Arrows for Parallel Computations

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Abstract

Arrows are a general interface for computation and therefore form an alternative to Monads for API design. We express parallelism using this concept in a novel way: We define an Arrow-based language for parallelism and implement it using multiple parallel Haskells. In this manner we are able to bridge across various parallel Haskells.

Additionally, using these parallel Arrows (PArrows) has the benefit of being portable across multiple parallel Haskell implementations. Furthermore, as each parallel computation is an Arrow, PArrows can be readily composed and transformed as such. In order to allow for more sophisticated communication schemes between computation nodes in distributed systems we introduce the concept of Futures to wrap existing direct communication concepts in backends.

To show that PArrows have similar expressiveness to existing parallel languages, we also implement several parallel skeletons. Benchmarks show that our framework does not induce any notable overhead performance-wise. We finally conclude that Arrows turn out to be a useful tool for composing parallel programs and that our particular approach results in programs that are portable accross multiple backends. OL: Summarize conclusions

MB: Jedes Kapitel soll einmal ins Abstract. Conclusions sollen mit ins Abstract

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1 Introduction

Parallel functional languages have a long history of being used for experimenting with novel parallel programming paradigms including the expression of parallelism. Haskell, which we focus on in this paper, has several mature implementations. We regard here in-depth Glasgow parallel Haskell or short GpH (its Multicore SMP implementation, in particular), the Par Monad, and Eden, a distributed memory parallel Haskell. These languages represent orthogonal approaches. Some use a monad, even if only for the internal representation. Some introduce additional language constructs. Section 3.2 gives a short overview over these languages.

A key novelty in this paper is to use Arrows to represent parallel computations. They seem a natural fit as they are a generalization of the function arrow (\rightarrow) and serve as general interface to computations. Section 3.1 gives a short introduction to Arrows.

We provide an Arrows-based type class and implementations for the three above mentioned parallel Haskells. Instead of introducing a new low-level parallel backend in order to implement our Arrows-based interface, we define a shallow-embedded DSL for Arrows. This DSL is defined as a common interface with varying implementations in the existing parallel Haskells. Thus, we not only define a parallel programming interface in a novel manner we tame the zoo of parallel Haskells. We provide a common Phil: quantify, e.g. less than 10 % MB: we do this in the contributions section of the Introduction, enough?, very low-penalty programming interface that allows to switch the parallel backends at will. The induced penalty was max. 8.3 % in our measurements. Further backends based on HdpH or a Frege implementation (on the Java Virtual Machine) are viable, too.

Contributions We propose a new Arrow-based encoding for parallelism based on a new Arrow combinator $parEvalN :: [arr \ a \ b] \rightarrow arr [a] [b]$ in Section 4, which converts a list of Arrows into a new parallel Arrow. Because of this, we do not lose any benefits of using Arrows as the parallelism is encapsulated as another combinator instead of a different type. The resulting Arrow can be used in the same way as a potential serial version.

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This is a big advantage as we do not introduce any new types as Monad solutions like the Par Monad do. We can just 'plug' in parallel parts into sequential Arrow-based programs and libraries without having to change integral parts of the code. MB: mention Functions here? We have everything Eden has, but more.

MB: Überleitung auf Related Work hier machen

We do not reimplement all the parallel internals, as we host this functionality in the ArrowParallel type class, which abstracts all parallel implementation logic. This way, we can have multiple backends - currently a GpH, a Par Monad and an Eden version are supported. The backends can easily be swapped, so we are not bound to any specific one. So as an example, during development, we can run the program in a simple GHC-compiled variant using a GpH backend and afterwards deploy it on a cluster by converting it into an Eden program, by just replacing the ArrowParallel instance and compiling with Eden's GHC variant.

We introduce a Future type class in Section 5 to enable direct communication of data between nodes in a distributed memory setting similar to Eden's Remote Data (RD). Direct communication is useful in a distributed memory setting because they allow for inter-node communication without blocking the master-node. As the Par Monad and GpH backends (in their current form) only support shared memory execution and do not have to fix any communication problems, we only use a wrapping dummy BasicFuture.

We show that it is possible to define algorithmic skeletons with Arrows (Sections 6, 7) and finally demonstrate that Arrow Parallelism is a viable alternative to existing approaches and prove that only low overhead is introduced in Section 8, i.e. less than 1.7% in cases outside of the error bar of the measurement. MB: fix this after benchmarks are finally done.

MB: Mention Future work here?

MB: Conclusion?

2 Related Work

Parallel Haskells. Of course, the three parallel Haskell flavours we use as backends: the GpH (Trinder et al., 1996, 1998) parallel Haskell dialect and its multicore version (Marlow et al., 2009), the Par Monad (Marlow et al., 2011; Foltzer et al., 2012), and Eden (Loogen et al., 2005; Loogen, 2012) are related to this work. We use these languages as backends: our DSL can switch from one to other at user's command.

HdpH (Maier et al., 2014; Stewart et al., 2016) is an extension of Par Monad to heterogeneous clusters. LVish (Kuper et al., 2014) is a communication-centred extension of Par Monad. Further parallel Haskell approaches include pH (Nikhil & Arvind, 2001), research work done on distributed variants of GpH (Trinder et al., 1996; Aljabri et al., 2014, 2015), and low-level Eden implementation (Berthold, 2008; Berthold et al., 2016). Skeleton composition (Dieterle et al., 2016), communication (Dieterle et al., 2010a), and generation of process networks (Horstmeyer & Loogen, 2013) are recent in-focus research topics in Eden. This also includes the definitions of new skeletons (Hammond et al., 2003; Berthold & Loogen, 2006; Berthold et al., 2009b,c; Dieterle et al., 2010b; de la Encina et al., 2011; Dieterle et al., 2013; Janjic et al., 2013).

More different approaches include data parallelism (Chakravarty *et al.*, 2007; Keller *et al.*, 2010), GPU-based approaches (Mainland & Morrisett, 2010; Svensson, 2011), software transactional memory (Harris *et al.*, 2005; Perfumo *et al.*, 2008). The Haskell–GPU bridge Accelerate (Chakravarty *et al.*, 2011; Clifton-Everest *et al.*, 2014; McDonell *et al.*, 2015) deserves a special mention. Accelerate is completely orthogonal to our approach. Marlow authored a recent book in 2013 on parallel Haskells.

Algorithmic skeletons. Algorithmic skeletons were introduced by Cole (1989). Early publications on this topic include (Darlington *et al.*, 1993; Botorog & Kuchen, 1996; Danelutto *et al.*, 1997; Gorlatch, 1998; Lengauer *et al.*, 1997). Rabhi & Gorlatch (2003) consolidated early reports on high-level programming approaches. The effort is ongoing, including topological skeletons (Berthold & Loogen, 2006), special-purpose skeletons for computer algebra (Berthold *et al.*, 2009c; Lobachev, 2011, 2012; Janjic *et al.*, 2013), iteration skeletons (Dieterle *et al.*, 2013). The idea of Linton *et al.* (2010) is to use a parallel Haskell to orchestrate further software systems to run in parallel. Dieterle *et al.* (2016) compare the composition of skeletons to stable process networks.

Arrows. Arrows were introduced by Hughes (2000), basically they are a generalised function arrow \rightarrow . Hughes (2005a) presents a tutorial on Arrows. Some theoretical details on Arrows (Jacobs et al., 2009; Lindley et al., 2011; Atkey, 2011) are viable. Paterson (2001) introduced a new notation for Arrows. Arrows have applications in information flow research (Li & Zdancewic, 2006, 2010; Russo et al., 2008), invertible programming (Alimarine et al., 2005), and quantum computer simulation (Vizzotto et al., 2006). But probably most prominent application of Arrows is Arrow-based functional reactive programming, AFRP (Nilsson et al., 2002; Hudak et al., 2003; Czaplicki & Chong, 2013). Liu et al. (2009) formally define a more special kind of Arrows that capsule the computation more than regular arrows do and thus enable optimizations. Their approach would allow parallel composition, as their special Arrows would not interfere with each other in concurrent execution. In contrast, we capture a whole parallel computation as a single entity: our main instantiation function parEvalN makes a single (parallel) Arrow out of list of Arrows. Huang et al. (2007) utilise Arrows for parallelism, but strikingly different from our approach. They use Arrows to orchestrate several tasks in robotics. We, however, propose a general interface for parallel programming, while remaining completely in Haskell.

Other languages. Although this work is centered on Haskell implementation of Arrows, it is applicable to any functional programming language where parallel evaluation and Arrows can be defined. Experiments with our approach in Frege language¹ (which is basically Haskell on the JVM) were quite successful. A new approach to Haskell on the JVM is the Eta language². However, both are beyond the scope of this work.

Achten *et al.* (2004, 2007) use an Arrow implementation in Clean for better handling of typical GUI tasks. Dagand *et al.* (2009) used Arrows in OCaml in the implementation of a distributed system.

¹ GitHub project page at https://github.com/Frege/frege

² Eta project page at eta-lang.org

```
class Arrow\ arr\ where
arr:: (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow arr\ a\ b
(>>>):: arr\ a\ b \rightarrow arr\ b\ c \rightarrow arr\ a\ c
first:: arr\ a\ b \rightarrow arr\ (a,c)\ (b,c)
instance Arrow\ (\rightarrow) where
arr\ f = f
f >>> g = g \circ f
first\ f = \lambda(a,c) \rightarrow (f\ a,c)
data Kleisli\ m\ a\ b = Kleisli\ \{run:: a \rightarrow m\ b\}
instance Monad\ m \Rightarrow Arrow\ (Kleisli\ m) where
arr\ f = Kleisli\ (return \circ f)
f >>> g = Kleisli\ (\lambda a \rightarrow f\ a >= g)
first\ f = Kleisli\ (\lambda(a,c) \rightarrow f\ a >= \lambda b \rightarrow return\ (b,c))
```

Figure 1: The definition of the *Arrow* type class and its two most typical instances.

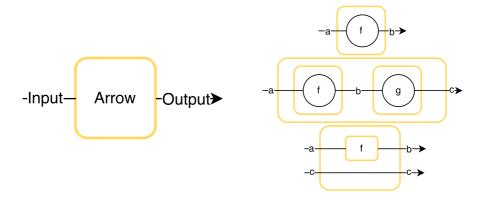


Figure 2: Schematic depiction of an Arrow (left) and its basic combinators *arr*, >>> and *first* (right).

3 Background

3.1 Arrows

Arrows were introduced by Hughes (2000) as a general interface for computation. An Arrow $arr\ a\ b$ represents a computation that converts an input a to an output b. This is defined in the Arrow type class shown in Fig. 1. To lift an ordinary function to an Arrow, arr is used, analogous to the monadic return. Similarly, the composition operator >>> is analogous to the monadic composition >>= and combines two arrows $arr\ a\ b$ and $arr\ b\ c$ by 'wiring' the outputs of the first to the inputs to the second to get a new arrow $arr\ a\ c$. Lastly, the first operator takes the input Arrow $arr\ a\ b$ and converts it into an arrow on pairs $arr\ (a,c)\ (b,c)$ that leaves the second argument untouched. It allows us to to save input across arrows.

