DLFusion: An Auto-Tuning Compiler for Layer Fusion on Deep Neural Network Accelerator

Abstract—Many hardware vendors have introduced specialized deep neural networks (DNN) accelerators owing to their superior performance and efficiency. As such, how to generate and optimize the code for the hardware accelerator becomes an important yet less explored problem. In this paper, we perform the compiler-stage optimization study using a novel and representative Cambricon DNN accelerator and demonstrate that the code optimization knobs play an important role in unleashing the potential of hardware computational horsepower. However, even only two studied code optimization knobs, namely the number of cores and layer fusion scheme, present an enormous search space that prevents the naive brute-force search. This work introduces a joint, auto-tuning optimization framework to address this challenge. We first use a set of synthesized DNN layers to study the interplay between the hardware performance and layer characteristics. Based on the insights, we extract the operation count and feature map channel size as each layer’s characteristics and derive a joint optimization strategy to decide the performance-optimal core number and fusion scheme. We evaluate the performance of the proposed approach using a set of representative DNN models and show that it achieves the minimal of 3.6x and the maximal of 7.9x performance speedup compared to no optimization baseline. We also show that the achieved speedup is close to the oracle case that is based on a reduced brute-force search but with much less search time.

Index Terms—Auto-Tuning; Layer Fusion; Hardware Accelerator;

I. INTRODUCTION

Deep learning has achieved great success in the key application domains such as computer vision and natural-language processing. The derived deep neural network (DNN) models have significant requirement for computation and memory resources, which exceed the capability of the existing architectures. Owing to the repeated common computation pattern in different DNN models, such as 2D convolution and matrix multiplication, both the academia and industry begin to embrace the specialized hardware accelerators for their high performance and energy efficiency. Compared to the general-purpose architecture like CPU/GPU, hardware accelerators are specialized for a specific task and have simplified control logic so that they can dedicate more resources for computation and memory structure. Their design decision has also lead to their distinctive programming models from the CPU/GPU.

General-purpose architectures have well-defined ISAs so that the compiler can perform various performance optimizations. However, optimizing the code for the hardware accelerators is challenging because hardware vendors do not expose the accelerator’s low-level ISA. Instead, hardware vendors provide a SDK with high-level API for application/model developers, but the SDK is highly abstracted and difficult to control the exact hardware behavior. As such, significant efforts are devoted in computational-graph level optimization such as operator fusion, operator concatenation, and operator substitutions. Nonetheless, the graph-level optimization are independent of underlying hardware, cannot be used to tune the performance for a specific accelerator.

In this paper, we explore the code optimization for a novel accelerator Cambricon MLU100. MLU100 has a higher peak performance in FP16/INT8 than Tesla V100, but also requires highly optimized code to fully unleash its computational horsepower. The accelerator SDK includes both high-level and low-level APIs. The high-level APIs are highly abstracted and have little optimization space. In contrast, the low-level API exposes two execution hyper-parameters, which are number of cores and layer fusion schemes. Our characterization results show that we need to carefully and wisely select those two parameters to achieve the optimal performance for a specific DNN model. However, even with only two parameters, the search space is too large for a brute-force search.

On the basis of the low-level SDK, we propose an compiler-stage auto-tuning optimizer, DLFusion, for MLU100 accelerator which performs joint optimization for the two exposed execution hyper-parameters. To the best of our knowledge, this work is the first to consider arbitrary auto-fusion patterns that are mathematically equivalent. In contrast, existing fusion optimizations such as TensorRT and XLA are rule-based and therefore can only support a limited set of pre-defined fusion patterns. The basic architecture of the optimizer is shown in Figure 1 and this paper is organized as followed.
In Section II we first show the performance gap between theoretical model and actual execution using a series of micro-benchmark, then we analyze the optimization knobs and performance in detailed in Section III by which we present our performance model for later optimization. Moreover, we find it difficult to achieve the optimal settings for different networks by brute methods, so an auto-tuning optimization is necessary. In Section IV A, we first propose single knob optimization for Model Parallelism using the aforementioned performance model, then we integrate fusion scheme into the optimization procedure guided by the insight of Section IV B, finally, we present our optimization algorithm and software implementation in Section IV C.

