Formalizing the implementation of Streaming NESL

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Abstract

Streaming NESL (SNESL) is a first-order functional, nested data-parallel language, employing a streaming execution model and integrating with a cost model that can predict both time and space complexity. The experimentation has demonstrated good performance of SNESL's implementation and positive empirical evidence of the validity of the code model. In this thesis, we first present non-trivial extension to SNESL's target language, SVCODE, which enables SNESL to support recursion at the same time preserve the cost. Then the formalization of the semantics of this low-level streaming language is given. Finally, we present the proof of the correctness of SNESL's implementation model.

Contents

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Background

1.1.1 Nested data parallelism

1.2 NESL

NESL [Ble95] is a first-order functional nested data-parallel language. The main construct to express data-parallelism in NESL is called *apply-to-each*, whose form is similar to the list-comprehension in Haskell. As an example, adding 1 to each element of a sequence $[1, 2, 3]$ can be written as the following apply-to-each expression:

$$\{x + 1 : x \textbf{ in } [1, 2, 3]\}$$

which does the same computation as the Haskell expression

```
map (\x -> x + 1) [1,2,3]
```

but the low-level implementation is executed in parallel rather than sequentially.

The first highlight of NESL is that the design of this language makes it easy to write readable parallel algorithms. The apply-to-each construct is more expressive in its general form:

$$\{e_1 : x_1 \textbf{ in } seq_1 \ ; \ ... \ ; \ x_i \textbf{ in } seq_i \ \mid e_2\}$$

where the variables $x_1, ..., x_i$ possibly occurring in e_1 and e_2 are corresponding elements of $seq_1, ..., seq_i$ respectively, and e_2, called a *sieve*, performs as a condition to filter out some elements. Also, NESL's built-in primitive functions, such as scan [Ble89], are powerful for manipulating sequences. An example program of NESL for splitting a string into words is shown in Figure 1.1.

The low-level language of NESL's implementation is VCODE. (some more about vcode)

1.2.1 Work-depth cost model

Another important idea of NESL is its language-based cost model [Ble96]. (some more)

```
-- split a string into words (delimited by spaces)
function str2wds(str) =
  let strl = #str;  -- string length
      spc_is =  { i : c in str, i in &strl | ord(c) == 32}; --
         space indices
      word_ls = { id2 - id1 -1 : id1 in [-1] ++ spc_is, id2 in
         spc_is++[strl]}; -- length of each word
      valid_ls = {l : l in word_ls | l > 0}; -- filter multiple
         spaces
      chars = {c : c in str | not(ord(c) == 32)}  -- non-space
         chars
   in partition(chars, valid_ls);   -- split strings into words
```

```
-- a test example
$> str2wds("A   NESL  program . ")
[['A'], ['N', 'E', 'S', 'L'], ['p', 'r', 'o', 'g', 'r', 'a', 'm'],
   ['.']] :: [[char]]
```

Figure 1.1: A NESL program for splitting a string into words

1.3 SNESL

Streaming NESL (SNESL) [Mad16] is a refinement of NESL that attempts to improve the efficiency of space usage. It extends NESL with two features: streaming semantics and a cost model for space usage. The basic idea behind the streaming semantics may be described as: data-parallelism can be realized not only in terms of space, as NESL has demonstrated, but also, for some restricted cases, in terms of time. When there is no enough space to store all the data at the same time, computing them chunk by chunk may be a way out.

1.3.1 Type system

The types of a minimalistic version of SNESL defined in [Mad16] are:

$$\pi ::= \textbf{bool} \mid \textbf{int} \mid ...$$
$$\tau ::= \pi \mid (\tau_1, ..., \tau_k) \mid [\tau]$$
$$\sigma ::= \tau \mid (\sigma_1, ..., \sigma_k) \mid \{\sigma\}$$

Here π stands for the primitive types and τ the concrete types, both originally supported in NESL. The type $[\tau]$, which is called *sequences* in NESL and *vectors* in SNESL, represents spatial collections of homogeneous data, and must be fully allocated or *materialized* in memory at once for random access. $(\tau_1, ..., \tau_k)$ are tuples with k components that may be of different types.

The novel extension is the *streamable* types σ, which generalizes the types of data that are not necessarily completely materialized at once, but rather in a streaming fashion. In particular, the type $\{\sigma\}$, called *sequences* in SNESL, represents collections of data computed in terms of time. So, even with a small size of memory, SNESL could execute programs which is impossible in NESL due to space limitation or more space efficiently than in NESL.

For clarity, from now on, we will use the terms consistent with SNESL.

1.3.2 Values and expressions

The values of SNESL are as follows:

$$a ::= \mathtt{T} \mid \mathtt{F} \mid n\ (n \in \mathbb{Z}) \mid ...$$
$$v ::= a \mid (v_1, ..., v_k) \mid [v_1, ..., v_k] \mid \{v_1, ..., v_k\}$$

where a is the atomic values or constants of types π, and v are general values which can be a constant, a tuple, a vector or a sequence with k elements.

The expressions of SNESL are shown in Figure 1.2.

$e ::= a$	(constant)
$\mid x$	(variable)
$\mid (e_1, ..., e_k)$	(tuple)
$\mid$ **let** $x = e_1$ **in** e_2	(let-binding)
$\mid \phi(x_1, ..., x_k)$	(built-in function call)
$\mid \{e_1 : x$ **in** y **using** $x_1, ..., x_j\}$	(general comprehension)
$\mid \{e_1 \mid x$ **using** $x_1, ..., x_j\}$	(restricted comprehension)

Figure 1.2: Syntax of SNESL expressions

As an extension of NESL, SNESL keeps a similar programming style of NESL. Basic expressions, such as the first five in Figure 1.2, are the same as in NESL. Perhaps for easier experimental analysis, the apply-to-each construct is splitted to the general and the restricted comprehensions, both added an explicit list of the free variables (listed after the keyword **using**) occur in the body e_1, and the restricted one is the only expression that can work as a conditional itself in SNESL (???). These comprehensions also extended the semantics of the apply-to-each from evaluating to vectors (i.e., type $[\tau]$) to evaluating to sequences (i.e., type $\{\sigma\}$).

Another notable difference from NESL to SNESL occurs in the built-in functions. The primitive functions of SNESL is shown in Figure 1.3.

