



# Supercomputers, real and imagined

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**Rich Vuduc**, Georgia Tech

For Bill Gropp, in memory of **Hormozd  
Gahvari** (1981–2016)

PRESENTED TO:

ICERM — September 13 & 14, 2025



bitly

Parallel Computational Fluid Dynamics

Towards Teraflops, Optimization and Novel Formulations

D. Keyes, A. Ecer, J. Periaux, N. Satofuka and P. Fox (Editors)

241

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## Towards Realistic Performance Bounds for Implicit CFD Codes

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Finally, we store the  $N$  output vector elements. This leads to the following estimate of the data volume:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Total Bytes Transferred} &= m * \text{sizeof\_int} + 2 * m * N * \text{sizeof\_double} \\ &\quad + nz * (\text{sizeof\_int} + \text{sizeof\_double}) \\ &= 4 * (m + nz) + 8 * (2 * m * N + nz). \end{aligned}$$

This gives us an estimate of the bandwidth required in order for the processor to achieve  $2 * nz * N$  flops at the peak speed:

$$\text{Bytes Transferred/fmadd} = \left(16 + \frac{4}{N}\right) \frac{m}{nz} + \frac{12}{N}.$$

Alternatively, given a memory performance, we can predict the maximum achievable performance. This results in

$$M_{BW} = \frac{2}{\left(16 + \frac{4}{N}\right) \frac{m}{nz} + \frac{12}{N}} \times BW,$$

where  $M_{BW}$  is measured in Mflops/sec and  $BW$  stands for the available memory bandwidth in Mbytes/s, as measured by STREAM [11] benchmark. (The raw bandwidth is

What **should** we build?

What **will** we build?

What **could** we build?



# What **should** we build?



# Hormozd Gahvari (1981–2016)

Beginning around 2010—the predawn of exascale—Hormozd, Bill, and colleagues wrote a series speculating on the “speeds and feeds” necessary to build machines that could achieve 1 EF/s on “classical” scientific kernels, like FFTs, FMMs, and AMG, among others.

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ICERM — September 13-14, 2025



With Hormozd Gahvari at SC'15



## An Introductory Exascale Feasibility Study for FFTs and Multigrid

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### Abstract

*The coming decade is going to see a push towards exascale computing. Assuming gigahertz cores, this means exascale systems will have between 100 million and 1 billion of them to achieve this level of performance. At this scale, some important questions need to be answered on the applications end. What applications are feasible at this scale? What needs to be done to make them scalable? How does the hardware need to adapt to meet application needs? In this paper, we introduce a new feasibility-based approach to answering these questions. Our approach involves finding upper and lower bounds on problem size and machine parameters to determine a feasibility region for the application in question. As the underlying architecture of a future exascale machine is currently unknown, we use LogP-based performance models and vary machine parameters to give architecture-indepenent hardware constraints. We consider both strong-scaling and weak-scaling scenarios, and present results for two applications, the Fast Fourier Transform and basic geometric multigrid. The results show substantial constraints that need to be satisfied to enable exascale performance.*

## Introduction

With the recent realization of petascale computing, attention has now turned towards the next step, the exascale. An exascale machine is one that will be capable of performing  $10^{18}$  operations per second. It is expected that an exascale computer will require hundreds of millions to billions of processor cores, and make use of new technologies and perhaps novel architectures [1]. This is a huge jump from the machines of today, so the question of which algorithms and applications would scale to an exascale machine is a pertinent one. Scientists and engineers need to know which algorithms they should use on these machines. Application programmers need to know on which

algorithms they should focus. Hardware and system software designers need to know for which applications to optimize. In this paper, we look at the FFT and multigrid because they are popular algorithms in which there are differing issues that cause scalability concerns that we wish to highlight.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 explains the overall approach to our feasibility study. Sections 3 and 4 examine the exascale feasibility of FFT and basic geometric multigrid, respectively. Section 5 summarizes the results and lays out directions for future work.

### 2. Approach to Studying Feasibility

The main challenge in studying the feasibility of applications at the exascale is that the specific design and machine parameters of a future exascale system are far from known. There have been studies, but no specific designs as of yet. So we can straightforwardly develop performance models, plug in machine parameters, and make an easy determination of feasibility.

What we can do, though, is treat the machine parameters as variables and see what is the range of values they can take such that exascale performance is possible. Specifically, we adjust communication-related parameters such as latency and bandwidth assuming the application is running on a hypothetical exascale machine with between 100 million and 1 billion gigahertz cores. Our hypothetical machine may have  $2^{28}$  (almost 268.5 million) cores with each core having a compute time per floating-point operation  $t_c = 0.1$  ns. This translates to a peak performance of 2.68 ExaFLOPS. We also vary the problem size considering both strong-scaling (smaller problems that are being solved today) and weak-scaling (larger problems that will be solvable with the increased processor count) scenarios.

2011 IEEE International Parallel & Distributed Processing Symposium

## Architectural constraints to attain 1 Exaflop/s for three scientific application classes

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**Abstract**— **The first Teraflop/s computer, the ASCI Red, came operational in 1997, and it took more than 11 years to build a Petaflop/s performance machine, the IBM Roadrunner, appear on the Top500 list. Efforts have begun to study the hardware and software challenges for building an exascale machine. It is important to understand and meet these challenges in order to attain Exaflop/s performance. This paper presents a feasibility study of three important application classes to evaluate the constraints that these classes will impose on the machine architecture for achieving a sustained performance of 1 Exaflop/s.**

**The application classes being considered in this paper are – classical molecular dynamics, cosmological simulations and unstructured grid computations (finite element solvers). We analyze the problem sizes required for representative algorithms in each class to achieve 1 Exaflop/s and the hardware requirements in terms of the network and memory. Based on the analysis for achieving an Exaflop/s, we also discuss the performance of these algorithms for much smaller problem sizes.**

**Keywords**-application scalability; exascale; performance analysis; molecular dynamics; cosmology; finite element methods

#### I. INTRODUCTION

Parallel supercomputers have kept up the pace of performance improvement: The first peak Petaflop/s machine, Roadrunner, appeared on the Top500 [1] list in June 2008, and multiple systems beyond that performance level have been announced for near future. The community has set a goal of building an Exaflop/s machine by 2018. There are several hardware challenges to be overcome before we break the Exaflop/s barrier – power/energy costs, memory costs, communication delays. The continuous frequency increase that we enjoyed in the past has come to an end. In part due to this, it has been clear that a co-design approach, where machines are designed in conjunction with exascale applications will be needed to achieve the goal of an Exaflop/s by 2018 [2]. Assuming that we can overcome the hardware challenges of an Exaflop/s machine is built, scientists will have to modify/develop algorithms and applications that scale to exascale. To this end, we analyze three prevalent application classes that currently occupy a significant portion of compute time on various supercomputers (supported by INCITE and LAC allocation awards) – classical molecular dynamics, cosmological simulations and unstructured mesh computations (finite element solvers).

Goals arising from the science involved suggest that the scientific communities using these applications will need exascale performance, so it is important to project the performance of these applications on an exascale machine.

These three application classes encompass some of the most common parallel data structures, including structured and unstructured grids and particles ( $N$ -body). Between the three chosen classes, a range of computational and communication patterns are covered which should provide insight into the scaling challenges we will face on the road to exascale. We consider weak scaling of these applications to the full size of the machine. At exascale, scientifically important objectives may also involve studying problems smaller than what weak scaling suggests (i.e. 1000 times larger problems compared with those on petascale). Therefore, we also study performance issues for smaller problem instances.

The first class of applications chosen for the study is molecular dynamics (MD) applications that focus on the simulation of biomolecular systems. Several highly scalable MD codes are used today on supercomputers – NAMD [3], AMBER [4], Gromacs [5], Desmond [6] and Blue Matter [7]. MD simulations involve calculation of forces on a system of  $N$  atoms. We discuss different parallelization strategies for the force calculation and select the one with the lowest computation to communication ratio. For the purposes of this study, we consider only short-range calculations (also referred to as Lennard-Jones dynamics).

The second class of applications are cosmological simulations. These applications constitute another important category with a unique communication pattern. Gravitational solve for the  $N$ -body problem use one of many different methods: direct sum, tree-methods, particle-mesh methods and hybrid codes. Some examples of cosmology codes are PkdGRAV [8], ChaNGa [9], Enzo [10] and FLASH [11]. We consider tree methods for solving the  $N$ -body problem for our analysis and set aside hydrodynamics for a later study.

Unstructured grid problems, the third class under consideration, arise frequently in science and engineering. Many problem domains have complex shapes that do not lend themselves well to a simple finite difference discretization. Setting the problem as an unstructured grid, which involves breaking the domain into triangles (in 2D) and tetrahedra (in 3D), allows for complicated domains to be discretized in a straightforward



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## FFT, FMM, and multigrid on the road to exascale: Performance challenges and opportunities

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 Performance modeling

#### ABSTRACT

FFT, FMM, and multigrid methods are widely used fast and highly scalable solvers. However, emerging large-scale computing systems are introducing challenges in petascale computers. Recent efforts (Dongarra et al. 2011) have identified several design of exascale software that include massive concurrency, resilience management, high performance of heterogeneous systems, energy efficiency, and utilizing complex memory hierarchy expected at exascale. In this paper, we perform a modeling of the FFT, FMM, and multigrid methods in the context of these projected constraints. We use performance models to offer predictions about the expected performance of system configurations based on current technology trends.

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#### 1. Introduction

Elliptic PDEs arise in many applications in computational science and engineering. Classic examples are found in computational astrophysics, fluid dynamics, molecular dynamics, plasma physics, and many other areas. The rapid solution of elliptic PDEs remains of wide interest and often represents a significant portion of simulation time.

The fast Fourier transform (FFT), the fast multipole method (FMM), and multigrid methods (MG) are widely used fast and highly scalable solvers for elliptic PDEs. The FFT, FMM, and MG methods have been used in a wide variety of scientific computing applications such as particle-in-cell methods, the calculation of long-range (electrostatic) interactions in many-particle systems, such as molecular dynamics and Monte Carlo sampling [3], and in signal analysis. The performance expectations of these methods helps guide algorithmic changes and optimizations to enable migration to exascale systems, as well as to help identify potential bottlenecks in exascale architectures. In addition, modeling helps assess the trade-offs at extreme scales, which can assist in choosing optimal methods and parameters for a given application and specific machine architecture.

Each method has advantages and disadvantages, and all have their place as PDE solvers. Generally, the FFT is used for uniform discretizations, FMM and geometric MG are efficient solvers on irregular grids with local features or discontinuities, and algebraic

MG can handle arbitrary geometries, variable boundary conditions. The focus of this paper is on FFT, FMM, and geometric MG, although several other methods are an algebraic setting as well [7].

One aim of the International Exascale Software Project is to enable the development of applications that achieve full performance of exascale computing platforms. These exascale platforms are not yet fully specified, but are believed that they will require significant changes in hardware architecture relative to the current systems. The IESP roadmap reports that technology trends and constraints on the design of an exascale software system are expected to affect system software and applications, which are summarized as

**Concurrency:** Future supercomputing performance will increase mainly on increases in system scale. Systems with one million or more for current system scale systems are likely to incorporate orders of magnitude more cores, assuming GHz technology. As a result, an increase in concurrency necessitates changes in system architecture for large-scale scientific applications and extrapolated scalability.

**Resiliency:** The exponential increase in core counts for exascale will lead to increases in the number of switches, interconnects, and memory. Consequently, resilience will be a challenge for applications on future exascale systems.

**Heterogeneity:** As accelerators advance in performance and energy efficiency, heterogeneity in hardware



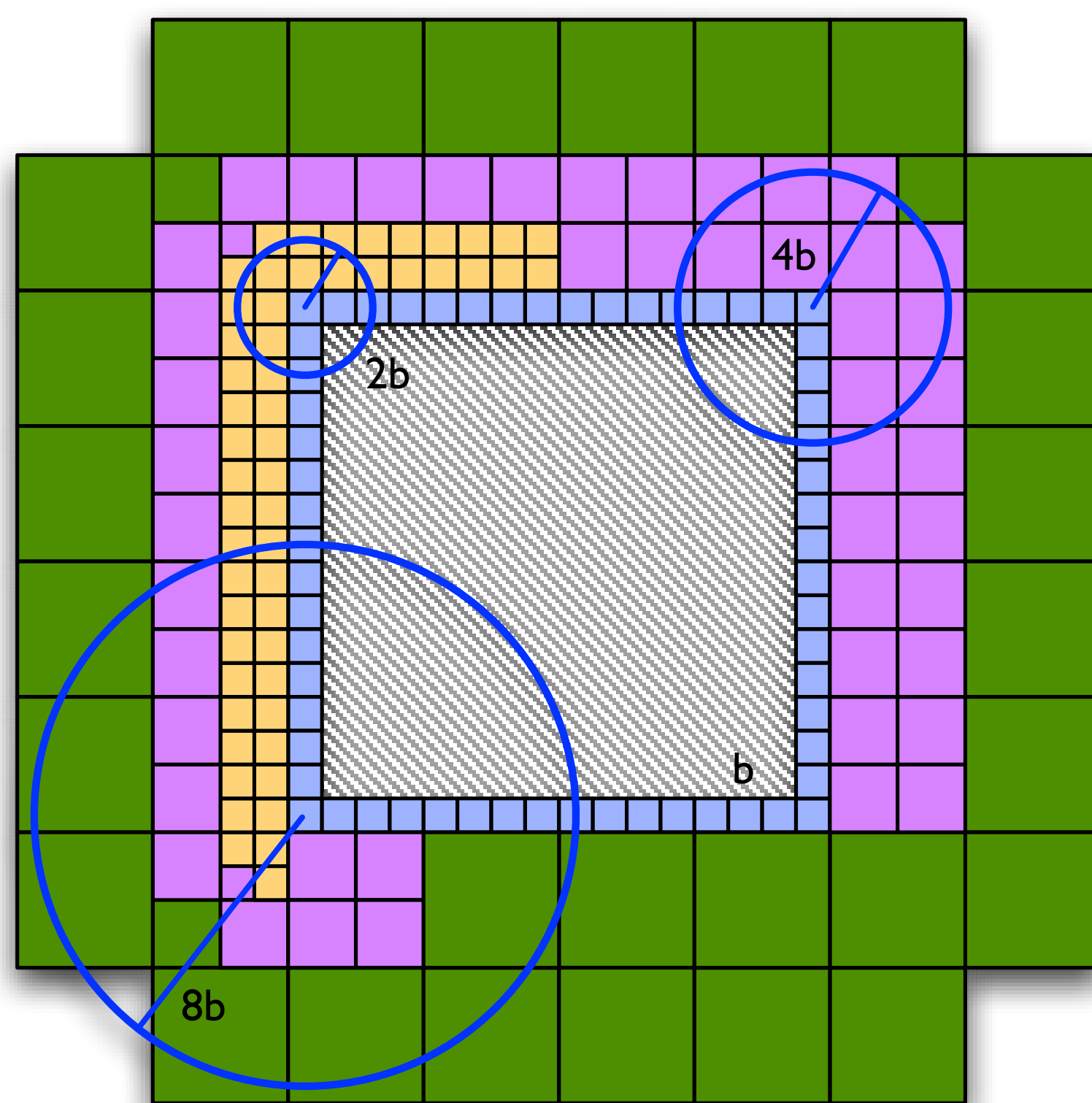


Fig. 4. Communication pattern of a single node at the bottom three depths in the Barnes-Hut tree. The striped region in the center represents the subvolume of particles assigned to the node, and the immediate squares surrounding it represent the buckets along its faces. Progressively larger squares represent remote cells at different depths that are requested by the node for  $\theta_T = 0.5$ . Circles of radii  $2b$ ,  $4b$  and  $8b$  described around the centers of corner buckets determine which cells are requested.

the amount of communication generated per processor by the expansion of higher-level cells as follows:

$$C_2^{\text{cell}} = 31 \left( \frac{\lg P_n}{3} - 1 \right) \text{ cells}$$

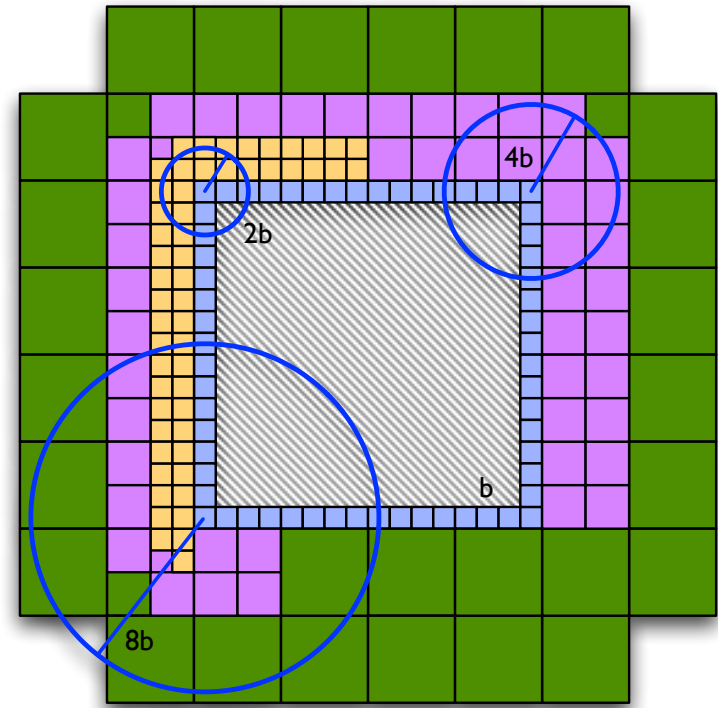


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The expansion of each cell yields eight children. We assume that for each expanded cell, a single message is generated which contains all its children. This model may be extended

Bandwidth ( $4/t_w$ )  
in GB/s

## Feasibility Regions

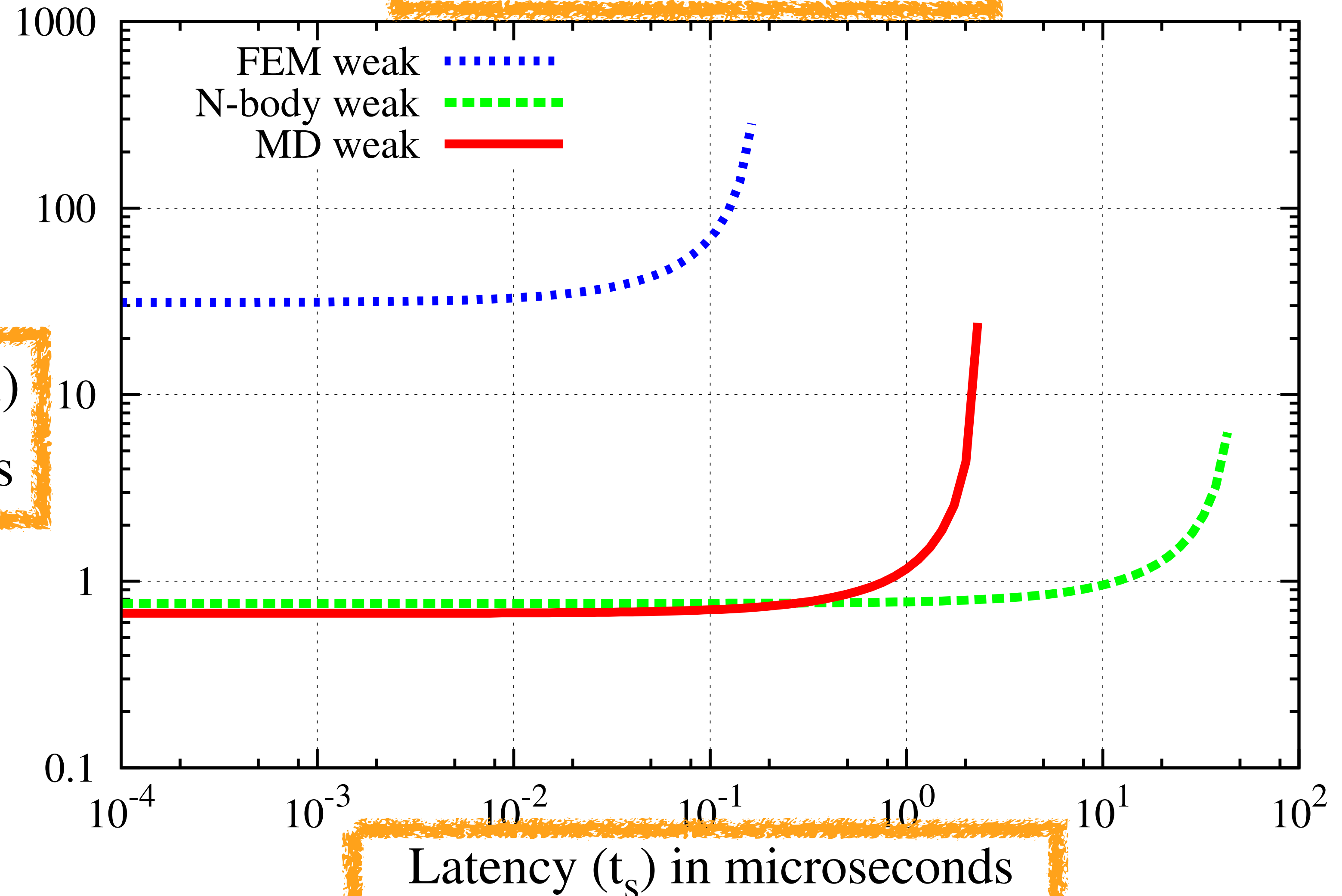


Fig. 11. Feasibility regions for molecular dynamics (MD), cosmology (N-body) and finite element solvers (FEM) for weak scaling to achieve 1 Exaflop/s

communication and computation, and a more complicated model in which there is substantial overlap of communication and computation.

**3.2.1. No Overlap Model.** If we do not consider overlap of communication, we get that each processor computes its portion of the data, and during each communication round has to communicate with  $p$  other processors. The corresponding expression for the runtime of the 3D FFT using the LogP performance model is

$$T = t_c \frac{N}{P} \log_2 N + 2(p-1)(L+o) + 2(p-2)g$$

Note that we do not do any latency-hiding, because we treat the latency here as the cost to send the entire message, not just the first word.

**3.2.2. Overlap Model.** Now allowing overlap of communication and computation, we set up another performance model, using instead of LogP the LogGP model [10] which extends it by adding a bandwidth term  $G$  that represents a per-unit cost of transferring data over the network. The model assumes that one  $n \times \frac{n}{p}$  sheet is computed at a time, with communication of each sheet occurring after its computation,

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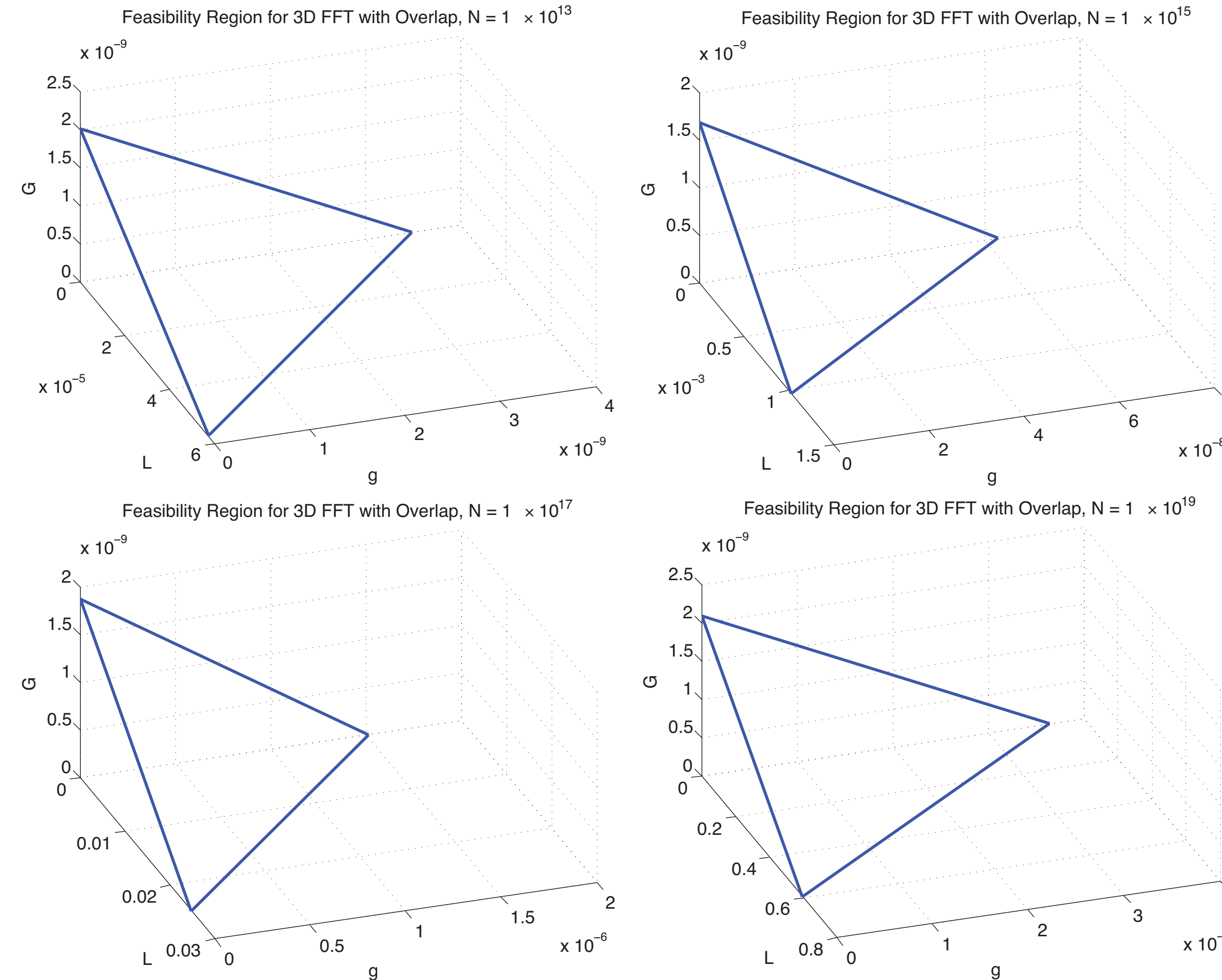


Figure 4. Feasibility regions for FFT with overlap of communication and computation



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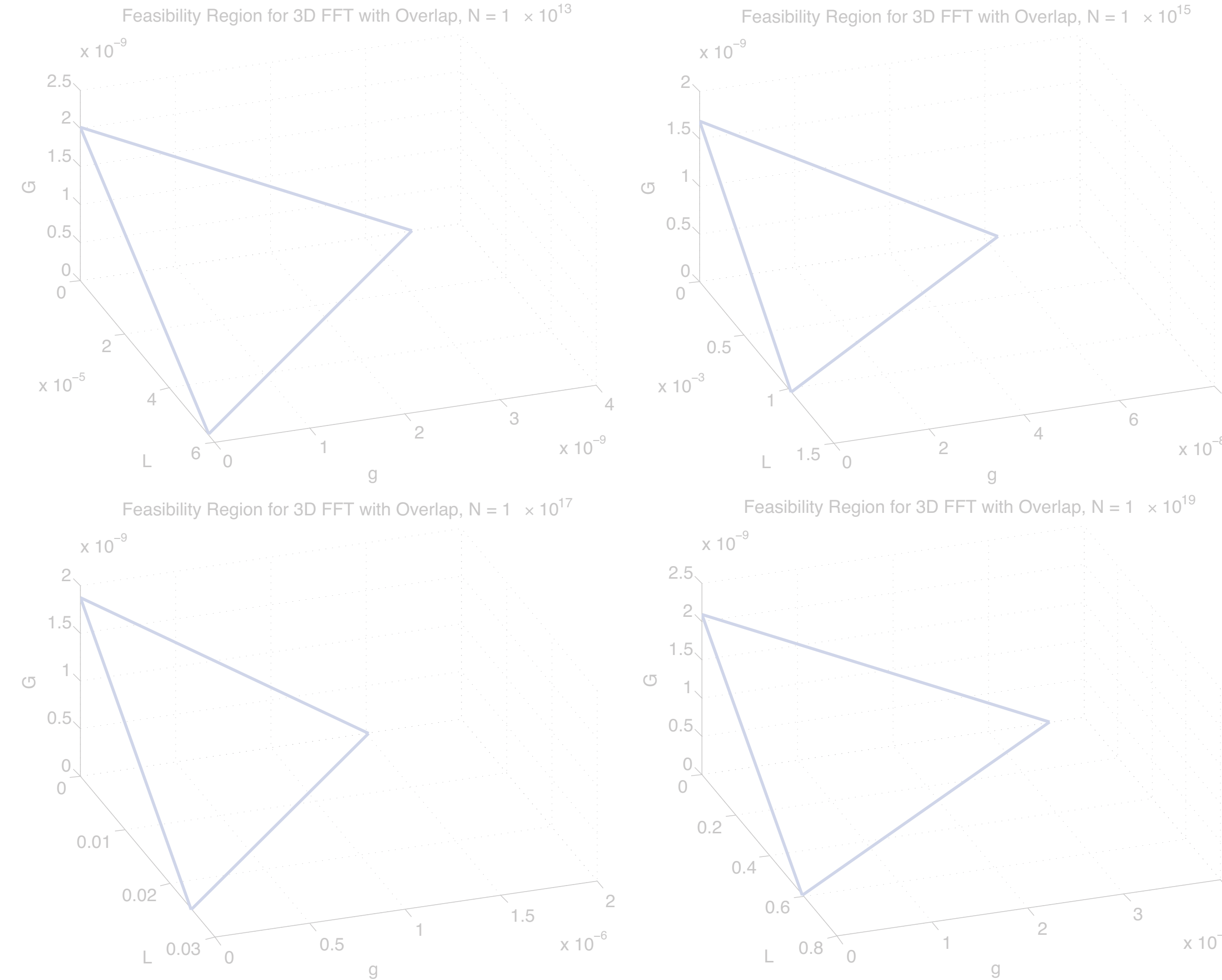


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(So who cares? Let's revisit later...)

