

Efficient Code

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Slides as of 14/01/22 11:57:44

Bottleneck

Definition: Bottleneck

The resource with the highest utilization

Challenge:

Can we build a system without a bottleneck – one where all resources are equally utilized?

A first attempt at balance

Amdahl said

A balanced computer system needs 1 MB of main memory capacity and 1Mbit per second of I/O bandwidth per MIPS of CPU performance. – Gene Amdahl (paraphrased by Hennessy & Patterson)

- Do we buy into that?

Let's calculate...

- My laptop's CPU has

`IPS = 2.9 (* GHz *) * 4 (* Cores *) * 4 (* Execution slots/cycle *)`

46.4

`Bandwidth = 37.5 (* GB/s *) * 8 (* bits/byte *)`

300

`Memory = 16 (* GB *) * 1024 (* MB/GB *)`

- Verdict: this thing is **way** underpowered in terms of CPU
- Who would design a system like that?

Balance is not a constant, ...

- Datatypes are larger today than they were in Amdahl's time
- CPUs have all kinds of Co-processors (on-die GPUs, DMA engines, ...)
- Cache lines are larger, causing wasted memory bandwidth, etc.
- **However,** ...

... balance is a function of code

- Hardware optimizations have varying impact on code
- There is no such thing as a balanced system (not even balanced applications), only balanced sections of code
- However, **perfect balance is an ideal** – practically unachievable

Amdahl got one thing right...

- The fundamental tradeoff is between CPU and Bandwidth efficiency
- We distinguish *balanced*, *compute-bound*, *latency-bound* and *bandwidth-bound* code

You can influence bottlenecks

- High-level techniques:
 - Choice of algorithm
 - Memoization
 - Compression
 - ...
- Low-level techniques
 - Those are our focus

Let's focus on compute-bound code first

When CPU-efficiency matters

- For CPU-bound applications, i.e., those that
 - are poorly implemented
 - operate on small (cache-resident) datasets
 - are math-heavy (especially floating point math)
 - apply memory-oriented optimizations

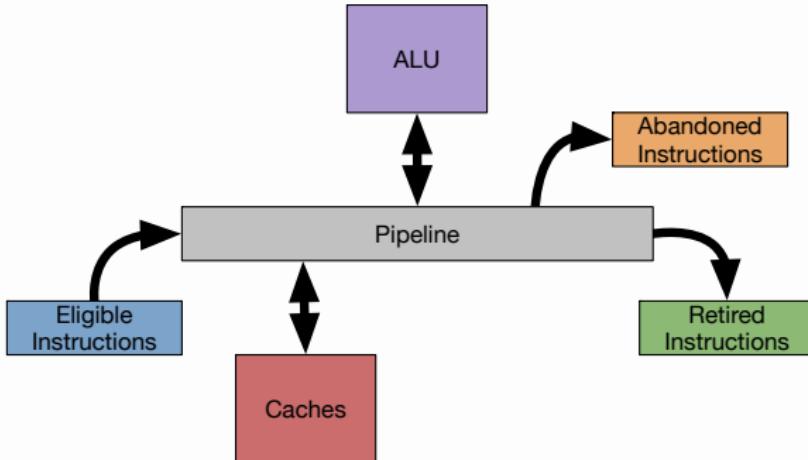
CPU-efficiency: target metric

- Well, wallclock time, obviously
- Cycles per Instruction (CPI) is not that useful as an optimization metric since the instructions are a parameter
- Stall cycles are a good indicator (though not perfect either)
- Stall cycles are caused by hazards:

CPU-efficiency: Hazards

- **Control-hazards** - stalls due to data-dependent changes in the control flow
- **Structural hazards** - stalls due to the lack of execution resources (registers, execution ports, ...)
- **Data-hazards** - stalls due to operands (i.e., data) not being available on time

