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A Polyhedral Approach for Scalar Promotion

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Résumé
Memory accesses are a well known bottleneck whose impact might be mitigated by using properly the memory hierarchy until registers. In this paper, we address array scalarization, a technique to turn temporary arrays into a collection of scalar variables to be allocated to registers. We revisit array scalarization in the light of the recent advances of the polyhedral model, a general framework to design optimizing program transformations. We propose a general algorithm for array scalarization, ready to be plugged in a polyhedral compiler, among other passes. Our scalarization algorithm operates on the polyhedral intermediate representation. In particular, our scalarization algorithm is parametrized by the program schedule possibly computed by a previous compilation pass. We rely on schedule-directed array contraction and we propose a loop tiling algorithm able to reduce the footprint down to the available amount of registers on the target architecture. Experimental results confirm the effectiveness and the efficiency of our approach.

Mots-clés: compiler optimization, polyhedral model, array scalarization

1. Introduction
Using properly memory hierarchy until registers is of prime importance to improve the performances of a program, especially with the increasing gap between the peak rate of processing arithmetic units and the memory bandwidth. This trend in computer architecture, called the memory wall, boils down to the invention of memory hierarchy, and its counterpart in automatic code optimization. Array scalarization, or scalar promotion, [3, 9, 13, 4] consists in transforming an array into a group of scalar variables, to be allocated to registers. In addition to reduce the memory traffic, hence the overall performances, it generally improves the precision of compiler optimizations, as dependences resolved through a register might be finely analyzed. In particular, register tiling [9, 4] splits a computation into blocks where register pressure make possible scalar promotion. Most of these approaches are monolithic, they are designed as end-to-end optimizations without taking account of the scheduling constraints induced by previous compilation passes.

In this paper, we focus on the polyhedral model [12, 11, 5, 6, 7, 8], a general framework to design loop transformations and data remapping for code optimization. Polyhedral compilers makes possible to reason about programs and their transformations thanks to a powerful geometric abstraction. We propose to rephrase array scalarization as a generic polyhedral compilation pass, parametrized by an input schedule – the result of a previous polyhedral compilation pass. We exploit array contraction [10, 1] to expose array-level data reuse, and we propose an additional loop tiling algorithm to reduce the memory footprint of temporary arrays to a tunable
constant size. At the end, we expose a minimum amount of scalar variables ready to be assigned a register.

Specifically, we make the following contributions:

— We propose a general algorithm for array scalarization, ready to be plugged in a polyhedral compiler. In particular, our algorithm is parametrized by the program schedule which might be the result of a previous polyhedral pass.

— Our transformation reduces as much as possible the code size for array scalarization and exposes directly the scalar variables to be put in distinct registers. This way, the work of the register allocator is dramatically reduced compared to seminal approaches for scalarization.

— We propose a loop tiling algorithm able to reduce to footprint of some temporary arrays to a constant value. This algorithm is used on demand, when required.

— We present a complete experimental validation showing the effectiveness and the efficiency of our approach.

The remainder of this paper is structured as follows. Section 2 presents the required notions in polyhedral compilation. Section 3 describes our scalarization algorithm. Section 4 presents our experimental validation. Finally, Section 5 concludes this paper and draws research perspectives.

2. Preliminaries

This section outlines the concepts of polyhedral compilation used in this paper. In particular, we define the polyhedral intermediate representation of a program.

2.1. Polyhedral model

The polyhedral model [12, 11, 5, 6, 7, 8] is a general framework to design loop transformations, historically geared towards source-level automatic parallelization [8] and data locality improvement [2]. It abstracts loop iterations as a union of convex polyhedra – hence the name – and data accesses as affine functions. This way, precise – iteration-level – compiler algorithms may be designed (dependence analysis [5], scheduling [7] or loop tiling [2] to quote a few). The polyhedral model manipulates program fragments consisting of nested for loops and conditionals manipulating arrays and scalar variables, such that loop bounds, conditions, and array access functions are affine expressions of surrounding loops counters and structure parameters (input sizes, e.g., N)). Thus, the control is static and may be analysed at compile-time. With polyhedral programs, each iteration of a loop nest is uniquely represented by the vector of enclosing loop counters ¹i. The execution of a program statement S at iteration ¹i is denoted by ⟨S, ¹i⟩ and is called an operation or an execution instance. The set D_S of iteration vectors is called the iteration domain of S. Figure 1.(b) provides the iteration domains D_S = {(y, x) \mid 0 \leq y < 2 ∧ 0 \leq x < N}, D_T = D_U = {(y, x) \mid 2 \leq y < N ∧ 0 \leq x < N} for the 2D blur filter presented later.

