Parallel Processing Letters

EXPERIMENTS ON OPTIMIZING THE PERFORMANCE OF STENCIL CODES WITH SPL CONQUEROR

ALEXANDER GREBHAHN† and SEBASTIAN KUCKUK‡ and CHRISTIAN SCHMITT‡ and HARALD KÖSTLER‡ and NORBERT SIEGMUND† and SVEN APEL† and FRANK HANNIG‡ and JÜRGEN TEICH‡

† *University of Passau, Passau, Germany*
‡ *Friedrich-Alexander University of Erlangen-Nürnberg (FAU), Erlangen, Germany*

Received April 2014
Revised July 2014

Communicated by Guest Editors

ABSTRACT

A standard technique for numerically solving elliptic partial differential equations on structured grids is to discretize them, and, then, to apply an efficient geometric multi-grid solver. Unfortunately, finding the optimal choice of multi-grid components and parameter settings is challenging and existing auto-tuning techniques fail to explain performance-optimal settings. To improve the state of the art, we explore whether recent work on optimizing configurations of product lines can be applied to the stencil-code domain. In particular, we extend the domain-independent tool SPL Conqueror in an empirical study to predict the performance-optimal configurations of three geometric multi-grid stencil codes: a program using HIPA^{cc}, the evaluation prototype HSMGP, and a program using DUNE. For HIPA^{cc}, we reach an prediction accuracy of 96 %, on average, measuring only 21.4 % of all configurations; we predict a configuration that is nearly optimal after measuring less than 0.3 % of all configurations. For HSMGP, we predict performance with an accuracy of 97 % including the performance-optimal configuration, while measuring 3.2 % of all configurations. For DUNE, we predict performance of all configurations with an accuracy of 86 % after measuring 3.3 % of all configurations. The performance-optimal configuration is within the 0.5 % configurations predicted to perform best.

Keywords: Stencil computations, parameter optimization, auto-tuning, product lines, SPL Conqueror, multi-grid methods

1. Introduction

In many areas of computation, such as climate forecasts and complex simulations, large linear and non-linear systems have to be solved. Multi-grid methods [1, 2] represent a popular class of solutions for systems exhibiting a certain structure. For instance, from the discretization of partial differential equations (PDEs) on structured grids, sparse and symmetric positive definite system matrices arise (see Briggs et al. [3] and Trottenberg et al. [4] for a comprehensive overview on multi-grid methods). Algorithmically, most of the multi-grid components are functions

that sweep over a computational grid and perform nearest-neighbor computations. Mathematically, these computations are linear-algebra operations, such as matrix-vector products. Since the matrices are sparse and often contain similar entries in each row, they can be described by a *stencil*, where one stencil represents one row in the matrix.

A multi-grid algorithm consists of several components and traverses a hierarchy of grids several times until the linear system is solved up to a certain accuracy. The components as well as their parameters, for instance, how often a certain component is applied on each level, are highly problem and platform dependent. That is, depending on the hardware and the application scenario, some parameter settings perform faster than others. This variability gives rise to a considerable number of *configuration options* to customize multi-grid algorithms and the corresponding code.

Selecting configuration options (i. e., specifying a *configuration*) to maximize performance is an essential activity in exascale computing [5]. If a non-optimal configuration is used, the full computational power may not be exploited, leading to increased costs and time requirements. Identifying the performance-optimal configuration is a complex task: Measuring the performance of all configurations to determine the fastest one does not scale because the number of configurations grows exponentially with the number of configuration options, in the worst case. Alternatively, we can use domain knowledge to identify the fastest configuration. However, domain knowledge is not always available, and domain experts are rare and expensive. Moreover, recent work shows that problems can become easily such complex that even domain experts cannot determine the best configuration [6, 7].

In product-line engineering, different approaches have been developed to tackle the problem of finding optimal configurations in a possibly exponential configuration space [8, 9, 10, 11]. The idea is to measure some configurations of a program and *predict* the performance of all other configurations (e. g., using machine-learning techniques).

Our goal is to find out whether existing product-line techniques can be applied successfully to automatic stencil-code optimization. In particular, we use and extend the tool SPL Conqueror by Siegmund et al. [10] to determine the performance influence of individual configuration options of stencil-code implementations. The general idea is to determine the performance influence of individual configuration options first, and to consider interactions between them subsequently. We propose a sampling heuristic with which we learn the performance contribution of numerical options (i.e., options that have a numerical value range, such as number of smoothing steps) with the help of functions learning, which is a novel contribution to SPL Conqueror.

We conducted an empirical study involving three case studies from the stencil domain. One of the systems investigated is a geometric multi-grid implementation using HIPA^{cc} [12], a domain-specific language and compiler targeting GPU accelerators and low-level programming languages. The second system is a prototype of a

highly scalable geometric multi-grid solver (HSMGP) developed for testing various algorithms and data structures on high-performance computing systems [13] such as the JuQueen at the Jülich Supercomputing Centre, Germany. The last system is a geometric multi-grid solver implementation using the numerics environment DUNE[a].

Overall, we make the following contributions: We demonstrate that SPL Conqueror can be applied to the stencil domain to identify optimal configurations after performing only a small number of measurements. With more measurements, we can predict the performance of all configurations with an accuracy of about 97 %, on average, in two of three cases; in two cases, we are able to identify the performance-optimal configuration or a configuration causing only a small performance overhead. In the third case, the best configuration is within the range of 0.5 % configurations predicted to be best. This article is a revised and extended version of our previous HiStencils workshop paper [14]. Compared to the earlier version, we included a third case study (the implementation using DUNE), performed more measurements, adjusted the measurement setup, and included more discussions.

2. Preliminaries

In this section, we present the preliminaries of our approach of finding performance-optimal stencil-code configurations. As the approach has its roots in the product-line domain, we introduce the respective terminology and provide background information on how to model variability.

2.1. *Feature Models and Extended Feature Models*

In the product-line domain, configuration options of variable systems are often called *features* [15]. As features may depend on or exclude each other, feature models are used to describe their valid combinations [16]. A *feature model* describes relationships among the features of a configurable system by grouping them and introducing a parent-child relationship (if the child feature is selected the parent feature must be selected, too). We present the feature models of our three subject systems in Figure 1a–c.

