# High-Performance Computing in R

Introduction to Computational BioStatistics with R

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# High-performance R

#### Just a reminder:

- R is an interpreted language. As such, there is an extra layer of infrastructure (the interpreter) needed to make R run
- As a general rule, because of the extra layer of infrastructure, interpreted languages (R, Python, Bash, Perl, ...) are not high-performance languages
- True high-performance languages are compiled, and thus they lack the extra layer of infrastructure: C, C++, Fortran
- That being said, there are ways of making R better. That is the goal of this class

### R and memory

One must be cognisant of how R manages memory:

- R is "pass by value" if the variables being passed are being modified within the function.
   As such, R frequently needs to make temporary copies of variables, and hitting the memory limit of your machine can be a frequent problem
- Like many dynamic languages, R relies on "garbage collection" to limit its memory usage
- In a running code, "every so often" a garbage collection task runs and deletes variables that won't be used any more
- You can force the garbage collector to run at any given time by calling gc(), but this almost never fixes anything significant
- How can GC know that you're not going to use that big variable in the next line? The garbage collector needs your help to be effective

# Useful memory-management commands

- gc(verbose = TRUE), or just gc(TRUE)
  - ► Calling gc(TRUE) alone probably won't help anything, but it does give verbose output, returning memory usage as a matrix
- ls()
  - Lists all existing variables, as strings
- object.size(variablename)
  - ▶ Pass it a variable, and it prints out its size
  - ▶ Pass it get("variablename") and it will also print its size
- rm(variablename)
  - Deletes a variable you no longer need. Lets gc go to work
- Fun little one-liner which prints out all variables by size in bytes
- > sort(sapply(ls(), function(x) {object.size(get(x))}), decreasing = TRUE)

### object.size and gc

```
> gc()
                (Mb) gc trigger (Mb) max used
                                                   (Mb)
          used
Ncells 183250 9.8 407500 21.8 350000 18.7
Vcells 377223 2.9 905753 7.0 864975 6.6
> get.mem <- function() return(gc()[, 1:2])</pre>
> old.mem <- get.mem()</pre>
> x \leftarrow rep(0., (16 * 1024)**2)
> xsize <- object.size(x)</pre>
> xsize
2147483688 bytes
> print(xsize, units = "MB")
2048 Mb
> get.mem() - old.mem
             used
                     (Mb)
Ncells
              445
Vcells 268436139 2048
```

### object.size and gc, some more

Now let's delete the object and see how the system memory behaves

Be sure to delete temporary variables in your scripts, especially large ones!

## **Profiling**

To push your code to new heights of awesome, or to make it useful at all (depending on your situation), you will need to profile your code. What is profiling?

- Profiling is analyzing where the code is spending its time. Which parts of the code are slowest?
- Testing how long individual functions take can be performed with the 'microbenchmark' package, or more crudely, system.time
- To test the whole program we use the 'Rprof' package

We'll do some examples of each.

## Profiling individual functions

• The system.time command uses the OS's time command to determine how long the code takes to run.

```
> f <- function() {
+    a <- 1
+    for (i in 1:1e8) {
+     a <- a + i
+    }
+ }
> system.time(f())
    user system elapsed
    0.964    0.002    0.967
```

## Profiling individual functions - microbenchmark

- The microbenchmark function is more systematic. It takes an average over 100 calls of the function. Consequently, it can take a while to run
- Note that the microbenchmark package will need to be downloaded

# Profiling individual functions - microbenchmark

• You can use microbenchmark to compare performance of multiple functions:

```
x = runif(100)
microbenchmark(
   sqrt(x),
   x ^ 0.5
)
Unit: nanoseconds
```

```
Unit: nanoseconds
expr min lq mean median uq max neval
sqrt(x) 287 328 604.34 369 430.5 10742 100
x^0.5 1968 2009 2106.17 2050 2091.0 5248 100
```