Figure 2 shows a graphical representation of these basic Arrow combinators. The most prominent instances of this interface are regular functions (\rightarrow) and the Kleisli type (Fig. 1), which wraps monadic functions, e.g. $a \rightarrow m b$ (with m being a Monad).

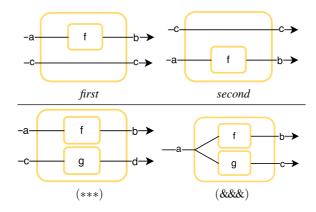


Figure 3: Visual depiction of syntactic sugar for Arrows.

Hughes also defined some syntactic sugar (Fig. 3): second, *** and &&&. second is the mirrored version of first (Appendix A). *** combines first and second to handle two inputs in one arrow, and is defined as follows:

```
(***)::Arrow arr \Rightarrow arr ab \rightarrow arr cd \rightarrow arr (a,c) (b,d)
f *** g = first f >>> second g
```

The &&& combinator, which constructs an Arrow that outputs two different values like ***, but takes only one input, is:

```
(\&\&\&) :: Arrow \ arr \Rightarrow arr \ a \ b \rightarrow arr \ a \ c \rightarrow arr \ a \ (b,c)
f \&\&\& g = arr (\lambda a \to (a, a)) >>> (f ***g)
```

A first short example given by Hughes on how to use arrows is addition with arrows:

```
add::Arrow\ arr\Rightarrow arr\ a\ Int\rightarrow arr\ a\ Int\rightarrow arr\ a\ Int
add f g = (f \&\&\& g) >>> arr (\lambda(u,v) \rightarrow u + v)
```

The more restrictive interface of Arrows allows for more elaborate composition and transformation combinators—a Monad can be anything, an Arrow is a process of doing something, a *computation*. This is exactly one of the key challenges in parallel computing.

3.2 Short introduction to parallel Haskells

In its purest form, parallel computation (on functions) can be looked at as the execution of some functions $a \to b$ in parallel or parEvalN:: $[a \to b] \to [a] \to [b]$, as also Figure 4 symbolically shows.

In this section, we will implement this non-Arrow version which will later be adapted for usage in our Arrow-based parallel Haskell.



Figure 4: Schematic illustration of *parEvalN*. A list of inputs is transformed by different functions in parallel.

There exist several parallel Haskells already. Among the most important are probably GpH (based on *par* & *pseq* 'hints') (Trinder *et al.*, 1996, 1998), the *Par* Monad (a monad for deterministic parallelism) (Marlow *et al.*, 2011; Foltzer *et al.*, 2012), Eden (a parallel Haskell for distributed memory) (Loogen *et al.*, 2005; Loogen, 2012), HdpH (a Template Haskell based parallel Haskell for distributed memory) (Maier *et al.*, 2014; Stewart *et al.*, 2016) and LVish (a *Par* extension with focus on communication) (Kuper *et al.*, 2014).

As the goal of this paper is not to reimplement yet another parallel runtime, but to represent parallelism with Arrows, we base our efforts on existing work which we wrap as backends behind a common interface. For this paper we chose GpH for its simplicity, the *Par* Monad to represent a monadic DSL, and Eden as a distributed parallel Haskell.

LVish and HdpH were not chosen as the former does not differ from the original *Par* Monad with regard to how we would have used it in this paper, while the latter (at least in its current form) does not comply with our representation of parallelism due to its heavy reliance on TemplateHaskell.

We will now go into some detail on GpH, the *Par* Monad and Eden, and also give their respective implementations of the non-Arrow version of *parEvalN*.

3.2.1 Glasgow parallel Haskell – GpH

GpH (Marlow *et al.*, 2009; Trinder *et al.*, 1998) is one of the simplest ways to do parallel processing found in standard GHC.³ Besides some basic primitives (*par & pseq* hints), it ships with parallel evaluation strategies for several types which can be applied with $using :: a \rightarrow Strategy \ a \rightarrow a$, which is exactly what is required for an implementation of parEvalN.

```
parEvalN :: (NFData\ b) \Rightarrow [a \rightarrow b] \rightarrow [a] \rightarrow [b]

parEvalN\ fs\ as = \mathbf{let}\ bs = zipWith\ (\$)\ fs\ as

\mathbf{in}\ bs\ `using\ `parList\ rdeepseq
```

In the above definition of parEvalN we just apply the list of functions $[a \rightarrow b]$ to the list of inputs [a] by zipping them with the application operator \$. We then evaluate this lazy list [b] according to a Strategy[b] with the $using::a \rightarrow Strategy[a \rightarrow a]$ operator. We construct this strategy with $parList::Strategy[a] \rightarrow Strategy[a]$ and $rdeepseq::NFData[a] \rightarrow Strategy[a]$ where the latter is a strategy which evaluates to normal form. Fig. 5 shows a visual representation of this code.

³ The Multicore implementation of GpH is available on Hackage under https://hackage.haskell.org/package/parallel-3.2.1.0, compiler support is integrated in the stock GHC.

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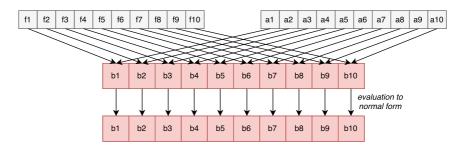


Figure 5: Data flow of the GpH parEvalN version.

3.2.2 Par Monad

The *Par* Monad⁴ introduced by Marlow *et al.* (2011), is a Monad designed for composition of parallel programs. Let:

```
parEvalN :: (NFData\ b) \Rightarrow [a \rightarrow b] \rightarrow [a] \rightarrow [b]

parEvalN\ fs\ as = runPar\ 

(sequenceA\ map\ (spawnP)\ \ zipWith\ (\$)\ fs\ as) > mapM\ get
```

The Par Monad version of our parallel evaluation function parEvalN is defined by zipping the list of $[a \rightarrow b]$ with the list of inputs [a] with the application operator \$ just like with GpH. Then, we map over this not yet evaluated lazy list of results [b] with $spawnP::NFData\ a\Rightarrow a\rightarrow Par\ (IVar\ a)$ to transform them to a list of not yet evaluated forked away computations $[Par\ (IVar\ b)]$, which we convert to $Par\ [IVar\ b]$ with sequenceA. We wait for the computations to finish by mapping over the $IVar\ b$ values inside the Par Monad with get. This results in $Par\ [b]$. We execute this process with runPar to finally get [b]. Fig. 6 shows a graphical representation.

3.2.3 Eden

Eden (Loogen *et al.*, 2005; Loogen, 2012) is a parallel Haskell for distributed memory and comes with a MPI and a PVM backends.⁵ It is targeted towards clusters, but also functions well in a shared-memory setting with a further simple backend. However, in contrast to many other parallel Haskells, in Eden each process has its own heap. This seems to be a waste of memory, but with distributed programming paradigm and individual GC per process, Eden yields good performance results on multicores, as well (Berthold *et al.*, 2009a; Aswad *et al.*, 2009).

While Eden comes with a Monad *PA* for parallel evaluation, it also ships with a completely functional interface that includes a spawnF:: $(Trans\ a, Trans\ b) \Rightarrow [a \rightarrow b] \rightarrow [a] \rightarrow [b]$ function that allows us to define parEvalN directly:

⁴ The *Par* monad can be found in the monad-par package on Hackage under https://hackage.haskell.org/package/monad-par-0.3.4.8/.

⁵ The projects homepage can be found at http://www.mathematik.uni-marburg.de/~eden/. The Hackage page is at https://hackage.haskell.org/package/edenmodules-1.2.0.0/.

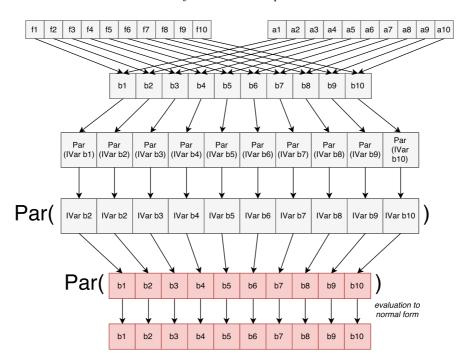


Figure 6: Data flow of the *Par Monad parEvalN* version.

$$parEvalN :: (Trans\ a, Trans\ b) \Rightarrow [a \rightarrow b] \rightarrow [a] \rightarrow [b]$$

 $parEvalN = spawnF$

Eden TraceViewer. To comprehend the efficiency and the lack thereof in a parallel program, an inspection of its execution is extremely helpful. While some large-scale solutions exist (Geimer *et al.*, 2010), the parallel Haskell community mainly utilises the tools Threadscope (Wheeler & Thain, 2009) and Eden TraceViewer⁶ (Berthold & Loogen, 2007). In the next sections we will present some *trace visualizations*, the post-mortem process diagrams of Eden processes and their activity.

The trace visualizations are color-coded. In such a visualization (Fig. 13), the *x* axis shows the time, the *y* axis enumerates the machines and processes. The visualization shows a running process in green, a blocked process is red. If the process is 'runnable', i.e. it may run, but does not, it is yellow. The typical reason for this is GC. An inactive machine, where no processes are started yet, or all are already terminated, shows as a blue bar. A communication from one process to another is represented with a black arrow. A stream of communications, e.g. a transmitted list is shows as a dark shading between sender and receiver processes.

⁶ See http://hackage.haskell.org/package/edentv on Hackage for the last available version of Eden TraceViewer.

4 Parallel Arrows

Arrows are a general interface to computation. Here we introduce special Arrows as general interface to parallel computations. First, we present the interface and explain the reasonings behind it. Then, we discuss some implementations using existing parallel Haskells. Finally, we explain why using Arrows for expressing parallelism is beneficial.

4.1 The ArrowParallel type class

A parallel computation (on functions) in its purest form can be seen as execution of some functions $a \to b$ in parallel, as our *parEvalN* prototype shows (Sec. 3.2). Translating this into arrow terms gives us a new operator parEvalN that lifts a list of arrows [arr a b] to a parallel arrow arr[a][b]. This combinator is similar to our utility function listApp from Appendix A, but does parallel instead of serial evaluation.

```
parEvalN :: (Arrow \ arr) \Rightarrow [arr \ a \ b] \rightarrow arr \ [a] \ [b]
```

With this definition of parEvalN, parallel execution is yet another arrow combinator. But as the implementation may differ depending on the actual type of the arrow arr and we want this to be an interface for different backends, we introduce a new type class ArrowParallel arr a b:

```
class Arrow \ arr \Rightarrow Arrow Parallel \ arr \ a \ b where
   parEvalN :: [arr \ a \ b] \rightarrow arr [a] [b]
```

Sometimes parallel Haskells require or allow for additional configuration parameters, e.g. an information about the execution environment or the level of evaluation (weak head normal form vs. normal form). For this reason we also introduce an additional *conf* parameter to the function. We also do not want *conf* to be a fixed type, as the configuration parameters can differ for different instances of ArrowParallel.

```
class Arrow arr \Rightarrow ArrowParallel arr a b conf where
   parEvalN :: conf \rightarrow [arr \ a \ b] \rightarrow arr \ [a] \ [b]
```

We do not require the *conf* parameter in every implementation. If it is not needed, we usually just default the *conf* type parameter to () and even blank it out in the parameter list of the implemented parEvalN.

