CSC 374/407: Computer Systems II

Lecture 1
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2016 September 5

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Reading

- Bryant & O'Hallaron "Computer Systems, 3rd Ed."
 - Chapter 5.1-5.6, 5.10-5.15
- Hoover "System Programming"
 - Chapter 1

Topics

- Review: Pointers and objects
- About machine-independent optimization
- Using registers instead of RAM
- Code motion
- Common expression computation
- Reduction in strength
- Limitations
- Profiling
- "So, how do I actually program knowing this?"

But first . . let's review some C:

A little C (Output)

- Output in C with printf() ("print-formatted")
 printf("template", expr₁, ... expr_n)
- Constant formatting:
 - printf("\tI just print \"hello\".\n");
 - What do these mean? \t \" \n
- Substitution formatting:
 - int i=1;printf("%d %d %d Go!\n",3,1+1,i);
 - %d = decimal integer
 - ♦x %x = hexadecimal integer
 - * %c = single char
 - %s = C-string (i.e. pointer to char: char*)
 - ♦ \$f %g = double or floating point
 - p = An address (e.g. a pointer's value)

But printf()'s man page says:

```
int printf(const char *format, ...);
        So that means I should write:
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
int main ()
  int printf(const char* "Hello world\n");
  return(EXIT SUCCESS);
```

A little more C (Input):

- Almost always should get any input as string
 - Convert string to integer or float

```
#include <stdio.h>
#define LINE LEN 10
char line[LINE LEN];
printf("Please enter a number: ");
fgets(line, LINE_LEN, stdin);
int i = strtol(line, NULL, 10);
float f = strtod(line, NULL);
printf("i = %d, f = %g\n",i,f);
```

About strtol() and strtod()

```
strtol
(const char* text,
 char**
            endPtr,
            base)
 int
(STRing TO Long)
strtod
(const char* text,
 char**
           endPtr)
(STRing TO Double)
```

- text: pointer to text to convert
- endPtr: address of pointer to receive just beyond last char converted (or NULL if you don't care)
- base: Base (2-36) to use. Or 0, in which case it uses the same rules as C int constants.

strtol() example

```
#include<stdlib.h>
#include<stdio.h>
#define TEXT LEN 64
int main ()
{ char text[TEXT LEN];
 char* cPtr;
 while (1)
    printf("Please enter a number: ");
    fgets(text, TEXT LEN, stdin);
    int i = strtol(text,&cPtr,0); //We're using base 0
    if (cPtr == text)
      printf("Phooey!\n");
    else
      printf("dec:\t%d\n"
             "hex: \t%X\n", i, i);
  return(EXIT SUCCESS);
```

strtol() example (cont'd)

```
$ ./strtol
Please enter a number: 20 // Ordinary decimal
dec: 20
hex: 14
Please enter a number: 020 // Leading 0 => octal
dec: 16
hex: 10
Please enter a number: 0x20 // Leading 0x \Rightarrow hex
dec: 32
hex: 20
Please enter a number: twenty // No digit => ERROR!
Phooey!
Please enter a number:
```

You knew this was coming: addresses and pointers! (1)

- What is an address?
 - It is where in memory some object starts.
 - All objects in memory have unique starting addresses
 - In general you do not choose numbers, the OS/compiler/running system specify them for you.
- Getting addresses:

You knew this was coming: addresses and pointers! (2)

- Pointers are variables that store addresses
 - In general, they can store the address of (ie. "point to") which ever object they want

```
Declaring pointers: Type* typePtr
int* intPtr;
char* charPtr;
SomeType* someTypePtr;
```

You knew this was coming: addresses and pointers! (3)

Putting it together:

```
int
                     = 10;
int*
             intPtr1 = &i;
int*
              intPtr2 = intPtr1;
const char* charPtr = "string const";
             buffer[100];
char
charPtr = buffer;
charPtr = (char*)malloc(10);
free (buffer);
```

YOUR TURN!