ϕ	$::= \oplus \mid$ **append** $\mid$ **concat** $\mid$ **zip** $\mid$ **iota** $\mid$ **part** $\mid$ **scan**$_\otimes$ $\mid$ **reduce**$_\otimes$ $\mid$ **mkseq**	(1.1)
	$\mid$ **length** $\mid$ **elt**	(1.2)
	$\mid$ **the** $\mid$ **empty**	(1.3)
	$\mid$ **seq** $\mid$ **tab**	(1.4)
$\oplus$	$::= + \mid - \mid \times \mid \div \mid \% \mid \leq \mid ...$	(consts operations)
$\otimes$	$::= + \mid \times \mid ...$	(associative binary operations)

Figure 1.3: SNESL primitive functions

The functions listed in (1.1) and (1.2) of Figure 1.3 are original supported in NESL, doing transformations on consts and vectors. In SNESL, list (1.1) are adapted to streaming versions with slight changes of parameter types where necessary. By streaming version we mean that these functions in SNESL take sequences as parameters instead of vectors as they do in NESL, thus most of these functions can be

executed in a more space-efficient way. There will be more detailed descriptions of these functions in the next chapter.

Functions in (1.2) are kept their vector versions in SNESL to guarantee the efficiency, although it is possible to realize stream versions for them as well.

List (1.3) are new primitives in SNESL. The function **the**, returns the sole element of a singleton sequence, can be used to simulate an if-then-else expression together with restricted comprehensions:

$$\textbf{if } e_0 \textbf{ then } e_1 \textbf{ else } e_2 \equiv \textbf{the}(\{e_1 \mid e_0 \textbf{ using } ...\} +\!\!+ \{e_2 \mid \textbf{not}(e_0) \textbf{ using } ...\})$$

where $+\!\!+$ is a syntactic sugar of **append**. **empty**, which tests whether a sequence is empty or not, is much more efficient in a streaming setting as it takes only constant complexity both in time and space.

Finally, list (1.4) are functions performing conversions between concrete types and streams. **seq**, typed as $[\tau] \to \{\tau\}$, converts a vector to a sequence, and **tab** does the contrary work, tabulating the sequence into a vector.

The SNESL program for string splitting is shown in Figure 1.4. Compared with the NESL counterpart in Figure 1.1, the code of SNESL version is simpler, because SNESL's primitives make it good at streaming text processing. In particular, this SNESL version can be executed with even one element space.

```
1 -- partition a string to words (delimited by spaces)
2 -- SNESL version
3 function str2wds_snesl(str) =
4    let flags = {ord(x) == 32 : x in str};
5        nonsps =  concat({{x | ord(x) != 32} : x in v})
6     in concat({{x | not(empty(x))}: x in part(nonsps, flags ++
        {T})})
```

Figure 1.4: A SNESL program for splitting a string into words

1.3.3 Cost model

Based on the work-depth model, SNESL develops a third component of complexity measurement with regards to space. (more)

1.4 Mathematical background and notations

Chapter 2

Implementation

In this chapter, we will first talk about the high-level interpreter of a minimal SNESL language but with extension of user-defined functions to give the reader a more concrete feeling about SNESL. Then we introduce the streaming low-level language, SVCODE, with respect to its grammar, semantics and primitive operations. Translation from the high-level language to the low-level one will be explained to show their connections. Finally, two interpreters of SVCODE will be described and compared with emphasis on the latter one to demonstrate the streaming mechanism.

2.1 High-level interpreter

In this thesis, the high-level language we have experimented with is a subset of SNESL introduced in the last chapter but without vectors. We will call this language SNESL_1 . As our first goal is to extend SNESL with user-defined (recursive) functions, it is safe to do experiments only with SNESL_1 because removing vectors from SNESL should not affect the complexity of the problem too much; we believe that if the solution works with streams, the general type in SNESL, it should be trivial to extend it to support vectors.

Besides, only two primitive types of SNESL, **int** and **bool**, are retained in SNESL_1 . Tuples are also simplified to pairs. Thus the type structure for SNESL_1 is as follows.

$$\pi ::= \textbf{bool} \mid \textbf{int}$$
$$\tau ::= \pi \mid (\tau_1, \tau_2) \mid \{\tau\}$$

And the values in SNESL_1 are:

$$a ::= \texttt{T} \mid \texttt{F} \mid n$$
$$v ::= a \mid (v_1, v_2) \mid \{v_1, ..., v_k\}$$

The abstract syntax of SNESL_1 is given in Figure 2.1.

$$
\begin{array}{lr}
t ::= e \mid d & \text{(top-level statement)} \\
\\
e ::= a & \text{(constant)} \\
\quad \mid x & \text{(variable)} \\
\quad \mid (e_1, e_2) & \text{(pair)} \\
\quad \mid \{e_1, ..., e_k\} & \text{(???primitive sequence)} \\
\quad \mid \{\}\tau & \text{(???empty sequence of type } \tau\text{)} \\
\quad \mid \textbf{let } x = e_1 \textbf{ in } e_2 & \text{(let-binding)} \\
\quad \mid \phi(x_1, ..., x_k) & \text{(built-in function call)} \\
\quad \mid \{e_1 : x \textbf{ in } y \textbf{ using } x_1, ..., x_j\} & \text{(general comprehension)} \\
\quad \mid \{e_1 \mid x \textbf{ using } x_1, ..., x_j\} & \text{(restricted comprehension)} \\
\quad \mid f(x_1, ..., x_k) & \text{(user-defined function call)} \\
\\
d ::= function\ f(x_1 : \tau_1, ..., x_k : \tau_k) : \tau = e & \text{(user-defined function)}
\end{array}
$$

Figure 2.1: Grammar of high-level interpreter

The high-level interpreter we have implemented supports interpreting both SNESL_1 expressions and function definitions. Since type inference is not incorporated in the interpreter, the types of parameters and return values need to be provided when the user defines a function.

The typing rules of SNES1 is given in Figure 2.2. The type environment Γ is a mapping from variables to types:

$$\Gamma = [x_1 \mapsto \tau_1, ..., x_i \mapsto \tau_i]$$

. (may add explaination of how to type user-defined functions)

Judgment $\boxed{\Gamma \vdash e : \tau}$

$$\frac{}{\Gamma \vdash a : \pi}\,(a : \pi) \qquad \frac{}{\Gamma \vdash x : \tau}\,(\Gamma(x) = \tau)$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \tau_1 \qquad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \tau_2}{\Gamma \vdash (e_1, e_2) : (\tau_1, \tau_2)}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \tau \qquad ... \qquad \Gamma \vdash e_k : \tau}{\Gamma \vdash \{e_1, ..., e_k\} : \{\tau\}} \qquad \frac{}{\Gamma \vdash \{\}\tau : \{\tau\}}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \tau_1 \qquad \Gamma[x \mapsto \tau_1] \vdash e_2 : \tau}{\Gamma \vdash \textbf{let } x = e_1 \textbf{ in } e_2 : \tau} \qquad \frac{\phi : (\tau_1, ..., \tau_k) \to \tau}{\Gamma \vdash \phi(x_1, ..., x_k) : \tau}\,((\Gamma(x_i) = \tau_i)_{i=1}^k)$$

$$\frac{[x \mapsto \tau_1, (x_i \mapsto \pi_i)_{i=1}^j] \vdash e_1 : \tau}{\Gamma \vdash \{e_1 : x \textbf{ in } y \textbf{ using } x_1, ..., x_j\} : \{\tau\}}\,(\Gamma(y) = \{\tau_1\}, (\Gamma(x_i) = \pi_i)_{i=1}^j)$$

$$\frac{[(x_i \mapsto \tau_i)_{i=1}^j] \vdash e_1 : \tau}{\Gamma \vdash \{e_1 \mid x \textbf{ using } x_1, ..., x_j\} : \{\tau\}}\,(\Gamma(x) = \textbf{bool}, (\Gamma(x_i) = \tau_i)_{i=1}^j)$$

