

# Expressing and Exploiting Multi-Dimensional Locality in DASH

Tobias Fuchs and Karl Furlinger

**Abstract** DASH is a realization of the PGAS (partitioned global address space) programming model in the form of a C++ template library. It provides a multi-dimensional array abstraction which is typically used as an underlying container for stencil- and dense matrix operations. Efficiency of operations on a distributed multi-dimensional array highly depends on the distribution of its elements to processes and the communication strategy used to propagate values between them. Locality can only be improved by employing an optimal distribution that is specific to the implementation of the algorithm, run-time parameters such as node topology, and numerous additional aspects. Application developers do not know these implications which also might change in future releases of DASH. In the following, we identify fundamental properties of distribution patterns that are prevalent in existing HPC applications. We describe a classification scheme of multi-dimensional distributions based on these properties and demonstrate how distribution patterns can be optimized for locality and communication avoidance automatically and, to a great extent, at compile time.

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## 1 Introduction

For Exascale systems the cost of accessing data is expected to be the dominant factor in terms of execution time as well as energy consumption [3]. To minimize data movement, applications have to consider initial placement and optimize both vertical data movement in the memory hierarchy and horizontal data movement between processing units. Programming systems for Exascale must therefore shift from a compute-centric to a more data-centric focus and give application developers fine-grained control over data locality.

On an algorithmic level, many scientific applications are naturally expressed in multi-dimensional domains that arise from discretization of time and space. However, few programming systems support developers in expressing and exploiting data locality in multiple dimensions beyond the most simple one-dimensional distributions. In this paper we present a framework that enables HPC application developers to express constraints on data distribution that are suitable to exploit locality in multi-dimensional arrays.

The DASH library [10] provides numerous variants of data distribution schemes. Their implementations are encapsulated in well-defined concept definitions and are therefore semantically interchangeable. However, no single distribution scheme is suited for every usage scenario. In operations on shared multi-dimensional containers, locality can only be maintained by choosing an optimal distribution. This choice depends on:

- the algorithm executed on the shared container, in particular its communication pattern and memory access scheme,
- run-time parameters such as the extents of the shared container, the number of processes and their network topology,
- numerous additional aspects such as CPU architecture and memory topology.

The responsibility to specify a data distribution that achieves high locality and communication avoidance lies with the application developers. These, however, are not aware of implementation-specific implications: a specific distribution might be balanced, but blocks might not fit into a cache line, inadvertently impairing hardware locality.

As a solution, we present a mechanism to find a concrete distribution variant among all available candidate implementations that satisfies a set of properties. In effect, programmers do not need to specify a distribution type and its configuration explicitly. They can rely on the decision of the DASH library and focus only on aspects of data distribution that are relevant in the scenario at hand.

For this, we first identify and categorize fundamental properties of distribution schemes that are prevalent in algorithms in related work and existing HPC applications. With DASH as a reference implementation, we demonstrate how data distributions can then be optimized determined automatically and, to a great extent, at compile time.

From a software engineering perspective, we explain how our methodology follows best practices known from established C++ libraries and thus ensures that user

applications are not only robust against, but even benefit from future changes in DASH.

The remainder of this paper is structured as follows: The following section introduces fundamental concepts of PGAS and locality in the context of DASH. A classification of data distribution properties is presented in Sec. 3. In Sec. 4, we show how this system of properties allows to exploit locality in DASH in different scenarios. Using the use case of SUMMA as an example, the presented methods are evaluated for performance as well as flexibility against the established implementations from Intel MKL and ScaLAPACK. Publications and tools related to this work are discussed in Sec. 6. Finally, Sec. 7 gives a conclusion and an outlook on future work where the DASH library's pattern traits framework is extended to sparse, irregular, and hierarchical distributions.

## 2 Background

This section gives a brief introduction to the Partitioned Global Address Space approach considering locality and data distribution. We then present concepts in the DASH library used to express process topology, data distribution and iteration spaces. The following sections build upon these concepts and present new mechanisms to exploit locality automatically using generic programming techniques.

### 2.1 PGAS and Multi-Dimensional Locality

Conceptually, the Partitioned Global Address Space (PGAS) paradigm unifies memory of individual, networked nodes into a virtual global memory space. In effect, PGAS languages create a shared namespace for local and remote variables. This, however, does not affect physical ownership. A single variable is only located in a specific node's memory and local access is more efficient than remote access from other nodes. This is expected to matter more and more even within single (NUMA) nodes in the near future [3]. As locality directly affects performance and scalability, programmers need full control over data placement. Then, however, they are facing overwhelmingly complex implications of data distribution on locality.

