Abstract—As power is becoming one of the biggest challenge in high performance computing, we are proposing a performance model on the Single-chip Cloud Computer in order to predict both power consumption and runtime of regular codes. This model takes into account the frequency at which the cores of the SCC chip are running. Thus we can predict the runtime and power needed to run the code for each available frequency. This allow to choose the best frequency to optimize several metrics like power efficiency or minimizing power consumption, based on the needs of the application. Our model just needs some parameters that are code dependent. This parameters can be found through static code analysis. We validated our model by showing that it can predict performance and find the optimal frequency divisor to optimize energy efficiency on several dense linear algebra codes.

Index Terms—Intel SCC, performance model, power, performance prediction, energy efficiency, optimization

I. INTRODUCTION

Reducing power consumption is one of the main challenge in the HPC community. Indeed power is the leading design constraints for next generation of super computers [4]. Therefore energy efficiency is becoming an important metric to evaluate both hardware and software.

The intel Single-chip Cloud Computer (SCC) is a good example of next the generation hardware with an easy way to control power consumption. It provides an API to control core voltage and core frequency by software. This opens promising opportunities to optimize power consumption and to explore new trade-offs between power and performance.

This paper aims at exploring the opportunities offed by SCC to reduce power consumption with a small impact on performance.

This article is organized as follow: In the section II we will describe the model we used to predict performance, in the section III will see how reliable is our model by applying it to several basic linear codes, we will also explain and how to choose the frequency to optimize a given metric. Sections IV, V, and VI will present respectively the related work, future work and conclusion.

II. PERFORMANCE MODEL

In this section we are providing a performance model in order to predict the impact of core frequency scaling on the execution time of several basic linear algebra kernels on the SCC chip.

As we are focusing on dense linear algebra, we just need a few data to predict a given code performance. Data considered are too large to fit in cache, we need the execution time of one iteration of the innermost loop of the kernel and the memory latency.

A. Memory model

For the memory model, we assume that all data accessed by the code examined are out of cache. We will ignore cache effects or prefetch effects and suppose all data come from the main memory. On SCC, a memory access takes 40 core cycles + 4 × n × 2 mesh cycles + 46 memory cycles (DDR3 latency) where n is the number of hops between the requesting core and the memory controller [1]. In our case, we are just running sequential code, therefore we are assuming that the memory access time is \(40 \times c + 46 \times m\) cycles, where \(c\) is the number of core cycles and \(m\) the number of memory cycles. Accessing memory takes 40 core cycles plus 46 memory cycles.

Frequency scaling only affects core frequency, the memory frequency is a constant, (in our case 800MHz). Therefore, changing frequency mostly impact the code performance if it is computation bound. The number of core cycles to perform one DDR3 access is: \(40 + 46 \times \frac{\text{core-freq}}{800}\).

As we can see from the formula dividing the core frequency by 8 (from 800MHz to 100MHz) will just reduce the memory performance by 46%

As the P54C core can have two memory requests pending, we can assume that accessing \(x\) elements will take \(\frac{x}{2} \left(40 + 46 \times \frac{\text{core-freq}}{800}\right)\) core cycles.

B. Computational model

In order to predict the number of cycles needed to perform the computation itself we need the latency of each instruction. Agner Fog measured the latency of each x86 and x87 instruction [6]. We used his work to predict the number of cycles to perform one iteration of the innermost loops of each studied kernel. The computation model is quiet simple, as most of the instruction are using the same execution port, there is almost no instruction parallelism. A more complex performance model, considering also measure latences as the building blocks of the performance model, is used in the performance tuning tool MAQAO [2]. We use such tool to measure the execution time of one iteration of the innermost loop. As most of the execution time of the codes we consider...
is spent in inner loops, this performance estimation is expected to be rather accurate.

From this computation model the impact of frequency scaling one the computation performance is straightforward. The number of cycles to perform the computation is not affected by the frequency. Thus reducing the core frequency by a factor of \( x \) will multiply the running time (in second) by \( x \).

### C. Power model

We are using a very simple power model to estimate the power saved by reducing the core frequency. The Table I shows the voltage used by the tile for each frequency, these data are provided by the SCC Programmer’s guide [1].

