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Optimization

Outline



Loops





Outline



Loops techniques



Prefetching



Optimizing cache access in loops

Loop classification

$$A_I = \frac{f(n)}{n}$$

Arithmetic Intensity: the ratio between the number of performed operations and the amount of the data.

- 1. O(N) / O(N)scanning arrays, 1D vector ops, .. optimization potential limited
- 2. $O(N^2) / O(N^2)$ matrix × vect, matr. transp, matr. add, ... some more opportunities for opt.
- 3. $O(N^3) / O(N^2)$ matrix × matr.... significant optimization potential



Example

1-level loops: Scalar products, vector additions, sparse matrixvector multiplication

Inevitably memory-bound for very large N; in general, improvements come from avoiding unnecessary operations and/or repeated memory accesses, and increasing

data reuse

[check the possibility for loops fusion] •

O(N) / O(N)

```
for(int j=0; j<2; j++)
                                   for(int j=0; j<2; j++)
  A[i] = B[i] \times C[i]
        4 O(n) + Q(n) (time) →
                                       A[i] = B[i] \times C[i]
                                       Q[i] = B[i] + D[i]
for(int j=0; j<2; j++)
  Q[i] = B[i] + D[i]
```

Loop fusion: in the version on the right, B is recalled from memory only once.



Example

2-levels loops: dense matrix-vector mul, matrix transpos., matrix add, ...

Improvements comes again from increasing data reuse, exploiting locality and avoiding unnecessary operations and memory accesses.

```
for(int i=0; i < N; i++)
   for(int j=0; j<N; j++)
       C[i] += A[i][j] * B[j];
N \times N
                  N \times N
                              N \times N
```

 \rightarrow 3×N² memory accesses



for(int i=0; i < N; i++) for(int j=0; j<N; j++) C[i] += A[i][i] * B[i];

Step 1: **Avoid unecessary loads /stores**

```
for(int i=0; i < N; i++) {
  c temp = C[i];
  for(int j=0; j < N; j++)
     c temp += A[i][i] * B[i];
  C[i] = c temp; }
```

Now it is clear for the compiler that **c[i]** needs to be loaded and stored only 1 time

 \rightarrow 2×N²+N memory accesses



Step 2:

Unroll outern loop and fuse in the inner loop; there is potential for vectorisation.

→
$$N^2 \times (1+1/m) + N$$



Note: unrolling and register spill

Using a too large m in the previous example while the target CPU does not have enough registers to keep all the needed operands results in a "code bloating".

In this case, the CPU has to spill registers' content to cache and viceversa, slowing down the computation.

→ learn to inspect the compiler's log

A too much involute and obscure loop body may hamper the compiler to effectively perform unroll & jam optimizations targeted to the CPU it runs on.

- → hand code effort to clarify the code
- → hints / directives to the compiler

(directives are generally not portable across different compilers)



Sometimes no magic wand can cure the fact that you have to access N² memory locations.

Example: in matrix transpose you have to access all the source matrix and all the destination matrix once.

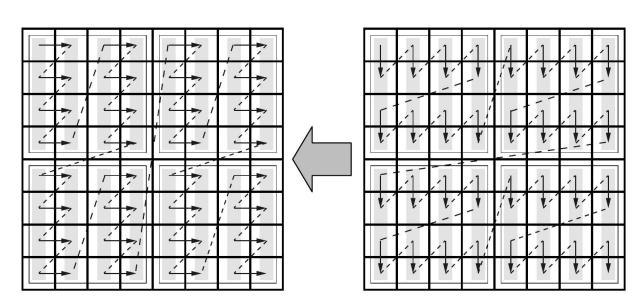
Unroll & Jam strategy can bring benefits as long as the cache can hold N lines.

An $L_{\rm C}$ -way unrolling is too much aggressive and may easily result in register pressure.

Loop tailing (or blocking) is a good strategy that does not save memory loads but increase dramatically the cache hit ratio.

We have mentioned it in the past, we'll se it in more detail at the end of this lecture.





Step 3: **Fully exploit locality** of referenced data; cut TLB misses by accessing 2D arrays by blocks





Loop unrolling is a fundamental code transformation which usually helps significantly in improving your code performance:

- It reduces the loop overhead (counter update, branching)
- It exposes critical data path and dependencies
- It helps in exploiting ILP, especially in case of memory aliasing

We have already seen this technique in the examples from past lecture, although we did not really focus on it.

Now, let's understand it with some more detail.





Let's examine this simple reduction:

```
for ( int i=0; j<N; i++ )
 S += A[i];
```

-00

```
.L3:
# reduction.c:41:
                   acc = acc OP array[ii];
                rax, OWORD PTR -24[rbp] # ii
                rdx, 0[0+rax*8]
               rax, OWORD PTR -48[rbp] # array
        MOV
        add
                rax, rdx
               xmm0, OWORD PTR [rax]
        movsd
        movsd
               QWORD PTR -56[rbp], xmm0
       fld
                OWORD PTR -56[rbp]
# reduction.c:41:
                      acc = acc OP array[ii];
        fld
               TBYTE PTR -16[rbp]
                                       # acc
       faddp st(1), st
               TBYTE PTR -16[rbp]
        fstp
                                       # acc
# reduction.c:40: for ( uLint ii = 1; ii < N; ii++ )</pre>
        add
                QWORD PTR -24[rbp], 1 # ii,
.L2:
# reduction.c:40: for ( uLint ii = 1; ii < N; ii++ )</pre>
                rax, QWORD PTR -24[rbp] # ii
                rax, QWORD PTR -40[rbp] # N
        CMD
        ib
                .L3
```

-03 -march=native

```
.L3:
# reduction.c:41: acc = acc OP array[ii];
        fadd
               QWORD PTR [rax] # array
        add
               rax, 8
# reduction.c:40: for ( uLint ii = 1; ii < N; ii++ )
               rdx, rax
                               # N
        CMD
                .L3
        ine
        ret
```

With optimization turned on the compiler manages much better the loop overhead, but does not optimize the FP ops in any way.