II. INVESTIGATED PLATFORM

In this paper, we use Cambricon MLU-100-C3 [27], a dedicated deep learning accelerator designed by Cambricon Technologies. The MLU-100 can deliver the computing performance with much better energy efficiency than general-purpose processors like CPU and GPU. In this section, we first give a brief introduction of the accelerator and then conduct an analysis to reveal the factors that can impact the accelerator’s performance efficiency.

A. Experimental Setup

1) Hardware Setup: Table I lists the detailed specifications of the studied Cambricon MLU100 accelerator. The accelerator has 32 cores in total, where each core has the computation power 1 TFLOPS in FP32, 2 TFLOPS in FP16, and 4 TFLOPS in INT8. The accelerator can support common computation patterns in deep neural network models, including the convolution layer, ReLU layer, and batch normalization layer [27]. However, its core microarchitecture is not revealed, which we use a microbenchmark-based methodology to study. With those auto-generated microbenchmarks covering different computational intensity and operation count, we can quickly have a high-level understanding of the target hardware’s computational characteristics. One of the salient features of our work is that, for other accelerators with different microarchitectures, this microbenchmark methodology can also be applied to reveal hardware characteristics for optimization.

2) Software Setup: The chip vendor provides an operator-level SDK and a high-level runtime library for programming the accelerator. The operator-level SDK, called CNML, supports common operators such as convolution, ReLU, and BatchNorm, which are used in computer vision and natural language processing models. The CNML supports two hyper-parameters for running those operators, as shown in Figure 2.

The first hyper-parameters is model parallelism (MP), which specifies the number of cores (up to 32) used by the operator. The second hyper-parameter is layer fusion, which specifies the number of layers that are fused for concurrent execution and therefore increased parallelism. These two hyper-parameters can represent the execution of fusion operation on multi-core architecture based accelerators, and this optimization is orthogonal to other graph-level optimizations including Common Subexpression Elimination (CSE) [16], operator substitution [10], etc. In this work, we use this operator-level SDK and tune the hyper-parameter settings to optimize different DNN models.

B. Performance Analysis

We first construct a single-layer based microbenchmark to study the accelerator’s performance efficiency for DNN model layers with different characteristics. We focus on the convolutional layer (Conv) and fully connected layer (FC) because they represent most of the computation in today’s DNN models [29]. For each layer, we sweep its different parameters and compute their required operation count through Equation 1 and 2, respectively. We first perform the experiment using the single core and then multiple cores to understand the impact of the core number on performance efficiency.

\[ \text{GOPS}_{\text{Conv}} \leftarrow 2 \times H_{\text{Out}} \times W_{\text{Out}} \times H_K \times W_K \times C_{\text{In}} \times C_{\text{Out}} \] (1)
\[ \text{GOPS}_{\text{FC}} \leftrightarrow 2 \times M \times K \times N \] (2)

1) Single-core Performance: We first use the simple roofline model to model the performance of convolution and fully-connect layers under different parameters, and the operation intensity is calculated as equation (3)

\[ \text{Intensity} \leftrightarrow \frac{\text{GOPS}}{\sum(\text{sizeof(tensors)})} \] (3)

Actually, the errorbar in Figure 4(a) is mainly introduced by changing channel. For kernel size and feature size, they contribute little to distinguish the performance of different layers, which match the result of PCA well. As such, we also explore the setting of the parameters with first and second largest influence according to PCA result: channel of convolution.

