The low power architecture approach towards exascale computing

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\textbf{A B S T R A C T}

Energy efficiency is a first-order concern when deploying any computer system. From battery-operated mobile devices, to data centers and supercomputers, energy consumption limits the performance that can be offered.

We are exploring an alternative to current supercomputers that builds on low power microprocessors. We present initial results from our prototype system based on ARM Cortex-A9, which achieves 120 MFLOPS/W, and discuss the possibilities to increase its energy efficiency.

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\section{1. Introduction}

For a long time, the only metric that was used for assessing supercomputer performance was their speed. The Top500 list ranks supercomputers based on their performance when running the High-Performance LINPACK benchmark \cite{top500}. However, performance per watt is currently as important as raw computing performance: nowadays, system performance is limited by power consumption and power density. The Green500 list \cite{green500} ranks supercomputers based on their power efficiency. A quick look at this list shows that the most efficient systems today achieve around 2 GFLOPS/W, and that most of the top 50 power-efficient systems are built using heterogeneous CPU + GPU platforms. According to Ref. \cite{green500}, among the most power-efficient supercomputers (Table 1) are either those based on processors designed with supercomputing in mind, or those based on general purpose CPUs with accelerators (Intel MICs or GPUs). Blue Gene/Q (Power A2) is an example of first type. Examples of the second type are the Intel Cluster (Intel Xeon E5-2670 and Intel Knights Corner), the Dementia Cluster (Intel Core i5 and ATI Radeon GPU) and Bullx B505 (Intel Xeon ES649 and NVIDIA GPU).

Not only supercomputers but also servers and data-centers have power constrains. In recent years we have also seen a dramatic increase in the number, performance and power consumption in this domain. This market, which includes companies such as Google, Amazon and Facebook, is also concerned with power efficiency. Frachtenberg et al. \cite{frachtenberg} present an exhaustive description of how Facebook builds efficient servers for their data-centers, achieving a 38\% reduction in power consumption by improving cooling and power distribution only.

The performance of supercomputers has shown a constant exponential growth over time: according to the Top500 list of supercomputers \cite{top500}, an improvement of 10× in performance is observed every 3.6 years. The Roadrunner Supercomputer achieved 1 PFLOPS (10\textsuperscript{15} floating point operations per second) in 2008 \cite{roadrunner} on a power budget of 2.3 MW, and the current number one supercomputer,\footnote{As per June 2012 Top500 list.} Sequoia achieves 16 PFLOPS while consuming 7.9 MW.

Following this trend, exascale performance should be reached in 2018, but the required power for that will be up to 400 MW.\footnote{For comparison purposes, the total reported power of all the supercomputers as per June 2012 Top500 list is 336 MW \cite{top500}.} A realistic power budget for an exascale system is 20 MW \cite{exascale}, which requires an energy efficiency of 50 GFLOPS/W. As Ref. \cite{exascale} suggests, we have to tackle a lot of issues towards achieving exascale – to improve on computing elements, memory technologies, networking, storage and cooling. Here we choose to deal with computing...
elements first by exploring an alternative microprocessor architecture for HPC.

A quick estimation, based on using 16 GFLOPS processors (like those in Sequoia and the Fujitsu K supercomputers), shows that a 1 EFLOPS system would require 62.5 millions of such processors. Based on current trends, if we observe that only 35–50% of the 20 MW allocated to the whole computer is actually spent on the CPUs, we can see that each of those processors has a power budget of only 0.15 W, including caches, network-on-chip, etc. Current high-end multicore architectures are one or two orders of magnitude away from that mark. The cores used in GPU accelerators are in the required range, but they lack general purpose computing capabilities. A third design alternative is to build a high performance system from low power components originally designed for mobile and/or embedded systems.

