

## To code or not to code?

Programming techniques – week 10

Optimization and numerical libraries

## Optimization

- ◆ First rule: **Do not optimize!**
- ◆ What if the program is too slow?
  - ◆ find optimal algorithm
  - ◆ use libraries
- ◆ What if the program is still too slow?
  - ◆ use profiling to determine which parts are slow
  - ◆ investigate slow part and check that data structures are optimal
    - ◆ are arrays, lists or trees better?
  - ◆ is the algorithm optimal?
    - ◆ check literature for better algorithms
    - ◆ use libraries
  - ◆ only then think about optimizing
- ◆ Consider parallelization or vectorization

## Profiling

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- ◆ is used to determine how much time is spent in which program parts
- ◆ Three easy steps:
  - ◆ compile the program with the `-p` option
  - ◆ run the program
  - ◆ use `prof` to look at the performance data
- ◆ Alternative using `gprof`:
  - ◆ compile with the `-pg` option
  - ◆ run the program
  - ◆ use `gprof` to look at the performance data
  - ◆ includes time spent in called functions
- ◆ See the man pages for details about these programs

## Choice of data structures

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- ◆ choose your data structures depending on the use
- ◆ was discussed before and in the exercises:
  - ◆ if you need random access use an array
  - ◆ if you need to insert in the middle use a list
  - ◆ if you need both use a tree
- ◆ use the standard C++ library containers wherever possible. They are (nearly) optimal.
- ◆ if you need a container not included:
  - ◆ design your own in the STL style
  - ◆ make it available to others

### Example: the best data structure for the Penna model

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- ◆ We picked a linked list because removal from the middle of a vector is slow
- ◆ However a vector might be faster:
  - ◆ We do not care about the order of the animals
  - ◆ We can implement a special `remove_if`:
    - ◆ Replaces the removed animal with the last one
    - ◆ This makes removal fast
- ◆ We can code a container derived from vector with a special `remove_if`
  - ◆ Will be faster than a `std::list`
  - ◆ Will require only a one-line change in the Penna code
- ◆ Look at `penna_vector.h`

### Choice of algorithms

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- ◆ Look at the scaling of the algorithms with problem size:
- ◆ Fourier transform
  - ◆ Simple:  $O(N^2)$
  - ◆ Fast Fourier Transform:  $O(N \log N)$
- ◆ Matrix-Matrix multiplication
  - ◆ Simple:  $O(N^3)$
  - ◆ Strassen:  $O(N^{2.8})$
  - ◆ Coppersmith and Winograd:  $O(N^{2.376})$
- ◆ Eigenvalues:
  - ◆ all eigenvalues, dense matrix:  $O(N^3)$
  - ◆ some eigenvalues, dense matrix:  $O(N^2)$
  - ◆ some eigenvalues, sparse matrix:  $O(N)$

## The Strassen algorithm

- ◆ is one example why you should use libraries even for trivial-looking operations
- ◆ Normal matrix-matrix multiplication is order  $O(N^3)$
- ◆ Strassen algorithm is  $O(N^{\log_7/2}) = O(N^{2.8})$

- ◆ write matrix as four submatrices

$$C = AB \quad \begin{pmatrix} c_{11} & c_{12} \\ c_{21} & c_{22} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} \end{pmatrix}$$

- ◆ use a clever scheme

$$\begin{aligned} c_{11} &= Q_1 + Q_4 - Q_5 + Q_7 & Q_1 &= (a_{11} + a_{22})(b_{11} + b_{22}) \\ c_{21} &= Q_2 + Q_4 & Q_2 &= (a_{21} + a_{22})b_{11} \\ c_{12} &= Q_3 + Q_5 & Q_3 &= a_{11}(b_{12} - b_{22}) \\ c_{22} &= Q_1 + Q_3 - Q_2 + Q_6 & Q_4 &= a_{22}(-b_{11} + b_{21}) \\ & & Q_5 &= (a_{11} + a_{12})b_{22} \\ & & Q_6 &= (-a_{11} + a_{12})(b_{11} + b_{12}) \\ & & Q_7 &= (a_{12} - a_{22})(b_{21} + b_{22}) \end{aligned}$$

