Matched filters for coalescing binaries detection on massively parallel computers

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Abstract

In this paper we discuss some computational problems associated to matched filtering of experimental signals from gravitational wave interferometric detectors in a parallel-processing environment. We then specialize our discussion to the use of the APEmille and apeNEXT processors for this task. Finally, we accurately estimate the performance of an APEmille system on a computational load appropriate for the LIGO and VIRGO experiments, and extrapolate our results to apeNEXT.

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1. Introduction

Several earth-based interferometric experiments for the detection of gravitational waves (GW) are currently under development, and expected to reach the data-taking stage in the near future. On a longer time scale, space-based experiments are foreseen [1]. These experiments will search, among other, for GW generated by inspiralling compact binary-star systems.

The expected functional form of the signal produced by a coalescing system is known to good approximation [2], so matched filtering is an effective strategy to extract GW signals from the noise background. Matched filtering is basically obtained by projecting the experimental output (signal plus noise) onto the expected signal, and is best done in Fourier space, using Fast Fourier Transform (FFT) techniques (see later for more details). The functional form of the expected signal depends however on the physical parameters (e.g., masses, angular momenta, eccentricity) of the inspiralling system. It is necessary to match the experimental output to a set of expected signals (so-called templates) corresponding to points in the parameter space that cover the physical region of interest and are close enough (under some appropriate metric) to ensure sufficient overlap with any expected GW event.

The number of needed templates for, e.g., the VIRGO experiment is of order of $10^5 \cdots 10^6$, so the corresponding computational cost is huge by current standards. One would like to perform real-time analysis of the experimental data, which means...
that available computing power should be enough to process experimental data at the rate at which they are produced, so a prompt “trigger” of a GW event is possible [3].

Matched filtering to a (large) set of templates is an obvious candidate for parallel processing of the simplest form, e.g., data farming with all elements of the farm performing the same computation (Single Program Multiple Data (SPMD) processing). Indeed, the experimental data stream is sent to all processors in the farm, each element performing the matching procedures for a subset of the physical templates.

Massively parallel specialized SPMD architectures, with peak processing power of the order of 1 Tflops have been developed by several groups to fulfill the computational requirements of Lattice Gauge Theories (LGT) [4]. In this paper we want to analyze the performance of one such system (the APEmille system [5]) for matched filtering of GW signals. This paper is not a proposal to use APE-like systems in an actual experimental environment (the relative merits of different computer systems in a large experiment have so many facets that they can only be assessed by those directly working on it). Rather, the potential usefulness of our work lies in the following: Different computing strategies for the problem at hand can be conceived and different computer systems (e.g., very large clusters of PCs) can be used. It would be interesting to evaluate performances on such systems. However, given the fast pace of development in the computer industry, an experiment will try to delay the choice of the best available combination of computing strategy/computer system and the commissioning of a production system to as late a point in time as possible, since huge gains in price and/or price/performance can be expected. This means that very large computing capabilities will not be available for much needed early tests and simulations. APE systems might provide an answer to this problem.

The focus of this paper is the measurement of the performance of APE systems for matched filtering. Some parts of the paper have however a more general scope and refer to general parallelization criteria for the problem at hand.

This paper is structured as follows: Section 2 briefly reviews the formalism of matched filtering. Section 3 evaluates the associated computational cost in general terms and discusses some strategies to minimize this quantity. Section 4 discusses the features of the APE systems relevant for the problem, while Section 5 presents a procedure for allocation of templates to processors suitable for APE and general enough to adapt to other computer systems. Section 6 presents the result of actual performance measurements made on APE, while Section 7 contains our concluding remarks.

2. Formalism

In this section we briefly summarize the mathematical formalism recently developed to analyze matched filtering of GW signals from coalescing binaries. We closely follow the notation presented in [8].

We call \( h(t) \) the interferometer output, which is the sum of the signal \( s(t) \) and the noise \( n(t) \), while \( u(t) \) is a template. \( n(t) \) is characterized by its one-sided spectral density:

\[
E[\hat{n}(f_1)\hat{n}^*(f_2)] = \frac{1}{2} \delta(f_1 - f_2)S_n(|f_1|),
\]

where \( E[\ldots] \) means ensemble expectation value, tilde (\( \sim \)) stands for Fourier transformed functions and asterisk (\( * \)) for complex conjugation.