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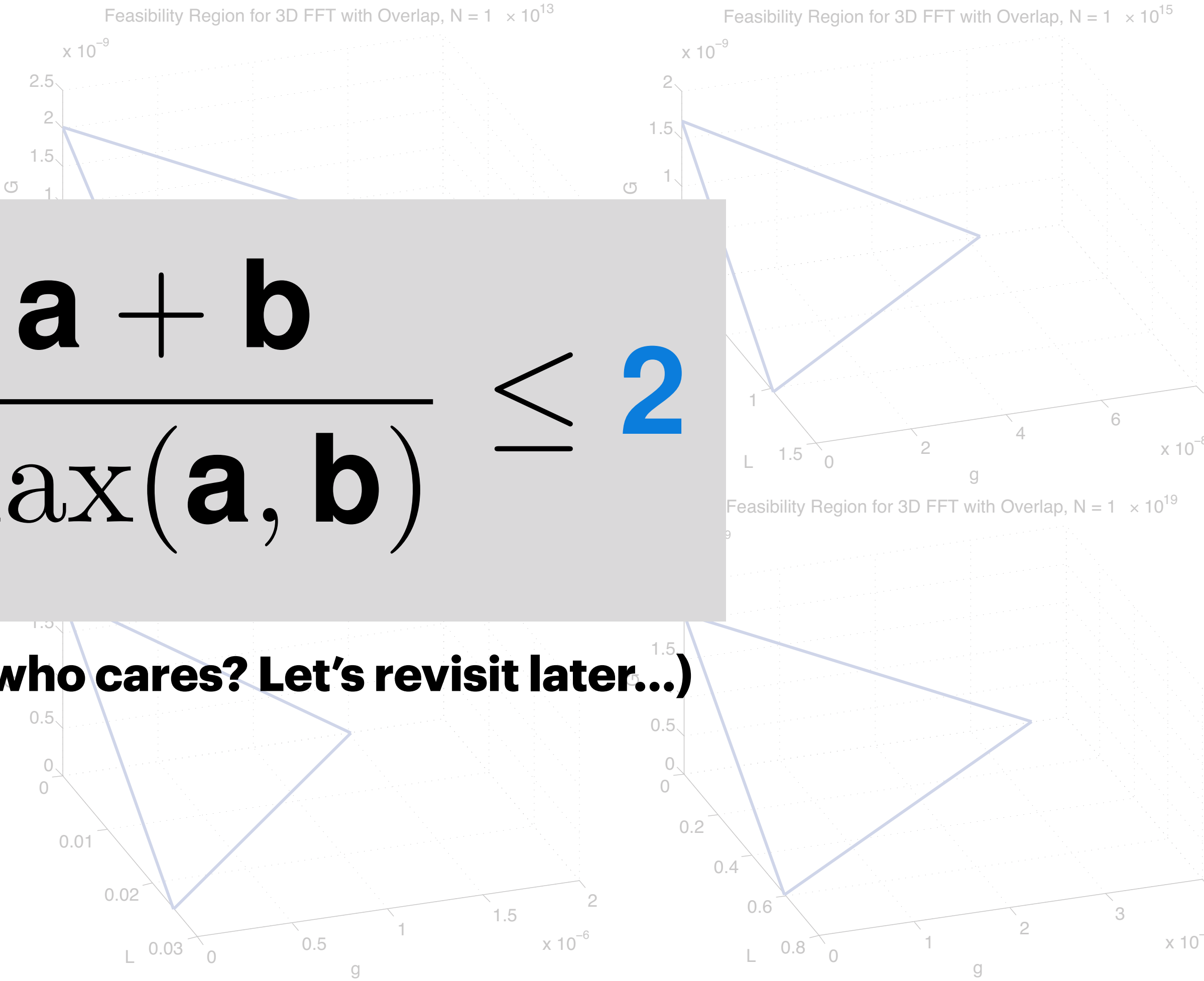
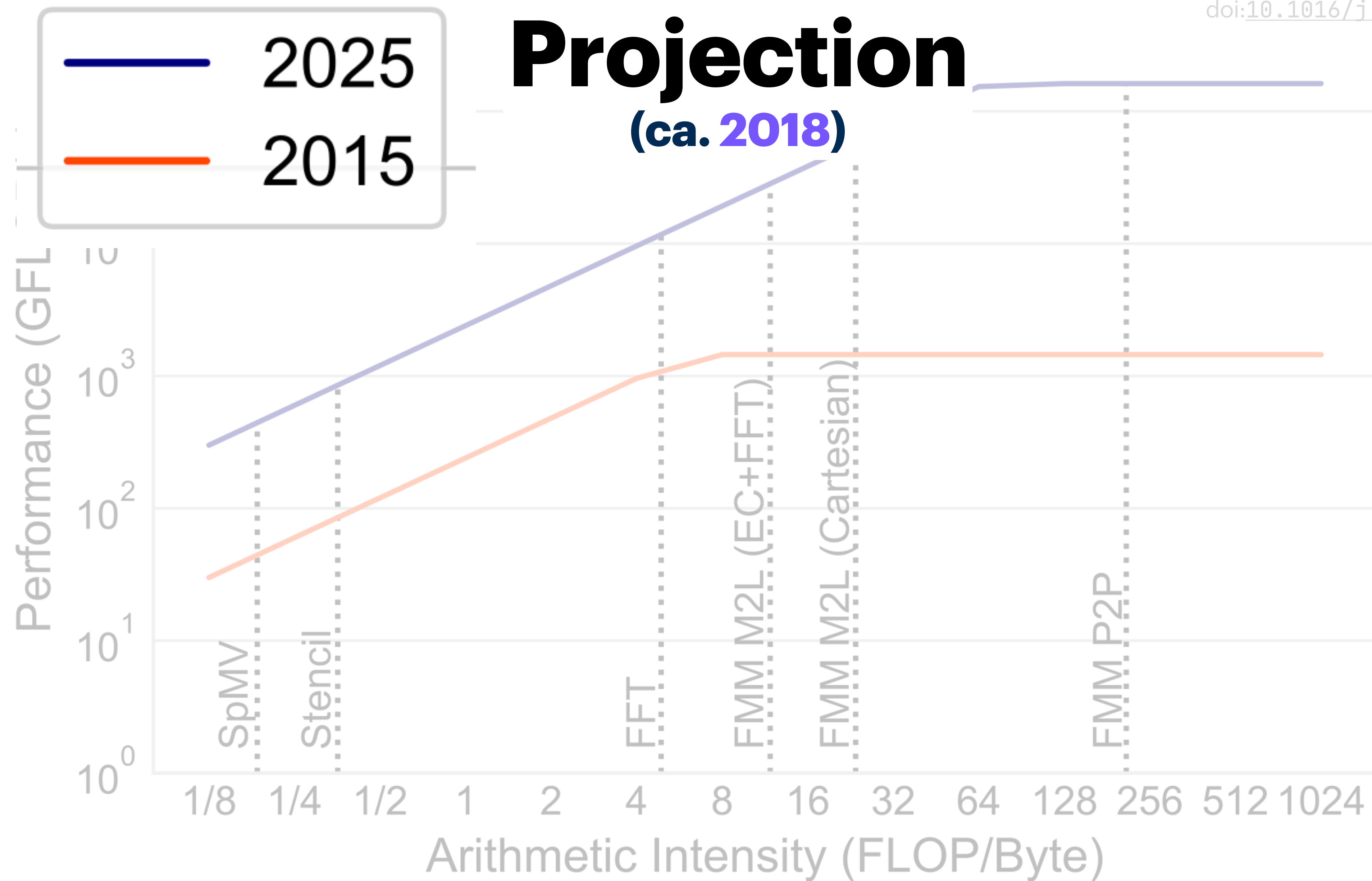
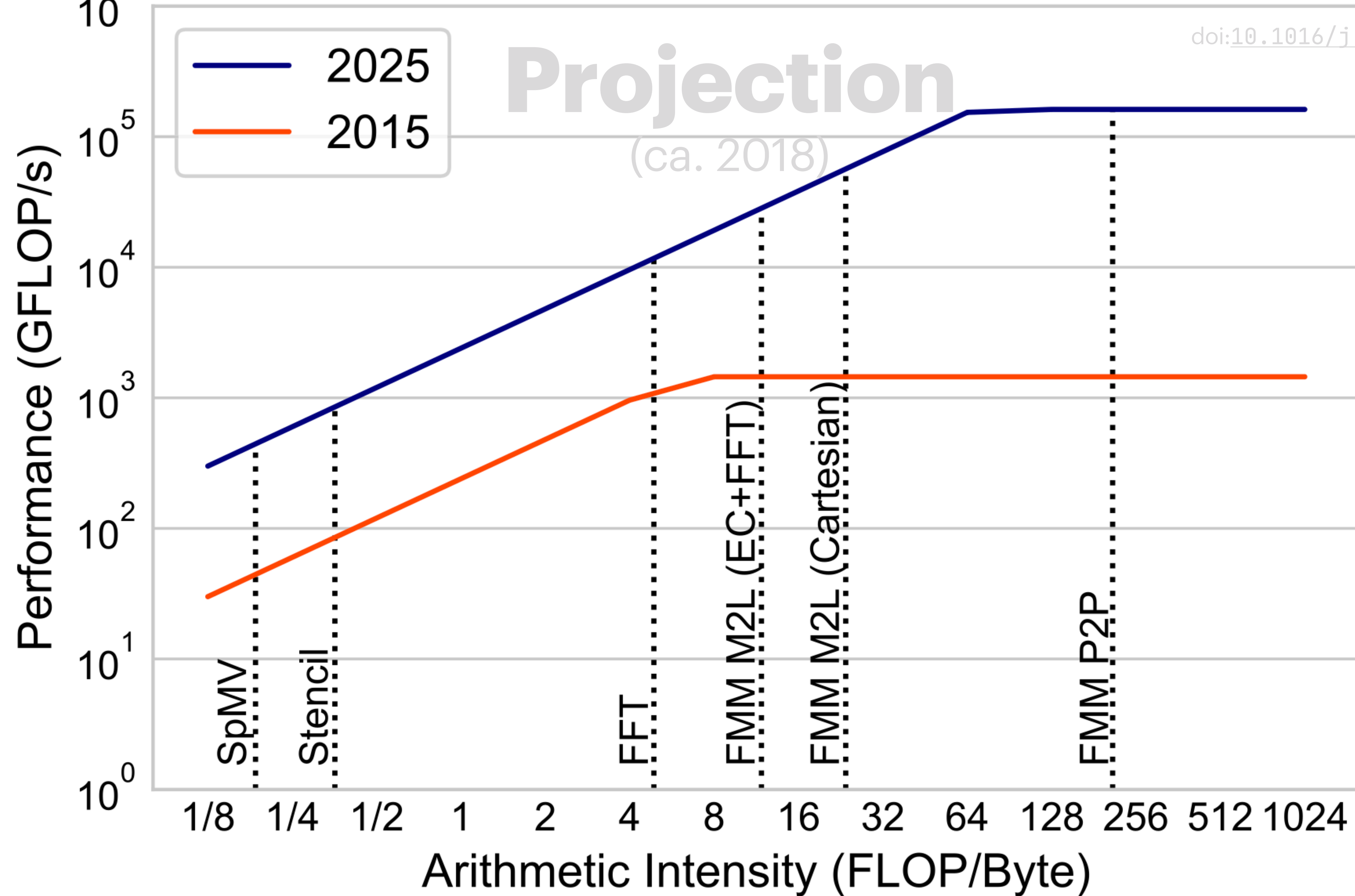


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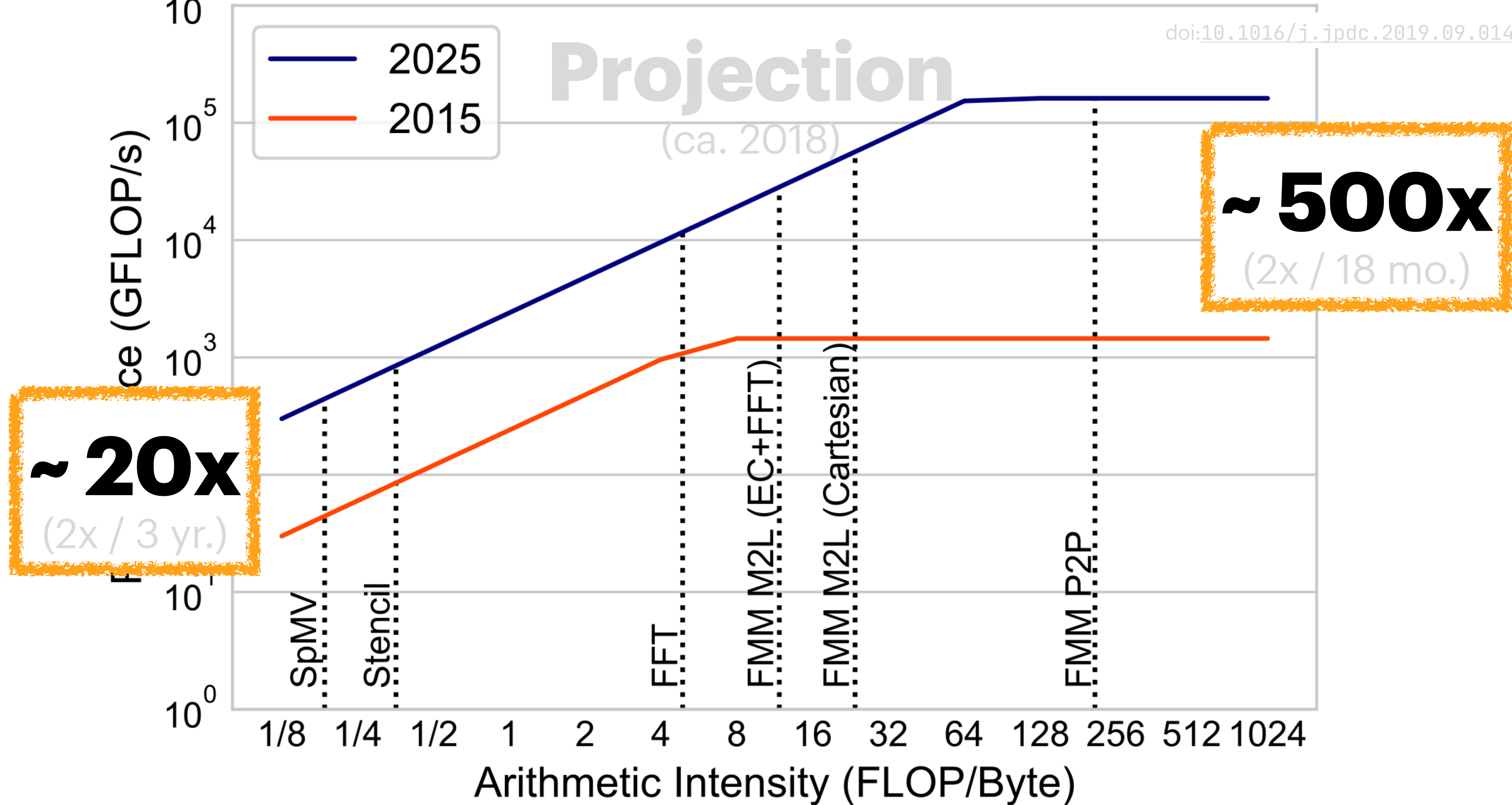


**Fig. 9.** Roofline model of NVIDIA Tesla GPU and computation intensity of various phases of the FFT, FMM, and MC methods with  $N = (22.1)^3$





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# What **will** we build?

(That last roofline exemplifying a way to answer this question.)



# HPC “trickles down” to commerce

Gregory Abowd (GT). “Beyond Weiser: From ubiquitous computing to collective computing.” DOI: [10.1109/MC.2016.22](https://doi.org/10.1109/MC.2016.22)

## OUTLOOK

**TABLE 1.** A framework for comparing computing generations, inspired by Mark Weiser.

Generation	Time frame	Human–computer ratio	Canonical device	Application	
				Initial	Follow-on
1	Mid-1930s	Many–1	Mainframe	Scientific calculation	Data processing
2	Late 1960s	1–1	PC	Spreadsheet	Database management, document processing
3	Late 1980s	1–many	Inch/foot/yard	Calendar and contact management, human–human communication	Location-based services, social media, app ecosystem, education
4	Mid-2000s	Many–many	Cloud/crowd/shroud	Personal navigation and entertainment	Health advisors, educational assistants, supply chain logistics

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		Mid-1930s	Many–1	Mainframe	Mainframe applications, inspired by Mark Weiser.	
	1	Late 1960s	1–1	PC	Electronic calculation	Data processing
	2	Late 1980s	1–many	Personal computing	Spreadsheet	Database management, document processing
	3				Internet and contact management, human–computer communication	Location-based services, social media, app ecosystem, education
	4	Mid-2000s	Many–many	Cloud computing	Global navigation and management	Health advisors, educational assistants, supply chain logistics

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} (\text{ratio}) = 0 \text{ humans : machines}$$

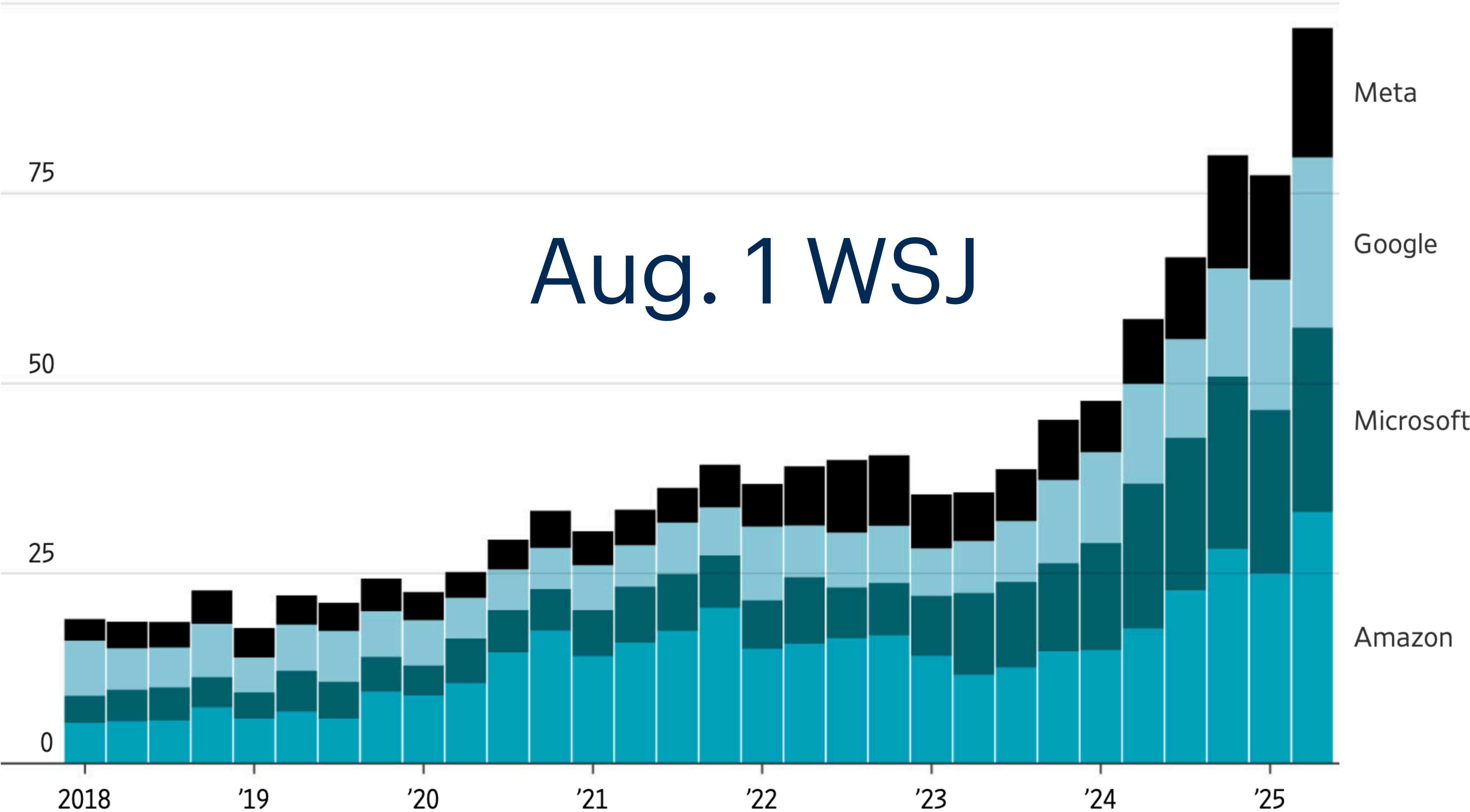
OUTLOOK	Generation	Time frame	Human–computer ratio	Capabilities	Application	
					Initial	Follow-on
		Mid-1930s	Many–1	Mainframe computers	Applications, inspired by Mark Weiser.	
		Late 1960s	1–1	PC		
	1				Electronic calculation	Data processing
	2	Late 1980s	1–many	Increasingly intelligent	Spreadsheet	Database management, document processing
	3				Internet and contact management, human–computer communication	Location-based services, social media, app ecosystem, education
	4	Mid-2000s	Many–many	Cloud computing	Global navigation and management	Health advisors, educational assistants, supply chain logistics

Follow the **money**.



Capital expenditures, quarterly

\$100 billion

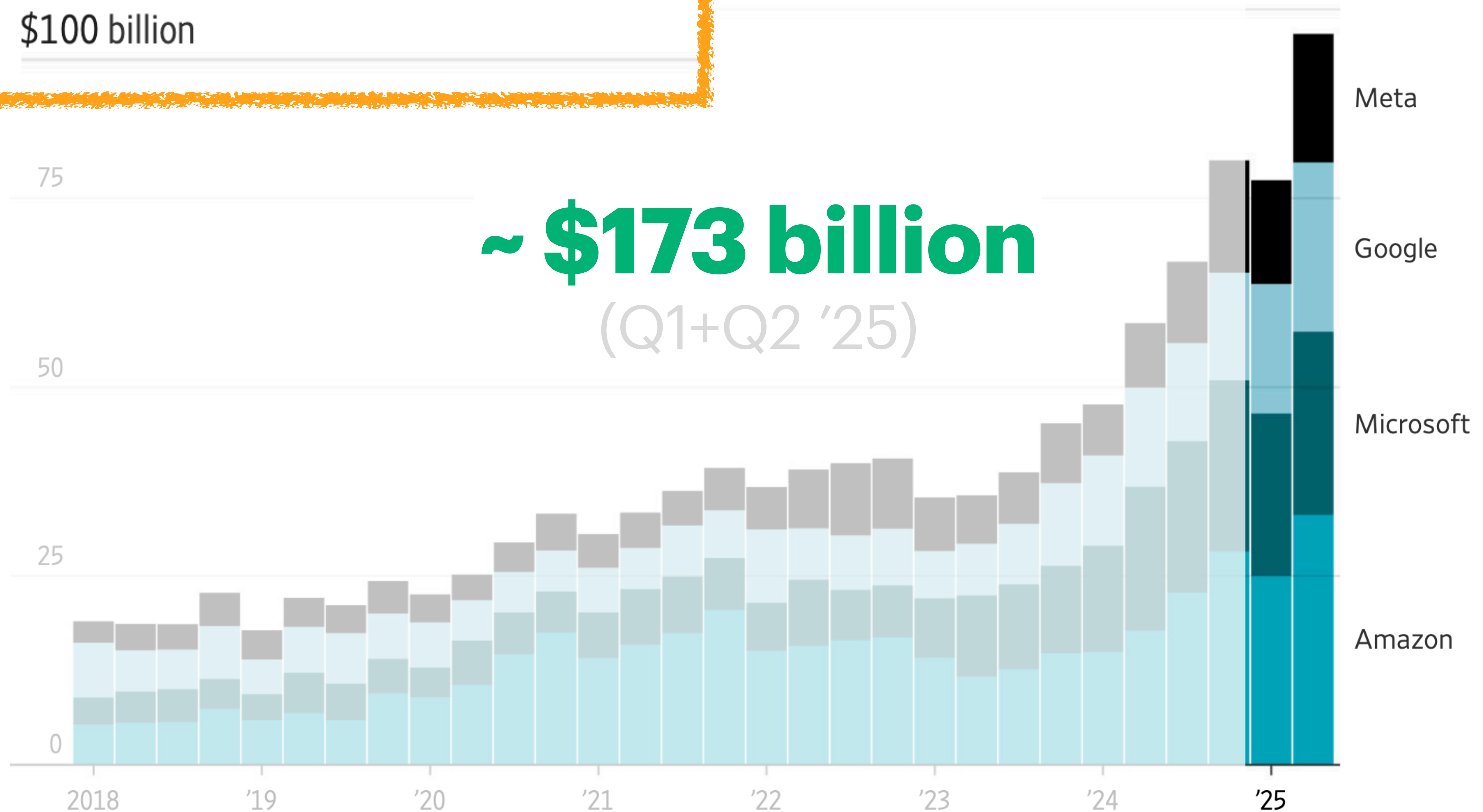


Note: Data are for calendar quarters and include finance leases.  
Source: the companies

# Capital expenditures, quarterly

\$100 billion

**~ \$173 billion**  
(Q1+Q2 '25)



Note: Data are for calendar quarters and include finance leases.

Source: the companies



111



Gift unlocked article



Listen (6 min)

Investor and tech pundit Paul Kedrosky says that, as a percentage of gross domestic product, spending on AI infrastructure has already exceeded spending on telecom and internet infrastructure from the dot-com boom—and it's still growing. He also argues that one explanation for the U.S. economy's ongoing strength, despite tariffs, is that spending on IT infrastructure is so big that it's acting as a sort of private-sector stimulus program.

Capex spending for AI contributed more to growth in the U.S. economy in the past two quarters than *all of consumer spending*, says Neil Dutta, head of economic research at Renaissance Macro Research, citing data from the Bureau of Economic Analysis.

A global accounting of this infrastructure spending would be even bigger, as it would include capex from these companies' most important partners. Foxconn has recently spent big building out factories for Apple in India, which just supplanted China as the



Rank	System	Cores	Rmax (PFlop/s)	Rpeak (PFlop/s)	Power (kW)
1	<b>El Capitan</b> - HPE Cray EX255a, AMD 4th Gen EPYC 24C 1.8GHz, AMD Instinct MI300A, Slingshot-11, TOSS, HPE DOE/NNSA/LLNL United States	11,039,616	1,742.00	2,746.38	29,581
2	<b>Frontier</b> - HPE Cray EX235a, AMD Optimized 3rd Generation EPYC 64C 2GHz, AMD Instinct MI250X, Slingshot-11, HPE Cray OS, HPE DOE/SC/Oak Ridge National Laboratory United States	9,066,176	1,353.00	2,055.72	24,607
3	<b>Aurora</b> - HPE Cray EX - Intel Exascale Compute Blade, Xeon CPU Max 9470 52C 2.4GHz, Intel Data Center GPU Max, Slingshot-11, Intel DOE/SC/Argonne National Laboratory United States	9,264,128	1,012.00	1,980.01	38,698
4	<b>JUPITER Booster</b> - BullSequana XH3000, GH Superchip 72C 3GHz, NVIDIA GH200 Superchip, Quad-Rail NVIDIA InfiniBand NDR200, RedHat Enterprise Linux, EVIDEN EuroHPC/FZJ Germany	4,801,344	793.40	930.00	13,088
5	<b>Eagle</b> - Microsoft NDv5, Xeon Platinum 8480C 48C 2GHz, NVIDIA H100, NVIDIA Infiniband NDR, Microsoft Azure United States	2,073,600	561.20	846.84	

Rank	System	Cores	Rmax (PFlop/s)	Rpeak (PFlop/s)	Power (kW)
1	<b>El Capitan</b> - HPE Cray EX255a, AMD 4th Gen EPYC 24C 1.8GHz, AMD Instinct MI300A, Slingshot-11, TOSS, HPE DOE/NNSA/LLNL United States	11,039,616	1,742.00	2,746.38	29,581
2	<b>Frontier</b> - HPE Cray EX235a, AMD Optimized 3rd Generation EPYC 64C 2GHz, AMD Instinct MI250X, Slingshot-11, HPE Cray OS, HPE DOE/SC/Oak Ridge National Laboratory United States	9,066,176	1,353.00	2,055.72	24,607
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4	<b>JUPITER Booster</b> - BullSequana XH3000, GH Superchip 72C 3GHz, NVIDIA GH200 Superchip, Quad-Rail NVIDIA InfiniBand NDR200, RedHat Enterprise Linux, FVIDEN	4,801,344	793.40	930.00	13,088

These are **real**  
supercomputers...

5 **Eagle** - Microsoft NDv5, Xeon Platinum 8480C 48C 2GHz, NVIDIA H100, NVIDIA Infiniband NDR, Microsoft Azure  
United States

2,073,600

561.20

846.84





# Inside an Azure NDv5 compute node

2x 56c Intel Sapphire Rapids

Host CPUs

2.0 TB DDR5-4800

Host DRAM

8x NVIDIA H100 / 80 GB HBM  
8x AMD MI300X / 192 GB HBM

GPU options

8x 3.84 TB E1.S NVMe

Local scratch

1x 960 GB M.2 NVMe

Boot disk

2x 1.92 TB M.2 NVMe

Service cache

8x400G NDR InfiniBand

Backend NICs

Microsoft 100G SmartNIC

Frontend NIC

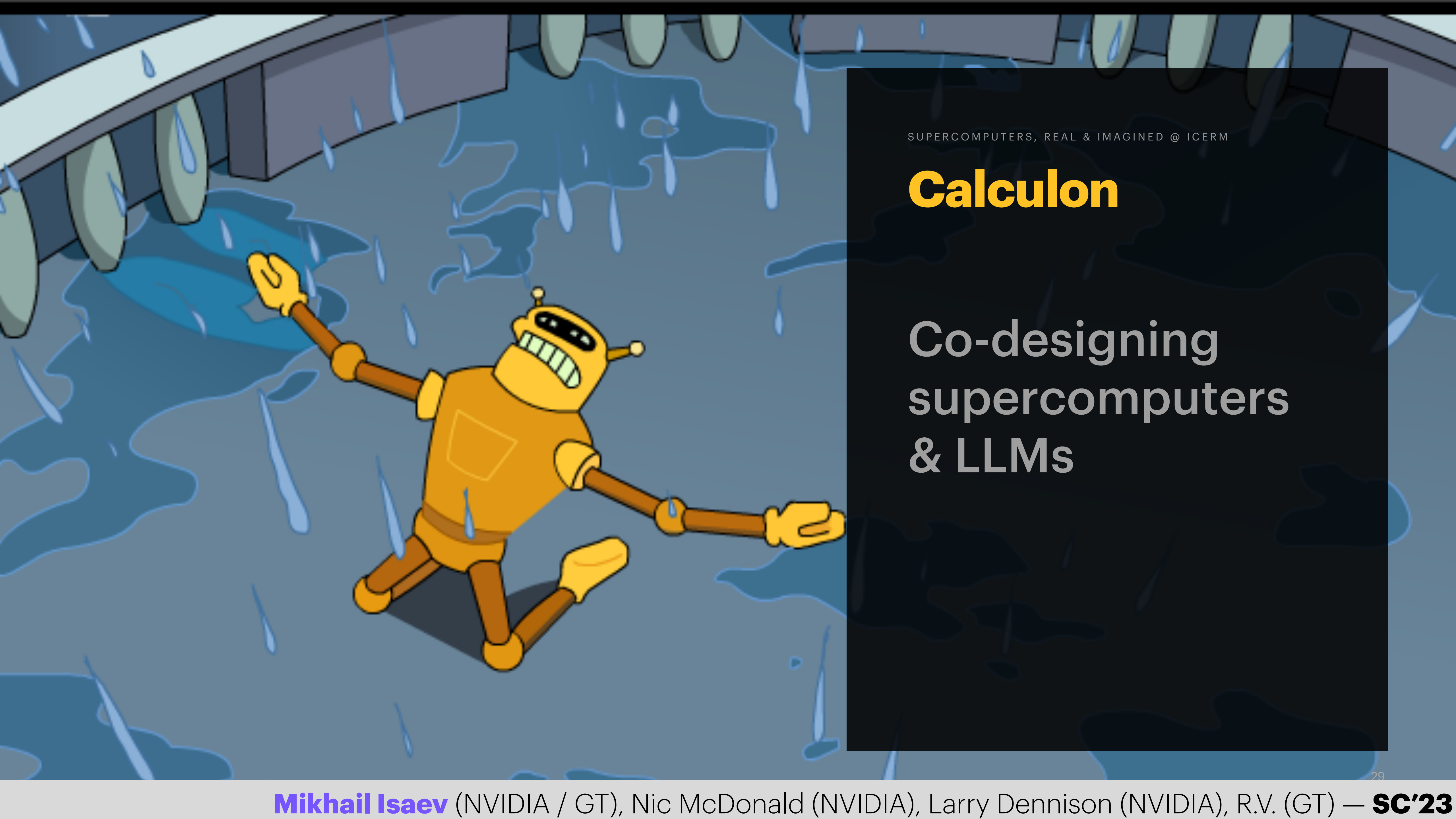


2x 56c Intel Sapphire Rapids	Host CPUs
2.0 TB DDR5-4800	Host DRAM
8x NVIDIA H100 / 80 GB HBM 8x AMD MI300X / 192 GB HBM	GPU options
8x 3.84 TB E1.S NVMe 1x 960 GB M.2 NVMe 2x 1.92 TB M.2 NVMe	Local scratch Boot disk Service cache
8x400G NDR InfiniBand Microsoft 100G SmartNIC	Backend NICs Frontend NIC