??? $\dfrac{f : (\tau_1, ..., \tau_i) \to \tau}{\Gamma \vdash f(x_1, ..., x_k) : \tau}\,((\Gamma(x_i) = \tau_i)_{i=1}^k)$

Figure 2.2: Typing rules of SNESL_1

Value typing rules:

Judgment $\boxed{a : \pi}$

$$\frac{}{n : \textbf{int}} \qquad \frac{}{\texttt{T} : \textbf{bool}} \qquad \frac{}{\texttt{F} : \textbf{bool}} \qquad \frac{a_1 : \pi_1 \qquad a_2 : \pi_2}{(a_1, a_2) : (\pi_1, \pi_2)}$$

Judgment $\boxed{v : \tau}$

$$\frac{}{a : \pi} \qquad \frac{v_1 : \tau_1 \qquad v_2 : \tau_2}{(v_1, v_2) : (\tau_1, \tau_2)} \qquad \frac{v_1 : \tau \qquad ... \qquad v_k : \tau}{\{v_1, ..., v_k\} : \{\tau\}}$$

Semantics of SNESL_1 with cost (TODO: add cost):
Evaluation environment $\rho = [x_1 \mapsto v_1, ..., x_i \mapsto v_i]$

Judgment $\boxed{\rho \vdash e \downarrow v}$

$$\frac{}{\rho \vdash a \downarrow a} \qquad \frac{}{\rho \vdash x \downarrow v}\,(\rho(x) = v) \qquad \frac{\rho \vdash e_1 \downarrow v_1 \qquad \rho \vdash e_2 \downarrow v_2}{\rho \vdash (e_1, e_2) \downarrow (v_1, v_2)}$$

$$\frac{\rho \vdash e_1 \downarrow v_1 \qquad ... \qquad \rho \vdash e_k \downarrow v_k}{\rho \vdash \{e_1, ..., e_k\} \downarrow \{v_1, ..., v_k\}} \qquad \frac{}{\rho \vdash \{\}\tau \downarrow \{\}}$$

$$\frac{\rho \vdash e_1 \downarrow v_1 \qquad \rho[x \mapsto v_1] \vdash e_2 \downarrow v}{\rho \vdash \textbf{let } e_1 = x \textbf{ in } e_2 \downarrow v} \qquad \frac{\phi(v_1, ..., v_k) \downarrow v}{\rho \vdash \phi(x_1, ..., x_k) \downarrow v} ((\rho(x_i) = v_i)_{i=1}^k)$$

$$\frac{([x \mapsto v_i, (x_i \mapsto a_i)_{i=1}^j] \vdash e_1 \downarrow v_i')_{i=1}^k}{\rho \vdash \{e_1 : x \textbf{ in } y \textbf{ using } x_1, ..., x_j\} \downarrow \{v_1', ..., v_k'\}} (\rho(y) = \{v_1, ..., v_k\}, (\rho(x_i) = a_i)_{i=1}^j)$$

$$\frac{}{\rho \vdash \{e_1 \mid x \textbf{ using } x_1, ..., x_j\} \downarrow \{\}} (\rho(x) = \texttt{F})$$

$$\frac{\rho \vdash e_1 \downarrow v_1}{\rho \vdash \{e_1 \mid x \textbf{ using } x_1, ..., x_j\} \downarrow \{v_1\}} (\rho(x) = \texttt{T})$$

$$\rho \vdash f(x_1, ..., x_k) \downarrow ???$$

The built-in functions are also a subset of SNESL built-in functions shown in Figure 1.3 but the vector-related ones are removed, as shown in Figure 2.3.

ϕ ::= $\oplus$ | **append** | **concat** | **iota** | **part** | **scan**$_\otimes$ | **reduce**$_\otimes$ | **the** | **empty**
$\oplus$ ::= + | − | × | ÷ | % | ≤ | ... (consts operations)
$\otimes$ ::= + | × | ... (associative binary operations)

Figure 2.3: Primitive functions in SNESL$_1$

The consts operations of $\oplus$ should be self-explained from their conventional names. The types, short descriptions and examples of the other streamable operations are given below.

- **append** : $(\{\tau\} \times \{\tau\}) \rightarrow \{\tau\}$, appends one sequence to the end of another; syntactic-sugared as the infix symbol ++.

Example 2.1.

```
1  > {3,1} ++ {4}
2  {3,1,4} :: {int}
3
4  > {{3,1},{4}} ++ {{}int} ++ {{1,5}}
5  {{3,1},{4},{},{1,5}} :: {{int}}
```

- **concat** : $\{\{\tau\}\} \rightarrow \{\tau\}$, concatenates the elements of type sequence into one sequence.

Example 2.2.

```
> concat({{3,1},{4}})
{3,1,4} :: {int}

> concat({{{3,1}, {4}}, {{1}}})
{{3,1},{4},{1}} :: {{int}}
```

- **iota** : **int** $\rightarrow$ {**int**}, generates a sequence of integers starting from 0 to the given argument integer minus 1; syntactic-sugared as the symbol &.

Example 2.3.

```
> &10
{0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9} :: {int}

> &0
{} :: {int}
```

- **part** : $(\{\tau\} \times \{\textbf{bool}\}) \rightarrow \{\{\tau\}\}$, partitions a sequence into subsequences segmented by the second descriptor argument.

Example 2.4.

```
> part({3,1,4,1,5,9}, {F,F,T,F,T,T,F,F,F,T})
{{3,1},{4},{},{1,5,9}} :: {{int}}

> part({{F,T},{T},{}bool, {F,F}}, {F,F,T,F,F,T})
{{{F,T},{T}},{{},{F,F}}} :: {{{bool}}}
```

- **scan**$_+$: {**int**} $\rightarrow$ {**int**}, performs an exclusive scan of plus operation on the given sequence.

Example 2.5.

```
> scanPlus({3,1,4,1})
{0,3,4,8} :: {int}

> scanPlus({}int)
{} :: {int}
```

- **reduce**$_+$: {**int**} $\rightarrow$ **int**, performs a reduction of plus operation on the given sequence, i.e., compute its sum.

