PROGRAMMABILITY OF THE HPCS LANGUAGES: A CASE STUDY WITH A QUANTUM CHEMISTRY KERNEL (EXTENDED VERSION)

April 12, 2008

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PROGRAMMABILITY OF THE HPCS LANGUAGES: A CASE STUDY WITH A QUANTUM CHEMISTRY KERNEL (EXTENDED VERSION)

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## CONTENTS

LIST OF CODE FRAGMENTS .......................................................... v
PREFACE ........................................................................ vii
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS ................................................................. ix
ABSTRACT ............................................................................... xi
1. INTRODUCTION ................................................................. 1
2. THE PROBLEM ................................................................. 2
3. OVERVIEW OF LANGUAGES ............................................... 3
   3.1 CHAPEL ........................................................................ 3
   3.2 FORTRESS .................................................................... 3
   3.3 X10 .......................................................................... 4
   3.4 LANGUAGE VERSIONS AND LIMITATIONS ...................... 4
4. PROGRAMMING EXAMPLES AND DISCUSSION ....................... 5
   4.1 STATIC, PROGRAM MANAGED LOAD BALANCING .......... 5
      4.1.1 X10 .................................................................... 5
      4.1.2 Chapel ................................................................ 5
      4.1.3 Fortress .............................................................. 5
   4.2 DYNAMIC, LANGUAGE MANAGED LOAD BALANCING .......... 6
      4.2.1 Fortress .............................................................. 6
      4.2.2 Chapel ................................................................ 6
      4.2.3 X10 ..................................................................... 7
   4.3 DYNAMIC, PROGRAM MANAGED LOAD BALANCING USING A SHARED COUNTER 7
      4.3.1 X10 ..................................................................... 7
      4.3.2 Chapel ................................................................ 8
      4.3.3 Fortress .............................................................. 9
   4.4 DYNAMIC, PROGRAM MANAGED LOAD BALANCING USING A TASK POOL .......... 9
      4.4.1 Chapel ................................................................ 10
      4.4.2 X10 ................................................................... 11
      4.4.3 Fortress .............................................................. 12
   4.5 MULTI-DIMENSIONAL ARRAY FUNCTIONALITY .............. 12
      4.5.1 Chapel ................................................................ 12
      4.5.2 Fortress .............................................................. 12
      4.5.3 X10 ................................................................... 13
5. CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE WORK ...................................... 13
REFERENCES ........................................................................ 15
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code Fragment Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Static, Program Managed Load Balancing - X10</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iterator for static load balancing - Chapel</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Top-level driver for static load balancing - Chapel</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dynamic, Language Managed Load Balancing - Fortress</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shared counter for dynamic load balancing - X10</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Atomic read-and-increment - X10</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shared counter for dynamic load balancing - Chapel</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Atomic read-and-increment - Chapel</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shared counter for dynamic load balancing - Fortress</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Atomic read-and-increment - Fortress</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task pool of integral blocks - Chapel</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Top-level driver for task pool - Chapel</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Producer of integral blocks - Chapel</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fock index space iterator - Chapel</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consumer of integral blocks - Chapel</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task pool of integral blocks - X10</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Top-level driver for task pool - X10</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Producer of integral blocks - X10</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consumer of integral blocks - X10</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Symmetrization of $J$ and $K$ - Chapel</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Symmetrization of $J$ and $K$ - Fortress</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Symmetrization of $J$ and $K$ - X10</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
This technical report is an extended version of the paper


with a more complete presentation of the codes in all three languages in Section 4. PROGRAMMING EXAMPLES AND DISCUSSION. The complete set of codes can be obtained in digital form from the authors.