**Future supercomputers  
will be tuned for (cloud-based)  
LLM workloads.**

**What will those look like?**



SUPERCOMPUTERS, REAL & IMAGINED @ ICERM

# Calculon

Co-designing  
supercomputers  
& LLMs

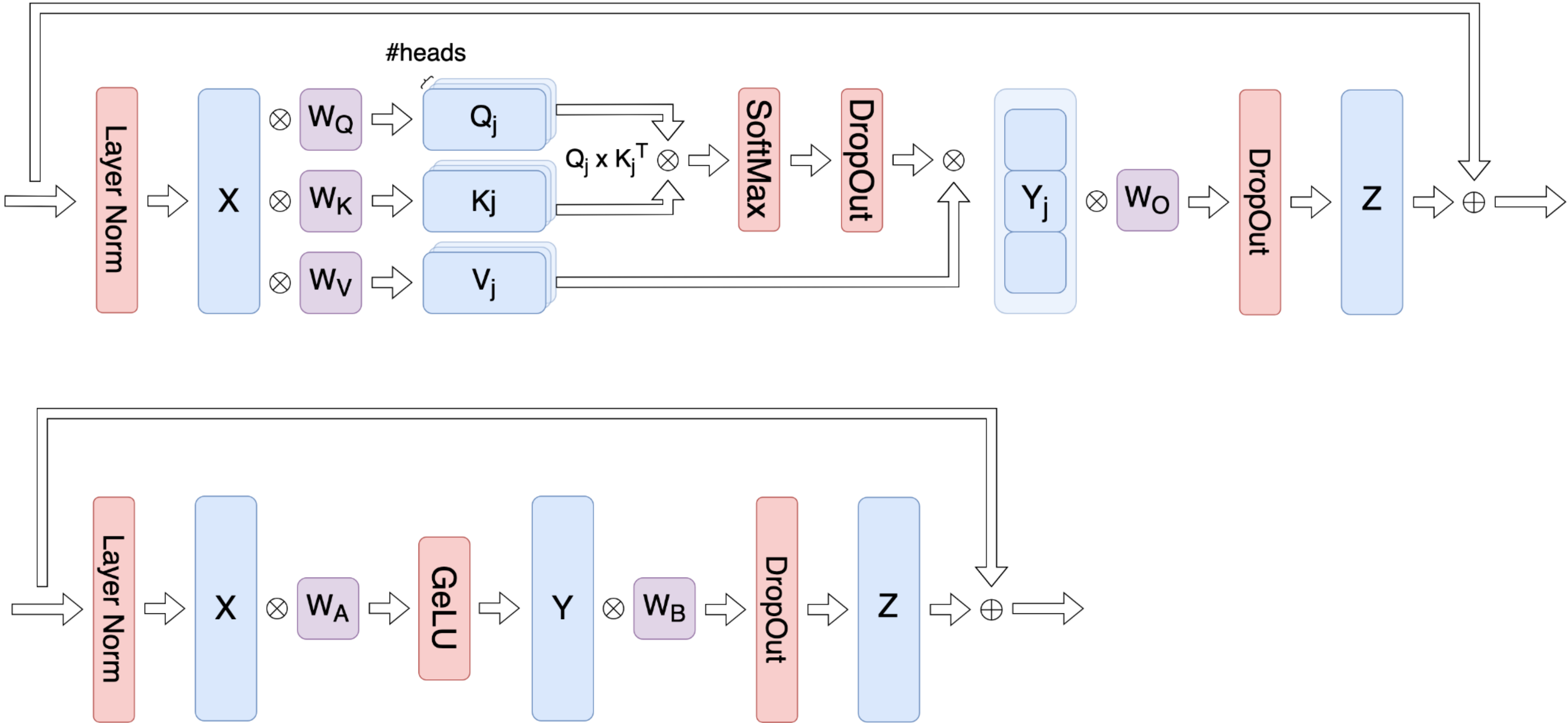
# Estimating future LLM performance on future hardware

Inputs



# Estimating future LLM performance on future hardware

Input 1: LLM structure and shapes



**Legend:**

element-wise layers

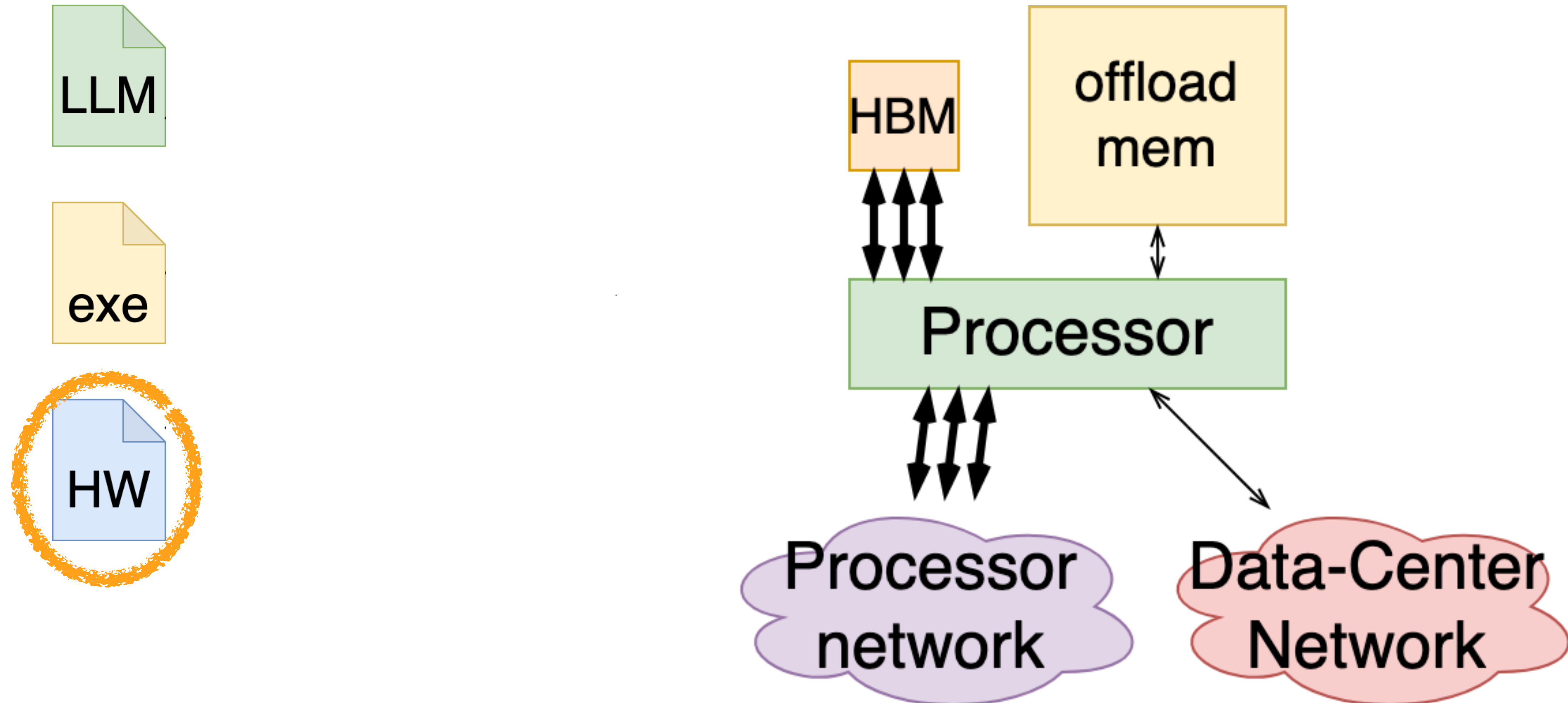
intermediate tensors

weights



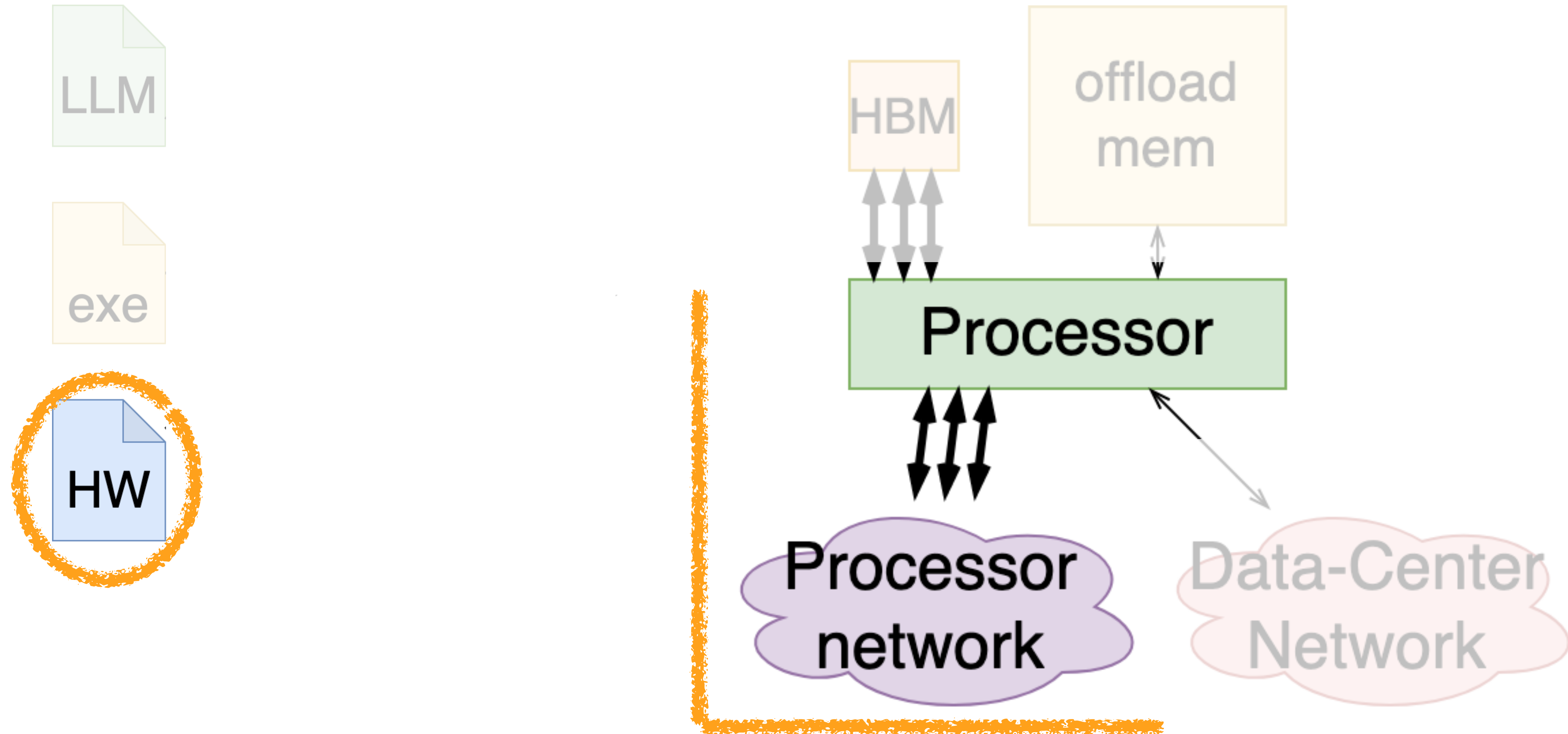
# Estimating future LLM performance on future hardware

Input 2: Hardware speeds and feeds



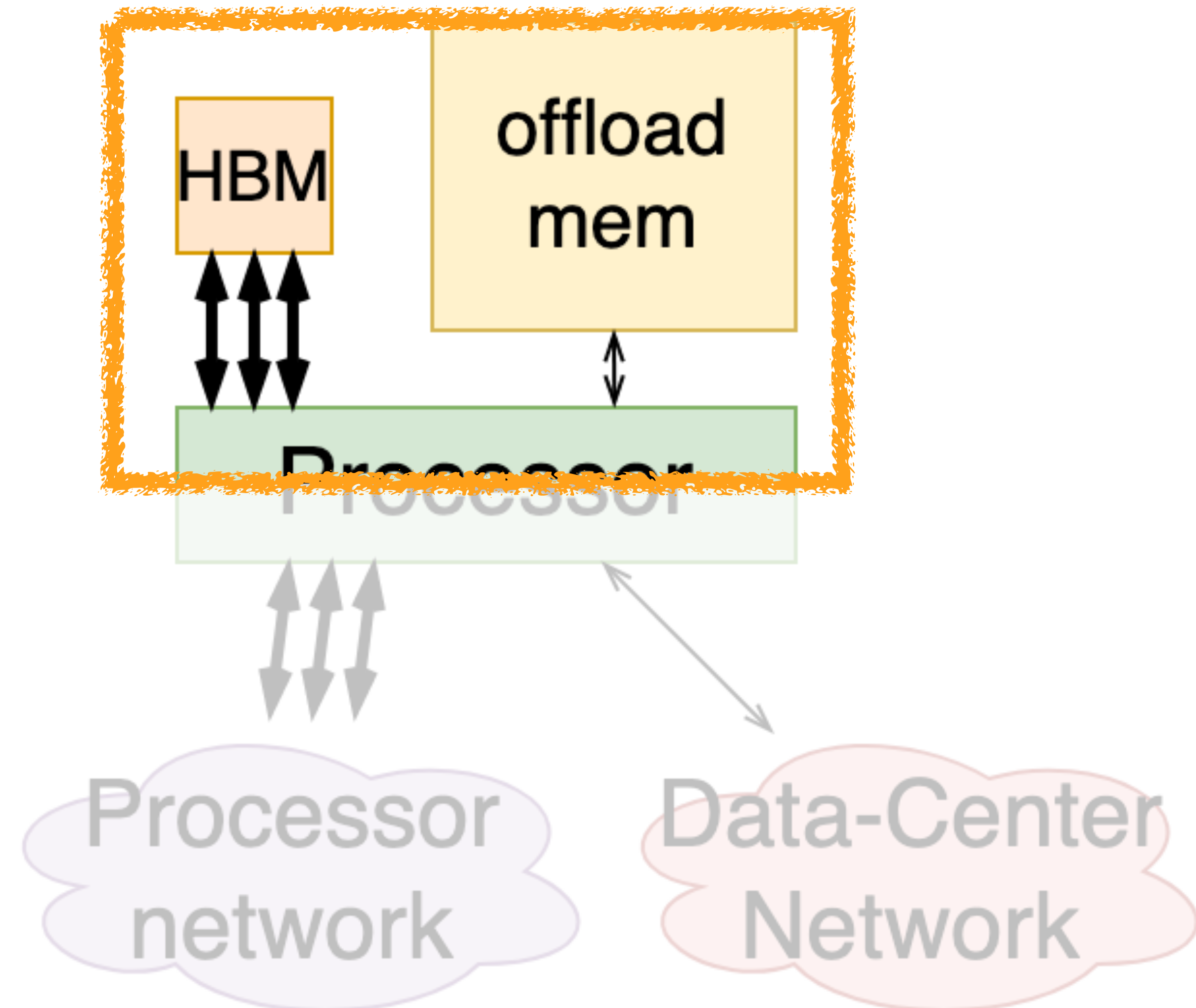
# Estimating future LLM performance on future hardware

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# Estimating future LLM performance on future hardware

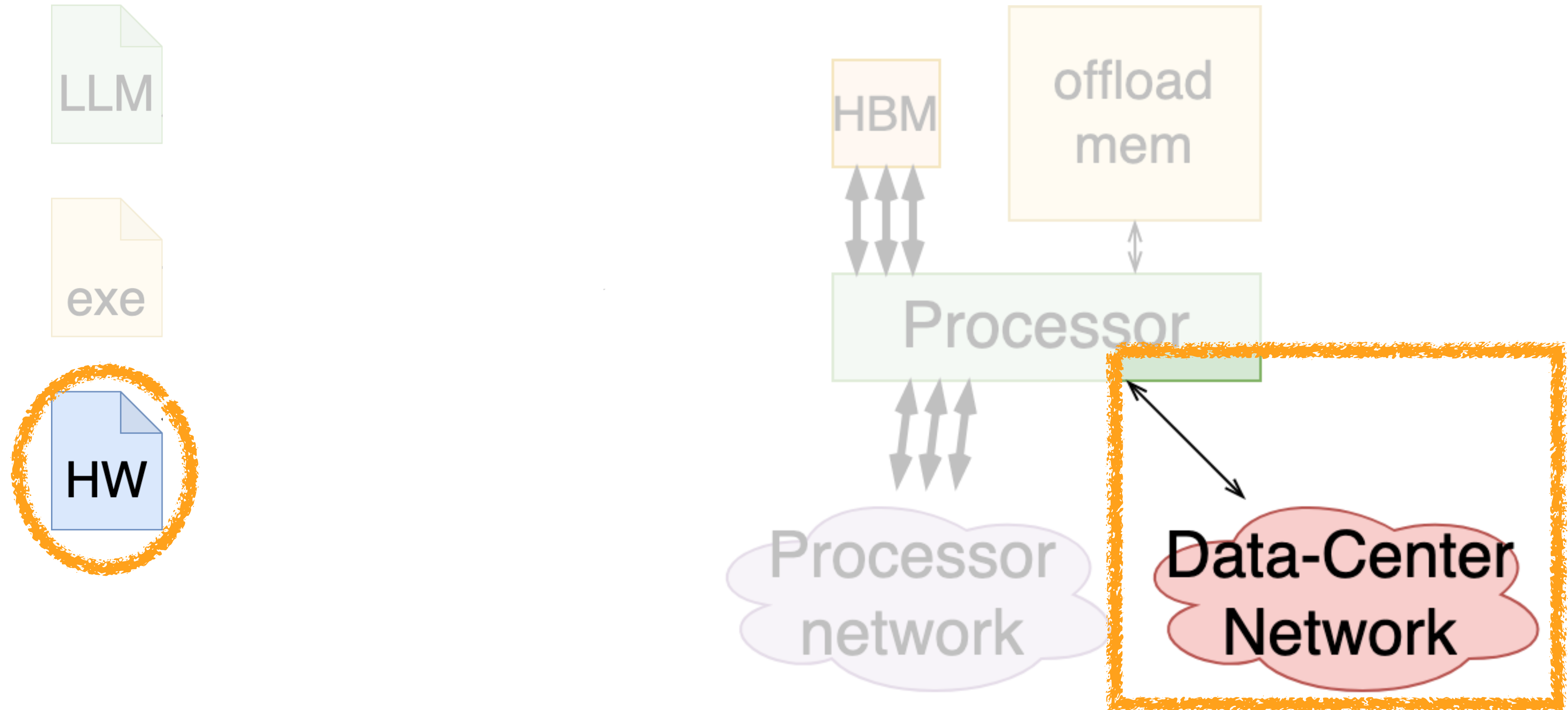
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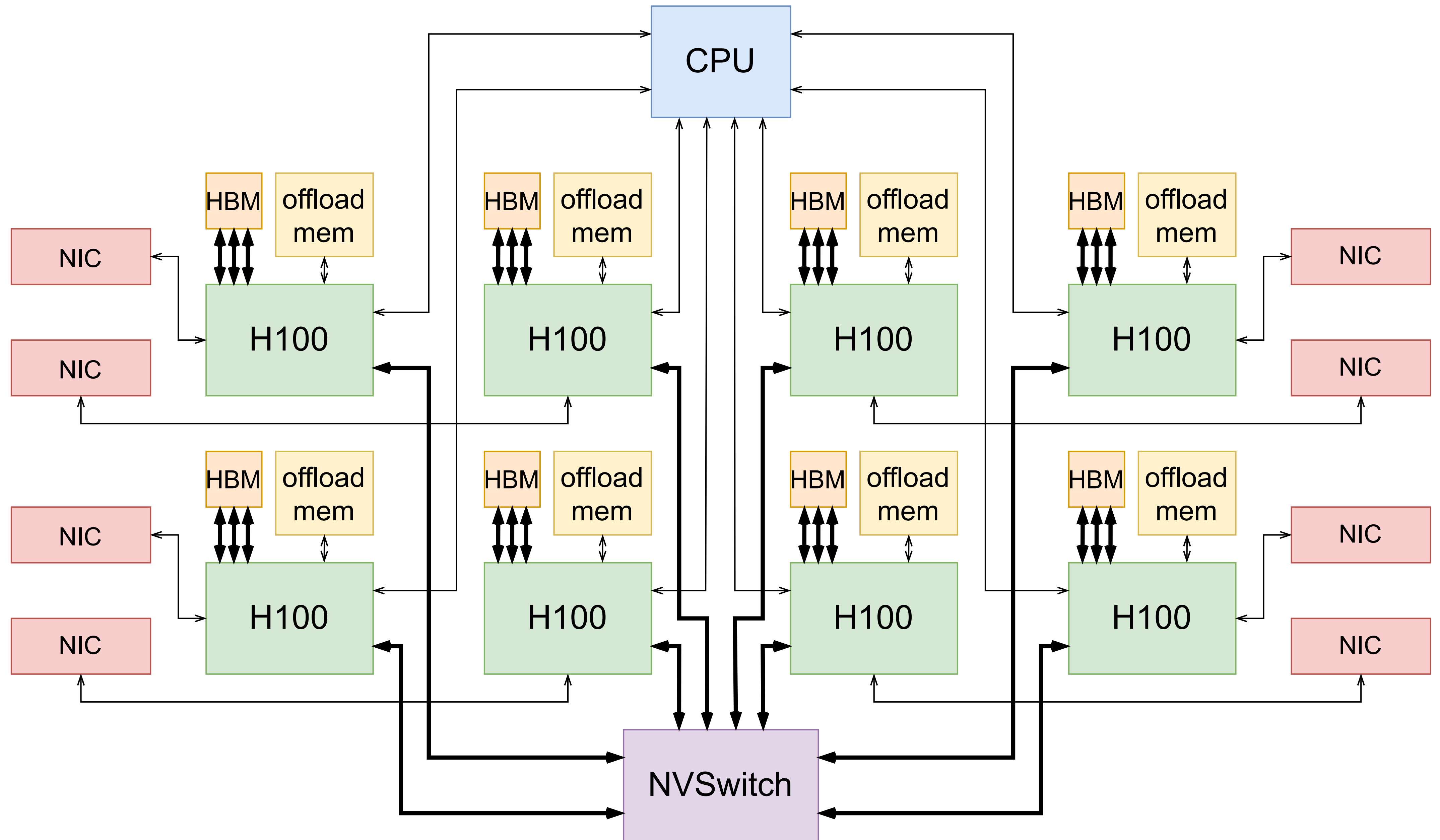




# Estimating future LLM performance on future hardware

Input 2: Hardware speeds and feeds





# Estimating future LLM performance on future hardware

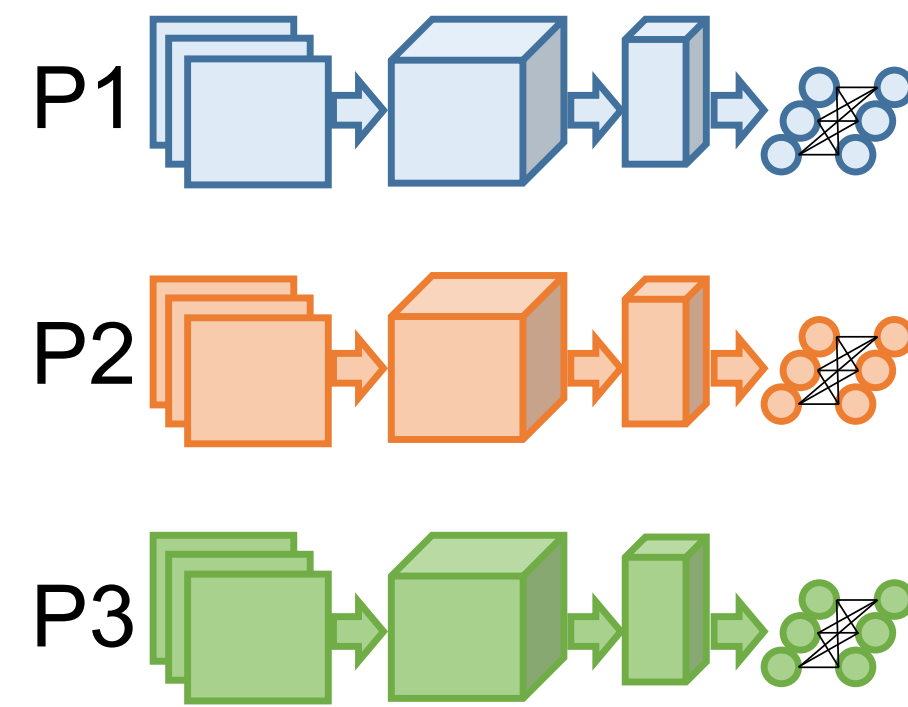
Input 3: Execution strategy  
— how will the computation  
be mapped to the machine?



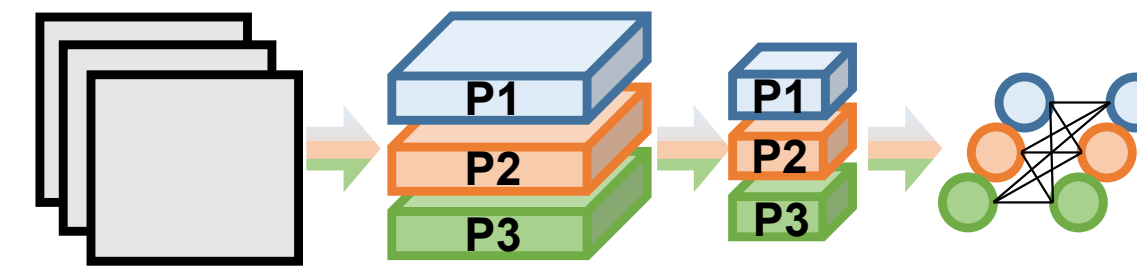


# Estimating future LLM performance on future hardware

Input 3: Execution strategy  
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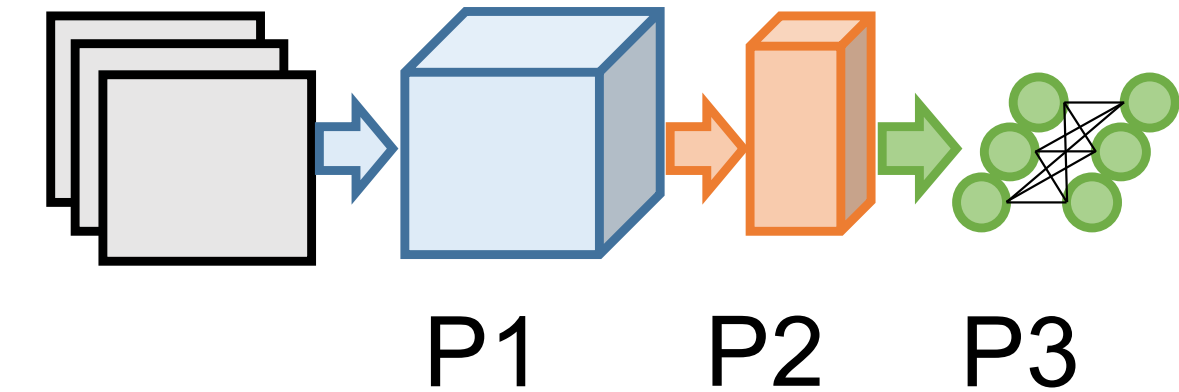


(a) Data Parallelism



(b) Model Parallelism

(Tensor)



(c) Layer Pipelining

# Estimating future LLM performance on future hardware

Input 3: Execution strategy  
— how will the computation be mapped to the machine?



Optimization	Year	Related system	Comp time	Comp util	Mem time	Mem cap	Mem BW	Net time	Net BW	range
Data parallelism (DP) [61]	1989	network	–	↑	–	↑↑↑	–	↑	↑	1 .. batch
DP overlap [25]	2017	network	↑	↓	–	–	–	↓↓↓	–	true/false
Optimizer sharding [24]	2019	network	↓	–	–	↓↓	–	–	–	true/false
Recompute [5, 10]	2000	compute	↑↑	–	–	↓↓↓	–	–	–	full/attn/none
Fused layers [28]	2018	compute	–	↑↑	↓↓	↓↓	↓	–	–	true/false
Microbatch training [13]	2019	compute	–	↑↑	–	↑↑↑	–	–	–	1 .. batch/DP
Pipeline parallelism (PP) [7, 13]	2012	network	↑	↓↓	–	↓↓	–	↑	↑	1 .. blocks
PP 1F1B schedule [7, 32]	2012	network	–	–	–	↓↓	–	–	–	true/false
PP interleaving [33]	2021	network	↓	↑↑	–	↑	–	↑	↑↑	1 .. blocks/PP
PP RS + AG [21]	2022	network	–	–	–	–	–	↓	↓↓	true/false
Tensor parallelism (TP) [7, 22, 49]	2012	network	↓↓	↓	–	↓↓	↓↓	↑↑↑	↑↑↑	1 .. attn
TP RS + AG instead AR [33]	2021	network	–	–	↑	↑	–	↓	↓	true/false
Sequence parallelism (SP) [21]	2022	network	↓	–	↓	↓↓	↓	↑	↑	true/false
TP redo for SP [21]	2022	network	–	–	–	↓	–	↑	↑	true/false
TP overlap [58]	2022	network	↑	↓	–	–	–	↓↓	–	true/false
Weight offload [48]	2021	memory	–	–	↑	↓↓↓	↑	–	–	true/false
Activation offload [48]	2021	memory	–	–	↑	↓↓↓	↑	–	–	true/false
Optimizer offload [48]	2021	memory	–	–	↑	↓	↑	–	–	true/false

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# Estimating future LLM performance on future hardware

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# Estimating future LLM performance on future hardware

Input 3: Execution strategy  
— how will the computation be mapped to the machine?

a factor of  $TP$  except for the activation space:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Flops}_{\text{fw}}^{\text{BLK}} &\approx \text{Flops}_{\text{recomp}}^{\text{BLK}} \approx \text{Flops}_{\text{agrad}}^{\text{BLK}} \approx \text{Flops}_{\text{wgrad}}^{\text{BLK}} \approx \frac{12 \text{ batch} \times \text{seq} \times \text{hidden}^2}{TP} \\
 \frac{M_{\text{weight}}^{\text{BLK}}}{TP} &\approx 12 \text{ hidden}^2 B_{\text{weight}} \\
 M_{\text{act}}^{\text{BLK}} &\approx \text{batch} \times \text{seq} \times \text{hidden} \times \left( 4B_{\text{act}} + 2 + \frac{12B_{\text{act}}}{TP} + (2B_{\text{act}} + 1) \frac{\text{attn} \times \text{seq}}{TP \times \text{hidden}} \right) B_{\text{act}} \\
 M_{\text{act\_checkpoint}}^{\text{BLK}} &= \frac{\text{batch} \times \text{seq} \times \text{hidden} B_{\text{act}}}{TP}. \tag{2.15}
 \end{aligned}$$

For the case of partial activation recomputation [91], attention-related activations are not stored and activation space becomes:

(See Isaev's thesis: <https://hdl.handle.net/1853/75228>)



