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Publication Date
2018-09-26

Peer reviewed
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Acknowledgments

This work was supported by the Exascale Computing Project (17-SC-20-SC), a collaborative effort of the U.S. Department of Energy Office of Science and the National Nuclear Security Administration.

Early development of UPC++ was supported by the Director, Office of Science, Office of Advanced Scientific Computing Research, of the U.S. Department of Energy under Contract No. DE-AC02-05CH11231.
1 Introduction

UPC++ is a C++11 library that supports Partitioned Global Address Space (PGAS) programming. It is designed for writing efficient, scalable parallel programs on distributed-memory parallel computers. The PGAS model is single program, multiple-data (SPMD) in which each separate thread of execution (referred to as a process) has access to private memory as well as a global address space. This global address space is accessible to all processes and is allocated in shared segments that are distributed over the processes (see Figure 1). UPC++ provides various convenient methods for accessing and using this global memory, as will be described later in this guide. In UPC++, all accesses to remote memory are explicit, via a special set of methods. There is no implicit communication. This design decision was made to encourage programmers to be aware of the cost of data movement, which may incur expensive communication. Moreover, all remote-memory access operations are asynchronous by default. Together, these two constraints are intended to enable programmers to write code that performs well at scale.

This guide describes the LBNL implementation of UPC++, which uses GASNet for communication across a wide variety of platforms, ranging from Ethernet-connected laptops to commodity InfiniBand clusters and supercomputers with custom high-performance networks. GASNet is a language-independent, networking middleware layer that provides network-independent, high-performance communication primitives tailored for implementing parallel global address space languages and libraries such as UPC, UPC++, Co-Array Fortran, Legion, Chapel, and many others. For more information about GASNet, visit http://gasnet.lbl.gov.

Although our implementation of UPC++ uses GASNet, in this guide, only the Installing, Compiling and Running section is specific to the implementation. The LBNL implementation of UPC++ adheres to the implementation-independent specification. Both are available at the UPC++ homepage at http://upcxx.lbl.gov/. Please report any problems in the issue tracker, http://upcxx.lbl.gov/issues.

UPC++ has been designed with modern object-oriented concepts in mind. Novices to C++ should avail themselves of good-quality tutorials and documentation to refresh their knowledge of Template Meta programming, the C++ standard library (std::), and lambda functions, which are used heavily in UPC++.

2 Installing, Compiling and Running UPC++ Programs

We present a brief description of how to install UPC++ and compile and run UPC++ programs. For more detail, consult the INSTALL.md file that comes with the distribution.

Installing

This programming guide assumes that the source code file has been extracted to a directory, <upcxx-source-path>. From the top-level of this directory, run the install script:

./install <upcxx-install-path>
This will build the UPC++ library and install it to the `<upcxx-install-path>` directory. We recommend that users choose as an installation path which is a non-existent or empty directory path, so that uninstallation is as trivial as `rm -rf <upcxx-install-path>`. Note that the install process downloads the GASNet communication library, so an Internet connection is required.

For Mac installations, the Xcode Command Line Tools need to be installed before invoking `install`, i.e.:

```bash
xcode-select --install
```

To build for the compute nodes of a Cray XC, the `CROSS` environment variable needs to be set before the install command is invoked, i.e. `CROSS=cray-aries-slurm`, e.g.:

```bash
cd <upcxx-source-path>
CROSS=cray-aries-slurm ./install <upcxx-install-path>
```

The installer will use the `cc` and `CC` compiler aliases of the loaded Cray programming environment.

The list of compatible versions of compilers for the various platforms can be found in the README.md that comes with the distribution, under the section “System Requirements”. The `install` script checks that the compiler is supported and if not, it terminates with an error message indicating that `CXX` and `CC` need to be set to supported compilers.

### Compiling

To compile against UPC++, the `<upcxx-install-path>/bin/upcxx` wrapper can be used. For example, to build the hello world code given previously, execute:

```bash
<upcxx-install-path>/bin/upcxx -O hello-world.cpp
```

Note that the either `-O` (for optimized) or `-g` (for debug mode) will need to be specified. Alternatively, instead of `-0` or `-g`, the environment variable `UPCXX_CODEMODE={0,debug}` can be set. If C++14 or C++17 specific features are required, the C++ standard will also need to be specified (either `-std=c++14` or `-std=c++17`). For an example, look at the `Makefile` in the `<upcxx-source-path>/example/prog-guide/` directory. That directory also has code for all of the examples given in this guide. To use the `Makefile`, first set the `UPCXX_INSTALL` shell variable to the install path.

UPC++ also supports multithreading within a process, e.g. using OpenMP. In these cases, to ensure that the application is compiled against a thread-safe UPC++ backend, set the environment variable `UPCXX_THREADMODE=par`. Note that this option is less efficient than the default, `UPCXX_THREADMODE=seq`, which enables the use of a UPC++ backend that is synchronization-free in most of its internals; thus, the parallel thread mode should only be used when multithreading within processes.

In general, the network conduit (a particular implementation of the interconnection network, provided by GASNet, upon which UPC++’s backend is implemented) is automatically set and shouldn’t have to be changed. However, it can be explicitly set using the `UPCXX_GASNET_CONDUIT` variable, e.g. to set the conduit to UDP:

```bash
export UPCXX_GASNET_CONDUIT=udp
```

More details about both installation and compilation can be found in the `INSTALL.md` file in the source code root directory.

### Running

To run a parallel UPC++ application, use the `upcxx-run` launcher provided in the installation directory:

```bash
<upcxx-install-path>/bin/upcxx-run -n <processes> <exe> <args...>
```

The launcher will run the executable and arguments `<exe> <args...>` in a parallel context with `<processes>` number of UPC++ processes. For multiple nodes, specify the node count with `-N <nodes>`. 
Upon startup, each UPC++ process creates a fixed-size shared memory heap that will never grow. By default, this heap is 128 MB per process. This heap size can be set at startup by passing a \texttt{-shared-heap} parameter to the run script, which takes a suffix of KB, MB or GB; e.g. to reserve 1GB per process, call:

\begin{verbatim}
<upcxx-install-path>/bin/upcxx-run -shared-heap 1G -n <processes> <exe> <args...>
\end{verbatim}

One can also specify the shared heap size as a percentage of physical memory, split evenly between processes sharing the same node, eg \texttt{-shared-heap=50\%}. There are several other options that can be passed to upcxx-run. Execute with \texttt{-h} to get the following list of options:


A portable parallel job launcher for UPC++ programs, v2018.9.0

\texttt{options:}
- \texttt{h, --help} show this help message and exit
- \texttt{-n NUM, -np NUM} Spawn NUM number of UPC++ processes. Required.
- \texttt{-N NUM} Run on NUM of nodes.
- \texttt{-shared-heap HEAPSZ} Requests HEAPSZ size of shared memory per process. HEAPSZ must include a unit suffix matching the pattern \texttt{[KMGT]B\?} or be \texttt{[0-100]\%} (case-insensitive).
- \texttt{-backtrace} Enable backtraces. Compile with \texttt{-g} for full debugging information.
- \texttt{-show} Testing: do not start the job, just output the command line that would have been executed
- \texttt{-info} Display useful information about the executable
- \texttt{-ssh-servers HOSTS} List of SSH servers, comma separated.
- \texttt{-localhost} Run UDP-conduit program on local host only
- \texttt{-v} Verbose output
- \texttt{-vv} Very verbose output

\texttt{command to execute:}
- \texttt{command} UPC++ executable
- \texttt{... arguments}

3 Hello World in UPC++

The following code implements “Hello World” in UPC++:

\begin{verbatim}
#include <iostream>
#include <upcxx/upcxx.hpp>

using namespace std;

int main(int argc, char *argv[])
{
    // setup UPC++ runtime
    upcxx::init();
    cout << "Hello world from process " << upcxx::rank_me()
        << " out of " << upcxx::rank_n() << " processes" << endl;
    // close down UPC++ runtime
}
\end{verbatim}
The UPC++ runtime is initialized with a call to `upcxx::init()`, after which there are multiple processes running, each executing the same code. The runtime must be closed down with a call to `upcxx::finalize()`. In this example, the call to `upcxx::rank_me()` gives the index for the running process, and `upcxx::rank_n()` gives the total number of processes. The use of `rank` in the function names refers to the rank within a team, which in this case contains all processes, i.e. team `upcxx::world`. Teams are described in detail in the Teams section.

When this “hello world” example is run on four processes, it will produce output something like the following (there is no expected order across the processes):

```
Hello world from process 0 out of 4 processes
Hello world from process 2 out of 4 processes
Hello world from process 3 out of 4 processes
Hello world from process 1 out of 4 processes
```

## 4 Global Memory

A UPC++ program can allocate global memory in shared segments, which are accessible by all processes. A global pointer points at storage within the global memory, and is declared as follows:

```
upcxx::global_ptr<int> gptr = upcxx::new_<int>(upcxx::rank_me());
```

The call to `upcxx::new_<int>` allocates a new integer in the calling process's shared segment, and returns a global pointer (`upcxx::global_ptr`) to the allocated memory. This is illustrated in figure 2, which shows that each process has its own private pointer (`gptr`) to an integer in its local shared segment. By contrast, a conventional C++ dynamic allocation (`int *mine = new int`) will be in private local memory. Note that we use the integer type in this paragraph as an example, but any type `T` can be allocated using the `upcxx::new_<T>()` function call.