Recall: We have discussed Hazards before

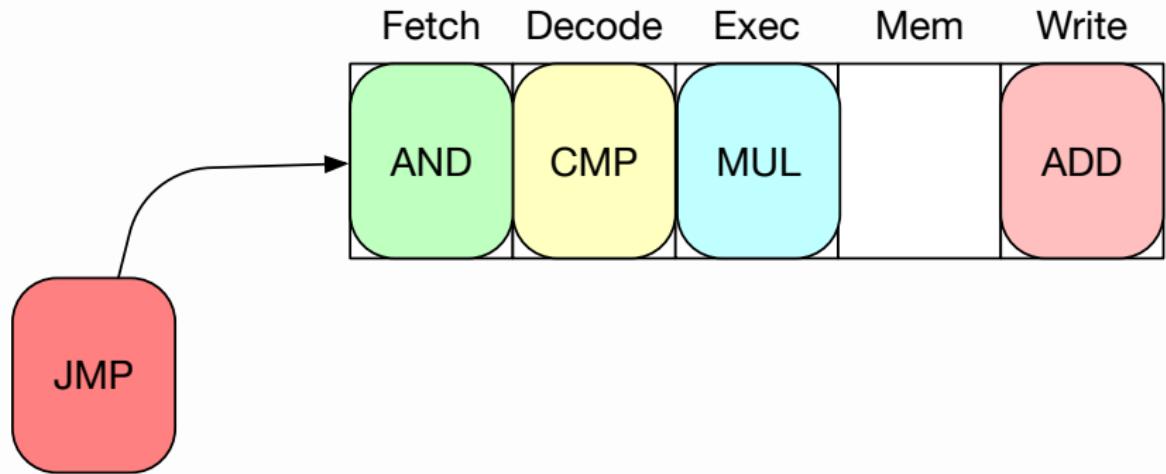


CPU optimizations is all about mitigating these

In part, that is done in hardware

Pipelined Execution exploits independence of stages of different instructions

An ALU Stall



CPU Pipeline Design

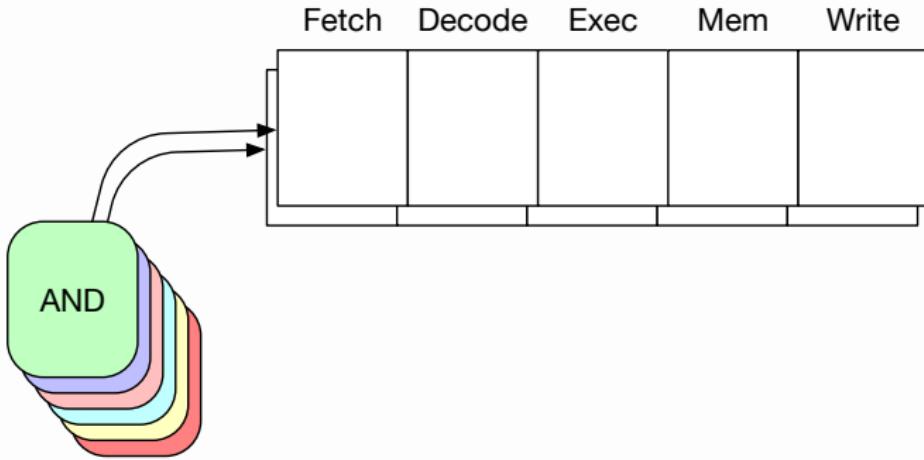
Fundamental design decisions, i.e., the tools we work with:

- Is the system executing instructions speculatively?
- Is the system executing instructions dynamically parallel?
 - Superscalar execution
 - Note that this is not multi-core parallelism!
- Is the system executing instructions out-of-order?
- Is the system executing instructions statically parallel?
 - Statically bundled packages (SIMD or VLIW)

Speculative execution

- Keeps the pipeline filled if no instructions are eligible
- We have covered these
- Addresses (some) control hazards

Superscalar Execution



Pipelined Execution Different instructions can be in different stages

Superscalar Execution Different instructions can be in the same stage

Out-of-order execution exploits independence of the instructions

- Kicks in after decoding decode-phase
- Instructions that have no unsatisfied dependencies move on to execution stage
- Examples:
 - In the statement $a*b+d*e+b*b$, $b*b$ is scheduled before $d*e$ when b is L1 cache-resident
 - Evaluate an integer addition even if there are floating point additions waiting for execution ports
- Addresses data and structural hazards, leaves control hazards

SIMD

Single Instruction Multiple Data

$$\begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{cccc} 6 & 3 & 9 & 2 \end{array} \\ + \\ \begin{array}{cccc} 2 & 4 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \\ = \\ \begin{array}{cccc} 8 & 7 & 9 & 3 \end{array} \end{array}$$

- The CPU performs the same operation on multiple data items
- Introduced for multimedia but useful for general computing
- Applications range from the trivial to the mind-blowing
- Every CPU-generation has new instructions: MMX, SSE, SSE2, AVX, AVX2, AVX512
- They use specialized vector-registers

A sidenote: **VLIW**

- SIMD means
 - single instruction
 - the same operation on multiple data items
- **Very Long Instruction Words**
 - single instruction
 - different operations on multiple or the same data item
 - Basically compiler-controlled superscalar execution

Now that we know the tools...

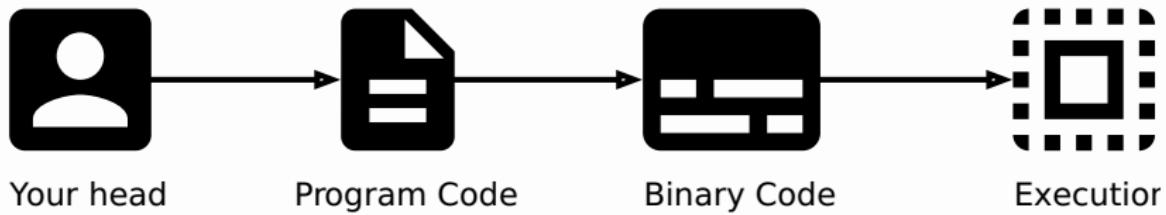
... let us discuss:

Write **runtime** predictable code

- Do not evaluate code in the critical path whenever possible
- Evaluate code as early as possible

What do I mean by that?

The code execution process



But who said it has to be three transformations?

