cIMAGMA: High Performance Dense Linear Algebra with OpenCL

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ABSTRACT
This paper presents the design and implementation of several fundamental dense linear algebra (DLA) algorithms in OpenCL. In particular, these are linear system solvers and eigenvalue problem solvers. Further, we give an overview of the cIMAGMA library, an open source, high performance OpenCL library that incorporates various optimizations, and in general provides the DLA functionality of the popular LAPACK library on heterogeneous architectures. The LAPACK-compliance and use of OpenCL simplify the use of cIMAGMA in applications, while providing them with portable performance. High performance is obtained through the use of the high-performance OpenCL BLAS, hardware- and OpenCL-specific tuning, and a hybridization methodology, where we split the algorithm into computational tasks of various granularities. Execution of those tasks is efficiently scheduled over the heterogeneous hardware components by minimizing data movements and mapping algorithmic requirements to the architectural strengths of the various heterogeneous hardware components.

Categories and Subject Descriptors
G.4 [Mathematical software]: Algorithm design and analysis, Efficiency, Parallel implementations, Portability; G.1.3 [Numerical analysis]: Numerical linear algebra—linear systems, matrix inversion, eigenvalues and eigenvectors

1. INTRODUCTION
Solving linear systems of equations and eigenvalue problems is fundamental to scientific computing. The popular LAPACK library [5], and in particular its vendor optimized implementations like Intel’s MKL [13] or AMD’s ACML [3], have been the libraries of choice to provide these solvers for dense matrices on shared memory systems. This paper considers a redesign of the LAPACK algorithms to facilitate their OpenCL implementation, and to add efficient support for heterogeneous systems of multicore processors with GPU accelerators and coprocessors. This is not the first time that DLA libraries have needed a redesign to be efficient on new architectures – notable examples being the move from LINPACK [10] to LAPACK [5] in the 80’s to make the algorithms cache friendly; ScaLAPACK [8] in the 90’s to support distributed memory systems, and now the PLASMA and MAGMA libraries that [1] target efficiency on multicore and heterogeneous architectures, respectively.

The development of new high-performance numerical libraries is complex, and requires accounting for the extreme level of parallelism, heterogeneity, and wide variety of accelerators and coprocessors available in current architectures. Challenges vary from new algorithmic designs to choices of programming models, languages, and frameworks that ease development, future maintenance, and portability. This paper addresses these issues while presenting our approach and algorithmic designs in the development of the cIMAGMA library.

To provide portability across a variety of GPU accelerators and coprocessors (such as Intel Xeon Phi), cIMAGMA uses OpenCL [14]. OpenCL is an open standard for off-loading computations to accelerators, coprocessors, and manycore processors. It is maintained by the Khronos group with the backing of major hardware and software industry vendors. It offers portability across hardware and OS software. Although the use of OpenCL provides portability
of code; cross-device performance portability is not guaranteed. We specifically address this in Section 2.

To deal with the extreme level of parallelism and heterogeneity inherent in current architectures, cIMAGMA uses a hybridization methodology, described in Section 3, where we split the algorithms of interest into computational tasks of various granularities, and properly schedule these tasks’ execution over the heterogeneous hardware. To do this, we use a Directed Acyclic Graph (DAG) approach to parallelism and scheduling that has been developed and successfully used for dense linear algebra libraries such as PLASMA and MAGMA, as well as in general task-based approaches to parallelism with runtime systems like StarPU and SMPPS. Note, however, that we do not use OpenCL to execute the DAG on the CPU but, rather, we use native threading (pthread in the case of Linux) combined with our own scheduler called QUARK, that was developed before OpenCL gained a wide spread use.

Besides the general cross-device considerations addressed in Section 2, obtaining high performance in OpenCL depends on a combination of algorithm and hardware-specific optimizations, discussed in Section 3. The implication of this in terms of software is the fact that in order to maintain its performance portability across hardware variations, there is a need to ensure that the algorithmic variations therein are tunable, e.g., at installation time. This is the basis of autotuning, which is an example of these advanced optimization techniques.

