# High Performance Computing (HPC) Introduction

### Ontario Summer School on High Performance Computing

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# Outline

HPC Overview

### 2 Parallel Computing

- Amdahl's law
- HPC Lesson #1
- Beating Amdahl's law
- HPC Lesson #2
- Load balancing
- Locality
- HPC Lesson #3
- 3 HPC Hardware
  - Distributed Memory
  - Shared Memory
  - Hybrid Architectures
  - HPC Lesson #4
- 4 HPC Programming Models
- 5 HPC System Software



### Contributing Material

- SciNet Parallel Scientific Computing Course
  - L. J. Dursi & R. V. Zon, SciNet
- Parallel Computing Models D. McCaughan, SHARCNET
- High Performance Computing D. McCaughan, SHARCNET
- HPC Architecture Overview H. Merez, SHARCNET
- Intro to HPC T. Whitehead, SHARCNET



### What is it?

 ${\sf HPC}$  is essentially leveraging larger and/or multiple computers to solve computations in parallel.



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#### What does it involve?

- hardware pipelining, instruction sets, multi-processors, inter-connects
- algorithms concurrency, efficiency, communications
- software parallel approaches, compilers, optimization, libraries



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### When do I need HPC?

• My problem takes to long  $\rightarrow$  more/faster computation

PU

- My problem is to big  $\rightarrow$  more memory
- My data is to big  $\rightarrow$  more storage

#### Why is it necessary?

- Modern experiments and observations yield vastly more data to be processed than in the past.
- As more computing resources become available, the bar for cutting edge simulations is raised.
- Science that could not have been done before becomes tractable.



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#### However

- Advances in clock speeds, bigger and faster memory and storage have been lagging as compared to e.g. 10 years ago. *Can no longer "just wait a year" and get a better computer.*
- So modern HPC means more hardware, not faster hardware.
- Thus parallel programming/computing is required.

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### HR Dilemma

• Problem: job needs to get done faster



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- Problem: job needs to get done faster
  - can't hire substantially faster people
  - can hire more people

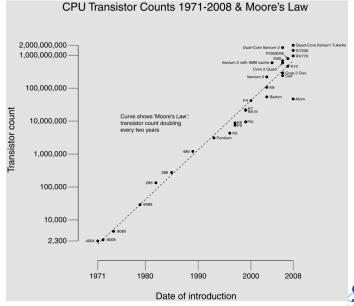


### HR Dilemma

- Problem: job needs to get done faster
  - can't hire substantially faster people
  - can hire more people
- Solution:
  - split work up between people (divide and conquer)
  - requires rethinking the work flow process
  - requires administration overhead
  - eventually administration larger than actual work



## Wait, what about Moore's Law?



(source: Transistor Count and Moore's Law - 2008.svg, by Wgsimon, wikipedia)



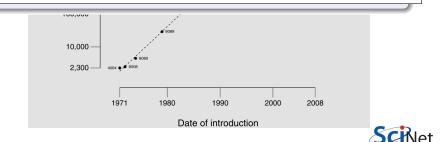
#### Wait, what about Moore's Law? CPU Transistor Counts 1971-2008 & Moore's Law



~ ~~~ ~~~

... describes a long-term trend in the history of computing hardware. The number of transistors that can be placed inexpensively on an integrated circuit doubles approximately every two years.

(source: Moore's law, wikipedia)



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# Wait, what about Moore's Law? ~ ~~~ ~~~ Moore's law ... describes a long-term trend in the history of computing hardware. The number of transistors that can be placed inexpensively on an integrated circuit doubles approximately every two years. (source: Moore's law, wikipedia) 100.000 But. . Moores Law didn't promise us clock speed. • More transistors but getting hard to push clockspeed up. Power density is limiting factor. So more cores at fixed clock speed. ല

# Parallel Computing

### **Thinking Parallel**

The general idea is if one processor is good, many processors will be better

- Parallel programming is not generally trivial
- Tools for automated parallelism are either highly specialized or absent
- serial algorithms/mathematics don't work well in parallel without modification



