

The Deterministic Parallel Java Language Specification

Version 1.0

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1 Introduction

This document defines Deterministic Parallel Java (DPJ) as an extension to the Java Programming Language, v1.6 (Java 6). For the specification of Java 6, see *The Java Programming Language Specification* [3], hereafter referred to as “JLS.” Because we are extending an already-specified language (Java), we omit many of the topics one would expect to find in a specification (lexical structure, form of statements and expressions, etc.). We use JLS for all that. Instead, we describe only what DPJ adds to Java.

The structure of the specification is as follows. In § 2, we describe the DPJ extensions to Java’s class and interface definitions. In § 3, we describe *region path lists*, or RPLs, which provide a way to name sets of memory locations on the heap in a DPJ program. In § 4, we describe the DPJ extensions to Java’s class and array types. In § 5 we describe *effects*, which specify accesses to memory in terms of operations on RPLs. In § 6, we describe DPJ’s constructs for expressing parallelism.

Readers of this document may wish to consult the following documents:

- *The Deterministic Parallel Java Tutorial* provides a guided introduction to the DPJ language.
- *The Deterministic Parallel Java Installation Manual* explains how to install DPJ on your system, and how to compile and run DPJ programs.
- *The Deterministic Parallel Java Language Reference Manual* explains the major features of the DPJ language in detail. It contains many of the same concepts as this specification, but with more discussion, motivation, and examples.

Please note that the purpose of this specification is to give a compact and precise *definition* of DPJ, for someone who is already familiar with the concepts discussed herein. Therefore, it is probably best to have at least a working knowledge of the tutorial and reference manual (which are more concerned with *explaining* the language) before consulting this specification.

2 Class and Interface Definitions

This section describes DPJ’s extensions to Java class and interface definitions.

2.1 Class Region Name Declarations

A region name declaration as defined immediately below may appear as a class member (JLS § 8.1.6).

A region name declaration has the form `region region-decls`, where *region-decls* is a comma-separated list of identifiers. The declared names are available within the enclosing class scope and via inheritance and/or class selection (as for an ordinary Java static member, JLS § 8.2), subject to visibility restrictions. The declared names may be used as name RPL elements (§ 3.2.1) wherever they are available.

Every region name declaration appearing in a particular class must have a unique name. Otherwise, if two region declarations with the same name appear in the same scope, the innermost declaration hides all the others.

2.2 Fields

Any field declaration may include an *RPL specifier* with the syntax `in rpl`, where *rpl* is a valid RPL (§ 3.1). If the RPL specifier appears in a field declaration, it must appear after the field name and before the initializer expression, if any. The RPL specifier is meaningful only for non-`final` fields; if an RPL specifier appears in a `final` field, it is allowed but silently ignored. RPL specifiers are not allowed for local variable declarations or formal method parameter definitions, because those variables reside in stack regions (see § 5.3).

2.3 Methods

2.3.1 Method Effect Summaries

Every method may optionally declare its effects via an *effect summary* (§ 5.2). If an effect summary is present, it must appear after the method arguments, before the method body, and before the `throws` clause, if any. The compiler internally converts each method effect summary to an effect set (§ 5.1), called the *declared effect set* of the method. If there is no explicit effect summary, then the compiler inserts a *default effect set* containing `writes Root:*`. In particular, an ordinary Java 1.6 method (with no DPJ annotations) is a valid DPJ method, whose effect summary is `writes Root:*`.

The compiler infers the effects of the method body (§ 5.3) and checks the following, after deleting all local effects (§ 5.1):

- The inferred effects are a subeffect (§ 5.5) of the declared effects.
- The declared effects are a subeffect (§ 5.5) of the declared effects of all methods overridden by this one.

If either of these requirements is not met, the compiler generates an error.

Constructors: The following rules apply to the method effect summaries of constructors:

- The effect of writing into a field of the object being constructed does not have to be reported in the constructor's effect summary, even if the field is not declared `final`. This is because in DPJ, the effect of initializing an object in a task is not seen until after all concurrent tasks have completed.
- All instance initializer effects for a class must be included in the method summaries of all constructors of the class.

2.3.2 Local Region Name Declarations

A region declaration may appear as a statement in a method body (JLS § 8.4.7). The declaration has the same form as for class region name declarations (§ 2.1). The declared names are available as name RPL elements in the innermost enclosing statement block.

2.3.3 Commutativity Annotations

The keyword `commutative` may optionally appear as a method qualifier, before the return type and before the method parameters, if any. The `commutative` annotation is a programmer-specified guarantee that the method commutes with itself, i.e., any pair of `invokes` effects (§ 5.1) using this method are treated as noninterfering. If `commutative` appears in the definition of a method *M*, then it must also appear in the definitions of all methods overriding *M*.

