# Document History

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Version</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Description of Change</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>01</td>
<td>April 18, 2023</td>
<td>Initial Release</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>02</td>
<td>November 9, 2023</td>
<td>Version 1.0 Release</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>03</td>
<td>February 6, 2024</td>
<td>Added information about the CPU code locality tool (refer to <a href="#">Using Code Locality to Improve Performance</a> for more information).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>04</td>
<td>March 8, 2024</td>
<td>Updated the following sections:</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>• <a href="#">CPU Performance and Frequency Management</a></td>
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<td></td>
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<td>• <a href="#">Power and Thermal Management</a></td>
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<td>• <a href="#">Performance Governor</a></td>
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<td>• <a href="#">Init on Alloc</a></td>
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<td>• <a href="#">Grace CPU Performance Metrics</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>05</td>
<td>May 17, 2024</td>
<td>• Added a reference to the <a href="#">Statistical Profiling Extension</a> section.</td>
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1. Introduction

1.1. NVIDIA Grace CPU Superchip and NVIDIA GH200 Grace Hopper Superchip Overview

The Grace CPU is the first data center CPU designed by NVIDIA. The Grace CPU has 72 high-performance and power efficient Arm Neoverse V2 Cores, connected by a high-performance NVIDIA Scalable Coherency Fabric and server-class LPDDR5X memory.

The Grace CPU is found in two data center NVIDIA superchip products. The first is the NVIDIA GH200 Grace Hopper™ Superchip that pairs the power efficient, high-bandwidth NVIDIA Grace CPU with an NVIDIA H100 Tensor Core GPU to maximize the capabilities for accelerated computing and generative AI workloads. The heart of the GH200 Grace Hopper Superchip, is the NVLink-C2C that delivers up to 900 gigabytes per second (GB/s) of total bandwidth, which is 7X higher than PCIe Gen5 lanes commonly used in accelerated systems. NVLink-C2C enables the GPU to have direct access to over 600GB of memory, GH200 runs the full NVIDIA software stack and can be easily deployed in standard servers to run a variety of inference, data analytics, and other compute and memory-intensive workloads.

The second is the NVIDIA Grace CPU Superchip, with 144 cores in a no-compromise CPU for HPC, demanding cloud, and enterprise computing workloads. The Grace CPU Superchip delivers up to 1 TB/s of memory bandwidth, best-in-class data center throughput and up to 2X the performance per watt of today’s leading servers.
Figure 1-1. NVIDIA Grace CPU Superchip
Table 1-1. NVIDIA Grace CPU Superchip Specifications

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Grace CPU Superchip</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Core Architecture</td>
<td>Armv9-A Neoverse V2 Cores with 4x128b SVE2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Core Count</td>
<td>144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cache</td>
<td>L1: 64KB I-cache + 64KB D-cache per core</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>L2: 1MB per core</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>L3: 234MB per superchip</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Memory Technology</td>
<td>LPDDR5X with ECC in the same package.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raw Memory BW</td>
<td>Up to 1 TB/s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Memory Size</td>
<td>Up to 960GB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FP64 Peak</td>
<td>7.1 TFLOPS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PCI Express</td>
<td>8x PCIe Gen 5 x16 interfaces; with an option to bifurcate.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total 1 TB/s PCIe Bandwidth.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Additional low-speed PCIe connectivity for management.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Power</td>
<td>500W TDP with Memory, 12V Supply</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1-2. NVIDIA GH200 Grace Hopper Superchip Specifications

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>GH200 Grace Hopper Superchip</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CPU Core Architecture</td>
<td>Armv9-A Neoverse V2 Cores with 4x128b SVE2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPU Core Count</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPU Cache</td>
<td>L1: 64KB I-cache + 64KB D-cache per core</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>L2: 1MB per core</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>L3: 117MB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPU Memory Technology</td>
<td>LPDDR5X with ECC in the same package.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPU Raw Memory BW</td>
<td>Up to 500 GB/s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPU Memory Size</td>
<td>Up to 480GB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GPU Multi-Processor</td>
<td>Hopper SM compute capability 9.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Architecture</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GPU Multi-Processor</td>
<td>132</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GPU Memory Technology</td>
<td>High-Bandwidth Memory HBM3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High-Bandwidth Memory HMB3e</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GPU Memory Size</td>
<td>96GB HBM3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>144GB HBM3e</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1.1.1. High Performance Architecture

The Grace CPU delivers high, single-threaded performance, high memory bandwidth, and outstanding data movement capabilities with leadership performance per watt. To enable the Grace CPU Superchip, these design goals required the development of several innovations.

The Grace Hopper CPU+GPU Superchip combines high performance of the Grace CPU with world-class GPU performance of the NVIDIA H100 GPU.

1.1.2. Alleviate Bottlenecks with NVLink-C2C Interconnect

To create the Grace CPU Superchip with up to 144 Arm Neoverse V2 cores and avoid bottlenecks when moving data between the chips, the NVLink Chip-2-Chip (C2C) interconnect provides a high-speed, direct connection between chips. A typical server architecture has two sockets, each composed of multiple dies and each die can represent multiple non-uniform memory (NUMA) domains. The Grace CPU Superchip uses a clean and simple memory topology. With only two NUMA nodes and the high-bandwidth NVLink-C2C, the Grace CPU Superchip helps alleviate NUMA bottlenecks for application developers and users.

Similarly, the memory of the Grace Hopper Superchip is set up as two NUMA nodes connected through the high-bandwidth NVLink-C2C, making access to both CPU and GPU memory seamless for applications developers and users.
1.1.3. Scale Cores and Bandwidth with NVIDIA Scalable Coherency Fabric

NVIDIA Scalable Coherency Fabric (SCF), shown in Figure 1-4, is a mesh fabric and distributed cache architecture that is designed by NVIDIA to scale cores and bandwidth. To keep data flowing between the CPU cores, NVLink-C2C, memory, and system IO, SCF provides over 3.2 TB/s of total bisection bandwidth.
The CPU cores and SCF cache partitions are distributed throughout the mesh, and the Cache Switch Nodes route data through the fabric and serve as interfaces between the CPU, cache memory, and system IOs. A Grace CPU Superchip has 234 MB of distributed L3 cache across the two chips.

**Figure 1-4. NVIDIA Grace CPU and the NVIDIA Scalable Coherency Fabric**

*Figure 1-4* shows the NVIDIA Grace CPU and the NVIDIA Scalable Coherency Fabric, which join the Neoverse V2 cores and distributed cache and system IO in a high-bandwidth mesh interconnect.

The Grace CPU supports Memory Partitioning and Monitoring (MPAM), which is the Arm® standard to partition the system cache and memory resources to provide performance isolation between jobs. By using MPAM, the NVIDIA-designed SCF Cache supports the partitioning of cache capacity, I/O, and memory bandwidth. MPAM also supports the use of MPAM performance monitor groups (PMGs) to monitor resources, such as cache storage usage and memory bandwidth usage.

1.1.4. LPDDR5X Memory Subsystem

The Grace CPU Superchip uses up to 960 GB of server-class LPDDR5X memory with Error Correction Code (ECC). This design strikes the optimal balance of bandwidth, energy efficiency, capacity, and cost for large-scale AI and HPC workloads.

Compared to an eight-channel DDR5 design, the Grace CPU LPDDR5X memory subsystem provides up to 53% more bandwidth at 1/8th the power per gigabyte per second while being close in cost. An HBM2e memory subsystem provides substantial memory
bandwidth and energy efficiency but at more than three times the cost-per-gigabyte and only one-eighth the maximum capacity with LPDDR5X.

The Grace CPU LPDDR5X architecture is the first data center class, resilient implementation of LPDDR technology. LPDDR5 channel sparing also restores the memory subsystem health upon reboot, which results in a low service rate due to failed memory. This allows the Grace CPU to be deployed in scenarios where serviceability is difficult and expensive.

The co-packaged memory employs a novel provisioning and error detection technique which eliminates the need to service or replace failed memory in the field, allowing the Grace CPU to be deployed in scenarios where serviceability is difficult or costly.

The lower power consumption of LPDDR5X reduces the overall system power requirements and enables more resources to be used in the CPU cores. The compact form factor enables twice the density of a typical DIMM-based design.

1.1.5. CPU I/O

The Grace CPU Superchip supports up to 128 lanes of PCIe Gen 5 for I/O connectivity, and each PCIe Gen 5 x16 link supports up to 128 GB/s of bi-directional bandwidth and, for additional connectivity, can be bifurcated into 2x8s. Additional PCIe interfaces are provided for system management purposes. Server makers can use the standard expansion options for a variety of PCIe slot form factors with out-of-box support for NVIDIA GPUs, NVIDIA DPUs, NVIDIA ConnectX SmartNICs, E1.S, and M.2 NVMe devices, modular BMC options, and so on.

1.1.6. Grace CPU Core Architecture

The Grace CPU Neoverse V2 core implements the Armv9.0-A architecture, which extends the architecture that was defined in the Armv8-A architectures up to Armv8.5-A. Application binaries that are built for an Armv8 architecture up to Armv8.5-A will execute on NVIDIA Grace, and this includes binaries that target CPUs like the Ampere Altra, the AWS Graviton2, and the AWS Graviton3.

**Important:** The NVIDIA HPC Compilers compile for fixed-length which are not binary compatible between, for example, Graviton and Grace.
1.1.7. SIMD Vectorization

The Neoverse V2 implements the following single instruction multiple data (SIMD) vector instruction sets in a 4x128-bit configuration:

- The Scalable Vector Extension version 2 (SVE2)
- Advanced SIMD (NEON)

Each of the four 128-bit functional units can retire SVE2 or NEON instructions, and this design allows more codes to take advantage of the SIMD performance.

Many applications and libraries are already taking advantage of Advanced SIMD (also known as NEON). SVE is a length-agnostic next generation SIMD instruction set architecture (orthogonal to Advanced SIMD) and provides features such as prediction, first faulting loads, gather, scatter, the ability to scale to large vector lengths without requiring recompilation, or porting to new vector lengths by hand. SVE2 provides vector length flexibility, which allows software efforts to focus on application specific optimizations.

SVE is implemented in many flagship Arm implementations, and by using length agnostic instructions for Grace CPU accrue toward portable binaries, ensures compatibility with SVE optimizations. SVE2 also extends the SVE ISA with advanced instructions that can accelerate key HPC applications like machine learning, genomics, and cryptography.

Refer to Compilers for the command-line options with popular compilers.

1.1.8. Atomic Operations

NVIDIA Grace CPU supports the Large System Extension (LSE), which was introduced in Armv8.1. LSE provides the following low-cost atomic operations, which can improve system throughput for CPU-to-CPU communication, locks, and mutexes:

- The Compare and Swap instructions, CAS, and CASP.
- Atomic memory operation instructions, LD<OP> and ST<OP>, where <OP> is ADD, CLR, EOR, SET, SMAX, SMIN, UMAX, or UMIN.
- The Swap procedure, SWP.

These instructions can operate on integer data. All compilers that support the Grace CPU automatically use these instructions in synchronization functions like GCC’s __atomic built-ins. When using LSE atomics instead of load/store exclusives, there is a huge improvement. For instance, a shared integer value can be incremented with one atomic ADD instead of the following sequence:

1. Load exclusive.
2. Add.
3. Attempt store exclusive.
4. If the operation fails, repeat the sequence.
1.1.9. Additional Armv9 Features

The Grace CPU implements multiple key features of the Armv9 portfolio that provide utilities in general purpose data center CPUs, including cryptographic acceleration, scalable profiling extension, virtualization extensions, and secure boot. In addition to standard Armv9 features, Grace also supports full-memory encryption.
2. Understanding Your Grace Machine

After you boot up your Grace machine, run `sudo ipmitool fru print` command and check the information about the NVIDIA Grace module.

Here is the sample output from a Grace CPU Superchip machine. The **FRU Device Description** is PG535, and the **Product Name** is C2.

```
FRU Device Description : PG535 (ID 192)
Board Mfg Date    : [REDACTED]
Board Mfg          : NVIDIA
Board Product      : PG535
Board Serial       : [REDACTED]
Board Part Number  : 699-2G535-0200-DV2
Product Manufacturer: NVIDIA
Product Name       : C2
Product Part Number: 900-2G535-0000-000
Product Version    : B-R00
Product Serial     : [REDACTED]
```

Here is the sample output from a Grace Hopper Superchip machine. The **FRU Device Description** is PG530, and the **Product Name** is GH200.

```
FRU Device Description : PG530 (ID 133)
Board Mfg Date    : [REDACTED]
Board Mfg          : NVIDIA
Board Product      : PG530
Board Serial       : [REDACTED]
Board Part Number  : 699-2G530-0206-QS1
Product Manufacturer: NVIDIA
Product Name       : GH200 480GB
Product Part Number: 900-2G530-0000-000
Product Version    : A-R00
Product Serial     : [REDACTED]
```
2.1. Checking the CPUs

The `lscpu` command-line utility in Linux gets CPU information about the system, fetches the CPU architecture information from the `sysfs` and `/proc/cpuinfo` files, and displays the information in a terminal.

After you boot your Grace machine, run the `lscpu` command and check the CPUs.

