Session 1: HPC and the Julia framework

OBJECTIVE: Confirm Julia framework and Base speed

KR1: Use @code_* to examine a simple function. The * is replaceable by native, typed, warntype, and others. Discover them.

First, I want to look at the docs of each macro function:

```
In [1]:
         ?code native
        search: code native @code native
```

Out[1]: code_native([io=stdout,], f, types; syntax=:att, debuginfo=:default) Prints the native assembly instructions generated for running the method matching the given generic function and type signature to io . Switch assembly syntax using syntax symbol parameter set to :att for AT&T syntax or :intel for Intel syntax. Keyword argument debuginfo may be one of source (default) or none, to specify the verbosity of code comments.

```
In [2]:
         @code native 10 / 2
                .section
                                   TEXT, text, regular, pure instructions
         _{\Gamma} @ int.jl:93 within ^{\prime}/'
          | r @ float.jl:206 within `float'
          | c float.jl:191 within `AbstractFloat'
          | | | r @ float.jl:94 within `Float64'
                              %rdi, %xmm0, %xmm0
                vcvtsi2sd
                vcvtsi2sd
                                %rsi, %xmm1, %xmm1
         @ int.jl:93 within `/' @ float.jl:335
                vdivsd %xmm1, %xmm0, %xmm0
        ; | @ int.jl:93 within \''
               retq
         ; | @ int.jl:93 within `<invalid>'
                nop
        ; L
In [3]:
         ?code typed
```

search: code typed @code typed code warntype @code warntype

) => Float64

Out[3]: code_typed(f, types; optimize=true, debuginfo=:default) Returns an array of type-inferred lowered form (IR) for the methods matching the given generic function and type signature. The keyword argument optimize controls whether additional optimizations, such as inlining, are also applied. The keyword debuginfo controls the amount of code metadata present in the output, possible options are :source or :none.

```
In [4]:
        @code typed 10 / 2
Out[4]: CodeInfo(
        1 - %1 = Base.sitofp(Float64, x)::Float64
          %2 = Base.sitofp(Float64, y)::Float64
          %3 = Base.div float(%1, %2)::Float64
                return %3
```

search: code_warntype @code_warntype

Out[5]: code_warntype([io::I0], f, types; debuginfo=:default)

Prints lowered and type-inferred ASTs for the methods matching the given generic function and type signature to io which defaults to stdout. The ASTs are annotated in such a way as to cause "non-leaf" types to be emphasized (if color is available, displayed in red). This serves as a warning of potential type instability. Not all non-leaf types are particularly problematic for performance, so the results need to be used judiciously. In particular, unions containing either missing or nothing are displayed in yellow, since these are often intentional.

Keyword argument debuginfo may be one of :source or :none (default), to specify the verbosity of code comments.

See @code_warntype for more information.

search: code llvm @code llvm

Prints the LLVM bitcodes generated for running the method matching the given generic function and type signature to io.

If the optimize keyword is unset, the code will be shown before LLVM optimizations. All metadata and dbg.* calls are removed from the printed bitcode. For the full IR, set the raw keyword to true. To dump the entire module that encapsulates the function (with declarations), set the dump_module keyword to true. Keyword argument debuginfo may be one of source (default) or none, to specify the verbosity of code comments.

What's interesting here is under the hood, if the inputs for division are not floats/doubles they're converted first.

Personally, among these macros @code_warntype is likely the one I'm going to use the most in the future.

KR2: Demonstrate that Julia is able to determine constants in codes.

Here we can see that the euler constant is a constant inside the function (0x4005BF0A8B145769).

If we don't have a constant, we can see that it won't reflect in <code>@code_llvm</code>

KR3: Demonstrate Julia's type-inference and multiple dispatch.

Following demo in class, to demonstrate multiple dispatch

```
In [14]:
          what (x) = "\$(x) is a \$(typeof(x))" #most general case
          what (x::String) = "$(x) is a string"
          what (x::Number) = "$(x) is a number"
          what (x::Real) = "$(x) is real number"
          what(x::Rational) = "$(x) is rational number"
          what (x::Int) = "$(x) is an integer"
          what (x::Complex) = "$(x) is complex number"
         what (generic function with 7 methods)
Out[14]:
In [15]:
          ?what
         search: what Cwchar t
Out [15]: No documentation found.
         what is a Function.
        # 7 methods for generic function "what":
         [1] what(x::String) in Main at In[14]:2
         [2] what(x::Rational) in Main at In[14]:5
         [3] what(x::Int64) in Main at In[14]:6
         [4] what(x::Real) in Main at In[14]:4
         [5] what(x::Complex) in Main at In[14]:7
         [6] what(x::Number) in Main at In[14]:3
         [7] what(x) in Main at In[14]:1
        Just to try a lot of things:
In [16]:
          for x in [\pi, 1, 1.0, "x", 'x', 1+0im,
                    [1,2], ["x", "y"], ['x', 'y'], ["x", 'y'], [Int64(1), 1.0]]
              println(what(x))
          end
         п is real number
         1 is an integer
         1.0 is real number
         x is a string
         x is a Char
         1 + 0im is complex number
         [1, 2] is a Vector{Int64}
         ["x", "y"] is a Vector{String}
```

Vectors having specific typings that can be specified is interesting having never thought about this when I was primarily using Python before.

