Verified High Performance Computing: the SyDPaCC Approach

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Abstract

The SyDPaCC framework for the Coq proof assistant is based on a transformational approach to develop verified efficient scalable parallel functional programs from specifications. These specifications are written as inefficient (potentially with a high computational complexity) sequential programs using some easily understandable predefined sequential function. We obtain efficient parallel programs implemented using algorithmic skeletons that are higher-order functions implemented in parallel on distributed data structures. The output programs are constructed step-by-step by applying transformation theorems. Leveraging Coq type classes, the application of transformation theorems is partly automated. The current version of the framework is presented and exemplified on the development of a parallel program for the maximum segment sum problem. This program is experimented on a parallel machine.

Keywords: program transformation, scalable parallel computing, functional programming, interactive theorem proving

1 Introduction

Our everyday activities generate extremely large volume of data. Big data analytics offer opportunities in a variety of domains [3, 12].

While there are many challenges in the design and implementation of big data analytics applications, we focus on the programming aspects. Due to the large scale, scalable parallel computing is a necessity. Most approaches either cite Bulk Synchronous Parallelism

(BSP) [41] as an inspiration, that is the case of Pregel [30] and related frameworks such as Apache Giraph, or are related to, even if it is not often acknowledged, algorithmic skeletons [5]. This is the case of Hadoop MapReduce [8] and Spark [1].

Both BSP and algorithmic skeletons are structured and high-level approaches to parallelism which free the developers from tedious details of the implementation of parallel algorithms found for example in MPI programming, a de facto standard for writing HPC programs. While BSP is a general purpose parallel programming model, algorithmic skeletons approaches as well as the mentioned big data frameworks are limited to what is expressible by the build blocks they provide. This lack of generality is both a strength making them easier to use in classes of applications they naturally cover, but also a weakness in that expressing one's algorithm with these building blocks may become very convoluted or even impossible.

SyDPaCC [27, 26] is a framework for the Coq proof assistant to systematically develop correct and efficient parallel programs from specifications. Currently, SyDPaCC provides sequential program optimizations via transformations based on list homomorphism theorems [16] and the diffusion theorem [20]. It also provides automated parallelization via verified correspondences between sequential higher-order functions and algorithmic skeletons implemented using the parallel primitives of BSML [25] a library for scalable parallel programming with the multi-paradigm (including functional) programming language OCaml [23]. In this paper, we develop a new verified parallel algorithm for the maximum segment sum problem, which is for example a component of computer vision applications to detect the brightest area of an image.

The remaining of the paper is organized as follows. Functional bulk synchronous parallel programming with the BSML library is introduced in Section 2. Section 3 is devoted to an overview of the SyDPaCC framework. In Section 4, we develop a verified scalable Bulk Synchronous Parallel algorithm of the maximum segment sum problem and experiment (Section 5) on a parallel machine the extracted code from the Coq proof assistant. We compare our approach to related work in Section 6 and conclude in Section 7.

2 Functional Bulk Synchronous Parallelism

In the Bulk Synchronous Parallel model, the BSP computer is seen as a homogeneous distributed memory machine with a point-to-point communication network and a global synchronization unit. It runs BSP programs which are *sequences* of so-called *super-steps*. A super-step is where the parallelism is. The computation phase is concerned with each processor-memory pair computing using only the data available locally. In the communication phase, each processor may request data from other processors and send requested data to other processors. Finally, during the synchronization phase, the communication exchanges are finalized and the super-step ends with a global synchronization of all the processors.

BSML offers a set of constants (giving access to the parameters of the BSP machine as they are discussed in [37] but omitted here) including `bsp_p` the number of processors in the BSP machine and a set of four functions which are expressive enough to express any

```
module type SKELETONS = sig
  type α dislist (* A type for distributed lists *)

  val init : int →(int →α) →α dislist
  val map : (α →β) →α dislist →β dislist
  val filter : (α →bool) →α dislist →α dislist
  val count : α dislist →int
end
```

Figure 1: A Signature for Algorithmic Skeletons on Distributed Lists

BSP algorithm. BSML is implemented as a library for the multi-paradigm and functional language OCaml [23]. BSML is purely functional but using on each processor the imperative features of OCaml, it is possible to implement an imperative programming library [25] in the style of the BSPlib for C [18]. In this paper we are interested in the pure functional aspects of BSML as it is only possible to write pure functions within Coq.

