Supercomputing and Science



An Introduction to High Performance Computing

Part IV: Dependency Analysis and Stupid Compiler Tricks

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Outline

- Dependency Analysis
 - What is Dependency Analysis?
 - Control Dependencies
 - Data Dependencies
- Stupid Compiler Tricks
 - Tricks the Compiler Plays
 - Tricks You Play With the Compiler
 - Profiling





<u>Dependency analysis</u> is the determination of how different parts of a program interact, and how various parts require other parts in order to operate correctly.

A <u>control dependency</u> governs how different routines or sets of instructions affect each other.

A <u>data dependency</u> governs how different pieces of data affect each other.

Much of this discussion is from reference [1].

Control Dependencies

Every program has a well-defined <u>flow of</u> <u>control</u>.

This flow can be affected by several kinds of operations:

- Loops
- Branches (if, select case/switch)
- Function/subroutine calls
- I/O (typically implemented as calls)

Dependencies affect parallelization!

Branch Dependency Example

```
y = 7
IF (x /= 0) THEN
y = 1.0 / x
END IF !! (x /= 0)
```

The value of y depends on what the condition ($x \neq 0$) evaluates to:

- If the condition evaluates to .TRUE., then y is set to 1.0/x.
- Otherwise, y remains 7.

Loop Dependency Example

```
DO index = 2, length
  a(index) = a(index-1) + b(index)
END DO !! index = 2, length
```

Here, each iteration of the loop depends on the previous iteration. That is, the iteration i=3 depends on iteration i=2, iteration i=4 depends on i=3, iteration i=5 depends on i=4, etc.

This is sometimes called a <u>loop carried</u> <u>dependency</u>.



Why Do We Care?

Loops are the favorite control structures of High Performance Computing, because compilers know how to optimize them using instruction-level parallelism: superscalar and pipelining give excellent speedup.

Loop-carried dependencies affect whether a loop can be parallelized, and how much.



Loop or Branch Dependency?

Is this a loop carried dependency or an IF dependency?

```
DO index = 1, length
  IF (x(index) /= 0) THEN
    y(index) = 1.0 / x(index)
  END IF !! (x(index) /= 0)
END DO !! index = 1, length
```



Call Dependency Example

```
x = 5
y = myfunction(7)
z = 22
```

The flow of the program is interrupted by the call to myfunction, which takes the execution to somewhere else in the program.



I/O Dependency

Typically, I/O is implemented by implied subroutine calls, so we can think of this as a call dependency.

Reductions

```
sum = 0
DO index = 1, length
   sum = sum + array(index)
END DO !! index = 1, length
Other kinds of reductions: product, .AND.,
   .OR., minimum, maximum, number of
   occurrences, etc.
```

Reductions are so common that hardware and compilers are optimized to handle them.



Data Dependencies

$$a = x + y + COS(z)$$

 $b = a * c$

The value of **b** depends on the value of **a**, so these two statements **must** be executed in order.



Output Dependencies

$$x = a / b$$
 $y = x + 2$
 $x = d - e$

Notice that **x** is assigned two different values, but only one of them is retained after these statements. In this context, the final value of **x** is the "output."

Again, we are forced to execute in order.



- Dependencies can affect whether we can execute a particular part of the program in parallel.
- If we cannot execute that part of the program in parallel, then it'll be **SLOW**.



Loop Dependency Example

```
if ((dst == src1) && (dst == src2)) {
  for (index = 1; index < length; index++) {</pre>
    dst[index] = dst[index-1] + dst[index];
  } /* for index */
} /* if ((dst == src1) && (dst == src2)) */
else if (dst == src1) {
  for (index = 1; index < length; index++) {</pre>
    dst[index] = dst[index-1] + src2[index];
  } /* for index */
} /* if (dst == src1) */
```



Loop Dep Example (cont'd)

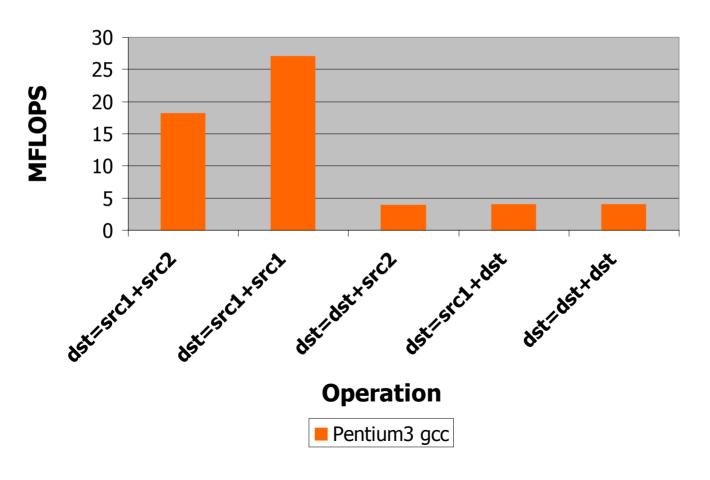
```
else {
  for (index = 1; index < length; index++) {
    dst[index] = src1[index-1]+src2[index];
  } /* for index */
} /* if (dst == src2)...else */</pre>
```

The various versions of the loop either do have loop-carried dependencies or do not.