This complexity increases exponentially with the number of data dimensions. Calculating a rectangular intersection might be manageable for up to three dimensions, but locality is hard to maintain in higher dimensions, especially for irregular distributions.

## 2.2 DASH Concepts

Expressing data locality in a Partitioned Global Address Space language builds upon fundamental concepts of process topology and data distribution. In the following, we describe these concepts as they are used in the context of DASH.

### 2.2.1 Topology: Teams and Units

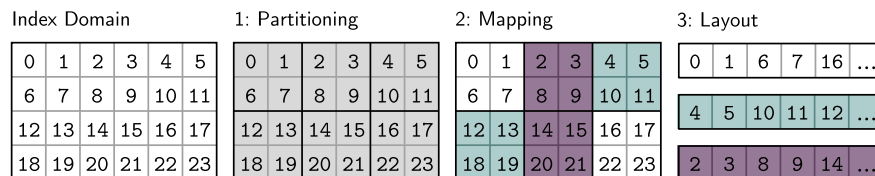
In DASH terminology, a *unit* refers to any logical component in a distributed memory topology that supports processing and storage. Conventional PGAS approaches offer only the differentiation between local and global data and distinguish between private, shared-local, and shared-remote memory. DASH extends this model by a more fine-grained differentiation that corresponds to hierarchical machine models as units are organized in hierarchical *teams*. For example, a team at the top level could group processing nodes into individual teams, each again consisting of units referencing single CPU cores.

### 2.2.2 Data Distribution: Patterns

Data distributions in general implement a two-level mapping:

1. from index to process (*node-* or *process mapping*)
2. from process to local memory offset (*local order* or *layout*)

Index sets separate the logical index space as seen by the user from physical layout in memory space. This distinction and the mapping between index domains is usually transparent to the programmer.



**Fig. 1** Example of partitioning, mapping, and layout in the distribution of a dense, two-dimensional array

Process mapping can also be understood as *distribution*, arrangement in local memory is also referred to as *layout* e.g. in Chapel [4].

In DASH, data decomposition is based on index mappings provided by different implementations of the DASH *Pattern* concept. Listing 1 shows the instantiation of a rectangular pattern, specifying the Cartesian index domain and partitioning scheme.

Patterns partition a global index set into *blocks* that are then mapped to units. Consequently, indices are mapped to processes indirectly in two stages: from index to block (*partitioning*) and from block to unit (*mapping*). Figure 1 illustrates a pattern’s index mapping as sequential steps in the distribution of a two-dimensional array. While the name and the illustrated example might suggest otherwise, blocks are not necessarily rectangular.

In summary, the DASH pattern concept defines semantics in the following categories:

<b>Distribution</b>	Well-defined distribution of indices to units, depending on properties in the subordinate categories:
	<b>Partitioning</b> Grouping indices into blocks
	<b>Mapping</b> Distributing blocks to units in a team
<b>Layout</b>	Arrangement of blocks and block elements in local memory
<b>Indexing</b>	Operations related to index sets for iterating data elements in global- and local scope

Layout semantics specify the arrangement of values in local memory and, in effect, their order. Indexing semantics also include index set operations like slicing and intersection but do not affect physical data distribution.

We define distribution semantics of a pattern type depending on the following set of operations:

$\text{local}(i_G) \mapsto (u, i_L)$	Index $i_G$ to unit $u$ and local offset $i_L$
$\text{global}(u, i_L) \mapsto i_G$	Unit $u$ and local offset $i_L$ to global index $i_G$
$\text{unit}(i_G) \mapsto u$	Index $i_G$ to unit $u$
$\text{local\_block}(i_G) \mapsto (u, i_{LB})$	Index $i_G$ to unit $u$ and local block index $i_{LB}$
$\text{global\_block}(i_G) \mapsto i_{GB}$	Index $i_G$ to global block index $i_{GB}$

with n-dimensional indices  $i_G, i_L$  as coordinates in the global / local Cartesian element space and  $i_{GB}, i_{LB}$  as coordinates in the global / local Cartesian block space. Instead of a Cartesian point, an index may also be declared as a point’s offset in linearized memory order.

```

1 // Brief notation:
2 TilePattern<2> pattern(global_extent_x, global_extent_y,
3                       TILED(tilesizex), TILED(tilesizex));
4 // Equivalent full notation:
5 TilePattern<2, dash::default_index_t, ROW_MAJOR>
6   pattern(DistributionSpec<2>(
7           TILED(tilesizex), TILED(tilesizex),
8           SizeSpec<2, dash::default_size_t>(
9           global_extent_x, global_extent_y),
10          TeamSpec<1>(
11          Team::All()));

```

**Listing 1** Explicit instantiation of DASH patterns

DASH containers use patterns to provide uniform notations based on view proxy types to express index domain mappings. User-defined data distribution schemes can be easily incorporated in DASH applications as containers and algorithms accept any type that implements the Pattern concept.

