

# Incremental Flattening for Nested Data Parallelism

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## Abstract

Compilation techniques for nested-parallel applications that can adapt to hardware and dataset characteristics are vital for unlocking the power of modern hardware. This paper proposes such a technique, which builds on flattening and is applied in the context of a functional data-parallel language. Our solution uses the degree of utilized parallelism as the driver for generating a multitude of code versions, which together cover all possible mappings of the application’s regular nested parallelism to the levels of parallelism supported by the hardware. These code versions are then combined into one program by guarding them with predicates, whose threshold values are automatically tuned to hardware and dataset characteristics. Our unsupervised method—of statically clustering datasets to code versions—is different from autotuning work that typically searches for the combination of code transformations producing a single version, best suited for a specific dataset or on average for all datasets.

We demonstrate—by fully integrating our technique in the repertoire of a compiler for the Futhark programming language—significant performance gains on two GPUs for three real-world applications, from the financial domain, and for six Rodinia benchmarks.

**CCS Concepts** • Computing methodologies → Parallel programming languages; • Software and its engineering → Source code generation; *Software performance*;

**Keywords** functional language, parallel, compilers, GPGPU.

## 1 Introduction

Computer performance increases are typically accomplished by increasing capacity for parallelism, which leads to heterogeneous designs that support multiple levels of parallelism and a memory hierarchy that removes the illusion of uniform random-access memory. GPUs are a popular example of this trend. However, programming in low-level GPU-specific languages, such as OpenCL or CUDA, is a daunting task that requires specialized compiler and hardware knowledge and often results in non-modular code that aims at utilising the hardware’s multi-level parallel units and associated memory hierarchy, such as a GPU’s grid of multi-processors, each consisting of a number of parallel computing cores.

A vast amount of work aims at compiling high-level and hardware-agnostic code into efficient low-level code for parallel architectures, thereby shifting the burden from the programmer to a combination of language, compiler, and autotuning infrastructure. For example, various domain-specific languages have been proposed to accelerate the execution of image-processing pipelines [44], iterative stencils [55], data analytics [57], deep-learning [7, 19] and mesh computations [38, 54], graph processing [32, 43], and accelerated host-language constructs [13, 17, 33, 51], but they tend not to support nested parallelism.

Code transformations for improving the amount of nested parallelism that is mapped to hardware have been devised in both imperative and functional contexts, but they cover efficiently only one class of workloads from many possible. For example, the tree-of-bands construction [12, 58] prioritizes locality optimization over utilizing nested parallelism, while full flattening [11] takes the reverse direction. A revised version of full flattening, named “moderate flattening” [31], uses a statically-chosen heuristic to utilize only some of the top-most levels of application parallelism—thus preserving opportunities for further locality optimizations. These approaches still do not judiciously exploit nested parallelism because they depend crucially on the static heuristic to choose good parallelization boundaries, which are often dataset sensitive. Similarly, autotuning strategies compute (i) the optimal combination of compiler flags that, on average, yields the best performance across various datasets [16, 23], or (ii) the best schedule of re-write rules that produces an optimal program for one specific (class of) dataset [44, 50]. In

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short, all related work follows a “one-size fits all” approach that produces one program, potentially parameterized over tile sizes (or similar measures), but which is unlikely to cover well all workloads.

Instead, this paper proposes a compiler-driven analysis that systematically clusters the datasets by a manageable number of piecewise near-optimal code versions, which are discriminated at runtime by statically generated predicates, whose threshold values are autotuned to hardware characteristics. Our principal assumption is that a suitable driver for such clustering is related to the degree of nested parallelism that is utilized and to the way in which it is mapped to the levels of parallelism supported by the hardware.

The main contribution of this paper is a generic flattening technique, organized as a top-down compilation pass over a simple data-parallel language that supports a regular notion of nested parallelism. The pass introduces different guarded code versions at each point where it encounters a **map** operator that is to be mapped at level  $l$  of hardware parallelism:

- (1) map the discovered application parallelism onto hardware level  $l$  and sequentialize the inner parallelism,
- (2) map the discovered application parallelism on hardware level  $l$  and recursively map the remaining inner parallelism at hardware level  $l - 1$ , and
- (3) recursively continue flattening at hardware level  $l$ .

This procedure generates semantically equivalent code versions for all possible utilizations of top level application parallelism and for all possible mappings to different levels of hardware parallelism. The first two choices are guarded by predicates that compare the amount of parallelism utilized by the corresponding code version with a constant derived by offline training. While the number of generated code versions is exponential in the depth of the parallel nest, we argue that this code expansion is manageable in practice in most cases, as demonstrated by our results. In particular, the language design guarantees that the depth of parallel nesting is determined statically (which is not true for languages that permit recursion), and thus the amount of code explosion is easily estimated by a human programmer inspecting the shape of the program, rather than depending on more subtle quantities.

The proposed compiler-driven autotuning design allows the combination of various code versions into one program, whose behavior can adapt not only to the particularities of different classes of datasets, but also to the dynamic behavior of the sizes of intermediate arrays (levels of parallelism) during one execution of the program. In comparison, related approaches suffer a disconnect between the compiler and the autotuning process, are unable to relate a program to a class of datasets favored by the applied optimisations, and, furthermore, are unable to combine effectively differently optimised

code versions into one program. We claim the following principal contributions:

- A generic flattening algorithm called *incremental flattening* that combines semantically equivalent code versions covering (i) all possible utilizations of the application’s top-level (nested) parallelism, and (ii) all possible mappings to the hardware’s levels of parallelism (Section 3).
- A specialized training technique that enables quick and efficient clustering of datasets to code versions. Both the incremental flattening techniques and the training/autotuning techniques are fully integrated in the repertoire of a freely available compiler (Section 4).
- A detailed empirical evaluation on two GPU platforms of three real-world financial applications and six Rodinia benchmarks, demonstrating significant performance gains at the expense of a manageable (as high as four times) code-size expansion (Section 5).

Incremental flattening is presented on a simple language supporting regularly nested parallelism by means of the well-known Bird-Meertens operators (**map**, **reduce**, **scan**, etc) [10]. Most data-parallel languages and libraries build on the same formalism. Thus, while our empirical evaluation has been done by extending the compiler for a concrete programming language, Futhark, we believe that our proposed technique is applicable to a wider range of languages.

## 2 Preliminaries and Motivating Example

The (simplified) source language of the transformation, whose syntax is shown in Figure 1, is a purely-functional first-order expression language, equipped with a sequential semantics, but augmented with second-order parallel array combinators (SOACs), such as **map**, **reduce**, and **scan** (prefix sum).

We assume a denumerable infinite set of *variables*, ranged over by  $x$ ,  $y$ , and  $z$ , and we use  $d$  to range over integers,  $p$  over variables or integers, and  $b$  over boolean values (**true** and **false**). We shall write  $\bar{q}$  to denote a sequence of objects of some kind, and we shall let the context in which the notation is used govern whether the sequence separator is a comma (,) or simply white space. Binary operators (*bop*) include the traditional operations on integers and general 0-order operators (*op*) include a number of operations on multi-dimensional arrays. The expression **replicate**  $p$   $x$  creates an array by replicating the element  $x$   $p$  times, and **rearrange**  $(d_1, \dots, d_n)$   $x$  is a generalization of **transpose** in that it rearranges the dimensions of the array argument, based on a statically known permutation defined by the integer sequence  $d_1, \dots, d_n$  (e.g., **transpose**  $\equiv$  **rearrange** (1, 0)).

Functions that are passed as arguments to SOACs can be expressed using  $\lambda$ -notation or by partially applying operators (or other SOACs). The **loop** construct has the semantics of a call to a tail-recursive function; it executes a fixed number of iterations (known before the loop is executed) such that the

$$\begin{aligned}
bop & ::= + \mid - \mid * \mid / \mid < \mid \dots \\
op & ::= \mathbf{transpose} \mid \mathbf{rearrange} (d, \dots, d) \mid \mathbf{replicate} \\
soac & ::= \mathbf{map} \mid \mathbf{reduce} \mid \mathbf{scan} \mid \mathbf{redomap} \mid \mathbf{scanomap} \\
e & ::= x \mid d \mid b \mid (e, \dots, e) \mid e[e] \mid e \ bop \ e \mid ope \ \dots \ e \\
& \quad \mid \mathbf{loop} \ x_1 \ \dots \ x_n = e \ \mathbf{for} \ y < e \ \mathbf{do} \ e \\
& \quad \mid \mathbf{let} \ x_1 \ \dots \ x_n = e \ \mathbf{in} \ e \mid \mathbf{if} \ e \ \mathbf{then} \ e \ \mathbf{else} \ e \\
& \quad \mid soac \ f \ e \ \dots \ e \\
f & ::= \lambda x_1 \ \dots \ x_n \rightarrow e \mid soac \ f \ e \ \dots \ e \mid e \ bop \mid bop \ e
\end{aligned}$$

Figure 1. The syntax of the source language.

loop parameters  $x_1 \dots x_n$  are initialized with an expression for the first iteration, and are bound to the result of the previous iteration for the remaining iterations.