Loop Dep Performance

Loop Dependency Performance









Stupid Compiler Tricks

- Tricks Compilers Play
 - Scalar Optimizations
 - Loop Optimizations
 - Inlining
- Tricks You Can Play with Compilers



Compiler Design

The people who design compilers have a lot of experience working with the languages commonly used in High Performance Computing:

- Fortran: 40ish years
- C: 30ish years
- C++: 15ish years, plus C experience So, they've come up with clever ways to make programs run faster.







Scalar Optimizations

- Copy Propagation
- Constant Folding
- Dead Code Removal
- Strength Reduction
- Common Subexpression Elimination
- Variable Renaming

Not every compiler does all of these, so it sometimes can be worth doing these by hand.

Much of this discussion is from [2].

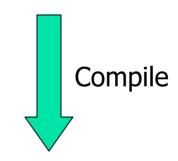


Copy Propagation

$$x = y$$

$$z = 1 + y$$

Has data dependency



After



Constant Folding

Before After

add = 100 sum = 300

aug = 200

sum = add + aug

Notice that **sum** is actually the sum of two constants, so the compiler can precalculate it, eliminating the addition that otherwise would be performed at runtime.



Since the last statement never executes, the compiler can eliminate it.



Strength Reduction

Before	After
x = y ** 2.0	x = y * y
a = c / 2.0	a = c * 0.5

Raising one value to the power of another, or dividing, is more expensive than multiplying. If the compiler can tell that the power is a small integer, or that the denominator is a constant, it'll use multiplication instead.



Common Subexpressions

Before

After

$$d = c*(a+b)$$
 aplusb = a + b
e = (a+b)*2.0 d = c*aplusb
e = aplusb*2.0

The subexpression (a+b) occurs in both assignment statements, so there's no point in calculating it twice.



Variable Renaming

Before	After
x = y * z	x0 = y * z
q = r + x * 2	q = r + x0 * 2
x = a + b	x = a + b

The original code has an output dependency, while the new code doesn't – but the final value of x is still correct.



Loop Optimizations

- Hoisting and Sinking
- Induction Variable Simplification
- Iteration Peeling
- Loop Interchange
- Unrolling

Not every compiler does all of these, so it sometimes can be worth doing these by hand.

Much of this discussion is from [3].

Hoisting and Sinking

Code that **Before** doesn't change inside the loop is called loop invariant.

```
DO i = 1, n
                      Hoist
      a(i) = b(i) +
      e = g(n)
    END \mid DO !! i = 1, n
     Sink
    temp = c * d
    DO i = 1, n
    a(i) = b(i) + temp
After
    END DO !! i = 1,
    e = q(n)
```



Induction Variable Simplifying

Before

After

One operation can be cheaper than two. On the other hand, this strategy can create a new dependency.

Iteration Peeling

```
DO i = 1, n
         IF ((i == 1) .OR. (i == n)) THEN
           x(i) = y(i)
Before ELSE
           x(i) = y(i + 1) + y(i - 1)
         END IF
       END DO
       x(1) = y(1)
       DO i = 1, n
After
         x(i) = y(i + 1) + y(i - 1)
       END DO
       x(n) = y(n)
```

Loop Interchange

Before

```
DO i = 1, ni,

DO j = 1, nj,

a(i,j) = b(i,j)

END DO !! j

END DO !! i
```

After

```
DO j = 1, nj
DO i = 1, ni
    a(i,j) = b(i,j)
END DO !! i
END DO !! j
```

Array elements a(i,j) and a(i+1,j) are near each other in memory, while a(i,j+1) may be far, so it makes sense to make the i loop be the inner loop.

Unrolling

```
DO i = 1, n

Before a(i) = a(i)+b(i)

END DO !! i
```

```
DO i = 1, n, 4
a(i) = a(i)+b(i)
a(i+1) = a(i+1)+b(i+1)
a(i+2) = a(i+2)+b(i+2)
a(i+3) = a(i+3)+b(i+3)
END DO !! i
```

You generally shouldn't unroll by hand.

Why Do Compilers Unroll?

We saw last time that a loop with a lot of operations gets better performance (up to some point), especially if there are lots of arithmetic operations but few main memory loads and stores.

Unrolling creates multiple operations that typically load from the same, or adjacent, cache lines.

So, an unrolled loop has more operations without increasing the memory accesses much.

Inlining

Before

```
DO i = 1, n
   a(i) = func(i)
END DO
...
REAL FUNCTION func (x)
   ...
  func = x * 3
END FUNCTION func
```

After

```
DO i = 1, n
a(i) = i * 3
END DO
```

When a function or subroutine is <u>inlined</u>, its contents are transferred directly into the calling routine, eliminating the overhead of making the call.

Tricks You Can Play with Compilers



The Joy of Compiler Options

Every compiler has a different set of options that you can set.

Among these are options that control single processor optimization: superscalar, pipelining, vectorization, scalar optimizations, loop optimizations, inlining and so on.