### Profiling whole programs

Use Rprof to analyse where the code is spending its time.

```
> addme <- function(a, b) { Sys.sleep(0.001); return(a + b) }</pre>
  test <- function() {</pre>
    a <- 1
+ for (i in 1:1e5)
      a \leftarrow addme(a, i)
+ }
> Rprof("Rprof.data")
> test()
> Rprof(NULL)
> s <- summaryRprof("Rprof.data")</pre>
> s$by.total
                         total.time total.pct self.time self.pct
"test"
                                1.82
                                          100.0
                                                      0.00
                                                                 0.0
"Sys.sleep"
                                1.80
                                           98.9
                                                      1.80
                                                                98.9
"addme"
                                1 80
                                           98 9
                                                      0.00
                                                                 0.0
```

### **Rprof**

Some notes about the last slide:

- Rprof samples the program every 20ms, by default, to see where the program is spending its time
- Use Rprof("filename") to store the Rprof results in a particular file
- Use Rprof(NULL) to turn off profiling
- You can read "filename" if you want. It's easier to just use summaryRprof("filename") to analyse the results
- Results are given in data frames
- Columns total.time and total.pct (total percent) include all time spent within a function, including calls to other functions
- self.time and self.pct indicate actually real time spent in each function (self.pct should add up to 100%, give or take rounding).

# foreach and doparallel

The "master/worker" approach that parallel enables works extremely well for moderately sized problems, and isn't that difficult to use. It is all based on one form of R iteration, apply, which is well understood.

However, going from serial to parallel requires some re-writing, and even going from one method of parallelism to another (eg, multicore-style to snow-style) requires some modification of code.

The foreach package is based on another style of iterating through data - a for loop - and is designed so that one can go from serial to several forms of parallel relatively easily. There are then a number of tools one can use in the library to improve performance.

#### foreach - serial

The standard R for loop looks like this:

```
> for (i in 1:2) print(sqrt(i))
[1] 1
[1] 1.414214
```

The foreach operator looks similar, but returns a list of the iterations:

```
> library(foreach)
> foreach (i=1:2) %do% sqrt(i)
[[1]]
[1] 1
[[2]]
[1] 1.414214
```

### foreach + doParallel

Foreach works with a variety of backends to distribute computation - doParallel, which allows snow- and multicore-style parallelism, and doMPI (not covered here).

Switching the above loop to parallel just requires registering a backend and using %dopar% rather than %do%:

```
> library(doParallel)
> registerDoParallel(3) # use multicore-style forking
> foreach (i=1:2) %dopar% sqrt(i)
\lceil \lceil 1 \rceil \rceil
Γ1 1
[[2]]
[1] 1.414214
 stopImplicitCluster()
```

#### foreach + doParallel

#### One can also use a PSOCK cluster:

```
> cl <- makePSOCKcluster(3)</pre>
> registerDoParallel(cl) # use the just-made PSOCK cluster
> foreach (i=1:3) %dopar% sqrt(i)
[[1]]
Γ17 1
\lceil \lceil 2 \rceil \rceil
[1] 1.414214
[[3]]
[1] 1.732051
  stopCluster(cl)
```

### Combining results

While returning a list is the default, foreach has a number of ways to combine the individual results:

Most of these are self explanatory. multicombine is worth mentioning: by default, foreach will combine each new item individually. If .multicombine=TRUE, then you are saying that you're passing a function which will do the right thing even if foreach gives it a whole wack of new results as a list or vector - e.g., a whole chunk at a time.

## Summary: foreach

Foreach is a wrapper for the other parallel methods we've seen, so it inherits some of the advantages and drawbacks of each.

Use foreach if: - Your code already relies on for-style iteration; transition is easy

- You don't know if you want multicore vs. snow style parallel use: you can switch just by registering a different backend!
- You want to be able to incrementally improve the performance of your code.

Note that you can have portions of your analysis code use foreach with parallel and portions using the backend with apply-style parallelism; it doesn't have to be all one or the other.