# Estimating hardware



```

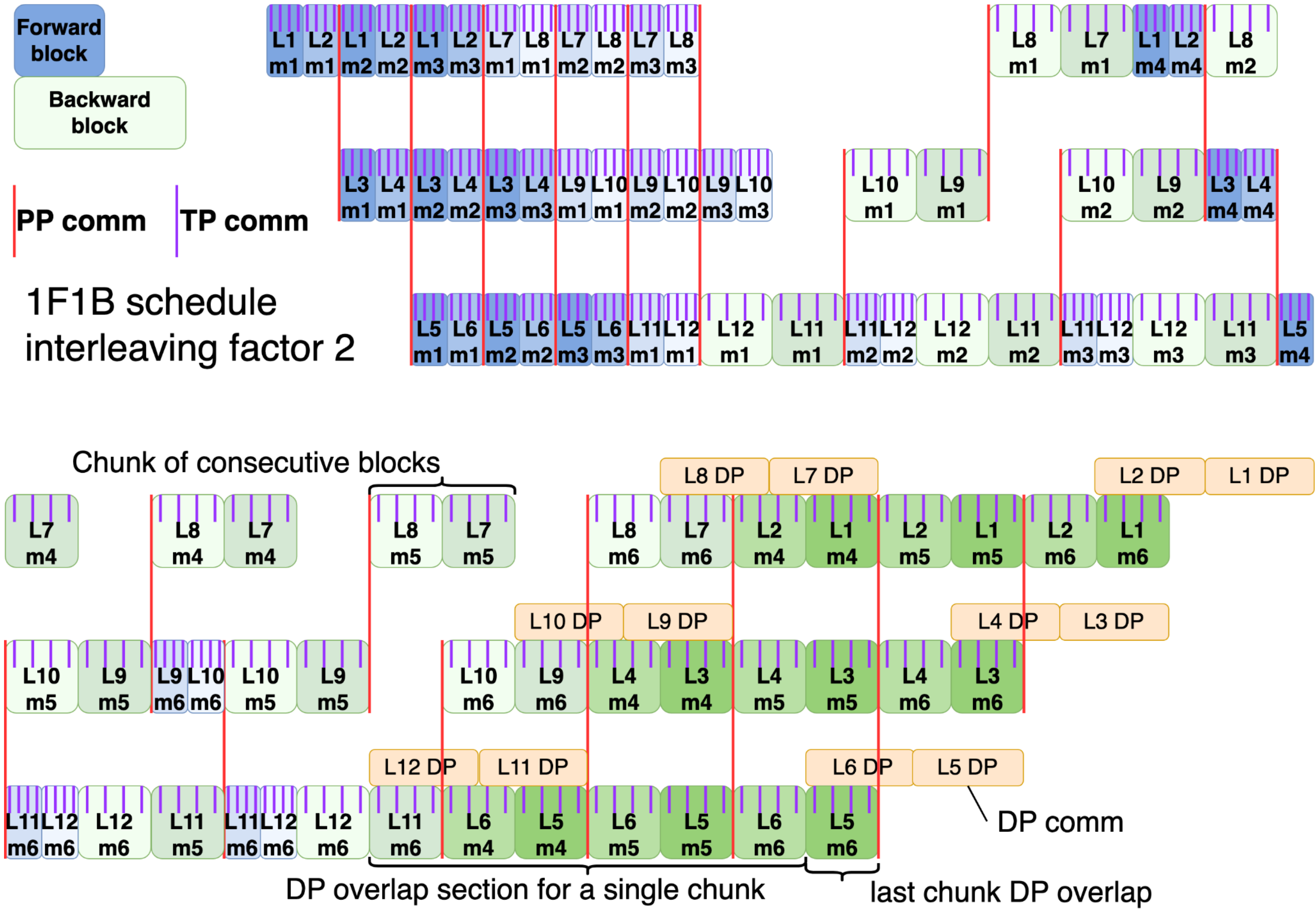
... llm.py ×
calculon > llm > llm.py
22 class Llm:
1448 def _compute_batch_stats(self):
1730     if self.exe.data_par > 1 and self.exe.training:
1731         if self.exe.data_par_overlap:
1736             # We can overlap DP with BW pass, overlap[ing AR for previous layer
1737             # with BW for current, except when optimizer sharded. We can't overlap
1738             # during optimizer step as we RS grads before step and AG weights after
1739             # Overlappable chunks have overlap size equal to
1740             # blocks_per_chunk * num_microbatches
1741             # In case of 1F1B schedule, num_microbatches == pipeline_par
1742             overlap_window = self.exe.pipeline_par * chunk_dp_overlap_time
1743             overlap_compute = self.exe.pipeline_par * chunk_dp_compute_time
1744             chunk_dp_time = self._blocks_per_chunk * self._block_dp_time
1745             # We may have PP and DP comm colliding if DP comm takes longer than
1746             # a single chunk BW time. We can't collide more PP than microbatches
1747             if self._dp_net == self._pp_net:
1748                 if self.exe._num_microbatches % self.exe.pipeline_par != 0:
1749                     num_overlapped_pp = min(
1750                         chunk_dp_time // chunk_bw_time,
1751                         self.exe._num_microbatches % self.exe.pipeline_par)
1752                 else:
1753                     num_overlapped_pp = min(
1754                         chunk_dp_time // chunk_bw_time,
1755                         self.exe.pipeline_par)
1756             else:
1757                 # if PP and DP on different networks, overlapping is fine
1758                 num_overlapped_pp = 0
1759             # we add DP/PP collision time and compute slowdown due to overlap
1760             overlap_inflection = chunk_dp_time - (overlap_window -
1761                 num_overlapped_pp * chunk_bw_pp_time) + overlap_compute * \
1762                 self._dp_net.processor_usage
1763             if overlap_inflection > 0:
1764                 # Tcomm is larger than compute, excess is exposed
1765                 overlappable_chunks_exposed_time = num_overlappable_chunks * \
1766                     overlap_inflection
1767             else:
1768                 # Tcomm is smaller than compute and hidden, but it contributes to

```



# Estimating future LLM performance on future hardware

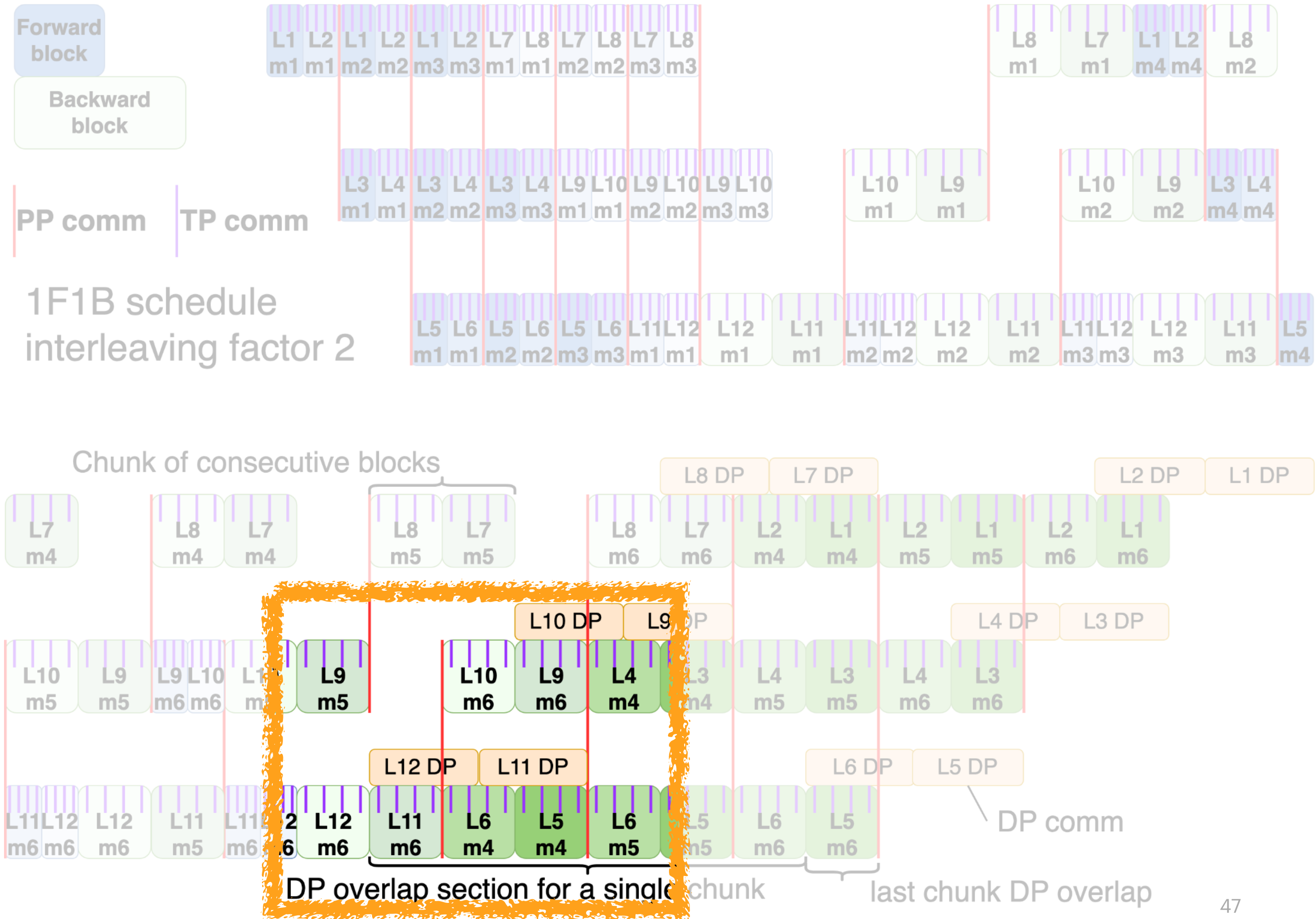
Input 3: Execution strategy  
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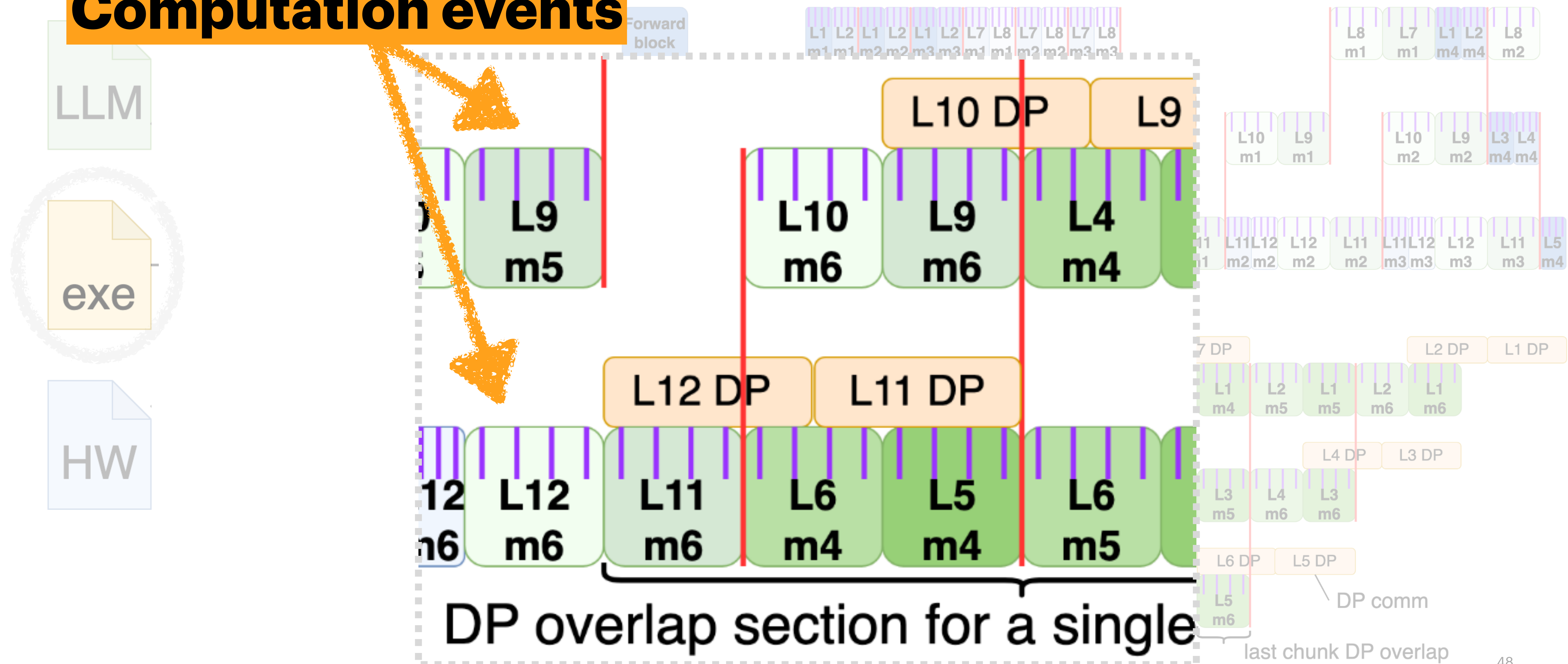
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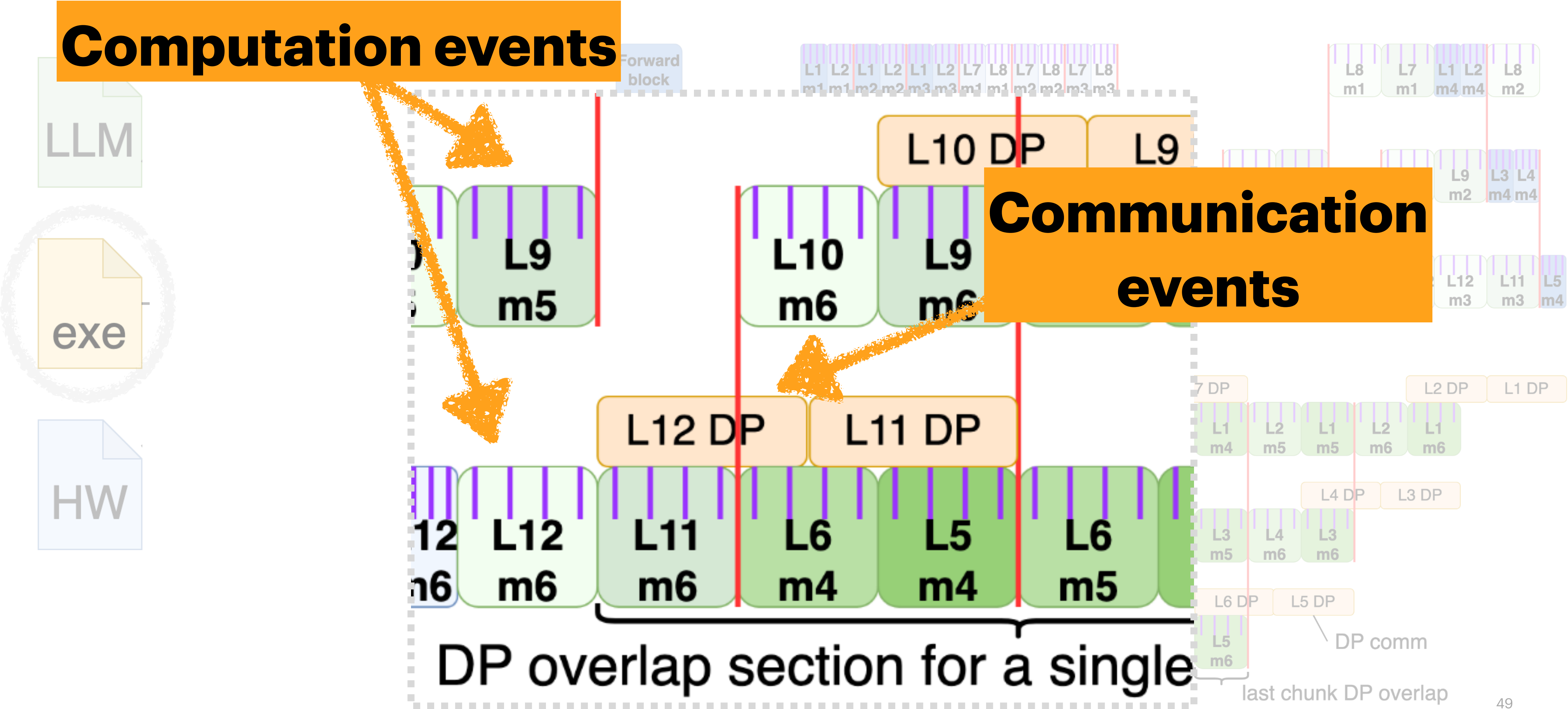


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# Computation events



Input 3: Execution strategy  
— how will the computation  
be mapped to the machine?

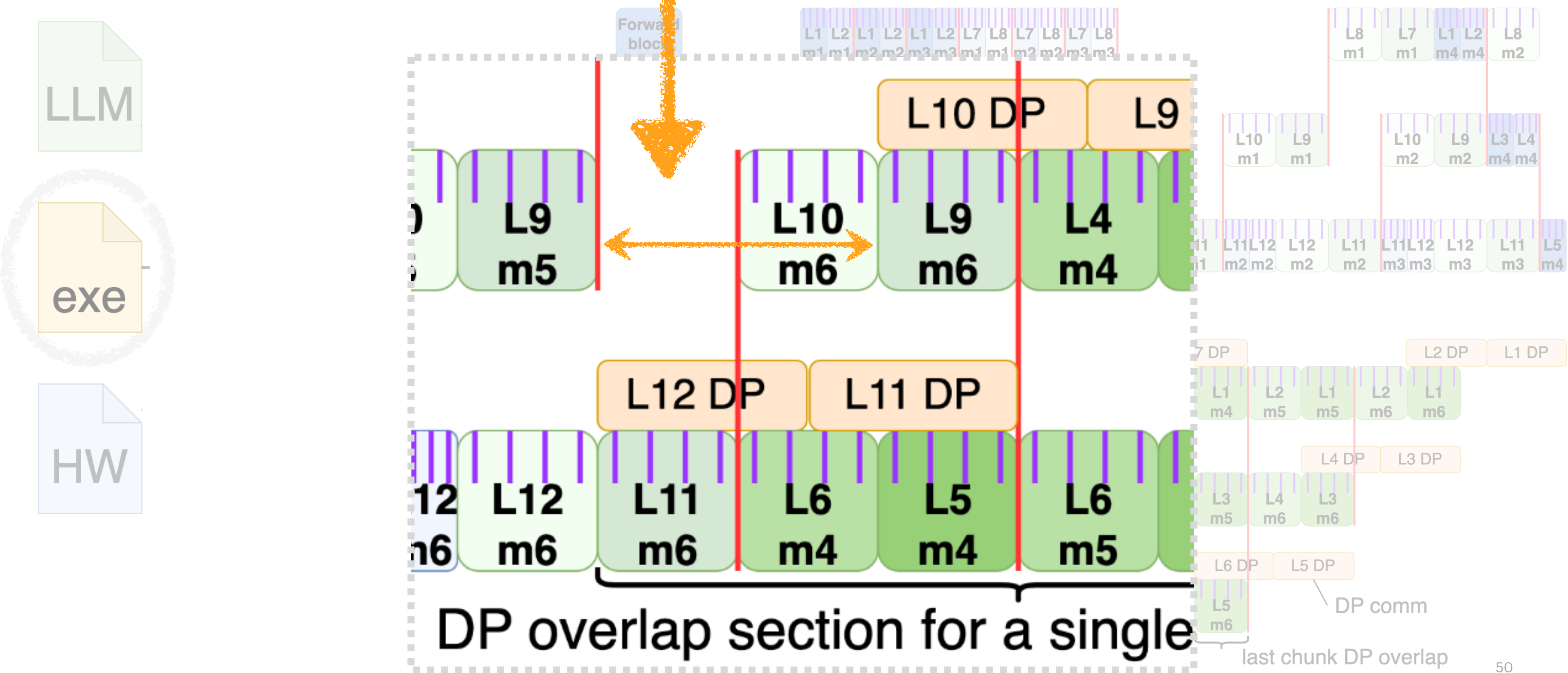




Input: Execution strategy —  
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be mapped to the machine?

# Inefficiency gaps

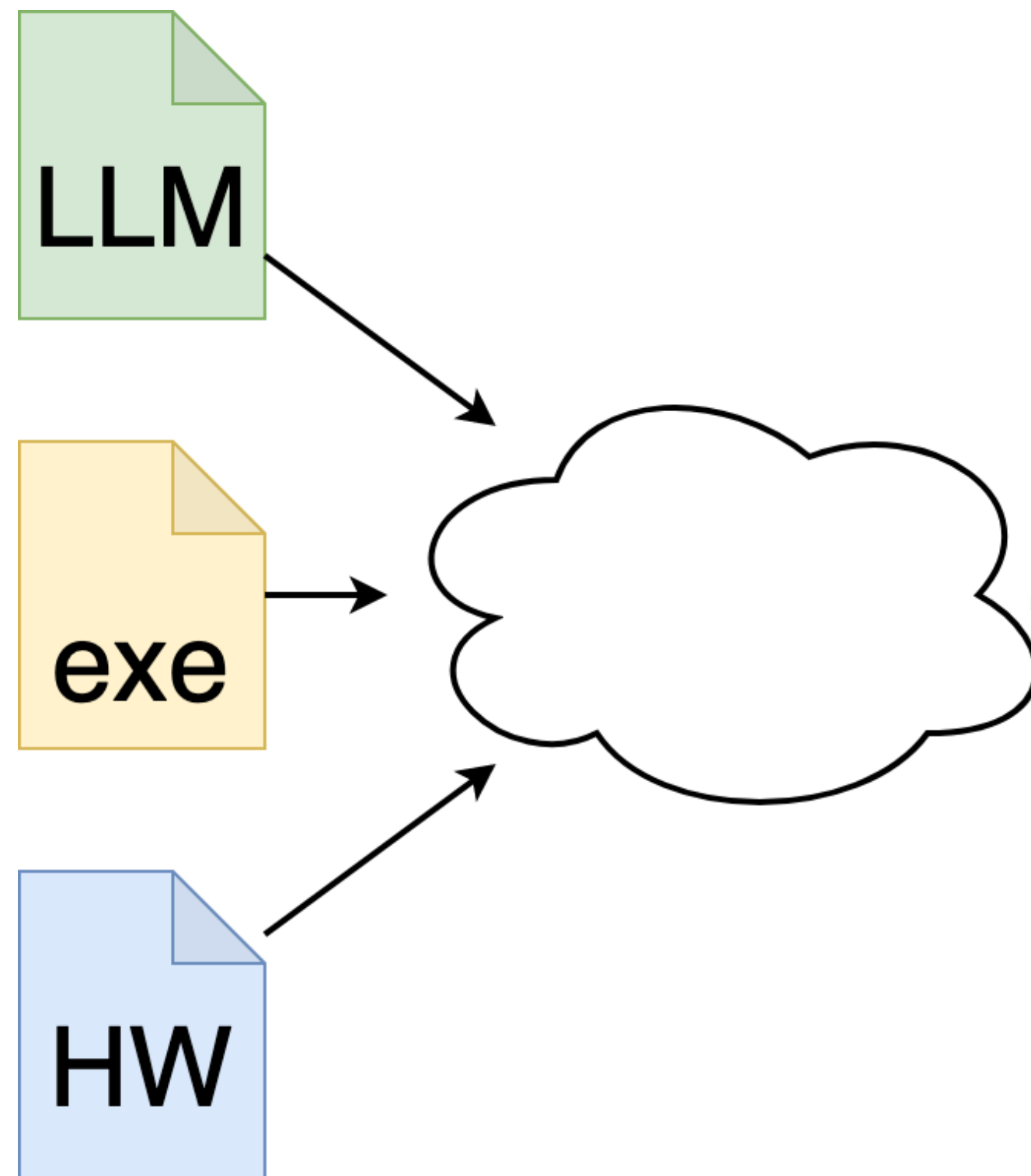
(Dependencies that inhibit full utilization)





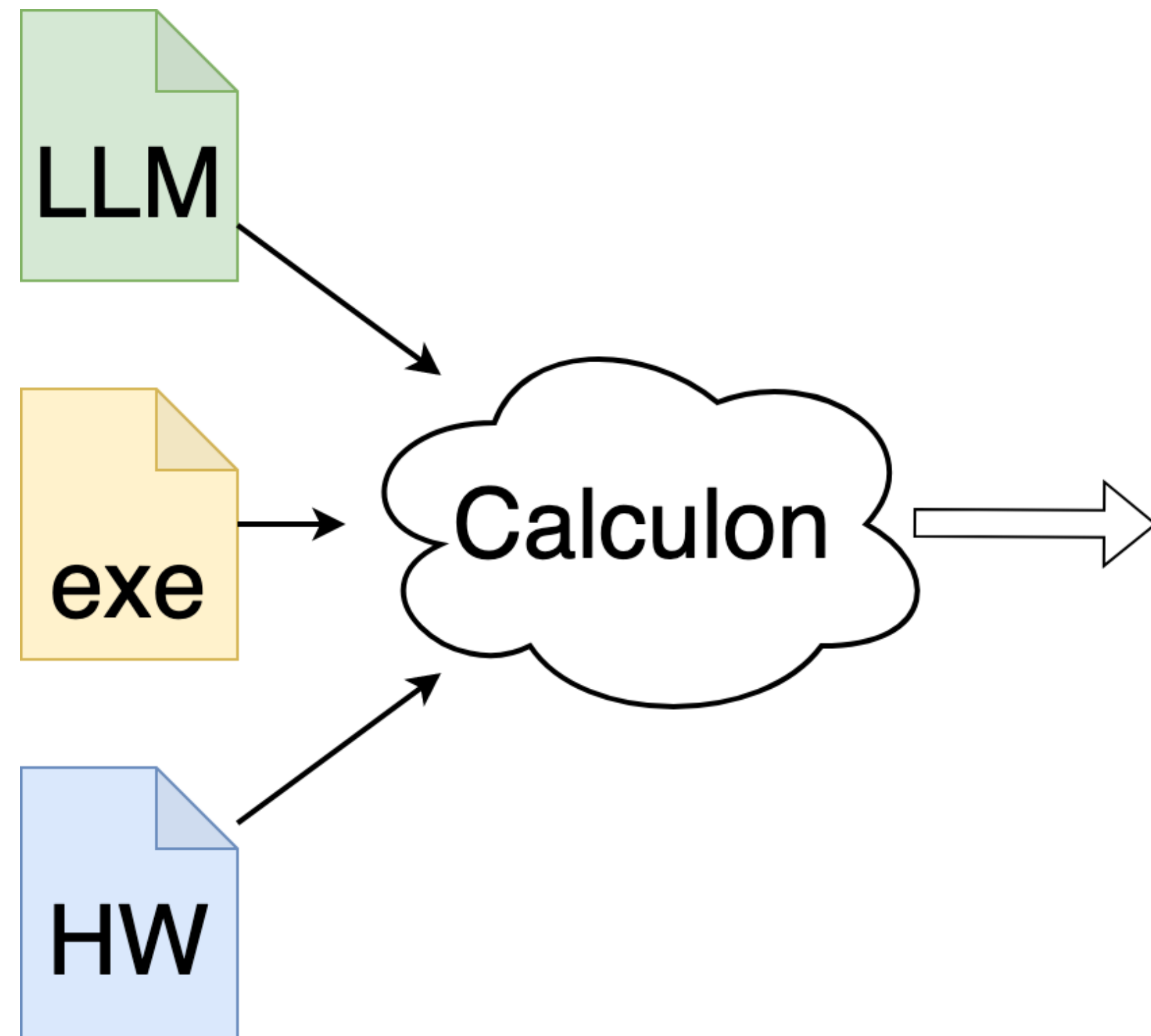
# Estimating future LLM performance on future hardware

Putting it all together...



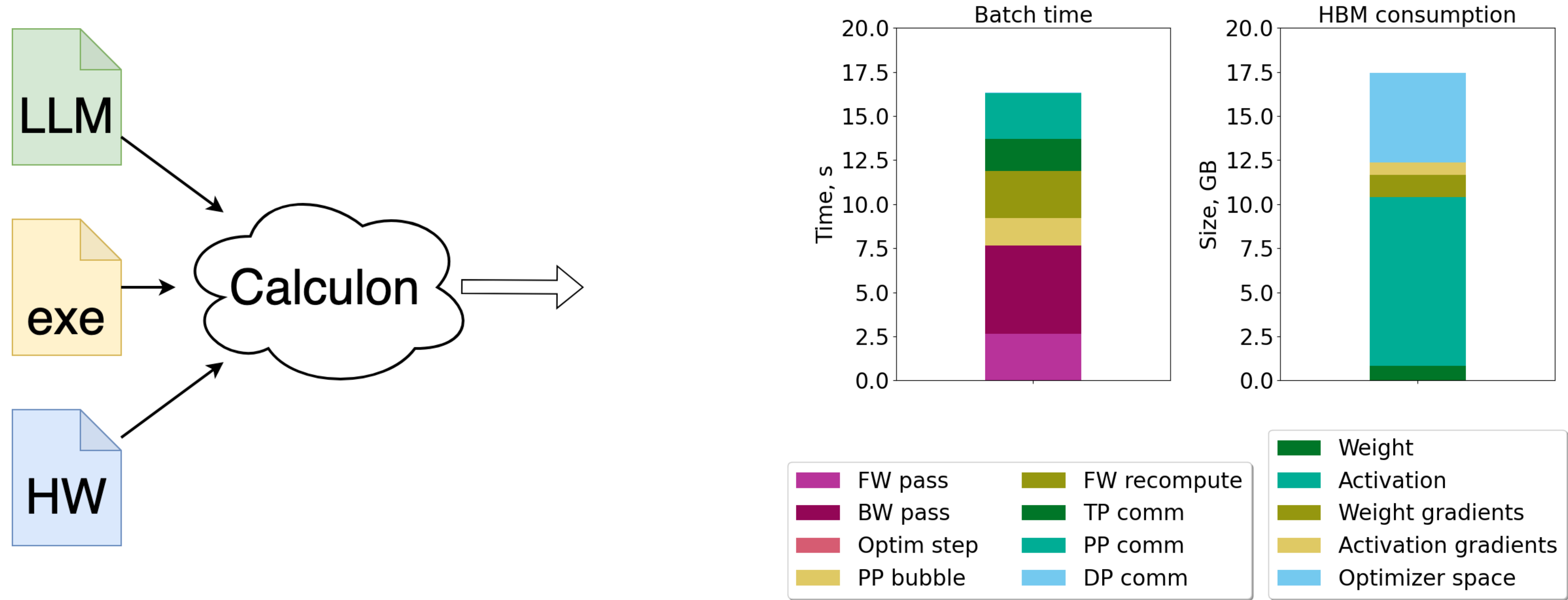
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Putting it all together...