If we compile exactly the same code but using int as data type instead of double, we obtain a quite different result:

-00

```
.L3:
# reduction.c:43: acc = acc OP array[ii];
       movq -8(%rbp), %rax # ii
       leag 0(,%rax,4), %rdx
       movq -32(%rbp), %rax # array
       addq %rdx, %rax
       movl
            (%rax), %eax
       movl
             %eax, %eax
# reduction.c:43:
                     acc = acc OP array[ii];
               %rax, -16(%rbp)
       addq
# reduction.c:42: for ( uLint ii = 1; ii < N; ii++ )</pre>
       adda
               $1, -8(%rbp) #, ii
.L2:
# reduction.c:42: for ( uLint ii = 1; ii < N; ii++ )</pre>
            -8(%rbp), %rax # ii
       movq
              -24(%rbp), %rax # N
       cmpq
       ib
               .L3
```

-03 -march=native

```
.L4:
# reduction.c:43: acc = acc OP array[ii];
       vmovdqu 4(%rax), %ymm0
       addq
              $32, %rax
       vpmovzxdq %xmm0, %ymm1
       vextracti128 $0x1, %ymm0, %xmm0
       vpmovzxdq %xmm0, %ymm0
# reduction.c:43:
                    acc = acc OP arrav[ii]:
       vpaddq %ymm0, %ymm1, %ymm0
       vpaddq %ymm0, %ymm2, %ymm2
       cmpq
              %rdx, %rax
       ine
              .L4
```

Now the compiler opts for the complete vectorization of the loop, with a very strong impact on performances!!





Why does the compiler choose to optimize the loop when the data are of type int and it does not when the data are of type double?

It is due to the fact that, as we have seen the compiler is NOT free to restructure the code that deals with floating-point numbers.

Since the math with floating point is not associative, changing the exact order of the operations in your code may – from what the compiler may judge at compile time - change the correctness of the calculations at run time.

For instance, in the example that we have considered, changing the order of the operations obviously impacts on the result. From the point of view of the compiler, you may have chosen a given workflow exactly because you know that it is the most correct with respect to the data it will apply to!





Then, we are left with the responsibility of optimizing this simple code. Since we are traversing it continuously in natural memory order, the cache is not an issue.

Our aim is to re-structure the code so that the compiler could exploit the CPU's ILP (Instruction-Level Parallelism).

```
for ( int i=0; j<N; i++ )
 S += A[i];
```







Our first attempt is to reduce the loop overhead and expose some parallelism among the data by explicitly processing 2 elements per iteration.

```
for ( int i=0; i<N; i++ )
  S = S \text{ OP A[i]};
for ( int i=0; i<N-2; i+=2 )
  S = (S \text{ OP } A[i]) \text{ OP } A[i+1];
```





Our first attempt is to reduce the loop overhead and expose some parallelism among the data by explicitly processing 2 elements per iteration.

```
for ( int i=0; i<N; i++ )
   S = S OP A[i];

for ( int i=0; i < N-2; i+=2 )
   S = (S OP A[i]) OP A[i+1];</pre>
```

Note: when unrolling, you always have to care about the final iterations that would be left behind. A common way to do it for un unrolling factor U (usually U ranges in [2..16] of a loop with N iterations is:





The compiler generates - ~ the following assembly code: lload 32B (4 double) starting from ith element. vmm1 has 256bits.

rax contains the address to the ith element of the array, [rax] means "the address pointed by rax"

```
.L17:
       vmovupd ymm1, YMMWORD PTR [rax]
        add
                  rax. 32
       vaddsd
                  xmm0, xmm0, xmm1
       vunpckhpd xmm2, xmm1, xmm1
       vextractf128
                        xmm1, vmm1, 0x1
       vaddsd
                  xmm0, xmm0, xmm2
       vaddsd
                  xmm0, xmm0, xmm1
       vunpckhpd xmm1, xmm1, xmm1
       vaddsd
                  xmm0, xmm0, xmm1
.LVL18:
                rax, rcx
        CMD
                .L17
        ine
```

registers' reshuffle to move each double at the begin, in order to use vaddsd

all these instructions sum with, and store in, xmm0

in the following we will always comment the code generated with -03 -march=native





In a (hopefully) simpler view, the scheme of what happens is the following

```
.L17:
        vmovupd ymm1, YMMWORD PTR [rax]
        add
                  rax, 32
        vaddsd
                  xmm0, xmm0, xmm1
        vunpckhpd xmm2, xmm1, xmm1
        vextractf128
                        xmm1, ymm1, 0x1
        vaddsd
                  xmm0, xmm0, xmm2
        vaddsd
                  xmm0, xmm0, xmm1
        vunpckhpd xmm1, xmm1, xmm1
        vaddsd
                  xmm0, xmm0, xmm1
.LVL18:
                гах, гсх
        CMP
        ine
                .L17
```

double double double double iter n ymm1 XMM1 add xmm0 shuffle xmm0 xmm2 add xmm0 xmm1 add shuffle Xmm0 XMM1 add

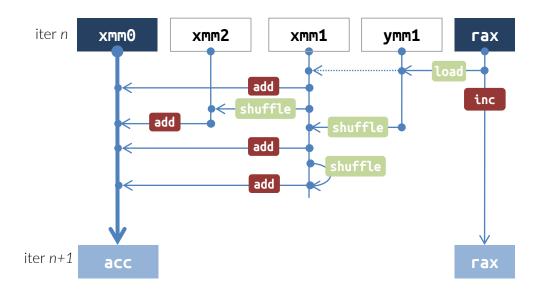




Then, we have the following abstraction:

