

## Estrutura do tema Avaliação de Desempenho (IA-32)

1. A avaliação de sistemas de computação
2. Técnicas de otimização de código (IM)
3. Técnicas de otimização de hardware
4. Técnicas de otimização de código (DM)
5. Outras técnicas de otimização (*cont.*)
6. Medição de tempos

## Análise de técnicas de otimização (s/w)

- técnicas de otimização de código (indep. máquina)
  - já visto...
- técnicas de otimização de código (dep. máquina)
  - dependentes do processador (já visto...)
- **outras técnicas de otimização**
  - na compilação: otimizações efectuadas pelo GCC
  - na identificação dos "gargalos" de desempenho
    - *code profiling*
    - uso dum *profiler* para apoio à otimização
    - lei de Amdahl ... já visto ...
  - dependentes da hierarquia da memória
    - a localidade espacial e temporal dum program ... já visto ...
    - influência da *cache* no desempenho ... próximo semestre...

## Otimizações no Gnu C Compiler (1) (procurar em [http://gcc.gnu.org/onlinedocs/...](http://gcc.gnu.org/onlinedocs/))

### Options That Control Optimization

These options control various sorts of optimizations:

- O
  - 0 Optimize. Optimizing compilation takes somewhat more time, and a lot more memory for a large function. (...) With -O, the compiler tries to reduce code size and execution time, without performing any optimizations that take a great deal of compilation time.
  - 2 Optimize even more. GCC performs nearly all supported optimizations that do not involve a space-speed tradeoff. (...) this option increases both compilation time and the performance of the generated code.  
-O2 turns on all optional optimizations except for loop unrolling, function inlining, and register renaming.
  - 3 Optimize yet more. -O3 turns on all optimizations specified by -O2 and also turns on the -finline-functions and -frename-registers options.
- O0 Do not optimize.
- Os Optimize for size. -Os enables all -O2 optimizations that do not typically increase code size. It also performs further optimizations designed to reduce code size.

## Otimizações no Gnu C Compiler (2) (procurar em [http://gcc.gnu.org/onlinedocs/...](http://gcc.gnu.org/onlinedocs/))

### Otimizações para código com arrays e loops:

#### -funroll-loops

Unroll loops whose number of iterations can be determined at compile time or upon entry to the loop. -funroll-loops implies both -fstrength-reduce and -frerun-cse-after-loop. This option makes code larger, and may or may not make it run faster.

#### -funroll-all-loops

Unroll all loops, even if their number of iterations is uncertain when the loop is entered. This usually makes programs run more slowly. -funroll-all-loops implies the same options as -funroll-loops,

#### -fprefetch-loop-arrays

If supported by the target machine, generate instructions to prefetch memory to improve the performance of loops that access large arrays.

#### -fmove-all-movables

Forces all invariant computations in loops to be moved outside the loop.

#### -freduce-all-givs

Forces all general-induction variables in loops to be strength-reduced.

### Otimizações para inserção de funções em-linha:

#### -finline-functions

Integrate all simple functions into their callers. The compiler heuristically decides which functions are simple enough to be worth integrating in this way. If all calls to a given function are integrated, and the function is declared static, then the function is normally not output as assembler code in its own right.

#### -finline-limit=n

By default, gcc limits the size of functions that can be inlined. This flag allows the control of this limit for functions that are explicitly marked as inline (ie marked with the inline keyword ...). n is the size of functions that can be inlined in number of pseudo instructions (not counting parameter handling). The default value of n is 600. Increasing this value can result in more inlined code at the cost of compilation time and memory consumption. Decreasing usually makes the compilation faster and less code will be inlined (which presumably means slower programs).

### Ação

gcc -O2 -pg prog. -o prog

./prog

- executa como habitual/, mas tb gera o ficheiro gmon.out

gprof prog

- **GNU profiler:** a partir de gmon.out gera informação que caracteriza o perfil do programa

### Factos

- calcula (aproximadamente) o tempo gasto em cada função
- método para cálculo do tempo (*mais detalhe adiante*)
  - periodicamente (~ cada 10ms) interrompe o programa
  - determina que função está a ser executada nesse momento
  - incrementa o seu temporizador de um intervalo (por ex., 10ms)
- para cada função mantém ainda um contador (nº de vezes que foi invocada)

### Uso do code profiling (1)

### Uso do code profiling (2)

### Uso do GProf em 3 passos:

#### -compilar com indicação explícita (-pg)

- ex.: análise do `combine1_sum_int` (vector com  $10^7$  elementos)

`gcc -O2 -pg combine1_sum_int.c -o comb1`

#### -executar o programa

`./comb1`

- vai gerar automaticamente o ficheiro `gmon.out`

#### -invocar o GProf para analisar os dados em `gmon.out`

`gprof comb1.exe [ > comb1.txt ]`

- análise parcial do ficheiro `comb1.txt` a seguir...