Listing 2 illustrates the intuitive usage of user-defined pattern types and the `local` and `block` view accessors that are part of the DASH Container concept. View proxy objects use a referenced container's pattern to map between its index domains but do not contain any elements themselves. They can be arbitrarily chained to refine an index space in consecutive steps, as in the last line of Listing 2: the expression `array.local.block(1)` addresses the second block in the array's local memory space.

In effect, patterns specify local iteration order similar to the partitioning of iteration spaces e.g. in RAJA [11]. Proxy types implement all methods of their delegate container type and thus also provide `begin` and `end` iterators that specify the iteration space within the view's mapped domain. DASH iterators provide an intuitive notation of ranges in virtual global memory that are well-defined with respect to distance and iteration order, even in multi-dimensional and irregular index domains.

```

1 CustomPattern pattern;
2 dash::Array<double> a(size, pattern);
3 double g_first = a[0]           // First value in global memory,
4                               // corresponds to a.begin()
5 double l_first = a.local[0];   // First value in local memory,
6                               // corresponds to a.local.begin()
7 dash::copy(a.block(0).begin(), // Copy first block in
8           a.block(0).end(),    // global memory to second
9           a.local.block(1).begin()); // block in local memory

```

**Listing 2** Views on DASH containers

### 3 Classification of Pattern Properties

While terms like *blocked*, *cyclic* and *block-cyclic* are commonly understood, the terminology of distribution types is inconsistent in related work, or varies in semantics. Typically, distributions are restricted to specific constraints that are not applicable in the general case for convenience.

Instead of a strict taxonomy enumerating the full spectrum of all imaginable distribution semantics, a systematic description of pattern properties is more practicable to abstract semantics from concrete implementations. The classification presented in this section allows to specify distribution patterns by categorized, unordered sets of properties. It is, of course, incomplete, but can be easily extended. We identify properties that can be fulfilled by data distributions and then group these properties into orthogonal *categories* which correspond to the separate functional aspects of the pattern concept described in Subsection 2.2.2: partitioning, unit mapping, and memory layout. This categorization also complies with the terminology and conceptual findings in related work [16].

DASH pattern semantics are specified by a configuration of properties in these dimensions:

$$\text{Global} \times \underbrace{\text{Partitioning} \times \text{Mapping}}_{\text{Distribution}} \times \text{Layout}$$

Details on a selection of single properties in all categories are discussed in the remainder of this section.

#### 3.1 Partitioning Properties

Partitioning refers to the methodology used to subdivide a global index set into disjoint blocks in an arbitrary number of logical dimensions. If not specified otherwise by other constraints, indices are mapped into *rectangular* blocks. A partitioning is *regular* if it only creates blocks with identical extents and *balanced* if all block have identical size.

<b>rectangular</b>	Block extents are constant in every single dimension, e.g. every row has identical size.
<b>minimal</b>	Minimal number of blocks in every dimension, i.e. at most one block for every unit.
<b>regular</b>	All blocks have identical extents.
<b>balanced</b>	All blocks have identical size (number of elements).
<b>multi-dimensional</b>	Data is partitioned in at least two dimensions.
<b>cache-aligned</b>	Block sizes are a multiple of cache line size.

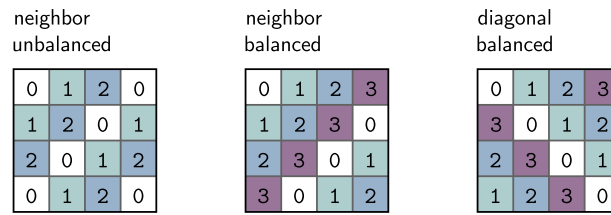
Note that with the classification, these properties are mostly independent: rectan-

ular partitionings may produce blocks with varying extents, balanced partitionings are not necessarily rectangular, and so on. For example, partitioning a matrix into triangular blocks could satisfy the *regular* and *balanced* partitioning properties. The fine-grained nature of property definitions allows many possible combinations that form an expressive and concise vocabulary to express pattern semantics.

### 3.2 Mapping Properties

Well-defined mapping properties exist that have been formulated to define *multipartitionings*, a family of distribution schemes supporting parallelization of line sweep computations over multi-dimensional arrays.