One other thing I have to wrap my head around in Julia is the subset of types. For example π in the previous output is a real number (which it is), but when we specifically call typeof on it, it's more specific(?):

```
Irrational.
```

['x', 'y'] is a Vector{Char} Any["x", 'y'] is a Vector{Any} [1.0, 1.0] is a Vector{Float64}

```
In [17]:
            typeof(n)
          Irrational\{:\pi\}
Out[17]:
```

KR4: Show the difference, if any, between your own sum function my_sum(x::Vector) and @time . Use a for -loop for your *customized* sum function.

Unrelated to the KR but I realized here that $\Sigma \setminus Sigma$ is a different character here from $\Sigma \setminus Sigma$

```
In [18]:
           .....
               my_sum( x )
           Return the sum of all elements in an input vector `x`
           - Input: `x::Vector`
           - Output: `Σ::Number`
           function my sum(x::Vector)
               \Sigma = zero(eltype(x))
               for i in x
                    Σ += i
               end
               return \( \Sigma \)
           end
          my sum
Out[18]:
In [19]:
           ?my sum
          search: my_sum
Out[19]: my_sum( x )
         Return the sum of all elements in an input vector x
           Input: x::Vector

    Output: Σ::Number

In [20]:
           ?sum
          search: sum sum! summary cumsum my sum cumsum! isnumeric VersionNumber
```

The return type is Int for signed integers of less than system word size, and UInt for unsigned integers of less than system word size. For all other arguments, a common return type is found to which all arguments are promoted.

The value returned for empty itr can be specified by init. It must be the additive identity (i.e. zero) as it is unspecified whether init is used for non-empty collections.

!!! compat "Julia 1.6" Keyword argument init requires Julia 1.6 or later.

Examples

```
jldoctest
julia> sum(abs2, [2; 3; 4])
29
```

Note the important difference between sum(A) and reduce(+, A) for arrays with small integer eltype:

```
jldoctest
julia> sum(Int8[100, 28])
128

julia> reduce(+, Int8[100, 28])
-128
```

In the former case, the integers are widened to system word size and therefore the result is 128. In the latter case, no such widening happens and integer overflow results in -128.

```
sum(itr; [init])
```

Returns the sum of all elements in a collection.

The return type is Int for signed integers of less than system word size, and UInt for unsigned integers of less than system word size. For all other arguments, a common return type is found to which all arguments are promoted.

The value returned for empty itr can be specified by init. It must be the additive identity (i.e. zero) as it is unspecified whether init is used for non-empty collections.

!!! compat "Julia 1.6" Keyword argument init requires Julia 1.6 or later.

Examples

```
jldoctest
julia> sum(1:20)
210

julia> sum(1:20; init = 0.0)
210.0
```

```
sum(A::AbstractArray; dims)
```

Sum elements of an array over the given dimensions.

Examples

```
jldoctest
julia> A = [1 2; 3 4]
2×2 Matrix{Int64}:
    1    2
    3    4

julia> sum(A, dims=1)
1×2 Matrix{Int64}:
    4    6

julia> sum(A, dims=2)
2×1 Matrix{Int64}:
    3
    7
```

Sum the results of calling function f on each element of an array over the given dimensions.

Examples

```
jldoctest
julia> A = [1 2; 3 4]
2×2 Matrix{Int64}:
    1    2
    3    4

julia> sum(abs2, A, dims=1)
1×2 Matrix{Int64}:
    10    20

julia> sum(abs2, A, dims=2)
2×1 Matrix{Int64}:
    5
    25
```

Custom summation function is twice as slower as the base function

KR5: Replicate plotting the Mandelbrot. Use a separate file Mandelbrot.jl to contain the function code. Use include() function to load the file.

