

# Performance limits and profiling

# Potential performance limits

Why does my software not go faster? Below some of the possible hardware performance limits:

- Flops (floating-point operations)
- Ops (operations) that include all types of computer instructions
- Memory *bandwidth*
- Memory *latency*
- Instruction queue (instruction cache)
- Networks
- Disk

# Potential performance limits

Why does my software hit performance limits:

- Flops (floating point operations)
- Ops (operations) throughput
- Memory *bandwidth*
- Memory *latency*
- Instruction queue (instruction cache)
- Networks
- Disk

Computational scientists still consider flops as the primary performance limit. While this might have been true years ago, the reality is that flops seldom limit performance in modern architectures.

# Potential performance limits

Why does my software not go faster? Below some of the possible hardware performance limits:

- Flops (floating-point operations)
- Ops (operations) that include memory access
- Memory *bandwidth*
- Memory *latency*
- Instruction queue (instruction cache)
- Networks
- Disk

Integer operations are also a more frequent limit than commonly assumed, especially with high-dimensional arrays where the index calculation become more complex.

# Potential performance limits

Why does my software not get the performance I want?  
What are the performance limits:

- Flops (floating-point operations)
- Ops (operations) that involve memory
- Memory *bandwidth*
- Memory *latency*
- Instruction queue (instruction cache)
- Networks
- Disk

Bandwidth is the best rate at which data can be moved. For bandwidth to be the limit, the code should use a **streaming** approach, where data are contiguous, and all the values are used.

# Potential performance limits

Why does my software not go faster? Below some of the possible hardware performance limits:

- Flops (floating-point operations)
- Ops (operations) that include all types of computer instructions
- Memory *bandwidth*
- Memory *latency*
- Instruction queue (n)
- Networks
- Disk

When a streaming approach is not possible, latency is the more appropriate limit. Latency is the time required for the first byte or word of data to be transferred.

# Speeds and feeds

We can break down all of these limitations into two major categories:

- *Speeds*: how fast operations can be done:

Depends on the available hardware resources (parallelism) and on the operations (e.g. addition, divisions, FMA)

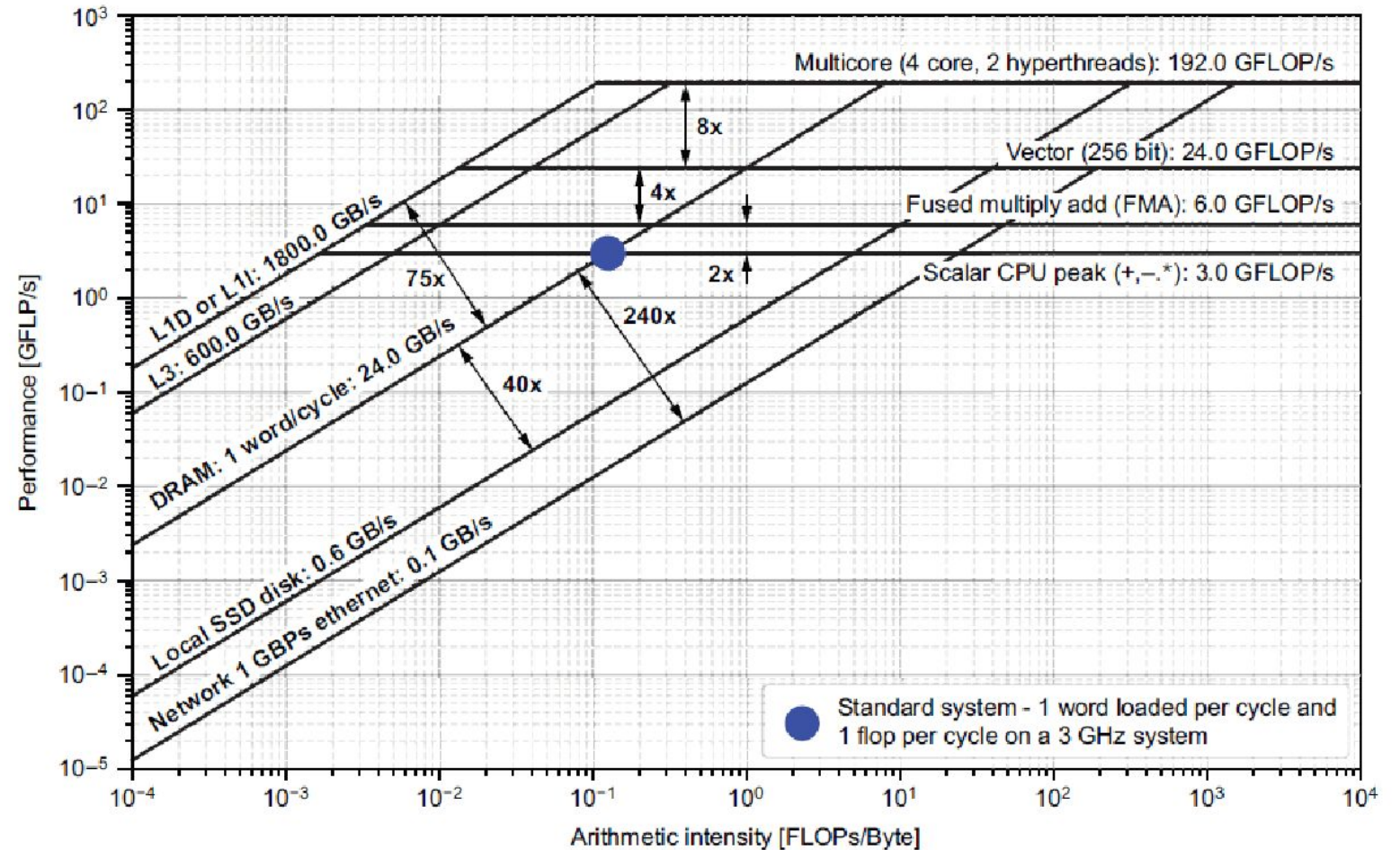
- *Feeds*

Feeds include the memory bandwidth through the cache hierarchy, as well as network and disk **bandwidth**. For applications that cannot get *streaming* behavior, the **latency** of memory, network and disk feed are more important.

# Roofline Model

Feeds and speeds shown on a **roofline** plot.

- The conventional scalar CPU is close to the 1 word loaded per cycle and 1 flop per cycle.
- The multipliers for the increase in flops are due to the fused multiply-add instruction, vectorization, multiple cores, and hyperthreads.
- The relative speeds of memory movement are also shown.



