## ZPL

- It's like programming languages you know
- Imperative statements, arithmetic/logical expressions...
- Declarations ... typed about as strongly as C
- The usual control structures, procedures, I/O, ...
- A syntax people complain about. Of course!
- It's like nothing you've ever programmed...
- Many new features... regions, flooding, remap, etc.

ZPL's Goals: Run fast (performance) everywhere (portability) with minimal programming effort (convenience)

## ZPL ...

- Is an array language -- whole arrays are manipulated with primitive operations
- Requires new thinking strategies --
- Forget one-operation-at-a-time scalar programming
- Think of the computation globally -- make the global logic work efficiently and leave the details to the compiler
- Is parallel, but there are no parallel constructs in the language; the compiler...
- Finds all concurrency
- Performs all interprocessor communication
- Implements all necessary synchronization (almost none)
- Performs extensive parallel and scalar optimizations


## ZPL Basics ...

ZPL has the usual stuff

- Datatypes: boolean, float, double, quad, complex, signed and unsigned integers: sbyte, ubyte, integer, uinteger, char, ...
- Operators:
- Unary: +, -, !
- Binary:+, -, *, /, ^, \%, \&, |
- Relational: <, <=, =, !=, >=, >=
- Bit Operations: bnot(), band(), bor(), bxor(), bsi(), bss()
- Assignments: :=, +=, $-=, *=, /=, \%=, \&=, \mid=$
- Control Structures: if-then-[elsif]-else, repeat-until, while-do, for-do, exit, return, continue, halt, begin-end


## ZPL Basics (continued)

- White space is ignored
- All statements are terminated by semicolon (;)
- Comments are

| -- | to the end of the line |
| :--- | :--- |
| /* | all text within pairs including newlines |

- All variables must be declared using var
- Names are case sensitive
- Programs begin with program <name>; the procedure with <name> is the entry point
- Statements execute sequentially


## To Guide The Compiler ...

ZPL provides high level mechanisms to express computation with a minimum of serialization

- New concepts are needed
- Regions
- Directions


## Goal: Focus on <br> "what," not "how"

- Global and partial reductions
- Many others
- Best introduced by example ...
- Conway's Game of Life

1) Survive with 2 or 3 neighbors
2) Birth with exactly 3 neighbors


## A Global Solution

- How to represent the world (TW): Array of bits, 1=organism, 0=empty; toroidal
- Decisions must be based on how many neighbors each position has, so must compute neighbor count (NN) for whole array
- Given array of neighbor counts, apply the rules to create next generation
- Repeat until no organisms remain--0 array


## Expressing the Global Rules Globally

## Conway's Life: The World is bits

Add up
neighbor bits
$[R]$ repeat
NN := TW@^NW + TW@^N + TW@^NE
+TW@^W + TW@^E
+ TW@^SW + TW@^S + TW@^SE;
TW := (TW \& NN = 2) | $(\mathrm{NN}=3)$; Apply rules
until! $(\mid \ll$ TW $)$ "Or" bits in world to live by
to see if any alive

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+TW@^SW + TW@^S + TW@^SE;
TW := (TW \& NN = 2) | $(\mathrm{NN}=3) ; \quad$ Apply rules
until ! (|<< TW); "Or" bits in world to live by
to see if any alive

Edges wrap around $\Downarrow$


Cartoon of counting neighbors: Array of NW neighbors+ array of north neighbors+array of NE neighbors+...

## Game of Life ... the Program

```
program Life;
config var n : integer = 512;
region R = [1..n, 1..n];
direction NW = [-1,-1]; N = [-1, 0]; NE = [-1, 1];
    W = [ 0,-1]; E = [ 0, 1];
    SW = [ 1,-1]; S = [ 1, 0]; SE = [ 1, 1];
var NN : [R] ubyte; TW : [R] boolean;
procedure Life();
    [R] begin
    /* Read in the data */
```



```
end;
```


## Declaration Basics

- config: define default vals but revise on command line
- region ... define index set it's like an array w/o data
- direction ... define vector pointing in index space

```
program Life;
config var n : integer = 512;
region R = [1..n, 1..n];
```



```
var NN :\\[R] ubyte; TW : ...
procedure Life();
    ClR] begin
    /* Read in the data
```