Given any type α and a function `f` from `int` to α (which is written `f: int→`α in OCaml), the BSML primitive `mkpar f` (`mkpar` applied to `f`, application in OCaml and many other functional languages is simply denoted by a space) creates a *parallel vector* of type α `par`. Parallel vectors are therefore a polymorphic data-structure. In such a parallel vector, processor number i with $0 \leq i <$`bsp_p`, holds the value of `f i`. For example, `mkpar(fun i→i)` is the parallel vector $\langle 0, \ldots,$ `bsp_p` $- 1\rangle$ of type `int par`. In the following, this parallel vector is denoted by `this`. The function `replicate` has type $\alpha \to \alpha$ `par` and can be defined as: `let replicate = fun x →mkpar(fun i →x)`. In expression `replicate x`, all the processors will contain the value of `x`.

`(+)1` is the partial application of addition seen in prefix notation, it is equivalent to `fun x→1+x`. Therefore `replicate ((+)1)` is a parallel vector of functions and its type is `(int→int)par`. A parallel vector of functions is not a function and cannot be applied directly. That is why BSML provides the primitive `apply` that can apply a parallel vector of functions to a parallel vector of values. For example, `apply (replicate ((+)1)) this` is the parallel vector $\langle 1, \ldots,$ `bsp_p`$\rangle$. Using `apply` and `replicate` in such a way is common. The function `parfun` is also part of the BSML standard library and is defined as: `let parfun f = apply(replicate f)`.

The primitive `proj` can be seen as a partial inverse of `mkpar`, its type is α `par` $\to$`(int →`α`)`. However, `proj(mkpar f)` is in general different from `f`. Indeed `f` may be defined on all the values of type `int`, but `proj(mkpar f)` is defined only on $\{0, \ldots,$ `bsp_p` $- 1\}$.

To transform a parallel vector into a list, one can define `to_list` as follows:
`let to_list v = List.map (proj v) processors` where `processors` has type `int list` and contains the integers from 0 (included) to `bsp_p` (excluded).

While `mkpar` and `apply` do not require any communication or synchronization to run, `proj` needs communications and a global synchronization. The value of each processor is sent to all the other processors (it is a total exchanged). For a finer control over communications the primitive `put` should be used. It is the most complex operation of BSML and its type is

```
type α dislist = { content : α list par; size : int }

let init (size : int) (f : int →α) : α dislist =
  let rem = size mod bsp_p in
  let ajust pid = if pid < rem then 1 else 0 in
  let local_size pid = (size / bsp_p) + ajust pid in
  let first_index pid =
    if pid < rem then pid * (local_size pid + 1)
    else (pid * local_size pid) + rem
  in
  {
    content =
      mkpar (fun pid →
          let lsize = local_size pid in
          let findex = first_index pid in
          List.init lsize (fun i →f (findex + i)));
    size;
  }

let map (f : α →β) (l : α dislist) : β dislist =
  { content = parfun (List.map f) l.content; size = l.size }

let filter (p : α →bool) (l : α dislist) : α dislist =
  let sum : int list →int = List.fold_left ( + ) 0 in
  let new_content = parfun (List.filter p) l.content in
  let local_sizes = parfun List.length new_content in
  let new_size = sum (to_list local_sizes) in
  { content = new_content; size = new_size }

let count (l : α dislist) = l.size
```

Figure 2: A BSML Example

(int→α)par →(int→α)par. The functions in the input vector contain the messages to be sent to other processors. The functions in the output vector contain the messages received from other processors. For example if the input vector contains function in_i at processor i, then the value $v = in_i\ i'$ will be sent to processor i'. After executing the put, processor i' contains a function $out_{i'}$ such that $out_{i'}\ i = v$. Some OCaml values are considered to be empty messages so an application of put does mean that each processor communicates with every other processors. For the sake of conciseness we do not detail put further but we refer to [28].

As an example, we implement in Figure 2 the set of algorithmic skeletons on a data-structure of distributed lists whose module type is shown in Figure 1.