(arrows indicate a dependency)

```
.L17:
        vmovupd ymm1, YMMWORD PTR [rax]
        add
                  rax, 32
        vaddsd
                  xmm0, xmm0, xmm1
        vunpckhpd xmm2, xmm1, xmm1
                        xmm1, ymm1, 0x1
        vextractf128
        vaddsd
                  xmm0, xmm0, xmm2
        vaddsd
                  xmm0, xmm0, xmm1
        vunpckhpd xmm1, xmm1, xmm1
        vaddsd
                  xmm0, xmm0, xmm1
.LVL18:
        CMD
                rax, rcx
        ine
                .L17
```



xmm0 carries a loop dependency because its value is to be used in the next iteration (that is true for rax too, but its latency is smaller than that of FP operations) It forms a **critical path** that limits the efficiency.



Step 2: unrolling 2×1+ reshuffle



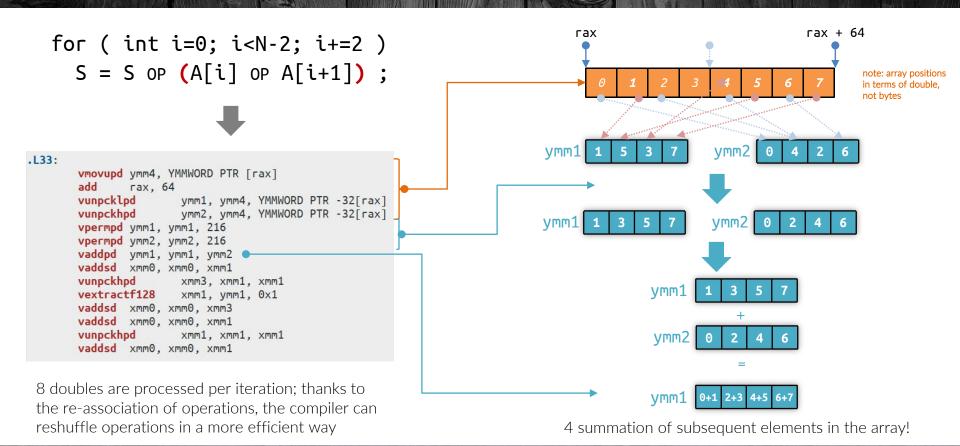
Let's explore what happens if we apport a semantic change to our code, just using the fact that our **op** is associative.

```
for ( int i=0; i<N-2; i+=2 )
  S = (S \text{ OP } A[i]) \text{ OP } A[i+1];
for ( int i=0; i<N-2; i+=2 )
  S = S OP (A[i] OP A[i+1]);
```



Step 2: unrolling 2×1+ reshuffle







Step 2: unrolling 2×1+ reshuffle



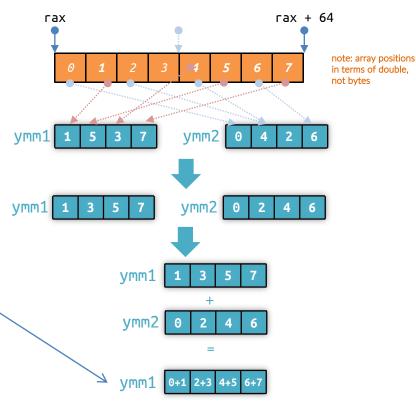
To be clearer: just because we re-associated the math expression in the loop,

from
$$S = (S \text{ op } A[i]) \text{ op } A[i+1]$$
;
to $S = S \text{ op } (A[i] \text{ op } A[i+1])$;

the compiler is entitled to exploit the fact that in the semantics that **now** we are giving, the operation order will be

Sum=
$$((([0]+[1]) + ([2]+[3])) + ([4]+[5])) + ([6]+[7])...$$

And the result is what we have just discussed, more efficient than what we obtained with the previous code



4 summation of subsequent elements in the array!

Let's inquire more (still accounting for the fact that in floating point the OP is not associative) the difference among



```
1 for (int i = 0; i < N; i++)
                                    [A]
     S = S OP a[i];
4 for (int i = 0; i < N; i+=2)
                                    [B]
    S = S OP (a[i] OP a[i+1]);
```

If we define OP to be '+' and S_i to be the i_{th} partial result, i.e. the value of S after the first i-1 iterations, the cases Aand [B] expand to (square brackets cluster what happens in each single iteration)

$$egin{aligned} [A] &
ightarrow \left[\left[\left[\left[0+a_0
ight] +a_1
ight] +a_2
ight] +a_3
ight] + \cdots \$\$ \ S_0 &= a_0 \ S_1 &= S_0 +a_1 \ S_2 &= S_1 +a_2 \ & \cdots \ S_i &= S_{i-1} +A_i \end{aligned}$$
 $egin{aligned} [B] &
ightarrow \left[\left[\left[0+(a_1+a_2)
ight] +(a_3+a_4)
ight] +(a_5+a_6)
ight] + \cdots \ S_0 &= 0 +(a_0+a_1) \ S_1 &= S_0 +(a_2+a_3) \ S_3 &= S_2 +(a_4+a_5) \ & \cdots \ S_i &= S_{i-1} +(a_i+a_{i+1}) \end{aligned}$



It is evident that for A the basic "element" of each iteration is the single array entry a_i , whereas in B the basic element is the sum $a_i + a_{i+1}$. Hence, while in the first case there is nothing we can do but subsequently calculate the S_i , in the second case we can *separately* calculate as many $[a_i + a_{i+1}]$ elements as possible and *then* sum them up subsequently. Actually, in the second case (because of how we specified the operations!) each a_i , a_{i+1} pair must be summed up before being summed to S_i .

