RZBENCH: Performance evaluation of current HPC architectures using low-level and application benchmarks

Georg Hager, Holger Stengel, Thomas Zeiser, and Gerhard Wellein

Regionales Rechenzentrum Erlangen (RRZE), Martensstr. 1, D-91058 Erlangen, Germany

Summary. RZBENCH is a benchmark suite that was specifically developed to reflect the requirements of scientific supercomputer users at the University of Erlangen-Nuremberg (FAU). It comprises a number of application and low-level codes under a common build infrastructure that fosters maintainability and expandability. This paper reviews the structure of the suite and briefly introduces the most relevant benchmarks. In addition, some widely known standard benchmark codes are reviewed in order to emphasize the need for a critical review of often-cited performance results. Benchmark data is presented for the HLRB-II at LRZ Munich and a local InfiniBand Woodcrest cluster as well as two uncommon system architectures: A bandwidth-optimized InfiniBand cluster based on single socket nodes ("Port Townsend") and an early version of Sun’s highly threaded T2 architecture ("Niagara 2").

1 Introduction

Benchmark rankings are of premier importance in High Performance Computing. Decisions about future procurements are mostly based on results obtained by benchmarking early access systems. Often, standardized suites like SPEC [5] or the NAS parallel benchmarks (NPB) [6] are used because the results are publicly available. The downside is that the mixture of requirements to run the standard benchmarks fast is not guaranteed to be in line with the needs of the local users. Even worse, compiler vendors go to great lengths to make their compilers produce tailor-made machine code for well-known code constellations. This does not reflect a real user situation.

For those reasons, the application benchmarks contained in the RZBENCH suite are for the most part widely used by scientists at FAU. They have been adapted to fit into the build framework and produce comprehensible performance numbers for a fixed set of inputs. A central customized makefile provides all the necessary information like names of compilers, paths to libraries etc. After building the suite, customizable run scripts provide a
streamlined user interface by which all required parameters (e.g., numbers of threads/processes and others) can be specified. Where numerical accuracy is an issue, mechanisms for correctness checking have been employed. Output data is produced in “raw” and “cooked” formats, the latter as a mere higher-is-better performance number and the former as the full output of the application. The cooked performance data can then easily be post-processed by scripts and fed into plotting tools or spreadsheets.

The suite contains codes from a wide variety of application areas and uses all of the languages and parallelization methods that are important in HPC: C, C++, Fortran 77, Fortran 90, MPI, and OpenMP.

## 2 Benchmark systems

All state-of-the-art HPC systems are nowadays based on dual-core and quad-core processor chips. In this analysis the focus is on standard dual-core chips such as the Intel Montecito and Intel Woodcrest/Conroe processor series. The Intel Clovertown quad-core series is of no interest here, since it implements two completely separate dual-core chips put on the same carrier. We compare those standard technologies with a new architecture, the Sun UltraSPARC T2 (codenamed “Niagara 2”), which might be a first glance at potential future chip designs: A highly threaded server-on-a-chip using many “simple” cores which run at low clock speed but support a large number of threads.

| Platform | Core Clock GHz | Peak GFlop/s | L1 kB | L2 MB | L3 MB | # of cores | Bandw. GB/s | # of sockets |
|----------|----------------|--------------|-------|-------|-------|------------|-------------|--------------|
| HLRB II  | 1.6            | 6.4          | 16    | 0.25  | 9     | 2          | 8.5         | 1-256        |
| Woodcrest| 3.0            | 12.0         | 64    | 4     | –     | 2          | 10.6        | 2            |
| Conroe   | 2.66           | 10.6         | 64    | 4     | –     | 2          | 8.5         | 1            |
| Niagara2 | 1.4            | 1.4          | 8     | 4     | –     | 8          | 42R+21W     | 1            |

