

# ENABLING USER-DRIVEN CHECKPOINTING STRATEGIES IN REVERSE-MODE AUTOMATIC DIFFERENTIATION

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**Abstract.** *This paper presents a new functionality of the Automatic Differentiation (AD) Tool TAPENADE. TAPENADE generates adjoint codes which are widely used for optimization or inverse problems. Unfortunately, for large applications the adjoint code demands a great deal of memory, because it needs to store a large set of intermediates values. To cope with that problem, TAPENADE implements a sub-optimal version of a technique called checkpointing, which is a trade-off between storage and recomputation. Our long-term goal is to provide an optimal checkpointing strategy for every code, not yet achieved by any AD tool. Towards that goal, we first introduce modifications in TAPENADE in order to give the user the choice to select the checkpointing strategy most suitable for their code. Second, we conduct experiments in real-size scientific codes in order to gather hints that help us to deduce an optimal checkpointing strategy. Some of the experimental results show memory savings up to 35% and execution time up to 90%.*

## 1 INTRODUCTION

The context of this work is Automatic Differentiation (AD) [2, 7]. The reverse mode of AD is a promising way to build adjoint codes to compute gradients. The fundamental advantage of adjoint codes is that they compute gradients at a cost which is independent of the dimension of the input space, and they are thus a key ingredient to solve inverse problems and optimization problems [14, 4]. AD adjoint codes are fundamentally made of two successive sweeps, a *forward* sweep running the original code and storing a significant part of the intermediate values, and a *backward* sweep using these values to compute the derivatives. For large applications, such as CFD programs, reverse differentiated codes may end up using far too much memory.

Checkpointing is a standard time/memory trade-off tactic to reduce the peak of this memory use. When a segment of the program is checkpointed, it is executed *without*

storage of the intermediate values. Later on, when the backward sweep reaches the checkpointed segment, this segment must be executed a second time *with* storage, and finally the backward sweep may resume. Checkpointing has a benefit: there are two places where the memory size reaches a peak, namely at the end of the forward sweep and at the end of the checkpointed segment, and both peaks are generally smaller than the peak without checkpointing. On the other hand, checkpointing has a cost: (1) in execution time because segment is executed twice and (2) in memory because intermediate values must be store to run the segment twice. Hopefully this last memory cost is less than the memory benefit above.

In AD tools, checkpointing is applied systematically, for instance at procedure calls or around loops bodies. Experience shows that checkpointing every procedure call is in general sub-optimal. Optimal strategies have been found only for the case of a fixed-length loop [5], and not for the nested procedure structure of real-life codes.

Towards the ultimate goal of an AD tool embedding an optimal checkpointing strategy for all programs, we propose in a first step to activate checkpointing for only a number of user-selected procedure calls. Therefore, in addition to the default systematic checkpoint mode (called *joint* mode in [7]), each procedure may now be differentiated in the so-called *split* mode, i.e. without checkpointing. In split mode, the procedure gives rise to two separate differentiated procedures, one for the forward sweep and one for the backward sweep.

This paper presents the implementation of this new split mode functionality inside our AD tool TAPENADE [10], which up to now only featured the joint mode. We also discuss the necessary adaption of the existing preliminary data-flow analyses namely, adjoint-liveness analysis [11] and TBR analysis [9, 11]. In a second step, we use this user control on checkpointing to make experimental measurements of various checkpointing choices on several large scientific codes. We present the results of these experiments, some of which show savings of memory up to 35% and execution time up to 90%. Also, these results give hints to a general automatic strategy of where to use checkpointing. At present, no AD tool has such a general checkpointing strategy, and our long term goal is to provide one in TAPENADE.

The remainder of this paper is structured as follows: Section 2 introduces the reverse mode of AD. In Section 3 we present the checkpointing technique and show how different checkpointing placement strategies affect the behavior of the reverse differentiated code. In Section 4 we discuss the implementation issues. In Section 5 we present and discuss the experimental measurements. Finally, we discuss the future work and the conclusions in Section 6.

## 2 REVERSE AUTOMATIC DIFFERENTIATION

In our context, AD is a program transformation technique to obtain derivatives, and in particular gradients. We are given a program  $P$  that evaluates a function  $F$ . Program  $P$  can be seen as a sequential list of instructions  $I_j$

$$P = I_1 ; I_2 ; \dots ; I_j ; \dots ; I_{p-1} ; I_p,$$

where the instructions represent elementary functions  $f_i$ . Then the function  $F$  is indeed

$$F = f_p \circ f_{p-1} \circ \dots \circ f_j \circ \dots \circ f_2 \circ f_1.$$

AD takes advantage of this to apply the chain rule of calculus to build a new program that evaluates the derivatives of  $F$ .

The *reverse* mode of AD computes gradients. Roughly speaking, for a given scalar output, it returns the direction in the input space that maximizes the increase of this output. Strictly speaking gradient is defined only for scalar output functions. Therefore, we build a vector  $\bar{Y}$  that defines the weights of each component of the original output  $Y = F(X)$ . This defines a scalar output  $\bar{Y}^t \times Y = Y^t \times \bar{Y} = F^t(X) \times \bar{Y}$ . Its gradient has thus the following form:

$$\bar{X} = F^t(X) \times \bar{Y} = f_1^t(x_0) \times \dots \times f_{j+1}^t(x_j) \times \dots \times f_p^t(x_{p-1}) \times \bar{Y} \quad (1)$$

where  $x_{i-1}$  is the set of all variables values just before execution of the instruction that implements  $f_i^t$ , and  $F^t(X)$  is the transposed Jacobian.

Formula 1 is implemented from right to left, because matrix×vector products are cheaper to compute than matrix×matrix products. This result in probably the most efficient way to compute a gradient. Unfortunately, this mode of AD has a difficulty: the  $f_i^t$  instructions require the intermediate values  $x_{i-1}$  in the reverse of their creation order. The trouble is that programs often overwrite variables, and therefore these values may be lost when needed by the  $f_i^t$ .

