

Leveraging Multicore Processors for Scientific Computing

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- 1. Background and Scope
- 2. Hardware Transactional Memory
- 3. Multicore Programming Models

The Multicore Revolution

- Performance improvement for single-core processors limited
- Multicore processors are now the norm
- Requires parallel software



Problem: Parallel programming is hard.

| Goal | | |
|--|--|--|
| Make parallel programming easy. | | |
| Find idioms, building blocks, and programming models to | | |
| ► Increase productivity | | |
| Reduce programming mistakes | | |
| Facilitate efficient implementations | | |
| Scope | | |

- Scientific Computing
 - Floating point operations
 - High throughput
- Shared Memory, User-Level Software

What Makes Parallel Programming Hard?

Difficulty: Synchronization between threads

- Waiting for results
- Atomic updates

Primitives:

- Atomic read-modify-write instructions such as
 - ► Compare-And-Swap, Fetch-And-Add, ...
- Used to build higher level constructs
 - Locks, Condition variables, Barriers, ...

New sync constructs could simplify parallel programming

Hardware Transactional Memory

Paper I

What is Hardware Transactional Memory?

Example: Double-Ended Queue

Want to concurrently:

- Add elements to end of queue
- Remove elements from front of queue
- Hard to allow this using locks
- Simple and efficient with transactions:

```
BEGIN TRANSACTION
  deque.push_back( element );
END TRANSACTION
```

```
BEGIN TRANSACTION
  element = deque.pop_front();
END TRANSACTION
```

Properties:

- No intermediate states observable
- Aborted if collisions occur

Why Hardware Transactional Memory?

Transactions are optimistic:

- Handle collisions only when they occur
- Locks always first acquire exclusive access

Also:

Avoids storing and accessing lock variables

Locks

```
pthread_mutex_t lock_variable;
```

```
void f() {
   pthread_mutex_lock( &lock_variable );
   counter = counter + 1;
   pthread_mutex_unlock( &lock_variable );
}
```

Transactions

```
void f() {
   BEGIN TRANSACTION
      counter = counter + 1;
   END TRANSACTION
}
```

Hardware Transactional Memory on Rock

► We use a prototype of Sun's (later Oracle's) Rock processor.

New Instructions for Transactional Memory

chkpt <fail_addr>
commit
read %cps, <dest_reg>

- chkpt starts a transaction
- commit ends a transaction
- If the transaction fails, jump to fail_addr
- ▶ If the transaction fails, the reason is stored in the cps register.

Hardware Transactional Memory on Rock

Best-effort system:

- Transactions are not guaranteed to succeed
- Possible failure reasons:
 - Conflict, Size, Load, Store, Interrupt, Mispredicted branch, Exception, Floating point division, ...

When a transaction fails:

- Check why
- ▶ If load or store: Load the memory into level 1 cache
- If conflict: Use exponential backoff to avoid congestion

Transactional Memory for Scientific Computing

Idea: Use transactions to perform atomic floating point updates.

Scenario: Several threads updates a shared matrix.

Alternatives

- Use locks to protect shared memory
 - Access and store lock variables
 - Always need to assure exclusive access (pessimistic)
- Write to private buffers and merge later
 - Occupy and access more memory
 - Additional merge phase
- Use atomic instructions: compare-and-swap
 - Only available for integers: trick needed

Transactions is a good alternative, if collisions are rare.

Experiment: Single Thread Increases a Variable

Benchmark

variable[0] += delta[0];



- CAS: Move data between FPU and CPU
- Locks: Accesses lock variable, library function calls
- Nothing: Lower bound

Experiment: Several Threads Write to Shared Memory

Benchmark



- 16 threads updating a single element
- Write to shared memory every *n*th iteration
- Transactions much slower than in previous test (105 ns \rightarrow 254 ns)
- Only about 15 % of the transactions failed at highest contention

Experiment: *n*-Body Simulation

Benchmark

An *n*-body simulation of 1024 particles interacting pair-wise.