2) Multi-core Performance: The above single-core performance experiment shows that the operation count of a layer impacts the accelerator performance efficiency. Based on this observation, we further study the impact of the number of cores with varying operation count. For this experiment, we start with a fixed convolutional layer from the VGG-19 model: Input/Output Channel=64, Output Size=224 × 224, Kernel Size=3 × 3, for which we use the notation of \{64, 64, 224 × 224, 3 × 3\} to represent its parameters in the following sections. We increase the operation count of the layer via expanding the Channel dimension by different factors. Figure 3(c) shows that the layers with large operation count prefer a large number of cores. Layers with small (moderate) operation count prefer a small (moderate) core numbers to achieve the best performance.

![Roofline model of Cambricon MLU-100 and actual performance.](image)

Fig. 3. Roofline model of Cambricon MLU-100 and actual performance.

However, as shown in Figure 3 there’s significant gap between the exact performance and theoretical performance on Cambricon MLU-100, moreover, operation intensity in roofline model can not distinct the performance of operations under the same intensity effectively leading to the difficulty in modeling the performance.

So, we applied PCA method to extract the parameters that are most likely to influence the performance (by which we can adjust the hardware resource assigned to the operation and thus improve the performance), and for Cambricon MLU-100, we found that operation count has the most significant influence on the performance, and channel the second.

Figure 4(a) shows the relationship between the layer’s operation count and achieved performance efficiency measured by GFLOPS (Giga floating-point operations per second), and the operations with similar op count have similar performance (the error bar stands for the standard deviation in the figure is short). As Figure 4 shows, layers performance efficiency is largely determined by its operation count: the higher the operation count, the better performance efficiency on the accelerator, and once the operation count reaches a critical value, the performance will not increase. We called it \text{OpCount}_{\text{critical}} and will be used in our optimization process.

On the other hand, layers with medium and high intensity exhibit a larger variability of performance efficiency for the layers with the same operation count, according to the PCA result, channel should be the main reason. To verify the assumption, we observe the performance of convolution layers with different channel/kernel size/output image size with other parameters fixed. As shown in Figure 4(b), We found that channel have non-negligible influence on layer’s performance.

III. PERFORMANCE ANALYSIS OF OPTIMIZATION KNOBS

After analyzing the performance features of the DNN accelerator, we focus on the problem of achieving the best performance for a given DNN model, i.e., lowest inference latency. This section motivates the need for an auto-tuning compiler by demonstrating that the hyper-parameter setting for achieving the best performance for a given DNN model is highly dependent on model characteristics.

In this work, we focus on the aforementioned two hyper-parameters, namely model parallelism and layer fusion for optimizing the performance of a DNN model on the MLU-100 accelerator. For the convenience of the experiment, we first study the two hyper-parameters separately.

A. Model Parallelism.

As we describe in Section II, model parallelism (MP) represents the number of cores for running the given DNN layer. We sweep this MP hyper-parameter for different DNN models and show the results in Figure 5(a). The results show that using the maximum number of cores does not necessarily lead to the best performance. The optimal core number for ResNet-18 and VGG-19 is 4 and 16, respectively. The reason is that when the MP is too large, each core is dispatched with less number of operation count, leading to net performance degradation. As such, it is essential to find a method to set the optimal MP based on the characteristic of different DNN models.

B. Layer Fusion.

This layer fusion hyper-parameter lets users combine multiple layers into a single block, which has two benefits. It first increases the concurrent operation count than the layer-wise, no-fusion execution. Consider an example of fusing two layers: the computation of the second layer can start when the first
layer’s output is partially available. It also reduces the cost of off-chip memory round trip because the output of a layer can be generated on-chip and immediately reused.

Prior work like TVM [3] only considers the fusion of convolutional layers and other types of layers such as ReLu and batch normalization. However, the vendor-provided CNML programming frameworks supports the fusion of almost arbitrary types and numbers of layers. One of the major differences between our work and TVM is that we consider multiple convolution layers in a fusion block. As a result, the optimization space is much larger and therefore more challenging.