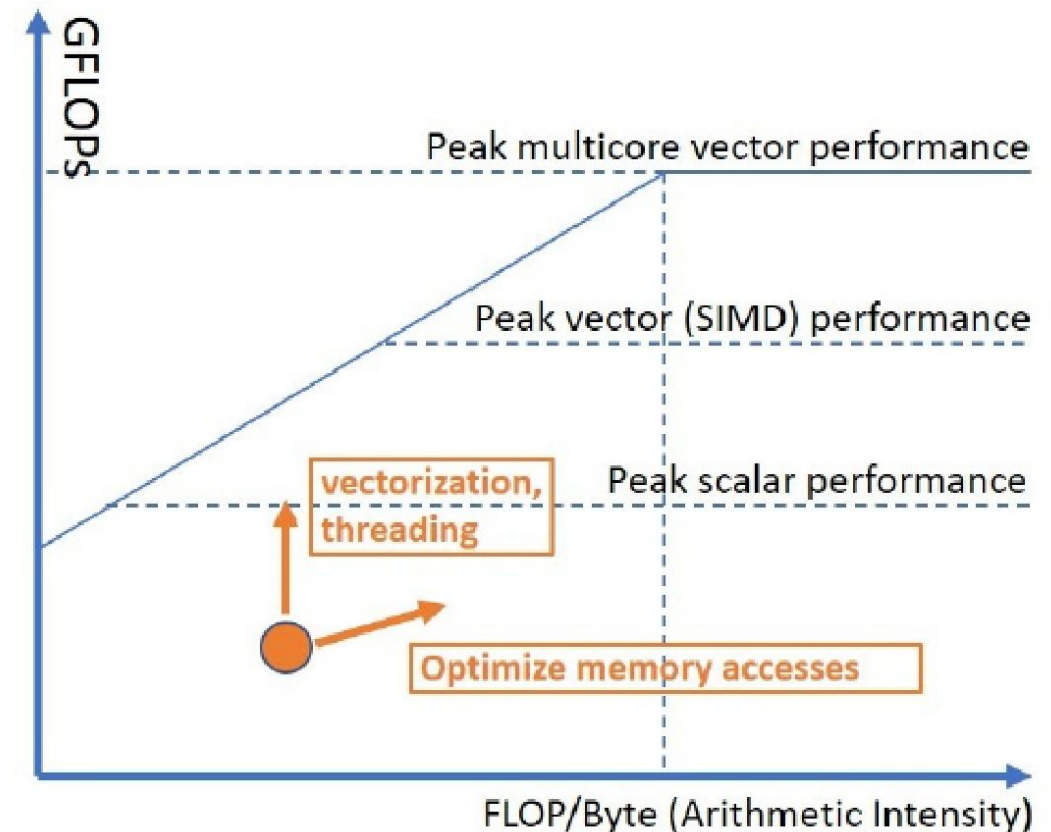


# Roofline Model

- **Performance** [*Gflops/sec*]: in an application, measures the number of flops executed in a second
- **Arithmetic intensity** [*flops/B*]: in an application, measures the number of flops executed per memory operation (transferred bytes)
- **Memory bandwidth** =  $\text{Performance} @ \text{Arithmetic Intensity} = 1 \text{ flop/B}$
- **Machine balance**: the number of flops that can be executed divided by the memory bandwidth for a computing hardware

# Roofline analysis of a program

- The goal of optimizing performance using the Roofline model is to move the points up on the chart.
- **Vectorization** and **threading** move the dot up
- **Optimizing memory accesses** (increasing arithmetic intensity) will move the dot to the right, and also likely improve performance.



# Determine your hardware capabilities: Benchmarking

In determining hardware performance, we use a mixture of theoretical and empirical measurements.

- the theoretical value provides an upper bound to performance,
- the empirical measurement confirms what can be achieved with a simplified kernel

A suite to hardware capabilities measurement can be found here:

<https://github.com/EssentialsofParallelComputing/Chapter3>

# hwloc software package

The Portable Hardware Locality (hwloc) software package provides a portable abstraction (across OS, versions, architectures, ...) of the hierarchical topology of modern architectures.

```
[sal@optiplex] lstopo --no-io --of ascii
```

Machine (126GB total)

Package L#0

NUMANode L#0 P#0 (126GB)

L3 (16MB)

L2 (256KB)

L2 (256KB)

H H H

L2 (256KB)

8x total

L1d (32KB)

L1d (32KB)

L1d (32KB)

L1i (32KB)

L1i (32KB)

L1i (32KB)

Core L#0

Core L#1

Core L#7

PU L#0

P#0

PU L#2

P#1

PU L#14

P#7

PU L#1

P#8

PU L#3

P#9

PU L#15

P#15

# Theoretical maximum flops

The theoretical maximum flops (FT) can be calculated as:

$$F_T = C_v \times f_c \times I_c = \text{Virtual Cores} \times \text{Clock Rate} \times \text{Flops/Cycle}$$

where:

$C_v$  is the number of virtual cores

$f_c$  is the maximum clock rate when all the processors are used.

$I_c$  are instructions per cycle, including the number of simultaneous operations that can be executed by the vector unit. We can include the fused multiply-add (FMA) instruction as 2x factor

# Theoretical memory bandwidth

For most large computational problems, we can assume that there are large arrays that need to be loaded from main memory through the cache hierarchy

$$B_T = MTR \times M_c \times T_w \times N_s = \text{Data Transfer Rate} \times \text{Memory Channels} \times \text{Bytes Per Access} \times \text{Sockets}$$

where:

MTR is the memory transfer rate given in millions of transfers per sec (MT/s).

$T_w$  is the memory transfer width (e.g. 64 bits)

$M_c$  are the memory channels (usually 2 per CPU)

$N_s$  is the number of sockets

# Theoretical vs empirical measurement

Theoretical numbers are almost never possible in practice. They assume perfect conditions:

- All memory accesses are aligned and contiguous.
- Every CPU instruction is doing a floating-point operation.
- No stalls, no cache misses, no synchronization overhead.
- Full vectorization, perfect parallelism, no thermal throttling.

# Why empirical measurements fall short

## Memory-bound operations:

- Even a simple load/store might be limited by latency, NUMA, or memory conflicts.
- Prefetchers and caches help but rarely eliminate all delays.

## Compute-bound operations

- Compilers may fail to fully **vectorize** your loops.
- Pipeline stalls, dependency chains, and instruction mix reduce effective FLOPs/sec.

**Software overhead:** Function calls, branches, synchronization (threads, OpenMP), OS interrupts.

**Hardware quirks:** Thermal throttling, memory controllers etc.



# Empirical measurement of bandwidth and flops

To determine the memory bandwidth, we can measure the time for reading and writing a large array of data.

```
[sal@optiplex] likwid-bench -t copy -w N:100MB  
  
[...]  
MByte/s:                25037.41  
[...]
```

It can be significantly lower than theoretical BW for several reasons:

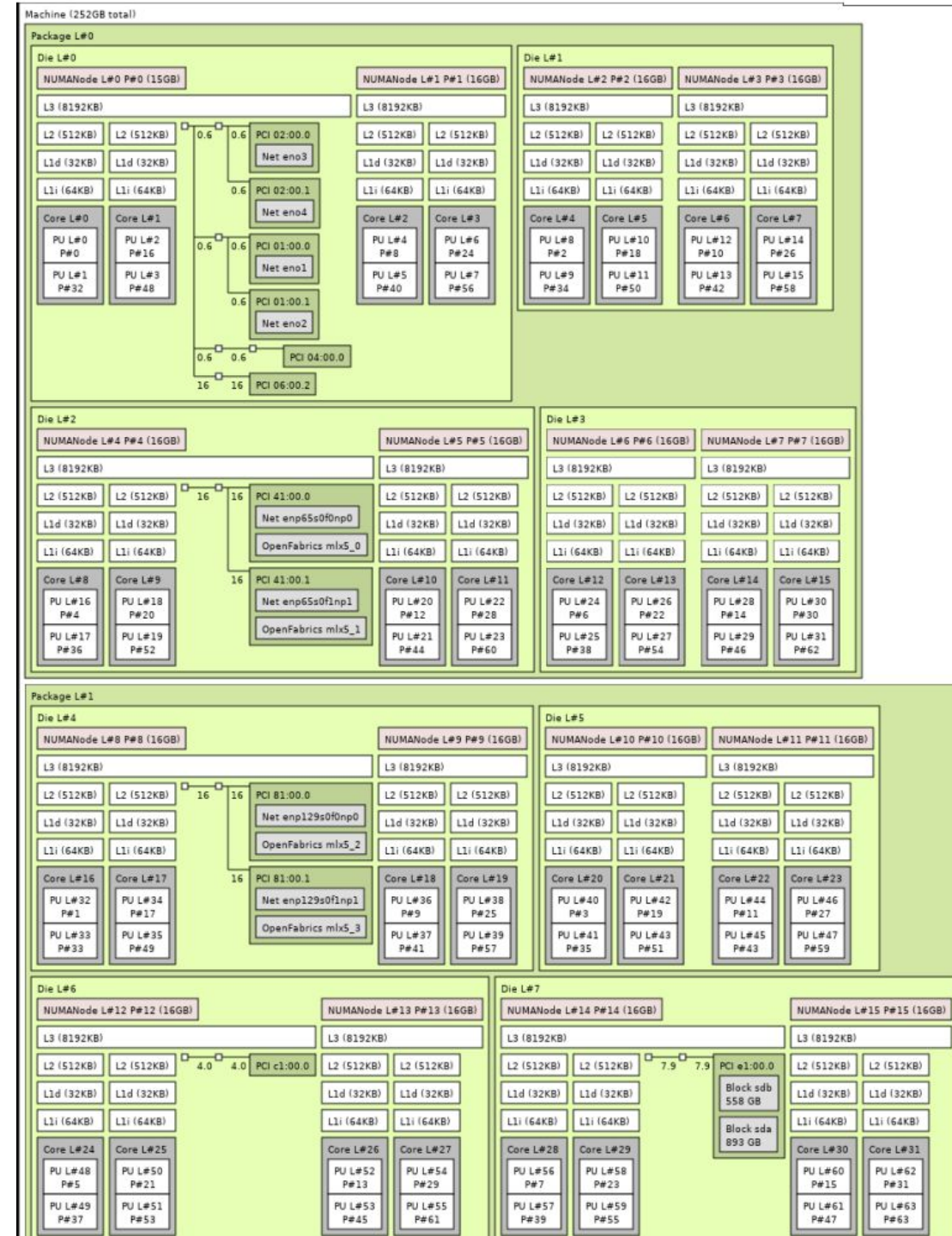
- Suboptimal memory BIOS settings (e.g., incorrect memory interleaving)
- Memory contention (multiple CPU cores share memory channels)
- NUMA awareness

# Cluster node memory bandwidth

[sal@cluster] lstopo

- Dual **socket** configuration
- 4 dice for socket
- 2 numa nodes per die
- 2 physical cores per numa node
- Up to 8 **channels** per socket

$$B_T = 2400 \text{ (MT/s)} * 8B * 8 * 2 = 307 \text{ GB/s}$$



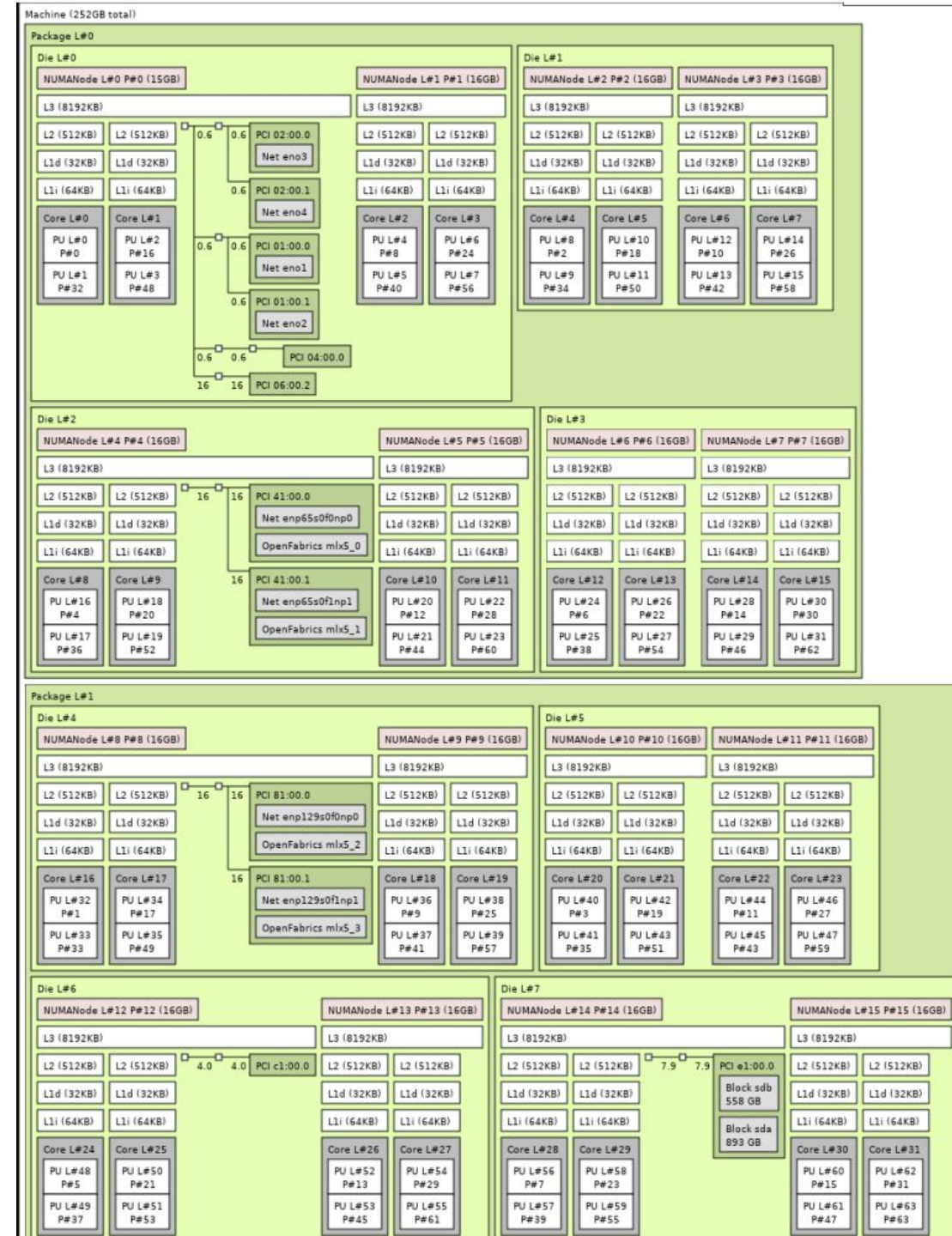
# Cluster node memory bandwidth

```
[sal@cluster] lstopo
```

```
[sal@cluster] likwid-bench -t copy -w  
N:1000MB
```

```
[...]  
MByte/s:  
[...]
```

