Session 1: Introduction & Overview

COMP52315: performance engineering

Lawrence Mitchell*

*lawrence.mitchell@durham.ac.uk

Introduction

What is the course about?

Saw (in Core I: High Performance Computing) different parallel programming paradigms.

Parallelism helps to improve performance (runtime) of a code.

Question

Given some code, which I would like to make faster, how do I know *what* to do?

Astrophysicist: My simulation takes 1 week to run.

Data analysis: My analysis pipeline takes 4 hours.

- Are these numbers reasonable?
- Could we improve them?

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Performance models & measurements

We can treat the computer as an experimental system

⇒ perform measurements of the performance

⇒ construct *models* that explain performance

⇒ apply appropriate optimisations → find performance gap → and optimise.

model says: code should take 10s
reality: code takes 15 minutes.

Course overview (not in order, approximate)

- Computer architecture overview
- Fundamentals of performance engineering
- Tools: CPU topology and *affinity*
- Roofline performance model
- Tools: Performance counters
- Vectorisation (SIMD programming)
- Data layout transformations

} sophisticated techniques

What you need

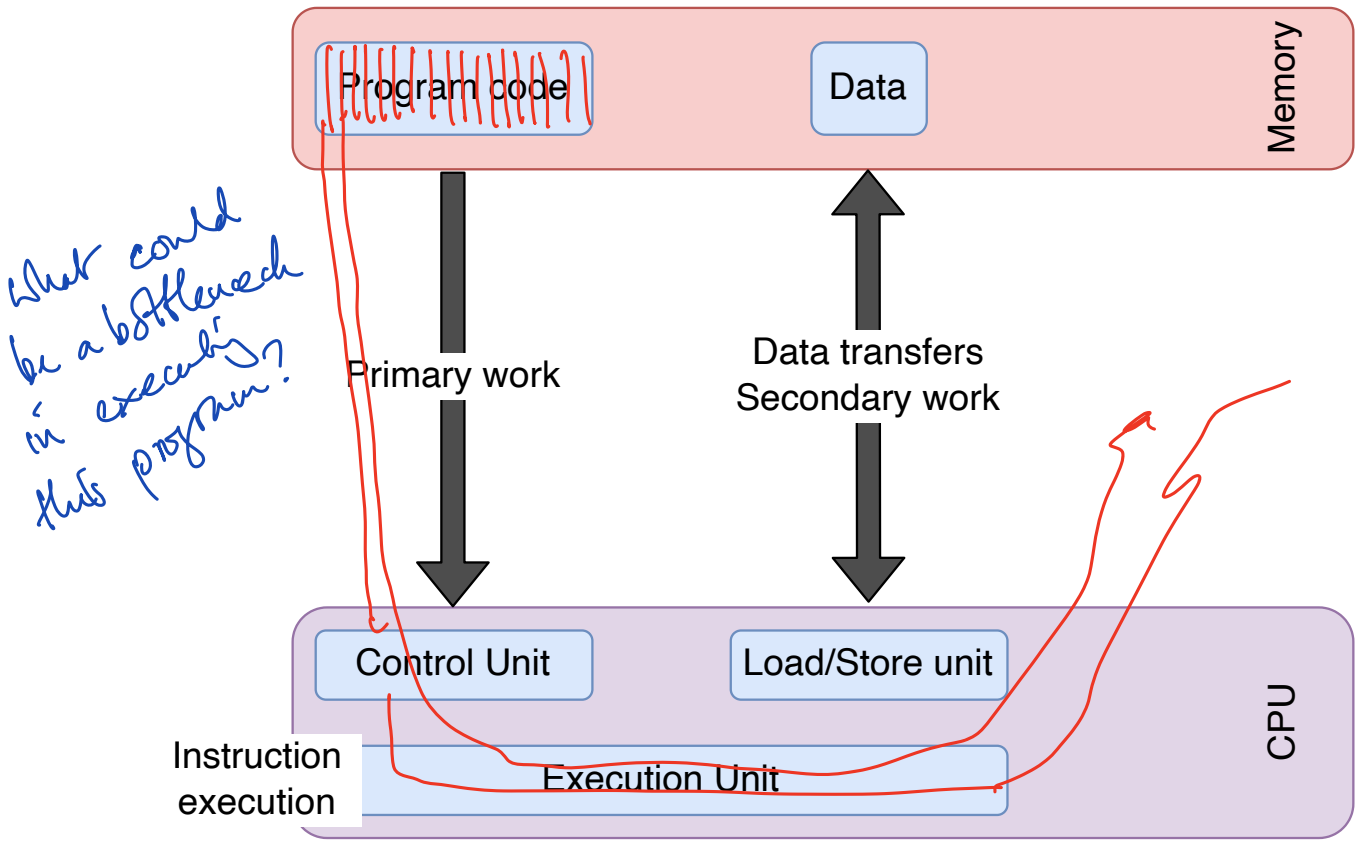
- The toolchain we'll use is available on Linux machines (but not Windows/Mac)
- I recommend using Hamilton (you should already have accounts from Core I)

$\Rightarrow$ Short howto from Core I website. Exercises will also recap some of this material.