Q : And how many $[a_i + a_{i+1}]$ elements can we separately calculate in a cycle?

A: In this case, since we are using only 1 accumulator, most probably the choice of the compiler will depend on how wide a vector register is. In fact, since

- 1. there is the computation of only 1 S_i per iteration, with a subsequent summation
- 2. it is most effective to exploit a single vector load

the most effective choice is the one made by the compiler, i.e. to use a 2 vector registers to load 8 a's entries and to reshuffle them in order to obtain $4[a_i + a_{i+1}]$ elements in just one + operation, and to to sum them up subsequently. If the vector register was 512bits instead of 256bits, it would have loaded 16 entries in order to obtain 8 $[a_i + a_{i+1}]$ elements and so on.





As we have seen, what is the blocking element is the critical path of the accumulator, because we are using a unique place to store the summation. A logical step is to separate partial results in multiple accumulators.

```
for ( int i=0; i<N; i++ )
  S = S \text{ OP A[i]};
for ( int i=0; i<N-2; i+=2 )
      s0 = s0 \text{ op A[i]};
      s1 = s1 \text{ op A[i+1]};
return s0 = s0 op s1;
```





As we have seen, what is the blocking element is the

aritical noth of the

```
for ( int i=0; i<N; i++ )
  S = S \text{ op } A[i];
```

NOTE:

The unrolling is expressed in general as $n \times m$ (in this slide n=2, m=2; in the previous slides, n=2, m=1).

n refers to the number of iterations that are unrolled

m refers to the number of accumulators that are being used

So, both the case presented in this slide and the one discussed in the previous slide unroll 2 iterations (in other words: the iteration counter is increased by 2!). However, this case uses 2 accumulators, and so it is 2×2 , while the previous one uses only one and then it is 2×1.





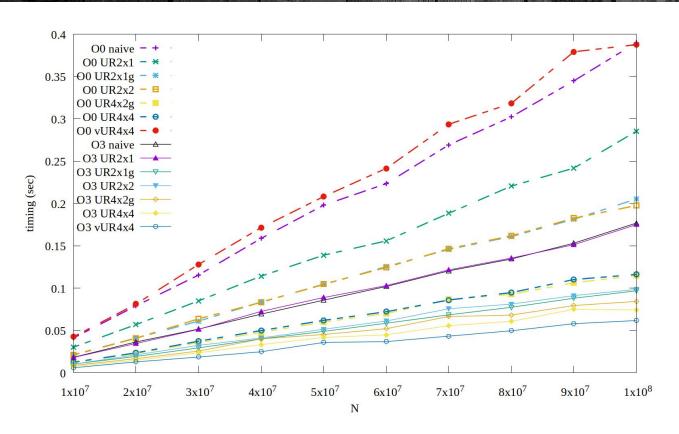
```
for ( int i=0; i<N-2; i+=2 ) {
    s0 = s0 \text{ op A[i]};
    s1 = s1 \text{ op } A[i+1]; }
.L49:
                        ymm4, YMMWORD PTR [rax]
        vmovupd
       vmovupd
                       vmm3. YMMWORD PTR 32[rax1
        vmovapd
                        xmm2, xmm4
        vaddsd
                       xmm1, xmm1, xmm4
                       xmm2, xmm2, xmm2
       vunpckhpd
        vaddsd
                       xmm0, xmm0, xmm2
        vextractf128
                       xmm4, ymm4, 0x1
       vaddsd
                       xmm1, xmm1, xmm4
       vunpckhpd
                       xmm4, xmm4, xmm4
        vaddsd
                       xmm0, xmm0, xmm4
       vmovapd
                       xmm6, xmm3
        vaddsd
                       xmm5, xmm1, xmm3
       vunnckhod
                       xmm6, xmm6, xmm6
       vaddsd
                       xmm0, xmm0, xmm6
       vextractf128
                       xmm3, ymm3, 0x1
       vaddsd
                       xmm1, xmm5, xmm3
       add
                       rax. 64
       vunpckhpd
                       xmm3, xmm3, xmm3
        vaddsd
                       xmm0, xmm0, xmm3
       CMP
                       rax, rcx
       ine
                L49
```

As before (2x1g) the compiler feels free to load 8 doubles per iteration, and then reshuffling them appropriately in order to respect the semantics of our coding, it sums them up using xmm0 and xmm1 as separate accumulators.



Reduction: results (timing)





Run time of different implementation with and without compiler's optimization

UR NxM: unrolled *N* times using *M* accumulators.

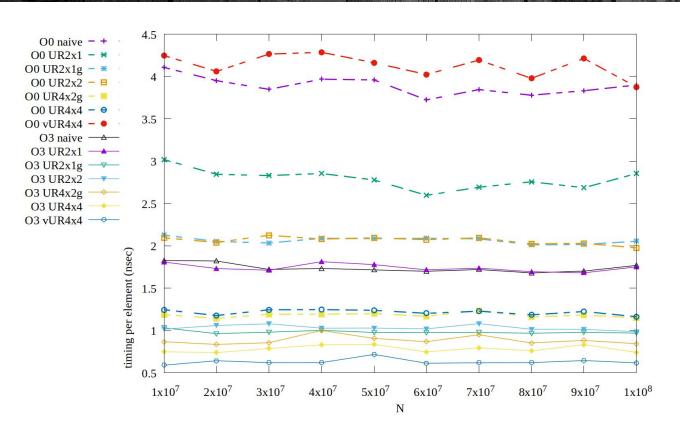
vUR4x4: UR4x4 with explicit vectorization.

