

Getting Started with HPC Clusters

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Introductory remarks

- ▶ this set of slides is a result from the PeCoH project
 - Performance Conscious HPC –
 - ▶ <https://www.hhcc.uni-hamburg.de/pecoh/>
 - ▶ <https://wr.informatik.uni-hamburg.de/research/projects/pecoh/start>
- ▶ the slides were auto-generated from *markdown* sources in the framework of our *skill tree* text processing environment
 - ▶ <https://www.hhcc.uni-hamburg.de/files/hpccp-concept-paper-180201.pdf> (section 3.2)
- ▶ acknowledgement

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Overview

- ▶ Introduction
- ▶ System Architectures
- ▶ Hardware Architectures
- ▶ I/O Architectures
- ▶ Performance Frontiers
- ▶ Parallelization Overheads
- ▶ Domain Decomposition
- ▶ Job Scheduling
- ▶ Use of the Command Line Interface
- ▶ Using Shell Scripts
- ▶ Selecting the Software Environment
- ▶ Use of a Workload Manager
- ▶ Benchmarking

Getting Started with HPC Clusters (Basic)

Introduction

What is HPC?

- ▶ tautological definition
 - ▶ “You are doing HPC when you are using HPC hardware.”
- ▶ traditional definition
 - ▶ run *computer simulations in natural sciences and engineering* as fast as possible
 - ▶ performance metric: FLOPS or Flop/s
(double-precision floating-point operations per second)
- ▶ other performance metrics
 - ▶ time-to-solution
 - ▶ time to get a task done
 - ▶ search operations per second
 - ▶ ...
- ▶ common denominator
 - ▶ powerful hardware

Introduction

HPC software environment

- ▶ the operating system is GNU/Linux
- ▶ interactive access is limited
 - ▶ graphical user interfaces are unusual
 - ▶ the command line has to be used
- ▶ a *batch system* has to be used
 - ▶ batch jobs are being prepared and managed from the command line
 - ▶ batch jobs have to be formulated as shell scripts
 - ▶ job inputs must be prepared beforehand

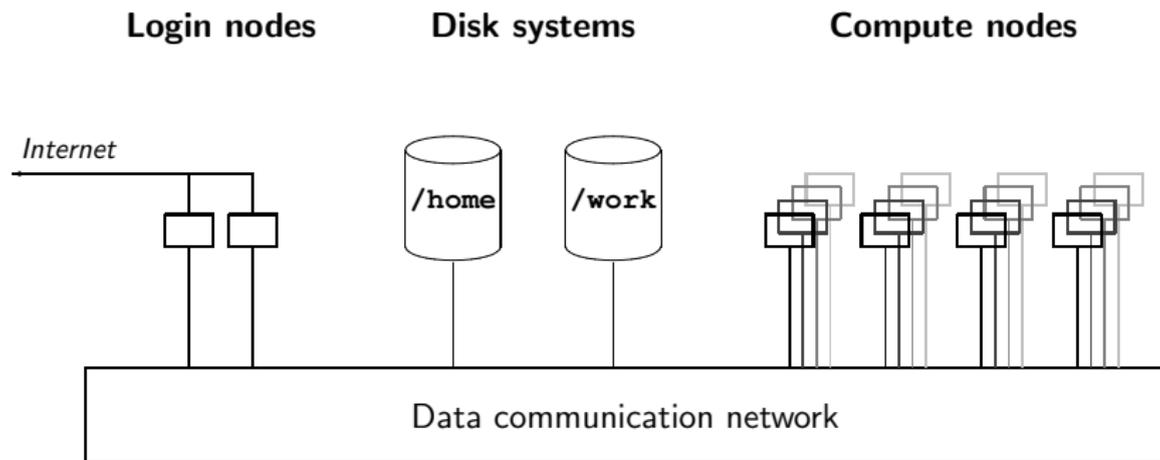
Introduction

Need for parallel processing

- ▶ *parallelization* is needed in order to significantly speed up computations
 - ▶ the basics of parallel computing must be understood
 - ▶ parallel performance needs to be checked: is the runtime (almost) n times shorter when n times as many compute cores are used?

System Architectures (Basic)

HPC cluster architecture



HPC cluster architecture

What the user sees

- ▶ login nodes
- ▶ compute nodes
- ▶ special nodes (e.g. for pre- and post-processing)
- ▶ disk systems
- ▶ data communication network

Nodes that work in the background

- ▶ admin/management nodes
- ▶ system services nodes
- ▶ disk nodes

Hardware Architectures (Basic)

Parallel computer architectures (1)

Components of a parallel computer

- ▶ compute units
- ▶ main memory
- ▶ high speed network

Compute units

- ▶ CPUs
- ▶ GPUs / GPGPUs
- ▶ FPGAs
- ▶ vector computing units

Parallel computer architectures (2)

Main memory architecture

Conceptually, the high speed network connects compute units and main memory.

- ▶ shared memory
 - ▶ a single computer
 - ▶ all compute units can access the whole memory
- ▶ distributed memory
 - ▶ multiple computers (e.g. a cluster)
 - ▶ data exchange via the network
- ▶ NUMA (Non-Uniform Memory Access)
 - ▶ logically shared memory (global address space)
 - ▶ physically distributed memory (memory speed depends on the *NUMA distance*)

I/O Architectures (Basic)

I/O architectures (1)

Local file systems

- ▶ accessible inside a node

Global file systems

- ▶ accessible from all nodes

Object stores

- ▶ are typically remote systems
- ▶ might only be accessible from the login nodes

I/O architectures (2)

Global file system examples

- ▶ distributed (network) file systems
 - ▶ no concurrent write to a single file
- ▶ parallel (cluster) file systems
 - ▶ concurrent writes to a single file
 - ▶ provide high I/O bandwidth
- ▶ file system with hierarchical storage management (HSM)
 - ▶ two (or more) kinds of media: small-fast and large-slow
 - ▶ if the slow medium is *tape*: number of files must be kept manageable

Performance Frontiers (Basic)

Floating Point Operations per Second (FLOPS)

FLOPS (also: Flop/s)

- ▶ popular way to measure computational power of HPC systems
- ▶ in the order of several PetaFLOPS (PFLOPS)
for the top HPC systems of 2017
 - ▶ peak performance of a powerful PC: ≈ 1 TeraFLOPS (TFLOPS)
- ▶ $1PFLOPS = 1000TFLOPS = 10^{15}FLOPS$
- ▶ also measurement for work performed by applications

TOP 500 list¹

- ▶ lists the most powerful machines ranked by FLOPS
- ▶ measured using the *Linpack* benchmark
- ▶ updated twice a year
- ▶ shows past and current trends in HPC

¹<https://www.top500.org/lists/>

Pitfalls of FLOPS

There are other critical resources than FLOPS

- ▶ memory latency & bandwidth
- ▶ network latency & bandwidth
- ▶ I/O performance

No clear correlation to real performance

Anything is possible:

- ▶ wasteful app with high FLOPS
- ▶ wasteful app with low FLOPS
- ▶ highly optimized app with high FLOPS
- ▶ highly optimized app with no FLOPS

FLOPS cannot tell the wasteful and the optimized apart!