4.2 ArrowParallel instances

4.2.1 Glasgow parallel Haskell

The GpH implementation of ArrowParallel is implemented in a straightforward manner by using listApp (Appendix A) combined with the withStrategy::Strategy $a \rightarrow a \rightarrow a$ combinators from GpH, where with Strategy is the same as using :: $a \to Strategy \ a \to a$, but with flipped parameters. For most cases a fully evaluating version like in Fig. 7 would probably suffice, but as the GpH interface allows the user to specify the level of evaluation to be done via the Strategy interface, our DSL should allow for this. We therefore introduce the Conf a data-type that simply wraps a Strategy a. With this definition in place, we can provide a delegating version of the non-configurable instance. We show this in Fig. B 1.

10

```
 \begin{array}{l} \textbf{data } \textit{Conf } a = \textit{Conf } (\textit{Strategy } a) \\ \textbf{instance } (\textit{NFData } b, \textit{ArrowApply } \textit{arr}, \textit{ArrowChoice } \textit{arr}) \Rightarrow \textit{ArrowParallel } \textit{arr } a \ b \ () \ \textbf{where} \\ \textit{parEvalN } \_\textit{fs} = \\ \textit{listApp } \textit{fs} >>> \\ \textit{arr } (\textit{withStrategy } (\textit{parList } \textit{rdeepseq})) \\ \end{array}
```

Figure 7: Fully evaluating ArrowParallel instance for the GpH Haskell backend.

```
instance (NFData b,ArrowApply arr,ArrowChoice arr) ⇒
ArrowParallel arr a b (Conf b) where
parEvalN (Conf strat) fs =
  listApp fs >>>
  arr (withStrategy (parList strat)) &&& arr id >>>
  arr (uncurry pseq)
```

Figure 8: Configurable ArrowParallel instance for the GpH Haskell backend.

```
4.2.2 Par Monad
```

OL: introduce a newcommand for par-monad, "arrows", "parrows" and replace all mentions to them to ensure uniform typesetting done!, we write Arrows. also "Monad"? done! The Par Monad implementation (Fig. 9) makes use of Haskells laziness and Par Monad's $spawnP :: NFData \ a \Rightarrow a \rightarrow Par \ (IVar \ a)$ function. The latter forks away the computation of a value and returns an IVar containing the result in the Par Monad.

We therefore apply each function to its corresponding input value with and then fork the computation away with $arr \, spawnP$ inside a zipWithArr (Fig. A 3) call. This yields a list $[Par \, (IVar \, b)]$, which we then convert into $Par \, [IVar \, b]$ with $arr \, sequenceA$. In order to wait for the computation to finish, we map over the IVars inside the $Par \, Monad$ with $arr \, (>=mapM \, get)$. The result of this operation is a $Par \, [b]$ from which we can finally remove the Monad again by running $arr \, runPar$ to get our output of [b].

```
instance (NFData b,ArrowApply arr,ArrowChoice arr) \Rightarrow ArrowParallel arr a b conf where parEvalN _fs = (arr $\lambda as \rightarrow (fs,as)) >>> zipWithArr (app >>> arr spawnP) >>> arr sequenceA >>> arr (>>= mapM get) >>> arr runPar
```

Figure 9: ArrowParallel instance for the Par Monad backend.

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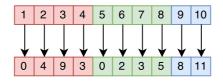


Figure 10: Schematic depiction of parEvalNLazy.

4.2.3 Eden

For both the GpH Haskell and *Par* Monad implementations we could use general instances of *ArrowParallel* that just require the *ArrowApply* and *ArrowChoice* type classes. With Eden this is not the case as we can only spawn a list of functions and we cannot extract simple functions out of arrows. While we could still manage to have only one class in the module by introducing a type class:

```
class (Arrow arr) \Rightarrow ArrowUnwrap arr where <math>arr \ a \ b \rightarrow (a \rightarrow b)
```

However, we avoid doing so for aesthetic reasons. For now, we just implement *ArrowParallel* for normal functions:

```
instance (Trans a, Trans b) \Rightarrow ArrowParallel (\rightarrow) a b conf where parEvalN _fs as = spawnF fs as and the Kleisli type:
```

```
instance (Monad m, Trans a, Trans b, Trans (m b)) \Rightarrow ArrowParallel (Kleisli m) a b conf where parEvalN conf fs = (arr $parEvalN conf (map (\lambda(Kleislif) \rightarrow f) fs)) >>> (Kleisli $ sequence)
```

4.3 Extending the Interface

With the *ArrowParallel* type class in place and implemented, we can now implement some further basic parallel interface functions. These are algorithmic skeletons that, however, mostly serve as a foundation to further, more specific algorithmic skeletons.

4.3.1 Lazy parEvalN

The function parEvalN is 100% strict, which means that it fully evaluates all passed arrows. Sometimes this might not be feasible, as it will not work on infinite lists of functions like e.g. $map\ (arr\circ(+))\ [1\mathinner{.\,.}]$ or just because we need the arrows evaluated in chunks. parEvalNLazy (Figs. 10, 11) fixes this. It works by first chunking the input from [a] to [[a]] with the given ChunkSize in $arr\ (chunksOf\ chunkSize)$. These chunks are then fed into a list $[arr\ [a]\ [b]]$ of parallel arrows created by feeding chunks of the passed ChunkSize into the regular parEvalN by using listApp. The resulting [[b]] is lastly converted into [b] with $arr\ concat$.

```
parEvalNLazy :: (ArrowParallel \ arr \ a \ b \ conf \ , ArrowChoice \ arr \ , ArrowApply \ arr) \Rightarrow \\ conf \rightarrow ChunkSize \rightarrow [arr \ a \ b] \rightarrow (arr \ [a] \ [b]) \\ parEvalNLazy \ conf \ chunkSize \ fs = \\ arr \ (chunksOf \ chunkSize) >>> \\ listApp \ fchunks >>> \\ arr \ concat \\ \textbf{where} \ fchunks = map \ (parEvalN \ conf) \ \ chunkSof \ chunkSize \ fs
```

Figure 11: Definition of parEvalNLazy.



Figure 12: Schematic depiction of parEval2.

4.3.2 Heterogeneous tasks

We have only talked about the parallelization arrows of the same type until now. But sometimes we want to parallelize heterogeneous types as well. However, we can implement such a parEval2 combinator (Figs. 12, B 12) which combines two arrows $arr\ a\ b$ and $arr\ c\ d$ into a new parallel arrow $arr\ (a,c)\ (b,d)$ quite easily with the help of the ArrowChoice type class. The idea is to use the +++ combinator which combines two arrows $arr\ a\ b$ and $arr\ c\ d$ and transforms them into $arr\ (Either\ a\ c)\ (Either\ b\ d)$ to get a common arrow type that we can then feed into parEvalN.

5 Futures

Consider a mock-up parallel arrow combinator:

```
someCombinator :: (Arrow \ arr) \Rightarrow [arr \ a \ b] \rightarrow [arr \ b \ c] \rightarrow arr \ [a] \ [c]
someCombinator \ fs1 \ fs2 = parEvalN \ () \ fs1 >>> rightRotate >>>> parEvalN \ () \ fs2
```

In a distributed environment, a resulting arrow of this combinator first evaluates all $[arr\ a\ b]$ in parallel, sends the results back to the master node, rotates the input once and then evaluates the $[arr\ b\ c]$ in parallel to then gather the input once again on the master node. Such situations arise, e.g. in scientific computations when the data distributed across the nodes needs to be transposed. A concrete example is 2D FFT computation (Gorlatch & Bischof, 1998; Berthold $et\ al.$, 2009c).

While the above example could be rewritten into only one *parEvalN* call by directly wiring the arrows together before spawning, it illustrates an important problem. When using a *ArrowParallel* backend that resides on multiple computers, all communication between the nodes is done via the master node, as shown in the Eden trace in Figure 13. This can become a serious bottleneck for larger amount of data and number of processes (as e.g. Berthold *et al.*, 2009c, showcases).

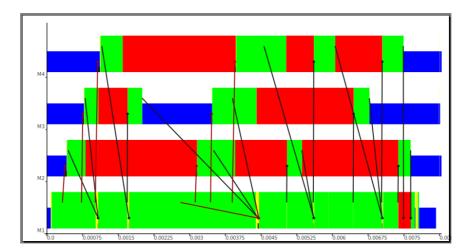


Figure 13: Communication between 4 Eden processes without Futures. All communication goes through the master node. Each bar represents one process. Black lines between processes represent communication. Colors: blue $\hat{=}$ idle, green $\hat{=}$ running, red $\hat{=}$ blocked, yellow $\hat{=}$ suspended.

OL: more practical and heavy-weight example! fft (I have the code)?

MB: Depends... Are the communications easy to read in such an example?

MB: Keep the description for the different colours, or link to the EdenTV description in 3.2.3

OL: ok as is OL: use the fft example (when it works)?

This is in fact only a problem in distributed memory (in the scope of this paper) and we should allow nodes to communicate directly with each other. Eden already ships with 'remote data' that enable this (Alt & Gorlatch, 2003; Dieterle *et al.*, 2010a). But as we want code with our DSL to be implementation agnostic, we have to wrap this context. We do this with the *Future* type class (Fig. 14). Since *RD* is only a type synonym for a communication

```
class Future fut a \mid a \rightarrow fut where

put :: (Arrow \ arr) \Rightarrow arr \ a \ (fut \ a)

get :: (Arrow \ arr) \Rightarrow arr \ (fut \ a) \ a
```

Figure 14: Definition of the Future type class.

type that Eden uses internally, we have to use some wrapper classes to fit that definition, though, as Fig. B 6 shows. Technical details are in Appendix, in Section B.

For the *Par* Monad and GpH Haskell backends, we can simply use *BasicFutures* (Fig. 15), which are just simple wrappers around the actual data with boiler-plate logic so that the type class is satisfied. This is because the concept of a *Future* does not change anything for shared-memory execution as there are no communication problems to fix. Nevertheless, we require a common interface so the parallel Arrows are portable across backends.