We implement the distributed list type as a record type: its content is a parallel vector of lists and it also possesses a field for the global size of the distributed list. init is similar to mkpar, however for distributed lists the size is given by the user while it is always bsp_p for parallel vectors. We want the list to be distributed evenly: each processor contains

size/bsp_p elements, or one more element than that.

map is similar to the List.map function on sequential lists: it applies a function f to all the elements of the lists. Here each processor takes care of the sub-list it holds locally. List.filter p l uses a predicate p to keep only the elements of l that satisfy this predicate. Our filter skeleton does the same: the part about the content is easy to write. But we also need to update the global size of the distributed list and communications are required to do so. Note that after a filter, the distributed list may no longer be evenly distributed.

3 An Overview of SyDPaCC

We present the use of SyDPaCC through a very simple example. In this case the specification is already quite efficient, but often the specification has a higher complexity than the optimized program. This is for example the case of the maximum prefix sum problem presented in [27] and the maximum segment sum problem presented in the next section.

Our goal is to obtain a parallel algorithm for computing the average of a list of natural numbers. To do so, we use SyDPaCC to parallelize a function that sums the elements of a list and counts the number of elements of this list. This specification can be written as:

```
Fixpoint sum (l: list nat) : nat :=
  match l with
  | [] ⇒ 0
  | n:: ns ⇒ n + sum ns
  end.

Definition count : list nat → nat := length (A:=nat).

Definition spec : list nat → nat * nat := (sum △ count).
```

sum is a recursive function defined by pattern matching on its list argument while count is just an alias for the pre-defined length function. The specification spec is defined as the tupling of these two functions.

We then try to show that this function has some simple properties: it is leftwards, meaning it can be written as an application of List.fold_right, rightwards, meaning it can be written as an application of List.fold_left, and finally it has a right inverse, which is a weak form of inverse.

For a list $\mathtt{l} = [\mathtt{x}_1;\ldots;\mathtt{x}_n]$, binary operations $\oplus$ $\otimes$, and values e_l e_r, we have:

$$\mathtt{List.fold\_left} \oplus e_l\ \mathtt{l} = (\ldots((\mathtt{e}_l \oplus \mathtt{x}_1) \oplus \mathtt{x}_2)\ \ldots)\oplus \mathtt{x}_n$$
$$\mathtt{List.fold\_right} \otimes e_r\ \mathtt{l} = \mathtt{x}_1 \otimes (\mathtt{x}_2\ (\ldots(\mathtt{x}_n \otimes \mathtt{e}_r)\ldots))$$

spec is indeed leftwards, rightwards and has a right inverse:

```
Definition opr := fun n acc ⇒ (n + fst acc, 1 + snd acc).

Instance spec_leftwards: Leftwards spec opr (0,0).
```

```
Proof. (* omitted *) Defined.

Definition opl := fun acc n ⇒ (n + fst acc, 1 + snd acc).

Instance spec_rightwards: Rightwards spec opl (0,0).
Proof. (* omitted *) Defined.

Definition spec_inv (p: nat*nat) : list nat :=
  let (s, c):= p in match c with 0 ⇒ [] | S c ⇒ s::(repeatv c 0) end.

Instance spec_inverse: Right_inverse spec spec_inv.
```

Each of these properties are expressed as instances of type-classes defined in SYDPACC. Basically type-classes are just record types (in these cases with only one field that holds a proof of the property of interest) and the values of these types are called instances. The difference with record types is that instances are recorded in a database. Coq functions can have implicit arguments: when such arguments have a type that is a type-class, each time the function is applied Coq searches for an instance that fits the implicit argument. Instances may have other instances as parameters. In this situation to build an instance the system first needs to build instances for the parameters. Such parametrized instances can be seen as Prolog rules while non-parametrized instances can be seen as Prolog facts. COQ searches for an instance with a Prolog-like resolution algorithm.

For the inverse, we need to build a list l such that for a sum s and a number of elements c, we have `spec` $l = (s, c)$. One possible solution is to have `l` $= [s; 0; \ldots; 0]$. An application of function `repeatv` builds the list of zeros. If $c = 0$ then the list should be empty. The omitted proofs are short: from 3 to 9 lines with calls to a couple one-liner lemmas.

