Level-3 Cholesky Kernel Subroutine of a Fully Portable High Performance Minimal Storage Hybrid Format Cholesky Algorithm

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The TOMS paper "A Fully Portable High Performance Minimal Storage Hybrid Format Cholesky Algorithm" by Andersen, Gannels, Gustavson, Reid, and Waśniewski, used a level 3 Cholesky kernel subroutine instead of level 2 LAPACK routine POTF2. We discuss the merits of this approach and show that its performance over POTF2 is considerably improved on a variety of common platforms when POTF2 is solely restricted to calling POTF2.

Categories and Subject Descriptors: G.1.3 [Numerical Analysis]; Numerical Linear Algebra – Linear Systems (symmetric and Hermitian); G.4 [Mathematics of Computing]; Mathematical Software

General Terms: Algorithms, BLAS, Performance

Additional Key Words and Phrases: real symmetric matrices, complex Hermitian matrices, positive definite matrices, Cholesky factorization and solution, recursive algorithms, novel packed matrix data structures.

1. INTRODUCTION

We consider the Cholesky factorization of a symmetric positive definite matrix where the data has been stored using Block Packed Hybrid Format (BPHF) [Andersen et al. 2005; Gustavson et al. 2007]. We will examine the case where the matrix \( A \) is factored into \( LL^T \), where \( L \) is a lower triangular matrix. See also papers [Herrero and Navarro 2006; Herrero 2007]. We will show that the implementation of the LAPACK factorization routine POTRF can be structured to use matrix-matrix operations that take advantage of Level-3 BLAS kernels and thereby

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achieve higher performance [Gustavson 2003]. This implementation focuses on the LAPACK _POTF2 routine, which is based on using Level-2 BLAS operations. A form of register blocking is used for the Level-3 kernel routines of this paper [Gustavson et al. 2007].

The performance numbers presented in Section 3 bear out that the Level-3 based factorization kernels for Cholesky improves performance over the traditional Level-2 routines used by LAPACK. Put another way the use of square block (SB) format allows one to utilize Level-3 BLAS kernels. Hence, one can rewrite the LAPACK implementation which uses a standard row column format with Level-3 BLAS to using SB format with Level-3 BLAS kernels. This paper suggests a change of direction for LAPACK software in the multi-core era of computing. This is a main point of our paper.

Another main point of our paper is that the Level-3 kernels used here allows one the increase the block size _nb used by a traditional LAPACK routine such as _POTRF. Our performance numbers show that performance starts degrading at block size 64 for _POTF2. However performance continues to increase past block size 64 to 72 and 100 for our new Level-3 kernel routines. Such an increase in _nb will have a good effect on the overall performance of _POTRF as the Level-3 BLAS _TRSM, _SYRK and _GEMM will perform better for two reasons. The first is that Level-3 BLAS perform better when the k dimension of _GEMM is larger. Here k = _nb. The second reason is that Level-3 BLAS are called less frequently by a ratio of increased block size of the Level-3 kernel over the block size used for Level-2 kernel _POTF2. Calling Level-3 BLAS less frequently means less data copying will be done. It is beyond the scope of this short paper to conclusively demonstrate this assertion. However, an experimental verification of the assertion are the results given here and in [Andersen et al. 2005]. The recent paper by [Whaley 2008] is saying the same thing; he gives both experimental and qualitative results.

1.1 Introduction to BPHF

In designing the Level-3 BLAS, [Dongarra et al. 1990] the authors did not specify packed storage schemes for symmetric, Hermitian or triangular matrices. The reason given at the time was ‘such storage schemes do not seem to lend themselves to partitioning into blocks ... Also packed storage is required much less with large memory machines available today’. The BPHF algorithm demonstrates that pack-
do \( j = 1, l \)  
\[ A_{jj} = A_{jj} - L_{jk}^T L_{jk}^T \]  
! Call of Level-3 BLAS \_SYRK \n
end do 
end do 

\[ L_{jj}^T L_{jj}^T = A_{jj} \]  
! Call of LAPACK subroutine \_TRSM 

end do 

Fig. 2. \( LL^T \) Implementation for Lower Blocked Hybrid Format. The BLAS calls take the forms \_SYRK('U', 'T', \ldots), \_GEMM('T', 'U', \ldots), \_TRSM('L', 'U', 'T', \ldots).