Just basing the code off of our textbook

```
In [23]:
          ;cat Mandelbrot.jl
             mandel(c)
         Given a complex number, computes whether after a certain number of iterations
          `f c(z) = z^2 + c converges or not.
         function mandel(c)
             z = c
             maxiter = 80
             for n in 1:maxiter
                  if abs(z) > 2
                     return n - 1
                 end
                  z = z^2 + c
             end
              return maxiter
         end
         11 11 11
             mandel grid( xrange::Tuple{Float64,Float64}, yrange::Tuple{Float64,Float64}; n=100 )
```

```
Applies the `mandel()` function over a grid with set xrange, yrange with shape `n` x `n`.
         Arguments:
             xrange (Tuple {FLoat64, Float64}): bounds of the grid along x. Defaults to (-1.0, 1.0)
             yrange (Tuple (FLoat64, Float64)): bounds of the grid along y. Defaults to (-1.0, 1.0)
             n (Int64): Dimensions of the grid (length of one side). Defaults to 100.
         function mandel grid(;
             xrange::Tuple{Float64, Float64} = (-1.0, 1.0),
             yrange::Tuple{Float64,Float64}=(-1.0, 1.0),
             n::Int64=100,
             grid = zeros(n, n)
             xval = range(xrange[1], xrange[2]; length=n)
             yval = range(yrange[1], yrange[2]; length=n)
             for i in 1:n, j in 1:n
                  grid[i, j] = mandel(xval[i] + im * yval[j])
             return grid
         end
In [24]:
          include("Mandelbrot.jl")
         mandel grid
Out[24]:
In [25]:
          ?mandel
         search: mandel mandel grid
Out[25]: mandel(c)
         Given a complex number, computes whether after a certain number of iterations f(z) = z^2 + c
         converges or not.
In [26]:
          ?mandel grid
         search: mandel grid
```

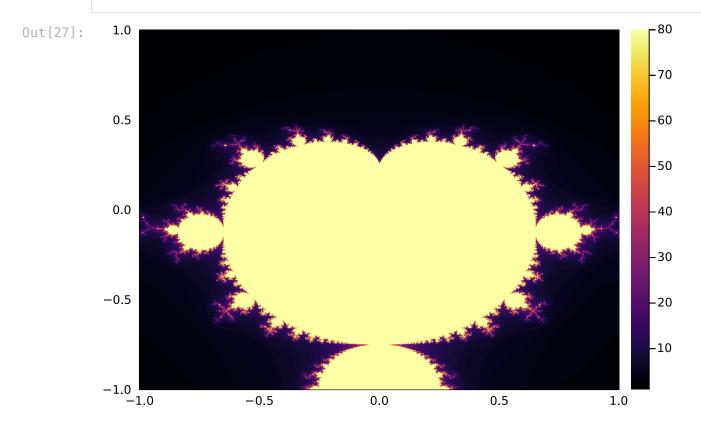
```
Out[26]: mandel_grid( xrange::Tuple{Float64,Float64}, yrange::Tuple{Float64,Float64}; n=10
```

Applies the mandel() function over a grid with set xrange, yrange with shape $n \times n$.

Arguments: xrange (Tuple{FLoat64, Float64}): bounds of the grid along x. Defaults to (-1.0, 1.0) yrange (Tuple{FLoat64, Float64}): bounds of the grid along y. Defaults to (-1.0, 1.0) n (Int64): Dimensions of the grid (length of one side). Defaults to 100.

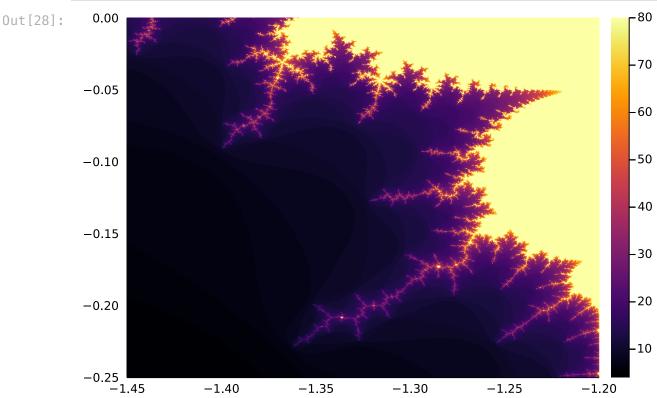
I chose to create a function to generate the arrays in the grid and return them separate from just plotting them so that when we profile / benchmark the functions plotting won't reflect in the runtime.

```
In [27]:
          using Plots
          n = 1000
          xrange = (-1.0, 1.0)
          yrange = (-1.0, 1.0)
          x = LinRange(xrange[1], yrange[2], n)
          y = LinRange(yrange[1], yrange[2], n)
          z = mandel grid(xrange=xrange, yrange=yrange, n=n)
          heatmap(x, y, z)
```



Zooming in to a specific spot:

```
In [28]:
    n = 1000
    xrange = (-1.45, -1.20)
    yrange = (-0.25, 0.0)
    x = LinRange(xrange[1], xrange[2], n)
    y = LinRange(yrange[1], yrange[2], n)
    z = mandel_grid(xrange=xrange, yrange=yrange, n=n)
    heatmap(x, y, z)
```



KR6: Plot of the time it takes for the function to run using @time macro for the given grid size n.

