

# A Component-Based and Parallel Multi-Stencil DSL

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## 1 Introduction

# 2 Computational model of multi-stencil programs

To numerically solve a set of PDEs, iterative methods (finite difference, finite volume or finite element methods) are frequently used to approximate the solution through a discretized (step by step) phenomena. Thus, the continuous time and space domains are discretized so that a set of numerical computations are iteratively (time discretization) applied onto a mesh (space discretization). In other words, the PDEs are transformed to a set of numerical computations applied at each time step on all elements of the discretized space domain. Among those numerical computations is found a set of numerical schemes, also called *stencil computations*, and a set of auxiliary computations also needed to perform the simulation, and also called *local computations*. In the following Section, formal definitions of a *stencil program* and its computations are given. Then, the different parallelization techniques which can be applied on such program, are presented.

 $Coullon \ {\it @ Perez}$ 

#### 2.1 Time, mesh and data

A mesh  $\mathcal{M}$  defines the discretization of the continuous space domain  $\Omega$  of a set of PDEs and is defined as followed.

**Definition** A mesh is a connected undirected graph  $\mathcal{M} = (V, E)$ , where V is the set of vertices and E the set of edges. The set of edges E of a mesh  $\mathcal{M} = (V, E)$  does not contain bridges.

**Definition**  $D_i$  is a set of elements of a mesh  $\mathcal{M} = (V, E)$ , constructed by a function  $dom_i$  which defines a precise association between V and E,  $dom_i : V \times E \to D_i$ .

For example, the set of cells  $D_0$  in a Cartesian 2D mesh could be defined by exactly four vertices and four edges connected as a cycle. But we could also define another set of elements  $D_1$  as the simple set of vertices V etc.

A mesh can be structured (as Cartesian or curvilinear meshes), unstructured, regular or irregular (without the same topology for each element) and hybrid.

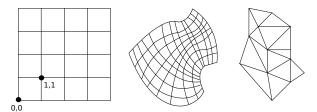


Figure 1: From left to right, Cartesian, curvilinear and unstructured meshes.

**Definition** The discretization of the continuous time domain  $\mathcal{T}$  is denoted T such that  $\forall t_i, t_{i+1} \in T$ ,  $\exists \Delta t \in \mathbb{R}, t_{i+1} = t_i + \Delta t$ . Thus, T is responsible for the iteration time steps of the numerical simulation.

In a numerical simulation a set of data, or quantities, are applied onto the mesh and represent the set of values to compute, or to use, for computation.

**Definition** The set of data applied on the mesh is denoted by  $\Delta$ , such that  $\delta \in \Delta$  is a function which associates each element  $d \in D_i$  (the domain it is applied on) to a value  $v \in V$ ,  $\delta : D_i \to V$ . In the rest of this paper, the domain of a data  $\delta$  can be given by the function  $domain(\delta) = D_i$ .

One can notice that in applied mathematics, the signature of  $\delta$  would be  $\delta: D_i \times T \to V$ , however when programming a numerical simulation it is not wise to store all values of each time iteration.

#### 2.2 Computations

**Definition** A numerical expression exp is a function which represents how to compute a value for an element  $d \in domain(w) = D_i$ , using the set  $R \subset \Delta$  of input data (read data), exp:  $R \times D_i \to w \times D_i$ .

**Definition** A computation c of a numerical simulation is defined as  $c(R, w, \exp)$ , where  $R \subset \Delta, w \in \Delta$  and  $\exp$  a numerical expression.

It has to be noticed that at each time iteration, all the elements of a mesh are computed. However, it happens that computations of the mesh elements are splitted in different domains, as for example the computation of the physical border. In this case additional  $D_i$  can be specified for the mesh  $\mathcal{M}$ .

**Definition** The set of n ordered computations of a numerical simulation is denoted  $\Gamma = [c_i]_{0 \le i \le n-1}$ , such that  $\forall c_i, c_j \in \Gamma$ , if  $i \le j$ , then  $c_i$  is computed before  $c_j$ , and  $c_j$  can be computed only when  $c_i$  is finished.

**Definition** A multi-stencil program is defined by the quadruplet  $\mathcal{MSP}(T, \mathcal{M}, \Delta, \Gamma)$ .

As already mentioned, the ordered list  $\Gamma$  can be composed of two different types of computations, stencil and local computations, which will be defined in the rest of this Section.

**Definition** The neighborhood  $\mathcal{N}$  of an element  $d \in D_i$  is a function to obtain a set of elements in any  $D_k \subset \mathcal{M}$ ,  $\mathcal{N}: D_i \to D_k \times D_k \times \dots$ 

The function  $\mathcal{N}$  is also sometimes called the *stencil shape*, or the *stencil* in applied mathematics. In this paper we distinguish a stencil shape from a *stencil computation* defined as followed:

**Definition** A stencil computation is defined as a quadruplet  $s(R, w, \exp, \mathcal{N})$ , where  $R \subset \Delta$ , and  $w : D \to V \in \Delta$ .

