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PARALLEL AND SEQUENTIAL ALGORITHMS AND DATA STRUCTURES

LECTURE 2 SPARC and examples



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SYNOPSIS

- **Functional Algorithms**
- **The Lambda Calculus**
- **The SPARC Language**
 - Syntax and Semantics
 - Type System of SPARC
- **Example**
 - Threads, Concurrency, and Parallelism
 - Critical Sections and Mutual Exclusion



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Introduction

- We define algorithms and data structures using **nested parallelism** in conjunction with a **functional programming** style
 - This is the best way to **capture the core ideas of algorithms and parallelism in a concise, clear, safe, and precise way**
 - will be useful in a broad set of programming languages



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Nested parallelism

- Nested parallelism (or **nested fork-join parallelism**)
 - a style of parallelism in which any task can **fork a set of new child tasks** to run in parallel
 - **When forking**, the parent task suspends
 - **when all the child tasks finish**, they “join”, and the parent continues
- **sufficiently powerful** to capture the parallelism in most of the algorithms needed for the purpose of this book
- For dynamic programming, we diverge slightly from this model to a somewhat more general model



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Functional Algorithm

- a style of programming in which functions act **like mathematical functions** (a mapping from domain to a codomain, and no side effects), and can be used as values (can be passed around, stored as data, and created on the fly)
 - have **no side effects**, parallelism is inherently safe and deterministic
 - allows **powerful abstractions**



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SPARC

- We use a minimal, perhaps “toy”, language called SPARC to describe algorithms and data structures.
 - SPARC has structures for supporting **nested parallelism** and supports only **functional programming**
 - is an extension of the **lambda-calculus**



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Function vs. Algorithm

- **Functions** are more accurately **algorithms**
 - mapping from inputs to outputs (**mathematical functions**)
 - specify the mechanism (code) by which the output is generated from the input



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The Lambda Calculus

- developed by **Alonzo Church** in the early 30s, is arguably the first general purpose “programming language”
- Is a pure language, only supporting pure functions, and it fully supports higher-order functions
 - it is very simple with only **three types of expressions**, and **one rule for “evaluation”**
- It captures many of the core ideas of modern programming languages
- **SPARC**, is effectively an extended and typed lambda calculus



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Syntax and Semantics

- Definition (Syntax of the **Lambda Calculus**)
 - The lambda calculus consists of expressions e
 - a **variable** , such as x, y, z, \dots ,
 - a **lambda abstraction**, written as $(\lambda x. e)$, where x is a variable name and e is an expression, or
 - an **application** , written as $(e1\ e2)$, where $e1$ and $e2$ are expressions



Syntax and Semantics

- Definition (**Beta Reduction**)
 - For any application for which the left hand expression is a lambda abstraction, **beta reduction** “applies the function” by making the transformation:
 - $(\lambda x . e1) e2 \rightarrow e1[x/e2]$
 - where $e1[x/e2]$ roughly means for every (free) occurrence of x in $e1$, substitute it with $e2$



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Church-Turing Hypothesis

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- **Story**
 - In the early 30s, soon after he developed the language, Church argued that **anything that can be “effectively computed” can be computed with the lambda calculus**, and therefore it is a universal mechanism for computation
 - A few years later, Alan Turing developed **the Turing machine** and **showed its equivalence to the lambda calculus** that the concept of universality became widely accepted
- **Church-Turing hypothesis**: anything that can be computed can be computed with the lambda calculus, or equivalently the Turing machine
- **Church-Turing complete**: any computational model that is computationally equivalent to the lambda calculus



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Parallelism and Reduction Order

- the lambda calculus is inherently parallel
- Definition (Call-by-Value)
 - beta reduction is only applied to $(\lambda x . e1) e2$ if the expression $e2$ is a value, i.e., $e2$ is evaluated to a value (lambda abstraction) first, and then beta reduction is applied
- Definition (Call-by-Need)
 - beta reduction is applied to $(\lambda x . e1) e2$ even if $e2$ is not a value (it could be another application)
 - If during beta reduction $e2$ is copied into each variable x in the body, this reduction order is called call-by-name, and if $e2$ is shared, it is called call-by-need