### Análise da primeira parte de `comb1.txt`:

#### Flat profile:

Each sample counts as 0.01 seconds.

%	cumulative	self	self	total		
time	seconds	seconds	calls	s/call	s/call	name
39.33	2.58	2.58				_mcount
38.57	5.11	2.53	20000000	0.00	0.00	get_vec_element
12.65	5.94	0.83				mcount
6.40	6.36	0.42	2	0.21	1.57	combine1
3.05	6.56	0.20	20000002	0.00	0.00	vec_length
0.00	6.56	0.00	2	0.00	0.00	access_counter
0.00	6.56	0.00	1	0.00	0.00	get_counter
0.00	6.56	0.00	1	0.00	0.00	new_vec
0.00	6.56	0.00	1	0.00	0.00	start_counter

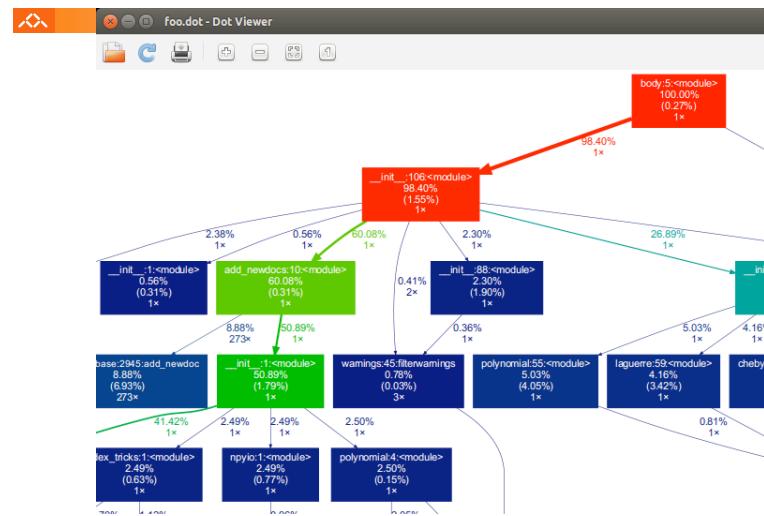
### Uso do code profiling (3)

### Visualização gráfica de resultados: GProf2Dot

	index	% time	self	children	called	name
[1]	100.0	0.42	2.73	2	2/2	main [2]
		2.53	0.00	20000000/20000000		combine1 [1]
		0.20	0.00	20000002/20000002		get_vec_element [3]
						vec_length [4]
<hr/>						
[2]	100.0	0.00	3.15	2/2		<spontaneous>
	0.42	2.73		1/1		main [2]
	0.00	0.00		1/1		combine1 [1]
	0.00	0.00		1/1		new_vec [11]
	0.00	0.00		1/1		start_counter [12]
						get_counter [10]
<hr/>						
[3]	80.3	2.53	0.00	20000000/20000000		combine1 [1]
		2.53	0.00	20000000		get_vec_element [3]
<hr/>						
[4]	6.3	0.20	0.00	20000002/20000002		combine1 [1]
		0.20	0.00	20000002		vec_length [4]
<hr/>						
		0.00	0.00	1/2		start_counter [12]
		0.00	0.00	1/2		get_counter [10]
		0.00	0.00	2		access_counter [9]
		0.00	0.00	2		...

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### Uso do code profiling: algumas observa es

### Avalia o de Desempenho no IA32 (6)

#### Vantagens

- ajuda a identificar os gargalos de desempenho
- particularmente  util em sistemas complexos com muitos componentes

#### Limita es

- apenas analisa o desempenho para o conjunto de dados de teste
- a metodologia de medi o de tempos  e rudimentar
  - apenas us vel em programas com tempos de exec > 3 seg

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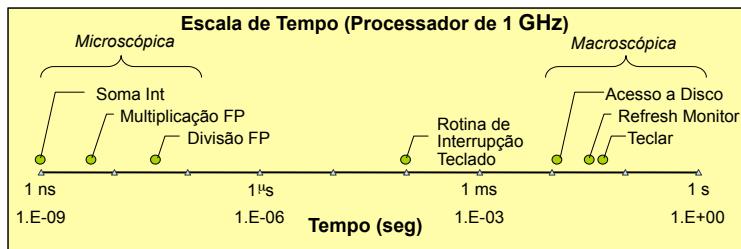
Os slides do tema 6.  
foram adaptados duma  
aula do Prof. Bryant

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• Escalas fundamentais de tempo:

– Processador:  $\sim 10^{-9}$  seg.

– Eventos externos:  $\sim 10^{-2}$  seg.

