A few words about gcov. This command tells us:

- how often each line of code executes
- what lines of code are actually executed

Compile without optimization. It works only with gcc. So it should work with g95 and gfortran as well. There may, however, be problems with different versions of gcc and the gcc-libraries. See the web-page for the assignment for the latest details.

To use gcov on the student system (not Intel in this case) one should be able to type:

```
g95 -fprofile-arcs -ftest-coverage prog.f90 sub.f90
./a.out
```

```
gcov prog.f90 creates prog.f90.gcov
gcov sub.f90 creates sub.f90.gcov
```

less prog.f90.gcov etc.

and for C

gcc -fprofile-arcs -ftest-coverage prog.c sub.c similarly for gfortran and g++. Example: Arpack, a package for solving large and sparse eigenvalue problems,  $Ax = \lambda x$  and  $Ax = \lambda Bx$ . I fetched a compressed tar-file, unpacked, read the README-file, edited the configuration file, and compiled using make. After having corrected a few Makefiles everything worked. I then recompiled using the compiler options for gprof and tcov (on a Sun; I have not run this one the AMD-system).

I used the £90-compiler even though Arpack is written in Fortran77. (There is also Arpack++, a collection of classes that offers C++ programmers an interface to Arpack.)

```
First gprof:
```

The first part of the output is the flat profile, such a profile can be produced by prof as well. Part of it, in compressed form, comes on the next page. The flat profile may give a sufficient amount of information.

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Each sample counts as 0.01 seconds. % cumulative self self

~	Cumurative	Sell		Sell	LULAI					
time	seconds	seconds	calls	s/call	s/call	name				
79.10	8.10	8.10	322	0.03	0.03	dgemv_				
8.50	8.97	0.87	60	0.01	0.01	dger_				
4.10	9.39	0.42	58	0.01	0.01	dgttrs_				
3.22	9.72	0.33	519	0.00	0.00	$\mathtt{dcopy}_{-}$				
2.25	9.95	0.23	215	0.00	0.00	$\mathtt{dnrm2}_{-}$				
0.49	10.00	0.05	562	0.00	0.00	open				
lots of lines deleted										
0.00	10.24	0.00	1	0.00	10.14	main				
lots of lines deleted										
0.00	10.24	0.00	1	0.00	0.00	strchr				

name is the name of the routine (not the source file). The Suncompiler converts the routine name to lower case and adds \_ . \_\_\_open is a system (compiler?) routine.

## The columns are:

% time the percentage of the total running time of the program used by this function. Not the one it calls, look at main.

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

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

calls the number of times this function was invoked, if this function is profiled, else blank.

self ms/call the average number of milliseconds spent in this function per call, if this function is profiled, else blank.

total ms/callthe average number of milliseconds spent in this function and its descendents per call, if this function is profiled, else blank. Note main.

dgemv is a BLAS routine, double general matrix vector multiply:

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```
dgemv - perform one of the matrix-vector operations y := alpha*A*x + beta*y or y := alpha*A'*x + beta*y
```

I have compiled the Fortran code instead of using a faster performance library so we can look at the source code.

Let us run tcov on dgemv.

Part of the output (compressed):

```
168 -> DO 60, J = 1, N

4782 -> IF( X(JX).NE.ZERO )THEN

4740 -> TEMP = ALPHA*X(JX)

DO 50, I = 1, M

77660160 -> Y(I) = Y(I) + TEMPA(I, J)

