Evaluating Asymmetric Multicore Systems-on-Chip using Iso-Metrics


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Evaluating Asymmetric Multicore Systems-on-Chip using Iso-Metrics

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ABSTRACT
The end of Dennard scaling has pushed power consumption into a first order concern for current systems, on par with performance. As a result, near-threshold voltage computing (NTVC) has been proposed as a potential means to tackle the limited cooling capacity of CMOS technology. Hardware operating in NTV consumes significantly less power, at the cost of lower frequency, and thus reduced performance, as well as increased error rates. In this paper, we investigate if a low-power systems-on-chip, consisting of ARM’s asymmetric big.LITTLE technology, can be an alternative to conventional high performance multicore processors in terms of power/energy in an unreliable scenario. For our study, we use the Conjugate Gradient solver, an algorithm representative of the computations performed by a large range of scientific and engineering codes.

Categories and Subject Descriptors
C.1.3 [Computer Systems Organization]: Other Architecture Styles—heterogeneous (hybrid) systems; G.4 [Mathematical Software]: Efficiency

1. INTRODUCTION
The performance of today’s computing systems is limited by the end of Dennard scaling and the cooling capacity of CMOS technology. In response, CPU architectures turned towards multicore designs already in the middle of past decade, and power-saving techniques and mechanisms originally conceived for embedded and mobile appliances are being increasingly adopted by desktop and server processors. Near-threshold voltage computing (NTVC) is a promising power-saving technology to tackle the power wall by diminishing voltage (and slightly frequency) of the processor at the cost of reducing hardware reliability. The hope in NTVC is that the (close to) linear drop that is expected in performance from the decay of frequency is compensated by cramming more cores into the same power budget. In addition, the increase in hardware concurrency can be exploited to integrate some sort of algorithmic-based fault tolerance (ABFT) that addresses eventual data corruption caused by operating with unreliable hardware.

In this paper, we investigate the performance, power and energy balance of two representative low power ARM processors of a big.LITTLE system-on-chip (SoC), when applied to a memory-intensive numerical problem. Concretely, our analysis experimentally evaluates the iso-performance and iso-power of quad-core ARM Cortex-A15 and Cortex-A7 clusters against a conventional high performance Intel Xeon E5-2650 CPU, using the Conjugate Gradient (CG) method. This memory-bounded algorithm for the solution of linear systems is particularly interesting as it is representative of the type of operations and performance attained by many other scientific and engineering codes running in high performance computing facilities. As an additional contribution, we shed some light into the energy-saving potential of NTVC under a realistic scenario. For this purpose, we leverage a fault-tolerant variant of CG, enhanced with a self-stabilizing (SS) recovery mechanism, to assess the practical energy trade-off between hardware concurrency, CPU frequency, and hardware error rate, using the ARM big.LITTLE architecture as a case study.

As part of related work, iso-energy-efficiency models are built in order to predict and balance energy and performance in large power-aware clusters, taking into account software characteristics. Compared to this, we focus on the trade-off between performance, power and energy for high-end multicore processors vs low power SoCs, designed mainly for embedded and mobile systems. Our goal is to answer whether it is possible to build systems out of such power-efficient architectures that can match the performance of current throughput-oriented machines. Similarly to us, the authors of study the use of power-efficient architectures in scientific applications. In this line, we take one step further, to make projections about the energy-efficiency of unreliable NTVC platforms and the use of fault tolerance techniques to tackle the unreliability issues.

The rest of the paper is structured as follows. In Section 2 we describe the experimental setup. In Section 3 we compare high performance vs low power architectures using two different iso-metrics, and in Section 4 we determine the effect of unreliable hardware on the CG method. Finally, we close the paper with a few remarks in Section 5.
2. EXPERIMENTAL SETUP

2.1 The CG method

The CG method is a key algorithm for the numerical solution of symmetric positive definite (SPD) sparse and dense linear systems \( Ax = b \), where \( A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} \) is SPD, \( b \in \mathbb{R}^{n} \) contains the independent terms, and \( x^* \in \mathbb{R}^{n} \) is the solution. The cost of this iterative method is dominated by the matrix-vector multiplication (gemv) with \( A \) that is computed per iteration. For a matrix \( A \) with \( n_z \) nonzero entries, this operation roughly requires \( 2n_z \) floating-point arithmetic operations (flops). Additionally, each iteration involves a few vector operations that cost \( O(n) \) flops each.