In a stencil computation  $s, \forall d \in D$ , the stencil numerical expression exp is applied such that  $w(d) = \exp(R(d), R(\mathcal{N}(d)))$ . In this work, a stencil computation  $s(R, w, \exp, \mathcal{N})$  always verifies  $R \cap \{w\} = \emptyset$ , otherwize an implicit numerical scheme has to be solve which is over the scope of this paper. As a result, the ordered list  $\Gamma$  of a multi-stencil program can be composed of a set of stencil computations applied on one or more stencil shapes.

Figure 2 gives an example of a stencil computation  $s(R, w, \exp, \mathcal{N})$ , where  $\mathcal{M}(V, E)$  is a two dimensional Cartesian mesh. A single domain D = domain(w) is defined in this example and is composed of cells formed by a cycle of four vertices  $v \in V$  and four edges  $e \in E$ . Furthermore, in this example  $R = \{A\}, w = B$ , and for  $(x, y) \in D$  the neighborhood function is

$$\mathcal{N}: (x,y) \to \{(x,y+1), (x,y-1), (x+1,y), (x-1,y)\}.$$

Finally, the numerical expression of this example is

$$\exp(A(x,y),A(\mathcal{N}(x,y))) = B(x,y) = A(x,y) + (A(x,y+1) + A(x,y-1) + A(x+1,y) + A(x-1,y))/4.$$

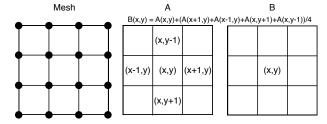


Figure 2: Example of a stencil computation.

The second type of numerical computation is a local computation.

**Definition** A local computation is a triplet  $l(R, w, \exp)$ , where exp does not involve a neighborhood function  $\mathcal{N}$ .

A stencil program and stencil and local computations have been formally defined in this section. This formalism is used in the next Section to define two parallelization techniques of a multi-stencil program.

# 3 Parallelization of multi-stencil programs

Multi-stencil mesh-based numerical simulation can be parallelized in various ways and is an interesting kind of application to take advantage of modern heterogeneous HPC architectures, mixing clusters, multi-cores CPUs, vectorization units, GPGPU and many-core accelerators.

#### 3.1 Data parallelism

In a data parallelization technique, the idea is to split the data on which the program is computed in balanced sub-parts, one for each available resource. The same sequential program can afterwards be applied on each sub-part simultaneously, with some additional synchronizations between resources to update the data not computed locally, and thus to guarantee a correct result.

More formally, the data parallelization of a multi-stencil program  $\mathcal{MSP}(T, \mathcal{M}, \Delta, \Gamma)$  consists in, first, a partitioning of the mesh  $\mathcal{M}$  in p balanced sub-meshes (for p resources)  $\mathcal{M} = \{\mathcal{M}_0, \ldots, \mathcal{M}_{p-1}\}$ . This step can be performed by an external graph partitionner [] and is not adressed by this paper. As a data is mapped onto the mesh, the set of data  $\Delta$  is partitionned the same way than the mesh in  $\Delta = \{\Delta_0, \ldots, \Delta_{p-1}\}$ . The second step of the parallelization is to identify in  $\Gamma$  the needed synchronizations between resources to update data, and thus to build a new ordered list of computations  $\Gamma_{data}$ .

**Definition** For n the number of computations in  $\Gamma$ , and for i, j such that i < j < n, a synchronisation is needed between  $c_i$  and  $c_j$ , denoted  $c_i \ll c_j$ , if  $c_j = s_j(R_j, w_j, \exp_j)$ , and  $\{w_i\} \subset R_j$ . Moreover, the data to update is  $\{w_i\} \cap R_j = w_i$ .

Actually, a synchronization can only be needed by the data read by a stencil computation (not local), and only if this data has been modified before, which means that it has been written before. This synchronization is needed because the neighborhood function  $\mathcal{N}$  of a stencil computation involves values computed on different resources.

**Definition** A synchronization between two computations  $c_i \prec c_j$  is defined as a specific computation update( $\{w_i\} \cap R_j$ ) = update( $w_i$ ).

**Definition** An updated-computation is a computation which needs a set of data synchronizations before it can be performed. The computation  $c_j$  is transformed to an updated-computation  $c_j^*(R_j, w_j, \exp_j, *_j)$  if  $\bigcup_i \{w_i\} \neq \emptyset$ ,  $\forall i < j$ , and  $c_i \prec c_j$ . In such a case  $*_j = update(\bigcup_i \{w_i\})$  is performed before the evaluation of  $exp_j$ .

**Definition** The concatenation of two ordered lists of respectively n and m computations  $l_1 = [c_i]_{0 \le i \le n-1}$  and  $l_2 = [c'_i]_{0 \le i \le m-1}$  is denoted  $l_1 \cdot l_2$  and is equal to a new ordered list  $l_3 = [c_0, \ldots, c_{n-1}, c'_0, \ldots, c'_{m-1}]$ .