We assume A-normal form: **let** bindings can be seen as a block of statements followed by a sequence of result variables, and the loop initializers are variables or constants; sometimes we diverge from this notation for readability.

For completeness, we present below the type and semantics of well-known SOACs, where we use  $[a_1, \dots, a_n]$  to denote an array literal, and  $[n]\alpha$  to denote the type of an array of length  $n$  with elements of type  $\alpha$ .

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{map} & : (\alpha \rightarrow \beta) \rightarrow \Pi n. [n]\alpha \rightarrow [n]\beta \\
\mathbf{map} \ f \ [a_1, \dots, a_n] & = [f \ a_1, \dots, f \ a_n] \\
\mathbf{reduce} & : (\alpha \rightarrow \alpha \rightarrow \alpha) \rightarrow \alpha \rightarrow \Pi n. [n]\alpha \rightarrow \alpha \\
\mathbf{reduce} \ \oplus \ 0_{\oplus} \ [a_1, \dots, a_n] & = 0_{\oplus} \oplus a_1 \oplus \dots \oplus a_n \\
\mathbf{scan} & : (\alpha \rightarrow \alpha \rightarrow \alpha) \rightarrow \alpha \rightarrow \Pi n. [n]\alpha \rightarrow [n]\alpha \\
\mathbf{scan} \ \oplus \ 0_{\oplus} \ [a_1, \dots, a_n] & = [0_{\oplus} \oplus a_1, \dots, 0_{\oplus} \oplus \dots \oplus a_n]
\end{aligned}$$

However, the language assumes a *tuple-of-arrays* representation, which allows SOACs to receive and produce an arbitrary number of array parameters and results, as illustrated in the example below, where the **map** construct operates over and produces two arrays, which are then reduced:

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{let} \ zs_1 \ zs_2 = \mathbf{map} \ (\lambda x \ y \rightarrow (2 * x, 3 + y)) \ xs \ ys \\
\mathbf{in} \ \mathbf{reduce} \ (\lambda x_1 \ x_2 \ y_1 \ y_2 \rightarrow (x_1 + y_1, x_2 * y_2)) \ 0 \ 1 \ zs_1 \ zs_2
\end{aligned}$$

Finally, we define **redomap/scanomap** as the composition of a **reduce/scan** with a **map** according to the equations:

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{redomap} \ \odot \ f \ \bar{d} \ \bar{xs} & \equiv \mathbf{reduce} \ \odot \ \bar{d} \ (\mathbf{map} \ f \ \bar{xs}) \\
\mathbf{scanomap} \ \odot \ f \ \bar{d} \ \bar{xs} & \equiv \mathbf{scan} \ \odot \ \bar{d} \ (\mathbf{map} \ f \ \bar{xs})
\end{aligned}$$

## 2.1 The Target Language

The target language is similar to the source language, but with the key difference that SOACs (e.g., **map**, **reduce**, ...) are now understood to execute sequentially. Instead, three new constructs are introduced (**segmap**, **segred**, and **segscan**), which express (and guarantee) parallel execution (modulo the number of processing units available). These new constructs are annotated with a so-called *execution level*, a static natural number, ranged over by  $l$ , which indicates at what level, of the underlying parallel architecture, the construct

is executed. Target expressions ( $e$ ) and *mapnest contexts* ( $\Sigma$ ) take the following forms:

$$\begin{aligned}
e & ::= \dots \\
& \quad \mid \mathbf{segmap}^l \ \Sigma \ e \mid \mathbf{segred}^l \ \Sigma \ f \ \bar{d} \ e \mid \mathbf{segscan}^l \ \Sigma \ f \ \bar{d} \ e \\
\Sigma & ::= \bullet \mid \Sigma, \langle \bar{x} \in \bar{y} \rangle
\end{aligned}$$

The *domain* of the mapnest context  $\Sigma = \Sigma', \langle \bar{x} \in \bar{y} \rangle$ , written  $\text{Dom}(\Sigma)$ , is defined inductively as the set  $\{\bar{x}\} \cup \text{Dom}(\Sigma')$ , with  $\text{Dom}(\bullet) = \emptyset$  as the base case. The parallel constructs of the target language (i.e., **segmap**, **segred**, and **segscan**) correspond to *perfect parallel nests* in which, semantically, the innermost parallel construct is a **map**, **redomap**, and **scanomap**, respectively, and the rest are **maps**. More precisely, if  $\Sigma = \langle \bar{x}_p \in \bar{y}_p \rangle, \dots, \langle \bar{x}_1 \in \bar{y}_1 \rangle$  for some  $p \geq 1$ , we have:

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{segmap}^l \ \Sigma \ e & \equiv \mathbf{map} \ (\lambda \bar{x}_p \rightarrow \mathbf{map} \ (\lambda \bar{x}_{p-1} \rightarrow \dots \\
& \quad \mathbf{map} \ (\lambda \bar{x}_1 \rightarrow e) \ \bar{y}_1 \dots) \ \bar{y}_{p-1}) \ \bar{y}_p \\
\mathbf{segred}^l \ \Sigma \ \odot \ \bar{d} \ e & \equiv \mathbf{map} \ (\lambda \bar{x}_p \rightarrow \mathbf{map} \ (\lambda \bar{x}_{p-1} \rightarrow \dots \\
& \quad \mathbf{redomap} \ \odot \ (\lambda \bar{x}_1 \rightarrow e) \ \bar{d} \ \bar{y}_1 \dots) \ \bar{y}_{p-1}) \ \bar{y}_p \\
\mathbf{segscan}^l \ \Sigma \ \odot \ \bar{d} \ e & \equiv \mathbf{map} \ (\lambda \bar{x}_p \rightarrow \mathbf{map} \ (\lambda \bar{x}_{p-1} \rightarrow \dots \\
& \quad \mathbf{scanomap} \ \odot \ (\lambda \bar{x}_1 \rightarrow e) \ \bar{d} \ \bar{y}_1 \dots) \ \bar{y}_{p-1}) \ \bar{y}_p
\end{aligned}$$

In essence, the context attached to the parallel constructs records for each nest level the formal parameters of the lambda function and the corresponding arrays from which they take values, while the expression  $e$  is the body of the innermost mapped function. For example, assuming a two-dimensional array (matrix)  $xss = [[1, 2], [3, 4]]$ , then  $\mathbf{segmap}^1 \ \langle xs \in xss \rangle \ \langle x \in xs \rangle \ (x + 1)$  adds one to all elements of  $xss$  resulting in array  $[[2, 3], [4, 5]]$ . Similarly,  $\mathbf{segscan}^1 \ \langle xs \in xss \rangle \ \langle x \in xs \rangle \ (+) \ 0 \ (x)$ , computes the prefix sums of each row of  $xss$ , resulting in  $[[1, 3], [3, 7]]$ .

The main implicit constraint of the target language is that a parallel construct at level 0 can contain only sequential code in its associated “body” expression  $e$ , and a parallel construct at level  $l \geq 1$  can directly contain only parallel constructs at level  $l - 1$  and sequential code (but cannot directly contain parallel constructs at level  $l$  or  $l - 2$ ).

## 2.2 Motivation: Matrix Multiplication

Multiplying matrices  $xss$  and  $yss$  can be written as:

$$\mathbf{map} \ (\lambda xs \rightarrow \mathbf{map} \ (\lambda ys \rightarrow \mathbf{redomap} \ (+) \ (*) \ 0 \ xs \ ys) \\
\quad (\mathbf{transpose} \ yss)) \ xss$$

Depending on the sizes of the matrices, there are at least three code versions that may result in best performance:

- (1) If the size of the two outer-levels of parallelism is too small to utilize well the hardware, then the innermost **redomap** should also be executed in parallel. For example, in the target language, the fully flattened version at hardware level 1 is expressed as:
$$\mathbf{segred}^1 \ \langle xs \in xss \rangle \ \langle ys \in \mathbf{transpose} \ yss \rangle \\
\quad \langle x \ y \in xs \ ys \rangle \ (+) \ 0 \ (x * y)$$
- (2) Otherwise, only the two outer **map** operations should be parallelized and the **redomap** should be sequentialized.

This would result in the target-language code:

```
segmap1 ⟨xs ∈ xss⟩ ⟨ys ∈ transpose yss⟩
  (redomap (+) (*) 0 xs ys)
```

which enables block tiling for optimizing locality.

- (3) If the outer two **maps** provide parallelism in excess of what the hardware can utilize, then another chunk of parallelism can be sequentialized to further optimize locality by combining register and block tiling.