To study its impact on the performance, we construct three CNN models, each of which has 16 identical baseline Conv layers. The three baseline layers, which are selected from ResNet [8] and VGG [26], have parameters of \{64, 64, 56 \times 56, 3 \times 3\}, \{256, 256, 56 \times 56, 3 \times 3\}, and \{512, 512, 28 \times 28, 3 \times 3\}, respectively.

In this experiment, we sweep the fusion block size \(B_{\text{size}}\) for executing each CNN model, which leads to \(16/B_{\text{size}}\) fused blocks. As Figure 5 shows, different models have different optimal fusion block sizes. The reason is that although layer fusion has two major benefits, it also involves redundant computation that needs a careful trade-off. If the fusion block size is too large, the redundant calculation will even degrade the overall performance. As such, we must also find a strategy to decide the optimal fusion scheme for different CNN models.

C. Infeasibility of Brute-Force Search.

For the optimal performance, we must jointly consider the fusion scheme and model parallelism, which leads to a huge space that makes the brute-force search infeasible. Assume a CNN model with \(n\) layers, Equation 4 gives the number of possible combinations for setting the two hyper-parameters. When \(n\) equals 50, there are \(8.17 \times 10^{75}\) possible combinations. Based on our experimental insights, we propose an intelligent auto-tuning optimizer that uses the inherent characteristics of CNN models to quickly identify their hyper-parameter setting.

\[
\text{Space}(n) = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (2^i + 1) \times \prod_{x=1}^{i} \left(\frac{n-x}{i!}\right)
\]

IV. DLFusion Approach

In this section, we present the design and implementation of DLFusion, which jointly optimizes the two knobs, model parallelism, MP and layer fusion, to maximize the inference performance of DNN models on the target MLU-100 accelerator. We first explain how to select the optimal MP for a given DNN layer, and then explain how to determine the layer fusion scheme for multiple layers based on their characteristics. In the end, we formalize our optimization algorithm and present its implementation details.

A. Single Layer MP

In Section I, we show that the operation count of the Conv layer has a significant impact on its optimal MP. However,
operation count along can not be used for deciding the layer’s optimal MP. In this subsection, we propose a joint model that uses both the operation count and in/out channel size of convolutional layers to determine the optimal MP configuration for the Conv layer.

We conduct a more detailed MP impact analysis for three different layers \{(32, 32, 224 × 224, 3 × 3), \{64, 64, 112 × 112, 3 × 3\}, \{128, 128, 56 × 56, 3 × 3\}\}. In short, those three layers have the same operation count but different input/output channels. Figure 6(a) shows that those three layers have different optimal MP values. This is because the hardware partitions the tensor on channel dimension with a certain minimal partition size. In addition, we also find the operation count itself impacts the optimal MP values. As Figure 6(b) shows, Conv layers with the same input/output channel but different operation count have different optimal MP values. Conv layers with fewer channels with high operation count could prefer more cores than layers with more channels but less operation count. Given those findings, we use both a layer’s channel size (C in the formula) and operation count to determine its optimal core number, as shown in Equation (5) where α, β are hardware-tuned scaling factors. We empirically decide the value of α and β for MLU100 is 0.316 and 0.659 respectively according to the weight result of PCA.

\[ MP(C, OpCount) \propto \alpha \times \log_2(C) + \beta \times \log_2(OpCount) \]  

\[ \text{Performance of multi core with same operation count.} \]

\[ \text{Performance of convolution with different channel.} \]

Fig. 6. (a) Multi-core performance fixing operation count. (b) Multi-core performance fixing channel.