50 CONTINUE

END IF

4782 -> JX = JX + INCX

60 CONTINUE
```

Top 10 Blocks

Line	Count
211	77660160
238	50519992
177	871645

Note that this code is very poor. Never use the simple Fortran BLAS- or Lapack routines supplied with some packages. One lab deals with this issue.

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## More about gprof

gprof produces a call graph as well. It shows, for each function, which functions called it, which other functions it called, and how many times. There is also an estimate of how much time was spent in the subroutines called by each function. This list is edited.

index	%time	self	childre	n called	name				
					rm lines				
		0.01	10.13	1/1	main [1]				
[3]	99.0	0.01	10.13	1	MAIN_ [3]				
		0.00	7.19	59/59	dsaupd_ [5]				
		0.00	2.45	1/1	dseupd_ [8]				
		0.42	0.00	58/58	dgttrs_ [14]				
lines deleted									
		0.83	0.00	33/322	dsapps_ [11]				
		1.48	0.00	59/322	dlarf_ [9]				
		5.79	0.00	230/322	dsaitr_ [7]				
[4]	79.1	8.10	0.00	322	dgemv_[4]				
		0.00	0.00	1120/3179	lsame_ [50]				

Each routine has an index (see table at the end) and is presented between ---lines. 8.10s was spent in dgemv itself, 79.1% of total (including calls from dgemv). dsapps, dlarf, dsaitr (parents) called dgemv which in turn called lsame, a child. dsapps made 33 out of 322 calls and dgemv took 0.83s for the calls. dgemv called lsame 1120 of 3179 times, which took no measurable time (self).

children For dgemv it is the total amount of time spent in all its children (1same). For a parent it is the amount of that time that was propagated, from the function's children (1same), into this parent. For a child it is the amount of time that was propagated from the child's children to dgemv.

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# Profiling in Matlab

Matlab has a built-in profiling tool. help profile for more details. Start Matlab (must use the GUI).

>> profile on

>> run % The assignment

Elapsed time is 1.337707 seconds.

Elapsed time is 13.534952 seconds.

>> profile report

% in mozilla or netscape

>> profile off

You can start the profiler using the GUI as well (click in "Profiler" using "Desktop" under the main meny). The output comes in a new window and contains what looks like the flat profile from gprof.

One can see the details in individual routines by clicking on the routine under Function Name This produces a gcov-type of listing. It contains the number of times a line was executed and the time it took.

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## Using Lapack from Fortran and C

Use Lapack to solve a problem like:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & -2 & -3 & -4 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 & -2 & -3 \\ 2 & 1 & 1 & -1 & -2 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 & 1 & -1 \\ 4 & 3 & 2 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} x = \begin{bmatrix} -9 \\ -4 \\ 1 \\ 6 \\ 11 \end{bmatrix}$$

The solution is the vector of ones. We use the Lapack-routine dgesv from Lapack. Here is a man-page:

#### NAME

DGESV - compute the solution to a real system of linear equations A \* X = B,

#### SYNOPSIS

SUBROUTINE DGESV( N, NRHS, A, LDA, IPIV, B, LDB, INFO )

INTEGER INFO, LDA, LDB, N, NRHS

DOUBLE PRECISION A( LDA, \* ), B( LDB, \* )

#### PURPOSE

DGESV computes the solution to a real system of linear equations  $A \star X = B$ , where A is an N-by-N matrix and X and B are N-by-NRHS matrices.

The LU decomposition with partial pivoting and row interchanges is used to factor A as A = P\*L\*U, where P is a permutation matrix, L is unit lower triangular, and U is upper triangular. The factored form of A is then used to solve the system of equations A\*X = B.

#### ARGUMENTS

N (input) INTEGER

The number of linear equations, i.e., the order of the matrix A. N >= 0.

NRHS (input) INTEGER

The number of right hand sides, i.e., the numbe of columns of the matrix B. NRHS >= 0.

A (input/output) DOUBLE PRECISION array, dimensic (LDA,N) On entry, the N-by-N coefficient matrix A. On exit, the factors L and U from the factorization A = PaL\*U; the unit diagonal elements of L are not stored.

LDA (input) INTEGER

The leading dimension of the array A. LDA >= max(1,N).

IPIV (output) INTEGER array, dimension (N)
The pivot indices that define the permutation
matrix P; row i of the matrix was interchanged
with row IPIV(i).

B (input/output) DOUBLE PRECISION array, dimensic (LDB,NRHS) On entry, the N-by-NRHS matrix of right hand side matrix B. On exit, if INFO = 0 the N-by-NRHS solution matrix X.

LDB (input) INTEGER

The leading dimension of the array B. LDB >= max(1,N).

INFO (output) INTEGER

= 0: successful exit

< 0: if INFO = -i, the i-th argument had an illegal value</p>

> 0: if INFO = i, U(i,i) is exactly zero. The factorization has been completed, but the factor U is exactly singular, so the solution could not be computed.

In Fortran90, but using the F77 interface, and F77-type declarations (to get shorter lines) this may look like:

```
program main
 integer, parameter :: n = 10, lda = n, &
                        ldb = n, nrhs = 1
                    :: info, row, col, ipiv(n)
  integer
  double precision
                   :: A(lda, n), b(ldb)
  do col = 1, n
   do row = 1, n
     A(row, col) = row - col
   end do
   A(col, col) = 1.0d0
   b(col)
               = 1 + (n * (2 * col - n - 1)) / 2
  end do
 call dgesv ( n, nrhs, A, lda, ipiv, b, ldb, info )
 if ( info == 0 ) then
   print*, "Maximum error = ", maxval(abs(b - 1.0d0))
  else
   print*, "Error in dgesv: info = ", info
  end if
end program main
% Compile and link, somehow, to Lapack
% a.out
Maximum error = 4.218847493575595E-15
```

Where can we find dgesv? There are several options. Fetching the Fortran-code from Netlib, using a compiled (optimized) library etc. One of the assignments, Lapack (Uniprocessor optimization), deals with these questions.

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The following optimized libraries contain Lapack and BLAS (and perhaps routines for fft, sparse linear algebra, etc. as well).

- AMD: ACML (AMD Core Math Library).
- Intel: MKL (Intel Math Kernel library).
- SGI: complib.sgimath (Scientific and Mathematical Library).
- IBM: ESSL (Engineering and Scientific Subroutine Library).
- Sun: Sunperf (Sun Performance Library).

There may be parallel versions.

Now for C and C++

Fairly portable (do not use local extensions of the compiler). Think about: In  $\mathrm{C/C}{++}$ 

- matrices are stored by row (not by column as in Fortran)
- matrices are indexed from zero
- call by reference for arrays, call by value for scalars
- the Fortran compiler MAY add an underline to the name
- you may have to link with Fortran libraries (mixing C and Fortran I/O may cause problems, for example)
- C++ requires an extern-declaration, in C you do not have to supply it (but do)
- make sure that C and Fortran types are compatible (number of bytes)
- some systems have C-versions of Lapack

In the example below I have linked with the Fortran-version since not all systems have C-interfaces. Make sure not to call dgesv from C on the Sun, if you want the Fortran-version (dgesv gives you the C-version).

```
#include <math.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#define _N 10
#ifdef __cplusplus
extern "C" void
                              /* For C++ */
#else
extern void
                              /* For C */
#endif
  dgesv_(int *, int *, double *, int *, int[],
         double[], int *, int *);
* int [] or int *. double [][] is NOT OK but
 * double [][10] is, provided we
 * call dgesv_ with A and not &A[0][0].
 */
int main()
{
 int
          n = _N, lda = _N, ldb = _N, nrhs = 1,
          info, row, col, ipiv[_N];
 double
         A[_N][_N], b[_N], s, max_err;
 /* Make sure you have the correct mix of types.*/
 printf("sizeof(int) = %d\n", sizeof(int));
 /* Indexing from zero.*/
 for (col = 0; col < n; col++) {
   for (row = 0; row < n; row++)
     b[col] = 1 + (n * (1 + 2 * col - n)) / 2;
   A[col][col] = 1;
```

```
/* Note underline and & for the scalar types.
   * &A[0][0] not to get a
   * conflict with the prototype.
  dgesv_(&n, &nrhs, &A[0][0], &lda, ipiv, b,
         &ldb, &info);
  if (info) {
   printf("Error in dgesv: info = %d\n", info);
   return 1;
  } else {
   max_err = 0.0;
   for (row = 0; row < n; row++) {
      s = fabs(b[row] - 1.0);
     if (s > max err)
        max_err = s;
   }
   printf("Maximum error = %e\n", max_err);
   return 0;
}
On a Sun. See the lab for AMD.
% cc -fast extern.c -xlic_lib=sunperf
% a.out
sizeof(int) = 4
\texttt{Maximum error} = 4.218847e-15
% CC -fast extern.c -xlic lib=sunperf
sizeof(int) = 4
Maximum error = 4.218847e-15
         If you call dgesv and not dgesv_
% a.out
sizeof(int) = 4
** On entry to DGESV , parameter number 1 has an
   illegal value. Error \lim_{1 \to 1} dgesv: info = -1
```

#### Java

It is possible to mix Java with other languages using JNI, the Java Native Interface. Wikipedia is a good starting point (look for ini).

Here are a few words on Java.

javac produces the file test.class containing the bytecode.

java is the Java interpreter that reads and executes test.class We can study the bytecode (instructions) using javap, the Java class file disassembler. The interpreter uses a stack and has local variables; I have called them var\_1 etc. To make the bytecode easier to read I have used our variable names. Half of the listing (mostly dealing with the print, has been deleted). I have not printed all the pops from the stack.

See Wikipedia (java bytecode) for more details.

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One can profile Java programs. from man java:

#### -Xprof

Profiles the running program, and sends profiling data to standard output. This option is provided as a utility that is useful in program development and is not intended to be be used in production systems.

-Xrunhprof[:help][:suboption=value,...]

Enables cpu, heap, or monitor profiling. This option is typically followed by a list of comma-separated suboption=value pairs. Run the command java -Xrunhprof:help to obtain a list of suboptions and their default values.