The power consumption model used in this paper is the general model:

$$ P = CV^2 f $$

where \( C \) is a constant, \( V \) the voltage and \( f \) the frequency of the core. As shown in the Table I the voltage is a function of the frequency, thus we can express the power consumption as a function of the core frequency only.

We choose not to introduce a power model for the memory because of two reasons: first we have no software control on the memory frequency at runtime. We can change the memory frequency by re-initializing the SCC platform but not during code execution. Thus the memory energy consumption is constant and we have no control over it, therefore it would be worthless to complicate our model with it. The other reason is that until now we used models that can be transposed to other architectures. As the memory architecture of the SCC is quite different from more general purpose architecture its energy model would not fit for those architectures. Thus the model described in this paper is completely general and can be easily transposed to other architectures.

### D. Overall model

In this section we describe how to use both the memory and computational models to predict the performance of a given code.

As the P54C can execute instructions while having memory operation pending, we are assuming that the execution time will be the maximum between the computation time and the memory access time:

$$ \text{runtime}(f_c) = \text{MAX} \left( \frac{\text{computation}}{f_c}, \text{mem\_access}(f_c) \right) $$

with \( f_c \) the core frequency.

With this runtime prediction, we estimate how a code execution is affected by changing the core frequency. Taking the decision to reduce the core frequency in order to save energy can be done with a static code analysis.

As show in part II-A the memory access performance is almost not affected by reducing core frequency, while reducing core frequency increases dramatically computation time. From this observation we see that reducing core frequency for memory bound code is highly beneficial for power consumption because it will almost not affect performance while reducing dramatically energy consumption. However reducing core frequency for compute bound code will directly affect performance.

### III. Model evaluation

In this section we are comparing our model with the real runtime of several regular code in order to check if it valid. We used three computation kernels, one BLAS-1, one BLAS-2 and one BLAS-3 kernels namely dotproduct, matrix-vector product and matrix-matrix product.

First let us describe how we applied our model to the three kernels used: In the following formulas, \( f_{\text{div}} \) denotes the core frequency divisor (as show in Table I) and \( \text{power}(f_{\text{div}}) \) the power used by the core when running at the frequency corresponding to \( f_{\text{div}} \) (see Table I). An important point is that we used large data that does not fit in cache to measure the execution time of code. Thus the kernel actually get data from DRAM and not from cache. However the matrix-matrix multiplication is tiled in order to benefit from data reuse in cache.

#### A. Dotproduct multiplication

For the dotproduct kernel, the memory access time in cycles is:

$$ \text{cycles}_{\text{mem}}(f_{\text{div}}) = \text{size} \times \left( 40 + 46 \times \frac{2}{f_{\text{div}}} \right) $$

The computation time in cycles is given by:

$$ \text{cycles}_{\text{comp}}(f_{\text{div}}) = \text{size} \times \left( \frac{\text{body}}{\text{unroll}} \right) $$

with \( \text{body} \) the run time (in cycles) of the innermost loop body and \( \text{unroll} \) the unroll factor of the innermost loop. In the case shown on figure 1 \( \text{body} = 36 \) and \( \text{unroll} = 4 \). And the power efficiency is:

$$ \text{power}_{\text{eff}}(f_{\text{div}}) = \frac{\text{flop}}{\text{freq} \times \text{model}(f_{\text{div}})} \times \text{power}(f_{\text{div}}), $$

with \( \text{flop} \) the number of floating point operations of the kernel, \( \text{model}(f_{\text{div}}) \) the number of cycles predicted by our model and

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Freq divisor</th>
<th>Tile freq [MHz]</th>
<th>Voltage (volts)</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>800</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>533</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>0.7</td>
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<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>320</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>266</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>228</td>
<td>0.6</td>
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<td>16</td>
<td>100</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TABLE I: Relation between voltage and frequency**
freq the actual core frequency ($\frac{1600}{f_{div}}$). In the case shown on figure 1,

$$model(f_{div}) = \text{MAX}(cycles_{mem}(f_{div}), cycles_{comp}(f_{div})) = cycles_{mem}(f_{div})$$

Figure 1a shows that the number of cycles for both the memory model and obtained through benchmark decreases when frequency decreases. The reason is that frequency scaling affects only core frequency. For memory bound code such as dot product, reducing the core frequency reduces the time spent in waiting for memory requests. However, the code is not executing faster, as shown in Figure 1b.