**Definition** From the ordered list of computation  $\Gamma$ , a new ordered list  $\Gamma_{data}$  is obtained from the call  $\Gamma_{data} = T_{data}(\Gamma, 0)$ , where  $T_{data}$  is the recursive function defined as

$$T_{data}(\Gamma, i) = \begin{cases} [\Gamma[i]] \cdot T_{data}(\Gamma, i+1) & \text{if } \forall j < i, \ c_j \not \prec c_i \\ [c_i^*(\Gamma[i], \text{update}(\bigcup_k \{w_k\})] \cdot T_{data}(\Gamma, i+1) & \forall k < i, \ c_k \prec c_i \\ [] & \text{if } i = |\Gamma|. \end{cases}$$

The construction of  $\Gamma_{data}$  implies that if a synchronization is needed it is always proceeded before the computation wich needs it. One can notice that a combination of synchronizations is possible in some cases, and thus it is possible to synchronize more than one data at a time. For this reason, we define a reduction which can be applied to  $\Gamma_{data}$ , and which is performed as a post-transformation. This reduction, could propose better performance depending on the used network speed.

**Proposition 3.1** Denoting four computations  $c_l$ ,  $c_k$ ,  $c_i$  and  $c_j$  of  $\Gamma$ , with l < k, i < j, and where  $c_l \ll c_k$  and  $c_i \ll c_j$ . Then, computations  $c_k$  and  $c_j$  are tansformed to  $c_k^*(c_k, update(w_l))$  and  $c_j^*(c_j, update(w_i))$ . If i < k, a single update call can be performed at k such that  $c_k^*(c_k, update(w_l \cup w_i))$ , and in this case, the computation  $c_j$  is not transformed.

**Proof** By definition, the synchronization of  $w_i$  can be performed between  $c_i$  and  $c_j$ . As i < k the computation  $c_i$  is not performed between k and j. As a result, the synchronization of  $w_i$  can be performed between  $c_i$  and  $c_k$ .

In other words, for each synchronization in  $\Gamma_{data}$ , if the computation  $c_i$  from which  $c_j$  is synchronized occurs before the last synchronization, the two synchronizations can be reduced to one with the union of the data to update.

The final step of this parallelization is to run  $\Gamma_{data}$  on each resource. Thus, for each resource  $0 \le k \le p-1$  a multi-stencil program, defined by

$$\mathcal{MSP}_k(T, \mathcal{M}_k, \Delta_k, \Gamma_{data}),$$
 (1)

is performed.

#### 3.2 Task parallelism

A task parallelization technique is a technique to transform a program as a dependency graph of different tasks. A dependency graph exhibits parallel tasks, or on the contrary sequential execution of tasks. In a multi-stencil program a task is defined as a computation  $c(R, w, \exp)$ . As a result, the dependency graph of a multi-stencil program represents the dependencies between local and stencil computations of  $\Gamma$ .

**Definition** For two computations  $c_i(R_i, w_i, \exp_i)$  and  $c_j(R_j, w_j, \exp_j)$ , with i < j, it is said that  $c_j$  is data dependant from  $c_i$ , denoted  $c_i \prec c_j$ , if  $\{w_i\} \cap R_j \neq \emptyset$ . In this case,  $c_i$  has to be computed before  $c_j$ . The binary relation  $c_i \prec c_j$  represents a dependency.

**Proposition 3.2** The binary relation  $\prec$  is not transitive.

**Proof** Considering three computations  $c_0(R_0, w_0, \exp_0)$ ,  $c_1(R_1, w_1, \exp_1)$  and  $c_2(R_2, w_2, \exp_2)$ , where  $\{w_0\} \cap R_1 \neq \emptyset$  and  $\{w_1\} \cap R_2 \neq \emptyset$ . In this case two dependencies can be extracted  $c_0 \prec c_1$  and  $c_1 \prec c_2$ . However, the dependency  $c_0 \prec c_2$  is not true as  $\{w_0\} \cap R_2 = \emptyset$ .

It has been proved that the binary relation  $\prec$  is not transitive. This property is due to the fact that  $\prec$  is defined as a data dependency between computations. However, another type of dependency, only due to time, is created from  $\prec$ .

**Definition** For two computations  $c_i(R_i, w_i, \exp_i)$  and  $c_j(R_j, w_j, \exp_j)$ , a time dependency is denoted  $c_i \triangleleft c_j$  and means that  $c_i$  has to be computed before  $c_j$ .

As a result, the relation  $\triangleleft$  is more general than  $\prec$ .

**Proposition 3.3** For two computations  $c_i(R_i, w_i, exp_i)$  and  $c_j(R_j, w_j, exp_j)$  such that  $c_i \prec c_j$ ,  $c_i \blacktriangleleft c_j$  is verified.

**Proof** By definition  $c_i \prec c_j$  means that  $\{w_i\} \cap R_j \neq \emptyset$  and that  $c_i$  has to computed before  $c_j$ .