```
% iavap -verbose test
public static void main(java.lang.String[]);
Code:
  0: bipush 10
                      10
                            -> stack
  2: istore_1
                      stack -> var_1
                      var 1 -> stack
  3: iload 1
  4: newarray double create double a[10], &a[0]->stack
                      &a[01 -> var 2
  6: astore 2
  7: iconst 0
                      0 -> stack
                      0 -> var_3 (corresponds to j)
  8: istore_3
  9: iload 3
                      i -> stack
 10: iload 1
                      n -> stack
11: if icmpge 25
                      if (j >= n) goto line 11+25
 14: aload_2
                      &a[0] -> stack
 15: iload 3
                      i -> stack
 16: iload_3
                      j -> stack (used as index)
17: i2d
                      double(j) -> stack
 18: dastore
                      a[j] = double(j), "index reg"
19: iinc3, 1
                      i++
22: goto9
                      goto line 9:
54:return
```

To speed things up the bytecode interpreter (java) often uses a JIT (Just In Time) technique. A JIT compiler converts all of the bytecode into native machine code just as a Java program is run. This results in run-time speed improvements over code that is interpreted by a Java virtual machine.

```
java -client testor
java -server test(usually much faster; default).
```

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# Interfacing Matlab with C

It is not uncommon that we have a program written in C (or Fortran) and need to communicate between the program and Matlab.

The simplest (but not the most efficient) way the fix the communication is to use ordinary text files. This is portable and cannot go wrong (in any major way). The drawback is that it may be a bit slow and that we have to convert between the internal binary format and text format. We can execute programs by using the unix-command (or ! or system).

One can do more, however:

- Reading and writing binary MAT-files from C
- Calling Matlab as a function (Matlab engine)
- Calling a C- or Fortran-function from Matlab (using MEXfiles, compiled and dynamically linked C- or Fortran-routines)

In the next few pages comes a short example on how to use MEX-files.

## MEX-files

Let us write a C-program that can be called as a Matlab-function. The MEX-routine will call a band solver, written in Fortran, from Lapack for solving an Ax=b-problem. The routine uses a Cholesky decomposition, where A is a banded, symmetric and positive definite matrix.

b contains the right hand side(s) and x the solution(s). I fetched the routines from www.netlib.org

Matlab has support for solving unsymmetric banded systems, but has no special routines for the positive definite case.

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We would call the function by typing:

```
>> [x, info] = bandsolve(A, b);
```

where A stores the matrix in compact form. info returns some status information (A not positive definite, for example).

bandsolve can be an m-file, calling a MEX-file. Another alternative is to let bandsolve be the MEX-file. The first alternative is suitable when we need to prepare the call to the MEX-file or clean up after the call.

The first alternative may look like this:

```
function [x, info] = bandsolve(A, b)
A_tmp = A; % copy A
b_tmp = b; % copy b
% Call the MEX-routine
[x, info] = bandsolve_mex(A_tmp, b_tmp);
```

I have chosen to make copies of A and b. The reason is that the Lapack-routine replaces A with the Cholesky factorization and b by the solution. This is not what we expect when we program in Matlab. If we have really big matrices, and if we do not need A and b afterwards we can skip the copy (although the Matlab-documentation says that it "may produce undesired side

I will show the code for the second case where we call the MEXfile directly. Note that we use the file name, bandsolve, when invoking the function. There should always be a mexFunctionin the file, which is the entry point. This is similar to a C-program, there is always a main-routine.

It is possible to write MEX-files in Fortran, but is more natural to use C.

First some details about how to store the matrix (for the band solver). Here an example where we store the lower triangle. The dimension is six and the number of sub- (and super-) diagonals

```
all a22 a33 a44 a55 a66
a21 a32 a43 a54 a65
a31 a42 a53 a64
```

Array elements marked \* are not used by the routine.

The Fortran-routine, dpbsv, is called the following way:

```
call dpbsv( uplo, n, kd, nB, A, lda, B, ldb, info )
```

```
uplo = 'U': Upper triangle of A is stored
      'L': Lower triangle of A is stored
```

We will assume that uplo = 'L' from now on

```
= the dimension of A
    = number of sub-diagonals
   = number of right hand sides (in B)
nB
    = packed form of A
lda = leading dimension of A
    = contains the right hand side(s)
ldb = leading dimension of B
info = 0, successful exit
    < 0, if info = -i, the i-th argument had
          an illegal value
    > 0, if info = i, the leading minor of order i
          of A is not positive definite, so the
          factorization could not be completed,
```

Here comes bandsolve.c (I am using C++-style comments):

and the solution has not been computed.