A performance study on AMD hardware is presented in Section 2. Besides verifying our approaches and confirming the appeal of OpenCL and accelerators for high-performance DLA, the results open up a number of future work opportunities discussed in our conclusions.

2. CROSS-DEVICE CONSIDERATIONS

A recommended approach to developing a high-performance and easy to maintain DLA library is to express the algorithms of interest in terms of the BLAS standard. Performance portability is then obtained through the use of architecture-specific, highly tuned BLAS implementations (e.g., MKL from Intel or ACML from AMD), LAPACK and ScaLAPACK have demonstrated this over the years, and now we see it in the new MAGMA and PLASMA libraries. The cIMAGMA library takes the same approach, and therefore performance portability relies on the availability of portable OpenCL BLAS, discussed in Section 2.3. Specifics related to OpenCL and its implementation are also important for obtaining high-performance and must be addressed while designing and tuning OpenCL algorithms. Well designed microbenchmarks, shown in Section 2.2.4, can be used to obtain these key OpenCL specifics to achieving high performance.

2.1 Portable OpenCL BLAS

The Automatically Tuned Linear Algebra Software (ATLAS) library [19] is a BLAS implementation for CPUs. ATLAS achieves portable performance across CPUs mainly by relying on empirical autotuning. Still, vendor libraries like MKL and ACML, optimized for their specific architectures, provide higher performing implementations. The same is true with OpenCL BLAS implementations – OpenCL provides software portability, but unless tuned for a particular architecture, optimization opportunities can be missed.

Currently, the most complete OpenCL BLAS implementation is AMD’s cAmdBlas, provided through the AMD’s Accelerated Parallel Processing Math Libraries (APPML). It can be used on architectures other than AMD, but its tuning, and therefore highest efficiency, will likely be achieved on AMD hardware. The potential of OpenCL to express BLAS algorithms, as opposed to other lower level access to the hardware, while obtaining high performance is evident through the cAmdBlas. Other implementations, e.g., from Nakasato et al. [16, 15], confirm this by obtaining impressive high performance matrix-matrix multiplication (GEMM). In particular, the highest performance that we are aware of has been demonstrated by Matsumoto et al. [15] – their OpenCL DGEMM reaches up to 848 Gflop/s, and SGEMM up to 2,646 Gflop/s, which is 90% and 70% of the double and single precision peak, respectively. The results come from AMD’s Tahiti GPU (Radeon HD 7970).

In our previous work, we evaluated OpenCL as a programming tool for performance-portable BLAS [11]. Triangular solvers (TRSM) and GEMMs were developed in OpenCL, tuned for a specific device, and compared. The conclusion was that OpenCL the overhead associated with environment setup is large and should be minimized, e.g., by preprocessing or localized in library initialization routines. More importantly, the presented performance results confirmed the conclusion above that OpenCL is expressive enough for developing high performance BLAS, so long as architectural specifics are taken into account in the algorithm design. Even though good performance should not be expected from blindly running algorithms on a new platform, autotuning heuristics can help to improve performance on a single platform.

Autotuning mechanisms are already provided in cAmdBlas through a tuning tool that the user can run to produce optimized OpenCL BLAS on the architecture of interest. Thus, as performance portability of OpenCL BLAS can be obtained, organizing higher-level libraries like cIMAGMA in terms of OpenCL BLAS can ensure their performance portability as well.

2.2 Microbenchmarks

We developed a number of microbenchmarks to help us gain a better understanding of OpenCL and to guide our algorithm design and tuning. We describe two benchmarks that can be instrumental for performance – kernel launch overhead and CPU-GPU data transfer. To add some context to the reported measurements, we include comparisons with corresponding CUDA measurements.

