# Programming Language Concepts, CS2104 Lecture 11

**Declarative Concurrency** 

#### Overview

- Declarative concurrency
- Mechanisms of concurrent program
- Streams
- Demand-driven execution
  - execute computation, if variable needed
  - needs suspension by a thread
  - requested computation is running in new thread
- By-Need triggers
- Lazy functions

#### The World is Concurrent!

- Concurrent programs
   several activities execute
   simultaneously (concurrently)
- Most of the software used are concurrent
  - operating system: IO, user interaction, many processes, ...
  - web browser, Email client, Email server, ...
  - telephony switches handling many calls
  - ...

## 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)

## 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...

- 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

# Declarative Concurrent Programming

- 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

# Our First Concurrent Program

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

- Browser will show [x0 x1 x2 x3]
  - variables are not yet assigned

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

#### Both threads are suspended

```
□ x1 = 1 + x0 suspended; x0 unassigned
```

■ x3 = x1 + x2 suspended; x1, x2 unassigned

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

■ **Feeding** x0 = 4

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

- **Feeding** x0 = 4
  - First thread can execute, binds x1 to 5

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

- **Feeding** x0 = 4
  - First thread can execute, binds x1 to 5
  - □ Browser shows [4 5 x2 x3]

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

- Second thread is still suspended
  - Variable x2 is still not assigned

```
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
  - interact by binding variables in store

#### The Browser

- Browser is implemented in Oz as a thread.
- It also runs whenever browsed variables are bound
- It uses some extra functionality to look at unbound variables

## 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.

## Causal Order

 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

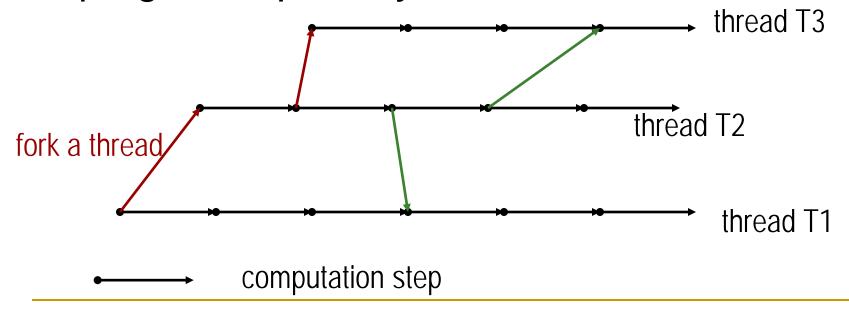
## Total Order

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

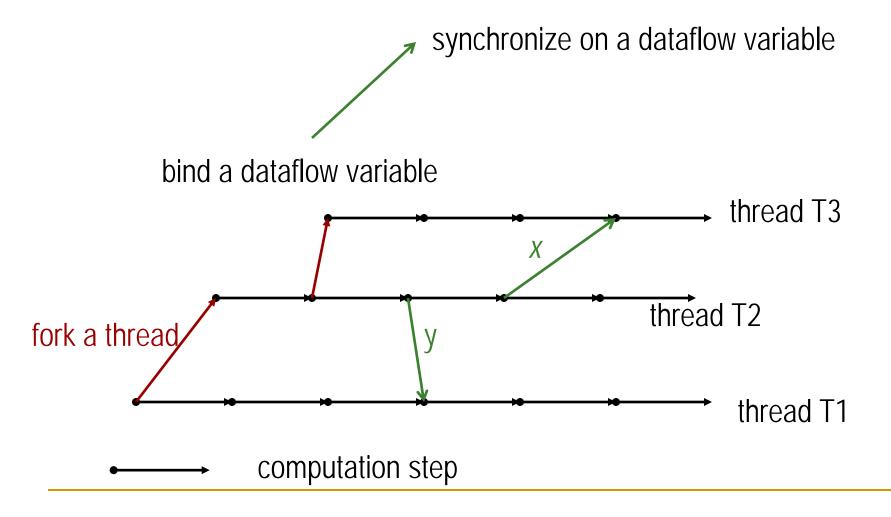


## Causal Order = Partial Order

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



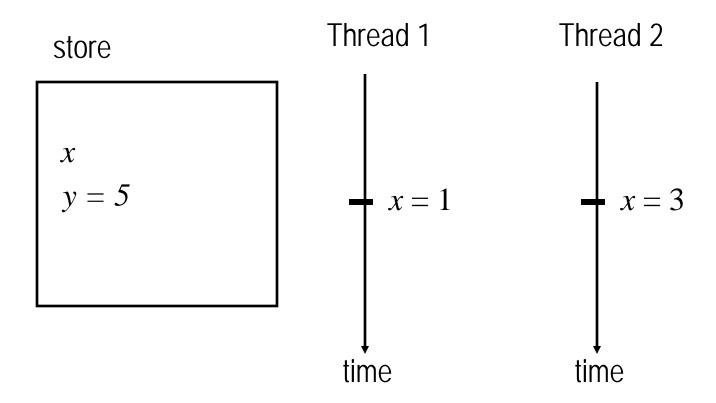
## Causal Order = Partial Order



## Nondeterminism

- An execution is nondeterministic if there is a computation step in which there is a choice what to do next
- Nondeterminism appears naturally when there are multiple concurrent states

## Example of Nondeterminism



•The thread that binds x first will continue, the other thread will raise an exception

## Nondeterminism

- If there is only one binder for each dataflow variable, nondeterminism is not observable on the store.
- That is the store has the same final results.
- Hence, for correctness we can ignore the concurrency
- This concept is known as "Declarative Concurrency".

## 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.

## Partial Termination. Example