For our evaluation, we employ ieee 754 real double-precision arithmetic and stop the iteration when the relative residual of the approximated solution is below 1.0e-8. Furthermore, we consider only problems with dense \( A \) and, for simplicity, we do not exploit the symmetric structure of the matrix. Under these conditions, we estimate the cost per iteration of CG to be \( 2n_z^2 \) flops (i.e., we neglect the lower cost of the vector operations). Moreover, for efficiency, we leverage multi-threaded implementations of the gemv kernel in Intel MKL (version 3.8.4) for the ARM-based cores, and ATLAS (version 3.8.4) for the ARM-based cores.

2.2 Target architectures and scenarios

The experiments in this paper were performed using three different CPUs. The first one, hereafter XEON, is a high-performance but power-hungry Intel Xeon E5-2650 socket with 16 GBytes of DDR3-1333 MHz RAM. The alternative low-power architectures, A15 and A7, are two ARM quad-core clusters embedded into an Exynos5 system-on-chip (SoC) of an ODROID-XU board, sharing 2 Gbytes of DDR3-1333 MHz RAM. Table 1 offers the most important features of these CPU architectures. There, the “Stream bandwidth” column reports the memory bandwidth measured using the triad test of the stream benchmark on the highest number of cores available in the sockets. The “Roofline GFLOPS” column corresponds to the theoretical upper bound on the computational performance (in terms of GFLOPS, or billions of flops per second) dictated by the roofline model.

For the evaluation, we investigate different scenarios that vary in the number of cores (from 1 up to the maximum), the CPU frequency, and the problem size. For simplicity, we only consider two CPU frequencies (lowest and highest, in particular discarding Intel’s turbo-mode) for each architecture; and two problem dimensions: an “on-chip” case that particular discarding Intel’s turbo-mode) for each architecture. There, the “Stream bandwidth” column reports the memory bandwidth, offering considerably lower figures on all three metrics. The same memory bottleneck is not visible for A7 though, likely because the multi-threaded implementation of the matrix-vector multiplication in ATLAS does not extract all the performance of this architecture.

We start by distinguishing between the two scenarios corresponding to on-chip and off-chip problems. For brevity, we will focus hereafter in the former case, noting that, in the latter, the performance on XEON and A15 is clearly limited by the memory bandwidth, offering considerably lower figures on all three metrics. The same memory bottleneck is not visible for A7 though, likely because the multi-threaded implementation of the matrix-vector multiplication in ATLAS does not extract all the performance of this architecture.

3. HIGH PERFORMANCE VS LOW POWER

In this section, we perform an experimental evaluation of the target CPU architectures, using the CG method (implemented on top of optimized multi-threaded versions of MKL and ATLAS), from the points of view of performance, power dissipation, and energy consumption. The purpose of this analysis is to expose the trade-offs between these three metrics, for a memory-bound method such as CG, on these particular architectures, with the ultimate goal of answering two key questions:

- Q1 (Iso-performance): Can we attain the performance of the Intel Xeon CPU with the low power ARM clusters while yielding a more power-efficient solution?
- Q2 (Iso-power): What is the performance that can be attained using the low power ARM clusters within the power budget dictated by the Intel Xeon socket?

3.1 Trade-offs

Figure reports the results from the evaluation of the multi-threaded CG implementations, from the points of view of performance (in GFLOPS), power dissipation (W) and energy efficiency (GFLOPS/W), using both on-chip and off-chip problems. We note that an evaluation in terms of GFLOPS and GFLOPS/W allows a comparison of these metrics for problems of varying size, which require a different number of flops.

We start by distinguishing between the two scenarios corresponding to on-chip and off-chip problems. For brevity, we will focus hereafter in the former case, noting that, in the latter, the performance on XEON and A15 is clearly limited by the memory bandwidth, offering considerably lower figures on all three metrics. The same memory bottleneck is not visible for A7 though, likely because the multi-threaded implementation of the matrix-vector multiplication in ATLAS does not extract all the performance of this architecture.