**Proposition 3.4** The binary relation  $\triangleleft$  is transitive.

**Proof** Considering three computations  $c_0(R_0, w_0, \exp_0)$ ,  $c_1(R_1, w_1, \exp_1)$  and  $c_2(R_2, w_2, \exp_2)$ , where  $c_0 \triangleleft c_1$  and  $c_1 \triangleleft c_2$ .  $c_0$  is computed before  $c_1$  and  $c_1$  is computed before  $c_2$ , as a result  $c_0$  is computed before  $c_2$  and the relation  $c_0 \triangleleft c_2$  is verified.

**Definition** A directed acyclic graph (DAG) G(V, A) is a graph where the edges are directed from a source to a destination vertex and where, following the direction of edges, no cycle can be found from a vertex u to itself. A directed edge is called an arc, and for two vertices  $v, u \in V$  an arc from u to v is denoted  $(\widehat{u, v}) \in A$ .

From an ordered list of computations, a directed dependency graph  $\Gamma_{task}(V, A)$  can be built finding all pairs of computations  $c_i(R_i, w_i, \exp_i)$  and  $c_j(R_j, w_j, \exp_j)$ , with i < j, such that  $c_i \blacktriangleleft c_j$ . Those time dependencies can be found from pairs of data dependencies  $c_i \prec c_j$ .

**Definition** For two directed graphs G(V, A) and G'(V', A'), the union  $(V, A) \cup (V', A')$  is defined as the union of each set  $(V \cup V', A \cup A')$ .

**Definition** From an ordered list  $\Gamma$  of computations  $c(R, w, \exp)$ , a directed dependency graph  $\Gamma_{task}(V, A)$  is obtained from the call  $T_{task}(\Gamma, 0)$ , where  $T_{task}$  is the recursive function

$$T_{task}(\Gamma, i) = \begin{cases} (\{\}, \{\}) & \text{if } i = |\Gamma| \\ (c_i, \{(c_k, c_i), \forall k < i, c_k \prec c_i\}) \cup T_{task}(\Gamma, i + 1) & \text{if } i < |\Gamma| \end{cases}$$

This constructive function is possible because the input is an ordered list. Actually, if  $c_k \prec c_i$  then k < i. As a result,  $c_k$  is already in V when the arc  $(c_k, c_i)$  is built.

**Proposition 3.5** The directed graph  $\Gamma_{task}$  is an acyclic graph.

**Proof**  $\Gamma_{task}$  is built from  $\Gamma$  which is an ordered and sequential list of computations. Moreover, each computation of the list  $\Gamma$  is associated to a vertex of V, even if the same computation is represented more than once in  $\Gamma$ . As a result it is not possible to go back to a previous computation and to create a cycle.

Using the function  $T_{task}$  to build  $\Gamma_{task}$ , however, duplication of dependencies may occur because of the transitivity of the relation  $\blacktriangleleft$ . Actually, as the relation  $\prec$  verifies the relation  $\blacktriangleleft$ , and as  $\blacktriangleleft$  is transitive, if for three computations  $c_k(R_k, w_k, \exp_k)$ ,  $c_i(R_i, w_i, \exp_i)$  and  $c_j(R_j, w_j, \exp_j)$ , with k < i < j and where  $c_k \prec c_i$ ,  $c_i \prec c_j$  and  $c_k \prec c_j$ , then the transitivity  $c_k \blacktriangleleft c_j$  is verified

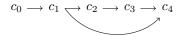


Figure 3: Useless duplication of the dependency  $c_1 \triangleleft c_4$ 

because of the relations  $c_k \triangleleft c_i$  and  $c_i \triangleleft c_j$ . However,  $c_k \triangleleft c_j$  is also directly represented by the binary relation  $c_k \triangleleft c_j$ . As a result, a duplication of the dependency is created in  $\Gamma_{task}$ . In Figure 3 an example of duplication is given for the relation  $c_1 \triangleleft c_4$ .

Another view of the relations  $\prec$  and  $\blacktriangleleft$  is that  $c_i \blacktriangleleft c_j$  in  $\Gamma_{task}$  is a path from  $c_i$  to  $c_j$  of any size, while  $c_i \prec c_j$  is a path of size 1 from  $c_i$  to  $c_j$ . And in any case a path in the graph represents a time dependency between computations. Scheduling a graph dependency which do not contains duplication of information is easier.

**Definition** A DAG is transitive if it contains an arc (u,v) between any two vertices such that there is a path from u to v. The transitive closure of a DAG G = (V, E), is the DAG  $G_T = (V, E_T)$  for which  $E_T$  is the minimal subset of  $V \times V$  that includes E and makes  $G_T$  transitive.

**Definition** An arc (u, v) of a DAG is redundant if there is a path from u to v in the DAG that does not include the edge. A DAG that does not contain any redundant arc is called minimal. The transitive reduction of a DAG G is its unique minimal sub-graph having the same transitive closure.

Thus, the removal of the redundant dependencies of  $\Gamma_{task}$  consists in applying a transitive reduction.