These instances are enough for the system to automatically parallelize the specification, as follows:

```
Definition par_average : par(list nat) → nat :=
    Eval sydpacc in
        (uncurry Nat.div) ∘ (parallel spec).
```

In this example, `parallel spec` will produce a composition of a parallel `reduce` and a parallel `map`. The automated sequential optimization of `spec`,then the automated parallelization is triggered by the call to `parallel` that has several implicit arguments whose types are type-classes.

Two of them are notions of *correspondence*:

- A type $\mathtt{T}_{\text{source}}$ corresponds to a type $\mathtt{T}_{\text{target}}$ if there exists a *surjective* function `join`: $\mathtt{T}_{\text{target}} \rightarrow \mathtt{T}_{\text{source}}$. We note $\mathtt{T}_{\text{source}} \blacktriangleleft \mathtt{T}_{\text{target}}$ such a type correspondence. Intuitively, the `join` function is surjective because we want the target type to have at least the same expressive power than the source type. If the source type is `list A` and target type is a distributed type such as `par(list A)`, there are many ways a sequential list could be distributed into a parallel vector of lists.

- A function $\texttt{f}$: $\texttt{T}^1_{\text{source}} \to \texttt{T}^2_{\text{source}}$ corresponds to $\texttt{f}_{\text{target}}$: $\texttt{T}^1_{\text{target}} \to \texttt{T}^2_{\text{target}}$ if $\texttt{T}^1_{\text{source}} \blacktriangleleft \texttt{T}^1_{\text{target}}$ and $\texttt{T}^2_{\text{source}} \blacktriangleleft \texttt{T}^2_{\text{target}}$ and the following property holds:

$$\forall (x : \texttt{T}^1_{\text{target}}), \texttt{join}^2(\texttt{f}_{\text{target}}\ x) = \texttt{f}_{\text{source}}(\texttt{join}^1\ x).$$

SyDPaCC provides type correspondences such as `list A` ◀ `par(list A)` as well as several function correspondences including `List.map` corresponds to `par_map`. It also offers parametrized instances for the composition of functions with $\circ$, $\triangle$ and $\times$ (pairing). Finally while looking for such instances, SyDPaCC also checks if there are optmized versions of functions, captured by instances of type `Opt f f'` meaning `f'` is an optimized version of `f`.

These optimizations are based on transformation theorems expressed as instances. SyDPaCC provides a variant of the third homomorphism theorem [16] that states that a function is a list homomorphism when it is leftwards, rightwards and has a right inverse. The first homomorphism theorem states that a list homomorphism can be implemented as a composition of `map` and `reduce`. The other transformation theorem available for lists is the diffusion theorem [20].

In the example, `parallel` looks for a correspondence of `spec` that triggers the optimization of `spec` which is done thanks to the two homomorphism theorems mentioned above. At the end of the Prolog-like search, it is established (and verified) than `spec` corresponds to a composition of a parallel reduce and a parallel map.

To obtain a very efficient program, the user can try to simplify the binary operation and the function given respectively as arguments of the parallel reduce and the parallel map. Indeed, by default the former is:
`fun args⇒ let (p1,p2) in spec(spec_inv p1 ++ spec_inv p2)` and the latter is `fun a ⇒ spec[a]`. To obtain optimized versions, one can use the type-classes `Optimised_op` and `Optimised_f` that only take as argument the specification. The optimized versions do not need to be known beforehand: they can be discovered while proving the instances. In our example, the operation is mostly the addition of the first components of the argument pairs (replaced by 0 if the second component is 0), and the function is `fun a ⇒ (a, 1)`.

Finally, the extracted[1] OCaml code (with calls to BSML functions in a module `MapReduce` similar to the functions of Figure 2) is given Figure 3. The SyDPaCC framework provided a guide towards the development of such a parallel program, but also the proof that this program is correct with respect to the initial specification.

4 Verified Parallel Maximum Segment Sum

The goal of maximum segment sum problem is to obtain the maximum value among the sums of all segments (i.e. sub-structures) of a structure. We consider here lists, but algorithms are equivalent for 1D arrays.