Partial evaluation (make the compiler work for you)

- Idea: Treat programs evaluation as a multi-phased process
 - In every phase, you know more about the result
 - i.e., you can evaluate more of it/create a more specialized program
 - the fix point is obviously the actual result

Examples of partial evaluation

- Function inlining
- JIT compilation
- Symbolic Programming
- Constant expression evaluation
 - Careful: when are things truly constants?

Constants

```
int result(int input) {  
    return input*3*5;  
};  
  
int result2(int input) {  
    int three = 3-1;  
    int five = 4+1;  
    return input*three*five;  
};  
  
int three = 3;  
int five = 5;  
int result3(int input) {  
    return input*three*five;  
};
```

- see <https://godbolt.org/z/X3nQb2>
- What constitutes a constant depends on your language's semantics

Lifting expensive operations

Lifting Moving work from a section that is executed often into one that is executed seldomly

- Standard example moving invariants out of a loop:
 - `for (size_t i = 0; i < N; i++) output[i] = 7*8;`
 - `int tmp = 7*8; for (size_t i = 0; i < N; i++) output[i] = tmp;`
- Can be generalized to *loop specialization*

Loop specialization

Example

```
#include <stdlib.h>
void scaleVector(int* input, size_t inputSize, int scale) {
    for(size_t i = 0; i < inputSize; i++)
        input[i] *= scale;
};

void scaleVectorSmart(int* input, size_t inputSize) {
    if(scale != 1) {
        if(scale == 2)
            for(size_t i = 0; i < inputSize; i++)
                input[i] <= 1;
        else
            for(size_t i = 0; i < inputSize; i++)
                input[i] *= scale;
    }
};
```

The problem with loop specialization

- Leads to code duplication
- You can do it by hand but...
- ... the compiler could easily do these for you! However,
- How many special cases should it generate?
- Compilers need help
- Introducing: Metaprogramming...

Metaprogramming – . . . what you can do for your compiler

The idea

- Generating all these special cases at compile-time
- Allows the compiler to apply optimizations for the special cases

Implementations

- Macros in LISP (and it's dialects), Haskell, Scala
- Templates in C++, Macros in C (they are called the same but aren't)
- Generics in Python, Java, C#

Metaprogramming in C++

Metaprogramming – . . . what you can do for your compiler

Turn this code . . .

```
void scaleVector(int* input, size_t inputSize, int scale) {
    for(size_t i = 0; i < inputSize; i++)
        input[i] *= scale;
};

int useIt(int* input, size_t size) {
    scaleVector(input, size, 2);
    scaleVector(input, size, 1);
    scaleVector(input, size, 0);
}
```

. . . into this

```
template <int scale> void scaleVectorPE(int* input, size_t inputSize) {
    for(size_t i = 0; i < inputSize; i++)
        input[i] *= scale;
};

int useIt(int* input, size_t size) {
    scaleVectorPE<2>(input, size);
    scaleVectorPE<1>(input, size);
    scaleVectorPE<0>(input, size);
}
```

Metaprogramming – . . . what you can do for your compiler

Same example

```
#include <functional>
#include <map>
#include <stdlib.h>
using namespace std;
template <int scale> void scaleVectorPE(int* input, size_t inputSize) {
    for(size_t i = 0; i < inputSize; i++)
        input[i] *= scale;
};

void scaleVector(int* input, size_t inputSize, int scale) {
    map<int, function<void(int*, size_t)>> const specialCases // 
        {{0, scaleVectorPE<0>}}, // 
        {{1, scaleVectorPE<1>}},
        {{2, scaleVectorPE<2>}},
        {{4, scaleVectorPE<4>}};
    if(specialCases.count(scale))
        specialCases.at(scale)(input, inputSize);
    else
        for(size_t i = 0; i < inputSize; i++)
            input[i] *= scale;
};
```