In our communication example we can use this *Future* concept for direct communication between nodes as shown in Fig. 16. In a distributed environment, this gives us a communication scheme with messages going through the master node only if it is needed – similar to

Arrows for Parallel Computations

```
data BasicFuture\ a = BF\ a

instance (NFData\ a) \Rightarrow NFData\ (BasicFuture\ a) where

rnf\ (BF\ a) = rnf\ a

instance (NFData\ a) \Rightarrow Future\ BasicFuture\ a where

put = arr\ BF

get = arr\ (\lambda(BF\ a) \rightarrow a)
```

Figure 15: The *BasicFuture* type and its *Future* instance for the *Par* Monad and GpH Haskell backends.

```
someCombinator :: (Arrow \ arr) \Rightarrow [arr \ a \ b] \rightarrow [arr \ b \ c] \rightarrow arr \ [a] \ [c] \\ someCombinator \ fs1 \ fs2 = \\ parEvalN \ () \ (map \ (>>>put) \ fs1) >>> \\ rightRotate >>> \\ parEvalN \ () \ (map \ (get>>>>) \ fs2)
```

Figure 16: The mock-up combinator in parallel.

what is shown in the trace visualization in Fig. 17. OL: Fig. is not really clear. Do Figs with a lot of load? — fft?

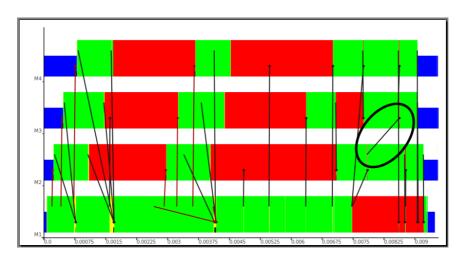


Figure 17: Communication between 4 Eden processes with Futures. Other than in Fig. 13, processes communicate directly (black lines between the bars, one example message is marked in the Figure) instead of always going through the master node (bottom bar).

6 Map-based Skeletons

Now we have developed Parallel Arrows far enough to define some useful algorithmic skeletons that abstract typical parallel computations.

Parallel *map* **and laziness.** The *parMap* skeleton (Figs. B 2, B 3) is probably the most common skeleton for parallel programs. We can implement it with *ArrowParallel* by repeating an arrow *arr a b* and then passing it into *parEvalN* to obtain an arrow *arr* [*a*] [*b*]. Just like *parEvalN*, *parMap* is 100% strict. As *parMap* is 100% strict it has the same restrictions as *parEvalN* compared to *parEvalNLazy*. So it makes sense to also have a *parMapStream* (Figs. B 4, B 5) which behaves like *parMap*, but uses *parEvalNLazy* instead of *parEvalN*. The code is quite straightforward, we show it in Appendix.

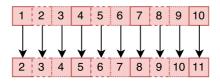


Figure 18: Schematic depiction of a farm, a statically load-balanced parMap.

```
\begin{array}{l} \textit{farm} :: (ArrowParallel\ arr\ a\ b\ conf\ , \\ ArrowParallel\ arr\ [a]\ [b]\ conf\ , ArrowChoice\ arr) \Rightarrow \\ conf \to NumCores \to arr\ a\ b \to arr\ [a]\ [b] \\ \textit{farm\ conf\ numCores\ } f = \\ \textit{unshuffle\ numCores\ } >>> \\ \textit{parEvalN\ conf\ (repeat\ (mapArr\ f\ ))} >>> \\ \textit{shuffle} \end{array}
```

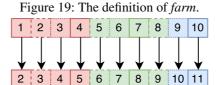


Figure 20: Schematic depiction of *farmChunk*.

Statically load-balancing parallel *map.* Our *parMap* spawns every single computation in a new thread (at least for the instances of *ArrowParallel* we gave in this paper). This can be quite wasteful and a statically load-balancing *farm* (Figs. 18, 19) that equally distributes the workload over *numCores* workers seems useful. The definitions of the helper functions *unshuffle*, *takeEach*, *shuffle* (Fig. B 7) originate from an Eden skeleton⁷.

Since a *farm* is basically just *parMap* with a different work distribution, it is, again, 100% strict. So we can define *farmChunk* (Figs. 20, B 10) which uses *parEvalNLazy* instead of *parEvalN*. It is basically the same definition as for *farm*, with *parEvalN* replaced with *parEvalNLazy*.

Available on Hackage under https://hackage.haskell.org/package/edenskel-2.1.0.0/docs/src/Control-Parallel-Eden-Map.html.

7 Topological Skeletons

Even though many algorithms can be expressed by parallel maps, some problems require more sophisticated skeletons. The Eden library leverages this problem and already comes with more predefined skeletons⁸, among them a *pipe*, a *ring*, and a *torus* implementations (Loogen *et al.*, 2003). These seem like reasonable candidates to be ported to our Arrowbased parallel Haskell. We aim to showcase that we can express more sophisticated skeletons with Parallel Arrows as well.

If we used the original definition of *parEvalN*, however, these skeletons would produce an infinite loop with the GpH and Par Monad backends which during runtime would result in the program crashing. This materializes with the usage of *loop* of the *ArrowLoop* type class and is probably due to the way their respective parallelism engines work internally. **MB: okay so?** As these skeletons probably do not make any practical sense besides for testing with these backends anyways (because of the shared memory between the threads), we create an extra abstraction layer for the original *parEvalN* in these skeletons called *evalN* in the *FutureEval* type class. This allows us for selective enabling and disabling of parallelism.

```
class ArrowParallel arr a b conf \Rightarrow FutureEval arr a b conf where evalN :: (ArrowParallel \ arr \ a \ b \ conf) \Rightarrow conf \rightarrow [arr \ a \ b] \rightarrow arr \ [a] \ [b]
```

As Eden has no problems with the looping skeletons, we declare a delegating instance:

```
instance ArrowParallel arr a b conf \Rightarrow FutureEval arr a b conf where evalN = parEvalN
```

The Par Monad and GpH backends have parallelism disabled in their instance of *FutureEval*. This way the skeletons can still run without errors on shared-memory machines and still be used to test programs locally.

```
instance (Arrow arr, ArrowChoice arr, ArrowApply arr,
ArrowParallel arr a b conf) \Rightarrow FutureEval arr a b conf where
evalN _ = listApp
```

7.1 Parallel pipe

The parallel *pipe* skeleton is semantically equivalent to folding over a list $[arr\ a\ a]$ of arrows with >>>>, but does this in parallel, meaning that the arrows do not have to reside on the same thread/machine. We implement this skeleton using the ArrowLoop type class which gives us the $loop: arr\ (a,b)\ (c,b) \to arr\ a\ c$ combinator which allows us to express recursive fix-point computations in which output values are fed back as input. For example

```
loop (arr (\lambda(a,b) \rightarrow (b,a:b)))
```

which is the same as

⁸ Available on Hackage: https://hackage.haskell.org/package/edenskel-2.1.0.0/docs/Control-Parallel-Eden-Topology.html.

```
pipeSimple :: (ArrowLoop arr, FutureEval arr \ a \ a \ conf) \Rightarrow
  conf \rightarrow [arr\ a\ a] \rightarrow arr\ a\ a
pipeSimple conf fs =
  loop (arr snd &&&
      (arr (uncurry (:) >>> lazy) >>> evalN conf fs)) >>>
```

Figure 21: A first implementation of the *pipe* skeleton expressed with Parallel Arrows. Note that the use of lazy (Fig. B 8) is essential as without it programs using this definition would never halt. We need to enforce that the evaluation of the input [a] terminates before passing it into evalN.

```
pipe :: (ArrowLoop\ arr, FutureEval\ arr\ (fut\ a)\ (fut\ a)\ conf\ , Future\ fut\ a) \Rightarrow
   conf \rightarrow [arr\ a\ a] \rightarrow arr\ a\ a
pipe conf fs = unliftFut (pipeSimple conf (map liftFut fs))
```

Figure 22: Final definition of the *pipe* skeleton with Futures.

```
loop (arr snd &&& arr (uncurry (:)))
```

defines an arrow that takes its input a and converts it into an infinite stream [a] of it. Using this to our advantage gives us a first draft of a pipe implementation (Fig. 21) by plugging in the parallel evaluation call evalN conf fs inside the second argument of &&& and then only picking the first element of the resulting list with arr last.

However, using this definition directly will make the master node a potential bottleneck in distributed environments as described in Section ??. Therefore, we introduce a more sophisticated version that internally uses Futures and obtain the final definition of pipe in Fig. 22.

Sometimes, this *pipe* definition can be a bit inconvenient, especially if we want to pipe arrows of mixed types together, i.e. arr a b and arr b c. By wrapping these two arrows inside a common type we obtain *pipe2* (Fig. 23).

Note that extensive use of pipe2 over pipe with a hand-written combination data type will probably result in worse performance because of more communication overhead from the many calls to parEvalN inside of evalN. Nonetheless, we can define a version of parallel piping operator | >>> |, which is semantically equivalent to >>> similarly to other parallel syntactic sugar from Appendix C.

Another version of >>> is:

```
f > > | g = (f \circ put) > > (get \circ g)
```

It does not launch both arrows f and g in parallel, but allows for more smooth data communication between them. Basically, it is a Future-lifted sequential >>>, a way to compose parallel Arrows efficiently.

```
\begin{array}{l} \textit{pipe2} :: (ArrowLoop\ arr, ArrowChoice\ arr, Future\ fut\ (([a],[b]),[c]), \\ \textit{FutureEval}\ arr\ (fut\ (([a],[b]),[c]))\ (fut\ (([a],[b]),[c]))\ conf) \Rightarrow \\ \textit{conf} \rightarrow \textit{arr}\ a\ b \rightarrow \textit{arr}\ b\ c \rightarrow \textit{arr}\ a\ c \\ \textit{pipe2}\ \textit{conf}\ f\ g = \\ (\textit{arr\ return}\ \&\&\&\ arr\ (\textit{const}\ []))\ \&\&\&\ arr\ (\textit{const}\ []) >>> \\ \textit{pipe}\ \textit{conf}\ (\textit{replicate}\ 2\ (\textit{unify}\ f\ g)) >>> \\ \textit{arr\ snd} >>> \textit{arr\ head}\ \textbf{where} \\ \textit{unify} :: (\textit{ArrowChoice}\ \textit{arr}) \Rightarrow \textit{arr\ a}\ b \rightarrow \textit{arr\ b}\ c \rightarrow \textit{arr}\ (([a],[b]),[c])\ (([a],[b]),[c]) \\ \textit{unify}\ f\ g = \\ (\textit{mapArr\ f}\ ***\textit{mapArr\ g}) ***\textit{arr\ } (\searrow \rightarrow []) >>> \\ \textit{arr\ } (\lambda((a,b),c) \rightarrow ((c,a),b)) \\ (|>>>|) :: (\textit{ArrowLoop}\ \textit{arr\ ArrowChoice}\ \textit{arr\ Future}\ \textit{fut}\ (([a],[b]),[c]), \\ \textit{FutureEval}\ \textit{arr\ } (\textit{fut}\ (([a],[b]),[c]))\ (\textit{fut}\ (([a],[b]),[c]))\ ()) \Rightarrow \\ \textit{arr\ } a\ b \rightarrow \textit{arr\ } b\ c \rightarrow \textit{arr\ } a\ c \\ (|>>>|) = \textit{pipe2}\ () \\ \end{array}
```

Figure 23: Definition of *pipe2* and a parallel >>>.