The first and most restrictive multipartitioning has been defined based on the *diagonal* property [15]. In a multipartitioning, each process owns exactly one tile in each hyperplane of a partitioning so that all processors are active in every step of a line-sweep computation along any array dimension as illustrated in Figure 2.



**Fig. 2** Combinations of mapping properties. Numbers in blocks indicate the unit rank owning the block

*General multipartitionings* are a more flexible variant that allows to assign more than one block to a process in a partitioned hyperplane. The generalized definition subdivides the original diagonal property into the *balanced* and *neighbor* mapping properties [6] described below. This definition is more relaxed but still preserves the benefits for line-sweep parallelization.

<b>balanced</b>	The number of assigned blocks is identical for every unit.
<b>neighbor</b>	A block's adjacent blocks in any one direction along a dimension are all owned by some other processor.
<b>shifted</b>	Units are mapped to blocks in diagonal chains in at least one hyperplane.
<b>diagonal</b>	Units are mapped to blocks in diagonal chains in all hyperplanes.
<b>cyclic</b>	Blocks are assigned to processes like dealt from a deck of cards in every hyperplane, starting from first unit.
<b>multiple</b>	At least two blocks are mapped to every unit.



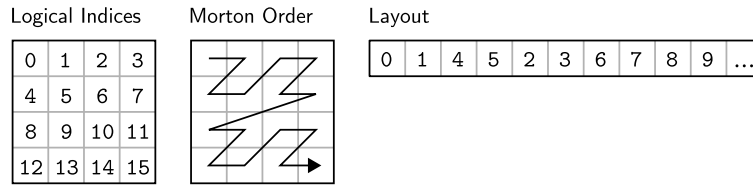
The constraints defined for multipartitionings are overly strict for some algorithms and can be further relaxed to a subset of its properties. For example, a pipelined optimization of the SUMMA algorithm requires a *diagonal shift* mapping [14, 18] that satisfies the diagonal property but is not required to be balanced. Therefore, the diagonal property in our classification does not imply a balanced mapping, deviating from its original definition.

### 3.3 Layout Properties

Layout properties describe how values are arranged in a unit's physical memory and, consequently, their order of traversal. Perhaps the most crucial property is storage order which is either row- or column major. If not specified, DASH assumes row-major order as known from C. The list of properties can also be extended to give hints to allocation routines on the physical memory topology of units such as NUMA or CUDA.

<b>row-major</b>	Row major storage order, used by default.
<b>col-major</b>	Column major storage order.
<b>blocked</b>	Elements are contiguous in local memory within a single block.
<b>canonical</b>	All local indices are mapped to a single logical index domain.
<b>linear</b>	Local element order corresponds to a logical linearization within single blocks (tiled) or within entire local memory (canonical).

While patterns assign indices to units in logical blocks, they do not necessarily preserve the block structure in local index sets. After process mapping, a pattern's layout scheme may arrange indices mapped to a unit in an arbitrary way in physical memory. In *canonical* layouts, the local storage order corresponds to the logical global iteration order. *Blocked* layouts preserve the block structure locally such that values within a block are contiguous in memory, but in arbitrary order. The additional *linear* property also preserves the logical linearized order of elements within single blocks. For example, Morton order memory layout as shown in Figure 3 satisfies the *blocked* property, as elements within a block are contiguous in memory, but does not grant the *linear* property.



**Fig. 3** Morton order memory layout of block elements

### 3.4 Global Properties

The *Global* category is usually only needed to give hints on characteristics of the distributed value domain such as the *sparse* property to indicate the distribution of sparse data.

<b>dense</b>	Distributed data domain is dense.
<b>sparse</b>	Distributed data domain is sparse.
<b>balanced</b>	The same number of values is mapped to every unit after partitioning and mapping.

It also contains properties that emerge from a *combination* of the independent partitioning and layout properties and cannot be derived from either category separately. The global *balanced* distribution property, for example, guarantees the same number of local elements at every unit. This is trivially fulfilled for balanced partitioning and balanced mapping where the same number of blocks  $b$  of identical size  $s$  is mapped to every unit. However, it could also be achieved in a combination of unbalanced partitioning and unbalanced mapping, e.g. when assigning  $b$  blocks of size  $s$  and  $b/2$  blocks of size  $2s$ .

## 4 Exploiting Locality with Pattern Traits

The classification system presented in the last section allows to describe distribution pattern semantics using properties instead of a taxonomy of types that are associated with concrete implementations. In the following, we introduce *pattern traits*, a collection of mechanisms in DASH that utilize distribution properties to exploit data locality automatically.