# Estimating future LLM performance on future hardware

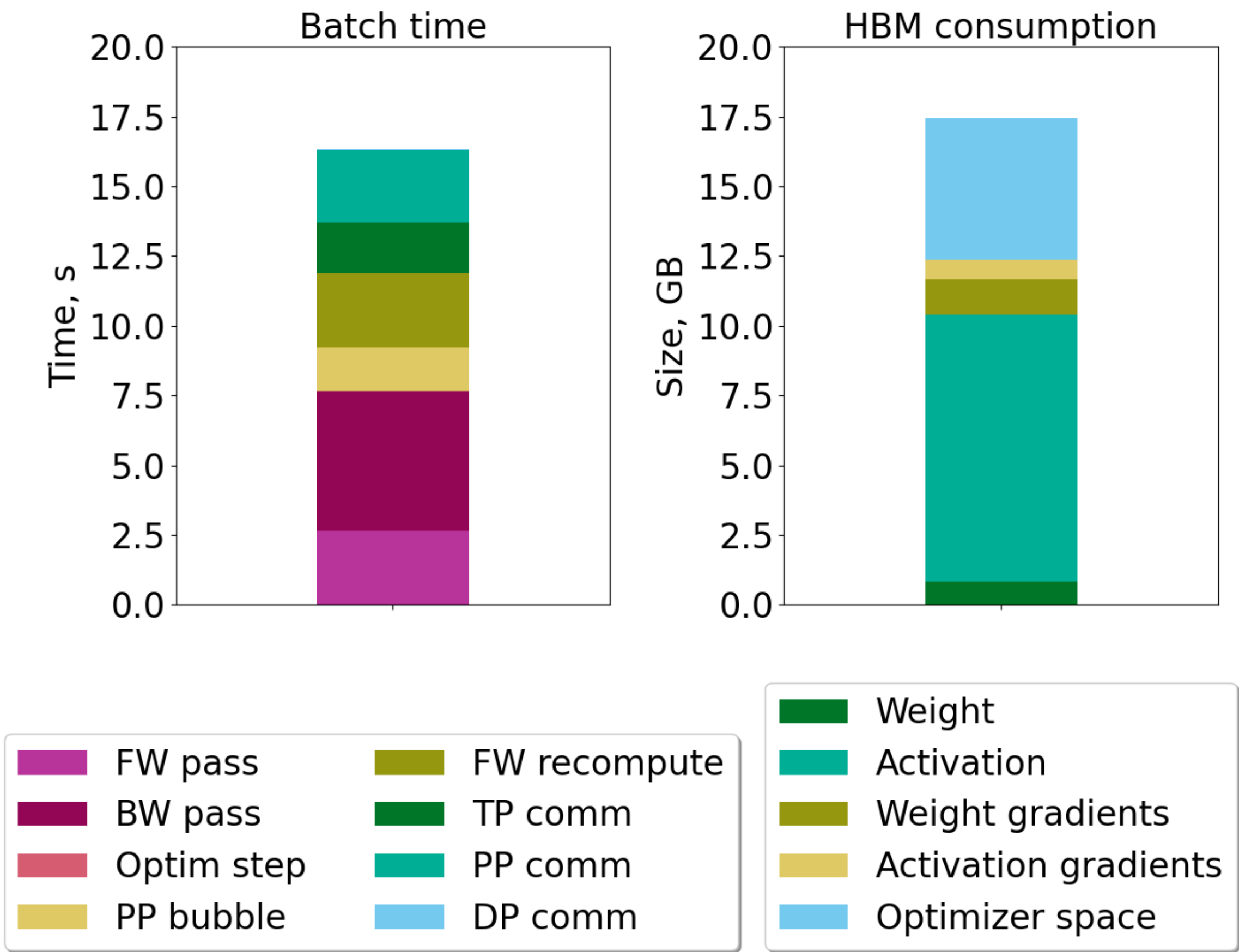
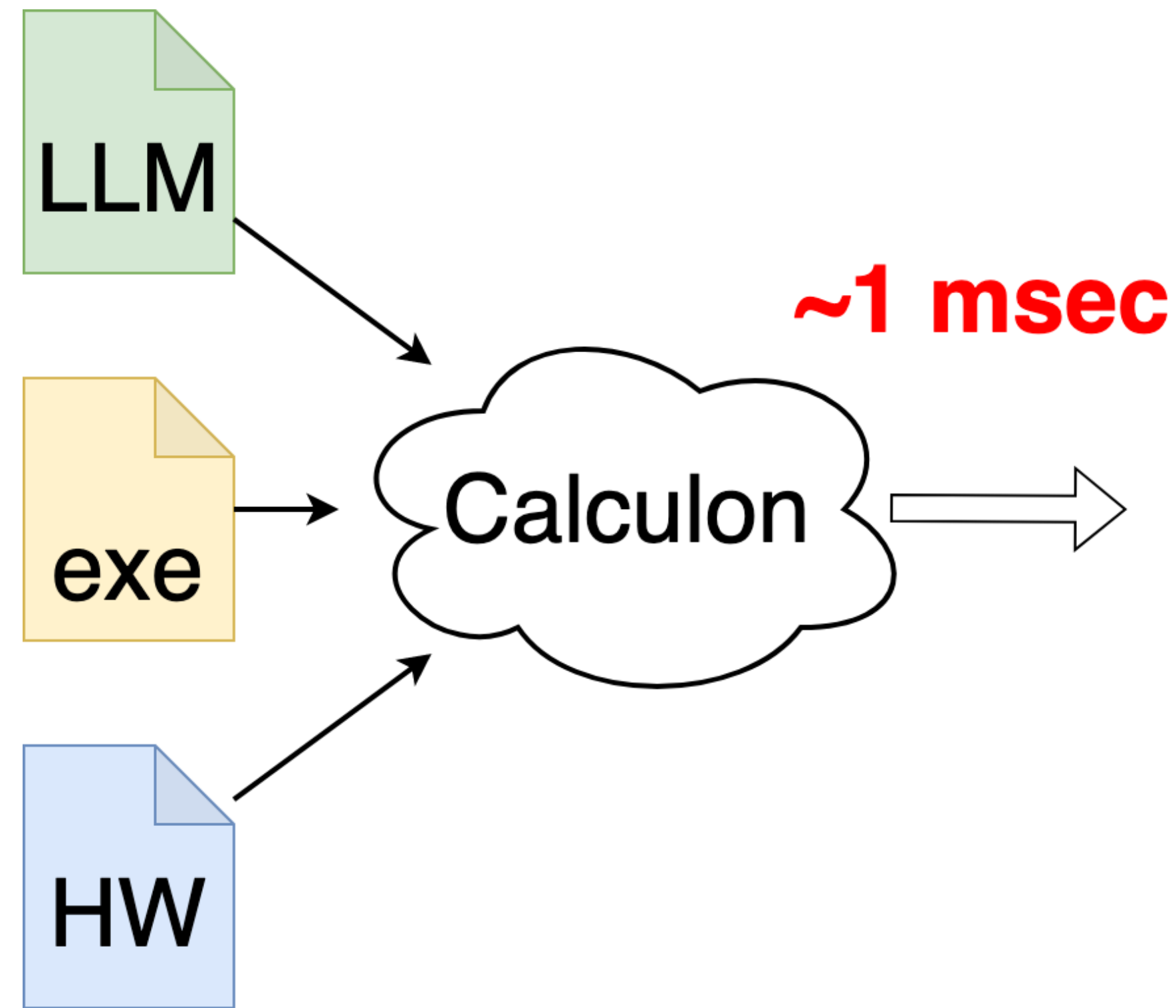
Putting it all together...





# Estimating future LLM performance on future hardware

Putting it all together...



# Six case studies

Applying Calculon and interpreting its results.

1. **Comparing data vs. tensor vs. pipeline parallelism:** Can combine and tune to manage time-space tradeoffs
2. **Characterizing the “speed distribution:”** An optimal configuration can be a “needle in a haystack”
3. **Strong scaling analysis:** Speed “cliffs” and “plateaus” exist due to “awkward mappings”
4. **Offload memory:** Slow, “low” bandwidth memory can dramatically reduce fast memory capacity requirements
5. **Price-performance analysis:** How should you set up your next \$100 million system?
6. **Next-gen models:** What happens at **100 trillion parameters** (and beyond)?

# Six case studies

Applying Calculon and interpreting its results.

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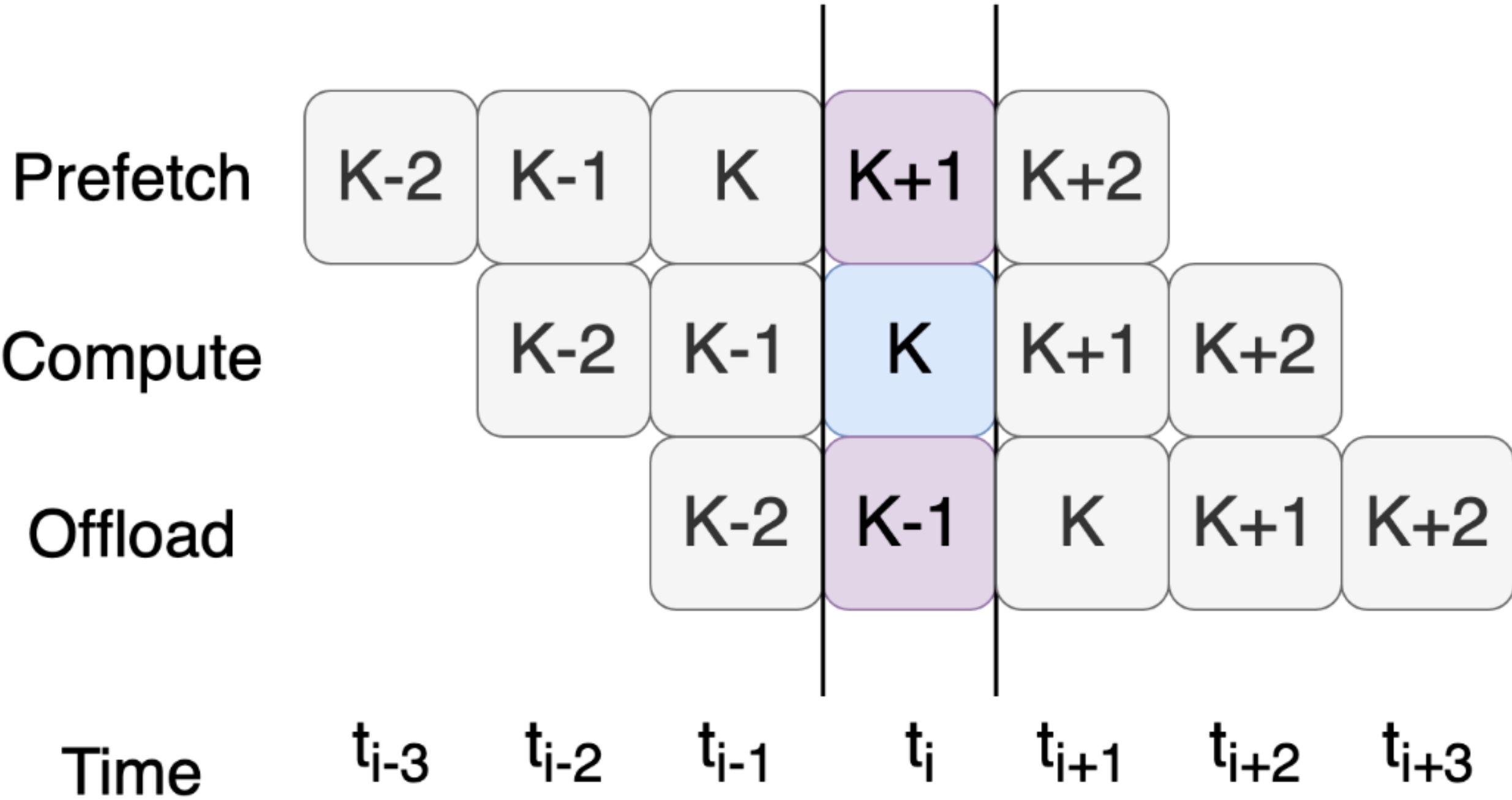
# Study 4: tensor offloading

Analyzing an algorithmic design choice that balances parallelization with memory use.

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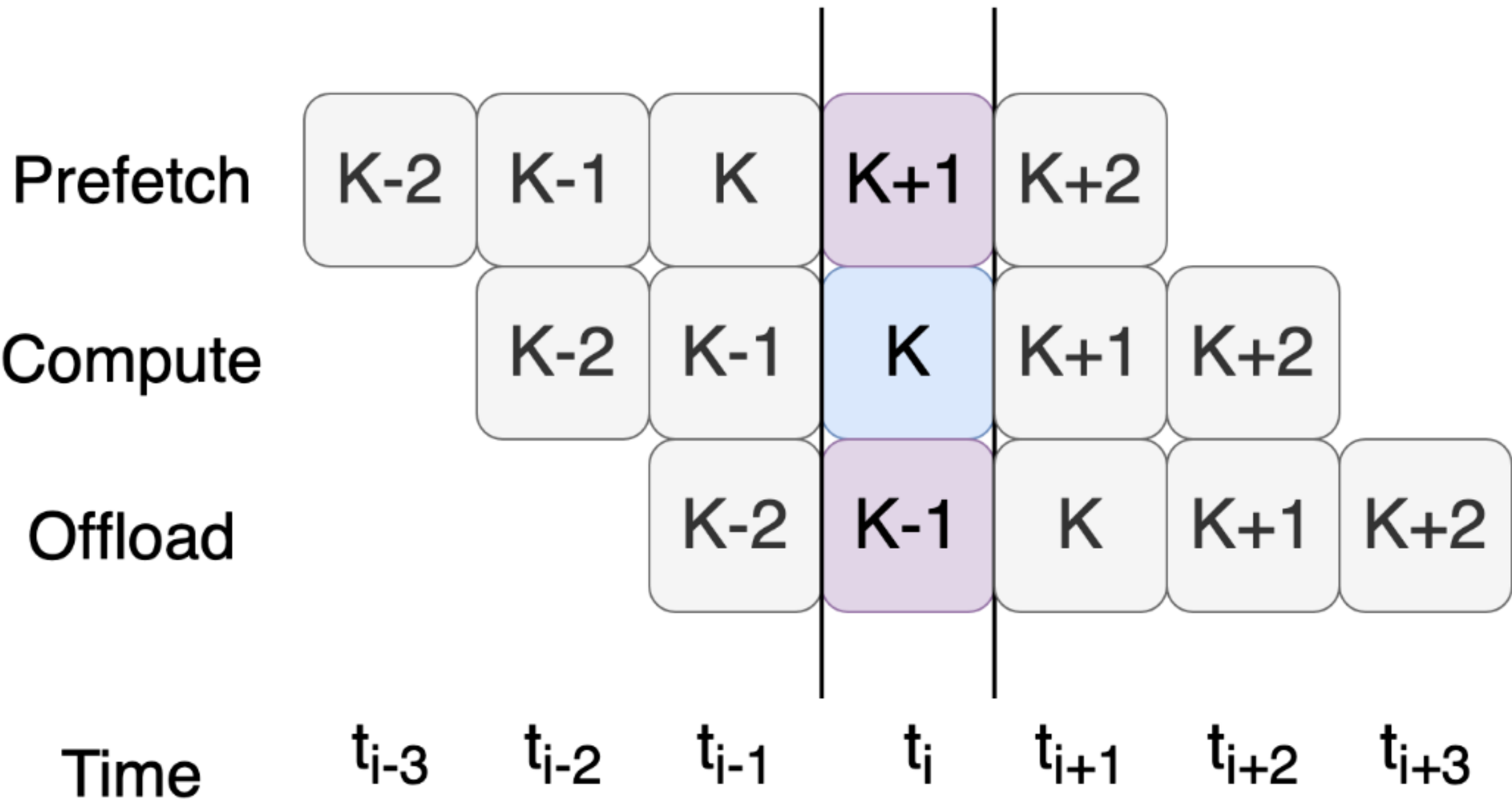
Compute pipeline



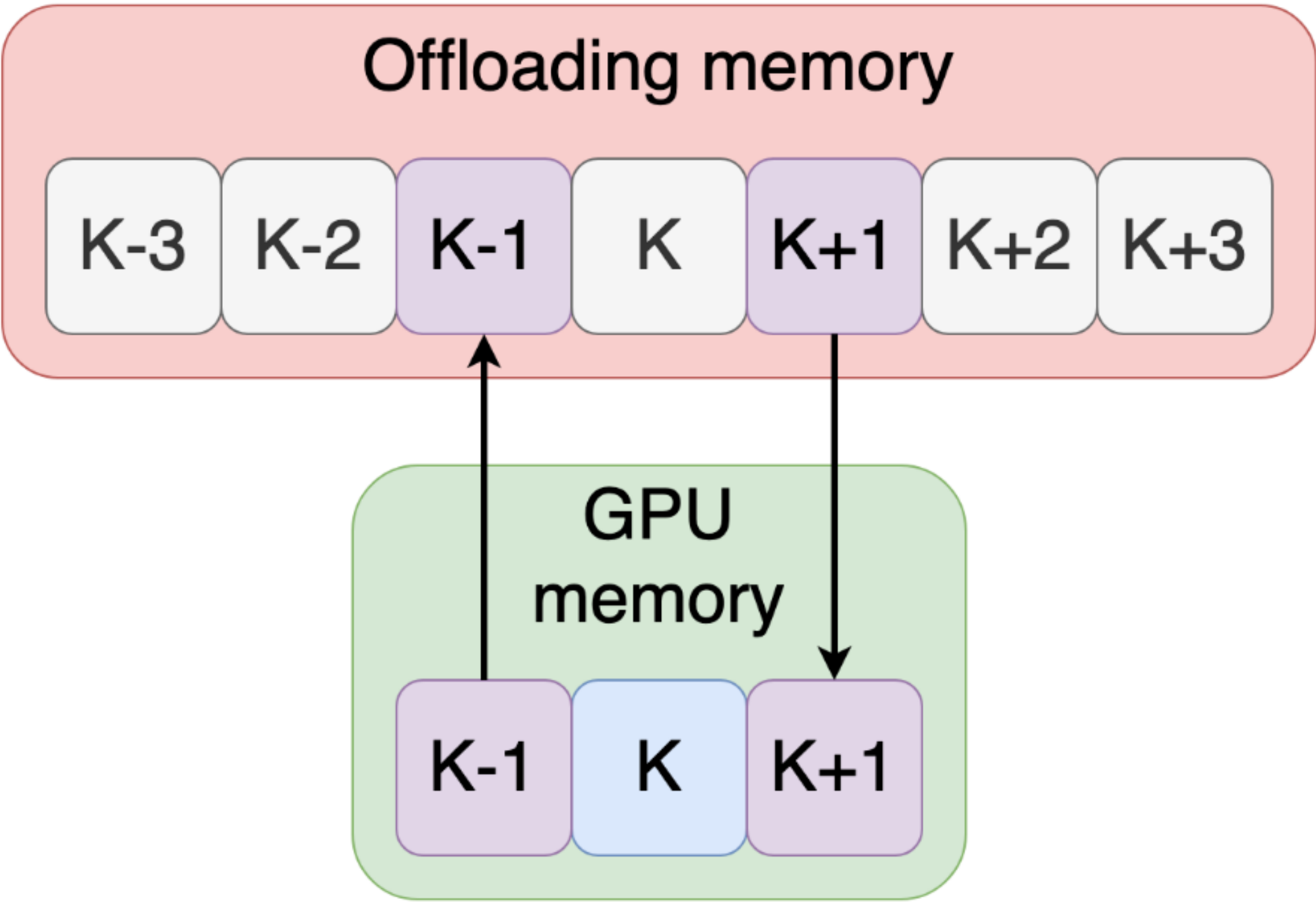
# Study 4: tensor offloading

Analyzing an algorithmic design choice that balances parallelization with memory use.

Compute pipeline



Memory exchange at time  $t$

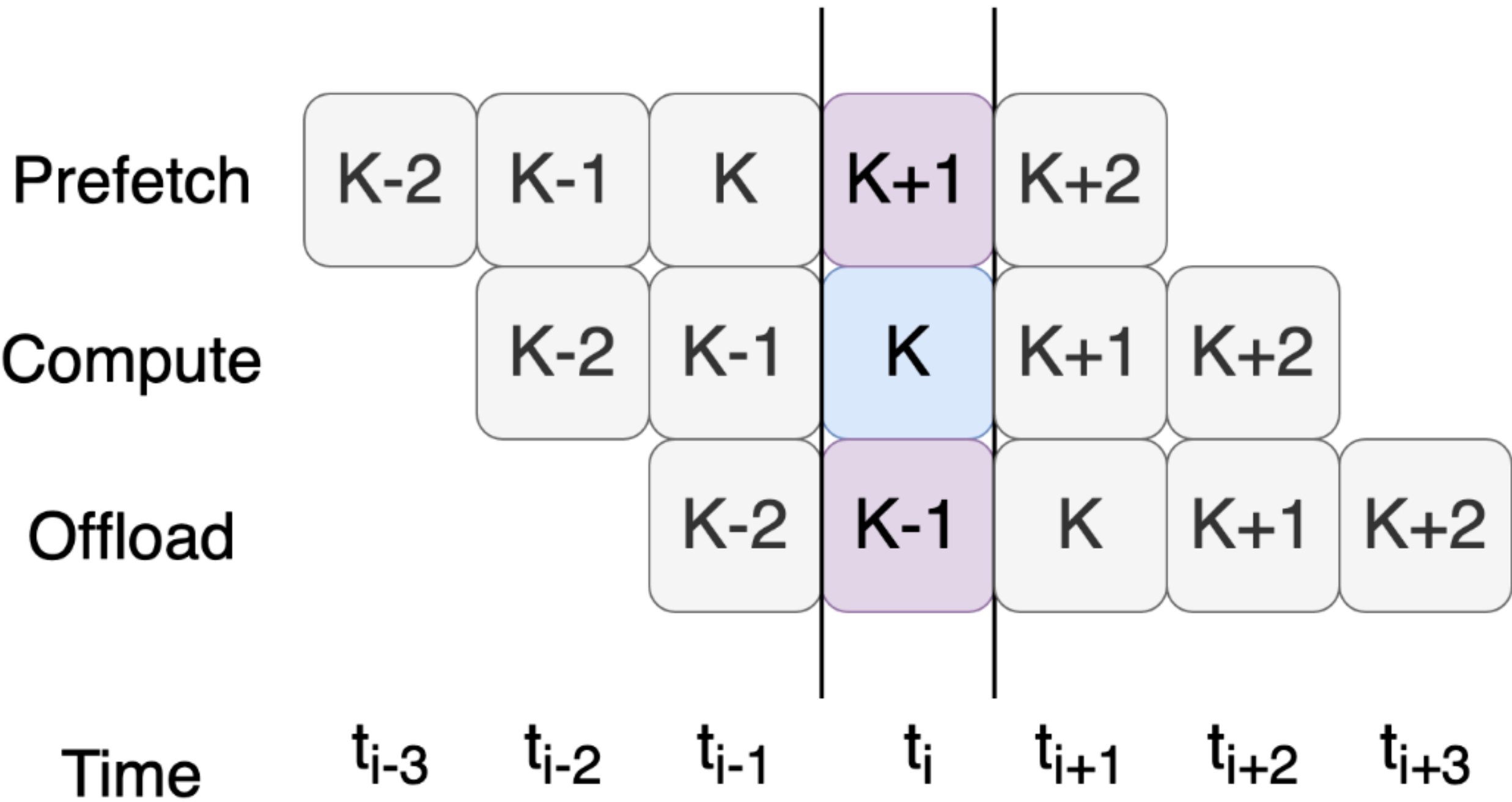




# Study 4: tensor offloading

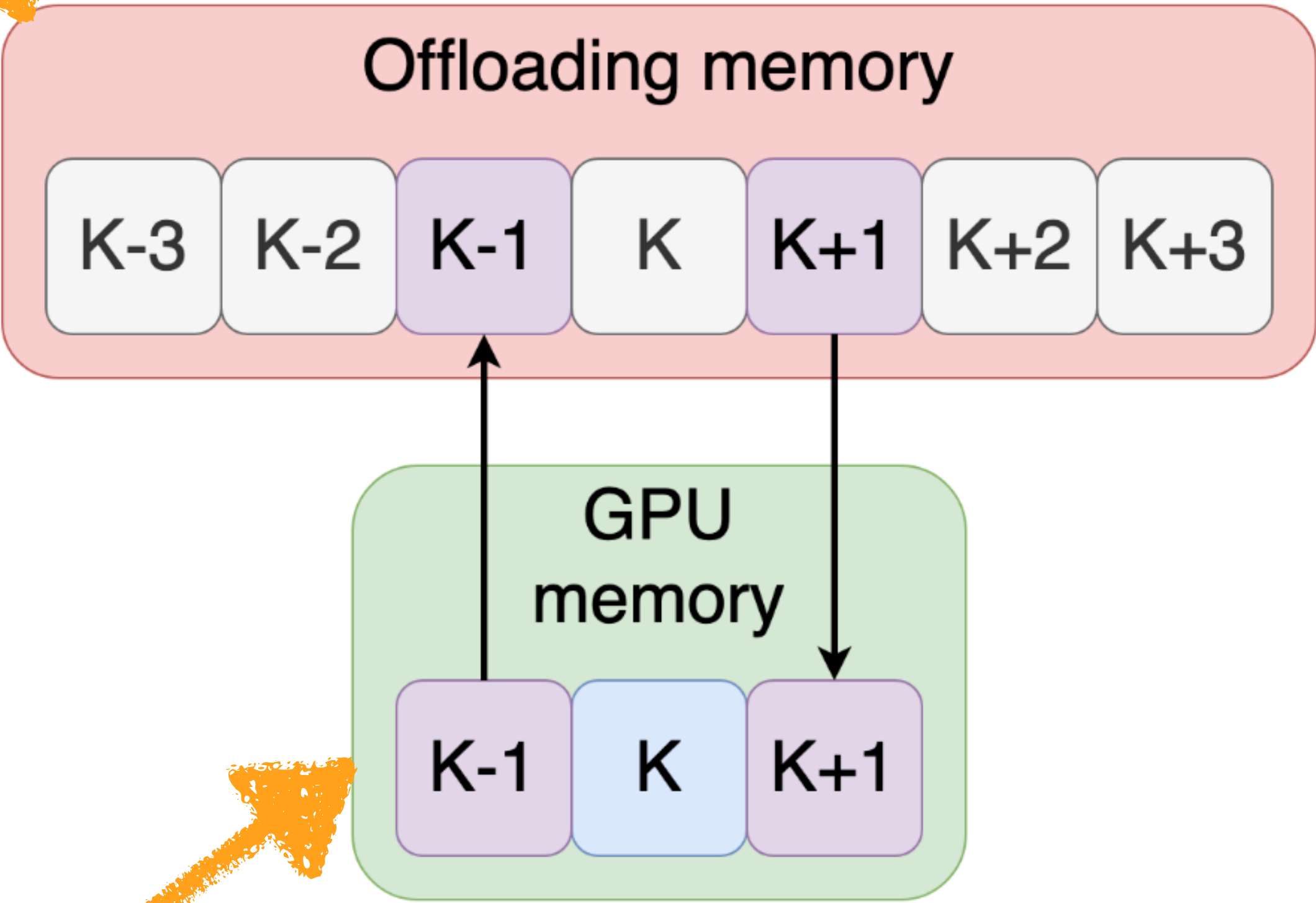
Analyzing an algorithmic design choice that balances parallelization with memory use.

Compute pipeline



Slow but cheap

Memory exchange at time  $t$



Fast but expensive

# Study 4: tensor offloading

Problem:

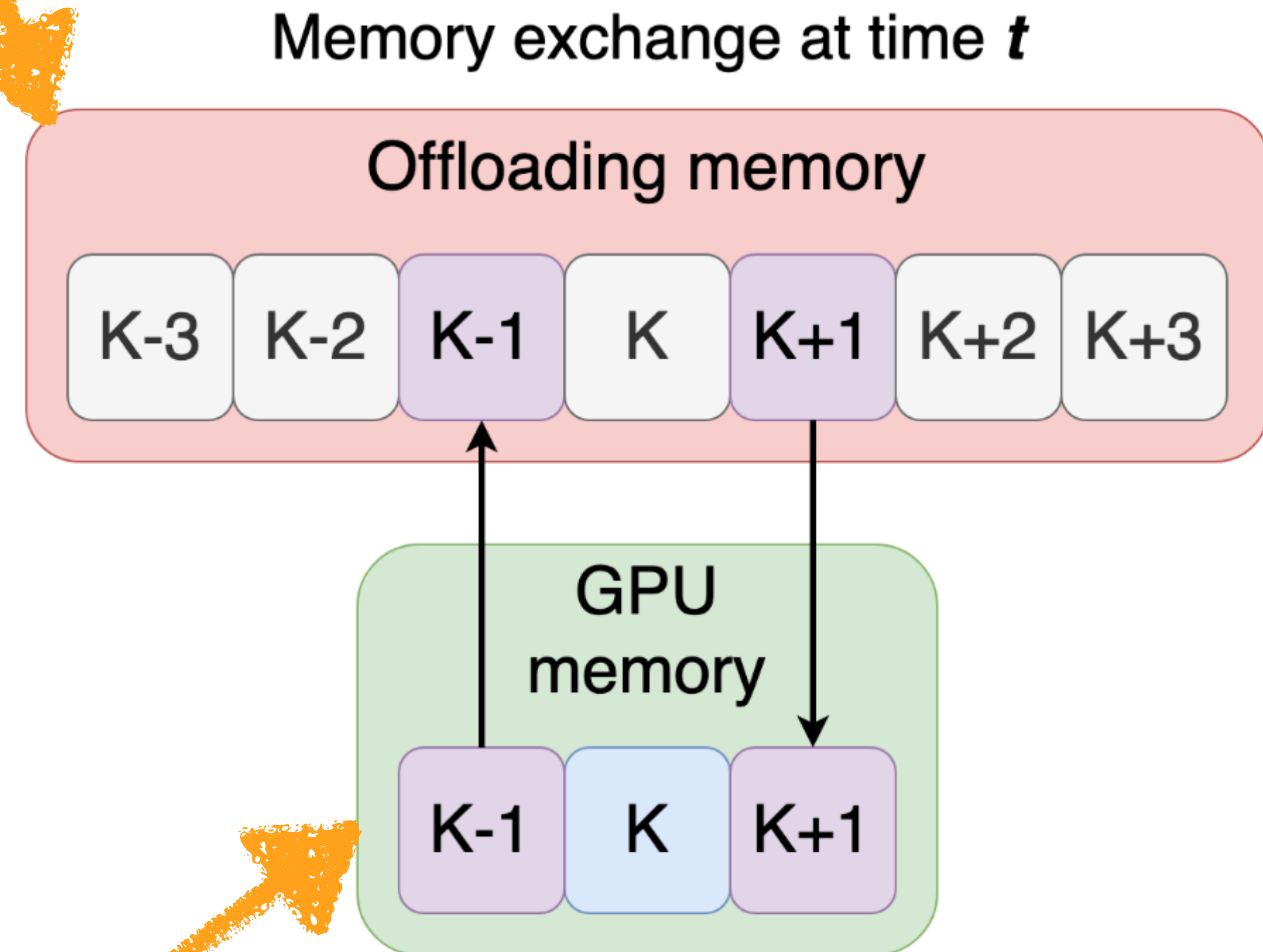
**Given a model, a specific GPU configuration, and a maximum GPU memory,**

pick the parallelization strategy,  
size & speed of slow memory

so that communication time is just  
hidden.

Analyzing an algorithmic design choice that balances parallelization with memory use.

**Slow but cheap**



**Fast but expensive**

# Study 4: tensor offloading

Problem:

Given a model, a specific GPU configuration, and a maximum GPU memory,

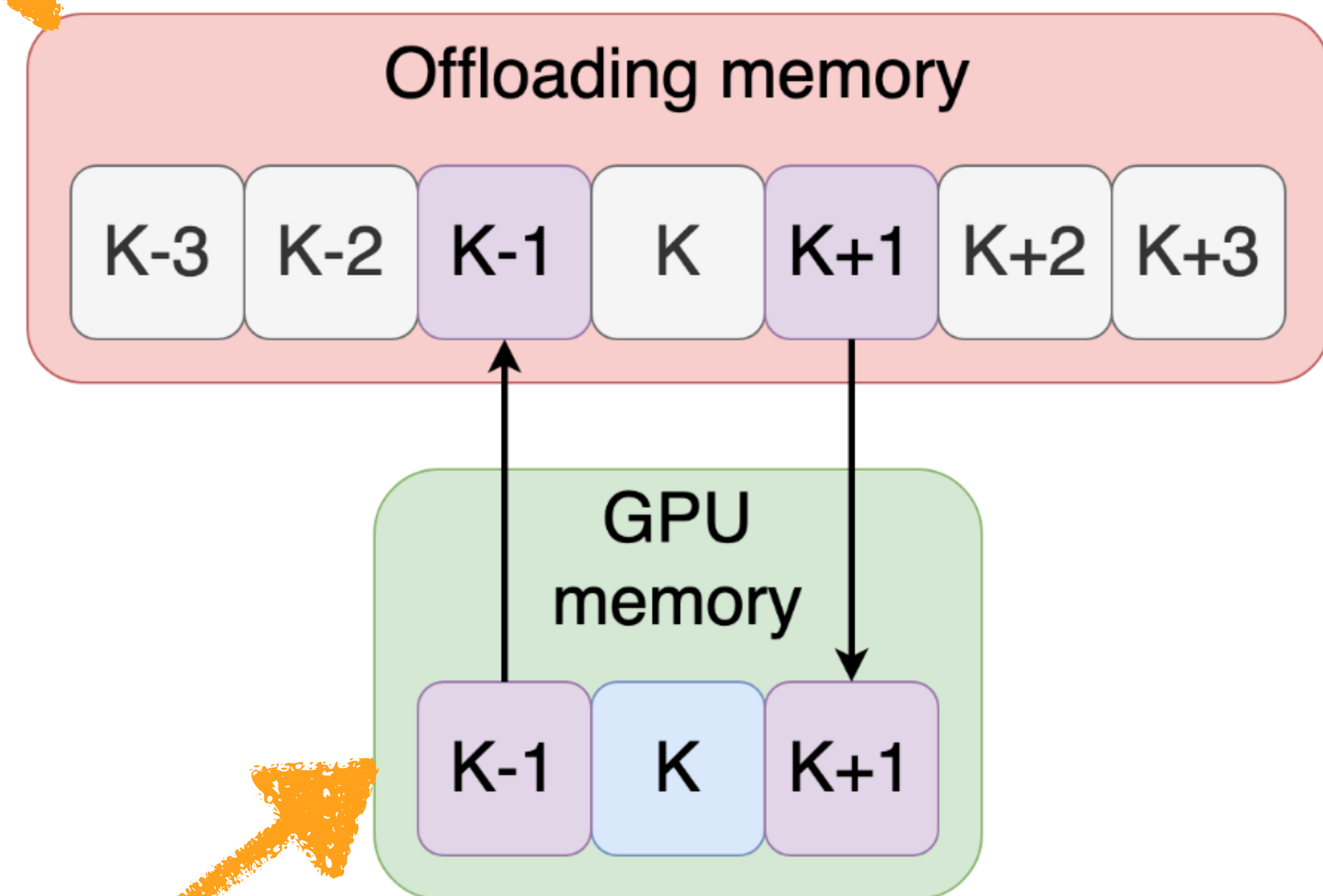
**pick the parallelization strategy, size & speed of slow memory**

so that communication time is just hidden.