When using `commutative`, the programmer is responsible for ensuring two things:

1. The method is properly synchronized so that concurrent invocations of the method behave as though they have occurred in sequence (i.e., the invocations have serializable semantics [4]).
2. The semantics of the method is such that either order of a pair of invocations produces the same result.

Note that “same result” in condition (2) generally has an application-specific meaning. For instance, two insert operations on a set may commute with each other, because they produce the “same” set (i.e., the two sets are indistinguishable as far as future set operations like `find` are concerned), even though the sets may have different internal representations. However, two append operations on an ordered list generally do not commute.

2.4 Type and RPL Parameters

2.4.1 Class Parameters

As part of a class or interface definition, a list of generic type and/or RPL parameter declarations may appear directly after the class or interface name, which follows the keyword `class` or `interface`. A parameter declaration extends the generic parameter declaration of Java 1.6 and has the form `<params>` or `<params|constraints>`, where

- *params* is a comma-separated nonempty list of identifiers stating the parameters being declared. The generic type parameters, if any, must come first; followed by the RPL parameters, if any. Any of the type parameters may be preceded by the keyword `type`. At least the first RPL parameter must be preceded by the keyword `region`, and the other RPL parameters may be preceded by the keyword `region`.
- *constraints* is a comma-separated list of *RPL constraints*. An RPL constraint has the form *rpl-1* # *rpl-2*, where *rpl-1* and *rpl-2* are legal RPLs (§ 3.1) in the scope of the class definition.

The type parameters function exactly as in Java 1.6 (notice that if only type parameters appear, and the optional `type` keyword is not used, the syntax corresponds exactly to Java 1.6). The RPL parameters may be used as RPL elements (§ 3.2) in the scope of the class definition, including in any type constraints appearing in any generic parameter declarations. As with type parameters in Java 1.6, the type and RPL parameters are available only in an instance context (i.e., in any scope where `this` is in scope).

The RPL parameter constraints, if present, impose disjointness constraints (§ 3.3.4) that are enforced when RPL arguments are bound to the parameters in a type that instantiates the class (§ 4.1.1). Each constraint *rpl-1* # *rpl-2* is also recorded in the environment, so that the compiler can prove that *rpl-3* and *rpl-4* are disjoint, if *rpl-3* is included in (§ 3.3.3) *rpl-1* and *rpl-4* is included in *rpl-2*. It is an error to write a constraint *rpl-1* # *rpl-2* such that *rpl-1* is included in *rpl-2* or vice versa.

2.4.2 Method Parameters

Declaring method parameters: As part of a method definition (including constructors), a list of type and RPL parameter declarations may appear inside angle brackets `< . . . >` in the same position where Java 1.6 allows type parameters, i.e., after the method qualifiers (`public`, `static`, etc.), if any, and before the method return type (for non-constructor methods) or class name (for constructors). A method parameter declaration has the same form as a class parameter declaration (§ 2.4). The declared RPL parameters may be used as RPL elements in the scope of the method definition, including the formal parameters and return type. The constraints, if present, impose disjointness constraints that are enforced when the parameters become bound in a method invocation. The constraints are also recorded in the method environment, as described in § 2.4 for class parameter constraints.

Invoking parametric methods: When a method defined with type and/or RPL parameters is invoked, the invocation (at the programmer’s option, and depending upon the support for region inference in the DPJ compiler) may use either *explicit type and RPL arguments* or *inferred type and RPL arguments*. This approach corresponds to the way that Java 1.6 handles generic method parameters.

Explicit Type and RPL Arguments: As in Java 1.6, if type and/or RPL arguments are present, then there must be an explicit selector (a static class selector or an expression of class or interface type) followed by a dot. The arguments must be enclosed in angle brackets `< . . . >`, after the dot and before the method name. For constructors, the arguments must follow the keyword `new` and precede the class name. In either case, the RPL arguments have the same form as for class and interface RPL arguments (§ 4.1.1), except that the keyword `region` must precede at least the first RPL argument. (This requirement tells the compiler which arguments are types and which ones are RPLs. Because of Java’s method overloading,

this information is not available from the method name, as it is for classes from the class name.) The number of type and RPL arguments must exactly match the number of type and RPL parameters; otherwise, the compiler reports an error.