B. Matrix-vector product

Similarly the model for the matrix-vector product is:

$$cycles_{mem}(f_{div}) = \frac{\text{matrix}_\text{size}}{2} \times (40 + 46 \times \frac{2}{f_{div}})$$

$$cycles_{comp}(f_{div}) = \text{matrix}_\text{size} \times \frac{\text{body}}{\text{unroll}}$$

With $\text{matrix}_\text{size} = 512 \times 1024$ elements, $\text{body} = 64$ cycles, and $\text{unroll} = 4$ for the case shown on figure 2.

$$\text{power}_{\text{eff}}(f_{div}) = \frac{\text{flop}}{\text{freq} \times \text{power}(f_{div})}$$

In this case, again the memory access time is more important than the time for the computation, thus the runtime is given by the memory access time. (ie. $model(f_{div}) = cycles_{mem}(f_{div})$)

Figure 2a shows that the number of cycles for both the memory model and obtained through benchmark decreases when frequency decreases. The reason is the same as for the dot product.

C. Matrix-matrix product

The model for the matrix-matrix multiplication is:

$$cycles_{mem}(f_{div}) = 3 \times \frac{\text{matrix}_\text{size}^2}{2} \times (40 + 46 \times \frac{2}{f_{div}})$$

$$cycles_{comp}(f_{div}) = \text{matrix}_\text{size}^3 \times \frac{\text{body}}{\text{unroll}}$$

$$\text{power}_{\text{eff}}(f_{div}) = \frac{\text{flop}}{\text{freq} \times \text{power}(f_{div})}$$

With $\text{matrix}_\text{size} = 160$ elements (each matrix is $160 \times 160$ elements big), $\text{body} = 43$ cycles, and $\text{unroll} = 1$ for the case shown on figure 3.

For this BLAS-3 kernel, as expected, the computation time is bigger than accessing memory, thus $model(f_{div}) = cycles_{comp}(f_{div})$

D. Power efficiency optimization

Our objective in this section is to show that thanks to the performance model we built, the frequency scaling that optimizes power efficiency can be selected and then, among the most power efficient versions, the version with higher performance is chosen.

We can see that the dot product and matrix-vector product are memory bound while the matrix-matrix product is compute bound. Power efficiency is measured through the ratio of GFlops/W. The best frequency optimizing power efficiency of those two kind of code are different. For the case of memory bound codes, the core frequency can be reduced by a large divisor as performance is limited by memory bandwidth which is not very sensitive to core frequency. On the reverse, for computation bound codes, the performance in GFlops decreases linearly with the frequency.

Figures 1c, 2c and 3c representing power efficiency in GFlops/W for resp. dot product, matrix-vector product and matrix-matrix product show that our performance model is similar to measured performance (from which we deducted power efficiency). Power efficiency for matrix-matrix product is optimal from a frequency divisor of 5, to 16. Among those scalings, the best performance is obtained for the scaling of 5 according to Figure 3a. For the dot product 1c, codes are more energy efficient using a frequency scaling of 5, and their efficiency increases slowly as frequency is reduced. According to our performance model, around 25% of energy/W is gained from a frequency divisor of 5 to a frequency divisor of 16, and for this change, the time to execute the kernel has been multiplied by a factor 2.33 (according to our model). In reality, these factors measured are higher than those predicted by the model, but the frequency values for optimal energy efficiency, or some tradeoff between efficiency and performance are the same. Note that for divisor lower than 5, energy efficiency changes more dramatically since the voltage also changes.

We have chosen to show how to optimize energy efficiency, but as our model predicts both running time and power consumption for each frequency, it is easy to build any other metric depending on power and runtime and optimize it. Indeed using this model allows to compute the metric to optimize for each frequency divisor and then to choose the one that fits the best the requirement. Even with a very simple model as we presented, we can predict the running time of simple computational kernel within an error of 38% in the worst case.

Our energy efficiency model is interesting because it shows exactly the same inflection points as the curve of the real code. This point allow us to predict what is the best core frequency in order to optimize the power efficiency of the kernel to be run.