In general, a feature can either be *mandatory* (i. e., required in all configurations in which its parent feature is selected), *optional*, or be part of an *OR group* or an *XOR group*. If the parent feature of a group is selected, exactly one feature of an XOR group and, at least, one of an OR group must be selected. Additionally, one can define arbitrary propositional formulas to further constrain variability. For example, one feature may *imply* or *exclude* another feature or set of features.

Standard feature models can express features with two states only, indicating the presence or absence of the corresponding feature in a configuration; We refer to

[a] `http://www.dune-project.org/`

these features as *Boolean features*. In Figure 1 and 2, Boolean features are framed with a solid box.

However, having Boolean features only is insufficient when modeling variability of multi-grid systems, because there are configuration options, here called *numerical features*, that can take more than two states. For example, we need to specify the number of *pre-smoothing* steps within a multi-grid solver, which is a numerical value within the range of 0 and 6 (see Figure 1b). Consequently, numerical features have a value domain (i. e., the specified value range of the feature) and, additionally, a default value. For instance, the numerical feature *Padding* (cf. Figure 1a) has the value domain Integer, and the range is between 0 and 512 with a step size of 32. The default value is 0. In Figure 1 and 2, numerical features are denoted with dashed boxes. Alternatively, we can model a numerical feature as a set of Boolean features that discretize the value range, such that one Boolean feature represents one value of the numerical feature. However, this approach leads to an increasing number of Boolean features (see Figure 2) and hinders interpolating a function over the whole value range, to predict influence of unseen values of a numerical feature (see Section 4).

2.2. *Predicting the Performance of Configurable Systems*

To predict the performance of the configurations of a configurable systems, we developed SPL Conqueror, which quantifies the influence of individual features on performance (and on other non-functional properties) [10, 17]. To quantify the influence, we use the machine-learning approach Forward Feature Selection [18], which quantifies based on a test set (i.e., a set of measured configurations) the influences of all features on performance. The main research question is, however, how to select the test set. That is, which configurations should we measure to learn a model that accurately predicts performance of *all* configurations. To this end, we developed in previous work several sampling heuristics, which we explain in the following.

The first heuristic, *feature-wise (FW)*, aims at feature coverage. We select configurations in which only a single feature is selected to measure the feature's influence in isolation (actually, based on the smallest possible configuration that represents a valid, running program). We repeat this for each feature of the feature model. For example, if we want to determine how the selection of feature *Local Memory* of the HIPA^{cc} framework influences the performance, we measure the configuration in which all features but *Local Memory* are deselected. To obtain a valid configuration, we additionally have to select mandatory features, such as *API* and *Blocksize*. As a result of this sampling process, the test set contains a configuration for each Boolean feature (excluding mandatory features), with which we can determine the influence of the corresponding feature.

However, since we have no two configurations where multiple features are selected, the predicted performance of an unseen configuration may not always match the actual performance, because features may influence each other. This influence

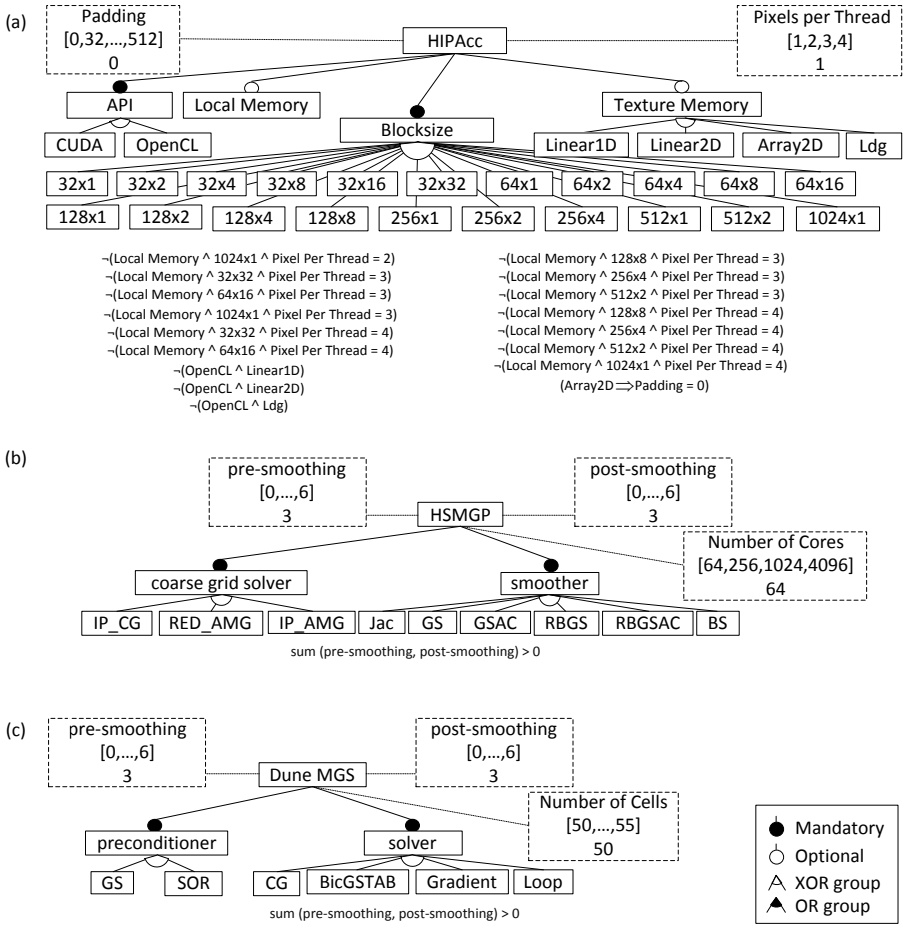

Fig. 1. Feature models for the three target systems: (a) HIPA^{cc}, (b) HSMGP, and (c) Dune MGS.