66802.19





# Cluster node memory bandwidth

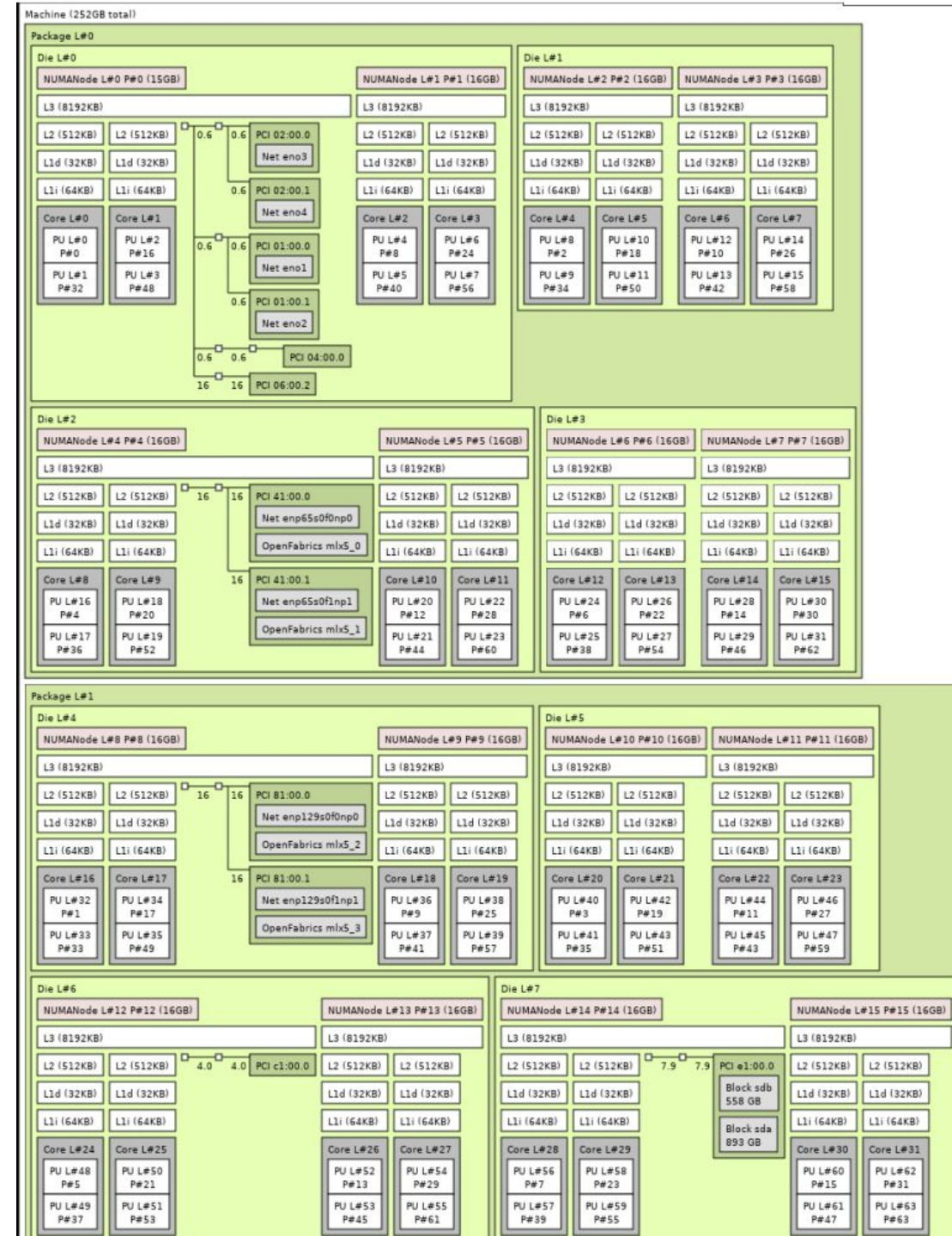
[[sal@cluster](#)] Istopo

```
[sal@cluster] likwid-bench -t copy -w  
N:1000MB
```

```
[...]
MByte/s:          66802.19
[...]
```

Cluster node are configured with 2 channels per socket

$$B_T = 2400 \text{ (MT/s)} * 8B * 2 * 2 = 76 \text{ GB/s}$$



# Empirical measurement of bandwidth and flops

To determine the maximum flop, we can use suitable Linux tools

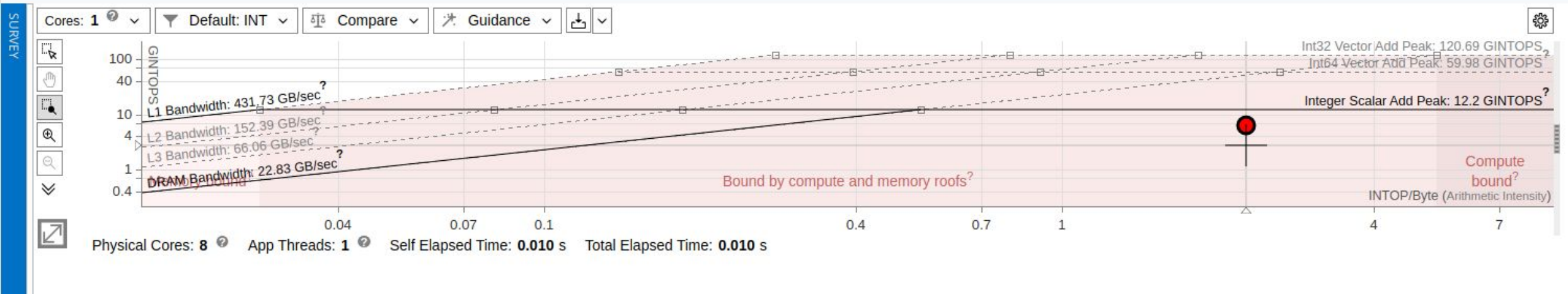
```
[sal@optiplex] likwid-bench -t peakflops_avx_fma -w N:1MB  
  
[...]  
MFlops/s:                596722.60  
[...]
```

Theoretical maximum flops:

- Per FMA instruction:  $4 \text{ doubles} \times 2 \text{ operations} = \mathbf{8 \text{ FLOPs}}$ .
- 2 FMA per core (eight cores):  $2 \times 8 \times 8 \text{ FLOPs} = \mathbf{128 \text{ FLOPs}}$
- Max freq @4.7GHz =  $128 \times 4.7 = 601 \text{ GFLOPs/sec}$

# Empirical measurement of bandwidth and flops

```
[sal@optiplex] advisor --collect=roofline --project-dir=./roofline_results -- ./main
```



# Performance metrics

# CPU Utilization

The CPU utilization can be calculated as:

$$CPU\ Utilization = \frac{CPU\_CLK\_UNHALTED.REF\_TSC}{TSC},$$

where:

*CPU\_CLK\_UNHALTED.REF\_TSC* counts the number of reference cycles when the core is not in a halt state.

*TSC* is for timestamp counter



# CPU Utilization

The CPU utilization can be calculated as:

*CPU Util*

where:

*CPU\_CLK\_UNHALTED*  
when the core is

is a performance monitoring events accessible using the Performance Monitoring Unit (PMU).

```
$ sudo perf stat -e cpu_clk_unhalted.ref_tsc sleep 1
```

*TSC* is for timestamp counter

# CPU Utilization

The CPU utilization can be calculated as:

*CPU Util*

You can read this performance counter directly from Model-Specific Registers (MSRs).

where:

```
$ sudo rdmsr -p 0 0x309
```

*CPU\_CLK\_UNHALTED*

when the core is

0x309 is the MSR for *IA32\_FIXED\_CTR0*

*TSC* is for timestamp counter

# CPU Utilization

The CPU utilization can be calculated as:

$$CPU\ Utilization = \frac{CPU\_CLK\_UNHALTED.REF\_TSC}{TSC},$$

where:

*CPU\_CLK\_UNHALTED.REF\_TSC*

when the core is in the

*TSC* is for the

the *TSC* (Time Stamp Counter) is a 64-bit counter that increments at a constant rate. The canonical way to read the TSC is the RDTSC asm instruction.