There are two main strategies to cope with this problem: *Recompute-All* [3] or *Store-All* [7]. *Recompute-All* strategy is very demanding in execution time, quadratic with respect to the number of run-time instructions, because it recomputes the intermediates values every time they are required, from a saved initial point. On the other hand, the *Store-All* strategy is linear with respect to the number of run-time instructions, both for memory consumption and execution time, because it consists in storing on a stack all values required later by derivatives, and then restore them when they are needed. This results in the structure of reverse differentiated programs shown on Figure 1.

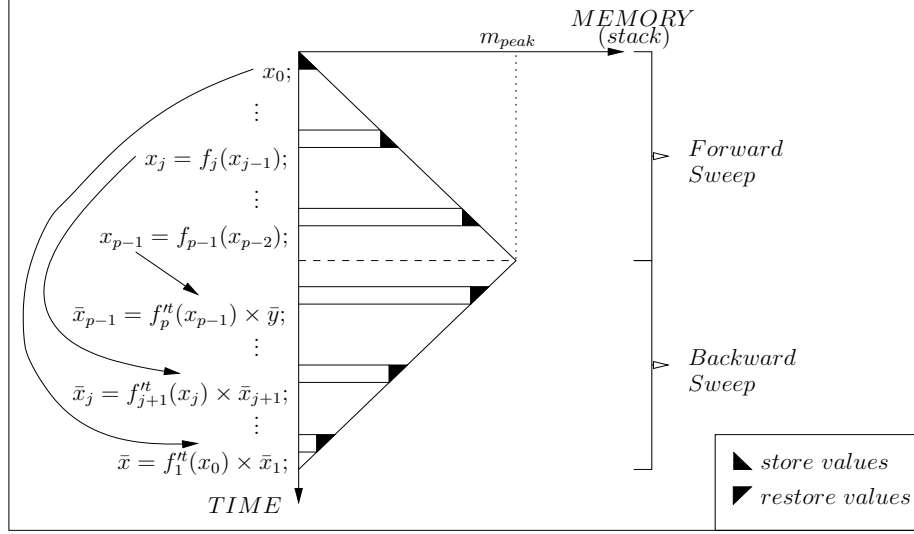


Figure 1: The horizontal axis represents the amount of values currently on the stack.

Because we will need to reason formally about adjoint programs in the sequel of this paper, we need to denote them in a more algebraic way. The reverse differentiated program  $\overline{P}$  has two parts. The first is called the forward sweep  $\overrightarrow{P}$ , and is basically the necessary “slice” of the original program  $P$  plus some instructions to store required values. The second part is called the backward sweep  $\overleftarrow{P}$ , and consists of the instructions that implement the functions  $f_i^t(x)$  from Formula 1, plus some instructions to recover the needed intermediate values.

Formalizing the structure of the program in Figure 1, the structure of the reverse differentiated program  $\overline{P}$  of a program  $P$  is roughly described by equation (2)

$$\overline{P} = \overrightarrow{P} ; \overleftarrow{P} = I_1 ; \dots ; I_{p-1} ; \overleftarrow{I}_p ; \dots ; \overleftarrow{I}_1 \quad (2)$$

Figure 2 shows the reverse differentiated version of a small example procedure, featuring the forward and backward sweeps. The `PUSH()` and `POP()` calls store and restore values of required intermediates variables. We can now refine formula (2) by inserting these calls. For any instruction  $I$  and any program tail  $D$  after  $I$ , the program  $\overline{P}$  is defined recursively by the following equation:

$$\overline{P} = \overline{I} ; \overline{D} = \overrightarrow{I} ; \overline{D} ; \overleftarrow{I} = \text{PUSH}(\mathbf{out}(I)) ; I ; \overline{D} ; \text{POP}(\mathbf{out}(I)) ; I' \quad (3)$$

where  $\mathbf{out}(I)$  is a set of values overwritten by instruction  $I$ . In reality, we store only the intermediates values which are required to compute the derivatives of  $I$  and of its preceding instructions. The data-flow equations of the static analysis that evaluates these values “To Be Recorded”, known as the “TBR” analysis, was given in [11].

Original procedure	Reverse differentiated procedure
<pre> subroutine sub1(x,y,z) </pre>	<pre> subroutine sub1_b(x,xb,y,yb,z,zb) </pre>
$I_1$ tmp1 = SIN(y)	$I_1$ tmp1 = SIN(y) PUSH(y)
$I_2$ y = y * y	$I_2$ y = y * y PUSH(tmp1)
$I_3$ tmp1 = tmp1 * x	$I_3$ tmp1 = tmp1 * x
$I_4$ z = y / tmp1 end	<i>&lt;forward sweep ends, backward sweep begins&gt;</i> $I'_4$ { yb = zb/tmp1 tmp1b = -(y * zb/tmp1 **2) POP(tmp1)
	$I'_3$ { xb = tmp1 * tmp1b tmp1b = x * tmp1b POP(y)
	$I'_2$ yb = 2 * y * yb
	$I'_1$ yb = COS(y) * tmp1b end

Figure 2: The structure of a reverse differentiated program

### 3 CHECKPOINTING

To control the memory problem caused by the storage of intermediates values, the Store-All strategy can be improved in two main directions: (1) refine the data-flow analyses in order to reduce the number of values to store, and (2) deactivate the Store-All strategy for chosen segments of the code, therefore saving memory space. The former is described in [11, 12], the latter is the focus of this work.

The mechanism which deactivates the Store-All strategy for certain chosen segment is called *checkpointing*. It has two consequences on the behavior of the reverse differentiated program:

1. when the backward sweep reaches the chosen segment, it must be executed again, this time with Store-All strategy turned on.
2. in order to execute the segment twice, a sufficient set of values (called a *snapshot*) must be stored before the first execution of the segment.

