Haskell/Concurrency Braindump

Liam O'Connor (CSE, NICTA, etc.)

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Haskell is a programming language

```
dotp :: [Float] -> [Float] -> Float
dotp l1 l2 = sum (zipProduct l1 l2)
where
    sum [] = 0
    sum (x:xs) = x + sum xs

zipProduct (a:as) (b:bs)
    = a * b : zipProduct as bs
    zipProduct _ _ = []
```

Haskell is a higher order programming language

```
dotp :: [Float] -> ([Float] -> Float)
dotp 11 12 = foldr (+) 0 (zipWith (*) 11 12)
where
    foldr f z [] = z
    foldr f z (x:xs) = foldr f (f x z) xs

zipWith f (a:as) (b:bs)
    = f a b : zipWith f as bs
zipWith f _ _ = []
```

- Haskell is a programming language, with amazing libraries for data parallelism:
- On multicore (using REPA):

- Haskell is a programming language, with amazing libraries for data parallelism:
- On GPUs (using accelerate):

For easy task parallelism, Haskell has parallel annotations.

(you could also use this for data parallelism but the dedicated array libraries perform better)

```
mean :: [Float] -> Float
mean l = sum l / length l
```

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(you could also use this for data parallelism but the dedicated array libraries perform better)

```
mean :: [Float] -> Float

mean l = let s = sum l

l = length l

in s / l
```

For easy task parallelism, Haskell has parallel annotations.

(you could also use this for data parallelism but the dedicated array libraries perform better)

Haskell's type system keeps this deterministic:

example
$$x = let a = (x := 10)$$

 $b = (x := 20)$
in a `par` b `pseq` x

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```
example x = let a = (x := 10)
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in a par b pseq x
```

Aside: Purely Functional

- All functions are referentially transparent
- Actions (computations that can perform side-effects) are represented as a datatype, composed with some sequencing functions.

```
transfer :: Account -> Account -> Int -> IO ()
transfer from to amount = do
  withdraw from amount
  deposit to amount
```

Aside: Purely Functional

 With actions represented differently from functions, functions become a kind of macro language for actions - we can use this to define our own control structures:

```
forever :: \underline{IO} () -> \underline{IO} a forever act = \mathbf{do} act; forever act
```

Aside: Aside: Monadic IO

```
(>>=) :: <u>IO</u> a -> (a -> <u>IO</u> b) -> <u>IO</u> b
return :: a -> <u>IO</u> a
```

```
hEchoLine :: Handle -> IO String
hEchoLine h = do
s <- hGetLine h
   putStrLn ("I just read that " ++ s)
   return s</pre>
```

Aside: Aside: Monadic IO

```
(>>=) :: <u>IO</u> a -> (a -> <u>IO</u> b) -> <u>IO</u> b
return :: a -> <u>IO</u> a
```

```
hEchoLine :: Handle -> IO String
hEchoLine h = hGetLine h >>=
\s -> putStrLn ("I just read that " ++ s) >>=
\(() -> return s
```

Aside: Aside: Monadic IO

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(>>=) :: <u>IO</u> a -> (a -> <u>IO</u> b) -> <u>IO</u> b
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hEchoLine :: Handle -> IO String
hEchoLine h = hGetLine h >>=
\s -> putStrLn ("I just read that " ++ s) >>=
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```

Aside: Aside: Aside: Monads

```
(>>=) :: <u>m</u> a -> (a -> <u>m</u> b) -> <u>m</u> b return :: a -> <u>m</u> a
```

Define Kleisli composition as:

$$(\langle ... \rangle)$$
 :: (b -> m c) -> (a -> m b) -> (a -> m c) (f $\langle ... \rangle$ g) x = f x $\rangle >=$ g

Then Kleisli composition must form a Category:

```
f <.> return = f
return <.> f = f
f <.> (g <.> x) = (f <.> g) <.> x
```

Concurrency in Haskell

```
forkIO :: <u>IO</u> () -> <u>IO</u> ThreadId
```

```
forkBomb :: IO () -> IO a
forkBomb = forever (forkIO forkBomb >> return ())
```

Bank account example

• The procedure must operate correctly in a concurrent program, in which many threads may call transfer simultaneously.