Function inlining is an instance of Partial Evaluation

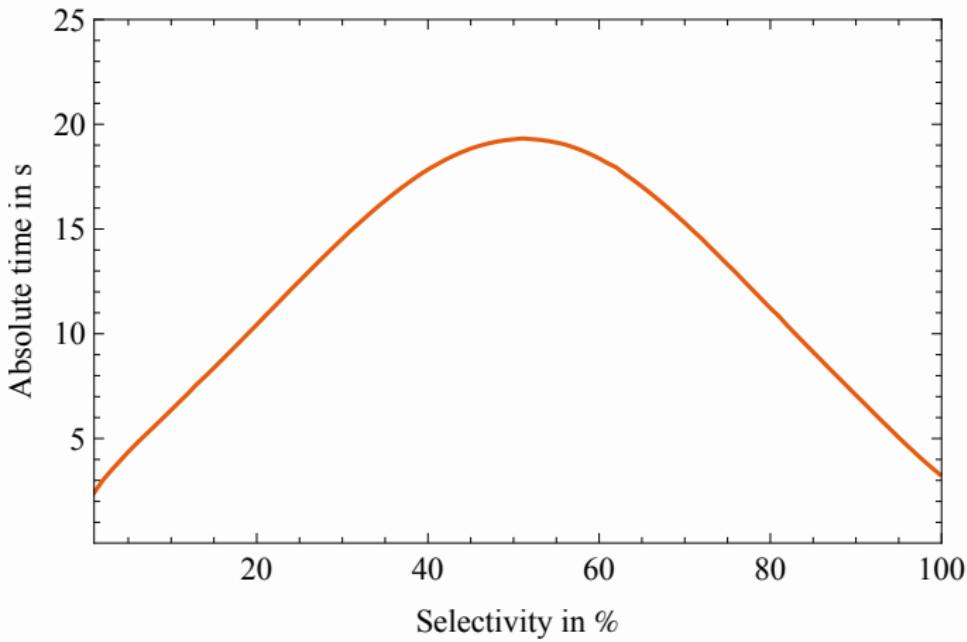
It turns jumps into branches

Even more predictable: branch-free code

Control-dependencies **can** cause control hazards

```
for(size_t i = 0; i < inputSize; i++)
    if(input[i] < high)
        output[outI++] = input[i];
```

Recall

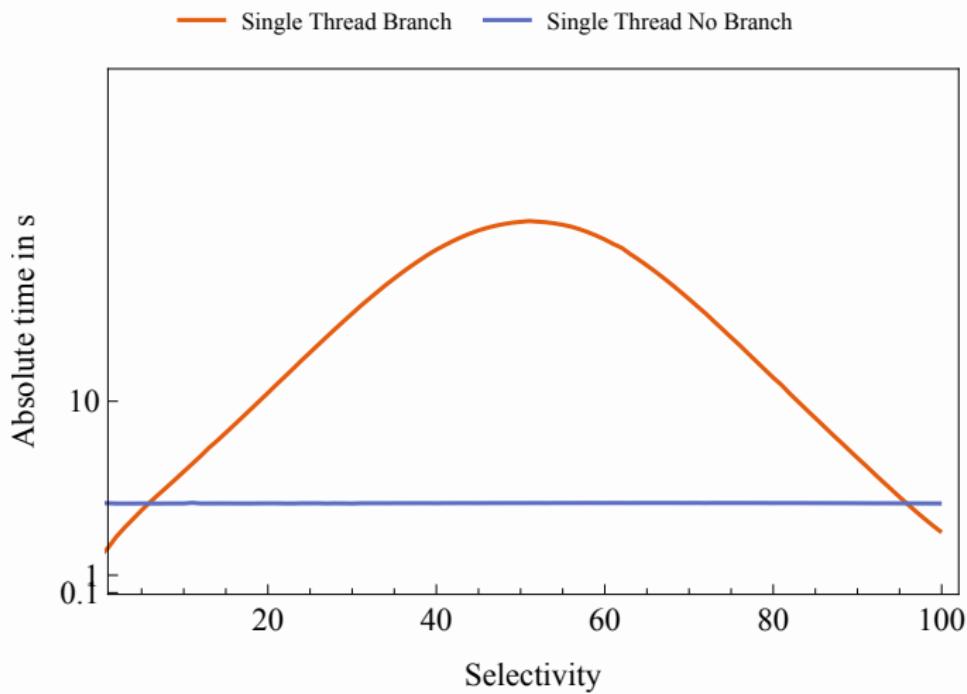


Branch-free code **can** eliminate control hazards

```
for(size_t i = 0; i < inputSize; i++) {  
    output[outI] = input[i];  
    outI += (input[i] < high);  
}
```

- This is called predication or if-conversion depending on who you ask

Impact



However...

... Control-dependencies **might not** cause control hazards

Unpredicated code on sorted input

Benchmark	Time	CPU	Iterations
selection/50	49951160 ns	49951326 ns	12
selection/100	52085927 ns	52085751 ns	10
selection/150	54732263 ns	54731816 ns	13
selection/200	57072435 ns	57072634 ns	12
selection/250	59132204 ns	59132429 ns	11
selection/300	62251051 ns	62250581 ns	11
selection/350	66982496 ns	66982226 ns	10
selection/400	67639907 ns	67640118 ns	9
selection/450	70828641 ns	70828503 ns	9
selection/500	73505346 ns	73505682 ns	9
selection/550	73040486 ns	73040182 ns	9

- Bottom line: Predictability is input-dependent

Guideline

- Branch-predictors are the way they are for a reason
- Lots of code is already very predictable
- Predication/if-conversion turns control dependencies into data dependencies
 - Data dependencies cause data hazards, predication amplifies these
 - only apply after measuring

So, now the work per-iteration is 100% predictable

We can do more if the number of iterations is predictable as well

SIMD vectorization

- Compilers try to auto-vectorize
 - They succeed for simple cases like this
 - `for (size_t i = 0; i < 1024; i++) out[i] = in1[i]*in2[i]`
 - Write code with vectorization in mind, godbolt your code to be sure
- If they fail: explicitly vectorize using intrinsics
- Intrinsics are c-functions that map directly to hardware instructions:
 - `_mm256_<intrin_op>_<suffix>(<data type> <parameter1>, <data type> <parameter2>, <data type> <parameter3>)`
 - Check out this page:
 - <https://software.intel.com/sites/landingpage/IntrinsicsGuide>

