

Parallel Sorting

Parallel Programming in Scala

Viktor Kuncak

Merge Sort

We will implement a parallel merge sort algorithm.

- 1. recursively sort the two halves of the array in parallel
- 2. sequentially merge the two array halves by copying into a temporary array
- 3. copy the temporary array back into the original array

The parMergeSort method takes an array, and a maximum depth:

Merge Sort

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The parMergeSort method takes an array, and a maximum depth:

```
def parMergeSort(xs: Array[Int], maxDepth: Int): Unit = {
```

Allocating an Intermediate Array

We start by allocating an intermediate array:

```
val ys = new Array[Int](xs.length)
```

At each level of the merge sort, we will alternate between the source array xs and the intermediate array ys.

Sorting the Array

```
def sort(from: Int, until: Int, depth: Int): Unit = {
  if (depth == maxDepth) {
    quickSort(xs, from, until - from)
  } else {
    val mid = (from + until) / 2
    parallel(sort(mid, until, depth + 1), sort(from, mid, depth + 1))
```

Sorting the Array

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  } else {
    val mid = (from + until) / 2
    parallel(sort(mid, until, depth + 1), sort(from, mid, depth + 1))
    val flip = (maxDepth - depth) % 2 == 0
    val src = if (flip) ys else xs
    val dst = if (flip) xs else ys
    merge(src, dst, from, mid, until)
sort(0, xs.length, 0)
```

Merging the Array

Given an array src consisting of two sorted intervals, merge those interval into the dst array:

```
def merge(src: Array[Int], dst: Array[Int],
  from: Int, mid: Int, until: Int): Unit
```

The merge implementation is sequential, so we will not go through it.

Merging the Array

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  from: Int, mid: Int, until: Int): Unit
```

The merge implementation is sequential, so we will not go through it.

How would you implement merge in parallel?

Copying the Array

```
def copy(src: Array[Int], target: Array[Int],
  from: Int, until: Int, depth: Int): Unit = {
  if (depth == maxDepth) {
    Array.copy(src, from, target, from, until - from)
  } else {
    val mid = (from + until) / 2
    val right = parallel(
      copy(src, target, mid, until, depth + 1),
      copy(src, target, from, mid, depth + 1)
if (maxDepth \% 2 == 0) copy(vs, xs, 0, xs.length, 0)
```

Demo

Let's compare the performance of parMergeSort against the Scala quicksort implementation.



Data Operations and Parallel Mapping

Parallel Programming in Scala

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Parallelism and collections

Parallel processing of collections is important

one the main applications of parallelism today

We examine conditions when this can be done

- properties of collections: ability to split, combine
- properties of operations: associativity, independence

Operations on collections are key to functional programming **map**: apply function to each element

List(1,3,8).map($x \Rightarrow x*x$) == List(1, 9, 64)

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scan: combine folds of all list prefixes

List(1,3,8).scan(100)((s,x)
$$\Rightarrow$$
 s + x) == List(100, 101, 104, 112)

These operations are even more important for parallel than sequential collections: they encapsulate more complex algorithms

Choice of data structures

We use **List** to specify the results of operations

Lists are not good for parallel implementations because we cannot efficiently

- split them in half (need to search for the middle)
- combine them (concatenation needs linear time)

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We use for now these alternatives

- arrays: imperative (recall array sum)
- **trees**: can be implemented functionally

Subsequent lectures examine Scala's parallel collection libraries

includes many more data structures, implemented efficiently

Map: meaning and properties

Map applies a given function to each list element

$$List(1,3,8).map(x => x*x) == List(1, 9, 64)$$

$$List(a_1, a_2, ..., a_n).map(f) == List(f(a_1), f(a_2), ..., f(a_n))$$

Properties to keep in mind:

- ightharpoonup list.map(x => x) == list
- ▶ list.map(f.compose(g)) == list.map(g).map(f)

Recall that (f.compose(g))(x) = f(g(x))

Map as function on lists

Sequential definition:

```
def mapSeq[A,B](lst: List[A], f : A => B): List[B] = lst match {
  case Nil => Nil
  case h :: t => f(h) :: mapSeq(t,f)
}
```

We would like a version that parallelizes

- computations of f(h) for different elements h
- ▶ finding the elements themselves (list is not a good choice)

Sequential map of an array producing an array

```
def mapASegSeq[A,B](inp: Array[A], left: Int, right: Int, f : A => B.
                       out: Array[B]) = {
  // Writes to out(i) for left <= i <= right-1</pre>
  var i= left
                                                                              inp
  while (i < right) {</pre>
                                                       <u>f</u>
                                                    fŤ
                                                            f<sup>†</sup> f<sup>†</sup>
    out(i)= f(inp(i))
    i = i + 1
                                                                              Out
} }
val in= Array(2,3,4,5,6)
val out= Array(0,0,0,0,0)
val f= (x:Int) \Rightarrow x*x
mapASegSeg(in, 1, 3, f, out)
out
res1: Array[Int] = Array(0. 9. 16. 0. 0)
```