### 2.1 HLRB II – SGI Altix 4700

The SGI Altix 4700 system at LRZ Munich comprises 9728 Intel Itanium2 processor cores integrated into the SGI NUMALink4 network. It is configured
Fig. 1. Possible layout of a small SGI Altix system. The lines connecting routers ("R") and SHUB chips ("S") are NUMALink4 connections with a theoretical bandwidth of 3.2 GB/sec per direction.

as 19 ccNUMA nodes each holding 512 cores and a total of 2 Tbyte of shared memory per partition. The 13 standard nodes are equipped with a single socket per memory channel, while in the six “high density” nodes two sockets, i.e. four cores, have to share a single memory channel. Table 1 presents the single core specifications of the Intel Itanium2 processor used for HLRB II. A striking feature of this processor is its large on-chip L3 cache of 9 Mbyte per core. A more detailed discussion of the Intel Itanium2 architecture is presented in Ref. [8].

The NUMALink4 network provides a high bandwidth (3.2 Gbyte/s per direction and link), low latency (MPI latency can be less than 2 µs) communication network (see Fig. 1 for a possible network topology in a small Altix system). However, the network topology implemented does not allow to keep the bi-sectional bandwidth constant within the system. Even the nominal bi-section bandwidth per socket (0.8 Gbyte/s per direction) in a single standard node (256 sockets) falls short of a single point to point connection by a factor of four. Connecting the nodes with a 2D torus NUMALink topology, things get even worse. For a more detailed picture of the current network topology status we refer to Ref. [9].

All measurements presented were done within a single standard node.

2.2 Woodcrest – InfiniBand cluster

The Woodcrest system at RRZE represents the prototypical design of modern commodity HPC clusters: 217 compute nodes (see Fig. 2) are connected to a single InfiniBand (IB) switch (Voltaire ISR9288 with a maximum of 288 ports, cf. [10]). The dual-socket compute nodes (HP DL140G3) are equipped with 8 Gbytes of main memory, two Intel Xeon 5160 dual core chips (codenamed “Woodcrest”) running at 3.0 GHz and the bandwidth optimized “Greencreek”
chipset (Intel 5000X). With Intel’s new Core2 architecture several improvements were introduced as compared to the Netburst design, aiming at higher instruction throughput, shorter pipelines and faster caches to name a few which are important for High Performance Computing. Each node features a DDR IB HCA in its PCIe-8x slot, thus the maximum IB communication bandwidth (20 GBit/s per direction at 10 bits per byte) is exactly matched to the capabilities of the PCIe-8x slot (16 GBit/s per direction at 8 bits per byte). The two-level IB switch is a compromise between DDR and SDR (10 GBit/s per direction) technology: The 24 switches at the first level which provide 12 downlinks to the compute nodes and 12 uplinks run at DDR speed, while the 12 second level switches run at SDR speed. Thus, communication intensive applications can get a performance hit when spread over several first level switches.

2.3 Conroe – InfiniBand cluster

While multi-socket compute nodes are the standard building blocks of HPC clusters they are obviously not the optimal choice for a wide range of MPI-parallel HPC applications:

- A single network link must be shared by several sockets.
- ccNUMA technology as used in, e.g., the SGI Altix or AMD Operon based systems bears the potential for performance penalties when locality constraints are not observed.
- Bus overhead is introduced by cache coherency protocols.

Going back to the “roots” of cluster computing, as implemented by the single socket Intel S3000PT board design, one can alleviate these problems: A single
socket is connected to one network link and to the local memory through a
single frontside bus (FSB1066). While the nominal bandwidth per socket is
reduced as compared to the HP DL140G3 compute nodes (two FSB1333 con-
nections for two sockets), power consumption can be significantly improved
through the use of unbuffered DIMMs instead of fully buffered DIMMs. Note
that the power consumption of a single fully buffered DIMM can be as high
as 5–10 Watts. Moreover, the lack of cache coherence traffic can overcome the
nominal loss in main memory bandwidth, resulting in an equal or even higher
main memory throughput per socket for the Conroe system as measured with
the TRIAD benchmark below.