B. Multiple Layers Fusion and MP

As presented in Section III, layer fusion can reduce the data movement and increase the operation count dispatched to cores to improve the performance. The fusion block composed of multiple layers can also leverage multiple cores to further reduce the latency. On the other hand, using more mores for the fusion block also leads to redundant computation owing to the halo effect of 2D-convolution illustrated in Figure 7(a). Moreover, the redundant computation increases when the number of layers in the fusion block grows, which means fusing more layers does not necessarily improve the performance. To efficiently enable fusion into our optimization procedure, we first present our insight using several identical layers to illustrate the factors that influence the performance of fusion blocks. Then, given the significant layer heterogeneities in actual neural networks, we present our DLFusion algorithm for joint optimization considering both MP and fusion schemes.

1) Identical Layers: We use two different Conv layers and compare their performance when fusing 4 and 16 layers. Figure 7(b) shows the performance comparison where Conv1 is \{512, 512, 28 × 28, 3 × 3\} and Conv2 is \{512, 512, 14 × 14, 3 × 3\}, they have 1.72 GOPs and 0.43 GOPs respectively. While fusing more layers for Conv2 leads to better performance, the situation is opposite for Conv1. The main reason is that when a large fusion block uses more cores, it leads to the more redundant computation. As shown in Figure 7(c), before reaching the critical operation count, using fusion can deliver better performance than not using fusion, since the single-core performance increase rapidly before the critical point according to Figure 3(b). Once exceeding the critical point, the performance drops significantly due to the redundant computation (and that’s why the single-core performance is stable before and after the critical point because using a single core will not introduce redundant computation). It should be noted that when using more cores, the critical value is slightly smaller also because of the redundant computation account for more op count. Moreover, before reaching the critical value, using more cores leads to better performance since more parallelism can be leveraged. For single-core, the improvement gained by fusion is mainly from reduced memory round-trip. So, for layer fusion, we should limit the size of fusion block close to but below critical operation count of the cores to benefit the most from parallelism and avoid unacceptable redundant computation.

2) Non-identical Layers: In the actual DNN models, we find that the layers have different parameters that lead to different optimal MP as shown in Figure 8(a). When fusing layers with significant different optimal MP into one block, severe underperformance is observed as Figure 8(b). The reason is that all layers in one fusion block will share the same MP, which is only suitable for a small part of layers in the block. Given this finding, we choose to determine optimal MP of every single layer first to avoid this underperformance for later joint optimization with fusion (since we can gather layers with the same or similar optimal MP together). Once the
C. Implementation

In this subsection, we first present the core of our work: the DLFusion optimization algorithm, and then we introduce how we implement and evaluate our algorithm on actual hardware.

1) DLFusion Algorithm: The DLFusion optimization algorithm aims to find a schedule with optimal MPs and fusion schemes for the hardware. We use the pseudo-code shown in Algorithm 1 for the joint optimization of fusion scheme and optimal MP. Our algorithm requires the input of ONNX-based neural network description files, number of layers, and OpCount_critical, which is a tunable parameter that represents the operation count required by a single core to reach its peak performance. For MLU100, we choose this parameter as $10^{12.25}$ GOPs as suggested in Figure 3(b) and Figure 7(c). The interpreter first reads the network parameters (Line 5). The algorithm then decides the optimal MP for each CONV layer based on its channel dimension and operation count (Line 8). The algorithm adds the current layer into the fusion block. It calculates the current total operation count and average MP for all the current fused layers (Line 8 to 11). If the operation count dispatched to each core exceeds the critical operation count OpCount_critical, we stop the fusion for the current block and start a new fusion block (Line 12 to 13). For the newly formed fusion block, we decide its MP as the closest to average MP and round it to $2^n$ (Line 14 to 15). This process repeats until all layers are processed.

2) DLFusion Compiler Tool Chain: To evaluate the aforementioned optimization algorithm, we design and implement a compiler tool-chain for Cambricon MLU-100. Figure 9 shows the details of our framework containing code generator and optimizer, which takes the input of ONNX format based neural network description file and generates the C++ code that leverages the MLU100’s operator-level SDK CNML. The core in the framework is the optimizer, which is a specialized instance of Figure 1 and includes an optimization pass for tuning the execution parameters according to the DNN model characteristics.