2.2. Polyhedral intermediate representation (IR)

In polyhedral compilers, the intermediate representation (IR) usually consists of a program P summarized as a set of statements S and their iteration domains D_S, a schedule θ (typically the original sequential order), an optional tiling ϕ (a reindexing transformation which groups iteration into tiles to be executed atomically) and an optional array contraction function σ (as arrays might be remapped with an allocation function a_{¹i} → a_{opt}[σ_{a}(¹i)], usually with a smaller footprint).
3. Our Approach

This section outlines our approach on a running example.

3.1. Running example

We illustrate our scalarization approach on the 2D blur filter kernel depicted in Figure 1. The computation is divided into two steps. First, an horizontal filter (statements S and T) is applied to the input picture \( \text{in} \) and stores the result into the array \( \text{blurx} \). Then, a vertical filter (statement \( \text{U} \)) is applied to \( \text{blurx} \) and stores the final result to the array \( \text{out} \). The whole might be seen as a producer/consumer through the temporary array \( \text{blurx} \). Since \( \text{blurx} \) is a temporary array, it might be contracted and then scalarized, provided array contraction leads to a constant (non-parametrized by \( N \)) size.

We point out that the array \( \text{in} \) cannot be scalarized directly in statement \( S \), since it is not a temporary array. Nonetheless, a temporary version of \( \text{in} \) produced by a loop at the beginning of the program could perfectly be contracted and then scalarized, with a register pressure depending on the time shift between the producer and \( S \). This preprocessing is used on some of our experimental results.

Our scalarization algorithm is intended to be used in a polyhedral compilation chain. Hence a schedule might be imposed by the previous compilation steps. In the following, we consider two scheduling scenarios: the original execution order and a loop permutation.

Scenario 1. Original execution order

With the original schedule \( \theta_S(y, x) = (0, y, x), \theta_T(y, x) = (1, y, x, 0), \theta_U(y, x) = (1, y, x, 1) \), 3 iterations of \( x \) must be completed before the execution of \( U \). Indeed, the second filter applied by \( U \) required three vertical cells of \( \text{blurx} \), in particular the three first, for each \( x \). Hence the allocation \( \sigma_{\text{blurx}}(x, y) = (x \mod N, y \mod 3) \), with the non-constant (parametrized) footprint \( 3N \). In that case, \( \text{blurx} \) cannot be directly scalarized. We propose to tile the iteration domain to limit the conflicting cells in the \( x \) direction. With that tiling, illustrated in Figure 1.(b), the footprint becomes \( 3h \) with \( h \) the tile size in the \( x \) direction. On a x86-64 machine with 14 general registers, we would set the tile size to \( h = [14/3] = 4 \).
Scenario 2. Loop permutation

We now assume that the outcome of the previous polyhedral compilation steps is a permutation of the loops $x$ and $y$. This is described with the schedule $\theta_S(y, x) = (0, x, y)$, $\theta_T(y, x) = (1, x, y, 0)$, $\theta_U(y, x) = (1, x, y, 1)$. In that case, we directly have the allocation $\sigma_{\text{blur}}(x, y) = (x \mod 1, y \mod 3)$ with a constant footprint 3. Hence scalarization might be applied directly, without the need to apply further loop tiling.

3.2. Our algorithm

We now present our main algorithm (scalarization) and all its subroutines (tiling, unroll_factors and code_generation). They can be found in the appendix. Also, theoretical proof of the algorithm might be found in the companion research report [14].