## Comparing matrix multiplication algorithms

- ◆ Standard algorithm is  $O(N^3)$ 
  - ◆  $N^3$  multiplications
  - ◆  $N^2(N-1)$  additions
- ◆ Strassen algorithm takes
  - ◆ 7 multiplications of matrices of size  $N/2$
  - ◆ 18 additions of matrices of size  $N/2$
- ◆ What is the complexity  $T_{\text{strassen}}(N)$  ?
  - ◆  $T_{\text{strassen}}(N) = 7 T_{\text{strassen}}(N/2) + 18/4 N^2$
- ◆ Assuming  $T_{\text{strassen}}(N) > O(N^2)$ 
  - ◆  $O(T_{\text{strassen}}(N)) = 7 O(T_{\text{strassen}}(N/2))$
  - ◆  $O(T_{\text{strassen}}(2N)) = 7 O(T_{\text{strassen}}(N))$
  - ◆  $\Rightarrow T_{\text{strassen}}(N) = O(N^{\log_7/2})$

## How do we find the best algorithm?

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- ◆ Look in books of Knuth
- ◆ Search the SIAM journals
- ◆ Do not trust the Numerical Recipes too much
- ◆ But the easiest solution is: use a library
  - ◆ **bug free** (less buggy than your codes)
  - ◆ **optimized** (probably better than you can do)
  - ◆ **well documented** (do you ever document your codes?)
  - ◆ **supported** on most architectures
- ◆ A huge collection is available on netlib at <http://www.netlib.org/>
- ◆ In the next weeks we will introduce a variety of useful libraries

## How to optimize

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- ◆ Generally you should use a library instead of optimizing yourself.
- ◆ But as computational scientists you will sometimes
  - ◆ have to write libraries
  - ◆ enter new research fields and algorithms where there is no library
- ◆ We will learn how to optimize
  - ◆ Optimization using assembly language
  - ◆ Classical optimization techniques for any language
  - ◆ Optimization in C++
- ◆ And look at libraries using these optimization techniques

## Optimization in assembly language

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- ◆ Sometimes the CPU possesses machine language instructions that cannot be used directly from a high level language
  - ◆ Bit counts
  - ◆ Vector instructions (discussed in “Numerisches Paralleles Rechnen”)
    - ◆ MMX and SSE on Pentium
    - ◆ AltiVec on PowerPC
- ◆ Assembly languages instructions can be mixed with C++
  - ◆ Advantage: can speed up code
  - ◆ Disadvantage: code becomes non-portable
  - ◆ useful only in very rare cases, but can potentially make a big difference
- ◆ Best approach
  - ◆ Encapsulate assembly language call in a library

## Example: counting leading zeroes in an integer

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- ◆ Problem: count the number of leading zeroes in a 32-bit integer
  - ◆ Can be used to get the position of the highest bit set
  - ◆ Can be used to calculate the logarithm base 2 of an integer
- ◆ Solution in C++: requires a loop
 

```

int count_leading_zeroes(int x) {
    for (int i = 0 ; i<32 ;++i)
        if (x&(1<<(31-i)))
            return i;
    return 32;
}
      
```
- ◆ Solution in PowerPC-assembler: (powerpc\_asm.C)
 

```

inline int count_leading_zeros (int x) {
    int c;
    asm ("cntlzw %1,%0" : "=r" (c) : "r" (x) );
    return c;
}
      
```

## Inline assembly statements

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- ◆ We used an inline assembly statement, which mixes assembly language with C++:
  - ◆ `asm ("cntlzw %1,%0" : "=r" (c) : "r" (x) );`
- ◆ Explaining the syntax:
  - ◆ `asm(...)` : inserts an inline assembly language statement
  - ◆ `cntlzw r9,r15` : puts the number of leading zeroes in register 9 into register 15
  - ◆ `cntlzw %1, %0` : we do not know which register the compiler will use and thus use placeholders `%0` and `%1` (use `%2 ...` if more registers are needed)
  - ◆ `: "=r" (c)` : puts the variable `c` into the register marked by `%0` (and after the execution assigns the value of the register `%0` to `c`)
  - ◆ `: "r" (x) :` : The second `:` marks the input variables that will not be modified. This statement tells the compiler to load variable `x` into register `%1`
- ◆ To learn more, search the webs to find processor-specific instructions
  - ◆ But be warned that it is tricky

