A Survey of High-Level Modeling and Simulation Methods for Modern Machine Learning Workloads

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Abstract

This survey analyzes 22 performance modeling tools from 53 papers (2016–2026), covering analytical models, trace-driven simulators, and ML-augmented hybrids for DNN accelerators, GPUs, distributed training, and LLM inference. We organize the literature by methodology type, target platform, and abstraction level, identifying a temporal validation lag and finding that hybrid approaches achieve the best accuracy-speed trade-offs. Hands-on reproducibility evaluations show Docker-first tools remain reproducible while those relying on serialized ML models become unusable. We identify open challenges in cross-workload generalization, error composition, and emerging architecture support.

Keywords

ML workload performance prediction, DNN accelerator modeling, GPU simulation, distributed training simulation, LLM inference serving, design space exploration, survey

1 Introduction

Machine learning workloads have become the dominant consumers of compute across datacenters and edge devices. Training and inference for CNNs, transformers, mixture-of-experts models, and LLMs demand hardware ranging from Google's TPU [34, 35] to custom accelerators, creating a heterogeneous landscape where architects must predict performance before committing to costly hardware decisions.

The shift toward domain-specific architectures [25] makes performance prediction both more important and more difficult. Design space exploration, parallelization selection, and hardware-software co-design all require fast, accurate performance models—yet ML workloads pose unique challenges: diverse computational patterns (dense matrix operations, sparse accesses, communication-bound collectives) across GPUs, TPUs, custom accelerators, and multi-device clusters.

A rich ecosystem of modeling tools has emerged. Analytical models (Timeloop [57], MAESTRO [43]) evaluate in microseconds with 5–15% error. Trace-driven simulators (ASTRA-sim [83], VIDUR [3]) replay execution traces for system-level modeling. Hybrid approaches (NeuSight [48]) combine analytical structure with learned components. Yet no comprehensive survey organizes these methods for the practitioner who must select a tool for a specific task. Existing surveys focus on ML *techniques* for modeling [75] or specific hardware [57]; this survey fills that gap with a methodology-centric view that yields new architectural insights.

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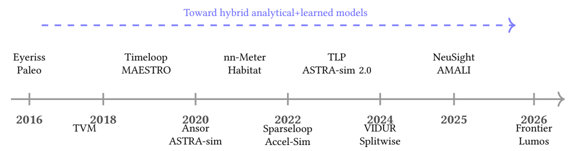

Figure 1: Evolution of performance modeling tools (2016–2026). Early analytical frameworks gave way to systematic accelerator modeling and distributed training simulation. Recent work targets LLM-specific and hybrid approaches.

We make the following contributions:

- A **methodology-centric taxonomy** organizing tools along three dimensions: methodology type, target platform, and abstraction level, with a coverage matrix identifying explicit research gaps (e.g., no trace-driven tools for accelerators, no hybrid tools for distributed systems).
- A **cross-methodology architectural analysis** revealing why structural decomposition aligned with hardware execution boundaries (loop nests for systolic arrays, tiles for GPU SMs, phases for serving) consistently outperforms methodology-agnostic approaches—an insight that cuts across subdomain boundaries and provides concrete design principles for future tools.
- **Hands-on reproducibility evaluation** of five representative tools, demonstrating that deployment methodology (Docker-first vs. serialized ML models) is a stronger predictor of usability than reported accuracy, with implications for tool design.
- An **error composition analysis** characterizing how kernel-level prediction errors propagate through the model-to-system abstraction stack, identifying the uncaptured inter-kernel overheads (launch latency, memory allocation, synchronization) that dominate the gap between kernel and end-to-end accuracy.

Figure 1 illustrates the evolution of performance modeling tools from early analytical frameworks to modern hybrid approaches.

2 Survey Methodology

We searched ACM Digital Library, IEEE Xplore, Semantic Scholar, and arXiv using terms related to ML performance modeling, with backward/forward citation tracking from seminal works. Target venues include architecture (MICRO, ISCA, HPCA, ASPLOS), systems (MLSys, OSDI, SOSP, NSDI), and related (NeurIPS, MobiSys, DAC, ISPASS). Papers must propose or evaluate a tool for predicting ML workload performance with quantitative evaluation; we exclude non-performance tasks and general-purpose workloads. From 287 initial candidates, title/abstract screening yielded 118 papers; full-text review reduced the set to 53 that met all criteria, supplemented by 12 foundational works for context. We cover 2016–2026 and classify each paper by *methodology type* (analytical, simulation, trace-driven, ML-augmented, hybrid), *target platform*, and *abstraction level* (kernel, model, system).

Related surveys and scope boundaries. Prior surveys address adjacent topics: Rakhshanfar and Zarandi [65] survey ML for processor DSE; Sze et al. [76] treat DNN hardware design (the foundation for Timeloop/MAESTRO); simulators such as GPGPU-Sim [4], gem5 [6], and SST [68] have been extensively used as validation targets in the performance modeling literature; and MLPerf [53, 67] standardizes *measurement* rather than *prediction*. Early ML accelerator modeling (2014–2018) established foundational approaches: DianNao [11] introduced analytical dataflow modeling for dedicated accelerators, Eyeriss [13] systematized row-stationary dataflow analysis, and Paleo [61] pioneered layer-wise analytical estimation. The closest prior work, Dudziak et al. [17], compares edge device predictors for NAS; we broaden to the full landscape.