# Parallel Computing

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### Parallel Programming

- its Necessary (serial performance has peaked)
- its Everywhere (cellphones, tablets, laptops, etc)
- its Only getting worse (Sequoia has 1.5 Million cores)



## Concurrency

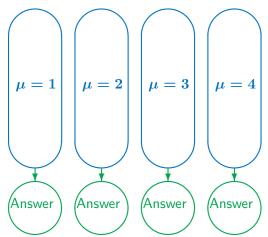
- Must have something to do for all these cores.
- Find parts of the program that can done independently, and therefore concurrently.
- There must be many such parts.
- There order of execution should not matter either.
- Data dependencies limit concurrency.



(source: http://flickr.com/photos/splorp)



- Aim is to get results from a model as a parameter varies.
- Can run the serial program on each processor at the same time.
- Get "more" done.



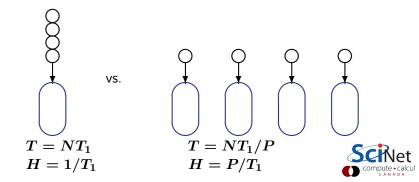


## Throughput

• How many tasks can you do per time unit?

throughput 
$$=H=rac{N}{T}$$

- Maximizing H means that you can do as much as possible.
- Independent tasks: using  ${m P}\,$  processors increases  ${m H}\,$  by a factor  ${m P}\,$

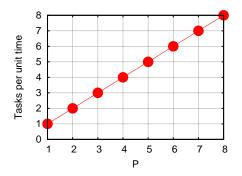


# Scaling — Throughput

- How a problem's throughput scales as processor number increases ("strong scaling").
- In this case, linear scaling:

 $H \propto P$ 

• This is Perfect scaling.



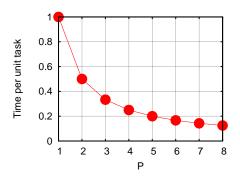


## Scaling – Time

- How a problem's timing scales as processor number increases.
- Measured by the time to do one unit. In this case, inverse linear scaling:

$$T \propto 1/P$$

• Again this is the ideal case, or "embarrassingly parallel".



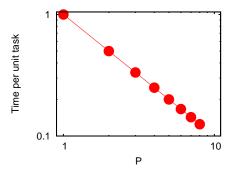


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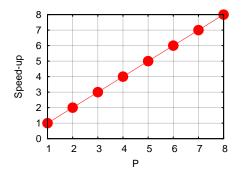


# Scaling – Speedup

- How much faster the problem is solved as processor number increases.
- Measured by the serial time divided by the parallel time

$$S = rac{T_{serial}}{T(P)} \propto P$$

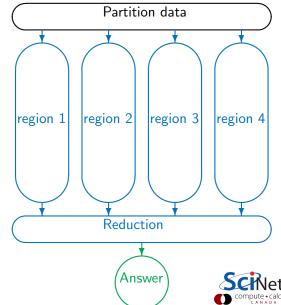
• For embarrassingly parallel applications: Linear speed up.