```
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```

```
#include <math.h>
// For Matlab
#include "mex.h"
void dpbsv_(char *, int *, int *, int *, double *,
           int *, double *, int *, int *);
void mexFunction(int nlhs,
                                mxArray*plhs[],
                int nrhs, const mxArray*prhs[])
{
 double
           *px, *pA, *pb, *pA_tmp;
 mxArray *A_tmp;
  char uplo = 'L':
  int k, A_rows, A_cols, b_rows, b_cols, kd, info;
  // Check for proper number of arguments
  if (nrhs != 2) {
   mexErrMsgTxt("Two input arguments required.");
  } else if (nlhs > 2) {
    mexErrMsgTxt("Too many output arguments.");
 A_rows = mxGetM(prhs[0]);
                            // # of subdiags
       = A rows - 1;
 A_cols = mxGetN(prhs[0]); // = n
 b_rows = mxGetM(prhs[1]);
 b cols = mxGetN(prhs[1]);
 if (b_rows != A_cols || b_cols <= 0)</pre>
    mexErrMsgTxt("Illegal dimension of b.");
```

```
// Create a matrix for the return argument
// and for A. dpbsv destroys A and b).
// Should check the return status.
plhs[0]=mxCreateDoubleMatrix(b_rows, b_cols, mxREAL);
plhs[1]=mxCreateDoubleMatrix(1, 1, mxREAL);
A_tmp =mxCreateDoubleMatrix(A_rows, A_cols, mxREAL);
px = mxGetPr(plhs[0]);
                           // Solution x
pA = mxGetPr(prhs[0]);
                           // A
                          // temp for A
pA_tmp = mxGetPr(A_tmp);
pb = mxGetPr(prhs[1]);
                           // b
for (k = 0; k < b_rows * b_cols; k++) // b -> x
  *(px + k) = *(pb + k);
for (k = 0; k < A_rows * A_cols; k++) // A -> A_tmp
  *(pA_tmp + k) = *(pA + k);
dpbsv_(&uplo, &A_cols, &kd, &b_cols, pA_tmp,
      &A_rows, px, &b_rows, &info);
*mxGetPr(plhs[1]) = info; // () higher prec. than*
 mexWarnMsgTxt("Non zero info from dpbsv.");
// Should NOT destroy plhs[0] or plhs[1]
mxDestroyArray(A_tmp);
```

Some comments:

nrhs is the number of input arguments to the MEX-routine. prhs is an array of pointers to input arguments. prhs[0] points to a so-called, mxarray, a C-struct containing size-information and pointers to the matrix-elements.

prhs[0] corresponds to the first input variable, A etc.

Since one should not access the member-variables in the struct directly, there are routines to extract size and elements.

A\_rows = mxGetM(prhs[0]); extracts the number of rows and A\_cols = mxGetN(prhs[0]); extracts the number of columns.

The lines

```
plhs[0]=mxCreateDoubleMatrix(b_rows, b_cols, mxREAL);
plhs[1]=mxCreateDoubleMatrix(1, 1, mxREAL);
```

allocate storage for the results (of type mxREAL, i.e. ordinary double).

A\_tmp = mxCreateDoubleMatrix(A\_rows, A\_cols, mxREAL); allocates storage for a copy of A, since the Lapack-routine destroys the matrix.

px = mxGetPr(plhs[0]); extracts a pointer to the (real-part) of the matrix elements and stores it in the pointer variable, px.

The first for-loop copies **b** to **x** (which will be overwritten by the solution). The second loop copies the matrix to the temporary storage, pointed to by **A\_tmp**. This storage is later deallocated using mxDestroyArrax

Note that neither the input- nor the output-arguments should be deallocated.

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It is now time to compile and link. This is done using the Bourne-shell script mex. We must also make a symbolic link. Since we would like to change some parameters when compiling, we will copy and edit an options file, mexopts.sh

% which matlab

/chalmers/sw/sup/matlab-2008b/bin/matlab
(ls -ld /chalmers/sw/sup/matlab to see the versions)
Make the link:

% ln -s /usr/lib/libstdc++.so.6.0.3 libstdc++.so
Copy mexopts.sh

% cp /chalmers/sw/sup/matlab-2008b/bin/mexopts.sh .
and edit the file (after glnx86):

```
change CC='gcc' to CC='gcc4'
```

if you are using the latest Matlab-version. In the CFLAGS-line, change -ansi to -Wall, to use C++-style comments and to get more warnings.