Parallel map of an array producing an array

```
def mapASegPar[A,B](inp: Array[A], left: Int, right: Int, f : A => B,
                    out: Array[Β]): Unit = {
  // Writes to out(i) for left <= i <= right-1
  if (right - left < threshold)</pre>
    mapASegSeg(inp. left. right. f. out)
  else {
    val mid = left + (right - left)/2
    parallel(mapASegPar(inp, left, mid, f, out),
             mapASegPar(inp, mid, right, f, out))
                                                                           ani
Note:
                                                                           out
```

- writes need to be disjoint (otherwise: non-deterministic behavior)
- ▶ threshold needs to be large enough (otherwise we lose efficiency)

Example of using mapASegPar: pointwise exponent

Raise each array element to power *p*:

$$Array(a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n) \longrightarrow Array(|a_1|^p, |a_2|^p, \ldots, |a_n|^p)$$

We can use previously defined higher-order functions:

```
val p: Double = 1.5
def f(x: Int): Double = power(x, p)
mapASegSeq(inp, 0, inp.length, f, out)  // sequential
mapASegPar(inp, 0, inp.length, f, out)  // parallel
```

Example of using mapASegPar: pointwise exponent

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```

Questions on performance:

- ▶ are there performance gains from parallel execution
- performance of re-using higher-order functions vs re-implementing

Sequential pointwise exponent written from scratch

Parallel pointwise exponent written from scratch

```
def normsOfPar(inp: Array[Int], p: Double,
                left: Int, right: Int,
               out: Array[Double]): Unit = {
  if (right - left < threshold) {</pre>
    var i= left
    while (i < right) {</pre>
      out(i)= power(inp(i),p)
      i = i + 1
  } else {
     val mid = left + (right - left)/2
     parallel(normsOfPar(inp, p, left, mid, out),
              normsOfPar(inp, p, mid, right, out))
```

Measured performance using scalameter

- ▶ inp.length = 2000000
- ightharpoonup threshold = 10000
- Intel(R) Core(TM) i7-3770K CPU @ 3.50GHz (4-core, 8 HW threads), 16GB RAM

| expression | time(ms) |
|--|----------|
| mapASegSeq(inp, 0, inp.length, f, out) | 174.17 |
| mapASegPar(inp, 0, inp.length, f, out) | 28.93 |
| normsOfSeq(inp, p, 0, inp.length, out) | 166.84 |
| ${\it normsOfPar(inp,p,0,inp.length,out)}$ | 28.17 |

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| normsOfSeq(inp, p, 0, inp.length, out) | 166.84 |
| normsOfPar(inp, p, 0, inp.length, out) | 28.17 |

Parallelization pays off

Manually removing higher-order functions does not pay off

Parallel map on immutable trees

Consider trees where

- leaves store array segments
- non-leaf node stores two subtrees

```
sealed abstract class Tree[A] { val size: Int }
case class Leaf[A](a: Array[A]) extends Tree[A] {
  override val size = a.size
}
case class Node[A](1: Tree[A], r: Tree[A]) extends Tree[A] {
  override val size = l.size + r.size
}
```

Assume that our trees are balanced: we can explore branches in parallel

Parallel map on immutable trees

```
def mapTreePar[A:Manifest,B:Manifest](t: Tree[A], f: A => B) : Tree[B] =
t match {
  case Leaf(a) => {
    val len = a.length; val b = new Array[B](len)
    var i= 0
    while (i < len) \{ b(i) = f(a(i)); i = i + 1 \}
    Leaf(b) }
  case Node(1,r) \Rightarrow \{
    val (lb,rb) = parallel(mapTreePar(1,f), mapTreePar(r,f))
    Node(lb, rb) }
```

Speedup and performance similar as for the array

Give depth bound of mapTreePar

Give a correct but as tight as possible asymptotic parallel computation depth bound for mapTreePar applied to complete trees with height h and 2^h nodes, assuming the passed first-class function f executes in constant time.

- 1. 2^h
- 2. h
- 3. log *h*
- 4. *h* log *h*
- 5. $h2^h$

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- 3. log *h*
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- 5. $h2^h$

Answer: *h*. The computation depth equals the height of the tree.