Moore's Law

Moore's law² (1965, revised in 1975) states

- ▶ the complexity of integrated circuits³ doubles approximately every two years
 - ▶ peak performance of CPU cores for HPC systems doubles too
- ▶ true in the past
- ▶ this increase in performance gain is no longer achieved
 - ▶ no more improvements of *sequential* performance
 - ▶ CPU clock rates have settled around 2.5 GHz
- ▶ but many cores are used for processing a task in *parallel*
- ▶ parallel computing will become increasingly relevant

²https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Moore%27s_law

³https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Integrated_circuit

Speedup, efficiency, and scalability

Speedup⁴

- ▶ speedup
 - ▶ relation between sequential and parallel runtime of a program
 - ▶ $S_n = \frac{T_1}{T_n}$
- ▶ where
 - ▶ T_1 = runtime on a single processor
 - ▶ T_n = runtime on n processors
- ▶ ideal case (“linear scaling”)
 - ▶ $S_n = n$
- ▶ in practice linear speedup is not achievable due to overheads
 - ▶ synchronization
(e.g. for waiting for partial results)
 - ▶ communication
(e.g. for distributing partial tasks and collecting partial results)

⁴<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Speedup>

Speedup, efficiency, and scalability

Efficiency⁵

- ▶ $E_n = \frac{S_n}{n}$

Scalability

- ▶ goal: efficiency remains high when the number of processors is increased
- ▶ also called: *good scalability*⁶ of a parallel program

⁵<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Speedup>

⁶<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Scalability>

Speedup, efficiency, and scalability

Scalability in practice

- ▶ some problems can be parallelized trivially
 - ▶ e.g. rendering (independent) computer animation images⁷
 - ▶ nearly linear speedup also for a larger number of processors
- ▶ there are algorithms having a so-called sequential nature
 - ▶ e.g. alpha-beta game-tree search⁸
 - ▶ these have been notoriously difficult to parallelize
- ▶ typical problems in scientific computing⁹ are somewhere in-between these extremes

⁷https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Render_farm

⁸https://www.chessprogramming.org/Parallel_Search#ParallelAlphaBeta

⁹https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Computational_science

Speedup, efficiency, and scalability

In general, the challenge is to achieve

- ▶ good speedups
- ▶ good efficiencies

Important aspect

- ▶ use the best known sequential algorithm for comparisons in order to get fair speedup results

Amdahl's law

Amdahl's law¹⁰ (1967) states

- ▶ there is an upper limit for the maximum speedup of a parallel program
- ▶ which is determined by its sequential, i.e. non-parallelizable part
 - ▶ e.g. for initialization or I/O operations
 - ▶ more generally, for synchronization and communication overheads.

¹⁰https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Amdahl%27s_law

Amdahl's law

Example

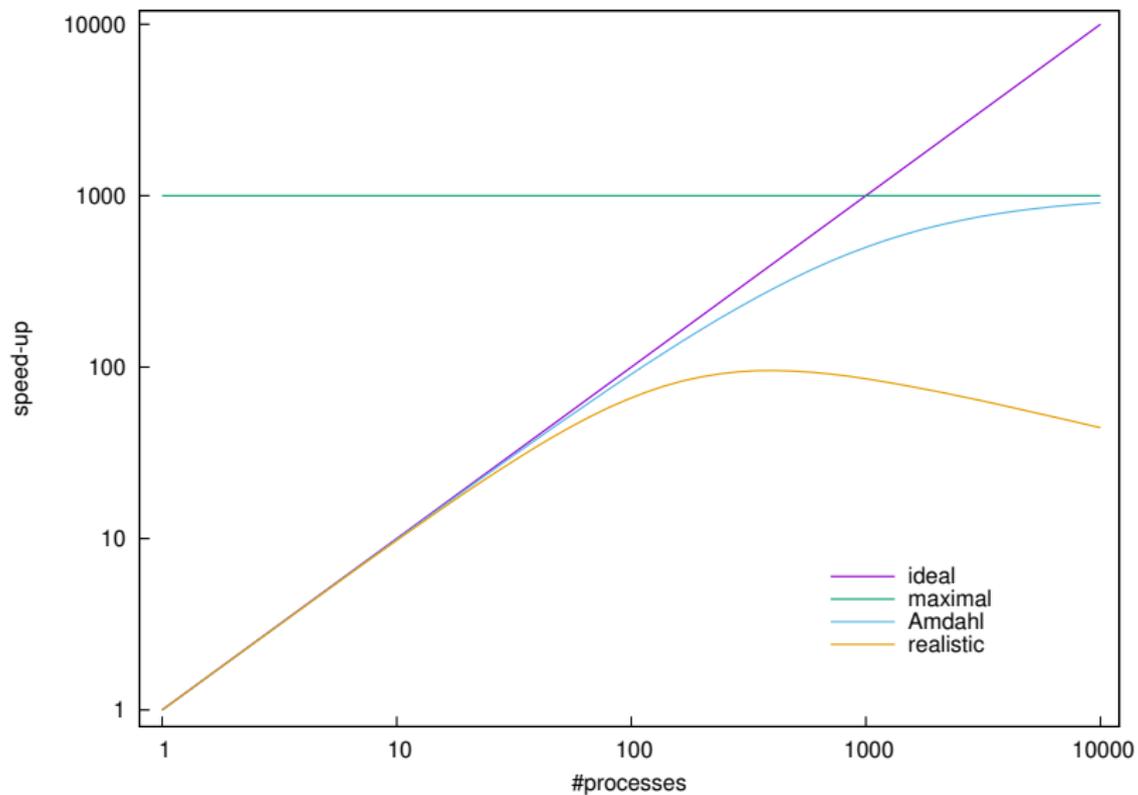
- ▶ sequential runtime: 20 hours on a single core
- ▶ non-parallelizable part: 10% (2 hours)
 - ▶ total runtime would be at least 2 hours
- ▶ parallelizable part: 90% (18 hours)
 - ▶ maximum speedup is limited by $\frac{20\text{hours}}{2\text{hours}} = 10$

Amdahl's law

Speedup calculation example

- ▶ cores used: 32
- ▶ runtime of parallelizable part $\geq \frac{18\text{hours}}{32} = 0.56$ hours
- ▶ total runtime ≥ 2 hours + 0.56 hours = 2.56 hours
- ▶ speedup $\leq S_{32} = \frac{20\text{hours}}{2.56\text{hours}} = 7.81$
- ▶ efficiency $\leq E_{32} = \frac{S_{32}}{32} = \frac{7.81}{32} = 24.41\%$.