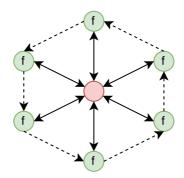


Figure 24: Schematic depiction of the ring skeleton.

7.2 Ring skeleton

Eden comes with a ring skeleton⁹ (Fig. 24) implementation that allows the computation of a function $[i] \rightarrow [o]$ with a ring of nodes that communicate in a ring topology with each other. Its input is a node function $i \rightarrow r \rightarrow (o,r)$ in which r serves as the intermediary output that gets send to the neighbour of each node. This data is sent over direct communication channels, the so called 'remote data'. We depict it in Appendix, Fig. B 11.

We can rewrite this functionality easily with the use of *loop* as the definition of the node function, arr(i,r)(o,r), after being transformed into an arrow, already fits quite neatly into the *loop*'s $arr(a,b)(c,b) \rightarrow arr\ a\ c$. In each iteration we start by rotating the intermediary input from the nodes $[fut\ r]$ with $second\ (rightRotate >>> lazy)$ (Fig. B 8). Similarly to the pipe from Section 7.1 (Fig. 21), we have to feed the intermediary input into our lazy

⁹ Available on Hackage: https://hackage.haskell.org/package/edenskel-2.1.0.0/docs/Control-Parallel-Eden-Topology.html

```
ring :: (ArrowLoop\ arr, Future\ fut\ r, FutureEval\ arr\ (i, fut\ r)\ (o, fut\ r)\ conf) \Rightarrow
  conf \rightarrow arr(i,r)(o,r) \rightarrow arr[i][o]
ring conf f =
  loop (second (rightRotate >>> lazy) >>> arr (uncurry zip) >>>
  evalN conf (repeat (second get >>> f >>> second put)) >>> arr unzip)
```

Figure 25: Final definition of the ring skeleton.

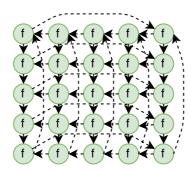


Figure 26: Schematic depiction of the *torus* skeleton.

(Fig. B 8) arrow here, or the evaluation would fail to terminate. The reasoning is explained by Loogen (2012) as a demand problem.

Next, we zip the resulting ([i], [fut r]) to [(i, fut r)] with arr (uncurry zip) so we can feed that into a our input arrow arr(i,r)(o,r), which we transform into arr(i,fut r)(o,fut r)before lifting it to arr[(i, fut r)][(o, fut r)] to get a list [(o, fut r)]. Finally we unzip this list into $([o], [fut \ r])$. Plugging this arrow $arr([i], [fut \ r])([o], fut \ r)$ into the definition of loop from earlier gives us arr[i][o], our ring arrow (Fig. 25). This combinator can, for example, be used to calculate the shortest paths in a graph using Warshall's algorithm.

7.3 Torus skeleton

If we take the concept of a ring from Section 7.2 one dimension further, we obtain a torus skeleton (Fig. 26, 27). Every node sends and receives data from horizontal and vertical neighbours in each communication round. With our Parallel Arrows we re-implement the torus combinator¹⁰ from Eden—yet again with the help of the ArrowLoop type class.

Similar to the ring, we once again start by rotating the input (Fig. B 8), but this time not only in one direction, but in two. This means that the intermediary input from the neighbour nodes has to be stored in a tuple ($[[fut \, a]], [[fut \, b]]$) in the second argument (loop only allows for two arguments) of our looped arrow arr([[c]],([[fut a]],[[fut b]]))([[d]],([[fut a]],[[fut b]]))and our rotation arrow becomes

```
second ((mapArr rightRotate >>> lazy) *** (arr rightRotate >>> lazy))
```

Available on Hackage: https://hackage.haskell.org/package/edenskel-2.1.0.0/ docs/Control-Parallel-Eden-Topology.html.

```
torus:: (ArrowLoop\ arr, ArrowChoice\ arr, ArrowApply\ arr, Future\ fut\ a, Future\ fut\ b,
FutureEval\ arr\ (c,fut\ a,fut\ b)\ (d,fut\ a,fut\ b)\ conf)\Rightarrow
conf\rightarrow arr\ (c,a,b)\ (d,a,b)\rightarrow arr\ [[c]]\ [[d]]
torus\ conf\ f=
loop\ (second\ ((mapArr\ rightRotate>>> lazy)***(arr\ rightRotate>>> lazy))>>>
arr\ (uncurry3\ (zipWith3\ lazyzip3))>>>
(arr\ length>>> arr\ unshuffle)\ \&\&\&\ (shuffle>>> evalN\ conf\ (repeat\ (ptorus\ f))>>> app>>>>
arr\ (map\ unzip3)>>> arr\ unzip3>>> threetotwo)
ptorus:: (Arrow\ arr, Future\ fut\ a, Future\ fut\ b)\Rightarrow
arr\ (c,a,b)\ (d,a,b)\rightarrow arr\ (c,fut\ a,fut\ b)\ (d,fut\ a,fut\ b)
ptorus\ f=arr\ (\lambda\sim(c,a,b)\rightarrow(c,get\ a,get\ b))>>> f>>> arr\ (\lambda\sim(d,a,b)\rightarrow(d,put\ a,put\ b))
```

Figure 27: Definition of the *torus* skeleton. The definitions of *lazyzip3*, *uncurry3* and *threetotwo* have been omitted and can be found in Fig. B 9

instead of the singular rotation in the ring as we rotate $[[fut\ a]]$ horizontally and $[[fut\ b]]$ vertically. Then, we once again zip the inputs for the input arrow with

```
arr (uncurry3 zipWith3 lazyzip3)
```

from ([[c]], ([[fut a]], [[fut b]])) to [[(c, fut a, fut b)]], which we then feed into our parallel execution.

This action is, however, more complicated than in the ring case as we have one more dimension of inputs that needs to be transformed. In order to achieve that, we first have to *shuffle* all the inputs to then pass it into *evalN conf* (*repeat* (*ptorus f*)) which yields $[(d,fut\ a,fut\ b)]$. We can then unpack this shuffled list back to its original ordering by feeding it into the specific unshuffle arrow we created one step earlier with $arr\ length >>> arr\ unshuffle$ with the use of $app::arr\ (arr\ a\ b,a)\ c$ from the ArrowApply type class. Finally, we unpack this matrix $[[[(d,fut\ a,fut\ b)]]$ with $arr\ (map\ unzip3) >>> arr\ unzip3 >>> threetotwo\ to\ get\ ([[d]],([fut\ a]],[[fut\ b]])).$

As an example of using this skeleton Loogen *et al.* (2003) showed the matrix multiplication using the Gentleman algorithm (1978). An adapted version can be found in Fig. 28. If we compare the trace from a call using our arrow definition of the torus (Fig. 29) with the Eden version (Fig. 30) we can see that the behaviour of the arrow version and execution times are comparable. We discuss further examples on larger clusters and in a more detail in the next section.

8 Performance results

In the following section, we describe the benchmarks of our parallel DSL and algorithmic skeletons conducted. We start by explaining the hardware and software stack and also elaborate on which benchmarks programs were used and also which parallel Haskell were used in which setting. Before we go into detail on the benchmarks we also address the issue of poor performance gains when using hyper-threading and our reasoning behind not including hyper-threaded cores in our benchmarks. Finally, we show that PArrows hold up in terms of performance when compared to the original parallel Haskells used as backends

```
type Matrix = [[Int]]

prMM\_torus :: Int \rightarrow Int \rightarrow Matrix \rightarrow Matrix \rightarrow Matrix

prMM\_torus numCores problemSizeVal m1 m2 =

combine \$ torus () (mult torusSize) \$ zipWith (zipWith (,)) (split m1) (split m2)

where torusSize = (floor \circ sqrt) \$ fromIntegral numCores

combine = concat \circ (map (foldr (zipWith (++)) (repeat [])))

split = splitMatrix (problemSizeVal 'div' torusSize)

-- Function performed by each worker

mult :: Int \rightarrow ((Matrix, Matrix), [Matrix], [Matrix]) \rightarrow (Matrix, [Matrix], [Matrix])

mult size ((sm1, sm2), sm1s, sm2s) = (result, toRight, toBottom)

where toRight = take (size - 1) (sm1 : sm1s)

toBottom = take (size - 1) (sm2' : sm2s)

sm2' = transpose sm2

sms = zipWith prMMTr (sm1 : sm1s) (sm2' : sm2s)

result = fold11' matAdd sms
```

Figure 28: Adapted matrix multiplication in Eden using a the *torus* skeleton. $prMM_torus$ is the parallel matrix multiplication. mult is the function performed by each worker. prMMTr calculates AB^T and is used for the (sequential) calculation in the chunks. splitMatrix splits the Matrix into chunks. matAdd calculates A + B. Omitted definitions can be found in B 13.

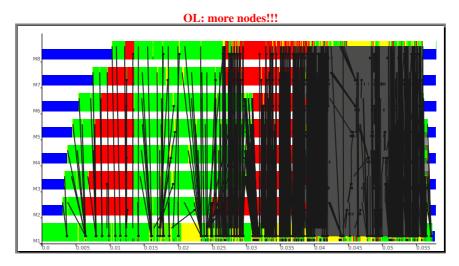


Figure 29: Matrix Multiplication with torus (PArrows).

in this paper, starting with the shared-memory variants (GpH, *Par* Monad and Eden CP) and concluding with Eden as a distributed backend.

8.1 Hardware and Software used

Benchmarks were run both in a shared and in a distributed memory setting. All benchmarks were done on the Glasgow GPG Beowulf cluster, consisting of 16 machines with 2 Intel[®] Xeon[®] E5-2640 v2 and 64 GB of DDR3 RAM each. Each processor has 8 cores

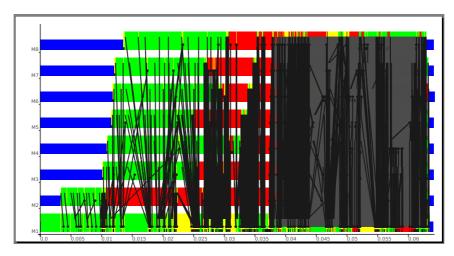


Figure 30: Matrix Multiplication with torus (Eden).

and 16 (hyper-threaded) threads with a base frequency of 2 GHz and a turbo frequency of 2.50 GHz. This results in a total of 256 cores and 512 threads for the whole cluster. The operating system was Ubuntu 14.04 LTS with Kernel 3.19.0-33. Non-surprisingly, we found that hyper-threaded 32 cores do not behave in the same manner as real 16 cores (numbers here for a single machine). We disregarded the hyper-threading ability in most of the cases.