For the sake of definiteness, we consider in the following templates computed to second post-Newtonian expansion. They depend, in principle, on several parameters: the coalescing phase \( \phi_c \) and coalescing time \( t_c \), and the parameters corresponding to the physical characteristics of the system, called intrinsic parameters and globally referred to by the vector \( \theta \). A template is precisely identified by \( u(t; \theta, \phi_c, t_c) \). It is believed that the most relevant intrinsic parameters are the masses of the binary systems, so as a first approximation it is usual to neglect all other intrinsic parameters. In this approximation, \( \theta \) is a vector of two components.

In a matched filter the signal to noise ratio (SNR) is usually defined by

\[
\frac{S}{N} \equiv \frac{\langle h, u \rangle}{\text{rms}(n, u)},
\]

where \( \langle \ldots \rangle \) is a particular inner product defined as:

\[
\langle h, u \rangle \equiv 2 \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{\tilde{h}^*(f) \cdot \tilde{u}(f)}{S_n(f)} \, df.
\]
It can be shown that \( \text{rms}(u, u) = \langle (u, u) \rangle^{1/2} \), so (2) simplify to \( S/N = \langle h, u \rangle \), if normalized templates are used [6].

Filtering a signal means to look for local maxima of the signal to noise ratio, in terms of its continuous parameters. The maximization over the phase \( \phi_c \) can be done analytically (it can be seen that the maximum value is obtained computing two inner product as in (3) on two real templates with opposite phases and then summing their square values [10]). Maximization over \( t_c \) instead is achieved at low computational cost calculating the cross correlations by the FFT algorithm. Maximizations over the intrinsic parameters are not possible analytically. For this reason the normal procedure consists in a discretization of templates in the space of the intrinsic parameters.

The obvious question concerns the number of templates needed to cover the whole parameter space. A differential geometrical approach has been developed recently [7]. One introduces a new function, the match \( M(\theta_1, \theta_2) \), which is the inner product of two templates with different intrinsic parameters, where a maximization is assumed over \( t_c \) and \( \phi_c \):

\[
M(\theta_1, \theta_2) \equiv \max_{\Delta \phi_c, \Delta t_c} \left\{ u(\theta_1, \phi_c + \Delta \phi_c, t_c + \Delta t_c), \right. \\
\left. u(\theta_2, \phi_c, t_c) \right\}.
\]

The match between two templates with near equal parameters may be Taylor expanded

\[
M(\theta, \theta + \Delta \theta) \simeq 1 + \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\partial^2 M(\theta, \omega)}{\partial \omega^i \partial \omega^j} \right)_{\omega^k = 0} \Delta \theta^i \Delta \theta^j
\]

sugesting the definition of a metric

\[
g_{ij}(\theta) \equiv -\frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\partial^2 M(\theta, \omega)}{\partial \omega^i \partial \omega^j} \right)_{\omega^k = 0},
\]

\[
M(\theta, \theta + \Delta \theta) \simeq 1 - g_{ij}(\theta) \Delta \theta^i \Delta \theta^j.
\]

In the limit of close template spacing we have an analytical function able to measure the distance between templates in the intrinsic parameter space. The metric \( g_{ij}(\theta) \) depends on the intrinsic parameters so the real volume covered by a template varies locally. This effect can be reduced writing the templates in terms of some new variables for which the metric is more regular. One suitable choice is the following [8]:

\[
\theta_1 = \frac{5}{128} (\pi f_0)^{-5/3} \frac{M^{-2/3}}{\mu}, \tag{8}
\]

\[
\theta_2 = \frac{1}{4} \pi^{1/3} f_0^{-5/3} \frac{M^{1/3}}{\mu}, \tag{9}
\]

where \( M \) is the total mass of the binary system, \( \mu \) the reduced mass, and \( f_0 \) an arbitrary frequency. This change of variables makes the metric tensor components constant at the first post-Newtonian order, so only small \( \theta \)-dependent contributions are present at the second order approximation.

It is now possible to simply estimate the total number of templates necessary to recover the signal at a given level of accuracy. We calculate the volume covered by a single template in the parameter space in terms of a minimal value for the match, the so-called minimal match \( MM \) which states a minimal requirement on signal recovery capabilities. For example, if we simply use a face centered hyper-cubic lattice, we can write the maximum covering volume with:

\[
\Delta V = \left( \frac{2}{D} \right)^D \left( \frac{1 - MM}{D} \right)^D, \tag{10}
\]

where \( D \) is the dimension of the parameter space (2 in our example).