2.2.1 Kernel launch overhead

The time to asynchronously invoke OpenCL 1.2 AMD-APP (1016.4) kernel on an AMD Tahiti GPU (Radeon HD 7900 Series) varies in the 5.59–8.88 µs range. This was measured by asynchronously launching an empty kernel a large number of times and synchronizing at the end. The overhead can increase significantly (it could be up to two orders of magnitude depending on hardware and software configuration) when synchronizing after each kernel invocation, and therefore synchronization should be avoided. Similar benchmarks for CUDA 4.2 [13] showed an overhead of 3–7 µs with no synchronization between kernels, and 10–14 µs with synchronization between kernels. It should be stressed that this comparison is between two different programming models, software implementations, and hardware configurations. As such, we only mean to suggest an efficient usage scenarios.

We also benchmarked the kernel launch overhead for four BLAS functions: DGEMM, DTRSM, DTRMM and DSYRK, which are used in the double precision LU, Cholesky and QR factorizations. In order to compare with OpenCL, the benchmark for CUDA was
tested on an NVIDIA Fermi GPU (Tesla S2050). Results for the kernel launch overhead of OpenCL and CUDA BLAS functions are shown in Figure 1. The OpenCL BLAS functions are from AMD’s clAmdBlas 1.8.286 and the CUDA functions are from CUBLAS 4.2. The BLAS functions in clAmdBlas have 6–10 $\mu$s asynchronous launch overhead versus 4–5 $\mu$s in CUBLAS. For synchronous launch overhead, CUBLAS takes only 16–18 $\mu$s, while clAmdBlas can take significantly longer, and as discussed, synchronization after BLAS kernel invocations should be avoided. Both the CUDA and OpenCL measurements used a PCIe 2.0 interface between CPU and GPU. The hardware and software were different and the comparison is, again, given only to steer the reader towards the beneficial programming patterns.

2.2.2 CPU-GPU data transfer overhead
Transfer time for contiguous data between CPU and GPU can be modeled as
\[
\text{time} = \text{latency} + \frac{\text{bytes transferred}}{\text{PCIe bandwidth}} \quad (1)
\]
On our system, an AMD Radeon HD 7970 card with PCIe 2.0 interface, the measured PCIe bandwidth was 2.82 GB/s from CPU to GPU and 3.29 GB/s from GPU to CPU. We found that the latency was 50–60 $\mu$s from CPU to GPU and 140–150 $\mu$s from GPU to CPU. Latencies in CUDA is in the 10–17 $\mu$s range [18], albeit on a different hardware configuration. On our system, that featured an NVIDIA Tesla S2050 with PCIe 2.0 interface, we measured 13–14 $\mu$s latency in both directions. To avoid the higher latencies associated with synchronizations, algorithms must be designed to use asynchronous data transfers.

3. DENSE LINEAR ALGEBRA IN OPENCL

3.1 Hybridization methodology
The hybridization methodology used in MAGMA [17] is now used in cMAGMA. It is an extension of the task-based approach for parallelism and developing DLA on homogeneous multicore systems [1]. In particular,

The computation is split into BLAS-based tasks of various granularities, with their data dependencies, as shown in Figure 2. Small, latency-bound tasks with significant control-flow are scheduled on the CPUs. Large, compute-bound tasks are scheduled on GPUs.

The difference between multicore algorithms and hybridization is the task splitting, which are of various granularities to make different tasks suitable for particular hardware. The scheduling itself is also different.

Challenges with this approach vary from algorithmic designs to tuning for performance portability and balancing work between the CPU cores and the GPUs. Specific algorithms using this methodology, and covering the main classes of DLA, are described in the subsequent sections.

3.2 The cMAGMA design and functionality
The cMAGMA interface is similar to LAPACK. For example, compare LAPACK’s LU factorization interface vs. cMAGMA’s:

```c
lapackf77_dgetrf(&M,&N, hA, &lda, ipiv, &info)
magma_dgetrf_gpu( M, N, dA,0, ldda, ipiv, &info, queue)
```
Here 
\(hA\) is a CPU pointer (double *) to the matrix of interest in the CPU memory and 
\(dA\) is a pointer in the GPU memory (magmaDouble_ptr).