Here is the sample output from a Grace CPU Superchip machine:

```
Architecture:           aarch64
 CPU op-mode(s):        64-bit
 Byte Order:            Little Endian
 CPU(s):                144
 On-line CPU(s) list:   0-143
 Vendor ID:             ARM
 Model:                 0
 Thread(s) per core:    1
 Core(s) per socket:    72
 Socket(s):             2
 Stepping:              r0p0
 Frequency boost:       disabled
 CPU max MHz:           3582.0000
 CPU min MHz:           81.0000
 BogoMIPS:              2000.00
 Flags:                 fp asimd evtstrm aes pmull sha1 sha2 crc32 atomics fphp a simdhp cpuid asimdrom jsctv fcma 1rcpc dcpop sha3 sm3 sm4 asimdpp sha512 sve asimdffhm dit uscat ilrcpc flagm ssbs sb paca pcag dcpodp sge2 sveaes svepmull sveitperm svesh a3 svesm4 flagm2 frint svei8mm svebf16 i8mm bf16 dgh bti
 Caches (sum of all):
  L1d:                   9 MiB (144 instances)
  L1i:                   9 MiB (144 instances)
  L2:                    144 MiB (144 instances)
  L3:                    228 MiB (2 instances)
 NUMA:
  NUMA node(s):          2
  NUMA node0 CPU(s):     0-71
  NUMA node1 CPU(s):     72-143
 Vulnerabilities:
  Itlb multihit:         Not affected
  Litf:                  Not affected
  Mds:                   Not affected
  Meltdown:              Not affected
  Mmio stale data:       Not affected
  Retbleed:              Not affected
  Spec store bypass:     Mitigation; Speculative Store Bypass disabled via prctl
  Spectre v1:            Mitigation; __user pointer sanitization
  Spectre v2:            Not affected
```
From this output, you can see information such as the number of CPU sockets, how many cores per socket, how many hardware threads per core, and the max/min CPU frequency. You can also find the size of the L1, the L2, and the L3 caches.

Here is the sample output of a Grace Hopper Superchip system:

```
Architecture: aarch64
    CPU op-mode(s): 64-bit
    Byte Order: Little Endian
    CPU(s): 72
        On-line CPU(s) list: 0-71
    Vendor ID: ARM
    Model: 0
    Thread(s) per core: 1
    Core(s) per socket: 72
    Socket(s): 1
    Stepping: r0p0
    Frequency boost: disabled
    CPU max MHz: 3591.0000
    CPU min MHz: 81.0000
    BogoMIPS: 2000.00
    Flags: fp asimd evtstrm aes pmull sha1 sha2 crc32 atomics fphp
asimdhp
    cpuid asimdrdm jscvt fcma lrcpc dcpop sha3 sm3 sm4 asimddp
sha
    512 sve asimdfhm dit uscat lrcpc flagm ssbs sb pacac pacg
dcpod
    p sve2 sveaes svepmull svebitperm svehasha3 svesm4 flagm2
frint s
    vei8mm svebf16 i8mm bf16 dgh bti
Caches (sum of all):
    L1d: 4.5 MiB (72 instances)
    L1i: 4.5 MiB (72 instances)
    L2: 72 MiB (72 instances)
    L3: 114 MiB (1 instance)
NUMA:
    NUMA node(s): 9
    NUMA node0 CPU(s): 0-71
    NUMA node1 CPU(s): 
    NUMA node2 CPU(s): 
    NUMA node3 CPU(s): 
    NUMA node4 CPU(s): 
    NUMA node5 CPU(s): 
    NUMA node6 CPU(s): 
    NUMA node7 CPU(s): 
    NUMA node8 CPU(s): 
Vulnerabilities:
    Itlb multihit: Not affected
```
### 2.2. Checking the Non-Uniform Memory Access Settings

The `lscpu` output includes basic information about the Non-Uniform Memory Access (NUMA) settings on your Grace machine.

To understand more about the NUMA settings, run the `numactl -H` command, and here is the sample output from a Grace Superchip machine:

```
available: 2 nodes (0-1)
node 0 cpus: 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52 53 54 55 56 57 58 59 60 61 62 63 64 65 66 67 68 69 70 71
node 0 size: 245090 MB
node 0 free: 99633 MB
node 1 cpus: 72 73 74 75 76 77 78 79 80 81 82 83 84 85 86 87 88 89 90 91 92 93 94 95 96 97 98 99 100 101 102 103 104 105 106 107 108 109 110 111 112 113 114 115 116 117 118 119 120 121 122 123 124 125 126 127 128 129 130 131 132 133 134 135 136 137 138 139 140 141 142 143 144
node 1 size: 245317 MB
node 1 free: 126895 MB
node distances:
  node 0: 1
  node 1: 10
```

The output shows that there are two NUMA nodes on this machine, the number of cores on each NUMA node, and how much memory is available for each node. The output also shows the node distances between NUMA nodes, which helps the Kernel scheduler execute application threads on CPU cores that are closest to the memory resident data.
Here is the sample output from a Grace + Hopper Superchip system:

available: 9 nodes (0-8)
node 0 cpus: 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52 53 54 55 56 57 58 59 60 61 62 63 64 65 66 67 68 69 70 71
  node 0 size: 490310 MB
  node 0 free: 166560 MB
  node 1 cpus:
  node 1 size: 95232 MB
  node 1 free: 92094 MB
  node 2 cpus:
  node 2 size: 0 MB
  node 2 free: 0 MB
  node 3 cpus:
  node 3 size: 0 MB
  node 3 free: 0 MB
  node 4 cpus:
  node 4 size: 0 MB
  node 4 free: 0 MB
  node 5 cpus:
  node 5 size: 0 MB
  node 5 free: 0 MB
  node 6 cpus:
  node 6 size: 0 MB
  node 6 free: 0 MB
  node 7 cpus:
  node 7 size: 0 MB
  node 7 free: 0 MB
  node 8 cpus:
  node 8 size: 0 MB
  node 8 free: 0 MB
  node distances:
  node 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
  0: 10 80 80 80 80 80 80 80 80
  1: 80 10 255 255 255 255 255 255 255
As noted in [Checking the CPUs](#), the last seven NUMA nodes can be ignored if MIG is not used.

### 2.3. Checking the GPU

Running the `nvidia-smi` command displays the status of the GPU in the system.

Here is sample output from a Grace Hopper Superchip system:

```
+----------------------------------------------------------------------------------+
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NVIDIA-SMI 535.104.06 Driver Version: 535.104.06 CUDA Version: 12.2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GPU Name Persistence-M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fan Temp Perf Pwr:Usage/Cap</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>擅</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------------------+----------------------+-----------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 GH200 480GB Off</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N/A 29C P0 108W / 900W</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>==================================================================================</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Processes:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GPU GI CI PID Type Process name GPU Memory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ID ID Usage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>==================================================================================</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No running processes found</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>==================================================================================</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
```
2.4. Checking the Memory

One of the common ways of checking the memories on your Grace system is to run the `sudo dmidecode -t memory` command. Here is the sample output from a Grace-Grace machine:

```
# dmidecode 3.3
Getting SMBIOS data from sysfs.
SMBIOS 3.6.0 present.
# SMBIOS implementations newer than version 3.5.0 are not
# fully supported by this version of dmidecode.

Handle 0x000B, DMI type 16, 23 bytes
Physical Memory Array
   Location: System Board Or Motherboard
   Use: System Memory
   Error Correction Type: Single-bit ECC
   Maximum Capacity: 480 GB
   Error Information Handle: No Error
   Number Of Devices: 2

Handle 0x000C, DMI type 17, 92 bytes
Memory Device
   Array Handle: 0x000B
   Error Information Handle: 0x0000
   Total Width: 540 bits
   Data Width: 480 bits
   Size: 240 GB
   Form Factor: Die
   Set: None
   Locator: Not Specified
   Bank Locator: Not Specified
   Type: LPDDR5
   Type Detail: None
   Speed: Unknown
   Manufacturer: Not Specified
   Serial Number: 9223381974177924187
   Asset Tag: Not Specified
   Part Number: Not Specified
   Rank: 1
   Configured Memory Speed: Unknown
   Minimum Voltage: Unknown
   Maximum Voltage: Unknown
   Configured Voltage: Unknown
   Memory Technology: DRAM
   Memory Operating Mode Capability: None
   Firmware Version: Not Specified
   Module Manufacturer ID: Unknown
   Module Product ID: Unknown
   Memory Subsystem Controller Manufacturer ID: Unknown
```
Memory Subsystem Controller Product ID: Unknown
Non-Volatile Size: None
Volatile Size: None
Cache Size: None
Logical Size: None

Handle 0x000D, DMI type 17, 92 bytes
Memory Device
   Array Handle: 0x000B
   Error Information Handle: 0x0000
   Total Width: 540 bits
   Data Width: 480 bits
   Size: 240 GB
   Form Factor: Die
   Set: None
   Locator: Not Specified
   Bank Locator: Not Specified
   Type: LPDDR5
   Type Detail: None
   Speed: Unknown
   Manufacturer: Not Specified
   Serial Number: 9223382071351559259
   Asset Tag: Not Specified
   Part Number: Not Specified
   Rank: 1
   Configured Memory Speed: Unknown
   Minimum Voltage: Unknown
   Maximum Voltage: Unknown
   Configured Voltage: Unknown
   Memory Technology: DRAM
   Memory Operating Mode Capability: None
   Firmware Version: Not Specified
   Module Manufacturer ID: Unknown
   Module Product ID: Unknown
   Memory Subsystem Controller Manufacturer ID: Unknown
   Memory Subsystem Controller Product ID: Unknown
   Non-Volatile Size: None
   Volatile Size: None
   Cache Size: None
   Logical Size: None

You can see from the output that there are two zones of LPDDR5 memories, each with
240GB, and each zone is from one Grace chip.
3. Basic System Health Checks

To confirm that your system is healthy and is correctly configured, check the compute performance and memory bandwidth with some simple benchmarks.

3.1. STREAM

Use the STREAM benchmark to check LPDDR5X memory bandwidth. The following commands download and compile STREAM with a total memory footprint of approximately 2.7GB, which is sufficient to exceed the L3 cache without excessive runtime.

```
$ gcc -Ofast -mcpu=neoverse-v2 -fopenmp \
   -DSTREAM_ARRAY_SIZE=12000000 -DNTIMES=200 \ 
   -o stream_openmp.exe stream.c
```

To run STREAM, set the number of OpenMP threads (OMP_NUM_THREADS) according to the example below. Use OMP_PROC_BIND=spread to distribute the threads evenly over all available cores and maximize bandwidth.

```
$ OMP_NUM_THREADS={THREADS} OMP_PROC_BIND=spread ./stream_openmp.exe
```

System bandwidth is proportional to the memory capacity. Find your system's memory capacity in the table below and use the given parameters to generate the expected score for STREAM TRIAD. For example, when running on a Grace-Hopper superchip with a memory capacity of 120GB, this command will score at least 450GB/s in STREAM TRIAD:

```
$ OMP_NUM_THREADS=72 OMP_PROC_BIND=spread ./stream_openmp.exe
```
Similarly, this command will score at least 900GB/s in STREAM TRIAD on a Grace CPU Superchip with a memory capacity of 240GB:

```
$ OMP_NUM_THREADS=144 OMP_PROC_BIND=spread numactl -m0,1 ./stream_openmp.exe
```

**Table 3-1. Expected STREAM TRIAD Scores**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Superchip</th>
<th>Capacity (GB)</th>
<th>OMP_NUM_THREADS</th>
<th>Expected TRIAD Bandwidth</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grace-Hopper</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>450+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grace-Hopper</td>
<td>480</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>340+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grace CPU</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>900+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grace CPU</td>
<td>480</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>900+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grace CPU</td>
<td>960</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>680+</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

```
$ OMP_NUM_THREADS=72 OMP_PROC_BIND=spread numactl -m0,1 ./stream_openmp.exe
```

STREAM version $Revision: 5.10 $  
----------------------------------
This system uses 8 bytes per array element.  
----------------------------------
Array size = 120000000 (elements), Offset = 0 (elements)  
Memory per array = 915.5 MiB (= 0.9 GiB).  
Total memory required = 2746.6 MiB (= 2.7 GiB).  
Each kernel will be executed 200 times.  
The *best* time for each kernel (excluding the first iteration)  
will be used to compute the reported bandwidth.  
----------------------------------
Number of Threads requested = 72  
Number of Threads counted = 72  
----------------------------------
Your clock granularity/precision appears to be 1 microseconds.  
Each test below will take on the order of 2927 microseconds.  
(= 2927 clock ticks)  
Increase the size of the arrays if this shows that  
you are not getting at least 20 clock ticks per test.  
----------------------------------
**WARNING --** The above is only a rough guideline.  
For best results, please be sure you know the  
precision of your system timer.  
----------------------------------

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Best Rate MB/s</th>
<th>Avg time</th>
<th>Min time</th>
<th>Max time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

NVIDIA Grace Performance Tuning Guide
3.2. Fused Multiply Add

NVIDIA provides an open source suite of benchmarking microkernels for Arm CPUs. To allow precise counts of instructions and exercise specific functional units, these kernels are written in assembly language. To measure the peak floating point capability of a core and check the CPU clock speed, use a Fused Multiply Add (FMA) kernel.

To measure achievable peak performance of a core, the fp64_sve_pred_fmla kernel executes a known number of SVE predicated fused multiply-add operations (FMLA). When combined with the perf tool, you can measure the performance and the core clock speed.

```
$ git clone https://github.com/NVIDIA/arm-kernels.git
$ cd arm-kernels
$ make
$ perf stat ./arithmetic/fp64_sve_pred_fmla.x
```

The benchmark score is reported in giga-operations per second (Gop/sec) near the top of the benchmark output. Grace can perform 16 FP64 FMA operations per cycle, so a Grace CPU with a nominal CPU frequency of 3.3GHz should report between 52 and 53 Gop/sec. The CPU frequency is reported in the perf output on the cycles line and after the # symbol.