Proprietary and vendor tools. NVIDIA's Nsight Compute [56] and Nsight Systems are the most widely-used GPU profiling tools in practice; Google's internal TPU models underpin production scheduling but are undocumented. We exclude these from evaluation as they cannot be independently reproduced, though surveyed tools frequently validate against Nsight Compute data.

Compiler cost models and capacity planning. Beyond TVM/Ansor/TLP, relevant compiler models include Halide's autoscheduler [63] (pioneered learned cost models), MLIR-based cost models [45], and Triton's [77] heuristic GPU kernel cost model. At the system level, Pollux [62] and Sia [33] use performance models for cluster scheduling and capacity planning—a distinct use case (optimizing workload placement) that shares modeling techniques with our surveyed tools.

This survey differs from all prior work by spanning the full methodology spectrum across all major platforms with reproducibility evaluation.

3 Background

3.1 ML Workload Characteristics

ML workloads are expressed as computation graphs whose operator shapes are statically known and amenable to analytical modeling. Frameworks such as PyTorch [59] and TensorFlow [1] compile these graphs for execution, though MoE and dynamic inference introduce input-dependent control flow. Performance depends on tensor-to-memory mapping (dataflow, tiling), KV cache management for LLM inference [44], and at scale, compute–memory–network interactions across data, tensor, pipeline, and expert parallelism [15]. LLM inference splits into compute-bound prefill and memory-bound decode phases [60], both modeled under batched serving [2, 85]. Foundation model training introduces additional modeling challenges: long-context attention with quadratic memory scaling, activation checkpointing that trades compute for memory, and mixed-precision training where numerical format affects both speed and convergence [15].

3.2 Modeling Methodologies

We classify approaches into five categories. **Analytical models** express performance as closed-form functions (e.g., the roofline model [82]), offering microsecond evaluation but requiring per-architecture derivation. **Cycle-accurate simulators** (GPGPU-Sim [4], Accel-Sim [38]) achieve high fidelity at 1000–10000× slowdown, serving primarily as validation oracles for the high-level methods that are the focus of this survey. **Trace-driven simulators** (ASTRA-sim [83], VIDUR [3]) trade fidelity for orders-of-magnitude speedup. **ML-augmented approaches** learn from profiling data (nn-Meter [88]) but may not generalize beyond training distributions. **Hybrid approaches** combine analytical structure with learned components (NeuSight [48], Habitat [86]), aiming to balance accuracy, speed, and interpretability. Accuracy metrics—MAPE, RMSE, and rank correlation—vary across the literature, limiting direct comparison (Section 6); ground-truth relies on hardware counters (PAPI [7], LIKWID [78]) or vendor profilers [56].

4 Taxonomy

We organize the literature along three dimensions. The *primary axis* is methodology type—how a tool predicts performance—because methodology determines the fundamental trade-offs between accuracy, speed, interpretability, and data requirements. The *secondary axes* are target platform and abstraction level, which together determine the scope and applicability of each tool. We additionally characterize tools by workload coverage, identifying a temporal validation lag: tools published during the CNN era naturally validated on CNN workloads, while post-2023 tools increasingly target transformers and LLMs.

Table 1 provides a unified view combining the coverage matrix (number of surveyed tools per methodology–platform cell) with trade-off profiles, with empty cells highlighting research gaps. The dominant pairings are: analytical models for accelerators, cycle-accurate simulation for GPUs/CPUs, trace-driven simulation for distributed systems, and ML-augmented approaches for edge devices.

Table 1 reveals three structural gaps: (1) trace-driven *execution replay* simulation (as distinct from instruction-trace-driven cycle-accurate simulation such as Accel-Sim) is used exclusively for distributed systems; (2) edge devices are served only by ML-augmented approaches, lacking hybrid alternatives; (3) no ML-augmented tool targets distributed systems directly. Methodologies cluster into two speed regimes: sub-millisecond (analytical, ML-augmented, hybrid) for DSE, and minutes-to-hours (simulation, trace-driven) for validation.

Figure 2 illustrates how tools from different methodology types compose: analytical engines provide fast base estimates, ML components learn residual corrections, and trace-driven simulators orchestrate system-level execution.

4.1 Primary Axis: Methodology Type

The choice of methodology determines fundamental trade-offs between accuracy, evaluation speed, data requirements, and interpretability, as summarized in Table 1; Section 5 provides detailed per-tool analysis.

Table 1: Methodology taxonomy: coverage matrix and trade-off profile. Platform columns show the number of surveyed tools per cell; 0 indicates an explicit research gap. Speed, data requirements, and interpretability determine practical applicability; the failure mode column identifies the primary condition under which each methodology breaks down.