As a technical prerequisite for these mechanisms, every pattern type is annotated with *tag* type definitions that declare which properties are satisfied by its implementation. This enables meta-programming based on the patterns' distribution properties as type definitions are evaluated at compile time. Using tags to annotate type

invariants is a common method in generic C++ programming and prevalent in the STL and the Boost library <sup>1</sup>.

```
1 template <dim_t NDim, ...>
2 class ThePattern {
3 public:
4     typedef mapping_properties<
5         mapping_tag::diagonal,
6         mapping_tag::cyclic >
7         mapping_tags;
8     ...
9 };
```

**Listing 3** Property tags in a pattern type definition.

### *4.1 Deducing Distribution Patterns from Constraints*

In a common use case, programmers intend to allocate data in distributed global memory with the use for a specific algorithm in mind. They would then have to decide for a specific distribution type, carefully evaluating all available options for optimal data locality in the algorithm's memory access pattern.

To alleviate this process, DASH allows to automatically create a concrete pattern instance that satisfies a set of constraints. The function `make_pattern` returns a pattern instance from a given set of properties and run-time parameters. The actual type of the returned pattern instance is resolved at compile time and never explicitly appears in client code by relying on automatic type deduction.

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<sup>1</sup> [http://www.boost.org/community/generic\\_programming.html](http://www.boost.org/community/generic_programming.html)

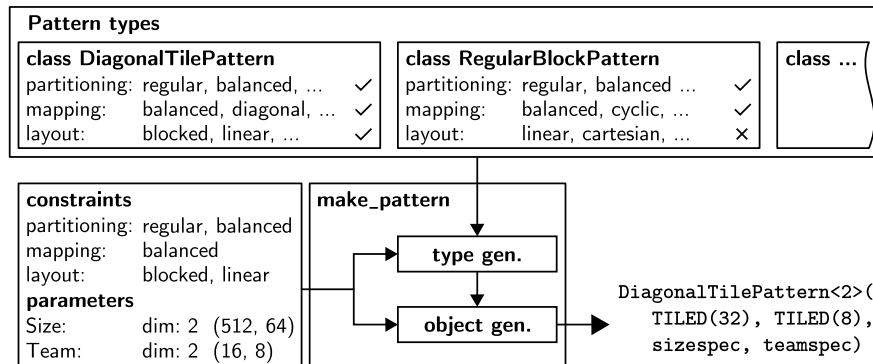
```

1 static const dash::dim_t NumDataDim = 2;
2 static const dash::dim_t NumTeamDim = 2;
3 // Topology of processes, here: 16x8 process grid
4 TeamSpec<NumTeamDim> teamspec(16, 8);
5 // Cartesian extents of container:
6 SizeSpec<NumDataDim> sizespec(extent_x, extent_y);
7 // Create instance of pattern type deduced from
8 // constraints at compile time:
9 auto pattern =
10   dash::make_pattern<
11     partitioning_properties<
12       partitioning_tag::balanced >,
13     mapping_properties<
14       mapping_tag::balanced, mapping_tag::diagonal >,
15     layout_properties<
16       layout_tag::blocked >
17   >(sizespec, teamspec);

```

**Listing 4** Deduction of an Optimal Distribution

To achieve compile-time deduction of its return type, `make_pattern` employs the *Generic Abstract Factory* design pattern [2]. Different from an *Abstract Factory* that returns a polymorphic *object* specializing a known base type, a *Generic Abstract Factory* returns an arbitrary type, giving more flexibility and no longer requiring inheritance at the same time.



**Fig. 4** Type deduction and pattern instantiation in `dash::make_pattern`

Pattern constraints are passed as template parameters grouped by property categories as shown in Listing 4. Data extents and unit topology are passed as run-time arguments. Their respective dimensionality (*NumDataDim*, *NumTeamDim*), however, can be deduced from the argument types at compile time. Figure 4 illustrates the logical model of this process involving two stages: a type generator that resolves a pattern type from given constraints and argument types at compile time and an

object generator that instantiates the resolved type depending on constraints and run-time parameters.

Every property that is not specified as a constraint is a degree of freedom in type selection. Evaluations of the GUPS benchmark show that arithmetic for dereferencing global indices is a significant performance bottleneck apart from locality effects. Therefore, when more than one pattern type satisfies the constraints, the implementation with the least complex index calculation is preferred.

The automatic deduction also is designed to prevent inefficient configurations. For example, pattern types that pre-generate block coordinates to simplify index calculation are inefficient and memory-intensive for a large number of blocks. They are therefore disregarded if the blocking factor in any dimension is small.