The last argument in every cMAGMA call is an OpenCL queue, through which the computation will be streamed on the GPU (magma_queue_t).

To relieve the user from knowing OpenCL, all OpenCL data types and main functions, such as BLAS, CPU-GPU data transfers, and memory allocations and deallocations, are redefined in terms of cMAGMA data types and functions. This design allows us to more easily port the MAGMA functionality to cMAGMA, and eventually to merge them altogether while maintaining a single source. Also, the cMAGMA wrappers are often simpler in syntax than the corresponding OpenCL functions, and provide a comprehensive set of functions for programming hybrid high-performance numerical libraries. Thus, not only the users but also the application developers can choose to use the cMAGMA wrappers without knowing OpenCL. While this might be
clMAGMA provides the standard four floating point arithmetic precisions – single real, double real, single complex, and double complex. There are routines for the so called one-sided factorizations (LU, QR, and Cholesky), two-sided factorizations (Hessenberg, bi-, and tridiagonal reductions), linear system and least squares solvers, matrix inversions, symmetric and non-symmetric standard eigenvalue problems, SVD, and orthogonal transformation routines, all described in the subsections below.

As discussed in [1], compiling OpenCL kernel from source file introduces significant amount of overhead. By caching the Intermediate Representation (IR) resulting from clGetProgramInfo to disk and loading at runtime, overhead can be effectively reduced. AMD and NVIDIA’s OpenCL implementations both allow such maneuver, which is essential for the performance of clMAGMA since GPU kernels could be repeated called in different routines. An efficient way to handle the kernel compiling and caching is required. In clMAGMA, a runtime system is implemented to fulfill this task.

The runtime system, coded in C++ as a singleton class, provides two pieces of functionality depending on the usage phases: during installation, runtime system compiles OpenCL source files into IRs and stores them to disk; during execution time, the runtime system loads IRs in memory and further builds them into platform specific executables. At the beginning of the user level program, the runtime system compiles IR loaded from disk and setups mapping between the name of the OpenCL kernel and its platform specific executables through a series of hash-tables. This initialization process only executes once to avoid repeated compiling and allowing reusing executables across different higher level routines.

3.3 LU, QR, and Cholesky factorizations

The one-sided factorizations routines implemented and currently available through clMAGMA are:

- **magma_zgetrf_gpu** computes an LU factorization of a general M-by-N matrix A using partial pivoting with row interchanges;
- **magma_zgeqrf_gpu** computes a QR factorization of a general M-by-N matrix A;
- **magma_zpotrf_gpu** computes the Cholesky factorization of a complex Hermitian positive definite matrix A.

Routines in all four standard floating-point precisions are available, following LAPACK’s naming convention. Namely, the first letter of the routine name (after the prefix ‘magma_’) indicates the precision – z, c, d, or s for double complex, single complex, double real, or single real, respectively. The suffix ‘_gpu’ indicates that the input matrix and the output are located in the GPU memory.

The typical hybrid computation and communication pattern for the one-sided factorizations (LU, QR and Cholesky) is shown in Figure 3. At a given iteration, panel \( dP \) is copied to the CPU and factored using a LAPACK routine, and the result is copied back to the GPU. The trailing matrix, consisting of the next panel \( T_1 \) and submatrix \( T_2 \), is updated on the GPU. After receiving \( dP \) back from the CPU, \( T_1 \) is updated first using \( dP \) and the result is sent to the CPU (as being the next panel to be factored there). While the CPU starts the factorization of \( T_1 \), the rest of the trailing matrix, \( T_2 \), is updated on the GPU in parallel with the CPU factorization of panel \( T_1 \).

The computation can be organized differently – to access and modify data only to the left of the panel – in which case the factorizations are known as left-looking.

