Programming and Algorithms C: Strings; Cache memory.

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Formatted input/output

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Functions to write/read data following a specific format:

```
int fprintf (FILE *stream, const char *format, ...);
int fscanf (FILE *stream, const char *format, ...);
```

Data specifiers

- i,d: integers;
- u: unsigned;
- f: floating numbers;
- e: floating numbers in exponential notation;
- x,o: hexadecimal and octal;
- s: string;
- c: character;
- If,ld, lld: long precision (for scanf).

Integer input/output

"%wd"

- w is the minimal width of number to read/print.
- With output, in case of having less digits than the specified number, then spaces are added.
- With input, in case of having more digits than the specified number, the read number is truncated.

```
int x = 67;
fprintf (stdout, "%5d\n",x);
67
```

Float output

"%w.df"

- w is the minimum width of output data;
- d is the digits to be printed after the decimal point.

```
float x = 67.25;
fprintf (stdout, "%7.3f\n",x);
67.250
```

Flags

0	Pad with zero instead of spaces.
-	Left justification (padding on the right).
+	To always print the sign.

Much more possibilities in C++.

- In general, encoded on 1 octet.
- ASCII characters: on 7 bits.
- ISO-8859 characters: on 8 bits (ISO-8859-1: characters from Western languages).
- Example: 233 corresponds to "é"
- Unicode: another standard. with representations in series of 8, 16 and 32 bits (UTF-8,UTF-16,UTF-32).
- In C, Unicode needs to use a special type of character type (wchar_t) and special I/O functions.

From file streams:

```
char* fgets (char *str, int size, FILE *stream);
```

The fgets() function reads at most one less than the number of characters specified by size from the given stream and stores them in the string str. Reading stops when a newline character is found, at end-of-file or error. The newline, if any, is retained. If any characters are read and there is no error, a character is appended to end the string.

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main() {
       char test [10];
        fgets (test, 10, stdin);
        fprintf ( stderr , "%s \n", test );
Gives:
jbhayet@Barkoxe:~$ ./a.out
Les sanglots longs des violons de l'automne
Les sangl
```

```
int sprintf (char *cadena, const char *format , ...) ;
int sscanf(char *cadena, const char *format, ...) ;
```

Same syntax as fprintf. As any function on strings, it requires string.h.

```
int strcmp(const char *s1, const char *s2);
int strncmp(const char *s1, const char *s2, size_t n);
```

Compares strings through the lexicographic order. Returns a positive value if s1 > s2, 0 if they are equal, etc.

Can be applied either on the full string or on the first n characters.

```
char *strcat(char *s1, const char *s2);
char *strncat(char *s1, const char *s2, size_t len);
```

Concatenates string s2 to string s1, and returns s1 (note the const modifier).

```
char *strcpy(char *s1, const char *s2);
char *strncpy(char *s1, const char *s2, size_t len);
```

Copy string s2 (including the terminating character) into s1.

Caution: With strncpy, when s2 is larger than s1, s1 will not have the terminating character.

If the destination string of a strcpy() is not large enough, then anything might happen. Overflowing fixed-length string buffers is a favorite cracker technique for taking complete control of the machine. Any time a program reads or copies data into a buffer, the program first needs to check that there's enough space. This may be unnecessary if you can show that overflow is impossible, but be careful: programs can get changed over time, in ways that may make the impossible possible.

```
char *strchr( const char *s, int c);
```

Localizes the character c in the string and returns a pointer to its position.

```
size_t strlen ( const char *);
```

String size (before the terminating character).

What is size t?

This is an alias for some of the unsigned integers.

The only specification in the language is that it is at least 16 bits.

It is used to represent the **size of objects**, in bytes: it is the type returned by sizeof or by strlen.

To split a large strings into tokens, according to specified delimiters:

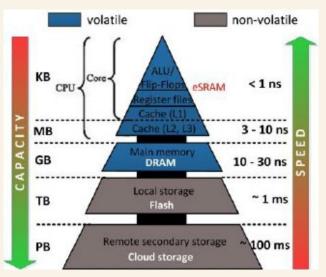
```
char *strtok(char *str, const char *delim);
```

returns a pointer to the character of next token replaces delimiters by \0 next calls with NULL

```
int main() {
       char str [] = "Les sanglots longs des violons de l'automne";
        char delimiter \Pi = "'";
       char *str ptr = strtok(str, delim);
        while(str ptr != NULL)
                printf ("%s\n", str ptr);
                ptr = strtok(NULL, delimiter);
        return 0;
```