In this plot and in the following ones dashed lines are for -00 and solid line for -03 -march=native (only gcc has been used)



Reduction: results (timing-per-element)





Run time of different implementation with and without compiler's optimization

UR NxM: unrolled *N* times using *M* accumulators.

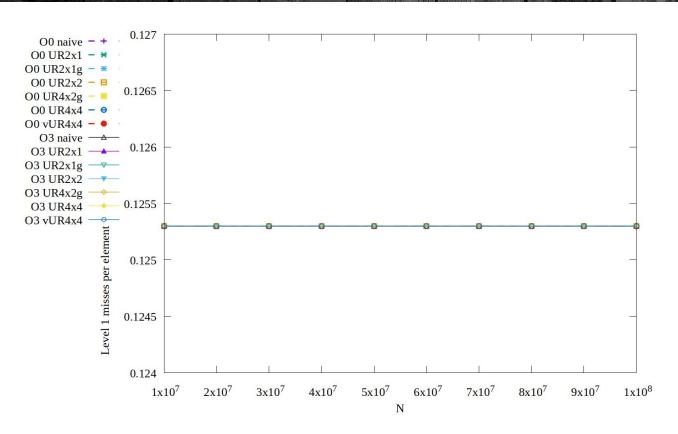
vUR4x4: UR4x4 with explicit vectorization.

In this plot and in the following ones dashed lines are for -00 and solid line for -03 -march=native (only gcc has been used)



Reduction: results





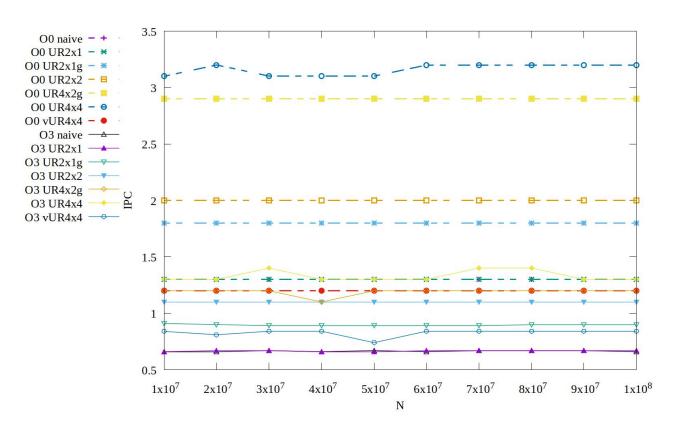
Level 1 Data cache misses

of course, we get the expected 1/8 since we are processing the array continously.



Reduction: results



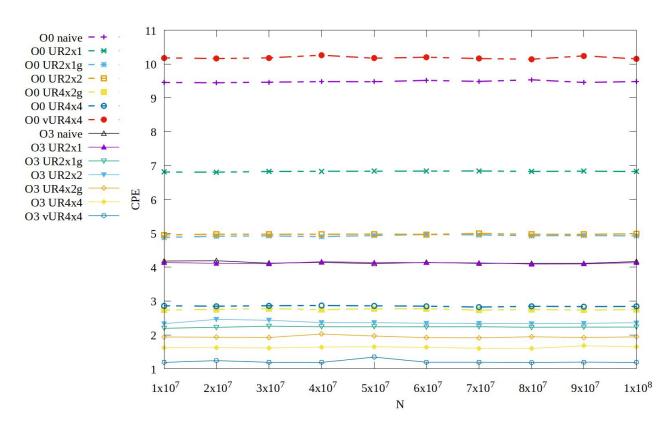


Instructions per cycle



Reduction: results





Cycles per element



These algorithms (ex: matrix-matrix multiplication or dense matrix diagonalization) are very good candidates for optimizations that lead flop/s performance very close to the theoretical peak (in fact, MMM is at the core of linpack).

Tailing, unroll&jam + vectorization of operations, reorganization of ops to exploit CPU's pipelines and out-of-order capability, are all used by extremely specialized libraries.

→ It is a brilliant idea to link those library instead of developing your own algorithm, unless some very special needs must be met.



$O(N^3)/O(N^2)$ example

matrix-matrix multiplication is a very common task in HPC.

Although there are highly optimized library that performs the job, it is a very classical and useful case study to understand the loop tiling and the cacheoblivious algorithms.

Let's start from the definition of the problem.

Given 2 matrices, A and B, having respectively (m, n) and (n, p) rows and columns respectively, their product is defined as the matrix C(m, p)

$$C_{i,j} = \sum_{k=0}^{n} A_{i,k} \times B_{k,j}$$



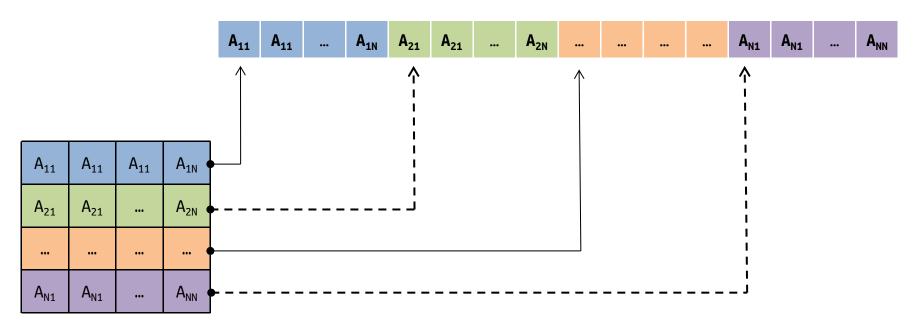
$$C_{i,j} = \sum_{k=0}^{n} A_{i,k} \times B_{k,j}$$