On Figure 3, we assume that  $snapshot(C) < tape(C)$ . This is a reasonable assumption in most cases, and particularly when  $C$  is large. As a consequence we see that  $m_{peakC}$  is smaller than  $m_{peak}$ , because in the checkpointed case the first execution of segment  $C$  does not store anything. Conversely, we see that the time  $t_c$  is longer than  $t$ , because

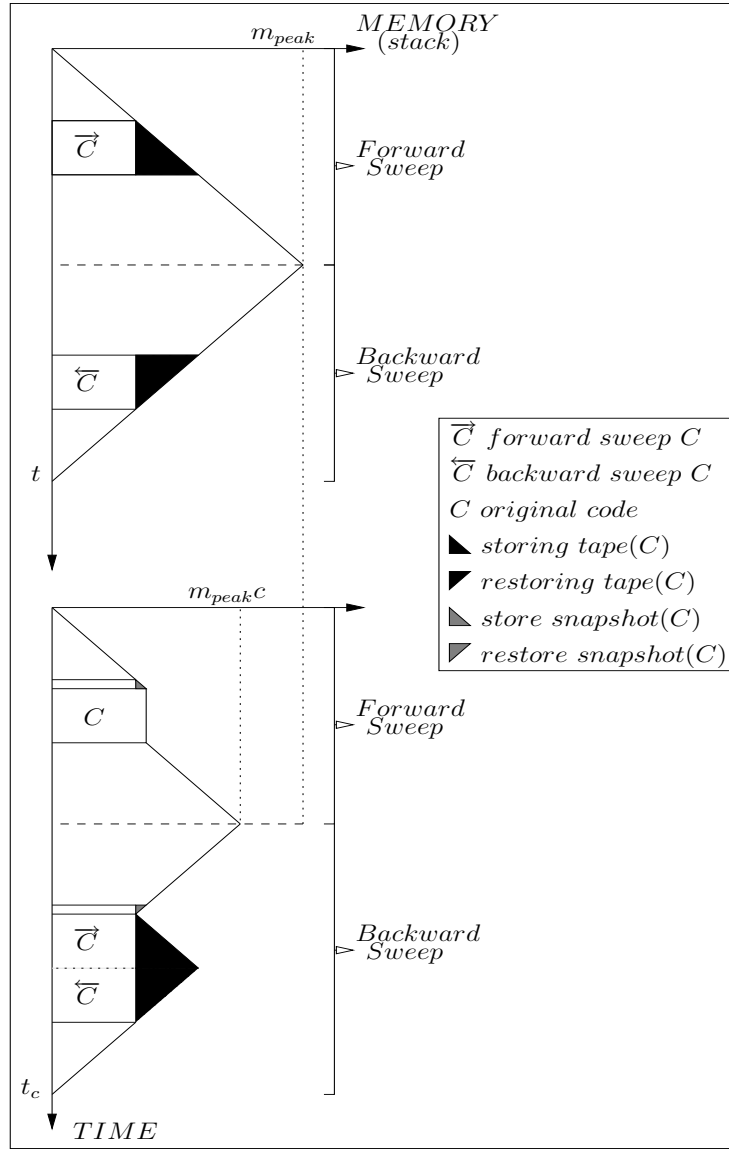


Figure 3: Checkpointing in Reverse Mode AD.

in the no-checkpointing case every piece of the code is executed only once, whereas we observe in the checkpointing case that segment  $C$  is executed twice ( $C$  and  $\overrightarrow{C}$ ).

Checkpointed segments can be chosen in different ways, and can be nested. One classical strategy is to checkpoint each and every procedure call. However, experience indicates that this strategy is not optimal, though the optimal situation is not easy to foresee. Since the optimal checkpointing strategy is still out reach, it seems natural to let the user influence the choice. A completely user-driven checkpointing will allow the user to try

each and every combination, looking for an optimal placement of checkpoints. This paper describes the developments to achieve this user interaction. In a second step, this will let us experiment about rules and tactics, towards the long-term goal of computer aided optimal checkpointing. This paper presents our first experiments in this direction.

The assumption behind checkpointing is that  $snapshot(C) < tape(C)$ . To keep the snapshots small, we need to develop the algebraic notation of equation (3). When segment  $C$  is checkpointed (denoted with surrounding parentheses), reverse differentiation of the program  $P = U; C; D$  is defined by the recursive equation

$$\overline{P} = \overline{U}; \overline{(C)}; \overline{D} = \overline{U}; \text{PUSH}(\mathbf{snp}(C)); C; \overline{D}; \text{POP}(\mathbf{snp}(C)); \overline{C}; \overline{U} \quad (4)$$

where  $U/D$  are the code segments *Upstream/Downstream* of  $C$  and  $\mathbf{snp}(C)$  is the snapshot stored to re-execute  $C$ . Intuitively, if a variable is not modified by  $C$  nor by  $\overline{D}$ , then its value will be unmodified when  $C$  is run again and it is not necessary to store it. We shall denote by  $\mathbf{out}(X)$  the set of variables overwritten by the code segment  $X$ . Also, only the variables that are going to be used by  $C$  need to be in the snapshot. Indeed, only the variables that are used by  $\overline{C}$  need to be stored, and this set is often smaller than the variables used by  $C$ . We shall call it  $\mathbf{live}(\overline{C})$ , and it is determined by the so-called *adjoint liveness analysis*. Therefore a good enough conservative definition of the snapshot is:

$$\mathbf{snp}(C) = \mathbf{live}(\overline{C}) \cap (\mathbf{out}(C) \cup \mathbf{out}(\overline{D})) \quad (5)$$

The data-flow equations of adjoint liveness analysis were defined formally in [11]. Snapshots can be refined further, taking into account the interactions between successive or nested checkpointed segments. A study on minimal snapshots can be found in [12].