Amdahl's law



Parallelization Overheads (Basic)

Parallelization overhead

Parallelization always introduces overhead

- ▶ trivial parallelism (many independent tasks)
 - ▶ task management
- ▶ application parallelism (decomposition of a single application)
 - ▶ data communication (between processes)
 - ▶ synchronization (of threads)
 - ▶ additional operations, e.g.
 - ▶ global reduction operations (algorithmic level)
 - ▶ address calculations (software level)

Parallelization overhead

Other sources of parallel inefficiency

- ▶ the problem itself
 - ▶ unbalanced load
- ▶ software
 - ▶ serial parts (cf. Amdahl's law)
- ▶ hardware
 - ▶ NUMA
 - ▶ *false sharing*

Domain Decomposition (Basic)

Domain decomposition

- ▶ a technique for parallelizing programs that perform simulations in engineering or natural sciences
- ▶ needed on distributed memory systems
- ▶ the model to be simulated is defined in a certain geometric region
- ▶ that region is decomposed into domains
 - ▶ each process works on one or more domains
- ▶ typically domains have *halo regions*
 - ▶ data from surfaces of neighbouring domains
 - ▶ i.e. data from neighbouring processes

Performance impact (1)

Domain size

- ▶ data communication overhead = update of halo regions

$$\propto \frac{\textit{surface}}{\textit{volume}}$$

- ▶ example: d -dimensional cube
 - ▶ linear extension: L
 - ▶ volume: L^d
 - ▶ surface: $2dL^{d-1}$ (size of halo region)
 - ▶ surface / volume = $2d/L$
- ▶ overhead becomes prohibitive if the volume becomes too small

Performance impact (2)

Domain shape

- ▶ example: rectangular domains
 - ▶ starting point: square
 - ▶ linear extension: L
 - ▶ volume: L^2
 - ▶ surface: $4L$
 - ▶ surface / volume: $4/L$
 - ▶ rectangles with the same volume
 - ▶ linear extensions: $Lx \times L/x$
 - ▶ volume: L^2
 - ▶ surface: $2L(x + 1/x)$
 - ▶ $x = 1 \Rightarrow$ surface / volume = $4/L$
 - ▶ $x = 2 \Rightarrow$ surface / volume = $5/L$
 - ▶ ...
 - ▶ $x = L \Rightarrow$ surface / volume = $2 + 2/L^2 \approx 2$
- ▶ long narrow domains are disadvantageous

Job Scheduling (Basic)

Motivation

HPC resources can be

- ▶ *shared* (e.g. login nodes, global file systems)
- ▶ *non-shared* (e.g. compute nodes)

Job scheduler

- ▶ manages resources
- ▶ goals
 - ▶ high resource utilization
 - ▶ fairness

Batch systems vs. time sharing systems (1)

Time sharing

- ▶ give users that are using the same computer at the same time the impression that they are using a dedicated computer
- ▶ is interesting for interactive use, e.g. on a login node

Batch systems vs. time sharing systems (2)

Batch systems

- ▶ non-interactive computer use
- ▶ processing of *batch jobs*
- ▶ batch job
 - ▶ a sequence of commands written to a file
- ▶ steps
 - ▶ job creation (edit job)
 - ▶ job submission (put job into a *batch queue*)
 - ▶ job monitoring (watch queue for start/completion)
 - ▶ job management (delete/cancel job)

Job scheduling

Scheduling

- ▶ process of selecting and allocating resources to jobs waiting for execution
- ▶ goals
 - ▶ maximize resource utilization
 - ▶ maximize throughput
 - ▶ minimize waiting time
 - ▶ minimize turnaround time (waiting time + execution time)

Workload managers

- ▶ implement job scheduling
- ▶ examples
 - ▶ SLURM
 - ▶ TORQUE

Scheduling algorithms

First-Come-First-Served (FCFS)

- ▶ jobs are executed in the order of submission
- ▶ simple algorithm: no optimization, poor performance
- ▶ basis for more sophisticated algorithms

Scheduling algorithms

Shortest-Job-First (SJF)

- ▶ uses execution time limits
- ▶ minimizes average waiting time
- ▶ *starvation* problem
 - ▶ if short jobs are constantly being submitted, a longer job might never be started

Scheduling algorithms

Priority

- ▶ affects the position of a job in the queue
- ▶ internal priorities (per batch job)
 - ▶ job size
 - ▶ number of nodes
 - ▶ time limit
 - ▶ memory limit
 - ▶ job aging
 - ▶ other resources, e.g. licenses
- ▶ external priorities (per user or group)
 - ▶ deadlines (e.g. for weather forecast)
 - ▶ amount of funds paid for the computer

Scheduling algorithms

Fair-share

- ▶ goal
 - ▶ achieve resource utilization that is proportionate to shares
- ▶ method
 - ▶ take job history into account

Scheduling algorithms

Backfilling

- ▶ fill nodes with jobs that
 - ▶ have lower priority than bigger jobs waiting for resources
 - ▶ fit into holes
(are completed before the bigger jobs are planned to start)

Use of the Command Line Interface (Basic)

Command line usage

The prompt

- ▶ the prompt is defined in the variable PS1
- ▶ try: `echo $PS1`

system	definition	example
Bourne shell	<code>PS1='\$ '</code>	<code>\$</code>
bash	<code>PS1='\s-\v\\$', '</code>	<code>bash-4.4\$</code>
CentOS	<code>PS1='[\u@\h \W]\$ '</code>	<code>[user1@host1 ~]\$</code>

- ▶ for the root user '#' is used instead of '\$'

Facilitate typing

File name completion

key	function
-----	----------

<tab>	command and filename completion
-------	---------------------------------

Command history

key	function
-----	----------

<up-arrow>	go to previous/older command(s)
------------	---------------------------------

<down-arrow>	go to newer command(s)
--------------	------------------------

Facilitate typing

Command line editing

key	function
<left-arrow>	go 1 character to the left
<right-arrow>	go 1 character to the right
<pos1>	go to beginning of line
<end>	go to end of line
<backspace>	delete character to the left of the cursor
<delete>	delete character below the cursor

Control keys

Unexpected behaviour might occur when pressing control keys

key	function
<ctrl-c>	interrupt
<ctrl-d>	end of input
<ctrl-l>	clear screen
<ctrl-s>	pause output
<ctrl-q>	resume output
<ctrl-z>	pause process (resume with fg)

Control-keys known from Windows don't work!