Inferred Type and RPL Arguments: If a method is defined with type and/or RPL parameters, then the method invocation may be written without explicit type or RPL arguments. The compiler *may* attempt to infer the RPL arguments from the types of the value arguments, using an algorithm similar to the one that Java 1.6 uses for inferring generic parameters. This specification does not require any particular inference algorithm; in particular no inference is a correct implementation of the language. If the inference is not possible for a given RPL argument, either because inference is not supported or it is not possible (for instance, because the parameter does not appear in any of the actual argument types), then the compiler must use `Root : *` as the RPL for that argument.

RPL Constraints: The compiler checks the RPL arguments against the constraints, as discussed in § 4.1.1 for class parameter constraints. If any constraint is violated, the compiler issues a warning.

3 Region Path Lists

In DPJ, the programmer uses region path lists, or RPLs, to name sets of heap regions (§ 3.4.1). The region sets in turn are used in specifying and checking effects (§ 5). § 3.1 and § 3.2 describe the construction of RPLs. § 3.3 describe the rules for comparing RPLs, which are essential in noninterference checking. § 3.4 describes *heap regions* and *stack regions*, which do not appear in DPJ programs, but are used by the implementation to do noninterference checking.

3.1 Valid RPLs

A region path list (RPL) is a nonempty sequence of RPL elements (§ 3.2) separated by colons (:). An RPL is well-formed if it obeys the following rules:

- The first element must be `Root`, an RPL parameter element (§ 3.2.3), or a variable RPL element (§ 3.2.4).
- `Root`, an RPL parameter element, or a variable element may appear only as the first element.

It is also acceptable to write an RPL starting with a class or local region name element (§ 3.2.1), an array index element (§ 3.2.3), or the star element (§ 3.2.5). In these cases, the RPL has `Root` as an implicit first element.

3.2 RPL Elements

An RPL element is one of the following: a name RPL element, a parameter RPL element, an array index RPL element, a variable RPL element, or the star RPL element.

3.2.1 Name RPL Elements

A name RPL element is one of the following:

- `Root`, which is a reserved name available at global scope.
- A class region name declared in the enclosing class scope (§ 2.1).
- A local region name declared in the enclosing statement scope (§ 2.3.2).
- *selector.region*, where *selector* is a field access selector (i.e., everything to the left of *Identifier* in a field access expression, JLS § 15.11), and *region* is a class region declared in the class named by *selector* (§ 2.1).

3.2.2 Parameter RPL Elements

A parameter RPL element names a class RPL parameter (§ 2.4), method RPL parameter (§ 2.4.2), or capture parameter (§ 4.1.7) that is in scope. Note that capture parameters are introduced by the compiler in capturing types (§ 4.1.7), and cannot be written by the programmer.

3.2.3 Array Index RPL Elements

An array index RPL element is one of the following:

- $[expr]$, where $expr$ is a valid integer expression, indicating the array index corresponding to the runtime value of $expr$.
- $[?]$, indicating any array index.

3.2.4 Variable RPL Elements

A variable RPL element is one of the following: `this`; a `final` method variable of class type; or a `final` method formal parameter of class type.

3.2.5 The Star RPL Element

The star RPL element has the form `*`. It indicates any sequence of RPL elements.

3.3 Relations on RPLs

RPLs have several pairwise relations that are used to determine when two RPLs name disjoint or overlapping sets of regions: equivalence (§ 3.3.1), nesting (§ 3.3.2), disjointness (§ 3.3.4), and inclusion (§ 3.3.3).

3.3.1 Equivalence

There is an equivalence relation on RPLs, which we will denote here by “ $rpl-1$ is equivalent to $rpl-2$.” Its meaning is that the set of regions represented by $rpl-1$ is equal to the set of regions represented by $rpl-2$.

Equivalent RPLs: Two RPLs are equivalent if both RPLs have the same number of elements, and the corresponding pairs of elements are equivalent.

Equivalent RPL Elements: Two RPL elements are equivalent if:

- They refer to the declared same region name, RPL parameter, or variable name; or
- They are $[expr-1]$ and $[expr-2]$, where $expr-1$ and $expr-2$ are always-equal expressions; or
- They are both $[?]$ or `*`.

Always-Equal Expressions: Always-equal expressions are defined as follows:

- Two constants are always-equal expressions if they are the same value.
- Two variables are always-equal expressions if they are the same variable (i.e., they have the same variable symbol) and the variable is declared `final`.
- Two binary operation expressions are always-equal expressions if they represent the same operation, and their corresponding component expressions are always-equal.
- Any other two expressions are not always-equal.

