Programming Language Concepts, Programming techniques CS2104 Types Abstract data types Lecture 8 Haskell Design methodology : functors + modules **Declarative Concurrency** 12/10/2007 CS2104, Lecture 8 12/10/2007 CS2104, Lecture 8 The World is Concurrent! Overview Declarative concurrency Concurrent programs Mechanisms of concurrent program several activities execute Streams simultaneously (concurrently) Demand-driven execution Most of the software used are concurrent execute computation, if variable needed operating system: IO, user interaction, many needs suspension by a thread processes, ... requested computation is running in new thread web browser, Email client, Email server, ... **By-Need triggers** telephony switches handling many calls Lazy functions **D** ... CS2104, Lecture 8 12/10/2007 CS2104, Lecture 8 12/10/2007

Reminder of Last Lecture

Why Should We Care?

- Software must be concurrent...
 - ... for many application areas
- Concurrency can be helpful for constructing programs
 - organize programs into independent parts
 - concurrency allows to make them independent with respect to how to execute
 - essential: how do concurrent programs interact?
- Concurrent programs can run faster on parallel machines (including clusters and cores)

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Concurrency and Parallelism

- **Concurrency** is *logically simultaneous processing* which can also run on sequential machine.
- Parallelism is physically simultaneous processing and it involves multiple processing elements and/or independent device operations.
- A computer cluster is a group of connected computers that work together as a unit. One popular implementation is a cluster with nodes running Linux with support library (for parallelism).

Concurrent Programming is Difficult...

- This is the traditional belief
- The truth is: concurrency is *very* difficult...
 - ... if used with inappropriate tools and programming languages
- Particularly troublesome : state and concurrency

Concurrent Programming is Easy...

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- Oz (as well as Erlang) has been designed to be very good at concurrency...
- Essential for concurrent programming here
 - data-flow variables
 - very simple interaction between
 - concurrent programs, mostly automatic
 - light-weight threads

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Declarative Concurrent Programming Threads What stays the same □ the result of your program concurrency does not change the result What changes programs can compute incrementally incremental input... (such as reading from a network connection) ... and incremental processing 12/10/2007 CS2104, Lecture 8 12/10/2007 CS2104, Lecture 8 10 Our First Concurrent Program Our First Program declare X0 X1 X2 X3 declare X0 X1 X2 X3 thread X1 = 1 + X0 end thread X1 = 1 + X0 end thread X3 = X1 + X2 end thread X3 = X1 + X2 end {Browse [X0 X1 X2 X3]} {Browse [X0 X1 X2 X3]} Browser will show [x0 x1 x2 x3] Both threads are suspended □ X1 = 1 + X0 suspended; X0 unassigned variables are not yet assigned □ X3 = X1 + X2 suspended; X1, X2 unassigned

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Our First Program Our First Program declare X0 X1 X2 X3 declare X0 X1 X2 X3 thread X1 = 1 + X0 end thread X1 = 1 + X0 end thread X3 = X1 + X2 end thread X3 = X1 + X2 end {Browse [X0 X1 X2 X3]} {Browse [X0 X1 X2 X3]} Feeding Feeding x0 = 4 X0 = 4• First thread can execute, binds X1 to 5 12/10/2007 12/10/2007 CS2104, Lecture 8 13 CS2104, Lecture 8 14 Our First Program Our First Program declare X0 X1 X2 X3 declare X0 X1 X2 X3 thread X1 = 1 + X0 end thread X1 = 1 + X0 end thread X3 = X1 + X2 end thread X3 = X1 + X2 end {Browse [X0 X1 X2 X3]} {Browse [X0 X1 X2 X3]} Feeding X0 = 4Second thread is still suspended • First thread can execute, binds x1 to 5 Variable x2 is still not assigned □ Browser shows [4 5 x2 x3]

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Our First Program

declare X0 X1 X2 X3
thread X1 = 1 + X0 end
thread X3 = X1 + X2 end
{Browse [X0 X1 X2 X3]}

Feeding x2 = 2
 Second thread can execute, binds x3 to 7
 Browser shows [4 5 2 7]

Threads

- A thread is simply an executing program.
- A program can have more than one thread.
- A thread is created by :

thread $\langle s \rangle$ end

- Threads compute
 - independently
 - as soon as their statements can be executed

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interact by binding variables in store

The Browser

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Browser is implemented in Oz as a thread.

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- It also runs whenever browsed variables are bound
- It uses some extra functionality to look at unbound variables

Sequential Model



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Basic Concepts

- Model allows multiple statements to execute "simultaneously" ?
- Can imagine that these threads really execute in parallel, each has its own processor, but share the same memory
- Reading and writing different variables can be done simultaneously by different threads
- Reading the same variable can be done concurrently.
- Writing to the same variable to be done sequentially.