# CPI and IPC

IPC can be calculated as:

$$IPC = \frac{INST\_RETIRED.ANY}{CPU\_CLK\_UNHALTED.THREAD}$$

Where *INST\_RETIRED.ANY* counts the number of retired instructions, and *CPU\_CLK\_UNHALTED.THREAD* counts the number of core cycles while the thread is not in a halt state.

# CPI and IPC

IPC can be calculated as:

$$IPC = \frac{INST\_RETIRED.ANY}{CPU\_CLK\_UNHALTED.THREAD}$$

Where *INST\_RETIRED.ANY* counts the number of instructions retired by the processor. *CPU\_CLK\_UNHALTED.THREAD* counts the number of clock cycles the processor has been running for, excluding time when the processor is in a halt state.

In Intel PMU terminology, the suffix “THREAD” refers to a hardware thread, i.e., one logical CPU (like CPU0, CPU1, etc.), not a software thread!

# CPI and IPC

IPC can be calculated as:

$$IPC = \frac{INST\_RETIRED.ANY}{CPU\_CLK\_UNHALTED.THREAD}$$

Where *INST\_RETIRED.ANY* counts the number of retired instructions, and *CPU\_CLK\_UNHALTED.THREAD* counts the number of core cycles while the thread is not in a halt state.

Is the **core clock** (actual running frequency) not the **reference clock** always running at the **TSC frequency**

# CPI and IPC

- CPI is the inverse of IPC

$$CPI = \frac{1}{IPC}$$

- Memory intensive applications usually have a low IPC (0–1)
- computationally intensive workloads tend to have a high IPC (4–6).

# Performance

The performance depends on two factors:

$$Performance = \frac{instructions \times frequency}{cycles} = IPC \times frequency$$

From the perspective of benchmarking, IPC and frequency are two independent metrics.



# Cache Miss

Performance greatly suffers when a memory request misses the cache:

Memory Hierarchy Component	Latency (cycle/time)
L1 Cache	4 cycles (~1 ns)
L2 Cache	10-25 cycles (5-10 ns)
L3 Cache	~40 cycles (20 ns)
Main Memory	200+ cycles (100 ns)

Linux *perf* users can collect the number of L1 cache misses by running:

```
$ perf stat -e mem_load_retired.fb_hit,mem_load_retired.l1_miss,  
mem_load_retired.l1_hit,mem_inst_retired.all_loads -- a.exe  
29580 mem_load_retired.fb_hit  
19036 mem_load_retired.l1_miss  
497204 mem_load_retired.l1_hit  
546230 mem_inst_retired.all_loads
```

misses are around 3.5% of loads

# Cache Miss

We can further break down L1 data misses and analyze L2 cache behavior

```
$ perf stat -e mem_load_retired.l1_miss,  
mem_load_retired.l2_hit,mem_load_retired.l2_miss -e  
19521 mem_load_retired.l1_miss  
12360 mem_load_retired.l2_hit  
7188 mem_load_retired.l2_miss
```

**37%** of loads that missed in the L1 D-cache also missed in the L2 cache

# Mispredicted Branch

Linux *perf* users can check the number of branch mispredictions by running

```
$ perf stat -e branches,branch-misses -- a.exe
358209 branches
14026 branch-misses # 3,92% of all branches
# or simply do:
$ perf stat -- a.exe
```

# Performance Metrics

Performance engineers frequently use metrics, which are built on top of raw events. Metrics combine and process raw events into **interpretable quantities** that reflect performance characteristics.

They allow **identifying limiting factors** (e.g., memory bandwidth, compute efficiency).

A full list of metrics can be found here:

[https://github.com/intel/perfmon/blob/main/TMA\\_Metrics-full.xlsx](https://github.com/intel/perfmon/blob/main/TMA_Metrics-full.xlsx)

# Performance Metrics: examples (1)

Metric Name	Description	Formula
Ip Branch	Instructions per branch	$\frac{\text{INST\_RETIRED.ANY}}{\text{BR\_INST\_RETIRED.ALL\_BRANCHES}}$

**Instructions per branch** indicates the branch density of your code.

- **High IPB:** Few branches per many instructions. Code is mostly straight-line (**compute-heavy**). Good for pipelines and vectorization.
- **Low IPB:** Frequent branching. Code has lots of control flow (if/else, loops, function calls). Can hurt performance if branch prediction fails.

## Performance Metrics: examples (2)

Metric Name	Description	Formula
IpLoad	Instructions per load	$\frac{\text{INST\_RETIRED.ANY}}{\text{MEM\_INST\_RETIRED.ALL\_LOADS\_PS}}$

**IpLoad** measures the average number of instructions executed per memory load

- High IPL → few loads per many instructions (compute-heavy, good locality)
- Low IPL → many loads (memory-bound, frequent data fetching).

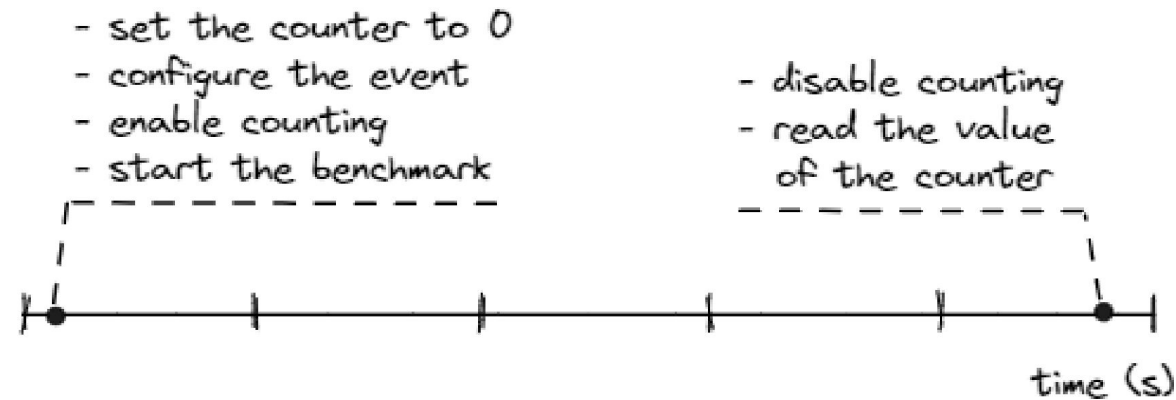
## Performance Metrics: examples (3)

Metric Name	Description	Formula
L1MPKI	L1 cache true misses per kilo instruction for retired demand loads.	$1000 * \frac{\text{MEM\_LOAD\_RETIRED.L1\_MISS\_PS}}{\text{INST\_RETIRED.ANY}}$

**L1MPKI** stands for L1 Misses Per Kilo Instructions. It is used to quantify how often your program misses in the L1 cache relative to how many instructions it executes.

- **Low L1MPKI** → most loads/stores are satisfied from L1 → excellent cache locality.
- **High L1MPKI** → many accesses miss L1 → CPU must fetch from L2/L3/memory → performance penalty.