3.3.2 Nesting

There is a nesting relation on RPLs, which we will denote here by “ $rpl-1$ is nested under $rpl-2$.” Its meaning is that for every region $r-1$ represented by $rpl-1$, there exists a region $r-2$ represented by $rpl-2$ such that $r-1$ is nested under $r-2$. The meaning of “ $r-1$ is nested under $r-2$ ” is that $r-1$ is a descendant of $r-2$ in the region tree. $rpl-1$ is nested under $rpl-2$ if one of the following holds:

- $rpl-2$ is `Root`.
- $rpl-1$ is a sequence of two or more RPL elements, and $rpl-1$ without its last element is nested under $rpl-2$.
- $rpl-1$ is included in $rpl-2$ (§ 3.3.3).
- $rpl-1$ has one element, which is an object reference variable whose owner RPL (§ 4.1.6) is nested under $rpl-2$.

3.3.3 Inclusion

There is an inclusion relation on RPLs, which we will denote here by “*rpl-1* is included in *rpl-2*.” Its meaning is that the set of regions represented by *rpl-1* is contained (in the sense of ordinary set inclusion) in the set of regions represented by *rpl-2*.

Inclusion of RPLs: *rpl-1* is included in *rpl-2* if one of the following holds:

- *rpl-1* and *rpl-2* are equivalent (§ 3.3.1).
- *rpl-2* ends with *, and *rpl-1* is nested under *rpl-2* (§ 3.3.2) without its last element.
- The last element of *rpl-1* is included in the last element of *rpl-2*, and inclusion holds for the RPLs after stripping the last elements of both.
- *rpl-1* has one element, which is a capture parameter (§ 4.1.7) included in *rpl-2*.

Inclusion of RPL Elements: RPL element *elt-1* is included in RPL element *elt-2* if (1) the elements are equivalent (§ 3.3.1); or (2) *elt-1* is any array index RPL element and *elt-2* is [?].

3.3.4 Disjointness

There is a disjointness relation on RPLs, which we will denote here by “*rpl-1* is disjoint from *rpl-2*.” Its meaning is that the set of regions represented by *rpl-1* has empty intersection with the set of regions represented by *rpl-2*.

Disjoint RPLs: *rpl-1* and *rpl-2* are disjoint if one of the following holds:

1. *rpl-1* is included in (§ 3.3.3) some RPL *rpl-3*; *rpl-2* is included in some RPL *rpl-4*; and *rpl-3* and *rpl-4* are constrained to be disjoint (§ 2.4).
2. For some $n \geq 1$, (a) the RPLs formed by taking the first n elements of *rpl-1* and *rpl-2* are equivalent (§ 3.3.1); and (b) *rpl-1* and *rpl-2* have disjoint elements in position $n + 1$ (this is called a “distinction from the left” in [2]).
3. The last elements of *rpl-1* and *rpl-2* are disjoint (this is called a “distinction from the right” in [2]).

Disjoint RPL Elements: Two RPL elements *elt-1* and *elt-2* are disjoint if (1) one is a name RPL element (§ 3.2.1) and the other is an array index RPL element (§ 3.2.3); or (2) they are both name RPL elements corresponding to distinct region name symbols (§§ 2.1 and 2.3.2); or (3) they are the array RPL elements [*expr-1*] and [*expr-2*], where *expr-1* and *expr-2* are always-unequal expressions.

Always-Unequal Expressions: Always-unequal expressions are defined as follows:

- Two constants are always-unequal expressions if they are different values.
- *expr-1* and *expr-2* are always-unequal expressions if *expr-1* is the negation expression (§ 6.2) of *expr-2*, or vice versa.
- Any other two expressions are not always-unequal.

3.4 Regions

DPJ partitions memory into *heap regions* (collections of memory locations on the heap) and *stack regions* (collections of memory locations on the stack). Heap regions are explicitly named using RPLs (§ 3). Stack regions are internally named and automatically managed by the compiler.

Because all DPJ type and effect annotations are erased at compile time, regions are not actually represented at runtime. They are a theoretical construct, used in the soundness proofs of DPJ [1]. For example, regions are used to show that if two RPLs are disjoint (§ 3.3.4), then the two sets of memory locations associated with the RPLs in the dynamic semantics are nonintersecting.

The programmer should not have to reason directly about regions; the proofs in [1] essentially say that it is sufficient to reason about RPLs, using the rules given in § 3. For more information about regions and the region tree, the interested reader is referred to [1].

3.4.1 Heap Regions

A heap region names a set of memory locations on the heap at runtime. Syntactically, a heap region is like an RPL (§ 3), with the following exceptions:

- No `*` or `[?]` appears in the sequence of elements.
- There are no parameter RPL elements.
- Object reference values appear instead of object reference variables.
- Integer values `[n]` appear instead of integer expressions `[expr]`.