Fig. 2. Different modeling strategies of numerical features. (a) Feature model with the numerical feature X and (b) the same feature model with the numerical feature modeled as a set of discretized Boolean features in an XOR group.

on performance arises due to *feature interactions* [10]. For example, effects of changing the used *Texture Memory* can vary based on the current *API* (see Figure 1a). Furthermore, interactions between more than two features are possible. To take these interactions of different orders (i. e., the number of features causing a performance interaction) into account, Siegmund et al. propose three further sampling

heuristics [10].

The *pair-wise heuristic (PW)* considers interactions between all pairs of interacting features. However, since all features can possibly interact with each other, we first need to determine which features actually interact. First, we measure for each feature an additional configuration in which we maximize the number of selected features. The idea behind is to maximize the possibility of observing a performance interaction. Only if the measured performance of this configuration does not correspond to the predicted performance, which does not take interactions into account, we know that features of this configuration interact. For a more detailed discussion, we refer to [19]. Knowing the features that interact, we need to determine which exact combination of those features actually cause a performance difference. Hence, we measure additional configurations in which we combine each pair of interacting features (i.e., the pair-wise sampling heuristic). The *higher-order heuristic (HO)* specifies configurations to be measured to detect interactions of the order of two (i.e., when three features cause an interaction). Lastly, in some customizable programs there are features, called hot-spot features, that are responsible for most of the interactions. The *hot-spot heuristic (HS)* further extends the test set by those configurations in which a previously identified hot-spot feature is selected. The idea is to detect more relevant interactions with only few more measurements. The three heuristics build on each other and on the FW heuristic. As a consequence, the HS heuristic uses all measurements already performed by the FW, PW, and HO heuristic.

All heuristics presented so far sample the configuration space of Boolean features only. As a consequence, it is not possible to incorporate numerical features directly. Instead, numerical features have to be modeled as discretized sets of Boolean features (see Figure 2) leading to a substantially increased number of measurements. To overcome this limitation, we propose a novel *function-learning heuristic (FL)*. The basic idea is to learn performance-contribution functions for each numerical feature. Since each numerical feature can have a different performance influence on different Boolean features, we learn a function for each pair of numerical and Boolean feature. The structure of the performance function (e.g., the polynomial degree) has to be given by a domain expert or obtained by machine learning. Consequently, a feature model with n Boolean features and m numerical features requires $n \cdot m$ functions. To learn these *performance-contribution functions*, we sample in the range of the numerical feature, based on its expected polynomial degree and measure the performance of the corresponding configurations. For example, when expecting a quadratic contribution function for feature *pre-smoothing* of HSMGP, we measure three configurations for this numerical feature. In the first configuration, the value of this feature is 0, in the second 3, and in the last one 6. When sampling a single numerical feature, we keep the remaining numerical features constant, using their default values. To learn the different performance-contribution functions of a numerical feature (a function for each feature), we combine this sampling strat-

egy with the FW heuristic. After measurement, we use least-squares regression to determine the contribution of the numerical feature.

3. Experiments

We conducted a series of experiments to evaluate whether the approach taken by SPL Conqueror is feasible for predicting performance of geometric multi-grid-solver configurations. To this end, we define the following research questions:

- Q1: What is the prediction accuracy and measurement effort of the heuristics FW, PW, HO, HS, and FL?
- Q2: What is the performance difference between the optimal configuration and the configuration predicted to perform best by the heuristics?

3.1. *Experimental Setup and Procedure*

To answer the research questions, we selected three multi-grid solver implementations from different application domains, which we describe in the Sections 3.2–3.4. Note that we consider only the execution time in our evaluation, not compilation time (compilation time can usually be neglected in production runs).

Each experiment consists of two phases. In the first phase, we measure a subset of configurations of the subject systems and determine the contributions of individual features, feature interactions, and numerical features; the measured configurations are selected by the individual sampling heuristics (FW, PW, HO, HS, FL). In the second phase, the performance of all configurations is predicted, based on the contributions determined before. To calculate the prediction accuracy of the second phase, we additionally measured all configurations of all systems, essentially a *Brute Force* (BF) approach, and compared the actual times to the times predicted when using the heuristics. The mean relative error rate $\bar{e}$ is calculated for each heuristic, as follows:

$$\bar{e} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{0 \leq i < n} \frac{|t_i^{\text{measured}} - t_i^{\text{predicted}}|}{t_i^{\text{measured}}},$$

where n is the number of configurations of the subject system. Additionally, we determine the performance difference between the performance-optimal configuration, as determined by BF, and the configuration predicted to perform best by the heuristics. For evaluation, we performed exhaustive measurements on different hardware systems and kept the hardware constant for each subject system.

3.2. *HIPA^{cc}*

HIPA^{cc}, the Heterogeneous Image Processing Acceleration Framework[b], generates efficient low-level code from a high-level embedded domain-specific language [20].

[b] `http://hipacc-lang.org`

During compilation, HIPA^{cc} optimizes the computational kernels by exploiting domain and hardware knowledge. The tested geometric multi-grid code solves a finite difference discretization of the Poisson equation on a rectangular grid.

HIPA^{cc} has a built-in list of supported hardware platforms allowing the target architecture to be selected at compile time. This variability, however, is exploited only for the built-in auto-tuning process preventing the generation of code unsuitable for the targeted device. In our experiments, we did not vary the hardware device. We illustrate the features we considered with the feature model in Figure 1a; a more complete description of the HIPA^{cc} configuration space can be found in Membarth et al. [21]. As the *API* used for interaction with the device has to be specified, we modeled it as an *XOR group*. Another *XOR group* is the memory layout used, donated by the feature *Texture Memory*. Additionally, *Local Memory* is an optional feature toggling the use of another memory type. The integer value *Padding*, modeled as a numerical feature, may be set to optimize the memory layout. Furthermore, the integer value *Pixels per Thread*, denoting how many pixels are calculated per thread, can be varied. For further details of these configuration options, we refer to Grebhahn et al. [14]. Finally, we used different block sizes within our experiments, which are modeled as an *XOR group*, too.