Figure 2 shows the runtime results on an NVIDIA K40 GPU, for multiplying two matrices of sizes  $2^n \times 2^m$  and  $2^m \times 2^n$ , respectively, where  $n = 0 \dots 10$ ,  $m = k - 2 \cdot n$ , and  $k = 20$  or  $k = 25$ ; this setup ensures constant workload  $2^k$  in all cases.

The green lines show the result of moderate flattening—an instance of “one size fits all” compiler analysis, which uses version (2) plus block tiling (register tiling is not supported). The black line shows the untuned results of the incremental flattening technique, and the red line shows the results after tuning, for which the datasets for  $k = 20$  were used as training set, and the computed threshold parameters were applied to the  $k = 25$  datasets. Notice that the tuned program accurately gets the best of the two worlds, and it uses code version (1) for  $n < 5$  and code version (2) for  $n \geq 5$ . (The compilation used default tile/group-size values; detailed results are available in supplemental material, also for AMD.<sup>1</sup>)

Finally, the gray line shows the results of the cuBLAS library, which likely uses multiple versions of (hand optimized) code, special hardware instructions, a richer optimization repertoire (e.g., register tiling), and superior tuning (tile and block sizes). Still, on  $k = 20$  datasets, incremental flattening is competitive until  $n = 8$ . On  $k = 25$  datasets, cuBLAS wins at a large margin for  $n = 4 \dots 6$ , and is  $2 - 3\times$  faster on  $n = 7 \dots 10$ , likely due to register tiling.

This paper does not claim contributions to the compilation of matrix multiplication, but uses it as motivation: Figure 2 shows that a widely used, highly-optimized, and architecture-specific implementation (cuBLAS) of the most used algorithm has suboptimal performance on a class of (degenerate) datasets ( $n < 3$ ). It is not uncommon for even highly optimised standard implementations of primitives to perform suboptimally on degenerate or exotic input [49]. In practice, even expert programmers lacks either the expertise or, more likely, simply the manpower necessary to cover comprehensively all datasets of interest with differently-optimized code versions. In more complex cases, such considerations also cross abstraction boundaries (we show an example in Section 5.2), and addressing them by manual code transformation can thus break modularity. This problem opens the door to language and compiler technology to

play a prominent role in such a setting; further evidence is presented in Section 5.

### 3 Incremental Flattening Formalization

This section presents a number of rules that transform a nested-parallel program (in the source language of Section 2) into multi-versioned code (in the target language of Section 2.1) that dynamically picks an appropriate version based on the setting of tuning parameters. Section 3.1 discusses the rules of moderate flattening, which were taken from the literature [31] and are not a contribution of this paper. Section 3.2 presents the incremental flattening transformation, which is organized as a generic extension built on top of moderate flattening, and is the core contribution of this paper.

The core inference rules of incremental (and partially for moderate) flattening are formalized in Figure 3. The rules allow inferences of the form  $\Sigma \vdash_l e \Rightarrow e'$ , which are read “in a **mapnest** context  $\Sigma$ , the source expression  $e$  can be translated, at hardware level  $l$ , into the target expression  $e'$ .” In an inference rule, the part below the line specifies the translation (the conclusion), and the part above the line contains the premises necessary for the translation to fire.

#### 3.1 Moderate Flattening Inference Rules

Rules G4-G7 in Figure 3 belong to moderate flattening, which always executes at hardware level  $l$  (because no rule changes  $l$ ). Rule G4 interchanges an outer **reduce** inside an inner **map**, which corresponds to the intuition that summing up the columns of an  $n \times m$  matrix can be achieved by transposing the matrix and summing up the elements on each row:

```
reduce (map (+)) (replicate m 0) matrix  $\equiv$ 
map (reduce (+) 0) (transpose matrix)
```

Rule G5 generalizes the observation that transposing each element of an input array can be rewritten as a permutation of the dimensions of the input array:

```
map (transpose) arr3d  $\equiv$  rearrange [0, 2, 1] arr3d
```

Rule G6 refers to distributing a **map** nest across the two subexpressions of a **let** expression (i.e., **map** fission). The intuition is given by the equivalence below, which is extended in Rule G6 to operate on entire **map** nests:

```
map ( $\lambda x \rightarrow$  let  $y = e_1$  in  $e_2$ )  $xs \equiv$ 
let  $ys =$  map ( $\lambda x \rightarrow e_1$ )  $xs$  in map ( $\lambda x y \rightarrow e_2$ )  $xs ys$ 
```

In terms of dependence analysis, this rule corresponds to the observation that it is always safe to distribute a parallel loop across its instructions. In practice, it is not profitable to completely distribute the **map** nest, so the rule assumes that **let** floating and tupling will group scalar expressions together and will partition the **let** expression in contexts where a recurrence occurs (e.g., contexts including a construct such as **reduce**, **transpose**, or **loop**) to enable further exploitation of inner parallelism.

Finally, Rule G7 interchanges a **map** nest inside a **loop**. In terms of dependence analysis, the key observation is that it

<sup>1</sup> Results on a Vega 64 AMD GPU, which use the Parboil’s register-tiled matrix multiplication as baseline, paint a similar picture, with the exception that the tuned incremental flattening outperforms the baseline for  $n \leq 7$ , the baseline becomes competitive at  $n = 8$  and is up to  $2\times$  faster for  $n = 9, 10$ .

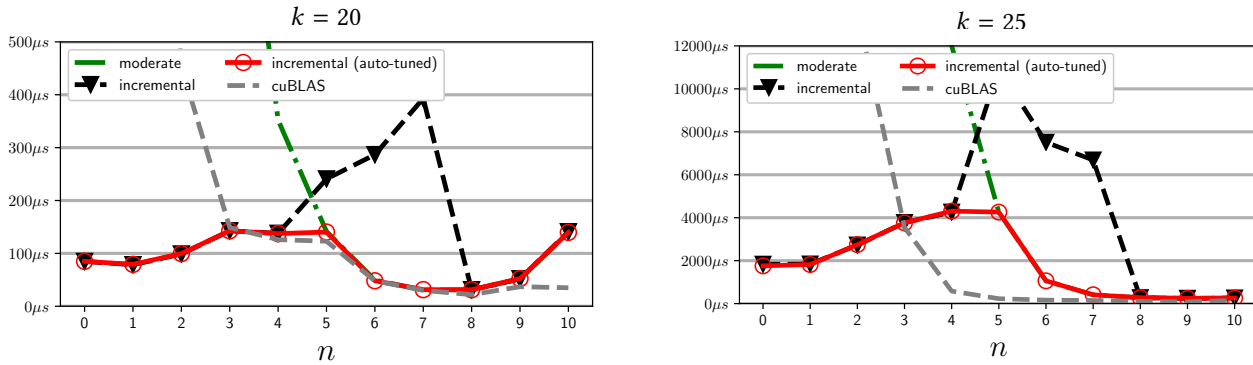


Figure 2. Matrix multiplication runtime on NVIDIA K40. Auto-tuned program uses version (1) for  $n < 5$ ; then version (2).

is always safe to interchange a parallel loop inwards. The rule generalizes the easy-to-see equivalence:

$$\text{map}(\lambda x_0 \rightarrow \text{loop } x = x_0 \text{ for } i < n \text{ do } (f x)) x s_0 \equiv \\ \text{loop } x s = x s_0 \text{ for } i < n \text{ do } (\text{map } f x s)$$

The rule covers all possible invariant  $(\bar{q}, \bar{z})$  and variant  $(\bar{x}, \bar{y})$  variables to the outer **map**, and requires that the loop count is invariant. The intent of this rule is to enhance the degree of utilized parallelism by merging the parallelism that exists outside and inside the **loop**; as such the rule is applied only when the body of the loop contains parallel constructs.

These rules, in addition to changing the schedule of instructions, also performs array expansion (G6 and G7), and provide hints for changing the array layout (G4 and G5).

A significant shortcoming of moderate flattening is that it is formulated in terms of a nondeterministic choice of where actually to stop flattening, that is, where to manifest the mapnest context  $\Sigma$  over  $e$ . This problem does not show in Figure 3 as Rules G1-G3 belong to incremental flattening.

In practice, this nondeterminism suggests that the algorithm needs to be augmented with a static (compiler) heuristic that fixes the behavior; for example, an inner **redomap** will be sequentialized, while a **reduce** perfectly nested in a **map** nest will be parallelized, and so on. The ability not to fully apply flattening is essential for performance, as it permits further optimisation of locality (e.g., by block tiling) and thread communication (e.g., by sequentializing the SOACs of logarithmic depth such as **reduce**, **scan**). However, the static heuristic can be highly inaccurate in many cases of practical interest—because the parallel sizes are typically statically unknown (dataset specific)—and as such it may lead to severe underutilization of hardware parallelism.