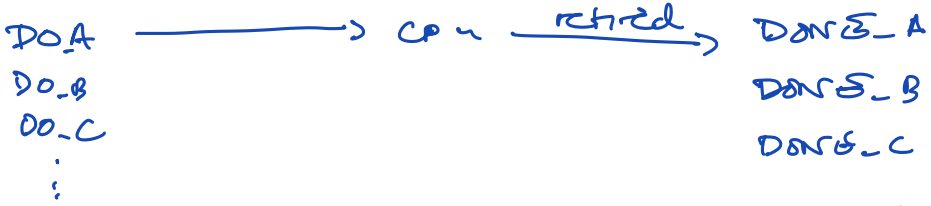
"general purpose"

Resources in stored program computers

Hardware for programmers



Resource bottlenecks: instructions



Instruction execution

How fast the CPU retires instructions.

Often measured in instructions per cycle (IPC).

Primary resource of the processor. Primary hardware design goal is to *increase* instruction throughput (instructions/second).

Mismatch

Instructions are “work” as seen by processor designers.

Not all instructions are considered “work” by software developers (you!).

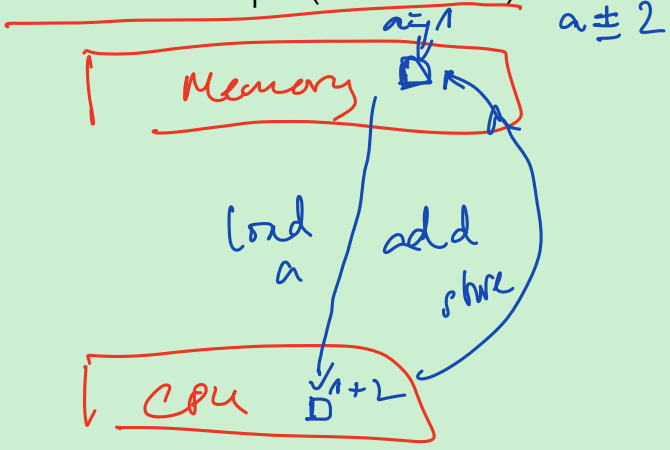
Resource bottlenecks: instructions

Adding two arrays

```
for (int i = 0; i < N; i++)
  a[i] = a[i] + b[i];
```

User view

Work is N flops (additions)



Processor view

Work is $6N$ instructions

```
.top
LOAD r1 = a[i]
LOAD r2 = b[i]
ADD  r1 = r1 + r2
STORE a[i] = r1
INCREMENT i
GOTO .top IF i < N
```

Resource bottlenecks: data transfer

Data Transfer

Data movement (from memory to CPU and back) is a *consequence* of instruction execution and considered a secondary resource. Maximum bandwidth (bytes/second) determined by rate at which load/store instructions can be executed and hardware limits.

Data movement adding two arrays

```
for (int i = 0; i < N; i++)
  a[i] = a[i] + b[i];
```

Data transfers (double precision floats):

```
LOAD  r1 = a[i] /* 8 bytes */
LOAD  r2 = b[i] /* 8 bytes */
STORE a[i] = r1 /* 8 bytes */
```

24 bytes of data movement per loop iteration.

Core question

To understand the performance of some code we must answer

Question

What is the resource bottleneck?

- Data transfer?
- Instruction execution?

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What is the resource bottleneck?

- Data transfer?
- Instruction execution?