### Compiled code

It is possible to interface your R code with compiled code. Why would you want to do that?

- It's fast! Compiled code is always faster than interpreted code
- If you can get the slowest parts of your code into a compiled language, you can leave the rest in R
- R comes with the ability to byte-compile specific functions
- It's also possible to write your own pure C++ or Fortran code to interface with R, but it's a pain
- It's easier to use the Rcpp package, written by Dirk Eddelbuettel, Romain Francois, and others
- This package allows you to easily interface with C++ code

## Byte-compiled R code

We can byte-compile specific R functions using the compiler package. Since R 3.4.0, loops are automatically byte-compiled before they are run, and all functions are compiled on their first or second use.

Here we're using the enableJIT (Just In Time compiler) function to turn off automatic byte compiling. In general, you should NOT do this. We're only doing this for the purposes of comparing speeds.

```
> library(compiler); library(microbenchmark)
> oldJIT <- enableJIT(0); n <- 1e5</pre>
  f \leftarrow function(n) \{ x \leftarrow 1; for (i in 1:n) x \leftarrow 1 / (1 + x) \}
> lf <- cmpfun(f)</pre>
> microbenchmark(f(n), lf(n))
Unit: milliseconds
  expr
              min
                          lq
                                   mean
                                            median
                                                          uq
                                                                    max neval
  f(n) 13.439841 13.778255 14.309054 13.860767 14.38052 27.337693
                                                                           100
 lf(n) 1.359232 1.362942 1.372936 1.364152 1.37596
                                                             1.526307
                                                                           100
```

# Byte-compiled R code

#### Some notes about the last slide:

- Byte compiling is not the same as actually compiling code, as is done with compiled languages:
  - ▶ Byte compiling creates a byte object, which is executed by a virtual machine
  - ▶ Compiled languages are compiled into machine code, which is directly used by the hardware
- Nonetheless, byte compiling can be significantly faster than running the code through the R interpreter
- If you run a function multiple times, R will automatically byte-compile it for you. Better to just byte-compile it in your utilities file.
- Automatic byte compiling can be turned off using the enableJIT function, though this is not recommended

### Installing Rcpp

We're going to be doing examples with Rcpp. But, if you're using Windows...

- Rcpp is not a default R package; you will need to download and install it
- Because Rcpp compiles code (that's the point), you will need a compiler on your computer
- If you're using Linux or a Mac, you're probably OK
- On Windows, you need to go here, and download "Rtools":

https://cran.r-project.org/bin/windows/Rtools

Note that Rtools is quite large, and will require some time to download. It's probably best not to do this during class.

# Using Rcpp

Once the function is defined, it will automatically be compiled, this is why it takes a moment for the cppFunction command to finish.

Once compiled, Rcpp creates an R function which links to the compiled C++ code.

```
> library(Rcpp)
> cppFunction("int times(int x, int y) {
+   int product = x * y;
+   return product;
+ }")
> times(34, 4)
[1] 136
> 34 * 4
[1] 136
```

## Using Rcpp

#### Some notes about this example:

- Rcpp defines special C++ data types which are compatible with R data types:
  - ▶ IntegerVector, NumericVector, LogicalVector, CharacterVector
  - ▶ IntegerMatrix, NumericMatrix, LogicalMatrix, CharacterMatrix
  - ► Lists, DataFrames
- These data types allow the ability to deal with missing values, using the is\_na() function

Note that you should always test your code carefully when using multiple languages. Sometimes surprises can creep in.

# Making your code awesome

### Some tips:

- Save your function profiling until you know that the function works correctly. Don't succumb to "premature optimization"
- Do byte compiling first. It's easy and may be good enough
- Put your byte-compiled functions in your utilities files
- Don't be afraid of Rcpp. Once you know how to program in one language, you're at least 80% of the way to programming in all languages
- Ask us for help, if speed becomes an issue for your productivity