Types of commands

A command can be

- ▶ an executable program
- ▶ a shell builtin
- ▶ a shell function
- ▶ an alias

The type builtin tells which is which

type examples

```
$ type ls
ls is /usr/bin/ls
```

```
$ type pwd
pwd is a shell builtin
```

```
$ type module
module is a function
module ()
{
    eval `:/usr/share/Modules/$MODULE_VERSION/bin/modulecmd ba
}
```

```
$ type ll
ll is aliased to `ls -l'
```

Command line arguments

Arguments can be

- ▶ options
- ▶ filenames
- ▶ other parameters

Typical syntax of most commands

- ▶ *command [-options] [filenames]*

Command line syntax

Specifying options

description	example
<i>-letter</i>	ls -l -R
<i>-letters</i>	ls -lR
<i>-letter value</i>	ls -I '*.o'
<i>--keyword</i>	ls --recursive
<i>--keyword value</i>	ls --ignore '*.o'
<i>--keyword=value</i>	ls --ignore=*.o
<i>-keyword</i>	find . -print
<i>-keyword value</i>	find . -name lost.c -print
<i>keyword=value</i>	dd if=infile bs=512 count=1

Specifying filenames

Filenames can be specified with

- ▶ *absolute path*
 - ▶ absolute paths begin with /
 - ▶ all directories starting with the root directory are specified
- ▶ *relative path*
 - ▶ relative paths do *not* begin with /
 - ▶ specification relative to the *current working directory*

example	explanation
<code>file1</code>	file1 is in the current working directory
<code>./file1</code>	<code>.</code> stands for the current working directory
<code>../file2</code>	<code>..</code> stands for its parent directory
<code>../dir2/file2</code>	<code>../dir2</code> is a directory in the parent directory

Specifying filenames

Wildcards

character	matches
*	zero or more characters
?	a single character

Escape character \ (backslash)

characters	match
*	a literal *
\?	a literal ?

Getting help

Executable programs

- ▶ *man*-pages
 - ▶ if the name of the command is known
 - ▶ general format: `man command`
 - ▶ example: `man ls`
 - ▶ search for keywords in command descriptions
 - ▶ general format: `man -k keyword`
 - ▶ example: `man -k pdf`

Shell builtins

- ▶ `help` command
 - ▶ general format: `help command`
 - ▶ example: `help echo`

How executable programs are found

PATH

- ▶ programs are searched in directories specified in the PATH environment variable
- ▶ PATH is a colon separated list of directories

```
$ echo $PATH  
/usr/local/bin:/usr/bin:/bin
```

- ▶ the `which` command shows the full path to a command

```
$ which ls  
/usr/bin/ls
```

Pitfalls

- ▶ There is **no undo!**
 - ▶ files can be accidentally deleted
 - ▶ files can be accidentally overwritten

- ▶ in these examples file b is overwritten
 - ▶ `cp a b`
 - ▶ `mv a b`
 - ▶ `cat a > b`
 - ▶ `tar -cf b a`

Pitfalls

-i option

- ▶ some commands can ask for confirmation (-i option)
 - ▶ aliases might be predefined that include -i
 - ▶ this can be dangerous:
 - ▶ such aliases might *not* be predefined on a new system

Pitfalls

Starting programs/scripts that are in the working directory

- ▶ for security reasons `.` (the current working directory) is not included in `PATHs`
- ▶ scripts or programs that are in the current working directory must be started this way:
 - ▶ `./my.script`

Frequently used commands

Browsing the directory tree

command	description
pwd	print name of working directory
cd	change working directory
ls	list directory contents

Frequently used commands

Browsing the directory tree

command	description
cd	change to the <i>home</i> directory
cd ..	change to the parent directory
cd <i>directory</i>	change to the specified directory
cd -	change to the previous directory
ls	list contents of the <i>current</i> directory
ls ..	list contents of the parent directory
ls <i>directory</i>	list contents of the specified directory
ls ~	list contents of the home directory
ls -l [<i>directory</i>]	list contents in long format

Frequently used commands

Looking into text files

command	description
<code>less</code>	view file (forward-, backward movement, searching)
<code>cat</code>	print (concatenate) files
<code>head</code>	print the first lines of a file
<code>tail</code>	print the last lines of a file

Frequently used commands

Managing files and directories

command	description
<code>mkdir</code>	create (make) a directory
<code>rmdir</code>	remove (an empty) directory
<code>cp</code>	copy files
<code>cp -r</code>	copy recursively
<code>cp -rv</code>	copy recursively, print what is being copied
<code>mv</code>	move or rename files or directories
<code>rm</code>	remove/delete files
<code>rm -r</code>	remove files recursively
<code>rsync</code>	synchronize directories
<code>ln -s</code>	create a <i>symbolic link</i>

Frequently used commands

Searching and sorting

command	description
grep	search for strings in text files
find	search for files
sort	sort text files

- ▶ search for a string in all .txt files under the current working directory

```
find . -name '*.txt' -exec grep SearchText {} \;
```

Frequently used commands

Operations with text files

command	description
<code>wc</code>	word count - counts chars, words and lines
<code>diff</code>	compares 2 files
<code>diff3</code>	compares 3 files
<code>sed</code>	stream editor - text transformation

Frequently used commands

(Un)packing and (un)compressing

command	description
tar	(un)packing (archiving) files
gzip	(un)compressing files (extension .gz)
bzip2	(un)compressing files (extension .bz2)
xz	(un)compressing files (extension .xz)
unzip	extract files from .zip archive

Frequently used commands

Calculate and verify checksums

command	description
<code>cksum</code>	CRC checksums
<code>md5sum</code>	MD5 (128-bit) checksums
<code>sha256sum</code>	SHA256 (256-bit) checksums

Frequently used commands

Set execute permission

command	description
<code>chmod +x</code>	make a shell script executable

Frequently used commands

Check machine utilization

command	description
ps	snapshot report of current processes
top	real-time view of a running processes
free	print free and used memory
vmstat	report I/O (<i>virtual memory</i>) statistics
df	report disk space usage (<i>disk free</i>)
du	disk usage of directory hierarchies

- ▶ `-h` option
 - ▶ human-readable output format
 - ▶ available for: `free`, `df`, `du`

Frequently used commands

Remote access and file copy

command	description
ssh	secure shell - remote login
scp	secure copy - remote copy
rsync	remote (and local) synchronization

Frequently used commands

Miscellaneous commands

command	description
date	print current date and time
time	print resource usage of a command
kill	terminate a process by ID
killall	kill processes by name
echo	<i>print</i> command of the shell
exit	shell exit - logout

Environment variables

Environment variables are exported to all programs in a calling tree

action	command
definition	<code>export <i>name=value</i></code>
print value	<code>echo \$<i>name</i></code>
print all values	<code>export</code>
print environment	<code>printenv</code>

Environment variables

Frequently used environment variables

variable	meaning
HOME	home directory (shortcut: ~)
LESS	options for less (-i: case insensitive search)
LOGNAME	username (login name)
PATH	command search paths
PWD	current working directory
TMPDIR	directory for temporary (scratch) files
USER	username

Environment variables

Language settings

variable	comment
LANG	language and character encoding, e.g. en_US.UTF-8
LC_*	detailed language settings, cf. man locale

I/O redirection and pipes

Output from any command can easily be saved in a file

```
ls > listing1
```

Input can be read from a file (instead of being typed)

```
cat < input2
```

Pipes

- ▶ reading long output page by page

```
command-producing-long-output | less
```

- ▶ filter output for error messages

```
command | grep error-message-pattern
```

Remote login

Secure Shell clients

- ▶ Linux and MacOS
 - ▶ OpenSSH
- ▶ Windows
 - ▶ OpenSSH
 - ▶ *putty*
 - ▶ *MobaXterm*