Add -L. to CLIBS, and add linker-info. to get Goto-blas:

```
CLIBS="$RPATH $MLIBS -lm -L. -lstdc++
-L/chalmers/sw/unsup/libgoto/lib
-lgoto_opt32-r0.96" NOTE: in one long line
change -O to -O3 in FOPTIMFLAGS
```

Make sure your  ${\tt LD\_LIBRARY\_PATH}$  contains the name of the directory where Goto-blas resides.

I have fetched the lapack-routines from Netlib:

```
% ls lapack
dpbsv.f dpbtf2.f dpbtrf.f dpbtrs.f dpotf2.f
ieeeck.f ilaenv.f lsame.f xerbla.f
```

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Now it is time to compile:

```
% mex -f ./mexopts.sh bandsolve.c lapack*/.f
which creates bandsolve.mexglx
```

Now we can test a simple example in Matlab:

Here a case when A is not positive definite:

Note that the first call of bandsolve may take much more time, since the mex-file has to be loaded. Here a small test when n=10000, kd=10:

```
>> tic; [x, info] = bandsolve(A, b); toc
Elapsed time is 0.147128 seconds.
```

```
>> tic; [x, info] = bandsolve(A, b); toc
Elapsed time is 0.034625 seconds.
```

```
>> tic; [x, info] = bandsolve(A, b); too
Elapsed time is 0.034950 seconds.
```

Now to some larger problems:

With n=100000 and kd=10, dpbsv takes 0.25 s and sparse backslash 0.41 s on a student AMD-computer. kd=20 gives the times 0.48 s and 0.77 s respectively.

On an Opteron with more memory: with n=1000000, kd=10 the times are 2.9 s, 4.7 s. Increasing kd to 50, the times are 15.4 s and 27.6 s.

# Libraries, ar, ld

Numerical (and other software) is often available in libraries. To use a subroutine from a library one has to use the linker to include the routine. Advantages:

- Fewer routines to keep track of.
- There is no need to have source code for the library routines that a program calls.
- Only the needed modules are loaded.

These pages deal with how one can make libraries and use the linker, link-editor, 1d.

```
% cat sub1.f90
subroutine sub1
 print*, 'in subl'
end
% cat sub2.f90
subroutine sub2
 print*, 'in sub2'
% cat sub3.f90
subroutine sub3
 print*, 'in sub3'
 call sub2
end
% cat main.f90
program main
 call sub3
end
```

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```
% ls sub*.f90
sub1.f90 sub2.f90 sub3.f90
% g95 -c sub*.f90
sub1.f90:
guh2 f90.
sub3.f90:
sub1.f90 sub1.o sub2.f90 sub2.o sub3.f90 sub3.o
% ar -r libsubs.a sub.o
% ar -t libsubs.a
sub1.o
sub2.o
sub3.o
% g95 main.f90 -L. -lsubs
% a.out
in sub3
in sub2
```

g95 calls the link-editor, 1d, to combine main.o and the object files in the library to produce the executable a.out-file. Note that the library routines become part of the executable.

If you write -lname the link-editor looks for a library file with name libname.a (or libname.so).

On some systems you may have to give the location of the library using the flag <code>-L</code> (ld does not look everywhere). . means current working directory, but you could have a longer path, of course. You can have several <code>-L</code> flags.

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# From man ar:

ar creates an index to the symbols defined in relocatable object modules in the archive when you specify the modifier s.

An archive with such an index speeds up linking to the library, and allows routines in the library to call each other without regard to their placement in the archive.

ar seems to do this even with ar -r ... as well. If your library does not have this index:

```
% g95 main.f90 -L. -lsubs
./libsubs.a: could not read symbols:
Archive has no index; run ranlib to add one
% ranlib libsubs.a
% g95 main.f90 -L. -lsubs
```

The order of libraries is important:

```
% g95 -c sub4.f90 sub5.f90
sub4.f90:
sub5.f90:
% ar -r libsub45.a sub[45].o
% ar -t libsub45.a
sub4.o
sub5.o
```