An approximate estimation of the total template number, applicable when \( N \) is very large [8], is given taking the ratio between the total volume of the physically relevant parameter space and the volume covered by a template placed in the center of a lattice tile

\[
N(MM) = \frac{\int d^N \theta \sqrt{\text{det} g}}{\Delta V}. \tag{11}
\]

Using (11) we estimate that in the range from 0.25 to 10.0 solar masses the total template number is roughly 3.8 · 10^4 for LIGO and 1.1 · 10^6 for VIRGO (see Section 5 for the additional assumptions involved in this calculation).

A last remark we want to make is that the minimal match requirement also determines a threshold value for the signal (and templates) sampling frequency. This frequency can be simply estimated and will be take into account later on in our computational estimates.
3. General strategy

In this section we present some observations about a general strategy to compute correlations. Here we consider an ideal case in which most computer-related issues are neglected. We also limit our treatment only to the stored templates strategy, where templates are pre-calculated, then Fourier transformed and prepared to be processed and finally stored in memory. This ideal case is not unrealistic, given the pace at which actual memory sizes increase in real computers. The quantity to be evaluated on every template is given by

\[ C(t) = \left| \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \tilde{u}(f) \cdot \hat{s}(f) e^{-i2\pi ft} df \right|, \]

where \( \tilde{h}(f) = \hat{S}_n(f) \).

At present the best way of computing \( C(t) \) uses a FFT algorithm, reducing the number of needed operations from \( n^2 \) to \( n \log_2 n \). The FFT algorithm assumes input periodicity, while in our case signal and templates are not repeated data. The usual trick to overcome this problem [9] consists in padding with a certain number of zeros the tail of the templates to be processed. Assume that the template has \( n_T \) points. We pad it so its total length become \( n_P \), and then compute the correlation by using the padded template and \( n_P \) signal points. The resulting correlations are only valid in their first \( n_P - n_T \) points, all remaining points being affected by the periodicity assumption implied in the FFT technique. We define padding-ratio the quantity \( R_{pad} = n_P/n_T \). The result obtained in this way covers a time-period of length \( (n_P - n_T)/f_s \), where \( f_s \) is the sampling frequency of the experimental signal. The last \( n_T \) data-points will have to be re-analyzed in a successive analysis.

The computing power necessary for an on-line analysis of templates of given \( n_T \) and \( n_P \) (floating point operations per second) is given by:

\[ C_p = \frac{f_s}{n_P - n_T} \cdot (A \cdot n_P \log_2(n_P) + B \cdot n_P). \]  

(13)

A and B are constants, usually of the same order, depending on the specific algorithm used. In this paper we use a simple-minded FFT algorithm for power two length vectors that involves \( A = 5 \) and \( B = 12 \) for the whole analysis.

More efficient algorithms might be used, boosting overall performance by small factors. It would be appropriate to include these improvements if an APE system is actually used in a production environment. In our exploratory work our simple-minded choice does not influence strongly the following observations and our final results.

One interesting question concerns the optimal padding that minimizes computing requirements. If one disregards the fact that (13) holds only for \( n_P \) values that are powers of 2, the answer is given by Fig. 1, where the minimum in \( n_P \) of Eq. (14) is plot-

![Fig. 1. Estimate of the computing power (floating point operations per second Flops), versus template length \( n_T \) for an optimal choice of \( n_P \). We set \( A = 5 \), \( B = 12 \) and \( f_s = 1 \) kHz (see Eq. (13)).](image-url)
Fig. 2. Computing power in Flops versus the padding ratio \( n_P/n_T \), for three typical template lengths. We use the same parameters as in the previous figure.

...ted as a function of \( n_T \), for \( f_s = 1 \, \text{kHz} \). The behavior is very close to a logarithmic function in \( n_T \), so computing costs depend very weakly on \( n_T \). This result is obtained for an optimal choice of \( n_P \), as discussed above. As shown in Fig. 2, the optimal value for \( n_P \) grows with \( n_T \), implying in principle very large memory requests. In practice however (see again Fig. 2) for \( n_T \) values relevant in the present discussion a value of \( n_P/n_T \simeq 2 \cdots 4 \) yields a computational cost within a factor two of the optimal case. This finally means that deviations from the optimal padding length do not produce drastic consequences on the computing power needed to perform the analysis, and that \( n_P \) can be easily adjusted to a suitable power of two.