Remote login

Public key authentication

- ▶ an alternative to password authentication
 - ▶ it is virtually impossible to guess a key
 - ▶ entering the password cannot be observed
- ▶ should be protected with a **passphrase**
- ▶ can be generated with `ssh-keygen`:
 - ▶ `ssh-keygen -t rsa -b 4096`
- ▶ the *public* key `~/.ssh/id_rsa.pub`
 - ▶ has to be appended to `~/.ssh/authorized_keys` on the remote computer
 - ▶ or has too be sent/uploaded to the computing center
- ▶ `ssh-add` and `ssh-agent` can be used
 - ▶ to unlock the *private* keys
 - ▶ the passphrase has to be entered only once per local session

Remote login

Agent forwarding

- ▶ is a technique to connect to a third computer
- ▶ `ssh-agent` is needed

Example

- ▶ log into `hpc_1`

```
your_computer$ ssh -A user_1@hpc_1.example.com
```

- ▶ from there, log into `hpc_2`

```
hpc_1$ ssh user_2@hpc_2.example.com
```

- ▶ copy a file from `hpc_1` to `hpc_2`

```
hpc_1$ scp example.c user_2@hpc_2.example.com:
```

Text editors

- ▶ on an HPC cluster one has to work with text files:
 - ▶ batch scripts
 - ▶ input files

- ▶ on the cluster itself
 - ▶ *terminal mode* is typical
(or *text mode* in contrast to a *graphical mode*)
 - ▶ text editors are available in text mode

Text editors

Classic Unix/Linux text editors

- ▶ `vi`, `vim`
 - ▶ is automatically installed on all Linux systems
- ▶ GNU `emacs`
 - ▶ is probably installed on your HPC cluster as well

Small, more intuitive editor

- ▶ `nano`
 - ▶ is installed on many systems

Text editors

Least thing to know: key strokes to quit

editor	keys	action
vi	<esc>:q!	quit without saving
vi	<esc>ZZ	save and quit
emacs	<cntl-x><cntl-c>	quit
nano	<cntl-x>	quit

emacs and nano ask how to proceed with unsaved files

Text editors

Using a graphical interface

- ▶ vim and emacs have graphical interfaces
- ▶ other graphical editors might be installed:
 - ▶ gedit
 - ▶ kate
- ▶ a graphical editor requires *X11 forwarding*
 - ▶ is switched on with `ssh -X`
 - ▶ can be slow
- ▶ an editor on the local computer can be used
 - ▶ copy files back and forth
 - ▶ work transparently on the remote system after mounting its file system with *SSHFS*

Using Shell Scripts (Basic)

Using shell scripts

What is a shell script?

- ▶ a sequence of commands that is written into a file

```
cd /work/user1/project1  
my-simulation-program input1
```

Using shell scripts

More complicated scripts use

- ▶ variables
 - ▶ `x=foo`
 - ▶ `y=$foo`
- ▶ arguments from the command line
(unusual for batch scripts)
 - ▶ `$1 $2 ...`
- ▶ execution control
 - ▶ `if`
 - ▶ `case`
 - ▶ `for`

Scripting for batch jobs

Manipulating filenames (character string processing)

action	command	result
initialization	a=foo	a=foo
	b=bar	b=bar
concatenation	c=\$a/\$b.c	c=foo/bar.c
	d=\${a}_\${b}.c	d=foo_bar.c
get directory	dir=\$(dirname \$c)	dir=foo
get filename	file=\$(basename \$c)	file=bar.c
remove suffix	name=\$(basename \$c .c)	name=bar
	name=\${file%.c}	name=bar
remove prefix	ext=\${file##*.}	ext=c

Scripting for batch jobs

Recommendation: Never use white space in filenames!

- ▶ is error prone
- ▶ quoting becomes necessary: `dir=$(dirname "$c")`

Scripting for batch jobs

Temporary files

- ▶ choice of the directory/file system
 - ▶ tmp might be too small
 - ▶ \$TMPDIR is a candidate
 - ▶ consider *local* vs. *global* file systems
 - ▶ assume that /scratch is suited and set
 - ▶ top_tmpdir=/scratch
- ▶ unique filenames
 - ▶ mktemp generates names from templates
 - ▶ a sequence of Xs is replaced by a unique value
 - ▶ a directory with that name is created
 - ▶ include \$USER for easy identification
 - ▶ my_tmpdir=\$(mktemp -d "\$top_tmpdir/\$USER.XXXXXXXXXX")

Scripting for batch jobs

Temporary files

- ▶ automatic deletion
 - ▶ `trap "rm -rf $my_tmpdir" EXIT`
- ▶ now the temporary directory is ready
 - ▶ `cd $my_tmpdir`
 - ▶ *do some work*

Scripting for batch jobs

Tracing command execution

- ▶ `set -v`
 - ▶ print commands as they appear literally in the script
- ▶ `set -x`
 - ▶ commands are printed as they are being executed (i.e. with variables expanded)

Scripting for batch jobs

Error handling

- ▶ `set -e`
 - ▶ exit script immediately if a command ends with an error (non-zero) status
 - ▶ handling exceptions: *or* operator `||`

```
command_that_could_go_wrong || true
```

- ▶ `set -u`
 - ▶ exit script exit if an undefined variable is used
 - ▶ handling exceptions:

```
if [[ ${variable_that_might_not_be_set-} = test_value ]]
then
    ...
fi
```

Scripting for batch jobs

Trivial parallelization

- ▶ starting more than one executable
- ▶ example: running on 2 graphics cards:

```
CUDA_VISIBLE_DEVICES=0 cudaBinary1 input1 &  
CUDA_VISIBLE_DEVICES=1 cudaBinary2 input2 &
```

```
wait
```

- ▶ more powerful tool: *GNU Parallel*¹
 - ▶ can start many tasks
 - ▶ can process a task queue

¹<https://www.gnu.org/software/parallel>

Selecting the Software Environment (Basic)

Environment Modules

Introduction

- ▶ a tool for managing environment variables of the shell
- ▶ `module load` command
 - ▶ extends variables containing search paths (e.g. `PATH`)
- ▶ `module unload` command
 - ▶ inverse operation
 - ▶ removes entries from search paths.
- ▶ software can be provided in a modular way

Environment Modules

Initialization

- ▶ the `module` command is a *shell function*
- ▶ needs to be defined in every instance of the shell
 - ▶ interactive environments
 - ▶ is typically handled automatically
 - ▶ batch environments
 - ▶ explicit initialization might be necessary
(see documentation of your cluster)

Environment Modules

Naming

- ▶ format of Module names
 - ▶ program
 - ▶ program/version
- ▶ default version
 - ▶ might be explicitly defined in your Module system
 - ▶ otherwise, Module guesses the latest version
- ▶ recommendation
 - ▶ *always* specify a version