Table offers numerical results for the on-chip problems. Our comments to these results are organized in three axes: #cores, frequency and architecture (configuration parameters) as well as three perspectives (metrics). Let us commence by putting the light on the #cores. From the point of view of concurrency, increasing #cores produces fair speed-ups, which interestingly are quite close for all three architectures independently of their frequency; e.g., the use of 4 cores on XEON, A15 and A7 produces speed-ups between 2.8 and 3.4 for any of the two frequencies. From the perspective of power, a linear regression fit to the data shows a high value of the y-intercept for XEON, which basically corresponds to static power, and can be explained by its large LLC, the complex pipeline, the large area dedicated to branch prediction, etc. Compared with this, A15 and A7 exhibit much lower static power, reflecting the simpler design of this CPU clusters. This difference between the Intel- and ARM-based architectures has a major impact on the energy where, e.g., increasing the #cores on XEON results in shorter execution time and, due to the large static power, a visible positive effect on energy efficiency (GFLOPS/W). This is a clear indicator of the potential benefits of a “race-to-idle” policy applied to this architecture. The effect of increasing #cores on A15 and A7 is more imprecise, due to the low fraction that the static power represents.

We continue next with the analysis of frequency. Independently of the number of cores, the effect of this parameter on performance is perfectly linear for XEON but sublinear for A15, where doubling the frequency only improves performance by a factor of about 1.7×; and slightly higher for
Table 1: Hardware specifications of the target architectures.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acron.</th>
<th>CPU socket/cluster</th>
<th>#Cores</th>
<th>Frequency range (GHz)</th>
<th>LLC: level, type, size (MiB)</th>
<th>TDP (W)</th>
<th>Peak mem. bandwidth (GBytes/s)</th>
<th>Stream mem. bandwidth (GBytes/s)</th>
<th>Roofline GFLOPS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Xeon</td>
<td>Intel Xeon E5-2650</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1.2–2.0</td>
<td>L3, shared, 20</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>81.2</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A15</td>
<td>ARM Cortex-A15</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.8–1.6</td>
<td>L2, shared, 2</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>1.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A7</td>
<td>ARM Cortex-A7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.5–1.2</td>
<td>L2, shared, 0.5</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>2.07</td>
<td>0.51</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 1: Evaluation of performance, power and energy on the target architectures using multi-threaded implementations of the CG method on both the on-chip and off-chip problems.

A7, where raising the frequency from 0.5 to 1.2 GHz (a factor of 2.4×) results in an increase of performance 2.1×. The effect of frequency on power is sublinear for Xeon (a factor between 1.30–1.69×, depending on the number of cores) and superlinear for both A15 (3.12–3.20×) and A7 (3.66–3.71×). The net effect of the variations of time and power with the frequency is that, on Xeon, increasing the frequency slightly improves energy efficiency (race-to-idle) while on the ARM-based clusters it reduces it by a factor close to 50% for A15 and 64% for A7.

Finally, we observe some general differences between the CPU architectures: the power hungry 8-core Intel CPU produces significantly higher performance rates (and, therefore, shorter execution times) than the ARM clusters, at the expense of a much higher dissipation rate and lower energy efficiency. The differences between A15 and A7 follow a similar pattern, with higher performance in the former in exchange for higher power draft/lower energy efficiency.

3.2 Analysis of iso-metrics

We open the following study by noting that the questions Q1 (iso-performance) and Q2 (iso-power) formulated at the beginning of this section can be analyzed in a different number of configurations/scenarios. Here we select one that we find specially appealing. Concretely, for Q1 we consider the
Table 2: Evaluation of performance, power and energy on the target architectures using multi-threaded implementations of the CG method on the on-chip problems.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CPU</th>
<th>Freq. (GHz)</th>
<th>#cores</th>
<th>Time per iter. (ms)</th>
<th>Performance (GFLOPS)</th>
<th>Speed-up</th>
<th>Power (W)</th>
<th>Energy (GFLOPS/W)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Xeon</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>2.21</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>18.6</td>
<td>0.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>20.4</td>
<td>0.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>7.21</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>23.8</td>
<td>0.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>9.55</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>26.2</td>
<td>0.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>11.44</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>29.5</td>
<td>0.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A15</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>24.3</td>
<td>0.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>6.88</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>28.4</td>
<td>0.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>12.04</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>35.5</td>
<td>0.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>15.91</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>42.9</td>
<td>0.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>19.38</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>49.9</td>
<td>0.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A7</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>0.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>0.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>1.71</td>
<td>0.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.78</td>
<td>0.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>0.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>2.10</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>5.49</td>
<td>0.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A7</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>2.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>0.38</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>2.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>2.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>1.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>1.56</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2: Evaluation of iso-performance. Left: Number of A15 or A7 clusters o match the performance of a given number of Xeon cores at 2.0 GHz. Right: Comparison of power rates dissipated for configurations delivering the same performance.