We performed all measurements of the HIPA^{cc} system on an nVidia Tesla K20 card with 5GB RAM and 2496 cores. As an indicator for performance, we measure the time to compute the solution.

3.3. *Highly Scalable MG Prototype (HSMGP)*

HSMGP is a prototype code for benchmarking Hierarchical Hybrid Grids (HHG) [22, 23], data structures, algorithms, and concepts [13]. It was designed to run on large scale systems, such as JuQueen, a Blue Gene/Q system, located at the Jülich Supercomputing Centre, Germany. In its current form, it solves a finite differences discretization of Poisson's equation on a general block-structured domain.

The variability of HSMGP is illustrated in Figure 1b. In particular, the solver provides different smoothers, represented by an *XOR group*. The second customizable algorithmic component is the coarse-grid solver. The resulting choices are an *in-place conjugate gradient (IP_CG)*, an *in-place algebraic multi-grid (IP_AMG)*, and an *algebraic multi-grid with data reduction (RED_AMG)*, which are also modeled in an *XOR group*.

Furthermore, in our experiments, we can choose the number of *pre-* and *post-smoothing* steps, both of which we limit to integer values between 0 and 6; the default value is set to 3 (see Grebhahn et al. [14], for further details). We performed weak scaling experiments using a varying number of nodes. In detail, we utilized 64, 256, 1024, and 4096 nodes, where 64 is the default value.

Since the configuration space is small compared to a full model of HSMGP, we are able to measure all configurations (BF), which is necessary to determine

accuracy of the heuristics. We performed all of the experiments of this system on the JuQueen system at the Jülich Supercomputing Centre, Germany. Although the application scales up to the whole machine (458 752 cores) [13], we used only a smaller test case to ensure reproducibility and cost effectiveness (in terms of CPU hours).

We decided to evaluate the average time needed to perform one V-cycle[c], instead of the total time. As it is not possible to identify the performance-optimal configuration of a system in considering the time needed to perform one cycle only, we multiply the predicted time of one cycle with the measured number of cycles for the configurations of the HSMPG system. As an alternative, the number of cycles needed, can also be predicted using local Fourier analysis [4].

3.4. *Dune MGS*

The third subject system is a geometric multi-grid implementation based on DUNE[d]. DUNE is a framework for solving PDEs with grid-based methods. The selected implementation solves a finite element discretization of Poisson's equation on a structured grid.

The variability we consider is presented in Figure 1c. There are two alternative *preconditioners* and four alternative *solvers*. The preconditioners and solvers are provided by the DUNE framework. In addition, we vary the *pre-* and *post-smoothing* steps, which we limit to integer values within the range of 0 to 6, using 3 as default value. We performed the experiments with a different *number of cells*, defining the grid size.

All measurements for this system are performed on an Dell OptiPlex-9020 with an Intel i5-4570 Quad Code and 32 GB RAM, running Ubuntu 13.4. For this system, we measure the time to compute the solution as an indicator for performance.

4. Results

The experimental results for the three subject systems are given in Table 1. Next, we describe them in detail. The BF approach acts as a base line for the number of measurements. Regarding research question Q1 (prediction accuracy and measurement effort), we present the number of needed measurements of the different heuristics, the fault distribution, the average error rate, the standard deviation, and the median error rate of the predictions. For the research question Q2 (performance difference between the optimal configuration and the configuration predicted to perform best), we computed the absolute and the percentage share difference between the measured performance of the optimal configuration and the measured performance of the configuration predicted to perform best. Besides, we computed the

[c]A V-cycle is an iteration traversing a hierarchy of grids.
[d]`http://www.dune-project.org/dune.html`

Table 1. Experimental results for the three subject systems: FW: feature-wise; PW: pair-wise; HO: higher-order; HS: hot-spot; FL: function-learning; BF: brute force; # M: number of measurements; $\bar{e}$: average error rate; s: standard deviation; $\widetilde{x}$: median error; Δ: absolute difference between the measured performance of the optimal configuration and the measured performance of the configuration predicted to perform best; δ: percentage share of Δ the on measured performance of the optimal configuration; Rank: the rank of the optimal configuration when ordering configurations by predicted performance. For HSMGP, we computed Δ and δ using the time to solution.

	Heu.	# M (in %)	Fault-rate distribution	$\bar{e} \pm s$	$\widetilde{x}$	Δ [ms]	δ [%]	rank
HIPA^{cc}	FW	47 (0.3)		80.8 ± 56.3	73.6	0.31	1.5	2180
	PW	702 (5.2)		17.2 ± 16.0	13.4	3.09	14.6	428
	HO	1 516 (11.2)		7.8 ± 10.1	4.4	1.99	9.38	1735
	HS	2 881 (21.4)		3.8 ± 4.8	3.3	3.86	18.22	955
	FL	216 (1.6)		32.9 ± 31.1	23.5	0.16	0.75	3544
	BF	13 485 (100)	0 20 40 60 80	—	—	—	—	—
HSMGP	FW	26 (0.8)		23.4 ± 18.7	19.0	43.3	3.8	40
	PW	274 (7.9)		4.8 ± 8.6	1.8	353.5	31.4	77
	HO	1 331 (38.5)		60.7 ± 67.2	41.5	3 040.9	270.0	312
	HS	2 902 (84.0)		8.0 ± 33.9	0	3 040.9	270.0	55
	FL	112 (3.2)		2.5 ± 3.1	1.8	0	0	1
	BF	3 456 (100)	0 20 40 60 80	—	—	—	—	—
Dune MGS	FW	25 (1.1)		32.2 ± 51	12.4	2 459.1	55.3	498
	PW	191 (8.3)		42.2 ± 38.6	32.8	4 327.5	97.3	273
	HO	749 (32.6)		36.3 ± 51.7	18.2	10 089.1	226.9	133
	HS	1 643 (71.4)		49 ± 164.7	0	7 177.4	161.4	215
	FL	75 (3.3)		13.7 ± 12.6	10.2	2 156.6	48.5	10
	BF	2 304 (100)	0 20 40 60 80	—	—	—	—	—

rank of the optimal configuration when ordering the configurations by predicted performance.