Methodology	DNN Accel.	GPU	Distrib. Systems	Edge/ Mobile	CPU	Eval. Speed	Data Req.	Interp.	Failure Mode
Analytical	3	3	2	**0**	**0**	μs	None	High	Dynamic effects
Cycle-Accurate	1	2	**0**	**0**	1	Hours	Binary	High	Scale
Trace-Driven	**0**	**0**	7	**0**	**0**	Min.	Traces	Med.	Trace fidelity
ML-Augmented	**0**	3	**0**	3	1	ms	Profiling	Low	Distrib. shift
Hybrid	1	2	**0**	**0**	1	ms	Mixed	Med.	Training domain

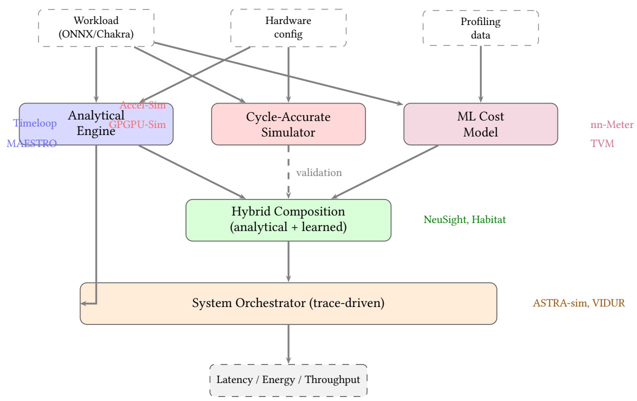

Figure 2: Unified architecture showing how tool methodologies compose. Analytical engines and ML cost models feed into hybrid approaches, while system-level orchestrators (trace-driven) assemble component predictions into end-to-end estimates. Cycle-accurate simulators primarily serve as validation oracles.

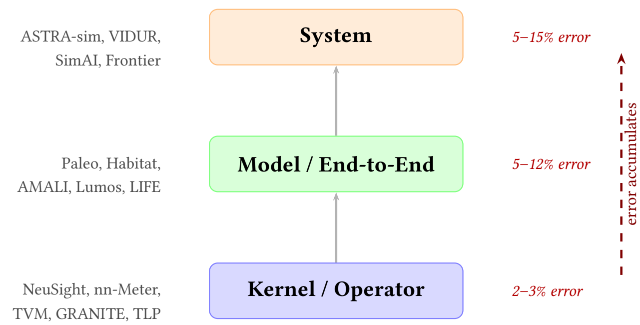

Figure 3: Abstraction level hierarchy and the composition problem. Tools operate at one of three levels; composing predictions across levels accumulates error. Error ranges are representative values from surveyed papers.

Analytical models (Timeloop [57]: 5–10% vs. RTL; MAESTRO [43]; Sparseloop [84]; AMALI [10]) provide microsecond evaluation and full interpretability but require per-architecture derivation (AMALI's 23.6% MAPE illustrates GPU dynamic effects). **Cycle-accurate simulators** (GPGPU-Sim [4], Accel-Sim [38]: 0.90–0.97 IPC; PyTorchSim [39]) are impractical for DSE at 1000–10000× slowdown [4, 38]. **Trace-driven simulators** (ASTRA-sim [83]: 5–15%; VIDUR [3]: <5%; SimAI [80]; Frontier [20]) replay execution traces for system-level modeling. **ML-augmented models** (nn-Meter [88]; LitePred [18]; HELP [47]; TVM [12]/Ansor [89]) learn from profiling data but risk *silent distribution shift.* **Hybrid** approaches (NeuSight [48]; Habitat [86]; ArchGym [42]) combine analytical priors with learned corrections [17].

4.2 Secondary Axes: Platform and Abstraction Level

Platform constrains methodology: **accelerators** use analytical models; **GPUs** span all types; **distributed systems** require trace-driven simulation; **edge devices** use ML-augmented approaches; **CPUs** [55, 75] are least studied. Abstraction level determines composition errors (Figure 3): kernel-level tools achieve 2–3% error, model-level 5–12%, and system-level 5–15%, with errors propagating through the chain.

4.3 Workload Coverage

Table 2 characterizes the workload types on which each tool has been validated, revealing a temporal validation lag rather than a methodological bias: tools published during the CNN-dominant era (2016–2022) naturally validated on the workloads of their time, while post-2023 tools increasingly target transformers and LLMs.

Figure 4 quantifies this temporal validation lag: of the 14 surveyed tools, 9 (64%) include CNN validation, reflecting the dominance of CNNs when those tools were published. Critically, the lag is closing—post-2023 tools (VIDUR, Frontier, Lumos, SimAI) validate exclusively on transformers/LLMs—but emerging workloads remain uncovered: **no surveyed tool has been validated on diffusion models or dynamic inference workloads** [40], only Frontier [20] has validated MoE support, and no single tool offers validated transformer prediction across the full kernel-to-system stack. The practical consequence: practitioners working with frontier workloads must accept unvalidated predictions, collect their own validation data, or fall back to measurement.

Table 2: Workload validation coverage. ✓ = validated in the original paper; ○ = partial or indirect validation; — = no validation. Nearly all tools report accuracy on CNN workloads; transformer and MoE coverage is sparse. Empty columns (diffusion, dynamic inference) represent workload types with *no* validated performance modeling tools.