The Xeon 3070 dual-core CPUs (codenamed “Conroe”) used in this system
implement the Intel Core2 architecture and run at 2.66 GHz. 66 S3000PT
nodes with 4 Gbytes of memory each are connected to a 72-port IB switch
(Flextronics) running at full DDR speed.

2.4 Sun UltraSPARC T2 – single socket Sun server

The single socket “Niagara 2” system studied in this report is an early access,
pre-production model of Sun’s T2 server series. Trading high single core per-
formance for a highly parallel system on a chip architecture is the basic idea
of Niagara 2 as can be seen in Fig. 3: Eight simple in-order cores (running at
1.4 GHz) are connected to a shared, banked L2 cache and four independently
operating dual channel FB-DIMM memory controllers through a non-blocking
switch. At first glance the UMA memory subsystem provides the scalability
of ccNUMA approaches, taking the best of two worlds at no cost. The aggre-
gated nominal main memory bandwidth of 42 Gbyte/s (read) and 21 Gbyte/s
(write) for a single socket is far ahead of most other general purpose CPUs
and topped only by the NEC SX-8 vector series. Since there is only a single
floating point unit (performing MULT or ADD operations) per core, the sys-
stem balance of approximately 4 bytes/Flop (assuming read) is the same as
for the NEC SX-8 vector processor.

To overcome the restrictions of in-order architectures and long memory
latencies, each core is able to support up to eight threads. These threads can
be interleaved between the various pipeline stages with only few restrictions
[2]. Thus, running more than a single thread per core is a must for most
applications.

Going beyond the requirements of the tests presented in this report one
should be aware that the Niagara 2 chip also comprises on-chip PCIe-x8 and
10 Gb Ethernet connections as well as a cryptographic coprocessor.
Fig. 3. Block diagram of the Sun UltraSPARC T2 (“Niagara 2”) chip architecture [2]. Eight physical cores (C1, . . . , C8) with local L1 data (8 KB) and L1 instruction (16 KB) caches are connected to eight L2 banks (two of them sharing a memory controller) through a non-blocking crossbar switch. Several interconnect ports (e.g. PCIe-8x or 10 Gb Ethernet) and a cryptographic coprocessor are put on the die, complementing the “server on a chip” architecture. (Picture by courtesy of Sun Microsystems)

3 Low-level benchmarks and performance results

3.1 TRIAD

TRIAD is based on the well-known vector triad code, which has been extensively used by Schönhauer [7] to quantify the capabilities of memory interfaces. The triad performs a multiply-add operation on four vectors, \( A(:)=B(:)+C(:)\cdot D(:) \) in Fortran. The loop kernel is repeated to produce accurate execution time and cache performance measurements.

With its code balance of 2 words/Flop, the vector triad is obviously limited by memory bandwidth on all current supercomputer systems, including vectors. If the arrays are short enough to fit into the cache of a RISC processor, the benchmark tests the ability of the cache to feed the arithmetic units. Even in this situation there is no processor on which the triad is purely compute-
bound. Consequently, given the array lengths and basic machine performance numbers like maximum cache and memory bandwidths and latencies, it should be easy to calculate to highest possible performance of the vector triad. Unfortunately, many of the currently popular PC-based systems fall short of those expectations because their memory interface suffers from severe inefficiencies.

The usual write-back policy for outer-level caches leads to an additional complication. As the cache can only communicate with memory in chunks of the cache line size, a write miss kicks off a cache line read first, giving the cache exclusive ownership of the line. These so-called RFO (read for ownership) transactions increase the code balance even further to 2.5 words/Flop. Some architectures support special machine instructions to circumvent RFOs, either by bypassing the cache altogether (“non-temporal” or “streaming” stores on x86, “block stores” on Sun’s UltraSPARC) or by claiming cache line ownership without a prior read (“cache line zero” on IBM’s Power architecture). Often the compiler is able to apply those instructions automatically if certain alignment constraints are satisfied. It must be noted, though, that cache bypass on write can have some impact on performance if the problem is actually cache-bound.