![Figure 2: Global pointers.](image)

A UPC++ global pointer is fundamentally different from a conventional C++ pointer: it cannot be dereferenced using the `*` operator; it does not support conversions between pointers to base and derived types; and it cannot be constructed by the C++ `std::addressof` operator. However, UPC++ global pointers support pointer arithmetic and may be passed by value.

The `upcxx::new_` function calls the class constructor in addition to allocating memory. Since we are allocating a scalar, we can pass arguments to the constructor. Thus, we don’t have to invoke the default constructor. The `upcxx::new_` function is paired with `upcxx::delete_`:
upcxx::global_ptr<int> x = upcxx::new_<int>(42);
// work with x
...
upcxx::delete_(x);

In addition, UPC++ provides a function, `upcxx::new_array`, for allocating a 1-dimensional array in the global address space. Note that this array is not distributed across processes as in UPC. Rather, each process allocates its own array object which need not have the same size. The `upcxx::new_array` operation calls the default class constructor for the objects being allocated. The destruction operation is `upcxx::delete_array`; for example, to allocate 10 initialized elements:

```cpp
upcxx::global_ptr<int> x_arr = upcxx::new_array<int>(10);
// work with x_arr
...
upcxx::delete_array(x_arr);
```

UPC++ also provides functions for allocating and deallocating uninitialized shared storage without calling constructors and destructors. The `upcxx::allocate` function allocates enough (uninitialized) space for $n$ shared objects of type $T$ on the current process, with a specified alignment, and `upcxx::deallocate` frees the memory.

### Downcasting global pointers

If the shared memory pointed to by a global pointer has affinity to a local process, UPC++ enables the programmer to use a global pointer as an ordinary C++ pointer, through downcasting, via the `local` method of `upcxx::global_ptr`, for example:

```cpp
upcxx::global_ptr<int> x_arr = upcxx::new_array<int>(10);
int *local_ptr = x_arr.local();
assert(x_arr.is_local());
local_ptr[i] = ... // work with local ptr
```

Using this downcasting feature, we can treat all shared objects allocated by a process as local objects (only remote processes need to use a global reference). Storage with local affinity can be accessed more efficiently via an ordinary C++ pointer. Note that for checking locality, UPC++ provides an `is_local` method for a global pointer, which will return true if this global pointer is local and can be downcast. This call can help to avoid catastrophic errors, as it is incorrect to attempt to downcast a global pointer that is not local to a process. It's a good idea to make liberal use of `assert(gptr.is_local())` when downcasting pointers to ensure that the downcast is valid.

### 5 Using Global Memory with One-sided Communication

We illustrate the use of global shared memory with a simple program that implements a one-dimensional (1D) stencil. Stencil codes are widely used for modeling physical systems, e.g. for solving differential equations. Stencil codes are iterative algorithms that operate on a mesh or partition of data, where the value at each mesh location is computed based on the values at neighboring locations. A trivial example is where at each iteration the value for each mesh location $u[i]$ is computed as the average of its neighbors:

$$u[i] = (u[i - 1] + u[i + 1]) / 2;$$

In many applications, these updates are iterated until the computed solution converges to a desired degree of accuracy, $\varepsilon$.

One way to parallelize the 1D stencil computation is with *red-black* updates. The mesh is divided into two groups: the even-numbered indexes (red) and the odd-numbered indexes (black). When iterating, first all the red indexes are updated, and then all the black. This enables us to compute the values for all of a color in any order with only dependencies on the other color, as shown in the following code sketch:
for (int step = 0; step < max_steps; step++) {
    for (int i = 1 + step % 2; i < n - 1; i += 2)
        u[i] = (u[i - 1] + u[i + 1]) / 2;
    if (error(u) <= epsilon) break;
}

Note that the red updates are done on even-numbered steps, and the black updates on odd-numbered.

To implement the parallel algorithm in UPC++, we split the solution into panels, one per process. Each process can operate independently on its own subset of the mesh, except at the boundaries, where a process will need to access the neighbors’ values. In order to do this, we can allocate the panels in the shared segment, using UPC++’s array allocation:

    upcxx::global_ptr<double> u_gptr = upcxx::new_array<double>(n_local);

Here \( n_{\text{local}} \) is the number of points assigned to the local panel. Assuming that the total number of processes divides \( n \) evenly, we have \( n_{\text{local}} = n / \text{upcxx::rank_n()} + 2 \). The final +2 is extra space for ghost cells to store the neighboring values.

Processes in UPC++ are not automatically aware of new allocations in another process’s shared segment, so we must ensure that the processes obtain the global pointers that they require. There are several different ways of doing this; we will show how to do it using a convenient construct provided by UPC++, called a distributed object.

A distributed object is a single logical object partitioned over a set of processes (a team), where every process has the same global name for the object (i.e. a universal name), but its own local value. Distributed objects are created with the \texttt{upcxx::dist_object<T>} type, for example, in our stencil, we can declare our panels to be a distributed object:

    upcxx::dist_object<upcxx::global_ptr<double>> u_g(upcxx::new_array<double>(n_local));

Each process in a given team must call a constructor collectively for \texttt{upcxx::dist_object<T>}, with a value of type \( T \) representing the process’s instance value for the object (a global pointer to an array of doubles in the example above). Although the constructor for a distributed object is collective, there is no guarantee that when the constructor returns on a given process it will be complete on any other process. To avoid this hazard, UPC++ provides an interlock to ensure that accesses to a \texttt{dist_object} are delayed until the local representative has been constructed.

We can still use the local method of \texttt{upcxx::global_ptr} to downcast the pointer contained in a distributed object, provided the allocation has affinity to the process doing the downcast. We use this feature to get an ordinary C++ pointer to the panel:

    double *u = u_g->local();

To access the remote value of a distributed object, we use the \texttt{upcxx::dist_object::fetch} member function, which, given a process argument, will get the \( T \) value from the sibling distributed object representative on the remote process. Note that we have periodic boundary conditions, so process 0 has process \( n-1 \) as its left neighbor, and process \( n-1 \) has process 0 as its right neighbor. In our algorithm, we need to fetch the global pointers for the left \((uL)\) and right \((uR)\) ghost cells:

    int left_nb = (!upcxx::rank_me() ? upcxx::rank_n() - 1 : upcxx::rank_me() - 1);
    uL = u_g.fetch(left_nb).wait();
    uR = u_g.fetch((upcxx::rank_me() + 1) % upcxx::rank_n()).wait();

Because the fetch function is asynchronous, we have to synchronize on completion, using a call to \texttt{wait()}. Later, in the Asynchronous Computation section, we will see how to overlap asynchronous operations, that is, when communication is split-phased. But for now we do not separate the asynchronous initiation from the \texttt{wait()}.

Now, when we execute the red-black iterations, we can use the global pointers to the ghost cells to get the remote processes’ values. To do this, we invoke a remote get:
if (!(step % 2)) u[0] = upcxx::rget(uL + block).wait();
else u[n_local - 1] = upcxx::rget(uR + 1).wait();

The remote get function is part of the one-sided communication model supported by UPC++. Also supported is a remote put function, upcxx::rput. These operations initiate transfer of the value object to (put) or from (get) the remote process; no coordination is needed with the remote process (this is why it is one-sided). The type $T$ transferred must be serializable, generally by satisfying the C++ TriviallyCopyable concept. Support for serialization of more complex types will appear in a future release of Berkeley Lab UPC++.

Like many asynchronous communication operations, rget and rput default to returning a future object that becomes ready when the transfer is complete (futures are discussed in more detail in the Asynchronous Computation section, and completions in general are described in more detail in the Completions section).

Putting all the components described together, the main function for the red-black solver is:

```cpp
int main(int argc, char **argv)
{
    upcxx::init();
    // initialize parameters - simple test case
    const long N = 1000;
    const long MAX_ITER = N * N * 2;
    const double EPSILON = 0.1;
    const int MAX_VAL = 100;
    const int EXPECTED_VAL = MAX_VAL / 2;
    // get the bounds for the local panel, assuming number of processes divides N evenly
    int block = N / upcxx::rank_n();
    // plus two for ghost cells
    int n_local = block + 2;
    // set up the distributed object
    upcxx::dist_object<upcxx::global_ptr<double>> u_g(upcxx::new_array<double>(n_local));
    // downcast to a regular C++ pointer
    double *u = u_g->local();
    // fill with uniformly distributed random values
    mt19937_64 rgen(upcxx::rank_me() + 1);
    for (int i = 1; i < n_local - 1; i++)
        u[i] = 0.5 + rgen() % MAX_VAL;
    upcxx::global_ptr<double> uL = nullptr, uR = nullptr;
    // fetch the left and right pointers for the ghost cells
    int left_nb = (!upcxx::rank_me() ? upcxx::rank_n() - 1 : upcxx::rank_me() - 1);
    uL = u_g.fetch(left_nb).wait();
    uR = u_g.fetch((upcxx::rank_me() + 1) % upcxx::rank_n()).wait();
    upcxx::barrier();
    // iteratively solve
    for (long stepi = 0; stepi < MAX_ITER; stepi++) {
        // alternate between red and black
        int start = stepi % 2;
        // get the values for the ghost cells
        if (!start) u[0] = upcxx::rget(uL + block).wait();
        else u[n_local - 1] = upcxx::rget(uR + 1).wait();
        // compute updates and error
        for (int i = start + 1; i < n_local - 1; i += 2)
            u[i] = (u[i - 1] + u[i + 1]) / 2.0;
        // wait until all processes have finished calculations
        upcxx::barrier();
        // periodically check convergence
        if (stepi % 10 == 0) {
```
if (check_convergence(u, n_local, EXPECTED_VAL, EPSILON, stepi))
    break;
}
upcxx::finalize();
return 0;
}

We have one helper function, check_convergence, which determines if the solution has converged. It uses a UPC++ collective, upcxx::reduce_all, to enable all the processes to obtain the current maximum error:

```cpp
bool check_convergence(double *u, int n_local, const double EXPECTED_VAL,
const double EPSILON, long stepi)
{
    double err = 0;
    for (int i = 1; i < n_local - 1; i++)
        err = max(err, fabs(EXPECTED_VAL - u[i]));
    // upcxx collective to get max error over all processes
    double max_err = upcxx::reduce_all(err, upcxx::op_fast_max).wait();
    // check for convergence
    if (max_err / EXPECTED_VAL <= EPSILON) {
        if (!upcxx::rank_me())
            cout << "Converged at " << stepi <<", err " << max_err << endl;
        return true;
    }
    return false;
}
```

Because the collective function is asynchronous, we synchronize on completion, using wait(), to retrieve the result.