SIMD: Example

```
#include <immintrin.h>
#include <benchmark/benchmark.h>
#include <random>
#include <iostream>
using namespace std;

union v8f {
    float floats[8];
    __m256 simdVector;
};
```

SIMD: Example

```
auto bounds1 = state.range(0);
auto bounds2 = state.range(1);
auto input1 = new int [bounds1];
auto input2 = new float [bounds2];

uniform_int_distribution<mt19937::result_type> randomInRange(0, bounds2);
for(size_t i = 0; i < bounds1; i++)
    input1[i] = randomInRange(rng);
for(size_t i = 0; i < bounds2; i++)
    input2[i] = randomInRange(rng);

for(auto _ : state) {
    float sum = 0;
    for(size_t i = 0; i < bounds1; i++) {
        sum += input2[input1[i]];
    }
    // ...
}
```

SIMD: Example

```
float sum = 0;
for(size_t i = 0; i < bounds1 / 8; i++) {
    v8f values.simdVector = _mm256_i32gather_ps(
        input2, ((_m256i*)input1)[i], sizeof(int));
    for(size_t i = 0; i < 8; i++)
        sum += values.floats[i];
}
```

Results

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Running /Users/hlgr/Projects/performance-engineering-class/Slides/a.out

Run on (8 X 2900 MHz CPU s)

CPU Caches:

L1 Data 32K (x4)

L1 Instruction 32K (x4)

L2 Unified 262K (x4)

L3 Unified 8388K (x1)

Benchmark	Time	CPU Iterations	
simd/1048576/16	1301911 ns	1298002 ns	557
scalar/1048576/16	1246102 ns	1243267 ns	565

SIMD: Example

```
v8f sums{};
for(size_t i = 0; i < bounds1 / 8; i++) {
    v8f values{.simdVector = _mm256_i32gather_ps(
        input2, ((__m256i*)input1)[i], sizeof(int))};
    sumssimdVector = _mm256_add_ps(valuessimdVector, sumssimdVector);
}
float sum = 0;
for(size_t i = 0; i < 8; i++)
```

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Benchmark	Time	CPU	Iterations
simd/1048576/16	1301911 ns	1298002 ns	557
scalar/1048576/16	1246102 ns	1243267 ns	565
properSimd/1048576/16	285140 ns	283631 ns	2442

Bottom line

- Use intrinsics for hard to auto-vectorize code
- Try to keep data in vector registers
- Godbolt your code

Recall

- Caches have a fixed cache line size (say 64 byte)
- Caches have a fixed capacity (say 32 Kbyte)
 - Most caches evict the Least Recently Used cache line to make space for incoming ones

Definitions

Cache Miss A piece of data accessed by an instruction but not in cache

Data Hazards Pipeline stall cycles due to cache misses

Bandwidth vs. Latency Boundness

Classifying cache misses

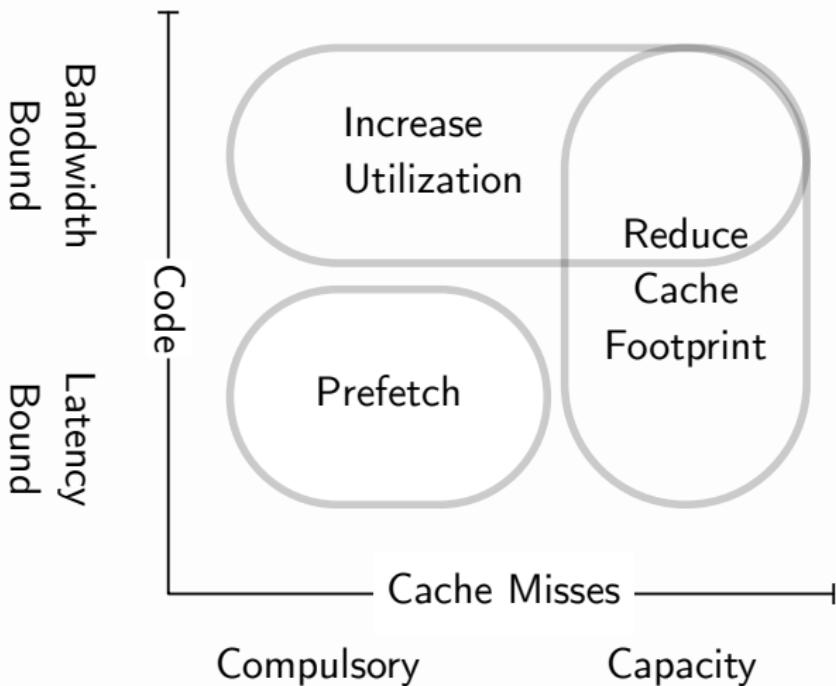
- What access cause the cache miss?
 - If the value has been accessed before, we call the respective cache miss a **capacity miss**
 - If not, it is a **compulsory miss**

Classifying code

- We call code **fully** memory bound if all stall cycles are due to data hazards
- If the memory Bus is fully utilized we call it **memory bandwidth bound**
- If the memory Bus is **not** fully utilized we call it **memory latency bound**

Bandwidth vs. Latency Boundness

Optimization Measures



Thank you for watching!