Basically, the specification for this problem can be written as follows:

```
Definition mss_spec := maximum ∘ (map sum) ∘ segs.
```

[1]The type annotations have been added manually and the argument renamed to increase readability

```
let par_avg (numbers : (nat list) par) : nat =
  uncurry div
    (MapReduce.par_reduce
      (fun a b →
        (add (match snd a with | O →O | S _ →fst a)
             (match snd b with | O →O | S _ →fst b),
         add (snd a) (snd b)))
      (spec Nil)
      (MapReduce.par_map (fun a →(a, 1))) numbers)
```

Figure 3: OCaml Code Extracted from Coq

There are several derivations of parallel algorithms for the maximum segment sum problem. The first, informal one, was proposed by Cole [6]. Takeichi et al. [19] gave a formal account of this construction using a theory of tupling and fusion. Their theory may be expressed in Coq, but it is not simple as theorems are stated for an arbitrary number of mutually recursive functions which are tupled, hence it is necessary to deal with tuples of an arbitrary size. The algorithm they obtain (from a similar specification than the one above) is a list homomorphism and therefore SYDPACC could automatically parallelized it. The GTA (generate-test-aggregate) approach [10] – which was implemented in Coq [11], but this implementation is not compatible with the current version of SYDPACC– is also applicable. Both solutions are not well suited as we want to consider in the future the variant problem of maximum segment sum with a bound on the segment lengths. Thus, we based our contribution on the calculation proposed by Morihata [33].

Morihata only considered non-empty lists. There is support in SYDPACC to deal with non-empty lists [27], but it requires for example to use different function compositions that transport facts about the non-emptyness of lists across function composition. For example, `segs` is the function that generates all the segments of a list, and it returns a non-empty list even if its argument is an empty list. The `map` function preserves non-emptiness. Finally, if `maximum` returns a number then it is defined only on non-empty lists.

Here, we choose to deal with empty lists. Therefore, the function `maximum` used in the specification has type `list N.t →option N.t` where `N.t` is an abstract type of numbers that possess the required algebraic properties, and `option` is the Coq type:

```
Inductive option (A: Type) : Type := | Some: A→ option A | None: option A.
```

which basically adds a value `None` to the type given as argument to `option`. In the case of `maximum` we interpret `None` as $-\infty$. The definition of `sum` and `maximum` follow:

```
Definition sum : list t → t := reduce add.
Definition optionize ‘(f:A→ A→ A) (a b: option A) : option A :=
  match (a,b) with
  | (None, None) ⇒ None
  | (None, _ ) ⇒ b
  | (_, None) ⇒ a
  | (Some a, Some b) ⇒ Some(f a b)
  end.
```

```
Definition max_option := optionize max.
Definition maximum := reduce max_option ∘ (map Some).
```

We proved that is `f` is associative then `optionize f` forms a monoid with the neutral element being `None`.

During the transformations of `mss_spec`, a version of `add` that deals with `option N.t` values instead of `N.t` values is needed. The `add_option` function is:

```
Definition optionize_none `(f:A→ A→ A)(a b: option A) : option A :=
  match (a,b) with
  | (Some a, Some b) ⇒ Some(f a b)
  | _ ⇒ None
  end.
Definition add_option := optionize_none N.add.
```

If the original operation `f` forms a monoid with neutral element `e`, then the optionzed version forms a monoid with `Some e`. `None` is an absorbing element of `optionize_none f`.

The function generating all the segments is defined in terms of `prefix` and `tails` which are two functions already defined in SyDPaCC that respectively return the prefixes of a list and its suffixes (`List.app` is part of Coq's standard library and is list concatenation):

```
Definition segs {A}:= reduce (@List.app (list A)) ∘ (map prefix) ∘ tails.
```

We then prove the following instance of `Opt` to give an equivalent but optimized version of `mss_spec`:

```
Instance opt_mss :
  Opt mss_spec
      ( (reduce max_option) ∘ (map fst) ∘
        (scanr (oslash add_option max_option) (None, Some 0)) ∘
        (map (fun x : t ⇒ (Some x, Some x))) ).
```