As of the April 12, 2008 version, the codes have been updated to reflect the most recent releases of the languages, which differ from the original paper for Chapel and Fortress.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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ABSTRACT

As high-end computer systems present users with rapidly increasing numbers of processors, possibly also incorporating attached co-processors, programmers are increasingly challenged to express the necessary levels of concurrency with the dominant parallel programming model, Fortran+MPI+OpenMP (or minor variations). In this paper, we examine the languages developed under the DARPA High-Productivity Computing Systems (HPCS) program (Chapel, Fortress, and X10) as representatives of a different parallel programming model which might be more effective on emerging high-performance systems. The application used in this study is the Hartree-Fock method from quantum chemistry, which combines access to distributed data with a task-parallel algorithm and is characterized by significant irregularity in the computational tasks. We present several different implementation strategies for load balancing of the task-parallel computation, as well as distributed array operations, in each of the three languages. We conclude that the HPCS languages provide a wide variety of mechanisms for expressing parallelism, which can be combined at multiple levels, making them quite expressive for this problem.
1. INTRODUCTION

As trends in high-performance computing hardware move rapidly towards very large numbers of processor cores, the developers of software for such systems face increasing challenges in producing applications that can effectively use the highest-end resources available. The dominant parallel programming model in current use involves a sequential language (such as Fortran), combined with a two-sided message passing library (such as MPI), and possibly a threading library (such as OpenMP). The continuing viability of this approach in the face of hardware trends is increasingly the subject of debate within the computational science community, with one recent report concluding that “it is virtually certain that MPI will not be able to provide all of the required concurrency” [22].

Among the many efforts to develop new and improved parallel programming models and languages, the High-Productivity Computing Systems (HPCS) program, sponsored by the U.S. Defense Advanced Research Projects Agency (DARPA), deserves particular note. The three new programming languages developed under the DARPA HPCS program (Chapel [1, 12], Fortress [4, 9], and X10 [6, 14]) represent perhaps the largest concerted investment in the development of new environments for parallel programming in several decades. These “HPCS languages” incorporate the results of past research in parallel programming models with novel ideas and approaches relevant to emerging hardware architectures to produce high-level languages with support for object oriented and generic programming, a broad range of constructs for expressing both task and data parallelism at multiple levels, and a global view of data. We (the authors of this report) believe that these languages are at least representative of a new generation of parallel programming environments which are appropriate for widespread use in high-end scientific and technical computing, and therefore worthy of deeper examination.

Our overall methodology is to distill key aspects of various scientific applications into model computations that can be expressed in the HPCS languages. Our focus is on programmability, i.e. the mechanisms these languages provide to express the model computations, and comparisons with the traditional message-passing model and other approaches. At present, the language implementations are not sufficiently mature to allow a meaningful examination of performance issues. We expect to place more emphasis on the interactions between programmability and performance in future work as the languages progress. The goal of our work is to better understand the capabilities and features of the HPCS languages from the standpoint of computational scientists who may soon need to move towards languages of this type in order to continue using the large-scale computer systems available in an effective manner.

In this report, we consider a kernel from the Hartree-Fock self-consistent field method [16], widely used in quantum chemical simulations, which combines access to distributed data with a task-parallel algorithm and which exhibits irregularity in both data distribution and parallel tasks. Scalable implementation of this algorithm is, at best, extremely challenging in a traditional message-passing model, and was a significant motivation for the development of the Global Arrays Toolkit (GA) [23], which shares some of the core features of the HPCS languages. Key features of the algorithm which will be examined in this report include dynamic load balancing, and high-level operations on distributed arrays.

The remainder of this report is organized as follows. In Section 2 we describe the Hartree-Fock problem and a scalable algorithm for it in more detail. In Section 3 we give a brief overview of the HPCS languages, focusing on the features relevant to the Hartree-Fock problem. In Section 4 we explore the concepts the various languages provide to express the load balancing and array operations required by the algorithm. Finally, in Section 5 we summarize our findings and describe our plans for future work with the HPCS languages. This report extends our conference paper [24], primarily with a more complete presentation of the code examples than was possible under the conference’s length limitations.
We have chosen the Hartree-Fock method of quantum chemistry [16] as an exemplar of applications combining distributed data, task parallelism, and significant task irregularity.