Tool	CNN	Trans-former	LLM Train	MoE	Diff.
Timeloop	✓	○	—	—	—
MAESTRO	✓	—	—	—	—
NeuSight	✓	✓	—	—	—
Habitat	✓	—	—	—	—
AMALI	—	✓	—	—	—
ASTRA-sim	✓	○	✓	—	—
VIDUR	—	✓	—	—	—
SimAI	—	—	✓	—	—
Lumos	—	—	✓	—	—
Frontier	—	✓	—	✓	—
nn-Meter	✓	—	—	—	—
LitePred	✓	—	—	—	—
HELP	✓	—	—	—	—
TVM/Ansor	✓	○	—	—	—

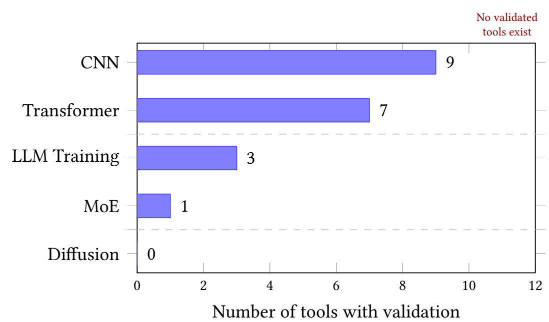

Figure 4: Workload validation coverage across surveyed tools. CNN validation reflects the temporal publication distribution (most tools published 2016–2022), while MoE and diffusion models—dominant only since 2023—have minimal or no validated prediction tools.

5 Survey of Approaches

This section surveys performance modeling tools for ML workloads, organized by target platform, examining modeling challenges, available tools, and their strengths and limitations. Table 3 provides a comprehensive comparison.

5.1 DNN Accelerator Modeling

The analytical tractability of DNN accelerator modeling stems from the regularity of computation [76], building on early characterization pioneered by DianNao [11]. A convolution layer maps to a seven-deep nested loop over batch, output channel, input channel, and spatial dimensions; Timeloop [57] enumerates mappings of these loops to a spatial-temporal hardware hierarchy, computing data reuse at each memory level as the ratio of loop bounds. This exhaustive search finds the optimal dataflow in microseconds (5–10% error, 2000× speedup) because the search space, though combinatorially large, admits efficient pruning: any mapping that exceeds a memory level's capacity is immediately discarded. MAESTRO [43] achieves similar modeling with a more compact "data-centric" representation that specifies which data dimension is stationary at each level, trading enumeration completeness for specification simplicity—but sacrificing Timeloop's ability to model per-PE utilization, explaining why Timeloop achieves tighter error bounds on architectures with irregular PE arrays. SCALE-Sim [70] complements both by providing cycle-accurate systolic array simulation for validation. Sparseloop [84] extends Timeloop's analysis to sparse tensors by introducing format-specific access count models for compression formats (CSR, bitmap)—the key challenge being that sparse data access patterns depend on the data values, requiring statistical or format-aware modeling rather than purely geometric analysis. PyTorchSim [39] integrates PyTorch 2 with NPU simulation but lacks real-hardware validation; ArchGym [42] connects ML surrogates to simulators (0.61% RMSE vs. simulator, not hardware). Accelerator modeling is the most mature subdomain, with Timeloop as the de facto DSE standard. The key gap is silicon validation; emerging PIM tools [26, 31, 46, 58] also lack hardware validation.

5.2 GPU Performance Modeling

GPUs dominate ML training and inference, requiring models for SIMT execution, warp scheduling, memory coalescing, and occupancy effects.

Cycle-accurate simulation. GPGPU-Sim [4] and Accel-Sim [38] achieve 0.90–0.97 IPC correlation but at 1000–10000× slowdown; reverse-engineering [30] improved Accel-Sim to 13.98% MAPE. These simulators integrate with memory subsystem models—from DRAMSim2 [69] and Ramulator [41] to their modern successors DRAMSim3 [50] and Ramulator 2.0 [52]—for accurate DRAM timing, critical for memory-bound LLM inference.

Analytical and hybrid models. AMALI [10] models GPU performance through memory hierarchy analysis (L1, L2, HBM data movement volumes); the roofline model [82] provides upper bounds, with recent LLM-specific extensions [32]. NeuSight [48] achieves 2.3% MAPE on GPT-3 kernels by decomposing each kernel into *tiles* corresponding 1:1 with CUDA thread blocks. This abstraction succeeds because GPU scheduling is tile-based: each SM's execution time depends on arithmetic intensity, shared memory footprint, and register pressure—all locally measurable per tile. By profiling representative tiles and extrapolating via occupancy, NeuSight captures memory bandwidth saturation and L2 cache pressure without modeling warp scheduling details. AMALI's whole-kernel model misses these effects by averaging data movement over the entire kernel, losing per-SM occupancy information. Habitat [86] achieves 11.8% cross-GPU transfer via wave scaling based on SM count and memory bandwidth ratios.

The accuracy disparity reflects a fundamental distinction: accelerator execution is deterministic (loop nests fully determine data movement), while GPUs introduce warp scheduling, memory

Table 3: Summary of surveyed performance modeling tools for ML workloads, organized by target platform. Methodology: A=Analytical, S=Simulation, T=Trace-driven, M=ML-augmented, H=Hybrid. *Accuracy measures surrogate-vs-simulator fidelity, not real hardware error. †Reported accuracy unverifiable due to reproducibility issues. ‡No accuracy baseline against real hardware reported.