- Updates 4 elements at a time
- Small data set



- Transactions slightly faster than locks
- Compare-and-swap slow since it updates a single elements
- Avoiding concurrent updates by far most efficient
- About 0.4 % of the transactions failed (52 % conflicts, 34 % reads) 13/34

Conclusions

Transactions are:

- More efficient than locks in all tests
- More efficient than compare-and-swap if several elements can be updated at same time
- Sensitive to memory traffic

It is still best to avoid concurrent updates when possible.

Multicore Programming Models

Paper II and III

POSIX threads (or Windows threads)

- Basic functionality provided by the operating system
- Want higher abstraction level

Fork-Join parallel languages

- OpenMP, Cilk
- Limited to Fork-Join parallel structures

Dependency-Aware Task-Based Systems

OMP Superscalar, ...

Fork-Join vs General Task Graph



Fork-Join vs General Task Graph

Fork-Join:

- Well suited for recursive algorithms
- Does not fit all applications



Scheduling Linear Algebra Operations on Multicore Processors. LAWN 213, 2009.

В

General

Fork-Join vs General Task Graph

Fork-Join:

- Well suited for recursive algorithms
- Does not fit all applications





See also:

Jakub Kurzak, Hatem Ltaief, Jack Dongarra, and Rosa M. Badia.

Scheduling Linear Algebra Operations on Multicore Processors. LAWN 213, 2009.

Conclusions

- Fork-Join parallelism is not enough
- Support for general dependencies is important for performance

Expressing Parallelism

Task dependencies can be deduced from data-flow:

```
taskA(write a);
taskB(read a, write b);
taskC(read a, write c);
taskD(read b);
taskE(read b, read c);
```



- Programmer writes a sequential program
- Annotates tasks and their inputs and outputs
- Dependencies deduced by run-time system
- Tasks are executed in parallel when possible

Used in several task-based systems: Jade, OMP Superscalar, StarPU, Quark, \ldots

SuperGlue

Our Run-Time System for Task-Based Programming

SuperGlue

Motivation

- Test bed for experimenting with task-based programming
- Application driven design to suit our needs

Design Goals

- Performance
- Generality
- Ease-of-use

Programming Model:

- Programmer writes a sequential program
- Specifies tasks, and their inputs and outputs
- ► Run-time deduces dependencies and executes tasks in parallel

Run-Time System:

- One worker thread per core
- One ready task queue per worker thread
- Task stealing for load balancing



Handles

Handles

Handles are abstract objects for managing dependencies.

```
Handle x;
taskA(write x);
taskB(read x);
```

Handles:

- Represents the shared resource to manage:
 - Block of a matrix
 - Slice of a vector
- No coupling needed between handle and actual resource
 - Run-time system does not need to know the data structure
- Represent abstract resource for constrained scheduling
 - Task cache/memory usage

Dependency management through Data Versioning:

- Tasks have dependencies on handles, not on other tasks
- Each handle has a *version*
- Each task has a *required version* for each accessed handle

Example Handle x; taskA(write x); // taskA requires x version 0 taskB(read x); // taskB requires x version 1

Note: We do **not** keep several versions of data. Versions only used for dependency management.

Data Versioning

Example 8 tasks accessing the same handle x: read x, read x, modify x, add x, add x, add x, modify x





(Not a DAG)

Implications:

- Another layer of indirection

Successors are stored in the handles.

+ No global view

A task only knows the handles it accesses. A handle only knows tasks that are waiting.

+ No coupling between tasks

Tasks can be deleted at any time. Successors need not be known.



Locality Driven Scheduling

Scheduling

- When a task is added its dependencies are checked
- The task is enqueued at first unavailable handle
- When a worker finishes a task, it
 - Increases the handle versions
 - Puts the tasks waiting for the new version in its ready queue



Tasks will be executed by the thread that produced the data.