```
jbhayet@Barkoxe:~/Dropbox/WorkCIMAT/Courses/Programacion
Les
sanglots
longs
des
violons
de
l
automne
```

Cache memory



From MTJ-based hybrid storage cells for "normally-off and instant-on" computing. $^{22/\ 40}$

Memory is organized hierarchically:

- The time latencies vary a lot!
- The most efficient memory spaces are also the smallest.
- When running a program, parts of the slowest memory spaces may be copied for efficient usage the the fastest memory spaces (example: RAM to Cache or RAM to CPU Registers).

- RAM/Hard drive/Cloud storage.
- Within "volatile" memory:
 - CPU (registers/eSRAM)
 - Cache memory, with distinct levels (L1,L2,L3).

In some applications, the program efficiency can be improved dramatically by an efficient use of the cache memory.

Do not worry: **You do not have to do it by yourself**, but you have to give a little help to the compiler!

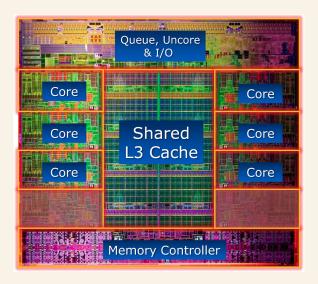
Locality

Typically, during the execution of a program, variables tend to be used **frequently** (repetition in **time**) and **together** (correlated use of **close** variables).

Temporal locality.

- Data currently read may be re-read soon.
- To make these re-readings faster in the short term future, as an optimization, one can store a read data in the faster cache memory to avoid searching again for the same data.

Spatial locality. Instructions/data close to the place in memory being used, may be needed in the near future.



Intel

- The copy from main memory to memory cache is done (to make it more efficient) through blocks of contiguous memory.
- The block is called the cache line.
- Typically the cache line is 64 bytes.

· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	
jbhayet@Barkoxe:~\$ getconf -a	grep CACHE
LEVEL1_ICACHE_SIZE	32768
LEVEL1_ICACHE_ASSOC	8
LEVEL1_ICACHE_LINESIZE	64
LEVEL1_DCACHE_SIZE	32768
LEVEL1_DCACHE_ASSOC	8
LEVEL1_DCACHE_LINESIZE	64
LEVEL2_CACHE_SIZE	262144
LEVEL2_CACHE_ASSOC	4
LEVEL2_CACHE_LINESIZE	64
LEVEL3_CACHE_SIZE	9437184
LEVEL3_CACHE_ASSOC	12
LEVEL3_CACHE_LINESIZE	64
LEVEL4_CACHE_SIZE	0
LEVEL4_CACHE_ASSOC	0
LEVEL4_CACHE_LINESIZE	0

During execution, when a variable (or instruction) needs to be accessed, the processor first tries to locate it in the cache.

Two possible outputs:

- the requested memory location is in the cache; in that case, the variable is read from the cache ("cache hit");
- the requested memory location is not in the cache; then a cache line is copied from the main memory ("cache miss").

Ideal situation: many consecutive cache hits.

The performance of the use of the cache is measured through the hit ratio indicator:

$$hits/(hits + misses)$$

The closest to one, the better (the fastest the execution); the organization of the code is very important to improve this hit ratio.

Example:

- Wen manipulating a large matrix (double pointer, static arrays, single pointer) through columns, you may be quite inefficient,
- The elements along columns are probably far away in the main memory.
- Each consecutive access may conclude in a cache miss and the copy into cache.
- When reading through rows, you take advantage of the previous cache hits to read the consecutive data directly from the cache.

```
\begin{array}{ll} \text{for (int $i=0;i< n;i++)$} \\ & \text{for (int $j=0;j< m;j++)$} \\ & \text{for (int $k=0;k< p;k++)$} \\ & P[i][j] = P[i][j] + A[i][k] * B[k][j]; \end{array}
```

Correct? Efficient? Thoughts?

- Readings of A[i][k] are mostly hits (contiguous memory).
- Readings of B[k][j] are mostly misses (separate places in memory).
- Readings of P[i][j] can be set out of the inner loop.

Now consider:

```
\begin{array}{ll} \text{for (int } i = 0; i < n; i + +) \\ & \text{for (int } k = 0; k < p; k + +) \\ & \text{for (int } j = 0; j < m; j + +) \\ & P[i][j] = P[i][j] + A[i][k] * B[k][j]; \end{array}
```

- Readings of A[i][k] can be set out of the inner loop.
- Readings of B[k][j] and P[i][j] are mostly hits (the index, in both cases, corresponds to rows, not columns, i.e. contiguous places in memory).
- May be way more efficient when the size of the matrices is large.

```
#include <time.h>
#include <stdio h>
#define n 100
#define m 5000
#define p 5000
double A[n][p], B[p][m], P[n][m];
int main() {
clock t start = clock();
for (int c=0; c<10; c++)
        for (int i=0; i < n; i++)
                for (int j=0; j < m; j++) {
                        double p v = 0.0;
                        double *a ptr = A[i];
                        for (int k=0; k < p; k++) p v += a ptr[k] * B[k][i];
                        P[i][j] = p v;
clock t end = clock();
double cpu time used = ((double) (end - start)) / CLOCKS PER SEC;
printf ("Normal multiplication: %|f\n",cpu time used);
```

```
jbhayet@Barkoxe:~/Dropbox/WorkCIMAT/Courses/Programación y .
Normal multiplication: 119.462736
Improved multiplication: 63.136964
```

Cache memory: Other examples

Given a big structure Data, which one is best? Store values? Data d array[100]; or use the heap? Data *d array[100]; for (int i=0; i<100; i++) d array[i]=(Data*)malloc(sizeof(Data));

Cache memory: Other examples

In the same context: Imagine you have an array of large structures where any of them will be discarded by a test:

Improvement?