Tool	Platform	Method	Target	Accuracy	Speed	Key Capability
DNN Accelerator Modeling						
Timeloop [57]	NPU	A	Latency/Energy	5–10%	μs	Loop-nest DSE
MAESTRO [43]	NPU	A	Latency/Energy	5–15%	μs	Data-centric directives
Sparseloop [84]	NPU	A	Sparse tensors	5–10%	μs	Compression modeling
PyTorchSim [39]	NPU	S	Cycle-accurate	N/A‡	Hours	PyTorch 2 integration
ArchGym [42]	Multi	H	Multi-objective	0.61%*	ms	ML-aided DSE
GPU Performance Modeling						
Accel-Sim [38]	GPU	S	Cycle-accurate	10–20%	Hours	SASS trace-driven
GPGPU-Sim [4]	GPU	S	Cycle-accurate	10–20%	Hours	CUDA workloads
AMALI [10]	GPU	A	LLM inference	23.6%	ms	Memory hierarchy
NeuSight [48]	GPU	H	Kernel/E2E latency	2.3%	ms	Tile-based prediction
Habitat [86]	GPU	H	Training time	11.8%	Per-kernel	Wave scaling
Distributed Training and LLM Serving						
ASTRA-sim [83]	Distributed	T	Training time	5–15%	Minutes	Collective modeling
SimAI [80]	Distributed	T	Training time	1.9%	Minutes	Full-stack simulation
Lumos [51]	Distributed	T	LLM training	3.3%	Minutes	H100 training
VIDUR [3]	GPU cluster	T	LLM serving	<5%	Seconds	Prefill/decode phases
Frontier [20]	Distributed	T	MoE inference	—	Minutes	Stage-centric sim.
TrioSim [49]	Multi-GPU	T	DNN training	N/A‡	Minutes	Lightweight multi-GPU
Edge Device Modeling						
nn-Meter [88]	Edge	M	Latency	<1%†	ms	Kernel detection
LitePred [18]	Edge	M	Latency	0.7%	ms	85-platform transfer
HELP [47]	Multi	M	Latency	1.9%	ms	10-sample adaptation
Compiler Cost Models						
TVM [12]	GPU	M	Schedule perf.	~15%	ms	Autotuning guidance
Ansor [89]	GPU	M	Schedule perf.	~15%	ms	Program sampling
TLP [87]	GPU	M	Tensor program	<10%	ms	Transformer cost model

coalescing, and L2 cache contention that progressively degrade analytical accuracy.

LLM-specific and compiler models. VIDUR [3] simulates LLM serving at <5% error; LIFE [19], HERMES [5], Omniwise [23], and SwizzlePerf [79] target inference. TVM [12]/Ansor [89] (~15% MAPE), TLP [87] (<10%), and SynPerf [81] target compiler autotuning [90].

5.3 Distributed Training and LLM Serving

Distributed systems require modeling communication, synchronization, and parallelism strategies [29, 64, 72]. ASTRA-sim [83] achieves 5–15% error via Chakra traces [73]; SimAI [80] reaches 1.9% at Alibaba scale; Echo [8] scales simulation to 10K+ devices; Lumos [51] 3.3% on H100s; PRISM [21] provides prediction intervals at 10K+ GPUs. Paleo [61] pioneered analytical estimation; MAD Max [28] and Sailor [74] extend it; Llama 3 [15] provides validation ground truth at 16K GPUs. The speed–fidelity hierarchy among these simulators reflects fundamentally different modeling granularities. VIDUR models serving at the *request level*: each prefill/decode phase is a single event with profiled duration, yielding second-scale simulation. ASTRA-sim operates at the *collective communication level*, replaying Chakra traces [73] to model compute-communication overlap critical for training. SimAI decomposes further to the *NCCL algorithm level*, modeling chunk-based ring/tree reductions—this matters because network congestion is non-linear: overlapping collectives that individually fit within bandwidth may congest, an effect invisible to per-collective models. SimAI's 1.9% MAPE (vs. ASTRA-sim's 5–15%) reflects this fidelity gain at production scale, though Echo [8] shows the cost: lightweight modeling is needed to scale to 10K+ devices.

For inference serving, VIDUR [3] models scheduling with vLLM [44]; DistServe [91] disaggregates prefill and decode for goodput optimization; Frontier [20] targets MoE; POD-Attention [24] and AQUA [71] address prefill-decode overlap and memory offloading respectively; ThrottLL'eM [36] models power effects; speculative decoding [9] creates a moving target for all simulators.

5.4 Edge Device Modeling

Hardware diversity makes per-device analytical modeling impractical. nn-Meter [88] claims <1% MAPE but is unverifiable due to dependency failures (Section 7); LitePred [18] achieves 0.7% across 85 platforms; HELP [47] reaches 1.9% with 10-sample meta-learning.

ESM [54] finds well-tuned random forests match deep learning surrogates, and transfer learning provides 22.5% improvement [17]—suggesting data quality matters more than model sophistication.