- regions used for two purposes ... declarations and controlling computation


## Regions, A Key ZPL Idea

- Regions are index sets
- Any number of dimensions, any bounds
- region $\mathrm{V}=[1 . . \mathrm{n}]$;
- region $R=[1 . . m, 1 . . m] ; B i g R=[0 . . m+1,0 . . m+1]$;
- region Left = [1..m, 1];
- region Odds = [1..n by 2];
- Short names are preferred--regions are used everywhere--and capitalization is a coding convention
- Naming regions is recommended but literals are OK


## Using Regions to Declare Arrays

- Regions are used to declare arrays ... it's like adding data to the indices
- Capitals are used by convention to separate arrays from scalars
- Named or literal regions are OK

var $A, B, C:[R]$ double;<br>var Seq: [V] boolean;<br>var Huge : [0.. $\left.2^{\wedge} n,-5 . .5\right]$ float;

- Regions are used once; no array has more than one region component
- Regions are a source of parallelism...


## Regions Control Computation

- Statements containing arrays need a region to specify which items participate

$$
\begin{aligned}
{[1 . . n, 1 . . n] A } & :=B+C ; \\
{[R] A } & :=B+C ;
\end{aligned}
$$

-- Same as above

- Regions are scoped
- $[R]$ begin All array computations in compound

|  | statements are performed over indices |
| ---: | :--- | :--- |
| $[$ Left $]$ | in [R], except statement prefixed by |
| end; | [Left] |

- Operations over region elements performed in parallel


## Parallelism In Statement Evaluation

- Let A, B be arrays over [1..n,1..n], and C be an array over [2..n-1,2..n-1] as in $\operatorname{var} A, B:[1 . . n, 1 . . n]$ float; C : [2..n-1,2..n-1] float;
- Then
[2..n-1,2..n-1] A := C;

[2..n-1,2..n-1] C := A + B;

[2..n-1, 2] A := B;



## @ Uses Regions \& Directions

The @ operator combines regions with directions to allow references to neighbors

- Two forms, standard(@) and wrapping(@^)
- Syntax: A@east A@^east
- Semantics: the direction is added to elements of region giving new region, whose elements are referenced; think of a region translation
[1..n,1..n] A := A@^east; -- shift array left with wrap around
- @-modified variables can appear on I or r of :=


## Parallelism In Statement Evaluation

- Let

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { var A, B : [1..n,1..n] float; C : [2..n-1,2..n-1] float; } \\
& \text { direction east = }[0,1] ; \text { ne }=[-1,1] ;
\end{aligned}
$$

- Then
[2..n-1,2..n-1] A := C@^east;
[2..n-1,2..n-1] A := C@^ne + B@^ne;

[2, 2..n-1] A@east := B;



## Reductions, Global Combining Operations

- Reduction (<<) "reduces" the size of an array by combining its elements
- Associative (and commutative) operations are $+\ll$, *<<, \& \ll , |<<, max<<, min<< [1..n, 1..n] biggest := max<<A; [R] all_false := $\mid \ll$ TW;
- All elements participate; order of evaluation is unspecified ... caution floating point users
- ZPL also has partial reductions, scans, partial scans, and user defined reductions and scans


## Socrates: Unexamined Life Not Worth...

```
program Life;
config var n : integer = 512;
region R = [1..n, 1..n];
direction NW = [-1,-1]; N = [-1, 0]; NE = [-1, 1];
    W = [ 0,-1]; E = [ 0, 1];
    SW = [ 1,-1]; S = [ 1, 0]; SE = [ 1, 1];
```

var NN : [R] ubyte; TW : [R] boolean;
procedure Life();
[R] begin
/* Read in the data */
repeat
NN : = TW@^NW + TW@^N + TW@^NE
+ TW@^W + TW@^E
+ TW@^SW + TW@^S + TW@^SE;
TW := (NN=2 \& TW) (NN=3);
until ! |<<TW;
end;

## Applying Ideas: Jacobi Iteration

- Model heat defusing through a plate
- Represent as array of floating point numbers
- Use a 4-point stencil to model defusing
- Main steps when thinking globally