# Collecting Performance Monitoring Events

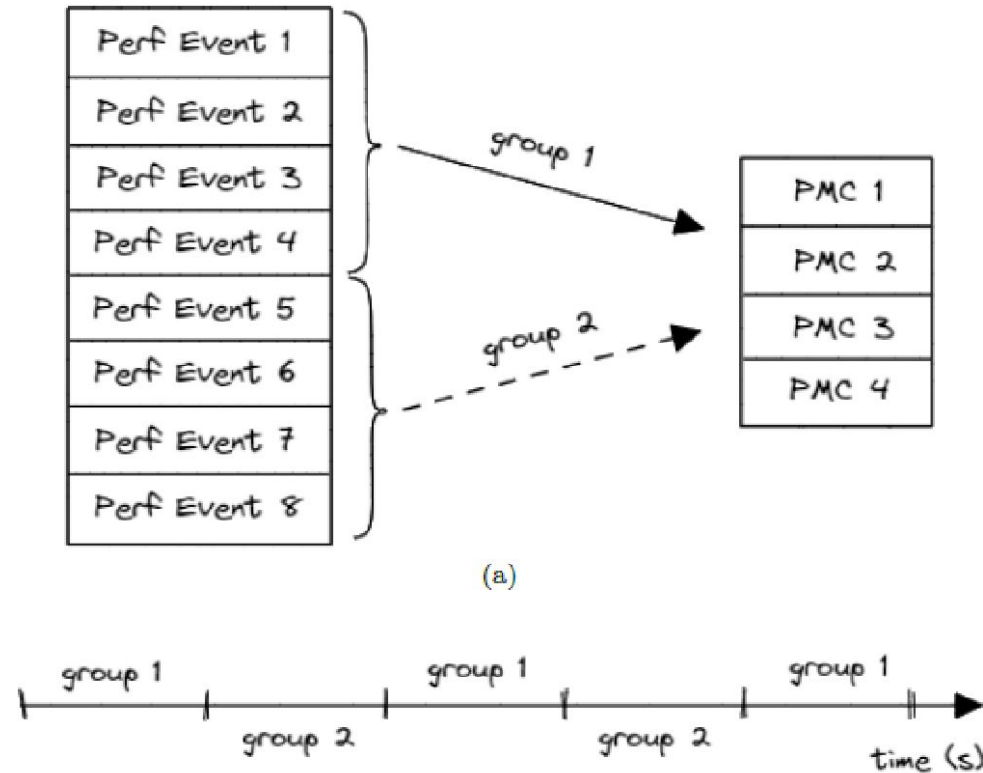


The steps outlined in Figure roughly represent what a typical analysis tool will do to count performance events.

```
$ perf stat -- ./my_program.exe
10580290629 cycles      # 3,677 GHz
8067576938 instructions # 0,76 insn per cycle
3005772086 branches    # 1044,472 M/sec
239298395 branch-misses # 7,96% of all branches
```



# Multiplexing and Scaling Events



If you need to collect more events than the number of available PMCs, the analysis tool uses time multiplexing

# Code Instrumentation + PMC

**Marker APIs** analyzes the performance of a specific code region, not an entire application.

Most performance analysis tools provide specific *marker APIs* that let you do that. Examples are:

- Intel VTune has `__itt_task_begin` / `__itt_task_end` functions.
- AMD uProf has `amdProfileResume` / `amdProfilePause` functions.
- Likwid has `likwid_markerStartRegion` / `likwid_markerStopRegion` functions.

# Marker APIs

Marker APIs hybrid approach combines the benefits of instrumentation and performance event counting

- They use **hardware performance counters** (via `perf_event` or MSR) s)
- They abstract from low level details and provides discovery tools for identifying available events on your CPU
- the start function reads current counter values. The stop function calculates the delta and stores it. At the end, it aggregates results and prints or exports them.

# Example with likwid

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <likwid.h>

void foo() {
    LIKWID_MARKER_START("foo");
    double sum = 0.0;
    for (int i = 0; i < 1000000; i++)
        sum += i * 0.5;
    LIKWID_MARKER_STOP("foo");
    printf("sum = %f\n", sum);
}

int main() {
    LIKWID_MARKER_INIT;
    foo();
    LIKWID_MARKER_CLOSE;
    return 0;
}
```

- Marker APIs identifies the code regions to be profiled.
- Multiple regions can be selected.

# Example with likwid

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <likwid.h>

void foo() {
    LIKWID_MARKER_START("foo");
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    printf("sum = %f\n", sum);
}

int main() {
    LIKWID_MARKER_INIT;
    foo();
    LIKWID_MARKER_CLOSE;
    return 0;
}
```

```
$ gcc -DLIKWID_PERFMON example.c -o example -llikwid
[...]
$ likwid-perfctr -g MEM_DP -m ./example
```

# Example with likwid

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <likwid.h>

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}

int main() {
    LIKWID_MARKER_INIT;
    foo();
    LIKWID_MARKER_CLOSE;
    return 0;
}
```

Use specific flags when compile

```
$ gcc -DLIKWID_PERFMON example.c -o example -llikwid
[...]
```

```
$ likwid-perfctr -g MEM_DP -m ./example
```

# Example with likwid

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#include <stdio.h>
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}

int main() {
    LIKWID_MARKER_INIT;
    foo();
    LIKWID_MARKER_CLOSE;
    return 0;
}
```

Run likwid-perfctr with -m

```
$ gcc -DLIKWID_PERFMON example.c -o example -llikwid
[...]
$ likwid-perfctr -g MEM_DP -m ./example
```

# Code Instrumentation overhead

The additional instrumentation code causes additional overhead.

- Code instrumentation should always have a fixed cost, otherwise will interfere with the measurements.

To lower the overhead we can:

- decrease the sampling rate
- Reduce the amount of data stored by using “online” algorithms for calculating mean, variance, min, max, and other metrics.