5.5 Cross-Cutting Themes

Three architectural insights emerge. *First*, structural decomposition aligned with hardware execution boundaries consistently outperforms black-box approaches: Timeloop's loop nests reflect systolic array dataflow, NeuSight's tiles mirror CUDA thread block scheduling, and VIDUR's prefill/decode split captures distinct compute- vs. memory-bound regimes. *Second*, the critical modeling features differ by platform: data reuse for accelerators, thread block occupancy for GPUs, and collective topology for distributed systems—explaining why no single methodology spans all platforms. *Third*, a persistent **accuracy–generality–speed trade-off** drives methodological diversity; subdomain maturity correlates with economic incentive: accelerator DSE is most mature (irreversible chip errors), distributed training is fastest-growing (million-dollar runs), and edge modeling has weakest reproducibility.

6 Comparison and Analysis

Fundamental incomparability. Self-reported accuracy values across surveyed tools are **not comparable across problem domains**. Each tool is evaluated on its own benchmarks, workloads, and hardware; no common evaluation benchmark exists. A tool reporting 2% MAPE on GPU kernels is solving a fundamentally different problem than one reporting 5% on distributed training—the former predicts tile-level arithmetic intensity while the latter models network congestion across thousands of devices. Drawing accuracy rankings or trade-off curves across these incomparable measurements would be methodologically unsound. We therefore organize analysis *within* each problem domain and characterize the *structural difficulty* of each domain separately.

6.1 Per-Domain Accuracy Analysis

Figure 5 presents accuracy ranges organized by problem domain, emphasizing the structural reasons why each domain achieves its characteristic error range rather than inviting cross-domain comparison.

Accelerator modeling (5–15% MAPE) is the most analytically tractable domain because systolic array execution is deterministic: loop nests fully specify data movement, enabling Timeloop (5–10%) and MAESTRO (5–15%) to achieve tight bounds through exhaustive mapping enumeration. AMALI's higher error (23.6%) on GPU memory hierarchy modeling illustrates the boundary where analytical tractability breaks down.

GPU kernel prediction (2–12% MAPE) spans a wider range due to non-deterministic execution effects. NeuSight (2.3%) succeeds by decomposing kernels into tiles that mirror CUDA thread block scheduling; Habitat (11.8%) trades accuracy for cross-GPU transferability via wave scaling. Accel-Sim (∼15%) achieves high fidelity through cycle-accurate simulation at orders-of-magnitude slowdown.

Distributed systems (2–15% MAPE) exhibit the widest accuracy range, dominated by communication modeling difficulty. SimAI (1.9%) models NCCL-level chunk reductions; Lumos (3.3%) targets H100 training; VIDUR (<5%) models serving at request-level granularity; ASTRA-sim (5–15%) replays Chakra traces at collective granularity. The range reflects fundamentally different modeling granularities (Section 5.3).

Edge device prediction (0.7–2% MAPE) achieves the lowest reported errors but requires per-device profiling data, making the comparison misleading: low MAPE reflects the simplicity of the prediction task (single-device, profiling-heavy) rather than superior methodology.

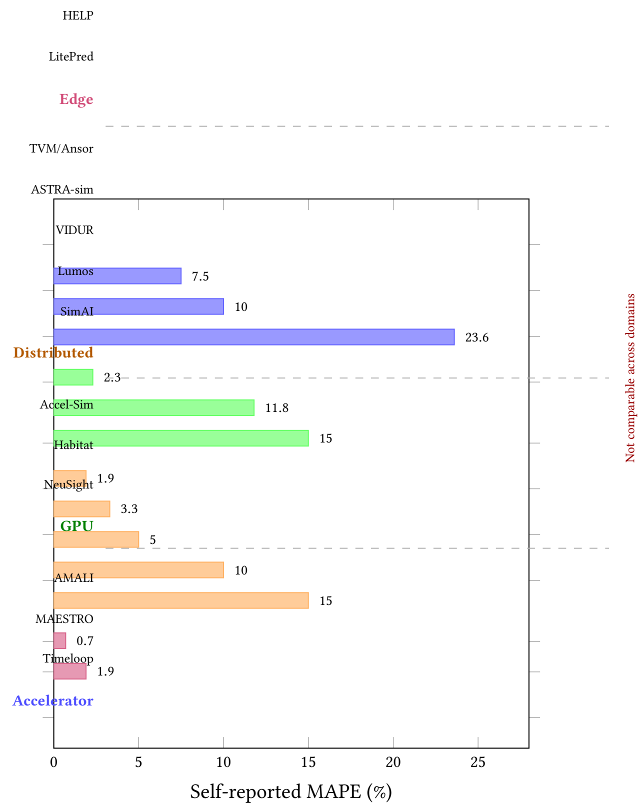

Figure 5: Self-reported accuracy (MAPE) organized by problem domain. Each domain represents a structurally different prediction problem; values are not comparable across domains due to different benchmarks, workloads, hardware, and inherent problem difficulty. Within each domain, tools address similar prediction targets and can be meaningfully compared.