The code generator produces the C++ source code based on a template file to call the CNML library. The produced source code can be compiled to the executable inference session via the g++ compiler. In our work, we choose the DNN format
ONNX [19] because it is independent of specific deep learning frameworks. We use the TVM [3] as the parser to convert the ONNX-based network description format to the TVM’s internal graph representation that the following scheduler and optimizer use.

V. EVALUATION

In this section, we evaluate DLFusion using a set of representative CNN models, including ResNet, VGG, AlexNet and mobileNet, as listed in Table III. We focus on the inference and use the frame per second (FPS) as the performance metric. To demonstrate the effectiveness of DLFusion, we compare the performance of different optimization strategies, including a reduced brute-force search strategy.

### TABLE II
#### NETWORKS DESCRIPTION.

| Network     | Total Op | Avg. Op | No. of CONV |
|-------------|----------|---------|-------------|
| ResNet-18/50 [8] | 3.38/7.61 | 0.169/0.144 | 20/53 |
| VGG-19 [26] | 36.34 | 2.27 | 16 |
| AlexNet [12] | 1.22 | 0.244 | 5 |
| mobileNet [25] | 10.33 | 0.199 | 52 |

1) Evaluated Strategy: We evaluate different optimization strategies that are listed in Table III. Strategy 1 referring to no fusion and no model parallelism ($MP=1$) is used as the baseline. Both strategy 2 and 3 perform no fusion while the former uses the same $MP$ for all layers, and the latter uses the layer-specific $MP$. Strategy 4 simply fuses all layers and uses the maximal $MP$ for the fused block. Strategy 5 uses Alg. 1 to fuse layers to multiple blocks and use a single fixed $MP$ for all blocks. In contrast, Strategy 6 uses Alg. 1 to fuse layers and set a block-specific $MP$ value for each block. Strategy 7 represents the optimal performance through a brute-force search that we detail later.

2) Performance Comparison: Figure 10 shows the performance comparison of different optimization strategies. Except for the oracle case (the last bar), DLFusion has the best performance, which achieves a speedup of $3.6 - 7.9 \times$ against the baseline. Our algorithm leads to significant performance improvement for the two following reasons. First, each fusion block has a proper operation count that gains plenty of parallelism while with acceptable redundant computation. Second, the number of cores used in each fusion block is also close to their optimal number of cores that balances computation and memory access. The studied CNN models have different performance trend over the different optimization strategies, for which we make the following observations.

- CNN models with low operation count per layer (e.g., ResNet and mobileNet) are not sensitive to $MP$ optimization because using more cores leads to less utilization of each core. In contrast, the model with high operation count per layers (e.g., VGG-19) benefits more from $MP$ optimization.
- CNN models with low operation count per layer (e.g.,
TABLE III
DIFFERENT OPTIMIZATION STRATEGIES.

| Index | Strategy Name           | Description                                      |
|-------|-------------------------|--------------------------------------------------|
| 1     | Non-Optimization        | No fusion with $MP = 1$                          |
| 2     | Fixed MP                | No fusion: all the layers have the same MP.      |
| 3     | Dynamic MP              | No fusion: each layer its own MP.                |
| 4     | All Fusion & Max. MP    | All the layers are fused into one block, and MP is set to be 32 (maximal) |
| 5     | Fusion & Fixed MP       | Fuse layers to multiple blocks (Alg. 1) and all blocks have the same MP. |
| 6     | DLFusion (Fusion & Dynamic MP) | Use Alg. 1 to fuse layers and set MP for each fused block. |
| 7     | Brute-force Search      | Optimal performance.                             |

ResNet and mobileNet) benefits significantly from the layer fusion optimization because layer fusion produces a block with more operations, which results in performance improvement. In contrast, the model with high operation count per layers (e.g., VGG-19) benefits less from layer fusion.