Here is an example of the fp64_sve_pred_fmla.x execution output:

```
$ perf stat ./arithmetic/fp64_sve_pred_fmla.x
4( 16(SVE_FMLA_64b) );
Iterations:100000000
Total Inst:6400000000
Total Ops:25600000000
Inst/Iter:64
Ops/Iter:256
Seconds:0.481267
G0ps/sec:53.1929

Performance counter stats for './arithmetic/fp64_sve_pred_fmla.x':

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stat</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>task-clock</td>
<td>482.25 msec</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>context-switches</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cpu-migrations</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>page-faults</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cycles</td>
<td>1,607,949,685</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>instructions</td>
<td>6,704,065,953</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>branches</td>
<td>&lt;not supported&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPUs utilized</td>
<td>0.996</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/sec</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/sec</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/sec</td>
<td>134.786</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GHz</td>
<td>3.334</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>insn per cycle</td>
<td>4.17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.3. C2C CPU-GPU Bandwidth

NVIDIA provides an open-source benchmark, similar to STREAM, that is designed to test the bandwidth between various memory units on the system. This can be used to test the bandwidth provided by NVLink C2C between the CPU and GPU of a Grace Hopper Superchip.

Download, build, and run nvbandwidth:

```bash
git clone https://github.com/NVIDIA/nvbandwidth.git
cd nvbandwidth
# may need to update version of CUDA
docker run -it --rm --gpus all -v $(pwd):/nvbandwidth
nvidia/cuda:12.2.0-devel-ubuntu22.04

# within docker

cd /nvbandwidth
apt update
apt install libboost-program-options-dev
./debian_install.sh
./nvbandwidth -t 0

# next test
./nvbandwidth -t 1

# all tests can be listed with ./nvbandwidth -l
```

Here is the output from the previous two commands on a sample system:

```
18,383 branch-misses  # 0.00% of all branches

0.484136320 seconds time elapsed
0.482678000 seconds user
0.000000000 seconds sys
```

**Note:** Bandwidth numbers depend on specific Grace Hopper SKUs and are also influenced by factors such as IOMMU settings, GPU clock settings, and other system-specific parameters. These factors should be carefully considered during any bandwidth benchmarking activity.

```
# ./nvbandwidth -t 0
nvbandwidth Version: v0.2
Built from Git version:

NOTE: This tool reports current measured bandwidth on your system. Additional system-specific tuning may be required to achieve maximal peak bandwidth.
```
CUDA Runtime Version: 12020
CUDA Driver Version: 12020
Driver Version: 535.82

Device 0: GH200 120GB

Running host_to_device_memcpy_ce.
memcpy CE CPU(row) -> GPU(column) bandwidth (GB/s)
  0 416.34

SUM host_to_device_memcpy_ce 416.34

# ./nvbandwidth -t 1
nvbandwidth Version: v0.2
Built from Git version:
NOTE: This tool reports current measured bandwidth on your system. Additional system-specific tuning may be required to achieve maximal peak bandwidth.

CUDA Runtime Version: 12020
CUDA Driver Version: 12020
Driver Version: 535.82

Device 0: GH200 120GB

Running device_to_host_memcpy_ce.
memcpy CE CPU(row) <- GPU(column) bandwidth (GB/s)
  0 295.47

SUM device_to_host_memcpy_ce 295.47

For memory copies that use CUDA copy engines (CEs), you should expect similar numbers as shown in the output for systems with 120GB or 240GB of LPDDR5 memory.

Systems with 480GB LPDDR5 memory might have a lower bandwidth for host-to-device copies (compared to the first test output shown above). On a healthy system, this bandwidth should be approximately 350-360 GB/s.

Systems with 480GB LPDDR5 should have similar device-to-host bandwidth as shown above in the second test, except Grace-Hopper x4 systems, where this bandwidth should be approximately 170 GB/s due to more CEs being reserved for saturating NVLink bandwidth between GPUs.

To run bandwidth tests using the GPU’s streaming micro-processors (SMs), run the .*/nvbandwidth -l command for the exact test numbers. The achieved bandwidth should be at least as large as the outputs shown by CE-based tests.
This chapter provides information about CPU power and thermal management settings.

### 4.1. C-States

C-States refer to idle CPU power states, and Grace includes the following C-states:

- **C0**: active/run state.
  
  This is the state of the CPU core while active.

- **C1**: clock gated state.
  
  This state is entered when WFI/WFE instructions are executed by the CPU core. The latency to enter/exit this state is negligible.

The LPI table in Advanced Configuration and Power Interface (ACPI) provides information about the C-states to any CPU idle governors such as the cpuidle framework in Linux.

For systems that have the cpuidle governors enabled, to read the number of times the C1 state is entered through the idle framework, run the following command:

```
$ cat /sys/devices/system/cpu/cpu<n>/cpuidle/state0/usage
```

The State0 entry reflects the WFI or the C1-clock gated state, run the following command to read the desc node in the cpuidle/state0 directory and confirm:

```
$ cat /sys/devices/system/cpu/cpu<n>/cpuidle/state0/desc
```

For systems that do not use cpuidle governors, the CPU cores can still enter the clock gated state when WFI/WFE instructions are executed, but no stats will be available.

### 4.2. P-States

P-States refers to performance states, and Grace does not offer explicit P-states. Instead, Grace exposes the maximum and minimum performance capabilities through ACPI’s CPPC mechanism. CPPC offers users and operating systems the ability to request any performance in the allowed bounds rather than discrete P-State. Refer to [CPU Performance and Frequency Management](#) for more information.
4.3. CPU Performance and Frequency Management

Each CPU core can operate at its own independent frequency, and the frequency is determined by the frequency policy governors that were used. Linux provides the following frequency governors:

- **Performance governor**: Geared towards getting the maximum performance and sets the performance/frequency request of the CPU cores to the maximum possible value. The request is not based on activity and kept fixed at highest value.
- **Userspace governor**: Bypasses a kernel governor and provides control to the userspace application for frequency control. To set the frequency of the cores, a hypervisor, or a higher level software entity, can take input from an application. The kernel does not modify the frequency based on other information but will honor frequency caps based on thermals.
- **Schedutil governor**: Incorporates information from the scheduler, which are the threads that are currently scheduled on cores, the activity on the core, load estimation, and so on, to determine the optimal frequency for the core. The goal of this governor is to provide best performance while saving power by matching the frequency based on scheduler visible workloads.
- **Ondemand governor**: Adjusts the frequency based on the trailing load of the CPU core. This governor predicts the future load and ramps frequency accordingly.


The default frequency governor in Grace is the performance governor, which sets the frequency to the maximum value for that core. The maximum frequency usually corresponds to the maximum possible performance and is higher than the frequency at which nominal (sustained) performance can be achieved. When running at the maximum frequency violates thermals, the thermal management solution throttles frequency. Refer to [Power and Thermal Management](#) for more information.

Managing CPU frequency on a Linux server can be achieved by using the `cpufreq` commands or directly by using the sysfs interface. The next section provides a concise guide that combines the methods for setting a fixed frequency and a scaling max frequency.
4.3.1. Setting a Fixed Frequency

This section provides information about setting a fixed frequency.

- **The `cpufreq` Command**
  This command allows you to do complete the following tasks:
  
  - Switch to userspace governor to manually set the frequency:
    
    ```
    $ sudo cpufreq-set -g userspace
    ```
  
  - Set the desired frequency (e.g., 3.2 GHz = 3200000 kHz):
    
    ```
    $ sudo cpufreq-set -f 3200000
    ```
  
- **The `sysfs` Method**
  This command allows you to do complete the following tasks:
  
  - Switch to userspace governor (if supported):
    
    ```
    $ echo userspace | sudo tee
    /sys/devices/system/cpu/cpu*/cpufreq/scaling_governor
    ```
  
  - Set the desired frequency directly (replace `[FREQUENCY]` with your value in kHz):
    
    ```
    $ echo [FREQUENCY] | sudo tee
    /sys/devices/system/cpu/cpu*/cpufreq/scaling_setspeed
    ```

4.3.2. Setting a Scaling Max Frequency

This section provides information about setting a scaling max frequency.

- **The `cpufreq` command**
  - Switch to performance governor to limit the max scaling frequency:
    
    ```
    $ sudo cpufreq-set -g performance
    ```
  
  - Set the scaling max frequency (e.g., 3.2 GHz = 3200000 kHz):
    
    ```
    $ sudo cpufreq-set -u 3200000
    ```
  
- **The `sysfs` method**
  - Switch to performance governor (if supported):
    
    ```
    $ echo performance | sudo tee
    /sys/devices/system/cpu/cpu*/cpufreq/scaling_governor
    ```
  
  - Limit the maximum scaling frequency (by replacing `[MAX_FREQUENCY]` with your value in kHz):
    
    ```
    $ echo [MAX_FREQUENCY] | sudo tee
    /sys/devices/system/cpu/cpu*/cpufreq/scaling_max_frequency
    ```
Here are general CPU frequency commands that you can use to read the currently requested and measured settings:

- Software frequency request (kHz) for the CPU core \(<n>\).
  
  \[
  \text{\$ cat /sys/devices/system/cpu/cpu<n>/cpufreq/scaling_cur_freq}
  \]

- Measured frequency (kHz).
  
  \[
  \text{\$ cat /sys/devices/system/cpu/cpu<n>/cpufreq/cpuinfo_cur_freq}
  \]

**Note:** This makes use of AMU (actmon), which is provided by ARM, where the source and reference clocks are measured, and where the ratio is used to compute the actual frequency. With the default measuring window used in Linux, there might be up to a 3% error in the frequency read. To increase accuracy, the measurement window should be increased in upstream Linux code.

### 4.4. GPU and Module Power Management

GPU provides power capping at the following scopes:

- Limit power consumption of the Grace + Hopper superchip (Module) and keep it within the provided power limit.

- Limit power consumption of the GPU and keep it within the provided power limit.

**Figure 4-1: GPU and Module Power Management**

This is done by *Automatic power steering* in the GPU because the GPU monitors power telemetry for Grace, Module, and the GPU. Power capping at the Module scope works on
monitoring the consumed Grace power, removing that from the Module power limit, and giving the rest to the GPU.

The GPU can work within the new power limit or can stick to the limit that was explicitly set for the GPU, where the lower of the two limits is respected. This leads to efficiently balancing power between Grace and GPU to improve overall app perf by opportunistically boosting the GoPU power budget. The GPU achieves power capping by using DVFS.

Table 4-1. Power Management

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>System</th>
<th>Knobs</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GPU</td>
<td>nvidia-smi -q -d POWER</td>
<td>Dumps Module and GPU power temetry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GPU</td>
<td>nvidia-smi -pl &lt;limit in Watt&gt; -sc 0</td>
<td>Sets limit for the GPU. This will apply to the GPU if the limit is lower than the limit evaluated through “Automatic Power Steering”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GPU</td>
<td>nvidia-smi -pl &lt;limit in Watt&gt; -sc 1</td>
<td>Sets limit for the Module</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Here is the output from the NVSMI log:

```
nvidia@localhost:--$ nvidia-smi -q -d POWER

==============NVSMI LOG==============
Timestamp : Fri Oct 6 22:46:55 2023
Driver Version : 535.122
CUDA Version : 12.2
Attached GPUs : 1
GPU 00000009:01:00.0
  GPU Power Readings
    Power Draw : 77.61 W
    Current Power Limit : 900.00 W
    Requested Power Limit : 900.00 W
    Default Power Limit : 900.00 W
    Min Power Limit : 100.00 W
    Max Power Limit : 900.00 W
  Power Samples
    Duration : 2.36 sec
    Number of Samples : 119
    Max : 78.26 W
    Min : 76.65 W
    Avg : 77.48 W
  Module Power Readings
    Power Draw : 147.49 W
    Current Power Limit : 1000.00 W
```
### 4.5. Power and Thermal Management

Grace provides the following types of thermal management types:

- Limit power consumption and keep it within the provided power limit.
- Thermal sensor (Tj)-based management.

### 4.6. Power Telemetry

This section provides information about power telemetries for Grace, and guidance for comparing Grace power telemetry to Intel and AMD power telemetry. This can be useful when making comparisons in power efficiency to other CPU architectures.

#### 4.6.1. Grace Power Telemetry

Grace exposes power telemetry through hwmon, which uses the ACPI power meter interface. You can read the power telemetry information in one of the following ways:

- **To display the name of the power meter.**
  
  This gives information about which power is being reported on hwmon node X.