An example of a left-looking factorization, demonstrating a hybrid algorithm implementation, is given in Figure 4 for the Cholesky factorization. Copying the panel to the CPU, in this case just a square block on the diagonal, is done in line 4. The data transfer is asynchronous, so before we factor it on the CPU (line 8), we synchronize in line 7 to enforce that the data has arrived. Note that the CPU work from line 8 is overlapped with the GPU work in line 6. This is indeed the case because line 6 is an asynchronous call/request from the CPU to the GPU to start the ZGEMM operation. Thus, the control is passed to lines 7 and 8 while the GPU is performing ZGEMM. The resulting factored panel from the CPU work is sent to the GPU in line 11 and used there in line 14, after making sure that it has arrived (the sync in line 13).

![Figure 3: Typical computational pattern for the hybrid one-sided factorizations in clMAGMA.](image)

![Figure 4: Cholesky factorization in clMAGMA.](image)

3.4 Orthogonal transformation routines

The orthogonal transformation routines implemented and currently available through clMAGMA are:

- **magma_zungqr_[gpu]** generates an M-by-N matrix Q with orthonormal columns, which is defined as the first N columns of a product of K elementary reflectors of order M as returned by **magma_zgeqrf_[gpu]**;
- **magma_zunmqr_[gpu]** overwrites a general complex M-by-N matrix C with QC or CQ, where Q can also be transposed or not.

The routines are available in all four precisions, and in both CPU (input and output is on the CPU) and GPU interfaces.

Typical uses of the QR factorization require computing the product QC for some matrix C (the zungqr routine). For efficiency, the matrix Q is represented implicitly as a product of block Householder reflectors of the form \( I - V \bar{V}^T \), for \( i = 1, \ldots, k \). Instead of forming Q explicitly and then performing a matrix-matrix multiplication, it is cheaper to apply the block Householder reflectors directly. Applying each reflector requires three matrix-matrix multiplications, which clMAGMA performs on the GPU. The V matrices are tall and skinny, with the upper triangle logically zero, as shown in Figure 5. In LAPACK, the upper triangle of each V contains the \( R \) matrix; in clMAGMA, when V is copied to the GPU, the upper triangle is explicitly

![Figure 5](image)
The routines are available in all four precisions. The linear solvers use the hybrid two-sided factorizations, which are the most time consuming parts of the algorithms. The rest is run on the CPUs, using vendor optimized LAPACK.

Related to the linear solvers, cIMAGMA provides matrix inversion routines as well. These are the:

- \texttt{magma_zpotri_gpu} for computing the inverse of a real upper or lower triangular matrix;
- \texttt{magma_zgetri_gpu} for computing the inverse of a matrix using the LU factorization computed by \texttt{magma_zgetrf_gpu};
- \texttt{magma_zpotri_gpu} for computing the inverse of a real symmetric positive definite matrix using its Cholesky factorization computed by \texttt{magma_zpotrf_gpu}.

The triangular inverse routine is a hybrid, derived from the corresponding block LAPACK algorithm. The diagonal blocks of the matrix are sent and inverted on the CPU, and everything else is done on the GPU. The LU inversion uses \texttt{magma_ztrtri_gpu} to invert \texttt{U} and then computes inv(A) by solving the system inv(A)\texttt{U} = \texttt{inv}(U) for inv(A) (entirely on the GPU). The \texttt{magma_zpotri_gpu} also uses \texttt{magma_ztrtri_gpu} to invert the upper (U) or lower (L) factor of the Cholesky factorization, and a hybrid code (routine \texttt{magma_zlaum_gpu}) to compute the product \texttt{UU}' or \texttt{LU}'.
bytes between the CPU and GPU without overlap can result in losing the
opportunity to compute hundreds of double precision flops on the GPU. The
second one, overlapping CPU and GPU work, allows us to use the entire
system more efficiently. Finally, autotuning is a technique that removes the
need for manual tuning and enables cross-device performance portability.

The optimizations described in Sections 4.1 and 4.2 target specifically AMD
hardware and AMD’s OpenCL implementation, while Section 4.3
addresses the cross-device portability.