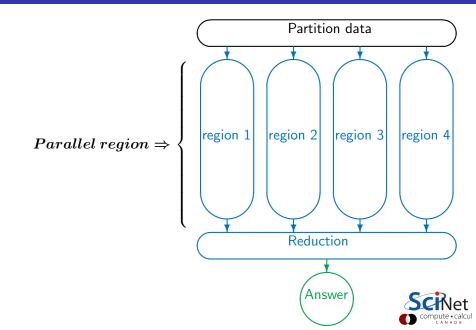


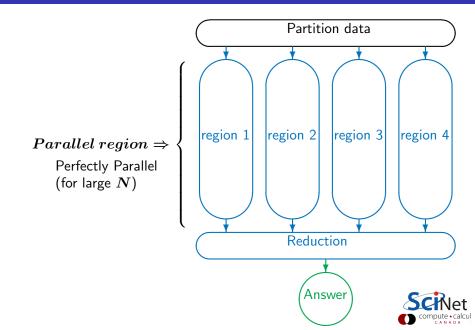


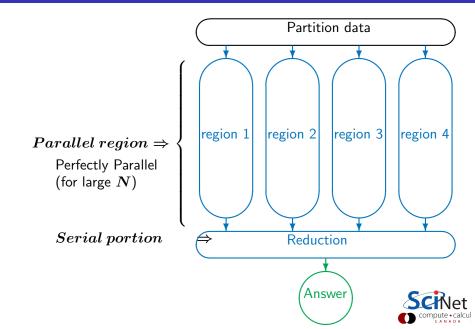
## Non-ideal cases

- Say we want to integrate some tabulated experimental data.
- Integration can be split up, so different regions are summed by each processor.
- Non-ideal:
  - First need to get data to processor
  - And at the end bring together all the sums: "reduction"

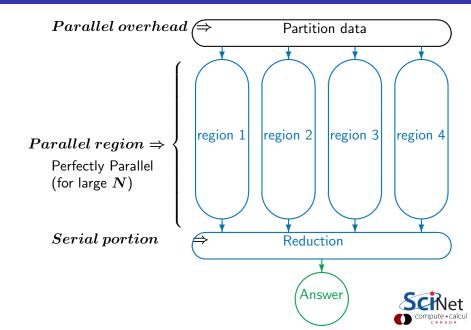




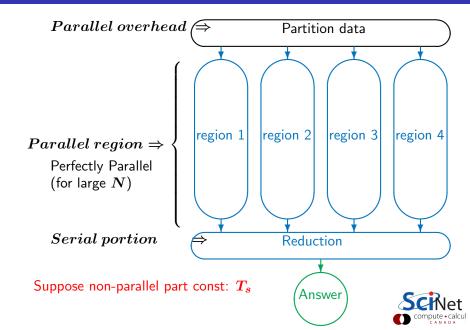




### Non-ideal cases



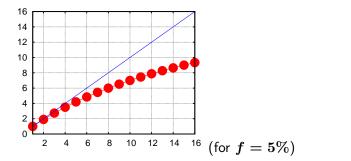
### Non-ideal cases



Speed-up (without parallel overhead):

$$S = \frac{NT_1 + T_s}{\frac{NT_1}{P} + T_s}$$

$$S = \frac{1}{f + (1 - f)/P}$$

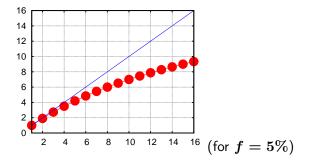




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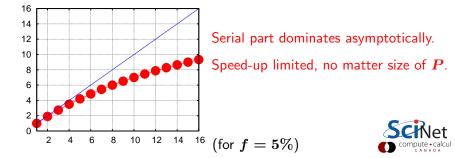




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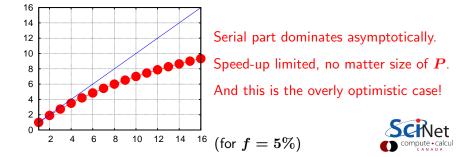
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Speed-up compared to ideal factor **P**:

$$Efficiency = \frac{S}{P}$$

This will invariably fall off for larger P except for embarrassing parallel problems.

$$Efficiency \sim rac{1}{fP} \stackrel{P 
ightarrow \infty}{\longrightarrow} 0$$

You cannot get 100% efficiency in any non-trivial problem.

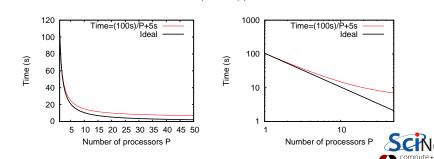
All you can aim for here is to make the efficiency as least low as possible.

Sometimes, that can mean running on less processors, but more problems at the same time.



## Timing example

- Say 100s in integration cost
- 5s in reduction
- Neglect communication cost
- What happens as we vary number of processors P?