## Another example: long integers

---

- ◆ How is 64-bit addition implemented on a 32-bit machine?
- ◆ Just as you learned adding numbers in primary school:
  - ◆ Add the low words and remember the carry
  - ◆ Add the high words and the carry
- ◆ Example: `add64.C`
  - ◆ `g++ -c -save-temps -O add64.C`
  - ◆ Look at `add64.s`
- ◆ Compare to a 64-bit machine
  - ◆ Addition done in one step!

## 128 bit integers in `int128.C`

---

- ◆ If we need 128 bit integers we need to define a new class:
  - ◆ Build a 128 bit integer from two 64 bit ones:
 

```
struct int128 {
    unsigned long long low;
    long long high;
};
```
- ◆ How do we add them?
  - ◆ Adding low and high words separately will not be correct since the carry is not used
 

```
int128 operator+(int128 x, int128 y) {
    int128 result;
    result.low=x.low+y.low;
    result.high=x.high+y.high;
    // wrong result: this does not use carry of previous addition
    return result;
}
```
  - ◆ Inline assembly language can be used to change “add without carry” to “add with carry”

## Helping the compiler optimize

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- ◆ Using an optimizing compiler is easier than writing fast code in assembly language
- ◆ We will now discuss techniques to optimize code.
- ◆ Some can be done by the compiler
  - ◆ You need to know about them to realize which optimizations you do not need to perform
  - ◆ Not optimizing manually what the compiler can do for you can help keep the code cleaner
- ◆ Some have to be done by you
  - ◆ But only after you have determined by profiling that which function is the bottleneck



### Copy propagation (automatic)

---

- ◆ is usually done by any modern compiler and need not be done by you.

- ◆ It changes

```
x = y;  
z = 1 + x;
```

- ◆ to

```
x = y;  
z = 1 + y;
```

- ◆ and allows pipelining of the two statements

### Constant folding (automatic)

---

- ◆ Is also done by modern compilers and need not be done by you.

- ◆ It changes

```
const int x = 100;  
int z = 2*x;
```

- ◆ to

```
const int x = 100;  
int z = 200;
```

- ◆ And performs the multiplication at compile-time

### Dead code removal (automatic)

---

- ◆ Is most useful in connection with template parameters. The compiler can detect if a statement is never executed

- ◆ It changes

```
int n = 100;
if (n<1)
    std::cerr << "n less than one";
...
```

- ◆ to

```
int n = 100;
...
```

- ◆ thus removing the code that will never be executed

### Strength reduction (automatic)

---

- ◆ The compiler often realizes how to simplify expressions, making them faster

- ◆ It changes

```
x = 2 * y;
```

- ◆ to

```
x = y + y;
```

- ◆ or (for integer y)

```
x = ( y << 1 );
```

- ◆ And performs the faster operation

### Variable renaming (automatic)

---

- ◆ Is also often done by the compiler to expose potentials for pipelining

- ◆ It changes

```
int x = y * z;  
int q = r + x * x;  
x = a + b;
```

- ◆ to

```
int x0 = y * z;  
int q = r + x0 * x0;  
int x = a + b;
```

- ◆ And can now pipeline the last two statements

### Common subexpression elimination (automatic)

---

- ◆ Can be done by the compiler in simple cases:

- ◆ It changes

```
d = c * (a + b);  
e = (a + b) / 2;
```

- ◆ to

```
temp = (a + b);  
d = c * temp;  
e = temp / 2;
```

- ◆ And saves one addition

## Common subexpression elimination (manual)

---

- ◆ If a function call is involved you have to perform common subexpression elimination manually!

- ◆ You have to **manually** change

```
d = c * f(x);
e = f(x) / 2;
```

- ◆ to

```
temp = f(x);
d = c * temp;
e = temp / 2;
```

- ◆ Since the compiler does not know whether  $f(x)$  is always the same number
  - ◆ maybe  $f$  is your name for a random number generator ....