### 6 Remote Procedure Calls

An RPC enables the calling process to invoke a function at a remote process, using parameters sent to the remote process via the RPC. For example, to execute a function square on process \( r \), we would call:

```cpp
int square(int a, int b) { return a * b; }
upcxx::future<int> fut_result = upcxx::rpc(r, square, a, b);
```

By default, an RPC returns the result in an appropriately typed upcxx::future, and we can obtain the value using wait(), i.e.

```cpp
int result = fut_result.wait();
```

(for more on futures, see the Asynchronous Computation section). The function passed in can be a lambda or another function, but note that the function cannot be in a shared library.

We illustrate the use of RPCs with a simple distributed hash table, similar to the C++ unordered map. The hash table is implemented in a header file, and provides insert and find operations. It relies on each process having a local std::unordered_map to store the key-value pairs, and in order for the local unordered maps to be accessible from the RPCs, we wrap them in a distributed object:

```cpp
using dobj_map_t = upcxx::dist_object<std::unordered_map<std::string, std::string> >;
dobj_map_t local_map;
```

This is initialized in the constructor:

```cpp
DistrMap() : local_map({}) {}
```
For the insert operation, the target process is determined by a hash function, `get_target_rank(key)`, which maps the key to one of the processes. The data is inserted using a lambda function, which takes a key and a value as parameters. The insert operation returns the result of the lambda, which in this case is an empty future:

```cpp
upcxx::future<> insert(const std::string &key, const std::string &val) {
    return upcxx::rpc(get_target_rank(key),
    [](dobj_map_t &lmap, std::string key, std::string val) {
        lmap->insert({key, val});
    }, local_map, key, val);
}
```

Special care should be taken by the programmer when using lambda captures. In particular, when passing C++ lambdas to the UPC++ RPC operations, reference captures should never be used.

The find operation is similar, and is given in the full header example:

```cpp
#include <map>
#include <upcxx/upcxx.hpp>

class DistrMap
{
private:
    // store the local unordered map in a distributed object to access from RPCs
    using dobj_map_t = upcxx::dist_object<std::unordered_map<std::string, std::string> >;
    dobj_map_t local_map;
    // map the key to a target process
    int get_target_rank(const std::string &key) {
        return std::hash<std::string>{}(key) % upcxx::rank_n();
    }
public:
    // initialize the local map
    DistrMap() : local_map({}) {}
    // insert a key-value pair into the hash table
    upcxx::future<> insert(const std::string &key, const std::string &val) {
        // the RPC returns an empty upcxx::future by default
        return upcxx::rpc(get_target_rank(key),
        [](dobj_map_t &lmap, std::string key, std::string val) {
            // insert into the local map at the target
            lmap->insert({key, val});
        }, local_map, key, val);
    }
    // find a key and return associated value in a future
    upcxx::future<std::string> find(const std::string &key) {
        return upcxx::rpc(get_target_rank(key),
        [](dobj_map_t &lmap, std::string key) -> std::string {
            auto elem = lmap->find(key);
            // no key found
            if (elem == lmap->end()) return std::string();
            // the key was found, return the value
            return elem->second;
        }, local_map, key);
    }
};
```
A test example of using the distributed hash table is shown below. Each process generates a set of $N$ key-value pairs, guaranteed to be unique, inserts them all into the hash table, and then retrieves the set of keys for the next process over, checking that each one was found and correct, via the `assert` statement. The insertion phase is followed by a barrier, to ensure all insertions have completed:

```cpp
#include <iostream>
#include "dmap.hpp"

using namespace std;

int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
    upcxx::init();
    const long N = 10000;
    DistrMap dmap;
    // insert set of unique key, value pairs into hash map, wait for completion
    for (long i = 0; i < N; i++) {
        string key = to_string(upcxx::rank_me()) + ":" + to_string(i);
        string val = key;
        dmap.insert(key, val).wait();
    }
    // barrier to ensure all insertions have completed
    upcxx::barrier();
    // now try to fetch keys inserted by neighbor
    for (long i = 0; i < N; i++) {
        string key = to_string((upcxx::rank_me() + 1) % upcxx::rank_n()) + ":" + to_string(i);
        string val = dmap.find(key).wait();
        // check that value is correct
        assert(val == key);
    }
    upcxx::barrier(); // wait for finds to complete globally
    if (!upcxx::rank_me()) cout << "SUCCESS" << endl;
    upcxx::finalize();
    return 0;
}
```

In the previous example, the `rpc` operations are synchronous because of the call to the `wait` method. To achieve maximum performance, UPC++ programs should always take advantage of asynchrony when possible.

### 7 Asynchronous Computation

Most communication operations in UPC++ are asynchronous. So, in our red-black solver example, when we made the call to `upcxx::rget`, we explicitly waited for it to complete, using `wait()`. However, in split-phase algorithms, we can perform the wait at a later point, allowing us to overlap computation and communication.

The return type for `upcxx::rget` is dependent on the UPC++ completion object passed to the UPC++ call. The default completion is a UPC++ `future`, which holds a value (or tuple of values) and a state (ready or not ready). We will use this default completion here, and will return to the subject in detail in the Completions section. When the `rget` completes, the future becomes ready and can be used to access the results of the operation. The call to `wait()` can be replaced by the following equivalent polling loop, which exits when communication has completed:

```cpp
upcxx::future<double> fut = upcxx::rget(uR + 1);
while (!fut.ready()) upcxx::progress();
```
First, we get the future object, and then we loop on it until it becomes ready. This loop must include a call to the `upcxx::progress` function, which progresses the library and transitions futures to a ready state when their corresponding operation completes (see the Progress section for more details on progress). This common paradigm is embodied in the `wait()` method of `upcxx::future`.

Using futures, the process waiting for a result can do computation while waiting, effectively overlapping computation and communication. For example, in our distributed hash table, we can do the generation of the key-value pair asynchronously as follows:

```cpp
// initialize key and value for first insertion
string key = to_string(upcxx::rank_me()) + ":" + to_string(0);
string val = key;
for (long i = 0; i < N; i++) {
    upcxx::future<> fut = dmap.insert(key, val);
    // compute new key while waiting for RPC to complete
    if (i < N - 1) {
        key = to_string(upcxx::rank_me()) + ":" + to_string(i + 1);
        val = key;
    }
    // wait for operation to complete before next insert
    fut.wait();
}
```

UPC++ also provides callbacks or completion handlers that can be attached to futures. These are functions that are executed when the future is ready (this is sometimes also referred to as “future chaining”). In our distributed hash table example, we want to check the value once the `find` operation returns. To do this asynchronously, we can attach a callback to the future using the `.then` method of `upcxx::future`. The callback is executed on the initiating process when the `find` completes, and is passed the result of the future as a parameter. In this example, the callback is a lambda, which checks the returned value:

```cpp
for (long i = 0; i < N; i++) {
    string key = to_string((upcxx::rank_me() + 1) % upcxx::rank_n()) + ":" + to_string(i);
    // attach callback, which itself returns a future
    upcxx::future<> fut = dmap.find(key).then(
        // lambda to check the return value
        [key](string val) {
            assert(val == key);
        });
    // wait for future and its callback to complete
    fut.wait();
}
```

An important feature of UPC++ is that there are no implicit ordering guarantees with respect to asynchronous operations, i.e. there is no guarantee that operations will complete in the order they were initiated. This allows for more efficient implementations, but the programmer must not assume any ordering that is not enforced by explicit synchronization.

### 8 Conjoining Futures

When many asynchronous operations are launched, it can be tricky to keep track of all the futures, and wait on all of them for completion. In the previous example of asynchronous finds, we might have preferred to issue all the finds asynchronously and wait on all of them to complete at the end. UPC++ provides an elegant solution to do this, allowing futures to be *conjoined* (e.g. aggregated), so that the results of one future
are dependent on others, and we need only wait for completion explicitly on one future. The example below illustrates how the hash table lookups can be performed asynchronously using this technique:

```cpp
// the start of the conjoined future
upcxx::future<> fut_all = upcxx::make_future();
for (long i = 0; i < N; i++) {
    string key = to_string((upcxx::rank_me() + 1) % upcxx::rank_n()) + ":" + to_string(i);
    // attach callback, which itself returns a future
    upcxx::future<> fut = dmap.find(key).then(
        // lambda to check the return value
        [key](string val) {
            assert(val == key);
        });
    // conjoin the futures
    fut_all = upcxx::when_all(fut_all, fut);
    // periodically call progress to allow incoming RPCs to be processed
    if (i % 10 == 0) upcxx::progress();
}
// wait for all the conjoined futures to complete
fut_all.wait();
```

The future conjoining begins with the construction of a trivially ready future, `fut_all`, using the `upcxx::make_future`. We then loop through each iteration, calling `DistrMap::find` asynchronously, and obtaining the future `fut` returned by the `.then` callback attached to the `find` operation. This future is passed to the `upcxx::when_all` function, in combination with the previous future, `fut_all`. The `upcxx::when_all` constructs a new future representing readiness of all its arguments (in this case `fut` and `fut_all`), and returns a future with a concatenated results tuple of the arguments. By setting `fut_all` to the future returned by `when_all`, we can extend the conjoined futures. Once all the processes are linked into the conjoined futures, we simply wait on the final future, i.e. the `fut_all.wait()` call. Note that within the loop, we have a periodic call to `upcxx::progress`, which gives the UPC++ runtime an opportunity to process incoming RPCs (progress is described in more detail in the Progress section).