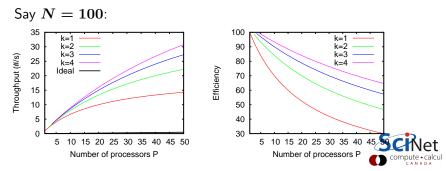
Time = (100s)/P + 5

## Throughput example

$$H(P) = rac{N}{Time(P)}$$

• Say we are doing k at the same time, on P processors total.

$$H_k(P) = rac{kN}{Time(P/k)}$$



## HPC Lesson #1

Always keep throughput in mind: if you have several runs, running more of them at the same time on less processors per run is often advantageous.



## Less ideal case of Amdahl's law

We assumed reduction is constant. But it will in fact increase with P, from sum of results of all processors

 $T_s \approx PT_1$ 

Serial fraction now a function of **P**:

$$f(P) = \frac{P}{N}$$

Amdahl:

$$S(P) = rac{1}{f(P) + [1 - f(P)]/P}$$



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Example: N=100,  $T_1=1s\ldots$ 



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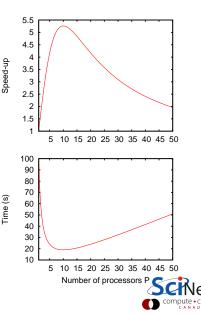
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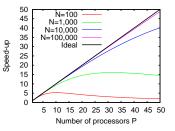
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# Scale up!

The larger N, the smaller the serial fraction:

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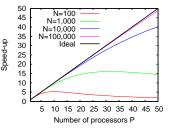




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Weak scaling: Increase problem size while increasing P

$$Time_{weak}(P) = Time(N = n \times P, P)$$

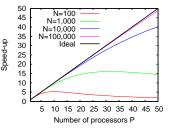
Good weak scaling means this time approaches a constant for large P.



# Scale up!

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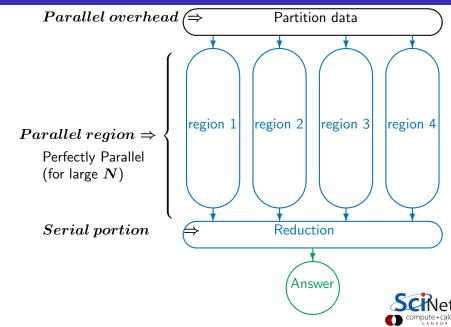
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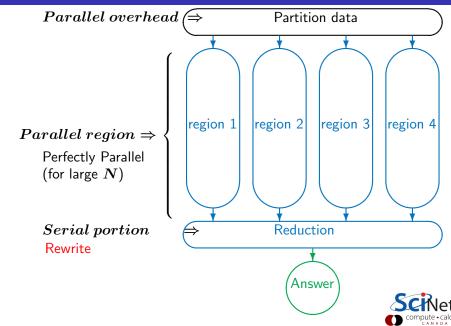
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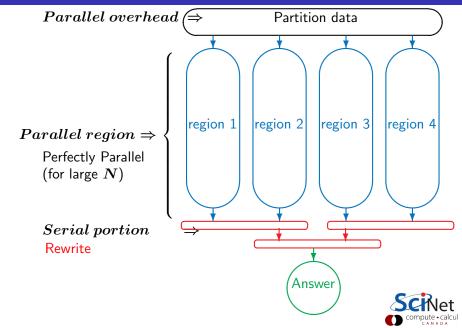
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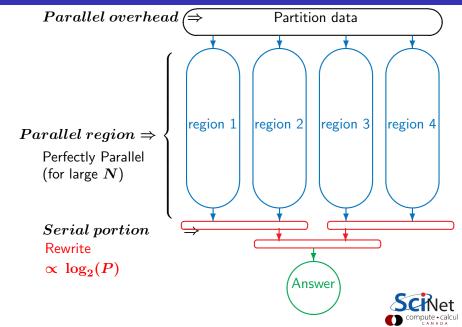
### Gustafson's Law

Any large enough problem can be efficiently parallelized (Efficiency $\rightarrow$ 1).