Our main algorithm, Algorithm 1 inputs the intermediate representation of the program $(P, \theta)$ and an optional loop tiling $\phi$. It outputs the polyhedral IR of the scalarized program $(P_{\text{out}}, \theta_{\text{out}})$, which might feed the next polyhedral compilation pass until the final code generation.

Array Contraction. First, we contract temporary arrays with the original schedule and tiling (step 2). Input and output arrays are ignored, since they cannot be contracted. As mentioned in section 3.1, input and output arrays might be scalarized at the price of adding copy-in and copy-out code to temporary buffers. This might be addressed by a preprocessing polyhedral pass and will not be discussed further in this paper.

Adjusting Register Pressure. When the contraction fails to produce only temporary arrays with constant size (step 3) and no loop tiling is imposed, we try to tile the program in such a way the footprint is reduced to a constant, non-parametrized, size (step 5, Algorithm 2). Then, the arrays are recontracted (step 6). At this point, the tile size is adjusted so the product of $\sigma$ modulos fits the available amount of registers. This is simply done by iterating step 6 on tile size $\vec{S}$ from size $(1, \ldots, 1)$, incrementing each tile size component at each iteration, until the temporary arrays with constant contracted size all have a footprint (modulo product) tightly less than the available amount of registers. Arrays which still have a parametric size are skipped (step 8). When no array remains, meaning that the tiling failed to restrict at least one array to a constant size, our algorithm stops and returns the original program.

Code Emission. Finally, we scalarize the arrays with constant size. First, we compute the unrolling factors for the loops formally described by $\theta$ (step 13, Algorithm 3). These are the loops produced after the final polyhedral code generation for $P$ under the scheduling constraint $\theta$. Of course, we do not have syntactically these loops at this point of the polyhedral compilation, and we have to reason directly on $\theta$. Then, we produce the polyhedral IR for the final scalarized program (step 14). We apply the unrolling (and our tiling $\phi$ when step 5 was required) with respect to $\theta$ and we generate the program statements with scalar variables to be allocated to registers.

Tiling Algorithm

We now describe our tiling procedure depicted in Algorithm 2. Our goal is to tile the program to bound the parametric terms of the array allocation $\sigma$. From now, we consider the running example, scenario 1. Recall that we obtained $\sigma_{\text{blur}}(x, y) = (x \mod N, y \mod 3)$, hence the need to tile the iteration domain on the $x$ direction to restrict the number of conflicting array
cells to a constant value. Actually, there is two notions of direction: a parametric direction in the array index domain, clearly identified: \( x \), from which we deduce a parametric direction in the iteration domain, which happens to be the same, here. More precisely, given a statement \( S \) and an array reference \( a[u(i)] \), we want to infer a variation \( \Delta_k \) in the iteration domain \( D_S \) of \( S \) which incurs a variation in the direction \( \bar{\delta}_k \) (vector with 1 at position \( k \), 0 elsewhere) in the direction \( k \) of the array index domain (here \( k = 1, \delta_1 = (1,0) \)). If \( \sigma_a(\bar{c}) = A\bar{c} \mod s(\bar{N}) \), this amounts to solve:

\[
A \circ u(\Delta_k) = \bar{\delta}_k
\]

This affine equation is classically solved thanks to standard linear algebra techniques (lines 8 to 15). Note that \( Q^{-g} \) denotes the generalized inverse of \( Q \). The outcome is the set \( P_S \) of directions \( \Delta_k \) of the iteration domain \( D_S \) of statement \( S \) for which at least one reference \( a[u(i)] \) makes a step in a parametric direction \( \bar{\delta}_k \) according to \( \sigma_a \). Then, a tiling is computed (line 19) using the pluto algorithm [2]. Finally, we keep only the hyperplanes going into a parametric direction.

We point out that our algorithm will lead to a contraction of temporary arrays to a constant size if hyperplanes do not cross dependences hold by those arrays. Otherwise, a copy of sources should be kept along complete slices of the iteration domain. Note that the pluto algorithm tends to avoid that pitfall by pushing the resolution of dependences to innermost hyperplanes.