Let's now focus on the checkpoint placement problem. In TAPENADE like in many other AD tools, the natural checkpointed segment is the procedure call. Therefore in the sequel we shall experiment with various placements of checkpoints, all around procedure calls, and therefore shown on call trees. This hypothesis is by no means restrictive and our conclusions can be extended to arbitrary cleanly nested code segments. Figure 4 shows (on

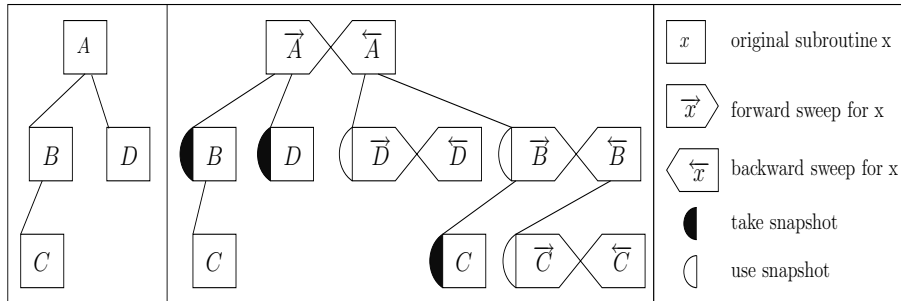


Figure 4: Joint-All mode: Checkpointing all calls in Reverse Mode AD

the left) the call graph of an original program, and the corresponding reverse-differentiated call graph, using the *Joint-All* mode, where all procedure calls are checkpointed. This *Joint-All* mode is naturally the basic mode, being the extreme trade-off that consumes time and saves memory. Memory resources are finite, whereas execution time resources are not. Therefore this choice is safest, especially if we assume that snapshots are generally smaller than the corresponding tape.

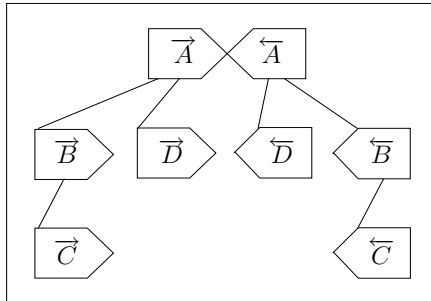


Figure 5: Split-All mode: no Checkpointing in Reverse Mode AD

Figure 5 shows the other extreme alternative, which checkpoints no procedure call. We call this alternative *Split-All* mode. In split mode the forward sweep and the backward sweep are implemented separately. There is no duplicate execution, so no snapshot is required and in theory the execution time is smallest. On the other hand the peak size of the tape is highest. Moreover, since the forward sweep and the backward sweep do not follow each other during execution, even the values of the local variables need to be stored, which requires even more intermediate values in the tape.

Split-All and Joint-All modes are two extreme strategies. It is worth trying hybrid cases, we present a couple of cases in Figure 6. The first strategy (hybrid1) implements the joint mode for all procedures except for  $D$ . Conversely, the second strategy (hybrid2) implements the split mode for all procedures except for procedure  $D$ , which is checkpointed.

In order to have a more precise idea of the aforementioned trade-off we shall simulate the performances of these four checkpointing strategies from figures 4, 5, and 6, for two motivating scenarios, namely when "*tape* > *snapshot*" and when "*tape* < *snapshot*". We assume that all procedures require the same snapshot and tape size. Also, we assume that each procedure has the same execution time.

For the first scenario, we set the memory size of the snapshot to 6 and the memory size of the tape to 10. This setup corresponds to the usual assumption that the tape is bigger than the snapshot for procedures. Figure 7 shows the behavior of the four checkpointing



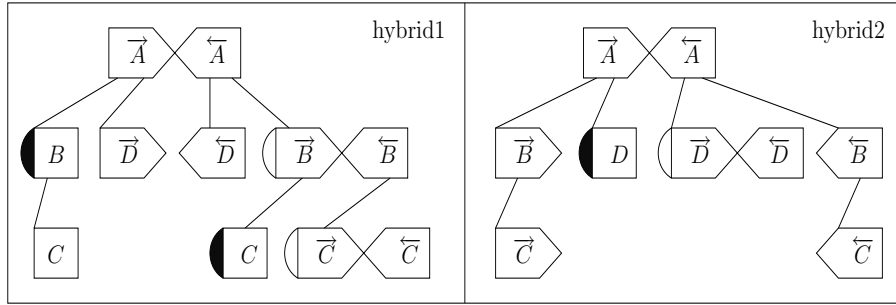


Figure 6: Two hybrid approaches (split-joint)

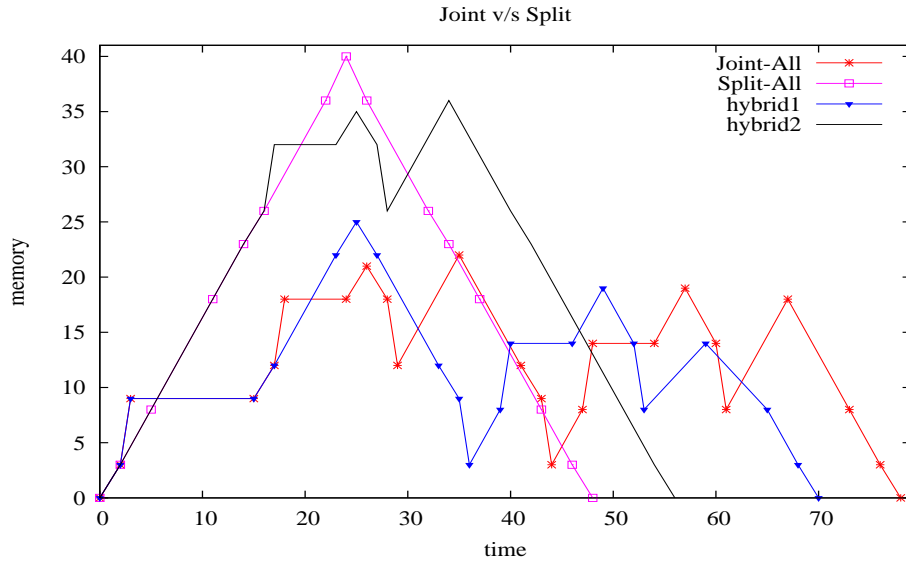


Figure 7: Numerical Simulation results, tape = 10, snapshot = 6

strategies. As we expected, the curve that represents the joint configuration shows the smallest memory use but the largest execution time. Conversely, the curve that represents the split mode has the highest peak of memory use but the shortest execution time. Hybrid strategies range between these two extremes.