Analyzing an algorithmic design choice that balances parallelization with memory use.

**Slow but cheap**

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# Study 4: tensor offloading

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Given a model, a specific GPU configuration, and a maximum GPU memory,

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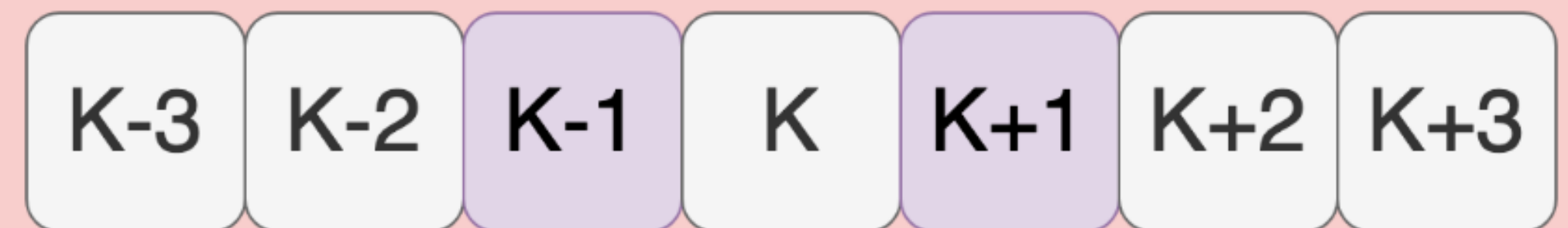
**so that communication time is just hidden.**

Analyzing an algorithmic design choice that balances parallelization with memory use.

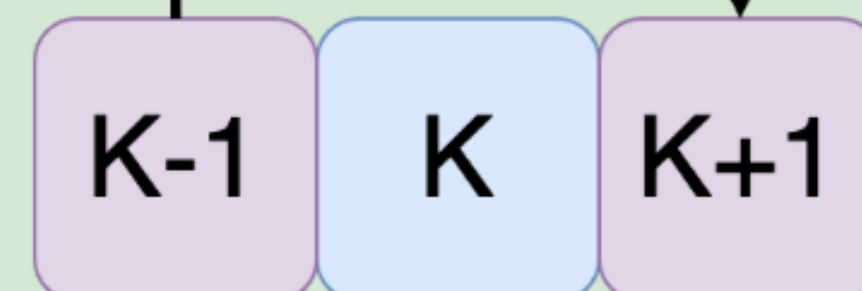
**Slow but cheap**

Memory exchange at time  $t$

Offloading memory



GPU memory



**Fast but expensive**

# Megatron-1T training on 4096 H100 80 GiB GPUs with a secondary memory available for tensor offloading

(a) Sample rate and HBM usage

Infinite	t=32	213 12G	207 12G	204 7G	200 10G	197 10G	192 9G
	t=16	246 14G	239 14G	234 9G	230 9G	224 19G	217 18G
	t=8	248 41G	250 18G	245 18G	239 13G	232 36G	222 35G
	t=4	177 72G	238 72G	241 25G	235 25G	223 72G	211 66G
	t=2	42 36G	93 50G	159 43G	175 43G	169 44G	162 38G
	t=1	42 72G	38 72G	97 72G	145 72G	155 73G	144 73G
		p=1	p=2	p=4	p=8	p=16	p=32

(b) Offloading bandwidth and usage

t=32 -	96G 484G	96G 461G	95G 239G	274G 176G	274G 147G	381G 102G
t=16 -	118G 542G	118G 490G	118G 253G	118G 240G	432G 216G	555G 160G
t=8 -	327G 2T	131G 549G	131G 494G	148G 255G	586G 353G	843G 233G
t=4 -	593G 4T	593G 2T	149G 552G	149G 507G	593G 706G	2T 292G
t=2 -	450G 1T	151G 900G	226G 669G	226G 565G	226G 533G	450G 382G
t=1 -	455G 2T	455G 1T	455G 904G	455G 683G	455G 592G	455G 586G
	p=1	p=2	p=4	p=8	p=16	p=32



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Scenario:	131G 21G	131G 549G	131G 494G	148G 255G	586G 353G	843G 233G
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t=1 -						
	p=1	p=2	p=4	p=8	p=16	p=32

65

**Scenario:**

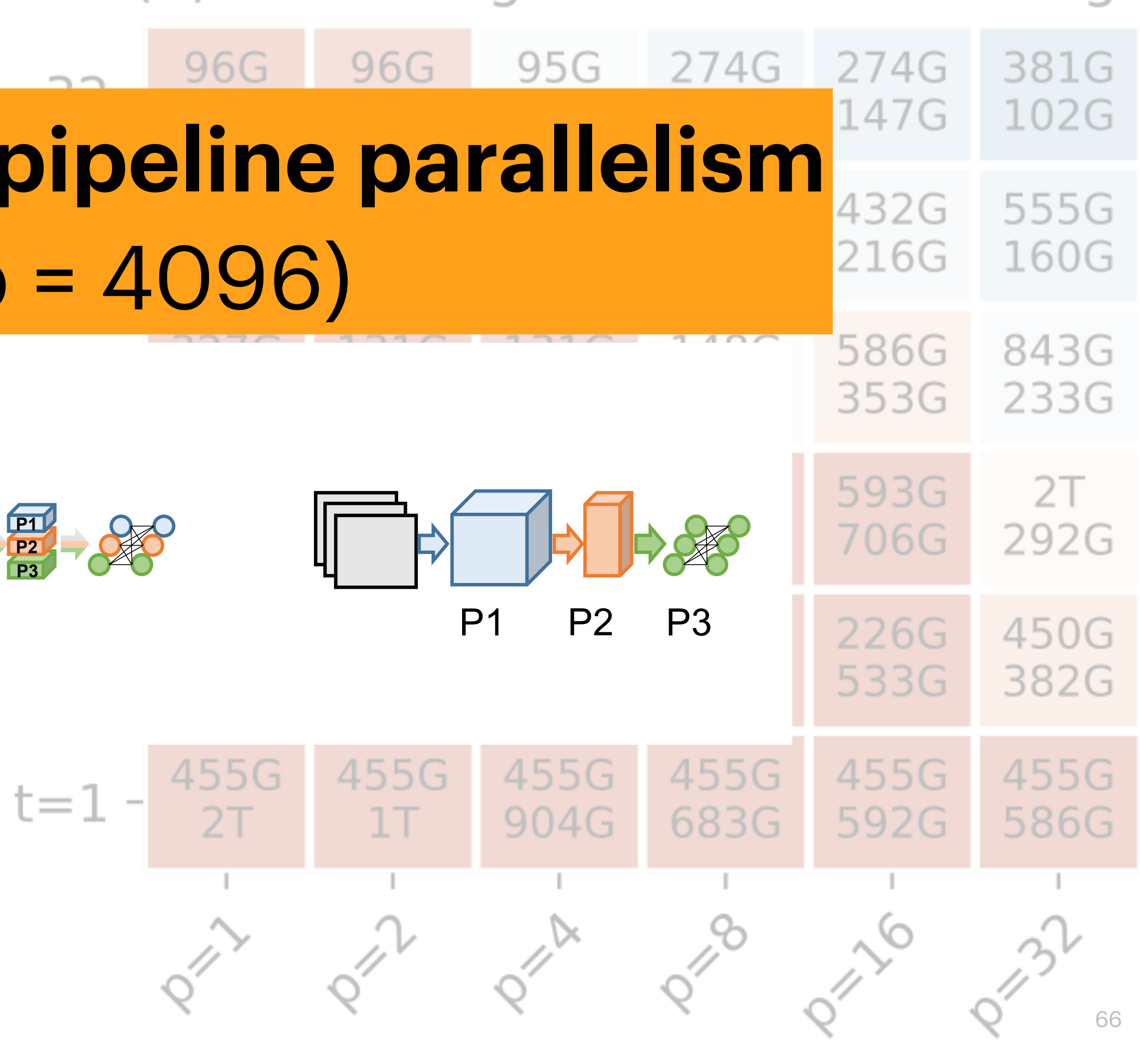
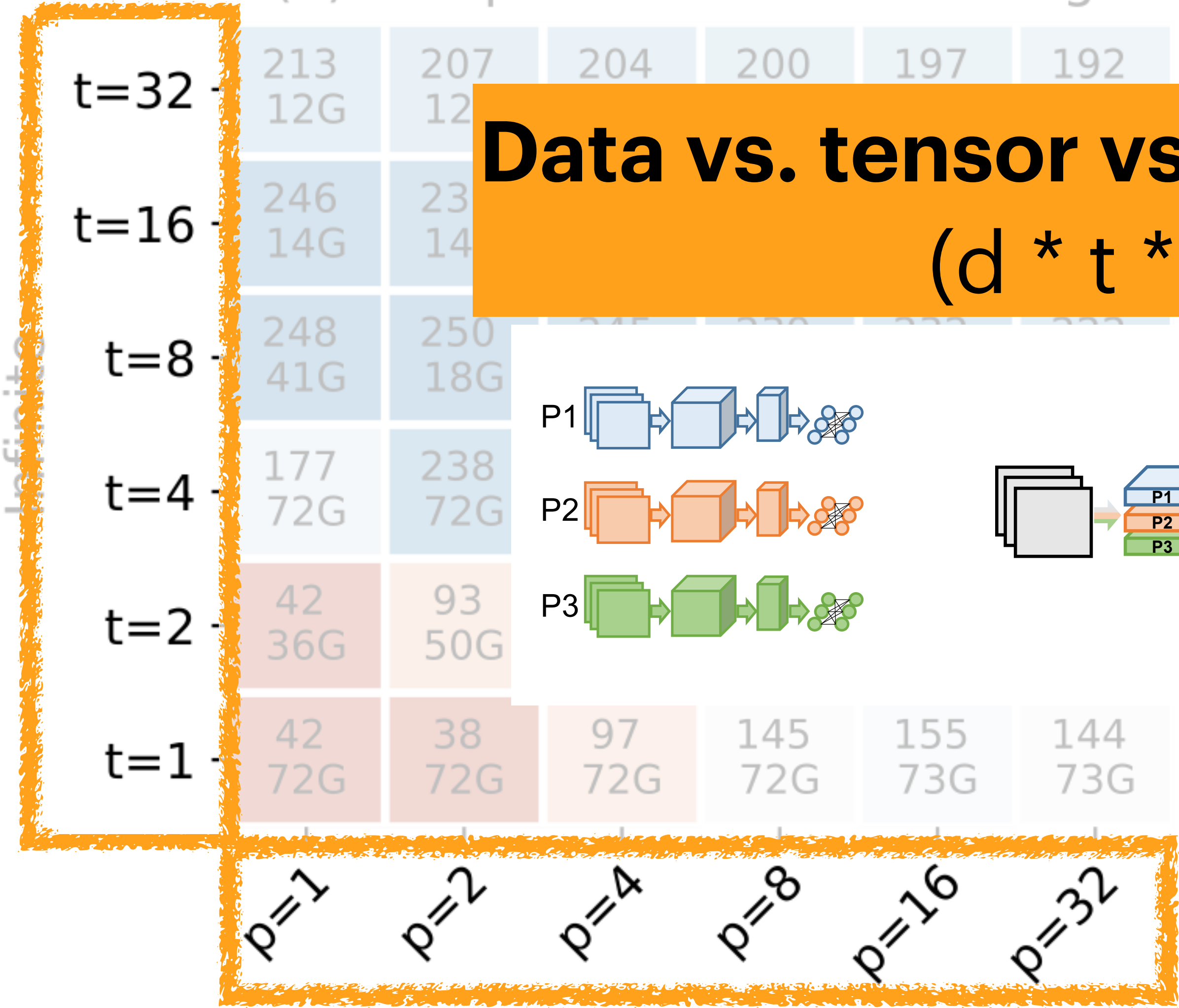


# Megatron-1T training on 4096 H100 80 GiB GPUs with a secondary memory available for tensor offloading

(a) Sample rate and HBM usage

(b) Offloading bandwidth and usage

**Data vs. tensor vs. pipeline parallelism**  
( $d * t * p = 4096$ )



# Megatron-1T training on 4096 H100 80 GiB GPUs with a secondary memory available for tensor offloading

(a) Sample rate and HBM usage

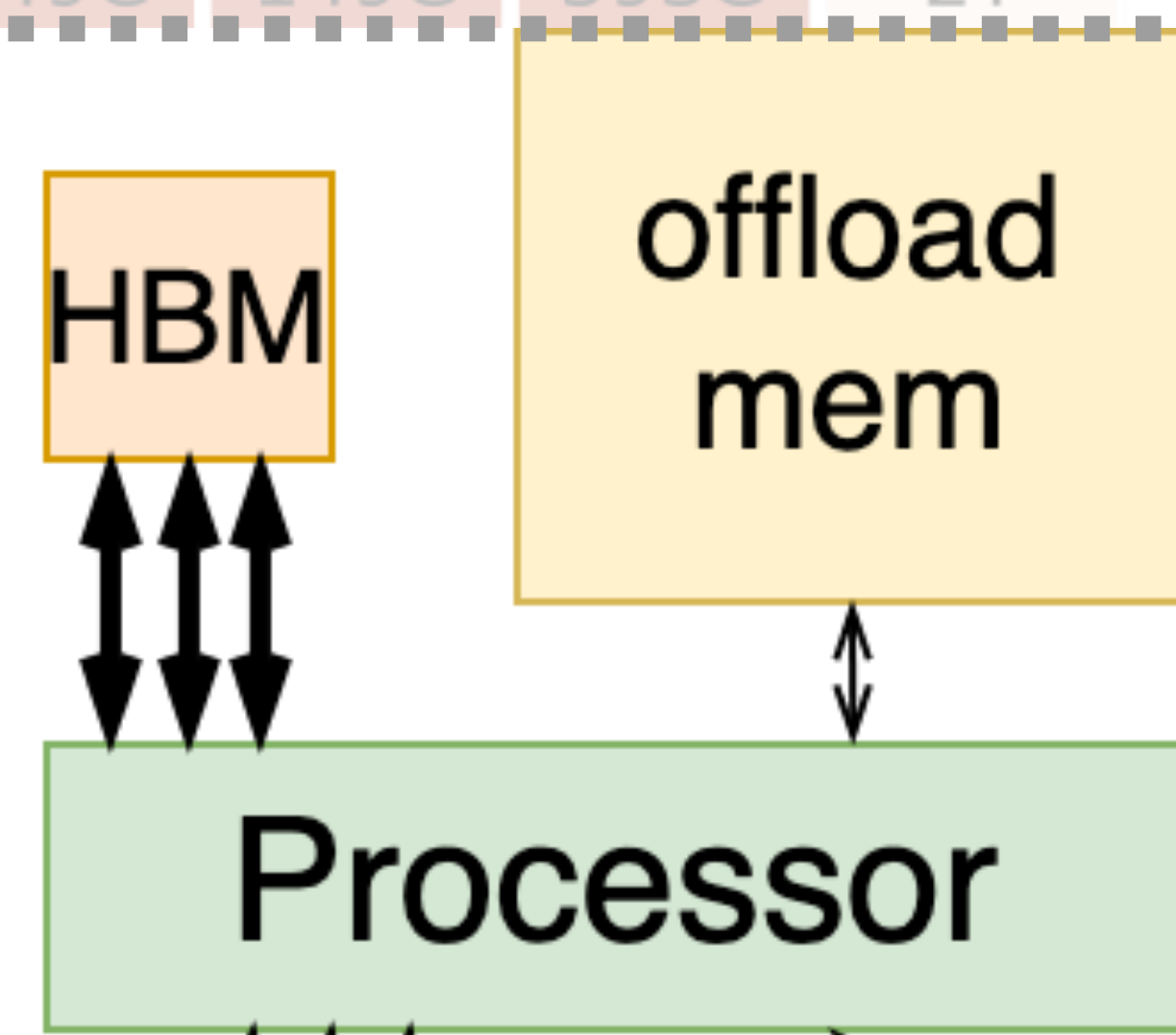
t=32	213 12G	207 12G	204 7G	200 10G	197 10G	192 9G
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t=8	118G 542G	118G 490G	118G 253G	1G 4G	148G 255G	586G 353G
t=4	593G 4T	593G 2T	149G 149G	149G 149G	593G 593G	2T 2T
t=2	450G 1T	151G 900G	151G 900G	151G 900G	151G 900G	151G 900G
t=1	455G 2T	455G 1T	455G 1T	455G 1T	455G 1T	455G 1T
	p=1	p=2	p=4	p=8	p=16	p=32

**Unlimited slow memory**

Infinite



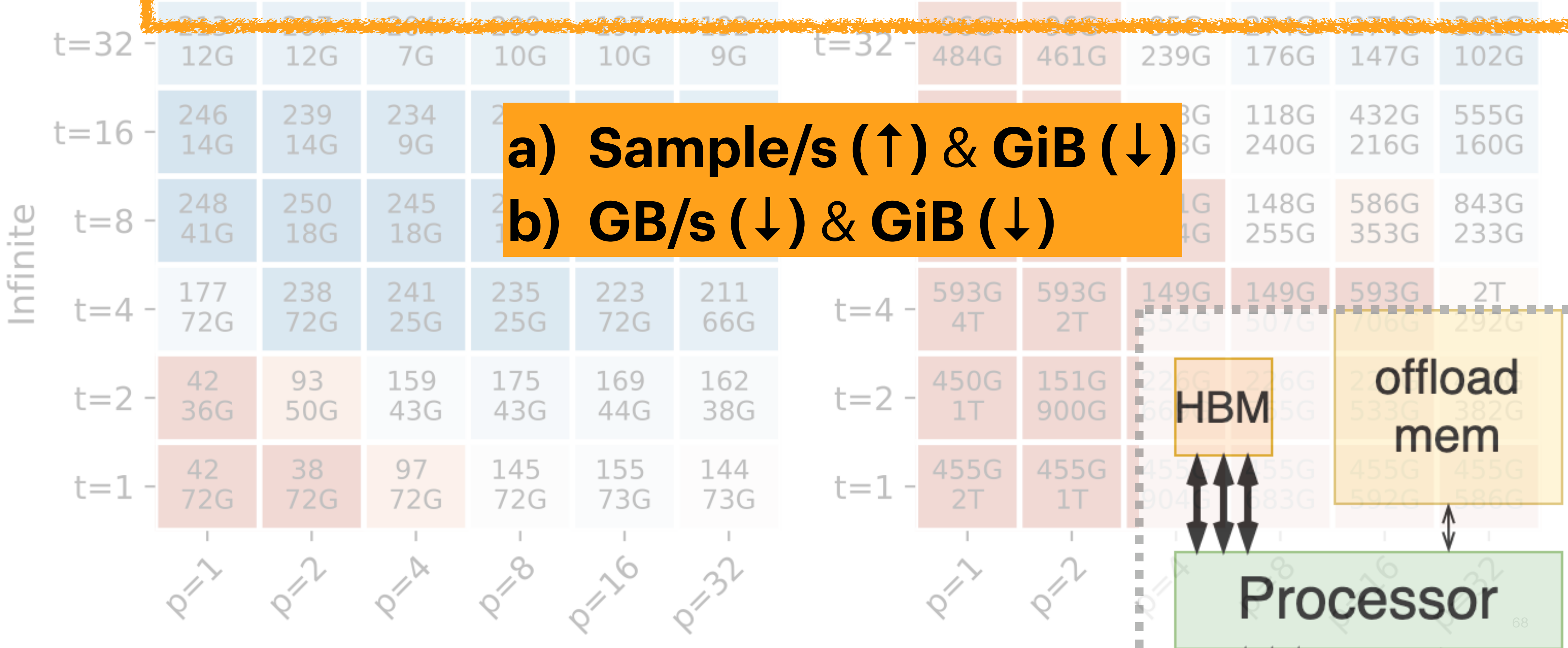


# Megatron-1T training on 4096 H100 80 GiB GPUs with a secondary memory available for tensor offloading

(a) Sample rate and HBM usage

(b) Offloading bandwidth and usage

**a) Sample/s (↑) & GiB (↓)**  
**b) GB/s (↓) & GiB (↓)**





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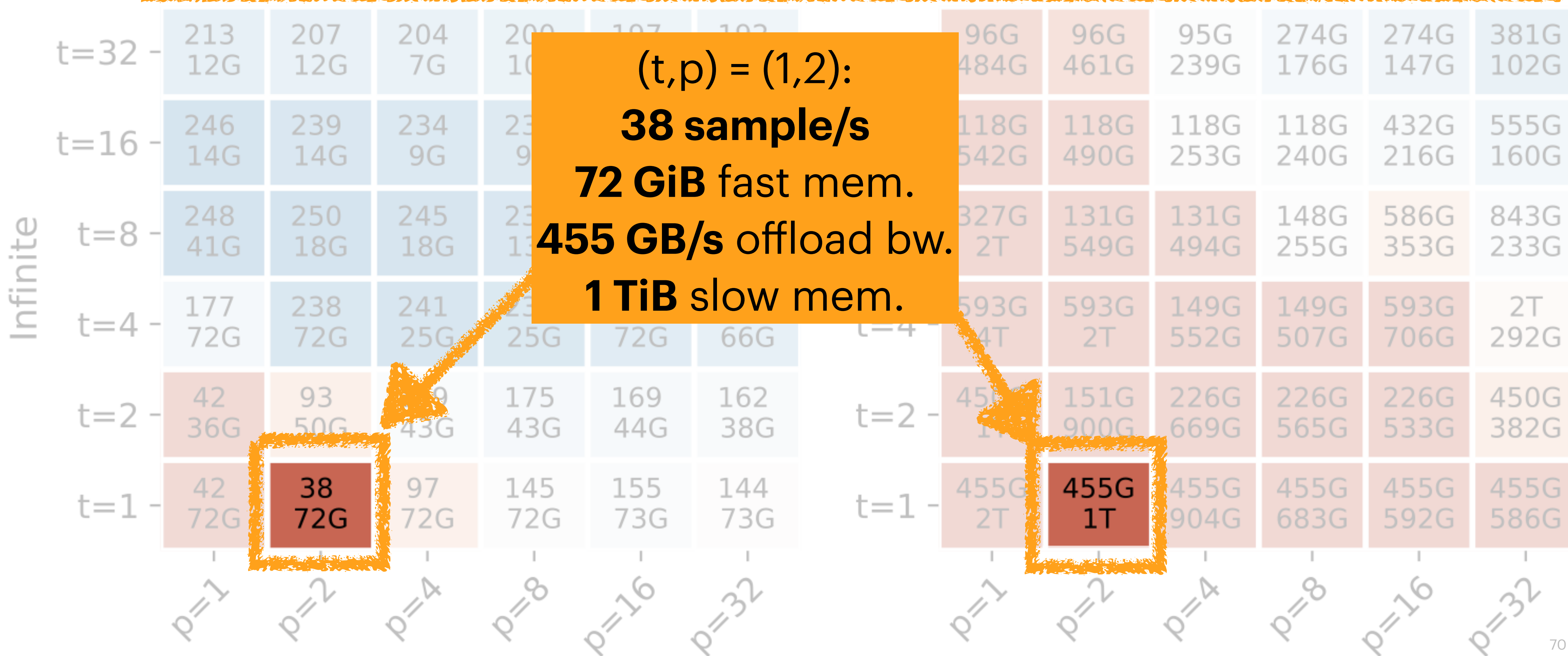
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	p=1	p=2	p=4	p=8	p=16	p=32



Megatron-1T training on 4096 H100 80 GiB GPUs with a

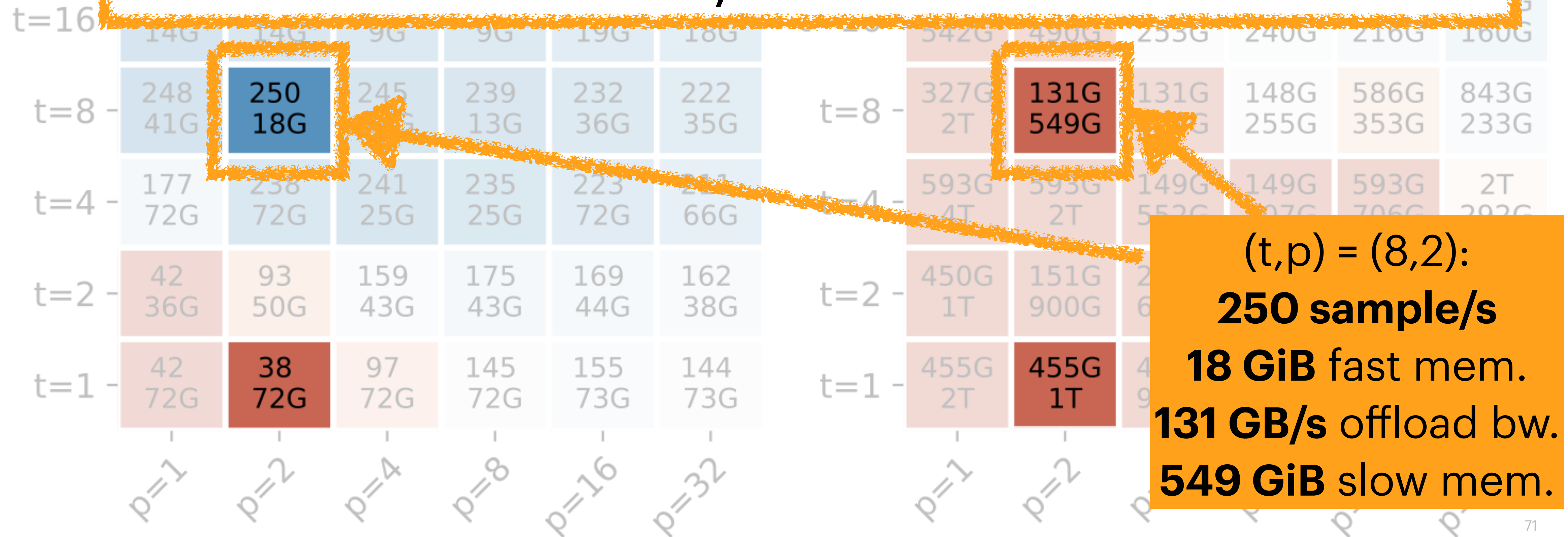
**Consider the slowest configuration in this space...**



The fastest, by change in parallelization strategy, is:

**6.5x faster**, using  
**75% less** fast memory,  
**71% less** offload bandwidth, and  
**45% less** slow memory.

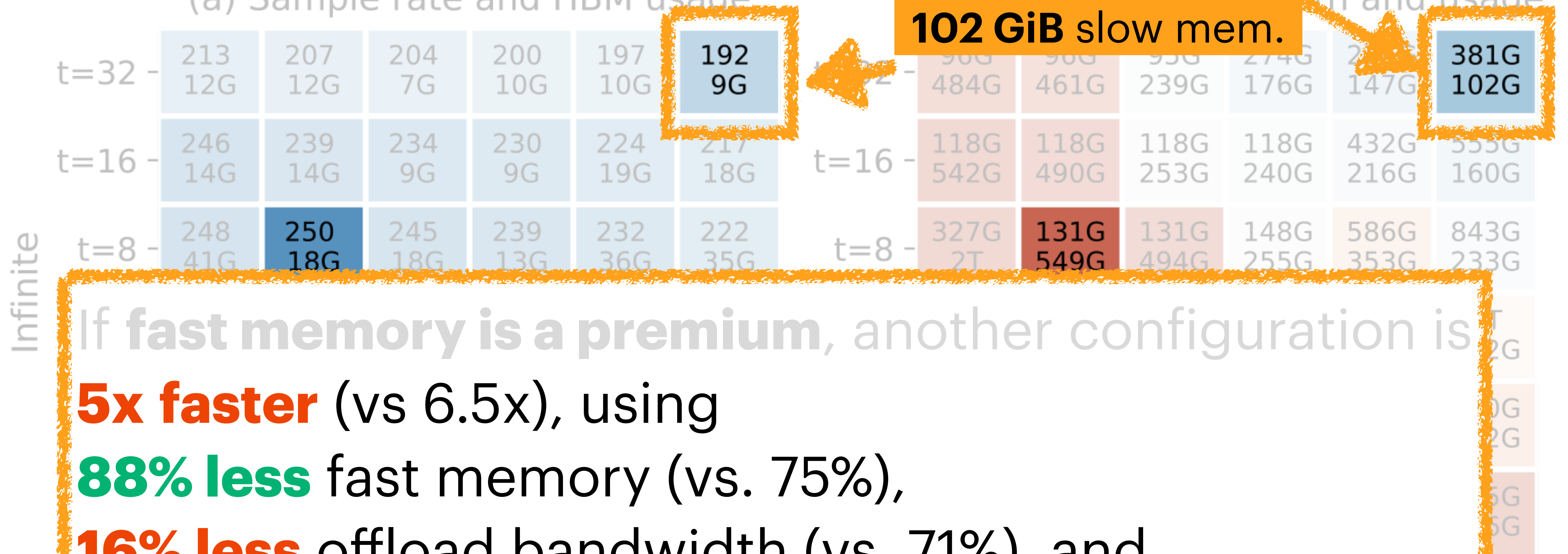
Infinite





Megatron-1T training on 4096 H100s with a secondary memory available

(a) Sample rate and HBM usage



If fast memory is a premium, another configuration is

**5x faster** (vs 6.5x), using

**88% less** fast memory (vs. 75%),

**16% less** offload bandwidth (vs. 71%), and

**29% less** slow memory (vs. 45%).

# Six case studies (recap)

Applying Calculon and interpreting its results.

1. **Comparing data vs. tensor vs. pipeline parallelism:** Can combine and tune to manage time-space tradeoffs
2. **Characterizing the “speed distribution:”** An optimal configuration can be a “needle in a haystack”
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Aside:

# Algorithmic aspects of overlapping computation & communication

See: Isaev, Eswar, V. (**SPAA'25**): "Brief announcement: Optimality conditions for parallel communication-avoiding matrix multiplication with overlapped communication."

communication steps will be needed to rearrange the data to make it contiguous in the other two dimensions so that 1D FFTs can be performed in those directions as well. In this case, with  $2^{28}$  processors, there must be at least  $2^{14} \times 2^{14} \times 2^{14} = 2^{42} \approx 4.4 \times 10^{12}$  elements total, which is a much more manageable problem size. The time required for just the computation on our hypothetical exascale machine would be  $68.8 \mu\text{s}$ . Therefore, we only consider the pencils approach.

For performance models, we consider a simple LogP-based model in which we assume no overlap of communication and computation, and a more complicated model in which there is substantial overlap of communication and computation.

**3.2.1. No Overlap Model.** If we do not consider overlap of communication, we can assume that each processor computes its portion of the data, and during each communication round has to communicate with  $p$  other processors. The corresponding expression for the runtime of the 3D FFT using the LogP performance model is

$$T = t_c \frac{N}{P} \log_2 N + 2(p-1)(L+o) + 2(p-2)g$$

Note that we do not do any latency-hiding, because we treat the latency here as the cost to send the entire message, not just the first word.

**3.2.2. Overlap Model.** Now allowing overlap of communication and computation, we set up another performance model, using instead of LogP the LogGP model [10] which extends it by adding a bandwidth term  $G$  that represents a per-unit cost of transferring data over the network. The model assumes that one  $n \times \frac{n}{p}$  sheet is computed at a time, with communication of each sheet occurring after its computation,

Figure  
pencil

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Compute

Communicate

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**Avoid:**

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...



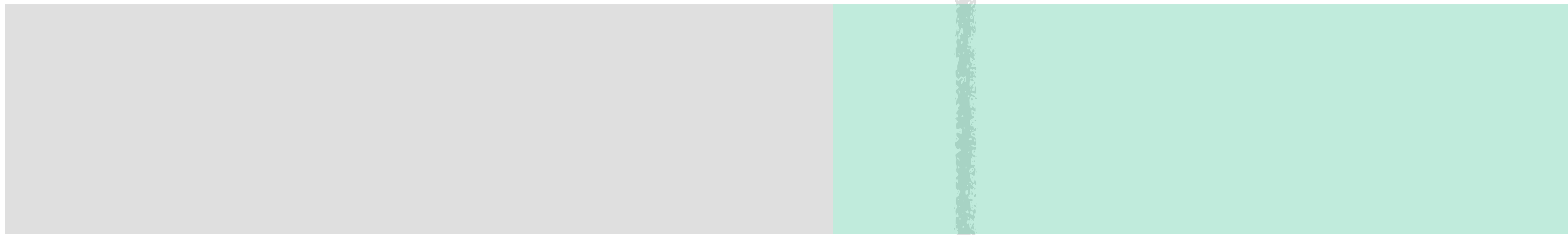


**Avoid:**

...