Comparison of arrays and immutable trees

Arrays:

- ▶ (+) random access to elements, on shared memory can share array
- ▶ (+) good memory locality
- ▶ (-) imperative: must ensure parallel tasks write to disjoint parts
- ▶ (-) expensive to concatenate

Immutable trees:

- ▶ (+) purely functional, produce new trees, keep old ones
- ▶ (+) no need to worry about disjointness of writes by parallel tasks
- ▶ (+) efficient to combine two trees
- ▶ (-) high memory allocation overhead
- ▶ (-) bad locality



Fold (Reduce) Operations

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We have seen operation:

map: apply function to each element

List(1,3,8).map(x => x*x) == List(1, 9, 64)

We now consider:

fold: combine elements with a given operation

 \blacktriangleright List(1,3,8).fold(100)((s,x) => s + x) == 112

Fold: meaning and properties

Fold takes among others a binary operation, but variants differ:

- whether they take an initial element or assume non-empty list
- ▶ in which order they combine operations of collection

addition, string concatenation (but not minus)

Associative operation

Operation f: $(A,A) \Rightarrow A$ is associative iff for every x, y, z:

$$f(x, f(y, z)) = f(f(x, y), z)$$

If we write f(a, b) in infix form as $a \otimes b$, associativity becomes

$$x \otimes (y \otimes z) = (x \otimes y) \otimes z$$

Consequence: consider two expressions with same list of operands connected with \otimes , but different parentheses. Then these expressions evaluate to the same result, for example:

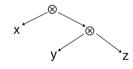
$$(x \otimes y) \otimes (z \otimes w) = (x \otimes (y \otimes z)) \otimes w = ((x \otimes y) \otimes z) \otimes w$$

Trees for expressions

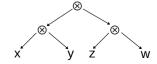
Each expression built from values connected with \otimes can be represented as a tree

- ► leaves are the values
- ► nodes are ⊗

$$x \otimes (y \otimes z)$$
:



$$(x \otimes y) \otimes (z \otimes w)$$
:



Folding (reducing) trees

How do we compute the value of such an expression tree?

```
sealed abstract class Tree[A] case class Leaf[A](value: A) extends Tree[A] case class Node[A](left: Tree[A], right: Tree[A]) extends Tree[A] Result of evaluating the expression is given by a reduce of this tree. What is its (sequential) definition?
```

Folding (reducing) trees

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How do we compute the value of such an expression tree?

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case class Leaf[A](value: A) extends Tree[A]
case class Node[A](left: Tree[A], right: Tree[A]) extends Tree[A]
Result of evaluating the expression is given by a reduce of this tree.
What is its (sequential) definition?
def reduce[A](t: Tree[A], f : (A,A) \Rightarrow A): A = t match {
  case Leaf(v) => v
  case Node(1, r) \Rightarrow f(reduce[A](1, f), reduce[A](r, f)) // Node -> f
```

We can think of reduce as replacing the constructor Node with given f

Running reduce

For non-associative operation, the result depends on structure of the tree:

```
def tree = Node(Leaf(1), Node(Leaf(3), Leaf(8)))
def fMinus = (x:Int,y:Int) => x - y
def res = reduce[Int](tree, fMinus) // 6
```

How to make that tree reduce parallel?

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```
def reduce[A](t: Tree[A], f : (A,A) => A): A = t match {
  case Leaf(v) => v
  case Node(1, r) => {
    val (1V, rV) = parallel(reduce[A](1, f), reduce[A](r, f))
    f(1V, rV)
  }
}
```

How to make that tree reduce parallel?

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   case Leaf(v) => v
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}
```

What is the depth complexity of such reduce?

Answer: height of the tree

Associativity stated as tree reduction

How can we restate associativity of such trees?

$$x \otimes (y \otimes z) = (x \otimes y) \otimes z$$

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$$y \otimes z \otimes z$$

$$y \otimes z \otimes z \otimes z$$

If f denotes \oplus , in Scala we can write this also as:

```
reduce(Node(Leaf(x), Node(Leaf(y), Leaf(z))), f) ==
reduce(Node(Node(Leaf(x), Leaf(y)), Leaf(z)), f)
```

Order of elements in a tree

Observe: can use a list to describe the ordering of elements of a tree

```
def toList[A](t: Tree[A]): List[A] = t match {
  case Leaf(v) => List(v)
  case Node(1, r) => toList[A](1) ++ toList[A](r) }
```

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  case Leaf(v) => List(v)
  case Node(1, r) \Rightarrow toList[A](1) ++ toList[A](r) }
Suppose we also have tree map:
def map[A,B](t: Tree[A], f: A \Rightarrow B): Tree[B] = t match {
  case Leaf(v) => Leaf(f(v))
  case Node(1, r) \Rightarrow Node(map[A,B](1, f), map[A,B](r, f)) }
Can you express to List using map and reduce?
```

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def map[A,B](t: Tree[A], f: A \Rightarrow B): Tree[B] = t match {
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  case Node(1, r) \Rightarrow Node(map[A,B](1, f), map[A,B](r, f)) }
Can you express to List using map and reduce?
toList(t) == reduce(map(t, List(_)), _ ++ _)
```

Consequence stated as tree reduction

Consequence of associativity: consider two expressions with same list of operands connected with \otimes , but different parentheses. Then these expressions evaluate to the same result.

Express this consequence in Scala using functions we have defined so far.

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Consequence of associativity: consider two expressions with same list of operands connected with \otimes , but different parentheses. Then these expressions evaluate to the same result.

Express this consequence in Scala using functions we have defined so far.

Consequence (Scala): if f: (A,A) => A is associative, t1:Tree[A] and t2:Tree[A] and if toList(t1)==toList(t2), then:

```
reduce(t1, f)==reduce(t2, f)
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Express this consequence in Scala using functions we have defined so far.