- Keyboard input
- Disk seek
- Screen refresh

• Implicações

- pode executar várias instruções enquanto espera que ocorram eventos externos
- pode alternar execução entre código de vários processos sem ser notado

"Time" on a Computer System



real (wall clock) time

= user time (time executing instructions in the user process)

= system time (time executing instructions in kernel on behalf of user process)

= some other user's time (time executing instructions in different user's process)

+ + = real (wall clock) time

We will use the word "time" to refer to user time.

cumulative user time

• How Much Time Does Program X Require?

– CPU time

- How many total seconds are used when executing X?
- Measure used for most applications
- Small dependence on other system activities

– Actual ("Wall") Time

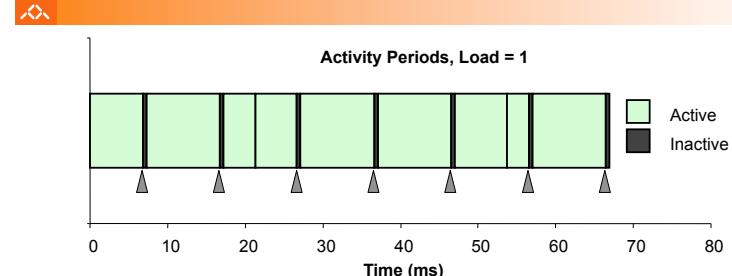
- How many seconds elapse between the start and the completion of X?
- Depends on system load, I/O times, etc.

• Confounding Factors

– How does time get measured?

- Many processes share computing resources
  - Transient effects when switching from one process to another
  - Suddenly, the effects of alternating among processes become noticeable

Activity Periods: Light Load



– Most of the time spent executing one process

– Periodic interrupts every 10ms

- Interval timer
- Keep system from executing one process to exclusion of others

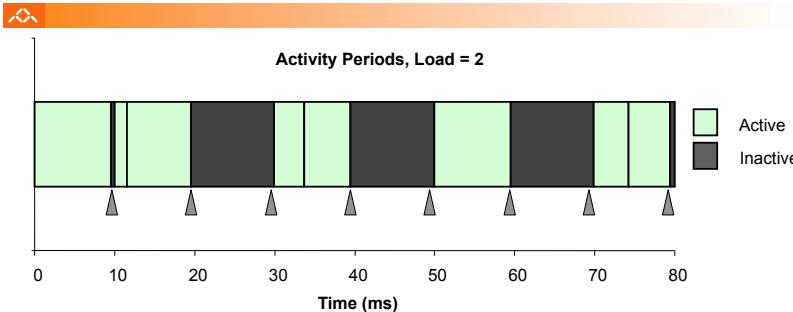
– Other interrupts

- Due to I/O activity

– Inactivity periods

- System time spent processing interrupts
- $\sim 250,000$  clock cycles

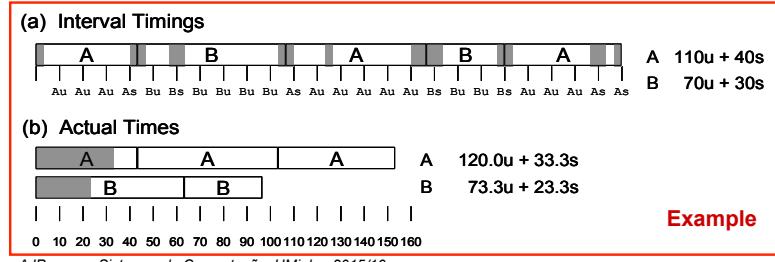
## Activity Periods: Heavy Load



- Sharing processor with one other active process
- From perspective of this process, system appears to be “inactive” for ~50% of the time
  - Other process is executing

## Interval Counting

- OS Measures Runtimes Using Interval Timer
  - Maintain 2 counts per process
    - User time
    - System time
  - Each time: (i) get timer interrupt, (ii) increment counter for executing process
    - User time if running in user mode
    - System time if running in kernel mode



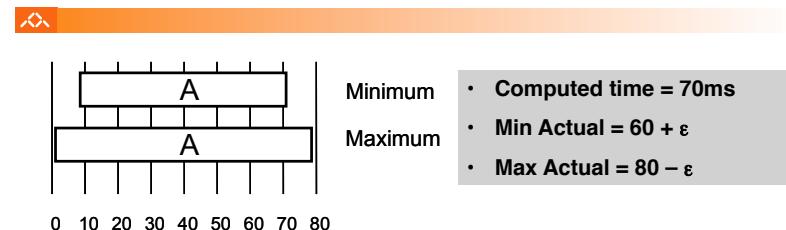
Example

## Unix time Command

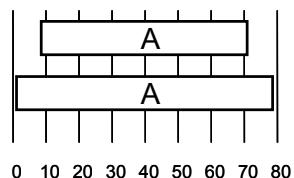
```
time make osevent
gcc -O2 -Wall -g -march=i486 -c clock.c
gcc -O2 -Wall -g -march=i486 -c options.c
gcc -O2 -Wall -g -march=i486 -c load.c
gcc -O2 -Wall -g -march=i486 -o osevent
osevent.c . .
0.820u 0.300s 0:01.32 84.8%      0+0k 0+0io 4049pf
+0w
```