6.2 Within-Domain Speed–Accuracy Trade-offs

Within each domain, tools exhibit meaningful speed–accuracy trade-offs that reflect methodology choices (Figure 6).

6.3 Practitioner Tool Selection

Tool selection depends on target platform and acceptable error margin. Accelerator DSE: Timeloop/MAESTRO (μs-speed); Sparseloop for sparse workloads. GPU: NeuSight for accuracy–speed balance;

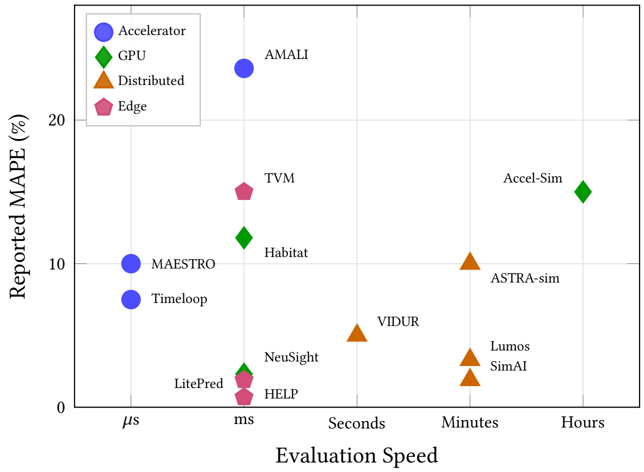

Figure 6: Speed vs. self-reported accuracy, colored by *problem domain* rather than methodology type. Tools within the same domain (same marker shape and color) address comparable prediction targets; cross-domain comparisons are not meaningful. The apparent "trade-off frontier" across all points is an artifact of plotting incomparable measurements on shared axes.

Accel-Sim for μarch detail. Distributed: VIDUR for serving; ASTRA-sim/SimAI for training at scale. Edge: LitePred for coverage; HELP with minimal data. Additional factors include available hardware for profiling, team expertise with specific frameworks, integration with existing workflows, and license constraints. Prefer Docker-first tools (Section 7).

7 Experimental Evaluation

We conducted hands-on evaluations of five tools spanning methodology types: Timeloop (analytical), ASTRA-sim (trace-driven, distributed), VIDUR (trace-driven, LLM serving), nn-Meter (ML-augmented, edge), and NeuSight (hybrid, GPU). We selected one tool per methodology type to maximize coverage; we excluded proprietary tools (e.g., NVIDIA Nsight Compute, internal TPU profilers) as they cannot be independently reproduced.

Scope and limitations. All evaluations ran on Apple M2 Ultra (aarch64, 192 GB RAM) using Docker containers where provided. *No GPU hardware was available*, so we **do not validate accuracy claims**. Instead, we evaluate *reproducibility*: can a practitioner reproduce a tool's functionality without the original authors' environment? This complements accuracy evaluation, which would require common-benchmark runs on target hardware (Section 8). All three Docker-based tools (VIDUR, Timeloop, ASTRA-sim) reproduced successfully; NeuSight required manual setup but produced correct outputs; nn-Meter failed entirely.

7.1 Per-Tool Results

VIDUR. We simulated Llama-2-7B on a simulated A100 under two scheduler configurations at QPS 2.0 (Table 4). Sarathi [2] achieves lower latency than vLLM (avg 0.158 s vs. 0.177 s), consistent with

Table 4: VIDUR simulation results for Llama-2-7B inference serving on a simulated A100 GPU (Poisson arrivals at QPS 2.0, seed=42). All metrics from our own experiments.

Metric	vLLM	Sarathi
Requests	200	50
QPS (Poisson)	2.0	2.0
Avg E2E latency (s)	0.177	0.158
P99 E2E latency (s)	0.314	0.262
Avg TTFT (s)	0.027	0.025
Avg TPOT (s)	0.0093	0.0090
Requests preempted	0	0

Table 5: ASTRA-sim quantitative results from our experiments on the HGX-H100 configuration. Top: collective microbenchmarks (8 NPUs, 1 MB). Bottom: ResNet-50 data-parallel training scaling.

Collective Microbenchmarks (8 NPUs, 1 MB)		
Collective	**Cycles**	**Ratio vs. AR**
All-Reduce	57,426	1.000
All-Gather	44,058	0.767
Reduce-Scatter	28,950	0.504
All-to-All	114,000	1.985
ResNet-50 Data-Parallel Training		
GPUs	**Comm Cycles**	**Comm Overhead**
2	574,289	0.05%
4	1,454,270	0.13%
8	3,307,886	0.30%

its more efficient prefill–decode interleaving; neither scheduler triggered preemptions at this load level.

Timeloop. Docker CLI produces deterministic, bit-identical outputs for Eyeriss-like configurations; Python bindings fail (`ImportError: libbarvinok.so.23`).

ASTRA-sim. Collective microbenchmarks and ResNet-50 training at 2–8 simulated GPUs (Table 5) show internal consistency: Reduce-Scatter takes half the time of All-Reduce; communication overhead scales 5.76× for 4× more GPUs. Production-scale validation (100+ GPUs) would be needed to assess accuracy under realistic conditions.