Consequence (Scala): if f: (A,A) => A is associative, t1:Tree[A] and t2:Tree[A] and if toList(t1)==toList(t2), then:

reduce(t1, f)==reduce(t2, f)

Can we prove that this fact follows from associativity?

Explanation of the consequence

Intuition: given a tree, use tree rotation until it becomes list-like.

Associativity law says tree rotation preserves the result:



Example use:



Applying rotation to tree preserves toList as well as the value of reduce. $toList(t1)==toList(t2) \Rightarrow rotations can bring t1,t2 to same tree$

Towards a reduction for arrays

We have seen reduction on trees.

Often we work with collections where we only know the ordering and not the tree structure.

How can we do reduction in case of, e.g., arrays?

- convert it into a balanced tree
- ▶ do tree reduction

Because of associativity, we can choose any tree that preserves the order of elements of the original collection

Tree reduction replaces Node constructor with f, so we can just use f directly instead of building tree nodes.

When the segment is small, it is faster to process it sequentially

Parallel array reduce

```
def reduceSeg[A](inp: Array[A], left: Int, right: Int, f: (A,A) => A): A = {
  if (right - left < threshold) {</pre>
    var res= inp(left); var i= left+1
    while (i < right) { res= f(res, inp(i)); i= i+1 }
    res
  } else {
    val mid = left + (right - left)/2
    val (a1,a2) = parallel(reduceSeg(inp, left, mid, f),
                           reduceSeg(inp, mid, right, f))
    f(a1.a2)
def reduce[A](inp: Array[A], f: (A,A) => A): A =
  reduceSeg(inp, 0, inp.length, f)
```



Associative Operations

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Associative operation

Operation f: $(A,A) \Rightarrow A$ is **associative** iff for every x, y, z:

$$f(x, f(y, z)) = f(f(x, y), z)$$

Consequence:

- \blacktriangleright two expressions with same list of operands connected with \otimes , but different parentheses evaluate to the same result
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Which operations are associative?

A different property: commutativity

Operation f: $(A,A) \Rightarrow A$ is **commutative** iff for every x, y:

$$f(x, y) = f(y, x)$$

There are operations that are associative but not commutative There are operations that are commutative but not associative For correctness of reduce, we need (just) associativity

Examples of operations that are both associative and commutative

Many operations from math:

- addition and multiplication of mathematical integers (BigInt) and of exact rational numbers (given as, e.g., pairs of BigInts)
- ▶ addition and multiplication modulo a positive integer (e.g. 2^{32}), including the usual arithmetic on 32-bit Int or 64-bit Long values
- union, intersection, and symmetric difference of sets
- union of bags (multisets) that preserves duplicate elements
- **b** boolean operations &&, ||, exclusive or
- addition and multiplication of polynomials
- addition of vectors
- addition of matrices of fixed dimension

Using sum: array norm

Our array norm example computes first:

$$\sum_{i=s}^{t-1} \lfloor |a_i|^p \rfloor$$

Which combination of operations does sum of powers correspond to?

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Which combination of operations does sum of powers correspond to?

Here + is the associative operation of reduce

map can be combined with reduce to avoid intermediate collections

Examples of operations that are associative but not commutative

These examples illustrate that associativity does not imply commutativity:

- concatenation (append) of lists: (x ++ y) ++ z == x ++ (y ++ z)
- concatenation of Strings (which can be viewed as lists of Char)
- matrix multiplication AB for matrices A and B of compatible dimensions
- ▶ composition of relations $r \odot s = \{(a, c) \mid \exists b.(a, b) \in r \land (b, c) \in s\}$
- ▶ composition of functions $(f \circ g)(x) = f(g(x))$

Because they are associative, reduce still gives the same result.

Many operations are commutative but not associative

This function is also commutative:

$$f(x,y) = x^2 + y^2$$

Indeed $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 = y^2 + x^2 = f(y, x)$ But

$$f(f(x, y), z) = (x^2 + y^2)^2 + z^2$$

 $f(x, f(y, z)) = x^2 + (y^2 + z^2)^2$

These are polynomials of different growth rates with respect to different variables and are easily seen to be different for many x, y, z.

Proving commutativity alone does not prove associativity and does not guarantee that the result of reduce is the same as e.g. reduceLeft and reduceRight.

Associativity is not preserved by mapping

In general, if f(x,y) is commutative and $h_1(z),h_2(z)$ are arbitrary functions, then any function defined by

$$g(x, y) = h_2(f(h_1(x), h_1(y)))$$

is equal to $h_2(f(h_1(y),h_2(x)))=g(y,x)$, so it is commutative, but it often loses associativity even if f was associative to start with.