- 0.82 seconds user time
  - 82 timer intervals
- 0.30 seconds system time
  - 30 timer intervals
- 1.32 seconds wall time
- 84.8% of total was used running these processes
  - $(.82+0.3)/1.32 = .848$

## Accuracy of Interval Counting (1)



- Worst Case Analysis
  - Timer Interval =  $\delta$
  - Single process segment measurement can be off by  $\pm\delta$
  - No bound on error for multiple segments
    - Could consistently underestimate, or consistently overestimate



Minimum  
Maximum

- Computed time = 70ms
- Min Actual =  $60 + \epsilon$
- Max Actual =  $80 - \epsilon$

- Average Case Analysis
  - Over/underestimates tend to balance out
  - As long as total run time is sufficiently large
    - Min run time  $\sim 1$  second
    - 100 timer intervals
  - Consistently miss 4% overhead due to timer interrupts



- Most modern systems have built in registers that are incremented every clock cycle
  - Very fine grained
  - Maintained as part of process state
    - In Linux, counts elapsed global time
- Special assembly code instruction to access
- On (recent model) Intel machines:
  - 64 bit counter.
  - RDTSC instruction sets **%edx** to high order 32-bits, **%eax** to low order 32-bits



### Cycle Counter Period

- Wrap Around Times for **550 MHz** machine
  - Low order 32 bits wrap around every  $2^{32} / (550 * 10^6) = 7.8$  seconds
  - High order 64 bits wrap around every  $2^{64} / (550 * 10^6) = 33539534679$  seconds
    - 1065 years
- For **2 GHz** machine
  - Low order 32-bits every 2.1 seconds
  - High order 64 bits every 293 years



### Measuring with Cycle Counter

#### Idea

- Get current value of cycle counter
  - store as pair of unsigned's **cyc\_hi** and **cyc\_lo**
- Compute something
- Get new value of cycle counter
- Perform double precision subtraction to get elapsed cycles

```
/* Keep track of most recent reading of cycle counter */
static unsigned cyc_hi = 0;
static unsigned cyc_lo = 0;

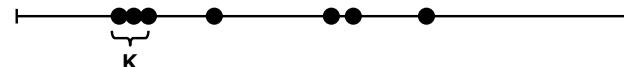
void start_counter()
{
    /* Get current value of cycle counter */
    access_counter(&cyc_hi, &cyc_lo);
}
```

- GCC allows inline assembly code with mechanism for matching registers with program variables
- Code only works on x86 machine compiling with GCC

```
void access_counter(unsigned *hi, unsigned *lo)
{
    /* Get cycle counter */
    asm("rdtsc; movl %%edx,%0; movl %%eax,%1"
        : "=r" (*hi), "=r" (*lo)
        : /* No input */
        : "%edx", "%eax");
}
```

- Issue assembly with `rdtsc` and two `movl` instructions

- Cycle Counter Measures Elapsed Time
  - Keeps accumulating during periods of inactivity
    - System activity
    - Running other processes
- Key Observation
  - Cycle counter never underestimates program run time
  - Possibly overestimates by large amount
- K-Best Measurement Scheme
  - Perform up to N (e.g., 20) measurements of function
  - See if fastest K (e.g., 3) within some relative factor  $\epsilon$  (e.g., 0.1%)



### Time of Day Clock

- Unix `gettimeofday()` function
- Return elapsed time since reference time (Jan 1, 1970)
- Implementation
  - Uses interval counting on some machines
  - Coarse grained
- Uses cycle counter on others
  - Fine grained, but significant overhead and only 1  $\mu$ sec resolution

```
#include <sys/time.h>
#include <unistd.h>

struct timeval tstart, tfinish;
double tsecs;
gettimeofday(&tstart, NULL);
P();
gettimeofday(&tfinish, NULL);
tsecs = (tfinish.tv_sec - tstart.tv_sec) +
    1e6 * (tfinish.tv_usec - tstart.tv_usec);
```

### Measurement Summary

- Timing is highly case and system dependent
  - What is overall duration being measured?
    - **> 1 second**: interval counting is OK
    - **<< 1 second**: must use cycle counters
  - On what hardware / OS / OS-version?
    - Accessing counters
      - How `gettimeofday` is implemented
    - Timer interrupt overhead
    - Scheduling policy
- Devising a Measurement Method
  - Long durations: use Unix timing functions
  - Short durations
    - If possible, use `gettimeofday`
    - Otherwise must work with cycle counters
    - K-best scheme most successful