Performance Tests

N-Body Speedup



N-Body simulation: 8192 particles, 256 per block, 16 time steps. $4 \times AMD$ Opteron $6276 = 4 \times 8$ modules, **1 FPU per module**

N-Body Speedup



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N-Body Execution Trace



N-Body simulation: 8192 particles, 256 per block, 16 time steps. $4 \times AMD$ Opteron $6276 = 4 \times 8$ modules, **1 FPU per module**.

Speedup at Small Task Sizes



- ► Speedup over #cycles × #tasks
- 64,000 tasks, no dependencies, varying number of cycles/task
- Tasks only read clock counter (no memory accesses or computations)

Conclusion

Dependency-aware task-based models are:

- Efficient
- Suitable for a large class of applications
- User friendly

Version-driven dependency management has nice properties:

- ► Easy, Efficient, and Flexible
- No global view:
 - A task only knows the data (handles) it accesses
 - A handle only knows tasks waiting for it

SuperGlue is an efficient and flexible implementation of this.

Outlook

- Generalize to distributed memory
- Support heterogeneous architectures
- Use to implement real applications
- Compiler front-end to make a nice interface

Thank you!

Questions?

Code Example

```
class SparseMatVecTask : public Task<Options> {
private:
 const SparseMatrixCSR &DP;
 MatrixRowMajor &H, &T;
public:
 SparseMatVecTask(const SparseMatrixCSR &DP_,
                   MatrixRowMajor &H_, Handle<Options> &hH,
                   MatrixRowMajor &T_, Handle<Options> &hT)
  : DP(DP_), H(H_), T(T_)
  Ł
   registerAccess(ReadWriteAdd::read, &hH);
   registerAccess(ReadWriteAdd::add, &hT);
  }
 void run() { /* T(r) += DP(r,c) * H(c); */ }
};
```

Computing Required Versions

Computing Required Versions:

- ▶ Handle knows *next-required-version* for each access type
- When task is added:
 - ▶ The task asks the handles for which version to require
 - The handles update the next-required-version for accesses that cannot be reordered

| Example | | | |
|---|-----------|-----------------------------|--|
| | Handle x: | next read 0 next write 0 | |
| <pre>taskA(read x); // require x version 0</pre> | | | |
| | Handle x: | next read 0 | |
| | | next write 1 | |
| <pre>taskB(read x); // require x version 0</pre> | | | |
| | Handle x: | next read 0 | |
| | | next write 2 | |
| <pre>taskC(write x); // require x version 2</pre> | | | |
| | Handle x: | next read 3 | |
| | | next write 3 | |

Extensions

Possible to define other access types

| Example | | |
|---|--|---------------------------------------|
| Access Types read: Reorderable, not exclusive write: Not reorderable add: Reorderable, exclusive mult: Reorderable, exclusive | Example read x add x add x mult x mult x write x | Graph read add add mult mult |

| Fyam | n | P |
|------|---|---|
| LAUL | P | C |

| Access Types | Example | Graph |
|--|---------|---------------|
| read. Reorderable not exclusive | read x | (read) (read) |
| | read x | |
| write: Not reorderable | conc x | conc conc |
| concurrent: Reorderable, not exclusive | conc x | |
| | write x | write |

Limitation: Can only reorder accesses of same type.

| Example: read, write, sort | t, sum | |
|--|---|---|
| Can be reordered: read - read read - sum sort - sum | Example read x sum x read x sort x write x | Graph read read sum sort write |

- Sort must wait for both reads to finish
- Sort need not wait for the sum task
- $\blacktriangleright \Rightarrow$ Not enough to count the number of executed tasks

This requires more than one version counter per handle.

Reductions

Allow exclusive accesses to same handle to run concurrently.