An RPL with no `*` or `[?]` corresponds to a heap region at runtime, by replacing parameters with actual regions, object reference variables with the references they store, and integer expressions with the values to which they evaluate. For more information about how this substitution works, see [1]. An RPL containing `*` or `[?]` represents the set of valid RPLs obtained by substituting (possibly empty) sequences of RPL elements for `*` and nonnegative array index values for `?`. This set of RPLs in turn corresponds to a set of regions, via the substitutions mentioned above.

Every heap region is part of a tree of regions rooted at the global name `Root` (§ 3.2.1). The tree structure is given in two ways:

1. By the syntax of RPLs: e.g., `A:B` is a child of `A`.
2. By the types of object references: if `o` is an object reference, and the owner region of the type of `o` (§ 4.1.6) is `R`, then a region whose RPL starts with `o` is a descendant of region `R`.

For more information about the region tree, see [1].

3.4.2 Stack Regions

The compiler internally generates *stack regions* for method value parameters and local variables. For example, the declaration `int x` inside a method generates the stack region `x` that is in scope where the variable `x` is in scope. These stack regions are generated and checked automatically, and the programmer cannot specify them directly.

Stack regions are compared by symbol: two occurrences of the same symbol are treated as identical, and different symbols are treated as different. This simple comparison is possible for stack variables because Java does not allow references to or aliasing of these variables.

4 Types

4.1 Class and Interface Types

4.1.1 Type and RPL Arguments

When a class or interface defined with type and/or RPL parameters (§ 2.4) is used to name a type, the type may optionally specify type and/or RPL arguments.

Syntax: The arguments have the form `<args>`, where `args` is a comma-separated list of valid class or interface types (this section) and/or RPLs (§ 3). This syntax, if it appears, must immediately follow the class or interface name. The types, if any, must appear first; followed by the RPLs, if any. Any of the types may be preceded by the keyword `type`, and any of the RPLs may be preceded by the keyword `region`; but the keywords are optional, as the compiler can infer which are the types and which are the RPLs from the class or interface definition.

Binding RPL arguments: It is an error to specify more RPL arguments than there are RPL parameters. If fewer RPL arguments than parameters are specified, the remaining arguments (from left to right) become bound to `Root`. For each RPL parameter constraint `rpl-1 # rpl-2` specified in the parameter declaration (§ 2.4), the compiler checks that the RPLs `rpl-1` and `rpl-2` are disjoint (§ 3.3.4), after substituting the RPL arguments for the corresponding parameters in the RPLs. If any disjointness constraint is violated, the compiler issues a warning.

4.1.2 DPJ Erasure of Class Types

The *DPJ erasure* of a class type is the type obtained by ignoring all RPL parameters and arguments. For example, suppose class `C` has a type parameter `T` and a region parameter `R`. Then the DPJ erasure of `C<Object, Root>` is `C<Object>`.

4.1.3 Equivalent Types

Class or interface types T_1 and T_2 with no type or RPL arguments are equivalent if they are equivalent in ordinary Java. Otherwise, T_1 and T_2 are equivalent if (1) their DPJ erasures (§ 4.1.2) are equivalent according to this section; and (2) for every RPL parameter P of C , the RPL arguments bound to P in T_1 and T_2 are equivalent (§ 3.3.1).

4.1.4 Subtypes

Types that instantiate the same class or interface : T_1 is a subtype of T_2 in DPJ if (1) the two types instantiate the same class or interface; (2) the two types have no type or RPL arguments; and (3) T_1 is a subtype of T_2 in ordinary Java.

T_1 is also a subtype of T_2 in DPJ if (1) the two types instantiate the same class or interface; (2) the DPJ erasure (§ 4.1.2) of T_1 is a subtype of the DPJ erasure of T_2 according to this section; and (3) the RPL arguments of T_1 are included (§ 3.3.3) in the corresponding arguments of T_2 .

Types that instantiate different classes: T_1 is a subtype of T_2 if T_2 is a *direct supertype* or *indirect supertype* of T_1 .

Direct supertypes: T_2 is a direct supertype of T_1 if a type with T_2 's class or interface appears in an `extends` or `implements` clause of T_1 's class or interface, and that type is a subtype of T_2 after substituting arguments for parameters according to T_1 .

Indirect supertypes: T_2 is an indirect supertype of T_1 if there is a chain of direct supertypes connecting T_1 to T_2 .

4.1.5 Casts

A cast from one class or interface type to another is legal if the cast would be legal for the DPJ erasures (§ 4.1.2) of the types. Therefore casts that violate type preservation are allowed. Any unsafe cast will generate the usual “unchecked or unsafe operations” warning that Java 1.6 gives for unsound generic casts.