\[ \begin{align*} 
\text{do } i & = 1, l \\
& \text{! } l = \lfloor n/nb \rfloor \\
a_{ii} & = a_{ii} - \sum_{k=1}^{l-1} (u_{ki}^T u_{ki}) \\
& \text{! Call of Level-3 BLAS \_SYRK} \\
\n& \text{! Call of LAPACK subroutine \_TRSM2} \\
& \text{! Single call of Level-3 BLAS \_GEMM} \\
& \text{! Single call of Level-3 BLAS \_TRSM} \\
& \text{end do} \\
\end{align*} \]

Fig. 3. LAPACK Cholesky Implementation for Upper Full Format. The BLAS calls take the forms \_SYRK('U', 'T', \ldots), \_TRSM2('U', \ldots), \_GEMM('T', 'U', \ldots), \_TRSM('L', 'U', 'T', \ldots).

ing is possible without loss of performance. While memories continue to get larger, the problems that are solved get larger too and there will always be an advantage in saving storage.

We pack the matrix by using a blocked hybrid format in which each block is held contiguously in memory [Gustavson 2003; Andersen et al. 2005]. This usually avoids the data copies, see [Gustavson et al. 2007], that are inevitable when Level-3 BLAS are applied to matrices held conventionally in rectangular arrays. Note, too, that many data copies may be needed for the same submatrix in the course of a Cholesky factorization [Gustavson 1997; Gustavson 2003; Gustavson et al. 2007].

We show an example of standard lower packed format in Fig. 1a, with blocks of size 3 superimposed. Fig. 1 shows where each matrix element is stored within the array that holds it. It is apparent that the blocks of Fig. 1a are not suitable for passing to the BLAS since the stride between elements of a row is not uniform. We therefore rearrange each trapezoidal block column so that it is stored by blocks with each block in row-major order, as illustrated in Fig. 1b. If the matrix order is \( n \) and the block size is \( nb \), this rearrangement may be performed efficiently in place with the aid of a buffer of size \( n \times nb \). Unless the order is an integer multiple of the block size, the final trapezoidal block column will have a diagonal block whose order is less than \( nb \). We further assume that the block size is chosen so that a block fits comfortably in a Level-1 or Level-2 cache.

We factorize the matrix \( A \) as defined in Fig. 1b using the algorithm defined in Fig. 2. This is standard blocked based algorithm similar to the LAPACK algorithm and it is also described more fully in [Andersen et al. 2005; Gustavson 2003].
do $i = 1, l$
\quad A_{ij} = A_{ij} - \sum_{k=1}^{i-1} (U_{ki}^T U_{kj})$
\quad $U_{ii}^T U_{ii} = A_{ii}$
\quad $U_{ij}^T U_{ij} = A_{ij}$
\quad do $j = i + 1, n$
\quad A_{ij} = A_{ij} - \sum_{k=1}^{i-1} (U_{ki}^T U_{kj})$
\quad $U_{ij}^T U_{ij} = A_{ij}$
\quad end do
end do

Fig. 4. Cholesky Kernel Implementation for Upper Full Format.

\begin{verbatim}
do k = 1, ii - 1
   aki = a(k,ii)
   akj = a(k,jj)
   t11 = t11 - aki*akj
   aki1 = a(k,ii+1)
   t21 = t21 - aki1*akj
   akj1 = a(k,jj+1)
   t12 = t12 - akj*akj1
   t22 = t22 - aki1*akj1
end do
\end{verbatim}

Fig. 5. Code corresponding to \texttt{GEMM}.

2. THE KERNEL ROUTINES

Each of the computation lines in Fig. 2 can be implemented by a single call to a Level-3 BLAS [Dongarra et al. 1990] or to LAPACK [Anderson et al. 1999] subroutine \texttt{POTRF}. However, we found it better to make a direct call to an equivalent ‘kernel’ routine that is fast because it has been specially written for matrices that are held in contiguous memory and are of a form and size that permits efficient use of a Level-1 or a Level-2 cache. Please compare Fig. 3 and 4; see also [Andersen et al. 2005; Gustavson 2003].

Another possibility is to use a block algorithm with a very small block size $kb$, designed to fit in registers. To avoid procedure call overheads for a very small computations, we replace all calls to BLAS by in-line code. See [Gunnels et al. 2007] for related remarks on this point. This means that it is not advantageous to perform a whole block row of \texttt{GEMM} updates at once followed by a whole block row of \texttt{TRSM} updates at once (see last two lines of the loop in Fig. 3). This leads to the algorithm summarized in Fig. 4.