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Causal Order

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- In a sequential program, all execution states are totally ordered
- In a concurrent program, all execution states of a given thread are totally ordered
- But, ... the execution state of the concurrent program as a whole is partially ordered

Total Order

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- In a sequential program all execution states are totally ordered
- Computation step: transition between two consecutive execution states



Causal Order in the Declarative Model

- In a concurrent program all execution states of a given thread are totally ordered
- The execution state of the concurrent program is *partially ordered*





Declarative concurrency

- Declarative programming (Reminder):
 - the output of a declarative program should be a mathematical function of its input.
- Functional programming (Reminder):
 - the program executes with some input values and when it terminates, it has returned some output values.
- Data-driven concurrent model: a concurrent program is declarative if all executions with a given set of inputs have one of two results:
 - (1) they all do not terminate or
 - (2) they all eventually reach partial termination and give results that are logically equivalent.

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Partial Termination. Examples

- If the inputs are bound to some partial values, then the program will eventually end up in partial termination.
 Also, the outputs will be bound to some partial values.
- What is the relation of outputs in terms of inputs when we consider partial values?
- Example:

 $xs=1|2|3|xr \rightarrow ys$ will be bound to $2|4|6|_{-}$

- Having Xr=4 | 5 | Xr1, we get Ys bound to 2 | 4 | 6 | 8 | 10 |_
- Making Xr1=nil, we get Ys bound to [2 4 6 8 10]

Partial Termination. Example

- fun {Double Xs}
- case Xs of
 - nil **then** nil
 - [] X | Xr then 2*X | {Double Xr} end

end

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```
Ys={Double Xs}
```

- As long as input stream xs grows, then output stream
 Ys grows too. The program never terminates.
- However, if the input stream stops growing, then the program will eventually stop executing too.

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• The program does a partial termination.

Logical Equivalence. Examples

- What does store contents being "the same" means?
- Example 1:
 - Case 1: X=1 Y=X
 - Case 2: Y=X X=1
- The store contents is the same for both cases
- Example 2:
 - Case 1: X=foo(Y W) Y=Z
 - □ Case 2: X=foo(Z W) Y=Z
- The store contents is the same for both cases

Logical Equivalence

- A set of store bindings is called a **constraint**.
- For each variable x and constraint c, we define values(x, c) to be the set of all possible values x can have, given that c holds.

Example: *values(x,2<x<8)={3,4,5,6,7}*

arbitrary constraint

Logical Equivalence

- Two constraints c1 and c2 are logically equivalent if:
 - (1) they contain the same set of variables, and
 - (2) for each variable x, values(x, c1) = values(x, c2).

Logical Equivalence. Example

Example:

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□ suppose that *x*, *y*, *z*, and *w* are store variables.

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- □ the constraint
 - $x = foo(y w) \land y = z$
- □ is logically equivalent to the constraint

 $x = foo(z w) \land y = z.$

Reason: y = z forces y and z to have the same set of possible values, so that foo(y w) defines the same set of values as foo(z w).

Scheduling

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The choice of which thread to execute next and for how long is done by the scheduler

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 A thread is *runnable* if its next statement to execute is not blocked on a dataflow variable, otherwise the thread is *suspended*



Scheduling

- A scheduler is *fair* if it does not starve each runnable thread
 - All runnable threads execute eventually
- Fair scheduling makes it easier to reason about programs
- Otherwise some runnable programs will never get its turn for execution.

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Example of Runnable Threads

```
thread
  for I in 1..10000 do {Browse 1} end
end
thread
  for I in 1..10000 do {Browse 2} end
end
```

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Example of Runnable Threads