While the vector triad code in RZBENCH is designed with MPI to allow simple saturation measurements, this benchmark is most often used with standard OpenMP parallelization. Unfortunately, OpenMP can have some adverse effects on performance. If, for instance, the applicability of special instructions like non-temporal stores depends on the correct alignment of data in memory, the compiler must “play safe” and generate code that can do without assumptions about alignment. At best there will be two different versions of a loop which are selected at runtime according to alignment constraints. If other restrictions like, e.g., ccNUMA placement or load imbalance further confine available options, one can easily be left with large compromises in performance.

As an example we will consider the OpenMP vector triad on Sun’s UltraSPARC T2 processor, described in Sect. 2.4. Without any special provisions the vector triad performance with 32 threads shows a very erratic pattern (circles in Fig. 4). Threads were distributed evenly across cores for these runs. Apparently, some values for \( N \) entail access patterns that utilize, in the worst case, only one of the four available memory controllers at a time. This can be easily explained by the fact that the controller to use is selected by address bits 8 and 7, while bit 6 determines which of the two L2 banks to access [2, 3]. If \( N \) is such that all threads always hit the same memory controller or even cache bank for all four data streams concurrently, performance breaks down by a factor of four. The typical “lockstep” access pattern imposed by loop kernels that work on multiple data streams ensures this in a most reliable way if OpenMP chunk base addresses are aligned inappropriately. This condition can actually be enforced by manual alignment of \( A(:, \) \( B(:, \) \( C(:, \) and \( D(:, \) to byte addresses which are multiples of \( 512 = 2^9 \). In Fig. 4, the devastating effect of alignment to 4096 byte boundaries is shown (squares).
Knowing the details about memory controller assignment, however, it is easy to devise a mutual arrangement of arrays that avoids the bottlenecks. After alignment to the 4 kB boundary, the four arrays can be shifted by four different integer multiples of some offset \( k \). The triangles and diamonds in Fig. 4 show the results for \( k = 32 \) and \( k = 128 \), respectively. The latter case seems to be optimal, which is not surprising since it constitutes the “sweet spot” where all four controllers are addressed concurrently, independent of \( N \). All erratic behaviour has vanished.

It must be stressed that the Niagara 2 architecture shows a very rich set of performance features, of which the influence of array alignment is only one. Furthermore, the starting addresses for the 32 OpenMP chunks that emerge from static scheduling have not been adjusted in any special way. This may be insignificant on the Niagara 2, but it is of vital importance on x86-based architectures where certain vectorization instructions can only be applied for arrays that are aligned to 16 byte boundaries. Details about if and how optimal alignment and data placement can be achieved by special programming techniques will be published elsewhere.

3.2 IMB

To test the basic capabilities of the interconnects we use the Intel MPI benchmark (IMB 3.0) suite which is the successor of the famous Pallas MPI suite.
Within this suite the standard benchmark to test the unidirectional bandwidth and latency between two MPI processes is the so called “PingPong”: Using MPI_SEND/MPI_RECV pairs a message is sent from one to the other processor and upon arrival a different message is sent back. This is repeated a large number of times to get sufficient accuracy, but it is important to note that the messages themselves are never touched, i.e. modified, in this scheme.

The main panel of Fig. 5 depicts the typical unidirectional bandwidth vs. message size. The left inset shows latency for the interconnects used in this performance study. While the IB technologies behave the conventional way and achieve approximately 70–75% of their unidirectional bandwidth limit, running the benchmark with no changes on the SGI Altix shows a strange behaviour (left inset of Fig. 5). A bandwidth maximum of more than 7 GB/s can be achieved at intermediate message lengths, exceeding more than twice the nominal capabilities of NUMALink4. For large messages performance breaks down to the IB DDR level.