4.1 Overlapping CPU-GPU communications with GPU computation

In Section 2, we saw that OpenCL can have higher CPU-GPU data transfer
latency overhead than CUDA, which can reduce the effective bandwidth
when a small size of data is transferred between the CPU and GPU. Thus,
this can become a performance bottleneck, unless it is overlapped with useful
GPU work (or minimized with other optimization techniques). Figure 6
shows part of the trace of a double precision LU factorization in clMAGMA:
the first row is the CPU work, where the black color represents the time
of panel factorization; the second row is the GPU work, where the red
color represents DGEMM operations and green color represents DTRSM.
Yellow color reflects the time to copy the data from GPU to CPU and grey is
copying the data from CPU to GPU. Although computation on the CPU has
overlapped with the GPU, communication and computation on the GPU are
executed sequentially.

Figure 6: Partial CPU-GPU execution trace of a hybrid LU
factorization in clMAGMA. Yellow and gray represent CPU-
GPU communication that in this case are not overlapped with
the GPU work.

In OpenCL, performing work on a device, such as executing kernels or moving
data to and from the device’s local memory, is done using a corresponding
command queue [4]. A command queue is an interface for a specific device
and its associated work. A way to overlap CPU-GPU communication and
GPU computation is by creating two command queues. One queue is used
for data transfers and the other is used for kernel computations. Figure 7
shows a part of the trace of double precision LU factorization similar to
Figure 6, but here we have applied the optimization of using two queues.
The first row is again the CPU work, the second row is the computation work
of queue 1 on the GPU, and the third row is the communication work of
queue 2. All color definitions are the same as in Figure 6. Note that based
on this two-queue technique, we made the communication overlap with the
GPU computation work. Experiments showed that this approach lead to
about 10% increase of performance for double precision LU factorization.

From the above two traces, we also notice that there are some blank gaps
between different kernels on the GPU. Those represent overheads of kernel
switching on the GPU.

4.2 Overlapping CPU and GPU work

In OpenCL, the host creates a data structure called a command-queue to co-
ordinate execution of the kernels on the devices. The host places commands
into the command-queue which are then scheduled onto the devices. For
example, in Figure 7, line 6 puts a ZGEMM in the command-queue queue.
The host still must submit the ZGEMM to the device for execution, but this
may not happen immediately. As a result, the CPU can start the computation
at line 8 while the device has not started the ZGEMM. Thus, although our
high-level algorithm is designed to overlap CPU and GPU work, overlap
may not happen in practice. In order to force the command-queue to imme-
diately submit the command queued to the appropriate device, one must call
clFlush(queue) [4]. Therefore, all clMAGMA BLAS wrappers first queue
the corresponding OpenCL BLAS and immediately post a clFlush
to the queue.

The importance of overlapping CPU and GPU work is quantified in Figure 8
for the case of LU factorization in double precision (the DGETRF routine).
The blue curve is the performance of DGETRF without CPU and GPU work
overlap. It achieves up to 195 Gflop/s. The red curve is the performance of
DGETRF with overlapping CPU and GPU work, using clFlush. It achieves up to 280 Gflop/s, i.e., getting about 1.4× speedup.

Figure 8: Advanced performance optimizations of DGETRF in
clMAGMA.

Figure 8 also shows the effect of further optimizations, and, in particular, the
technique of using two queues to overlap CPU-GPU communications with
GPU computation (from the previous subsection), and using pinned memory
to get higher transfer throughput between the CPU and GPU. Putting all
these optimizations together, the performance of dgetrf is shown with the
purple curve. It achieves up to 326 Gflop/s, which is almost a 60% speedup
compared to the original version without any optimizations.

It is worth noting that OpenCL implementations may differ in their treatment
and the effects of clFlush. Also important is the fact that the specific
behavior of multiple command queues and their interaction with a single
device will likely be different between vendors and their implementations.