In this paper, we evaluate the feasibility of developing a high performance compute cluster based on the current leader in the mobile domain, the ARM Cortex-A9 processor [7]. First, we describe the architecture of our HPC cluster, built from Nvidia Tegra2 SoC and a 1 Gb Ethernet interconnection network. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first large-scale HPC cluster built using ARM multicores.

Then, we compare the per-core performance of the Cortex-A9 with a contemporary power-optimized Intel Core i7, and evaluate the scalability and performance per watt of our ARM cluster using the High-Performance LINPACK benchmark.

2. Prototype

2.1. Node

The prototype that we are building (named Tibidabo) consists of 256 nodes organized into 32 blades. Each blade has eight nodes and a shared power supply unit (PSU). The compute node is built around a SECO Q7-compliant carrier board (Fig. 1(a)) designed to host one microprocessor SoC and one low power MXM GPU. Each node also exposes two Ethernet NICs (network interface controllers) – 1 Gb for MPI communication and 100 Mb for a NFS (Network File System) which hosts Linux kernel and both system and user data. The node is designed to be used for embedded software development, not particularly tailored for HPC, and hence includes many features that are unnecessary in the HPC domain (e.g. multimedia expansions and related circuitry).

2.2. Microprocessor SoC

The compute power comes from an NVIDIA Tegra 2 SoC, which implements a dual-core ARM Cortex-A9 processor at 1 GHz. This SoC is mounted on the daughter board (Fig. 1(b)), which is connected to the carrier board via a Q7 connector. The use of a Q7-compliant daughter board eases future upgrades of the processor SoC. In addition to the SoC, the daughter board contains 1 GB of DDR2-667 RAM and a 1 Gb embedded Ethernet controller. The power consumption of the daughter board is approximately 4 W, and it provides 2 GFLOPS of peak double precision floating-point performance.

2.3. Interconnection network

Nodes are connected through 1 GbE network with a tree-like network topology. Each group of 32 nodes are connected on a first-level switch. We use the same switch model for all switching levels of the network (Cisco SF200-50 [8]). Each node is reachable within four hops in the network.

3. Initial results

3.1. Methodology

For single core comparison of both performance and energy, we use Hplstone [9], STREAM [10] and SPEC CPU2006 [11] benchmark suites. Both platforms, Tibidabo node and a power optimized Intel Core i7 laptop, execute benchmarks with the same input set size in order to have comparable numbers. Both platforms run GNU/Linux OS and use the GCC 4.6 compiler. We measure power consumption at AC socket connection point for both platforms, and calculate energy-to-solution by integrating power samples.

We report initial performance and energy efficiency of a fraction of Tibidabo cluster (32 nodes) running High-Performance LINPACK
Table 2
Dhrystone and STREAM: Intel Core i7 and ARM Cortex-A9 performance and energy-to-solution comparison.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Platform</th>
<th>Dhrystone perf (Dhr/ps)</th>
<th>Dhrystone energy abs (J) norm</th>
<th>STREAM perf (MB/s)</th>
<th>STREAM energy (avg.) abs (J) norm</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intel Core i7</td>
<td>19.246</td>
<td>116.8</td>
<td>1.056</td>
<td>6912</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ARM Cortex-A9</td>
<td>2213</td>
<td>110.8</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>6898</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. 2. SPEC CPU2006 benchmark results: (a) comparison between the two platforms in terms of execution time and (b) comparison between the two platforms in terms of energy to solution. All results are normalized to ARM Cortex-A9.

This benchmark is used to rank supercomputers in the Top500 list while solving the biggest possible problem that can fit into system memory. We tested weak scaling and three different configurations for strong scaling (with different problem sizes). For the algebraic backend we use ATLAS 3.9.51 library [12]. Power samples are collected at blades' AC connection points and do not include network power consumption given that network is out of the scope of this paper.

3.2. Results

In terms of performance, on all the tested single-core benchmarks, the Intel Core i7 outperforms ARM Cortex-A9 core, as expected given the obvious design differences.