This scenario assumed that the tape is bigger than the snapshot. However, this assumption is not always valid. Therefore we make a second simulation where we assume that the tape costs 6 in memory, and each snapshot costs 10. Figure 8 shows that Joint-All and Split-All modes are not the extreme of the trade-off anymore. In fact, the extreme bounds in memory consumption corresponds to the hybrid modes. We also notice that the maximum peak of memory use is smaller than in the first simulation, which is not surprising since it depends mostly on the tape size, which is assumed smaller. In this

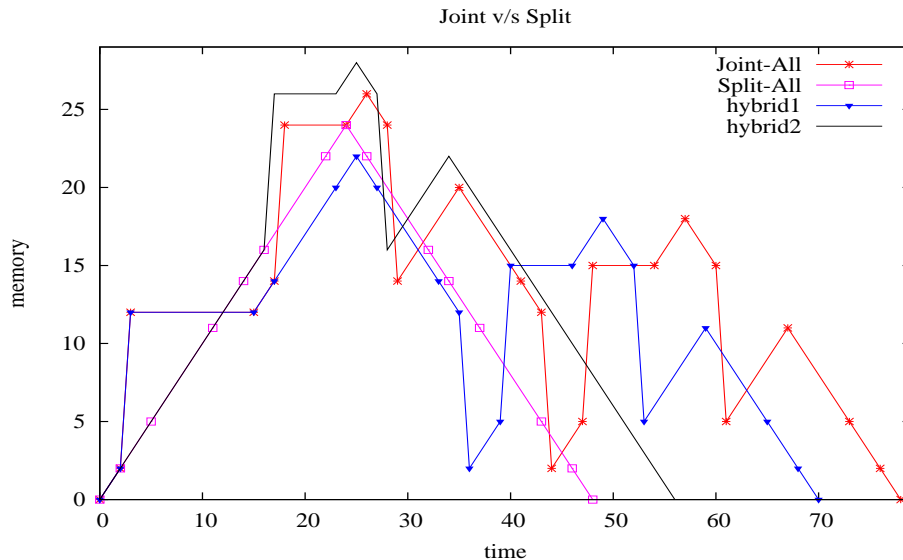


Figure 8: Numerical Simulation results, tape = 6, snapshot = 10

scenario, the advantage of checkpointing is less obvious because of the costs of snapshots, therefore the Split-All mode is nearly the best in every respect.

The real differentiated codes will have for every procedure different tape, snapshot and execution time characteristics, making this motivating simulation look a bit unreal. This gives us a feeling of the behavior of real codes, but experiments with real code are mandatory. Before we get to that, we shall briefly discuss the necessary implementation step.

## 4 IMPLEMENTATION

We implemented the algorithms and data-flow analysis mentioned in the previous section inside TAPENADE tool [10], which is a source-to-source AD engine. TAPENADE is written in JAVA and some modules are written in C. TAPENADE supports programs written in Fortran77 and Fortran90/95.

### 4.1 Modifications of the Data-Flow Analyses

The AD model that TAPENADE implements relies on several data-flow analyses, all of them formally defined in [9, 11]. However, these analyses implicitly made the assumption of the Joint-All strategy. The checkpointing strategy has a strong impact on adjoint liveness and TBR analyses, which are interprocedural. More precisely, it impacts the way data-flow information is propagated on the call graph during the bottom-up and top-down analyses sweeps.

For example, since for a checkpointed segment the forward sweep is followed immediately by the reverse sweep, we can use the fact that all original variables are useless at the end of the forward sweep. This is the foundation of the adjoint liveness analysis [11]. In the initial state of the AD tool where every call is checkpointed, this allowed the "adjoint-live" set at the tail of each procedure to be the empty set. The adjoint-liveness analysis can then proceed, backwards inside the flow-graph of the procedure, progressively accumulating variables into the set of live variables. In the new situation where a procedure can be left in split mode, the initial "adjoint-live" set at the tail of this procedure must change, and it depends of the live variables in each of its calling sites. More precisely, we shall set the live variables at the tail of a non-checkpointed procedure (i.e. split mode) to the union of all the live variables just after each of the call sites for this procedure.

In order to implement the mentioned adaptation we have to run the adjoint liveness analysis twice. A first sweep runs bottom-up on the original program call graph. In this sweep we build the effect of each procedure on the set of live variables, to be used in each of its call sites. The second run is top-down and accumulates the sets of live variable after each call site, before it is used as the initial set for the adjoint liveness analysis of every split procedure.

Similarly the TBR analysis had to be transformed. The TBR analysis runs forward, from the head to the tail of each procedure. At the outer level of the call graph, the analysis could run in only one bottom-up sweep. Because TBR analysis now requires a context information in the case of a non-checkpointed procedure, that will carry the union of the TBR status just before the call sites, we had to add a top-down sweep into the TBR analysis.