#### 3.3 Hybrid parallelism

It is also possible to combine data and task parallelization techniques to get hybrid parallelism, sometimes more efficient on hybrid architectures. A coarse-grain data parallelism creates for k resources k multi-stencil computations  $\mathcal{MSP}_k(T, \mathcal{M}_k, \Delta_k, \Gamma_{data})$ , where  $\Gamma_{data}$  is built from an ordered list of computations and is itself an ordered list of computations c and updated-computations  $c^*$ . On the other hand, the task parallelization technique builds, from an ordered list of computation, a graph dependency  $\Gamma_{task}$ . As a result  $T_{data}$  and  $T_{task}$  can be composed to build  $\Gamma_{hybrid}$ . Thus, k multi-stencil programs

$$\mathcal{MSP}_k(T, \mathcal{M}_k, \Delta_k, \Gamma_{hybrid})$$

are responsible for an hybrid parallelization of a multi-stencil program. The set of computation  $\Gamma_{hybrid}$  is a dependency graph between computations c and updated-computations  $c^*$  and can be built from the call to

$$T_{task}(T_{data}(\Gamma,0),0).$$

The rest of this paper deals with the hybrid parallelization of multi-stencil programs described above. The first reason for this choice is that this paper does not address the portability problem, which however will be a perspective. Second, by addressing the hybrid parallelism case, we also are able to address data parallelism and task parallelism, from which hybrid parallelism is built.

## 4 Series-parallel graphs and tree decompositions

In this section we argue that the graphs  $\Gamma_{hybrid}$  or  $\Gamma_{task}$ , previously defined, on which an approximation will be defined, are minimal series-parallel graphs. For this reason, the structure of those graphs can be represented as binary trees of parallel and series compositions of sub-graphs, also called *binary decomposition tree* [6]. First, the needed definitions on series-parallel graphs are given, and second the case of the dag  $\Gamma_{hybrid}$  is studied.

#### 4.1 GSP and MSP classes

A vertex v of a DAG G is a *source* if no edge of G enters v. Similarly, a vertex v is a sink if no edge of G leaves v. In 1982, Valdes & Al [6] have defined the class of minimal series-parallel DAGs (MSP).

**Definition** Minimal Series Parallel

- The DAG having a single vertex and no edges is MSP.
- If  $G_1 = (V_1, E_1)$  and  $G_2 = (V_2, E_2)$  are two MSP DAGs, so is either of the DAGs constructed by the following operations:
  - Parallel composition:  $G_p = (V_1 \cup V_2, E_1 \cup E_2)$ .
  - Series composition:  $G_s = (V_1 \cup V_2, E_1 \cup E_2 \cup (N_1 \times R_2))$ , where  $N_1$  is the set of sinks of  $G_1$  and  $R_2$  is the set of sources of  $G_2$ .

**Definition** A DAG is *General Series Parallel* (GSP) if and only if its transitive reduction is a MSP DAG.

A binary decomposition tree is a tree having a leaf for each vertex of the MSP DAG it represents, and whose internal nodes are labelled S or P to indicate respectively the series or parallel composition of the MSP sub-DAGs represented by the subtrees rooted at S or P. Figures 4a, 4b and 5 respectively give an example of a GSP DAG, its transitive reduction which is MSP, and its tree decomposition.

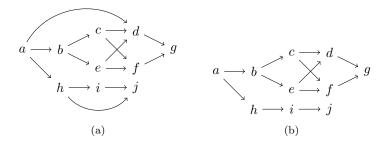


Figure 4: (a) GSP and (b) MSP DAGs

Valdes & Al [6] have also proposed a linear algorithm to know if a DAG is MSP and, if it is, to decompose it to its associated binary decomposition tree. This algorithm is based on the duality of the class of MSP DAGs, with the class of *Two Terminal Series Parallel* DAGs (TTSP) from which a binary tree decomposition can be performed in linear time. As it will be

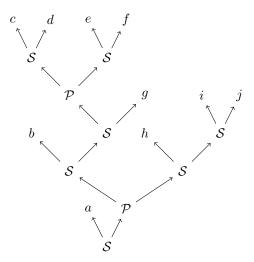


Figure 5: Binary decomposition tree of the MSP of Figure 4b

explained later, in this paper we are interested in DAGs that we already know to be MSP. Thus, we only give the needed definitions to understand the binary decomposition algorithm, and not the recognition algorithm. To let the reader understand this algorithm, which is modified in this work, the needed definitions are given.

**Definition** The *line digraph* of a digraph G is a digraph L(G) that has:

- a vertex f(e) for each edge e of G; and
- an edge  $(f(e_1), f(e_2))$  for each pair of edges of G of the form  $e_1 = (u, v), e_2 = (v, w)$ .

#### **Definition** Two Terminal Series Parallel

- A digraph consisting of two vertices joined by a single edge is TTSP.
- If  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  are TTSP digraphs, so is the digraph obtained by either of the following operations:
  - Two terminal parallel composition: identify the sourc of  $G_1$  with the source of  $G_2$  and the sink of  $G_1$  with the sink of  $G_2$ .
  - Two terminal series composition: identify the sink of  $G_1$  with the source of  $G_2$ .