```
fun {Double Xs}
case Xs of
  nil then nil
  [] X|Xr then 2*X|{Double Xr} end
end
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.
- The program does a partial termination.

# 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]

# Scheduling

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

 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.

## Example of Runnable Threads

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

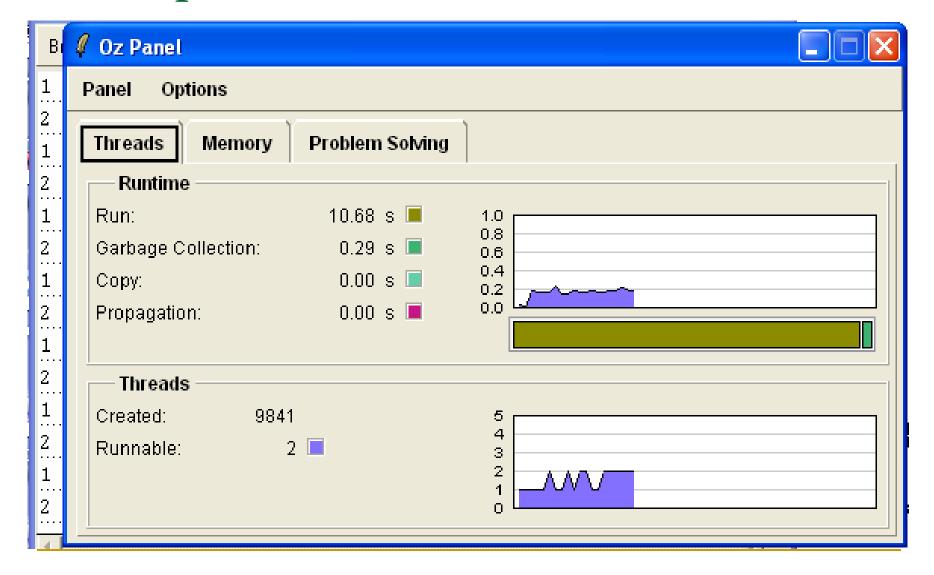
## Example of Runnable Threads

```
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



## 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

```
declare X
{Browse X}
local Y in
   thread {Delay 1000} Y = 10*10 end
   X = Y + 100*100
end
```

# Concurrency is Transparent

Example: a concurrent map operation

```
fun {CMap Xs F}
  case Xs
  of nil then nil
  [] X|Xr then
    thread {F X} end | {CMap Xr F}
  end
end
```

Concurrency is Transparent

```
thread ... end
                           can also be used
fun {CMap Xs F}
                             as expression
   case Xs
   of nil then nil
   [] X | Xr then
      thread {F X} end | {CMap Xr F}
   end
end
```

# Concurrency is Transparent

What happens:

```
declare F
{Browse {CMap [1 2 3 4] F}}
```

- Browser shows [\_ \_ \_ \_ \_]
  - CMap computes the list skeleton
  - newly created threads suspend until F becomes bound

# Concurrency is Transparent

What happens:

$$F = fun \{ X X X+1 end$$

Browser shows [2 3 4 5]

## Cheap Concurrency and Dataflow

- Declarative programs can be easily made concurrent
- Just use the thread statement where concurrency is needed

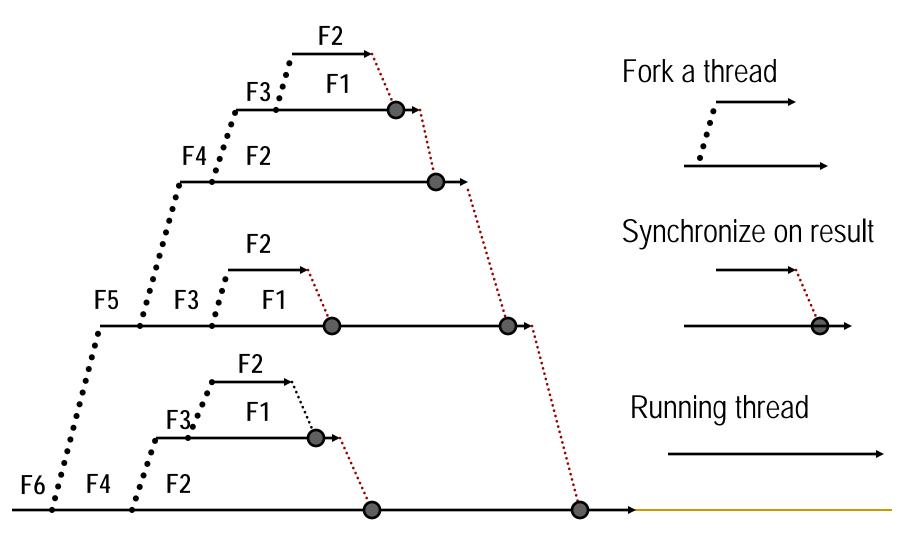
# Cheap Concurrency and Dataflow

```
fun {Fib X}
  if X==0 then 0
  elseif X==1 then 1
  else
    thread {Fib X-1} end + {Fib X-2}
  end
end
```

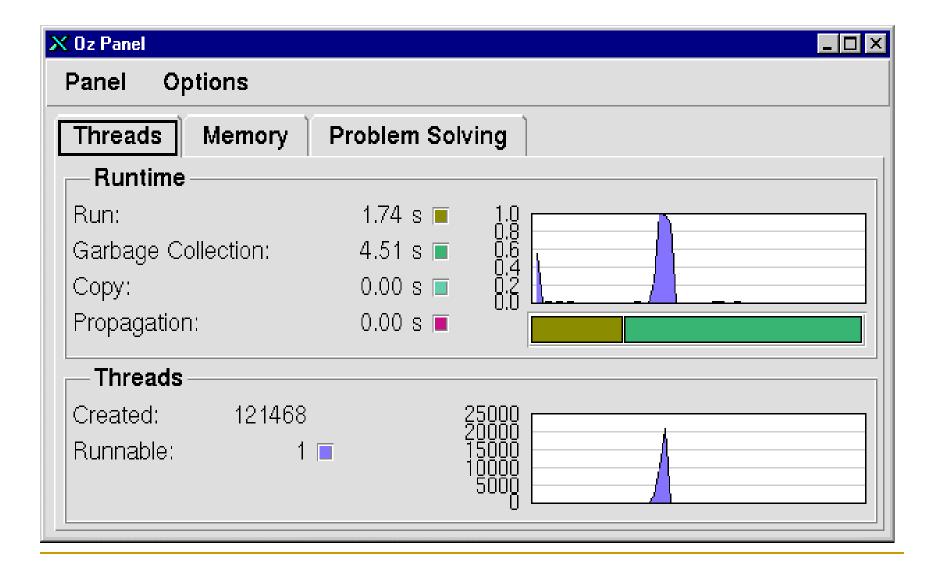
# Understanding why

### Execution of {Fib 6}

{Fib 6} is denoted as F6,...



#### Fib



#### Streams

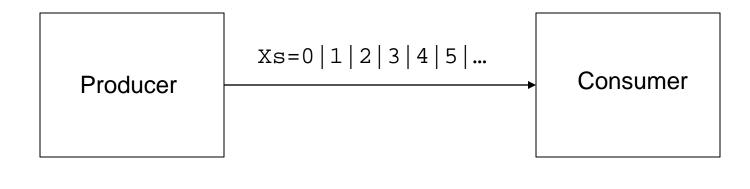
- A most useful technique for declarative concurrent programming to use **streams** to communicate between threads.
- A stream is a potentially unbounded list of messages, i.e., it is a list whose tail is an unbound dataflow variable.
- A thread communicating through streams is a kind of "active object", also called stream object.
- A sequence of stream objects each of which feeds the next is called a **pipeline**.
- Deterministic stream programming: each stream object always knows for each input where the next message will come from.

### Producer ⇔ 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



Xs={Produce 0 Limit}

S={Consume Xs 0}

## Example: Producer $\Leftrightarrow$ Consumer

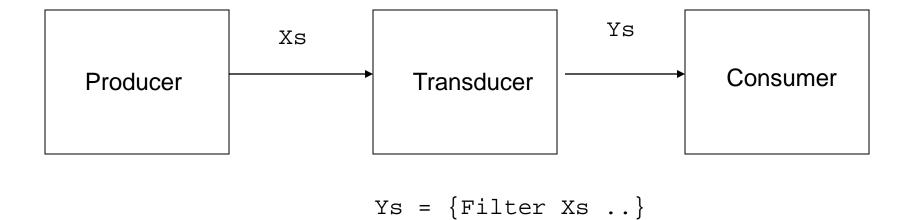
```
fun {Produce N Limit}
   if N<Limit then
      N | {Produce N+1 Limit}
   else nil end
end
fun {Consume Xs Acc}
   case Xs of X | Xr then
      {Consume Xr Acc+X}
   [] nil then Acc
   end
end
```

### Stream Transducer. Example