Although results like this are readily interpreted by vendors to show the superior quality of their products, a more thorough analysis is in order. Keeping in mind that both processes involved in the communication run in shared memory, the mystery is easily unraveled (see Fig. 6): The transfer of
**Fig. 6.** Chain of events for the standard MPI PingPong on shared-memory systems when the messages fit in to cache. C0 and C1 denote the caches of processors P0 and P1, respectively. M0 and M1 are P0’s and P1’s local memories.

\[ \text{sendb}_0 \text{ from process 0 to } \text{recvb}_1 \text{ of process 1 can be implemented as a single copy operation on the receiver side, i.e. process 1 executes } \text{recvb}_1(1:N) = \text{sendb}_0(1:N), \text{ where } N \text{ is the number of bytes in the message. If } N \text{ is sufficiently small, the data from } \text{sendb}_0 \text{ is located in the cache of process 1 and there is no need to replace or modify these cache entries unless } \text{sendb}_0 \text{ gets modified. However the sendbuffers are not changed on either process in the loop kernel. Thus, after the first iteration the sendbuffers are located in the caches of the receiving processes and in-cache copy operations occur in the succeeding iterations instead of data transfer through the network.}

There are two reasons for the performance drop at larger message sizes: First, the L3 cache (9 Mbyte) is too small to hold both or at least one of the local receive buffer and the remote send buffer. Second, the IMB is performed so that the number of repetitions is decreased with increasing message size until only one iteration — which is the initial copy operation through the network — is done for large messages.

The use of single-copy transfers as described above can be controlled on SGI Altix through the `MPI_BUFFER_MAX` environment variable which specifies the minimum size in bytes for which messages are considered for single-copy. As can be seen in the left inset of Fig. 5, changing the environment variable from its default value 32768 one can adjust the width of the artificial ultra-high bandwidth “hump”. If `MPI_BUFFER_MAX` is larger than the biggest message, the effect vanishes completely. In this case, however, asymptotic performance (stars in main panel of Fig. 5) drops significantly below the IB DDR numbers. This leads to the conclusion that there is substantial overhead in this limit with single-copy transfers disabled.

It is obvious that real-world applications can not make use of the “performance hump”. In order to evaluate the full potential of NUMALink4 for codes that should benefit from single-copy for large messages, we suggest a simple
modification of the IMB PingPong benchmark: Adding a second “PingPong” operation in the inner iteration with arrays sendb\(_i\) and recvb\(_i\), interchanged (i.e. sendb\(_i\) is specified as the receive buffer with the second MPI_RECV on process \(i\)), the sending process \(i\) gains exclusive ownership of sendb\(_i\) again. After adjusting the timings in the code accordingly the modified version shows the well known and sensible network characteristics (diamonds in Fig. 5).

In view of this discussion some maximum “PingPong” bandwidth numbers for SGI Altix systems on the HPC Challenge website [11] should be reconsidered.

4 Application benchmarks and performance results

4.1 Benchmark descriptions

This section describes briefly the applications that constitute part of the benchmark suite. We have selected the five most interesting codes which were also used in the previous procurement by RRZE under similar boundary conditions (processor numbers etc.).

EXX

EXX is a quantum chemistry package developed at the chair for theoretical chemistry at FAU. It is used for the calculation of structural and electronic properties of periodic systems like solids, slabs or wires, applying (time-dependent) Density Functional Theory (DFT). Performance is dominated by FFT operations using the widely known FFTW package. The program is written in Fortran90 and parallelized using MPI.

The benchmark case contained in the suite is largely cache-bound and scales reasonably well up to 32 cores. Note that EXX bears some optimization potential (trigonometric function tabulation, FFT acceleration by vendor libraries) which has been exploited by benchmarking teams in the course of procurements. However, for long-term reproducability and comparability of performance results the codebase will not be changed to reflect architecture-specific optimizations.

AMBER/PMEMD

AMBER is a widely used commercial molecular dynamics (MD) suite. Distributed-memory FFT and force field calculations dominate performance. The benchmark case “HCD” used for these tests simulates HPr:CCpa tetramer dynamics using the PMEMD module of AMBER.