### 3.2 Incremental Flattening Inference Rules

This section presents the core contribution of this paper, a (generic) extension applied on top of moderate flattening, which solves the nondeterministic specification of the latter in a simple way, by generating all possible mappings of (top-level) application parallelism to all possible hardware levels. The resulting semantically-equivalent code versions are combined into a single program by guarding them with

predicates that compare the amount of parallelism utilized by each with a threshold value, which is later autotuned.

Figure 3 presents the rules of the incremental flattening transformation. Rules G0, G1, and G2 are the base cases of a recursive algorithm. Rule G0 implements the identity in the case when the map-nest context is empty and no other rule can be applied—we recall that the parallel constructs of the source language have sequential execution in the target language. Rule G1 says that if we are already at level 0 under a non-empty context and no other rule applies then we manifest the map nest on top of the current expression.

Rule G2 treats the case in which the mapped expression does not contain any inner parallelism. Since there are no opportunities for further flattening, the existing parallelism is manifested by means of a **segmap** construct.

Rule G3 is the core of the transformation; whenever a **map** that contains nested recurrences is discovered, three code versions are produced. One, named  $e_{\text{top}}$ , manifests the context plus the current map at the current hardware level and sequentializes the body of the current map. Another one, named  $e_{\text{middle}}$ , manifests the map nest and the context at the current level of hardware, but it recursively attempts to utilize the inner parallelism of the current map at a decremented hardware level. Finally, the last code version, namely  $e_{\text{flat}}$  is obtained by continuing flattening at the current hardware level. In the figure,  $\text{Par}(\Sigma)$  and  $\text{Par}(e)$  correspond to expressions that symbolically represent the (maximal) degree of parallelism available in a context and in a target expression, respectively, and  $t_{\text{top}}$  and  $t_{\text{intra}}$  are (free) variables that can be considered program arguments, and their near-optimal values are found by autotuning. The remaining rules (G4-G7) are the same as in the moderate flattening case, which demonstrates the generic nature of our extension.

Furthermore, Figure 4 shows two additional rules that, we speculate, were not included in the repertoire of moderate flattening because they were not profitable in the so called “common” case, but we found practical uses for them under the more protective umbrella of incremental flattening.

Rule G8 exploits inner parallelism inside a branch, by interchanging the context’s map nest inside the **then** and **else**

Uses hardware parallelism levels:  $l, l-1, \dots, 0$   $\boxed{\Sigma \vdash_l e \Rightarrow e'}$

$$\frac{\text{no other rule applies}}{\bullet \vdash_l e \Rightarrow e} \quad (\text{G0})$$

$$\frac{\Sigma \neq \emptyset \quad \text{no other rule applies}}{\Sigma \vdash_0 e \Rightarrow \mathbf{semap}^0 \Sigma e} \quad (\text{G1})$$

$$\frac{e \text{ has no inner SOACs } \Sigma' = \Sigma, \langle \bar{x} \in \bar{x}s \rangle}{\Sigma \vdash_l \mathbf{map} (\lambda \bar{x} \rightarrow e) \bar{x}s \Rightarrow \mathbf{semap}^l \Sigma' e} \quad (\text{G2})$$

$$\frac{\begin{array}{l} e \text{ has inner SOACs } \quad t_{\text{top}}, t_{\text{intra}} \text{ fresh} \quad \Sigma' = \Sigma, \langle \bar{x} \in \bar{x}s \rangle \\ \Sigma' \vdash_{l+1} e \Rightarrow e_{\text{flat}} \quad \quad \quad e_{\text{top}} = \mathbf{semap}^{l+1} \Sigma' e \\ \bullet \vdash_l e \Rightarrow e_{\text{intra}} \quad \quad \quad e_{\text{middle}} = \mathbf{semap}^{l+1} \Sigma' e_{\text{intra}} \end{array}}{\Sigma \vdash_{l+1} \mathbf{map} (\lambda \bar{x} \rightarrow e) \bar{x}s \Rightarrow} \quad (\text{G3})$$

$$\begin{array}{l} \mathbf{if} \text{ Par}(\Sigma') \geq t_{\text{top}} \text{ then } e_{\text{top}} \\ \mathbf{else if} \text{ Par}(e_{\text{middle}}) \geq t_{\text{intra}} \\ \text{then } e_{\text{middle}} \mathbf{else} e_{\text{flat}} \end{array} \quad (\text{G3})$$

$$\frac{\begin{array}{l} \bar{z} = z_1, \dots, z_p \quad \quad \quad g = \mathbf{reduce} (\lambda \bar{y} \rightarrow e) \bar{d} \\ \Sigma \vdash_l \mathbf{map} (g) (\mathbf{transpose} z_1) \dots (\mathbf{transpose} z_p) \Rightarrow e' \end{array}}{\Sigma \vdash_l \mathbf{reduce} (\mathbf{map} (\lambda \bar{y} \rightarrow e)) (\mathbf{replicate} k d) \bar{z} \Rightarrow e'} \quad (\text{G4})$$

$$\frac{\Sigma \vdash_l \mathbf{rearrange} (0, 1 + k_1, \dots, 1 + k_n) y \Rightarrow e}{\Sigma, \langle x \in y \rangle \vdash_l \mathbf{rearrange} (k_1, \dots, k_n) x \Rightarrow e} \quad (\text{G5})$$

$$\frac{\begin{array}{l} \text{size of each array in } \bar{a}_0 \text{ invariant to } \Sigma \\ \Sigma = \langle \bar{x}_p \in \bar{y}_p \rangle, \dots, \langle \bar{x}_1 \in \bar{y}_1 \rangle \quad \quad \quad \Sigma \vdash_l e_1 \Rightarrow e'_1 \\ \bar{a}_p, \dots, \bar{a}_1 \text{ fresh names} \quad \quad \quad \Sigma' \vdash_l e_2 \Rightarrow e'_2 \\ \Sigma' = \langle \bar{x}_p \bar{a}_{p-1} \in \bar{y}_p \bar{a}_p \rangle, \dots, \langle \bar{x}_1 \bar{a}_0 \in \bar{y}_1 \bar{a}_1 \rangle \end{array}}{\Sigma \vdash_l \mathbf{let} \bar{a}_0 = e_1 \mathbf{in} e_2 \Rightarrow \mathbf{let} \bar{a}_p = e'_1 \mathbf{in} e'_2} \quad (\text{G6})$$

$$\frac{\begin{array}{l} f \text{ contains exploitable (regular) parallelism} \\ \Sigma' = \Sigma, \langle \bar{x} \bar{y} \in \bar{x}s \bar{y}s \rangle \quad \quad \quad \bar{z}s', \bar{y}s' \text{ fresh names} \\ m = \text{outer size of each of } \bar{x}s \text{ and } \bar{y}s \\ \bar{z}^r \equiv \mathbf{replicate} m z_i \quad \quad \quad \{n, \bar{q}, \bar{z}\} \cap \{\bar{x}, \bar{y}\} = \emptyset \\ \Sigma \vdash_l \mathbf{loop} \bar{z}s' \bar{y}s' = \bar{z}^r \bar{y}s \mathbf{for} i < n \\ \quad \quad \quad \mathbf{do} \mathbf{map} (f i \bar{q}) \bar{x}s \bar{y}s \bar{y}s' \bar{z}s' \Rightarrow e \end{array}}{\Sigma' \vdash_l \mathbf{loop} \bar{z}^r \bar{y}^r = \bar{z} \bar{y} \mathbf{for} i < n \mathbf{do} f i \bar{q} \bar{x} \bar{y} \bar{y}^r \bar{z}^r \Rightarrow e} \quad (\text{G7})$$

**Figure 3.** Rules for the incremental flattening extension.

branches of an **if** expression (it assumes that Rule G6 also defines an **if** expression as a split point for **map** distribution). The rule is valid as long as the boolean variable  $z_c$ , denoting the condition, is invariant to the map nest, that is, when  $\{z_c\} \cap \text{Dom}(\Sigma) = \emptyset$ . Further, if the rule would directly process recursively  $e_i$  (i.e.,  $\Sigma \vdash_l e_i \Rightarrow e'_i$ ), for  $i \in \{1, 2\}$ , it will miss the opportunity to exploit the whole inner parallelism of  $e_i$  at hardware level  $l-1$ . This is addressed by taking out