## Loop invariant code motion (automatic)

---

- ◆ Scientific programs spend most of their time in loops. We have to minimize the work done in those loops. A compiler can help in simple loops:

- ◆ It changes

```
for (int i=0; i<n; ++i) {
    a[i] = b[i] + c * d;
    e = g[k];
}
```

- ◆ to

```
temp = c * d;
for (int i=0; i<n; ++i) {
    a[i] = b[i] + temp;
}
e = g[k];
```

### Loop invariant code motion (manual)

---

- ◆ In complex loops or if function calls are involved, we have to manually optimize

- ◆ We have to **manually** change

```
for (int i=0; i<n; ++i) {
    a[i] = b[i] + f(x);
    e = g(y);
}
```

- ◆ to

```
temp = f(x);
for (int i=0; i<n; ++i) {
    a[i] = b[i] + temp;
}
e = g(y);
```

### Induction Variable Simplification (automatic / manual)

---

- ◆ Induction variable simplification is changing

```
for (int i=0; i<n; ++i) {
    k = 4*i + m;
    ...
}
```

- ◆ to

```
k = m;
for (int i=0; i<n; ++i) {
    ...
    k += 4;
}
```

## Importance of Induction Variable Simplification

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- ◆ Take care of hidden complexities in array subscripts: the code

```
for (int i=0; i<n; ++i) {
    x[4*i] = ...
}
```

- ◆ Is actually

```
for (int i=0; i<n; ++i) {
    *(x+4*i) = ...
}
```

- ◆ And is faster coded as

```
for (T* p=x; p<x+4*n; p+=4) {
    *p = ...
}
```

## Loop unrolling (automatic / manual)

---

- ◆ The loop for a scalar product

```
double s=0.;
for (int i=0; i<3; ++i)
    s += x[i] * y[i];
```

- ◆ Is much faster when unrolled as

```
double s = x[0] * y[0] + x[1] * y[1] + x[2] * y[2];
```

- ◆ For two reasons:

- ◆ No loop control statements
- ◆ Easy pipelining

- ◆ Simple loops can be unrolled by compilers with high enough optimization settings (-funroll-loops on gcc)

## Partial loop unrolling (automatic / manual)

---

- ◆ The loop for an array product

```
for (int i=0; i<N; ++i)
    a[i] = b[i] * c[i];
```

- ◆ Is much faster when partially unrolled as (for N a multiple of 4)

```
for (int i=0; i<N; i+=4) {
    a[i]   = b[i]   * c[i];
    a[i+1] = b[i+1] * c[i+1];
    a[i+2] = b[i+2] * c[i+2];
    a[i+3] = b[i+3] * c[i+3];
}
```

- ◆ Because pipelining can again be used

## Aiming for unit stride (manual)

---

- ◆ The loop for a matrix sum

```
for (int i=0; i<N; ++i)
    for (int j=0; j<N; ++j)
        a[i][j] = b[i][j] + c[i][j];
```

- ◆ Is much faster than

```
for (int i=0; i<N; ++i)
    for (int j=0; j<N; ++j)
        a[j][i] = b[j][i] + c[j][i];
```

- ◆ Because the unit stride (sequential memory access) in the inner loop uses the cache much better

## In-cache matrix-matrix multiplications

---

- ◆ The matrix multiplication

```
for (int i=0; i<N; ++i)
  for (int j=0; j<N; ++j)
    for (int k=0; k<N; ++k)
      a[i][j] += b[i][k] * c[k][j];
```

- ◆ Is better changed to get unit stride in the inner loop

```
for (int i=0; i<N; ++i)
  for (int k=0; k<N; ++k) {
    temp = b[i][k];
    for (int j=0; j<N; ++j)
      a[i][j] += temp * c[k][j];
  }
```

## Out-of-cache matrix multiplications: blocking

---

- ◆ Performance degrades if the matrix does not fit into the cache
- ◆ Split the matrix into smaller blocks and perform in-cache multiplications of the blocks:

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} & b_{13} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & b_{23} \\ b_{31} & b_{32} & b_{33} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c_{11} & c_{12} & c_{13} \\ c_{21} & c_{22} & c_{23} \\ c_{31} & c_{32} & c_{33} \end{pmatrix}$$