Apart from Eden, all benchmarks and libaries were compiled with Stack's ¹¹ lts-7.1 GHC compiler which is equivalent to a standard GHC 8.0.1 with the base package in version 4.9.0.0. Stack itself was used in version 1.3.2. For GpH in its Multicore variant we used the the parallel cabal package in version 3.2.1.0, while for the *Par* monad we used monad-par in version 0.3.4.8. For all Eden tests, we used its GHC-Eden compiler in version 7.8.2 together with OpenMPI 1.6.5.

Furtermore, all benchmarks were done with help of the bench 12 tool in version 1.0.2 which uses criterion (>=1.1.1.0 && < 1.2) internally. All runtime data (mean runtime, max stddev, etc.) was collected with this tool if not mentioned otherwise.

We used a single node with 16 real cores as a shared memory testbed and the whole grid with 256 real cores as a device to test our distributed memory software.

8.2 Benchmarks

We used multiple tests that originated from different sources. Most of them are parallel mathematical computations, initially implemented in Eden. Table 1 summarises.

Rabin–Miller test is a probabilistic primality test that iterates multiple (here: 32–256) 'subtests'. Should a subtest fail, the input is definitely not a prime. If all n subtest pass, the input is composite with the probability of $1/4^n$.

12 see https://hackage.haskell.org/package/bench

¹¹ see https://www.haskellstack.org/

¹³ actual code from: http://community.haskell.org/simonmar/par-tutorial.pdf and https://github.com/simonmar/parconc-examples

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Table 1: The benchmarks we use in this paper.

Name	Area Type		Origin	Source	
Rabin-Miller test	Mathematics	parMap + reduce	Eden	Lobachev (2012)	
Jacobi sum test	Mathematics	workpool + reduce	Eden	Lobachev (2012)	
Gentleman	Mathematics	torus	Eden	Loogen et al. (2003)	
Sudoku	Puzzle	parMap	Par Monad	Marlow <i>et al.</i> (2011) ¹³	

Jacobi sum test or APRCL is also a primality test, that however, guarantees the correctness of the result. It is probabilistic in the sense that its run time is not certain. Unlike Rabin-Miller test, the subtests of Jacobi sum test have very different durations. Lobachev (2011) discusses some optimisations of parallel APRCL. Generic parallel implementations of Rabin-Miller test and APRCL were presented in Lobachev (2012).

'Gentleman' is a standard Eden test program, developed for their torus skeleton. It implements a Gentleman's algorithm for parallel matrix multiplication (Gentleman, 1978). We ported an Eden based version (Loogen et al., 2003) to PArrows.

A parallel Sudoku solver was used by Marlow et al. (2011) to compare Par Monad to GpH, and we ported it to PArrows.

8.3 What parallel Haskells run where

The Par monad and GpH – in its multicore version (Marlow et al., 2009) – can be executed on a shared memory machines only. Although GpH is available on distributed memory clusters, and newer distributed memory Haskells such as HdpH exist, current support of distributed memory in PArrows is limited to Eden. We used the MPI backend of Eden in a distributed memory setting. However, for shared memory Eden features a "CP" backend that merely copies the memory blocks between distributed heaps. In this mode, Eden still operates in the "nothing shared" setting, but is adapted better to multicore machines. We label this version of Eden in the plots as "Eden CP".

8.4 Effect of hyper-threading

In preliminary tests, the PArrows version of Rabin-Miller test on a single node of the Glasgow cluster showed almost linear speedup on up to 16 shared-memory cores (Fig. 31). The speedup of 64-task PArrows/Eden at 16 real cores version was 13.65 giving a parallel efficiency of 85.3%. However, if we increased the number of requested cores to 32 - i.e. if we use hyper-threading on 16 real cores – the speedup did not increase that well. It was merely 15.99 for 32 tasks with PArrows/Eden. This was worse for other backends. As for 64 tasks, we obtained a speedup of 16.12 with PArrows/Eden at 32 hyper-threaded cores and only 13.55 with PArrows/GpH. The parallel eficiencies were 50.4% and 42.3%, respectively. The Eden version used here was Eden CP, the 'share nothing' SMP build.

In the distributed memory setting the same effect ensues. We obtain plummeting speedup of 124.31 at 512 hyper-threaded cores, whereas it was 213.172 for 256 real cores. Apparently, hyper-threading in the Glasgow cluster fails to execute two parallel Haskell processes with full-fledged parallelism.

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VS.	mean overhead	maximum normalized stdDev	vs.	mean overhead	maximum normalized stdDev		
Eden CP	0.05464	0.03548	Eden CP	0.05029	0.0057		
GpH	-0.00762	0.02074	GpH	-0.00522	0.0037		
Par Monad	-0.04262	0.01759	Par Monad	-0.03748	0.0101		
Tai Monad	-0.04202	0.01737	Tai Monad	-0.037-10	0.01020		
	(a) Sudoku 1000			(b) Sudoku 16000			
VS.	mean overhead	maximum normalized stdDev	VS.	mean overhead	maximum normalized stdDev		
Eden CP	-0.0036	0.02502	Eden CP	0.00573	0.015		
GpH	0.0252	0.03199	GpH	0.02427	0.03006		
Par Monad	-0.00405	0.02401	Par Monad	-0.04547	0.26515		
i ai wionad	-0.00403	0.02401	i ai Monau	-0.04547	0.20313		
(c) Rat	(c) Rabin–Miller test 11213 32			(d) Rabin-Miller test 11213 64			
VS.	mean overhead	maximum normalized stdDev	VS.	mean overhead	maximum normalized stdDev		
Eden	0.00972	0.01484	Eden	-0.00055	0.01051		
(e) (Gentleman (dis	t) 4096	(f) Rabin-	(f) Rabin–Miller test (dist) 44497 256			
VS.	mean overhead	maximum normalized stdDev	vs.	mean overhead	maximum normalized stdDev		
Eden	-0.00812	0.02477	Eden	0.08327	0.14939		
(g) Jacobi sum test (dist) 3217			(h) Jac	(h) Jacobi sum test (dist) 4253			

Table 2: Overhead in the benchmarks

Hence, the performance measurements in Figs. 31–35 and table ?? use only real cores as the purpose of this paper is to show the performance of PArrows and not to investigate parallel performance with hyper-threading in use.

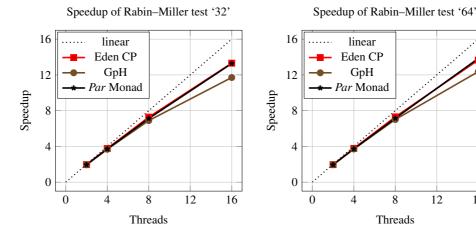


Figure 31: Relative speedup of Rabin-Miller test on a multicore machine. We used the same PArrows-based implementation with different backends on the same hardware. Measurements were performed on a single node of the Glasgow cluster; it has 16 real cores. Input was $2^{11213} - 1$, we used 32 (left) or 64 (right) tasks. The closer to linear speedup the better.

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8.5 Benchmark results

The difference between, say, PArrows with Par Monad backend and a genuine Par Monad benchmark is very small. To give an example, it is 0.4s in favour of PArrows for 16 cores (10.8s vs. 11.2s) and -0.8s in favour of the Par monad for 8 cores (16.1s vs. 16.9s) for the Sudoku benchmark in the shared memory setting. It is almost invisible in speedup and (non shown) run time plots. We thus show only the results for the PArrows-enabled versions in the backend-comparison.

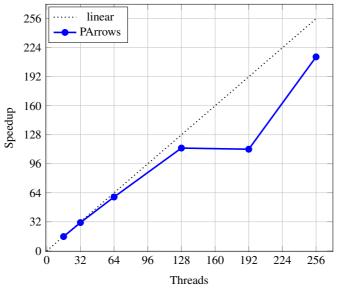
To show that PArrows induce very small overhead even in a distributed context (and in general as well), we compare the original Eden versions of the benchmark to its PArrows-enabled counterpart in the Rabin-Miller test, Gentleman and Jacobi sum test benchmarks. We plot execution time differences between measurements for PArrows and the corresponding backend in a separate plot (Figs. 32-34). As an example, the differences range in about 0.5s for the execution time of 46s on 256 cores for distributed Rabin–Miller test with PArrows and Eden. For these comparisons, the plots show absolute time differences that are not relative w.r.t. the total execution time. Furthermore, the error bars ends were computed from point-wise maximum of both standard deviations from both measurements for PArrows and non-PArrows versions. These are the values provided by the bench package that we used for bench-marking. We call a difference between two versions significant when the border of the error bar of absolute time difference is above or below zero. In other words: the time difference is significant if it is outside of the measurement error.

8.5.1 Rabin-Miller test

The multicore version of our parallel Rabin-Miller test benchmark is depicted in Figure 31. We executed the test with 32 and 64 tasks. The plot shows the PArrows-enabled versions

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Speedup of Rabin-Miller test '44497 256'



Run time differences for Rabin–Miller test '44497 256'

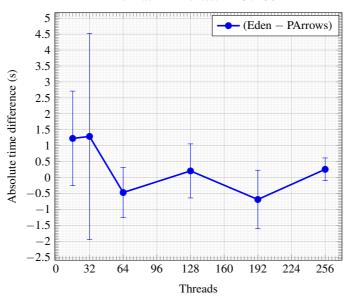


Figure 32: Parallel performance of the Rabin–Miller test on the Glasgow cluster consisting of 256 cores. Input was $2^{44497}-1$, we used 256 tasks. The top plot shows absolute speedup in a distributed memory setting. The closer to linear speedup the better. Time (and hence speedup) measurements for PArrows with Eden backend and Eden almost coincide. Hence, bottom plot shows absolute time differences for this benchmark. The higher the value, the better for PArrows**OL: CHECKME**.

with corresponding backends. The performance of PArrows/Eden CP in shared memory is slightly better than for SMP variants such as PArrows/GpH and PArrows/Par Monad but most of the time the performance is still comparable with the GpH backend performing slightly worse than the other two in terms of speedup.

Comparing the PArrows version of the Rabin–Miller test with the original from Eden with the MPI backend in a distributed memory setting, we see an almost linear speedup of Rabin–Miller test with 256 tasks and input $2^{44497} - 1$ in both versions. The sequential run time was computed as the mean of three consecutive executions on a single core—the single run took two hours 43 minutes. The difference between PArrows/Eden and Eden almost always lies inside the error bar of the measurement.

8.5.2 Jacobi sum test

Continuing, the results of the Jacobi sum test (MPI only) in Fig. 33 are as follows: The program does not seem to scale well beyond 64 threads with input $2^{3217} - 1$. We once again compare the Eden version with the PArrrows version in Fig. 33. We see similar behaviour to the MPI version of the Rabin-Miller test: The difference once again almost always remains within the bounds of the error bar of the measurement.