It is also possible to keep track of the futures with an array or some other data structure, such as a vector. However, conjoining futures has several advantages:

- Only a single future handle is needed to manage an entire logical operation and associated storage. The advantage is to simplify composition by enabling an encapsulated communication initiation function to return a single future to the caller rather than, for instance, an array of futures.
- Conjoined futures minimize the number of synchronous calls to `.wait()` needed to complete a group of operations. Without conjoined futures, the code must wait through multiple `.wait` calls, potentially adding overhead.
- Conjoined futures do not leave intermediate futures explicitly instantiated in the application-level memory, thus potentially allowing the storage holding them to be reclaimed as soon as the futures are ready.

9 Quiescence

Quiescence is a state in which no process is performing computation that will result in communication injection, and no communication operations are currently in-flight in the network or queues on any process. Quiescence is of particular importance for applications using anonymous asynchronous operations on which no synchronization is possible on the sender’s side. For example, quiescence may need to be achieved before destructing resources and/or exiting a `upcxx` computational phase.

To illustrate a simple approach to quiescence, we use the distributed hash table again. In this case, we use a version of RPC that does not return a future:
template<typename Func, typename ...Args>
void upcxx::rpc_ff(upcxx::intrank_t recipient, Func &&func, Args &&...args);

The “ff” stands for “fire-and-forget”. From a performance standpoint, it has the advantage that is does not 
\textit{send a response message} to satisfy the \textit{future} back to the process which has issued the RPC. However, 
because no acknowledgement is returned to the initiator, the caller does not get a future to indicate when the 
\texttt{upcxx::rpc_ff} invocation has completed execution at the target. We can modify the distributed hash table 
insert operation to use \texttt{upcxx::rpc_ff} as follows:

```cpp
// insert a key-value pair into the hash table
void insert(const std::string &key, const std::string &val) {
  // this RPC does not return anything
  upcxx::rpc_ff(get_target_rank(key),
      // lambda to insert the key-value pair
      [](dobj_map_t &lmap, std::string key, std::string val) {
        // insert into the local map at the target
        lmap->insert({key, val});
      }, local_map, key, val);
}
```

The only way to determine completion is to use additional code; for example, we could change the distributed 
hash table insert loop as follows:

```cpp
// distributed object to keep track of number of inserts expected at this process
upcxx::dist_object<long> n_inserts = 0;
// keep track of how many inserts have been made to each target process
std::unique_ptr<long[]> inserts_per_rank(new long[upcxx::rank_n()]);
// insert all key-value pairs into the hash map
for (long i = 0; i < N; i++) {
  string key = to_string(upcxx::rank_me()) + ":" + to_string(i);
  string val = key;
  // insert has no return because it uses rpc_ff
  dmap.insert(key, val);
  // increment the count for the target process
  inserts_per_rank[dmap.get_target_rank(key)]++;
  // periodically call progress to allow incoming RPCs to be processed
  if (i % 10 == 0) upcxx::progress();
}
// update all remote processes with the expected count
for (long i = 0; i < upcxx::rank_n(); i++) {
  if (inserts_per_rank[i]) {
    // use rpc to update the remote process's expected count of inserts
    upcxx::rpc(i,
        [](upcxx::dist_object<long> &e_inserts, long count) {
          *e_inserts += count;
        }, n_inserts, inserts_per_rank[i]).wait();
  }
}
// wait until all threads have updated insert counts
upcxx::barrier();
// wait until we have received all the expected updates, spinning on progress
while (dmap.local_size() < *n_inserts) upcxx::progress();
```

To track completion each process must know how many inserts to expect. Thus each process keeps track of 
how many inserts it makes to every other process in the local variable \texttt{inserts_per_rank}. Once a process 
has finished all its inserts, it uses an RPC to update the value of a distributed object, \texttt{n_inserts} for all the
destination processes. After updating this counter, all processes wait on a barrier, which ensures that all processes have dispatched their inserts. However, the barrier does not guarantee that all the inserts in flight have completed at their destinations. To ensure this is the case, every process must spin on a comparison of the expected counts to the size of the local unordered map, given by the method `DistrMap::local_size()`, which is defined simply as:

```cpp
int local_size() { return local_map->size(); }
```

Within the while loop, `upcxx::progress` is called each time to ensure that the upcxx runtime engine executes any outstanding RPCs still being called on the process (progress is described in more detail in the Progress section).

This is one way to achieve quiescence; there are many alternatives. When the number of messages to be received is known beforehand or can be efficiently tracked, it is possible to implement simple mechanisms such as the one used in our distributed hash table example. There are also more powerful (and more scalable) quiescence algorithms, such as the counting algorithm, that do not require knowledge of the number of messages/RPCs beforehand. Advanced users requiring this capability should consult the appropriate literature.

10 Atomics

UPC++ provides atomic operations on shared objects. These operations are handled differently from C++ atomics and rely on the notion of an atomic domain, a concept inherited from UPC. In UPC++, all atomic operations are associated with an atomic domain, an object that encapsulates a supported type and set of operations. Currently, the allowed types are `std::int32_t`, `std::uint32_t`, `std::int64_t`, and `std::uint64_t`. The full list of operations can be found in the UPC++ specification.

Each atomic domain is an instance of the atomic_domain class, and the operations are defined as methods on that class. The use of atomic domains permits selection (at construction) of the most efficient available implementation which can provide correct results for the given set of operations on the given data type. This implementation may be hardware-dependent and vary for different platforms. To get the best possible performance from atomics, the user should be aware of which atomics are supported in hardware on their platform, and set up the domains accordingly.

Similar to a mutex, an atomic domain exists independent of the data it applies to. User code is responsible for ensuring that data accessed via a given atomic domain is only accessed via that domain, never via a different domain or without use of a domain. Users may create as many domains as needed to describe their uses of atomic operations, so long as there is at most one domain per atomic datum. If distinct data of the same type are accessed using differing sets of operations, then creation of distinct domains for each operation set is recommended to achieve the best performance on each set.

We illustrate atomics by showing how they can be used to solve the quiescence counting problem for the distributed hash table, discussed in the previous section. The code is as follows:

```cpp
// keep track of how many inserts have been made to each target process
std::unique_ptr<int64_t[]> inserts_per_rank(new int64_t[upcxx::rank_n()]());
// insert all key-value pairs into the hash map
for (long i = 0; i < N; i++) {
    string key = to_string(upcxx::rank_me()) + "::" + to_string(i);
    string val = key;
    dmap.insert(key, val);
    inserts_per_rank[dmap.get_target_rank(key)]++;
    // periodically call progress to allow incoming RPCs to be processed
    if (i % 10 == 0) upcxx::progress();
}
// setup atomic domain with only the operations needed
```
upcxx::atomic_domain<int64_t> ad({upcxx::atomic_op::load, upcxx::atomic_op::add});
// distributed object to keep track of number of inserts expected at every process
upcxx::dist_object<upcxx::global_ptr<int64_t> > n_inserts(upcxx::new_<int64_t>(0));
// get pointers for all other processes and use atomics to update remote counters
for (long i = 0; i < upcxx::rank_n(); i++) {
    if (inserts_per_rank[i]) {
        upcxx::global_ptr<int64_t> remote_n_inserts = n_inserts.fetch(i).wait();
        // use atomics to increment the remote process's expected count of inserts
        ad.add(remote_n_inserts, inserts_per_rank[i], memory_order_relaxed).wait();
    }
}
upcxx::barrier();
// wait until we have received all the expected updates, spinning on progress
int64_t curr_inserts = 0;
do {
    // Note: once a memory location is accessed with atomics, it should only be
    // subsequently accessed using atomics to prevent unexpected results
    curr_inserts = ad.load(*n_inserts, memory_order_relaxed).wait();
    upcxx::progress();
} while (dmap.local_size() != curr_inserts);

We modify the code from the example in the quiescence section so that the n_inserts is actually a pointer
to int64_t, rather than a long itself. We do this because atomic operations require global pointers, and we
explicitly use int64_t because long is not guaranteed to be supported for atomic operations on all platforms.
Then we declare an atomic domain, which includes only the two operations we will actually use:
upcxx::atomic_domain<long> ad_long({upcxx::atomic_op::load,
upcxx::atomic_op::add});

Each process maintains an array, inserts_per_rank, of the expected counts for all other processes. Once it
has finished all its inserts, it loops all the remote processes, and for each one it first obtains the remote global
pointer using fetch, and then atomically updates the target process’s counter. Finally, each process spins
waiting for its expected number of inserts, n_inserts, to equal the size of the local unordered map.