'Serial' fraction now different function of *P*:

$$f(P) = \frac{\log_2(P)}{N}$$

Amdahl:

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Example:  $N = 100, \ T_1 = 1s...$ 



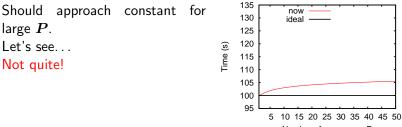
14 12 'Serial' fraction different now 10 Speed-up function of **P**: 8 6  $f(P) = \frac{\log_2(P)}{N}$ 4 2 n Amdahl: 5 10 15 20 25 30 35 40 45 50 100 Time 90  $S(P) = rac{1}{f(P) + [1-f(P)]/P} \ {\begin{aligned} \widehat{g} \ \underline{g} \ \underline{g$ 80 70 60 50 40 Example:  $N = 100, T_1 =$ 30 20 1s...10 0 5 10 15 20 25 30 35 40 45 50 Number of processors P

$$Time_{weak}(P) = Time(N = n \times P, P)$$

Should approach constant for large P. Let's see...



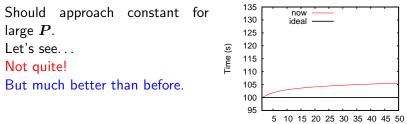
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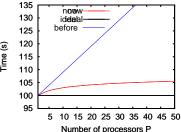


Number of processors P



 $Time_{weak}(P) = Time(N = n \times P, P)$ 

Should approach constant for large P. Let's see...  $\tilde{P}$ Not quite!  $\tilde{P}$ But much better than before.



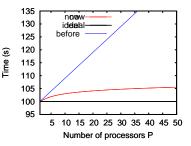


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It turns out that Gustafson's law assumes that the serial cost does not change with P. Here that grows logarithmically with P, and this is reflected in the weak scaling.



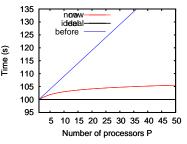


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Really not that bad. and other algorithms can do better.

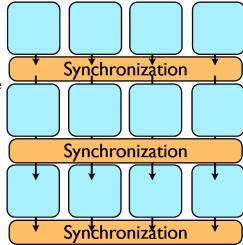


## HPC Lesson #2

Optimal Serial Algorithm for your problem may not be the P  $\rightarrow$ 1 limit of your optimal parallel algorithm.



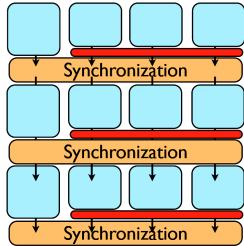
- Most problems are not purely concurrent.
- Some level of synchronization or exchange of information is needed between tasks.
- While synchronizing, nothing else happens: increases Amdahl's *f*.
- And synchronizations are themselves costly.





# Load balancing

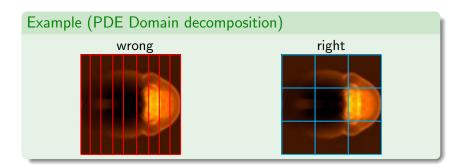
- The division of calculations among the processors may not be equal.
- Some processors would already be done, while others are still going.
- Effectively using less than *P* processors: This reduces the efficiency.
- Aim for load balanced algorithms.





- So far we neglected communication costs.
- But communication costs are more expensive than computation!
- To minimize communication to computation ratio:
  - \* Keep the data where it is needed.
  - \* Make sure as little data as possible is to be communicated.
  - \* Make shared data as local to the right processors as possible.
- Local data means less need for syncs, or smaller-scale syncs.
- Local syncs can alleviate load balancing issues.







## HPC Lesson #3

Parallel algorithm design is about finding as much concurrency as possible, and arranging it in a way that maximizes locality.



#### PROJECT LISTS STATISTICS RESOURCES NEWS

#### Home + Lists + June 2012

#### TOP500 List - June 2012 (1-100)

Rmax and Rpeak values are in TFlops. For more details about other fields, check the TOP500 description. Power data in KW for entire system

## List of the worlds 500 largest supercomputers. Updated every 6 months,

Top500.org:

Info on architecture, etc.