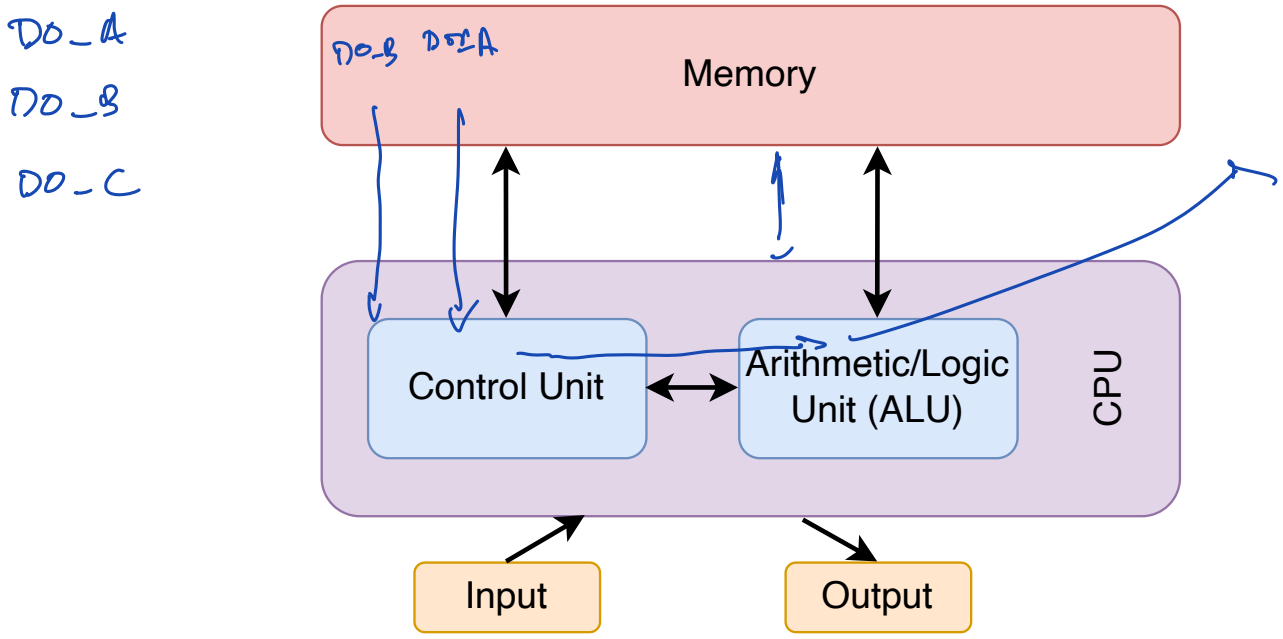
Answer

We will see how to answer these questions in this course through a combination of measurements and models.

Real hardware vs. models

Model of hardware as presented by programming languages is von Neumann model.

Sequential execution of instructions, each instruction completes before next one starts.



Problem

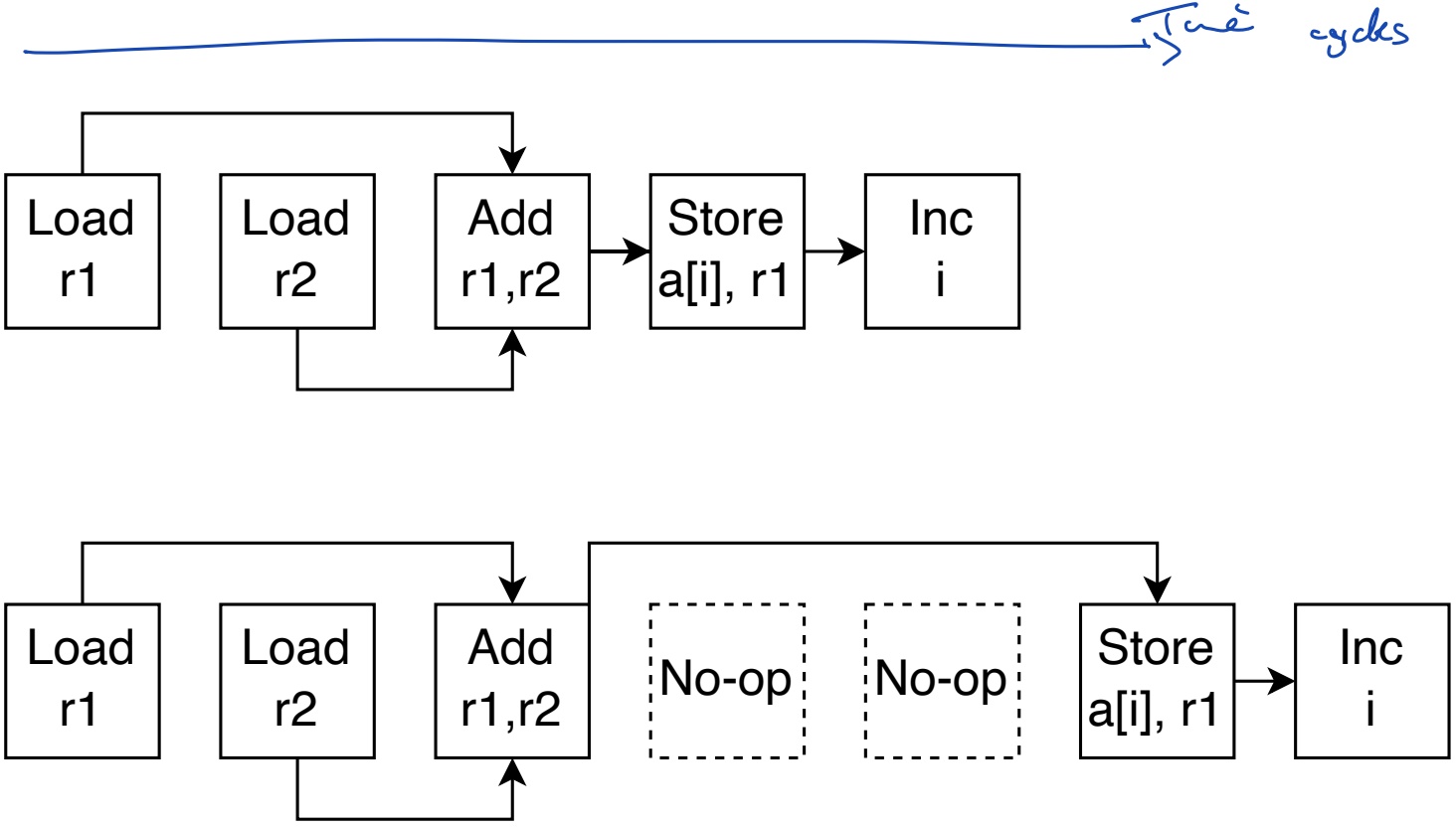
- CPUs operate at a certain frequency, we will count time in terms of clock "cycles". For example, a 1GHz processor runs at one billion cycles per second.
- Due to the complexity of modern chips, most instructions have a *latency* of *more than one* clock cycle.