Like all atomic operations (and indeed, nearly all UPC++ communication operations), the atomic load and
add operations are asynchronous. The load operation returns a completion object, which defaults to a future.
In the example in this section, we simply waited for each atomic operation to complete, but we could easily
use future conjoining or promises to track completion of the atomic operations.

11 Completions

In the previous examples in this guide, we have relied on futures to inform us about the completion
of asynchronous operations. However, UPC++ provides several additional mechanisms for determining
completion, including promises, remote procedure calls (RPCs) and local procedure calls (LPCs). Further on
in this section, we give an example of completions using promises.

A completion object is constructed by a call to a static member function of one of the completion classes:
upcxx::source_cx, upcxx::remote_cx or upcxx::operation_cx. These classes correspond to the different
stages of completion of an asynchronous operation: source and remote completions indicate that the resources
needed for the operation are no longer in use by UPC++ at the source process or remote process, respectively,
whereas operation completion indicates that the operation is complete from the perspective of the initiator.
As we have seen in the previous examples in this guide, most operations default to notification of operation
completion using a future, e.g.:

    template <typename T, typename Completions=decltype(upcxx::operation_cx::as_future())>
RType upcxx::rput(T const *src, upcxx::global_ptr<T> dest, std::size_t count,
    Completions cxs=Completions{});

As shown above, the completion object is constructed as a completion stage combined with a type of completion. There are restrictions on which completion types can be associated with which stages: futures, promises and LPCs are only valid for source and operation completions, whereas RPCs are only valid for remote completions.

It is possible to request multiple completion notifications from one operation using the pipe (|) operator to combine completion objects. For example, future completion can be combined with RPC completion as follows:

auto cxs = (upcxx::remote_cx::as_rpc(some_func) | upcxx::operation_cx::as_future());

The completion argument passed to an asynchronous communication initiation function influences the polymorphic return type of that function (abbreviated as RType in prototypes). In particular, if one future completion is requested (as with the default completion), then the return type RType is an appropriately typed future (as we’ve seen in prior examples). If a completion argument is passed that requests no future-based completions, then the return type RType is void. If more than one future completion is requested (for example, source and operation completions) then the return type RType is a std::tuple of the requested futures:

upcxx::future<> fut_src, fut_op;
std::tie(fut_src, fut_op) = upcxx::rput(p_src, gptr_dst, 1,
    upcxx::source_cx::as_future() | upcxx::operation_cx::as_future());

In the following example, we show how promises can be used to track completion of the distributed hash table inserts. Each non-blocking operation has an associated promise object, which can either be explicitly created by the user or implicitly by the runtime when a non-blocking operation is invoked. A promise represents the producer side of the operation, and it is through the promise that the results of the operation are supplied and its dependencies fulfilled. A future is the interface through which the status of the operation can be queried and the results retrieved, and multiple future objects may be associated with the same promise. A future thus represents the consumer side of a non-blocking operation.

First, we modify the insert operation to use a promise instead of return a future:

// insert a key, value pair into the hash table, track completion with promises
void insert(const std::string &key, const std::string &val, upcxx::promise<> &prom) {
    upcxx::rpc(get_target_rank(key),
        // completion is a promise
        upcxx::operation_cx::as.promise(prom),
        // lambda to insert the key, value pair
        [](dobj_map_t &lmap, std::string key, std::string val) {
            // insert into the local map at the target
            lmap->insert({key, val});
        }, local_map, key, val);
}

Now we modify the insert loop to use promises instead of futures for tracking completion:

// create an empty promise, to be used for tracking operations
upcxx::promise<> prom;
// insert all key, value pairs into the hash map
for (long i = 0; i < N; i++) {
    string key = to_string(upcxx::rank_me()) + "::" + to_string(i);
    string val = key;
// pass the promise to the dmap insert operation
dmap.insert(key, val, prom);
// periodically call progress to allow incoming RPCs to be processed
if (i % 10 == 0) upcxx::progress();
}
// finalize the promise
upcxx::future<> fut = prom.finalize();
// wait for the operations to complete
fut.wait();

In our distributed hash table example, we create an empty promise, prom, which has a dependency count of one. Then we register each insert operation in turn on the promise, incrementing the dependency count each time, representing the unfulfilled results of the RPC operation used in the insert. Finally, when registration is complete, the original dependency is fulfilled to signal the end of the registration, with the prom.finalize call. This call returns the future associated with the promise, so we can now wait on that future for all the operations to complete:

12 Progress

Progress is a key notion of UPC++ which programmers must be aware of. The UPC++ framework does not spawn any hidden OS threads to advance its internal state or track outstanding asynchronous communication. The rationale is this keeps the performance characteristics of the UPC++ runtime as lightweight and configurable as possible, and simplifies synchronization. Without its own threads, UPC++ is reliant on each application process to periodically grant it access to a thread so that it may make “progress” on its internals. Progress is divided into two levels: internal progress and user-level progress. With internal progress, UPC++ may advance its internal state, but no notifications will be delivered to the application. Thus the application cannot easily track or be influenced by this level of progress. With user-level progress, UPC++ may advance its internal state as well as signal completion of user-initiated operations. This could include many things: readying futures, running callbacks dependent on those futures, or invoking inbound RPCs.

The upcxx::progress function, as already used in our examples, is the primary means by which the application performs the crucial task of temporarily granting UPC++ a thread.

upcxx::progress(upcxx::progress_level lev = upcxx::progress_level::user)

A call to upcxx::progress() with its default arguments will invoke user-level progress. These calls make for the idiomatic points in the program where the user should expect locally registered callbacks and remotely injected RPCs to execute. There are also other UPC++ functions which invoke user-progress, of note: upcxx::barrier and upcxx::future::wait. For the programmer, understanding where these functions are called is crucial, since any invocation of user-level progress may execute RPCs or callbacks, and the application code run by those will typically expect certain invariants of the process’s local state to be in place.

Many UPC++ operations have a mechanism to signal completion to the application. However, for performance-oriented applications, UPC++ provides an additional asynchronous operation status indicator called progress_required. This status indicates that further advancements of the current process or thread’s internal-level progress are necessary so that completion of outstanding operations on remote entities (e.g. notification of delivery) can be reached. Once the progress_required state has been left, UPC++ guarantees that remote processes will see their side of the completions without any further progress by the current process. The programmer can query UPC++ when all operations initiated by this process have reached a state at which they no longer require progress using the following function:

bool upcxx::progress_required();

UPC++ provides a function called upcxx::discharge() which polls on upcxx::progress_required() and asks for internal progress until progress is not required anymore. upcxx::discharge() is equivalent to the following code:
while(upcxx::progress_required())
    upcxx::progress(upcxx::progress_level::internal);

Any application entering a long lapse of inattentiveness (e.g. to perform expensive computations) is highly
e encouraged to call upcxx::discharge() first.

13 Personas

As mentioned earlier, UPC++ does not spawn background threads for progressing asynchronous operations,
but rather leaves control of when such progress is permissible to the user. To help the user in managing
the coordination of internal state and threads, UPC++ introduces the concept of personas. An object of
type upcxx::persona represents a collection of UPC++’s internal state. Each persona may be active with
at most one thread at any time. The active personas of a thread are organized in a stack, with the top
persona denoted the current persona of that thread. When a thread enters progress, UPC++ will advance
the progress of all personas it holds active. When a thread initiates an asynchronous operation, it is registered
in the internal state managed by the current (top) persona.

When an thread is created, it is assigned a default persona. This persona is always at the bottom of the
persona stack, and cannot be pushed onto the persona stack of another thread. The default persona can be
retrieved using:

upcxx::persona& upcxx::default_persona();

For any UPC++ operation issued by the current persona, the completion notification (e.g. future readying)
will be sent to that same persona. This is still the case even if that upcxx::persona object’s current/active
status has changed threads when the asynchronous operation completes. The key takeaway here is that a
upcxx::persona can be used by one thread to issue operations, then passed to another thread (together
with the futures corresponding to these operations). That second thread will be then be notified of the
completion of these operations via their respective futures. This can be used, for instance, to build a progress thread — a thread dedicated to progressing asynchronous operations. Another possibility is to use completion
objects (See Completions ) to execute a callback (more precisely a local procedure call, or LPC) on another
persona when the operation is complete. We recommend using this second option as upcxx::future and
upcxx::promise objects are not thread-safe and thus can only be safely referenced by a thread holding the
persona used to create these objects.

UPC++ provides a upcxx::persona_scope class for modifying the current thread’s active stack of personas.
The application is responsible for ensuring that a persona is only ever on one thread’s active stack at any given
time. Pushing and popping personas from the stack (hence changing the current persona) is accomplished
via RAII semantics using the upcxx::persona_scope constructor/destructor.

Here are the constructors:

upcxx::persona_scope(upcxx::persona &p);

template<typename Lock>
upcxx::persona_scope(Lock &lock, upcxx::persona &p);

The upcxx::persona_scope constructor takes the upcxx::persona that needs to be pushed. Only one
thread is permitted to use a given persona at a time. To assist in maintaining this invariant, the
upcxx::persona_scope constructor accepts an optional thread locking mechanism to acquire during con-
struction and release during destruction (the Lock template argument can be any type of lock, such as C++
std::mutex).