- Consider sscanf():
- Reads values from source into addr1, addr2, using printf-like specifiers in format.
- Which one sets i=10, j=20, and n=2? a) n = int sscanf("10 20", "%d %d", *i,*j) b) n = int sscanf("10 20", "%d %d",

&i,&j)

Returns num. items read c) Neither

Dereferencing: 1

- Dereferencing means "follow the pointer to the object":
- Done with *objectPtr
- Important! Two different stars! (*)

```
// * after type declares ptr var
int i = 10;
int* intPtr = &i;

// * before ptr var dereferences
printf("i=%d\n", *intPtr);
```

Your turn!

- Write a program with two variables:
 - Integer i.
 - Pointer to i called iPtr.
- Give the program a for loop that counts from 0 to 9 using the value stored in i but that never refers to i except to initialize iPtr.

Dereferencing: 2

Use arrow (->) to access struct or class member:

```
class XYCoord
{int x; int y;
 public:
 XYCoord(int nX, int nY) {x=nX; y=nY;}
 int getX() const { return(x); }
 int getY() const { return(y); }
XYCoord* pPtr = new XYCoord(1,2);
printf("%d,%d\n",
       pPtr->getX(),pPtr->getY());
delete(pPtr);
```

Your turn!

- Write a method print () for the class on the previous slide
- Call your method using the pointer ptr
- These are equivalent:

```
// Do method() of pointed-to obj
ptr->method();

// Get pointed-to obj then do method()
(*ptr).method();
```

Arrays and pointers

- Arrays are actually addresses:
 - Address of their first item
 - Can be used:
 - to assign values to other pointers
 - to test their values against other pointers
 - Their position cannot be changed by ++, etc.
- Pointers can also be accessed like arrays:
- Can dereference with:
 - * *ptr Or ptr[0]
 - ptr->method() Or (*ptr).method() Or ptr[0].method()

Your turn!

```
// Example
int intArray[5] = \{10, 20, 30, 40, 50\};
int* intPtr = intArray;
// What will this print?
printf("%p %p\n",intArray,intPtr);
(*intPtr) *= 10;
// What will this print?
printf("%d\n", intArray[0]);
```

Const pointers

- const SomeType* ptr;
- Same promise as const references:
 - "I, the programmer, promise not to change the pointed to object"
 - You may look at the object, but you may not touch!
 - Compiler will yell at you if:
 - You break that promise:

```
const int* cIntPtr = &i;
(*cIntPtr)++; // Illegal!
```

You pass it to something that does not maintain that promise:

```
const int* cIntPtr = &i;
int* intPtr = cIntPtr; // Illegal!
```

You may, however, point at different objects:

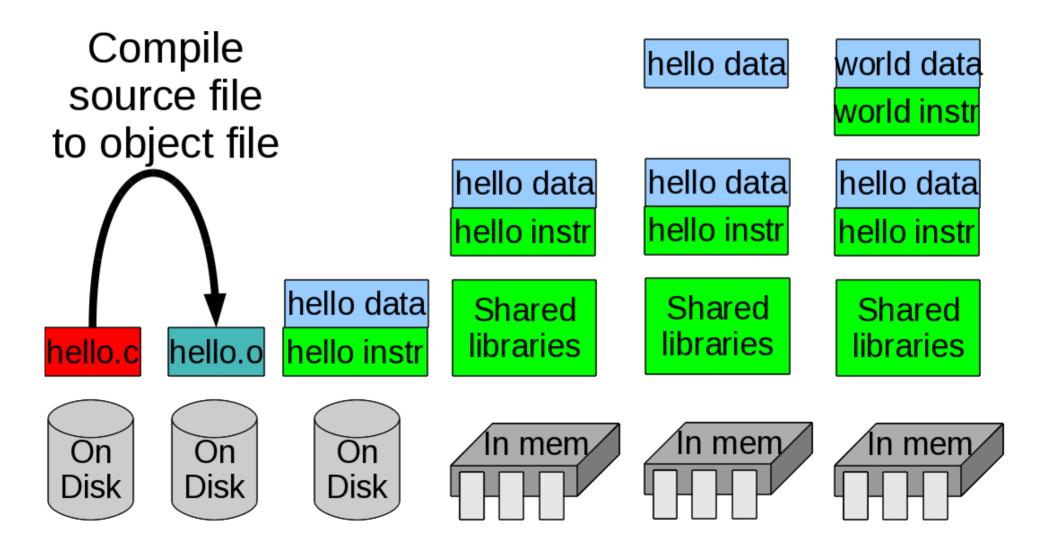
```
const int* cIntPtr = &i;
cIntPtr = &j; // Okay
```

Your turn!