More Incremental Flattening Rules  $\boxed{\Sigma \vdash_l e \Rightarrow e'}$

$$\frac{\begin{array}{l} \Sigma = \Sigma', \langle \bar{x} \in \bar{y} \rangle \quad \quad \quad \Sigma' \vdash_l \mathbf{map} (\lambda \bar{x} \rightarrow e_1) \bar{y} \Rightarrow e'_1 \\ \{z_c\} \cap \text{Dom}(\Sigma) = \emptyset \quad \quad \quad \Sigma' \vdash_l \mathbf{map} (\lambda \bar{x} \rightarrow e_2) \bar{y} \Rightarrow e'_2 \end{array}}{\Sigma \vdash_l \mathbf{if} z_c \text{ then } e_1 \mathbf{else} e_2 \Rightarrow \mathbf{if} z_c \text{ then } e'_1 \mathbf{else} e'_2} \quad (\text{G8})$$

$$\frac{\begin{array}{l} \bar{y}, \bar{x}, t_{\text{top}} \text{ fresh names} \quad \quad \quad \Sigma' = \Sigma, \langle \bar{x} \in \bar{x}s \rangle \\ e_{\text{top}} = \mathbf{segred}^l \Sigma' \oplus \bar{v} (f \bar{x}) \\ \Sigma \vdash_l \mathbf{let} \bar{y} = \mathbf{map} f \bar{x}s \mathbf{in} \mathbf{reduce} \oplus \bar{v} \bar{y} \Rightarrow e_{\text{rec}} \end{array}}{\Sigma \vdash_l \mathbf{redomap} \oplus f (\bar{v}) \bar{x}s \Rightarrow} \quad (\text{G9})$$

$$\mathbf{if} \text{ Par}(\Sigma') \geq t_{\text{top}} \text{ then } e_{\text{top}} \mathbf{else} e_{\text{rec}}$$

**Figure 4.** More aggressive incremental-flattening rules.

the innermost **map** from the context ( $\langle \bar{x} \in \bar{y} \rangle$ ) and deriving the mapped expression ( $\Sigma' \vdash_l \mathbf{map} (\lambda \bar{x} \rightarrow e_i) \bar{y} \Rightarrow e'_i$ ) so that Rule G3 will immediately try all three choices. Rule G6 can be made more aggressive with a similar refinement.

We recall that moderate flattening would sequentialize any inner **redomaps** (e.g., to enable block tiling). Rule G9 shows the new treatment that (i) generates a code version  $e_{\text{top}}$ , which manifests existent parallelism by a **segred** construct, and then it (ii) decomposes the **redomap** into a **map** and a **reduce** that are recursively processed to exploit inner levels of parallelism. (A not-shown rule is that a **redomap** exhibiting no inner parallelism is directly manifested by a **segred**).

Finally, we remark that while our implementation of the presented rules targets GPU hardware (see next section), we believe they at least set a solid foundation for approaching other types of heterogeneous hardware, such as multicores with SIMD support. Notice also that, even for GPU hardware, the presented approach is far from optimally solving the “one size fits all” problem, for example because our solution considers only one important driver for multi-versioned code generation (the degree of utilized parallelism) from many (e.g., locality, thread divergence, load balancing). However, our approach still covers indirectly some cases of locality optimization, because for example block tiling in scratchpad memory typically sacrifices (sequentializes) inner level(s) of parallelism, and the combination with register tiling sacrifices yet another chunk of outer parallelism, which is sequentialized and moved into the innermost context.

Typing rules for the source and target languages and a type-preservation theorem for incremental flattening are available in the supplemental material.

## 4 Implementation and Autotuning

Full Futhark supports arrays of tuples, polymorphism, higher-order functions [34], and higher-order modules [21], but a series of conventional defunctionalisation and monomorphisation transformations produces first-order programs of a form

very similar to the one presented in Section 2. In particular, all functions are inlined, arrays-of-tuples are transformed to tuples-of-arrays, and aggressive fusion [29, 30] is performed prior to flattening [31]. Futhark also supports more SOACs (e.g., **filter** and **scatter**), array operations (e.g., reshaping and slicing), and in-place updates, but these operations are omitted here as they do not interact essentially with flattening. The modularity and abstraction features of Futhark allow for programmers to reason at a high level about the performance and the composition of a program [28], while, at the same time, Futhark can be used as a high-performance target language for domain-specific languages [3, 26].

#### 4.1 GPU Code Generation

In a nutshell, a GPU program is organized into a grid of equally-sized *workgroups*,<sup>2</sup> each of which executes an equal number of parallel threads. The number of logical threads spawned is thus the number of workgroups times the workgroup size. We model the GPU as having two levels of parallelism: one at grid level ( $l = 1$ ) and one at workgroup level ( $l = 0$ ). This distinction does not mean that a program containing only level-1 parallel constructs uses less parallelism than a semantically-equivalent one that contains a nest of level-1 and level-0 constructs. For example, consider the following fully-flattened expression at level 1:

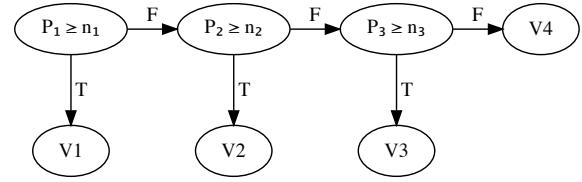
```
loop xss = xss0 for i < n do
  segmap1 ⟨xS ∈ xss⟩ ⟨x ∈ xs⟩ (x + 1)
```

This expression utilizes all parallelism, but stores the input array  $xss$  and the result array in global memory, which makes it significantly slower than the equivalent expression:

```
segmap1 ⟨xS0 ∈ xss0⟩ (loop xs=xS0 for i < n
  segmap0 ⟨x ∈ xs⟩ (x + 1))
```

What is exploited at level 0 is in fact locality of reference, because the threads in a workgroup can be synchronized (by barriers) and they can collectively use fast local memory, rather than global memory, which is at least one order of magnitude slower. All intermediate arrays produced by parallel operations at hardware level 0 are allocated in fast local memory. Unfortunately, local memory capacity is sharply limited, typically on the order of 32 to 64KiB depending on the GPU. Execution fails if a workgroup requires more local memory than available. Our implementation does not currently address this issue, but there are two obvious ways to handle it. One option is to add a clause to Rule G3 such that we only select  $e_{middle}$  if its local memory requirements are less than what is supported by the hardware. A second option is to dynamically fall back to storing intermediate arrays in global memory. This can be implemented by generating a “fallback kernel” that substitutes global memory for local memory in the final OpenCL code. Thus it has the advantage that memory pressure does not directly impact

<sup>2</sup>We use OpenCL rather than CUDA terminology. OpenCL’s *workgroup* and *local memory* corresponds to CUDA’s *thread block* and *shared memory*.



**Figure 5.** Sample branching tree produced by incremental flattening. For space reasons, the size of this tree has been pruned, and it does not correspond directly to any program shown in the paper.

which parallelization structure we end up selecting, but it is not clear whether there is a good reason to parallelise at level 1 if intermediate results have to be stored in global memory.

#### 4.2 Autotuning

Code generated with incremental flattening picks between different code versions based on symbolic *threshold parameters*. These must be assigned a concrete value when the program is run. By default, all thresholds are assigned the value  $2^{15}$ , as a rough estimate of how much parallelism is needed to saturate a GPU. However, this is likely suboptimal.

Because an exhaustive test of all possible parameter settings is not viable, we have implemented a simple stochastic autotuner via the OpenTuner framework [4]. We define one tunable `LogIntegerParameter` for every threshold parameter. This parameter class presents a log scaled view of the parameter to the search technique, such that halving and doubling the parameter appears as changes of equal magnitude. For some setting of threshold parameter values, we then run the program on a series of user-provided datasets, and apply a *cost function* to the observed program runtimes. Our goal is to find the parameter settings that minimise the cost function. For this paper, our cost function simply sums the runtimes for all datasets, which favours improvements on large datasets. However, our autotuner does not depend on any specific cost function, and a different measure could easily be employed, or even provided by the user. In practice, a weighted sum would be a good choice, as it permits the user to indicate which workloads are the most important.

Unfortunately, the search space for an incrementally flattened program is highly repetitive: Different parameter settings may result in the same dynamic behavior for a dataset. For example, consider the branching tree on Figure 5. It shows a hypothetical Futhark program that has been flattened to four different versions, each guarded by a predicate comparing a threshold parameter  $p_i$  to some dataset-dependent size  $n_i$ . Suppose that for some dataset,  $(n_1, n_2, n_3) = (10, 20, 30)$ . The parameter assignment  $(p_1, p_2, p_3) = (5, 15, 25)$ , results in version V1, but so does assignments with  $p_1 = 6!$  It would be a waste if the autotuner reran the program just to repeat a path that has been tried before. Unfortunately, there is no way to express such constraints directly with

OpenTuner. Instead, we pass OpenTuner a cost function that knows the structure of the branching tree for the program (which is provided by the Futhark compiler), and if OpenTuner attempts a parameter assignment that would result in a path through the tree that has been attempted before, the function returns the previously observed runtime immediately, which allows OpenTuner to resolve such duplicate parameter assignments very quickly.

While our autotuner provides good results quickly for many programs, it is ultimately still stochastic, and for large and complicated programs we have observed that it may still take a very long time for it to discover the optimal parameter settings—or possibly time out before finding them at all. This is because the attempted parameter settings are essentially random. An improvement would be to use the structure of the branching tree to avoid redundant parameter settings entirely, but such irregular search spaces are difficult to encode in OpenTuner, and a fully exhaustive search might still be too slow on large programs.