The following example introduces several of these concepts, using two threads to exchange an integer containing
a rank id fetched from a neighbor process (defined as (upcxx::rank_me()+1)%upcxx::rank_n()). A
upcxx::persona object progress_persona is first created. This persona object is used by thread called
submit_thread to construct a completion object which will execute an LPC on the progress_persona as
the completion notification for the subsequently issued rget operation (the value fetched by the rget is passed as an argument to the LPC callback that is eventually queued for execution by progress_persona). The submit_thread thread then waits and makes progress until the atomic variable thread_barrier is set to 1. Meanwhile, another thread called progress_thread pushes progress_persona onto its persona stack by constructing an appropriate upcxx::persona_scope (in this case we know by construction that only one thread will push this persona, so we can safely use the lock-free constructor). This thread then calls upcxx::progress() repeatedly until the done boolean is set to true within the LPC attached to the completion object.

```cpp
int main () {
    upcxx::init();
    // create a landing zone, and share it through a dist_object
    // allocate and initialize with local rank
    upcxx::dist_object<upcxx::global_ptr<int>> dptrs(upcxx::new_<int>(upcxx::rank_me()));
    upcxx::global_ptr<int> my_ptr = *dptrs;
    // fetch my neighbor's pointer to its landing zone
    upcxx::intrank_t neigh_rank = (upcxx::rank_me() + 1)%upcxx::rank_n();
    upcxx::global_ptr<int> neigh_ptr = dptrs.fetch(neigh_rank).wait();
    // declare an agreed upon persona for the progress thread
    upcxx::persona progress_persona;
    atomic<int> thread_barrier(0);
    bool done = false;
    // create the progress thread
    thread progress_thread( [&]() {
        // push progress_persona onto this thread's persona stack
        upcxx::persona_scope scope(progress_persona);
        // progress thread drains progress until work is done
        while (!done)
        {
            upcxx::progress();
            cout<<"Progress thread on process "<<upcxx::rank_me()" is done"<<endl;
            // unlock the other threads
            thread_barrier += 1;
        }
    });
    // create another thread to issue the rputs
    thread submit_thread( [&]() {
        // create a completion object to execute a LPC on the progress_thread
        // which verifies that the value we got was the rank of our neighbor
        auto cx = upcxx::operation_cx::as_lpc( progress_persona, [&done, neigh_rank](int got) {
            assert(got == neigh_rank);
            // signal that work is complete
            done = true;
        });
        // use this completion object on the rget
        upcxx::rget(neigh_ptr, cx);
        // block here until the progress thread has executed all LPCs
        while(thread_barrier.load(memory_order_acquire) != 1){
            sched_yield();
            upcxx::progress();
        }
    });
    // wait until all threads finish their work
    submit_thread.join();
    progress_thread.join();
    // wait until all processes are done
}
```
The thread initializing UPC++ via a call to `upcxx::init()` (this is usually done in the main function) is also assigned the `master persona` in addition to its `default persona`. The master persona is special in that it is the only persona in each process which can execute RPCs destined for this process and collective operations. A thread can access this persona object by calling:

```cpp
upcxx::persona& upcxx::master_persona();
```

This persona can also be transferred between threads using `upcxx::persona_scope` objects. However, due to its special nature, the thread which was initially assigned the master persona must first release it before other threads can push it. This is done using the `upcxx::liberate_master_persona()` function. This is of particular importance if one desires to implement a `progress thread` which will execute RPCs issued by remote processes.

As an example, we show how to implement such a progress thread in the distributed hash table example. We first modify the DistrMap class so that a completion object is used to track the completion of the RPC issued by the `find` function. When the RPC completes, a function `func` provided by the caller is executed as an LPC on the `persona` provided by the caller as well.

```cpp
// find a key and return associated value in a future
template <typename Func>
void find(const std::string &key, upcxx::persona &persona, Func func) {
  // the value returned by the RPC is passed as an argument to the LPC
  // used in the completion object
  auto cx = upcxx::source_cx::as_buffered() | upcxx::operation_cx::as_lpc(persona,func);
  upcxx::rpc(get_target_rank(key),cx,
    [](dobj_map_t &lmap, std::string key) -> std::string {
      auto elem = lmap->find(key);
      // no key found
      if (elem == lmap->end()) return std::string();
      // the key was found, return the value
      return elem->second;
    },local_map,key);
}
```

Let's now review how this can be used to implement a progress thread. A thread `progress_thread` is created to execute incoming RPCs issued to this process, as well as operations submitted to a `progress_persona` (in this example, this thread will execute N LPCs). The master persona is therefore first released before the creation of the `progress_thread`. Both the master persona and `progress_persona` are pushed onto `progress_thread`'s persona stack by constructing two `upcxx::persona_scope` objects. The progress thread then calls `upcxx::progress` until `lpc_count` reaches 0, and finally sets the atomic variable `thread_barrier` to signal the other threads that all operations have been completed. Concurrently, ten threads are created to perform a total of N find operations, using the `progress_persona` to handle the completion of these operations. This is done by executing an LPC on the `progress_persona` which verifies that the received value corresponds to what was expected and decrement the `lpc_count` counter by one. These threads then call `upcxx::progress()` until the progress thread has handled all operations (See Quiescence). It is important to note that the `master persona` needs to be transferred back to the main thread using a `upcxx::persona_scope` in order to call collectives like `upcxx::barrier()` and `upcxx::finalize()`. Finally, note that in this example we use C++11 threads, but the example would work with other threading mechanisms, such as OpenMP or
// try to fetch keys inserted by neighbor
// note that in this example, keys and values are assumed to be the same
const int num_threads = 10;
thread * threads[num_threads];
// declare an agreed upon persona for the progress thread
upcxx::persona progress_persona;
atomic<int> thread_barrier(0);
int lpc_count = N;
// liberate the master persona to allow the progress thread to use it
upcxx::liberate_master_persona();
// create a thread to execute the assertions while lpc_count is greater than 0
thread progress_thread( 
  [&] () { // push the master persona onto this thread's stack
    upcxx::persona_scope scope(upcxx::master_persona());
    // push the progress_persona as well
    upcxx::persona_scope progress_scope(progress_persona);
    // wait until all assertions in LPCs are complete
    while(lpc_count > 0) {
      sched_yield();
      upcxx::progress();
    } // unlock the other threads
    thread_barrier += 1;
  });

// launch multiple threads to perform find operations
for (int tid=0; tid<num_threads; tid++) {
  threads[tid] = new thread( 
    [&] (int tid) { // split the work across threads
      long num_asserts = N / num_threads;
      long i_beg = tid * num_asserts;
      long i_end = tid==num_threads-1?N:(tid+1)*num_asserts;
      for (long i = i_beg; i < i_end; i++) {
        string key = to_string((upcxx::rank_me() + 1) % upcxx::rank_n()) + ":" + to_string(i);
        // attach callback, which itself runs a LPC on progress_persona on completion
        dmap.find(key, progress_persona,
          [key,&lpc_count](string val) {
            assert(val == key);
            lpc_count--;
          });
      } // block here until the progress thread has executed all RPCs and LPCs
      while(thread_barrier.load(memory_order_acquire) != 1){
        sched_yield();
        upcxx::progress();
      }
    });
}

// wait until all threads are done
progress_thread.join();
for (int tid=0; tid<num_threads; tid++) {
threads[tid]->join();
delete threads[tid];

// push the master persona onto the initial thread's persona stack
// before calling barrier and finalize
upcxx::persona_scope scope(upcxx::master_persona());
// wait until all processes are done
upcxx::barrier();
if (upcxx::rank_me() == 0)
    cout<<"SUCCESS"<<endl;
upcxx::finalize();
}

14 Teams

A UPC++ team is an ordered set of processes and is represented by a upcxx::team object. For readers familiar with MPI, teams are similar to MPI_Communicators and MPI_Groups. The default team for most operations is upcxx::world() which includes all processes.

Creating a team is a collective operation and may be expensive. It is therefore best to do it in the set-up phase of a calculation. New upcxx::team objects can be created by splitting another team using the upcxx::team::split() member function. This is demonstrated in the following example, which creates teams consisting of the processes having odd and even ranks in upcxx:world() by using (upcxx::rank_me() % 2) as the color argument to split(). It is worth noting that the key argument is used to sort the members of the newly created teams, and need not be precisely the new rank as in this example.

```cpp
#include <upcxx/upcxx.hpp>

int main() {
    upcxx::init();
    upcxx::team & world_team = upcxx::world();

    int color = upcxx::rank_me() % 2;
    int key = upcxx::rank_me() / 2;
    upcxx::team new_team = world_team.split(color, key);

    upcxx::finalize();
    return 0;
}
```

A team object has several member functions. The local rank of the calling process within a team is given by the rank_me() function, while rank_n() returns the number of processes in the team. The global rank (in the world() team) of a process of rank i can be retrieved using the [] operator.

The upcxx::team::from_world() function converts a global rank from the world() team into a local rank within a given team. This function takes either one or two arguments:

```cpp
upcxx::intrank_t upcxx::team::from_world(intrank_t world_index) const;
upcxx::intrank_t upcxx::team::from_world(upcxx::intrank_t world_index, upcxx::intrank_t otherwise) const;
```

In the first case, the process with rank world_index in world() MUST be part of the team, while in the second overload, the otherwise value will be returned if that process is not part of the team. We can therefore modify our example to do the following:
#include <upcxx/upcxx.hpp>

int main() {
    upcxx::init();
    upcxx::team & world_team = upcxx::world();
    int color = upcxx::rank_me() % 2;
    int key = upcxx::rank_me() / 2;
    upcxx::team new_team = world_team.split(color, key);

    upcxx::intrank_t local_rank = new_team.rank_me();
    upcxx::intrank_t local_count = new_team.rank_n();
    upcxx::intrank_t world_rank = new_team[(local_rank+1)%local_count];
    assert(world_rank == (upcxx::rank_me()+2)%upcxx::rank_n());

    upcxx::intrank_t other_local_rank = new_team.from_world(world_rank);
    assert(other_local_rank == (local_rank+1)%local_count);
    upcxx::intrank_t non_member_rank =
        new_team.from_world((upcxx::rank_me()+1)%upcxx::rank_n(),-1);
    assert(non_member_rank == -1);

    new_team.destroy(); // collectively release the sub-team
    upcxx::finalize();
    return 0;
}

In addition to the upcxx::world() team, another special team is available that represents all the processes sharing the same shared-memory node. This team is obtained by calling the upcxx::local_team() function. All members of this team will see upcxx::global_ptr<T> to shared memory allocated by a member of the local_team report is_local() == true, and local() will return a valid raw pointer to the memory. This is particularly important if one wants to optimize for shared memory operations.