...



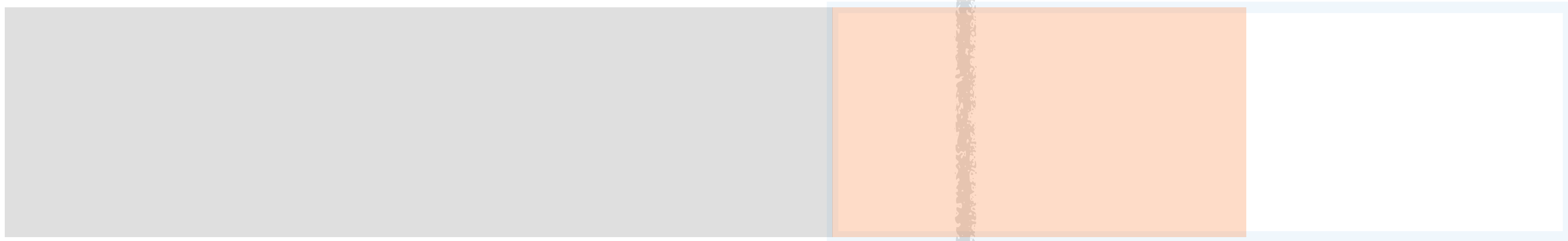
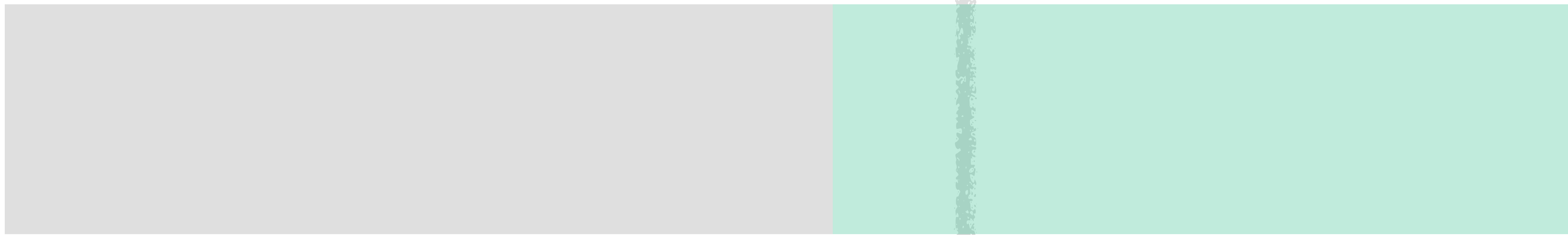
**Overlap:**

...

Compute

...

Communicate



**Overlap:**

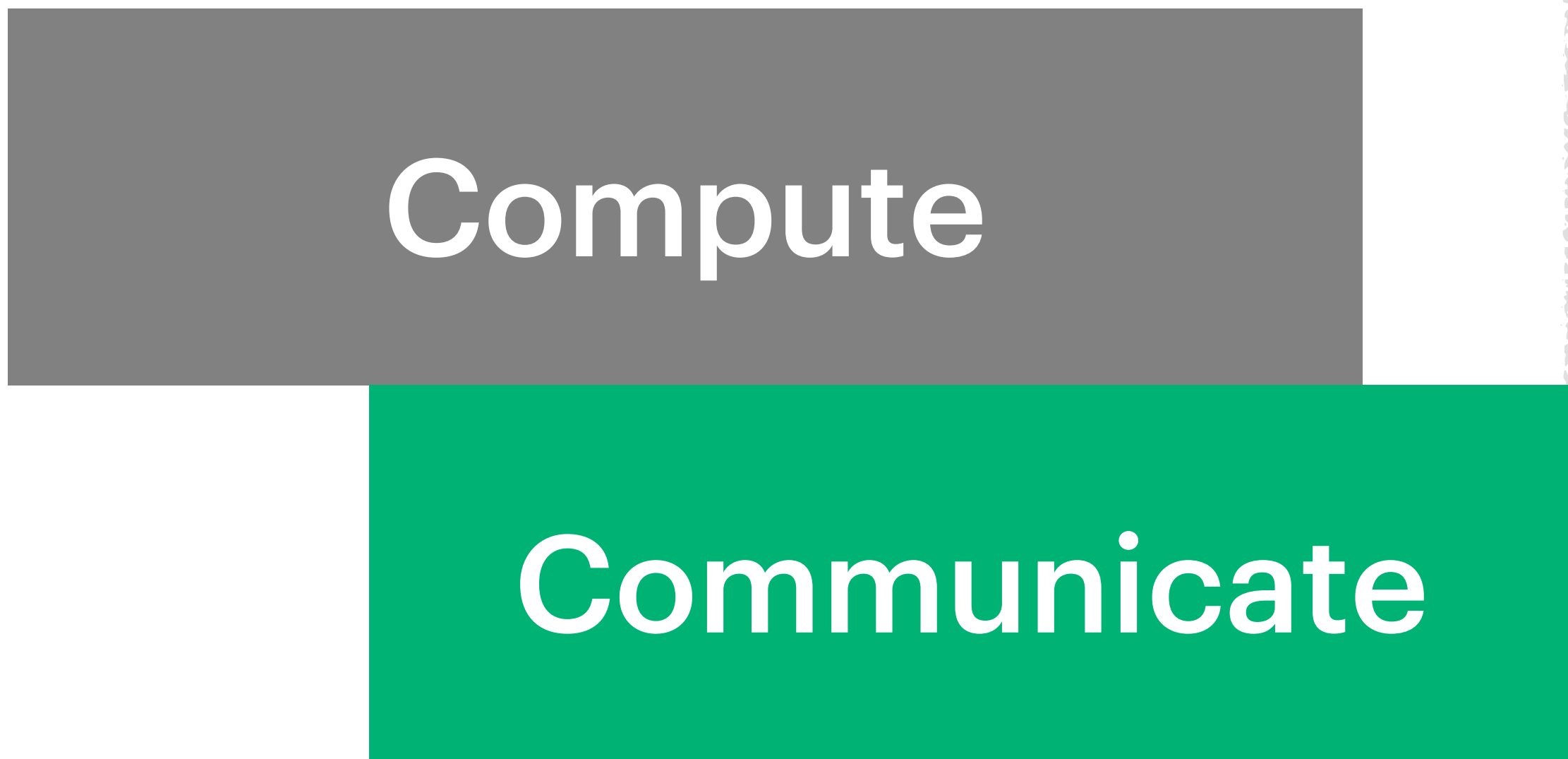
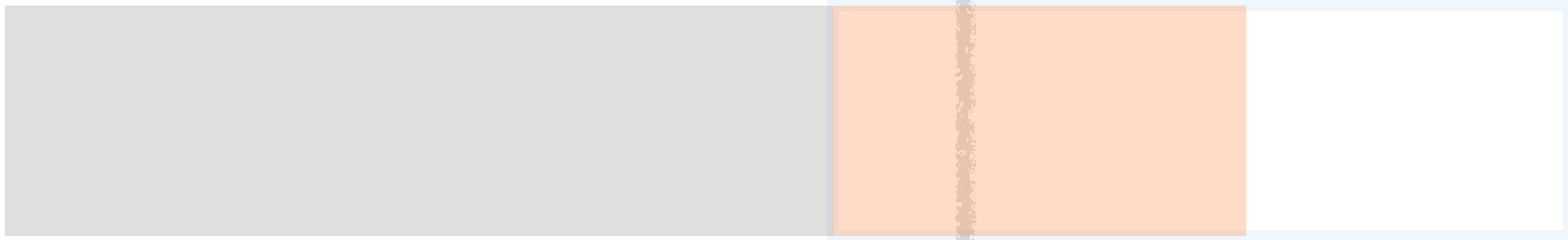
...

Compute

...

Communicate





**Overlap:**

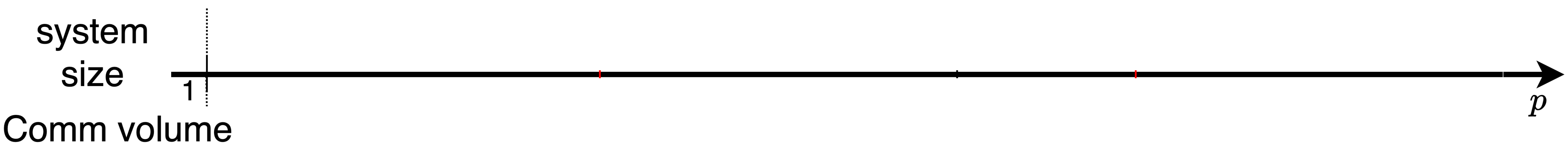
...

**Theorists regard  
overlap as  
“engineering,” largely  
ignoring it**

# Matrix multiply: 1D vs. 2D vs. 3D (“comm. avoiding”) algorithms

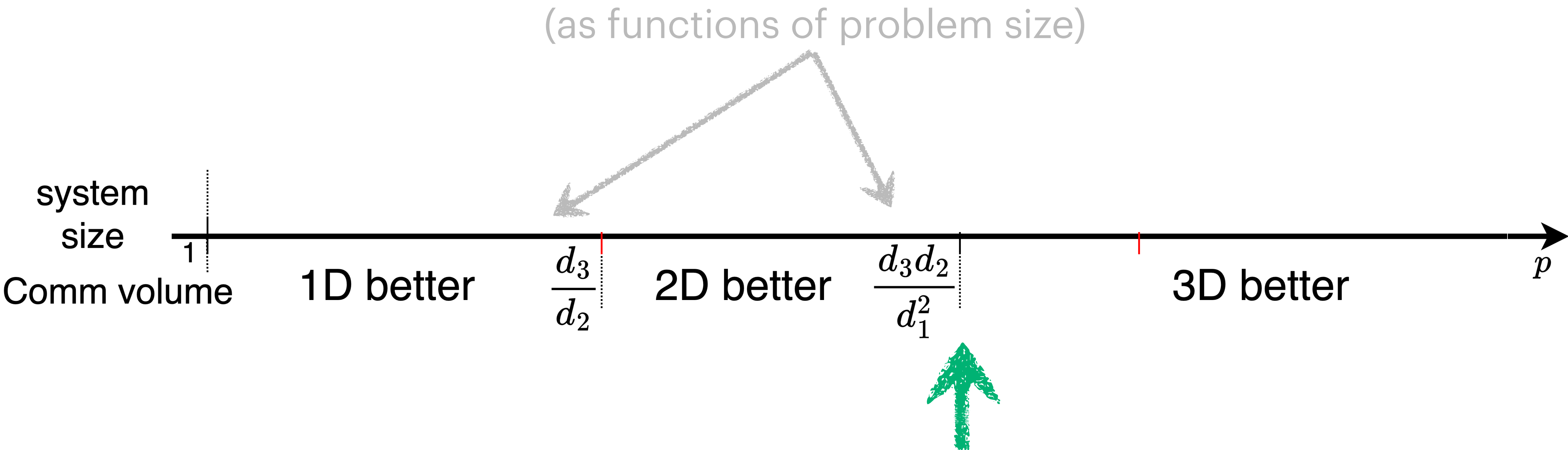
Comm volume

# Matrix multiply: 1D vs. 2D vs. 3D (“comm. avoiding”) algorithms



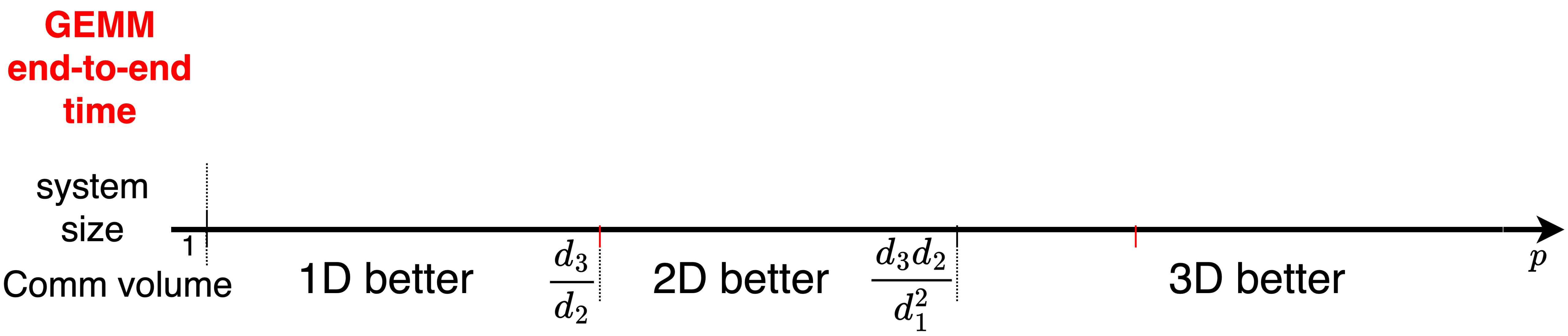


# Matrix multiply: 1D vs. 2D vs. 3D (“comm. avoiding”) algorithms



**At this many processes,  
3D is faster than 2D**

Now consider **overlap** and **execution time**:



# Minimum bandwidths

needed for **perfect** overlap

**GEMM  
end-to-end  
time**

system  
size

Comm volume

$$\beta_{1d} = \gamma \frac{p}{d_3}$$

1D better

$$\frac{d_3}{d_2}$$

$$\beta_{2d} = \gamma \frac{2\sqrt{p}}{\sqrt{d_2 d_3}}$$

2D better

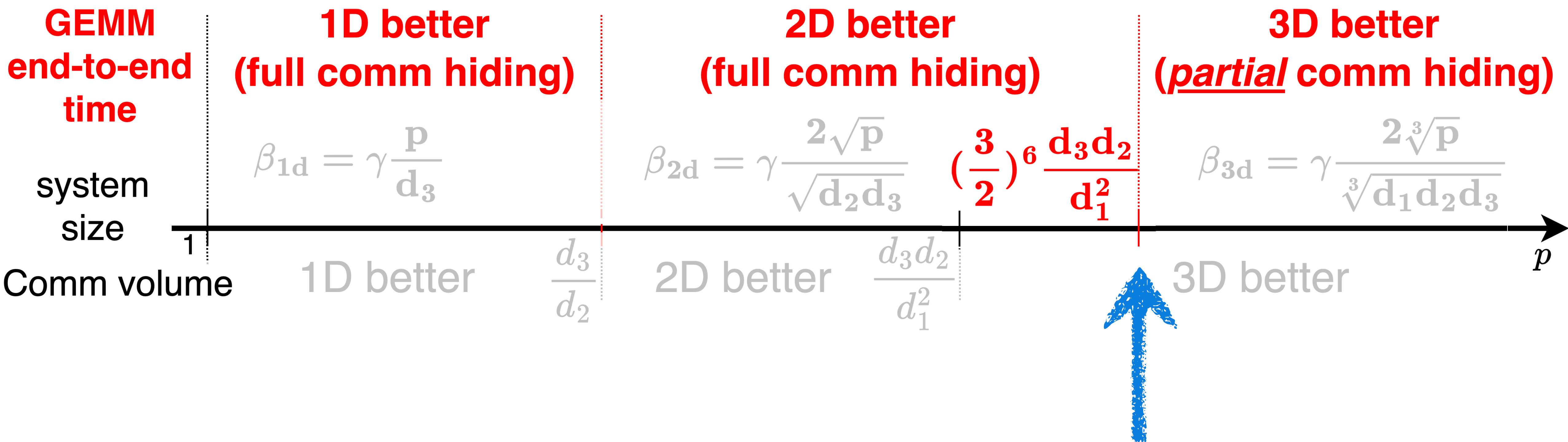
$$\frac{d_3 d_2}{d_1^2}$$

$$\beta_{3d} = \gamma \frac{2\sqrt[3]{p}}{\sqrt[3]{d_1 d_2 d_3}}$$

3D better

$p$





New crossover ~ **11x larger!**

# Minimum bandwidths

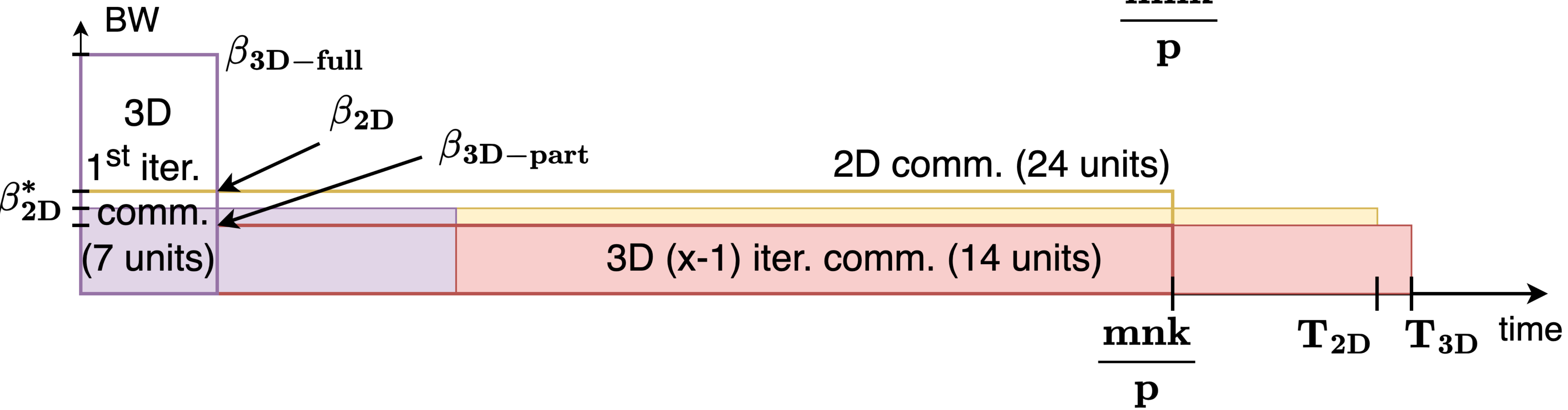
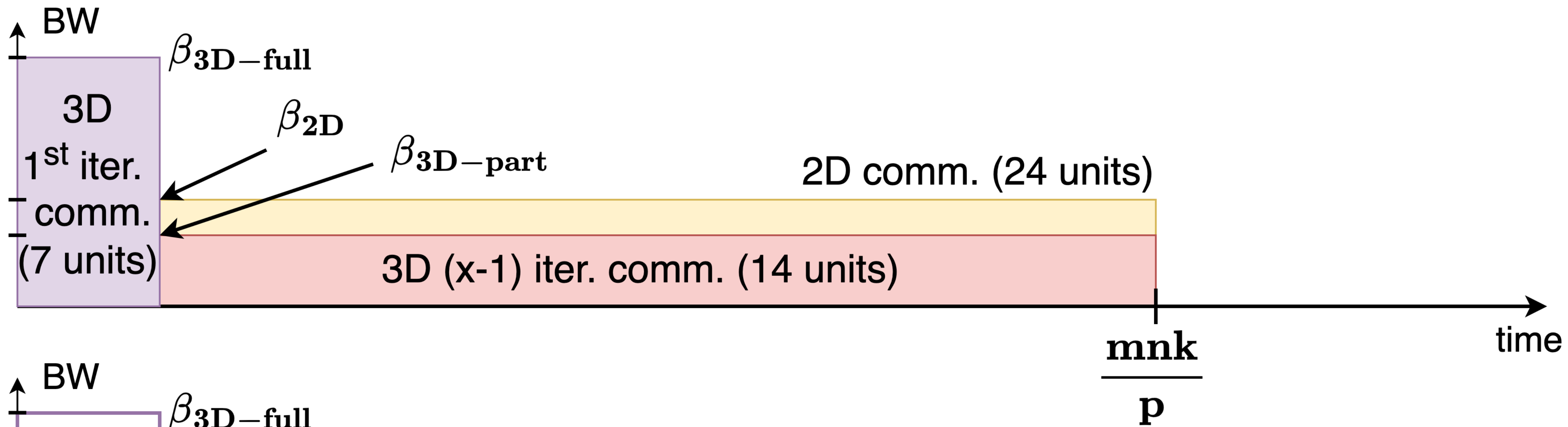
needed for **perfect** overlap

$$\beta_{1d} = \gamma \frac{p}{d_3}$$

$$\beta_{2d} = \gamma \frac{2\sqrt{p}}{\sqrt{d_2 d_3}}$$

$$\beta_{3d} = \gamma \frac{2\sqrt[3]{p}}{\sqrt[3]{d_1 d_2 d_3}}$$

# Matrix multiply: 2D vs. 3D (“comm. avoiding”) algorithms





What's next?

# Modeling **physical** characteristics of data center

See: Upcoming **HPEC'25** paper on Calculon + **ExaDigiT** (a “data center digital twin” by ORNL)

**What could we build?**



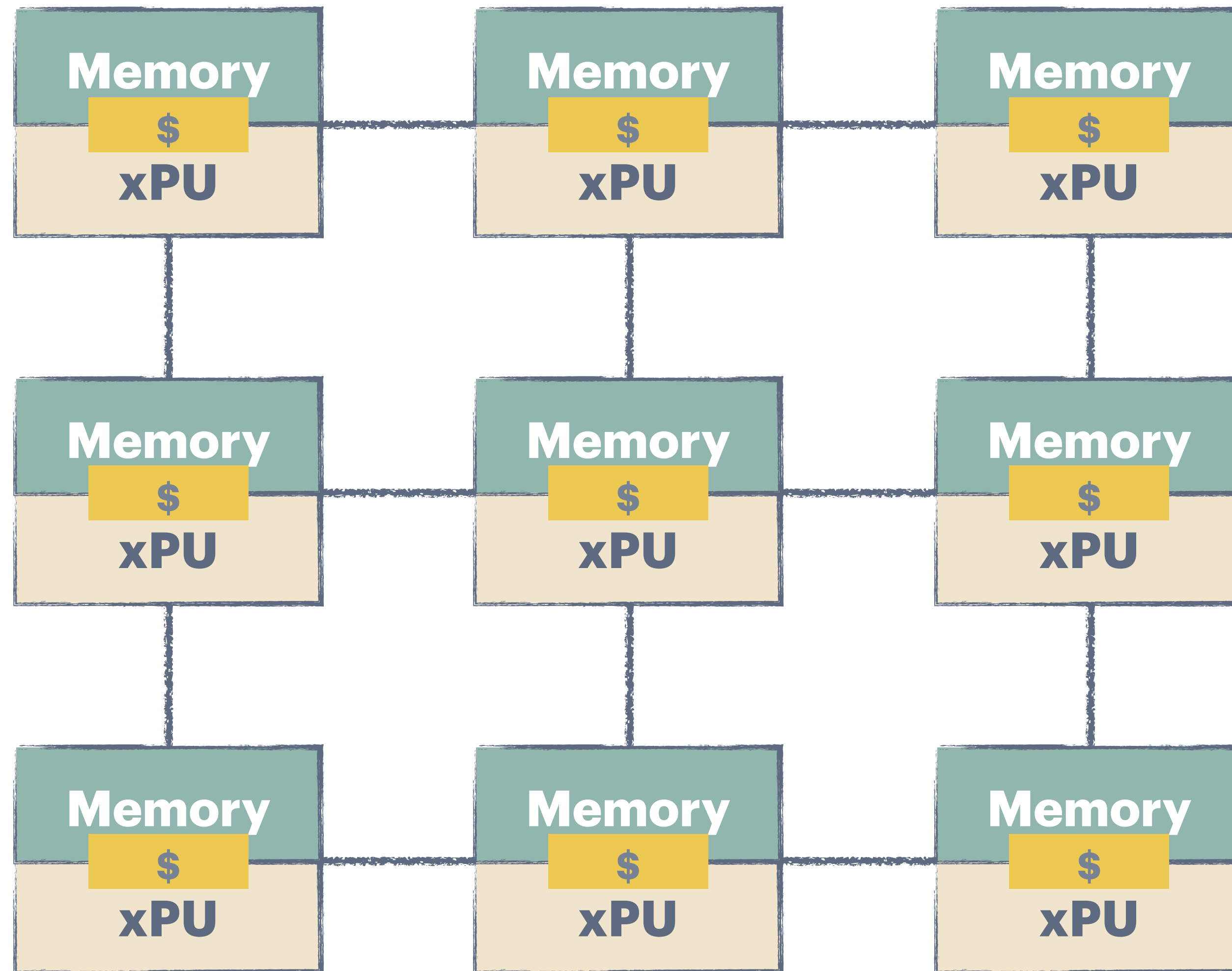
SUPERCOMPUTERS, REAL & IMAGINED @ ICERM

# What if you **start from scratch?**





What is “starting from scratch?”



Problem:

91

**Given an algorithm**

and a fixed power

& transistor budget,

pick the cores, caches, topology,

& all speeds and feeds

to minimize execution time.



Problem:

Given an algorithm

**and a fixed power**

**& transistor budget,**

**(Constraints!)**

pick the cores, caches, topology,

& all speeds and feeds

to minimize execution time.

Problem:

Given an algorithm  
and a fixed power

& transistor budget,

**pick the cores, caches, topology,  
& all speeds and feeds**

to minimize execution time.

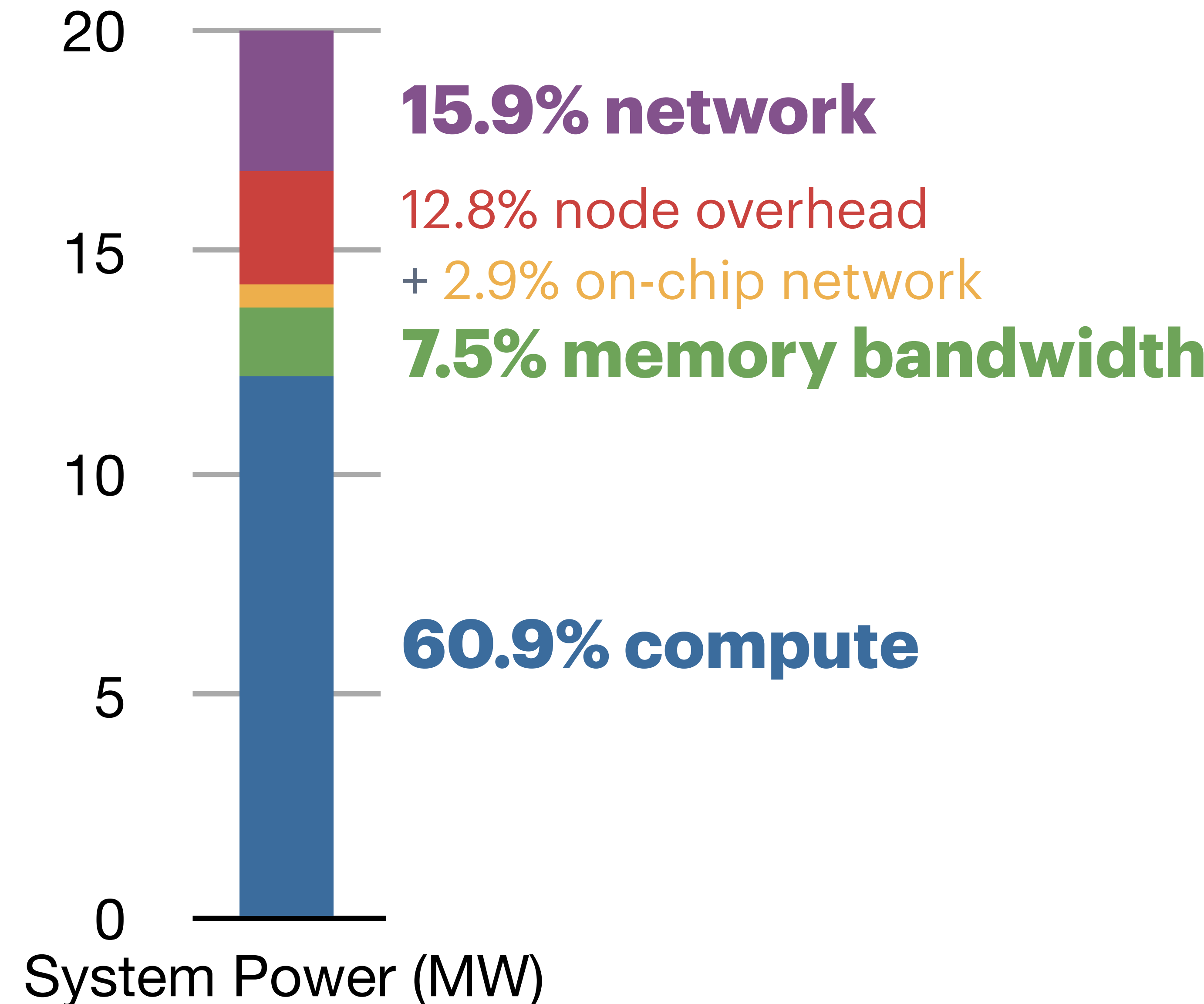
Problem:

Given an algorithm  
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& transistor budget,  
pick the cores, caches, topology,  
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**to minimize execution time.**