4. Experimental Results

This section presents our experimental results on several polyhedral programs.

4.1. Experimental setup

We have implemented our scalarization algorithm. The final code was generated using the iscc polyhedral code generator [15]. We have applied our algorithm to the following kernels:

- 2D-blur-filter. Our running example, applying a 2D blur filter to an input.
- fibonacci. This kernel generates the \( N \) first fibonacci numbers, and returns the last one.
- pc-2d-interleaved. Producer/consumer through a 2D array, where the consumer executes 2 iterations after the producer.
- pc-1d. Same as before for an array of one dimension
- pc-2d. This kernel applies a stencil pattern on a 2D array, with dependence vectors \((1,0)\) and \((0,1)\).
- cnn. Simple CNN with a convolutive layer followed a ReLU layer.
- 2mm. Multiplication of three matrices together \((A \times B \times C)\).
- gemm. BLAS kernel computing \( C := \alpha A \times B + \beta C \). On the experiments, \( A \) and \( B \) where chosen as \( N \times N \) matrices.
- poly. Multiplication of monovariate polynomials \( P \) and \( Q \) of degree \( N \), represented by their array of coefficients.

Kernels cnn, 2mm, gemm and poly were preprocessed to enable the contraction of input/output arrays, along the lines described in Section 3.1. Benchmarks were done by executing both the default and scalar program with different array sizes. Executions were made on a single-x86_64 intel CPU, with 14 registers. The CPU features 4 cores, with 64KB of cache L1, 512 KB of cache L2 and 4MB of cache L3. Compilation was done with GCC11 -O0 to measure exactly the impact of our optimization.

4.2. Results

Figure 2 depicts our results. Every graph shows runtimes for both default and scalar version, as well as the speed-up, for multiple array size. For every example, similar behaviours can be
observed, such as cache effects when the memory footprint gets large enough. Cache memory becomes saturated, and another phase of the curve starts.

For almost every example, we managed to speed up quite a lot the program. On 2D blur filter, it is interesting to note that the scalarized version show a bigger growing rate compared to the default version, which translates to a speed-up increasing with the data size, unlike fibonacci, pc-2D-interleaved, cnn, 2mm, and gemm, which exhibits a constant speed-up. On pc-2d, we observe instabilities on both curves with the ratio slightly going down. On gemm and poly, the poor performances are explained by the number of conditional branches in the target program to handle corner-cases, that we suspect to cause many branch misprediction. This is the main weakness of direct polyhedral code generation.

5. Conclusion

In this paper, we have proposed a complete algorithm for array scalarization as a composable pass in a polyhedral compiler. Our algorithms features a loop tiling to reschedule the input kernel so the footprint of the temporary arrays may be tuned to fit into the registers of the target architecture. We have also provided a complete correctness proof of our approach, completed with an experimental validation on a set of representative polyhedral kernels used in linear algebra and signal processing applications.

In the future, we would like to investigate how to improve the polyhedral code generation to reduce the conditional branches, which bound unexpectedly our speed-ups on some kernels.
Bibliographie