Example 2.6.

```
> reducePlus({3,1,4,1})
9 :: int

> reducePlus({}int)
0 :: int
```

- **the** : $\{\tau\} \to \tau$, returns the element of a singleton sequence.

Example 2.7.

```
> the({3})
3 :: int

> the({(3,1)})
(3,1) :: (int,int)
```

- **empty** : $\{\tau\} \to$ **bool**, tests if the given sequence is empty.

Example 2.8.

```
> empty({3,1,4,1})
F :: bool

> empty({}int)
T :: bool
```

Example 2.9. A user-defined function written in SNESL_1 to compute the multiplication of a square matrix and its transpose.

```
-- code desplay format changed for readability
function matmul(n:int) :{{int}} =
  let matA = {&n : _ in &n};
      matB = {{x : _ in &n} : x in &n} -- transposition of
          matA
  in {{ reducePlus({x*y : x in a, y in b}) : a in matA} :
     b in matB}

> matmul(4)
{{0,0,0,0},{6,6,6,6},{12,12,12,12},{18,18,18,18}} ::
   {{int}}
```

2.2 SVCODE

In [Mad13] a streaming target language for a minimal SNESL was defined. With trivial changes in the instruction set, this language, named as SVCODE (Streaming

VCODE), has been implemented on a multicore system in [Mad16]; the various experiment results have demonstrated single-core performance similar to sequential C code for some simple text-processing tasks as well as the potential for further performance improvment by scheduling opitmization and code analysis.

In this thesis, we put emphasis on the formalization of this low-level language's semantics. Also, to support recursion in the high-level language at the same time preserving the cost, non-trivial extension of this language is needed.

2.2.1 SVCODE Syntax

The primitive data structure that SVCODE manipulates, called *stream*, is similar to the one-dimensional array in C language; the main difference is that the elements of a stream can be collected through not only a piece of memory, but also a period of time.

For our minimal language, a primitive stream $\vec{a}$ can be a stream of booleans, integers or units, as the following grammar shows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
b \in \mathbb{B} &= \{\mathtt{T}, \mathtt{F}\} \\
a &::= n \mid b \mid () \\
\vec{b} &= \langle b_1, ..., b_i \rangle \\
\vec{c} &= \langle (), ..., () \rangle \\
\vec{a} &= \langle a_1, ..., a_i \rangle
\end{aligned}
$$

The grammar of SVCODE is given in Figure 2.4. An SVCODE program is basically a list of command or instructions of ecah defines one or more new streams. As a general rule of reading an SVCODE instruction, the stream ids on the left-hand side of a symbol ":=" are the defined streams, and the right-hand side ones are possibly used to generate those new ones.

A well-formed SVCODE instruction is expected to always assign $fresh$ stream ids to the defined streams, in which way the dataflow of an SVCODE program can construct a DAG (directed acyclic graph). We will give more formal definitions of this language in the next chapter to demonstrate how we guarantee the freshness of stream ids. In the practical implementation, we simply identify each stream with a natural number, a smaller one always defined eariler than a greater one.

The primitive instructions in SVCODE that define only one stream are in the form

$$s := \psi(s_1, ..., s_k)$$

where ψ is a primitive function, called a $Xducer$(transducer), taking stream $s_1, ..., s_k$ as parameters and returning s.

The only essential control struture in SVCODE is the `WithCtrl` instruction

$$S_{out} := \mathtt{WithCtrl}(s, S_{in}, p_1)$$

which may or may not execute a piece of SVCODE program p_1, but always defines a bunch of stream ids S_{out}. s is the new control stream used when the code block p_1 is executed, and S_{in} is the set of stream ids that can be used in p_1. Discussions about

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
p & ::= \ \epsilon & \text{(empty program)} \\
& \ \ | \ s := \psi(s_1, ..., s_k) & \text{(single stream definition)} \\
& \ \ | \ S_{out} := \texttt{WithCtrl}(s, S_{in}, p_1) & \text{(\texttt{WithCtrl} block)} \\
& \ \ | \ S_2 := \texttt{SCall}(f, S_1) & \text{(SVCODE function call)} \\
& \ \ | \ p_1; p_2 & \\
\\
s & ::= 0 \mid 1 \ ... \in \mathbf{SId} = \mathbb{N} & \text{(stream ids)} \\
\\
\psi & ::= \texttt{Const}_{\texttt{a}} \mid \texttt{ToFlags} \mid \texttt{Usum} \mid \texttt{Map}_{\oplus} \mid \texttt{Scan}_{\otimes} \mid \texttt{Reduce}_{\otimes} \mid \texttt{Distr} & \text{(Xducers)} \\
& \ \ | \ \texttt{Pack} \mid \texttt{UPack} \mid \texttt{B2u} \mid \texttt{SegConcat} \mid \texttt{USegCount} \mid \texttt{InterMerge} \mid ... & \\
\oplus & ::= + \mid \ - \ \mid \ \times \ \mid \ \div \ \mid \% \mid \leq \ \mid ... & \text{(consts operations)} \\
\otimes & ::= + \mid \ \times \ \mid ... & \text{(associative binary operations)} \\
\\
S & ::= \{s_1, ..., s_i\} \in \mathbb{S} & \text{(set of stream ids)}
\end{array}
$$

Figure 2.4: Grammar of SVCODE

this instruction will occur many times throughout the thesis as it plays a significant role in dealing with most of the issues we are deeply concerned, including cost model correctness and dynamic unfolding of recursive functions.

As the high-level language supports recursive functions, the function body must be unfolded dynamically in runtime. A recursive call should be included in some condition statement to decide when the recursion can terminate, which is impossible to do during compiling time. The instruction $S_2 := \texttt{SCall}(f, S_1)$ can be read as: "calling function f with arguments S_1 returns S_2".

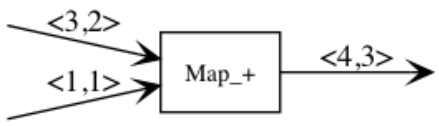
(may add more informal explanation of SVCODE semantics)

2.2.2 Xducers and dataflow

Transducers or *Xducers* are the primitive functions performing transformation on streams in SVCODE. Each Xducer consumes a number of streams and transforms them into another.

For example, the Xducer $\texttt{Map}_{+}(\langle 3, 2\rangle, \langle 1, 1\rangle)$ consumes the stream $\langle 3, 2\rangle$ and $\langle 1, 1\rangle$, then outputs the element-wise addition result $\langle 4, 3\rangle$.

Example 2.10. $\texttt{Map}_{+}(\langle 3, 2\rangle, \langle 1, 1\rangle)$:



As we have mentioned before, the dataflow of an SVCODE program is basically a DAG, where each Xducer stands for one node. The `WithCtrl` block is only a subgraph that may be added to the DAG at runtime, and `SCall` another that will be unfolded dynamically.