Happy compiler or sad compiler? void compilerPisserOffer(const int* ciPtr) int* iPtr = ciPtr; // Happy or sad? int array $[5] = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\};$ ciPtr = array; // Happy or sad? ciPtr++; // Happy or sad? (*ciPtr)++; // Happy or sad?

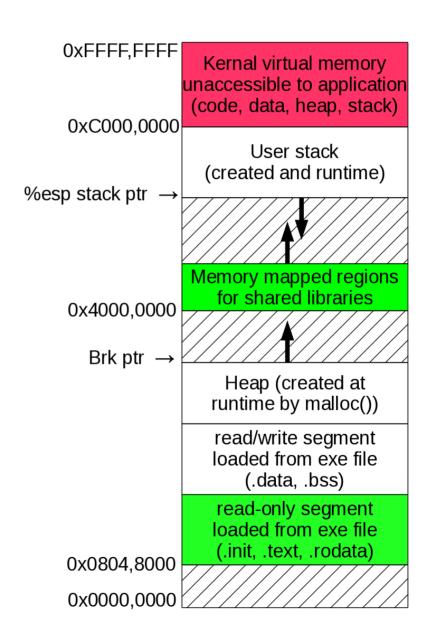
Today's topic (in time)

How to compile to create efficient programs:



Today's topic (in space)

 Efficient code for a program to run



Speed it up!

- Q: Why do we just love computers? (They don't have any common sense after all)
- A1: Because they don't get bored
- A2: Because they are accurate
- A3: Because they're fast baby!

Speed it up! (2)

- What goes into making an algorithm fast?
 - 1. Algorithm and data-structure choice
 - Don't do O(N) linear search in a linked list, Ninny!
 - Do O(lg N) binary search in a balanced tree instead
 - This is important, it's why we harass you with a basic and an advanced course in data structures and algorithms
 - 2. Implementing the algorithm and data structure
 - The compiler has to change it into assembly language
 - That's the aim of this lecture!

Speed it up! (3)

- We will study machine independent optimizations
 - Make sense to do no matter what your CPU
- Watch out! Good optimizations:
 - 1. Don't change the programmer's data-structure behind his/her back (*Why not?*)
 - 2. Don't change the programmer's algorithm behind his/her back (*Why not?*)
 - 3. Watch out for memory aliasing:

```
int i = 10;
int* iPtr = &i;
(*iPtr)++;
printf("i is still 10, right? %d\n",i);
```

4. Don't assume too much about what other fncs do

Speed it up! (4)

- Our approach:
 - 1. Only make code equivalent to what the programmer wrote (even "optimizing" their bugs)
 - When the compiler spots something that looks like a bug what should it do?
 - 2. Optimize functions individually
 - 3. Don't make any assumptions about inputs
- Four main tools:
 - 1. Store in registers, not RAM.
 - **2.** Code motion: move code so it isn't being done so many times (e.g. loops)
 - 3. Compute *common expressions* once
 - 4. Reduction in strength: Use a cheaper operator.