4.1.6 Owner RPLs

If *class-type* is a class type, then the *owner RPL* of *class-type* is (1) the RPL bound to the first parameter of *class-type*, if *class-type* has parameters; otherwise (2) `Root`.

4.1.7 Captured Types

The compiler extends Java 1.6 type capture (JLS § 5.1.10) to capture RPL parameters as well as generic type parameters. If *type* is a class type with *rpls* as its RPL arguments, then the capture of *type* is defined as follows:

1. Take the Java 1.6 capture of *type*, possibly substituting for the generic type arguments but keeping the same RPL arguments.
2. In the result of step 1, for each RPL *rpl* in *rpls* that is partially specified (i.e., contains `*` or `[?]`), replace that RPL with a fresh RPL parameter constrained to be included in *rpl*.

4.2 Array Types

4.2.1 Valid Array Types

In DPJ, the array type is given by *base-type* followed by one or more instances of *brackets*, where *base-type* is a primitive, class, or interface type; and each instance of *brackets* is a pair of brackets (`[]`) optionally followed by an RPL argument *<rpl>*, optionally followed by *#index-var*, where *index-var* is an identifier that declares an index variable. An array type is valid if (1) *base-type* is valid, treating all index variables appearing in the type as integer variables in scope; and (2) the RPL of every *brackets* is valid, treating all index variables appearing in that *brackets* and all *brackets* to the left of that one as integer variables in scope.

Default index variable declaration: If no index variable declaration `#index-var` appears in a particular instance of *brackets*, then that instance of *brackets* is treated as if it had the declaration `#_` (pound underscore). For example, `int [] < [-] >` is a valid array type; it is equivalent to `int [] < [-] > #_`.

4.2.2 New Arrays

A new array expression is `new` followed by *base-type* and one or more instances of *new-brackets*, where *base-type* is a primitive, class, or interface type; and *new-brackets* is the same as *brackets* as described in § 4.2.1, except that an integer length expression *expr* may optionally appear between the brackets. A new array expression is valid if (1) the array type generated by deleting the length expressions is valid (§ 4.2.1); and (2) the first *n* instances of *new-brackets* contain a length expression, for some $n \geq 1$, while the rest do not.

4.2.3 Subtypes

If T_1 and T_2 are array types, then the compiler checks whether T_1 is a subtype of T_2 as follows:

1. If the RPL specified in the leftmost *brackets* of T_1 is not included in (§ 3.3.3) the RPL specified in the leftmost *brackets* of T_2 , then the answer is no.
2. Otherwise, check whether the element type of T_1 is a subtype of the element type of T_2 (§ 4.1.4 or this section), but require equivalence of corresponding RPL arguments (§ 3.3.1), instead of just inclusion, in doing this check.

We require equivalence of RPL arguments for all but the leftmost RPL because it is not sound in general to allow subtype assignments into array cells.

4.2.4 Casts

Array type casts work in the same way as class type casts (§ 4.1.5).

4.3 Typing Expressions

4.3.1 Field Access

The compiler computes the type of a field access expression *selector-exp*.*field-name* as follows: (1) compute the type *selector-type* of *selector-exp*; (2) capture the type (§ 4.1.7) to generate type *captured-selector-type*; (3) look up the type *field-type* of *field* based on the class *C* named in *captured-selector-type*; (4) make the following substitutions in *field-type*: (a) the type and RPL arguments of *captured-selector-type* for the type RPL parameters of *C*; and (b) *selector-rpl* for `this`. If *selector-exp* is a `final` local variable *var*, then *selector-rpl* is *var*; otherwise, *selector-rpl* is a fresh capture parameter (§ 4.1.7) constrained to be included in *owner-rpl*:*, where *owner-rpl* is the owner RPL (§ 4.1.6) of *captured-selector-type*.

4.3.2 Array Access

If expression *e* has array type T (§ 4.2.1), then we construct the type and region of array access expression $e[e']$ as follows:

- To construct the type, do the following: (a) concatenate *base-type* of T with all instances of *brackets* in T but the leftmost to form *elt-type*; and (b) if an index variable *i* is declared in the leftmost instance of *brackets*, then substitute e' for all instances of *i* appearing in *elt-type*.
- To construct the RPL, do the following: (a) let *rpl* be the RPL appearing in the leftmost instance of *brackets* in T , or `Root` if no RPL appears there; and (b) if an index variable *i* appears in the leftmost instance of *brackets*, then substitute e' for all instances of *i* appearing in *rpl*.