```
type Account = MVar Int
```

```
transfer :: Account -> Account -> Int -> IO ()
transfer from to amount = do
  withdraw from amount
  deposit to amount
```

```
withdraw :: Account -> Int -> IO ()
withdraw account amount = do
bal <- takeMVar account
putMVar (bal - amount) account</pre>
```

Getting too interesting

• No thread should be able to observe a state in which the money has left one account, but not arrived in the other (or vice versa).

```
type Account = MVar Int

transfer :: Account -> Account -> Int -> IO ()
transfer from to amount = do
    bf <- takeMVar from
    bt <- takeMVar to
    putMVar (bf - amount) from
    putMVar (bt + amount) to</pre>
```

Getting too interesting

 No thread should be able to observe a state in which the money has left one account, but not arrived in the other (or vice versa).

```
type Account = MVar Int

transfer :: Account -> Account -> Int -> IO ()
transfer from to amount = do
    bf <- takeMVar from
    bt <- takeMVar to
    putMVar (bf - amount) from
    putMVar (bt + amount) to</pre>
```

Global Lock Ordering

```
type Account = (Int, MVar Int)
transfer :: Account -> Account -> Int -> IO ()
transfer (fid, from) (tid, to) amount =
  if fid < tid then do</pre>
    bf <- takeMVar from
    bt <- takeMVar to
    putMVar (bf - amount) from
    putMVar (bt + amount) to
  else do
    bt <- takeMVar to
    bf <- takeMVar from
    putMVar (bt + amount) to
    putMVar (bf - amount) from
```

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type Account = (Int, MVar Int)
transfer :: Account -> Account -> Int -> IO ()
transfer (fid, from) (tid, to) amount =
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    bt <- takeMVar to
    putMVar (bf - amount) from
   putMVar (bt + amount) to
  else do
    bt <- takeMVar to
    bf <- takeMVar from
    putMVar (bt + amount) to
    putMVar (bf - amount) from
```

"We need it to transfer from a third account, from 2, if from doesn't contain sufficient funds"

Locks are bad, m'kay

How you can screw up locks: Take too few locks, take too many locks, take
the wrong locks, take locks in the wrong order, recover inappropriately from
errors, forget to wake up threads on condition variables...

Languages with an emphasis on safety like Haskell are supposed to rule out bugs statically, but none of these bugs can be.

Locks are non-modular

Back to our example

```
transfer :: Account -> Account -> Int -> IO ()
transfer from to amount = do
  withdraw from amount
  deposit to amount
withdraw :: Account -> Int -> IO ()
\omega i th dra \omega from amount =
  modifyIORef (subtract amount) (balance from)
balance :: Account -> IORef Int
modifyIORef ::(a -> a) -> <u>IORef</u> a -> <u>IO</u> ()
modifyIORef f r = readIORef r >>= writeIORef r . f
readIORef :: IORef a -> a
writeIORef :: <u>IORef</u> a -> a -> <u>IO</u> ()
```

Another monad

IO	STM
<u>IORef</u>	<u>TVar</u>
readIORef writeIORef modifyIORef	readTVar writeTVar modifyTVar
atomically :: <u>STM</u> a -> <u>IO</u> a	

Now with STM

```
transfer :: Account -> Account -> Int -> STM ()
transfer from to amount = do
    withdraw from amount
deposit to amount

withdraw :: Account -> Int -> STM ()
withdraw from amount = modifyTVar (subtract amount) (balance from)

balance :: Account -> TVar Int

modifyTVar :: (a -> a) -> IVar a -> STM ()
readTVar :: IVar a -> a
writeTVar :: IVar a -> a -> STM ()
```

Guarantees

- Atomicity: the effects of atomically act become visible to another thread all at once. This ensures that no other thread can see a state in which money has been deposited in to but not yet withdrawn from from.
- Isolation: during a call atomically act, the action act is completely unaffected by other threads. It is as if act takes a snapshot of the state of the world when it begins running, and then executes against that snapshot.

- atomically (withdraw cashAccount 100)
- atomically (transfer bob jane 100)
- atomically (deposit savings 100)

Implementation

- Optimistic execution, like in a database.
- When (atomically act) is performed:
 - A thread-local transaction log is allocated, initially empty.
 - · Then the action act is performed, without taking any locks.
 - While performing act, each call to writeTVar writes the address of the TVar and its new value into the log; it does not write to the TVar itself.
 Each call to readTVar first searches the log.
 - When the action finishes the implementation first validates the log and, if validation is successful, commits the log (with locks or CAS or what have you).
 - · If validation fails, we try the whole transaction again.