The proof of this instance follows roughly the calculation of Morihata but for the treatment of empty lists. This proof is simple in term of structure: just a sequence of applications of rewriting steps, each step being the application of a transformation lemma. Most of the lemmas were already in Coq or SyDPaCC libraries but the definition of `oslash` and related lemma (and instances omitted here):

```
Definition oslash [A] otimes oplus
  `{Monoid A otimes e_t} `{Monoid A oplus e_p}: (A∗A)→ (A∗A)→ (A∗A) :=
  fun a_b c_d ⇒
  ( oplus (fst a_b)(otimes (snd a_b)(fst c_d)),
    otimes (snd a_b) (snd c_d) ).

Lemma distributivity_reduce_scanl A
 `{Ht: Monoid (A:=A) otimes e_t} `{Hp: Monoid (A:=A) oplus e_p}
 {Ha: RightAbsorbing otimes e_p} {Hd: LeftDistributive otimes oplus}:
 ∀ l,
   (reduce oplus) (scanl otimes e_t l) =
   fst(reduce (oslash otimes oplus) (map dup l)).
```

Morihata used this operator and lemma based on a method first proposed by Smith [38].

The optimized version also uses `scanr` which is linear on the length of its list argument. We implemented a tail recursive version of `scanr` (as we do for all the function on lists that are supposed to be part of the final optimized code) and satisfies the following expected property for a `scanr`:

```
Lemma scanr_spec_monoid:
  ∀ A op e {Hm: @Monoid A op e} l,
    scanr op e l = map (reduce op) (tails l).
```

The optimized version has a linear complexity in the length of its argument while the specification has a cubic one. The goal of the transformations was to remove the calls to `prefix` and `tails`. These transformations are not automatic, but the support provided by SyDPaCC is a collection of already proved transformations.

```
Module Make (Import Bsml: Core.BSML)(N: Number).
  (* ... application of a few parametric modules omitted *)
  Definition par_mss : par(list N.t) → option N.t :=
    Eval sydpacc in
      parallel (Mss.mss_spec).
End Make.
```

Figure 4: Automatic parallelization of MSS

The last step is fully automatic and very simple as shown in Figure 4. With the call to `parallel`, SyDPaCC uses the instance `opt_mss` as well as instances of types and functions correspondences that are part of the framework to generate a parallel version of `mss_spec` by replacing the list functions by their algorithmic skeletons counter-parts: `par_reduce`, `par_map` and `par_scanr`.

5 Experiments

The Coq proof assistant offers an extraction mechanism [24] able to generate compilable code from Coq definitions and proofs. In particular, it can generate OCaml code. Extracting the parametric module of Figure 4 generates an OCaml functor (which is basically a parametric module). To be able to execute the function `par_mss`, we first need to apply this functor. For the number part, we just wrote a module using OCaml native integers of type `int` for `N.t`. For the paramter `Bsml` we simply apply the actual parallel implementation of BSML primitives as provided by the BSML library for OCaml. This library is implemented on top of an API for parallel processing library in C named MPI [39] (several implementations of this API exist). For the moment, the Bsml module of the BSML library cannot directly be given as argument to the `Make` functor. Indeed, processor identifiers are represented by mathematical natural numbers in Coq while they are encoded as OCaml bounded `int` values. SyDPaCC features a wrapper module `BsmlWrapperN` that performs number conversions when needed.

The application of the verified extracted function and aspects such as input/output operations and command line argument management are not verified and written in plain OCaml.