I used @elapsed so I can extract the time in seconds since I can assign it to a variable.

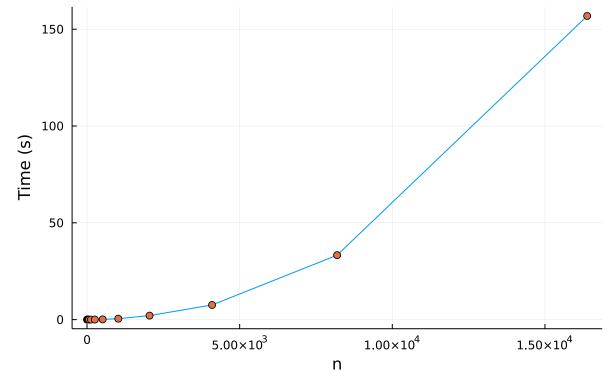
```
In [29]:
           @elapsed mandel grid()
          0.004806154
Out[29]:
In [30]:
           @time mandel grid()
            0.007881 seconds (2 allocations: 78.203 KiB)
          100×100 Matrix{Float64}:
Out[30]:
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         I run gridsizes for differen 2<sup>n</sup> values just to cover ground quicker.
In [31]:
           iter = 14
           n list = 2 .^ round.(Int64,
                                  (LinRange(1, iter, iter))
          14-element Vector{Int64}:
Out[31]:
               2
               4
               8
              16
              32
              64
             128
             256
             512
            1024
            2048
            4096
            8192
           16384
```

In [32]:

```
elapsed = Array{Float64} (undef, iter)
          for i in 1:iter
              elapsed[i] = @elapsed mandel grid(n=n list[i])
          end
          elapsed
         14-element Vector{Float64}:
Out[32]:
             0.021363124
            1.4215e-5
             2.569e-5
            0.000111479
             0.000452867
            0.001795561
             0.008040005
            0.03193065
            0.114736369
            0.47119516
            2.062564557
            7.564541668
           33.282219048
          156.832726844
```

Plotting n vs time, it seems like the computational complexity is polynomial in time.

Out[33]: Running time for `mandel_grid()` for different gridsize

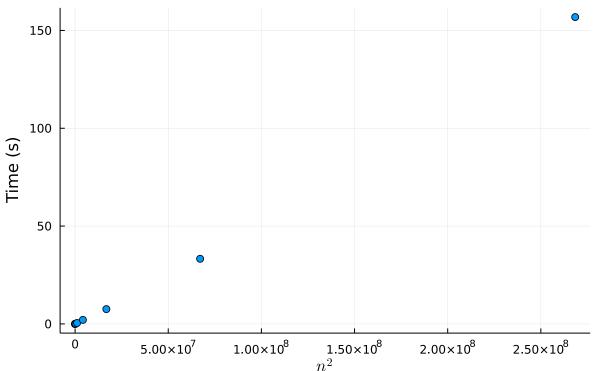


However, I realized that the x-axis might probably not need to be n but n^2 . Squaring the x-axis, we see that it looks like it's actually linear.

```
In [40]: using LaTeXStrings
    scatter(n_list.^2,
```

```
elapsed,
xlabel=L"n^2",
ylabel="Time (s)",
title="Running time for `mandel_grid()` for different gridsizes",
label=false)
```

Out[40]: Running time for `mandel_grid()` for different gridsize



KR7: Discuss the computational complexity of the Madelbrot function you made based on KR5. What is the best @time output to use for this?

As mentioned above the best @time macro for this time was @elapsed .

1.1369421312555185e-11·x³

Based on the previous two plots, the computational complexity of the Mandelbrot function seems to be linear as a function of actual number of elements in the grid; As a function of the parameter n (length of one side of a square grid), it seems to be at least a polynomial of order 2 based on the magnitudes of n and the coefficients.

```
In [35]: using Polynomials
In [36]: fit(n_list.^2, elapsed, 1)
Out[36]: -0.5419134718089813 + 5.810852347419767e-7 · x
In [37]: fit(n_list, elapsed, 2)
Out[37]: 0.31679617622177886 - 0.0011314560859559033 · x + 6.510779124230988e-7 · x<sup>2</sup>
In [38]: fit(n_list, elapsed, 3)
Out[38]: 0.0010578525609596418 + 7.233792448958852e-5 · x + 3.935586264020012e-7 · x<sup>2</sup> +
```