Figure 2.5 shows an example program, with its DAG in Figure 2.6.

```
1        S1 := Const_3();
2        S2 := ToFlags(S1);
3        S3 := Usum(S2);
4        [S4] := WithCtrl(S3,[],
5                  S4 := Const_1();
6                )
7        S5 := ScanPlus(S2, S4);
```

Figure 2.5: A small SVCODE program

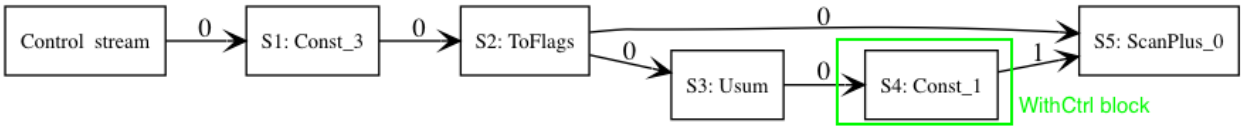


Figure 2.6: Dataflow DAG for the code in Figure 2.5 (assuming S3 is nonempty). Note that, for simplicity, the control stream is added as an explicit supplier only to Xducer $\texttt{Const}_{\texttt{a}}$.

When we talk about two Xducers A and B connected by an arrow from A to B in the DAG, we call A a *producer* or a *supplier* to B, and B a *consumer* or a *client* of A. As an Xducer can have multiple suppliers, we distinguish these suppliers by giving each of them an index, called a *channel number*. In Figure 2.6, the channel number is labeled above each edge. For example, the Xducer S2 has two clients, S3 and S5, for both of whom it is the No.0 channel; Xducer S5 has two suppliers: S2 the No.0 channel and S3 the No.1.

2.3 Value representation

In SVCODE, the data structures are only primitive streams and pairs of streams. To support the various high-level value types, that is, to design streamable counterparts to all the values of SNESL_1 , some technical transformation is necessary. The technique is similar to the idea described in [PP93], but the descriptors in SVCODE are boolean streams instread of interger ones.

- A const is represented as a singleton stream.

  Example 2.11.

$$3 \triangleright_{\mathbf{int}} \langle 3 \rangle$$
$$\mathtt{T} \triangleright_{\mathbf{bool}} \langle \mathtt{T} \rangle$$

- A non-nested primitive sequence of length n is represented as a primitive data stream with an auxiliary boolean stream called a *descriptor*, which consists of n number of Fs and one T.

  Example 2.12.

$$\{3,1,4\} \triangleright_{\{\mathbf{int}\}} (\langle 3,1,4\rangle, \langle \mathtt{F},\mathtt{F},\mathtt{F},\mathtt{T}\rangle)$$
$$\{\mathtt{T},\mathtt{F}\} \triangleright_{\{\mathbf{bool}\}} (\langle \mathtt{T},\mathtt{F}\rangle, \langle \mathtt{F},\mathtt{F},\mathtt{T}\rangle)$$
$$\{\}\mathbf{int} \triangleright_{\{\mathbf{int}\}} (\langle\rangle, \langle \mathtt{T}\rangle)$$

- For a nested sequence with a nesting depth d, all the data are flattened to one data stream, but d descriptors are used to represent the segments at each depth. Thus a non-nested sequence is just a special case of depth $d = 1$.

  Example 2.13.

$$\{\{3,1\},\{4\}\} \triangleright_{\{\{\mathbf{int}\}\}} ((\langle 3,1,4\rangle, \langle \mathtt{F},\mathtt{F},\mathtt{T},\mathtt{F},\mathtt{T}\rangle), \langle \mathtt{F},\mathtt{F},\mathtt{T}\rangle)$$
$$\{\}\{\mathbf{int}\} \triangleright_{\{\{\mathbf{int}\}\}} ((\langle\rangle, \langle\rangle), \langle \mathtt{T}\rangle)$$

- A high-level pair is a pair of streams at the low level.

  Example 2.14.

$$(1,2) \triangleright (\langle 1\rangle, \langle 2\rangle)$$

  (will add one or two examples about sequence of pairs and some explainations)

2.4 Translating SNESL_1 to SVCODE

As we have seen in the last section, a high-level sequence corresponds to a number of low-level streams. We use a structure **STree** (stream tree) to generalize the relation between the high-level values and the low-level streams during compiling time:

$$\mathbf{STree} \ni st ::= s \mid (st_1, st_2)$$

Thus a stream tree is a binary tree whose leaves are stream ids.

The translation environment δ is a mapping from high-level variables to stream trees:

$$\delta = [x_1 \mapsto st_1, ..., x_i \mapsto st_i]$$

Another essential component maintained in the translation procedure is an unused stream id called the next fresh id because it will be assigned to the defined stream(s) of the next generated instruction.

2.4.1 Expression translation

The translation rules for SNESL_1 expressions is shown in Figure 2.7. The jugement can be read as: " in the environment δ, the expression e is translated to an SVCODE program p, whose stream ids starts from s_0 and ends at $s_1 - 1$ (both included), and the evaluatation result corresponds to st".

(should have more fixes and informal explanations in the rest of this section)

Judgment $\boxed{\delta \ \vdash \ e \Rightarrow_{s_1}^{s_0} (p, st)}$

$$\frac{}{\delta \ \vdash \ a \Rightarrow_{s_0+1}^{s_0} (s_0 := \mathtt{Const_a}(), s_0)} \qquad \frac{}{\delta \ \vdash \ x \Rightarrow_{s_0}^{s_0} (\epsilon, st)} \ (\delta(x) = st)$$

$$\frac{\delta \ \vdash \ e_1 \Rightarrow_{s_0'}^{s_0} (p_1, st_1) \qquad \delta \ \vdash \ e_2 \Rightarrow_{s_1}^{s_0'} (p_2, st_2)}{\delta \ \vdash \ (e_1, e_2) \Rightarrow_{s_1}^{s_0} (p_1; p_2, (st_1, st_2))}$$

$$\frac{\delta \ \vdash \ e_1 \Rightarrow_{s_0'}^{s_0} (p_1, st_1) \qquad \delta[x \mapsto st_1] \ \vdash \ e_2 \Rightarrow_{s_1}^{s_0'} (p_2, st)}{\delta \ \vdash \ \textbf{let} \ x = e_1 \ \textbf{in} \ e_2 \Rightarrow_{s_1}^{s_0} (p_1; p_2, st)}$$

$$\frac{\phi(st_1, ..., st_k) \Rightarrow_{s_1}^{s_0} (p, st)}{\delta \ \vdash \ \phi(x_1, ..., x_k) \Rightarrow_{s_1}^{s_0} (p, st)} \ ((\delta(x_i) = st_i)_{i=1}^{k})$$

$$\left(\begin{array}{rl} \delta(y) = & (st_1, s_b) \\ (\delta(x_i) = & st_i')_{i=1}^{j} \\ p = & s_0 := \mathtt{Usum}(s_b); \\ & (s_i := \mathtt{Distr}(s_\mathtt{b}, s_\mathtt{i}');)_{i} \\ & S_{out} := \mathtt{WithCtrl}(s_0, \\ S_{in} = & \mathtt{fv}(p_1) \\ S_{out} = & \overline{st} \cap \mathtt{dv}(p_1) \\ s_{i+1} = & s_i + 1, \forall i \in \{0, ..., j - \end{array} \right.$$