Because of the bad scaling behaviour for $2^{3217} - 1$ beyond 64 threads, we also ran tests with input $2^{4253} - 1$. Because of the long running time, we could do this only for the 128 and 256 threads. Therefore we do not show these results in Fig. 33 as we cannot properly compute a speedup without results for 1 thread. Nonetheless, for 128 threads, the benchmark took a mean of 9192.9s, while with 256 threads, it only took a mean of 1649.1s. This means that the 128 thread version ran more than 5.5 times slower than the 256 one, which suggests an IO limitation for this big input that is somewhat mitigated by adding more cores. However it still proves that PArrows continue to scale, even if not perfectly for this test program. Comparing PArrows with Eden, for the larger input of $2^{4253} - 1$, we see slightly bigger differences between Eden and PArrows: The differences for 128 and 256 core sare -1005.18s and -94.33s in favour of Eden, respectively. This maximum of 12.27% slower PArrows runtime, however, was still in the (quite big) error bar of our measurements.

8.5.3 Gentleman

Next is the Gentleman benchmark. The results of the comparison of vanilla Eden to our PArrows-based version can be found in Fig. 34. We see that the benchmark scales quite well with more cores until 64 cores. For \geq 96 cores, we still have considerable speedup, but with less slope. We also prove that the difference between the Eden and PArrows version are only marginal with PArrows only being a maximum of 1.7% slower – for 160 cores – when outside of the error bar.

8.5.4 Sudoku

As the last benchmark in this paper we present the Sudoku in Fig. 35 running in a shared memory setting. Here we see all three SM backends performing similarly again like in the Rabin-Miller test SM benchmarks in Figs. 35 and 36. However, we notice that the GpH

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Speedup of Jacobi sum test '3217' vs simulated '4253'

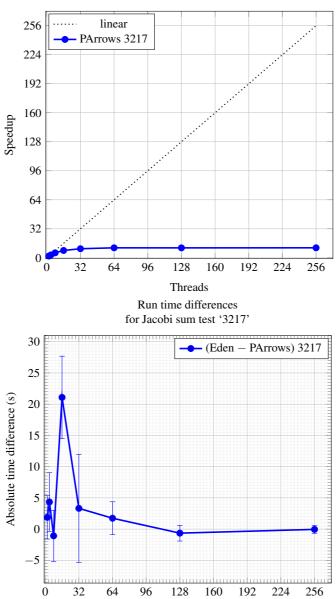
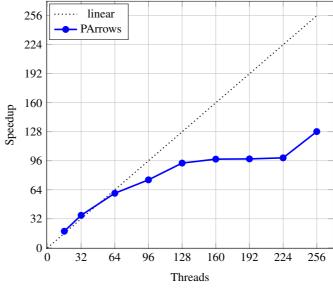


Figure 33: Parallel performance of the Jacobi sum test on the Glasgow cluster consisting of 256 cores. Input was $2^{3217}-1$, we used 256 tasks. The top plot shows relative speedup in a distributed memory setting compared to a simulated speedup for input $2^{4253}-1$. The closer to linear speedup the better. Time (and hence speedup) measurements for PArrows with Eden backend and Eden almost coincide. Hence, bottom plot shows absolute time differences for this benchmark. The higher the value, the better for PArrows**OL: CHECKME**.

Threads





Run time differences for Gentleman '4096'

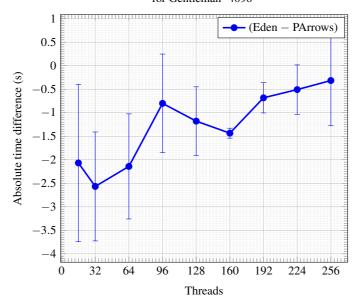


Figure 34: Parallel performance of Gentleman on the Glasgow cluster consisting of 256 cores. Input was a matrix size of 4096. The top plot shows absolute speedup in a distributed memory setting. The closer to linear speedup the better. Time (and hence speedup) measurements for PArrows with Eden backend and Eden almost coincide. Hence, bottom plot shows absolute time differences for this benchmark. The higher the value, the better for PArrowsOL: CHECKME.

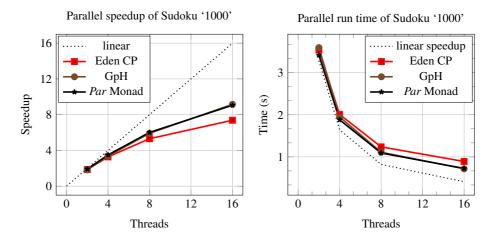


Figure 35: Absolute speedup of Sudoku on a multicore machine. We used the same PArrows-based implementation with different backends on the same hardware and the *parMap* version from the *Par* Monad examples. Measurements were performed on a single node of the Glasgow cluster; it has 16 real cores and 32 threads. Input was a file of 1000 Sudokus. The closer to linear speedup the better.

backend seems to choke on a bigger input (Fig. 36). This is due to the benchmark only using parMap instead of a chunking variant – however we did not change that for simplicity's sake. This issue is reflected by debug output which shows that of 16000 sparks being created (one for each Sudoku) only 8365 were converted (executed) with the rest (7635) overflowing the runtime spark pool. Another remarkable finding is that the Eden backend seems to lag behind for ≤ 16 threads, but manages to pull ahead noticeably with all 32 threads of the system in use.

8.6 Byline

In the shared memory setting we naturally find that the backends perform differently. Furthermore, in our distributed memory tests on the full grid the difference between PArrows and Eden was almost always below the error margin if PArrows performed worse. Even the biggest difference of 12.27% in the Jacobi sum test for input $2^{4253} - 1$ and 128 cores remained in line with these findings. The only exception to this was the Gentleman with only a 1.7% difference in favour of Eden which is only a marginal slowdown in our opinion.

9 Conclusion

Arrows are a generic concept that allows for powerful composition combinators. To our knowledge we are first to represent *parallel* computation with Arrows. Arrows turn out to be a useful tool for composing parallel programs. We do not have to introduce new monadic types that wrap the computation. Instead, we use Arrows in the same manner one uses sequential pure functions. This work features multiple parallel backends: the already available parallel Haskell flavours. Parallel Arrows, as presented here, feature an

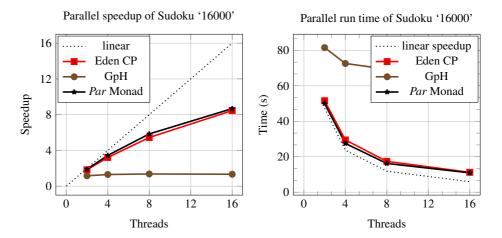


Figure 36: Absolute speedup of Sudoku on a multicore machine. We used the same PArrows-based implementation with different backends on the same hardware and the *parMap* version from the *Par* Monad examples. Measurements were performed on a single node of the Glasgow cluster; it has 16 real cores and 32 threads. Input was a file of 16000 Sudokus. The closer to linear speedup the better. The GpH version shows signs of choking with too many sparks being created.

implementation of the *ArrowParallel* type class for GpH Haskell, *Par* Monad, and Eden. With our approach parallel programs can be ported across these flavours with little to no effort. It is quite straightforward to add further backends. Performance-wise, Parallel Arrows are on par with existing parallel Haskells, as they only introduce minor overhead in some of our benchmarks. The benefit is, however, the greatly increased portability of parallel programs.

9.1 Future Work

Our PArrows DSL can be expanded to further parallel Haskells. More specifically we target HdpH (Maier *et al.*, 2014) for this future extension. HdpH is a modern distributed Haskell that would benefit from our Arrows notation. Further Future-aware versions of Arrow combinators can be defined. Existing combinators could also be improved. Arrow-based notation might enable further compiler optimizations.

More experiences with seamless porting of parallel PArrows-based programs across the backends are welcome. Of course, we are working ourselves on expanding both our skeleton library and the number of skeleton-based parallel programs that use our DSL to be portable across flavours of parallel Haskells. It would also be interesting to see a hybrid of PArrows and Accelerate (McDonell *et al.*, 2015). Ports of our approach to other languages like Frege or Java directly are in an early development stage.

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A Utility Arrows

Following are definitions of some utility Arrows used in this paper that have been left out for brevity. We start with the *second* combinator from Hughes (2000), which is a mirrored version of *first*, which is for example used in the definition of ***:

```
second::Arrow arr \Rightarrow arr \ a \ b \rightarrow arr \ (c,a) \ (c,b)
second f = arr \ swap >>> first \ f >>> arr \ swap
where swap \ (x,y) = (y,x)
```

Next, we also define map, foldl and zipWith on Arrows. The mapArr combinator (Fig. A 1) lifts any arrow $arr\ a\ b$ to an arrow $arr\ [a]\ [b]$ (Hughes, 2005b). Similarly, we can also define foldlArr (Fig. A 2) that lifts any arrow $arr\ (b,a)\ b$ with a neutral element b to $arr\ [a]\ b$.

```
mapArr :: Arrow Choice \ arr \Rightarrow arr \ a \ b \rightarrow arr \ [a] \ [b]
mapArr f =
arr \ list case >>>
arr \ (const \ []) \parallel (f *** mapArr f >>> arr \ (uncurry \ (:)))
list case \ [] = Left \ ()
list case \ (x : xs) = Right \ (x, xs)
```

Figure A 1: The definition of *map* over Arrows and the *listcase* helper function.

Finally, with the help of mapArr (Fig. A 1), we can define zipWithArr (Fig. A 3) that lifts any arrow arr(a,b)c to an arrow arr([a],[b])[c].

These combinators make use of the ArrowChoice type class which provides the \parallel combinator. It takes two arrows $arr\ a\ c$ and $arr\ b\ c$ and combines them into a new arrow $arr\ (Either\ a\ b)\ c$ which pipes all $Left\ a$'s to the first arrow and all $Right\ b$'s to the second arrow:

```
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```

```
foldlArr:: (ArrowChoice\ arr, ArrowApply\ arr) \Rightarrow arr\ (b,a)\ b \rightarrow b \rightarrow arr\ [a]\ b
foldlArr f b =
   arr listcase >>>
   arr (const b) ∥
       (first (arr (\lambda a \rightarrow (b,a)) >>> f >>> arr (foldlArr f)) >>> app)
```

Figure A 2: The definition of *foldl* over Arrows.

```
zipWithArr::ArrowChoice\ arr \Rightarrow arr\ (a,b)\ c \rightarrow arr\ ([a],[b])\ [c]
zipWithArrf = (arr \$ \lambda(as,bs) \rightarrow zipWith(,) as bs) >>> mapArrf
```

Figure A 3: *zipWith* over arrows.

```
(|||)::ArrowChoice arr a c \rightarrow arr b c \rightarrow arr (Either a b) c
```

With the zipWithArr combinator we can also write a combinator *listApp*, that lifts a list of arrows $[arr \ a \ b]$ to an arrow $arr \ [a] \ [b]$.