15 Collectives

Collectives are intimately tied to the notion of Teams. Collectives in UPC++ all operate on the upcxx::world() team by default, and always have to be called by a thread holding the master persona on each process (See Personas). As in other programming models, such as MPI, each collective call in a UPC++ program must be initiated in the same order (with compatible arguments) in every participating process.

One of the most useful and basic collective operations in parallel programming is the barrier operation. UPC++ provides two flavors of barrier:

void upcxx::barrier(upcxx::team &team = upcxx::world());

template<
typename Completions=decltype(upcxx::operation_cx::as_future())>
RType upcxx::barrier_async(upcxx::team &team = upcxx::world(),
    Completions cxs=Completions{});

The first variant is a blocking barrier on team and will return only after all processes in the team have entered the call.

The second variant is an asynchronous barrier which by default returns a future (See Completions). This future is signalled when all processes in the team have initiated the asynchronous barrier.
Another fundamental collective operation is the broadcast operation, which always is an asynchronous operation in UPC++ and defaults to returning a upcxx::future. There are two variants:

```cpp
template <typename T, typename Completions=decltype(upcxx::operation_cx::as_future())>
RType upcxx::broadcast(T &&value, upcxx::intrank_t root, upcxx::team &team = upcxx::world(), Completions cx = Completions{});

template <typename T, typename Completions=decltype(upcxx::operation_cx::as_future())>
RType upcxx::broadcast(T *buffer, std::size_t count, upcxx::intrank_t root, upcxx::team &team = upcxx::world(), Completions cx = Completions{});
```

The first variant transfers an object of type \( T \) from the process with (team-relative) rank \( root \) to all processes in \( \text{team} \). The return value is a upcxx::future\(<\text{T}\)> containing the broadcast value. The second variant transfers \( \text{count} \) objects of type \( \text{T} \) stored in an array referenced by \( \text{buffer} \), and its default return value is an object of type upcxx::future\(<\text{}\>\).

These functions can be used in the following way:

```cpp
int my_rank = upcxx::rank_me();
// launch a first broadcast operation from rank 0
upcxx::future<int> fut = upcxx::broadcast(my_rank, 0);

// do some overlapped work like preparing a buffer for another broadcast
std::vector<int> buffer(10);
if (upcxx::rank_me() == 0)
    for (int i = 0; i < buffer.size(); i++)
        buffer[i] = i;

// launch a second broadcast operation from rank 0
upcxx::future<> fut_bulk = upcxx::broadcast(buffer.data(), buffer.size(), 0);

// wait for the result from the first broadcast
int bcast_rank = fut.wait();
assert(bcast_rank == 0);

// wait until the second broadcast is complete
fut_bulk.wait();
for (int i = 0; i < buffer.size(); i++)
    assert(buffer[i] == i);
```

UPC++ also provides collectives to perform reductions. Each of these variants applies a binary operator \( \text{op} \) to the input data. This operator can either be one of the built-in operators provided by the library, or can be a user-defined function (for instance a lambda).

```cpp
template <typename T, typename BinaryOp, typename Completions=decltype(upcxx::operation_cx::as_future())>
RType upcxx::reduce_one(T &&value, BinaryOp &&op, upcxx::intrank_t root, upcxx::team &team = upcxx::world(), Completions cx = Completions{});

template <typename T, typename BinaryOp, typename Completions=decltype(upcxx::operation_cx::as_future())>
RType upcxx::reduce_all(T &&value, BinaryOp &&op, upcxx::team &team = upcxx::world(), Completions cx = Completions{});

template <typename T, typename BinaryOp, typename Completions=decltype(upcxx::operation_cx::as_future())>
RType upcxx::reduce_one(const T *src, T *dst, size_t count, BinaryOp &&op, upcxx::team &team = upcxx::world(), Completions cx = Completions{});
```
upcxx::intrank_t root, upcxx::team &team = upcxx::world(),
                          Completions cxs=Completions{});

template <typename T, typename BinaryOp,
           typename Completions=decltype(upcxx::operation_cx::as_future())>
RType upcxx::reduce_all(const T *src, T *dst, size_t count, BinaryOp &&op,
                        upcxx::team &team = upcxx::world(), Completions cxs=Completions{});

Similar to upcxx::broadcast, the first two variants reduce an object value of type T and by default return a upcxx::future<T> containing the resulting value. The second set of variants perform similar operations on contiguous buffers of count objects of type T pointed by src. They place the reduced values in a contiguous buffer pointed by dst, and default to returning a upcxx::future<> for tracking completion.

When using the upcxx::reduce_one functions, the reduction result will be available only at the root process, and the result is undefined on other processes. When using the upcxx::reduce_all functions, a reduction result will be provided to all processes belonging to team.

UPC++ also provides built-in binary operators (op_fast_add, op_fast_mul, op_fast_min, op_fast_max, op_fast_bit_and, op_fast_bit_or, and op_fast_bit_xor) which may be hardware-accelerated on systems with collectives offload support.

16 Non-Contiguous One-Sided Communication

The rput and rget operations assume a contiguous buffer of data at the source and destination processes. There are specific specialized forms of these functions for moving groups of buffers in a single UPC++ call. These functions are denoted by a suffix [rput, rget]_[irregular, regular, strided]. The rput_irregular operation is the most general: it takes a set of buffers at the source and destination where the total data size of the combined buffers and their data type need to match on both ends. The rput_regular operation is a specialization of rput_irregular, where every buffer in the collection is the same size. The rput_strided operation is yet even more specialized: there is just one base address specified at each of the source and destination processes together with stride vectors describing multi-dimensional array transfers.

constexpr int sdim[] = {32, 64, 32};
constexpr int ddim[] = {16, 32, 64};

upcxx::future<> rput_strided_example(float* src_base, upcxx::global_ptr<float> dst_base)
{
    return upcxx::rput_strided<3>(
        src_base, {{sizeof(float), sdim[0]*sizeof(float), sdim[0]*sdim[1]*sizeof(float)}},
        dst_base, {{sizeof(float), ddim[0]*sizeof(float), ddim[0]*ddim[1]*sizeof(float)}},
        {{4, 3, 2}});
}

upcxx::future<> rget_strided_example(upcxx::global_ptr<float> src_base, float* dst_base)
{
    return upcxx::rget_strided<3>(
        src_base, {{sizeof(float), sdim[0]*sizeof(float), sdim[0]*sdim[1]*sizeof(float)}},
        dst_base, {{sizeof(float), ddim[0]*sizeof(float), ddim[0]*ddim[1]*sizeof(float)}},
        {{4, 3, 2}});
}

The strided example code snippet corresponds to the translation data motion shown in Figure 3. By altering the arguments to the _strided functions a user can implement various transposes and reflection operations in an N-dimensional space within their UPC++ call. The striding is also expressed in units of bytes. This allows users to work with data structures that have padding.
Figure 3: Figure 3. Example of strided one-sided communication.

For more general data structures a user can use the `irregular` functions:

```cpp
pair<particle_t*, size_t> src[]={{srcP+12, 22}, {srcP+66, 12}, {srcP, 4}};
pair<upcxx::global_ptr<particle_t>, size_t> dest[]={{destP, 38}};
auto f = upcxx::rput_irregular(src, end(src), dest, end(dest));
f.wait();
```

The user here is taking subsections of their source array of their `particle_t` type pointed to by `srcP` and copying them to the location pointed to by `destP`. All variants of `rput` and `rget` assume the object types are trivially serializable. This example also shows how data can be shuffled in their UPC++ call. The user is responsible for ensuring their source and destination result in equivalent amounts of data.

### 17 View-Based Serialization

RPC’s transmit their arguments over the wire using the concept of “serialization”, which is type-specific logic of how to encode potentially rich C++ objects to and from flat byte buffers. For substantially large objects, deserializing them from UPC++’s internal network buffers can have non-trivial performance cost, and, if the object was built up only to be consumed and immediately torn down within the RPC, then its likely that performance can be regained by eliminating the superfluous build-up/tear-down. Notably this can happen with containers: Suppose process A would like to send a collection of values to process B which will assimilate them into its local state. If process A were to transmit these values by RPC’ing them in a `std::vector<T>` (which along with many other `std::` container types, is supported as serializable in the UPC++ implementation) then upon receipt of the RPC, the UPC++ program would enact the following steps:

1. UPC++ would build the vector by visiting each `T` in the network buffer and copying it into the vector.
2. UPC++ would invoke the RPC client function giving it the vector.
3. The RPC client function would traverse the T’s in the vector and consume them, likely by copying them out to the process’s private state.