4.3.3 Method Invocation

Explicit Type and RPL Arguments: The compiler computes the type of a method invocation expression

selector-exp.<*type-args*, *rpl-args*>*method-name* (*args*)

as follows: (1) compute the type *selector-type* of *selector-exp* and the types *arg-types* of *args*; (2) capture *selector-type* (§ 4.1.7) to generate type *captured-selector-type*; (3) look up the method symbol based on the method name, *selector-type*, and *arg-types*, and find the return type *return-type* of the method; (4) make the following substitutions in *return-type*: (a) the type and RPL arguments of *captured-selector-type* for the type and RPL parameters of *return-type*; (b) *type-args* and *rpl-args* for the type and RPL parameters of the method; (c) for every expression *int-exp* in *args* of a type assignable to *int*, *int-exp* for the corresponding formal parameter of the method; and (d) *selector-rpl* for *this*, where if *selector-exp* is a *final* local variable *var*, then *selector-rpl* is *var*, and otherwise *selector-rpl* is a fresh capture parameter (§ 4.1.7) constrained to be included in *owner-rpl*:*, where *owner-rpl* is the owner RPL (§ 4.1.6) of *selector-type*.

Inferred or Missing Type Arguments, RPL Arguments, and/or selector-exp: If there are no explicit type or RPL arguments, the compiler infers them (if necessary) as stated in § 2.4.2 and proceeds as stated above using the inferred arguments in step (4)(b). If there is no *selector-exp*, then as in ordinary Java, the implied selector is *this*.

5 Effects

An effect is a set of actions that affect memory. Every statement and expression in the program is assigned an effect. If the effects of two statements do not interfere, then the statements may be safely run in parallel.

5.1 Basic Effects

Internally, the compiler represents effects as sets of *basic effects*. A basic effect is one of the following:

1. A *read effect*, indicating a read operation on an RPL (§ 3) or stack region (§ 3.4.2). This effect represents any read at runtime to any heap region named by the RPL, or to the stack region.
2. A *write effect*, indicating a write operation on an RPL or stack region. This effect represents any read or write to any heap region named by the RPL, or to the stack region.
3. An *invoke effect*, indicating an invocation of method *m* of class *C* with effect *E*, where *E* is a set of basic effects.

A basic effect is *local* if it is a read or write effect on a stack region or an RPL containing a local region name (§ 3.2.1), or it is an invocation effect whose underlying effects are all local. We refer to a set of basic effects as an *effect set*.

5.2 Effect Summaries

The programmer may specify an effect summary as part of a method definition (§ 2.3.1). An effect summary consists either of the keyword *pure*, representing an empty effect set, or one or both of the following, in this order:

- *Read effects*: The keyword *reads*, followed by a comma-separated list of valid RPLs (§ 3), representing one read effect on each RPL.
- *Write effects*: The keyword *writes*, followed by a comma-separated list of valid RPLs (§ 3), representing one write effect on each RPL.

The effect set of the whole summary is the union of zero, one, or two effect sets generated as described above.

5.3 Effect Inference

The compiler infers the effects of a statement, expression, or statement block by using the following method-local analysis:

- For expressions *selector-exp.field-name* that directly access a non-`final` field (effects on `final` fields are ignored), the compiler computes the RPL *access-rpl* accessed by the expression. It uses the same procedure as for typing field access expressions (§ 4.3.1), except that it uses the RPL specifier (§ 2.2) instead of the type associated with *field-name* in the class *C*, and there are no substitutions for type parameters. The compiler records a read or write effect (§ 5.1) to *access-rpl*, depending on whether the expression is used in an assignment or access.
- For statements and expressions that invoke a method, the compiler computes the effect set *E* generated by the invocation. It uses the same procedure as for typing method invocation expressions (§ 4.3.3), except that it uses the effect summary of the method (§ 2.3.1) instead of the return type, and there are no substitutions for type parameters. The compiler records an invocation effect (§ 5.1) with the method symbol and *E*.
- For statements and expressions that access a non-`final` stack variable (i.e., method formal parameter or local variable), record a read or write effect on a stack region identified by the variable's symbol. Effects on `final` variables are ignored.
- For any other statement or expression, the compiler accumulates the effects of its components, coarsening component effects as necessary (§ 5.4) to generate effects that are valid at the outer scope.

5.4 Effect Coarsening

Coarsening of RPLs: RPLs appearing in accumulated effects may include any of the following elements that are no longer in scope at the point where the effects are being reported: (1) integer variables; (2) `final` local variables of class type; and (3) locally declared region names. The compiler therefore performs the following conversion (called *effect coarsening*) to generate a valid set of accumulated effects in the surrounding environment:

- Delete all effects on RPLs containing a local region name that is out of scope.
- Replace each RPL *rpl* that starts with *var*, where *var* is a `final` local variable not in scope, with *owner-rpl*:*, where *owner-rpl* is the owner RPL (§ 4.1.6) of the type of *var*. Perform this operation recursively on the resulting RPL.
- Replace all elements *[e]*, where *e* refers to variables not in scope, with *[?]*.