Just kidding :-)

Compulsory Cache Misses

Consider this code

```
#include <stdlib.h>
struct tuple { int x; int y; int z;};
int sumIt(tuple* input, long size) {
    int sum = 0;
    for(size_t i = 0; i < size; i++)
        sum += input[i].x;
    return sum;
}
```

- How many data-hazards would this run into (assume an in-order processor)?
- $\frac{\text{datasize}}{\text{cache line size}}$

What can we do about it? What concepts could help?

Asynchronous processing!

Hardware Prefetching

- Caches speculatively load the next cache line
- How do they speculate?
 - Recognizing patterns: adjacent cache lines, strides, ...
 - Modern CPUs even recognize multiple interleaved patterns
 - The *generic cost model* distinguishes sequential and random misses for that reason
- Works well for regular memory accesses
 - Breaks for irregular accesses (like data-dependent accesses)

Hardware Prefetching

Consider this code

```
#include <stdlib.h>
struct tuple { int x; int y; int z;};
int sumIt(tuple* input, long size, tuple* input2) {
    int sum = 0;
    for(size_t i = 0; i < size; i++)
        sum += input2[input[i].x].y;
    return sum;
}
```

- The CPU needs help...

Software Prefetching

- You can provide prefetching hints

- `void __builtin_prefetch (const void *addr, ...)`

This is how you use them:

```
#include <stdlib.h>
struct tuple { int x; int y; int z;};
int sumIt(tuple* input, long size, tuple* input2) {
    int sum = 0;
    for(size_t i = 0; i < size; i++){
        sum += input2[input[i].x].y;
        __builtin_prefetch(&input2[input[i + 16].x]);
    }
    return sum;
}
```

<https://godbolt.org/z/c2qBoU>

But what if you are still memory bound?

Increase cache-line utilization!

Cache-line utilization

Definition

$$\text{Cache-line utilization} = \frac{\text{Data requested by instructions}}{\text{Data loaded into cache}}$$

How to increase cache-line utilization?

- Change the data layout in memory!

Poor cache-line utilization code

```
#include <stdlib.h>
struct tuple { int x; int y; int z;};
int sumIt(tuple* input, long size, tuple* input2) {
    int sum = 0;
    for(size_t i = 0; i < size; i++)
        sum += input2[input[i].x].y;
    return sum;
}
```

Cache-line utilization

Better cache-line utilization code

```
#include <stdlib.h>
struct tuple { int* x; int* y; int* z;};
int sumIt(tuple input, long size, tuple input2) {
    int sum = 0;
    for(size_t i = 0; i < size; i++)
        sum += input2.y[input.x[i]];
    return sum;
}
```

Cache-line utilization

Bad

```
#include <stdlib.h>
struct tuple { int x; int y; int z;};
int sumIt(tuple* input, long size, tuple* input2) {
    int sum = 0;
    for(size_t i = 0; i < size; i++)
        sum += input2[input[i].x].y;
    return sum;
}
```

Cache-line utilization

Good

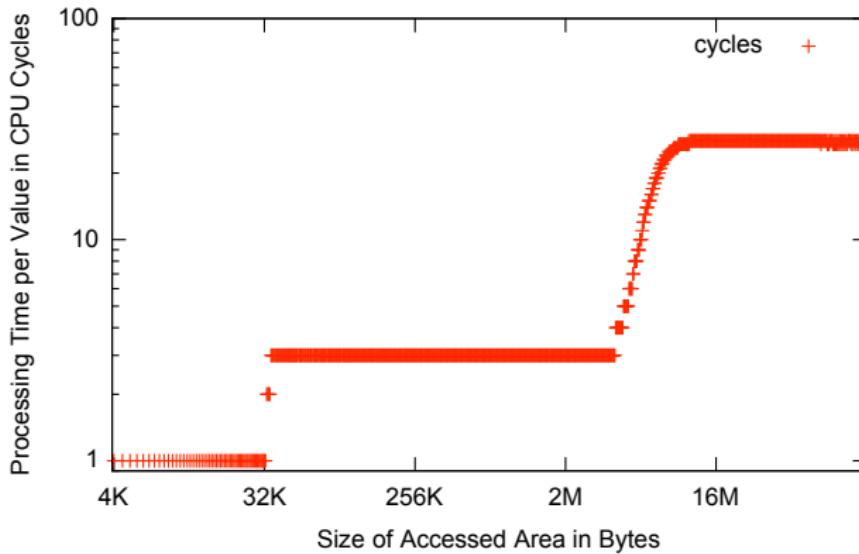
```
#include <stdlib.h>
struct tuple { int* x; int* y; int* z;};
int sumIt(tuple input, long size, tuple input2) {
    int sum = 0;
    for(size_t i = 0; i < size; i++)
        sum += input2.y[input.x[i]];
    return sum;
}
```

The HPC-folks call this Array-of-Structs to Struct-of-Arrays, Database folks call this decomposed storage

Okay, so what about those capacitive misses?