## 4.2 Deducing Distribution Patterns for a Specific Use Case

With the ability to create distribution patterns from constraints, developers still have to know which constraints to choose for a specific algorithm. Therefore, we offer shorthands for constraints of every algorithm provided in DASH that can be passed to `make_pattern` instead of single property constraints.

```

1 dash::TeamSpec<2> teamspec(16, 8);
2 dash::SizeSpec<2> sizespec(1024, 1024);
3 // Create pattern instance optimized for SUMMA:
4 auto pattern = dash::make_pattern<
5     dash::summa_pattern_traits
6     >(sizespec, teamspec);
7 // Create matrix instances using the pattern:
8 dash::Matrix<2, int> matrix_a(sizespec, pattern);
9 dash::Matrix<2, int> matrix_b(sizespec, pattern);
10 ...
11 auto matrix_c = dash::summa(matrix_a, matrix_b)

```

**Listing 5** Deduction of a matching distribution pattern for a given use-case

## 4.3 Checking Distribution Constraints

An implementer of an algorithm on shared containers might want to ensure that their distribution fits the algorithm’s communication strategy and memory access scheme.

The traits type `pattern_constraints` allows querying constraint attributes of a concrete pattern type at compile time. If the pattern type satisfies all requested properties, the attribute `satisfied` is expanded to `true`. Listing 6 shows its usage in a static assertion that would yield a compilation error if the object `pattern` implements an invalid distribution scheme.

```

1 // Compile time constraints check:
2 static_assert (
3     dash::pattern_constraints<
4         decltype(pattern),
5         partitioning_properties< ... >,
6         mapping_properties< ... >,
7         layout_properties< ... >
8     >::satisfied::value
9 );
10 // Run time constraints check:
11 if (dash::check_pattern_constraints<
12     partitioning_properties< ... >,
13     mapping_properties< ... >,
14     indexing_properties< ... >
15     >(pattern)) {
16     // Object 'pattern' satisfies constraints
17 }

```

**Listing 6** Checking distribution constraints at compile time and run time

Some constraints depend on parameters that are unknown at compile time, such as data extents or unit topology in the current team.

The function `check_pattern_constraints` allows checking a given pattern object against a set of constraints at run time. Apart from error handling, it can also be used to implement alternative paths for different distribution schemes.

#### 4.4 Deducing Suitable Algorithm Variants

When combining different applications in a work flow or working with legacy code, container data might be preallocated. As any redistribution is usually expensive, the data distribution scheme is invariant and a matching algorithm variant is to be found.

We previously explained how to resolve a distribution scheme that is the best match for a known specific algorithm implementation. Pattern traits and generic programming techniques available in C++11 also allow to solve the inverse problem: finding an algorithm variant that is suited for a given distribution. For this, DASH provides adapter functions that switch between an algorithm's implementation variants depending on the distribution type of its arguments. In Listing 7, three matrices are declared using an instance of `dash::TilePattern` that corresponds to the known distribution of their preallocated data. In compilation, `dash::multiply` expands to an implementation of matrix-matrix multiplication that best matches the distribution properties of its arguments, like `dash::summa` in this case.

```

1 typedef dash::TilePattern<2, ROW_MAJOR> TiledPattern;
2 typedef dash::Matrix<2, int, TiledPattern> TiledMatrix;
3 TiledPattern pattern(global_extent_x, global_extent_y,
4                     TILE(tilesizex), TILE(tilesizex));
5 TiledMatrix At(pattern);
6 TiledMatrix Bt(pattern);
7 TiledMatrix Ct(pattern);
8 ...
9 // Use adapter to resolve algorithm suited for TiledPattern:
10 dash::multiply(At, Bt, Ct); // --> dash::summa(At, Bt, Ct);

```

**Listing 7** Deduction of an algorithm variant for a given distribution

## 5 Performance Evaluation

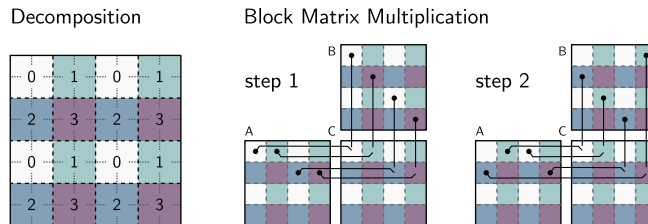
We choose dense matrix-matrix multiplication (*DGEMM*) as a use case for evaluation as it represents a concise example that allows to demonstrate how slight changes in domain decomposition drastically affect performance even in highly optimized implementations.