Using Registers

```
int counter (int limit)
{ int sum = 0;
  int i;
  for (i = 0; i <= limit; i++)
    sum += i;
  return(sum);
}</pre>
```

```
g++ -O<u>0</u>
```

Without optimization most variables are kept in RAM (e.g. the stack)

```
0:
    push %rbp
    mov %rsp,%rbp
 4:
         %edi,-0x14(%rbp)
                           edi=limit
    mov
    mov1 $0x0,-0x4(%rbp)
                           sum = 0
 e: movl $0x0,-0x8(%rbp) i
                               = 0
15:
    jmp
         21 <counter+0x21>
         -0x8(%rbp),%eax
                           sum += i
17:
    mov
1a:
    add %eax,-0x4(%rbp)
                           (ditto)
1d:
    addl $0x1,-0x8(%rbp)
                           i++
         -0x8(%rbp),%eax
21:
    mov
24:
         -0x14(%rbp), %eax
    cmp
         17 <counter+0x17> i<=limit
27:
    jle
29:
    mov
         -0x4(%rbp),%eax
2c:
         %rbp
    pop
2d:
    reta
```

Using Registers (2)

```
int counter (int limit)
{ int sum = 0;
  int i;
  for (i = 0; i <= limit; i++)
    sum += i;
  return(sum);
}</pre>
```

With optimization some variables are kept in registers

```
g++ -O<u>2</u>
```

```
0: test
          %edi,%edi
          1b <counter+0x1b> limit == 0?
2: js
 4: add
          $0x1, %edi
 7: xor
          %edx,%edx
                                 = 0
 9:xor
          %eax,%eax
                             sum = 0
b: nopl
          0x0(%rax,%rax,1)
10: add
          %edx, %eax
                             sum += i
12: add
          $0x1, %edx
                             i++
          %edi,%edx
15: cmp
17: jne
          10 < counter + 0x10 >
19: repz retq
1b: xor
          %eax, %eax
1d: retq
```

Code motion

- Move code so not doing redundant calculations
 - Might introduce temporary variables to hold results

```
for (i = 0; i < n; i++)
 for (j = 0; j < n; j++)
   a[i*n + j] = b[j]
for (i = 0; i < n; i++)
 int in = i*n;
  for (j = 0; j < n; j++)
   a[in + j] = b[j]
```

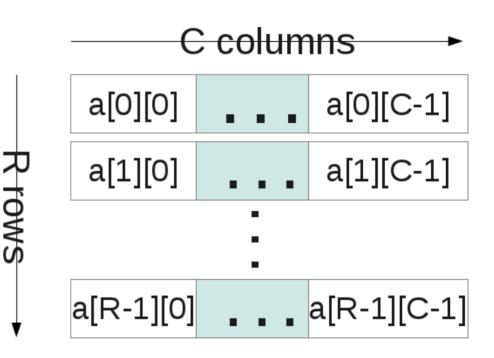
Your turn!

Please optimize using code motion:

```
for (i = 0; i < n; i++)
  for (j = 0; j < n; j++)
    for (k = 0; k < j; k++)
        a[i*n + i*j - k] = b[k*7];</pre>
```

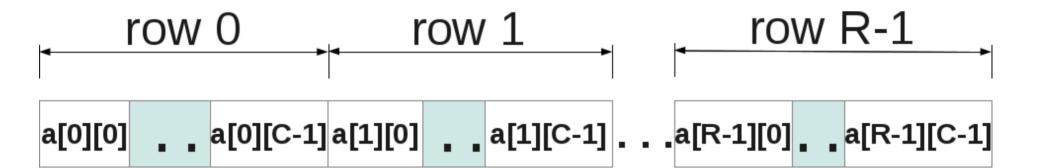
Compute common expressions once

- Our example will use2-D arrays
- So let's see how 2-D arrays are laid out in memory



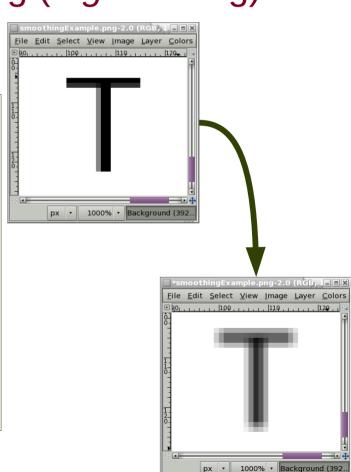
Compute common expressions once

- 2-D arrays are actually laid out in memory as very long 1-D arrays
- &array2D[i][j] == &array1D[i*NumCols + j]



Compute common expressions once

- Now, consider the following:
 - Actually done in image processing (e.g. blurring)



Compute common expressions once, cont'd

- Don't compute what's common more than once:
 - They all share i*n+j in various guises:

```
inPj = i*n+j;
above = array[inPj - n];
below = array[inPj + n];
left = array[inPj - 1];
right = array[inPj + 1];
```

Your turn!