It is also interesting to see that even with a longer running time all the kernel (even matrix multiplication which is compute bound) benefits from frequency reduction. This comes from the facts that:

- The run time of such kernels is proportional to the frequency
- The power consumption is also proportional to the fre-
So the energy efficiency does not depend on the core frequency. But the 3 firsts step of frequency reduction also reduce the voltage which has an huge impact on power consumption.

IV. RELATED WORK

Power efficiency is a hot topic in the HPC community and as been the subject of numerous studies like, and the Green500 List has been released. Studies carried at Carnegie Mellon University in collaboration with Intel [5] have already shown that the SCC is an interesting platform for power efficiency. Philipp Gschwandtner et al. also performed an analysis of power efficiency of the Single-chip Cloud computer in [7].

Performance prediction in the context of frequency and voltage scaling has also been actively investigated [7], [8], [9], and the model usually devide execution time into memory (or bus, or off-chip) [7], [8] instruction and core instruction, as we did in this paper.

Our contribution is slightly different from usual approach as we are not using any runtime information predict the impact of frequency and/or voltage scaling on performance. As we are using static code analysis to predict performance of a kernels this could be done at compile time and does not increase the complexity of runtime system. Static Performance prediction has also been used in the context of autotuning. Yotov et al.[10] have shown that performance models, even when using cache hierarchy, could be used to select the version of code with higher performance. In [3], the authors have shown besides that a performance model, using measured performance of small kernels, is accurate enough to generate high performance library codes, competing with hand-tune library codes. This demonstrates that performance model can be used in order to compare different versions, at least for regular codes (such as linear algebra codes).

V. FUTURE WORK

The next step for this study is to extend the performance model presented in this paper to parallel kernels. This is much easier on the SCC Chip than on more classical architectures as the cache access time is constant because of its non-coherence. Bandwidth taken by cache-coherency protocol and possible contention are difficult to model in general. More over memory contention on NUMA architecture is a difficult problem. Indeed in such an architecture, memory contention not only depends on the memory access pattern but also on the process binding. Philipp Gschwandtner et al. showed how memory contention on a single memory controller when several cores are accessing it in [7]. We believe it would be very interesting to lead the same experiments for several sets of core frequency. Indeed reducing the core frequency could lead to releasing memory stress on the memory control by spacing memory requests.

Also we would like to improve the model in order to take into account that applications are usually composed of several phases, some compute bound phases followed other that might be memory bound. Enlarging our model to predict what would be the best frequency for each of those phases.

It would also be interesting to develop a framework, inside a compiler or a performance tuning tool such as MAQAO [2], in order to perform the code analysis automatically. This would reduce the time to build the model for new codes, allowing us to do it on a large number of codes.

VI. CONCLUSION

We have described a method to predict performance of some linear algebra codes on the Single-chip Cloud Computing architecture. This model can predict performance of a given code for all available frequency divisor and using the known relation between frequency scaling and voltage, it can also predict power efficiency. Based on this prediction we can choose what will be the best frequency to run the kernel. We have shown that we can save energy through this method, but it is actually even more powerful: using the running time prediction and the power model we can choose the frequency in order to optimize either the running time, or the power consumption, or the energy efficiency.

REFERENCES

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(a) Dot product: the cycle count is shown according to the core frequency divisor.

(b) Dot product: runtime in microsecond depending on the core frequency divisor.

(c) Dot product: power efficiency (in GFlops/W) depending on the core frequency divisor.

Fig. 1: Dotproduct model: sequential dotproduct with 2 vectors of 16MB

(a) Matrix vector product: the cycle count is given according to the core frequency divisor.

(b) Matrix vector product: the execution time is given in microsecond depending on the core frequency divisor.

(c) Matrix vector product: power efficiency (in GFlops/W) depending on the core frequency divisor.

Fig. 2: matrix-Vector multiplication model: sequential code with a 512 by 1024 element size matrix.
(a) Matrix-matrix product model: the cycle count is given according to the core frequency divisor

(b) Matrix-matrix product model: the time in microsecond depending on the core frequency divisor

(c) Matrix-matrix multiplication model: power efficiency (in GFlops/W) depending on the core frequency divisor

Fig. 3: Matrix-matrix multiplication model: sequential code with two matrices of 160 by 160 elements