# Sampling

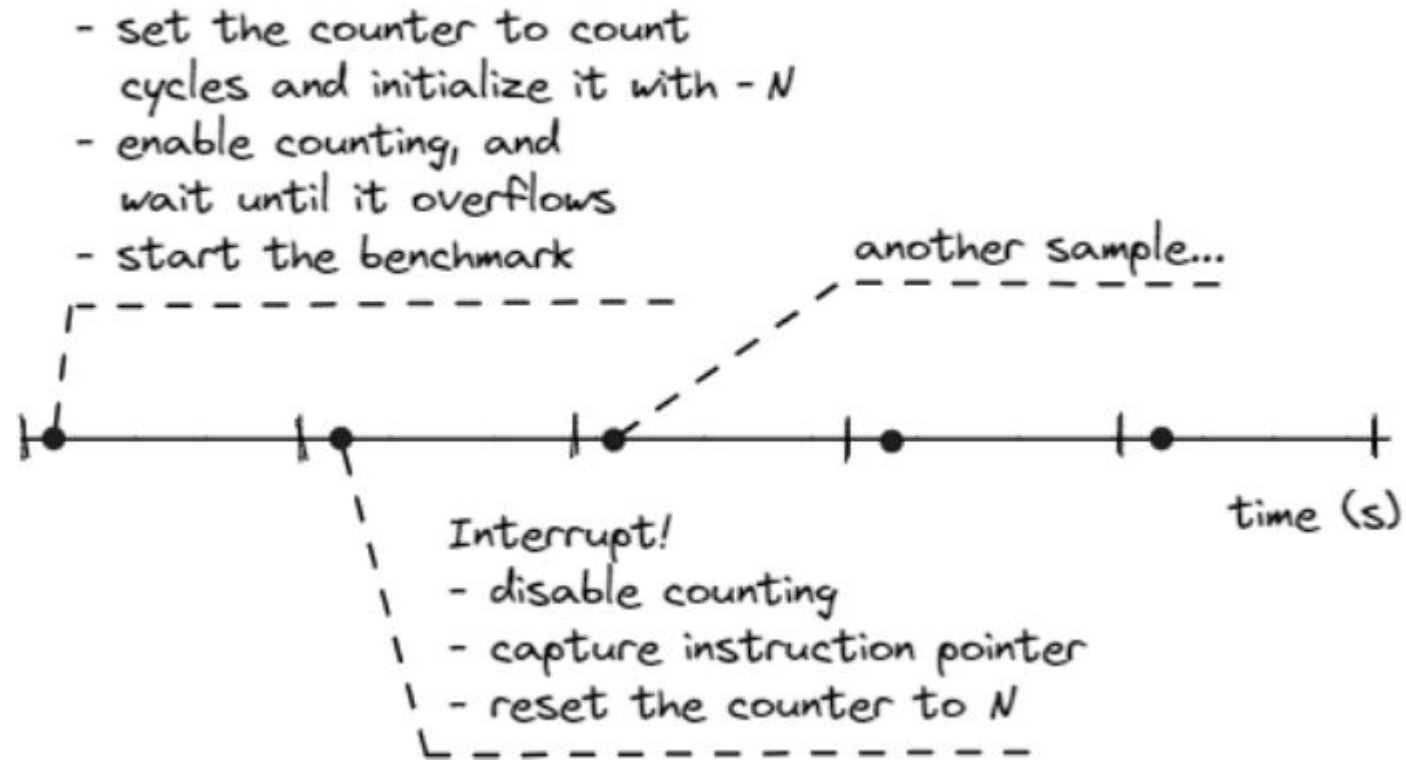
Sampling can be performed in 2 different modes:

- user-mode:
  - it is a pure software approach (we set up an OS timer. Upon expiration, the application receives a SIGPROF)
  - can be used to identify hotspots
  - incurs higher runtime overhead than EBS.
- hardware event based sampling (EBS):
  - uses hardware PMCs to trigger interrupts
  - can be used for additional analysis types that involve PMCs, e.g., sampling on cache-misses, Top-down Microarchitecture Analysis, etc.

# Finding Hotspots

When the counter overflows it triggers a **Performance Monitoring Interrupt (PMI)**, also known as SIGPROF.

At the start of a benchmark, we configure the event that we want to sample. **Sampling on cycles** is a default since we want to know where the program spends most of the time.



# Finding Hotspots

When the counter overflows it

```
$ time -p perf record -F 1000 -- ./x264 -o /dev/null --slow --threads 1
../Bosphorus_1920x1080_120fps_420_8bit_YUV.y4m
[ perf record: Captured and wrote 1.625 MB perf.data (35035 samples) ]
real 36.20 sec
$ perf report -n --stdio
# Samples: 35K of event 'cpu_core/cycles/'
# Event count (approx.): 156756064947
# Overhead Samples Shared Object Symbol
# .....
7.50%      2620      x264      [.] x264_8_me_search_ref
7.38%      2577      x264      [.] refine_subpel_lto_priv.0
6.51%      2281      x264      [.] x264_8_pixel_satd_8x8_internal_avx2
6.29%      2212      x264      [.] get_ref_avx2_lto_priv.0
5.07%      1787      x264      [.] x264_8_pixel_avg2_w16_sse2
3.26%      1145      x264      [.] x264_8_mc_chroma_avx2
2.88%      1013      x264      [.]
x264_8_pixel_satd_16x8_internal_avx2
2.87%      1006      x264      [.] x264_8_pixel_avg2_w8_mmx2
2.58%        904      x264      [.] x264_8_pixel_satd_8x8_avx2
2.51%        882      x264      [.] x264_8_pixel_sad_16x16_sse2
```

.....

# Finding Hotspots

recording phase with sample  
rate  $F=1000$  per sec

When the counter overflows it

```
$ time -p perf record -F 1000 -- ./x264 -o /dev/null --slow-threads 1  
../Bosphorus_1920x1080_120fps_420_8bit_YUV.y4m  
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.....
```

# Finding Hotspots

When the counter overflows it

```
$ time -p perf record -F 1000 -- ./x264 -o /dev/null --slow --threads 1  
../Bosphorus_1920x1080_120fps
```

```
[ perf record: Captured and w  
real 36.20 sec
```

```
$ perf report -n --stdio
```

```
# Samples: 35K of event 'cpu_core/cycles/'
```

```
# Event count (approx.): 156756064947
```

```
# Overhead Samples Shared Object Symbol
```

```
# .....  
#
```

7.50%	2620	x264	[.] x264_8_me_search_ref
7.38%	2577	x264	[.] refine_subpel.lto_priv.0
6.51%	2281	x264	[.] x264_8_pixel_satd_8x8_internal_avx2
6.29%	2212	x264	[.] get_ref_avx2.lto_priv.0
5.07%	1787	x264	[.] x264_8_pixel_avg2_w16_sse2
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2.88%	1013	x264	[.]
x264_8_pixel_satd_16x8_internal_avx2			
2.87%	1006	x264	[.] x264_8_pixel_avg2_w8_mmx2
2.58%	904	x264	[.] x264_8_pixel_satd_8x8_avx2
2.51%	882	x264	[.] x264_8_pixel_sad_16x16_sse2

report phase (-n show number of samples)

# Finding Hotspots

```
$ time -p perf record -F 1000 -- ./x264 -o /dev/null --slow --threads 1
../Bosphorus_1920x1080_120fps_420_8bit_YUV.y4m
[ perf record: Captured and wrote 1.625 MB perf.data (35035 samples) ]
real 36.20 sec
```

```
$ perf report -n --stdio
```

```
# Samples: 35K of event 'cpu_core/c
```

```
# Event count (approx.): 1567560640
```

```
# Overhead Samples Shared Object Sy
```

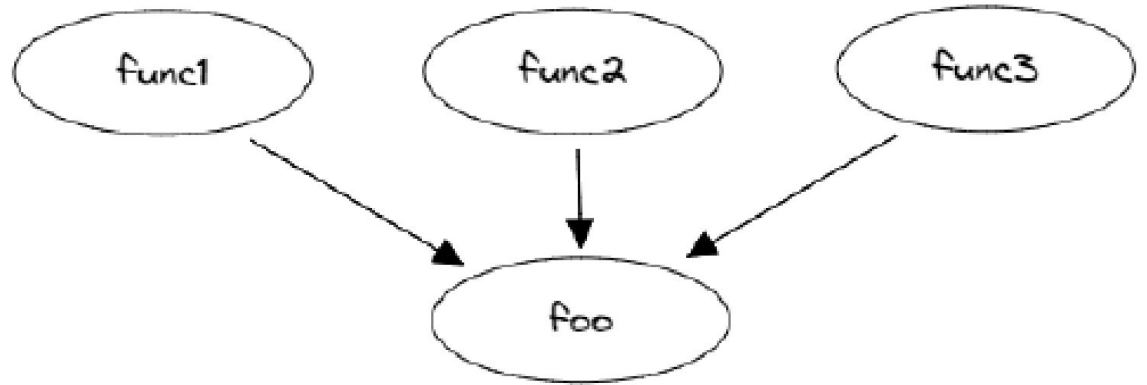
```
# .....
```

7.50%	2620	x264	[.] x264_8_me_search_ref
7.38%	2577	x264	[.] refine_subpel.lto_priv.0
6.51%	2281	x264	[.] x264_8_pixel_satd_8x8_internal_avx2
6.29%	2212	x264	[.] get_ref_avx2.lto_priv.0
5.07%	1787	x264	[.] x264_8_pixel_avg2_w16_sse2
3.26%	1145	x264	[.] x264_8_mc_chroma_avx2
2.88%	1013	x264	[.]
x264_8_pixel_satd_16x8_internal_avx2			
2.87%	1006	x264	[.] x264_8_pixel_avg2_w8_mmx2
2.58%	904	x264	[.] x264_8_pixel_satd_8x8_avx2
2.51%	882	x264	[.] x264_8_pixel_sad_16x16_sse2