NeuSight. Tile-based decomposition mirrors CUDA tiling for dense operations; irregular workloads had limited examples.

nn-Meter. After four attempts (>4h), no predictions ran: pickle-serialized predictors (scikit-learn 0.23.1) are incompatible with current versions.

7.2 Lessons and Threats to Validity

Key lessons: (1) Docker-first deployment correlates with reproducibility; ML model serialization is fragile (nn-Meter's pickle predictors became unusable within two years). (2) Reference outputs enable trust without hardware. (3) Scale-limited evaluation (2–8 GPUs) understates system tools [15].

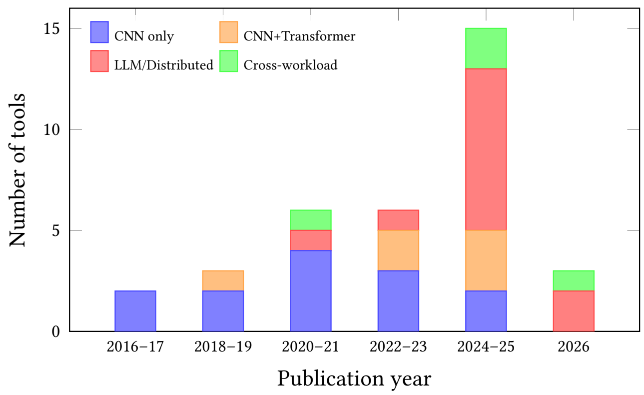

Figure 7: Workload coverage of surveyed tools by publication period. The shift toward transformer and LLM workloads accelerates from 2023, but MoE and diffusion models remain largely uncharacterized.

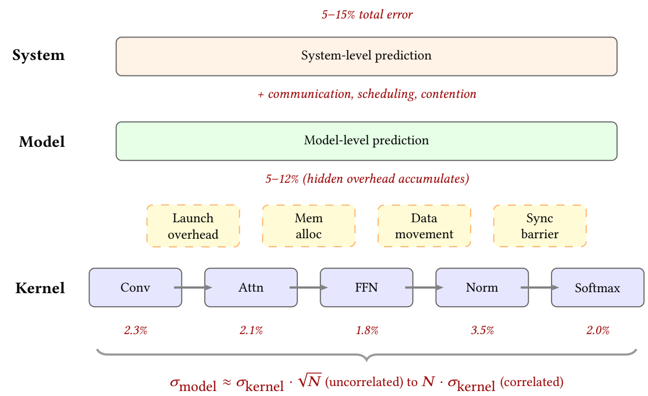

Figure 8: Error composition across abstraction levels. Kernel-level predictions (2–3% each) accumulate through hidden overheads (kernel launch, memory allocation, data movement, synchronization) that are not captured by kernel-level tools, yielding 5–12% model-level error. System-level errors add communication and scheduling overhead.

Threats. Our venue-focused search may under-represent industry publications. We exclude proprietary tools (Nsight Compute [56], internal TPU models) from evaluation. Accuracy metrics vary across papers, limiting direct comparison—we present all accuracy values organized by domain with explicit incomparability caveats (Figures 6, 5). Our evaluation covers 5 of 22 tools, selected for methodology diversity; a complete study would include SimAI, AMALI, and Habitat.

8 Open Challenges and Future Directions

Generalization gaps. *Workload*: The temporal validation lag (Section 4) is closing for transformers but remains wide for emerging workloads—MoE, diffusion [40], and dynamic inference lack validated tools; scaling laws [14, 22, 27, 37] predict loss but not latency. Figure 7 shows the shift toward LLM workloads since 2023. *Hardware*: cross-family transfer (GPU→TPU→PIM) remains unsolved despite meta-learning (HELP) and feature-based transfer (LitePred). *Temporal*: software stack evolution silently invalidating models is addressed by no tool.

The composition problem. Composing kernel-level predictions into end-to-end estimates is unsolved (Figure 8): kernel-level errors of 2–3% yield ~10× higher variance at model level ($\sigma_{\text{model}} \approx \sigma_{\text{kernel}} \cdot \sqrt{N}$), and correlated errors can compound linearly. VIDUR sidesteps this by profiling entire prefill/decode phases.

Emerging hardware and future directions. PIM [26, 31, 46, 58], chiplets, and disaggregated designs blur memory hierarchy assumptions; FlashAttention [16] changes the landscape faster than models retrain; no MLPerf [53, 67] equivalent exists for performance *prediction.* Key future directions: (1) a common evaluation benchmark for modeling tools; (2) validated tools for frontier workloads; (3) formal composition error bounds; (4) unified energy-latency-memory prediction [66]; (5) Docker-first deployment with portable formats (ONNX, Chakra [73]).

9 Conclusion

This survey analyzed 22 tools for predicting ML workload performance. Key findings: no single methodology dominates—the right choice depends on practitioner priorities; LLM workloads demand specialized modeling (prefill/decode, KV cache, dynamic batching); Docker-first tools remain reproducible while serialized ML models become unusable; and accuracy claims require scrutiny due to varying benchmarks. The most pressing gaps are common evaluation benchmarks, validated tools for frontier workloads (MoE, diffusion), kernel-to-end-to-end error composition, and emerging hardware support.

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