Parallelism and Reduction Order

- **Call-by-value is an inherently parallel reduction order**
 - This is because in an expression $(e1\ e2)$ the two subexpressions can be evaluated (reduced) in parallel, and when both are fully reduced we can apply beta reduction to the results
- **call-by-need is inherently sequential**
 - In an expression $(e1\ e2)$ only the first subexpression can be evaluated and when completed we can apply beta reduction to the resulting lambda abstraction by substituting in the second expression
 - Therefore the second expression cannot be evaluated until the first is done without potentially changing which reductions are applied



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SPARC

- SPARC is a **parallel and “strict” functional language** used throughout the book for specifying algorithms
- is formed from a mixture of several languages
 - ML class of languages : SML, Caml, F#
 - Mathematical notation
 - English descriptions



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The SPARC Language: Syntax and Semantics

- How to understand?

```
1 listOfOne () =  
2 let  
3   x = 1  
4   type t = Int  
5   type list = Nil | Cons of (t * list)  
6 in  
7   Cons(x, Nil)  
8 end
```



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Syntax and Semantics

- **Syntax**
 - the structure of the program itself
 - A SPARC program is an expression
- **Semantics**
 - what the program computes
- **operational semantics**
 - how algorithms compute
- **cost semantics**
 - algorithms augmented with specific costs



Syntax Definition (SPARC expressions)

Identifier	id	$:= \dots$	
Variables	x	$:= id$	
Type Constructors	$tycon$	$:= id$	
Data Constructors	$dcon$	$:= id$	
Patterns	p	$:= x$	variable
		$ (p)$	parenthesis
		$ p_1, p_2$	pair
		$ dcon(p)$	data pattern
Types	τ	$:= \mathbb{Z}$	integers
		$ \mathbb{B}$	booleans
		$ \tau [* \tau]^+$	products
		$ \tau \rightarrow \tau$	functions
		$ tycon$	type constructors
		$ dty$	data types
Data Types	dty	$:= dcon [of \tau]$	
		$ dcon [of \tau] dty$	

Operations	op	$:= + - * - \dots$	
Bindings	b	$:= x(p) = e$	bind function
		$ p = e$	bind pattern
		$ \text{type } tycon = \tau$	bind type
		$ \text{type } tycon = dty$	bind datatype

Values	v	$:= 0 1 \dots$	integers
		$ -1 -2 \dots$	integers
		$ \text{true} \text{false}$	booleans
		$ \text{not} \dots$	unary operations
		$ \text{and} \text{plus} \dots$	binary operations
		$ v_1, v_2$	pairs
		$ (v)$	parenthesis
		$ dcon(v)$	constructed data
		$ \text{lambda } p. e$	lambda functions
Expression	e	$:= x$	variables
		$ v$	values
		$ e_1 \text{ op } e_2$	infix operations
		$ e_1, e_2$	sequential pair
		$ e_1 e_2$	parallel pair
		$ (e)$	parenthesis
		$ \text{case } e_1 [p \Rightarrow e_2]^+$	case
		$ \text{if } e_1 \text{ then } e_2 \text{ else } e_3$	conditionals
		$ e_1 e_2$	
		$ \text{let } b^+ \text{ in } e \text{ end}$	

Identifier

- In SPARC, variables, type constructors, and data constructors are given a name, or an **identifier**
 - An identifier consist of only alphabetic and numeric characters (a-z, A-Z, 0-9), the underscore character (“_”), and optionally end with some number of “primes”
 - E.g.: x' , x_1 , x_l , $myVar$, $myType$, $myData$, and my_data

<i>Identifier</i>	id	$:=$	\dots
<i>Variables</i>	x	$:=$	id
<i>Type Constructors</i>	$tycon$	$:=$	id
<i>Data Constructors</i>	$dcon$	$:=$	id



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Patterns

- variables and data constructors can be used to construct more complex **patterns** over data
 - For example, a pattern can consist of a **pair** (x, y) or a **triple of variables** (x, y, z) , or it can consist of a data constructor **Cons** (x) or **Cons** (x, y)

<i>Patterns</i>	p	$:=$	x	<i>variable</i>
			(p)	<i>parenthesization</i>
			p_1, p_2	<i>pair</i>
			$dcon(p)$	<i>data pattern</i>



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Built-in Types

- Types of SPARC include **base types** such as **integers Z**, **booleans B**, **product types** such as $\tau_1 * \tau_2 \dots \tau_n$, **function types** $\tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2$ with domain τ_1 and range τ_2 , as well as user defined data types