Coarsening of Stack Regions: If a stack region appearing in an effect goes out of scope, any effect on that stack region is deleted in translating the effect to the outer scope.

5.5 Subeffects

The following rules determine whether effect set *E*₁ is a subeffect of effect set *E*₂:

1. If *E*₁ and *E*₂ each consist of a single basic effect, then the following rules apply: (a) if *R*₁ is included in *R*₂ (§ 3.3.3), then a read of *R*₁ is a subeffect of a read or write of *R*₂, and a write of *R*₁ is a subeffect of a write of *R*₂; and (b) if *E*₃ is included in *E*₄, then an invocation of method *M* with effect *E*₃ is a subeffect of an invocation of the same method *M* with effect *E*₄.
2. An invocation of method *M* with effect *E* is a subeffect of *E*.
3. If *E*₁ is a subset of *E*₂ (i.e., all the basic effect of *E*₁ also appear in *E*₂), then *E*₁ is a subeffect of *E*₂.
4. If *E*₁ = *E*₃ ∪ *E*₄, where *E*₃ and *E*₄ are subeffects of *E*₂, then *E*₁ is a subeffect of *E*₂.
5. The subeffect relation is reflexive and transitive.

5.6 Noninterfering Effects

The following rules determine whether effect sets *E*₁ and *E*₂ are noninterfering:

1. If *E*₁ and *E*₂ each consist of a single basic effect, then the following rules apply: (a) two read effects are noninterfering; (b) two effects on *R* and *R'*, each a read or write, are noninterfering if *R* and *R'* are disjoint (§ 3.3.4); and (c) two invocations of the same method are noninterfering if the method is declared `commutative` (§ 2.3.3).

2. If E_3 and E_4 are noninterfering, then an invocation of method M with effect E_3 is noninterfering with E_4 .
3. If $E_1 = E_3 \cup E_4$, where E_3 and E_4 are both noninterfering with E_2 , then E_1 is noninterfering with E_2 .
4. The noninterference relation is symmetric.

6 Parallel Control Flow

DPJ extends Java's control flow constructs by adding two parallel statements: `cobegin` and `foreach`. `cobegin` followed by a statement block executes each statement of the block as a parallel task. `foreach` defines a loop that executes sets of iterations as parallel tasks.

6.1 `cobegin`

The `cobegin` statement consists of the keyword `cobegin`, followed by a statement S to execute. If S is any statement but a block enclosed in curly braces $\{\dots\}$, or if S is a block consisting of a single statement, then the `cobegin` just executes the statement S . Otherwise, S is a block containing multiple statements, and the component statements of S are run as parallel tasks. There is an implicit barrier (join) at the end of the `cobegin` statement, so that all the component tasks must finish execution before the parent task executes the statement after the `cobegin`.

The compiler computes the inferred effect set (§ 5.3) of each statement in the block and checks the effect sets for pairwise noninterference (§ 5.6). The compiler emits a warning if interference is discovered. Both parallel and sequential code generation of `cobegin` blocks are supported.

6.2 `foreach`

The `foreach` statement has the syntax `foreach(index-var in start, length, stride) S`, where

- *index-var* is an integer variable declaration.
- *start*, *length*, and *stride* are integer expressions. The *stride* expression is optional, and the default is 1.
- *S* is a statement representing the loop body. It may be either a simple statement or a block.

The `foreach` statement causes one instance of S to execute for each value of *index-var* in the iteration space $\{start + stride \cdot i \mid i \in [0, length - 1]\}$. *index-var* is treated as a `final` variable in S , so that any assignment to the index variable inside the loop causes an error.

The compiler performs the following noninterference check for indexed `foreach` loops:

1. Infer the effect set of the body of the `foreach` (§ 5.3).
2. Create a copy of the effect set generated in (1), but replace every occurrence of *index-var* with the negation expression (§ 3.3.4) of *index-var*.

If interference is detected, the compiler generates a warning.

Both parallel and sequential code generation are supported. For sequential code generation, the `foreach` iterations are executed in sequence, from lowest to highest in the iteration space. For parallel code generation, the compiler repeatedly halves the iteration space, recursively forking off pairs of parallel tasks, until a programmer-specified cutoff. The precise mechanism for specifying the cutoff is implementation dependent.

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