Example: addition loop

```
LOAD r1 = a[i]
LOAD r2 = b[i]
ADD  r1 = r1 + r2
STORE a[i] = r1
INCREMENT i
```

Suppose that the CPU can execute one instruction per cycle. If every instruction has a latency of one cycle, then there are no "wasted" cycles.
If ADD has latency of three cycles, then there are two wasted cycles (between the ADD and the STORE).

A picture

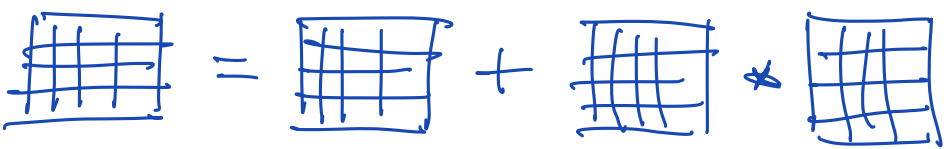

Time
cycles
Load r1
Load r2
Add r1,r2
Store a[i], r1
Inc i
Load r1
Load r2
Add r1,r2
No-op
No-op
Store a[i], r1
Inc i

Strategies for faster chips

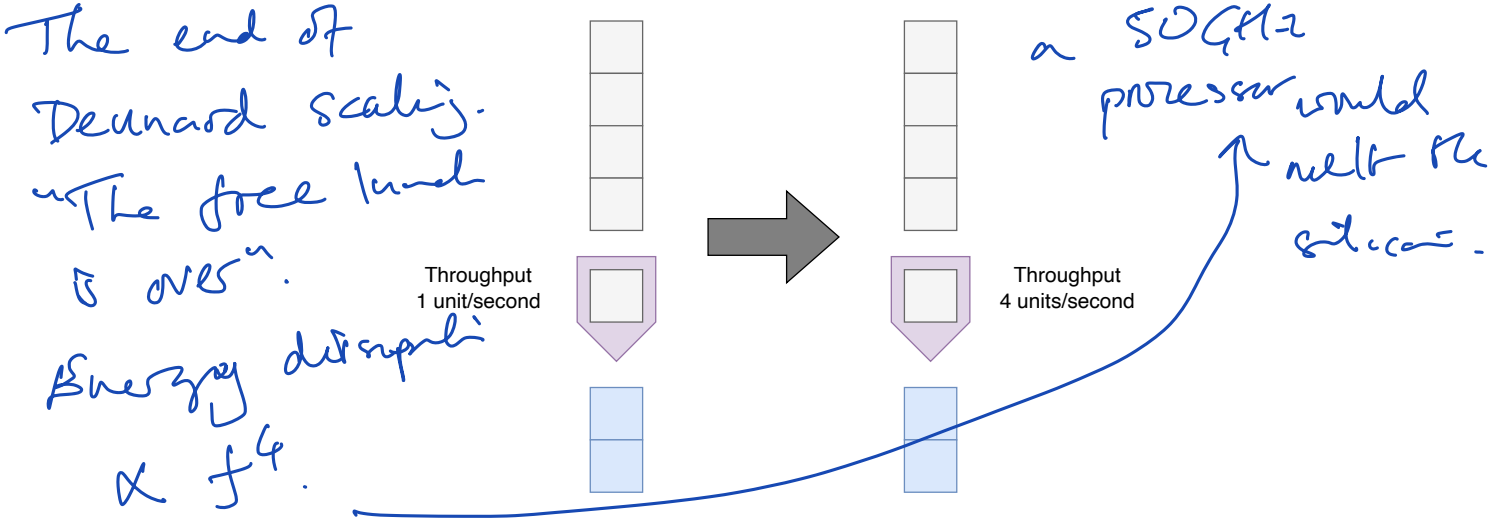
1. Increase clock speed (more cycles per second)
2. Parallelism (of various kinds)
3. Specialisation (for example optimised hardware for computing divisions)

GPUs ≪ TPUs for machine learning.