Previous example was an instance of this for $h_1(x) = h_2(x) = x^2$.

When combining and optimizing reduce and map invocations, we need to be careful that operations given to reduce remain associative.

Floating point addition is commutative but not associative

```
scala > val e = 1e-200
e: Double = 1.0E-200
scala > val x = 1e200
x: Double = 1.0E200
scala > val mx = -x
mx: Double = -1.0E200
scala>(x + mx) + e
res2: Double = 1.0E-200
scala> x + (mx + e)
res3: Double = 0.0
scala> (x + mx) + e == x + (mx + e)
res4: Boolean = false
```

Floating point multiplication is commutative but not associative

```
scala > val e = 1e-200
e: Double = 1.0E-200
scala > val x = 1e200
x: Double = 1.0E200
scala> (e*x)*x
res0: Double = 1.0F200
scala> e*(x*x)
res1: Double = Infinity
scala> (e*x)*x == e*(x*x)
res2: Boolean = false
```

Making an operation commutative is easy

Suppose we have a binary operation g and a strict total ordering less (e.g. lexicographical ordering of bit representations).

Then this operation is commutative:

```
def f(x: A, y: A) = if (less(y,x)) g(y,x) else g(x,y)
```

Indeed f(x,y)==f(y,x) because:

- if x==y then both sides equal g(x,x)
- → if less(y,x) then left sides is g(y,x) and it is not less(x,y) so right side is also g(y,x)
- ▶ if less(x,y) then it is not less(y,x) so left sides is g(x,y) and right side is also g(x,y)

We know of no such efficient trick for associativity

Associative operations on tuples

```
Suppose f1: (A1,A1) \Rightarrow A1 and f2: (A2,A2) \Rightarrow A2 are associative
Then f: ((A1,A2), (A1,A2)) => (A1,A2) defined by
f((x1,x2), (y1,y2)) = (f1(x1,y1), f2(x2,y2))
is also associative:
f(f((x1,x2), (v1,v2)), (z1,z2)) ==
f((f1(x1,v1), f2(x2,v2)), (z1,z2)) ==
(f1(f1(x1,y1), z1), f2(f2(x2,y2), z2)) == (because f1, f2 are associative)
(f1(x1, f1(v1,z1)), f2(x2, f2(v2,z2))) ==
f((x1 \ x2), (f1(y1,z1), f2(y2,z2))) ==
f((x1 x2), f((y1,y2), (z1, z2)))
```

We can similarly construct associative operations on for n-tuples

Example: rational multiplication

Suppose we use 32-bit numbers to represent numerator and denominator of a rational number.

We can define multiplication working on pairs of numerator and denominator

```
times((x1,y1), (x2, y2)) = (x1*x2, y1*y2)
```

Because multiplication modulo 2^{32} is associative, so is times

Example: average

Given a collection of integers, compute the average

```
val sum = reduce(collection, _ + _)
val length = reduce(map(collection, (x:Int) => 1), _ + _)
sum/length
```

This includes two reductions. Is there a solution using a single reduce?

Example: average

Use pairs that compute sum and length at once

```
f((sum1,len1), (sum2, len2)) = (sum1 + sum1, len1 + len2)
```

Function f is associative because addition is associative.

Solution is then:

```
val (sum, length) = reduce(map(collection, (x:Int) \Rightarrow (x,1)), f) sum/length
```

Associativity through symmetry and commutativity

Although commutativity of f alone does not imply associativity, it implies it if we have an additional property. Define:

$$E(x,y,z) = f(f(x,y), z)$$

We say arguments of E can rotate if E(x,y,z) = E(y,z,x), that is:

$$f(f(x,y), z) = f(f(y,z), x)$$

Claim: if f is commutative and arguments of E can rotate then f is also associative.

Proof:

$$f(f(x,y), z) = f(f(y,z), x) = f(x, f(y,z))$$

Example: addition of modular fractions

Define

```
plus((x1,y1), (x2, y2)) = (x1*y2 + x2*y1, y1*y2) where * and + are all modulo some base (e.g. 2^{32}). We can have overflows in both numerator and denominator Is such plus associative?
```

Example: addition of modular fractions

Observe: plus is commutative. Moreover:

plus((x1.v1), (x2. v2)) = (x1*v2 + x2*v1, v1*v2)

```
E((x1,y1), (x2,y2), (x3,y3)) ==
plus(plus((x1,v1), (x2,v2)), (x3,v3)) ==
plus((x1*y2 + x2*y1, y1*y2), (x3,y3)) ==
((x1*y2 + x2*y1)*y3 + x3*y1*y2, y1*y2*y3) ==
(x1*v2*v3 + x2*v1*v3 + x3*v1*v2, v1*v2*v3)
Therefore
E((x2,y2), (x3,y3), (x1,y1)) ==
(x2*v3*v1 + x3*v2*v1 + x1*v2*v3, v2*v3*v1)
which is the same. By previous claim, plus is associative.
```

Example: relativistic velocity addition

Let u, v range over rational numbers in the open interval (-1, 1)

Define f to add velicities according to special relativity

$$f(u,v) = \frac{u+v}{1+uv}$$

Clearly, f is commutative: f(u, v) = f(v, u).

$$f(f(u,v),w) = \frac{\frac{u+v}{1+uv} + w}{1 + \frac{u+v}{1+uv}w} = \frac{u+v+w+uvw}{1+uv+uw+vw}$$

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Example: relativistic velocity addition

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We can rotate arguments u, v, w

f is commutative and we can rotate, so f is associative.