A possible obvious straightforward implementation of this algorithm is as follows:

```
for ( int i = 0; i < m; i++ )
                            // traverse the A's (and C's) rows
   for ( int k = 0; k < p; k++ ) // traverse the B's rows ( Ac = Br )
     for ( int j = 0; j < n; j++ )
        C[i][k] += A[i][i] * B[i][k];
```

Note: how a matrix is stored in memory

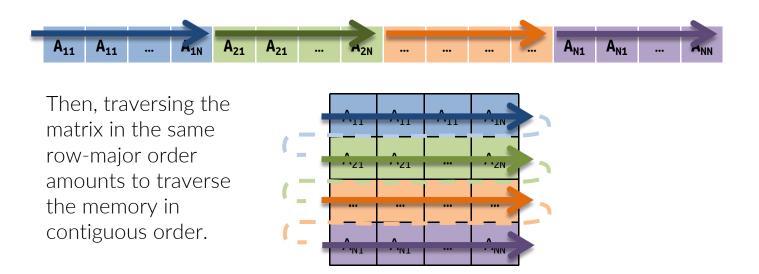
Remember the obvious fact that your memory is a continuous 1-dimensional stream of bytes.



This convention is the C/C++ convention, which is labelled as row-major order. Note that the Fortran convention is opposite, with columns being contigous in memory (column-major).

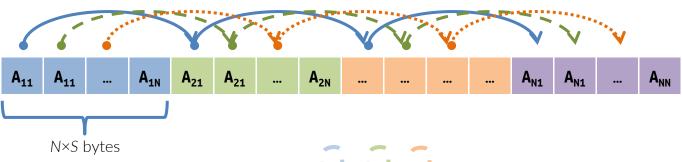


Note: how a matrix is stored in memory

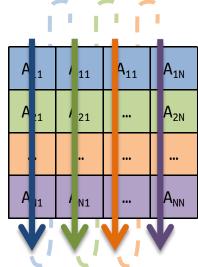




Note: how a matrix is stored in memory

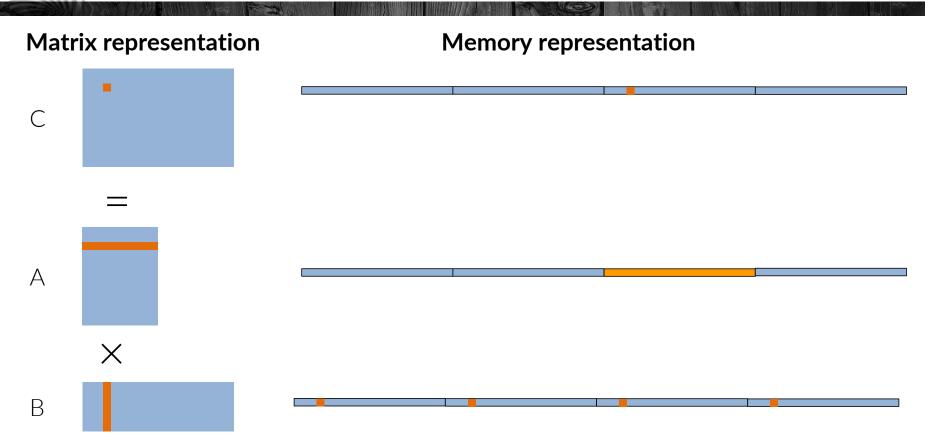


Whereas, traversing the matrix in the opposite column-major order amounts to jump in memory by *N* positions, i.e. *N*×*S* bytes is *S* is the size of each element.

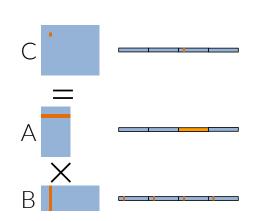












The naïve implementation has an obvious issue with data locality for large enough matrixes.

For each C's element, possibly all accesses to B result in a cache miss. Then, we may have mnp/\mathbf{L} cache misses (if \mathbf{L} is the line capacity of the cache in terms of the data type used) only to traverse B. The total number of expected misses is:

C is traversed once A is scanned entirely p times B is accessed sparsely p times

In fact, the naïve implementation is never used for any large matrix multiplication: since 2mnp flop are required, it amounts to have nearly a cache miss per each flop.

How can we fix this problem?

Transposing the matrix B before entering the loop should alleviate the problem; although the transposition requires some additional work, for large enough matrices there is still a performance gain.



A different strategy may consist in swapping the two inner loops:

```
for ( int i = 0; i < m; i++ )
  for ( int k = 0; k < p; k++ )
    for ( int j = 0; j < n; j++ )
        C[i][k] += A[i][j] * B[j][k];</pre>
```

```
for ( int i = 0; i < m; i++ )
  for ( int j = 0; j < n; j++ )
    for ( int k = 0; k < p; k++ )
        C[i][k] += A[i][j] * B[j][k];</pre>
```

```
SCO/examples_on_pipelines/matrix_multiplication
```

```
// traverse the A's (and C's) rows
// traverse the B's rows ( Ac = Br )
```

Now we are still having lots of cache misses due to the fact that we are re-loading C[i][k] many times (Ac times).

Now we expect to have

```
mnp/L + running over C
mnp/L + running over A
mnp/L running over B
```

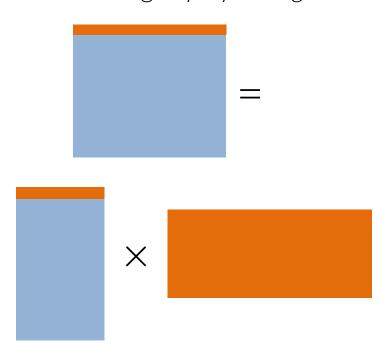
cache misses. Then, with respect to the previous nesting scheme we expect to have

~ mnp

less cache misses.