In principle, the matrix-matrix multiplication implemented in DASH realizes a conventional blocked matrix multiplication similar to a variant of the SUMMA algorithm presented in [14]. For the calculation  $C = A \times B$ , matrices  $A$ ,  $B$  and  $C$  are distributed using a blocked partitioning. Following the *owner computes* principle, every unit then computes the multiplication result

$$C_{ij} = A_{ik} \times B_{kj} = \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} A_{ik} B_{kj}$$

for all sub-matrices in  $C$  that are local to the unit.

Figure 5 illustrates the first two multiplication steps for a square matrix for simplicity, but the SUMMA algorithm also allows rectangular matrices and unbalanced partitioning.



**Fig. 5** Domain decomposition and first two block matrix multiplications in the SUMMA implementation. Numbers in blocks indicate the unit mapped to the block.

We compare strong scaling capabilities on a single processing node against DGEMM provided by multi-threaded Intel MKL and PLASMA [1]. Performance of distributed matrix multiplication is evaluated against ScaLAPACK [7] for an increasing number of processing nodes.

Ideal tile sizes for PLASMA and ScaLAPACK had to be obtained in a large series of tests for every variation of number of cores and matrix size. As PLASMA does not optimize for NUMA systems, we also tried different configurations of numactl as suggested in the official documentation of PLASMA.

For the DASH implementation, data distribution is resolved automatically using the `make_pattern` mechanism as described in Subsec. 4.2.

## 5.1 Experimental Setup

To substantiate the transferability of the presented results, we execute benchmarks on the supercomputing systems SuperMUC and Cori which differ in hardware specifications and application environments.

SuperMUC phase 2<sup>2</sup> incorporates an Infiniband fat tree topology interconnect with 28 cores per processing node. We evaluated performance for both Intel MPI and IBM MPI.

Cori phase 1<sup>3</sup> is a Cray system with 32 cores per node in an Aries dragonfly topology interconnect. As an installation of PLASMA is not available, we evaluate performance of DASH and Intel MKL.

## 5.2 Results

We only consider the best results from MKL, PLASMA and ScaLAPACK to provide a fair comparison to the best of our abilities.

In summary, the DASH implementation consistently outperformed the tested variants of DGEMM and PDGEMM on distributed- and shared memory scenarios in all configurations.

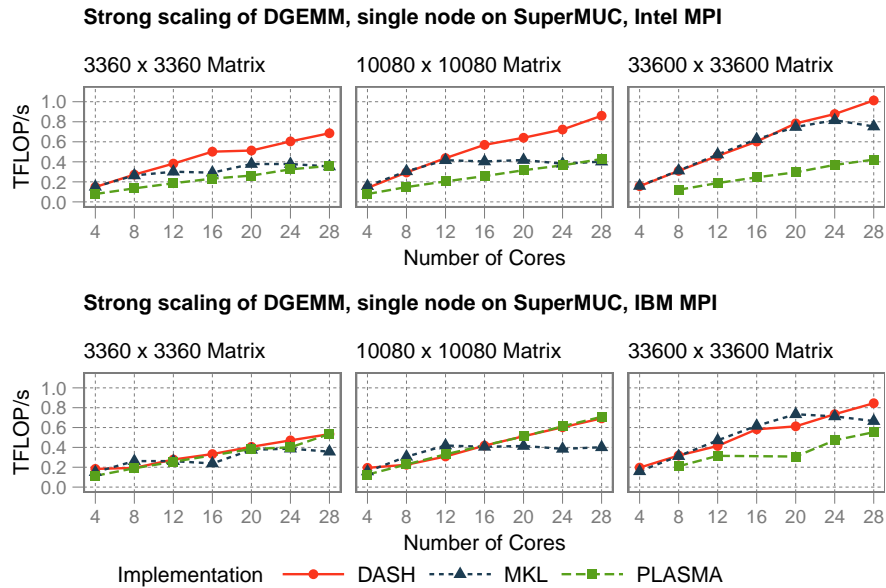
More important than performance in single scenarios, overall analysis of results in single-node scenarios confirms that DASH in general achieved predictable scalability using automatic data distributions. This is most evident when comparing results on Cori presented in Fig. 7: the DASH implementation maintained consistent scalability while performance of Intel MKL dropped when the number of processes was not a power of two, a good example of a system-dependent implication that is commonly unknown to programmers.