???! TODO:fix $\dfrac{[x \mapsto st_1, (x_i \mapsto st_i)_{i=1}^{j}] \ \vdash \ e \Rightarrow_{s_1}^{s_0+1+j} (p_1, st)}{\delta \ \vdash \ \{e : x \ \textbf{in} \ y \ \textbf{using} \ x_1, ..., x_j\} \Rightarrow_{s_1}^{s_0} (p, (st, s_b))}$

Figure 2.7: Translation rules for SNESL_1 expressions

2.4.2 Built-in function translation

The function call of a high-level built-in function will be translated to a few lines of SVCODE instuctions.

Judgment $\boxed{\phi(st_1, ..., st_k) \Rightarrow_{s_1}^{s_0} (p, st)}$

$$\frac{}{\oplus(s_1, ..., s_k) \Rightarrow_{s_0+1}^{s_0} (s_0 := \mathtt{Map}_{\oplus}(s_1, ..., s_k), s_0)}$$

$$\frac{}{\textbf{iota}(s) \Rightarrow_{s_4}^{s_0} (p, (s_3, s_0))} \left(\begin{array}{l} s_{i+1} = s_i + 1, \forall i \in \{0, ..., 3\} \\ p = s_0 := \mathtt{ToFlags}(s); \\ \qquad s_1 := \mathtt{Usum}(s_0); \\ \qquad [s_2] := \mathtt{WithCtrl}(s_1, [s_1], s_2 := \mathtt{Const_1}()); \\ \qquad s_3 := \mathtt{ScanPlus}_0(s_0, s_2) \end{array} \right)$$

(will add more)

Figure 2.8: Translation of built-in functions

2.4.3 User-defined function translation

A user-defined function $function\ f(x_1 : \tau_1, ..., x_k : \tau_k) : \tau = e$ will be translated to an SVCODE function $([S_1], p, \overline{st})$, where $[x_1 \mapsto st_1, ..., x_k \mapsto st_k] \ \vdash \ e \Rightarrow^0_{s_1} (p, st)$ and ...

$$tp2tree : \tau \rightarrow \textbf{STree}$$

2.5 Eager interpreter

Recall that an SVCODE program is a list of instructions each of which defines one or more streams. The eager interpreter executes the instructions sequentially, assuming the available memory is infinitely large, which is the critical difference between the execution models of the eager and streaming interpreters.

For an eager interpreter, since there is always enough space, a new defined stream can be entirely allocated in memory immediately after its definition instruction is executed. In this way, traversing the whole program only once will generate the final result, even for recursions. The streaming model of SVCODE does not show any of its strengths here; the interpreter will perform just like a NESL's low-level interpreter.

As we will add a limitation to the memory size in the streaming model, it is reasonable to consider the eager version as an extreme case with the largest buffer size of the streaming one. In this case, much work can be simplified or even removed, such as the scheduling since there is only one sequential execution round. Thus the correctness as well as the time complexity is the easiest to analyze, which can be used as a baseline to compare with the streaming version with different buffer sizes.

2.5.1 Dataflow

In the eage model, a Xducer consumes the entire input streams at once and output the entire stream immediately. The dataflow DAG is established gradually as Xducers are activated one by one.

2.5.2 Cost model

The low-level work cost in the eager model is the total amount of consumed and produced elements of all Xducers, and the step is simply the number of activated Xducers. By activated we mean the executed Xducer definitions, because the stream definitions inside a `WithCtrl` block may be skipped, in which case we will not account for the steps for those definitions.

2.6 Streaming interpreter

As we have mentioned before, the execution model of streaming interpreter does not assume an infinite memory; instead, it only uses a limited size of memory as a buffer. If the buffer size is relatively small, then most of the streams cannot be materialized entirely at once. As a result, the SVCODE program will be traversed multiple times, or there will be more scheduling rounds. The dataflow of the streaming execution model is still a DAG, but the difference from the eager one is that each Xducer

maintains a small buffer, whose data is updated each round. The final result will be collected from all these scheduling rounds.

Since in most cases we will have to execute more rounds, some extra setting-up and overhead seem to be inevitable. On the other hand, exploiting only a limited buffer increases the efficiency of space usage. In particular, for some streamable cases, such as an exclusive scan, the buffer size can be as small as one (and by one we do not mean one bit or byte of physical memory, but rather a conceptual, minimal size).

2.6.1 Processes

In the streaming execution model, the buffer of a Xducer can be written only by the Xducer itself, but can be read by many other Xducers. We define two states for a buffer: And it has two states:

- `Filling` state: the buffer is not full, and the Xducer is producing or writing data to it; any other trying to read it has to wait, or more precisely, enters a read-block state.
- `Draining` state: the buffer must be full; the readers, including the read-blocked ones, can read it only in this state; if the Xducer itself tries to write the buffer, then it enters a write-block state.

The condition of switching from `Filling` to `Draining` is simple: when the buffer is fully filled. But the other switching direction takes a bit more work to detect: all the readers have read all the data in the buffer. We will come to this later.

A notable special case is when the Xducer produces its last chunk, whose size may be less than the buffer size thus can never turn the buffer to a draining mode. To deal with this case, we add a flag to the draining state to indicate if it is the last chunk of the stream. Thus, the definition of a buffer state is as follows:

$$\textbf{BufState} = \{\texttt{Filling}\ \ \vec{a},\ \texttt{Draining}\ \ \vec{a}'\ b\}$$

In addition to maintaining the buffer state, a Xducer also has to remember its suppliers so that it is not necessary to specify the suppliers repeatedly each round. Actually, once a dataflow DAG is established, it is only possible to add more subgraphs to it due to an unfolding of a `WithCtrl` block or a `SCall` instruction; the other parts uninvolved will be unchanged until the execution is done.