**Theorem** If the DAG G is a MSP graph, its inverse line DAG  $L^{-1}(G)$  is TTSP.

It has to be indicated that for a DAG G,  $L^{-1}(G)$  is not unique. Thus, in the work of Valdes & Al, and in this work,  $L^{-1}(G)$  will refer to the unique digraph having a single source and a single sink whose line digraph is  $L(L^{-1}(G)) = G$ .

The binary decomposition tree algorithm is based on the fact that the decomposition can be obtained as a byproduct of a reduction process on  $L^{-1}(G)$ , which is TTSP. In order to obtain the decomposition, Valdes & Al associate a label with each edge of the digraph being reduced. Initially the label of each edge is a trivial binary tree consisting of a single node. As the reduction process introduces new edges the rules of Figure 6 are used to compute the binary trees used

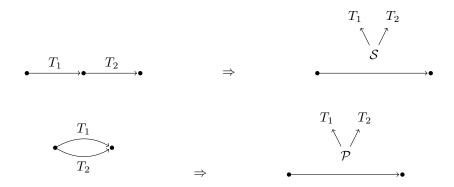


Figure 6: Reduction rules of the decomposition tree algorithm.

to label them. The algorithm ends when the TTSP graph is reduced to its minimum, i.e. two vertices and a single edge between them.

Finally, Valdes & Al [6] have identify a forbidden shape, or subgraph, called N and represented in Figure 7, such that

**Theorem** A DAG G is GSP if and only if its transitive closure does not contain N as a subgraph.



Figure 7: Forbidden N subgraph shape for a DAG to be GSP.

#### 4.2 Multi-stencil programs.

We are interested in GSP and MSP classes of graphs to be able to represent computations of a multi-stencil program as a set of sequences and parallel executions. Actually, such a representation can directly be dumped to a parallel language, in which sequence of instructions and parallel execution of instructions are defined. Series-parallel trees can also be used as input of scheduling optimizations [4,7] to improve task parallelism efficiency, which opens more perspectives to this work. Finally, in this paper is presented that such a series-parallel representation can also be dumped to component models by defining specific control components. Thus, the proposed DSL inheritates software engineering advantages of component models, such as code re-use, productivity and maintainability.

Returning back to the parallelization formalism of Section 3, two important steps have to be performed to make  $\Gamma_{hybrid}$  a MSP graph:

- transitive reduction,
- $\bullet$  deletion of the forbidden N shape.

The transitive reduction has already been applied on  $\Gamma_{hybrid}$  by the transitivity of the relation  $\blacktriangleleft$ . However, even by applying this transitive reduction it is possible to obtain a DAG which is not MSP. Actually, it is possible in a multi-stencil program to have a set of computations such that their dependencies form the forbidden N subgraph. For example, if  $c_0$ ,  $c_1$ ,  $c_2$  and  $c_3$  are computations of a  $\mathcal{MSP}$  such that  $c_0 \prec c_1$ ,  $c_2 \prec c_1$  and  $c_2 \prec c_3$ , the zigzag relation  $c_0 \prec c_1 \succ c_2 \prec c_3$  which form a forbidden subgraph of MSP DAGs is found in  $\Gamma_{hybrid}$ . For this reason, we have made the choice to over-constrain such a case by adding the relation  $c_0 \prec c_3$  such that a complete graph is created and can be translated to a series-parallel decomposition as illustrated in Figure 8.

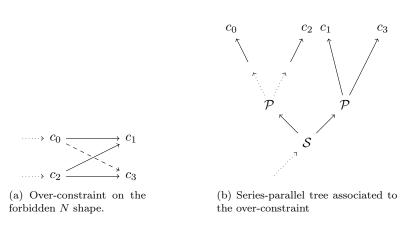


Figure 8: Deletion of forbidden subgraphs.

We consider this approximation acceptable for multi-stencil programs, because of the relative homogeneity of computations. Actually, all computations, except the ones on the physical border of the domain, are performed on an entire domain of the mesh, and as a computation performs a single quantity at a time ( $w_i$  of  $c_i$  is a singleton), the amount of arithmetic operations in a computation are quite homogeneous. However, this approximation can also be responsible for a useless wait for computation  $c_3$  and less performance. For this reason, perspectives of this work open to a new kind of component models.

After these over-constraints are applied,  $\Gamma_{hybrid}$  is a MSP DAG. As a result, the binary tree decomposition algorithm of Valdes & Al can be applied on  $\Gamma_{hybrid}$ . However, because of updated-computations inserted in  $\Gamma_{data}$ , we have to define additional reduction rules for the algorithm. The initial label of the edges of the graph  $L^{-1}(\Gamma_{hybrid})$  to reduce are the computations of the multi-stencil program.