This code is largely cache-bound but also suffers from slow networks. The program is written in Fortran90 and parallelized with MPI.
IMD

IMD is a molecular dynamics package developed at the University of Stuttgart. At FAU, it is mainly used by Materials Science groups to simulate defect dynamics in solids. It is weakly dependent on memory bandwidth and has moderate communication requirements. The package was developed in C and is parallelized using MPI. As the test case works with a $100^3$ lattice and the domain is decomposed evenly in all three dimensions, 64 is the largest power-of-two process number that can be used with it.

Oak3D

Oak3D is a physics code developed at the Institute for Theoretical Physics at FAU. It models the dynamics of exotic (superheavy) nuclei via time-dependent Hartree-Fock (TDHF) methods and is used to simulate photoabsorption, electron capture, nuclear fusion and fission. For calculating derivatives, the code relies heavily on small-size FFTs that are usually handled inefficiently by vendor-provided packages. This is why Oak3D uses its own FFT package. Performance is dominated by FFT and dense matrix-vector operations; for large processor numbers an MPI _ALLREDUCE_ operation gains importance. Some memory bandwidth is required, but benefits from large caches can be expected. The code was developed with Fortran90 and MPI.

TRATS

TRATS, also known as BEST, is a production-grade lattice-Boltzmann CFD code developed at the Institute for Fluid Dynamics (FAU). It is heavily memory-bound on standard microcomputers, but compute-bound on top of the line vector processors like the NEC SX because of its code balance of $\approx 0.4\text{words/Flop}$. It uses Fortran90 and MPI for parallelization. Parallelization is done by domain decomposition, and in the strong scaling benchmark case we chose a $128^3$ domain, cut into quadratic slabs along the $x$-$y$ plane. While we are aware that this is not an optimal domain decomposition, it allows us to control the communication vs. computation ratio quite easily. With strong scaling it thus represents a powerful benchmark for network capabilities.

TRATS is currently the only code in the suite for which the execution infrastructure provides a weak scaling mode, but this feature has not been used here.

We present performance results for application benchmarks in a concise format as it would be impossible to iterate over all possible options to run the five codes on four architectures. Dual core processors are used throughout, so we performed scalability measurements by filling chips first and then sockets. That way, neighbouring MPI ranks share a dual-core chip when possible. Strict process-core pinning (processor affinity) was implemented in order to
get reproducible and consistent results. On HLRB2, all runs were performed inside a single standard (no high-density) dedicated SSI node. The latest compiler releases available at the time of writing were used (Intel 10.0.025 and Sun Studio 12). For Niagara 2 only a subset of the application benchmarks was considered. A more complete investigation is underway.

4.2 Performance results

Single core

As a first step we compare the single core performance of HLRB2, the RRZE Woodcrest cluster and the RRZE Conroe cluster in order to set a baseline for scalability measurements. Extrapolating from raw clock frequency and memory bandwidth numbers one might expect that Itanium cores could hardly be competitive, as measured by their price tag. However, one should add that the Itanium bus interface is much more efficient than on Core2 in terms of achievable fraction of theoretical bandwidth, even if the lack of non-temporal store instructions on IA64 is taken into account. Moreover, if the compiler is able to generate efficient EPIC code, the IA64 architecture can deliver better performance per clock cycle than the less clean, very complex Core2 design. Fig. 7 reflects those peculiarities. Interestingly, the largely cache-bound codes EXX and AMBER/PMEMD (see Fig. 8 for PMEMD as the parallel binary requires at least two MPI processes) that may be expected to scale roughly with clock frequency show superior performance on Itanium 2. On the other hand, although Oak3D should benefit from large memory bandwidth and big caches, it falls short of these expectations by roughly 40%. This effect can be explained by the abundance of short loops in the code which pose a severe problem for the in-order IA64 architecture. Even if software pipelining can be applied by the compiler, short loops lead to dominating wind-up and wind-down phases which cannot be overlapped between adjacent loops without manual intervention by hand-coded assembly [4]. Moreover, latency cannot be hidden efficiently by prefetching. For the lattice-Boltzmann code TRAATS, however, IA64 is way ahead per core because its memory architecture is able to sustain a large number of concurrent write streams. The results are thus in line with published STREAM bandwidth numbers [1].