```
thread Stream={Produce 0 1000} end
thread FilterResult={Filter Stream IsOdd} end
thread Result={Consume FilterResult 0} end
```

- Transducer: a stream which reads the producer's output and computes a filtered stream for the consumer.
- Can be: filtering, mapping, ...
- Advantages of pipeline:
  - there is no need to wait the final value of the producer
  - producer, transducer, and consumer are executed concurrently

# Simple Pipeline



#### Client ⇔ Server

- Similar to producer ⇔ consumer
- Typical scenario:
  - more clients than servers
  - server has a fixed identity
  - clients send messages to server
  - server replies
- See Next Lecture: message sending

#### Fairness

- Essential that even though producer can always produce, consumer also gets a chance to run
- Threads are scheduled with fairness
  - if a thread is runnable, it will eventually run

# 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)

#### How to Control Producers?

- Eager model: the producer decides when enough data has been sent
- Possible problem: producer should not produce more than needed
- One attempt: make consumer the driver
  - consumer produces stream skeleton
     producer fills skeleton

#### Make Consumer be the Driver

```
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
```

### 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.

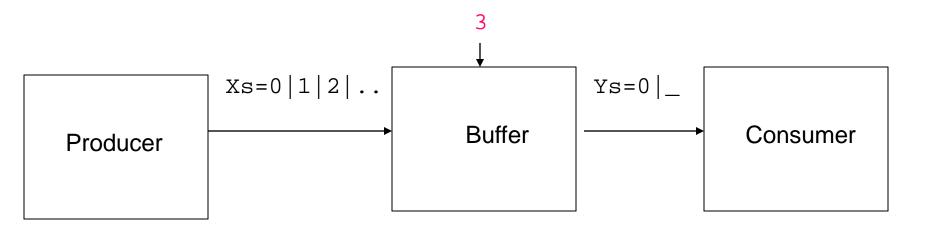
#### Bounded Buffer

Eager – producer may run ahead

 Demand-driven – consumer in control but more complex execution.

Compromise: Bounded Buffer

### Bounded Buffer



Xs={Produce 0 Limit}

{Buffer 4 Xs Ys}  $S=\{Consume Ys 0\}$ 

#### 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
  proc {AskLoop Ys ?Xs ?End}
       case Ys of Y | Yr then Xr End2 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
```

### Lazy Streams

Better solution for demand-driven concurrency
Use Lazy Streams

That is consumer decides, so producer runs on request.