A complete example of reduction is given in Figure 8. The initial  $\Gamma_{hybrid}$  DAG and its inverse line graph are given first, followed by the set of reductions. The label of the final single edge corresponds to the binary tree decomposition of the initial  $\Gamma_{hybrid}$  graph.

At this point, the  $\mathcal{MSP}$  program can be dumped to any parallel language in which a sequence and a parallel execution are available. For example, we could imagine a parallel functionnal language with a binary sequence function and a binary parallel function.

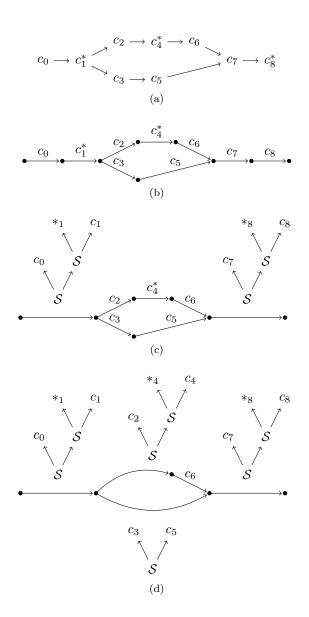


Figure 9: Big example

# 5 Component models

Instead of dumping the series-parallel tree decomposition of  $\Gamma_{hybrid}$  (or  $\Gamma_{task}$ ) to a functionnal high abstraction level language, or to an imperative high abstraction level language, such as OpenMP, we have chosen to dump it to a component model assembly. Component model is an interesting domain of software engineering [5] which improves code re-use, scalability and maintainability of applications [2,5]. Moreover, component models bring a separation of concerns in the application by a clear division of functionnalities in different components. Recent work on component models have shown a simultaneous answer to performance, maintainability and

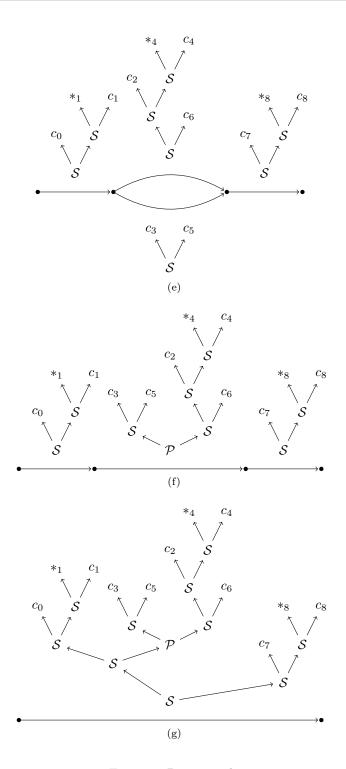


Figure 8: Big example

portability of application [1] which makes component models a serious and interesting candidate for maintainable modern high performance computing.

Proposing a DSL which is dumped to a component assembly has many advantages:

- as for any DSL, the user manipulates a high-abstraction level language;
- advantages of component models are inherited for the DSL itself. Thus, the DSL is easier to maintain, scalable, portable and still efficient;
- the DSL conception phase is improved because of code re-use and productivity;
- the DSL conception phase is facilitated by the separation of concerns;
- the DSL is light as its compilation does not generate codes but a light component assembly.

Component-based software engineering [5] extends the concept of class by specifying in its interfaces not only the services it offers, or public methods, but also all its possible interactions with outer world, including the services it requires. As a result, each component is an independant entity composed of a set of services its provides, and a set of services it requires (and uses).

A port is an entity embbedded in the component which makes possible an assembly of components. An assembly of components (of instanciated components) is a way to actually connect components together and to produce a complete application, as a set of components and their interactions. An interface of provided services of a component is associated to a provide port, while required services are associated to use ports. It is also possible to group more than one required interface into a single port, as a list, called a use-multiple port. As illustrated in Figures 10, a provide port will be represented by a white circle, a use port by a black circle and a use-multiple port by a black circle with a white m in it.

Many component models exist, each of them with its particularities. However, components, ports, interfaces and assemblies are common concepts to all component models. The rest of this section will only use those concepts to define how the series-parallel tree decomposition, described in the previous Section, can be dumped to a component assembly, whatever the component model is.

#### 5.1 Control-components

As already explained, our aim is to dump the series-parallel tree decomposition of  $\Gamma_{hybrid}$  to a component assembly. As a result, specific components have to be proposed such that  $\mathcal{S}$  and  $\mathcal{P}$  nodes of the decomposition can be associated to components. For this reason, we propose three specific control-components. Those components are called control-components because they are used in a different way than usual components. Actually, as explained before, a component represents a precise functionnality of the application, while control-components represent a way to control the execution of components. Each control-component contains a single provide port, this port is associated to a single method which corresponds to the execution of the control-component.

**Sequence component.** A sequence component, denoted SEQ, is a control-component for which the provided service is to garantee that the required services (provided by other components) are used one after the other in a precise order. Thus, the sequence component apply synchronous and ordered calls to required services. To do so, an ordered use-multiple port is needed.