## 5 Experimental Validation

The experimental validation is divided into two parts. In the first part (Section 5.2) we analyze in detail the LocVolCalib benchmark (from the FinPar suite [2]), which provides good insights into how incremental flattening works.

In the second part (Section 5.3), we perform bulk validation on eight benchmarks, two computational kernels used in real-world pricing of financial options (code provided by the company LexiFi) and other six benchmarks from Rodinia. The benchmarks were chosen to highlight the benefits of incremental over moderate flattening; on other benchmarks (not shown) their performance is very similar. This section uses the following abbreviations: MF and IF for moderate and incremental flattening and AIF for autotuned IF.

### 5.1 Experimental Setup

We run all benchmarks on two different Linux systems, one with an NVIDIA K40 GPU, on CUDA 8.0, and one with an AMD Vega 64 GPU, on AMDGPU-PRO 18.20. We perform auto-tuning separately on the two systems. As we shall see, parameters that are optimal for one, are not necessarily optimal for the other. The K40 supports OpenCL group sizes up to 1024, while Vega 64 supports group sizes up to 256. We let the autotuner run for 20 minutes per benchmark, albeit most of them require less than 1 minute to find optimal thresholds.

The datasets used for tuning are different than the ones used for testing; their choice was based on application specific knowledge. To simplify the tuning phase, we perform no tuning of tile and workgroup sizes, which use default values (256 threads per group). Based on manual experimentation, tuning these sizes results in performance improvements of at most around 10%. On average, IF takes 4× longer to compile and generates 3× larger binaries than MF.

We measure total application runtime, minus the time taken for (i) loading program input onto the GPU, (ii) reading final results back from the GPU, and (iii) OpenCL context creation and kernel build time. Excluding these fixed overheads emphasizes the performance differences between implementations. Any other host-device or device-device communication/copying/memory allocation is measured.

Runtimes were averaged across 10 runs, the maximal observed standard deviation was 3%, and the results of Futhark’s moderate flattening as presented in [31] are used as baseline.

### 5.2 The LocVolCalib Benchmark

LocVolCalib is derived from real-world stochastic volatility calibration [2]. The code structure, shown in Figure 6a, consists of an outer **map** of degree `numS`, containing a sequential **loop** of `numT` iterations, the body of which contains two **maps** of the function **tridag** over the arrays `xss` (size `[numX][numY]`) and `yss` (size `[numY][numX]`). The **tridag** function is a composition of three **scans** (see Figure 6b). Together, `numT`, `numS`, `numX`, and `numY` characterize the workload, with the latter three contributing to parallel work. The three datasets are:

*small* (`numS = 16, numT = 256, numX = 32, numY = 256`),  
*medium* (`numS = 128, numT = 64, numX = 256, numY = 32`),  
 and *large* (`numS = 256, numT = 64, numX = 256, numY = 256`).  
 On most hardware we have tried, for *small* and *medium*, the parallelism inside **tridag** must be exploited, while for *large*, **tridag** may be sequentialised.

The structure of the generated code and the three versions that get exercised by datasets are shown in Figure 6c. They were obtained as follows: First, the third choice in Rule G3 makes the outermost **map** part of the context and applies flattening recursively (the other two choices are not interesting for the current datasets). Second, Rule G7 interchanges the **map** context inside the **loop**. Third, Rule G4 performs the distribution of the outer map (part of the context) across the two inner **maps**. At this point, a new **map** is encountered, that is, the one producing `xss'`. The first, second, and third choices of Rule G3 produce the three code versions: (1) on the branch `numS*numX > t1` it parallelizes the two outer **maps** at hardware level 1 and it sequentializes **tridag**, (2) on the branch `numS*numX*numY > t2` it also parallelizes the three **scans** inside **tridag** in scratchpad memory at workgroup level 0, and (3) on the **else** branch, it utilizes all parallelism at hardware level 1 under the form of three segmented **scans**. In principle version (2) requires two global-memory accesses per data element for executing all three scans, and is thus more efficient than version (3) that requires at least two (and typically three) global-memory accesses per data element for each of the three scans.

Results are shown in Figure 7. The last two bars correspond to two (efficient) hand-written OpenCL implementations [2]: the first, named FinPar-Out, is similar to version 1, and the second, named FinPar-All, is similar to version 2.



```

map (λxss0 yss0 →
  loop xss, yss = xss0, yss0
  for t < numT do
    let xss' = map tridag xss
    let yss' = map tridag yss
    in (xss', yss'))
(xsss0: [numS][numX][numY]f32)
(ysss0: [numS][numY][numX]f32)

```

(a) Simplified structure of LocVolCalib.

```

tridag as = let bs = scan ⊕ d⊕ as
           let cs = scan ⊗ d⊗ bs
           in scan ⊙ d⊙ cs

```

(b) Parallel formulation of tridag.

```

if numS > t0 then ... else
loop xsss, ysss = xsss0, ysss0
for t < numT do
  let xsss' =
    if numS*numX > t1 then
      -- Version 1 utilizes numS*numX
      -- parallelism at hwd level l=1
      segmap1 (xss ∈ xsss)(xs ∈ xss) (tridag xs)
    else if numS*numX*numY > t2 then
      -- Version 2:
      -- numS*numX parallelism at l=1
      -- and numY parallelism at l=0
      segmap1 (xss ∈ xsss) (xs ∈ xss)
        (let bs = segscan0 (x ∈ xs) ⊕ d⊕ x
         let cs = segscan0 (b ∈ bs) ⊗ d⊗ b
         in segscan0 (c ∈ cs) ⊙ d⊙ c)
    else -- Version 3: numS*numX*numY
      -- parallelism at hwd level l=1
      let bsss=segscan1 (xss ∈ xsss)(xs ∈ xss)
        (x ∈ xs) ⊕ d⊕ (x)
      let csss=segscan1 (bss ∈ bsss)(bs ∈ bss)
        (b ∈ bs) ⊗ d⊗ (b)
      in segscan1 (css ∈ csss)(cs ∈ css)
        (c ∈ cs) ⊙ d⊙ (c)
  let ysss' = ... --code similar to xsss'
  in (xsss', ysss')

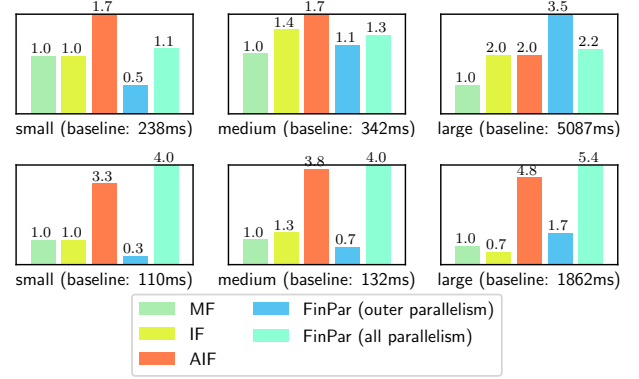
```

(c) The three generated versions that get executed in practice.

**Figure 6.** Parallel structure of the LocVolCalib program, and how incremental flattening exploits its parallelism.

The *large* dataset demonstrates the performance portability problem: FinPar-Out wins on K40 but loses on Vega 64; this is because the Vega 64 is in relative terms more memory bound (than K40), favoring local-memory utilization.

MF always generates version 3 of the code (segmented scans executed in global memory). AIF chooses version 2 on Vega 64, and a combination of code versions on K40: For both the *small* and *medium* datasets, AIF uses Versions 1 and 2 for the **tridags** of innermost size 32 and 256, respectively, and