## 4.2 General Implementation Notes

Along with the modification of the analyses, the generation of the differentiated program must also be adapted. The AD model defined by equation (4) shows that the joint mode runs the backward sweep of  $C$ ,  $\overleftarrow{C}$ , immediately after its forward sweep  $\overrightarrow{C}$ . When  $C$  is a procedure,  $\overrightarrow{C}$  and  $\overleftarrow{C}$  can be easily merged into a single procedure  $\overleftrightarrow{C}$ . As a consequence, local variables of  $C$  (and therefore of  $\overrightarrow{C}$ ) are still in scope when  $\overleftarrow{C}$  starts, and naturally preserve their values. This is no longer possible in split mode, since procedure  $\overrightarrow{C}$  and  $\overleftarrow{C}$  are separated. Consequently, local variables of  $\overrightarrow{C}$  must be stored before they vanish and restored when  $\overleftarrow{C}$  starts. This was addressed in the implementation by adding an extension to the TBR analysis. This extension looks for the locals variables that are necessary for the backward sweep, when the end of the forward sweep is reached. These variables are PUSH'ed just at the end of the forward sweep and POP'ed at the beginning of the backward sweep.

We make the choice of generalization versus specialization, by allowing for only one split mode per procedure. Even then, this requires care in naming the procedures. We need to create up to four names (original, forward sweep, backward sweep and reverse differentiated) when split and joint strategies are combined. This problem is technical, but it has implications within the whole way TAPENADE handles the names of differentiated elements.

The split strategy is driven by the user by means of a directive (`C$AD NOCHECKPOINT`) which is placed just before the procedure call, or through a command line option (`-split "[list of procedure names]"`). The introduction of directives is a novel feature for TAPENADE.

## 5 EXPERIMENTAL MEASUREMENTS

We applied the split mode to certain procedure calls, looking for experimental confirmation of the intuitions from Section 5. In particular, we want to show the interest of letting the user drive the checkpointing strategy.

The procedures chosen to be split were the ones that best illustrate the memory and run-time trade-off. The criteria to choose procedures rely on two values, which can be obtained by studying the reverse generated code. These values are: the size of the snapshot and the size of the tape. The implementation of both snapshot and tape is based on `PUSH` calls, thus the measurements and comparisons between these values are straightforward.

In figures 9 and 11, loops are denoted by square brackets. For instance, on Figure 9 we have two loops, one which involves from subroutine `PASDTL` to subroutine `QUAIND`, and a second one which includes all `INBIGFUNC`'s procedures. In general, these loops are the segments of the programs that consume most of memory and time.

### 5.1 Experiment I: UNS2D

UNS2D is a CFD solver. It has 2.055 lines of code (LOC). The reverse differentiated version has 2.200 LOC.

The first four experiments 02 - 05 of Table 5.1 report gain both in time and memory, reminding us of the case where  $tape < snp$  (Figure 8). This is indeed what we observe when we measure the actual sizes of tape and snapshot for the procedures in question. Therefore, when each of `CALGRA`, `CALCL`, `QUAIND` or `ENTHALD` are split the program saves memory for the snapshot without using as much for the tape. At the same time it saves time because the procedure is not executed twice.

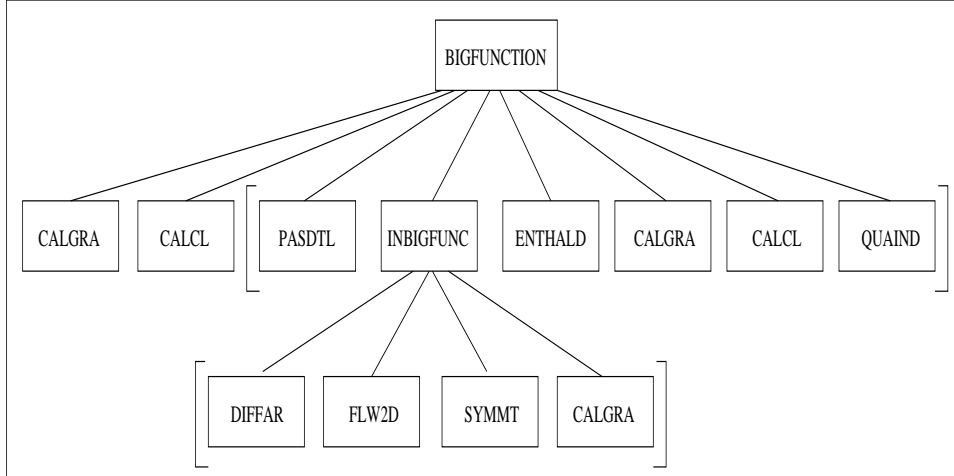


Figure 9: UNS2D call graph.

Experiment		Time		Memory	
Id	Description	Total [s]	% gain	Peak [Mb]	% gain
01	Joint-All strategy	41.69		184.69	
02	split mode CALCL (all call sites)	37.66	9.7	167.53	9.3
03	split mode QUAIND	37.54	9.9	162.13	12.2
04	split mode CALGRA (all call sites)	36.63	12.1	163.92	11.2
05	split mode ENTHALD	34.33	17.6	162.17	12.2
06	split mode INBIGFUNC	31.83	23.6	468.13	-153.5
07	02 and 05	33.95	18.6	163.20	11.6
08	03 and 06	31.75	23.8	446.82	-141.9
09	02, 04 and 05	35.81	14.1	174.45	5.5
10	02, 05 and 06	35.49	14.8	533.23	-188.7
11	02, 03, 04 and 05	38.50	7.6	184.45	0.13
12	02, 04, 05 and 06	30.92	25.8	408.88	-121.4
13	split mode all the above procedures	32.67	21.6	443.56	-140.2

Table 5.1: Memory and time performance for UNS2D.