Have v. fast hardware for



Increasing clock speed



Easy for the programmer

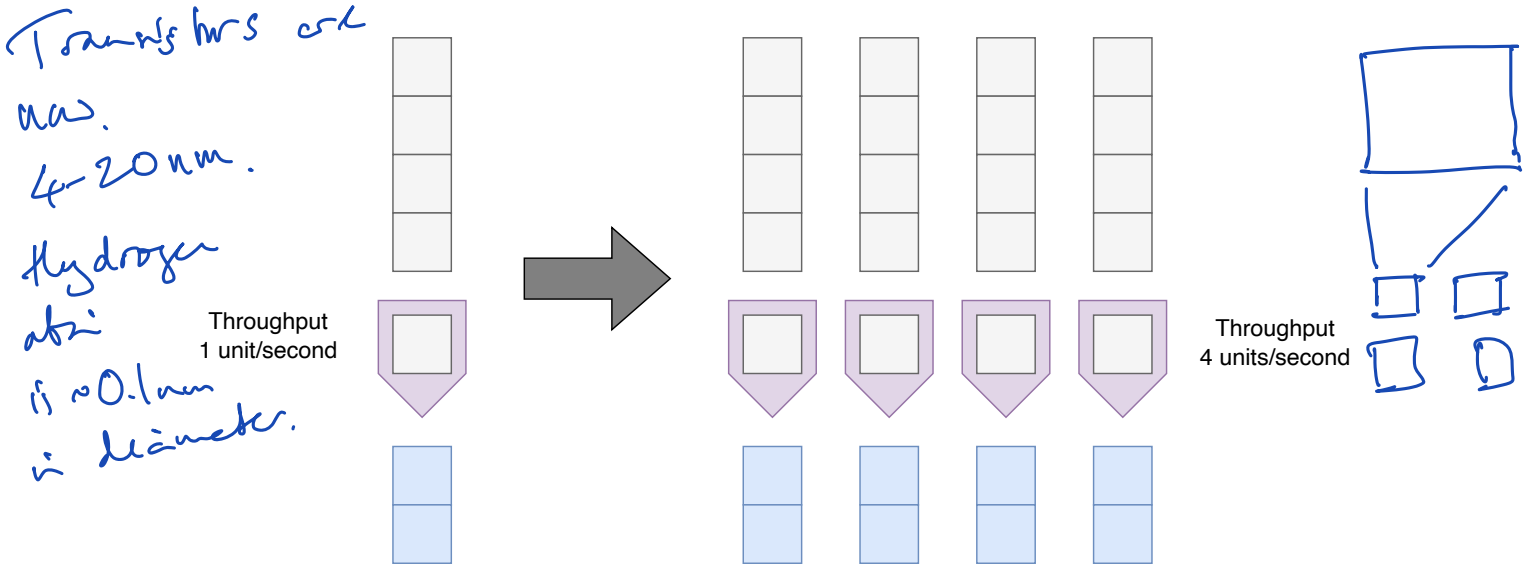
Architecture is unchanged, everything just happens faster!

Limitations

Limited by physical limitations on cooling.

Clock speeds have been approximately constant for 10 years.