Appendices

2D blur filter, scenario 1, code generated

```c
void blur_kernel(double *in, double *out, int N) {
    register double blurx_00, blurx_01, blurx_02, blurx_10, blurx_11, blurx_12, blurx_20, blurx_21, blurx_22, blurx_30, blurx_31, blurx_32;

    for (int c0 = 0; c0 <= floor(N − 1, 4); c0 += 1) {
        blurx_00 = in[4 * c0] + in[4 * c0 + 1] + in[4 * c0 + 2];
        if (N >= 4 * c0 + 2) {
            blurx_10 = in[4 * c0 + 1] + in[4 * c0 + 2] + in[4 * c0 + 3];
            if (N >= 4 * c0 + 3) {
                blurx_20 = in[4 * c0 + 2] + in[4 * c0 + 3] + in[4 * c0 + 4];
                if (N >= 4 * c0 + 4) {
                    blurx_30 = in[4 * c0 + 3] + in[4 * c0 + 4] + in[4 * c0 + 5];
                }
            }
        }
    }

    for (int c1 = 0; c1 <= min((N − 1) / 3, N − 3); c1 += 1) {
        if (c1 >= 1) {
            blurx_00 = in[4 * c0 + 3 * c1] + in[4 * c0 + 1] + in[4 * c0 + 2];
            out[4 * c0] = in[4 * c0 + 1] + in[4 * c0 + 2] + in[4 * c0 + 3];
            if (N >= 4 * c0 + 2) {
                blurx_10 = in[4 * c0 + 4] + in[4 * c0 + 1] + in[4 * c0 + 2];
                out[4 * c0 + 1] = in[4 * c0 + 3] + in[4 * c0 + 4];
                if (N >= 4 * c0 + 3) {
                    blurx_20 = in[4 * c0 + 5] + in[4 * c0 + 4] + in[4 * c0 + 6];
                    out[4 * c0 + 2] = in[4 * c0 + 7] + in[4 * c0 + 5];
                    if (N >= 4 * c0 + 4) {
                        blurx_30 = in[4 * c0 + 8] + in[4 * c0 + 7] + in[4 * c0 + 9];
                        out[4 * c0 + 3] = in[4 * c0 + 10] + in[4 * c0 + 9];
                    }
                }
            }
        }
    }
}
```
Algorithm 1: SCALARIZATION

Data: Program $(P, \theta)$, optional tiling $\phi$
Result: Scalarized program $(P_{\text{out}}, \theta_{\text{out}})$

begin
  From now, skip live-in and live-out arrays $a \sigma \leftarrow$ ARRAY\_CONTRACTION$(P, \theta, \phi)$
  if $\sigma$ has parametrized modulo then
    if no tiling is provided then
      $\phi \leftarrow$ TILING$(P, \theta, \sigma)$
      $\sigma \leftarrow$ ARRAY\_CONTRACTION$(P, \theta, \phi)$
    end
    Skip arrays with parametrized modulo
    if No array remains then
      return $(P, \theta)$
    end
  end
  $\mathcal{U} \leftarrow$ UNROLL\_FACTORS$(P, \theta, \sigma)$
  $(P_{\text{out}}, \theta_{\text{out}}) \leftarrow$ CODE\_GENERATION$(P, \theta, \phi, \sigma, \mathcal{U})$
  return $(P_{\text{out}}, \theta_{\text{out}})$
end
Algorithm 2: TILING

Data: Program \((P, \theta)\), allocation \(\sigma\)
Result: Scalarization-aware tiling \(\phi\)

1 begin
2     foreach reference \(S: \ldots a[\vec{u}][\vec{i}] \ldots\) do
3         Write \(\sigma_{a}(\vec{c}) = \Lambda \vec{c} \mod s(\vec{N})\)
4         \(P_{S} \leftarrow \emptyset\)
5     foreach \(k\) s.t. \(s(\vec{N})[k]\) is parametrized do
6         Add a basis of \(\Delta_{k}\) s.t. \(\Lambda \circ u(\Delta_{k}) = \delta_{k}\):
7         begin
8             if \(u\) is non-singular then
9                 Add \(\Delta_{k} = u^{-1} \circ A^{-1}(\delta_{k})\) to \(P_{S}\)
10                continue
11         end
12         /* \(u\) is singular */
13         Write \(\Lambda \circ u(\Delta_{k}) = Q\Delta_{k} + \vec{r}\)
14            /* get a solution */
15         \(\Delta_{0} \leftarrow Q^{-g}(\delta_{k} - \vec{r})\)
16            /* add a solution basis */
17         \langle \vec{e}_{1}, \ldots, \vec{e}_{p} \rangle \leftarrow \ker Q
18         Add each \(\vec{e}_{i} + \Delta_{0}\) to \(P_{S}\)
19         end
20     end
21     \(\phi \leftarrow \text{PLUTO}_\text{TILING}(P)\)
22        /* Keep hyperplanes on parametric directions */
23     \(L \leftarrow \emptyset\)
24     foreach statement \(S\) do
25         Write \(\phi_{S}(\vec{i}) = \vec{T}\vec{i} + \vec{u}\)
26         foreach line vector \(\vec{\ell}_{j}\) of \(T\) do
27             if \(\vec{\ell}_{j} \cdot \Delta \neq 0\) for some \(\Delta \in P_{S}\) then
28                 Add \(j\) to \(L\)
29             end
30         end
31     end
32     Keep only output dimensions \(L\) of \(\phi\)
33     return \(\phi\)
34 end
Algorithm 3: UNROLL_FACTORS