```
thread
  for I in 1..10000 do {Browse 1} end
end
thread
  for I in 1..10000 do {Browse 2} end
end
```

- This program will interleave the execution of two threads, one printing 1, and the other printing 2
- fair scheduler

Example of Runnable Threads

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Threads Memory	Problem Solving		
Runtime			
Run:	10.68 s 🔳	1.0	
Garbage Collection:	0.29 s 🔳	0.8	
Copy:	0.00 s 🔳	0.4	
Propagation:	0.00 s 🔳	0.0	
Threads			
Created: 984	1	5	
Runnable:	2 🔳	4	
		0	

Dataflow Computation

- Threads suspend when dataflow variables needed are not yet bound
- {Delay x} primitive makes the thread suspends for x milliseconds, after that the thread is runnable



Concurrency is Transparent

Example : a concurrent map operation

fun {CMap Xs F}

Concurrency is Transparent	Cheap Concurrency and Dataflow
 What happens: F = fun {\$ x} x+1 end Browser shows [2 3 4 5] 	 Declarative programs can be easily made concurrent Just use the thread statement where concurrency is needed
12/10/2007 CS2104, Lecture 8 49 Cheap Concurrency and Dataflow	12/10/2007 CS2104, Lecture 8 50 Understanding why
<pre>fun {Fib X} if X==0 then 0 elseif X==1 then 1 else thread {Fib X-1} end + {Fib X-2} end end</pre>	<pre>fun {Fib X} if X==0 then 0 elseif X==1 then 1 else Y1 Y2 in</pre>
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Problem Solving

1.74 s 🔳

4.51 s 🔳

0.00 s 🔳 0.00 s 🔳

1.U 0.8 0.6 0.4 0.2

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Producer \Leftrightarrow Consumer

thread X={Produce} end
thread Result={Consume X} end

- Typically, what is produced will be put on a list that never ends (without nil), called stream
- Consumer (also called sink) consumes as soon as producer (also called source) produces

Producer/Consumer Stream



12/10/2007 12/10/2007 CS2104, Lecture 8 CS2104. Lecture 8 Stream Transducer. Example Example: Producer \Leftrightarrow Consumer thread Stream={Produce 0 1000} end fun {Produce N Limit} thread FilterResult={Filter Stream IsOdd} end if N<Limit then thread Result={Consume FilterResult 0} end N | { **Produce** N+1 Limit } Transducer: a stream which reads the producer's else nil end output and computes a filtered stream for the end consumer. fun {**Consume** Xs Acc} Can be: filtering, mapping, ... case Xs of X | Xr then {Consume Xr Acc+X} Advantages of pipeline: [] nil then Acc there is no need to wait the final value of the producer producer, transducer, and consumer are executed end concurrently end

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Thread Scheduling

- More guarantees than just fairness
- Threads are given a time slice to run
 - approximately 10ms
 - when time slice is over: thread is preempted
 - next runnable thread is scheduled
- Can be influenced by priorities
 - □ high, medium, low
 - controls relative size of time slice (Sections 4.2.4-4.2.6)

Summary so far

- Threads
 - suspend and resume automatically
 - controlled by data-flow variables
 - cheap
 - execute fairly according to time-slice
- Pattern

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 $\ \ \, \square \ \, producer \Leftrightarrow transducer \Leftrightarrow consumer$

Demand Driven Execution

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How to Control Producers?

 Eager model: the producer decides when enough data has been sent

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- Possible problem: producer should not produce more than needed
- One attempt: make consumer the driver
 - consumer produces stream skeleton producer fills skeleton



```
fun {DConsume ?Xs A Limit}
    if Limit>0 then
        local X Xr in
        Xs=X|Xr {DConsume Xr A+X Limit-1}
    else A end
end
proc {DProduce N Xs}
    case Xs of X|Xr then
        X=N
        {DProduce N+1 Xr}
        end
end
```

Bounded Buffer

- Eager producer may run ahead
- Demand-driven consumer in control but more complex execution.

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Compromise : Bounded Buffer

Overall program :

```
local Xs S in
  thread {DProduce 0 Xs} end
  thread S={DConsume Xs 0 150000} end
  {Browse S}
end
```

Note that consumer controls how many elements are needed.

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Bounded Buffer

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Bounded Buffer Code input output proc {Buffer N Xs Ys} fun {Startup N ?Xs} if N==0 then Xs else Xr in Xs= |Xr {Startup N-1 Xr} end end buffer end proc {AskLoop Ys ?Xs ?End} case Ys of Y | Yr then Xr End in Xs=Y | Xr % get element from buffer End= |End2 % replenish the buffer {AskLoop Yr Xr End2} [] nil then End=nil end end End={Startup N Xs} in {AskLoop Ys Xs End} end

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Lazy Streams

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Better solution for demand-driven concurrency
 Use Lazy Streams

That is consumer decides, so producer runs on request.

Lazy Execution (Reminder)

 Up to now the execution order of each thread follows textual order.

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Each statement is executed in order strict order, whether or not its results are needed later.

- This execution scheme is called *eager execution*, or supply-driven execution
- Another execution order is to execute each statement only if its results are needed somewhere in the program
- This scheme is called lazy evaluation, or demanddriven evaluation

Needed Variables

Idea:

- □ start execution,
- when value for variable needed
- $\hfill\square$ suspend on the variable
- Value for variable needed...
 - ...a thread suspends on variable!

Lazy Execution. Reminder

declare

fun lazy {F1 X} 2*X	end			
fun {F2 Y} Y*Y end				
B = {F1 3}				
{Browse B} \rightarrow	nothing	(simply	unbound	B)
$C = \{F2 \ 4\}$				
{Browse C} \rightarrow	display	16		
$A = B+C \rightarrow$	display	6 for B		
F1 is a lazy function	n			

B = {F1 3} is executed only if its result is needed in A = B+C

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Example