Rank	Site	Computer/Year Vendor	Cores	R <sub>max</sub>	Rpeak	Power
1	DOE/NNSA/LINL United States	Sequoia - BlueGene/Q, Power BQC 16C 1.60 GHz, Custorn / 2011 IBM	1572864	16324.75	20132.66	7890.0
2	RIKEN Advanced Institute for Computational Science (AICS) Japan	K computer, SPARC64 VIIItx 2.0GHz, Totu interconnect / 2011 Fujitsu	705024	10510.00	11280.38	12659.9
3	DOE/SC/Argonne National Laboratory United States	Mira - BlueGene/Q, Power BQC 16C 1.60GHz, Custom / 2012 IBM	786432	8162.38	10066.33	3945.0
4	Leibniz Rechenzentrum Germany	SuperMUC - IDataPlex DX350M4, Xeon E5-2680 8C 2.70GHz, Infiniband FDR / 2012 IBM	147456	2897.00	3185.05	3422.7
5	National Supercomputing Center in Tianjin China	Tianhe-1A - NUDT YH MPP, Xeon X5670 6C 2.93 GHz, NVIDIA 2050 / 2010 NUDT	186368	2566.00	4701.00	4040.0
6	DOE/SC/Oak Ridge National Laboratory United States	Jaguar - Cray XK6, Opteron 6274 16C 2.200GH2, Cray Gemini Interconnect, NVIDIA 2090 / 2009 Cray Inc.	298592	1941.00	2627.61	5142.0
7	CINECA Italy	Fermi - BlueGene/Q, Power BQC 16C 1.60GHz, Custom / 2012 IBM	163840	1725.49	2097.15	821.9
8	Forschungszentrum Juelich (FZJ) Germany	JuQUEEN - BlueGene/Q, Power BQC 16C 1.60GHz, Custom / 2012 IBM	131072	1380.39	1677.72	657.5
9	CEA/TGCC-GENCI France	Curie thin nodes - Bullx B510, Xeon E5-2680 8C 2.700GHz, Infiniband QDR / 2012 Bull	77184	1359.00	1667.17	2251.0
10	National Supercomputing Centre in Shenzhen (NSCS) China	Nebulae - Dawning TC3600 Blade System, Xeon X5650 6C 2.66GHz, Infiniband QDR, NVIDIA 2050 / 2010 Dawning	120640	1271.00	2984.30	2580.0



nex

# **HPC** Systems

## Architectures

- Clusters, or, distributed memory machines
  - A bunch of servers linked together by a network ("interconnect").
  - commodity x86 with gigE, Cray XK, IBM BGQ
- Symmetric Multiprocessor (SMP) machines, or, shared memory machines
  - These can see the same memory, typically Limited number of cores.
  - IBM Pseries, SGI Altix and Ultraviolet
- Vector machines.
  - No longer dominant in HPC anymore.
  - Cray, NEC
- Accelerator (GPU, Cell, MIC, FPGA)
  - Heterogeneous use of standard CPU's with a specialized accelerator.
  - NVIDIA, AMD, Intel, Xilinx

# Distributed Memory: Clusters

# Simplest type of parallel computer to build

- Take existing powerful standalone computers
- And network them



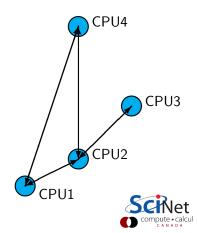
(source: http://flickr.com/photos/eurleif)



## Distributed Memory: Clusters

# Each node is independent!

Parallel code consists of programs running on separate computers, communicating with each other. Could be entirely different programs.



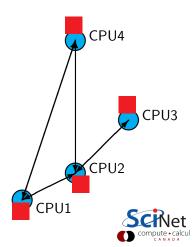
## Distributed Memory: Clusters

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## Each node has own memory! Whenever it needs data from another region, requests it from that CPU.