Increasing parallelism



Problems

Need enough parallel work

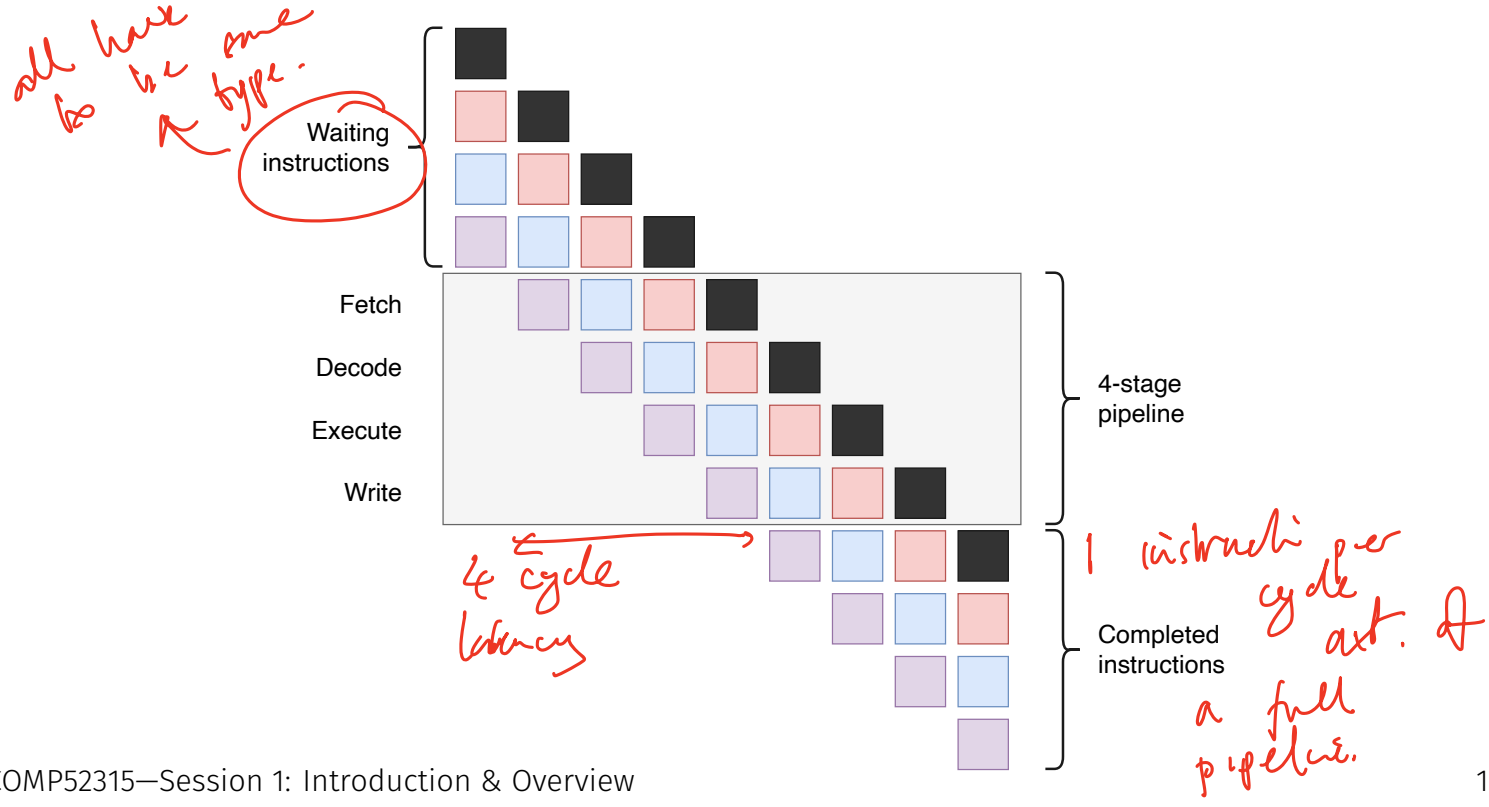
No dependencies between work

Mostly pushes problem onto programmer

Instruction-level parallelism: pipelining

Pipelining

Rather than performing instruction fetch, decode, execute, and writeback in one go, separate them into a pipeline.

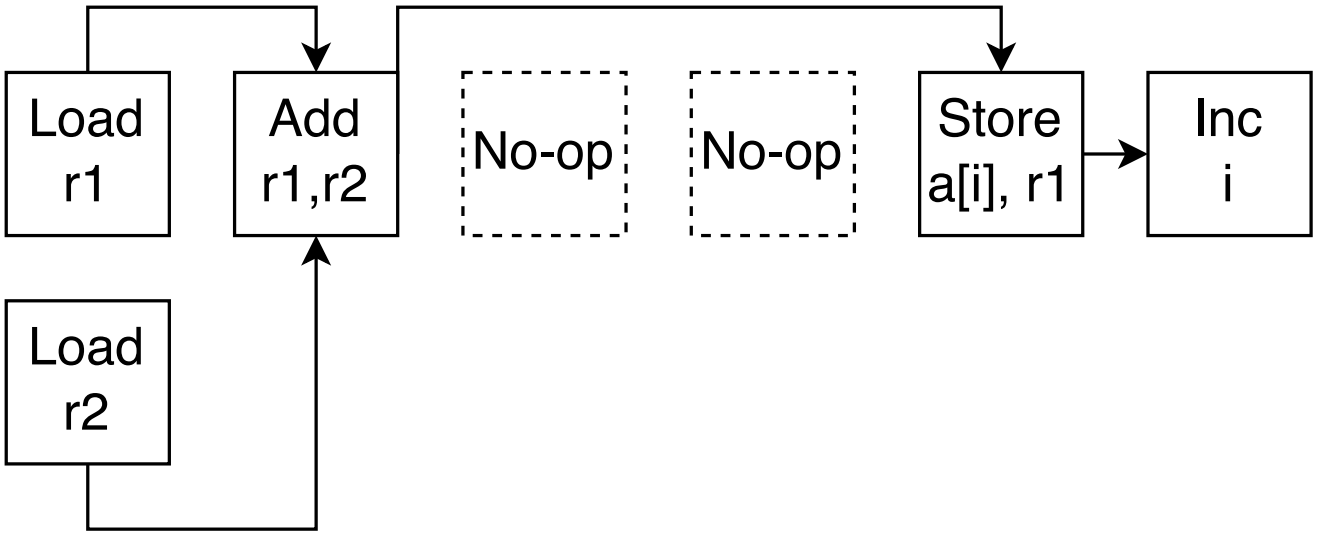


Instruction-level parallelism: superscalar

Superscalar execution

Most modern chips can issue more than one instruction per cycle.