4. Analysis on APEmille

The APE family of massively parallel processor systems has been developed in order to satisfy the number crunching requirements of Lattice Gauge Theories (LGT) [5]. Machines of the present APE generation (APEmille) are installed at several sites, delivering an overall peak processing power of about 2 Tflops. The largest sites have typically 1000 processing nodes (i.e. 520 Gflops) [12]. Sustained performance on production-grade LGT codes is about 45% of peak performance. A new APE generation (APEnext) is under development, and expected to reach the physics-production stage in early 2004. O(10 Tflops) peak performance installations are being considered.

APEmille systems are based on a building block containing 8 processing nodes (processor and memory) running in Single Instruction Multiple Data (SIMD) mode. Each processor is optimized for floating point arithmetics and has a peak performance of 500 MFlops in IEEE single precision mode. The processors are logically assembled as the sites of a \( 2 \times 2 \times 2 \) mesh, with data links connecting the edges. This arrangement is called a “cluster” or a “Cube”.

Large APEmille systems are based on a larger 3-dimensional mesh of processors, based on replicas of the above-described building block. The resulting mesh has a full set of first neighbor communication links. In a typical LGT application the whole system works in lock-step mode as a single SIMD system. More important for the present application, each Cube is able to operate independently, running its own program under the control of a Linux-based personal-computer acting as a host. There is one host machine every 4 Cubes. A set of up to 32 Cubes (i.e. 256 nodes) and the corresponding 8 host machines is a fully independent unit housed in a standard-size mechanical enclosure. Each Cube has access to networked disks with a bandwidth of about 4 MByte/sec. In some APEmille installations, disks have been mounted directly on the host PCs. In this case, bandwidth increases approximately by a factor 4.

The next generation APE system (APENEXT) is, for the purposes of the present discussion, just a faster version of the same architecture. The only (welcome) architectural difference is the fact that the basic logical
Fig. 3. Analysis time as a function of template length $T_C(n, 1) = f(n)$. Measured data points are fitted to the functional form of 14, with $c_1 = 8.6 \cdot 10^{-7}$ sec, $c_2 = 6.6 \cdot 10^{-6}$ sec and $c_3 = 6.6 \cdot 10^{-4}$ sec.

building block (capable of independent operation) is now just one processing node.

A large APEmille system can be seen as a large farm of processors, whose basic element is a SIMD machine of dimension 8. A better way to look at the SIMD cluster in our case follows the paradigm of vector computing: the SIMD cluster applies the input signal to a vector of 8 templates and produces a vector of 8 correlations. In a variation of the same method, the same template could be present on all nodes of the SIMD cluster, and correlations at 8 staggered time points could be computed. Since the number of correlations is of the order of $10^5 \cdots 10^6$, each element of a large farm (say $10^3$ SIMD clusters) takes responsibility for several hundreds or thousands of templates. This is good news, since APE processors can exploit vector processing also within the node to reach high efficiency (we just recall here for reader interested in architectural details that intra-node vector processing effectively helps to hide memory access latencies).

We have written an APE code performing all the steps needed for matched filtering on a pre-calculated (and pre-FFT transformed) set (vector) of $k$ templates each of length $n$, and measured its performance on an APE cluster. An analysis of the details of the APEmille processor suggest to model the computation time $T_C(n, k)$ as

$$T_C(n, k) = f(n) \cdot g(k) \cdot k.$$  \hspace{1cm} (14)  

$f(n)$ is related to the complexity of the computation, that we model as $c_1 n \cdot \log_2(n) + c_2 n + c_3$, following Eq. (13) and introducing one more parameter ($c_3$) covering machine effects. $g(k)$ is a measure of the processor efficiency as a function of the vector length $k$, that we normalize to $g(1) = 1$. Taking into account that the computation is memory-bandwidth limited (as opposed to processing-power limited), we adopt the following functional form for $g(k)$:

$$g(k) = \frac{c_4}{k} + c_5.$$ \hspace{1cm} (15)

Measured and fitted values for $f(n)$ and $g(k)$, presented in Figs. 3 and 4, respectively, show that APEmille efficiencies are smooth functions of $n$ and $k$.

For instance, one APEmille processor handles 20 templates of $2^{10}$ numbers in slightly more than 10 msec, corresponding to a performance of about 100 Mflops, or $\simeq 20\%$ of peak performance, including all computational overheads.