Consequences of non-associativity on floating points

If we implement f given by expression

$$f(u,v) = \frac{u+v}{1+uv}$$

using floating point numbers, then the operation is not associative.

Even though the difference between f(x, f(y, z)) and f(f(x, y), z) is small in one step, over many steps it accumulates, so the result of the reduceLeft and a reduce may differ substantially.

A family of associative operations on sets

Define binary operation on sets A, B by $f(A, B) = (A \cup B)^*$ where * is any operator on sets (closure) with these properties:

- ▶ $A \subseteq A^*$ (expansion)
- ▶ if $A \subseteq B$ then $A^* \subseteq B^*$ (monotonicity)
- $(A^*)^* = A^*$ (idempotence)

Example of *: convex hull, Kleene star in regular expressions

Claim: every such f is associative.

Proof: f is commutative. It remains to show

$$f(f(A, B), C) = ((A \cup B)^* \cup C)^* = (A \cup B \cup C)^*$$

because from there it is easy to see that the arguments rotate.

First subset inclusion

We need to prove: $((A \cup B)^* \cup C)^* \subseteq (A \cup B \cup C)^*$.

Since $A \cup B \subseteq A \cup B \cup C$, by monotonicity:

$$(A \cup B)^* \subseteq (A \cup B \cup C)^*$$

Similarly

$$C \subseteq A \cup B \cup C \subseteq (A \cup B \cup C)^*$$

Thus $(A \cup B)^* \cup C \subseteq (A \cup B \cup C)^*$. By monotonicity and idempotence

$$((A \cup B)^* \cup C)^* \subseteq ((A \cup B \cup C)^*)^* = (A \cup B \cup C)^*$$

Second subset inclusion

We need to prove: $(A \cup B \cup C)^* \subseteq ((A \cup B)^* \cup C)^*$

From expansion we have $A \cup B \subseteq (A \cup B)^*$. Thus

$$A \cup B \cup C \subseteq (A \cup B)^* \cup C$$

The property then follows by monotonicity.



Parallel Scan Left

Parallel Programming in Scala

Viktor Kuncak

Parallel scan

Having seen parallel map and parallel fold map: apply function to each element

List(1,3,8).map(x =>
$$x*x$$
) == List(1, 9, 64)

fold: combine elements with a given operation

$$\blacktriangleright$$
 List(1,3,8).fold(100)((s,x) => s + x) == 112

we now examine parallel scanLeft:

scanLeft: list of the folds of all list prefixes

List(1,3,8).scanLeft(100)((s,x)
$$\Rightarrow$$
 s + x) == List(100, 101, 104, 112)

scanLeft: meaning and properties

```
List(1,3,8).scanLeft(100)(_{-} + _{-}) == List(100, 101, 104, 112)
List(a1, a2, a3).scanLeft(f)(a0) = List(b0, b1, b2, b3)
where
```

- ► b0 = a0
- \triangleright b1 = f(b0, a1)
- \triangleright b2 = f(b1, a2)
- \triangleright b3 = f(b2, a3)

We assume that f is assocative, throughout this segment.

scanLeft: meaning and properties

```
where
  b0 = a0
  \triangleright b1 = f(b0, a1)
  \triangleright b2 = f(b1, a2)
  \triangleright b3 = f(b2, a3)
We assume that f is assocative, throughout this segment.
scanRight is different from scanLeft, even if f is associative
List(1,3,8).scanRight(100)(_{-} + _{-}) == List(112, 111, 108, 100)
We consider only scanLeft, but scanRight is dual.
```

 $List(1,3,8).scanLeft(100)(_ + _) == List(100, 101, 104, 112)$

List(a1, a2, a3).scanLeft(f)(a0) = List(b0, b1, b2, b3)

Sequential Scan

$$List(a_1, a_2, ..., a_N).scanLeft(f)(a_0) = List(b_0, b_1, b_2, ..., b_N)$$

where
$$b_0 = a_0$$
 and $b_i = f(b_{i-1}, a_i)$ for $1 \le i \le N$.

Sequential Scan

$$List(a_1, a_2, ..., a_N).scanLeft(f)(a_0) = List(b_0, b_1, b_2, ..., b_N)$$

where $b_0 = a_0$ and $b_i = f(b_{i-1}, a_i)$ for $1 \le i \le N$.