Types	τ	$:= \mathbb{Z}$	integers
		\mathbb{B}	booleans
		$\tau [* \tau]^+$	products
		$\tau \rightarrow \tau$	functions
		<i>tycon</i>	type constructors
		<i>dt</i>	data types



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Data Types

- In addition to built-in types, a program can define *new data types* as a union of tagged types, also called variants, by “unioning” them via distinct data constructors
 - the following data type defines a point as a two-dimensional or a three-dimensional coordinate of integers

```
type point = PointTwo of Z * Z  
           | Point3D of Z * Z * Z
```



Recursive Data Type

- In SPARC *recursive data types* are relatively easy to define and compute with
 - we can define a point list data type as follows

```
type plist = Nil | Cons of point * plist.
```

- Based on this definition the list defines a list consisting of three points

```
Cons(PointTwo(0, 0),  
     Cons(PointTwo(0, 1),  
          Cons(PointTwo(0, 2), Nil)))
```



Option Type

- *Option types* for natural numbers can be defined as follows

```
type option = None | Some of N
```

- option types for integers

```
type intOption = INone | ISome of  $\mathbb{Z}$ 
```



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Values

- The irreducible units of computation include **natural numbers, integers, Boolean values, unary primitive operations, binary operations, constant-length tuples, data constructors** applied to values

Values	v	$:= 0 \mid 1 \mid \dots$	integers
		$\mid -1 \mid -2 \mid \dots$	integers
		$\mid \text{true} \mid \text{false}$	booleans
		$\mid \text{not} \mid \dots$	unary operations
		$\mid \text{and} \mid \text{plus} \mid \dots$	binary operations
		$\mid v_1, v_2$	pairs
		$\mid (v)$	parenthesis
		$\mid dcon(v)$	constructed data
		$\mid \text{lambda } p . e$	lambda functions



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Values

- As a functional language, SPARC treats *all function as values*
 - The anonymous function *lambda p. e*
 - e is a function whose arguments are specified by the pattern p, and whose body is the expression e
- The function `lambda x. x + 1` takes a single variable as an argument and adds one to it.
- The function `lambda (x, y). x` takes a pairs as an argument and returns the first component of the pair.



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Expressions

- Expressions, denoted by *e* and *variants* (with subscript, superscript, prime), are defined inductively
- **infix expression** : *e1 op e2*
 - Op include + (plus), - (minus), * (multiply), / (divide), < (less), > (greater), **or**, and **and**
 - *f(e1,e2)*
- We use standard **precedence rules** on the operators to indicate their parsing
 - $3 + 4 * 5 = 3 + (4 * 5)$
 - all operators are left associative unless stated otherwise
 - $5 - 4 + 2$ evaluates to $(5 - 4) + 2 = 3$ not $5 - (4 + 2) = -1$



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Sequential and Parallel Composition

- two special infix operators: “,” and “||”
 - comma operator or sequential composition

- $(e1, e2)$

```
lambda (x, y). (x * x, y * y)
```

- evaluates $e1$ and $e2$ sequentially, one after the other, returns the ordered pair consisting of the two resulting values

- parallel operator or parallel

- $(e1 || e2)$

```
lambda (x, y). (x * x || y * y)
```

- evaluates $e1$ and $e2$ in parallel, at the same time, and returns the ordered pair consisting of the two resulting values

- The two operators are identical in terms of their return values

Case Expressions and Conditionals

- A **case expression** such as

```
case e1  
| Nil  $\Rightarrow$  e2  
| Cons (x, y)  $\Rightarrow$  e3
```

- **Conditionals**
 - *if-then-else expression*



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Function Application

- A **function application** , *e1 e2*,
 - applies the function generated by evaluating *e1* to the value generated by evaluating *e2*

`(lambda (x, y). x/y) (8, 2)`

`(lambda (f, x). f(x, x)) (plus, 3)`

`(lambda x. (lambda y. x + y)) 3`

= ?