  ```
  cat /sys/class/hwmon/hwmonX/device/power1_oem_info
  ```

- **To display power consumption, which is average power over past 50ms interval by default, on hwmon node X:**
  
  ```
  cat /sys/class/hwmon/hwmonX/device/power1_average
  ```

- **To display the power stats interval in milliseconds, on hwmon node X:**
  
  ```
  cat /sys/class/hwmon/hwmonX/device/power1_average_interval
  ```

- **To change the power stats interval in milliseconds, on hwmon node X (default is 50):**
  
  ```
  echo <value> | sudo tee /sys/class/hwmon/hwmonX/device/power1_average_interval
  ```

Table 4-2 provides information about the available power telemetry.

---

**Note:** To see hwmon sysfs nodes, you need `CONFIG_SENSORS_ACPI_POWER=m` in `kconfig`.

Refer to the [NVIDIA Grace Platform Support Software Patches and Configurations](https://docs.nvidia.com/gpu/) guide for more information about the patches.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>System</th>
<th>Telemetry</th>
<th>Details</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grace Superchip</td>
<td>Grace Power Socket 0</td>
<td>Total power of the socket 0, including DRAM power and regulator loss.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CPU Power Socket 0</td>
<td>CPU rail power for socket 0.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SysIO Power Socket 0</td>
<td>SOC rail power.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Grace Power Socket 1</td>
<td>Total power of the socket 1, including DRAM power and regulator loss.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CPU Power Socket 1</td>
<td>CPU rail power for socket 1.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SysIO Power Socket 1</td>
<td>SOC rail power.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grace Hopper</td>
<td>Module Power Socket 0</td>
<td>Total power of the CG1 module, including DRAM power and regulator loss.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Superchip</td>
<td>Grace Power Socket 0</td>
<td>Power of Grace socket.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CPU Power Socket 0</td>
<td>CPU rail power.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SysIO Power Socket 0</td>
<td>SOC rail power.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 4-2. Grace Power Telemetry Sensors

Grace Hopper Superchip Telemetry

Legend

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sensor</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sensor_0</td>
<td>Total module power</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sensor_1</td>
<td>Grace Power, including DRAM and power for all regulators</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sensor_2</td>
<td>CPU Power, including regulator power</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sensor_3</td>
<td>System IO Power, including regulator power</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As noted in Table 4-2, the total power reported for the socket includes CPU power, DRAM power, and regulator loss. Similarly, power is reported for the CPU cores and includes regulator losses.

Regulator loss accounts for 15% of the TDP power limit.

DRAM power can be estimated based on total traffic using the formula in Table 4-3.

### Table 4-3. Estimating DRAM Power

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Config</th>
<th>a</th>
<th>b</th>
<th>c</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>128GB, 4266MHz</td>
<td>`00.0000136</td>
<td>28.9</td>
<td>2334</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>128GB, 3200MHz</td>
<td>`00.0000175</td>
<td>28.3</td>
<td>2043</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Config</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>b</td>
<td>c</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>512GB, 3200MHz</td>
<td>`00.0000603</td>
<td>`56.2</td>
<td>`3396</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

DRAM Power (mW, without regulator losses):
\[ a \cdot \text{DRAM BW GBps}^2 + b \cdot \text{DRAM BW GBps} + c \]

The DRAM bandwidth can be determined using the PMU metrics described in [Grace CPU Performance Metrics](#).

### 4.6.2. Comparing Grace and Intel® Power Telemetry

Intel® CPUs expose power telemetry through the Intel® Performance Counter Monitor (Intel® PCM) APIs. When the power consumption of Grace CPUs is compared to Intel® CPUs, these APIs can be used to gather comparable metrics.

The PCM APIs are available on GitHub at [https://github.com/intel/pcm](https://github.com/intel/pcm).

Refer to the following documentation for more information:

- Building from the source ([https://github.com/intel/pcm#building-pcm-tools](https://github.com/intel/pcm#building-pcm-tools))
- Installing precompiled binaries ([https://github.com/intel/pcm#downloading-pre-compiled-pcm-tools](https://github.com/intel/pcm#downloading-pre-compiled-pcm-tools))

PCM’s `pcm-power` utility can be run to collect performance metrics for a number of intervals and the duration per interval. For example, to capture one minute of samples at one-second intervals, run the following command:

```
sudo pcm-power 1.00 -i=60 -silent
```

For each interval, `pcm-power` prints the power consumption for each socket (S0, S1) including CPU power consumption and and DRAM power consumption:

```
$ sudo pcm-power -silent 1.0 -i=60 | grep '^S.; Consumed'
S0; Consumed energy units: 3563683; Consumed Joules: 217.51; Watts: 217.51
S0; Consumed DRAM energy units: 533250; Consumed DRAM Joules: 32.55; DRAM Watts: 32.55
S1; Consumed energy units: 3350361; Consumed Joules: 204.49; Watts: 204.49
S1; Consumed DRAM energy units: 597938; Consumed DRAM Joules: 36.50; DRAM Watts: 36.50
```
As illustrated in Figure 4-4, the power consumption per socket does not include regulator losses, and so is not directly comparable to the CPU Power Socket 0 and CPU Power Socket 1 telemetry as described in Table 4-2. To compare Intel CPU power consumption to Grace CPU power, remove the Grace regulator losses.

For more information about Power consumption metrics that are available through the Linux powercap kernel interface in sysfs, go to [Power Capping Framework](#).

To measure power consumption for cores only, excluding regulator losses or DRAM power consumption, the metrics per CPU are available at:

For CPU 0:
```
cat /sys/class/powercap/intel-rapl/intel-rapl:0/intel-rapl:0:0/energy_uJ
```

For CPU 1:
```
cat /sys/class/powercap/intel-rapl/intel-rapl:1/intel-rapl:1:0/energy_uJ
```
These counters provide a running total of the microjoules consumed for each CPU. Measurements from this interface are comparable to the CPU Power Socket 0 and CPU Power Socket 1 telemetry as described in Table 4-2.

4.6.3. Comparing Grace and AMD Power Telemetry

AMD’s AMD μProf package includes utilities that provide power telemetry. When you compare the power consumption of Grace CPUs to AMD CPUs, these APIs can be used to gather comparable metrics.

To download and install the AMD μProf, go to https://www.amd.com/en/developer/uprof.html.

Refer to the AMD μProf User Guide for platform-specific information about the available metrics.

To capture measurements of power consumption per socket for 60 seconds with measurements at one-second intervals, run the following command:

```
AMDuProfCLI-bin timechart --event socket=0-1,power --interval 1000 --duration 60 -o powerOutput
```

The resulting output file, in a CSV format, will be reported in the command output, for example:

```
Live Profile Output file : /home/nvex/powerOutput/AMDuProf-SWP-Timechart_Aug-05-2023_00-03-29/timechart.csv
```

It contains CSV-formatted power measurements per interval, with one column per socket, for example:

```
RecordId,Timestamp,socket0-package-power,socket1-package-power
1,0:3:30:462, 95.56, 91.05
2,0:3:31:462, 95.09, 90.63
3,0:3:32:462, 95.17, 90.23
4,0:3:33:462, 95.70, 90.70
```
 Guidance for measuring power usage for the DRAM with AMD processors depends on platform implementation details. Contact your platform vendor for guidance about measuring power usage for comparison to the measurements LPDDR5x power readings with Grace.

AMD μProf also allows per-core power utilization measurements to be captured. For example, on a 64 core AMD processor:

```
AMDuProfCLI-bin timechart --event core=0-63,power --interval 1000 --duration 60 -o powerOutput
```
The resulting file contains CSV-formatted power measurements per interval, with one column per core. These cores are summed to get the total power output across all cores to determine total power consumption by the CPU. As illustrated in Figure 4-5, this measurement does not include regulator losses. When regulator losses are removed from the Grace CPU measurement the total is comparable to the Grace CPU rail power CPU Power Socket 0 or CPU Power Socket 1 telemetries as described in Table 4-2.

4.7. Power Capping

Power capping limits average power consumption and is usually set based on the thermal power dissipation capability of the system. Grace throttles power when average power exceeds this limit. Users can reduce the power limit lower than the default value that was set in the BIOS. This setting is exposed through the Hwmon nodes and can be applied to total socket power. Power capping can be applied only at the socket level and not at the vdd_cpu or vdd_soc power levels.

To set power limit, run the following command:

echo <power value in micro Watts> > /sys/class/hwmon/hwmonX/device/power1_cap

For a Grace Hopper Superchip system, the capping power of the Grace CPU allows the Hopper GPU to draw more power, which can improve performance of GPU-heavy applications.

Power capping of the GPU can be applied according to GPU and Module Power Management.

4.8. CPU Temperature Management

ACPI thermal management (Tj) uses telemetry from temperature sensors to ensure that no local hotspots exceed the operating temperature. Power capping ensures that the average power of the socket/module is at or below the thermal capacity of the system. However, this does not account for asymmetric power distribution based on workload distribution across the cores.

ACPI tables provide passive and critical temperature limits, and the thermal governor tries to throttle CPUs to maintain temperature at or below the passive temperature limits. If the temperature exceeds the critical temperature limit, a shutdown is initiated.

To read the critical and passive trip points used for ACPI software throttling:

cat /sys/class/thermal/thermal_zone*/trip_point_0_type
cat /sys/class/thermal/thermal_zone*/trip_point_0_temp
cat /sys/class/thermal/thermal_zone*/trip_point_1_type
cat /sys/class/thermal/thermal_zone*/trip_point_1_temp

To modify these values, update the ACPI table.
Caution: We recommend that you **do not** change the default values. If the passive trip point is lowered, throttling might occur more often, which affects the performance.

If the passive trip point is increased, the software might not always settle at the temperature, which leads to more aggressive hardware throttling, and can reduce performance.

4.9. GPU Temperatures

For GPU temperature using nvidia-smi, to get the temperature output, run the `nvidia-smi -q -d TEMPERATURE` command.

This step gets the current temperature and the temperature-related limits.
5. Operating System Settings

This chapter provides information about the operating system settings.

5.1. Page Size

Grace supports 64K and 4K Linux kernel page sizes. To configure your Linux kernel with the page size that suits your business needs, change the following `kconfig` settings during the kernel compilation:

- 4K page size: `CONFIG_ARM64_4K_PAGES=y`
- 64K page size: `CONFIG_ARM64_64K_PAGES=y`

The 64K page size can benefit the applications that allocate a large amount of memory because there will be fewer page faults, better TLB hits, and efficiency.

**Note:** The recommended default value for the page size is 64K.

5.2. Huge Pages

Huge pages might be beneficial to applications that allocate large chunks of memories, and the main benefit is fewer TLB misses.

You can use huge pages on Grace systems in the following ways:

- Transparent Huge Pages (THP)
  - Transparent to the application.
  - Mostly automatic with a few available kernel tuning parameters.
  - When using the recommended 64 KB page size, THP pages are currently too large for practical use in most applications (refer to [Transparent Huge Pages](#)) for more information).
• Hugetlbfs
  ○ Does not suffer from fragmentation concerns or from allocation latency because
  the huge pages are pre-allocated and indivisible.
  ○ Requires application modification.
  ○ Requires sysadmin setup.

5.2.1. Transparent Huge Pages

THP is completely transparent to applications, and applications can get the benefit of huge
pages without changing their source code (refer to Transparent Hugepage Support for more
information). As of kernel version 6.5, only 512MB THP pages are supported when a 64KB
system page size is configured. If 512MB THP is too large for your application, consider
using hugetlbfs as described in Hugetlbfs.

Refer to Transparent Hugepage Support for more information about THP.

Note: The default huge page size is related to the kernel page size (refer to HugeTLBpage
on ARM64 for more information).

5.2.3. Proactive Compaction

Proactive Compaction reduces allocation latency of huge pages by preemptively
performing the work in the background. Proactive compaction does not change the
probability of obtaining a huge page, but it changes how fast you can get one.

Without compaction, the kernel will return huge pages until it runs out of them. The
application will then experience a perf cliff because the kernel is going to defragment the
memory, and Proactive compaction smooths this out this process.

With compaction, when the applications start hitting a threshold of memory
fragmentation, the kernel begins to defragment the memory pages in the background with
anticipation of avoiding running out of huge pages and hitting a performance cliff.

The proactive compaction exposes a tunable, /proc/sys/vm/compaction_proactiveness,
which accepts values in the [0, 100] range, and a default value of 20. This tunable
determines how aggressively the kernel should compact memory in the background and
setting an aggressive value can lead to increased address translation latency. The default
value of 20 is reasonable and should only be changed based on perf data.

To limit the overhead of proactive compaction, you can use the on-demand compaction
method, which is available only after CONFIG_COMPACTION is set. When 1 is written to the
/proc/sys/vm/compact_memory file, all zones are compacted, and free memory is available in
contiguous blocks where possible. This can be important, for example, when allocating
huge pages, because it will also directly compact memory as required. Refer to Documentation for /proc/sys/vm/ for more information.

5.2.4. Hugetlbfs

By using hugetlbfs, pools of hugetlb pages can be preallocated, and applications can use the huge pages in these pools. However, this requires changes in applications.

You can specify the minimum number of huge pages that are reserved by the system and how big the pool can grow. You can configure malloc to use hugetlbfs for an app. We strongly recommend that you test your app with hugetlbfs, and if it works with your app, use it.

The benefit of reserving a pool of huge pages at boot time is that at boot time, the memory is not fragmented, so there is a greater chance that the requested number of huge pages can be assembled.

Refer to HugeTLB Pages for more information.

5.3. Configuring Linux Perf

Refer to Configuring Perf for more information.

5.4. Performance Governor

You can set the CPU governor using the cpupower command. For example, to set the CPU governor to Performance, run the following command:

```bash
sudo cpupower frequency-set -g performance
```

**Note:** On certain distributions, like Ubuntu, the cpufrequtils package provides a cpufrequtils service that might change the CPU governor to ondemand when the system boots. To avoid this behavior, users can disable this service by running the sudo systemctl disable cpufrequtils command.

5.5. Init on Alloc

The CONFIG_INIT_ON_ALLOC_DEFAULT_ON kernel configuration option controls whether the kernel will fill newly allocated pages and heap objects with zeroes by default. You can overwrite this setting with the `init_on_alloc=[0|1]` kernel parameter.

On coherent systems, such as Grace Hopper, where GPU memory is exposed as system memory, this can cause heavy performance impacts to `cudaMalloc()` operations.
Note: The recommended default value on GH is the init_on_alloc=0 parameter.

Not all distros will set the CONFIG_INIT_ON_ALLOC_DEFAULT_ON config on their kernels. For example, the SUSE and RHEL kernels do not currently set this option, but the Ubuntu-generic kernel does set this option.

The current value of the init_on_alloc kernel configuration option on a system might be printed as follows:

grep init_on_alloc /proc/cmdline

which should provide output like the following:

```
BOOT_IMAGE=/boot/vmlinuz-6.2.0-1010-nvidia-64k
root=UUID=7123054d-9b18-4c3d-8844-c538c751b59a ro rd.driver.blacklist=nouveau
nouveau.modeset=0 earlycon module_blacklist=nouveau acpi_power_meter.force_cap_on=y
numa_balancing=disable init_on_alloc=0 preempt=none
```

5.6. Input-Output Memory Management Unit Passthrough

The Input-Output Memory Management Unit (IOMMU) is a hardware component that performs address translation from I/O device virtual addresses (also called I/O virtual address (IOVA)) to physical addresses. Different platforms have different IOMMMUs, such as the Intel IOMMU graphics address remapping table (GART) that is used by PCI Express graphics cards, and System Memory Management Unit (SMMU) that is used by the ARM platform.

Linux provides the iommu.passthrough mode, and you can configure the DMA to use (or not use) the IOMMU to access the memory for addressing. This release requires that SMMU passthrough NOT be enabled. Future kernel releases will change that guidance, but for now we cannot run CUDA programs with SMMU in passthrough mode.

Setting iommu.passthrough to 1 on the kernel command line bypasses the IOMMU translation for DMA and setting it to 0 uses IOMMU translation for DMA. This value needs to be set at deployment (in the kernel configuration) or by editing the appropriate grub configuration files. For the changes to take effect, you need to reboot the system.

To add kernel parameters, complete the steps for your distro:

**Ubuntu**

1. Create the /etc/default/grub.d/iommu_passthrough.cfg file with the following contents:

   ```
   GRUB_CMDLINE_LINUX="$GRUB_CMDLINE_LINUX iommu.passthrough=0"
   ```
2. Run the following commands:

```bash
sudo update-grub
sudo reboot
```

**RedHat**

1. Run the following commands:

```bash
sudo grubby --update-kernel=ALL --args="iommu.passthrough=0"
sudo reboot
```

**SUSE**

1. Edit the `/etc/default/grub` file.
2. On the line that contains the `GRUB_CMDLINE_LINUX` string, append the `iommu.passthrough=0` parameter, and run the following commands:

```bash
sudo update-bootloader --refresh
sudo reboot
```

### 5.7. Automatic NUMA Scheduling and Balancing

When using a Grace Hopper system, we recommend that you do not use Automatic NUMA Scheduling and Balancing (AutoNUMA) features of the Linux kernel.

This is because of the additional page-faults that are introduced by AutoNUMA, which can significantly hurt GPU-heavy application performance.

- To see the status of AutoNUMA, use `cat /proc/sys/kernel/numa_balancing`.
- If the output is 1, AutoNUMA is enabled, if it is 0, it is disabled.
- To disable AutoNUMA in a session, use `echo 0 > /proc/sys/kernel/numa_balancing`.
- To disable AutoNUMA permanently, use `echo "kernel.numa_balancing = 0" >> /etc/sysctl.conf`.

### 5.8. Swap File Size

This section applies only to Grace Hopper systems.

If an application allocates a large enough fraction of CPU memory, the kernel might decide to migrate some pages, possibly from third-party applications, from CPU memory to GPU memory. Currently, this memory can only be reclaimed through a swap file. We recommend that you have a large enough swap file for these scenarios.
**Note:** On a Grace Hopper system, we recommend using a swap file of at least \( \frac{1}{4}-\frac{1}{2} \) the aggregate GPU memory size in the system.
6. Optimizing IO Performance

6.1. Networking

We recommend that you download the latest driver and firmware for your network adapter. Before making any changes, contact your network adapter’s vendor for information about whether the tuning options in this guide are applicable.

6.1.1. NUMA Node

Always ensure that you use local CPU and memory that are in the same NUMA domain as your network adapter.

To check your network adapter’s NUMA domain, run following commands:

```
cat /sys/class/net/<ethernet interface>/device/numa_node

# For Linux machines
```

6.1.2. IRQ Balance

The operating system typically distributes the interrupts among all CPU cores in a multi-processor system, but this can cause delayed interrupt processing.

To disable this on Linux, run the following command:

```
sudo systemctl disable irqbalance
```

6.1.3. Configuring Interrupt Handling

A channel in a network adapter is an IRQ and a set of queues that can trigger that IRQ. Typically, you do not want more interrupt queues than the number of cores in the system, so control the number of interrupt queues in a NUMA domain.

To set the number of channels:

**Before you begin**, stop the `irqbalance` service.

1. Check the current settings with the following command:
   ```
ethtool -l <adapter>
```

2. It tells you the current setting of various queue types.
3. Set the number of channels, for example:
   ```
sudo ethtool -L <adapter> combined 16 tx 0 rx 0
   ```
4. To receive and to transmit (combined), set the receive queue (rx), the transmit queue
   (tx), or a combined queue of both types.
5. Contact your vendor for information.

For NVIDIA Mellanox network adapters, to set the appropriate interrupt handling masks,
invoke the following script:
   ```
sudo set_irq_affinity.sh <adpater>
   ```
   This script comes with a MOFED installation.

### 6.1.4. TX/RX Queue Size

The NIC’s queue size dictates how many ring buffers are allocated for DMA transfer. To help
prevent package drops, we recommend that you set the size to the maximum allowed value.
You can also set it to a value that works best for your use case.

To query the current setting of the queue size:

```
ethtool -g enp1s0
Ring parameters for ibp1s0:
  Pre-set maximums:
  RX:          8192
  RX Mini:     n/a
  RX Jumbo:    n/a
  TX:          8192
  Current hardware settings:
  RX:          512
  RX Mini:     n/a
  RX Jumbo:    n/a
  TX:          1024
```

To set the queue size of a NIC:
```
sudo ethtool -G <adapter> rx <value> tx <value>
```

### 6.1.5. Large Receive Offload

Depending on your use case, you can optimize for max throughput or best latency, but
rarely both. Enabling Large Receive Offload (LRO) is a typical setting to optimize for
maximum network throughput, but it might negatively affect the network latency. Contact
your network adapter vendors for more information about whether LRO is supported and
the best practices for usage.

To enable/disable LRO:
```
sudo ethtool 1ro <on|off>
```
6.1.7. MTU

We recommend that you set the network adapter’s MTU to jumbo frame (9000) when you bring up the network interface:

```bash
sudo ifconfig <adapter> <IP_address> netmask <network_mask> mtu 9000 up
```

To check the current settings, here is a sample command you can run:

```bash
ifconfig <adapter> | grep mtu
```

6.1.8. MAX_ACC_OUT_READ

This setting is NVIDIA Mellanox-specific, and here are recommended values for the following NICs:

- ConnextX-6: 44
- ConnectX-7: 0 (Device would tune this config automatically)

To check the current settings:

```bash
sudo mlxconfig -d <dev> query | grep MAX_ACC_OUT_READ
```

To set this setting to the recommended value:

1. Run the following commands:
   ```bash
   sudo mlxconfig -d <dev> set ADVANCED_PCI_SETTINGS=1
   sudo mlxconfig -d <dev> set MAX_ACC_OUT_READ=<value>
   ```
2. For this setting to take effect, reboot the system.

6.1.9. PCIe Max Read Request

This setting is also NVIDIA Mellanox specific and can be applied to other network adapters.

Note: Ensure that you set the MRRS to an appropriate value as recommended by your vendor.

Here is an example that shows you how to set the MRRS of an NVIDIA Mellanox NIC to 4096:

```bash
sudo setpci -v -d <dev> cap_exp+8.w=5000:7000
```

This setting does not persist after the system reboots.

6.1.10. Relaxed Ordering

Setting the PCIe ordering to relaxed for the network adapter sometimes results in better performance. There are different ways to enable relaxed ordering on the network adapter. Contact your vendor for more information.
Here is a sample command to check relaxed ordering on NVIDIA Mellanox NICs. For this command to work, set ADVANCED_PCI_SETTINGS to True (refer to MAX_ACK_OUT_READ for more information).

```
sudo mlxconfig -d <dev> query | grep PCI_WR_ORDERING
```

A value of 0 means that the application or driver determines whether to set RO for its memory regions. PCI_WR_ORDERING=1 forces RO for every PCIe inbound write regardless of the application, except for completion entries (CQEs).

1. To enable relaxed ordering:
   ```
sudo mlxconfig -d <dev> set PCI_WR_ORDERING=1
```
2. Reboot the system.

### 6.1.11.10b PCIe Tags

Ideally, the PCIe endpoint should use 10b PCIe tags to ensure that it can issue a large number of read requests to hide high read latencies when the system is busy. Contact your endpoint’s vendor for more information.

Here is an example for ConnectX-7:

```
setpci -s <bus> -v cap_exp+28.w 1000
```

If bit 12 is 1, then 10b tags are enabled.

If not, set bit 12. The drivers for IB should be unloaded first. Example:

```
systemctl stop openibd
```

```
setpci -s <bus> -v cap_exp+28.w 0040
```

```
setpci -s <bus> -v cap_exp+28.w=1040:1040
```

```
systemctl start openibd
```

### 6.2. Storage/Filesystem

This section provides information about performance tunings that are related to storage and the filesystem.

#### 6.2.1. Drop Page Cache

When files are read from storage into memories on a Linux system, they are cached in unused memory areas called page cache. There are times you might want to drop the page cache. For example, if you want to benchmark the storage subsystem, you might need to drop the page cache before benchmarking to see true storage performance.

To drop page cache, run the following command:

```
echo 3 | sudo tee /proc/sys/vm/drop_caches
```
To compare how much memory area has been released from dropping the page cache, compare the `Cached:` line in the output of following command before **and** after invoking the previous command:

```
cat /proc/meminfo | grep Cached
```
7. Measuring Workload Performance with Hardware Performance Counters

Many software performance analysis tools rely on event counts from hardware performance monitoring units (PMUs) to characterize workload performance. This chapter provides information about how data from PMUs can be gathered and combined to form metrics for performance optimization. For simplicity, the Linux perf tool is used, but the same metrics can be used in any tool that gathers hardware performance events from PMUs, for example, NVIDIA NSIGHT Systems.

7.1. Introduction to Linux perf

The Linux perf tool is a widely available, open-source tool that is used to collect application-level and system-level performance data. perf can monitor a rich set of software and hardware performance events from different sources and, in many cases, does not require administrator privileges (for example, root).

Installing perf depends on the distribution:

- Ubuntu: `apt install linux-tools-$(uname -r)`
- Red Hat: `dnf install perf-$(uname -r)`
- SLES: `zypper install perf`

perf gathers data from PMUs by using the `perf_event` system that is provided by the Linux kernel. Data can be gathered for the lifetime of a process or for a specific period.

perf supports the following measurement types:

- **Performance summary** (`perf stat`): perf collects the total PMU event counts for a workload and provides a high-level summary of the basic performance characteristics. This is a good approach for a first-pass performance analysis.
- **Event-based sampling** *(perf record)*: perf periodically gathers PMU event counters and relates this data to source code locations.

The event counts are gathered when a specially configured event counter overflows, which causes an interrupt that contains the instruction pointer addresses and register information. perf uses this information to build stack traces and function-level annotations to characterize the performance of functions of interest on specific call paths. At a high level, this is a good approach for detailed performance characterization after an initial workload characterization. After gathering data with the *perf record* command, to analyze the data, use the *perf report* or *perf annotate* commands.

### 7.2. Configuring Perf

By default, unprivileged users can only gather information about context-switched events, which includes most of the predefined CPU core events, such as cycle counts, instruction counts, and some software events. To give unprivileged access to all PMUs and global measurements, the following system settings need to be configured:

![Note: To configure these settings, you must have root access.](image)

- **perf_event_paranoid**: This setting controls privilege checks in the kernel.
  
  Setting this to -1 or 0 allows non-root users to perform per-process and system-wide performance monitoring (refer to *Unprivileged users* for more information).

- **kptr_restrict**: This setting affects how kernel addresses are exposed.
  
  Setting it to 0 assists in kernel symbol resolution.

For example:

```bash
$ echo -1 | sudo tee /proc/sys/kernel/perf_event_paranoid
$ echo 0 | sudo tee /proc/sys/kernel/kptr_restrict
```

To make these settings reboot persistent, follow your Linux distribution’s instructions for configuring system parameters. Typically, you need to edit `/etc/sysctl.conf` or create a file in the `/etc/sysctl.d/` folder that contains the following lines:

```plaintext
kernel.perf_event_paranoid=-1
kernel.kptr_restrict=0
```

![Warning: There are security implications for configuring these settings as shown in the example above. You must read and understand the relevant Linux kernel documentation and consult your system administrator.](image)
7.3. Gathering Hardware Performance Data with Perf

To generate a high-level report of event counts, run the `perf stat` command. For example, to count cache miss events, CPU cycles, and CPU instructions for ten seconds:

```
$ perf stat -a -e cache-misses,cycles,instructions sleep 10
```

You can also gather information for a specific process:

```
$ perf stat -e cycles, stalled-cycles-backend ./stream.exe
```

This counts total CPU cycles and cycles where the CPU is stalled on the frontend or backend while `stream.exe` is executing.

The `-e` flag accepts a comma-separated list of performance events, which can be predefined, or raw, events. To see the predefined events, type `perf list`. Raw events are specified as `rxxxx` where `xxxx` is a hexadecimal event number. Refer to the [Arm Neoverse V2 Core Technical Reference Manual](https://docs.arm.com/docs/datasheets/neoverse-v2-core-technical-reference-manual.pdf) for more information about event numbers.

For a more detailed analysis, and gather in event-based sampling mode, run the `perf record` command:

```
$ perf record -e cycles, instructions, dTLB-loads, dTLB-load-misses ./xhpl.exe
$ perf report
$ perf annotate
```

Additional information about basic `perf` usage is available in the `perf` man pages.

7.4. Grace CPU Performance Metrics

This section provides formulas for useful performance metrics, which are the functions of a hardware event count that more fully express the performance characteristics of the system. For example, a simple count of instructions is less meaningful than the ratio of instructions-per-cycle, which characterizes the processor’s usage. These metrics can be used with any tool that gathers hardware performance event data from the Grace PMUs.

The counters are provided by name, instead of event number because most performance analysis tools provide names for common events. If your tool does not have a named counter for one of the following events, use the translation tables in the [Arm Neoverse V2 Core Technical Reference Manual](https://docs.arm.com/docs/datasheets/neoverse-v2-core-technical-reference-manual.pdf) to convert the following event names to raw event numbers. For example, `FP_SCALE_OPS_SPEC` has event number `0x80C0` and `FP_FIXED_OPS_SPEC` has event number `0x80C1`, so data for the FLOPS computational intensity metric can be gathered using `perf` by measuring raw events `0x80C0` and `0x80C1`:

```
perf record -e r80C0 -e r80C1 ./a.out
```
7.4.1. Cycle and Instruction Accounting

- **IPC**: Instructions retired per cycle.
  \[ \text{INST\_RETIRED/\text{CPU\_CYCLES}} \]

- **Retiring**: Percentage of total slots that are retired operations and indicates efficient CPU usage.
  \[ 100 \times \left( \frac{\text{OP\_RETIRED}}{\text{OP\_SPEC}} \right) \times \left( 1 - \frac{\text{STALL\_SLOT}}{\text{CPU\_CYCLES} \times 8} \right) \]

- **Backend Stalls**: Fraction of total cycles that were stalled because of resource constraints in the processor backend.
  \[ \text{STALL\_BACKEND/\text{CPU\_CYCLES}} \]

- **Frontend Stalls**: Fraction of total cycles that were stalled because of resource constraints in the processor frontend.
  \[ \text{STALL\_FRONTEND/\text{CPU\_CYCLES}} \]

7.4.2. Computational Intensity

- **SVE FLOPS**: Floating point operations per second in any precision performed by the SVE instructions.
  Fused instructions count as two operations, for example, a fused multiply-add instruction increases the count by twice the number of active SVE vector lanes. These operations do not count as floating point operations that are performed by scalar or NEON instructions.
  \[ \frac{\text{FP\_SCALE\_OPS\_SPEC}}{\text{TIME}} \]

- **Non-SVE FLOPS**: Floating point operations per second in any precision performed by an instruction that is not an SVE instruction.
  Fused instructions count as two operations, for example, a scalar fused multiply-add instruction increases the count by two, and a fused multiply-add NEON instruction increases the count by twice the number of vector lanes. These operations do not count as floating point operations performed by SVE instructions.
  \[ \frac{\text{FP\_FIXED\_OPS\_SPEC}}{\text{TIME}} \]

- **FLOPS**: Floating point operations per second in any precision performed by any instruction.
  Fused instructions count as two operations.
  \[ \left( \frac{\text{FP\_SCALE\_OPS\_SPEC}}{\text{TIME}} + \frac{\text{FP\_FIXED\_OPS\_SPEC}}{\text{TIME}} \right) \]
7.4.3. Operation Mix

- **Load Percentage**: Fraction of total instructions that were speculatively executed because of the load instructions.
  \[ \frac{LD\_SPEC}{INST\_SPEC} \]

- **Store Percentage**: Fraction of total instructions speculatively executed because of the store instructions.
  \[ \frac{ST\_SPEC}{INST\_SPEC} \]

- **Branch Percentage**: Fraction of total instructions that were speculatively executed because of the branch instructions.
  \[ \frac{(BR\_IMMED\_SPEC + BR\_INDIRECT\_SPEC)}{INST\_SPEC} \]

- **Scalar Integer Percentage**: Fraction of total instructions that were speculatively executed because of the scalar integer instructions.
  \[ \frac{DP\_SPEC}{INST\_SPEC} \]

**Note**: The DP in DP_SPEC stands for Data Processing.

- **Scalar Floating Point Percentage**: Fraction of total instructions speculatively executed because of the scalar floating point instructions.
  \[ \frac{VFP\_SPEC}{INST\_SPEC} \]

- **Synchronization Percentage**: Fraction of total instructions that were speculatively executed because of the synchronization instructions.
  \[ \frac{(ISB\_SPEC + DSB\_SPEC + DMB\_SPEC)}{INST\_SPEC} \]

- **Crypto Percentage**: Fraction of total instructions that were speculatively executed because of the crypto instructions.
  \[ \frac{CRYPTO\_SPEC}{INST\_SPEC} \]

- **SVE SIMD Percentage**: Fraction of total instructions that were speculatively executed because of the integer or floating point SVE SIMD instructions.
  \[ \frac{SVE\_INST\_SPEC}{INST\_SPEC} \]

- **NEON SIMD Percentage**: Fraction of total instructions that were speculatively executed because of the integer or floating point NEON SIMD instructions.
  \[ \frac{ASE\_INST\_SPEC}{INST\_SPEC} \]

- **SIMD Percentage**: Fraction of total instructions that were speculatively executed because of the integer or floating point vector/SIMD instructions.
  \[ \frac{(SVE\_INST\_SPEC + ASE\_INST\_SPEC)}{INST\_SPEC} \]
- **FP16 Percentage**: Fraction of total instructions that were speculatively executed because of the half-precision floating point instructions.

  Includes scalar, fused, and SIMD instructions and cannot be used to measure computational intensity.

  \[ \text{FP}_{\text{HP SPEC/INST SPEC}} \]

- **FP32 Percentage**: Fraction of total instructions that were speculatively executed because of the single-precision floating point instructions.

  Includes scalar, fused, and SIMD instructions and cannot be used to measure computational intensity.

  \[ \text{FP}_{\text{SP SPEC/INST SPEC}} \]

- **FP64 Percentage**: Fraction of total instructions that were speculatively executed because of the double-precision floating point instructions.

  Includes scalar, fused, and SIMD instructions and cannot be used to measure computational intensity.

  \[ \text{FP}_{\text{DP SPEC/INST SPEC}} \]

### 7.4.4. SVE Predication

- **Full SVE Instructions**: Fraction of total instructions that were speculatively executed because of the SVE SIMD instructions with all active predicates.

  \[ \text{SVE}_{\text{PRED FULL SPEC/INST SPEC}} \]

- **Partial SVE Instructions**: Fraction of total instructions that were speculatively executed because of the SVE SIMD instructions in which at least one element is FALSE.

  \[ \text{SVE}_{\text{PRED PARTIAL SPEC/INST SPEC}} \]

- **Empty SVE Instructions**: Fraction of total instructions that were speculatively executed because of the SVE SIMD instructions with no active predicate.

  \[ \text{SVE}_{\text{PRED EMPTY SPEC/INST SPEC}} \]

### 7.4.5. Cache Effectiveness

- **L1 Data Cache Misses**: Fraction of total level 1 data cache read or write accesses that miss.

  \[ \text{L1D}_{\text{CACHE}} \text{ includes reads and writes and is the sum of L1D}_{\text{CACHE RD}} \text{ and L1D}_{\text{CACHE WR.}} \]

  \[ \text{L1D}_{\text{CACHE REFILL}} / \text{L1D}_{\text{CACHE}} \]

- **L1 Data Cache Miss Rate**: Count of level 1 data cache read or write accesses that miss per kilo-instructions executed.

  \[ \text{L1D}_{\text{CACHE REFILL}} / (\text{INST RETIRED} / 1000) \]
• **L1 Instruction Cache Misses:** Fraction of total level 1 instruction cache accesses that miss.

L1I_CACHE does not measure cache maintenance instructions or non-cacheable accesses.

L1I_CACHE_REFILL/L1I_CACHE

• **L1 Instruction Cache Miss Rate:** Count of level 1 instruction cache accesses missed per kilo-instructions executed.

L1I_CACHE_REFILL/(INST_RETIRED / 1000)

• **L2 Cache Misses:** Fraction of total level 2 cache read or write accesses that miss.

L2D_CACHE does not count cache maintenance operations or snoops from outside the core.

L2D_CACHE_REFILL/L2D_CACHE

• **L2 Cache Miss Rate:** Count of level 2 cache read or write accesses that miss per kilo-instructions executed.

L2D_CACHE_REFILL/(INST_RETIRED / 1000)

• **L3 Cache Read Hits:** Fraction of L3 cache read accesses that hit.

(LL_CACHE_RD – LL_CACHE_MISS_RD)/LL_CACHE_RD

• **L3 Cache Read Misses:** Fraction of L3 cache read accesses that miss.

LL_CACHE_MISS_RD/LL_CACHE_RD

• **L3 Cache Read Miss Rate:** Count of L3 cache read accesses missed per kilo-instructions executed.

LL_CACHE_MISS_RD/(INST_RETIRED / 1000)

7.4.6. **TLB Effectiveness**

• **L1 Data TLB Misses:** Fraction of total level 1 data TLB accesses that miss.

TLB maintenance instructions are not counted.

L1D_TLB_REFILL/L1D_TLB

• **L1 Data TLB Miss Rate:** Count of level 1 data TLB accesses that miss per kilo-instructions executed.

L1D_TLB_REFILL/(INST_RETIRED / 1000)

• **L1 Instruction TLB Misses:** Fraction of total level 1 instruction TLB accesses that miss.

TLB maintenance instructions are not counted.

L1I_TLB_REFILL/L1I_TLB

• **L1 Instruction TLB Miss Rate:** Count of level 1 instruction TLB accesses that miss per kilo-instructions executed.

L1I_TLB_REFILL/(INST_RETIRED / 1000)
7.4.7. Branching

- **Branch Mispredictions**: Fraction of architecturally executed branches that were mispredicted.
  
  \[
  \text{BR\_MIS\_PRED\_RETIRED/BR\_RETIRED}
  \]

- **Branch Misprediction Rate**: Count of branches that were mispredicted for each kilo-instructions that were executed.
  
  \[
  \text{BR\_MIS\_PRED\_RETIRED/(INST\_RETIRED / 1000)}
  \]

7.4.8. Statistical Profiling Extension

Arm’s Statistical Profiling Extension (SPE) is designed to enhance software performance analysis by providing detailed profiling capabilities. This extension allows you to collect statistical data about software execution and records key execution data, including program counters, data addresses, and PMU events. SPE enhances performance analysis for branches, memory access, and so on, which makes it useful for software optimization. Refer to [Statistical Profiling Extension](#) for more information about SPE.

7.5. Grace Uncore PMU Units

Grace includes the following uncore PMUs that are registered by the PMU driver with the following naming conventions:

**Table 7-1. Grace Uncore PMU Units**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>System</th>
<th>Uncore PMU name</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Scalable Coherency Fabric</td>
<td>nvidia_scf_pmu_&lt;socket-id&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NVLINK-C2C0</td>
<td>nvidia_nvlink_c2c0_pmu_&lt;socket-id&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NVLINK-C2C1 (Grace-Hopper Only)</td>
<td>nvidia_nvlink_c2c1_pmu_&lt;socket-id&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PCIe</td>
<td>nvidia_pcie_pmu_&lt;socket-id&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CNVLINK (Grace-Hopper Only)</td>
<td>nvidia_cnvlink_pmu_&lt;socket-id&gt;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The traffic pattern determines which PMU is used for measuring the different access types.

**Table 7-2** provides information about PMU accounting for access patterns on the NVIDIA Grace CPU Superchip.
Table 7-2. PMU Accounting for Access Patterns on the Grace Superchip

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Destination</th>
<th>Source - Socket A</th>
<th>Source - Socket A</th>
<th>Source - Socket A</th>
<th>Source - Socket A</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Local memory</td>
<td>CPU</td>
<td>Socket B PCIe strongly ordered (SO) writes</td>
<td>Socket B PCIe reads or relaxed order (RO) writes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Remote memory over NVLink-C2C</td>
<td>PCIe PMU</td>
<td>SCF PMU</td>
<td>SCF PMU</td>
<td>NVlink-C2C0 PMU</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7-3 provides information about PMU accounting for access patterns on the NVIDIA Grace Hopper Superchip.

Table 7-3. PMU Accounting for Access Patterns on the Grace Hopper Superchip

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Destination</th>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Local CPU memory</td>
<td>Socket A PCI R/W</td>
<td>GPU ATS Translated Accesses</td>
<td>GPU Accesses not translated by ATS</td>
<td>Local CPU</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PCIe PMU</td>
<td>NVLink-C2C0 PMU</td>
<td>NVLink-C2C1 PMU</td>
<td>SCF PMU</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local GPU memory</td>
<td>PCIe PMU</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>NVLink-C2C1 PMU</td>
<td>SCF PMU</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Uncore PMU events are not attributable to a core, and perf must be run in system-wide mode, as opposed to per-thread mode. If the measurement requires multiple events to be measured, perf tools support event grouping from the same PMU.

For example, to monitor SCF CYCLES, CMEM_WB_ACCESS and CMEM_WR_ACCESS events from the SCF PMU for socket 0:

```
$ perf stat -a -e duration_time,'\{nvidia_scf_pmu_0/cycles/,nvidia_scf_pmu_0/cmem_wb_access/,nvidia_scf_pmu_0/cmem_wr_access/\}' cmem_write_test
```

Performance counter stats for 'system wide':