4. The RPC function would return control to the UPC++ progress engine which would destruct the vector.

The remedy to eliminating steps 1 and 4 is to allow the client to get direct access to the T elements in the internal network buffer. UPC++ grants such access with the upcxx::view<T> type. A view is little more than a pair of iterators delimiting the beginning and end of an ordered sequence of T values. Since a view only stores iterators, it is not responsible for managing the resources supporting those iterators. Most importantly, when being serialized, a view will serialize each T it encounters in the sequence, and when deserialized, the view will “remember” special network buffer iterators delimiting its contents directly in the buffer. The RPC can then ask the view for its begin/end iterators and traverse the T sequence in-place.

The following example demonstrates how a user could easily employ views to transmit an array of double’s with minimal intermediate copies. On the sender side, the user acquires begin and end iterators to the value sequence they wish to send (in this case double* acts as the iterator type) and calls upcxx::make_view(beg, end) to construct the view. That view is bound to an rpc whose lambda accepts a upcxx::view<double> on the receiver side, and traverses the view to consume the sequence.

```cpp
// Simple demonstration of shipping an array of doubles by view.
double *buf = /*...*/; // local data buffer
size_t len = /*...*/;
upcxx::rpc(target_rank,
    [](upcxx::view<double> buf_in_rpc) {
        // Traverse `buf_in_rpc` like a container. Views fulfill most of the
        // container contract: begin, end, size, and if the element type is
        // trivial, even operator[].
        for(double x: buf_in_rpc)
            /* consume each `x` */;
    },
    upcxx::make_view(buf, buf + len)
);
```

Beyond just simple pointers to contiguous data, arbitrary iterator types can be used to make a view. This allows the user to build views from the sequence of elements within std containers using upcxx::make_view(container), or, given any compliant ForwardIterator, upcxx::make_view(begin_iter, end_iter).

For a more involved example, we will demonstrate one process contributing histogram values to a histogram distributed over all the processes. We will use std::string as the key-type for naming histogram buckets, double for the accumulated bucket value, and std::unordered_map as the container type for mapping the keys to the values. Assignment of bucket keys to owning process is done by a hash function. We will demonstrate transmission of the histogram update with and without view’s, illustrating the performance advantages that views enable.

```cpp
// Hash a key to its owning rank.
upcxx::intrank_t owner_of(std::string const &key) {
    std::uint64_t h = 0x1234abcd5678cdef;
    for(char c: key)
        h = 63*h + std::uint64_t(c);
    return h % upcxx::rank_n();
}
```

```cpp
using histogram1 = std::unordered_map<std::string, double>;
```

```cpp
// The target rank's histogram which is updated by incoming rpc's.
histogram1 my_histo1;
```
Sending histogram updates by value.

```cpp
upcxx::future<> send_hist1_byval(histogram1 const &histo) {
    std::unordered_map<upcxx::intrank_t, histogram1> clusters;

    // Cluster histogram elements by owning rank.
    for (auto const &kv: histo)
        clusters[owner_of(kv.first)].insert(kv);

    upcxx::promise<> *all_done = new upcxx::promise<>;

    // Send per-owner histogram clusters.
    for (auto const &cluster: clusters) {
        upcxx::rpc(cluster.first,
            upcxx::operation_cx::as_promise(*all_done),
            [](histogram1 const &histo) {
                // Pain point: UPC++ already traversed the key-values once to build the
                // `histo` container. Now we traverse again within the RPC body.
                for (auto const &kv: histo)
                    my_hist11[kv.first] += kv.second;

                // Pain point: UPC++ will now destroy the container.
            },
            cluster.second
        );
    }

    return all_done->finalize().then(
        [=]() { delete all_done; }
    );
}
```

Sending histogram updates by view.

```cpp
upcxx::future<> send_hist1_byview(histogram1 const &histo) {
    std::unordered_map<upcxx::intrank_t, histogram1> clusters;

    // Cluster histogram elements by owning rank.
    for (auto const &kv: histo)
        clusters[owner_of(kv.first)].insert(kv);

    upcxx::promise<> *all_done = new upcxx::promise<>;

    // Send per-owner histogram clusters.
    for (auto const &cluster: clusters) {
        upcxx::rpc(cluster.first,
            upcxx::operation_cx::as_promise(*all_done),
            [](upcxx::view<std::pair<const std::string, double>> histo_view) {
                // Pain point from `send_hist1_byval`: Eliminated.

                // Traverse key-values directly in network buffer.
                for (auto const &kv: histo_view)
```
my_histo1[kv.first] += kv.second;

// Pain point from `send_hist01_byval`: Eliminated.
}, upcxx::make_view(cluster.second) // build view from container's begin()/end()
);

return all_done->finalize().then(
  [=]() { delete all_done; }
);
}

There is a further benefit to using view-based serialization: the ability for the sender to serialize a subset of elements directly out of a container without preprocessing it (as is done in the two examples above). This is most efficient if we take care to use a container that natively stores its elements in an order grouped according to the destination process. The following example demonstrates the same histogram update as before, but with a data structure that permits sender-side subset serialization.

// Hash a key to its owning rank.
upcxx::intrank_t owner_of(std::string const &key) {
  std::uint64_t h = 0x1234abcd5678cdef;
  for(char c: key)
    h = 63*h + std::uint64_t(c);
  return h % upcxx::rank_n();
}

// This comparison functor orders keys such that they are sorted by
// owning rank at the expense of rehashing the keys in each invocation.
// A better strategy would be modify the map's key type to compute this
// information once and store it in the map.
struct histogram2_compare {
  bool operator()(std::string const &a, std::string const &b) const {
    using augmented = std::pair<upcxx::intrank_t, std::string const&>
    return augmented(owner_of(a), a) < augmented(owner_of(b), b);
  }
}

using histogram2 = std::map<std::string, double, histogram2_compare>;

// The target rank's histogram which is updated by incoming rpc's.
histogram2 my_histo2;

// Sending histogram updates by view.
upcxx::future<> send_histo2_byview(histogram2 const &histo) {
  histogram2::const_iterator run_begin = histo.begin();
  upcxx::promise<> *all_done = new upcxx::promise<>;

  while(run_begin != histo.end()) {
    histogram2::const_iterator run_end = run_begin;
    upcxx::intrank_t owner = owner_of(run_begin->first);

    // Compute the end of this run as the beginning of the next run.
    while(run_end != histo.end() && owner_of(run_end->first) == owner)

The view's Iterator Type

The above text presented correct and functional code, but it oversimplified the C++ type of the UPC++ view by relying on some of its default characteristics and type inference. The full type signature for view is:

```
upcxx::view<T, Iter=/*internal buffer iterator*/>
```

Notably, the view type has a second type parameter which is the type of its underlying iterator. If omitted, this parameter defaults to a special UPC++ provided iterator that deserializes from a network buffer, hence this is the correct type to use when specifying the incoming bound-argument in the RPC function. But this will almost never be the correct type for the view on the sender side of the RPC. For instance, `upcxx::make_view(...)` deduces the iterator type provided in its arguments as the `Iter` type to use in the returned view. If you were to attempt to assign that to an temporary variable you might be surprised:

```
std::vector<T> vec = /*...*/;
// Type error: mismatched Iter types
upcxx::view<T> tmp = upcxx::make_view(vec);
// OK: tmp deduced to: upcxx::view<T, std::vector<T>::const_iterator>
auto tmp = upcxx::make_view(vec);
```

Buffer Lifetime Extension

Given that the lifetime of a view does not influence the lifetime of its underlying data, UPC++ must make guarantees to the client about the lifetime of the network buffer when referenced by a view. From the examples above, it should be clear that UPC++ will ensure the buffer will live for at least as long as the RPC function is executing. In fact, UPC++ will actually extend this lifetime until the future (if any) returned by the RPC is ready. This gives the client a convenient means to dispatch the processing of the view to another concurrent execution agent (e.g. a thread), thereby returning from the RPC nearly immediately so that UPC++ can service more progress events.

The following example demonstrates how a process can send sparse updates to a remote matrix via `rpc`. The updates are not done in the execution context of the `rpc` itself, instead the `rpc` uses `lpc`'s to designated worker personas (backed by dedicated threads) to dispatch the arithmetic update of the matrix element.
depending on which worker owns it. Views and futures are used to extend the lifetime of the network buffer until all lpc's have completed, thus allowing those lpc's to use the elements directly from the buffer.

```c++
// Number of worker threads/personas.
const expr int worker_n = 8;

// Each persona has a dedicated thread spinning on its progress engine.
upcxx::persona workers[worker_n];

// Rank's local matrix.
double my_matrix[1000][1000] = {/*!0...*/};

struct element {
  int row, col;
  double value;
};

upcxx::future<> update_remote_matrix(
  upcxx::intrank_t rank,
  element const *elts, int elt_n
) {
  return upcxx::rpc(rank,
    [](upcxx::view<element> elts_in_rpc) {
      upcxx::future<> all_done = upcxx::make_future();
      for(int w=0; w < worker_n; w++) {
        // Launch task on respective worker.
        auto task_done = workers[w].lpc(
          [w, elts_in_rpc]() {
            // Sum subset of elements into `my_matrix` according to a
            // round-robin mapping of matrix rows to workers.
            for(element elt: elts_in_rpc) {
              if(w == elt.row % worker_n)
                my_matrix[elt.row][elt.col] += elt.value;
            }
          }
        );
        // Conjoin task completion into `all_done`.
        all_done = upcxx::when_all(all_done, task_done);
      }
    },
    upcxx::make_view(elts, elts + elt_n)
  );
}
```