Since Xducers have different data rates (the size of consumed/produced data at each round), it is also important to keep track of the position of the data that has been read, which can be represented by an integer. Also, it is possible that a Xducer reads from the same supplier multiple times but with different data rates, in which case only a pair of stream id and an integer is not enough to distinguish all the different read cursors. Thus we need a third component, the channel number, to record the state of each reader, as we have shown in Figure 2.6. As a result, we must have a client list **Clis** of elements of type $(\textbf{SId}, \textbf{int}, \textbf{int})$

Now we define a structure *process*, a tuple of four components including a Xducer, as the node on the streaming DAG:

$$\textbf{Proc} = (\textbf{BufState}, S, \textbf{Clis}, \textbf{Xducer})$$

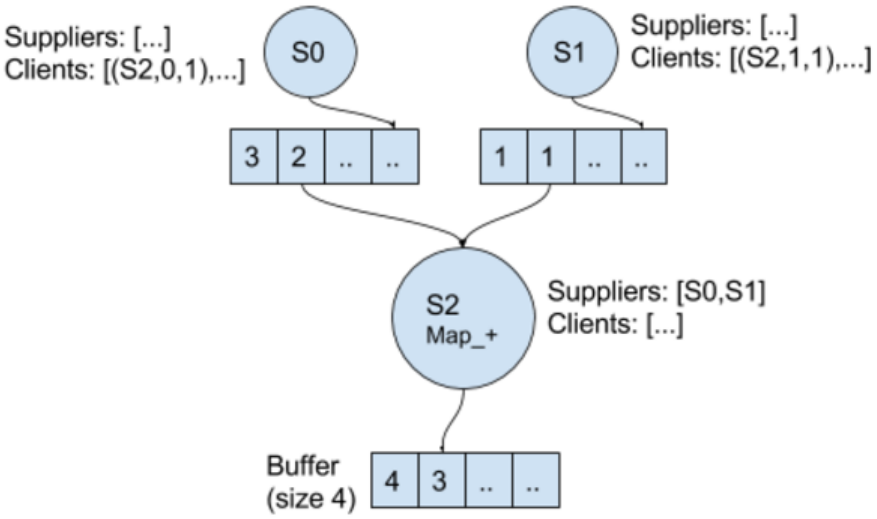


Figure 2.9: A process S2 of Xducer $\texttt{Map}_+$. It is reading from S0's buffer (as its No.0 channel) and S1's buffer (as No.1). The read cursors on these buffers are both 1 (0-indexed).

where S is the stream ids of the suppliers. An example process of Xducer $\texttt{Map}_+$ can be found in Figure 2.9.

The Xducer inside a process is the action-performing unit. We classify the atomic actions of a Xducer into three:

- `Pin` : read one element from one supplier's buffer.
- `Pout`: write one element to its own buffer.
- `Done`: shutdown itself, no read or write any more.

In this way, a Xducer's actions can be considered as a sequential list of these three atomics. For example, the $\texttt{Map}_+$ Xducer's action will be repetitions of two `Pin` s (reads from two suppilers respectively) followed by one `Pout`, and a `Done` action can be added where we want to shut down the Xducer:

$$[\texttt{Pin}_{\ 0}, \texttt{Pin}_{\ 1}, \texttt{Pout}, \texttt{Pin}_{\ 0}, \texttt{Pin}_{\ 1}, \texttt{Pout}, ..., \texttt{Done}]$$

where the subscripts of `Pin` indicates reading different suppliers.

In our practical implementation, we use a strategy to make the Xducer self-shutdown: we add an extra input stream, the control stream, to each Xducer, and the Xducer will shut itself down when its read-cursor on the control stream reaches the end, i.e., it reads an EOS (end of stream) from the control stream.

A process is responsible for managing its buffer and Xducer. The activity of a process can be described as follows:

Buffer state / Xducer action	`Filling`	`Draining F`	`Draining T`
`Pin`	Process read	Process read	impossible
`Pout`	write one element to buffer; if buffer is full, switch to `Draining F`	enter write-block	impossible
`Done`	switch to `Draining T`	switch to `Draining T`	`skip`

Table 2.1: Process actions.

Process read:

- if the supplier's buffer state is `Draining` , and the read-cursor shows the process has not yet read all the data, then the process reads one element successfully
- if the supplier's buffer state is `Draining` , but the read-cursor shows the process has read all the data, or the supplier's buffer state is `Filling` , then the process enters a read-block state

full-check: if the buffer is full, switch it to `Draining F` state.

allread-check: if all the clients have read all the data of the buffer, switch it to `Filling` state.

2.6.2 Scheduling

The streaming execution model consists of two phases:

(1) Initialization
In this phase, the interpreter establishes the initial DAG by traversing the SVCODE program. The cases are:

- initialize a sole stream definition $s := \psi(s_1, ..., s_k)$:
  This is to set up one process s:
  - set its suppilers $S = [s_1, ..., s_k]$
  - add itself to its suppliers' **Clis** with the corresponding channel number $\in \{1, ..., k\}$ and a read-cursor number 0
  - empty buffer of state `Filling`
  - set up the specific Xducer ψ
- initialize a function call $[s'_1, ..., s'_m] :=$ `SCall`$(f, [s_1, ..., s_n])$:
  A user-defined function at runtime can be considered as another DAG, whose nodes(processes) of the formal arguments are missing. So the interpreter just adds the function's DAG to the main program's DAG and replaces the function's formal arguments with the actual parameters $[s_1, ..., s_n]$, and the formal return ones with the actual ones $[s'_1, ..., s'_m]$.

- initialize a `WithCtrl` block $S_{out} := \texttt{WithCtrl}(s_c, S_{in}, p)$
  At the initialization phase, the interpreter does not unfold p; instead, it mainly does the following two tasks:
  - prevents all the import streams of S_{in} from producing one more chunk (a full buffer) of data before the interpreter knows whether s_c is an empty stream or not.
  - initializes all the import streams of S_{out} as dummy processes that do not produce any data

  Note that the practical approach for achieving these two goals can be various.

(2) Loop scheduling.
This phase is a looping procedure. The condition of its end is that all the Xducers have shutdown, and all the buffers are in `Draining T` state.

In a single scheduling round, the processes on the DAG are activated one by one from small to large. The active process acts as Table 2.9 shows, until it enters a read-block or write-block state, or it is skipped. The results collected from each round consist entire streams as the final result.

As long as a real (not dummy) process has been set up, it will keep working until its Xducer shutdown. The only crucial task in each round is to judge whether to unfold a `WithCtrl` block or not. The judgment depends on the buffer state of the new control stream. Note that the new control stream must be some real process defined earlier than the code inside a `WithCtrl` block.

- `Filling` $\langle\rangle$: the new control process has not produce any data yet, so the judgment cannot be made this round, thus delayed to the next round
- `Draining` $\langle\rangle$ `T` : the new control stream is empty, thus no need to unfold the code, just sets the export list streams also empty, and performs some other necessary clean-up job
- other cases: the new control stream must be nonempty, thus the interpreter can unfold the code now

2.6.3 Cost model

Since we have defined the atomic actions of Xducers, it is now easy to define the low-level cost:

Work = the total number of `Pin` and `Pout` of all processes

Step = the total number of switches from `Filling` to `Draining` of all processes

2.6.4 Recursion

In SVOCDE, a recursive function call happens when the function body of f from the instruction $[s'_1, ..., s'_n] := \texttt{SCall}(f, [s_1, ..., s_m])$ includes another `SCall` calling f as well.