5. Allocation criteria and processor numbers

A general templates allocation strategy on real computers has to take into account the limited size in memory and the available computing power. Here we present some quantitative aspects of memory and CPU usage involved in our analysis, then we give
our allocation criteria for the optimal template number manageable by a single processor.

This discussion focuses on criteria that are appropriate for the APE family of processors. The focus is to exploit vectorization as much as possible and to find ways to reduce input–output bandwidth requirements, so our discussion can be applied to a larger class of processors.

We start from memory. Each processor has \( k \) stored templates of similar length \( n_T \). (In the APEmille case, the term processor must be understood to refer to the basic cluster of 8 processing elements.)

Vector processing of all the templates handled by each node requires that they are all padded to the same \( n_P \), so we need \( k \) arrays of \( n_P \) complex words, and matching space for the final correlation results.

There are two basic memory allocation strategies: we may assign different sets of \( k \) templates to each element in a basic 8 processor cluster, and have all of them compute the corresponding correlations for the same time stretch \((n_P - n_T)/f_s\), so each cluster computes \( 8k \) correlations. Alternatively, we may assign the same set of templates to all processing elements and have each of them compute correlations for different time intervals. With this choice \( k \) correlations are computed for a longer time stretch \( 8(n_P - n_T)/f_s \). The best choice between these two nearly equivalent cases is based on bandwidth constraints. In APEmille, data items reaching the cluster can be delivered to just one element, or broadcast to all of them. In the latter case, bandwidth is effectively multiplied by a large factor \((\times 8)\), so there is an advantage if large data blocks must be broadcast to the complete cluster. We will use quantitatively these observations later on in this section.

We now consider processing power. The real-time requirement stipulates that each processor cluster completes processing all its templates within an elapsed time \((n_P - n_T)/f_s\) (or \( 8(n_P - n_T)/f_s \)). As shown later on, for several realistic templates sizes, the processing time \( T(n_P, k) \) is much shorter that the elapsed time for the \( k \) value allowed by memory constraints. We may therefore try to use the same cluster for a different set of templates. This may become inefficient since loading a large data base (the new set of templates) may be a lengthy procedure. This cost may be reduced by using the same templates several times (corresponding to longer elapsed times) before loading a new set of templates.

We disregard the overhead associated to the output of the computer correlations, that can be made very small taking into account the Gaussian character of the noise (e.g., a 3\( \sigma \)-cut could reduce the number of the output correlations to the order of 1%). More interestingly a cross correlation among closely spaced templates could be performed on line packing more densely the available information.

We would like to optimize among these conflicting requirements. Let us consider the total compute time both for different sets of templates (case 1) or the same
set of templates (case 2) on each cluster element. We have

- **Case 1**: We want to compute \( r \) sets of \( 8k \) correlations each on templates of length \( n_P \), corresponding to the same time interval. We compute correlations on \( l \) adjoining time intervals before switching to a new set of templates. The computation time can be modeled as

\[
8rkn_P/B + nPl/B + lrT_c(n_P,k),
\]

(16)

where \( B \) is the cluster input–output bandwidth (measured in words per unit time). The first term in (16) is the time required to load the templates on all processors, the second term is the time needed to broadcast \( n_P \) signal points to all cluster elements while the third term refers to the actual computation, to be performed \( lr \) times. Templates, correlations and input data must fit inside the memory, implying that

\[
(2k + l)n_P \leq MT,
\]

where \( MT \) is the available memory on each node (measured in units of complex words). Also, the computation must complete in a time interval \( l(n_P - n_T)/fs \). In (16) we assume that all data-points are loaded once. This reduces input–output time but reserves a large fraction of memory space to data-points (as opposed to templates). Alternatively (case 1b), we may load a smaller set of data-points every time we start a new computation. The corresponding compute time becomes

\[
8rkn_P/B + 8nPl/B + lrT_c(n_P,k),
\]

(17)

while the memory constraint changes to \((2k + 1)n_P \leq MT\). For any physical template of length \( n_T \), we must maximize \( 8rk \) in terms of \( r \), \( k \), \( l \) and \( n_P \) satisfying all constraints.