Give a sequential definition of scanLeft:

- take an array inp, an element a0, and binary operation f
- write the output to array out, assuming out.length >= inp.length + 1

Sequential Scan Solution

```
def scanLeft[A](inp: Array[A],
                 a0: A, f: (A,A) => A,
                 out: Array[A]): Unit = {
  out(0) = a0
  var a= a0
  var i= 0
  while (i < inp.length) {</pre>
    a = f(a, inp(i))
    i = i + 1
    out(i)=a
```

Making scan parallel

Can scanLeft be made parallel? Assume that f is associative.

Goal: an algorithm that runs in $O(\log n)$ given infinite parallelism

Making scan parallel

Can scanLeft be made parallel? Assume that f is associative.

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At first, the task seems impossible; it seems that:

- the value of the last element in sequence depends on all previous ones
- need to wait on all previous partial results to be computed first
- ightharpoonup such approach gives O(n) even with infinite parallelism

Making scan parallel

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Idea: give up on reusing all intermediate results

- do more work (more f applications)
- ▶ improve parallelism, more than compensate for recomputation

High-level approach: express scan using map and reduce

Can you define result of scanLeft using map and reduce?

High-level approach: express scan using map and reduce

Can you define result of scanLeft using map and reduce?

Assume input is given in array inp and that you have reduceSeg1 and mapSeg functions on array segments:

High-Level Solution

According to definition, element on position i is the reduce of the previous elements.

We thus map the array with a function defined using reduce:

```
def scanLeft[A](inp: Array[A], a0: A, f: (A,A) => A, out: Array[A]) = {
  val fi = { (i:Int,v:A) => reduceSeg1(inp, 0, i, a0, f) }
  mapSeg(inp, 0, inp.length, fi, out)
  val last = inp.length - 1
  out(last + 1) = f(out(last), inp(last))
}
```

Map always gives as many elements as the input, so we additionally compute the last element.

Reusing intermediate results of reduce

In the previous solution we do not reuse any computation.

Can we reuse some of it?

Recall that reduce proceeds by applying the operations in a tree

Reusing intermediate results of reduce

In the previous solution we do not reuse any computation.

Can we reuse some of it?

Recall that reduce proceeds by applying the operations in a tree

Idea: save the intermediate results of this parallel computation.

We first assume that input collectio is also (another) tree.

Tree definitions

Trees storing our input collection only have values in leaves:

```
sealed abstract class Tree[A]
case class Leaf[A](a: A) extends Tree[A]
case class Node[A](1: Tree[A], r: Tree[A]) extends Tree[A]
Trees storing intermediate values also have (res) values in nodes:
sealed abstract class TreeRes[A] { val res: A }
case class LeafRes[A](override val res: A) extends TreeRes[A]
case class NodeRes[A](1: TreeRes[A].
                      override val res: A,
                      r: TreeRes[A]) extends TreeRes[A]
```

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case class NodeRes[A](1: TreeRes[A].
                      override val res: A,
                      r: TreeRes[A]) extends TreeRes[A]
```

Can you define reduceRes function that transforms Tree into TreeRes?

Reduce that preserves the computation tree

```
def reduceRes[A](t: Tree[A], f: (A,A) => A): TreeRes[A]
```

Reduce that preserves the computation tree

```
def reduceRes[A](t: Tree[A], f: (A,A) => A): TreeRes[A] = t match {
  case Leaf(v) => LeafRes(v)
  case Node(1, r) => {
    val (tL, tR) = (reduceRes(1, f), reduceRes(r, f)
    NodeRes(tL, f(tL.res, tR.res), tR)
  }
}
```

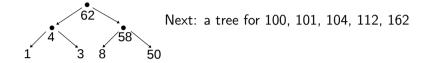
Reduce that preserves the computation tree

```
def reduceRes[A](t: Tree[A], f: (A,A) => A): TreeRes[A] = t match {
  case Leaf(v) => LeafRes(v)
  case Node(1, r) \Rightarrow \{
    val (tL, tR) = (reduceRes(1, f), reduceRes(r, f)
    NodeRes(tL, f(tL.res, tR.res), tR)
val t1 = Node(Node(Leaf(1), Leaf(3)), Node(Leaf(8), Leaf(50)))
val plus = (x:Int,y:Int) \Rightarrow x+y
scala> reduceRes(t1. plus)
res0: TreeRes[Int] = NodeRes(NodeRes(LeafRes(1),4,LeafRes(3)),
                              62,
                              NodeRes(LeafRes(8).58.LeafRes(50)))
```

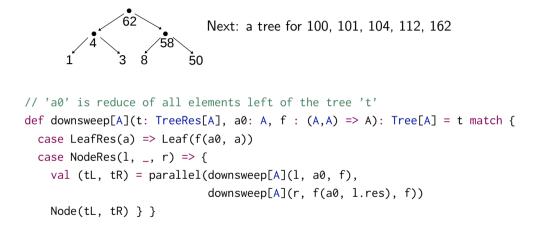
Parallel reduce that preserves the computation tree (upsweep)