4.1. *HIPA^{cc}*

As revealed by the BF measurements, the performance-optimal configuration of the HIPA^{cc} case study uses *OpenCL*, a *Padding* of zero, four *Pixels per Thread*, *Local Memory*, no *Texture Memory*, and a *Blocksize* of *128×1*.

Using the FW heuristic, we have to measure only 47 out of 13 485 configurations, which is 0.3 %. With this small set, we predict the performance of a configuration with an average error rate of 80.8 % and a median error rate of 73.6 %. Furthermore, we predict a configuration to be performance-optimal that is surpris-

ingly only 0.31 ms worse than the optimal configuration (i.e., 1.5 %). However, the performance-optimal configuration is ranked 2180 when sorting the configurations by the predicted performance; which is within 16 % of the configurations predicted to be best. The high average error rate suggests the existence of feature interactions.

When applying the PW heuristic and considering first-order interactions, we identified several feature interactions, while performing 655 additional measurements, resulting in 702 measurements in total. With these measurements, the average error rate decreases to 17.2 % (i. e., a prediction accuracy of 82.8 %). For instance, we found that the features *Array2D* and *CUDA* interact with each other. Yet, the absolute performance difference between the configuration predicted to be optimal and the performance-optimal configuration increases to 3.09 ms, which is 14.6 % of performance of the optimal configuration.[e] This error is because of uncovered higher-order interactions between features.

With the HO heuristic, the error rate decreases to 7.8 %, on average. For this heuristic, we need to perform 1516 measurements, representing 11.2 % of all configurations. The difference between the optimal configuration and the configuration predicted to perform best decreases to 1.99 ms, which is 9.38 %.

When additionally considering hot-spot features by using the HS heuristic, we are able to reveal all existing interactions up to an order of four. We have to perform 2881 measurements, to reach an average prediction error rate of 3.8 %. We found that the *Texture Memory* features *Linear1D*, *Linear2D*, and *Array2D*, as well as *CUDA*, *Local Memory*, and different *Pixels per Thread* values are hot-spot features; they interact with nearly all other features. However, the performance-optimal configuration was not predicted to perform best. The absolute performance difference between the optimal configuration and the configuration predicted to perform best increases to 3.86 ms, which is 18.22 %. Although we identify more third-order interactions than second-order iterations, the improvement in accuracy is smaller between the HO and the HS heuristic than between the PW and the HO heuristic. As a consequence, of this small improvement between the HO and the HS heuristic, there are many third-order interactions having only a small influence on performance.

So far, we presented the well-known heuristics from product-line engineering. Our proposed heuristic using function learning on numerical feature achieves more accurate results when identifying the best configuration. With the FL heuristic, we perform 216 measurements (1.6 %) with an average error rate of 32.9 %. The absolute difference between the optimal configuration and the configuration predicted to be optimal is only 0.16 ms. This is 0.75 % of the time to perform the optimal configuration. However, the optimal configuration is on rank 3544 only, when ordering configurations by predicted performance. Although the FL heuristic requires more measurements than the FW heuristic, and also considers interactions between

[e]The time to solution is relatively small, which leads to an overestimation when considering the percentage share, because a small bias can lead to a high percentage error.

Boolean and numerical features, it has a prediction accuracy of only 67.1 %. This is because interactions between two or more features and between two or more numerical features are not considered.

Overall, the predictions of the FW heuristic give an impression of the general performance distribution of the configurations, because features have a greater influence on performance than feature interactions. Moreover, an almost optimal configuration was predicted to perform best. Besides, even when considering all interactions up to an order of four, we cannot identify the optimal configuration, but a configuration that is near optimal. Additionally, it is possible to predict the performance of any selected configuration with a high accuracy when applying the HO and HS heuristic.

4.2. *HSMGP*

The performance-optimal configuration of HSMGP uses the *GS* smoother, the *IP_AMG* coarse grid solver, one *pre-smoothing*, five *post-smoothing* steps, and is using 64 nodes.

When considering contributions of individual features only, we have to measure 26 of the 3456 configurations of HSMGP. This is less than the number of its features (see Figure 1b), when numerical features are discretized as alternative Boolean features (see Figure 2). This small number of needed measurements arises from the tree structure of the model supporting the reuse of configurations already measured. For example, when measuring the first configuration, we are able to determine the performance contribution of one feature per *XOR group* (i.e. 5 features). With later configurations, we determine the performance difference of an alternative feature selection. With this small set of configurations, the average prediction error is 23.4 %. This suggests the existence of interactions between features that have an influence on performance. However, the prediction error when using the configuration predicted to perform best is with 43.8 ms (3.8 %) relatively small.

Using the PW heuristic, 248 additional measurements are needed (in total 274 configurations, 7.9 %), compared to the FW heuristic. The error rate drops substantially to 4.8 %. So, we conclude that the vast majority of interactions are pair-wise interactions. Yet, the accuracy of predicting the optimal configuration decreases. The difference between the optimal configuration and the configuration predicted to be optimal is 353.5 ms, which is 31.4 % of the performance of the optimal configuration. When ordering the configurations by predicted performance, the optimal configuration is on rank 77, which is within the 2.5 % of configurations being predicted to perform best.

With the HO heuristic, we considered also interactions between three features, which requires measuring 1331 configurations (38.5 % of all configurations). Still, the average error rate increases to 60.7 %, and a configuration with a bad performance is predicted to perform best. The absolute difference between this configuration and the optimal configuration is 3040.9 ms (about 270.0 % of the time to perform the

optimal configuration). Examining the predictions of all configurations, we found that the configuration predicted to perform second best has only a performance penalty of 2.5 %. Hence, it is necessary to consider not only the single configuration predicted to perform best, but also k configurations predicted to perform best.