Environment Modules

Dependences and conflicts

- ▶ dependences
 - ▶ enforces that other Modules must be loaded first
- ▶ conflicts
 - ▶ enforces that other Modules must be unloaded first

Environment Modules

Caveats

- ▶ *Modules* suggest modularity
 - ▶ true for application Modules
 - ▶ no longer true for compiler and library modules
- ▶ solutions for compilers and libraries
 - ▶ `version` is augmented by additional information
 - ▶ a toolchain is built
 - ▶ a compiler has to be loaded first
 - ▶ then MPI Modules becomes visible
 - ▶ then libraries and software becomes visible

Environment Modules

Important commands

- ▶ `module list`
- ▶ `module avail`
- ▶ `module load program[/version]`
- ▶ `module unload program`
- ▶ `module switch program program/version`
- ▶ `module [un]use [--append] path`

Environment Modules

Self-documentation

- ▶ `module display program/version`
- ▶ `module whatis [program/version]`
- ▶ `module help program/version`
- ▶ `module help` (help on module itself)

See also

- ▶ `man module`

Use of a Workload Manager (Basic)

Workload managers

Tasks

- ▶ job control
 - ▶ submission
 - ▶ monitoring
 - ▶ cancellation
- ▶ scheduling and resource management
 - ▶ select waiting jobs for execution
 - ▶ allocate and monitor resources
- ▶ accounting
 - ▶ record resource usage

Workload managers

Popular workload managers

- ▶ SLURM
 - ▶ *Simple Linux Utility for Resource Management*
 - ▶ includes scheduling algorithms
- ▶ TORQUE
 - ▶ *Terascale Open-source Resource and QUEue Manager*
 - ▶ needs a scheduler in addition (e.g. Maui or Moab)

Workload managers

TORQUE

- ▶ PBS (Portable Batch System) history
 - ▶ TORQUE is an open source implementation of PBS
 - ▶ other PBS implementations: OpenPBS, PBS Pro(fessional)
 - ▶ PBS started in 1991
- ▶ Command syntax
 - ▶ command names begin with a q
 - ▶ qsub
 - ▶ qstat
 - ▶ qdel

Workload managers

SLURM

- ▶ has gained much popularity in the recent past
- ▶ is open source
- ▶ commercial support since 2010
- ▶ command syntax
 - ▶ command names begin with an **s**
 - ▶ `sbatch`
 - ▶ `squeue`
 - ▶ `scancel`

Workload manager commands

Job submission

SLURM

PBS/TORQUE

`sbatch [options] [filename]` `qsub [options] [filename]`

- ▶ options specify
 - ▶ *resource requirements*
 - ▶ other job properties
- ▶ *filename*
 - ▶ name of the batch script
 - ▶ if not given, script is read from *stdin*
- ▶ results
 - ▶ job appears in the job queue
 - ▶ a *job ID* is assigned

Workload managers

Resource specifications

	SLURM	PBS/TORQUE
number of nodes	<code>--nodes=<i>n</i></code>	<code>-l nodes=<i>n</i></code>
processes per node	<code>--tasks-per-node=<i>n</i></code>	<code>-l nodes=<i>n</i>:ppn=<i>p</i></code>
time limit	<code>--time=<i>hh:mm:ss</i></code> <code>--time=<i>minutes</i></code>	<code>-l walltime=<i>hh:mm:ss</i></code> <code>-l walltime=<i>seconds</i></code>
queue/partition	<code>--partition=<i>part</i></code>	<code>-Q <i>queue</i></code>

Workload managers

Job name and log file names

	SLURM	PBS/TORQUE
job name	--job-name= <i>jobname</i>	-N <i>jobname</i>
<i>stdout</i> file	--output= <i>filename</i>	-o <i>filename</i>
<i>stdin</i> file	--error= <i>filename</i>	-e <i>filename</i>
default names	slurm- <i>jobID</i> .out	<i>jobname.ojobID</i> <i>jobname.ejobID</i>
use <i>jobID</i>	--output= <i>file.o%j</i>	
join <i>stderr</i> into <i>stdout</i>	specify --output but not --error	-j oe

Workload managers

E-mail notification

	SLURM	PBS/TORQUE
e-mail address	<code>--mail-user=<i>address</i></code>	<code>-M <i>address</i></code>
notifications	<code>--mail-type=BEGIN</code>	<code>-m b</code>
	<code>--mail-type=END</code>	<code>-m e</code>
	<code>--mail-type=FAIL</code>	<code>-m a</code>
	<code>--mail-type=ALL</code>	<code>-m abe</code>

Workload managers

Structure of batch scripts

- ▶ options can be specified on the command line or at the beginning of batch scripts

SLURM	PBS/TORQUE
<code>#!/bin/bash</code>	<code>#!/bin/bash</code>
<code>#SBATCH --job-name=job1</code>	<code>#PBS -N job1</code>
<code>#SBATCH --nodes=2</code>	<code>#PBS -l nodes=2</code>
<code>#SBATCH --time=00:10:00</code>	<code>#PBS -l walltime=00:10:00</code>
<i>command</i>	<i>command</i>
...	...

Workload managers

Environment variables that can be used in batch scripts

	SLURM	PBS/TORQUE
job ID	<code>\$SLURM_JOB_ID</code>	<code>\$PBS_JOBID</code>
job name	<code>\$SLURM_JOB_NAME</code>	<code>\$PBS_JOBNAME</code>
nodes allocated	<code>\$SLURM_JOB_NODELIST</code> (a list)	<code>\$PBS_NODEFILE</code> (a filename)
working directory at submit time	<code>\$SLURM_SUBMIT_DIR</code>	<code>\$PBS_O_WORKDIR</code>
default working directory	<code>\$SLURM_SUBMIT_DIR</code>	<code>\$HOME</code>

Workload managers

Environment variables

- ▶ SLURM provides environment variables that contain resource specifications

	SLURM
number of nodes	<code>\$SLURM_JOB_NUM_NODES</code>
processes per node	<code>\$SLURM_TASKS_PER_NODE</code>
CPU(s (threads) per process (value from <code>--cpus-per-task</code>)	<code>\$SLURM_CPUS_PER_TASK</code>

Workload manager commands

Show job queue / job status information / job ID

	SLURM	PBS/TORQUE
all jobs	queue	qstat
own jobs	queue -u \$USER	qstat -u \$USER
single job	queue -j <i>jobID</i>	qstat <i>jobID</i>

Workload manager commands

Job status indicators

	SLURM	PBS/TORQUE
pending/queued	P	Q
running	R	R
completed	CD	C
failed	F	
cancelled	CA	

Workload manager commands

Cancel a waiting job / abort a running job

SLURM

PBS/TORQUE

`scancel jobID`

`qdel jobID`

Workload managers

Starting interactive sessions/batch jobs

SLURM

PBS/TORQUE

`salloc [resources]`

`qsub -I [resources]`

Workload managers

SLURM command `srun`

- ▶ in batch jobs
 - ▶ launches parallel/MPI program
 - ▶ replaces `mpirun/mpiexec`
- ▶ in interactive batch jobs (after `salloc`)
 - ▶ is necessary to start *any* program on the allocated node(s)
- ▶ in a login session
 - ▶ runs a (parallel) program under control of the batch system

Workload managers

Other SLURM commands

- ▶ `sinfo`
 - ▶ shows information on nodes and partitions
- ▶ `sacct -j jobID`
 - ▶ shows accounting information

Benchmarking (Basic)

Benchmarking

Definition

- ▶ determination of hard- or software performance by controlled experiments
- ▶ *benchmark* can refer to
 - ▶ a controlled experiment with a single program
 - ▶ a set of programs used for benchmarking

Motivation

- ▶ understanding performance of parallel applications
 - ▶ is there a speedup?
 - ▶ is the speedup reasonably large?