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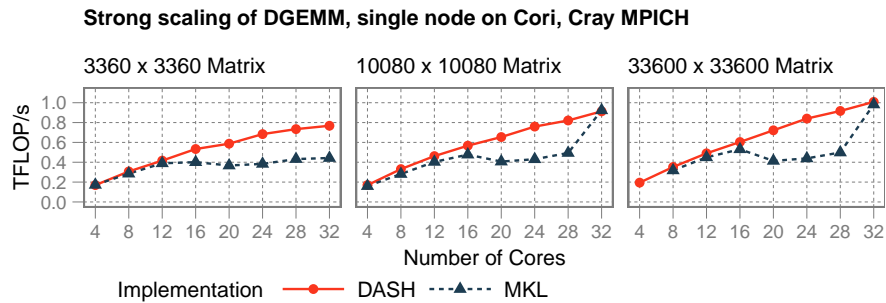
<sup>2</sup> <https://www.lrz.de/services/compute/super Tuc/systemdescription/>

<sup>3</sup> <https://www.nersc.gov/users/computational-systems/cori/cori-phase-i/>





**Fig. 6** Strong scaling of matrix multiplication on single node on SuperMUC phase 2, Intel MPI and IBM MPI, with 4 to 28 cores for increasing matrix size

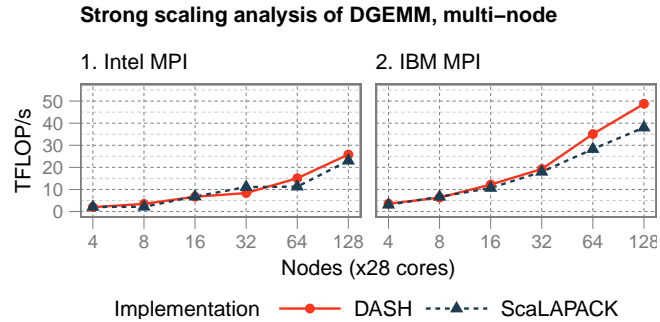


**Fig. 7** Strong scaling of matrix multiplication on single node on Cori phase 1, Cray MPICH, with 4 to 32 cores for increasing matrix size

## 6 Related Work

Various aspects of data decomposition have been examined in related work that influenced the design of pattern traits in DASH.

The Kokkos framework [9] is specifically designed for portable multi-dimensional locality. It implements compile-time deduction of data layout depending on memory architecture and also specifies distribution traits roughly resembling some of the property categories introduced in this work. However, Kokkos targets intra-node locality focusing on CUDA- and OpenMP backends and does not define concepts for



**Fig. 8** Strong scaling of `dash::summa` and `PDGEMM` (ScaLAPACK) on SuperMUC phase 2 for IBM MPI and Intel MPI for matrix size  $57344 \times 57344$

process mapping. It is therefore not applicable to the PGAS language model where explicit distinction between local and remote ownership is required.

UPC++ implements a PGAS language model and, similar to the array concept in DASH, offers local views for distributed arrays for rectangular index domains [12]. However, UPC++ does not provide a general view concept and no abstraction of distribution properties as described in this work.

Chapel’s Domain Maps is an elegant framework that allows to specify and incorporate user-defined mappings [4] and also supports irregular domains. The fundamental concepts of domain decomposition in DASH are comparable to *DMaps* in Chapel with dense and strided regions like previously defined in *ZPL* [5]. Chapel does not provide automatic deduction of distribution schemes, however, and no classification of distribution properties is defined.

Finally, the benefits of hierarchical data decomposition are investigated in recent research such as *TiDA*, which employs hierarchical tiling as a general abstraction for data locality [17]. The *Hitmap* library achieves automatic deduction of data decomposition for hierarchical, regular tiles [8] at compile time.

## 7 Conclusion and Future Work

We constructed a general categorization of distribution schemes based on well-defined properties. In a broad spectrum of different real-world scenarios, we then discussed how mechanisms in DASH utilize this property system to exploit data locality automatically.

In this, we demonstrated the expressiveness of generic programming techniques in modern C++ and their benefits for constrained optimization.

Automatic deduction greatly simplifies the incorporation of new pattern types such that new distribution schemes can be employed in experiments with minimal effort. In addition, a system of well-defined properties forms a concise and

precise vocabulary to express semantics of data distribution, significantly improving testability of data placement.

We will continue our work on flexible data layout mappings and explore concepts to further support hierarchical locality. We are presently in the process of separating the functional aspects of DASH patterns (partitioning, mapping and layout) into separate policy types to simplify pattern type generators. In addition, the pattern traits framework will be extended by soft constraints to express preferable but non-mandatory properties.

The next steps will be to implement various irregular and sparse distributions that can be easily combined with view specifiers in DASH to support the existing unified sparse matrix storage format provided by SELL-C- $\sigma$  [13]. We also intend to incorporate hierarchical tiling schemes as proposed in TiDA [17]. The next release of DASH including these features will be available in the second quarter of 2016.

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