Table 2 shows the comparison between two platforms. In the case of Dhrystone, Core i7 performs better by a factor of nine, but ARM platform uses 5% less energy. Similarly, in the case of STREAM, Core i7 provides five times better performance but ARM platform uses 5% less energy to execute it.

In the case of SPEC suite (Fig. 2), Intel Core i7 core is significantly faster than ARM Cortex-A9 (up to 10 times), but at the same time, ARM platform uses less power resulting in 1.2 times smaller energy-to-solution (on average).

The performance of High-Performance LINPACK in weak scaling configuration scales linearly when the number of nodes is increased from 1 to 32 (see Fig. 3). For each node configuration of the benchmark, we chose the input size that provided maximum performance. Since the theoretical peak performance of a single node is 2 GFLOPS, and we achieve 1 GFLOPS per node in each configuration, the efficiency is 50%. We can attribute relatively small efficiency to the fact that algebra library is not particularly optimized for our platform but is relying on the compiler to do all optimizations. We expect that a hand-tuned version of algebraic backend should give an additional improvement in efficiency and thus in maximum achievable performance (and energy-efficiency at the end).

Strong scaling tests suggest that the communication overhead limits the scalability (increasing problem size gives better scalability). As a matter of fact, our network is a simplistic one, so we experience limitations in connectivity and congestion (as observed as timeouts in post-mortem trace analysis).

Fig. 3. Results for High-Performance LINPACK when changing number of nodes from 1 to 32. Left y-axis shows performance (GFLOPS), while right y-axis shows energy efficiency (MFLOPS/W).
4. Increasing the energy efficiency

So far, we have demonstrated the feasibility of building an ARM-based cluster for HPC system and deployed a full HPC software stack that allows for software development and tuning for the ARM-based multicore. On the other side, we have demonstrated that using low-power processor does not necessarily result in better energy efficiency. However, to better understand how to achieve an energy-efficient system, we need to see where the power is drawn, and to identify possible ways to increase the energy efficiency of the system.

When we analyze the power consumed by one node, only 6% of the total power is spent on the CPU cores [7], while the 1 GB DDR2-667 memory module and Ethernet controllers consume about 30% of the board power [13]. The remaining power, over 60% of the total, is spent on power supply inefficiencies, signaling logic, and other components which are necessary for an embedded system development kit, such as an integrated keyboard controller, HDMIis, USBs with related circuitry. Although necessary when used in the embedded domain, these components are not needed for an HPC system, and a first step towards the improved energy-efficiency could be the re-designing the boards to remove all unnecessary components.

The 6% of the total power consumed by the cores is much lower than the percentage that is consumed by high-end CPUs, which may consume up to 40% of the total power in a typical system [14]. This leaves room for improving energy efficiency by using the same techniques that are already seen in contemporary microprocessors: increasing the multicore density (the number of cores on a single chip) or adding advanced functional units, such as SIMD floating-point unit(s).

The first of the two possibilities is more expensive one in terms of additional power requirements given the design constraints, but it gives an opportunity for achieving balanced system integration by putting more power into computing compared to the other node components. Although by increasing multicore density we do increase the overall power, the power consumed by shared components (such as Ethernet ports, memory, etc.) does not scale linearly with the number of cores, and the overall energy-efficiency of the system increases. Implementation of SIMD floating-point unit comes at the cost of increasing power consumption but at the same time boosts floating-point performance which results in improved energy efficiency. In order to achieve the optimal result, a proper mix of these techniques is required, and design space exploration should answer how to mix them on an ARM architecture to get a more energy efficient system.

If we account for upcoming mobile multicore products based on ARM Cortex-A15 CPUs, we expect better energy-efficiency and about the same power budget [15]. First implementations of the Cortex-A15 are built on 28 nm process (compared to 40 nm in Tegra2) which allows the same power requirements while improving the CPU floating-point performance, hence leading to the future ARM-based systems with increased energy efficiency.

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References


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