The most computationally intensive step in the Hartree-Fock method is construction of the Fock matrix,

\[ F_{\mu\nu} \leftarrow D_{\lambda\sigma} \{ 2(\mu\nu|\lambda\sigma) - (\mu\lambda|\nu\sigma) \} \tag{1} \]

where the indices \( \mu, \nu, \lambda, \sigma \) denote the basis functions, and \( D \) is the density matrix. \( (\mu\nu|\lambda\sigma) \) is a rank-4 tensor representing the two-electron repulsion integrals. Formation of the Fock matrix is an \( O(N^4) \) operation for \( N \) basis functions.

The basis functions are grouped into electronic shells, and then into atomic centers, based on characteristics of the molecule and basis. The two-electron repulsion integrals are evaluated in blocks based on the shell structure of the basis. The resulting “shell blocks” of the integral tensor vary in size from 1 to more than 10,000 elements. Separately, the computational costs of the integrals also vary over several orders of magnitude and they are not readily predicted in advance.

A scalable parallel implementation of the algorithm requires that both the data (Fock and density matrices) and the computation (integral block evaluation and their contributions to the Fock matrix) be fully distributed. The first such implementation of the Hartree-Fock method was done by Furlani and King [18] using MPI two-sided messaging, but they concluded that the dynamic load balancing required to achieve scalability was too hard to express in MPI, even for small processor counts (at that time, \( O(10) \)) [17].

Furlani and King’s approach was a major motivation for the development of the Global Arrays Toolkit (GA) [23], a library-based parallel programming environment providing a global view of memory with one-sided access, and a few basic parallel programming constructs, such as locks and atomic read-and-increment counters. Use of the GA library enabled the first scalable fully distributed Hartree-Fock implementation [16, 19, 25]. The essence of the algorithm can be summarized as follows:

1. \( D \) and the two constituents of \( F \) known as the Coulomb \( (J) \) and exchange \( (K) \) matrices (corresponding to the two terms in Eq. 1) are created as two-dimensional \( N \times N \) distributed arrays.

2. Construction of the \( J \) and \( K \) matrices, per Eq. 1, takes place in a four-fold loop nest over the basis function indices. Due to permutational symmetries among the indices of the two-electron integrals, restrictions are imposed on loop bounds, yielding a triangular iteration space of roughly \( \frac{1}{8} N^4 \) elements, one eighth the size of the full space. The four-fold loop is typically stripmined, with a granularity chosen as a compromise between the reuse of \( D \), \( J \), and \( K \) and load balance. In this work we assume, without loss of generality, that the loop nest is stripmined at the atomic level. Since the tasks are highly irregular in cost, dynamic load balancing is required. (In the GA implementation, an atomic read-and-increment counter is used to allocate tasks to processes as they become available.)

3. In each task, an atomic quartet of integrals is evaluated on the fly. Once computed, an integral is contracted with six different \( D \) values and contributes to six different \( J \) and \( K \) values. The appropriate \( D \), \( J \), and \( K \) blocks are cached and reused wherever possible to reduce network traffic. All tasks are independent, except for the updates to the \( J \) and \( K \) matrices.

4. Finally, the \( J \) and \( K \) matrices must be symmetrized and combined to form \( F \), which can be done in a data-parallel fashion. (The GA library provides basic linear algebra operations on the distributed arrays, including transposition.)
3. OVERVIEW OF LANGUAGES

At a high level, the three languages have many similarities, though in detail there are significant differences. All three languages emphasize the expression of parallelism at a high level by the programmer and relying on the compiler/runtime/library infrastructure to produce an optimized implementation for the underlying parallel architecture.

In all three, program execution starts with a single conceptual thread of control, which then generates more parallelism through the use of language constructs (i.e. not strictly SPMD). Parallelism is mapped onto a multi-level conceptual model that is roughly approximated by the “processes” and “threads” of the traditional MPI-based programming model, for which each language has different terminology. Memory in all three is globally addressable, and data is global and can be distributed. Locality control permits computation and data to be assigned to specific system resources for performance reasons. The base languages are object-oriented and provide generic programming capabilities.

3.1 CHAPEL

Chapel is being designed by Cray Inc. to support general parallel programming while narrowing the gap between mainstream and HPC languages. Chapel’s design builds on concepts from ZPL [8, 13], High-Performance Fortran [20], and Cray’s multithreaded extensions to C and Fortran [15], while adopting a variety of other useful features from mainstream and academic languages.