We have found the tiny block size $kb = 2$ to be suitable. The key loop is the one that corresponds to \texttt{GEMM}. For this, the code of Fig. 5 is suitable. The block $A_{ij}$ is held in the four variables, $t11$, $t12$, $t21$, and $t22$. This alerts most compilers to place and hold our small register block into registers. We reference the underlying array directly, with $A_{ij}$ held from $a(\texttt{ii}, \texttt{jj})$. It may be seen that a total of 8 local variables are involved, which hopefully the compiler will arrange to be held in registers. The loop involves 4 memory accesses and 8 floating-point operations.

We also accumulate a block of size $1 \times 4$ in the inner \texttt{GEMM} loop of the unblocked code. Each execution of the loop involves the same number of floating-point operations (8) as for the $2 \times 2$ case, but requires 5 reals to be loaded from cache instead
of 4. We were not surprised to find that it ran slower on our platforms except for the AMD Dual Core Opteron computer. However, on Intel, ATLAS [Whaley et al. 2000] uses a $1 \times 4$ kernel with extreme unrolling with good effect. Thus we were somewhat surprised that $1 \times 4$ unrolling was not better on our Intel platforms.

On most of our processors, faster execution is possible by having an inner _GEMM_ loop that updates $A_{ij}$ and $A_{i,j+1}$. The variables $a_{kl}$ and $b_{kl}$ need only be loaded once, so we now have 6 memory accesses and 16 floating-point operations and need 14 local variables, hopefully in registers.

We found that this algorithm gave very good performance (see next section). Our implementation of this kernel is available in the TOMS Algorithm paper [Gustavson et al. 2007], but alternatives should be considered. Further, every computer hardware vendor is interested in having good and well-tuned software libraries.

We recommend that all the alternatives of the BPHF paper [Andersen et al. 2005] be compared. Our kernel routine is available if the user is not able to perform such a comparison procedure or has no time for it. Finally, note that LAPACK [Anderson et al. 1999], AtlasBLAS [Whaley et al. 2000], GotoBLAS [Goto and van de Geijn 2008a; Goto and van de Geijn 2008b], and the development of computer vendor software are ongoing activities. The implementation that is the slowest today might be the fastest tomorrow.

3. PERFORMANCE

We consider matrix orders of 40, 64, 72, and 100 since these orders will typically allow the computation to fit comfortably in Level-1 or Level-2 caches.

We do our calculations in DOUBLE PRECISION. The DOUBLE PRECISION names of the subroutines used in this section are DPOTRF, DPOTF2, DTRSM, DSYRK, and DGEMM.

Table 1 contain comparison numbers in Mflop/s. There are results for six computers inside the table: SUN UltraSPARC IV+, SGI - Intel Itanium2, IBM Power6, Intel Xeon, AMD Dual Core Opteron, and Intel Xeon Quad Core.

The table has thirteen columns. The first column shows the matrix order. The second column contains results for the vendor Cholesky routine DPOTRF and the third column has results for the Recursive Algorithm [Andersen et al. 2001]. The columns from four to thirteen contain results when the kernel replaces DPOTF2 and is called directly from inside of the routine DPOTRF and results of the Cholesky routine using one of the kernel routines directly to replace DPOTRF. There are five kernel routines:

1. The LAPACK routine DPOTF2: The fourth and fifth columns have results of using routine DPOTRF and routine DPOTF2 directly.

2. The $2 \times 2$ blocking kernel routine specialized for the operation FMA ($a \times b + c$) using seven floating point (fp) registers (this $2 \times 2$ blocking kernel routine replaces routine DPOTF2): The performance results are stored in the sixth and seventh columns respectively.