Interestingly the Conroe system, despite of its lower nominal per-socket memory bandwidth (FSB1066) compared to Woodcrest (FSB1333), outperforms the latter significantly on TRAATS and Oak3D. Its simple one-socket node design is obviously able to yield a much higher fraction of theoretical peak bandwidth. For the cache-bound codes IMD, EXX and AMBER Conroe suffers from its lower clock frequency. We will see later that this can in some cases be overcompensated by the superior per-socket network bisection bandwidth of the Conroe cluster.
Fig. 7. Single core performance comparison using the most important benchmarks from the RZBENCH suite. Numbers have been normalized to the best system for each benchmark. The parallel binary for PMEMD requires at least two MPI processes.

One and two sockets

The current evolution of multi-core processors shows the attractive property that the price per raw CPU socket (or “chip”) stays roughly constant over time. If software can exploit the increased level of parallelism provided by multi-core, this leads to a price/performance ratio that follows Moore’s Law. Of course, bottlenecks like shared caches, memory connections and network interfaces retard this effect so that it is vital to know what level of performance can be expected from a single socket. This data is shown in Fig. 8. Comparing with the single-core data in Fig. 7, the most notable observation is that in contrast to the x86-based processors the IA64 system is able to improve significantly on Oak3D performance if the second core is used. This is mostly due to the doubling of the aggregated cache size from 9 MB to 18 MB and because two cores can sustain more outstanding references and thus better hide latencies. For the other benchmarks, scalability from one to two cores is roughly equivalent.

The two-socket Woodcrest nodes that are in wide use today deserve some special attention here. Although the node layout suggests that memory bandwidth should scale when using two sockets instead of one, memory-bound benchmarks indicate that the gain is significantly below 100%. Fig. 9 shows a comparison between one-core, two-core and four-core (two-socket) performance on a single Woodcrest node. The cache-bound codes EXX and IMD are obviously able to profit much better from the second core on a chip than
Fig. 8. Single socket performance comparison. In case of the Conroe system this is a complete node.

the bandwidth-limited Oak3D and TRATS. For Oak3D this corroborates our statement that aggregate cache size boosts two-core performance on HLRB2.

Fig. 9. Scalability inside a two-socket Woodcrest node: Single core, single socket and two-socket performance. There is no one-core data for PMEMD as the parallel binary for this benchmark needs at least two MPI processes.
As suggested above, scalability of TRATS and Oak3D when going from one to two sockets is less than perfect (improvements of 70% and 80%, respectively). This result is matched by published STREAM performance data [1].

As for the reason one may speculate that cache coherence traffic cuts on available bandwidth although the Intel 5000X chipset (“Greencreek”) has a snoop filter that should eliminate redundant address snoops. In any case, we must emphasize that in the era of multi-core processing it has become vital to understand the topological properties and bottlenecks of HPC architectures and to act accordingly by proper thread/process placement.

**Scalability**

In terms of scalability one may expect the SGI Altix system to outperform the Intel-based clusters by far because of its NUMAlink4 interconnect featuring 3.2 GB/s per direction per socket. However, as mentioned above, even inside a single Altix node the network is not completely non-blocking but provides a nominal bisectional bandwidth of about 0.8 GB/s per socket and direction only, which is roughly equivalent to the achievable DDR InfiniBand PingPong performance using a standard non-blocking switch. We thus expect scalability to show roughly similar behaviour on all three architectures, certainly taking into account the differences in single-socket performance.