The left-hand side plot in Figure 2 reports the results from the iso-performance study, exposing that, in order to attain the performance of 8 cores from Xeon (2.0 GHz), it is necessary to use about 9.1 A15 clusters (i.e., quad-cores) at 1.6 GHz or more than 50.2 A7 clusters at 0.5 GHz! (Note the different scales of the y-axis depending on the type of cluster). Now, we recognize that in such comparison we implicitly introduce a simplifying assumption in favour of the ARM CPUs. In particular, for the on-chip problem on Xeon, the dimension n=1,024. Now, in order to solve the same problem on a multi-socket ARM platform, data and operations have to be partitioned among and mapped to the clusters, incurring into overhead due to communication. For the CG method, we can expect that this additional cost comes mostly from the reduction vector operations (analogous to a synchronization). Also, there is a certain overhead due to operating with a smaller problem size per core.

The right-hand side plot in Figure 2 illustrates the ratio between the power rates dissipated by four configuration “pairs” that attain the same performance, with one of the components of these pairs being Xeon and the other A15 or A7, at either the lowest or the highest frequency. Following with the previous examples, 8 cores from Xeon (at 2.0 GHz) deliver the same performance as 9.1 clusters from A15 at 1.6 GHz, and they draw basically the same power rate (a ratio of 1.001 between the two). On the other hand, using 50.2 clusters of A7 at 0.5 GHz only requires a fraction of the power rate dissipated by Xeon, concretely 14%.

Figure 3 displays the results from the complementary study on iso-power. The plot in the right illustrates that with the power budget of 1–8 Xeon cores, it is possible to accommodate a moderate number of A15 clusters or a very large volume of A7 ones. The performance ratio between these ARM-based clusters with respect to the Xeon, in the left plot, reveals decreasing gains with the number of A15 clusters and a performance tie with respect to 4 or more Xeon cores. The ratio also decays for the A7 clusters, but in this case it is stabilized around a factor of 7.

Note that not all ARM-based configurations considered in the iso-performance and iso-power study have the same on-chip memory capacity (iso-capacity) as Xeon. In particular, given that the LLC for the latter is 20 MBytes, one need at least 10 A15 clusters and 40 A7 clusters to be in an iso-
We conclude this section by noting that a study of the en-
capacity scenario from the on-chip memory point of view.

Figure 3: Evaluation of iso-power. Left: Number of
A15 or A7 clusters that match the power dissipated
by a given number of Xeon cores at 2.0 GHz. Right:
Comparison of performance rates attained for con-
fugurations dissipating the same power rate.

4. ENERGY COST OF RELIABILITY

The experiments and analysis in this section aim to expose the potential impact on energy exerted by a technique that, like NTVC, trades off lower CPU (voltage and) frequency and, therefore, more reduced power consumption, for in-
creased hardware concurrency and failure rate. In order to
perform this study in a realistic scenario, we raise the fol-
lowing considerations:

- We employ a tuned variant of our multi-threaded im-
plemenizations of the CG method, equipped with a SS recov-
yery mechanism [7] to cope with silent data corruption intro-
duced by unreliable hardware. Following the
experiments in [7], the SS part is activated every 10 it-
erations of the CG method, and must be performed in
reliable mode. From the computational point of view,
the major difference between an SS iteration and a
“normal” CG one is that the former performs a total of
two GEMV instead of only one. However, these two
GEMV can be performed simultaneously, as they both
involve A. Therefore, for a memory-bound operation
like GEMV, we can consider that in practice, the two
types of iterations share the same computational cost.

- To accommodate a reliable+unreliable execution, we
consider an “ideal” multi-socket big.LITTLE SoC con-
sisting of a single quad-core A15 cluster plus several
A7 clusters. Here, A15 operates at the highest
frequency, is considered to be reliable, and applies the SS
mechanism. On the other hand, the A7 clusters op-
erate at the lowest frequency, represent the unreliable
hardware, and are used to compute the normal CG it-
erations. We will refer to this SoC as A15+nA7, and
we will use data corresponding to on-chip problems for
all the experimentation.

- The convergence rate of the CG iteration depends on
the condition number of matrix A [6]. Under certain
conditions, the convergence of the SS variant degrades
logarithmically with the error rate [7]. Silent data
corruption is assumed to occur during GEMV, produc-
ing one or more bit flips into any of its results, and
propagates from there to the rest of the computations.
The convergence rate of the SS variant also depends
mildly on whether the bit flips are bounded to the
sign/mantissa or can affect also the exponent.