A locale in Chapel symbolizes a unit of architectural locality on the target machine, containing processing and storage capabilities. A locale’s memory is uniformly accessible to computations running on it. Each locale supports a dynamic set of tasks that are created using begin, cobegin, and coforall statements. Tasks are synchronized using synchronization (sync) variables that have full/empty semantics, and atomic sections that provide transactional memory capabilities. Data and tasks can be mapped to machine resources (locales) using on clauses. The mapping may be explicitly specified, or data driven. Chapel supports data parallelism via domains, a first-class language concept representing an index set. Domains can be iterated over in parallel using forall and coforall loops, and are used to declare, resize, and slice arrays. Domains and their arrays may be partitioned across a set of locales using distributions, which map from the global view of an aggregate to its implementation on distinct locales.

3.2 FORTRESS

Fortress, being developed by Sun Microsystems, Inc., is designed to be an open, growable language. Consequently, it is designed with a small set of core language features, and the majority of concepts are coded in libraries.

Fortress programs are multithreaded; a user may explicitly spawn threads, or call implicitly parallel constructs that create threads managed by the Fortress language implementation. Atomic sections enable synchronization of threads. Fortress regions abstractly describe the underlying machine structure and can have an arbitrary hierarchical structure. Thread affinity to particular regions may be specified with at expressions, and distributions allow management of data locality. Parallelism can be programmed inside libraries as distributions and generators.

Fortress also provides a variety of novel features targeting the HPCS program’s productivity goals, including built-in constructs for managing components and interfaces, expressing tests and contracts, and methods for rendering the code that look like typeset mathematics.
Table 1. Language Versions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Specification</th>
<th>Implementation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chapel</td>
<td>v0.775 [2]</td>
<td>v0.7 compiler</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fortress</td>
<td>v1.0 [9]</td>
<td>v1.0 interpreter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X10</td>
<td>v1.3 [7]</td>
<td>v1.5 compiler</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 3.3 X10

X10, which is being developed by IBM Corp., is designed to leverage the extensive software ecosystem around the Java language. X10 is defined as a serial subset of Java, extended with additional concurrency, distribution, and locality features.

In X10, a place corresponds to a data-coherent processing element, with each place supporting a dynamic set of lightweight activities. Activities specify logical parallelism and may be composed in arbitrarily nested ways using *async*, *future*, *foreach*, and *ateach* constructs, and are translated by the X10 compiler/runtime into running threads. An activity executes to completion on the place where it is created, but can launch activities on other places, and detect termination of all such activities via the *finish* statement. Clocks enable synchronization of dynamically created activities across places. Activities within a place uniformly and coherently access its memory using *atomic* statements; weaker ordering semantics exist for inter-place data accesses. Similar to Chapel, X10 provides a ZPL-like “array language” to express high-level operations on distributed arrays.

### 3.4 LANGUAGE VERSIONS AND LIMITATIONS

Versions of the languages used in this paper are shown in Table 1. The Fortress implementation has thus far focused on the multi-threading capabilities of the language, and does not support explicitly multi-processor code at this time. Where the lack of necessary features prevent us from actually implementing certain approaches, we may, for the sake of completeness, discuss proposed implementations based on the language specifications.

### 4. PROGRAMMING EXAMPLES AND DISCUSSION

With their rich parallel semantics, the HPCS languages offer a variety of ways to implement algorithms like Fock matrix construction. In this section, we present and discuss examples from various strategies we have developed in the three languages.

Sections 4.1–4.4 present different load-balancing strategies for the four-fold loop in the Fock matrix construction (step 2 in the description in Section 2). In Section 4.5 we examine how the languages support various kinds of operations on distributed global-view arrays required in steps 1, 3, and 4 of the Fock matrix construction.