Total number of events  
(35000\*4500000) □ 35K samples,  
1000 samples/sec @4.5 GHz

# Collecting Call Stacks

- When the hottest function is called from multiple functions, we need to know who call it.
- Profiling tools achieve this by capturing the call stack of the process
- There are several methods to collect the call stack.
  - Using the the frame pointer: `perf record --call-graph fp`
  - Using debug info: `perf record --call-graph dwarf`
  - Using hardware features (Intel Last Branch Record (LBR)) `perf record --call-graph lbr`



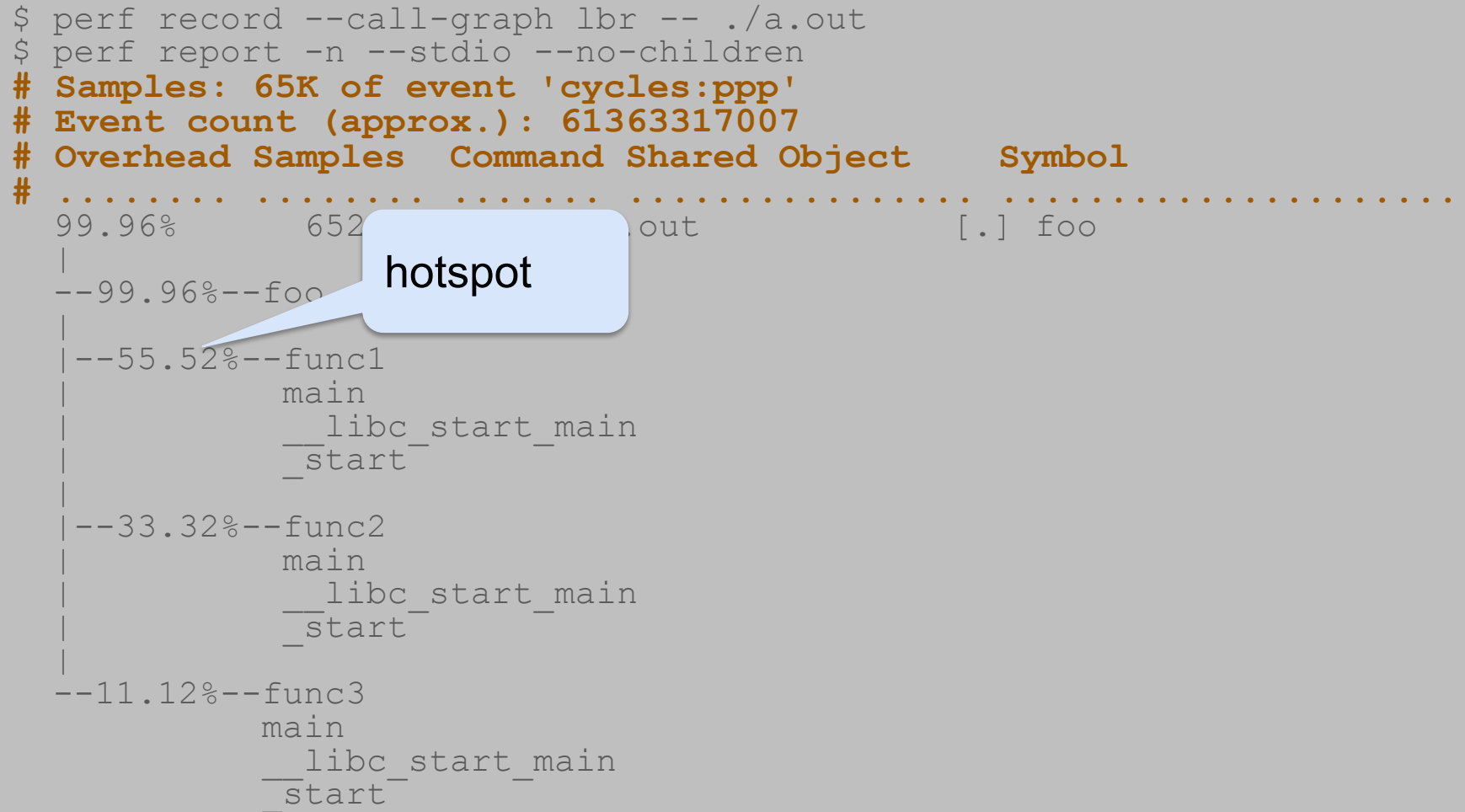
# Collecting Call Stacks

```
$ perf record --call-graph lbr -- ./a.out
$ perf report -n --stdio --no-children
# Samples: 65K of event 'cycles:ppp'
# Event count (approx.): 61363317007
# Overhead Samples Command Shared Object Symbol
# .....
99.96%      65217 a.out      a.out      [...] foo
|
--99.96%--foo
|
|--55.52%--func1
|         main
|         __libc_start_main
|         _start
|
|--33.32%--func2
|         main
|         __libc_start_main
|         _start
|
--11.12%--func3
|         main
|         __libc_start_main
|         _start
```



# Collecting Call Stacks

```
$ perf record --call-graph lbr -- ./a.out
$ perf report -n --stdio --no-children
# Samples: 65K of event 'cycles:ppp'
# Event count (approx.): 61363317007
# Overhead Samples Command Shared Object Symbol
# .....
99.96% 652 out [...] foo
|
--99.96%--foo
|
--55.52%--func1
|         main
|         __libc_start_main
|         _start
|
--33.32%--func2
|         main
|         __libc_start_main
|         _start
|
--11.12%--func3
|         main
|         __libc_start_main
|         _start
```



# perf report

`perf record` interprets and displays data collected by `perf record`.

- You can use interactive **TUI** (text-based user interface) or **STDIO** output
- if code is compiled with `-g` you can see both assembly and source code:  
e.g. `perf report --stdio -s srcline` shows the code line that triggered the sample
- You can also use `perf annotate` to see the corresponding assembly lines

# Exercise

In the google shared folder there is a *sieve.c* file that find prime numbers using the so-called "Eratostene sieve".

You can try to profile and optimize it. Here are some hints:

1. Try to use `perf record` to identify the hottest lines of code
2. First: improve the algorithm!
3. Try to use vectorization, parallelization, and unrolling
4. Finally, check if there is an additional SIMD instruction that can help you.

# Bibliography

*Yuliana Zamora, Robert Robey, Parallel and High Performance Computing, manning publications, (cap.3)*

*Denis, Bakhvalov, Performance Analysis And Tuning On Modern CPUs: Second Edition*