Benchmarking hardware

Linpack and the TOP500 list

- ▶ TOP500
 - ▶ <https://www.top500.org>
 - ▶ list of the 500 fastest computers in the world
- ▶ *Linpack* benchmark
 - ▶ <http://www.netlib.org/benchmark/hpl>
 - ▶ determines the ranking in the TOP500 list

Benchmarking parallel software

Questions that should always be answered

- ▶ What is the scalability of my program?
- ▶ How many cluster nodes can be maximally used, before the efficiency drops to values which are unacceptable?
- ▶ How does the same program perform in different cluster environments?

Benchmarking

General tuning possibilities

- ▶ use of hyper-threads
- ▶ mapping of processes to nodes
- ▶ pinning of processes/threads to CPUs/cores
- ▶ choice of compilers
 - ▶ e.g. GNU, Intel, PGI
- ▶ choice of optimization levels
 - ▶ -O2, -O3, ...
 - ▶ PGO (Profile Guided Optimization)
 - ▶ IPA/IPO (Inter-Procedural Analyzer/Optimizer)
- ▶ choice of libraries
 - ▶ BLAS (Basic Linear Algebra Subprograms)
 - ▶ FFT (Fast Fourier Transform)

Benchmarking

General questions

- ▶ Are the best known algorithms employed?
- ▶ Does observed performance persist if the environment changes?

Benchmarking

Benchmarking parallel programs

- ▶ MPI programs
 - ▶ measure runtimes depending on the number of nodes
- ▶ OpenMP programs
 - ▶ measure runtimes depending on the number of cores

Benchmarking

Parallel speedup

$$S = \frac{\text{sequential runtime}}{\text{parallel runtime}}$$

Parallel efficiency

$$E = \frac{S}{\text{number of nodes or cores}}$$

Benchmarking

Example: calculation of π

version	runtime [s]	cluster nodes	total cores	speedup	efficiency
OpenMP	2800.0		1	1.00	100%
OpenMP	1414.1		2	1.98	99%
OpenMP	707.1		4	3.96	99%
OpenMP	360.8		8	7.76	97%
MPI	180.5	1	16	1.00	100%
MPI	92.1	2	32	1.96	98%
MPI	47.5	4	64	3.80	95%
MPI	25.1	8	128	7.19	90%

Benchmarking

Runtime measurement

- ▶ shell built-in `time` command
 - ▶ can be used for any runtime measurement

```
time mpirun ... my-mpi-app
```

- ▶ `/usr/bin/time/`
 - ▶ reports usage of other resources (memory, I/O) as well
 - ▶ interesting for single-process programs (including OpenMP)

```
export OMP_NUM_THREADS=...  
/usr/bin/time my-openmp-app
```

Benchmarking

Scaling

- ▶ good scalability
 - ▶ efficiency remains high when the number of processors is increased

Weak scaling

- ▶ problem size \propto number of cores
 - ▶ “How big may the problems be that I can solve?”

Strong scaling

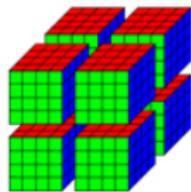
- ▶ problem size \equiv constant
 - ▶ “How fast can I solve a problem of a given size?”

Benchmarking

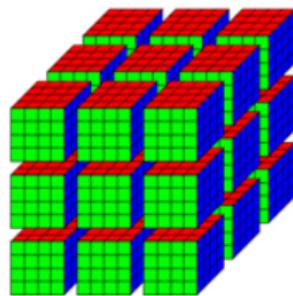
Weak scaling



1 process



$2^3 = 8$ processes



$3^3 = 27$ processes

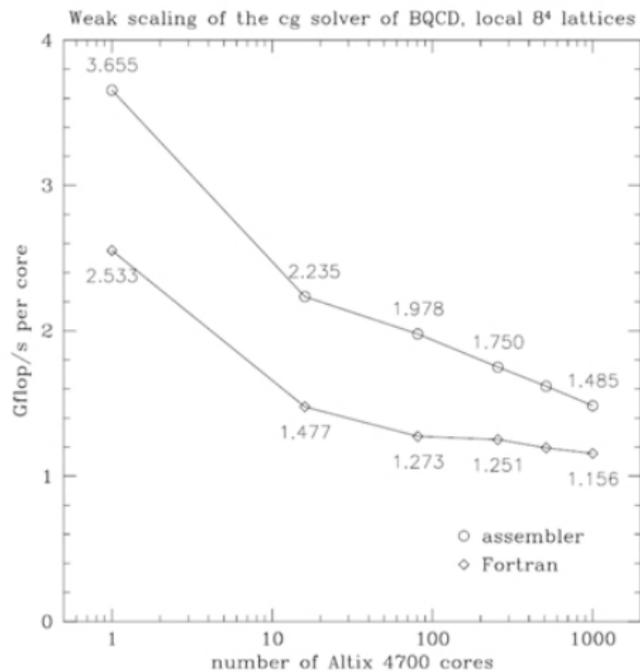
...

Benchmarking

Typical weak scaling behaviour

- ▶ communication overhead of boundary exchange increases at low process counts
- ▶ sustained performance per process is roughly constant at high process counts

Weak scaling plot example



Benchmarking

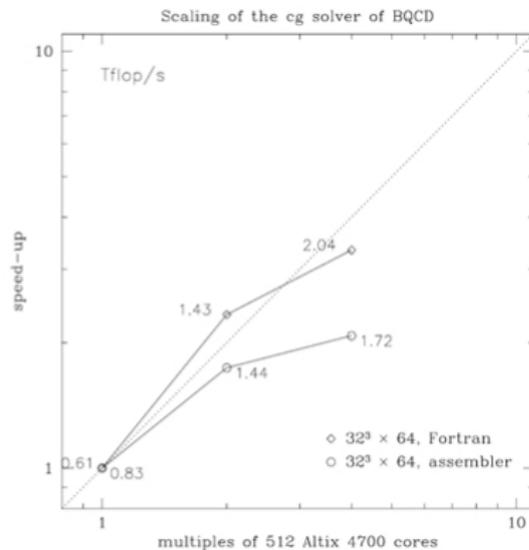
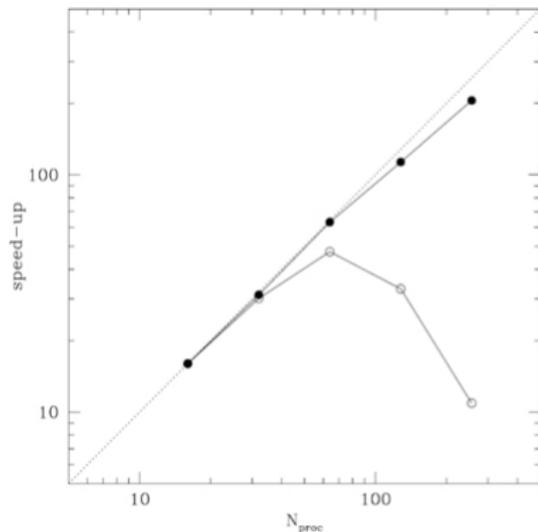
Typical strong scaling behaviour