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Bindings

- The *let expression*

let b^+ in e end,

- *Variable binding*

- A *function binding*, $x(p)=e$

- Each *type binding* equates a type to a base type or a data type.

```
1 let
2    $x = 2 + 3$ 
3    $f(w) = (w \times 4, w - 2)$ 
4    $(y, z) = f(x - 1)$ 
5 in
6    $x + y + z$ 
7 end
```

```
1 let
2    $f(i) = \text{if } (i < 2) \text{ then } i \text{ else } i \times f(i - 1)$ 
3 in
4    $f(5)$ 
5 end
```



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Binding

```
let
  type point = PointTwo of Z * Z
               | PointThree of Z * Z * Z
  injectThree (PointTwo (x, y)) = PointThree (x, y, 0)
  projectTwo (PointThree (x, y, z)) = PointTwo (x, y)
  compose f g = f g
  p0 = PointTwo (0, 0)
  q0 = injectThree p0
  p1 = (compose projectTwo injectThree) p0
in
  (p0, q0)
end
```

```
type tree = Leaf of Z | Node of (tree, Z, tree)
find (t, x) =
  case t
  | Leaf y  $\Rightarrow$  x = y
  | Node (left, y, right)  $\Rightarrow$ 
    if x = y then
      return true
    else if x < y then
      find (left, x)
    else
      find (right, x)
```



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Binding

- Syntactic sugar for loops, recursion and while

```
sumSquares(n) =  
  let  
    (n, s) =  
      start (n, 0) and  
      while n > 0 do  
        s = s + n2  
        n = n - 1  
      in s end
```

```
sumSquares(n) =  
  let  
    f(n, s) = if not (n > 0) then (n, s)  
              else let  
                s = s + n × n  
                n = n - 1  
              in f(n, s) end  
    (n, s) = f(n, 0)  
  in s end
```


Binding

Example 1.43. *The following is a recursive variant type defining binary trees.*

```
type tree = Leaf | Node of tree × int × tree
```

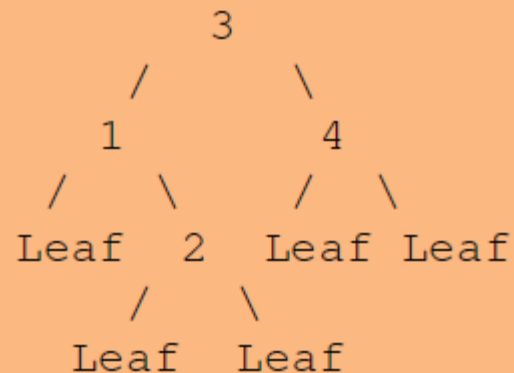
We can then create a tree using, for example

```
Node(Node(Leaf, 1, Node(Leaf, 2, Leaf)), 3, Node(Leaf, 4, Leaf))
```

How many nodes?

```
countLeaves(T) =  
  case T of  
    Leaf ⇒ 1  
  | Node of (L,R) ⇒ countLeaves(L) + countLeaves(R)
```

which corresponds to the tree:



counts the number of leaves of a tree recursively

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SYNOPSIS

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Threads

- A **thread**, short for thread of execution: a computation that executes a given piece of code.
- **multithreaded**: A program that uses multiple threads
- two operations on threads
 - The operation **spawn** takes an expression, creates a thread to execute that expression, and returns the thread
 - Once spawned the thread starts executing concurrently with other threads in the program
 - The operation **sync** takes a thread and waits until that thread completes its execution



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Threads

```
let t = spawn (lambda (). fib n)
    u = spawn (lambda (). fib 2n)
    ((), ()) = (sync t, sync u)
in () end
```

```
fib x =
  if x ≤ 1 then x
  else fib (x - 1) + fib (x - 2)
```

- Any question? has no way of communicating the result back
 - The **sync** operations ensure that the results are computed by waiting for the threads to complete

```
let (r, s) = (ref 0, ref 0)
    t = spawn (lambda (). r ← fib n)
    u = spawn (lambda (). s ← fib 2n)
    ((), ()) = (sync t, sync u)
in (!r, !s)
end
```



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Thread Scheduler

- Multithreaded programs rely on a ***thread scheduler*** or scheduler for short, to execute the spawned threads to completion
 - At a given time, **a scheduler can execute any subset of the spawned threads that are ready to execute**, i.e., they are not waiting other threads



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Concurrency and Parallelism

- **concurrency problem** if its specification involves multiple things happening at the same **item**
 - **Multithreading** is usually the technique of choice for solving concurrency
 - Using a **thread scheduler**, such multithreaded implementations can be made to work on sequential hardware, such as a computer with any number of processors



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Parallelism

- An algorithm is *parallel* if it performs multiple tasks at the same time
 - Both concurrent and non-concurrent problems typically accept parallel algorithms (solutions)
- *Concurrency* versus *Parallelism*
 - concurrency is a property of a “problem”
 - parallelism is a property of an implementation or a “solution”