> Initialize
> Compute new averages
> Find the largest error
> Update array
> $\ldots$ until convergence

## The "High Level" Logic Of J-Iteration

```
program Jacobi;
config var n : integer = 512;
        eps: float = 0.00001;
region
                                R = [1..n, 1..n];
        BigR = [0..n+1,0..n+1];
direction N = [-1, 0]; S = [ 1, 0];
            E = [ 0, 1]; W = [ 0, -1];
var Temp : [R] float;
    A : [BigR] float;
    err : float;
procedure Jacobi();
        [R] begin
    [BigR] A := 0.0;
[S of R] A := 1.0;
```

Initialize
Compute new averages
Find the largest error
Update array
... until convergence

```
            repeat
                        Temp := (A@N + A@E + A@S + A@W)/4.0;
                            err := max<< abs(Temp - A);
                            A := Temp;
                                until err < eps;
        end;
end;
```


## Partial Reductions

- Partial reductions reduce dimensions without reducing to a scalar, e.g. adding up rows
- Partial reductions require two regions, one on the operator and one on the statement

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Let } A \Leftrightarrow[1 . . n, 1 . . n] \text {, Col1 } \Leftrightarrow[1 . . n, 1] \text { Rown } \Leftrightarrow[n .1 . . n] \\
& {[1 . . n, 1] \text { Col1 }:=+\ll[1 . . n, 1 . . n] \text {; -- Add across rows }} \\
& {[n, 1 . . n] \text { Rown := max<<[1..n,1..n] A; -- Max down cols }}
\end{aligned}
$$

- The compiler compares the two regions and figures out which one(s) to reduce


## Index1 ...

- ZPL comes with "constant arrays" of any size
- Indexi means indices of the $i^{\text {th }}$ dimension

```
[1..n,1..n] begin
    Z := Index1; -- fill with first index
    P := Index2; -- fill with second index
    \(\mathrm{L}:=\mathrm{Z}=\mathrm{P} ; \quad\)-- define identity array
end;
```

- Indexi arrays: compiler created using no space

| 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
|  | Index1 |  |  |  | Index2 |  |  | L |  |  |  |

## Flood

Flood (>>) is the inverse of reduce: it replicates data from lower dimensions to higher

- Like reduce it takes two regions, one on the operator and one on the statement
[1..m,1..n] A := >>[1..m,k] B; -- Replicate B's kth column
- The replication uses broadcast, often an efficient operation
- Matrix vector operations...flood vector to match shape: A [1..m,1..n] MaxC [1..m,1]:
[1..m, 1] MaxC := max<<[1..m,1..n] A; --Find max of each row
[1..m,1..n] A := A / >>[1..m,1] MaxC;---Scale each row by max


## Closer Look At Scaling Each Row

[1..m,1] MaxC := max<<[1..m,1..n] A; --Find max of each row
[1..m, 1..n] $\quad A:=A / \gg[1 . . m, 1]$ MaxC;---Scale each row by max

- Flooding distributes values (efficiently) so that the computation is element-wise ... lowers communication


The purpose of keeping MaxC a 2D array is control how it is allocated

## Flood Regions and Arrays

Flood dimensions recognize that specifying a particular column over specifies the situation
Need a generic column -- or a column that does not have a specific position ... use '*' as value

```
region FlCol = [1..m, *]; -- Flood regions
    FlRow = [*, 1..n];
var MaxC : [FlCol] double; --An m length col
    Row : [FlRow] double; -- An n length row
[1..m,*] MaxC := max<< [1..m,1..n] A; -- Better
```



Think of column in every position

## Flood arrays (continued)

Since flood arrays have some unspecified dimensions, they can be "promoted" in those dimensions, i.e logically replicated

- Scaling a value by max of row w/o flooding:

```
    [1..m,*] MaxC := max<< [1..m,1..n] A;
[1..m,1..n]
    A := A / MaxC; --Scale A;
```

The promotion of flooded arrays is only logical

## Recall Matrix Multiplication (MM)

- For $n \times n$ arrays $A$ and $B$, compute $C=A B$ where $c_{r s}=\sum_{i s k s n} a_{r k} b_{k s}$