Using the HS heuristic, we achieve a prediction accuracy of 92 % (i.e., an average error of 8 %), measuring 84 % of all configurations. This indicates that most features interact. We found that all available *coarse grid solvers* as well as all *smoother* and the *pre-smoothing* and *post-smoothing* steps are interacting with each other in all possible combinations. In general, a large number of higher-order interactions is the worst case for the HO and HS heuristics in terms of measurement effort. The performance difference between the optimal configuration and the configuration predicted to perform best is 3 040.9 ms (270.0 % of the performance of the optimal configuration). The optimal configuration is on rank 55. This is within the 1.6 % configurations predicted to be best.

The FL heuristic requires only 112 measurements (3.2 % of all configurations) to reach a prediction accuracy of 97.5 %, on average. Interestingly, it produces more accurate predictions with less measurements than the PW heuristic. Furthermore, the optimal configuration was predicted to perform best. This strongly indicates that discretization of numerical features can be harmful in the context of stencil-code optimization and performance prediction.

In summary, because of the high number of interactions in HSMGP, the HO and HS heuristics are not feasible. Again, the FW heuristic is suitable for getting an impression of the performance distribution of the configurations of HSMGP and also predicts surprisingly accurately the optimal configuration. When using the FL heuristic, we observe a high accuracy in predicting the performance of all configurations with a very small number of measurements. In addition, we could identify the performance-optimal configuration.

4.3. *Dune MGS*

As revealed by the BF measurements, the performance-optimal configuration uses the *GS* preconditioner, the *Loop* solver, zero *pre-smoothing* and three *post-smoothing* steps, and it runs on 50 *cells*.

Using the FW heuristic, we have to measure only 25 configurations (1.1 %) of Dune MGS to reach an average error rate of 32.2 %; the median error is 12.4 %. The performance difference between the optimal configuration and the configuration predicted to perform best is 2459.1 ms, which is 55.3 % of the performance of the optimal configuration. The optimal configuration is on rank 498; this is within the 22 % of configurations predicted to perform best.

Using the PW heuristic, 191 configurations are measured (8.3 %), and the average error rate increases to 42.2 %. The absolute difference between the optimal and the configuration predicted to be optimal is 4327.5 ms (97.3 %). Compared to the FW heuristic, we observe worse results. This is because of uncovered interactions

between three or more features.

Using the HO heuristic, 749 configurations are measured, and the average error rate reduces to 36.3 %; the performance difference between the optimal and the configuration predicted to be optimal is 10 089.1 ms, 226.9 % of the performance of the optimal configuration. The performance-optimal configuration is within the 6 % of configurations predicted to perform best.

The HS heuristic revealed that all features interact with each other. Considering all interactions of all features, we have to measure 1643 configurations, which is 71.4 % of all configurations. With these measurements, the average error rate increases to 49 %; the difference between the configuration predicted to perform best and the optimal configuration is 7177.4 ms (161.4 %). An explanation for the high error rate is that the hot-spot heuristic takes only interactions with up to four features into account. In Dune MGS, there are interactions with even more features involved. Although the high average error indicates that this approach is not useful, the distribution of the predicted error rates draws a different picture. We observed that the median prediction error is at 0 %. This means that at least 50 % of all configurations are predicted nearly perfect and that some outlier configurations leads a huge average error.

Using the FL heuristic, we measure 75 configurations, which is 3.3 % of all configurations. The average error rate is 13.7 %. When predicting the performance optimal configuration, we observe a performance difference of 2156.6 ms, which is 48.5 % of the performance of the performance-optimal configuration. We examined the predictions in detail and observed that the performance-optimal configuration was predicted to be the 10th fastest (i.e., in the range of 0.5 % configurations predicted to perform best). In contrast to the other heuristics that lead to a huge gap between average and median error rate, these two values are almost the same for this heuristic.

For Dune MGS, the FL heuristic performs best regarding the average error rate as well as the error when predicting the performance-optimal configuration. However, it is not possible to predict the performance-optimal configuration with any of the heuristics. As there is a high number of interactions in this system, the HO and the HS heuristic do not lead to good results regarding the number of measurements needed. The FL heuristic is more accurately than the other heuristics.

5. Perspectives and Discussion

All systems we are considering, have a high number of interactions. When identifying all existing interactions, especially also taking higher order interactions into account, a large numbers of measurements is inevitable. For HSMGP, identifying all interactions requires measuring 84 % of all configurations, for example.

As for Q1, the FL heuristic produces the best results, for all considered systems. Furthermore, this heuristic needs only a small number of measurements, which is less than 4 % of all configurations. The high accuracy is due to the influence of

numerical features on performance, which cannot be learned on each discretized value in isolation, as it is the case for the other heuristics. However, with the FL heuristic, we cannot consider interactions between two numerical features, resulting in some inaccurate predictions.

As for Q2, even without considering numerical feature interactions, we are able to identify the performance-optimal configuration or, at least, a configuration being almost optimal (having a difference of less than 1 %) after measuring a small number of configurations. For HIPA^{cc}, we identify a configuration that is 0.75 % slower than the optimal configuration after measuring 1.6 % of the configurations. For HSMGP, we are able to identify the performance-optimal configuration after measuring 3.2 % of the configurations. For Dune MGS, the optimal configuration is within the 0.5 % range of configurations predicted to be best, after measuring 3.3 % of the configurations.

Overall, we conclude that it is beneficial measuring a percentage share around 1 % of the configurations predicted to perform best after applying the FL heuristic. With these additional measurements, it is possible to identify the actual performance-optimal configuration, or at least, a configuration close to it.

6. Threats to Validity

Internal Validity: Performance measurements are often biased by environmental factors or concurrent system load. As we used measurements for training and evaluating the predictions' accuracies, these factors threaten internal validity. To mitigate this threat, we repeated each measurement multiple times and computed the average (arithmetic mean), which we used then for our evaluation. Although this approach increases the time needed to perform a prediction, it minimizes the influence of measurement noise. Besides, we tried our best to reduce such noise: We used the relative error rate as a mean to compare different sampling strategies. The relative error can however distort the picture when absolute numbers are very small. Hence we provide also the absolute difference and discuss them when needed.