The Problem: Thrashing (i.e., capacity bound code)

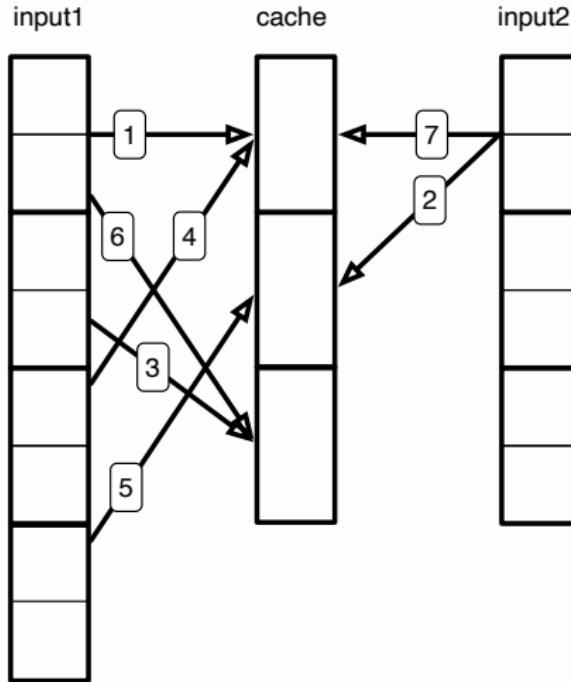
CPU Memory Access Latencies (by hot data set size)



Thrashing

```
static void NestedLoops(benchmark::State& state) {
    auto xrange = state.range(0);
    auto yrange = state.range(1);
    int* input0 = getInput(0);
    int* input1 = getInput(1);
    for(auto _ : state) {
        int sum = 0;
        for(size_t i = 0; i < xrange; i++) {
            for(size_t j = 0; j < yrange; j++) {
                sum += input0[i]*input1[j];
            }
        }
        benchmark::DoNotOptimize(sum);
    }
}
BENCHMARK(NestedLoops);
```

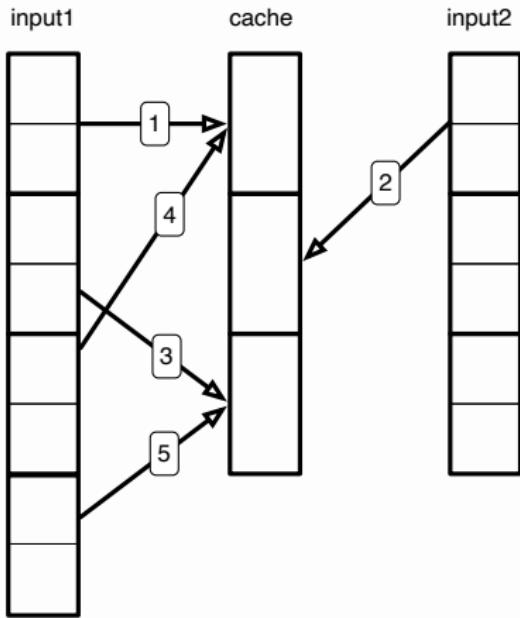
Thrashing



The Solution: Loop Tiling

```
static void TiledLoops(benchmark::State& state) {
    auto xrange = state.range(0);
    auto yrange = state.range(1);
    int* input0 = getInput(0);
    int* input1 = getInput(1);
    for(auto _ : state) {
        int sum = 0;
        for(size_t tileI = 0; tileI < xrange; tileI += tileSize) {
            for(size_t tileJ = 0; tileJ < yrange; tileJ += tileSize) {
                for(size_t inTileI = 0; inTileI < tileSize; inTileI++) {
                    auto i = tileI*tileSize+inTileI;
                    for(size_t inTileI = 0; inTileI < tileSize; inTileI++) {
                        auto j = tileJ*tileSize+inTileJ;
                        sum += input0[i] * input1[j];
                    }
                }
            }
        }
        benchmark::DoNotOptimize(sum);
    }
}
BENCHMARK(UntiledLoops);
```

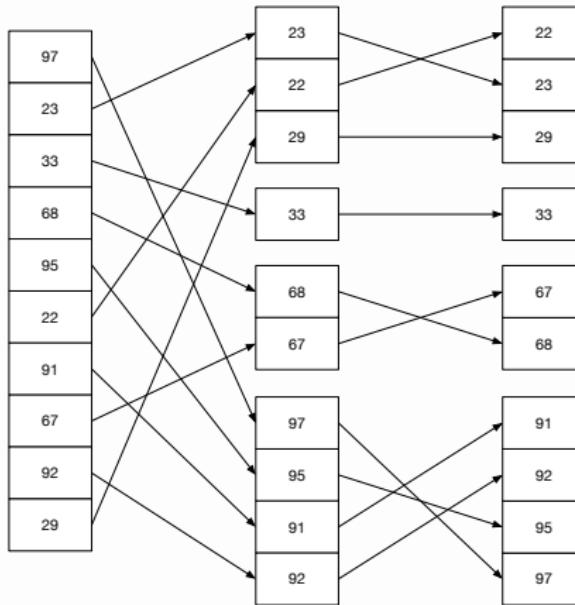
Loop Tiling



- Two effects:
 - Cache lines on the right are never thrashed
 - Repeated access to cache lines keeps them hot
 - Loop tiling is (almost) a no-brainer

There are cases that are not as clear-cut!