```
declare
fun lazy {F1 X} 2*X end
fun lazy {F2 Y} Y*Y end
B = {F1 3}
{Browse B} % \rightarrow display 6
C = {F2 4}
{Browse C} % \rightarrow display 16
A = B+C
```

- F1 and F2 are now lazy functions
- B = {F1 3} and C = {F2 4} are executed because their results are needed in A = B+C

Example

```
declare

fun lazy {F1 X} 2*X end

fun lazy {F2 Y} Y*Y end

B = {F1 3}

{Browse B} % \rightarrow nothing (simply unbound B)

C = {F2 4}

{Browse C} % \rightarrow nothing (simply unbound C)
```

F1 and F2 are now lazy functions

B = {F1 3} and C = {F2 4} are executed only if their results are needed in an expression, like: A = B+C

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Example

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- In lazy execution, an operation suspends until its result is needed
- Each suspended operation is triggered when another operation needs the value for its arguments
- In general, multiple suspended operations can start concurrently



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Example II	Triggers
 In data-driven execution, an operation suspends until the values of its arguments results are available In general, the suspended computation can start concurrently 	 A by-need trigger is a pair (F, X): a zero-argument function F a variable X Trigger creation X={ByNeed F} or equivalently {ByNeed (proc {\$ A} A={F} end) X} If x is needed, then x={ByNeed F} means: execute thread X={F} end delete trigger, X becomes a normal variable
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Example 1: ByNeed	Example 2: ByNeed
$X = \{ByNeed fun \{\$\} 4 end\}$	
	declare
Executing {Browse X}	fun {F1 X} {ByNeed fun $\{\$\}$ 2*X end} end
Shows: x (meaning not yet triggered)	fun {F2 Y} {ByNeed fun $\{\$\}$ Y*Y end} end
Browse does not need the value of X	$B = \{F1 \ 3\}$
	{Browse B} % simply display B
Executing T: z=x+1	$C = \{F2 \ 4\}$
x is needed	{Browse C} % simply display C
\square current thread $ op$ blocks (x is not yet bound)	
new thread created that binds x to 4	
• thread T resumes and binds z to 5	
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Example 2: ByNeed

declare

```
fun {F1 X} {ByNeed fun {$} 2*X end} end
fun {F2 Y} {ByNeed fun {$} Y*Y end} end
B = {F1 3}
{Browse B} % display 6
C = {F2 4}
{Browse C} % display 16
A = B+C
```

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Lazy Functions

```
fun lazy {Produce N}
    N|{Produce N+1}
```

end

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```
can be implemented with by-need triggers
```

```
fun {Produce N}
  {ByNeed fun {$} N | {Produce N+1} end}
end
```

Example 3: ByNeed

```
thread X={ByNeed fun \{\$\} 3 end} end
thread Y={ByNeed fun \{\$\} 4 end} end
thread Z=X+Y end
```

- Considering that each thread executes atomically, there are six possible executions.
- For lazy execution to be declarative, all of these executions must lead to equivalent stores.
- The addition will wait until the other two triggers are created, and these triggers will then be activated.

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Lazy Production

```
fun lazy {Produce N}
    N|{Produce N+1}
end
```

 Intuitive understanding: function executes only, if its output is needed

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Example: Lazy Production

```
fun lazy {Produce N}
    N|{Produce N+1}
end
declare Ns={Produce 0}
```

```
{Browse Ns}
```

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- Shows again Ns
 - Remember: Browse does not need the values of the variables

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Example: Lazy Production

```
fun lazy {Produce N}
    N|{Produce N+1}
end
declare Ns={Produce 0}
```

Execute _=Ns.1

- needs the variable Ns
- Browser now shows 0|_or 0|<Future>

Example: Lazy Production

```
fun lazy {Produce N}
    N|{Produce N+1}
end
declare Ns={Produce 0}
```

- Execute _=Ns.2.2.1
 - □ needs the variable Ns.2.2
 - \square Browser now shows $0|1|2|_{-}$

Everything can be Lazy!

 Not only producers, but also transducers can be made lazy

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Sketch

- consumer needs variable
- transducer is triggered, needs variable
- producer is triggered

Lazy Transducer. Example	Global Summary
<pre>fun lazy {Inc Xs} case Xs of X Xr then X+1 {Inc Xr} end end declare Xs={Inc {Inc {Produce N}}}</pre>	 Declarative concurrency Mechanisms of concurrent program Streams Demand-driven execution execute computation, if variable needed need is suspension by a thread requested computation is run in new thread By-Need triggers Lazy functions
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 Reading suggestions Chapter 4, Sections 4.1-4.5 from [van Day Haridi 2004] 	
 Exercises 4.11.1-4.11.16 from [van Roy Haridi: 2004] 	

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