Optimize:

```
above = array[(n*n)*(i+1)+j*n +k];
below = array[(n*n)*(i-1)+j*n +k];
left = array[i*n*n
                    +n*(j-1)+k];
right = array[i*n*n +n*(j+1)+k];
front = array[i*n*n +j*n +k-1];
back = array[i*n*n + j*n +k+1];
aver = (above+below+
       right+front+
       back+left)/6;
```

Reduction in strength

- Change from expensive operation to cheaper
- What's expensive?
 - Depends on CPU
- Generally:

Cheap

Expensive

Bitwise Int add/ Int mult Int div Float add/ Float mult Float div operations subtract subtract

Reduction in strength

- It makes sense to do:
 - << instead of multiplying by powers of 2</p>
 - >> instead of dividing by powers of 2
 - Additions instead of multiplications
- "i*10" can be done as:

Rather do 2 shifts and addition than 1 multiply

Reduction in strength, ex

```
unsigned int num=strtol("12",0,0);
// callq 21 <unsignedInt+0x21>
// mov %eax, -0x4(%rbp)
unsigned int numDiv4 = num / 4;
  mov = -0x4(%rbp), %eax
// shr $0x2, %eax
// mov %eax, -0x8(%rbp)
unsigned int numMul4 = num * 4;
          -0x4(%rbp), %eax
   mov
// shl
         $0x2, %eax
   mov %eax, -0xc(%rbp)
```

Reduction in strength, ex 2

Trickier dance if dealing with signed numbers:

```
int num = strtol("1234", 0, 0);
// callq 59 <signedInt+0x21>
// mov %eax, -0x4(%rbp)
int numDiv4 = num / 4;
//
    mov = -0x4(%rbp), %eax
// lea 0x3(%rax),%edx
// test
           %eax, %eax
// cmovs %edx, %eax
// sar
           $0x2, %eax
           %eax, -0x8 (%rbp)
    mov
```

Your turn!

Compute the following without using imult or idiv:

- i*3
- → i*12
- → i*20
- i*31

Is it practical to compute i*j without imult?

Code motion + reduction in strength

- It makes sense to do:
 - Repeated adding to a temp var instead of repeated multiplying the same num by 0, 1, 2, 3, etc.
 - Repeated subtracting from temp var instead of repeated multiplying the same num by 9, 8, 7, etc.
 - Uses temporary variable to accumulate sum
 - Also, can use pointers to march thru arrays

Code motion + reduction in strength, cont'd

- CM: Move code out of inner loop(s)
- RiS: Change repeated multiplies to repeated adds

```
for (i = 0; i < n; i++)
  for (j = 0; j < n; j++)
  a[i*n + j] = b[j]</pre>
```

```
int in = 0;
for (i = 0; i < n; i++)
{
  for (j = 0; j < n; j++)
    a[in + j] = b[j]
  in += n;
}</pre>
```

Your turn!

- Remember me?
 - Optimize me again, getting rid of as many expen\$ive multiplies as you can . . .

```
for (i = 0; i < n; i++)
  for (j = 0; j < n; j++)
    for (k = 0; k < j; k++)
        a[i*n + i*j - k] = b[k*7];</pre>
```

A real world example:

```
#include <stdlib.h>
int main ()
   int i;
   int j;
   int n = 100;
   int* a = (int*)
           calloc(n*n,sizeof(int));
   int* b = (int*)
           calloc( n,sizeof(int));
```

```
for (i = 0; i < n; i++)
   for (j = 0; j < n; j++)
     a[n*i + i] = b[i];
free(b);
free(a);
return(0);
```