#### Needed Variables

Idea: start execution, when value for variable needed

short: variable needed

Value for variable needed...

...a thread suspends on variable!

## Lazy Execution (Reminder)

- Up to now the execution order of each thread follows textual order.
  - That is each statement is executed in order, whether or not its results are needed later.
- This execution scheme is called eager execution, or supply-driven execution
- Another execution order is that a statement is executed only if its results are needed somewhere in the program
- This scheme is called lazy evaluation, or demanddriven evaluation

### 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\}
                      → display 16
{Browse C}
                      \rightarrow display 6 for B
A = B + C
```

- F1 is a lazy function
- B = {F1 3} is executed only if its result is 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} % → nothing (simply unbound B)
C = {F2 4}
{Browse C} % → 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

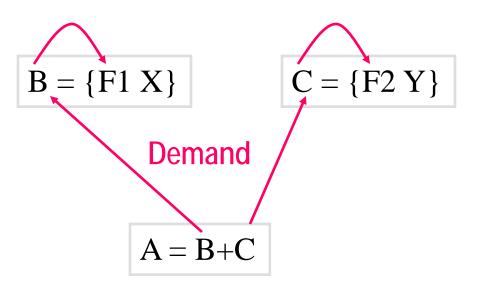
### Example

```
declare
fun lazy {F1 X} 2*X end
fun lazy {F2 Y} Y*Y end
B = {F1 3}
{Browse B} % → display 6
C = {F2 4}
{Browse C} % → 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

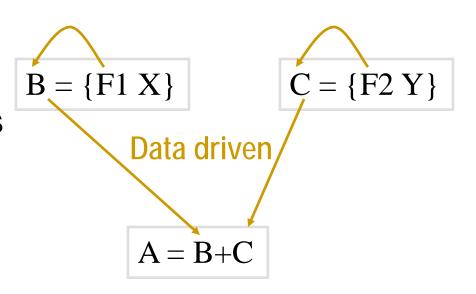
# Example

- 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



# Example II

- In data-driven
   execution, an operation
   suspends until the values
   of its arguments results
   are available
- In general, the suspended computation can start concurrently



# Lazy Production

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

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

### Example: Lazy Production

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

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

## 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
  - Browser now shows 0 | 1 | 2 | \_

# Everything can be Lazy!

- Not only producers, but also transducers can be made lazy
- Sketch
  - consumer needs variable
  - transducer is triggered, needs variable
  - producer is triggered

# Lazy Transducer. Example

```
fun lazy {Inc Xs}
    case Xs
    of X|Xr then X+1|{Inc Xr}
    end
end

declare Xs={Inc {Inc {Produce N}}}}
```

Stream Object accumulator input U output fun {StreamObject S1 X1 ?T1} case S1 of M | S2 then N X2 T2 in {NextState M X1 N X2} T1 = N | T2 {StreamObject S2 X2 T2} [] nil then T1=nil end end

declare S0 X0 T0
thread {StreamObject S0 X0 T0} end

# Making the Driver into a Stream accumulator

```
output
              input
fun {StreamObject ?S1 X1 ?T1}
  S1=M | S2
  local N X2 T2 in ↓ ↑ ↑
      {NextState M X1 N X2}
      T1 = N \mid T2
       {StreamObject S2 X2 T2}
  end
end
declare S0 X0 T0
thread {StreamObject S0 X0 T0} end
```

# Fork-Join for Threads

```
local X_1 X_2 ... X_{n-1} X_n in
  thread <stmt1> X_1=unit end
  thread <stmt2> X_2=X_1 end
  :
  thread <stmtn> X_n=X_{n-1} end
  {Wait X_n}
end
```

wait for all threads to complete through variable binding

## Barrier Synchronization

```
list of threads
proc {Barrier Ps}
  fun {Loop Ps L}
       case Ps of P|Pr then M in
         thread \{P\} M=L end
         {Loop Pr M}
       [] nil then L
       end
  end
  S={Loop Ps unit}
in
   {Wait S}
end
                wait for all threads to complete
```