External Validity: As we performed experiments with only three configurable stencil codes, we cannot safely transfer the results to stencil programs in general. However, we selected systems from different domains that implement central algorithms of this domain. Furthermore, we used different hardware systems for the considered systems and even performed measurements on large scale systems such, as JuQueen.

Still, our experiments are meant as a proof of concept, exploring whether applying SPL Conqueror to predict the performance-optimal configuration is feasible in the stencil domain. Further experiments are needed.

7. Related Work

Different research communities work on techniques to find optimal configurations regarding system performance. The machine-learning community developed approaches based on Bayesian nets [24], Forward Feature Selection [18], regression trees [25], and neuronal networks [26]. The problem of these approaches is that they lack transparency about their solutions (i.e., they cannot explain why a configuration is better than another), and they heavily depend on the sample set without prescribing how to select the sample set.

In the area of configurable systems and product-line engineering, there are a number of approaches that do not rely on domain knowledge [8, 10, 11, 17, 27]. In our previous work, we developed sampling criteria to specify which configurations are promising for measurements that yield to learn accurate performance models. These sampling mechanisms were used to predict footprint, memory consumption, and performance of configurable programs for different domains [10, 17]. In this paper, we extended those sampling criteria and the learning approach to consider also parameters, which could not be done before.

Gou et al. propose a black-box approach [8] based on statistical learning to predicting performance of program configurations. In contrast to Siegmund's approach, in which configurations are selected based on heuristics, they perform a random selection of configurations. Rather than identifying the contribution of features, they use classification and regression trees to predict performance of configurations. However, this approach is not applicable to parameters. Furthermore, it does not treat and detect feature interactions explicitly, so it is unclear how this approach handles the huge number of interactions that exist in stencil codes, as in our subject systems. Besides, Guo et al. present five Multi-Objective Combinatorial Optimization algorithms to identify Pareto-optimal configurations. All of the presented algorithms run in parallel and scale well for up to 64 cores [11]. The algorithms need the identified influences of Boolean features and feature interactions as input and can thus be used in combination with our approach to identify optimal configurations in an multi-objective space.

A closely related approach in the area of stencil-code optimizations is proposed by Datta [5]. He performs auto-tuning of stencil-code computations for several multicore systems, such as IBM Blue Gene/P. With the help of the roofline model [28], Datta predicts performance bounds of stencil codes and the related quality of the optimizations. The optimization consists of two steps: First, he performs an optimization of the parameter ranges to minimize the configuration space. Second, he performs an iterative greedy search. As a consequence, he optimizes one parameter while the values of other parameters are fixed. The order of parameters are given as domain knowledge. However, in some cases, it is necessary to rewriting the code of the target program for adjusting some parameters. In this case, it is necessary to re-adjust some already optimized parameters. Moreover, he does not consider the number of measurements required for an optimization.

Ganapathi et al. [6] uses an approach based on statistical learning to optimize performance and energy efficiency. They randomly select a training set of configurations and identify correlations between configuration parameters and measured properties by the use of kernel functions. To identify the performance-optimal configuration, they perform a nearest-neighbor search around the projected space of the performance-optimal configuration of the training set. Unlike our approach, they determine only the optimal configuration, but not performance of any configuration to give an overview of the configuration space and to reveal uncovered interactions between features.

Finally, the parameter-tuning community developed approaches to tailor algorithms to be performance optimal for a given workload. Hutter et al. present `ParamILS`, an approach that is based on combining automated local-search algorithms with random jumps within the configuration space to find global optima [29]. They further introduce the idea to cut off a measurement that takes more time than the already best found configuration. In another line of research, Hutter et al. try to identify performance-optimal configurations by the use of model-based optimization [30]. They apply and refine standard Gaussian process models to compute a response surface model. The approach is to measure an initial set of configurations to build an initial model. This model is iteratively refined by further measurements. The key point is that these further measurements are computed by evaluating the quality of the already learned model such that the measurements are located at areas where a good performance is expected. The process runs until a user-given threshold is reached. `ParamILS` is not able to make performance predictions of any configuration. The second approach of Hutter et al. has scalability problems regarding the number of configuration options. Furthermore, it requires a relatively large number of measurements, which may not be possible to run on expensive machines, such as JuQueen.

8. Conclusion

Stencil codes expose a number of configuration options to tune their performance. Without any domain knowledge, it is hard to determine which configuration (i. e., selection of configuration options) leads to the best performance. To tackle this problem, we transfer an approach from product-line engineering by Siegmund et al. [10], which predicts performance of software configurations, to the stencil-code domain. Before performing predictions, different sampling strategies, helping in identifying the influence of configuration options, can be used. In a series of experiments, we demonstrated that the approach of Siegmund et al. can be used to predict performance of configurations of stencil codes with reasonable accuracy and effort. We found that all considered systems (HIPA^{cc}, HSMGP, DUNE) have a high number of interactions leading to a high number of measurements for discrete heuristics considering interactions of features. In contrast, a function-learning approach leads to the best results. With function learning, we are able to identify the performance-optimal configuration or a configuration being less than 1 % slower than the optimal

one after measuring less than 4 % of all configurations. For HIPA^{cc}, we can predict the performance of all valid configurations with an accuracy of 96 %, when measuring 21.4 % of the configurations. For HSMGP, we can predict the performance of all configurations with an accuracy of 97 %, when measuring 3.2 % of the configurations. For Dune MGS, the predictions are not very accurate, compared to the other systems. We are able to predict the performance of all configurations with an accuracy of 86 % after measuring 3.3 % of the examined configurations.

In future work, we will extend the approach with heuristics considering numerical feature interactions, as well. Moreover, we will extend our approach to incorporate domain knowledge to further improve prediction accuracy.

Acknowledgments

We thank Richard Membarth for providing the tested multi-grid implementation in HIPA^{cc} as well as for advice on suitable evaluation parameters; we thank Peter Bastian for providing the basis of the tested multi-grid implementation using DUNE. This work is supported by the German Research Foundation (DFG), as part of the Priority Programme 1648 "Software for Exascale Computing", under the contracts AP 206/7-1, TE 163/17-1, and RU 422/15-1. Sven Apel's work is further supported by the DFG under the contracts AP 206/4-1 and AP 206/6-1.