Another method for overlap is the use of out-of-order command queues but
they were not supported on the hardware/software combinations that we had
available for our tests.

4.3 Autotuning

While functionality of an OpenCL code is portable, the resulting performance
often is not. However, it is commonly sufficient to rely on highly optimized
BLAS that are provided by the vendor to guarantee transportable efficiency in
terms of the peak performance. This is clearly predicated on the fact that the
BLAS is of high quality and is capable of providing very efficient execution
across a wide range of input parameters including matrix dimensions and
data-dependent characteristics such as symmetry or transposition. In practice, this requirement might not be fulfilled, in which case it is necessary to use customized versions of some of the kernels or maybe just one specific instance of the kernel for particular matrix shapes. In our current tests, we did not use autotuning to improve performance.

5. PERFORMANCE STUDY
The performance results provided in this section use AMD’s Radeon HD 7970 card and its multicore host, a single socket six-core AMD Phenom II X6 1100T CPU running at 3.71 GHz. Kernels executed on the CPU use LAPACK and BLAS from MKL 11.1, and BLAS kernels executed on the GPU are from cLAdIBlas 1.8. The OpenCL version is 1.2. We installed AMD-APP 1016.4 as the OpenCL driver. Currently the AMD OpenCL driver for Linux has a 512 MB maximum limit for a single memory allocation on the GPU, so in our experiments we only tested matrix sizes of up to 8,000 (in double precision arithmetic).

The performance of double precision LU factorization in clMAGMA is given in Figure 9. It achieves up to 326 Gflop/s, getting about 5.7× speedup versus the six-core CPU host.

Figure 9: Performance of clMAGMA’s LU factorization in double precision compared against MKL 11.1

The performance of the double precision Cholesky factorization in clMAGMA is shown in Figure 10. It achieves up to 344 Gflop/s, which is about 5.4× speedup versus the six-core CPU host.

Figure 10: Performance of clMAGMA’s Cholesky factorization in double precision compared against MKL 11.1

The performance of the double precision QR factorization in clMAGMA is shown in Figure 11. It achieves up to 347 Gflop/s, which is about 5.9× speedup versus the six-core CPU host.

Figure 11: Performance of clMAGMA’s QR factorization in double precision compared against MKL 11.1

The performance of the double precision Hessenberg factorization in clMAGMA is shown in Figure 12. It achieves up to 40 Gflop/s, which is about 5.5× speedup versus the six-core CPU host.

Figure 12: Performance of clMAGMA’s Hessenberg factorization in double precision compared against MKL 11.1

The performance of the double precision matrix inversion in clMAGMA (magma_zgetri_gpu) is shown in Figure 13. It achieves up to 48 Gflop/s, which is about 1.2× speedup versus the CPU host.

Figure 13: Performance of clMAGMA’s Matrix Inversion in double precision compared against MKL 11.1

6. CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE WORK
We have presented high performance linear algebra routines for a wide range of linear transformations. The routines were implemented efficiently (and tuned specifically for the AMD’s Tahiti GPUs) with the use of the OpenCL standard and the optimized BLAS routines from the hardware vendor. Our optimization techniques show a wide applicability and yield many-fold performance improvement over highly tuned codes that constitute the state-of-the-art libraries for the current generation of multicore CPUs. With the success we achieved in porting our high performance kernels to OpenCL implementation on GPUs, we are encouraged to look into extending our porting efforts to the emerging platforms such as Intel Xeon Phi and ARM’s AArch64 as well as the supported editions of multicore x86 hardware that are targeted by the CPU-oriented implementations of OpenCL.

Porting clMAGMA to mobile or embedded computing platforms is also of interest. One direction relies on tuning the blocking sizes, and future work is on developing autotuning mechanisms/software that will use empirical measurement at installation time to automatically tune the library. Another
direction is to develop implementations that run entirely on the GPU, and thus avoid possible “host” memory restrictions such as size limitations and non-uniform time to access.

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7. REFERENCES