**Figure 7.** Speedup for LocVolCalib on NVIDIA K40 (top) and AMD Vega64 (bottom); Moderate flattening is the baseline.

**Table 1.** Datasets used in Figure 8.

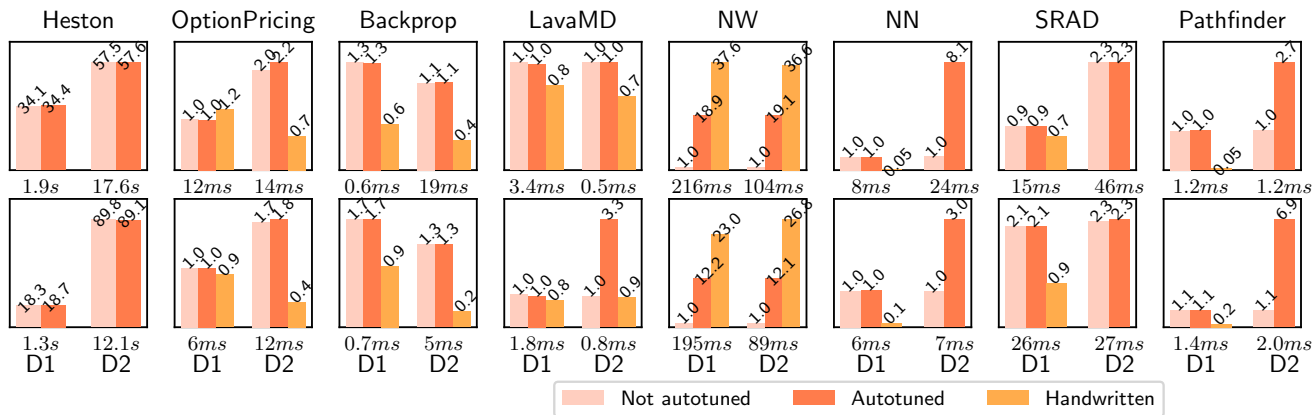
Benchmark	D1	D2
Heston	1062 quotes	10000 quotes
OptionPricing	1048576 MC, 5 dates	500 MC, 367 dates
Backprop	$2^{14}$ neurons	$2^{20}$ neurons
LavaMD	$10^3$ boxes, 50 per box	$3^3$ boxes, 50 per box
NW	2048 edge length	1024 edge length
NN	$1 \times 855280$ points	$4096 \times 128$ points
SRAD	$1 \times 502 \times 458$ image	$1024 \times 16 \times 16$ images
Pathfinder	$1 \times 100 \times 10^5$ points	$391 \times 100 \times 256$ points

for the *large* dataset it uses version 1. Figure 7 shows that (i) AIF significantly outperforms MF in all cases, (ii) on Vega 64, AIF is slightly slower than FinPar-All in all cases, due to suboptimal memory reuse, and (iii) on K40, AIF is faster than FinPar on the *small* and *medium* datasets—because it combines versions 1 and 2—but is outperformed by FinPar-Out on the *large* dataset. The slowdown is mainly due to the fact that FinPar-Out uses an algorithmically-different sequential version of tridag, which performs significantly less work (in number of global-memory accesses). Writing this specialized version in Futhark is possible and gets within 93% of the FinPar-Out performance, but it loses the ability to generate from *one specification*, multiple parallel versions.

From a software-engineering perspective, FinPar’s implementations ( $\sim 1500$  lines each) are very difficult to maintain since they have little resemblance to the algorithmic (nested-parallel) specification, which on the other hand is faithfully reproduced by the Futhark source program ( $\sim 200$  lines).

### 5.3 Bulk Validation

This section shows the utility of incremental flattening on a wider range of benchmarks. Each benchmark uses two datasets (D1/D2 in Table 1) chosen to exhibit different distributions of parallelism. When available, we report speedup of a reference implementation written in OpenCL C. The speedups, using MF as baseline, are shown in Figure 8.



**Figure 8.** Futhark speedup of incremental versus moderate flattening on NVIDIA K40 (top row) and AMD Vega64 (bottom row). Speedup of hand-written FinPar/Rodinia versions also shown where possible. Higher is better. Average runtime for moderate flattening is shown for each dataset. Summaries of datasets are shown in Table 1.

The first two benchmarks are used in real-world financial applications.<sup>3</sup> OptionPricing [2, 39] exhibits several layers of nested parallelism, where D1 is best executed, using only the outermost parallelism, and D2 requires utilization of inner layers as well. The reference implementation utilizes only the outer parallelism, which explains the slowdown on D2.

Heston is a calibration routine for the Hybrid Stochastic Local Volatility / Hull-White model. The original implementation is in sequential OCaml and a hand-written OpenCL implementation is not available. Heston contains three layers of parallelism, an outer **map**, which contains a **redomap**, which contains a **reduce** operator. MF exploits only the outer **map**—the static heuristics sequentializes **redomaps**—which results in poor performance. IF exploits all parallelism, which is optimal on Vega 64, but is suboptimal on K40. AIF gives the best results, by sequentializing and parallelizing the innermost **reduce** on K40 and Vega 64, respectively.

The other six benchmarks are from Rodinia [15], of which Backprop, LavaMD, and NW already contain nested parallelism. In Backprop, for MF, we have explicitly prevented a fusion between an inner **map** and **reduce**, which otherwise would have resulted in poor performance (**redomaps** are sequentialized). AIF wins because of fusion; Rodinia’s slowdown is due to a **reduce** being executed on the CPU.

In LavaMD, both Rodinia and MF exploit only two outer levels of parallelism, and they tile in local memory an inner **redomap** contained in a sequential loop, which is optimal on D1. On D2, AIF wins because it also parallelizes the inner **redomap** (at workgroup level) in local memory.

In NW, Rodinia’s implementation processes in parallel waves of blocks on lines parallel to the matrix’s diagonal, where a block is parallelized at workgroup level in local memory. AIF does the same; the  $\sim 2\times$  slowdown is due to the matrix update not executing in place (diagonal slices are not

expressible in Futhark). MF has poor performance because it flattens aggressively without utilizing local memory.

The Futhark ports of the remaining three Rodinia benchmarks (NN, SRAD, Pathfinder) have been extended with an extra layer of parallelism by adding a **map** on top; essentially performing multiple batches of the original benchmark in parallel. We have not modified the original Rodinia programs, so we can only report Rodinia performance for the D1 datasets, for which the factor of outer parallelism added is 1. Speedup on the D2 datasets is due to exploiting more parallelism, especially at intra-workgroup level. Rodinia’s poor performance on NN and Pathfinder are due to an important **reduce** being executed on CPU (NN), and due to pyramidal tiling (Pathfinder) that does not seem to pay off on the tested hardware. The supplemental material gives more insight related to the parallel structure of the benchmarks.

It would have been interesting to compare against a compiler making use of full flattening, but unfortunately no such compiler targeting GPUs is currently available. As an approximation, we modified the heuristics used by MF to always fully exploit parallelism. For these benchmarks, the resulting programs are typically slower within a factor 2 of untuned incremental flattening, but for e.g. OptionPricing the runtime is more than an order of magnitude higher, because a large amount of redundant nested parallelism is being exploited.

## 6 Related Work

**Full flattening** of irregular nested parallelism was introduced in the seminal work on NESL [11]—also implemented on GPU hardware [9]—but performed poorly in practice due to high memory usage and communication costs caused by excessive parallelization. Later efforts have focused on addressing these issues by restricting flattening in various ways, for example by flattening only the data and leaving the nested-parallel structure intact [8], by applying flattening at

<sup>3</sup> Code provided by LexiFi, <https://www.lexifi.com/>

the granularity of the largest sequential subexpression [35], by aggressive fusion of segmented operations enabled by shape analysis [27, 47], or by mechanisms for streaming irregular arrays [18, 36] that optimize memory footprint. In comparison, incremental flattening is the first to enable restricted utilization of parallelization in the common case, while still permitting full parallelization if necessary.

**Polyhedral** compilation [42] has been proven effective in optimizing affine programs. For example, the tree-of-bands algorithm [12, 58] optimizes both the degree of parallelism and locality of references, but locality takes precedence when they conflict. Furthermore, algorithmic lower bounds for locality can be modeled analytically at the level of misses in a set associative cache hierarchy [6]. Since the affine domain is too restrictive in practice, several techniques were devised to integrate explicit annotations of parallelism with polyhedral transformations of otherwise unanalyzable patterns [5, 14, 46].

**Autotuning** has been motivated by the performance-portability problem in the context of changing hardware. One class of solutions [23] has been to apply machine learning, relying on *supervised* off-line training, to infer the best configuration of compiler flags that results in the average-best performance across various datasets and hardware; encouraging results have been reported for multi-core [16] and many-core architectures [5], which, in some cases, are shown, for example, to outperforming cuBLAS.

Other approaches promote a compiler design reliant on autotuning. For example, Halide [44] applies a stochastic method to find the best fusion schedule of image-processing pipelines, corresponding to various combinations of tiling, sliding window and work replication transformations. Similarly, Lift [24, 50] and SPIRAL [22], exploits the rich rewrite rules of functional languages to generate a multitude of equivalent programs, from which autotuning selects the optimal one for a given dataset.

In comparison, this paper proposes an *unsupervised* method in which the incremental application of flattening, statically clusters the datasets to corresponding code versions based on the amount of utilized parallelism. This permits recombining all versions into one program that covers all datasets.

**Optimising task-based nested parallelism** requires techniques that control the granularity at which parallelism is exploited in order to avoid unnecessary overhead. Notably, Heartbeat scheduling [1] uses a provably efficient scheduling algorithm and does not require tuning. Perhaps the closest related work [56] to ours proposes a combination of (i) a compiler transformation that generates a set of (multi-versioned) task implementations of increasing granularity by means of recursive task unrolling, and (ii) a runtime heuristic for automatically choosing the best suited implementation. However, such techniques essentially rely on the hardware efficiently supporting dynamic exploitation of parallelism, which makes them unsuitable for GPUs.