```
% cat sub4.f90
subroutine sub4
  print*, 'in sub4'
  call sub2
% cat main.f90
                  ! A NEW main
program main
 call sub4
% g95 main.f90 -L. -lsubs -lsub45
./libsub45.a(sub4.o)(.text+0x6f): In function `sub4 ':
: undefined reference to 'sub2_'
1d does not go back in the list of libraries.
% g95 main.f90 -L. -lsub45 -lsubs
% a.out
 in sub4
 in sub2
The compiler uses several system libraries, try g95 -v ....
One such library is the C math-library, /usr/lib/libm.a
% ar -t /usr/lib/libm.a | grep expm1 | head -1
s expm1.o
% man expm1
NAME
       expm1, expm1f, expm1l - exponential minus 1
       #include <math.h>
       double expm1(double x);
```

```
% cat main.c
#include <math.h>
#include <stdio.h>
int main()
{
  double x = 1.0e-15;
 printf("expm1(x) = %e\n", expm1(x));
 printf("exp(x) - 1 = %e\n", exp(x) - 1.0);
  return 0;
}
% qcc main.c
/tmp/cc40PH1o.o(.text+0x2b): In function `main':
: undefined reference to 'expm1'
/tmp/cc40PH1o.o(.text+0x53): In function 'main':
: undefined reference to 'exp'
% gcc main.c -lm
% a.out
expm1(x)
          = 1.000000e-15
\exp(x) - 1 = 1.110223e-15
```

## Shared libraries

More about libm. The following output has been shortened.

```
% ls -l /usr/lib/libm*
  /usr/lib/libm.a
  /usr/lib/libm.so -> ../../lib/libm.so.6
% ls -1 /lib/libm.*
  /lib/libm.so.6 -> libm-2.3.4.so
% ls -1 /lib/libm-2.3.4.so
-rwxr-xr-x 1 root root 176195 Aug 20 03:21
    /lib/libm-2.3.4.so
What is this last file?
% ar -t /lib/libm-2.3.4.so
ar: /lib/libm-2.3.4.so: File format not recognized
Look for symbols (names of functions etc.):
% objdump -t /lib/libm-2.3.4.so | grep expm1
00009420 w
              F .text 0000005c
                                   expm1
```

so means shared object. It is a library where routines are loaded to memory during runtime. This is done by the dynamic linker/loader ld.so. The a.out-file is not complete in this case, so it will be smaller.

One problem with these libraries is that they are needed at runtime which may be years after the executable was created. Libraries may be deleted, moved, renamed etc.

One advantage is shared libraries can be shared by every process that uses the library (provided the library is constructed in that way).

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It is easier to handle new versions, applications do not have to

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If you link with -lname, the first choice is libname.so and the second libname.a

/usr/lib/libm.so -> ../../lib/libm.so.6s a soft link (an "alias").

% ln -s full\_path alias

The order is not important when using shared libraries (the linker has access to all the symbols at the same time).

A shared library is created using 1d (not ar) or the compiler, the 1d-flags are passed on to the linker.

```
% g95 -o libsubs.so -shared -fpic sub.f90
% g95 main.f90 -L. -lsubs
% ./a.out
in sub4
in sub2
```

From man gcc (edited):

-shared

Produce a shared object which can then be linked with other objects to form an executable. Not all systems support this option. For predictable results, you mus also specify the same set of options that were used to generate code (-fpic, -fPIC, or model suboptions) when you specify this option.[1]

-fpic

Generate position-independent code (PIC) suitable for use in a shared library, if supported for the target machine. Such code accesses all constant addresses through a global offset table (GOT). The dynamic loader resolves the  $GOT_{lg}$ entries when the program

starts (the dynamic loader is not part of GCC; it is part of the operating system). ...

Since the subroutines in the library are loaded when we run the program (they are not available in a.out) the dynamic linker must know where it can find the library.

```
% cd ..
% Examples/a.out
Examples/a.out: error while loading shared libraries:
```

libsubs.so: cannot open shared object file: No such file or directory

```
% setenv LD_LIBRARY_PATH $LD_LIBRARY_PATH\:Examples
% Examples/a.out
in sub4
in sub2
```

LD\_LIBRARY\_PATH<contains a colon separated list of paths where ld.so will look for libraries. You would probably use a full path and not Examples.

\$LD\_LIBRARY\_PATH is the old value (you do not want to do setenv LD\_LIBRARY\_PATH Examplesunless LD\_LIBRARY\_PATH is empty to begin with.

The backslash is needed in [t]csh (since colon has a special meaning in the shell). In sh (Bourbe shell) you may do something like:

```
$ LD_LIBRARY_PATH=$LD_LIBRARY_PATH:Example
$ export LD_LIBRARY_PATH (or on one line)
```

Some form of LD\_LIBRARY\_PATH is usually available (but the name may be different). The SGI uses the same name for the path but the linker is called rld. Under HPUX 10.20, for example, the dynamic loader is called dld.sl and the path SHLIB\_PATH

```
It is possible to store the location of the library when creating
a.out.
% unsetenv LD_LIBRARY_PATH
% g95 -o libsubs.so -shared -fpic sub.f90
% g95 main.f90 -L. -lsubs
% a.out
a.out: error while loading shared libraries:
libsubs.so: cannot open shared object file:
No such file or directory
Add the directory in to the runtime library search path (stored
in a.out):
 -Wl, means pass -rpath 'pwd' to ld
% g95 -W1,-rpath 'pwd' main.f90 -L. -lsubs
% cd ..
         or cd to any directory
% Examples/a.out
in sub4
in sub2
A useful command is 1dd (print shared library dependencies):
  libsubs.so => ./libsubs.so (0x00800000)
  libm.so.6 \Rightarrow /lib/tls/libm.so.6 (0x009e2000)
  libc.so.6 => /lib/tls/libc.so.6 (0x008b6000)
  /lib/ld-linux.so.2 (0x00899000)
Used on our a.out-file it will, in the first case, give:
% ldd Examples/a.out
    libsubs.so => not found
In the second case, using rpath, 1dd will print the full path.
```

```
And now to something related:
```

Large software packages are often spread over many directories. When distributing software it is customary to pack all the directories into one file. This can be done with the tar-command (tape archive). Some examples:

```
% ls -FR My_package
                     install* lib/
                                       README
bin/
           doc/
configure* include/ INSTALL Makefile src/
```

My package/bin: binaries

My\_package/doc: documentation userguide.ps or in pdf, html etc.

My\_package/include: header files params.h sparse.h

libraries My package/lib:

My package/src: source main.f sub.f

Other common directories are man (for manual pages), examples, util (for utilities).

README usually contains general information, INSTALL contains details about compiling, installation etc. There may be an installscript and there is usually a Makefile (probably several).

If the package is using X11 graphics there may be an Imakefile The tool xmkmf (using imake) can generate a Makefile using local definitions and the Imakefile.

In a Linux environment binary packages (such as the Intel compilers) may come in RPM-format. See http://www.rpm.org/ or type man rpm, for details.

Let us now create a tar-file for our package.

```
% tar cvf My_package.tar My_package
My_package/
My package/src/
My_package/src/main.f
My_package/src/sub.f
My_package/doc/
My_package/Makefile
```

One would usually compress it:

```
% gzip My_package.tar (or using bzip2)
```

This command produces the file My\_package.tar.gz. .tgz is a common suffix as well (tar.bz2 or .tbz2 for bzip2).

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To unpack such a file we can do (using gnu tar) (z for gunzip, or zcat, x for extract, v for verbose and f for file):

```
% tar zxvf My_package.tar.gz
My package
My_package/src/
```

Using tar-commands that do not understand z:

```
My_package.tar.gz | tar vxf -
                                             or
% gunzip -c My_package.tar.gz | tar vxf -
                                            or
% gunzip < My_package.tar.gz | tar vxf -
                                            or
% gunzip
           My_package.tar.gz
                                        followed by
% tar xvf My_package.tar
```

I recommend that you first try:

```
% tar ztf My_package.tar.gz
My package/
```

To see that files are placed in a new directory (and that are no name conflicts).

Under GNOME there is an Archive Manager (File Roller) with a GUI. Look under Applications/System Tools

An Overview of Parallel Computing

Flynn's Taxonomy (1966). Classification of computers according to number of instruction and data streams.

- SISD: Single Instruction Single Data, the standard uniprocessor computer (workstation).
- MIMD: Multiple Instruction Multiple Data, collection of autonomous processors working on their own data; the most general case.
- SIMD: Single Instruction Multiple Data: several CPUs performing the same instructions on different data. The CPUs are synchronized.

Massively parallel computers.

Works well on regular problems. PDE-grids, image processing.

Often special languages and hardware. Not portable.

Typical example, the Connection Machines from Thinking Machines (bankruptcy 1994).

The CM-2 had up to 65536 (simple processors). PDC had a 16384 proc. CM200.

Often called "data parallel".

Two other important terms:

- fine-grain parallelism small tasks in terms of code size and execution time
- coarse-grain parallelism the opposite

We talk about granularity.