As we have shown, for a non-recursive `SCall` , the effect of interpreting this instruction is almost transparent. For a recursive one, there is not much difference except one crucial point: the recursive `SCall` must be wrapped by a `WithCtrl` block,

otherwise it can never terminate; at each time of interpreting an inline `SCall` , the function body is unfolded, but the `WithCtrl` instruction inside it will stop its further unfolding, that is, the stack-frame number only grows by one.

At the high level, a well-defined SNESL program should use some conditional to decide when to terminate the recursion. As the only conditional of SNESL is the restricted comprehension, which is always translated to a `WithCtrl` block wrapping the expression body. Thus we can guarantee that a recursion that can terminate at the high level will also terminate at the low level.

Example 2.15.

```
-- buffer size 1

-- define a function to compute factorial
> function fact(x:int):int = if x <= 1 then 1 else x*fact(x-1)

-- running example
> {{fact(y): y in &x} : x in {5,10}}
{{1,1,2,6,24},{1,1,2,6,24,120,720,5040,40320,362880}} :: {{int}}
```

[?? Optional] The function body of `fact`:
The translated SVCODE of the expression:

```
> :c {{fact(y): y in &x} : x in {9,10}}

Parameters: []
S0 := Ctrl;
S1 := Const 9;
S2 := Const 10;
S3 := Const 1;
S4 := ToFlags 3;
S5 := ToFlags 3;
S6 := InterMergeS [4,5];
S7 := PriSegInterS [(1,4),(2,5)];
S8 := Usum 6;
WithCtrl S8 (import [7]):
        S9 := ToFlags 7
        S10 := Usum 9
        WithCtrl S10 (import []):
        S11 := Const 1
        Return: (IStr 11)
        S12 := SegscanPlus 11 9
        S13 := Usum 9
        WithCtrl S13 (import [12]):
        SCall fact [12] [14]
        Return: (IStr 14)
        Return: (SStr (IStr 14), 9)
Return: (SStr (SStr (IStr 14), 9), 6)
```

2.6.5 Deadlock

An inherent tough issue of the streaming execution model is the risk of deadlock, which is mainly due to the limitation of available memory and the irreversibility (maybe ?) of time. In general, we classify deadlock situations into two types: soft

deadlock, which can be detected and broken relatively easily but not necessarily by enlarging the buffer size, and hard deadlock, which can only be solved by enlarging the buffer size.

- Soft deadlock:

  One case of soft deadlock can be caused by trying to traverse the same sequence multiple times. A simpler example:

  Example 2.16. A soft deadlock caused by travesing the sequence x two times.

```
> let x = {1} in x ++ x
Deadlock!
```

  There are at least two feasible solutions to this case. One is manually rewriting the code to define new variables for the same sequence, as the following code shows :

```
> let x = {1}; y = {1} in x ++ y
{1,1} :: {int}
```

  The other can be done by optimizing the compiler to support multi-traversing check and automatic redefinition of retraversed sequences. As the code grows more complicated, locating the problem can become much harder, thus a smarter compiler is definitely necessary, which is worth some future investigation.

  Another case of soft deadlock can be due to the different data rates of processes, which leads to a situation where some buffer(s) of `Filling` state can never turn to `Draining` . For example, the following expression tries to negate the elements that can be divided by 5 exactly of a sequence.

  Example 2.17. A soft deadlock that can be broken by stealing

```
  -- buffer size 4
> concat({{-x | x % 5 == 0} ++ {x | x %5 != 0} :  x in &10})
{0,1,2,3,4,-5,6,7,8,9} :: {int}
```

  In this example, the sequence contains elements from 0 to 9; the subsequence of the negated numbers, which only contains 0 and -5, are concatenated with the one of the other eight numbers. Since these two subsequences are generated at different rates, If we minimize the buffer size to 1, then the deadlock can be broken since buffer of size one can always turn to `Draining` mode as long as there is one element generated. In our implementation, we use an automatic solution for this case, called *stealing*. The idea is that when a deadlock is detected, we will first switch the smallest process with a `Filling` buffer, into `Draining` mode, to see if the deadlock can be broken; if not, we repeat this switch until the deadlock is broken; otherwise, it may be a hard deadlock.

  Since the stealing strategy is basically a premature switch from `Filling` to `Draining` , the low-level step cost is possible to be affected. More precisely,

it can be increased by a certain amount, which depends on the concrete program and the buffer size. The effect of stealing on the cost model can also be investigated as future work.

- Hard deadlock:

  This type of deadlock is mainly because of insufficient space.

  Example 2.18. The following SNESL function `oeadd` risks a hard deadlock. Given an integer sequence with an equal number of odd and even numbers, this function will try to perform addition on a pair of an odd and an even number with the same index from their respective subsequences.

```
-- v must have equal number of odd and even numbers
function oeadd(v:{int}):{int} =
  let odds = concat({{x | x %2 !=0}: x in v});
      evens = concat({{x | x %2 == 0} : x in v})
   in {o+e : o in odds, e in evens}
```

  If we give a proper argument, for example, an sequence of odds and evens interleaving with each other(??? not clear), it may never deadlock, even with a buffer of size one. But if there is a relatively large distance between any odd-even pair, the code will deadlock.

```
-- buffer size 1

> oeadd(&30)
{1,5,9,13,17,21,25,29,33,37,41,45,49,53,57} :: {int}

> oeadd({1,3,5,7,0,2,4,8})
Deadlock!
```

  This type of deadlock can only be broken by enlarging the buffer size.

2.6.6 [optional] Evaluation

Some possibilies for improving the scheduling:

- The processes in a block state will be activated in the next scheduling round, but it may still block itself immediately since the blocking condition still holds. So a better strategy can be
- The processes are activated only one by one, even though some of them can be data-independent, this simulates a SIMD machine execution. But it should be able to be optmized to support MIMD machine. Evaluation of some high-level expressions, such as the evaluation of the components of a tuple or a function call , can be executed in parallel as well.

2.6.7 [optional] Examples

```
-- united-and-conquer scan and reduce (only for n = power of 2)
function scanred(v:{int}, n:int) : ({int},int) =
    if n==1 then ({0}, the(v))
    else
      let is = scanExPlus({1 : x in v});
          odds = {x: i in is, x in v | i%2 !=0};
          evens ={x: i in is, x in v | i%2 ==0};
          ps = {x+y : x in evens, y in odds};
          (ss,r) = scanred(ps,n/2)
      in (concat({{s,s+x} : s in ss, x in evens}), r)
```

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