**Fig. 10.** Parallel performance comparison. The number of MPI processes used is indicated for each benchmark.

Fig. 10 shows a performance comparison for parallel runs between 32 and 128 cores. The Conroe system can extend its lead on Woodcrest especially for
the network-bound parallel TRATS when compared to the one-socket case (Fig. 8) and even draws level with HLRB2. This is due to its competitive network bisection bandwidth. On PMEMD, despite its 10% lower clock frequency, Conroe can even slightly outperform Woodcrest for the same reason. In this context, EXX shows a somewhat atypical behaviour: Performance on Woodcrest is far superior, despite the promising single core and single socket data (Figs. 7 and 8). The reason for this is as yet unknown and will be investigated further.

Using the IMD and Oak3D benchmarks as prototypical cache and memory bound codes, respectively, we finally compare the Intel-based architectures with Sun’s Niagara 2 in Fig. 11. Roughly, a single Niagara 2 socket is equivalent to between four and six Intel cores. Note, however, that it takes 64 MPI processes to reach this level of performance: Massive multithreading must make up for the rather simple design of the single core so that available resources like memory bandwidth can be fully utilized and latencies can be hidden.

5 Conclusions and acknowledgements

We have analyzed low-level and application benchmarks on current high-performance architectures. On an early-access Sun Niagara 2 system we have shown that naive vector triad performance fluctuates erratically with varying array size due to the hard-wired mapping of addresses to memory controllers. Careful choice of alignment constraints and appropriate padding allowed us to eliminate the fluctuations completely, leading the way to architecture-specific optimization approaches in the future. On HLRB2 we have explained a widely unrecognized, pathological “feature” of the IMB Ping-Pong benchmark and
have shown a possible solution for making it more meaningful for real applications.

RZBENCH, the integrated benchmark suite which has been developed by RRZE, was then used to compare serial and parallel application performance on HLRB2, a Woodcrest IB cluster and a Conroe IB cluster with only one socket per node. The IA64 architecture shows superior performance for most codes on a one-core and one-socket basis but is on par with the commodity clusters for parallel runs. It could be shown that the extra investment in network hardware for a single-socket commodity cluster can pay off for certain applications due to improved bisection and aggregated memory bandwidth. Sun’s new UltraSPARC T2 processor could be demonstrated to display very competitive performance levels if applications can sustain a much more massive parallelism than on standard systems.

We are indebted to Sun Microsystems and RWTH Aachen Computing Centre for granting access to a pre-production UltraSPARC T2 system.

References

1. http://www.cs.virginia.edu/stream/
2. Sun Microsystems: OpenSPARC T2 Core Microarchitecture Specification. http://opensparc-t2.sunsource.net/specs/OpenSPARCT2_Core_Micro_Arch.pdf
3. Sun Microsystems, private communication.
4. J. Treibig and G. Hager: Why is performance productivity poor on modern architectures? Talk with Jan Treibig at the Dagstuhl Seminar on Petacomputing, Feb 13–17, 2006. Dagstuhl, Germany. http://kathrin.dagstuhl.de/files/Materials/06/06071/06071.TreibigJan.Slides.pdf
5. Standard Performance Evaluation Corporation, http://www.spec.org
6. The NAS parallel benchmarks, published by the NASA Advanced Supercomputing Division, http://www.nasa.gov/Resources/Software/npb.html
7. W. Schönauer: Scientific Supercomputing: Architecture and Use of Shared and Distributed Memory Parallel Computers. Self-edition, Karlsruhe (2000), http://www.rz.uni-karlsruhe.de/~rx03/book
8. F. Deserno, G. Hager, F. Brechtleif, and G. Wellein, in S. Wagner et al. (Eds.): High Performance Computing in Science and Engineering Munich 2004, pp. 3–25, Springer 2005.
9. http://www.lrz-muenchen.de/services/compute/hlrb/batch/batch.html
10. http://www.voltaire.com/Products/Grid_Backbone_Switches/Voltaire_GridDirector_ISR_9288
11. MPI Ping-Pong results for HPC Challenge can be found at http://icl.cs.utk.edu/hpcc/hpcc_results_lat_band.cgi