**Synchronized-sequence component.** A synchronized-sequence component, denoted SSEQ, is a control-component for which the provided service is to garantee that a set of data synchronizations is performed before a sequence of other required services. A SSEQ component is thus composed of two use-multiple ports, one not necessarily ordered to link the SSEQ to data to synchronize (could be more than one), and the second, ordered, to connect SSEQ to other services, as SEQ does.

**Parallel component.** A parallel component, denoted PAR, is a control-component for which the provided service is to call simultaneously (asynchronously) a set of required services, and to wait the end of all asynchronous calls before terminating. Thus, PAR is composed of a single use-multiple port which does not need to be ordered.



Figure 9: SEQ, SSEQ and PAR control-components.

To be able to dump the series-parallel tree decomposition of  $\Gamma_{hybrid}$  to a component assembly, each computation  $c_i$  has to be associated to a component. Such a component contains a single provide port for which the service is to perform the computation. As a computation  $c_i(R_i, w_i, \exp_i)$  manipulates data R and w, the component needs a use-multiple port to be linked to data.



Figure 10: Computation component

Every use-multiple port of a control-component can be linked in the assembly to another control-component or to a computation component.

#### 5.2 Canonical series-parallel tree decomposition

In the series-parallel binary tree decomposition of  $\Gamma_{hybrid}$ ,  $\mathcal{S}$  and  $\mathcal{P}$  are binary operators. On the other hand, definitions of SEQ, SSEQ and PAR are not binary (use-multiple), mainly because of HPC concerns. Actually, as less as the number of calls is, the better the performance is. In the work of Finta & Al [3], a canonical form of the series-parallel binary tree decomposition has been introduced. The canonical form consists in merging two identical and successive compositions ( $\mathcal{S}$  or  $\mathcal{P}$ ) as a single one. In the case of  $\Gamma_{hybrid}$ , however, a particular case appear when  $\mathcal{S}$  is the source node of a leaf of updates  $*_i$ . In this case, it is forbidden to merge two sequence compositions  $\mathcal{S}$ . The canonical form of the final binary tree decomposition of Figure 8, is represented in Figure 11.

From this canonical representation of the multi-stencil program  $\mathcal{MSP}$ , a direct dump to a component assembly is possible following the transformation rules of Figure 12.

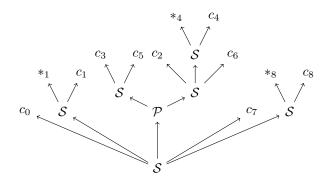


Figure 11: Canonical form of the example of Figure 8.

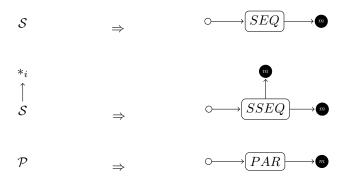


Figure 12: Direct dump rules from the canonical form to the component assembly.

For example, the canonical decomposition tree of Figure 11 is dumped into the component assembly of Figure 13.

#### 5.3 Complete component assembly

At this point of the work, the computation part of the parallel  $\mathcal{MSP}$  program is solved and dumped to a component assembly. Of course, this component assembly does not represent the entire  $\mathcal{MSP}$  program. Actually, additional services are needed. For example, computations are performed on quantities, or data, thus those data have to be accessible somewhere through services of components in the assembly. Those quantities are mapped onto a distributed mesh, which also means that the mesh has to be accessible by the data. In addition to this, and as explained in Section 3.1, the data parallelization needs the management of specific updated-computations  $c_i^*$ , which means that the complete assembly have to manage an update service, as well as the partitioning of the mesh and the quantities mapped onto it.

However, there is not a unique way to design the rest of the assembly and to make accessible the different services (data, update, mesh etc.). The work presented until now can be considered as a generic solution to solve the parallel computation part, but the rest of the assembly is dependant of the implementation choice. However, the implementation presented in this work, and detailed in the next Section, is inspired by the SIPSim model [] which is an interesting

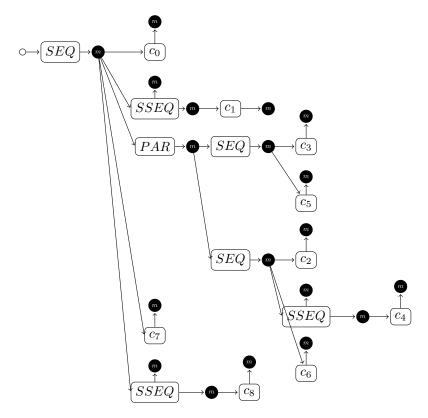


Figure 13: Direct dump rules from the canonical form to the component assembly.

implicit parallelism model to dump onto component models.

# 6 Component Stencil Language

- 6.1 Component assembly
- 6.2 Language
- 6.3 Compiler

# 7 Evaluation

## 8 Related work

 $1\ {\rm stencil}$  compilation: Pochoir, PATUS etc.

stencil programs: Lizst, OP2

control in components: X-MAN (The New Component Model), STCM

DSL to component : X

## 9 Conclusion

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