- ▶ domain size per process decreases
- ▶ communication overhead increases
- ▶ sustained performance per process decreases

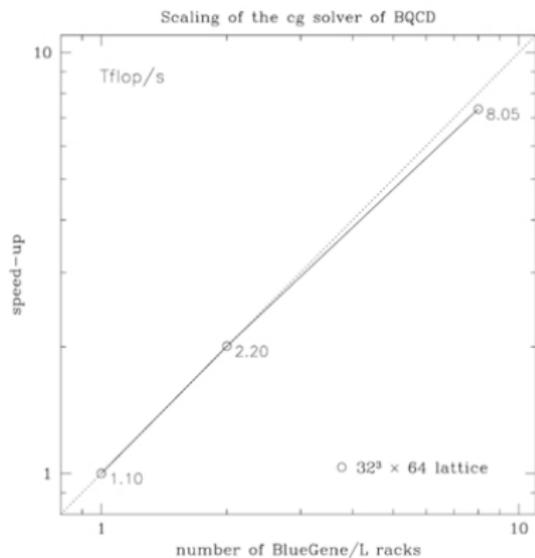
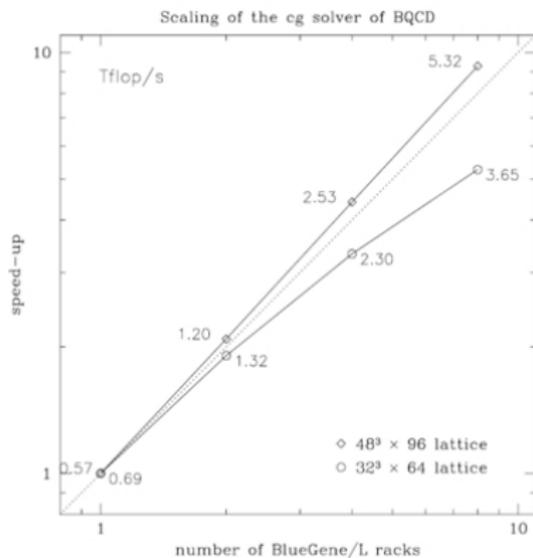
Goal

- ▶ determination of an optimal number of processes to use

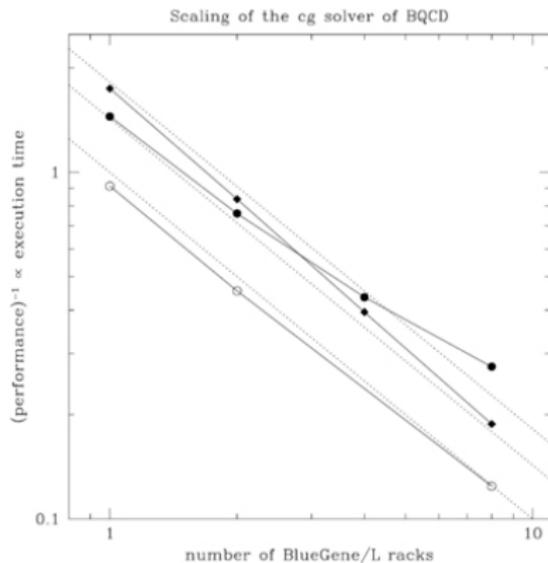
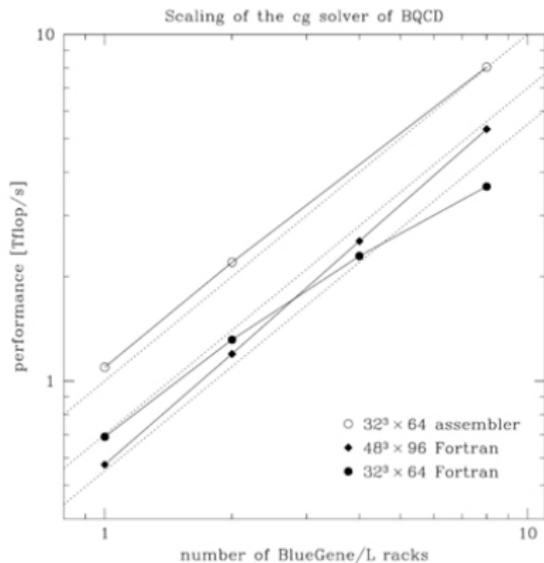
Strong scaling plot examples (1)



Strong scaling plot examples (2)



Strong scaling plot examples (3)



Benchmarking / tuning

Profile Guided Optimization (PGO)

- ▶ step 1
 - ▶ run the instrumented (and therefore relatively slow) version of the binary with representative input data
 - ▶ collect information about which branches are typically taken and other typical program behavior
- ▶ step 2
 - ▶ recompile with this information to build a faster program

Benchmarking / tuning

I/O

- ▶ choose an adequate file system
 - ▶ global file system with HDDs
 - ▶ local file systems with SSDs

Benchmarking pitfalls

Break-even considerations

- ▶ consider efforts
 - ▶ HPC resources explicitly used for that purpose
 - ▶ human time

Benchmarking pitfalls

Definition of speedup S

$$S = \frac{T_1}{T_{parallel}}$$

Conventional speedup

- ▶ use the same version of an algorithm (the same program) to measure T_1 and $T_{parallel}$

Fair speedup

- ▶ use best known sequential algorithm to measure T_1

Benchmarking pitfalls

Features of current CPU architectures

- ▶ varying clock rates and *turbo* modes
 - ▶ for benchmarking CPUs should be in “thermal equilibrium”
- ▶ hardware threads / hyper-threads
 - ▶ counted as CPUs by the operation system
 - ▶ it might not be clear what counts as a core

Benchmarking pitfalls

Shared resources

- ▶ other user's activities can influence runtime
 - ▶ I/O on global file systems
 - ▶ program execution on shared nodes

Benchmarking pitfalls

Reproducibility

- ▶ there are parallel algorithms which may produce non deterministic results and runtimes, due to inherent effects of concurrency
 - ▶ some parallel tree-search algorithms
 - ▶ event-driven simulations