Except where limited by the current implementations of the languages (see Section 3.4), we show implementations of the strategies presented here for each of the three languages. The complete set of codes can be obtained from the authors.
4.1 STATIC, PROGRAM MANAGED LOAD BALANCING

We begin with a statically distributed non-scalable implementation to illustrate how the HPCS languages differ from more familiar SPMD environments in creating parallelism. By “program managed” we mean the programmer controls the allocation of work to processors.

4.1.1 X10

Code 1 shows the X10 implementation of a simple round-robin workload distribution to places. An X10 program starts as a single root activity, on the first place, and iterates through the four-fold loop (lines 2–4). Note that the loop indices are of type point, which is associated with the specified index space, rather than simple integers, as they would be in a traditional programming environment, thus providing a higher degree of type-safety.

In each iteration of the four-fold loop, the root activity launches an activity to asynchronously evaluate the task (in all presented code segments, blockIndices is a class whose member arguments specify the work to be performed in one task) on the remote place specified by placeNo (line 5). Then placeNo is updated to the next value in the cyclically ordered set of places (line 6), and the root activity continues with the next iteration.

The finish construct placed at the outermost level of the loop nest (line 2) forces the root activity to await the termination of async activities launched within its scope (in this case the four-fold loop). This ensures that all parallel tasks are completed before proceeding.

4.1.2 Chapel

Chapel allows users to specify iterators that produce a set of points in an index space with a specified distribution across locales. The iterator in Code 2 involves the four-fold loop (lines 3–6) yielding a block for the locale specified by loc (line 7). In each pass through the loop, loc is modified to denote the next locale in a cyclic ordering of locales (line 8). Thus blocks are designated to locales in a round-robin fashion.

The output of the iterator drives the parallel foreach loop in Code 3. The Chapel program starts as a single computation on the first locale and invokes the foreach statement which uses the on construct to process each block on the locale designated by the iterator.

4.1.3 Fortress

Our proposed multi-region Fortress implementation would be very similar to the Chapel approach, using the generator concept. The generator would feed a parallel for construct performing its iterations according to the placement of indices from the generator.
4.2 DYNAMIC, LANGUAGE MANAGED LOAD BALANCING

The simplest possible scalable implementation would be if the language runtime could be relied upon to take care of the load balancing without the programmer even needing to express it in code. It is important to note that such capabilities are current research topics for the languages. Therefore, we present this approach to illustrate the potential for extreme simplicity, but with the caveat that it is still quite speculative.

4.2.1 Fortress

The Fortress for construct (Code 4, line 1) is parallel by default and, driven by the loop’s generator, would (conceptually) spawn a new thread for each point in the iteration space (line 3). The Fortress specification anticipates that the runtime will be able to load balance computations that expose substantially more parallelism than the available processors. Fortress has a fairly powerful generator concept that allows the entire four-fold loop to be expressed in a single statement. (Loops and generators with explicit sequential semantics are possible too.)

4.2.2 Chapel

Chapel provides distributions as a mechanism for distributing an index space (domain) across locales. Distributions may be written to dynamically divide indices among locales. A forall looping on such a
The X10 specification requires that data and activities remain in the place they were created or spawned for their lifetime. However, X10 places are virtual, so that many places might be mapped to each physical processor, and conceivably migrated among them by the runtime for load balancing and other resource management purposes, similar to Cilk’s work stealing [3, 11] within an SMP node or CHARM++ [5, 21] in the distributed context. Given a runtime with such a capability, the simplest X10 implementation would be nearly identical to Code 1, but with many more places than processors, so that one or a few atom blocks were allocated to each place.

4.3 DYNAMIC, PROGRAM MANAGED LOAD BALANCING USING A SHARED COUNTER

A dynamically load balanced computation involves all participating processors (conceptually) sharing a single list of tasks, and whenever a processor is free, it takes another task from the list. One common approach, and the one we use here, to implementing the shared task list is to have all processors locally generate tasks in the same sequence, and use a globally shared counter (typically implemented with an atomic read-and-increment operation) to track how many tasks have been taken by processors.