Instructions with no dependencies can be issued simultaneously.

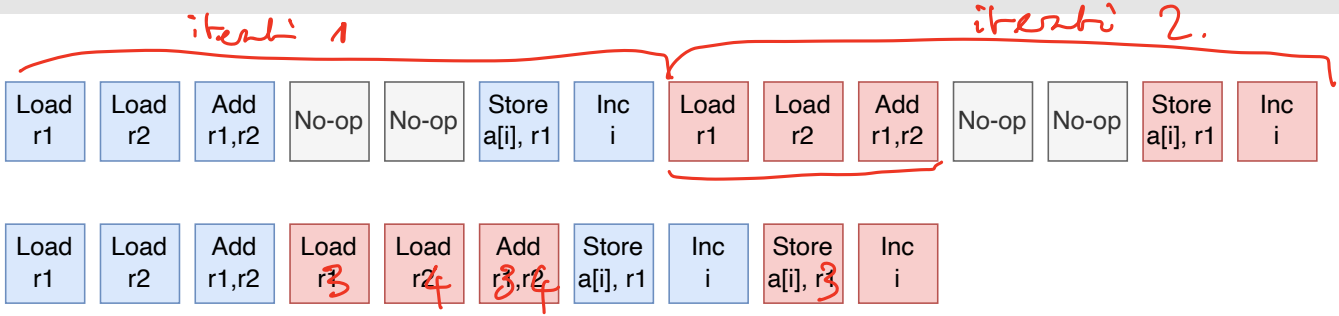


Instruction-level parallelism: out-of-order

Out-of-order execution

Execute instructions in an ordering based on availability of *input data* and *execution units* rather than the order in the program.

Keeps more of the execution units busy.



Data parallelism: SIMD vectorisation

SIMD

We mostly consider "single-core" performance in this course.
Vectorisation is critical for single-core performance.

Summing arrays again

```
double *a, *b, *c;
...
for (size_t i = 0; i < N; i++)
  c[i] = a[i] + b[i];
```

We've seen that instruction throughput can be a bottleneck here.

One way chip designers have "fixed" this is to make individual instructions operate on more data at once ⇒ vectorisation.

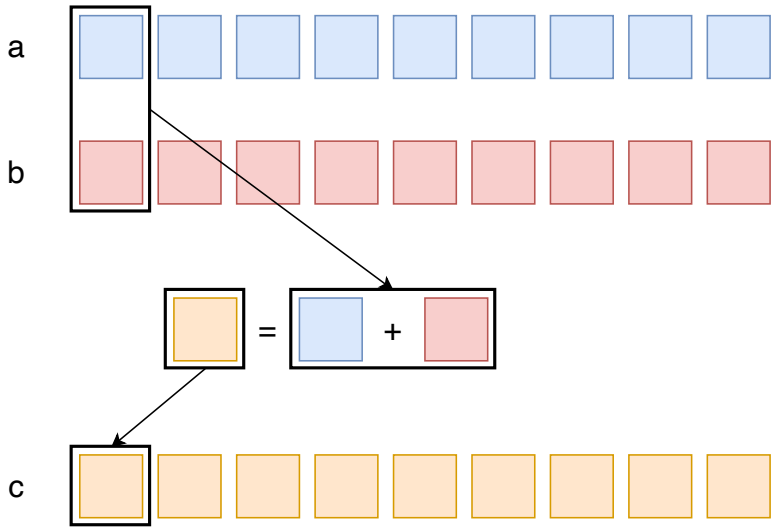
SIMD execution

```
double *a, *b, *c;
...
for (i = 0; i < N; i++)
  c[i] = a[i] + b[i];
```

Register widths:

- 1 operand (scalar)
- 2 operands (SSE)
- 4 operands (AVX)
- 8 operands (AVX512)

Scalar addition, 1 output element per instruction.



SIMD execution

```
double *a, *b, *c;
...
for (i = 0; i < N; i++)
  c[i] = a[i] + b[i];
```

Register widths:

- 1 operand (scalar)
- 2 operands (SSE)
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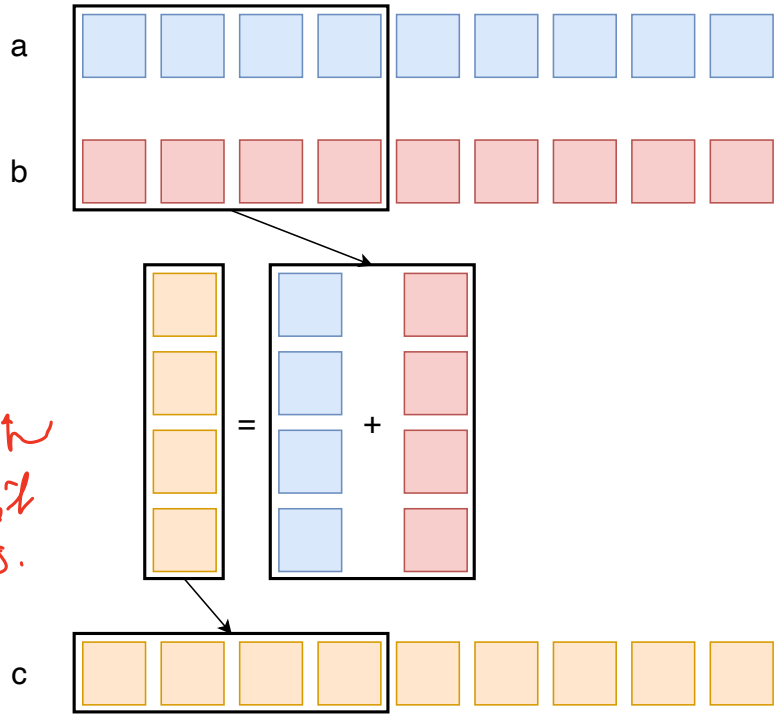
AVX addition, 4 output elements per instruction.



```
double *a, *b, *c;
...
for (i = 0; i < N; i++)
  c[i] = a[i] + b[i];
```

```
for (i = 0; i < N; i+=4) {
    c[i] = a[i] + b[i];
    c[i+1] = a[i+1] + b[i+1];
    c[i+2] = a[i+2] + b[i+2];
    c[i+3] = a[i+3] + b[i+3];
}
```

4-way rechnen.

Example and exercise

A “simple” example: sum reduction

4 bytes (32 bits)
AVX register can hold 8 values.

```
float c = 0;
for (i = 0; i < N; i++)
  c += a[i];
```

Single precision sum of all values in a vector, on an AVX-capable core (vector width 8). How fast can this code run if all data are in L1 cache?

- Loop-carried dependency on summation variable
- Execution stalls at every add until the previous one completes.

. hop

Applicable peak

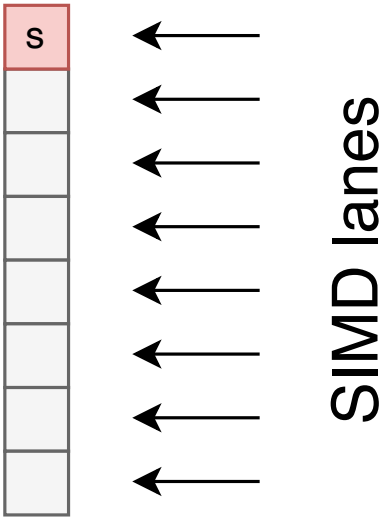
Scalar code

```
float c = 0;
for (i = 0; i < N; i++)
  c += a[i];
```

Assembly pseudo-code

```
LOAD r1.0 ← 0
i ← 0
loop:
  LOAD r2.0 ← a[i]
  ADD  r1.0 ← r1.0 + r2.0
  i ← i + 1
  if i < N: loop
result ← r1.0
```

ADD has latency of 1 cycle (per Intel), but we're only using one of the eight SIMD lanes for each instruction.



Runs at 1/8 of possible ADD peak.

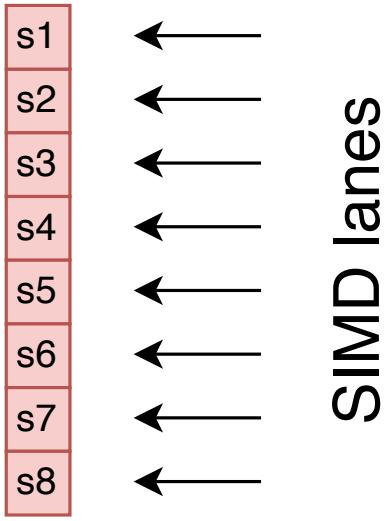
Applicable peak

SIMD vectorisation

Assembly pseudo-code

```
LOAD [r1.0, ..., r1.7] ← [0, ..., 0]
i ← 0
loop:
  LOAD [r2.0, ..., r2.7] ← [a[i], ..., a[i+7]]
  ADD  r1 ← r1 + r2 // SIMD ADD
  i ← i + 8
  if i < N: loop
result ← r1.0 + r1.1 + ... + r1.7
```

Using all eight SIMD lanes



Runs at ADD peak.

Exercise: benchmarking sum reduction

- Split into small groups, each group should have at least one person with a Hamilton account.
- Goal is to benchmark sum reduction to see if we observe this "theoretical" effect.
- $\Rightarrow$ over to you. Please ask questions!

Exercises, and notes, live at

`https://teaching.wence.uk/comp52315/`

Conclusions

- Modern computer hardware is quite complex
- For simple things we can work out what the performance limits will be
- Typically must benchmark to confirm hypotheses
- Next, we'll look at the memory hierarchy and start constructing models of performance.