We can do even better by optimizing both the memory accesses and the data contiguity by tailing the loops:



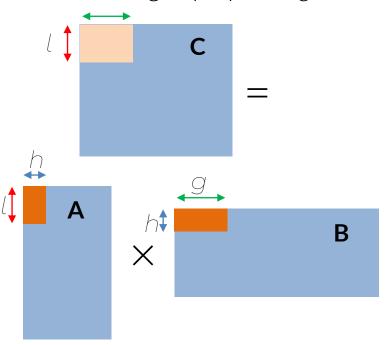
To compute a single line in C we need to access the corresponding line in A p times. In the hypothesis that A,B and C can not fit in memory, each time the cache will have been flushed and the A's line will not be there anymore.

This amounts to have n/L compulsory misses per each column if B, i.e. np/L cache misses for each C's line, as we have already calculated.

The same holds for the B's columns and so on...



We can do even better by optimizing both the memory accesses and the data contiguity by tailing the loops:

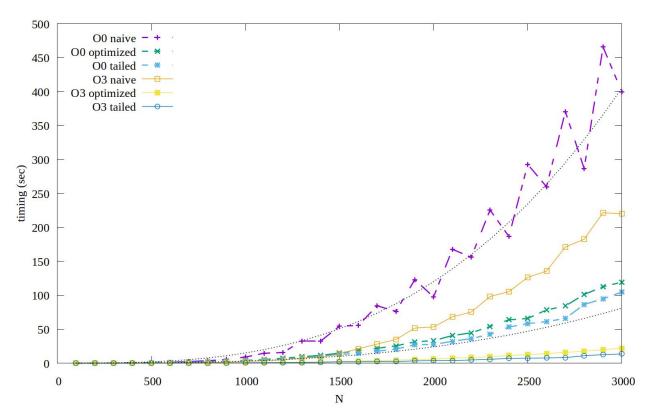


If, instead, we keep in the cache a segment of the A's line, re-using it against the columns of B – or, better, against a columns section tall as the line segment is large (blue arrows in the figure) - we could greatly reduce the amount of cache misses per C's element.

Traversing A and B by blocks as in the figure allows to accumulate partial results in the corresponding C's area while decreasing the number of cache misses by a factor $L/(l \times h \times q)$

where L is the cache capacity and are the block factors. With standard value, this figure becomes of the order of 0.001.





Run time of different implementation with and without compiler's optimization

the results are for the case of 2 square matrix of dimension N

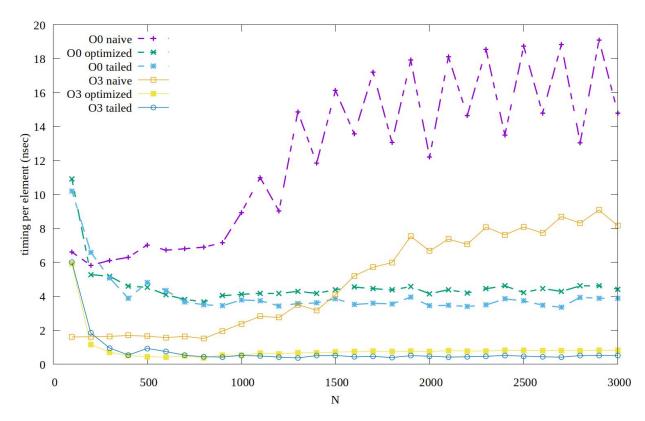
Naïve: the schoolbook's implementation

Optimized: inner loops swapped

Tailed: M-M by blocks

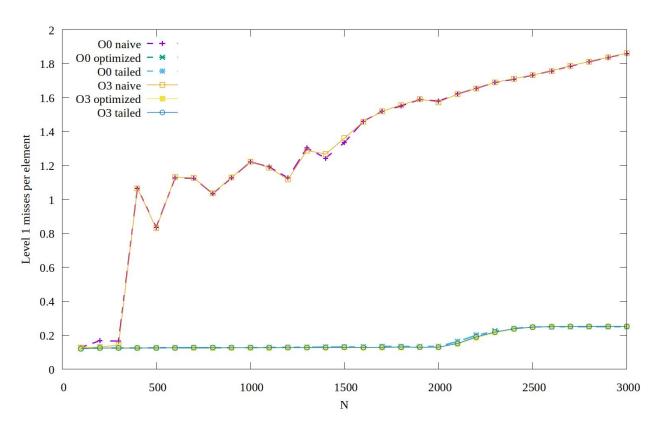
In this plot and in the following ones dashed lines are for -00 and solid line for -03 -march=native (only gcc has been used)





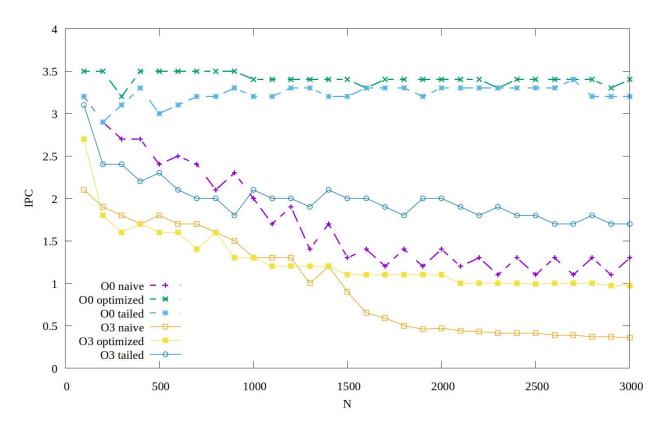
Time per element accessed (N3)