Under these conditions, we next perform an experimental
analysis of the energy gains that such a reliable.unreliable
big.LITTLE SoC features, comparing it with a reliable single
quad-core A15 cluster operating at the highest frequency
under iso-performance and iso-power conditions.

We commence with the iso-performance study. The first
goal is to find how many A7 clusters must be involved dur-
ing the execution of the CG iterations so that, when com-
bined to build A15+nA7 with a single A15 cluster for the
execution of SS iterations (10% of the total), the perfor-
ance that is obtained matches that of a single A15 cluster
operating at the highest frequency (i.e., 2.1 GFLOPS; see
Table 2). A little arithmetic gives an answer of 5.51 A7
clusters, which we will round to 6 A7 clusters, at the price
of attaining a performance slightly above the reference ob-
jective (concretely, 2.28 GFLOPS). We can next compare
the power dissipation rate of the two cases: 5.49 W for A15
and 1.31 W for A15+nA7. Next, the GFLOPS rates for
each two configurations, combined with the cost per itera-
tion (2n2) and the number of iterations required for conver-
gence in the n=512 case, offers the execution times (slightly
smaller for A15+nA7, because of the rounding). A combi-
nation of time with the previous power rates thus offers the
ergy-to-solution (ETS), i.e., how much energy (in Joules)
is required to solve the same problem, on each architecture,
in absence of errors (though A15+nA7 applies the SS mech-
nanism nonetheless). Finally, in Figure 4, we compare the
ETS attained by original CG method, executed in a reliable
environment, against that of the SS variant, under unreliable
conditions, as the convergence degrades a certain percentage
of iterations due to errors. These results explicitly expose
the energy gains that can be expected from operating with
simpler low power cores, at low frequencies, for this par-
ticular application, with A15+nA7 outperforming A15 in
terms of ETS when the degradation incurs in up to 340% more
iterations.

We also perform an analogous study from the point of view
of iso-power; that is, we set the power dissipated by the A15
cluster, at the highest frequency, as the reference (5.49 W;
see Table 2), and then we derive how many A7 clusters can be
embedded into A15+nA7 within the same power bud-
get, with the answer being 38.85. This exercise will, eventually, produce the same ETS as the iso-performance analysis. This is to be expected, since any increase of #A7 clusters in A15+NA7 yields an proportional increase of its GFLOPS rate, or equivalently an inversely proportional decrease in execution time. Simultaneously, the power dissipation will be increased in the same proportion, yielding the same ETS.

To conclude this section, we focus on the iso-capacity problem. For this case-study, we require the aggregated LLC of the A7 clusters in A15+NA7 to be equal that of A15. Figure 1 shows that it is important that the data involved in the computation fit in the LLC so that the performance will scale with #cores. Now, A15 includes a 2MB LLC cache, which can hold a problem size of n=512 for CG. Therefore, four A7 clusters match the LLC capacity of a single A15 cluster (see Table 1). In conclusion, we can build an A15+NA7 system which can solve the same problem size as A15, with a throughput of 1.57 GFLOPS, i.e. 1.33× slower than A15, but dissipates 5.22× less power. The iso-performance, iso-power and iso-capacity results are summarized in Table 3.

5. CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE WORK

The requirement for energy-efficient systems on the road towards Exascale systems asks for more power-efficient hardware designs. In this paper, we turn to the embedded and mobile world and investigate whether platforms from that domain can be used to build systems for HPC applications with better energy-to-performance ratios. Concretely, we show that, in principle, it is possible to use power-efficient ARM clusters in order to match the performance of a high-end Intel Xeon processor while operating, in a worst-case scenario, at the same power budget. Conversely, it is also possible to use a rather large number of ARM clusters, fit into the power budget of one Intel Xeon processor, and attain higher performance.

As a second contribution, we experiment with a reliable CG execution in an A15 cluster versus an execution of a self-stabilizing variant of this method using a hybrid configuration of A15 +A7 to emulate an unreliable processor that operates close to NTV. From this study, we found that one can improve ETS even when the errors slow down the convergence of CG up to 340%.

As cornerstone of CG method is the matrix-vector product, we believe that the significance of this study carries over to many other numerical methods for scientific and engineering applications. On the other hand, the study has certain limitations. For example, we did not consider factors such as the cache hierarchy, interconnection networks, memory buses and bandwidth, which can be significant in large-scale designs and affect both performance and power consumption. We made this choice in order to be able to extract some first-order conclusions about the potential of employing NTVC, and we intend to investigate those matters in more depth in the future.

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6. REFERENCES