Experiment 06 exhibits a gain in time at the cost of a larger memory use. As we suspected from the simulations on Figure 7, this corresponds to the case where  $snp < tape$ . This confirms the intuition that checkpointing is really worthwhile on large sections of program. In this situation checkpointing is really a time/memory trade-off. Therefore checkpointing INBIGFUNC (in other words the joint mode) is a wise choice when memory size is limited.

Experiments 07 - 13 can be separated in two sets: whether INBIGFUNC is checkpointed

(08, 10, 12 and 13) or not (07, 09 and 11). The separation criterion underlines the relative weight of the subroutine INBIGFUNC.

Experiments 07, 09 and 11 shows a remarkable behavior on the execution time performance. We would expect the execution time savings of combined split mode procedures to accumulate, as we observed in Figures 7 and 8. Surprisingly, the execution time for these experiments do not behave like that. In particular, the experiment 11's execution time saving (3.18s) is smaller than the execution time savings (4.03s, 4.15s, 5.03s and 7.36s) for any of the procedures split individually. We have at present no clear understanding of this behavior. It is likely that the present model we have about the performances of checkpointed reverse programs, is still insufficient to capture this behavior, and must be refined further.

As for concrete recommendations for this example, we advise to apply split mode sparingly, only on one or two of subroutines CALGRA, CALCL, or QUAIND in the case where there are strict memory constraints. This allows for memory savings up to 12%. On the other hand, if memory is not an issue and speed is, we recommend the configuration of experiment 12.

## 5.2 Experiment II: SONICBOOM

SONICBOOM is a part of a CFD solver which computes the residual of a state equation. It has 14.263 LOC, but only 818 LOC to be differentiated, generating 2.987 LOC of derivative procedures.

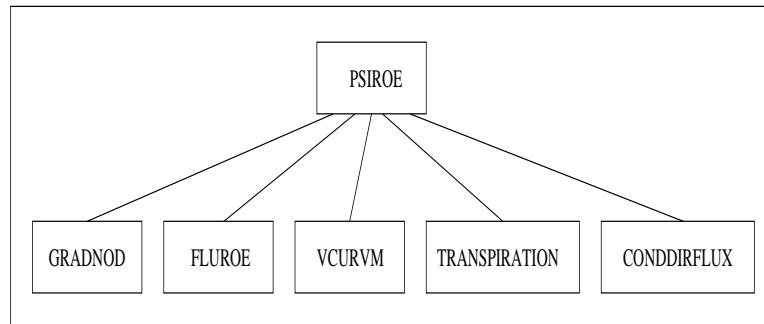


Figure 10: SONICBOOM call graph.

The first group of experiments 02 - 04 from Table 5.2, shows gains in execution time, because the procedures are executed only once. There is no gain in memory because the size of the snapshot and the tape are very close.

Experiment		Time		Memory	
Id	Description	Total [s]	% gain	Peak [Mb]	% gain
01	Joint-All strategy	0.2900		10.84	
02	split mode VCURNVM	0.2725	6.0	10.84	0.0
03	split mode CONDDIRFLUX	0.2699	6.9	10.84	0.0
04	split mode FLUROE	0.2500	13.8	11.06	-2.0
05	split mode GRADNOD	0.2374	18.1	18.77	-73.1
06	02 and 03	0.2624	9.5	10.84	0.0
07	04 and 05	0.2374	18.1	19.00	-75.2
08	02, 03 and 04	0.2475	14.7	11.08	-2.2
09	02, 03 and 05	0.2360	18.6	18.77	-73.1
10	split mode all the above procedures	0.2374	18.1	19.00	-75.2

Table 5.2: Memory and time performance for SONICBOOM.

The experiments where GRADNOD is among the split subroutines exhibit the largest gain in execution time. This is related to the fact that GRADNOD accounts for the largest part of the computation, and since the tape size grows like the number of executed instructions,  $tape(\text{GRADNOD})$  is much larger than  $snp(\text{GRADNOD})$ . For the other procedures in this experiment we also have  $tape < snp$ , but to a smaller extent. Therefore, everything behaves like in the classical case of Figure 7. In particular, there is no procedure for which the split mode would give a gain in a memory consumption.

It is worth noticing that the effect of the split mode is really an increase in memory traffic rather than in memory peak size. For example splitting CONDDIRFLUX certainly results in a higher memory traffic, but the local increase of the local memory peak is hidden by the main memory peak which occurs just after  $\overrightarrow{\text{GRADNOD}}$ . We are currently carrying new experiments and developing refined models that include this memory traffic.

Practically for this experiment, our advice would be to run subroutines FLUROE, VCURNVM and CONDDIRFLUX (experiment 08) in split mode in any case, and this already gives a 14.7% improvement in time at virtually no cost in memory. In the case where memory size is not limited strongly, then it is advisable to run GRADNOD in split mode too, which gives an additional gain in time at the cost of a large increase in memory peak.

### 5.3 Experiment III: STICS

STICS is an agronomy modeling program. It has 21.010 LOC, and the reverse differentiated code generated has 46.921 LOC. In the code of STICS, we introduce three levels of nested loops around subroutine ONEBIGLOOP because this code simulates and unsteady process over 400 time steps. These nested loops are a manual modification that allow us to perform checkpointing on various groups of time steps. We acknowledge that this