- ◆ The size of the blocks  $a_{ij}$ ,  $b_{ij}$  and  $c_{ij}$  depends on the types and sizes of the caches.
- ◆ This is tricky and we will learn about libraries doing it for you next week



## Libraries for linear algebra

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- ◆ Fortran libraries
  - ◆ BLAS
  - ◆ LAPACK
- ◆ C++ libraries
  - ◆ Blitz++
  - ◆ uBlas
  - ◆ ITL and IETL
  - ◆ POOMA
- ◆ The Fortran libraries are well optimized but difficult to call
- ◆ The C++ libraries are easier to use but not as complete yet
- ◆ Fortran can also be called from C++, as we will do in one of the exercises

## Calling Fortran from C++

---

- ◆ declare the function `extern "C"`
- ◆ pass all parameters by pointers or reference
- ◆ The naming depends on the machine
  - ◆ Fortran `FUNC` -> C `func_` with GNU or Intel compilers
  - ◆ Fortran `FUNC` -> C `func` with IBM or Cray compilers
- ◆ Program has to be linked with Fortran runtime libraries
- ◆ Take care of:
  - ◆ Fortran real is float on most workstations but double on Cray
  - ◆ Fortran integer is usually an int
  - ◆ Array indices in Fortran usually start from 1
  - ◆ Storage order of matrices is reversed
  - ◆ Fortran `a(i,j)` is C `a[j-1][i-1]`

## A calling example: DDOT

---

- ◆ The DDOT function in the BLAS library calculates the scalar (dot) product of two double precision vectors:

```
◆ DOUBLE PRECISION FUNCTION DDOT(N,X, INCX,Y, INCY)
  DOUBLE PRECISION X(*),Y(*)
  INTEGER INCX, INCY,N
```

- ◆ To call DDOT from C++ we need to declare it as:

```
◆ extern "C" double ddot_(int& n, double *x, int& incx,
                        double *y, int& incy);
```

- ◆ To link we need to add the following options:

- ◆ On the D-PHYS Linux machines: `-lblas -lg2c -lm`
- ◆ On MacOS X: `-framework vecLib`
- ◆ How to find options for other machines will be explained in the exercises

## BLAS

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- ◆ is short for Basic Linear Algebra Subroutines
- ◆ is a Fortran library
- ◆ BLAS level 1
  - ◆ vector operations: addition, dot product, ...
- ◆ BLAS level 2
  - ◆ matrix-vector operations
- ◆ BLAS level 3
  - ◆ matrix-matrix operations
- ◆ use the BLAS wherever possible
  - ◆ optimized assembler code versions available on most machines
  - ◆ generic Fortran version available on [www.netlib.org](http://www.netlib.org)
- ◆ Homework: if you have a Unix or Linux machine at home download and install BLAS and LAPACK

## ATLAS

- ◆ We learned in the last weeks that optimizing matrix operations can be tricky:
  - ◆ For which sizes should we use Strassen's algorithm?
  - ◆ How large should we choose sub-blocks to be get optimal cache effects by blocking?
- ◆ The Fortran BLAS on netlib works on all machines and thus cannot be optimized to the CPU, cache size and cache type of your machine
- ◆ On supercomputers the vendors provide a hand-optimized BLAS
- ◆ ATLAS is the solution for the rest of us:
  - ◆ A self-tuning library
  - ◆ When being installed it benchmarks hundreds of blocking strategies until it finds the optimal one for your machine
  - ◆ It then compiles a BLAS with these optimal settings

## ATLAS benchmark example 1

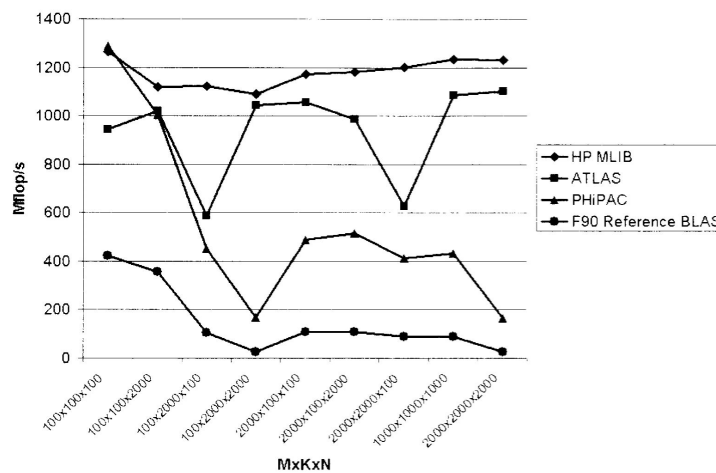


Figure 9-1 Comparison of matrix multiplication performance with various software packages.