Data: Program \((P, \theta)\)
Result: \(U\): time dimension \((\theta) \mapsto \text{unroll factor}\)

1 \hspace{1em} \text{begin}
2 \hspace{2em} U(t_i) \leftarrow 1, \text{for each time dimension } t_i
3 \hspace{2em} \text{foreach reference } S : \ldots \{u(\vec{i})\} \ldots \text{ do}
4 \hspace{3em} \text{Write } \sigma_u(\vec{c}) = \lambda \vec{c} \mod \vec{s}
5 \hspace{5em} /* \text{Unroll time dimensions } (\theta) */
6 \hspace{2em} \text{Write } \Lambda \circ \theta \circ \theta^{-1}(\vec{t}) = (f_1(\vec{t}), \ldots, f_p(\vec{t}))
7 \hspace{2em} \text{foreach index dimension } f_k(\vec{t}) \text{ do}
8 \hspace{3em} \text{foreach variable } t_i \text{ in } f_k(\vec{t}) \text{ do}
9 \hspace{4em} U(t_i) \leftarrow \text{lcm}(U(t_i), \tilde{s}_k)
10 \hspace{2em} \text{end}
11 \hspace{2em} \text{end}
12 \hspace{1em} \text{return } U
13 \hspace{1em} \text{end}

Algorithm 4: CODE_GENERATION

Data: Program \((P, \theta)\), tiling \(\phi\), allocation \(\sigma\), unroll factors \(U\)
Result: Scalarized program \((P_{\text{out}}, \theta_{\text{out}})\)

1 \hspace{1em} \text{begin}
2 \hspace{2em} \vec{U} \leftarrow (U(t_1), \ldots, U(t_n))
3 \hspace{2em} \text{foreach statement } S \text{ do}
4 \hspace{3em} \text{foreach } \vec{\pi} \in [0, U(t_1)] \times \ldots \times [0, U(t_n)] \text{ do}
5 \hspace{4em} \mathcal{D}_{S,\vec{\pi}} \leftarrow \{(\vec{T}, \vec{k}, \vec{i}) \mid \theta_S(\vec{i}) = \vec{k} \times \vec{U} + \vec{\pi} \land \text{tiling}\_\text{constraints}(\mathcal{D}_S, \phi_S, \vec{T}, \vec{i})\}
6 \hspace{4em} \theta_{S,\vec{\pi}}(\vec{T}, \vec{k}, \vec{i}) \leftarrow (\vec{T}, k_1, \pi_1, \ldots, k_n, \pi_n)
7 \hspace{5em} /* \text{final scalarization} */
8 \hspace{4em} \text{Set a new statement } S_{\vec{\pi}}(\vec{T}, \vec{k}, \vec{i}) \text{ from } S(\vec{i}) \text{ by substituting each reference } \{u(\vec{i})\}
9 \hspace{5em} \text{by } \text{register}_a \sigma_a \circ \omega_\theta \circ \theta^{-1}(\vec{\pi})
10 \hspace{2em} \text{end}
11 \hspace{2em} \text{end}
12 \hspace{1em} \text{Write } P_{\text{out}} \text{ the collection domain } : \text{statement } \mathcal{D}_{S,\vec{\pi}} : S_{\vec{\pi}}
13 \hspace{1em} \text{Write } \theta_{\text{out}} \text{ the collection of schedules } \theta_{S,\vec{\pi}}
14 \hspace{1em} \text{return } (P_{\text{out}}, \theta_{\text{out}})
15 \hspace{1em} \text{end}