Usual model: "message passing"



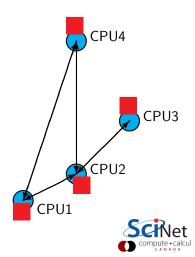
# Clusters+Message Passing

### Hardware:

Easy to build (Harder to build well) Can build larger and larger clusters relatively easily

## Software:

Every communication has to be hand-coded: hard to program



Work to be done is decomposed across processors

- e.g. divide and conquer
- each processor responsible for some part of the algorithm
- communication mechanism is significant
- must be possible for different processors to be performing different tasks



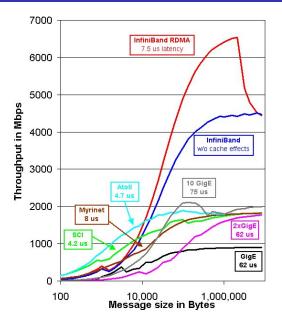
# Cluster Communication Cost

	Latency	Bandwidth
GigE	10 <i>µ</i> s	1 Gb/s
	(10,000 ns)	( 60 ns/double)
Infiniband	2 <b>µ</b> s	2-10 Gb/s
	(2,000 ns)	(10 ns /double)

Processor speed: O(GFLOP)  $\sim$  few ns or less.



# Cluster Communication Cost





# SciNet General Purpose Cluster (GPC)





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# SciNet General Purpose Cluster (GPC)

- 3780 nodes with two 2.53GHz quad-core Intel Xeon 5500 (*Nehalem*) x86-64 processors (30240 cores total)
- 16GB RAM per node
- Gigabit ethernet network on all nodes for management and boot
- DDR and QDR InfiniBand network on the nodes for job communication and file I/O
- 306 TFlops
- #16 on the June 2009 *TOP500* supercomputer sites (current #66)
- #1 in Canada



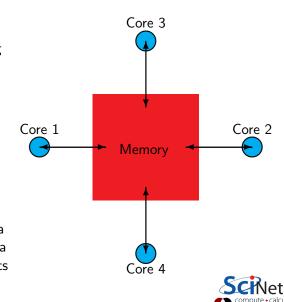
### Shared Memory

One large bank of memory, different computing cores acting on it. All 'see' same data.

Any coordination done through memory

Could use message passing, but no need.

Each code is assigned a thread of execution of a single program that acts on the data.



#### Threads:

Threads of execution within one process, with access to the same memory etc.

#### Processes:

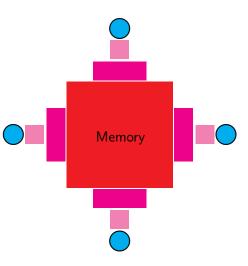
Independent tasks with their own memory and resources

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8	root	RT	- 5	0	0	0	s	0.0	0.0	0:00.00 migration/2
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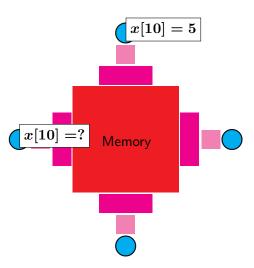
#### Non-Uniform Memory Access

- Each core typically has some memory of its own.
- Cores have cache too.
- Keeping this memory coherent is extremely challenging.





- The different levels of memory imply multiple copies of some regions
- Multiple cores mean can update unpredictably
- Very expensive hardware
- Hard to scale up to lots of processors.
- Very simple to program!!





Data is distributed across processors

- easier to program, compiler optimization
- code otherwise looks fairly sequential
- benefits from minimal communication overhead
- scale limitations



### Shared Memory Communication Cost

	Latency	Bandwidth
GigE	10 <i>µ</i> s	1 Gb/s
	(10,000 ns)	(60 ns/double)
Infiniband	2 µs	2-10 Gb/s
	(2,000 ns)	(10 ns /double)
NUMA	0.1 <i>µ</i> s	10-20 Gb/s
(shared memory)	(100 ns)	(4 ns /double)

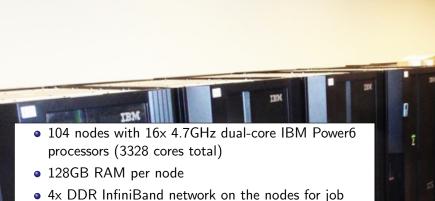
Processor speed:  $O(GFLOP) \sim$  few ns or less.