## MM Illustrates Computing With Flood

- The SUMMA Algorithm


|  | $\mathrm{b}_{11}$ | $\mathrm{b}_{12}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\mathrm{a}_{11}$ | $a_{11} b_{11}$ | $a_{11} b_{12}$ |
| $\mathrm{a}_{21}$ | $a_{21} b_{11}$ | $a_{21} b_{12}$ |

Switch Orientation -- By using a column of A and a row of B broadcast to all, compute the "next" terms of the dot product

## SUMMA Algorithm

- A column broadcast is simply a column flood and similarly a row broadcast is a row flood
- Define variables

```
var Col : [1..m,*] double; -- Col flood array
    Row : [*,1..p] double; -- Row flood array
    A : [1..m,1..n] double;
    B : [1..n,1..p] double;
    C : [1..m,1..p] double;
```


## SUMMA Algorithm (continued)

For each col-row in the common dimension, flood the item and combine it...

```
[1..m,1..p] C := 0.0; -- Initialize C
    for k := 1 to n do
    [1..m,*] Col := >>[ ,k] A; -- Flood kth col of A
    [*,1..p] Row := >> [k, ] B; -- Flood kth row of B
[1..m,1..p] C += Col*Row; -- Combine elements
    end;
```

                            --- or, more simply ---
                                for \(k:=1\) to \(n\) do
    [1..m,1..p] C += (>>[,k] A)* (>>[k, B);
end;

## Still Another MM Algorithm

If flooding is so good for columns/rows, why not use it for whole planes?

```
region IK = [1..n,*,1..n]
            JK = [*,1..n,1..n];
            IJ = [1..n,1..n,*];
    IJK = [1..n,1..n,1..n];
[IK] A2 := A#[Index1, Index2];
[JK] B2 := B#[Index2, Index1];
[IJ] C := +<<[IJK](>>[IK]A2)*(>>[JK]B2);
```



Input


## Optimizations of ZPL

C, Java and most sequential languages operate on one scalar value at a time

- Compilation focuses on single operations
- Optimization has limited impact ... combine two ops or remove an op or load saves one instruction
- It's hard to see the forest for the trees

ZPL and other array languages specify computation in large units ... optimizations can have a large impact

## Two Types of Costs

- Parallel computation differs from sequential computation in that interprocessor communication is pure overhead ...
- For parallel languages
- Communication is a potential source of savings
- Computation is a potential source of savings



## Looking Closer at Costs

Consequences of two forms of improvement

- Removing communication is always a win
- Because of multiple processors it's possible to replace comm with comp is usually a win
- Sequential computation like a loop $\mathrm{i}:=\mathrm{i}+1$
- Moving communication can improve performance
- Comm is performed by co-processor via DMA so processor can continue to work
- Prefetching and pipelining can help

All scalar optimizations still benefit

## Bumpers and Walkers

Recall "loop induction variable elimination" removed explicit index references, replacing them with pointer ... ZPL applies this a lot

```
[prev of R] begin
    SampleT := 0.0;
    SampleXPos := 0.0;
    SampleYPos := 0.0;
end;
```

```
for (i=p.o.R.mylo;i<p.o.R.myhi;i++){
    SampleT[i]=0.0;}
for (i=p.o.R.mylo;i<p.o.R.myhi;i++){
    SampleXPos[i]=0.0;}
for (i=p.o.R.mylo;i<p.o.R.myhi;i++) {
    SampleYPos[i]=0.0;}
```


## Loop Fusion

Classic: consecutive loops over the same range can be merged, giving a longer loop body with (hopefully) more straight line code

```
for (i=p.o.R.mylo;i<p.o.R.myhi;i++) {
    SampleT[i]=0.0;}
for (i=p.o.R.mylo;i<p.o.R.myhi;i++){
    SampleXPos[i]=0.0;}
for (i=p.o.R.mylo;i<p.o.R.myhi;i++){
    SampleYPos[i]=0.0;}
```

for (i=p.o.R.mylo;i<p.o.R.myhi;i++) \{
SampleT[i]=0.0;
SampleXPos[i]=0.0;
SampleYPos[i]=0.0; \}