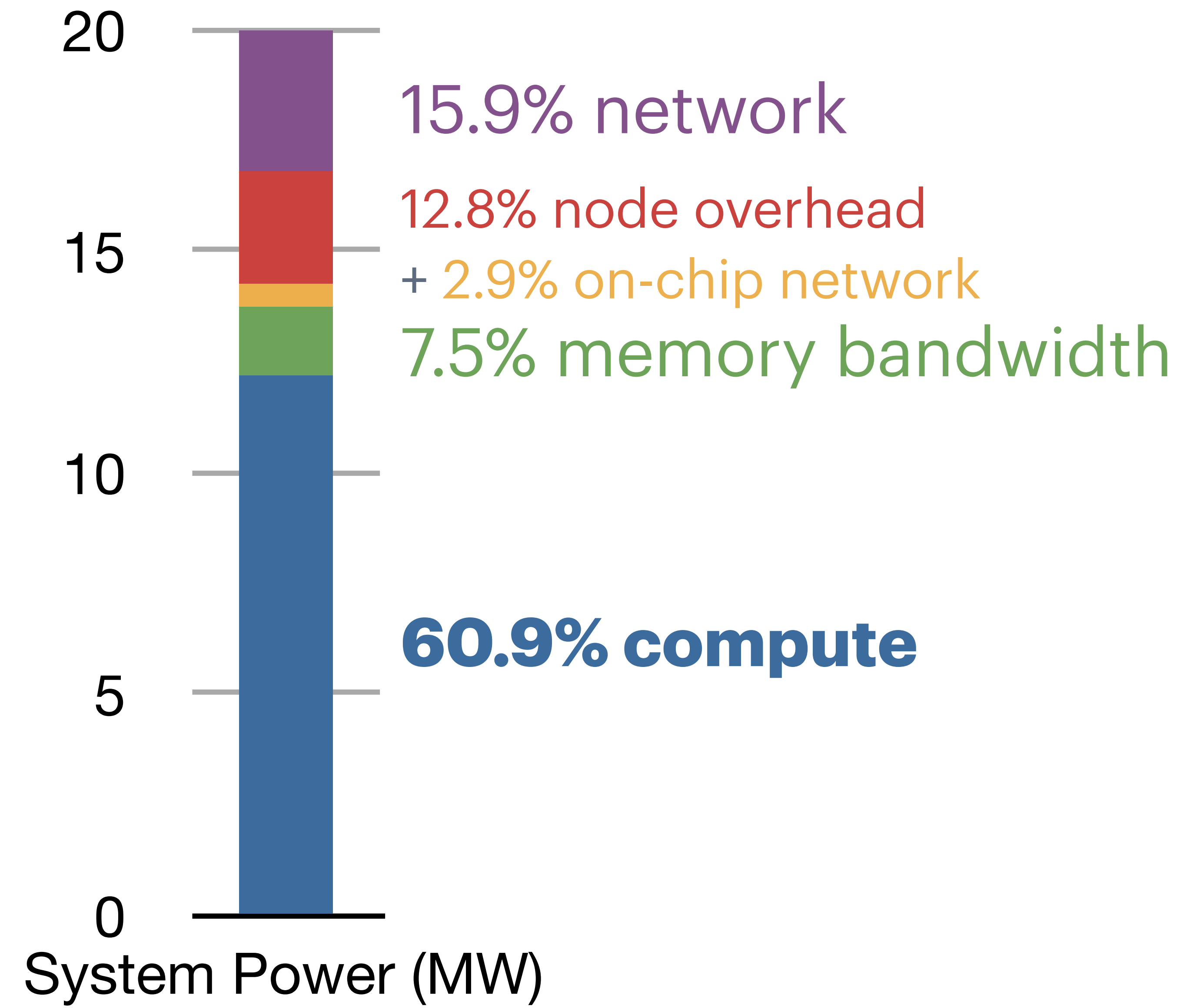


# Power allocation for an “optimal” matrix multiply machine?

# Power allocation for an “optimal” matrix multiply machine



# Power allocation for an “optimal” matrix multiply machine



**ORNL Summit (13-14 MW):**  
**67.0% GPU compute**  
14.9% CPU compute  
  
4.8% memory  
5.3% network + disk  
8% node overhead

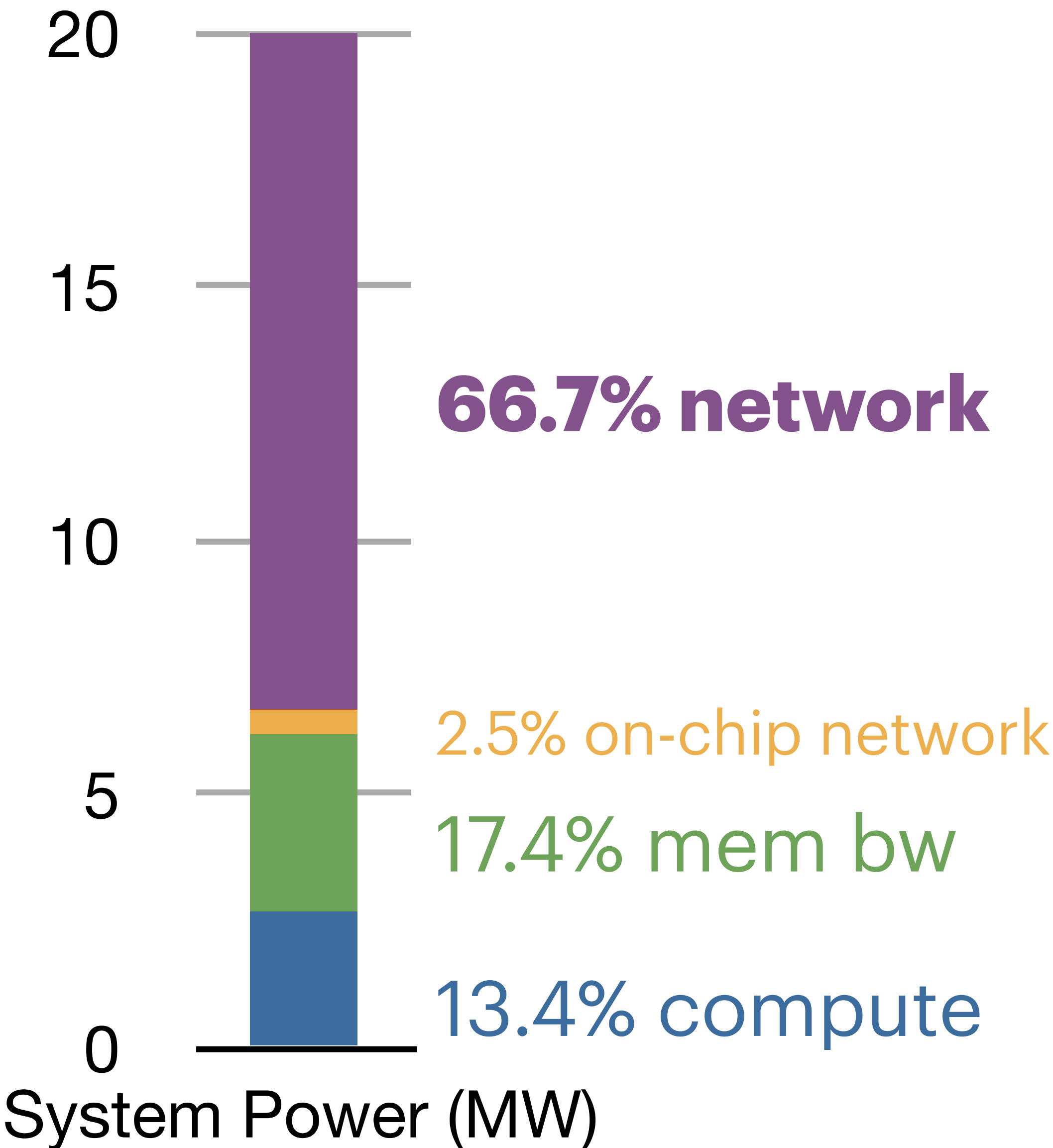
*P.S.:  $R_{max} / R_{peak} \sim 75\%$*



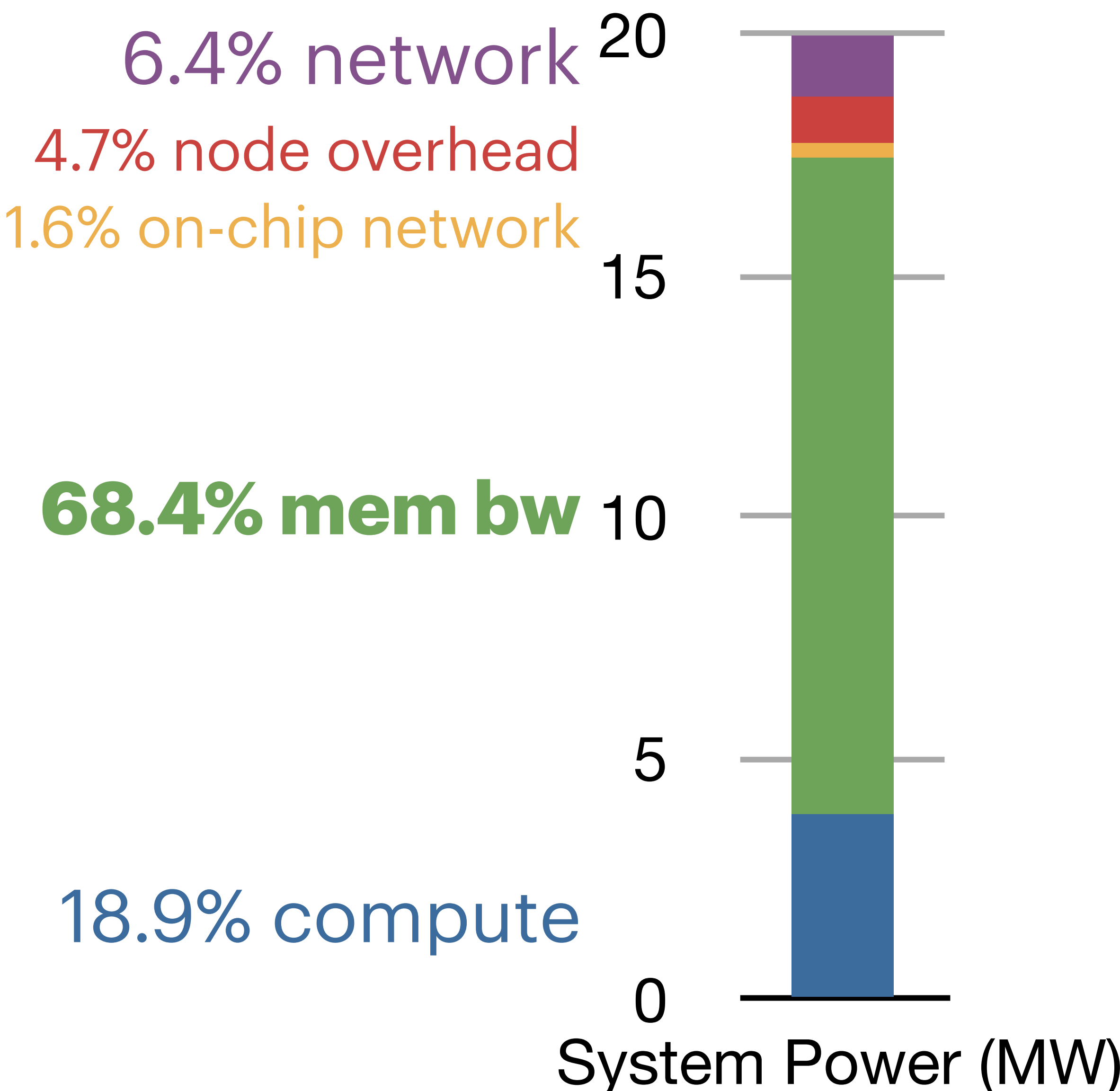
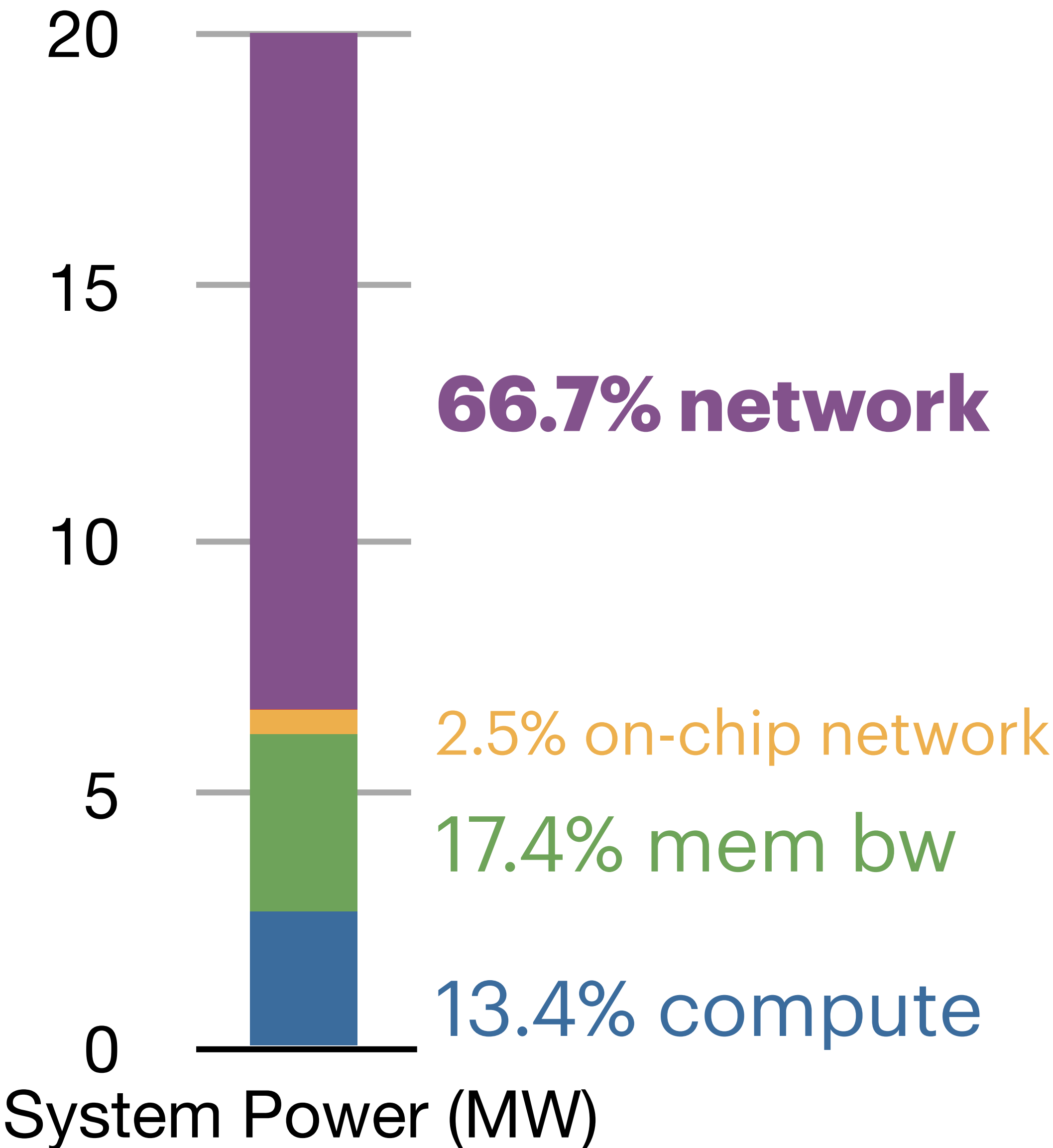
# Power allocation for an “optimal” 3D FFT machine?

98

# Power allocation for an “optimal” 3D FFT machine



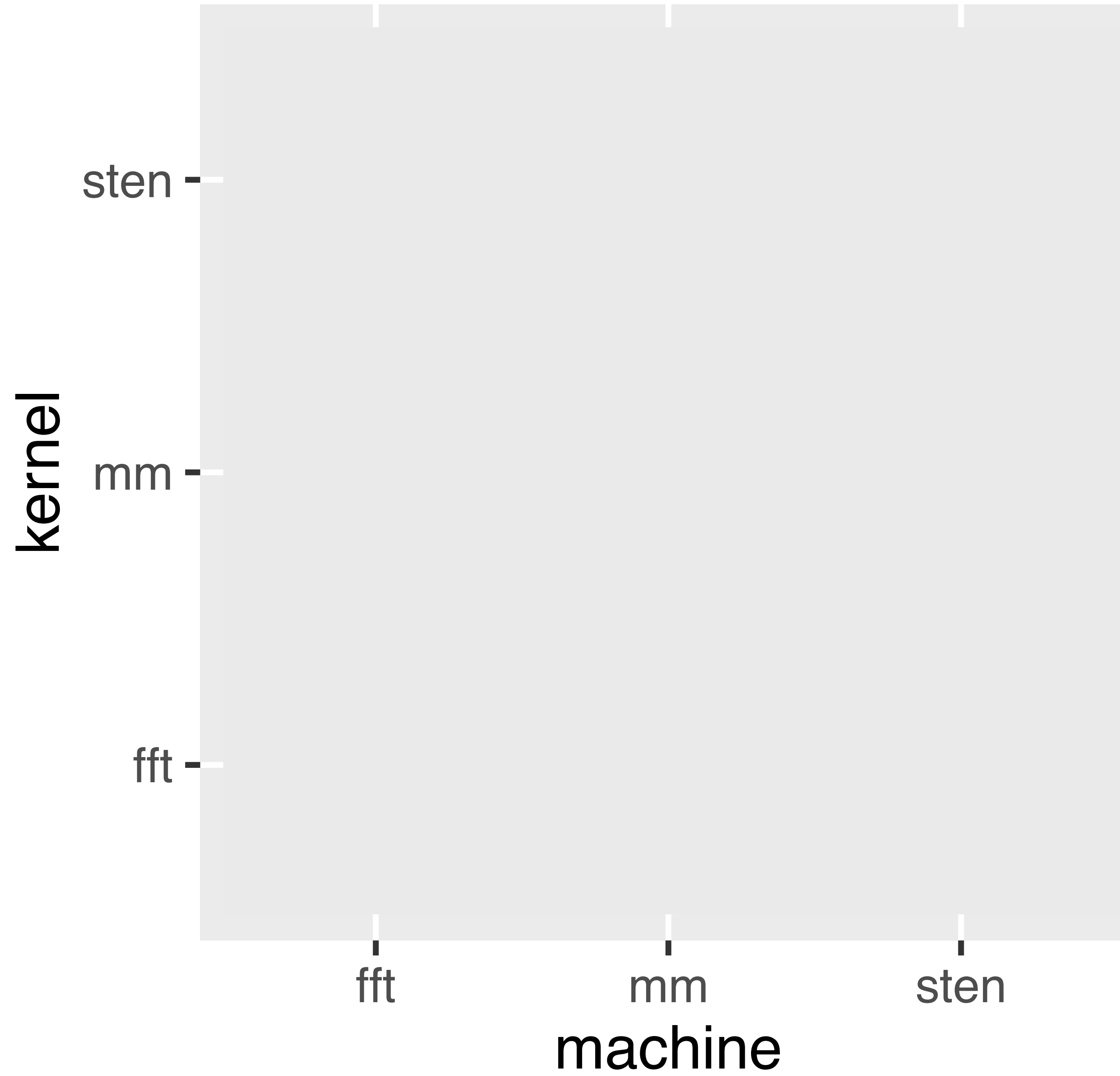
# 3D FFT vs. "Stencil" machines





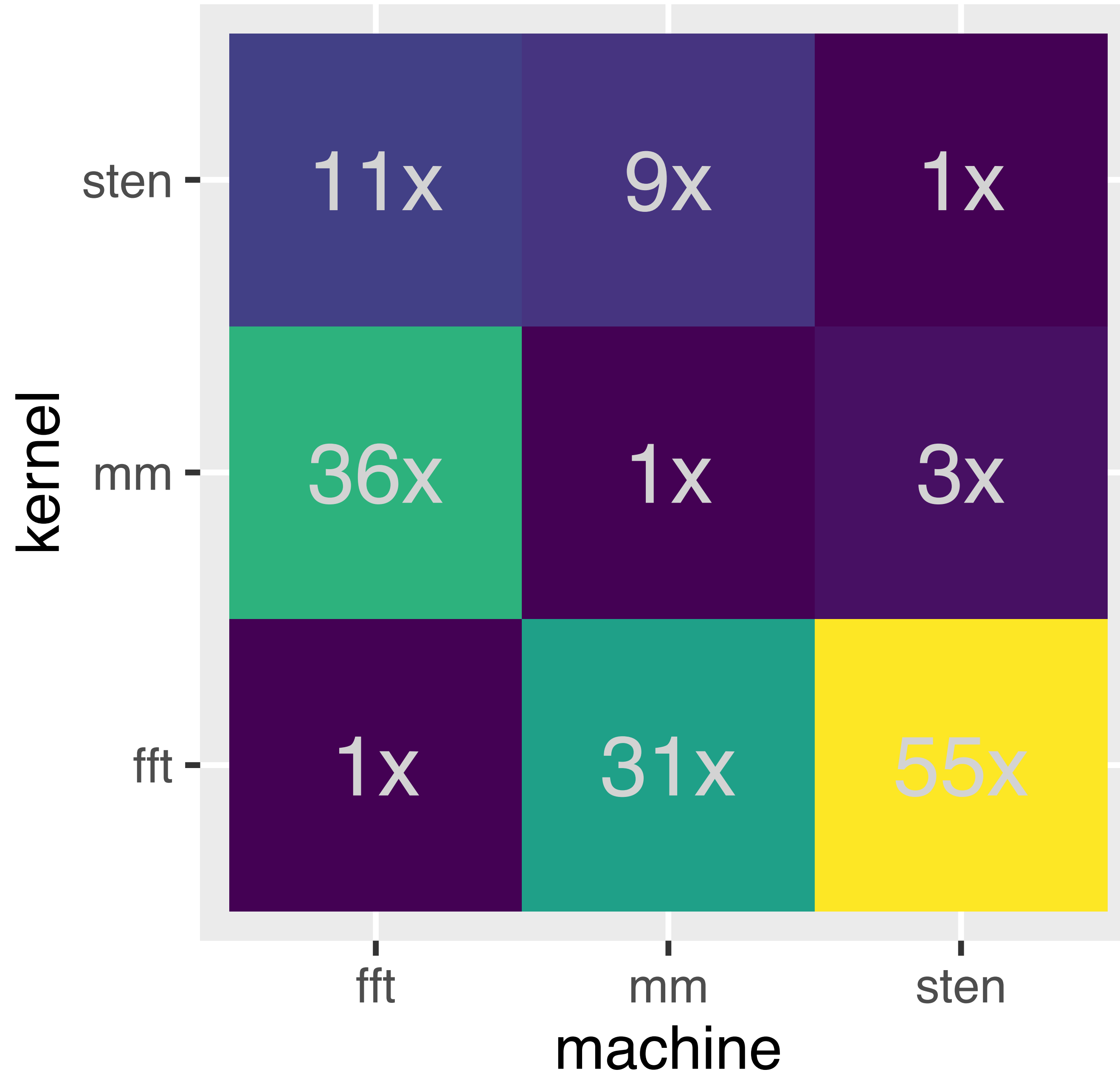
# Relative time (slowdown)

101



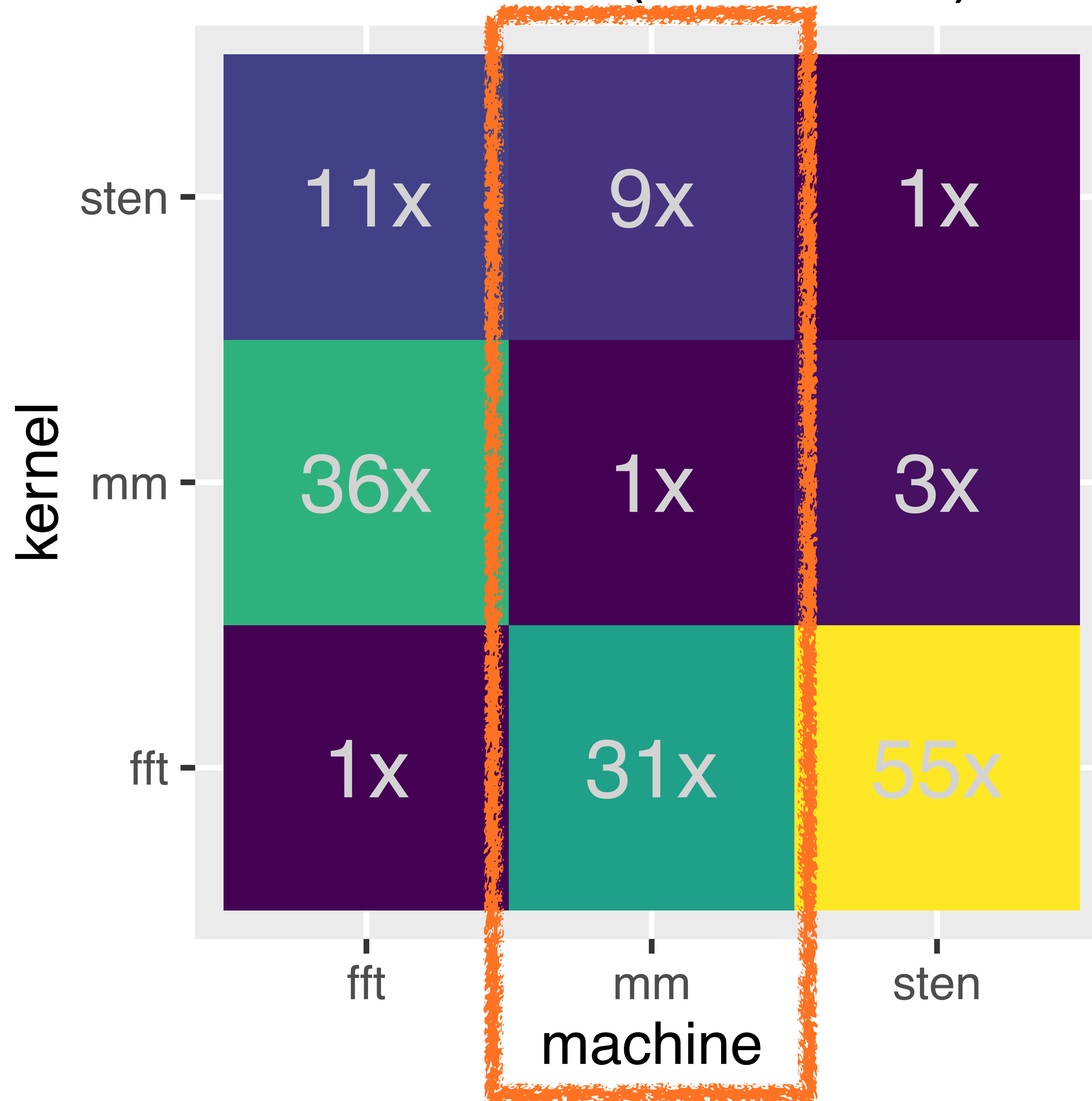
# Relative time (slowdown)

101



# Relative time (slowdown)

101

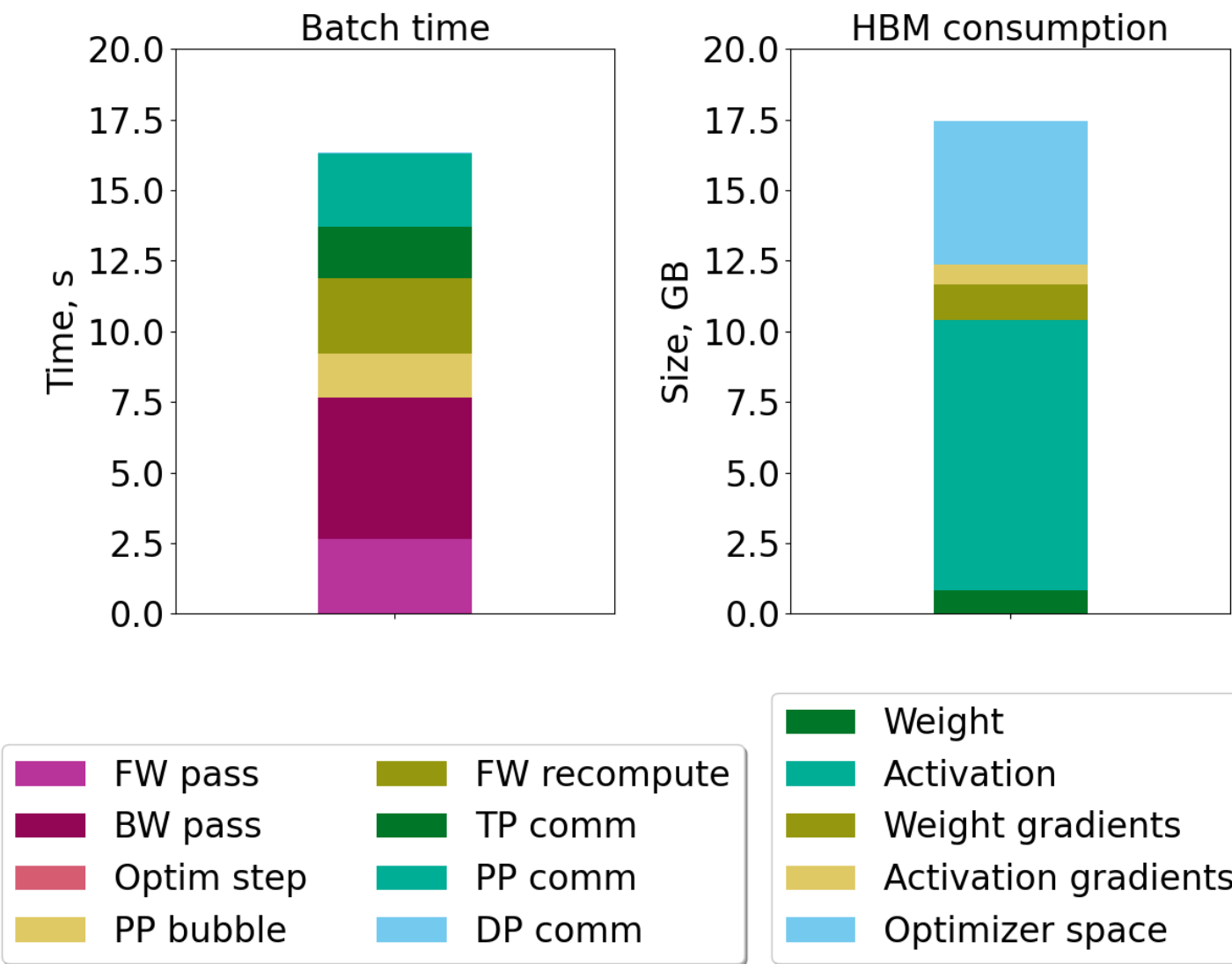


# Demand, supply, ... and new demand?

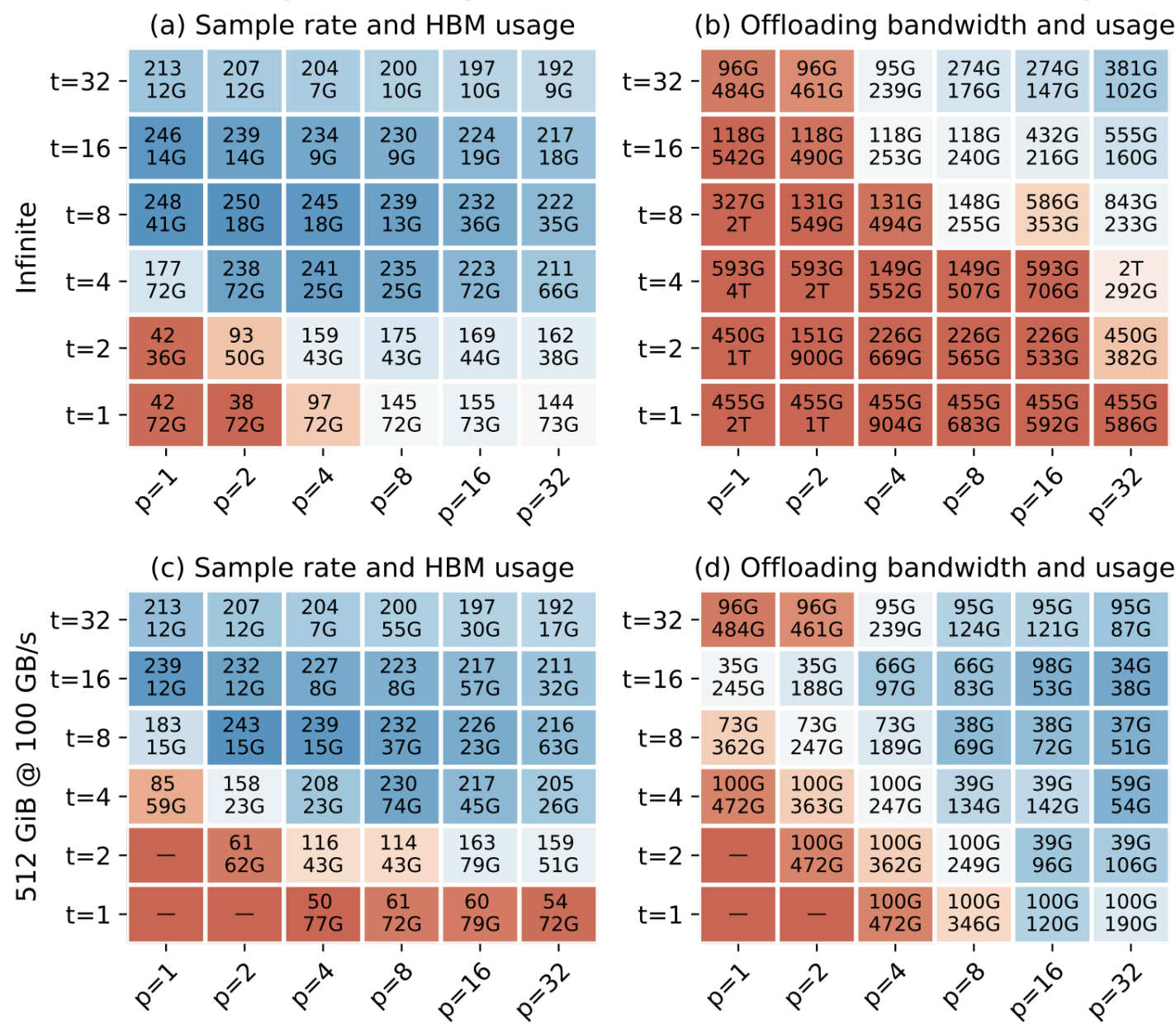
Follow the **money**: Our  
supercomputers will be  
machines tuned for AI.

What could such  
machines look like? A  
**performance model**  
might tell you.

What **else** could and  
should we build???



Megatron-1T training on 4096 H100 80 GiB GPUs with a secondary memory available for tensor offloading



Relative time (slowdown)