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Parallel Fibonacci

- The function *fib* below computes the *xth* Fibonacci number in parallel

```
fib x dest =  
  if  $x \leq 1$  then  
    dest  $\leftarrow$  x  
  else  
    let  
      (da, db) = (ref 0, ref 0)  
      a = spawn (lambda (). fib (x - 1) da)  
      b = spawn (lambda (). fib (x - 2) db)  
      (( ), ()) = (sync a, sync b)  
    in  
      dest  $\leftarrow$  !da + !db  
  end
```

```
fib x =  
  if  $x \leq 1$  then  
    x  
  else  
    let (ra, rb) = (fib (x - 1)) || (fib (x - 2)) in  
      ra + rb  
  end.
```



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Mutable State and Race Conditions

- *Parallel* versus *Sequential Semantics*
 - We can think of any parallel SPARC program as a sequential program by replacing parallel tuples with sequential ones
 - *Sequential Elision*
 - obtained by replacing `par (or ||)` with simple sequential pairs
 - if the original parallel program is pure (purely functional), and does not use side effects, then corresponding sequential program is “*observationally equivalent*” to the parallel one



Mutable State

- a multithreaded or parallel program uses *mutable state*
 - reasoning about its correctness and efficiency can become difficult

```
let x = ref 0
  (( ), ( )) = (x ← 1) || (x ← 2)
in print x end
```

```
let x = ref 0
  (( ), ( )) = (x ← x + 1) || (x ← x + 1)
in print x end.
```



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Data race

- a data race occurs
 - multiple threads access **the same piece of data** and **at least one of the threads update or write** to the data
 - usually lead to ***non-deterministic outcome***, which is in many cases an error condition
 - ***benign*** : a data race does not impact adversely the correctness of a program



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Why Use Mutable State

- Why use mutable state at all and why not program purely functionally?
 - it is **impossible to avoid mutable state completely**
 - Even if a program is purely functional, it still has to allocate memory and write into it.
 - at some level of abstraction, we must operate on mutable state, even when it is “hidden” behind the abstraction of purely functional programming
 - Mutable state **enables implementing certain operations including purely functional ones more efficiently**
 - updating a single position in an array requires copying an array if we are not allowed to mutate it



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Races are Considered Harmful

- data races are harmful and should be avoided to the extent possible
 - have 100 threads each of which execute 10 instructions that can cause races,
 - the total number of interactions we must consider are 10^{100} more than the number of atoms in the universe



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Critical Sections and Mutual Exclusion

- a ***critical section*** is a part that cannot be executed by more than one thread at the same time
 - a critical section must be executed in mutual exclusion
 - **typically contain code that alters data shared among parallel computations, and could lead to data races if executed concurrently**

```
let
  debit bal delta =
    bal ← bal - delta
  credit bal delta =
    bal ← bal + delta
in
  (debit mybal 10) || (credit mybal 10)
end
```



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Data Races and Critical Sections

- a ***data race*** could occur: a critical section is executed concurrently
 - When a data race occurs, the outcome of the program usually depends on the relative timing of events in the execution, and varies from one execution to another
 - It can be extremely difficult to find a data race
 - parallel programs usually exhibit ample non-determinacy in their execution, due to scheduling
 - **Heisenbug**
 - A data race may lead to an observably incorrect behavior only a tiny fraction of the time, making it extremely difficult to observe and reproduce it



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Mutual Exclusion Problem

- Solving: synchronizing between the threads by using synchronization instructions
 - *Spin locks* allow a thread to “busy wait” until the critical section is “clear” of other threads
 - *Blocking locks* allow a thread to “block” and wait for another thread to exit the critical section. When the critical section is clear, then the blocked thread receives a signal, allowing it to proceed. The term mutex , short for "mutual exclusion" is sometimes used to refer to a blocking lock
 - *Atomic read-modify-write instructions* , can read and modify the contents of a memory location atomically, allowing a thread to operate safely on shared data



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Atomic Read-Modify-Write Instructions

- **Nonblocking Synchronization**
 - atomic read-modify-write instructions are called *nonblocking*
 - Nonblocking operations can be used to implement more complex concurrent *nonblocking data structures*
- ***Compare and Swap***
 - an atomic read-modify-write instruction that performs a memory read followed by a memory write atomically on a machine word
- ***Fetch and Add***
 - an atomic read-modify-write instruction that atomically updates the contents of a memory location and returns the contents (before the update)



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Summary

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