## Array Contraction

- Classic: Reduce an array (temp) to a scalar to improve locality and put variable in register

$$
\begin{aligned}
{[\mathrm{R}] \mathrm{T} 1 } & :=(\mathrm{A}+\mathrm{A@east}) / 2 ; \\
\mathrm{T} 2 & :=(\mathrm{A}+\mathrm{A@west)} / 2 ; \\
\mathrm{A} & :=\max (\mathrm{T} 1, \mathrm{~T} 2) ;
\end{aligned}
$$

| for | $(i=R . m y l o ; i<R . m y h i ; i++)\{$ |
| :---: | :---: |
|  | $T 1[i]=((A[i]+A[i+1]) / 2 ;\}$ |
| for | $(i=R . \operatorname{mylo} ; i<R . m y h i ; i++)\{$ |
|  | $T 2[i]=((A[i]+A[i-1]) / 2 ;\}$ |
| for | $(i=R . \operatorname{mylo} i<R . \operatorname{myh} ; i++)\{$ |
|  | $A[i]=\max (T 1[i], T 2[i]) ;\}$ |

- First, fuse the loops


## Array Contraction, continued

- Fused loops:

```
for (i=R.mylo;i<R.myhi;i++){
    T1[i]=((A[i]+A[i+1])/2;
    T2[i]=((A[i]+A[i-1])/2;
    A[i]= max(T1[i],T2[i]);}
```

- Discover that T1, T2 not live after loop
- Analyze references ... what values are needed to compute $A[i]$ ? $A[i], A[i-1], A[i+1]$
- Create code to save values


## Array Contraction, continued

... And reduce T1 and T2 to scalars t 1 and t 2

```
    ai_west = A[R.mylo-1];
    ai = A[R.mylo];
for (i=R.mylo;i<R.myhi;i++){
    ai_east = A[i+1];
    t1 =((ai+ai_east)/2;
    t2 =((ai+ai_west)/2;
    A[i] = max(t1,t2);
    ai_west = ai;
    ai = ai_east;
}
```


## Compiler Created Temps

- Suppose that rather than writing

$$
\begin{aligned}
{[\mathrm{R}] \mathrm{T} 1 } & :=(\mathrm{A}+\mathrm{A@east}) / 2 ; \\
\mathrm{T} 2 & :=(\mathrm{A}+\mathrm{A@west)} / 2 ; \\
\mathrm{A} & :=\max (\mathrm{T} 1, \mathrm{~T} 2) ;
\end{aligned}
$$

- The programmer had written

$$
\text { [R] A }:=\max (A+A @ e a s t, A+A @ w e s t) / 2 ;
$$

- The compiler would have generated a (single) array temporary since A is on the left and right


## Factor-Join Optimizations

- Consider a bounding box ZPL computation type point = record



## Factor-Join Optimizations

- Consider a bounding box ZPL computation type point = record x : float;
y : float; end; ...
lox := min<<Pts.x;
loy := min<<Pts.y;
hix := max<<Pts.x;
hiy := max<<Pts.y;



## IR for Macro Operations

- Express the operations at large grain



## Factor Join

- Recognize that communication and array traversals are expensive operations that can benefit from combining
- Reductions/Scans can be merged because data size is usually small relative to packet capacity
- Merging array traversals improves cache performance
- Etc.
- Factor array operations into components, and join into new "merged" operations

IR for Macro Operations


## Recall Conway's Life Program...

## Conway's Life: The World is bits <br> Add up neighbor bits

$[R]$ repeat
NN := TW@^NW + TW@^N + TW@^NE
+TW@^W + TW@^E
+TW@^SW + TW@^S + TW@^SE;
TW := (TW \& NN = 2) | $(\mathrm{NN}=3) ; \quad$ Apply rules
until ! (|<< TW); "Or" bits in world to live by
to see if any alive

Edges wrap around $\Downarrow$


Cartoon of counting neighbors: Array of NW neighbors+ array of north neighbors+array of NE neighbors+...

## Stencil Optimizations

- When walking over an array referencing neighbors by stencil, $\quad$ the references are repeated


Approach:
Recognize stencil usage
Move values to registers
Precompute sums ...
Which sums to do?

What can you save?