4.3.1 X10

In Code 5, the root activity creates the globally shared counter \( G \) on the first place (line 1). Then it uses the \texttt{ateach} construct (line 2) to launch a copy of the Fock-build algorithm (lines 3–16) on each \texttt{place}. The \texttt{finish} (line 2) causes the root activity to block until the rest of the algorithm completes on every place.

Each place iterates over the same sequence of tasks (the four-fold loop, lines 6–8), using \( L \) to count the

\begin{verbatim}
int G = 0;
finish at each(point [p] : dist.factory.unique(place.places)) {
  int myG, L = 0;
  future<int> F = future(place.FIRST_PLACE) {read_and_increment_G()};
  myG = F.force();
  for(point [iat] : [1:natom])
    for(point [jat, kat] : [1:iat, 1:iat])
      for(point [lat] : [1:(kat==iat?jat:kat)]) {
        if (L == myG) {
          F = future(place.FIRST_PLACE) {read_andIncrement_G()};
          buildjk_atom4(new blockIndices(...));
          myG = F.force();
        }
        ++L;
      }
}
\end{verbatim}

```java
private int read_and_increment_G() {
    int myG;
    atomic myG = G++;
    return myG;
}
```

Code 7. Shared counter for dynamic load balancing - Chapel

```java
var G : sync int = 0;
coforall loc in LocaleSpace on Locales(loc) {
    var (L, lattop, myG) = (0, 0, readAndIncrementG());
    for iat in 1..natom do
        for (jat, kat) in [1..iat, 1..iat] {
            lattop = if (kat==iat) then jat else kat;
            for lat in 1..lattop {
                if (L == myG) then
                    cobegin {
                        buildjk_atom4(new blockIndices(...));
                        myG = readAndIncrementG();
                    }
                    L += 1;
            }
        }
}
```

tasks. When \( L \) matches the next task assigned to the place (\( myG \)), it evaluates that integral block. Assignments (\( myG \)) are obtained from a remote atomic read-and-increment operation on the globally shared counter \( G \) on the first place (lines 4 and 10). When every place has completed the four-fold loop, all tasks will be evaluated.

X10 requires that remote references to mutable data (in this case the shared counter \( G \)) be done asynchronously, hence the use of the future construct at lines 4 and 10. Separation between spawning the future and forcing it (as in lines 10 and 12) allows computation and communication to be overlapped.

Code 6 shows how the atomic read-and-increment operation is straightforwardly implemented with an atomic section.

4.3.2 Chapel

Our Chapel implementation in Code 7 employs the coforall statement to create distinct concurrent computations for all the locales, with an on clause binding one computation to one locale (line 2). (The Chapel forall construct only specifies that the iterations may run concurrently, while coforall requires a separate computation for each iteration.) Each computation loops over the index space of tasks (lines 4–7).

The shared counter \( G \) is created on the first locale as a synchronization variable of the sync type, which provides full/empty semantics (line 1). Once written, such a variable cannot be re-written until it is emptied. Likewise, an empty variable cannot be re-read until it is written. Computations attempting to write to a full sync variable or read from an empty one will block until another computation changes the variable’s state.
### Code 8. Atomic read-and-increment - Chapel

```chapel
1 def readAndIncrementG() {
2   const myG : int = G;
3   G = myG + 1;
4   return myG;
5 }
```

### Code 9. Shared counter for dynamic load balancing - Fortress

```fortress
1 numRegs = 10
2 var G : ZZ32 = 0
3 for reg<-1#numRegs at region(reg) do
4   (L,myG) := (0,read_and_increment_G())
5 for iat<-seq(1#natom), jat<-seq(1#iat), kat<-seq(1#iat),
6   lat<-seq(1#(if (kat=iat) then jat else kat end)) do
7   if (L = myG) then
8     do
9       buildjk_atom4 blockIndices(...)
10      also do
11       myG := read_and_increment_G()
12     end
13   end
14   L += 1
15 end
16 end
```

Taking advantage of these semantics to atomically update the counter in the `readAndIncrementG` method from Code 8, every computation first does a read (line 2) followed immediately by a write of `G` (line 3) to fetch the next task. The processing of a newly assigned task is overlapped with the fetch of the next task inside a `cobegin` statement (Code 7, line 9).