# SciNet Tightly Coupled System (TCS)



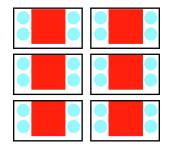
### SciNet Tightly Coupled System (TCS)



- 4X DDR InfiniBand network on the hodes for jo communication and file I/O
- 62 TFlops

# Hybrid Architectures

- Multicore machines linked together with an interconnect
- Many cores have modest vector capabilities.
- Machines with GPU: GPU is multi-core, but the amount of shared memory is limited.



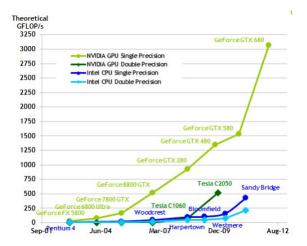


#### Accelerators

- CPUs are not optimal for all algorithms and workloads, have to address many use cases.
- Special purpose co-processors (accelerators) can be connected to the CPU to handle particular tasks more efficiently.
- Long history of different accelerator architectures (and processors themselves) focusing on SIMD (single instruction, multiple data; vector) operations.
- Graphics processors (GPUs) have been extended such that they are flexible enough to handle these workloads (and they're relatively cheap).



### GPGPU



GPUs trade-off single thread performance and memory caching for SIMD parallel performance.

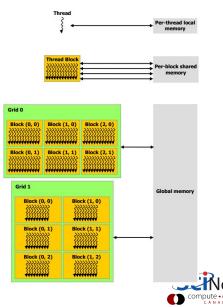
compute • calcu

- GPUs communicate with the CPU via PCI Express bus.
- GPUs are driven by a host process running on the CPU, which invokes computational kernels.
- Extreme parallelism to get good speedup and hide latency, high arithmetic intensity.
- Data has to be explicitly sent back and forth to the GPU
- Fine-grained parallelism complements other parallel methods (MPI, threads, etc.)
- Programming is typically more involved (but tools and frameworks are constantly improving)



# GPGPU

- An array of streaming multiprocessors attached to a global memory.
- Computational kernels are executed using many threads, which are organized in a grid of thread blocks.
- Threads within a block have a pool of shared memory, as well as local, private memory.
- Focus on leveraging massive parallelism in algorithms while working within the constraints of limited shared-memory.



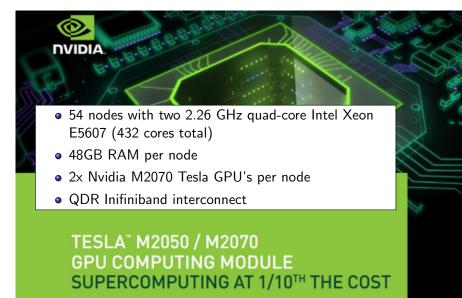


#### TESLA<sup>®</sup> M2050 / M2070 GPU COMPUTING MODULE SUPERCOMPUTING AT 1/10<sup>TH</sup> THE COST



### SHARCNET - monk

### SHARCNET - monk



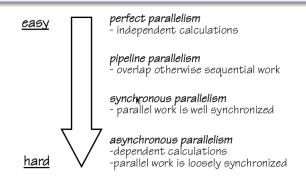


#### HPC Lesson #4

The best approach to parallelizing your problem will depend on both details of your problem and of the hardware available.



Structure of the problem dictates the ease with which we can implement parallel solutions easy





### Parallel Granularity

#### Granularity

A measure of the amount of processing performed before communication between processes is required.

#### Parallelism

- Fine Grained
  - constant communication necessary
  - best suited to shared memory environments
- Coarse Grained
  - significant computation performed before communication is necessary
  - ideally suited to message-passing environments
- Perfect
  - no communication necessary



#### Languages

- serial
  - C, C++, Fortran
- threaded (shared memory)
  - OpenMP, pthreads
- message passing (distributed memory)
  - MPI, PGAS (UPC, Coarray Fortran)
- accelerator (GPU, Cell, MIC, FPGA)
  - CUDA, OpenCL, OpenACC



#### HPC Software Stack

- Typically GNU/Linux
- non-interactive batch processing using a queuing system scheduler
- software packages and versions usually available as "modules"
- Parallel filesystem (GPFS,Lustre)