Embedding IO inside STM

Can't embed IO inside transactions:

Can decide what IO to do inside transactions:

Blocking

```
limitedWithdraw :: Account -> Int -> STM ()
limitedWithdraw acc amount = do
bal <- readTVar (balance acc)
if amount > 0 && amount > bal
then retry
else writeTVar (balance acc) (bal - amount)
```

retry :: STM a

Choice

•

orElse :: STM a -> STM a -> STM a

The Santa Claus Problem

Originally due to Trono:

Santa repeatedly sleeps until wakened by either all of his nine reindeer, back from their holidays, or by a group of three of his ten elves. If awakened by the reindeer, he harnesses each of them to his sleigh, delivers toys with them and finally unharnesses them (allowing them to go off on holiday). If awakened by a group of elves, he shows each of the group into his study, consults with them on toy R&D and finally shows them each out (allowing them to go back to work). Santa should give priority to the reindeer in the case that there is both a group of elves and a group of reindeer waiting.

- Trono gives semaphore-based (partial) solution
- Ben-Ari gives solution in Ada
- Benton gives solution in C#

Elves and Reindeers

· Santa has a Group for elves and a Group for reindeer

```
elf :: Group -> Int -> IO ()
elf group = forever $ do
     (in_gate, out_gate) <- joinGroup group
     passGate in_gate
     meetInStudy
     passGate out_gate

reindeer :: Group -> Int -> IO ()
reindeer group = forever $ do
     (in_gate, out_gate) <- joinGroup group
     passGate in_gate
     deliverPresents
     passGate out gate</pre>
```

Gates

• For a gate created by newGate n, all processes will block on passGate until someone calls operateGate, which allows exactly n processes through the gate.

• operateGate resets the remaining capacity to n (and thus unblocks every passGate), and blocks until the remaining capacity is zero again.

```
newGate :: <u>Int</u> -> <u>STM Gate</u>
passGate :: <u>Gate</u> -> <u>IO</u> ()
operateGate :: <u>Gate</u> -> <u>IO</u> ()
```

Gates

```
data Gate = MkGate Int (TVar Int)
newGate :: <u>Int</u> -> <u>STM</u> <u>Gate</u>
newGate n = do
    tv <- newTVar 0
    return (MkGate n tv)
passGate :: Gate -> IO ()
passGate (MkGate n tv)
  = atomically (do n_left <- readTVar tv
                    check (n left > 0)
                    writeTVar tv (n left-1))
operateGate :: Gate -> IO ()
operateGate (MkGate n tv) = do
    atomically (writeTVar tv n)
    atomically (do n left <- readTVar tv
                    check (n left == 0))
```

Group

- A group with initial capacity n is created by newGroup n
- joinGroup is called by elves and reindeers. It gives access to the Gates and decrements the remaining capacity, blocking if it is zero.
- awaitGroup is called by Santa. It waits for the group to be full (remaining capacity = 0), then reinitialises the group with new gates. Why?

```
newGroup :: Int -> IO Group
joinGroup :: Group -> IO (Gate, Gate)
awaitGroup :: Group -> STM (Gate, Gate)
```

Group

```
data Group = MkGroup Int (TVar (Int, Gate, Gate))
newGroup n = atomically (do g1 <- newGate n; g2 <- newGate n
                            tv <- newTVar (n, g1, g2)
                            return (MkGroup n tv))
joinGroup (MkGroup n tv)
  = atomically (do (n_left, g1, g2) <- readTVar tv
                   check (n left > 0)
                   writeTVar tv (n left-1, g1, g2)
                   return (q1,q2))
awaitGroup (MkGroup n tv) = do
    (n left, g1, g2) <- readTVar tv
    check (n left == 0)
    new q1 <- newGate n; new_g2 <- newGate n
    writeTVar tv (n,new g1,new g2)
    return (g1,g2)
```

Santa

Read this.

- http://chimera.labs.oreilly.com/books/1230000000929/pr01.html
- "Parallel and Concurrent Programming in Haskell"
- It covers all these topics and more.
- Also read:
- http://learnyouahaskell.com/
- http://book.realworldhaskell.org/

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