Level 1 Data cache misses per element

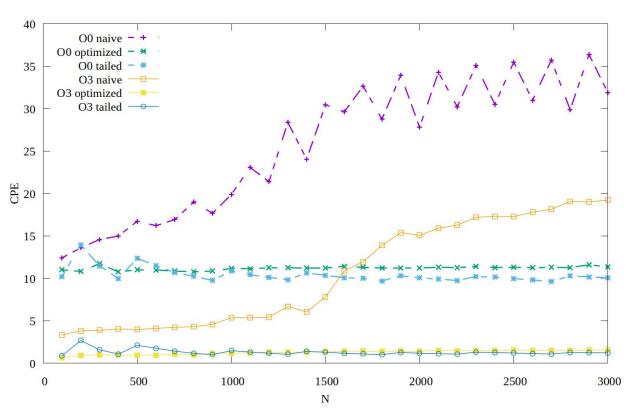




Instructions per cycle

(the larger the better)





Cycles per element

(the smaller the better)





Outline







Prefetching



At the right moment, at the right place



We know that waiting for data and instructions is a major performance killer.

Modern CPUs have the capability of pre-emptively bring from memory into cache levels data that **will be needed shortly afterwards**.

They can do that following some speculative algorithm based on the current execution flow and assuming spatial locality and temporal locality.

Both data and instructions can be pre-fetched.

Pre-fetching may be both hardware-based and software-based (tipically the compiler insert pre-fetching instructions at compile-time).



At the right moment, at the right place



From the point of view of the programmer, there are 2 possi ways to deal with prefetching:

EXPLICIT

you explicitly insert a pre-fetching directive. Very difficult to be achieved effectively: the directive must be

inserted timely but not too early (data eviction) or too late (load latency).

INDUCED

you consciously arrange data layout and execution flow so that to make it obvious to the compiler what to prefetch.





This is a standard binary search implementation.

```
Find the median element • mid = (low + high) / 2;
Define the next search
```

```
int mybsearch(int *data, int N, int Ke
   int register low = 0;
   int register high = N;
   int register mid;
   while(low <= high) {</pre>
     if(data[mid] < Key)</pre>
       low = mid + 1;
     else if(data[mid] > Key)
       high = mid-1;
     else
       return mid;
   return -1;
```





We can make it better by simply making sure that the element to be compared for (the mid) is in the cache when requested

```
int mybsearch(int *data, int N, int Ke
   int register low = 0;
   int register high = N;
   int register mid;
   while(low <= high) {</pre>
     mid = (low + high) / 2;
     if(data[mid] < Key)</pre>
       low = mid + 1;
     else if(data[mid] > Key)
       high = mid-1;
     else
       return mid;
   return -1;
```





We can make it better by simply making sure that the element to be compared for (the mid) is in the cache when requested

```
int register low = 0;
int register high = N;
int register mid;
while(low <= high) {</pre>
  mid = (low + high) / 2;
   builtin prefetch (\&data[(mid + 1 + high)/2], 0, 3);
   builtin prefetch (&data[(low + mid - 1)/2], 0, 3);
  if(data[mid] < Key)</pre>
    low = mid + 1;
  else if(data[mid] > Key)
    high = mid-1;
  else
    return mid:
    return -1; }
```

int mybsearch(int *data, int N, int Key)



Prefetching | Explicit prefetching



```
luca@GGG:~/code/HPC LECTURES/prefetching% ./prefetching off
performing 13421772 lookups on 134217728 data...
set-up data.. set-up lookups..
start cycle.. time elapse(: 20.7534)
luca@GGG:~/code/HPC_LECTURES/prefecching% ./prefetching on
performing 13421772 lookups on 134217728 data with prefetching enabled...
set-up data.. set-up lookups...
start cycle.. time elapsed: 12.6204
```



```
Advanced
```

11720387

```
Samples: 71K of event 'cpu/mem-loads,ldlat=30/P', Event count (approx.)
Overhead
               Samples
                       Memory access
                       Local RAM hit
                 42196
                 17022 LFB hit
                       L3 hit
   4,11%
                 10967
   0,63%
                  1714
                       L1 hit
                       L2 hit
   0,02%
                    75
   0,01%
                    15
                       L3 miss
                        Uncached hit
   0,00%
```

		cpu/mem-loads,ldlat=30/P Memory access	', Event count	(approx.):
	29450			
	28208			
2,72%	909	Local RAM hit		
1,29%	2983	L3 hit		
0 20%	346	12 hit		



Prefetching | Explicit prefetching



Usage of direct prefetching directive is highly uncertain, since it is difficult to spot the exact point - both in the code and in the execution - where to place them (also because your C code is different than the generated assembly code).

Moreover, the "exact point" is very likely dependent on the system you run on, and then it is susceptible to change significantly.

It is normally much safer to re-organize your code so to have prefetching by pre-loading.



Prefetching by "moral suasion"

elem a = elements[0] for (i = 0; i < 4*N 4; i+= 4)

Let's discuss together this very simple example before putting the hands on the code you find in the git

```
SCO/examples on prefetching/
examples on prefetching 2
```

```
elem e = elem[i+4]; // non-blocking miss
elem b = elem[i+1]; // possible cache-hit
elem c = elem[i+2]; // possible cache-hit
elem d = elem[i+3]; // possible cache-hit
Elaborate(a);
Elaborate(b);
Elaborate(c);
Elaborate(d);
a = e:
```



Hands-on



You find code snippets with different flavours of prefetching-by-preloading technique on our GitHub, with some comments about compilation.

Compile and run them with different options (and possibly different compilers) and try to understand what happens on your laptop and/or on HPC facility.



that's all, have fun