3. The $1 \times 4$ blocking kernel routine is optimized for the case $\text{mod}(n, 4) = 0$ where $n$ is the matrix order. It uses eight fp registers. This $1 \times 4$ blocking kernel routine replaces routine DPOTF2: these results are stored in the eighth and ninth columns respectively.
### Table 1. Performance in Mflop/s of the Kernel Cholesky Algorithm. Comparison between different computers and different versions of subroutines.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Newton: SUN UltraSPARC IV+, 1800 MHz, dual-core, Sunperf BLAS</th>
<th>Freke: SGI-Intel Itanium2, 1.5 GHz/6, SGI BLAS</th>
<th>Huge: IBM Power6, 4.7 GHz, DualCore, ESSEL BLAS</th>
<th>Battle: 2× Intel Xeon, CPU @ 1.6 GHz, Atlas BLAS</th>
<th>Nala: 2× AMD Dual Core Opteron 260 @ 1.8 GHz, Atlas BLAS</th>
<th>Zook: 4× Intel Xeon Quad Core E7340 @ 2.4 GHz, Atlas BLAS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mat. ord</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ven. lap</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rec. lap</td>
<td>759</td>
<td>1101</td>
<td>1183</td>
<td>1264</td>
<td>396</td>
<td>623</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dpoT2</td>
<td>490</td>
<td>738</td>
<td>978</td>
<td>1317</td>
<td>652</td>
<td>624</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2×2 w. fma 7 flops</td>
<td>1239</td>
<td>1563</td>
<td>1509</td>
<td>1210</td>
<td>437</td>
<td>631</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1×4</td>
<td>1257</td>
<td>1562</td>
<td>1626</td>
<td>1610</td>
<td>1207</td>
<td>1204</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2×4</td>
<td>1004</td>
<td>1291</td>
<td>1330</td>
<td>1364</td>
<td>1001</td>
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<tr>
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<td>1012</td>
<td>1265</td>
<td>1364</td>
<td>1511</td>
<td>1001</td>
<td>1022</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(4) The 2×4 blocking kernel routine uses fourteen fp registers. This 2×4 blocking kernel routine replaces routine DPOTF2: these results are stored in the tenth and eleventh columns respectively.

(5) The 2×2, see Fig. 5, blocking kernel routine. It is not specialized for the FMA operation and uses six fp registers. This 2×2 blocking kernel routine replaces DPOTF2: these performance results are stored in the twelfth and thirteenth columns respectively.

It can be seen that the kernel code with submatrix blocks of size 2×4, see column eleven, is remarkably successful for the Sun (Newton), SGI (Freke), IBM (Huge) and Quad Core Xeon (Zook) computers. For all these four platforms, it significantly outperforms the compiled LAPACK code and the recursive algorithm. It outperforms the vendor’s optimized codes except on the IBM (Huge) platform. The IBM vendor’s optimized codes except n = 40 are superior to it on this IBM platform.
The 2×2 kernel in column thirteen, not prepared for the FMA operation, is superior on the Intel Xeon (Battle) computer. The 1×4 kernel in column nine is superior on the Dual Core AMD (Nala) platform. All the superior results are colored in red.

These performance numbers reveal a significant innovation about the use of Level-3 kernels over use of Level-2 kernels. We demonstrate why in the the next two paragraphs.

Note that the results of columns ten and eleven are about the same for n equal 40 and 64 where the kernel routines performs slightly better. These two results show the cost of calling the kernel routine inside of DPOTRF versus just calling the kernel routine directly. Since LAPACK routine ILAENV sets nb = 64, DPOTRF, which calls ILAENV, sets nb = 64 and then just calls the kernel routine as n ≤ nb. However, for n = 72 and n = 100 DPOTRF via calling ILAENV still sets nb = 64 and then DPOTRF does a Level-3 blocked computation. For example, take nb = 100. With nb = 64 DPOTRF does a sub blocking of nb sizes equal to 64 and 36. Thus, DPOTRF calls Factor 64, DTRSM 64, 36, DSYRK 36, 64, Factor 36. Here Factor is the kernel routine call. On the other hand just calling the kernel routine directly results in the single computation of Factor 100. In columns ten and eleven performance is always increasing over doing the Level-3 blocked computation of DPOTRF. Loosely speaking this means the kernel routine is out performing DTRSM and DSYRK.

Now, take columns four and five. For n = 40 and n = 64 the results are again about equal for the reasons cited above. For n = 72 and n = 100 the results favor DPOTRF with Level-3 blocking except for the Zook platform. The opposite result is true for most of the columns six to thirteen where Level-3 kernels are being used.

An essential conclusion is that faster kernels really help to increase performance. See our Introduction where we argue that larger nb values increases the performance for DTRSM, DSYRK and DGEMM in two ways. Also, these results emphasize that LAPACK users should use ILAENV to set nb based on the speeds of Factorization, DTRSM, DSYRK and DGEMM. This information is part of the LAPACK User's guide but many users do not do this finer tuning.

For further details please see the sections 6 and 7.1 of [Andersen et al. 2005]. The code for the 1×4 kernel subroutine is available from the companion paper [Gustavson et al. 2007], but alternatives should be considered. The code for DPOTF2 is available from the LAPACK package [Anderson et al. 1999].

4. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS
The purpose of our paper is to promote the new Block Packed Data Format storage or variants thereof. These variants of BPHF algorithm use slightly more than n×(n+1)/2 matrix elements of computer memory and always work not slower than the full format data storage algorithms. The full format algorithms require storage of (n − 1)×n/2 additional matrix elements in the computer memory but never reference them.

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