```
def upsweep[A](t: Tree[A], f: (A,A) => A): TreeRes[A] = t match {
  case Leaf(v) => LeafRes(v)
  case Node(1, r) => {
    val (tL, tR) = parallel(upsweep(1, f), upsweep(r, f))
    NodeRes(tL, f(tL.res, tR.res), tR)
  }
}
```

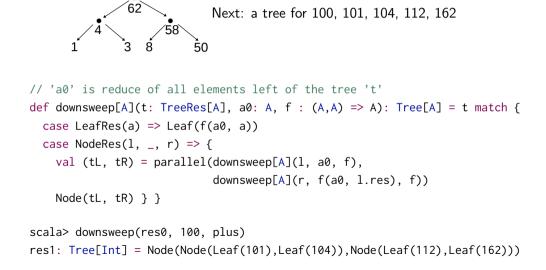
Using tree with results to create the final collection



Using tree with results to create the final collection



Using tree with results to create the final collection



scanLeft on trees

```
def scanLeft[A](t: Tree[A], a0: A, f: (A,A) => A): Tree[A] = {
  val tRes = upsweep(t, f)
  val scan1 = downsweep(tRes, a0, f)
  prepend(a0, scan1)
}
```

scanLeft on trees

Define prepend.

```
def scanLeft[A](t: Tree[A], a0: A, f: (A,A) => A): Tree[A] = {
  val tRes = upsweep(t, f)
  val scan1 = downsweep(tRes, a0, f)
  prepend(a0, scan1)
}
```

scanLeft on trees

```
def scanLeft[A](t: Tree[A], a0: A, f: (A,A) \Rightarrow A): Tree[A] = {
  val tRes = upsweep(t, f)
  val scan1 = downsweep(tRes, a0, f)
  prepend(a0, scan1)
Define prepend.
def prepend[A](x: A, t: Tree[A]): Tree[A] = t match {
  case Leaf(v) => Node(Leaf(x), Leaf(v))
  case Node(1, r) \Rightarrow Node(prepend(x, 1), r)
```

scanLeft and arrays

Previous definition on trees is good for understanding

As with map and reduce, to make it more efficient, we use trees that have arrays in leaves instead of individual elements.

scanLeft and arrays

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As with map and reduce, to make it more efficient, we use trees that have arrays in leaves instead of individual elements.

Exercise: define scanLeft on trees with such large leaves, using sequential scan left in the leaves.

scanLeft and arrays

Previous definition on trees is good for understanding

As with map and reduce, to make it more efficient, we use trees that have arrays in leaves instead of individual elements.

Exercise: define scanLeft on trees with such large leaves, using sequential scan left in the leaves.

Next step: parallel scan when the entire collection is an array

we will still need to construct the intermediate tree

Intermediate tree for array reduce

The only difference compared to previous TreeRes: each Leaf now keeps track of the array segment range (from, to) from which res is computed.

We do not keep track of the array elements in the Leaf itself; we instead pass around a reference to the input array.

Upsweep on array

Starts from an array, produces a tree

```
def upsweep[A](inp: Array[A], from: Int, to: Int,
               f: (A.A) \Rightarrow A: TreeResA[A] = {
  if (to - from < threshold)</pre>
    Leaf(from, to, reduceSeg1(inp, from + 1, to, inp(from), f))
  else {
    val mid = from + (to - from)/2
    val (tL,tR) = parallel(upsweep(inp, from, mid, f),
                            upsweep(inp. mid. to. f))
    Node(tL, f(tL.res,tR.res), tR)
```

Sequential reduce for segment

```
def reduceSeg1[A](inp: Array[A], left: Int, right: Int,
                    a0: A, f: (A,A) \Rightarrow A): A = {
  var a= a0
  var i= left
  while (i < right) {</pre>
    a= f(a, inp(i))
    i = i + 1
```

Downsweep on array

```
def downsweep[A](inp: Array[A],
                 a0: A, f: (A,A) => A,
                 t: TreeResA[A].
                 out: Array[A]): Unit = t match {
    case Leaf(from, to, res) =>
      scanLeftSeg(inp. from. to. a0, f. out)
    case Node(1, _{-}, r) => {
      val(_,_) = parallel(
        downsweep(inp, a0, f, l, out).
        downsweep(inp, f(a0,l.res), f, r, out))
```

Sequential scan left on segment

Writes to output shifted by one.

```
def scanLeftSeg[A](inp: Array[A], left: Int, right: Int,
                     a0: A, f: (A,A) => A,
                     out: Arrav[A]) = {
  if (left < right) {</pre>
    var i= left
    var a= a0
    while (i < right) {</pre>
      a= f(a, inp(i))
      i = i + 1
      out(i)=a
```

Finally: parallel scan on the array

End of Slide Deck