## LAPACK & BLAS naming conventions

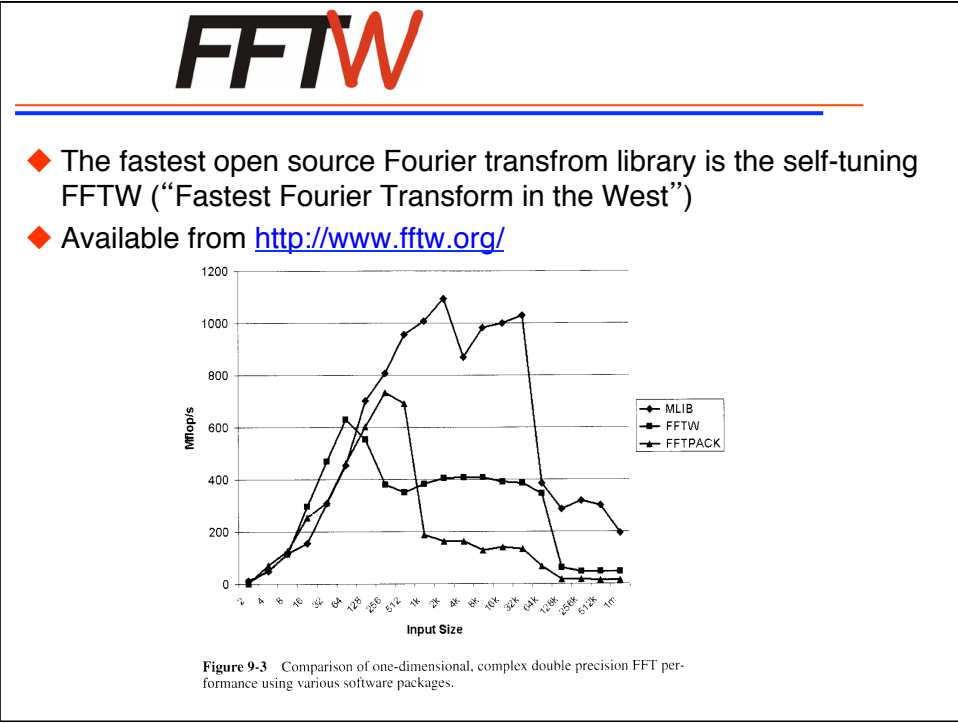
---

- ◆ functions are of the form
  - ◆ PTTXXX
- ◆ where P is the precision
  - ◆ **S** single precision real
  - ◆ **D** double precision real
  - ◆ **C** single precision complex
  - ◆ **Z** double precision complex
- ◆ TT is the matrix type:
  - ◆ **GE** general,
  - ◆ **SY** symmetric
  - ◆ **HE** Hermitian
  - ◆ ...
- ◆ Example: DGEEV is the double precision general eigensolver

## Important LAPACK functions

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- ◆ Eigensolvers: \*\*\*EV for
  - ◆ we will use DSYEV or SSYEV for the exercises
- ◆ Linear equation solvers: \*\*\*SV
- ◆ Linear least squares: \*\*\*LS
- ◆ Factorizations:
  - ◆ LQ: \*\*\*LQF
  - ◆ QL: \*\*\*QLF
- ◆ Matrix inverse: \*\*\*TRI



**Commercial libraries: NAG, IMSL, ...**

- ◆ add many more functions, like:
  - ◆ optimizations
  - ◆ non-linear root solvers
  - ◆ interpolation
  - ◆ statistical functions
  - ◆ ...
- ◆ They are however not free but commercial libraries
  - ◆ cost a lot of money
  - ◆ not suitable for private use
  - ◆ ETH has a site license: you can use them in your research