Optimize 00 (none)

```
3f: movl $0x0,-0x4(%rbp)
                         i = 0
46: jmp 98 <main+0x98>
48: movl $0x0, -0x8(%rbp) j = 0
4f: jmp 8c <main+0x8c>
51: mov -0xc(%rbp), %eax
                         eax = n
54: imul
         -0x4(%rbp), %eax eax = n*i
58: mov %eax, %edx
                       edx = n*i
5a: mov -0x8(%rbp), %eax
                        eax = i
5d: add
         %edx,%eax
                         eax = n*i + j
5f: cltq
61: lea
          0x0(, %rax, 4), &rdx rdx = 4*(n*i+j)
69: mov
          -0x18(%rbp), %rax rax = &a[0]
6d: add %rax, %rdx   rdx = &a[n*i+j]
70: mov
          -0x8(%rbp), %eax eax = j
73: cltq
75: lea
          0x0(, %rax, 4), %rcx rcx = j*4
7d: mov
          -0x20(%rbp), %rax rax = &b[0]
81: add
          rax = &b[j]
84: mov (%rax), %eax eax = b[j]
86: mov eax, (rdx) a[n*i+j] = b[j]
88: addl
         0x1,-0x8(%rbp)
                        1++
```

Optimize 01 (First level)

```
$0x64, %edx
 0: mov
 5: jmp
            11 < main + 0 \times 11 >
 7: sub
            $0x1, %eax
 a: jne
            7 < main + 0 \times 7 >
 c: sub
            $0x1, %edx
 f: je
            18 < main + 0x18 >
11: mov
            $0x64, %eax
16: jmp
            7 < main + 0 \times 7 >
18: mov
            $0x0, %eax
1d: retq
```

Limitations

- Harder for compiler to optimize across function calls
 - Even though you would want to!
- Example:
 - Is this efficient?

```
void stupidUppercase (char* string)
{
  int i;
  for (i = 0; i < strlen(string); i++)
    string[i] = toupper(string[i]);
}</pre>
```

Limitations, cont'd

- Analysis
 - 1. Let **N** be the actual length of **string**.
 - 2. The loop goes from $0 \dots (N-1)$, so N-1 times.
 - 3. During each time, **strlen(string)** is called.
 - 4. **strlen(string)** also has to go over the **N** characters of **string**.
 - 5. Each **strlen**(**string**) costs at least **N** operations, there are **N** calls to **strlen**(**string**), therefore there are at least **N*N** operations (we call it O(**N**²))

Limitations, cont'd

- Enough silliness! Optimize that sucker!
 - Simple enough . . .

```
void smartUppercase (char* string)
{
  int i;
  int length = strlen(string);
  for (i = 0; i < length; i++)
    string[i] = toupper(string[i]);
}</pre>
```

Not so fast, bucko!

- You (as the compiler) have committed a mortal sin . . .
- You have changed the algorithm!
 - Old: $O(N^2)$, New: O(N)
 - Why is this so bad?
- So, if the compiler can not be relied upon to do this type of optimization whose responsibility is it?

Limitations, example

 Consider an abstract data-type called vector with the following interface:

```
class Vector
  int length;
  int* dataPtr;
public:
  Vector (int len)
       { length=len; dataPtr = new int[len]; }
  int getLength () { return(length); }
  int* getDataPtr() { return(dataPtr); }
  int getElement (int i, int* dest)
       { if (i<0||i>=length) return(0);
         *dest = dataPtr[i];
         return(1);
```

Limitations, example:

- Say we want to sum all elements in vector
 - Original code:

```
int sum (Vector* vPtr)
  int eleVal;
  int s = 0;
  for (int i = 0; i < vPtr->getLength(); i++)
   vPtr->getElement(i, &eleVal);
    s += eleVal;
  return s;
```

Limitations, example, cont'd:

- Well, don't call getLength() all those times:
 - Code motion:

```
int sum (Vector* vPtr)
  int eleVal;
  int s = 0;
  int length = vPtr->getLength();
  for (int i = 0; i < length; i++)
   vPtr->getElement(i, &eleVal);
    s += eleVal;
  return s;
```