**Multi-versioned code generation** has been used in other contexts, for example automatic parallelization of non-affine loops (Fortran77 or C) on multi-cores, where inter-procedural analysis is used to summarize statically memory references under a set-abstraction representation and to model loop independence as an equation on such sets [25, 48]. To improve accuracy, summaries were paired with predicates [37] that specify the conditions under which summaries are known to be empty. A more aggressive variant has been to use logical inference rules [40, 41] to translate the loop independence equation to a general predicate encapsulating arbitrary program slices. To minimize the runtime overhead, this predicate was factorized into a set of sufficient conditions that were tested at runtime in the order of their complexity.

This paper combines static and dynamic analyses in a similar manner, but here multi-versioning refers to parallel code optimized differently in the presence of nested parallelism, while the predicates are trivial and subject to autotuning.

## 7 Conclusions and Future Work

We have presented incremental flattening, a generic extension to the flattening algorithm for regular nested data parallelism, that is able to turn inner parallelism in excess into efficient sequential code when profitable, while still having the ability to exploit all available parallelism when dataset and execution hardware requires it.

We have shown a refinement of standard autotuning which is capable of quickly selecting good thresholds for the predicates that discriminate these code versions, and we have validated our approach on ten problems where performance is sensitive to the dataset characteristics and hardware.

A natural direction for future work is to support irregular nested parallelism. In such cases, it is likely that other performance parameters become increasingly important, such as thread divergence and load imbalance. We speculate that a solution may draw inspiration from the inspector-executor techniques used for optimising locality/communication by reordering both the data and the iteration space [20, 45, 52, 53]. For example inspectors can compute a measure of such properties, which can be integrated in the predicates that guard code versioning. The rationale would be that flattening improves both divergence and load balancing at the expense of locality, and making them part of the predicates allows this trade-off to be tuned across various datasets and hardware.

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## A Artifact Appendix

### A.1 Abstract

This artifact contains scripts and programs for reproducing the central experimental figures of the paper (Figures 2, 7 and 8), which show how Futhark programs perform compared to hand-written GPU programs, using different compilation techniques.

This artifact requires access to a computer with a modern GPU (a laptop will likely not cut it) with OpenCL and optionally CUDA already set up and working. Apart from that, the software requirements are fairly standard. A Dockerfile is provided that will work on Linux systems with NVIDIA GPUs, assuming NVIDIA's docker runtime has been installed. This is typically not problematic.

The artifact is structured around a Makefile with targets for the figures and supporting data. The enclosed README.md contains further details and hints about execution and troubleshooting. The artifact is also publicly available at <https://github.com/diku-dk/futhark-ppopp19>.

### A.2 Artifact check-list (meta-information)

- **Program:** Rodinia and FinPar; automatically downloaded and patched by scripts.
- **Compilation:** Requires gcc (or compatible) able to compile OpenCL programs; optionally also nvcc.
- **Run-time environment:** Requires Linux (some parts may work on macOS). Docker image may require root access (unclear; we are not Docker experts). A UTF-8 enabled locale is required (e.g. set environment variable `LC_ALL=en_US.UTF-8`).
- **Hardware:** We require a recent-ish NVIDIA or AMD GPU, ideally with 4GiB or more memory (README describes how to run the less memory-intensive parts on smaller GPUs). Some of our dependencies may require an x86 CPU.
- **Execution:** Full execution takes from one to three hours depending on system speed.
- **Metrics:** We measure wall-clock runtimes, and the enclosed plotting scripts measure speedup compared to a computed baseline.
- **Output:** We produce speedup graphs in PDF format, and raw measurement data in a simple JSON format.
- **Experiments:** A Dockerfile is provided for use on NVIDIA systems, which has also been made available on Docker Hub for ease of use. Ideally, running the experiments and generating the graphs is just make.
- **How much disk space required (approximately)?:** The artifact itself is small, but running it will take more than 10GiB, but less than 20GiB.
- **Publicly available?:** Yes, at <https://github.com/diku-dk/futhark-ppopp19>.
- **Code/data licenses (if publicly available)?:** ISC (non-copyleft free license).
- **Archived?:** At ACM Digital Library; DOI: 10.1145/3300173.

### A.3 Description

#### A.3.1 How delivered

The artifact is available (with further documentation and details) from the ACM Digital Library with DOI 10.1145/3300173, and at <https://github.com/diku-dk/futhark-ppopp19>. It is also available on Docker Hub under the name `futhark/ppopp19`.

#### A.3.2 Hardware dependencies

A somewhat modern GPU with at least 4GiB of memory. A significant subset of the experiments can be run with just 2GiB of memory.

#### A.3.3 Software dependencies

OpenCL to communicate with the GPU, and optionally also CUDA.

#### A.3.4 Data sets

Included in artifact (or downloaded automatically as needed).

### A.4 Installation

**Using Docker (recommended for x86-64)** On a Linux machine with an NVIDIA GPU, the CUDA framework, and NVIDIA's docker runtime<sup>4</sup>, run the following command to enter a Docker instance with the artifact and its various requirements pre-installed:

```
docker run -it --runtime=nvidia \
  --storage-opt size=20G futhark/ppopp19
```

This may require root permissions, depending on the local system. The artifact also contains a packaged Docker image file, `futhark-ppopp19.docker`. This image is self-contained, in that it contains pre-downloaded versions of all resources that are otherwise downloaded from the Internet (datasets and benchmark reference implementations), so its contents can be useful for machines that are offline, or if the required resources disappear from the Internet in the future.

**Installing Manually** Unpack the artifact archive or clone the Git repository, taking care to also include the submodules that contain the Futhark compiler and the FinPar benchmark suite:

```
git clone --recursive \
  https://github.com/diku-dk/futhark-ppopp19.git
```

To install the software dependencies on a Debian/Ubuntu system, run the following commands (possibly as root):

```
apt install binutils build-essential nvidia-cuda-toolkit \
  sqlite3 libsqlite3-dev libtinfo-dev python-pip git curl \
  wget bc libffi-dev libgmp-dev zlib1g-dev texlive \
  texlive-latex-extra texlive-fonts-recommended \
  dvipng locales
```

```
pip install opentuner matplotlib
```

```
curl -sSL https://get.haskellstack.org/ | sh
```

In case of ambiguities, the `Dockerfile` also serves as a list of commands necessary to install the required packages.

### A.5 Evaluation and expected result

- `make matmul-runtimes-large.pdf` and `make matmul-runtimes-small.pdf` should construct two

<sup>4</sup><https://github.com/NVIDIA/nvidia-docker#quickstart>

graphs similar to the ones making up Figure 2 in the paper. They may differ quantifiably depending on the system, but the curves should have the same rough shape.

- `make LocVolCalib-runtimes.pdf` should construct a graph similar to the ones in Figure 7.
- `make bulk-impact-speedup.pdf` should construct a graph similar to the ones in Figure 8.

We have noticed that some benchmarks (particularly `srad` and `LocVolCalib`) may not reliably reach the near-optimal thresholds when auto-tuned. If necessary, the maximum time used for auto-tuning can be increased from the default of thirty minutes in the `config.mk` file, and e.g. `srad` rerun with:

```
rm results/srad-incremental-tuned.json
make results/srad-incremental-tuned.json
```

This flaw is a combination of the inherently stochastic nature of autotuning, and a still somewhat brittle attempt on our part to reduce autotuning durations on average.

### A.6 Experiment customization

Adding a new Futhark implementation of a benchmark simply requires adding a `.fut` program to the `benchmarks` directory, with a specially formatted header indicating which workloads to use. Consult the existing programs or the Futhark User's Guide<sup>5</sup> for more information. Adding a new dataset requires modifying the header for one of the existing `.fut` files. By convention, the program `benchmarks/foo.fut` has its datasets in `benchmarks/foo-data`. After a program `benchmarks/foo.fut` is added, it can be benchmarked by running

```
make results/foo-moderate.json \
  results/foo-incremental.json \
  results/foo-incremental-tuned.json
```

Adding a new reference implementation of a benchmark (e.g. one from Rodinia) is done in an ad-hoc fashion. In particular, Rodinia implementations must be manually modified with instrumentation to perform measurements. The main plotting script (`tools/bulk-impact-plot.py`) is relatively easy to extend with new benchmarks and datasets (albeit with exactly two datasets per benchmark) by modifying the programs variable.

### A.7 Notes

While Futhark code tends to be fairly robust in foreign environments, we cannot guarantee the same for the reference benchmark implementations (FinPar and Rodinia) we use. The `README.md` in the Git repository contains information on how to run only the Futhark implementations, if necessary.

### A.8 Methodology

Submission, reviewing and badging methodology:

- <http://cTuning.org/ae/submission-20180713.html>
- <http://cTuning.org/ae/reviewing-20180713.html>
- <https://www.acm.org/publications/policies/artifact-review-badging>

<sup>5</sup><https://futhark.readthedocs.io>