- **Case 2**: The procedure discussed above can be applied also in this case. The corresponding processing time is given by

\[
rkn_P/B + 8nPl/B + lrT_c(n_P,k).
\]

(18)

This equation differs from (16) since we now broadcast templates while we load different data-points to each processing elements. The memory constraint is the same as in case 1, while the maximum allowed processing time is \( 8l(n_P - n_T)/fs \). Case 2b (multiple data loads) is also easily computed as

\[
rkn_P/B + 8nPl/B + lrT_c(n_P,k).
\]

(19)

In case 2, we are interested in optimizing \( rk \) in terms of the same parameters as in the previous case.

There is one free parameter in the optimization process \( l \). If we increase \( l \) we reduce the relative cost associated with template loading, but increase the latency associated to the computation. We arbitrarily decide to keep \( l \) small enough so the latency for any \( n_T \) is not longer than a fixed amount of time \( T_W \). We choose \( T_W \) as the time length of the longest template contained in the set. This choice may be useful also for data-organization purposes: every \( T_W \) time interval all correlations corresponding to templates of all lengths are made available. The result of the optimization process are given in Table 1 for APEmille and Table 2 for apeNEXT. Results depend weakly on the allocation procedure discussed above, and are largely dominated by the sustained processing power. Bandwidth limitations are neatly dealt with: if we increase the available bandwidth by a factor four (e.g., using local disks) the number of templates handled by each cluster increases by less than 10%. With our

| \( n_T \) | Case 1 | Case 1b | Case 2 | Case 2b |
|---------|--------|---------|--------|--------|
| 2^8     | 4824   | 4955    | 4937   | 4854   |
| 2^9     | 4344   | 4459    | 4555   | 4382   |
| 2^10    | 3720   | 4016    | 4003   | 3775   |
| 2^11    | 3177   | 3474    | 3488   | 3252   |
| 2^12    | 2511   | 2904    | 2885   | 2606   |
| 2^13    | 1792   | 2226    | 2197   | 1893   |
| 2^14    | 1143   | 1558    | 1526   | 1315   |
| 2^15    | 657    | 1091    | 1057   | 865    |
| 2^16    | 349    | 679     | 644    | 510    |
| 2^17    | 180    | 378     | 329    | 274    |
| 2^18    | –      | 191     | 201    | 135    |
| 2^19    | –      | –       | 86     | –      |

Parameters are (see the text for definitions) \( fs = 2048 \) Hz, \( B = 5 \cdot 10^5 Wc/sec \), \( T_W = 1024 \) sec. Numbers in bold flag the best case, while – mark cases where allocation cannot be performed due to memory limits.
choice of parameters case 1b is the preferred one for almost all template lengths.

We remark that processing time has been directly measured on APEmille, while apeNEXT values are extrapolations obtained by appropriately re-scaling the basic machine parameters, such as memory size, I/O bandwidth, and processor frequency.

6. Actual estimates on processors numbers

We present here an accurate calculation of the total computational cost, and thus of the total processors number, required in order to analyze systems of coalescing binaries whose masses are in a certain range.

The main point of this calculation is the production, given a definite mass range, of a suitable set of templates covering the corresponding parameter space. We remark that for our purposes (i.e. an estimation of the computational cost) we only need a realistic template distribution in the parameter space and not a precise covering procedure for placing all the templates. Therefore we will adopt a simplified placing algorithm based on a weighted random generation method. It is also important to note that the number of templates is very sensible to the shape of the experimental noise spectrum.

In our template distribution strategy we adopt the regular metric \( g_{ij} \) obtained using the variables defined in (8), (9). We envisage a square lattice on the \( \theta_1, \theta_2 \) parameter space whose links \( \Delta \theta \) are set to \( \Delta \theta = (\min_{\theta} \sqrt{\text{det} g})^{-1/2} \), where minimization is on the domain \( \theta \) corresponding to the physical parameters we are interested in. Under these assumptions the surface corresponding to a square lattice in the \( \theta_1, \theta_2 \) space can be approximated with

\[
S(\theta) = \sqrt{\text{det} g} \cdot (\Delta \theta)^2,
\]

where \( \sqrt{\text{det} g} \) is the value calculated in a point at the center of the square. Hence the minimal surface corresponding to a lattice tile is unit. Now we observe that \( S \) is proportional to the number of templates needed in that square region of the parameter space, and that it is roughly equal to the number of templates when divided by \( \Delta V \) of Eq. (10):

\[
N(\theta)_{\text{per square}} = \frac{\sqrt{\text{det} g(\theta)} \cdot (\Delta \theta)^2}{\Delta V}.
\]

Finally we allocate to every square in the lattice a number of templates equal to the rounded value of the previous expression, placing the first one in its center and the others randomly distributed inside the same region.