Radix-Sorting



Bottom line: multiple passes can be beneficial!

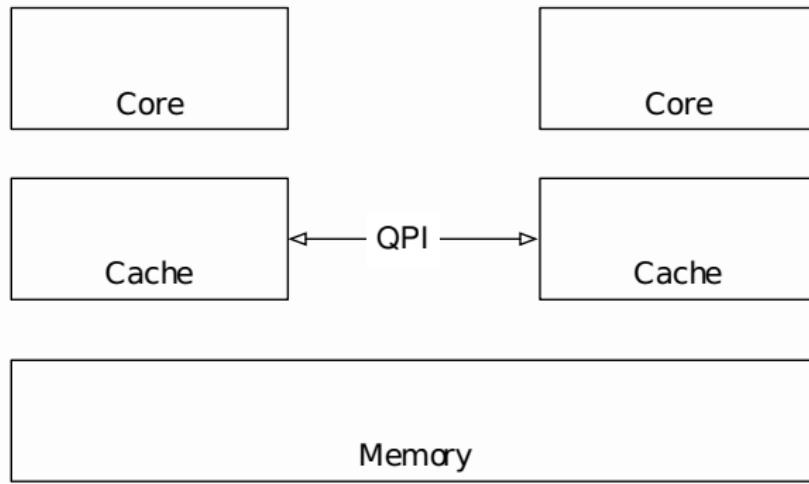
Conclusion

Measures

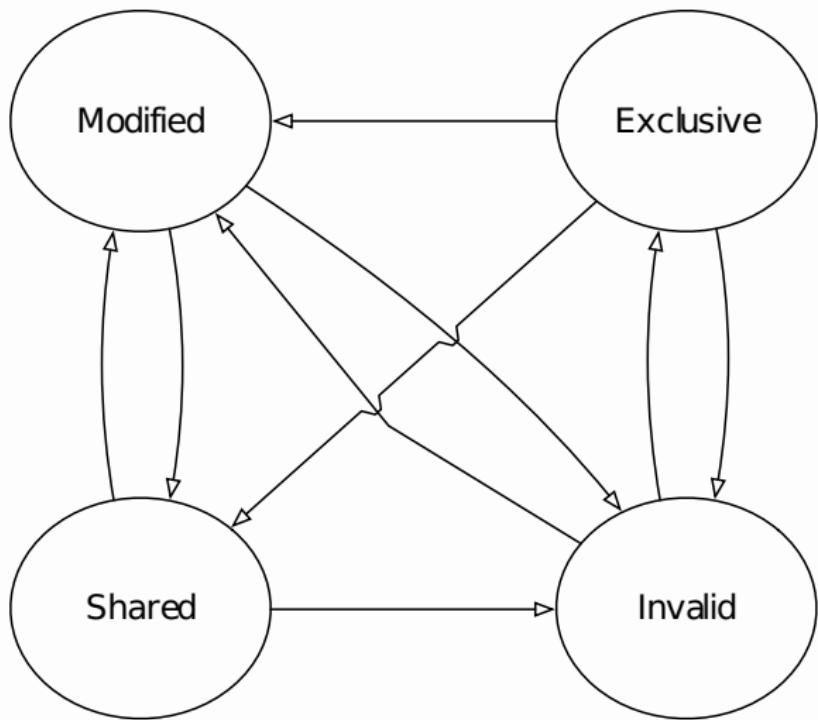
- If it is bandwidth bound, increase cache-line utilization:
- If it is latency bound, prefetch
- If it is capacity bound, reduce the footprint/hot dataset

Before I let you go

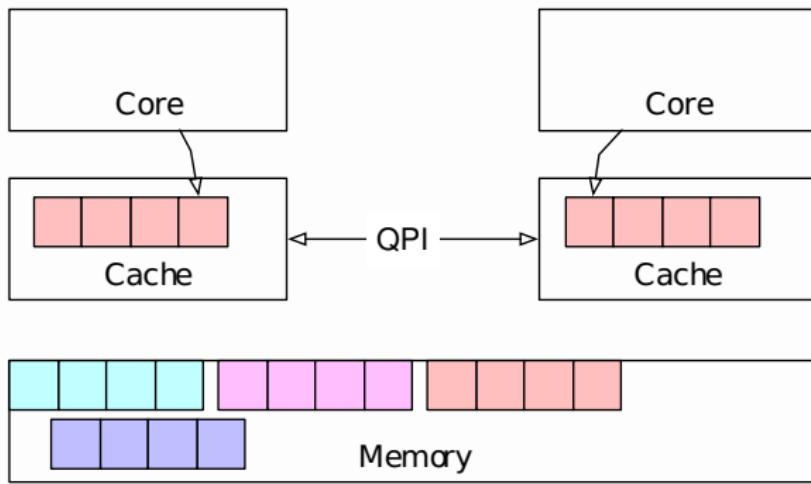
Multicore effects



MESI



False Sharing - the final control-flow hazard



Provide feedback, please!



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