```
          168225760 ns duration_time
          10515321 nvidia_scf_pmu_0/cycles/
          191567 nvidia_scf_pmu_0/cmem_wb_access/
```

NVIDIA Grace Performance Tuning Guide
0  nvidia_scf_pmu_0/cmem_wr_access/

0.168225760 seconds time elapsed

7.5.1. Scalable Coherency Fabric PMU Accounting

Note: The bandwidth metrics in this section are in GBs per second.

This section provides additional formulas for useful performance metrics based on events provided by the Scalable Coherency Fabric (SCF) PMU.

- **Duration**: Duration in nanoseconds  
  \[ \text{DURATION\_TIME} \]

- **Cycles**: SCF cycle count  
  \[ \text{CYCLES} \]

- **SCF local CPU memory write bandwidth**: Write bandwidth from SCF to local CPU memory  
  \[ \frac{\text{CMEM\_WR\_TOTAL\_BYTES}\times1000}{\text{DURATION\_TIME}} \]

- **SCF local CPU memory read bandwidth**: Read bandwidth from SCF to local CPU memory. Total “beats” are measured with each beat reading 32 bytes.  
  \[ \frac{\text{CMEM\_RD\_DATA}\times32\times1000}{\text{DURATION\_TIME}} \]

- **SCF local GPU memory write bandwidth**: Write bandwidth from SCF to local GPU memory  
  \[ \frac{\text{GMEM\_WR\_TOTAL\_BYTES}\times1000}{\text{DURATION\_TIME}} \]

- **SCF local GPU memory read bandwidth**: Read bandwidth from SCF to local GPU memory. Total “beats” are measured with each beat reading 32 bytes.  
  \[ \frac{\text{GMEM\_RD\_DATA}\times32\times1000}{\text{DURATION\_TIME}} \]

- **SCF remote memory write bandwidth**: Write bandwidth from SCF to remote socket memory  
  \[ \frac{\text{REMOTE\_SOCKET\_WR\_TOTAL\_BYTES}\times1000}{\text{DURATION\_TIME}} \]

- **SCF remote memory read bandwidth**: Read bandwidth from SCF to remote socket memory. Total “beats” are measured with each beat reading 32 bytes.  
  \[ \frac{\text{REMOTE\_SOCKET\_RD\_DATA}\times32\times1000}{\text{DURATION\_TIME}} \]
• **SCF local CPU memory write utilization percentage:** Percent utilization from SCF to local CPU memory for writes.  
A total of CPU memory writeback (CMEM_WB_ACCESS) and write-unique and non-coherent write requests (CMEM_WR_ACCESS) that are divided by the maximum writes (8*CYCLES).

\[ \frac{(\text{CMEM_WB_ACCESS} + \text{CMEM_WR_ACCESS})}{(8\times\text{CYCLES})} \times 100.0 \]

• **SCF local GPU memory write utilization percentage:** Percent utilization from SCF to local GPU memory for writes.  
A total of the local GPU memory writeback (GMEM_WB_ACCESS) and write-unique and the non-coherent write requests (GMEM_WR_ACCESS) that are divided by the maximum writes (4*CYCLES).

Access to local GPU memory utilization:

\[ \frac{(\text{GMEM_WB_ACCESS} + \text{GMEM_WR_ACCESS})}{(4\times\text{CYCLES})} \times 100.0 \]

• **SCF remote memory write utilization percentage:** Percent utilization from SCF to remote socket memory for writes. A total of the remote socket memory writeback (SOCKET_{0,1}_WB_ACCESS) and the write-unique and non-coherent write requests SOCKET_{0,1}_WR_ACCESS that are divided by the maximum writes (2*CYCLES).

Socket 0 access to socket 1 memory:

\[ \frac{(\text{SOCKET}_1_{0,1}_WB_ACCESS} + \text{SOCKET}_1_{0,1}_WR_ACCESS)}{(2\times\text{CYCLES})} \times 100.0 \]

Socket 1 access to socket 0 memory:

\[ \frac{(\text{SOCKET}_0_{0,1}_WB_ACCESS} + \text{SOCKET}_0_{0,1}_WR_ACCESS)}{(2\times\text{CYCLES})} \times 100.0 \]

• **SCF local CPU memory read utilization percentage:** Percent usage from SCF to local CPU memory for reads.  
Total local CPU memory reads (CMEM_RD_ACCESS) that are divided by the maximum reads (8 * CYCLES).

\[ \frac{(\text{CMEM_RD_ACCESS})}{(8\times\text{CYCLES})} \times 100.0 \]

• **SCF local GPU memory read utilization percentage:** Percent usage from SCF to the local GPU memory reads.  
A total of the local GPU memory reads (GMEM_RD_ACCESS) that are divided by the maximum reads (4 * CYCLES).

Access to local GPU memory:

\[ \frac{(\text{GMEM_RD_ACCESS})}{(4\times\text{CYCLES})} \times 100.0 \]

• **SCF remote memory read utilization percentage:**  
Percent usage from the SCF remote socket memory for reads. A total of the remote socket memory reads (SOCKET_{0,1}_RD_ACCESS) that are divided by the maximum reads (2 * CYCLES).
Socket 0 access to socket 1 memory:
\[
\left( \frac{\text{SOCKET}_1_{\text{RD ACCESS}}}{2 \times \text{CYCLES}} \right) \times 100.0
\]

Socket 1 access to socket 0 memory:
\[
\left( \frac{\text{SOCKET}_0_{\text{RD ACCESS}}}{2 \times \text{CYCLES}} \right) \times 100.0
\]

- **SCF Frequency**: Frequency of SCF cycles in GHz
  \[
  \text{CYCLES} / \text{DURATION}
  \]

- **SCF local CPU memory read latency**: Latency of SCF reads to local CPU memory, in nanoseconds.
  \[
  \left( \frac{\text{CMEM}_{\text{RD OUTSTANDING}}}{\text{CMEM}_{\text{RD ACCESS}}} \right) / (\text{CYCLES} / \text{DURATION})
  \]
  Average cycles per SCF local read request: \((\text{CMEM}_{\text{RD OUTSTANDING}} / \text{CMEM}_{\text{RD ACCESS}})\) divided by SCF frequency \((\text{CYCLES} / \text{DURATION})\) to determine average nanoseconds per local read.

- **SCF local GPU memory read latency**: Latency of SCF reads to local GPU memory, in nanoseconds.
  \[
  \left( \frac{\text{GMEM}_{\text{RD OUTSTANDING}}}{\text{GMEM}_{\text{RD ACCESS}}} \right) / (\text{CYCLES} / \text{DURATION})
  \]
  Average cycles per SCF local read request: \((\text{GMEM}_{\text{RD OUTSTANDING}} / \text{GMEM}_{\text{RD ACCESS}})\) divided by SCF frequency \((\text{CYCLES} / \text{DURATION})\) to determine average nanoseconds per local read.

- **SCF Remote memory read latency**: Latency of SCF reads to remote memory in nanoseconds.
  Average cycles per SCF remote read request: \((\text{SOCKET}_{0,1}_{\text{RD OUTSTANDING}} / \text{SOCKET}_{0,1}_{\text{RD ACCESS}})\) divided by SCF frequency \((\text{CYCLES} / \text{DURATION})\) to determine average nanoseconds per remote socket read.

Socket 0 access to socket 1 memory:
\[
\left( \frac{\text{SOCKET}_1_{\text{RD OUTSTANDING}}}{\text{SOCKET}_1_{\text{RD ACCESS}}} \right) / (\text{CYCLES} / \text{DURATION})
\]

Socket 1 access to socket 0 memory:
\[
\left( \frac{\text{SOCKET}_0_{\text{RD OUTSTANDING}}}{\text{SOCKET}_0_{\text{RD ACCESS}}} \right) / (\text{CYCLES} / \text{DURATION})
\]

### 7.5.2. PCIe PMU Accounting

**Note**: The bandwidth metrics in this section are in GBs per second.

The PCIe PMU monitors traffic from PCIe root ports to local/remote memory. Grace SOC supports up to 10 PCIe root ports. One or more of these root ports need to be specified when counting events.

The `root_port` bitmap parameter can be passed to select the port(s) to monitor. For example, the `root_port=0xF` parameter corresponds to root ports 0 through 3.
Example: To count the rd_bytes_loc event from PCIe root port 0 and 1 of socket 0:

$ perf stat -a -e nvidia_pcie_pmu_0/rd_bytes_loc,root_port=0x3/

Example: To count the rd_bytes_loc event from PCIe root port 0 and 1 in socket 1 and measure the test duration (in nanoseconds):

$ perf stat -a -e duration_time,'{nvidia_pcie_pmu_1/rd_bytes_loc,root_port=0x3/}'

The rest of this section provides additional formulas for useful performance metrics based on events provided by the PCIe PMU.

| Note | All PCIe metrics that follow are affected by the root port filter. If you do not define a root port filter, the metric results will be zero. |

- **PCIe read bandwidth**: PCI Express read bandwidth, in GBps
  Number of bytes read from local memory and remote memory (RD_BYTES_LOC, RD_BYTES_REM) divided by the duration in nanoseconds.
  \[
  \frac{\text{RD_BYTES_LOC} + \text{RD_BYTES_REM}}{\text{DURATION\_TIME}}
  \]

- **PCIe write bandwidth**: PCI Express write bandwidth, in GBps
  Number of bytes written to local or remote memory (WR_BYTES_LOC, WR_BYTES_REM), divided by the duration in nanoseconds.
  \[
  \frac{\text{WR_BYTES_LOC} + \text{WR_BYTES_REM}}{\text{DURATION\_TIME}}
  \]

- **PCIe bidirectional bandwidth**: PCI Express read and write bandwidth, in GBps
  Number of bytes read or written from local or remote memories, divided by the duration in nanoseconds.
  \[
  \frac{\text{RD_BYTES_LOC} + \text{RD_BYTES_REM} + \text{WR_BYTES_LOC} + \text{WR_BYTES_REM}}{\text{DURATION\_TIME}}
  \]

- **PCIe read utilization percentage**: Percent utilization of PCI Express for reads
  Number of read requests to local and remote memories (RD_REQ_LOC, RD_REQ_REM) divided by the maximum number of read requests per cycle (1 per port, total 10) times the number of cycles.
  \[
  \left( \frac{\text{RD_REQ_LOC} + \text{RD_REQ_REM}}{10 \times \text{CYCLES}} \right) \times 100.0
  \]

- **PCIe write utilization percentage**: Percent utilization of PCI Express for writes
  Number of write requests to local and remote memories (WR_REQ_LOC, WR_REQ_REM) divided by the maximum number of write requests per cycle (1 per port, total 10) times the number of cycles.
  \[
  \left( \frac{\text{WR_REQ_LOC} + \text{WR_REQ_REM}}{10 \times \text{CYCLES}} \right) \times 100.0
  \]

- **PCIe Frequency**: Frequency of PCIe cycles in GHz
  \[
  \text{CYCLES} / \text{DURATION}
  \]
- **PCIE local memory read latency**: Latency of PCIe reads to local memory, in nanoseconds.
  \[(\text{RD\_CUM\_OUTS\_LOC} / \text{RD\_REQ\_LOC}) / (\text{CYCLES}\_\text{DURATION})\]
  Average cycles per PCIe local read request: \((\text{RD\_CUM\_OUTS\_LOC} / \text{RD\_REQ\_LOC})\) divided by PCIe frequency \((\text{CYCLES}\_\text{DURATION})\) to determine average nanoseconds per local read.

- **PCIE remote memory read latency**: Latency of PCIe reads to remote CPU memory, in nanoseconds.
  \[(\text{RD\_CUM\_OUTS\_REM} / \text{RD\_REQ\_REM}) / (\text{CYCLES}\_\text{DURATION})\]
  Average cycles per PCIe remote read request: \((\text{RD\_CUM\_OUTS\_REM} / \text{RD\_REQ\_REM})\) divided by PCIe frequency \((\text{CYCLES}\_\text{DURATION})\) to determine average nanoseconds per remote read.

### 7.5.3. NVLink C2C Accounting

| Note: The bandwidth metrics in this section are in GBs per second. |

The NVLink C2C PMU provides performance metrics for the CPU or GPU memory accesses via the NVLink Chip-2-Chip (C2C) interconnect.

Two C2C PMUs, NVLINK-C2C0, and NVLINK-C2C1 are available and cover different types of traffic. Refer to Table 7-2 and Table 7-3 for more information about the traffic patterns covered by each PMU. The NVLINK-C2C1 PMU is unused on the Grace Superchip.

This section provides additional formulas for useful performance metrics based on events provided by the NVLINK C2C PMU.

- **NVLink C2C read bandwidth**: NVLink C2C read bandwidth, in GBps
  Number of bytes read from local memory or remote memory \((\text{RD\_BYTES\_LOC}, \text{RD\_BYTES\_REM})\) divided by the duration in nanoseconds.
  \[(\text{RD\_BYTES\_LOC} + \text{RD\_BYTES\_REM}) / \text{DURATION\_TIME}\]

- **NVLink C2C write bandwidth**: NVLink C2C write bandwidth, in GBps
  Number of bytes written to local or remote memory \((\text{WR\_BYTES\_LOC}, \text{WR\_BYTES\_REM})\), divided by the duration in nanoseconds.
  \[(\text{WR\_BYTES\_LOC} + \text{WR\_BYTES\_REM}) / \text{DURATION\_TIME}\]

- **NVLink C2C bidirectional bandwidth**: NVLink C2C read and write bandwidth, in GBps
  Number of bytes read or written from local or remote memories, divided by the duration in nanoseconds.
  \[(\text{RD\_BYTES\_LOC} + \text{RD\_BYTES\_REM} + \text{WR\_BYTES\_LOC} + \text{WR\_BYTES\_REM}) / \text{DURATION\_TIME}\]
• **NVLink C2C read utilization percentage:** NVLink C2C utilization for reads
  Number of read requests to local and remote memories (RD_REQ_LOC, RD_REQ.Rem) divided by the maximum number of read requests per cycle (10) times the number of cycles.

  \[
  \left( \frac{\text{RD_REQ_LOC} + \text{RD_REQ_REM}}{10 \times \text{CYCLES}} \right) \times 100.0
  \]

• **NVLink C2C write utilization percentage:** NVLink C2C utilization for writes
  Number of write requests to local and remote memories (WR_REQ_LOC, WR_REQ_REM) divided by the maximum number of write requests per cycle (10) times the number of cycles.

  \[
  \left( \frac{\text{WR_REQ_LOC} + \text{WR_REQ_REM}}{10 \times \text{CYCLES}} \right) \times 100.0
  \]

• **NVLink C2C Frequency:** Frequency of NVLink C2C cycles in GHz
  
  \[
  \frac{\text{CYCLES}}{\text{DURATION}}
  \]

• **NVLink C2C local memory read latency:** Latency of NVLink C2C reads to local memory, in nanoseconds.

  \[
  \frac{\text{RD_CUM_OUTS_LOC}}{\text{RD_REQ_LOC}} / (\text{CYCLES/ DURATION})
  \]
  Average cycles per C2C local read request (RD_CUM_OUTS_LOC / RD_REQ_LOC) divided by C2C frequency (CYCLES/DURATION) to determine average nanoseconds per local read.

• **NVLink C2C remote memory read latency:** Latency of NVLink C2C reads to remote CPU memory, in nanoseconds.

  \[
  \frac{\text{RD_CUM_OUTS_REM}}{\text{RD_REQ_REM}} / (\text{CYCLES/ DURATION})
  \]
  Average cycles per C2C remote read request (RD_CUM_OUTS_REM / RD_REQ_REM) divided by C2C frequency (CYCLES/DURATION) to determine average nanoseconds per remote read.

### 7.6. Profiling CPU Behavior with Nsight Systems

The Nsight Systems tool (also referred to as nsys) profiles the system’s compute units including the CPUs and GPUs (refer to [Nsight Systems | NVIDIA Developer](https://developer.nvidia.com/nsight-systems) for more information). The tool can trace more than 25 APIs including CUDA APIs, sample CPU instruction pointers/backtraces, sample both CPU and SoC event counts, and sample GPU hardware event counts to provide a system-wide view of a workload’s behavior.

nsys can sample CPU and SoC events and graph their rates on the nsys UI timeline. It can generate the metrics described in [Grace CPU Performance Metrics](https://docs.nvidia.com/en-us/grace/pmu-performance-metrics-guide/) to [NVLink C2C Accounting](https://docs.nvidia.com/en-us/grace/pmu-performance-metrics-guide/) and also graph them on the nsys UI timeline. If CPU IP/backtrace data is gathered concurrently, users can determine when CPU and SoC events are extremely active (or inactive) and correlate that information with the IP/backtrace data to determine which workload aspect was actively running at that time.
Figure 7.1 shows a sample nsys profile timeline. In this case, two Grace C2C0 socket metrics were collected in addition to the IPC (Instructions per Cycle) core metric on each CPU. The C2C0 metrics (C2C0 read and write utilization percentage) show GPU access to the CPU’s memory. The IPC metric shows that thread 2965407, which is running on CPU 146, is memory bound (the IPC value is ~0.05) right before the C2C0 activity. The orange-yellow tick marks under thread 2965407 represent individual instruction pointer/backtrace samples. Users can hover over these samples to get a backtrace that represents the code that the thread was executing at that time. This data can be used to understand what the workload is doing at that time.

Figure 7-1. An Example nsys Timeline

Use the --cpu-core-metrics, --cpu-socket-metrics, and --sample nsys CLI switches to collect the above data. Also, see the --cpu-core-events, --cpu-socket-events, and --cpuctxsw nsys CLI switches that are used to profile CPU and/or SoC performance issues. For more information, run nsys profile --help.
8. Compilers

Many commercial and open-source compilers fully support NVIDIA Grace. This section provides information about the available compilers, the recommended versions, and the recommended command-line options.

8.1. NVIDIA HPC Compilers

The NVIDIA HPC SDK includes proven compilers, libraries, and software tools. The HPC SDK compilers (NVHPC) enable cross-platform C, C++, and Fortran programming for NVIDIA GPUs and multicore Arm, OpenPOWER, or x86-64 CPUs. The compilers are ideal for HPC modeling and simulation applications that are written in C, C++, or Fortran with OpenMP, OpenACC, and NVIDIA CUDA®.

When building natively on Grace, NVHPC version 23.3 or later automatically optimizes for Grace without additional command-line options. To verify, pass the --version command-line option and look for `-tp neoverse-v2` in the output:

```
nvidia@localhost:~$ nvc --version
nvc 23.3-0 linuxarm64 target on aarch64 Linux -tp neoverse-v2
```

The optimization and floating-point control flags for NVHPC are the same on NVIDIA Grace as on other CPUs. Refer to the [NVIDIA HPC Compilers User's Guide](https://docs.nvidia.com/hpc-compilers/) for more information.

**Note:** NVIDIA provides the BLAS, LAPACK, and FFT math libraries that are optimized for Grace, and we strongly recommend that you use them.
8.2. GNU Toolchain

When using the GNU toolchain, we recommend GCC version 12.3 or later. When possible, always use the latest version of GCC. GCC version 7 can be used on NVIDIA Grace, but because these older compilers target earlier Armv8-A architecture variants, the performance will be suboptimal. The latest and greatest binary versions of GNU toolchain can be found from your GNU/Linux distribution or downloaded using Spack.

Even with the latest version of GCC, unless your toolchain has been configured and built for Grace, additional command-line options are necessary to generate optimal code for NVIDIA Grace. If no additional flags are provided, GCC will generate code targeting a generic Armv8-A CPU. The recommended flags are provided in Table 8-1.

Note: More aggressive optimizations will trade floating point accuracy for performance.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Optimization Level</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Aggressive</td>
<td>-Ofast -mcpu=neoverse-v2</td>
<td>Enable fast math optimizations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>-O3 -mcpu=neoverse-v2</td>
<td>Recommended in most cases</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The -mcpu=neoverse-v2 flag is used in all cases. We recommend that you use the -mcpu flag instead of the -march and -mtune flags because this flag will select the CPU that you were targeting for convenience instead of specifying the architecture with the required extensions using the -march option and then specifying the -mtune option. Refer to https://gcc.gnu.org/onlinedocs/gcc/AArch64-Options.html#aarch64-feature-modifiers for more information about the instruction set features that can be turned on and off on a per-feature basis.

The __sync built-ins in GNU C or GNU C++ are precursors to modern atomic extensions that are used in the C11 / C++11 standards. These built-ins are now considered legacy, and users should port the atomic extensions in C11 / C++11. This is good advice for any platform, but it is particularly relevant for CPUs implementing the AArch64 architecture because the legacy __sync built-ins tend to enforce more strict orderings than are necessary. Refer to https://gcc.gnu.org/onlinedocs/gcc/_005f_005fatomic-Builtins.html for more information.

The C standard does not specify the signedness of the char type. On x86, a char is assumed to be signed by default, and on Arm, char is assumed to be unsigned. This difference can be
addressed by using the standard `int` types that specify signedness when the sign of a number is important (for example, `uint8_t` and `int8_t`) or by compiling with the `-fsigned-char` flag to set the signedness of `char` at compile time.

Refer to https://gcc.gnu.org/onlinedocs/gcc-13.1.0/gcc/AArch64-Options.html for more information about the command-line options that are required for the AArch64 target in GCC.

### 8.3. LLVM Clang and Flang Compilers

When you use LLVM, we recommend LLVM version 16 or later. LLVM compilers support Arm64 CPUs but mainly for C and C++ (the `clang` and `clang++` commands). LLVM’s Fortran compiler (flang) is not yet widely used and is still maturing. Like the GNU compilers, Clang prioritizes portability over performance and additional flags must be added to enable optimization.

NVIDIA provides builds of LLVM Clang at developer.nvidia.com/grace/clang that are specially packaged for the Grace CPU. These builds are mainline Clang that are configured to support Grace, so the builds can be used as a drop-in replacement for Clang in your current workflows.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Optimization Level</th>
<th>Flags</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Aggressive</td>
<td><code>-Ofast</code></td>
<td>Enable fast math optimizations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><code>-mcpu=neoverse-v2</code></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td><code>-O3</code> <code>-mcpu=neoverse-v2</code></td>
<td>Recommended in most cases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conservative</td>
<td><code>-O3</code> <code>-ffp-contract=off</code> <code>-mcpu=neoverse-v2</code></td>
<td>Disable fused math operations</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The `-mcpu=neoverse-v2` flag is used in all cases, and we recommend using the `-mcpu` flag instead of the `-march` and `-mtune` flags.

### 8.4. Arm Compiler for Linux and Other Commercial Compilers

The Arm Compiler for Linux (ACfL) is a commercially supported, closed-source compiler provided by Arm. It is free and is bundled with the optimized BLAS, LAPACK, and FFT libraries. Arm supports NVIDIA Grace in ACfL through support for the Neoverse-V2 CPU microarchitecture. Refer to Arm Compiler for Linux for more information about compiler options, flags, and support.

System vendors, such as HPE/Cray and Fujitsu, also provide compilers that target their own Arm-based products. The code generated by these vendor compilers tends to be highly
tuned for the target platform, which makes them a good choice in performance-critical situations. Contact the system vendor for information and support.

8.5. Arm Architecture Feature Support

Like other major CPU architectures, there are instructions that cannot be reached directly by translating the C / C++ language. These instructions are usually supported by the weight of compiler intrinsics and a set of feature macros that can be used in applications to test for the specific architecture extension support at compile time. The common set of intrinsics, additional data types, architectural feature macros among others for the Arm architecture for compilers are defined by the Arm C / C++ Language Extensions (ACLE). Refer to https://github.com/ARM-software/acle for more information.

A discussion on ACLE and intrinsics programming is out of scope for this document and the users are advised to refer to it and their compiler documentation to check for the level of compliance with the same.

NVIDIA Grace implements the Armv9-A architecture and several of the Armv9-A architectural extensions. To see which Arm architectural features are enabled at compile time, run the following command:

gcc -dM -E -mcpu=neoverse-v2 - < /dev/null | grep ARM_FEATURE

Here is an example of the output with GCC 12 on NVIDIA Grace:

```
#define __ARM_FEATURE_AES 1
#define __ARM_FEATURE_ATOMICS 1
#define __ARM_FEATURE_BF16_SCALAR_ARITHMETIC 1
#define __ARM_FEATURE_BF16_VECTOR_ARITHMETIC 1
#define __ARM_FEATURE_CLZ 1
#define __ARM_FEATURE_COMPLEX 1
#define __ARM_FEATURE_CRC32 1
#define __ARM_FEATURE_CRYPTO 1
#define __ARM_FEATURE_FMA 1
#define __ARM_FEATURE_FP16 FML 1
#define __ARM_FEATURE_FP16_SCALAR_ARITHMETIC 1
#define __ARM_FEATURE_FP16_VECTOR_ARITHMETIC 1
#define __ARM_FEATURE_FINT 1
#define __ARM_FEATURE_IDIV 1
#define __ARM_FEATURE_JCVT 1
#define __ARM_FEATURE_MATMUL_INT8 1
#define __ARM_FEATURE_NUMERIC_MAXMIN 1
#define __ARM_FEATURE_QRDIMX 1
#define __ARM_FEATURE_SHA2 1
#define __ARM_FEATURE_SHA3 1
#define __ARM_FEATURE_SHA512 1
#define __ARM_FEATURE_SM3 1
#define __ARM_FEATURE_SM4 1
#define __ARM_FEATURE_SVE 1
#define __ARM_FEATURE_SVE2 1
```
Refer to the output of the following command for more information about target specific flags on arm64:

gcc -Q --help=target

Here is the sample output:

```bash
nvidia@localhost:~$ gcc -Q --help=target
The following options are target specific:
  -mabi= lp64
  -march= armv8-a
  -mbig-endian [disabled]
  -mbionic [disabled]
  -mbranch-protection=
  -mcmodel= small
  -mcpu= generic
  -mfex-cortex-a53-835769 [enabled]
  -mfex-cortex-a53-843419 [enabled]
  -mgeneral-regx-only [disabled]
  -mglibc [enabled]
  -mharden-sls= [enabled]
  -mlittle-endiant [enabled]
  -mlow-precision-div [disabled]
  -mlow-precision-recip-sqrt [disabled]
  -mlow-precision-sqrt [disabled]
  -mmusl [disabled]
  -momit-leaf-frame-pointer [enabled]
  -moutline-atomics [enabled]
  -mreturn-addr= none
  -msign-return-address=
  -mstack-protector-guard-offset=
  -mstack-protector-guard-reg=
  -mstack-protector-guard= global
  -mstrict-align [disabled]
  -msve-vector-bits=<number> scalable
  -mtls-dialect= desc
  -mtls-size= 24
  -mttrack-speculation [disabled]
  -mtue= generic [disabled]
  -muclibc [disabled]
  -mvulib [disabled]
```
8.6. Using Code Locality to Improve Performance

Improving executable code locality can increase efficiency on Grace, which benefits the instruction cache hit rate, the iTLB hit rate, and branch prediction. Executables and large shared objects with code spread over a wide virtual address range are likely to see performance improvements by grouping frequently called functions into as few naturally aligned 2MB virtual address ranges as possible. The perf record and perf script commands can help determine the observed program counter addresses over a span of time. To determine whether a given application might be a candidate for this optimization, we recommend that you count the number of observed address ranges in the perf output.

For large applications and/or libraries that are confirmed to access more than 30 such ranges in quick succession, this form of optimization might yield speedups of as much as 50%. To achieve this, there are several ways to rearrange the linked binary/binaries to group frequently called functions or group functions with the other functions that they typically call. For example, some forms of automated Profile-Guided Optimization (PGO) might be beneficial in this scenario. The perf record/perf script output can also be used to capture the names of the most frequently called functions. By compiling with -ffunction-sections, the frequency-sorted list of observed function names can be used to produce a linker script that groups the "hot" functions nearby in memory, which achieves the same goal.
The scripts at https://github.com/NVIDIA/cpu-code-locality-tool can help automate the process of analyzing `perf record` output to identify candidates for optimization and, where applicable, to produce the linker scripts described above.

Optimizations to decrease code size generally might be beneficial because smaller code naturally spans fewer 2MB ranges. For example, if you are using gcc -O3, consider using -fno-ipa-cp-clone.
9. Performance Tuning for Grace Hopper-Based Applications

The NVIDIA GH200 Grace Hopper Superchip supports all features of CUDA Unified Memory (refer to the [CUDA Unified Memory Programming Guide](#) for more information about Grace Hopper-specific performance tuning).

The performance tuning information in the [NVIDIA Hopper Tuning Guide](#) applies to the tuning application performance for the Hopper GPU on the Superchip.
Appendix A: References

Here are links to some additional documentation:

- NVIDIA Grace CPU Benchmarking Guide.
- CUDA Unified Memory Programming Guide.
- Dynamic programming instructions in this blog.
- Hopper Tuning Guide
- Arm Neoverse V2 (MP158) Software Developer Errata Notice
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