Example Compile Lines

- SGI Origin2000f90 –Ofast –ipa
- Sun UltraSPARCf90 –fast
- CrayJ90f90 –O 3,aggress,pattern,recurrence
- Portland Group f90pgf90 -O2 –Mdalign –Mvect=assoc
- NAG f95
 f95 –O4 –Ounsafe –ieee=nonstd

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What Does the Compiler Do?

Example: NAG f95 compiler

f95 –O<level> source.f90

Possible levels are -00, -01, -02, -03, -04:

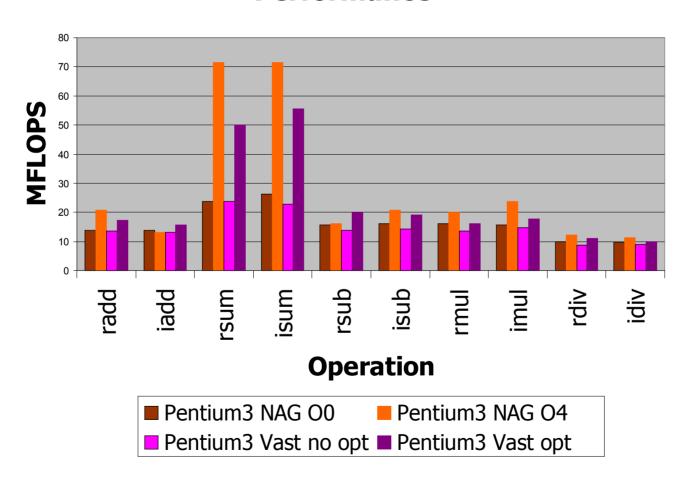
- -00 No optimisation. ...
- -01 Minimal quick optimisation.
- -02 Normal optimisation.
- -03 Further optimisation.
- -04 Maximal optimisation. [4]

The man page is pretty cryptic.



Optimization Performance

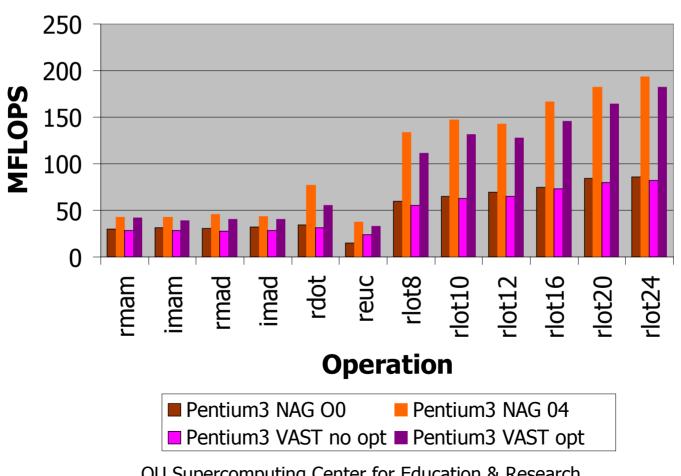
Performance





More Optimized Performance

Performance









Profiling

Profiling means collecting data about how a program executes.

The two major kinds of profiling are:

- Subroutine profiling
- Hardware timing



Subroutine profiling means finding out how much time is spent in each routine.

Typically, a program spends 90% of its runtime in 10% of the code.

Subroutine profiling tells you what parts of the program to spend time optimizing and what parts you can ignore.



Profiling Example

On an SGI Origin2000:

f90 -Ofast -g3 ...

The -g3 option tells the compiler to set the executable up to collect profiling information.

ssrun -fpcsampx executable

This command generates a file named executable.m240981 (the number is the process number of the run).



Profiling Example (cont'd)

When the run has complete, ssrun has generated the .m#### file.

Then:

prof executable.m240981

produces a list of all of the routines and how much time was spent in each.



Profiling Result

secs	ଚ୍ଚ	cum.%	samples	function
1323.386	29.1%	29.1%	1323386	complib_sgemm_
1113.284	24.5%	53.7%	1113284	SGEMTV_AXPY
872.614	19.2%	72.9 %	872614	SGEMV_DOT
338.191	7.4%	80.3%	338191	COMPLIB_SGEMM_HOISTC
223.375	4.9%	85.3%	223375	_sd2uge
133.531	2.9%	88.2%	133531	funds

. . .



Hardware Timing

In addition to learning about which routines dominate in your program, you might also want to know how the hardware behaves; e.g., you might want to know how often you get a cache miss.

Many supercomputer CPUs have special hardware that measures such events, called event counters.



Hardware Timing Example

On SGI Origin2000:

perfex -x -a executable

This command produces a list of hardware counts.



Hardware Timing Results

Cycles	1350795704000
Decoded instructions	1847206417136
Decoded loads	448877703072
Decoded stores	76766538224
Grad floating point instructions	575482548960
Primary data cache misses	36090853008
Secondary data cache misses	5537223904

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Next Time

Part V: Shared Memory Multiprocessing

References

- [1] Kevin Dowd and Charles Severance, *High Performance Computing*, 2nd ed. O'Reilly, 1998, p. 173-191.
- [2] Ibid, p. 91-99.
- [3] Ibid, p. 146-157.
- [4] NAG f95 man page.