#### 4.3.3 Fortress

The Fortress version in Code 9 spawns parallel threads using the `for` expression, with the `at` expression denoting the `region` where each thread should run (line 3). (At the time of this writing, since Fortress does not support distinct regions, `numRegs` is used to simulate the different regions.) All threads traverse the iteration space in a serial fashion as mandated by the `seq` multi-generator `for` loop (lines 5–6). The `also` construct (line 10) runs a new task concurrently with update to the shared counter `G`. The `read_and_increment_G` function is implemented as an `atomic` method in Code 10.

### 4.4 DYNAMIC, PROGRAM MANAGED LOAD BALANCING USING A TASK POOL

The task pool model of dynamic load balancing uses common work area, or “pool” into which producers submit tasks, and consumers remove and execute them. This is a general pattern of synchronization applicable to a wide variety of problems.
4.4.1 Chapel

In Chapel, the pool of integral block tasks is built around an array of sync variables `taskarr` (Code 11, line 3). Methods are defined for producers to add tasks to the pool (lines 5–9) and for consumers to remove them (lines 10–14). The full/empty semantics of sync variables ensures the coordination of task addition and removal operations. The `head` and `tail` variables are also defined to be of sync type, and control access to the taskpool by multiple producers and consumers respectively.

The main application (Code 12) begins as a single computation and sets up a task pool on the first locale. The size of the task pool, `poolSize`, is set to the count of locales, `numLocales` (line 1). The `cobegin` (line 3) runs the producer (line 6) and consumer (lines 4–5) computations in parallel. The `coforall` construct (line 4) guarantees that the loop iterations run concurrently on separate locales.

The producer (Code 13) simply adds atomic quartets to the task pool. The atomic quartets come from the `genBlocks` iterator (Code 14), which steps through the four-fold loop (lines 2–5) and then generates sentinel values (lines 8–9) to signal the consumers that there are no more tasks.

Consumers (Code 15) take tasks from the pool and evaluate them until the sentinel value described above is encountered. The `cobegin` construct (line 5) allows the integral evaluation task to be overlapped with obtaining the next atomic quartet.
Code 12. Top-level driver for task pool - Chapel

```chapel
const poolSize = numLocales;
const t = new taskpool(poolSize);
cobegin {
   forall loc in LocaleSpace on Locales(loc) do
        consumer();
        producer();
}
```

Code 13. Producer of integral blocks - Chapel

```chapel
def producer() {
    forall blk in genBlocks() do
        t.add(blk);
}
```

4.4.2 X10

The X10 task pool (Code 16) uses conditional atomic sections to synchronize the actions of producer and consumer activities (lines 10 and 18). A conditional atomic section checks for the validity of a condition and executes the code inside the section with atomic semantics. If the condition is not true, the executing activity is suspended until the condition is satisfied. The conditional atomic section in the add method inserts a new task if the pool full condition is false. In the remove method, a task can be taken if the pool is not empty.

In the X10 implementation (Code 17), the root activity instantiates a task pool of size equal to the number of places on the first place (line 2), spawns consumer activities on all places (lines 5–6), and then runs the producer (line 7). The producer (Code 18) populates the task pool with integral blocks and a single nullBlock as the sentinel value. Consumers (Code 19) process the integral blocks and terminate on encountering the nullBlock. A future progresses a consumer’s request for the next block alongside the processing of the currently fetched block (line 4).

Code 14. Fock index space iterator - Chapel

```chapel
def genBlocks() {
    for iat in 1..natom do
        for (jat, kat) in [1..iat, 1..iat] {
            const lattop = if (kat==iat) then jat else kat;
            for lat in 1..lattop do
                yield new blockIndices(...);
        }
    for loc in LocaleSpace do
        yield nil;
}
```
4.4.3 Fortress

Our proposed implementation in Fortress would use features like `for` and `also do` to enable producer and consumer threads to run together. The producer would be driven by a `generator`. The task pool implementation would use `abortable atomic` expressions, which allow atomic sections to validate conditions and rollback on violations.