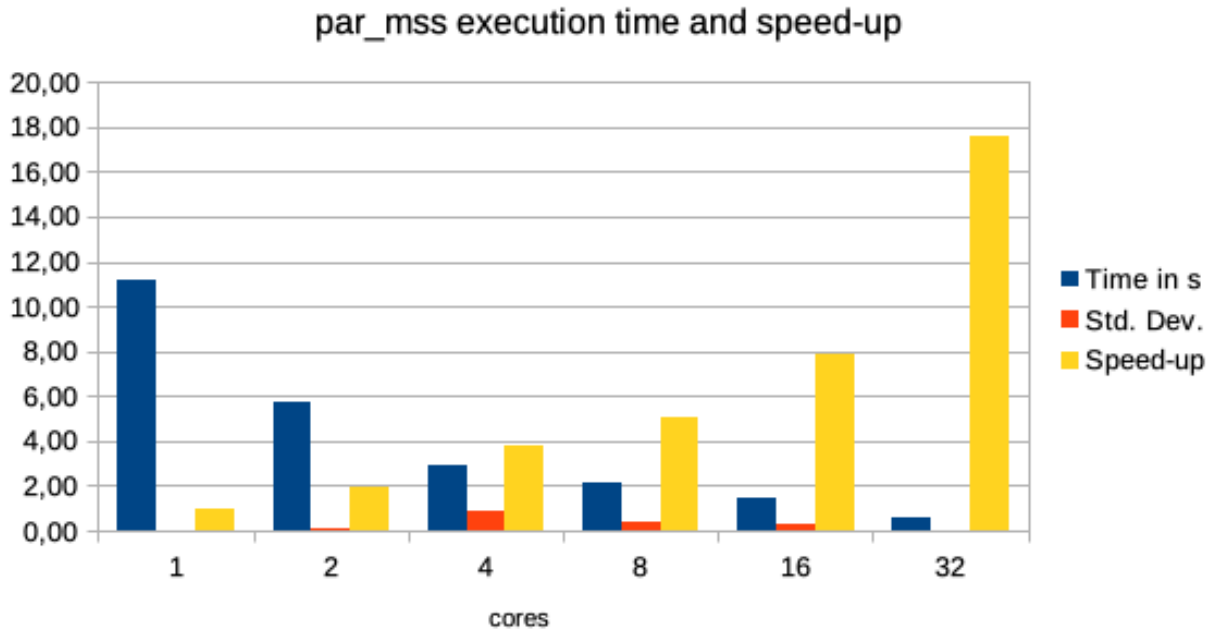

Figure 5: Time and relative speed-up ($64 \cdot 10^6$ elements, median of 30 measures)

The final program was run on a shared memory parallel machine, but it could run on large scale distributed memory machines.

We ran the program on a machine having an Intel Xeon Gold 5218 processor with 32 cores. The operating system was Ubuntu 22.04. To compile we used OCaml 4.14.1. The MPI implementation was OpenMPI 4.1.2. We ran `par_mss` on a list of length $64 \cdot 10^6$ and measured the time required for this computation 30 times. The results for the relative speed-up are presented in Figure 5 for an increasing number of cores. The speedup is fine but of course as the number of cores increases the relative impact of communication and synchronization time becomes bigger. The variance increases to reach a maximum for 4 cores then decreases again. We do not have an explanation for this behavior yet.

6 Related Work

The literature on constructive algorithmics, introduced by Bird [2], is extensive and includes studies on parallel programming [21, 17, 9, 32, 6]. While most of the work in this field has been done on paper, recent advancements have seen the use of interactive theorem proving, as demonstrated in works like [34]. However, interactive theorem proving has not been extensively explored in the context of parallel programming.

From a functional programming perspective, the study of frameworks such as Hadoop MapReduce [22, 31] and Apache Spark [1, 4] is relevant to our SyDPaCC framework, as we

can adopt a similar approach to extract MapReduce or Spark programs from Coq. Ono et al. [36] employed Coq to verify MapReduce programs and extract Haskell code for Hadoop Streaming or directly write Java programs annotated with JML, utilizing Krakatoa [13] to generate Coq lemmas. However, their work is less systematic and automated than SyDPaCC.

There have been contributions that formalize certain aspects of parallel programming, but as far as we know, these approaches do not directly yield executable code like our SyDPaCC framework. Swierstra [40] formalized mutable arrays with explicit distributions in Agda, while BSP-Why [14] allows for deductive verification of imperative BSP programs, although they represent models of C BSPlib [18] programs rather than executable code. Another example is the formalization of the Data Parallel C programming language using Isabelle/HOL [7], where Isabelle/HOL expressions representing parallel programs were generated.

7 Conclusion

We developed a verified parallel implementation of a functional scalable parallel program for solving the maximum segment sum problem and studied its parallel performances. Experiments on a larger number of processors are ongoing.

Often in applications, the domain is 2D rather than 1D, and it may be interesting to consider segments of a given bounded size, for example in genomics. We therefore plan to systematically develop parallel algorithms for these problems starting from the work of Morihata [33].

The development of SyDPaCC started in 2015 while preparing a graduate course for a summer school, on the predecessor of SyDPaCC named SDPP. There are SDPP theories, namely BSP homomorphisms [15, 29] and generate, test, aggregate [10, 11] that have not been ported to SyDPaCC yet. We also plan to work on additional data-structures such as trees. For the moment, SyDPaCC only targets BSML+OCaml but it will be extended to generate Scala [35] code with Apache Spark for parallel processing.

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