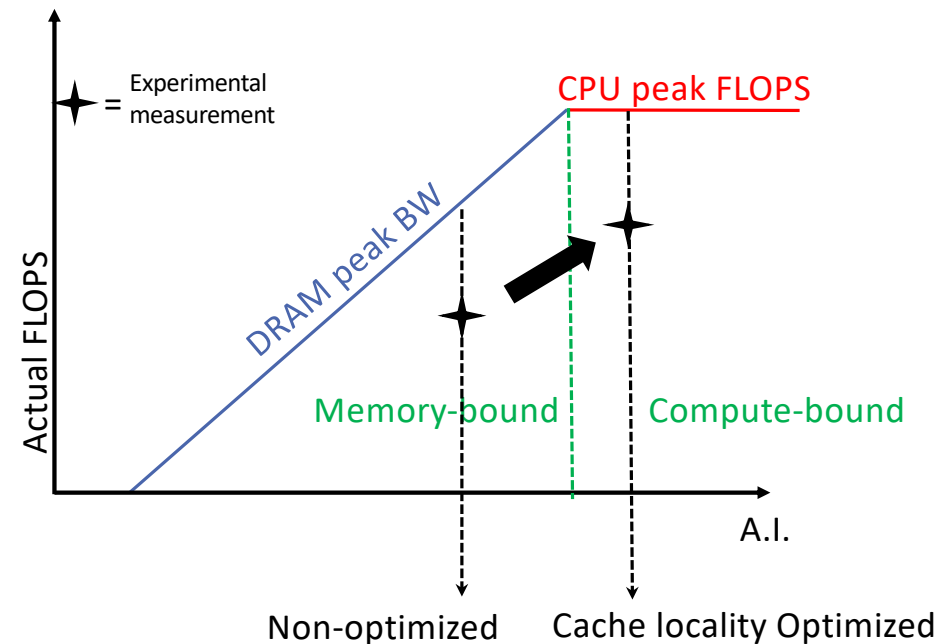
# Two ways to Performance

- Reduce latency (do one operation faster):
  - Data access latency reduction
- Increase Parallelism (do more operations at the same time):
  - Vectorization
  - Instruction Level Parallelism
  - Thread Level Parallelism
  - Multi-core design
  - Computer Clusters

# Optimization Example: Cache Blocking

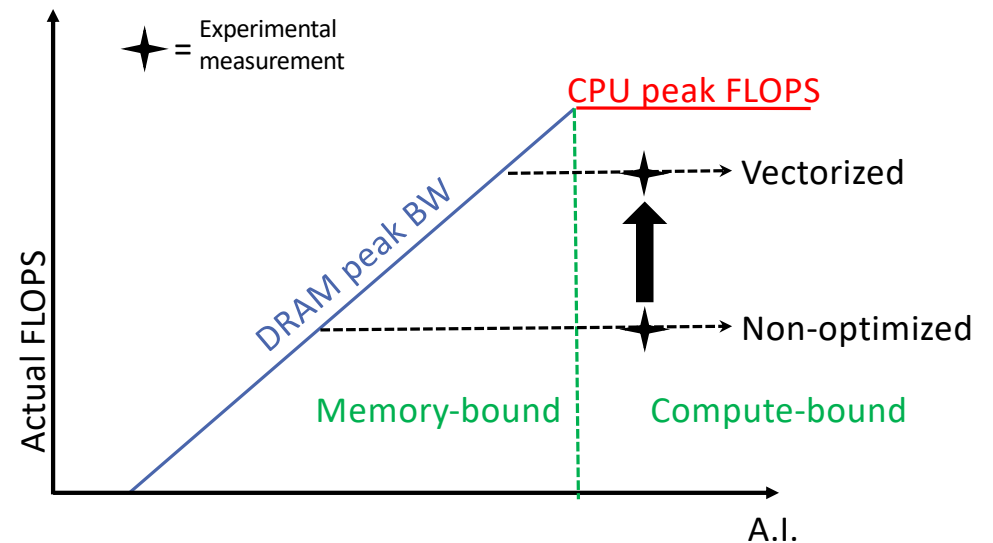
- Observation: Cache access latency is about 10x lower than DRAM and BW is much higher
- Optimization (cache blocking):
  - Divide program data structures in blocks of the **cache size**
  - Work on each block before switching to the next
  - Less DRAM bytes: **cache is filtering DRAM accesses**
  - A.I. [FLOPS/(DRAM bytes)] is higher
- Result:
  - Bottleneck moves: Code (may) become compute-bound with higher FLOPS!

<https://www.intel.com/content/www/us/en/developer/articles/technical/cache-blocking-techniques.html>