References

[1] A. Brandt. Multi-level adaptive solutions to boundary-value problems. *Mathematics of Computation*, 31(138):333–390, 1977.

[2] W. Hackbusch. *Multi-Grid Methods and Applications*. Springer Series in Computational Mathematics. Springer, 1985.

[3] W. Briggs, V. Henson, and S. McCormick. *A Multigrid Tutorial*. SIAM, 2nd edition, 2000.

[4] U. Trottenberg, C. Oosterlee, and A. Schüller. *Multigrid*. Academic Press, 2001.

[5] K. Datta. *Auto-tuning Stencil Codes for Cache-Based Multicore Platforms*. PhD thesis, EECS Department, University of California, Berkeley, 2009.

[6] A. Ganapathi, K. Datta, A. Fox, and D. Patterson. A case for machine learning to optimize multicore performance. In *Proc. HotPar*, pages 1–6. USENIX Association, 2009.

[7] B. Marker, D. Batory, and R. van de Geijn. Code generation and optimization of distributed-memory dense linear algebra kernels. *Procedia Computer Science*, 18:1282–1291, 2013.

[8] J. Guo, K. Czarnecki, S. Apel, N. Siegmund, and A. Wasowski. Variability-aware performance prediction: A statistical learning approach. In *Proc. ASE*, pages 301–311. IEEE, 2013.

[9] A. S. Sayyad, T. Menzies, and H. Ammar. On the value of user preferences in search-based software engineering: A case study in software product lines. In *Proc. ICSE*, pages 492–501. IEEE, 2013.

[10] N. Siegmund, S. S. Kolesnikov, C. Kästner, S. Apel, D. Batory, M. Rosenmüller, and G. Saake. Predicting performance via automated feature-interaction detection. In *Proc. ICSE*, pages 167–177. IEEE, 2012.

[11] J. Guo, E. Zulkoski, R. Olaechea, D. Rayside, K. Czarnecki, S. Apel, and J. M. Atlee.

Scaling exact multi-objective combinatorial optimization by parallelization. In *Proc. ASE*. ACM, 2014. to appear.

[12] R. Membarth, O. Reiche, F. Hannig, and J. Teich. Code generation for embedded heterogeneous architectures on Android. In *Proc. DATE*, pages 1–6. IEEE, 2014.

[13] S. Kuckuk, B. Gmeiner, H. Köstler, and U Rüde. A generic prototype to benchmark algorithms and data structures for hierarchical hybrid grids. In *Proc. ParCo*, pages 813–822. IOS Press, 2013.

[14] A. Grebhahn, N. Siegmund, S. Apel, S. Kuckuk, C. Schmitt, and H. Köstler. Optimizing performance of stencil code with SPL Conqueror. In *Proc HiStencils*, pages 7–14, 2014.

[15] K. C. Kang, S. G. Cohen, J. A. Hess, W. E. Novak, and A. S. Peterson. Feature-oriented domain analysis (FODA) feasibility study. Technical Report CMU/SEI-90-TR-2, CMU, SEI, 1990.

[16] D. Batory. Feature models, grammars, and propositional formulas. In *Proc. SPLC*, pages 7–20. Springer, 2005.

[17] N. Siegmund, M. Rosenmüller, C. Kästner, P. G. Giarrusso, S. Apel, and S. S. Kolesnikov. Scalable prediction of non-functional properties in software product lines: Footprint and memory consumption. *Information & Software Technology*, 55(3):491–507, 2013.

[18] L. C. Molina, L. Belanche, and À. Nebot. Feature selection algorithms: A survey and experimental evaluation. In *Proc. ICDM*, pages 306–313. IEEE, 2002.

[19] N. Siegmund. *Measuring and Predicting Non-Functional Properties of Customizable Programs*. PhD thesis, University of Magdeburg, 2012.

[20] R. Membarth, F. Hannig, J. Teich, M. Körner, and W. Eckert. Generating device-specific GPU code for local operators in medical imaging. In *Proc. IPDPS*, pages 569–581. IEEE, 2012.

[21] R. Membarth, F. Hannig, J. Teich, M. Körner, and W. Eckert. Mastering software variant explosion for GPU accelerators. In *Proc. HeteroPar*, pages 123–132. Springer, 2012.

[22] B. Bergen, T. Gradl, F. Hülsemann, and U. Rüde. A massively parallel multigrid method for finite elements. *Computing in Science and Engineering*, 8(6):56–62, 2006.

[23] B. Gmeiner, H. Köstler, M. Stürmer, and U. Rüde. Parallel multigrid on hierarchical hybrid grids: A performance study on current high performance computing clusters. *Concurrency and Computation: Practice and Experience*, 26(1):217–240, 2014.

[24] F. Jensen and T. Nielsen. *Bayesian Networks and Decision Graphs*. Springer, 2nd edition, 2007.

[25] L. Breiman, J. H. Friedman, R. A. Olshen, and C. J. Stone. *Classification and Regression Trees*. Wadsworth, 1984.

[26] S. Haykin. *Neural Networks: A Comprehensive Foundation*. Prentice Hall PTR, 2nd edition, 1998.

[27] N. Siegmund, A. von Rhein, and S. Apel. Family-based performance measurement. In *Proc. GPCE*, pages 95–104. ACM, 2013.

[28] S.W. Williams, D.A. Patterson, L. Oliker, J. Shalf, and K. Yelick. The roofline model: A pedagogical tool for auto-tuning kernels on multicore architectures. In *HOT Chips, A Symposium on High Performance Chips*. IEEE, 2008.

[29] F. Hutter, H. H. Hoos, K. Leyton-Brown, and T. Stützle. ParamILS: An Automatic Algorithm Configuration Framework. *Journal of Artificial Intelligence Research*, 36:267–306, 2009.

[30] F. Hutter, H. H. Hoos, and K. Leyton-Brown. Sequential model-based optimization for general algorithm configuration. In *Proc. LION*, pages 507–523. Springer, 2011.