```
listApp :: (ArrowChoice\ arr, ArrowApply\ arr) \Rightarrow [arr\ a\ b] \rightarrow arr\ [a]\ [b]
listApp\ fs = (arr \$ \lambda as \rightarrow (fs, as)) >>> zipWithArr\ app
```

Note that this additionally makes use of the ArrowApply type class that allows us to evaluate arrows with $app :: arr(arr \ a \ b, a) \ c$.

B Omitted Function Definitions

We have omitted some function definitions in the main text for brevity, and redeem this

To begin with, we give the actual implementation of the non-configurable instance of the ArrowParallel instance:

Next, we warp Eden's build-in Futures in PArrows as in Figure B 6, where rd is the accessor function for the RD wrapped inside RemoteData. Furthermore, in order for these Future types to fit with the ArrowParallel instances we gave earlier, we have to give the necessary NFData and Trans instances, the latter are only needed in Eden. The Trans instance does not have any functions declared as the default implementation suffices here. Furthermore, because MVar already ships with a NFData instance, we only have to supply a simple delegating NFData instance for our RemoteData type, where rd simply unwraps

```
instance (NFData b, ArrowApply arr, ArrowChoice arr) \Rightarrow ArrowParallel arr a b () where
  parEvalN \_fs = parEvalN (hack fs) fs
     where
        hack :: (NFData\ b) \Rightarrow [arr\ a\ b] \rightarrow Conf\ b
        hack = Conf \ rdeepseq
```

Figure B 1: The actual default implementation of GpH's *ArrowParallel*.

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RD. The *Trans* instance does not have any functions declared as the default implementation suffices:

```
instance NFData (RemoteData a) where rnf = rnf \circ rd instance Trans (RemoteData a)
```

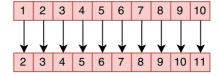


Figure B 2: Schematic depiction of parMap.

```
parMap :: (ArrowParallel \ arr \ a \ b \ conf) \Rightarrow conf \rightarrow (arr \ a \ b) \rightarrow (arr \ [a] \ [b])
parMap \ conf \ f = parEvalN \ conf \ (repeat \ f)
```



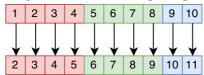


Figure B 4: Schematic depiction of parMapStream.

```
parMapStream :: (ArrowParallel \ arr \ a \ b \ conf \ , ArrowChoice \ arr \ , ArrowApply \ arr) \Rightarrow conf \rightarrow ChunkSize \rightarrow arr \ a \ b \rightarrow arr \ [a] \ [b]
parMapStream \ conf \ chunkSize \ f = parEvalNLazy \ conf \ chunkSize \ (repeat \ f)
```

Figure B 5: Definition of parMapStream.

Figures B 2–B 5 show the definitions and a visualizations of two parallel *map* variants, defined using *parEvalN* and its lazy counterpart.

Arrow versions of Eden's *shuffle*, *unshuffle* and the definition of *takeEach* are in Figure B 7. Similarly, Figure B 8 contains the definition of arrow versions of Eden's *lazy* and *rightRotate* utility functions. Fig. B 9 contains Eden's definition of *lazyzip3* together with the utility functions *uncurry3* and *threetotwo*. The full definition of *farmChunk* is in Figure B 10. Eden definition of *ring* skeleton is in Figure B 11. It follows Loogen (2012).

```
data RemoteData a = RD \{ rd :: RD \ a \}

instance (Trans \ a) \Rightarrow Future \ RemoteData \ a \ where

put = arr \ (\lambda a \rightarrow RD \{ rd = release \ a \})

get = arr \ rd >>> arr \ fetch
```

Figure B 6: RD-based RemoteData version of Future for the Eden backend.

```
shuffle :: (Arrow arr) \Rightarrow arr [[a]] [a]
shuffle = arr (concat \circ transpose)
unshuffle :: (Arrow \ arr) \Rightarrow Int \rightarrow arr \ [a] \ [[a]]
unshuffle n = arr(\lambda xs \rightarrow [takeEach\ n\ (drop\ i\ xs)\ |\ i \leftarrow [0..n-1]])
takeEach :: Int \rightarrow [a] \rightarrow [a]
takeEach n[] = []
takeEach\ n\ (x:xs) = x:takeEach\ n\ (drop\ (n-1)\ xs)
```

Figure B 7: Definitions of *shuffle*, *unshuffle*, *takeEach*.

```
lazy :: (Arrow \ arr) \Rightarrow arr \ [a] \ [a]
lazy = arr (\lambda \sim (x:xs) \rightarrow x: lazy xs)
rightRotate :: (Arrow arr) \Rightarrow arr [a] [a]
rightRotate = arr \$ \lambda list \rightarrow \mathbf{case} \ list \ \mathbf{of}
   [] \rightarrow []
   xs \rightarrow last \ xs : init \ xs
```

Figure B 8: Definitions of lazy and rightRotate.

The parEval2 skeleton is defined in Figure B 12. We start by transforming the (a,c) input into a two-element list [Either a c] by first tagging the two inputs with Left and Right and wrapping the right element in a singleton list with return so that we can combine them with arr (uncurry (:)). Next, we feed this list into a parallel arrow running on two instances of f + ++ g as described above. After the calculation is finished, we convert the resulting [Either b d] into ([b], [d]) with arr partition Eithers. The two lists in this tuple contain only one element each by construction, so we can finally just convert the tuple to (b,d) in the last step. Furthermore, Fig. B 13 contains the omitted definitions of prMMTr (which calculates AB^{T} for two matrices A and B), splitMatrix (which splits the a matrix into chunks), and lastly matAdd, that calculates A + B for two matrices A and B.

C Syntactic Sugar

Finally, we also give the definitions for some syntactic sugar for PArrows, namely *** and &&&. For basic arrows, we have the *** combinator (Fig. 3) which allows us to combine two arrows arr a b and arr c d into an arrow arr (a,c) (b,d) which does both computations at once. This can easily be translated into a parallel version *** with the use of parEval2, but for this we require a backend which has an implementation that does not require any configuration (hence the () as the conf parameter):

```
(|***|) :: (ArrowChoice\ arr, ArrowParallel\ arr\ (Either\ a\ c)\ (Either\ b\ d)\ ())) \Rightarrow
   arr\ a\ b \rightarrow arr\ c\ d \rightarrow arr\ (a,c)\ (b,d)
(|***|) = parEval2()
```

We define the parallel &&& in a similar manner to its sequential pendant &&& (Fig. 3):

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```
\begin{aligned} &lazyzip3::[a] \rightarrow [b] \rightarrow [c] \rightarrow [(a,b,c)] \\ &lazyzip3 \ as \ bs \ cs = zip3 \ as \ (lazy \ bs) \ (lazy \ cs) \\ &uncurry3::(a \rightarrow b \rightarrow c \rightarrow d) \rightarrow (a,(b,c)) \rightarrow d \\ &uncurry3 \ f \ (a,(b,c)) = f \ ab \ c \\ &threetotwo::(Arrow \ arr) \Rightarrow arr \ (a,b,c) \ (a,(b,c)) \\ &threetotwo = arr \$ \lambda \sim (a,b,c) \rightarrow (a,(b,c)) \end{aligned}
```

Figure B 9: Definitions of lazyzip3, uncurry3 and threetotwo.

```
\begin{split} & \textit{farmChunk} :: (\textit{ArrowParallel arr a b conf}, \textit{ArrowParallel arr } [a] \ [b] \ \textit{conf}, \\ & \textit{ArrowChoice arr}, \textit{ArrowApply arr}) \Rightarrow \\ & \textit{conf} \rightarrow \textit{ChunkSize} \rightarrow \textit{NumCores} \rightarrow \textit{arr a b} \rightarrow \textit{arr } [a] \ [b] \\ & \textit{farmChunk conf chunkSize numCores} f = \\ & \textit{unshuffle numCores} >>> \\ & \textit{parEvalNLazy conf chunkSize (repeat (mapArr f))} >>> \\ & \textit{shuffle} \end{split}
```

Figure B 10: Definition of farmChunk.

```
(|\&\&\&|) :: (ArrowChoice\ arr, ArrowParallel\ arr\ (Either\ a\ a)\ (Either\ b\ c)\ ()) \Rightarrow arr\ a\ b \to arr\ a\ c \to arr\ a\ (b,c) \\ (|\&\&\&|)\ f\ g = (arr\,\$\,\lambda a \to (a,a)) >>> f\ |***|\ g
```

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```
\begin{array}{l} ringSimple :: (Trans\ i, Trans\ o, Trans\ r) \Rightarrow (i \rightarrow r \rightarrow (o,r)) \rightarrow [i] \rightarrow [o] \\ ringSimple f\ is = os \\ \textbf{where}\ (os, ringOuts) = unzip\ (parMap\ (toRD\ uncurry\ f)\ (zip\ is\ lazy\ ringIns)) \\ ringIns = rightRotate\ ringOuts \\ toRD :: (Trans\ i, Trans\ o, Trans\ r) \Rightarrow ((i,r) \rightarrow (o,r)) \rightarrow ((i,RD\ r) \rightarrow (o,RD\ r)) \\ toRD f\ (i, ringIn) = (o, release\ ringOut) \\ \textbf{where}\ (o, ringOut) = f\ (i, fetch\ ringIn) \\ rightRotate :: [a] \rightarrow [a] \\ rightRotate\ ts = last\ xs : init\ xs \\ lazy :: [a] \rightarrow [a] \\ lazy \sim (x : xs) = x : lazy\ xs \end{array}
```

Figure B 11: Eden's definition of the *ring* skeleton.

```
parEval2 :: (ArrowChoice\ arr, ArrowParallel\ arr\ (Either\ a\ c)\ (Either\ b\ d)\ conf) \Rightarrow conf \rightarrow arr\ a\ b \rightarrow arr\ c\ d \rightarrow arr\ (a,c)\ (b,d)
parEval2\ conf\ f\ g = arr\ Left **** (arr\ Right >>> arr\ return) >>> arr\ (uncurry\ (:)) >>> parEvalN\ conf\ (replicate\ 2\ (f+++g)) >>> arr\ partitionEithers >>> arr\ head *** arr\ head
```

Figure B 12: Definition of *parEval2*.

```
prMMTr\ m1\ m2 = [[sum\ (zipWith\ (*)\ row\ col)\ |\ col \leftarrow m2]\ |\ row \leftarrow m1] splitMatrix :: Int \rightarrow Matrix \rightarrow [[Matrix]] splitMatrix\ size\ matrix = map\ (transpose\ \circ map\ (chunksOf\ size))\ \$ \ chunksOf\ size\ \$ \ matrix matAdd = chunksOf\ (dimX\ x)\ \$ \ zipWith\ (+)\ (concat\ x)\ (concat\ y)
```

Figure B 13: Definition of prMMTr, splitMatrix and matAdd.