The noise spectral density \( S_n(f) \), an experimentally measured and fitted curve, has different behavior for each experiment. It imposes particular constraints on lower and upper frequency cutoffs and on sampling (or interpolation) frequency. In Table 3 we list the fitting functions relative to the VIRGO and LIGO experiment and corresponding parameters that we use in our calculations.

The noise curves for LIGO and VIRGO are quite different. While LIGO is very sensible in a narrow frequency interval VIRGO has a lower peak sensibility but is better in a wider range of frequencies.

In Table 3 \( f_{\text{seism}} \) indicates the so-called seismic frequency, i.e. the frequency below which seismic noise is expected to dominate over all other noise sources. Slightly different definitions for \( f_{\text{seism}} \) exists, see [8,11]. Integration below this limit does not contribute significantly to detectability but is quite exper-
Table 4

| Experiment | $f_l$ (Hz) | $f_u$ | SNR recovery | $f_{int}$ at $MM = 0.97$ |
|------------|-----------|-------|--------------|--------------------------|
| LIGO 4K    | 55 (2.0%) | 390 (1.0%) | 97.0% | 1203 |
| VIRGO      | 26 (1.9%) | 900 (1.1%) | 97.0% | 3253 |

Fig. 5. Behavior of the total computation cost (in GFlops) in the infinite memory availability case versus the lower mass limit, where maximum total mass is $10M_\odot$. Here we use VIRGO and LIGO noise spectrum, freq. sampling at 2048 Hz and 1024 Hz, respectively, and $MM = 97\%$.

An alternative analysis strategy consists in sampling the signal at a lower frequency and then obtaining correlations at half-time points by an interpolation. In fact this can be simply achieved performing further anti-Fourier transforms after introducing in the integrals a suitable phase displacement. The number of interpolations obviously multiplies the analysis time.

In our estimate we fix the sampling frequency by $f_s = 2f_u$ (rounding its value to the greatest power of two), so we have $f_s = 1024$ Hz for LIGO and $f_s = 2048$ Hz for VIRGO. This means (see last column in Table 4) that we have to compute correlations at intermediate times by interpolations once for VIRGO and once for LIGO.
each template depends very weakly on its length, and that $\det g(\theta)$ depends weakly on the $\theta$ variables. Under these assumptions the computational cost scales up to log-corrections as the area of the region in $\theta$ space corresponding to a given interval of allowed star-masses. The latter can be easily shown by power counting to behave as $m_{\text{min}}^{7/3}$.

The large difference in computational cost between the two experiment, clearly noticeable in Fig. 5, derives, although in a complex way, from the different noise spectra and from the correspondingly different frequency cuts.

We now specialize the discussion to APE systems. We proceed establishing a mass interval, then generating its template distribution. We “stretch” template lengths to the nearest power of two larger than the actual length (a slightly pessimistic assumption). Finally we divide each group of templates of equal length by the corresponding number of templates handled by one processor cluster (the bold numbers in Tables 1 and 2), and sum all the resulting quotients. The final result represent the number of APE processor needed to satisfy the real time requirement on the given mass interval.

The computational cost of this matching filter analysis is particularly sensible to the lower mass limit because of the increasing template length and of the irregular behavior of the metric tensor $g_{ij}$ in that region of the parameter space. For this reason it is useful to plot the number of processor versus the lower mass limit. The number of nodes (one cluster consist of 8 nodes) for a mass interval from $m_{\text{min}}$ to $10 M_\odot$ is plotted in Fig. 6, where we use noise spectra relevant for LIGO and VIRGO. This complete our analysis.

7. Conclusions

In this paper we have developed a reliable estimate of the computational costs for real-time matched filters for GW search from binary star systems, in a massively parallel processing environment.

We have analyzed some criteria to optimally allocate the processing load to a farm of processors. We have written a code performing the analysis on an APE system and we have measured its performances. Our result is that available (APEmille) systems are able to satisfy the requirements of a real-time analysis of the complexity corresponding to the LIGO experiment in the mass range between 0.25 and $10 M_\odot$.

The VIRGO experiment (with its lower and wider noise curve) has substantially larger computing requirements that cannot be fulfilled by an APEmille system in the same mass range. The new APE generation, expected to be available in early 2004, partially closes this performance gap.
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