4.5 MULTI-DIMENSIONAL ARRAY FUNCTIONALITY

All three languages provide a rich set of global array functionality including physical distribution, initialization, one-sided accesses, and data parallel algebraic operations. The array functionality used in our Fock build codes is captured in figure 1. We delve into details of the formation of the final Fock matrix from the computed Coulomb ($J$) and exchange ($K$) matrices to illustrate how each language expresses some of these operations.

4.5.1 Chapel

In Chapel, `forall` expressions are used to transpose the two matrices (Code 20, lines 2–3). Both the arrays and their transposes are defined over the `domain` (index space) $D$ (definitions not shown). The loop indices $i$ and $j$ are drawn from the index space $D$, and as with a normal `forall` they may be done in parallel. The `cobegin` (line 1) allows the two transpositions to be carried out in parallel as well. Lines 5–6 illustrate how Chapel promotes scalar operators to apply to arrays.

4.5.2 Fortress

The `tuple` expression in Code 21, line 1 spawns separate `threads` to evaluate its elements. $t()$ is an array factory method that computes an array transpose by iterating over the array indices in an implicitly parallel `for` loop. In lines 2 and 3, the Fortress library operators `+` and juxtaposition (multiplication) are applied to arrays.
4.5.3 X10

Code 22 shows a naïve transposition in X10. This implementation launches a separate asynchronous activity for each element of the matrix (points in the distribution $D$) (lines 2 and 5). Futures are launched on the place holding the $[j,i]$ element of the index space to retrieve the remote value. The surrounding finish (line 1) ensures completion of the two transpositions before continuing. add and scale (lines 9–10) are array class methods.

Note that the transposition can be expressed much more efficiently in X10 (fewer activities, better locality, aggregated data movement) [10], though not as succinctly.

5. CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE WORK

We have presented several possible implementations for load balancing of a computation involving tasks of widely varying cost in each of the HPCS languages, as well as operations on distributed arrays.
Though the languages differ in their detailed syntax and semantics, at a higher level, they provide similar capabilities, which generally go well beyond those of the traditional message-passing model, and even the Global Arrays programming model that was used for the first truly scalable, fully-distributed implementation of the Hartree-Fock method. The examples illustrate the wide range of constructs provided for the expression of parallelism, and how they can be combined to expose the maximum possible parallelism to the language. This will be an important aspect of future programming environments as the number of CPUs and processor cores continues to grow rapidly.

Future work includes examination of the performance considerations associated with different implementations, which we plan to undertake once the language implementations have reached an appropriate level of maturity. We also plan to extend these studies to other scientific applications, in order to illustrate other aspects of the languages.
Fig. 1. Array Functionality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Operations</th>
<th>Language constructs used</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mixed data and task parallelism</td>
<td>cobegin (task) + forall loop (data)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Global-view array operations</td>
<td>initialization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>arithmetic</td>
<td>array promotions of scalar operators (+,*)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sub-array</td>
<td>slicing</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Code 20. Symmetrization of J and K - Chapel**

```chapel
1 cobegin {
2    [(i,j) in D] jmat2T(i,j) = jmat2(j,i);
3    [(i,j) in D] kmat2T(i,j) = kmat2(j,i);
4 }
5 jmat2 = 2*(jmat2+jmat2T);
6 kmat2 += kmat2T;
```

**REFERENCES**


```fortress
1 (jmat2T,kmat2T) = (jmat2.t(), kmat2.t())
2 jmat2 := 2*(jmat2+jmat2T)
3 kmat2 := kmat2+kmat2T
```
Code 22. Symmetrization of \( J \) and \( K \) - X10

1 \begin{verbatim}
finish {
2    async ateach(point[i,j] : D)
3        jmat2T[i,j] = future (D[j,i]) {jmat2[j,i]}.force();
4    async ateach(point[i,j] : D)
5        kmat2T[i,j] = future (D[j,i]) {kmat2[j,i]}.force();
6 }
7 jmat2 = jmat2.add(jmat2T).scale(2);
8 kmat2 = kmat2.add(kmat2T);
\end{verbatim}


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