# Optimization Example: Vectorization

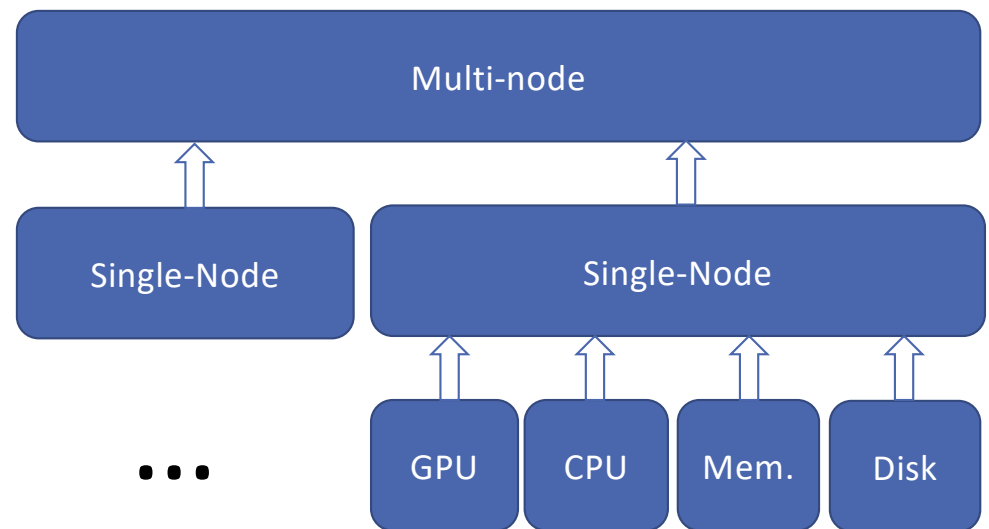
- Observation: SIMD instructions execute multiple FLOP (2,4,8,16..) with 1 instruction => higher FLOPS
- Optimization (Vectorization):
  - Replace normal code with SIMD instructions
  - **Hint:** use math libraries like BLAS (CPU) or cuDNN (GPU) and they will do it for you!
- Result:
  - Code reaches higher FLOPS!



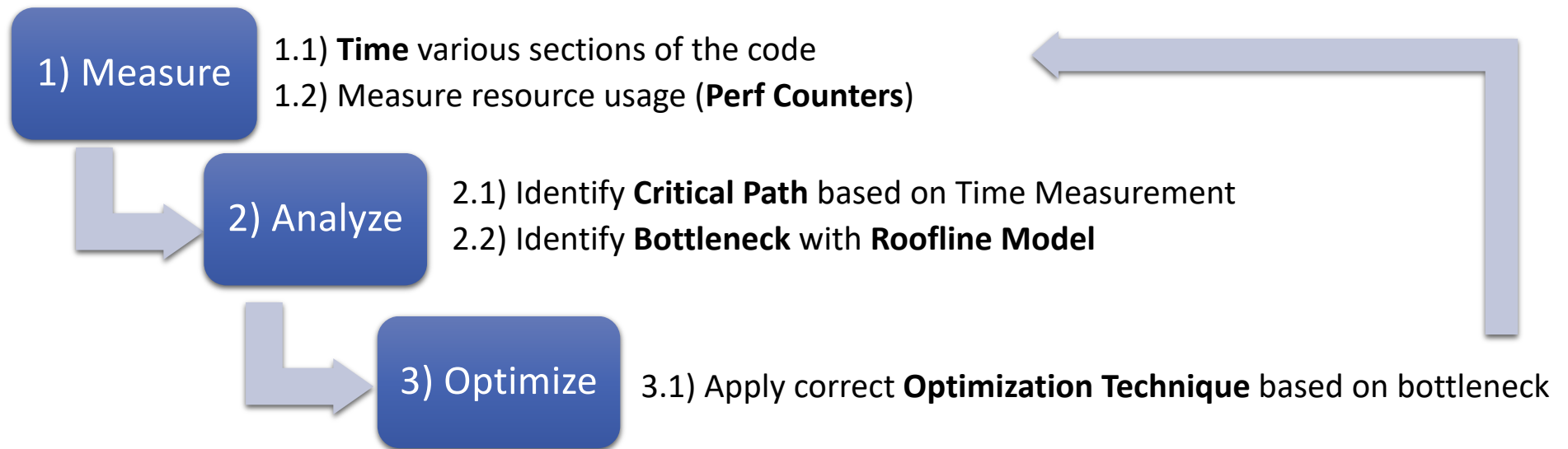


# Hierarchical Perf. Optimization – (next lessons)

- Single Node optimizations:
  - CPU:
    - Vectorize/SIMD optimizations
    - CPU Cache/Memory optimizations
    - Multi-core scalability/parallelism
  - GPU:
    - SM Optimizations
    - SM Cache/Memory optimization
  - Disk and IO
- Multi-node optimizations:
  - Parallelism exposure
  - Domain decomposition
  - Load-balancing
  - Reduce synchronizations
  - Reduce collectives



# Performance Optimization Methodology Recap



# Floating Point Errors

- Error:  $E = |f(x) - F(x)|$ 
  - $F(x)$  is the correct result,  $f(x)$  is the numerically computed result
- Relative error:  $R = E / |F(x)|$ 
  - Floating point 'roundoff' relative error depends on number of bits in the mantissa!
- Cancellation
  - $C = A + B \rightarrow$  may result in  $C == A$  for  $B \ll A$
- Catastrophic cancellation
  - $C = B + A - A \rightarrow$  may result in 0 for  $B \ll A$ , relative error is 1
  - $C = 1 / (B + A - A)!$

# Floating Point Error Example

- IEEE standard 754
  - FP32 1 bit sign + 8 bit exp + 23 bit mantissa, bias 127
  - FP64 1 bit sign + 11 bit exp + 52 bit msantissa, bias 1023
  - $(-1)^S * 1.M * 2^{\{E-bias\}}$

$$\frac{1}{3} \cong (-1)^0 * (1.3333333) * 2^{125-127} = 0.333333325$$
$$R = \left( \frac{1}{3} - 0.333333325 \right) * 3 \cong 2.5 * 10^{-8}$$

0111 1101b = 125

011 0010 1101 1100 1101 0101b = 3333333

# Lesson Key Points

- ML Performance Factors
- Performance Optimization Methodology:
  1. Measurement: Metrics, Time/Resources and Techniques
  2. Analysis: Amdahl's Law, Bandwidth/Latency, Roofline Model
  3. Optimization (in relationship to Roofline model)

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