Limitations, example, cont'd:

- Don't call getElement () all those times:
 - Reduction in strength:

```
int sum (Vector* vPtr)
  int eleVal;
  int s = 0;
  int length = vPtr->getLength();
  int* iPtr = vPtr->getDataPtr();
  for (int i = 0; i < length; i++)
    eleVal = *(iPtr+i);
    s += eleVal;
  return s;
```

Limitations, example, cont'd:

Eliminate obvious inefficiency:

```
int sum (Vector* vPtr)
{
  int s = 0;
  int length = vPtr->getLength();
  int* iPtr = vPtr->getDataPtr();
  for (int i = 0; i < length; i++)
    s += *(iPtr+i);
  return s;
}</pre>
```

There you have it: optimized!

- But at what cost!
 - Look at this! Is this good software engineering?
 - Is it good object-oriented design?
 - What is fundamentally a better solution?

```
int sum (Vector* vPtr)

{
  int s = 0;
  int length = vPtr->getLength();
  int* iPtr = vPtr->getDataPtr();
  for (int i = 0; i < length; i++)
    s += *(iPtr+i);
  return s;
}</pre>
```

Another problem: aliasing!

- Two different expressions refer to same memory:
- Example 1:

```
int i = 10;
int* iPtr = &i;
(*iPtr)++; i-;
```

Example 2:

```
vPtr->getElement(2,&eleVal1);
eleVal2 = *(vPtr->getDataPtr() + 2);
```

You control the optimizing:

For gnu compilers for Linux (gcc and g++):

- -oo (No optimization)
 - Best for debugging because there's a better correlation between assembly language code and source code
 - · This is the default
- -01 (Optimize)
 - Takes more compiler time
- -o2 (Optimize even more)
 - Takes even more compiler time but does almost all that do not involve a space-speed tradeoff
- -o3 (Optimize even more!)
 - Takes even more
- -Os (Optimize for size)

Profiling

- Just how fast is it?
 - Link with -pg flag: inserts code that times fncs
 - Running program creates file gmon.out w/timing info
 - Unix tool gprof program> uses gmon.out to
 display timing info for fncs in program>.
 - Remember to scroll up to the beginning of the output.
 - Example: testGprof is a bubblesort of 10,000 ints:
 - Two nested loops (therefore $O(N^2)$)
 - Inner loop exchanges pairs (O(1) time)
 - Outer loop does inner loop while at least one pair exchanged

Profiling, cont'd

```
[jphill13@cdmlinux Lecture01]$ gcc bubbleSort.c -o bubbleSort -pg
[jphill13@cdmlinux Lecture01]$ ./bubbleSort
[jphill13@cdmlinux Lecture01]$ gprof bubbleSort
Flat profile:
```

Each sample counts as 0.01 seconds.

% C	umulative	self		self	total	
time	seconds	seconds	calls	s/call	s/call	name
78.57	14.50	14.50	1	14.50	18.35	bubbleSort
20.87	18.35	3.85	623881099	0.00	0.00	exchange
1.48	18.62	0.27				frame_dummy

% the percentage of the total running time of the time program used by this function.

cumulative a running sum of the number of seconds accounted seconds for by this function and those listed above it.

self the number of seconds accounted for by this seconds function alone. This is the major sort for this listing.

"So, how do I actually program knowing all this?"

- 1. It's up to *you* to optimize across *function calls*
- 2. Compilers have limited ability to detect common expressions, do that yourself too
- 3. Compilers are reasonably good at reduction in strength, therefore write for clarity to other programmers!
- 4. Use local vars and accumulate within loops to tell compiler not to worry about aliasing
- 5. When in doubt look at the assembly ("*Eeww!*") or *profile* to see *who* the big time hogs are

I don't have time, but also check out:

gdb: The GNU debugger

Next time: Linking!

Link hello data world data object file world instr to executable hello data hello data hello data hello instr hello instr hello instr hello data Shared Shared Shared libraries libraries libraries hello.o hello.c hello instr 1n mem 1n mem În mem On On On Disk Disk Disk