- First task writes directly to destination
- If destination is busy, writes to temporary storage
- Reuse existing temporary storages, if one exists
- Temporary storages are merged:
 - Before executing a task with read access to the handle
 - When attaching a temporary storage and one already exist

Properties

- Use as few buffers as possible
- Allow parallel merge
- Good locality

The Add Access Type

Example: Calculate forces between all pairs of particles.



- Order does not matter
- Two tasks cannot write to same memory concurrently





(Possible execution)

The Add Access Type

Example: Calculate forces between all pairs of particles.



Execution Traces: Benefit of Add Accesses



N-body simulation, 8192 particles, 512 per block, 4 time steps.

More Code

```
#include "tasklib.hpp"
#include "options/defaults.hpp"
#include "options/prioscheduler.hpp"
```

```
// Custom handle type to include indices
template<typename Options>
struct MyHandle : public Handle_<Options> {
   size_t i, j;
   void set(size_t i_, size_t j_) { i = i_; j = j_; }
   size_t geti() { return i; }
   size_t getj() { return j; }
};
```

```
struct Options : public DefaultOptions<Options> {
   typedef MyHandle<Options> HandleType; // Override handle type
   typedef PrioScheduler<Options> Scheduler; // Override scheduler
   typedef Enable TaskPriorities; // Enable task priorities
};
```

More Code

```
struct gemm : public Task<Options, 3> {
   gemm(Handle<Options> &h1, Handle<Options> &h2,
        Handle<Options> &h3) {
       // register data accesses to manage, with direction
       registerAccess(ReadWriteAdd::read, &h1);
       registerAccess(ReadWriteAdd::read, &h2);
       registerAccess(ReadWriteAdd::add, &h3);
   }
   void run() {
       Handle<Options> &h1(getAccess(0).getHandle());
       Handle<Options> &h2(getAccess(1).getHandle());
       Handle<Options> &h3(getAccess(2).getHandle());
       double *a(Adata[h1->geti()*DIM + h1->getj()]);
       double *b(Adata[h2->geti()*DIM + h2->getj()]);
       double *c(Adata[h3->geti()*DIM + h3->getj()]);
       double DONE=1.0, DMONE=-1.0;
       dgemm("N", "T", &nb, &nb, &nb, &DMONE, a, &nb, b, &nb, ...
   }
   int getPriority() const { return 0; }
};
```

More Code

3

```
static void cholesky(const size_t numBlocks) {
   // Start the system
    ThreadManager<Options> tm;
   // Create handles, and set the custom indices
   Handle<Options> **A = new Handle<Options>*[numBlocks];
   for (size_t i = 0; i < numBlocks; ++i) {</pre>
       A[i] = new Handle<Options>[numBlocks];
       for (size_t j = 0; j < numBlocks; ++j)</pre>
           A[i][j].set(i, j);
    }
   // Main code: Generate tasks
   for (size_t j = 0; j < numBlocks; j++) {</pre>
       for (size t k = 0; k < i; k++)
           for (size_t i = j+1; i < numBlocks; i++)</pre>
               tm.addTask(new gemm(A[i][k], A[j][k], A[i][j]), i);
       for (size_t i = 0; i < j; i++)</pre>
           tm.addTask(new syrk(A[j][i], A[j][j]), j);
       tm.addTask(new potrf(A[j][j]), j);
       for (size t i = i+1; i < numBlocks; i++)</pre>
           tm.addTask(new trsm(A[j][j], A[i][j]), j);
    }
    tm.barrier():
```

HTM Experiment: FEM Stiffness Matrix Assembly

Benchmark

Assembly of the stiffness matrix in a finite element scheme (2154 nodes).

- Two versions: many or few computations per triangle
- Scattered memory accesses spread over large address space



- Transactions best when computation bound
- Compare-and-swap best when memory bound
- Locks slowest: One lock per element used
- ► About 23 % of the transactions failed, most due to failed reads

N-Body Speedup on "Halvan"



N-Body simulation: 8192 particles, 128 per block, 4 time steps. $8 \times Xeon X6550 = 8 \times 8$ cores

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