- With the increasing of the number of layers (from 4 CONV layers in AlexNet to over 50 CONV layers in mobileNet and ResNet-50), the model gets more sensitive to the fusion strategy because of larger fusion scheme space.

3) Oracle Case: To evaluate the effectiveness of the DLFusion approach, we design a feasible brute-force search as the oracle case. As we explain in Section III, the hyper-parameter space is too large for the brute-force search. We reduce the search space based on the performance characterization analysis on the existing CNN models. First, we limit the choice of MP from 1, 2, 3...32 to 1, 2, 4, 8, 12, 16, 24, 32. Second, we limit the size of a fusion block to the multiple of four. These two rules lead to acceptable search time. The last column of each CNN model in Figure 10 represents the oracle case achieved by our reduced brute-force search. The performance between the DLFusion and the oracle case is less than 10%. Meanwhile, with the increased number of layers, this performance gap gets smaller. In general, DLFusion achieves the performance that is close to the oracle case, with much reduced search time ($O(n)$, where n is the number of layers).

VI. RELATED WORK

To address the difficulty in compiler tool-chain design and optimization, researchers have proposed Domain Specific Language (DSL) to schedule the hardware more efficiently. Halide is a popular DSL for image processing pipelines [24], and Taichi is proposed for CG processing [9]. DSLs are concise by omitting control logic in the regular programming language, which makes it more convenient for optimization. Given the similarity between image processing pipeline and DNN models, Halide-based compilation frameworks such as TensorComprehension [29] and TVM [3] have been proposed. Those frameworks target a general optimization at the computation graph level. In contrast, DLFusion is a hardware-specific optimization framework that can be integrated as a backend for the graph-level frameworks.

Previous researchers have studied various general optimizations, such as loop fusion [22] and kernel fusion [30, 21]. In the TensorComprehension [29] framework, fusion is performed with the use of the polyhedral model [2]. TASSO [10] explores the graph substitution optimization using a cost-based backtracking search. Grappler [28] of TensorFlow conducts a series of rule-based arithmetic transformation, operation fusion. On the other hand, instead of optimize the execution on single hardware, Google REGAL [20] focus on the problem of scheduling the execution on multiple hardware. Those

![Improvement after various stages optimization.](image)

Fig. 10. Performance comparison of different optimization strategies.
optimizations work at the graph-level and can be used for any hardware back-end.

Other possible optimization options for compilers include batching [4], model sparsity [32, 6], and data movement reduction between specialized hardware accelerators and general purpose processors [7]. Besides performance optimization, increasing efforts have been put on the robustness of the DNN systems including Ptolemy, an architecture that detect adversarial samples at inference time [5] based on critical path method [23]. Other researchers have also explored traditional reliability on heterogeneous systems [13]. To generalize the compiling stage optimization to these architectures is also an urgent need. DLFusion targets the layer fusion optimization that is specific to DNN models on a specific hardware accelerator, researchers have also explored the programming framework of this accelerator that support the optimization options with less code effort [15]. Prior work explores the layer fusion as an architecture optimization [1] while we use it for compiler optimization.

VII. CONCLUSION

In this work, we propose an end-to-end code generator with optimizer for the DNN accelerator Cambricon-MLU100, which is capable of generating optimized C++ code for a DNN model with ONNX format. We propose an auto-tuning algorithm to jointly optimize the two execution hyper-parameter (i.e., number of cores and layer fusion scheme) to maximize the accelerator performance for a given DNN model. The algorithm uses the operation count and channel size as the features to decide the optimal core count for each layer. It then gradually fuses layers into a block that has just enough computation to fully utilize the hardware and avoids excessive redundant computation. Evaluation shows that our approach achieves almost the same performance of the reduced brute-force search base oracle case, but with a much less search time. To the best of our knowledge, our work represents the first auto-tuning algorithm for a DNN accelerator can we hope it can foster more research efforts in this direction.

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