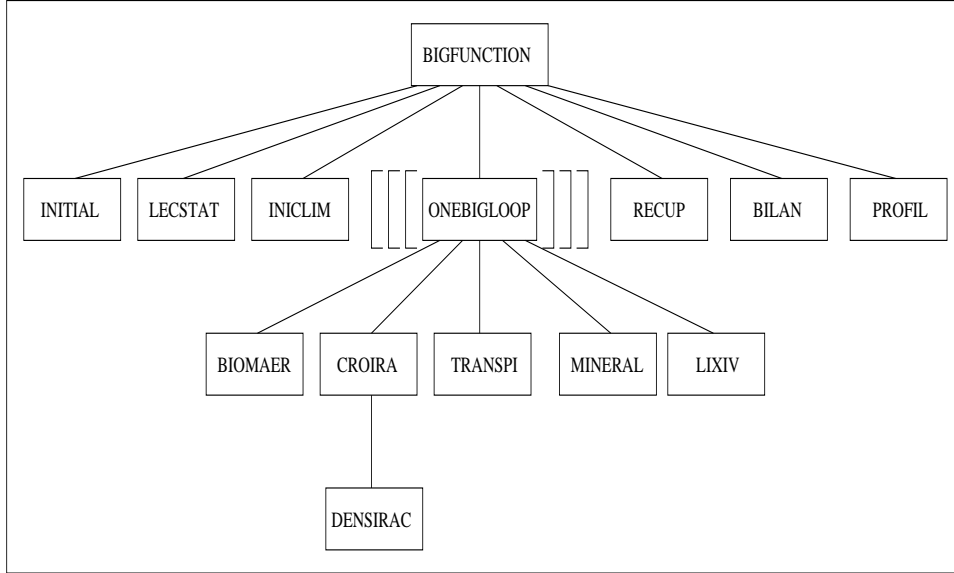


Figure 11: STICS call graph.

simplistic method is far from the known optimal strategy first described in [5].

Experiment		Time		Memory	
Id	Description	Total [s]	% gain	Peak [Mb]	% gain
01	Joint-All strategy	38.56		229.23	
02	split mode BIOMAER	36.15	6.3	229.23	0.0
03	split mode MINERAL	35.78	7.2	229.28	0.0
04	split mode DENSIRAC	30.02	22.1	229.23	0.0
05	split mode CROIRA	24.45	36.6	229.23	0.0
06	split mode ONEBIGLOOP	23.75	38.4	229.75	-0.2
07	04 and 05	16.79	56.5	229.23	0.0
08	04 and 06	15.64	59.4	229.75	-0.2
08	05 and 06	11.71	69.6	206.81	9.8
09	04, 05 and 06	3.93	89.8	149.11	34.9
09	03, 04, 05 and 06	3.92	89.8	149.11	34.9
09	split all the above procedures	3.90	89.9	149.11	34.9

Table 5.3: Memory and time performance for STICS.

For this experiment, the default (Split-All) strategy applied by TAPENADE gave very bad results in time, with a slowdown factor of about 100 from the original code to the reverse differentiated code. We made some measurements of the tape sizes compared to the snapshot sizes, and we found out that tape was much smaller than snapshot for sub-



routines DENSIRAC, CROIRA and ONEBIGLOOP. This is a special case of the situation of Figure 8 and is reflected on the experimental figures of Table 5.3. We see that split mode on these three procedures gain execution time at no memory cost. Combined split mode on the three procedures (experiment 09) gives an even better result.

The enormous gain in execution time makes the differentiated/original ratio go down to about 7, which is what AD tools generally claim. In the STICS experiment, the execution time of the Split-All version did not come from the duplicate executions due to checkpointing but rather from the time needed to PUSH and POP these very large snapshots. This suggests that a complete model to study optimal checkpointing strategies should definitely take into account the time spent for tape and snapshots operations.

Practically, in the STICS example there is no doubt DENSIRAC, CROIRA and ONEBIGLOOP should be differentiated in split mode. In addition, one can differentiate additional procedures in split mode, (e.g. MINERAL), but the additional execution time gain is marginal.

## 6 CONCLUSION, RELATED WORKS, FUTURE WORK

This paper is a contribution towards the ultimate goal of optimally placing checkpoints in adjoint codes built by reverse mode Automatic Differentiation. We started from the observation that the strategy consisting in checkpointing each and every procedure call is in general, although safe from the memory point of view, far from optimal. Both simulations on very small examples, and real experiments on real-life programs show that some procedures should never be checkpointed, and that others may be checkpointed depending on the available memory. The great variety of possible situations makes the objective of automatic selection of checkpointing sites very distant. It seems therefore reasonable to let the user drive this choice through an adapted user interface. We discussed the developments that we made into the AD tool TAPENADE to add this functionality. This new functionality allowed us to conduct extensive experiments on real codes, that justified a posteriori our hypotheses on this optimal checkpointing problem and suggest the relevant criteria for a future helping tool namely, for each procedure, its execution time, its tape and snapshot sizes, and the time required by tape PUSH and POP traffic.

Related works on optimal checkpointing have been conducted mostly on the model case of loops of fixed-size iterations. Only in the particular sub-case where the number of iterations is known in advance was an optimal scheme found mathematically [5]. This gave rise to the TREEVERSE/REVOLVE [6] tool for an automatic application of this scheme. In the case where the number of iterations is not known in advance, a very interesting sub-optimal scheme was proposed in [13]. We are not aware of optimal checkpointing schemes for the case of an arbitrary call-tree or call graph. Notice that checkpointing is not the only way to improve the performance of the reverse mode of AD. Local optimization can reduce the computation cost of the derivatives by re-ordering the sub-expressions inside

derivatives [8]. Other optimizations implement a fine-grain time/memory trade-off by storing expensive sub-expressions that occur several times in the derivatives. In any case these are local optimizations that only give a fixed small benefit. For large programs, only nested checkpointing can make reverse differentiated codes actually run without exceeding the memory capacity of the machine, and therefore the study of optimal checkpointing schemes is an absolute necessity.

User-driven placement of checkpointing is an important step in this direction, but further work is needed to help this placement or to propose a good enough automatic strategy. This could be based on execution time profiling of the original program or even of the differentiated code itself. In any case, we need to study the experimental figures found and to refine the model we have built for the performance of reverse differentiated codes. In particular this model must better take into account some of the surprising effects we have found, such as time gains that do not add up. This suggests a process of iterative improvements of the reverse differentiated codes, based on previous runs, much like what is done in iterative compilation [15].

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