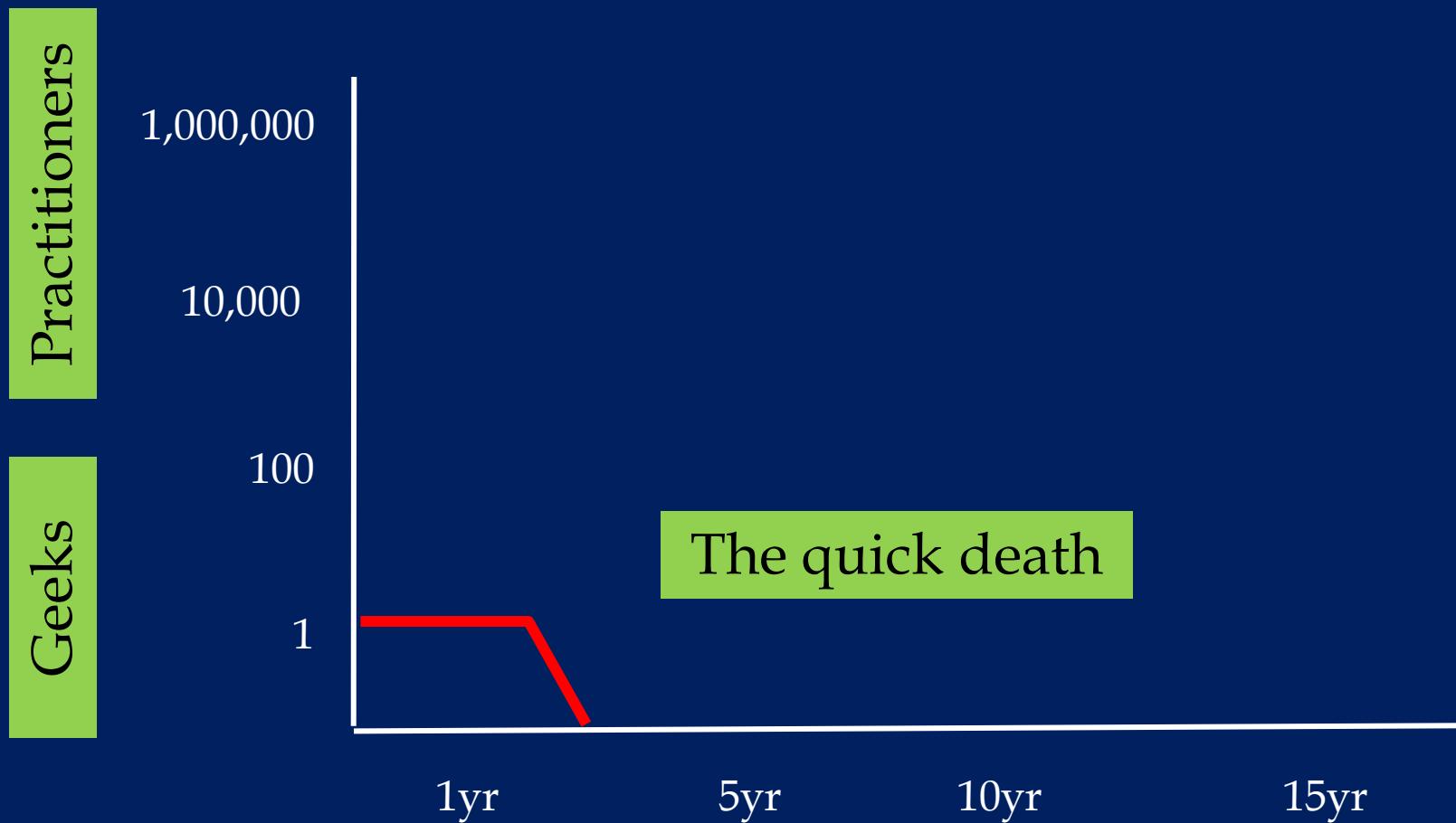


# HASKELL AND TRANSACTIONAL MEMORY

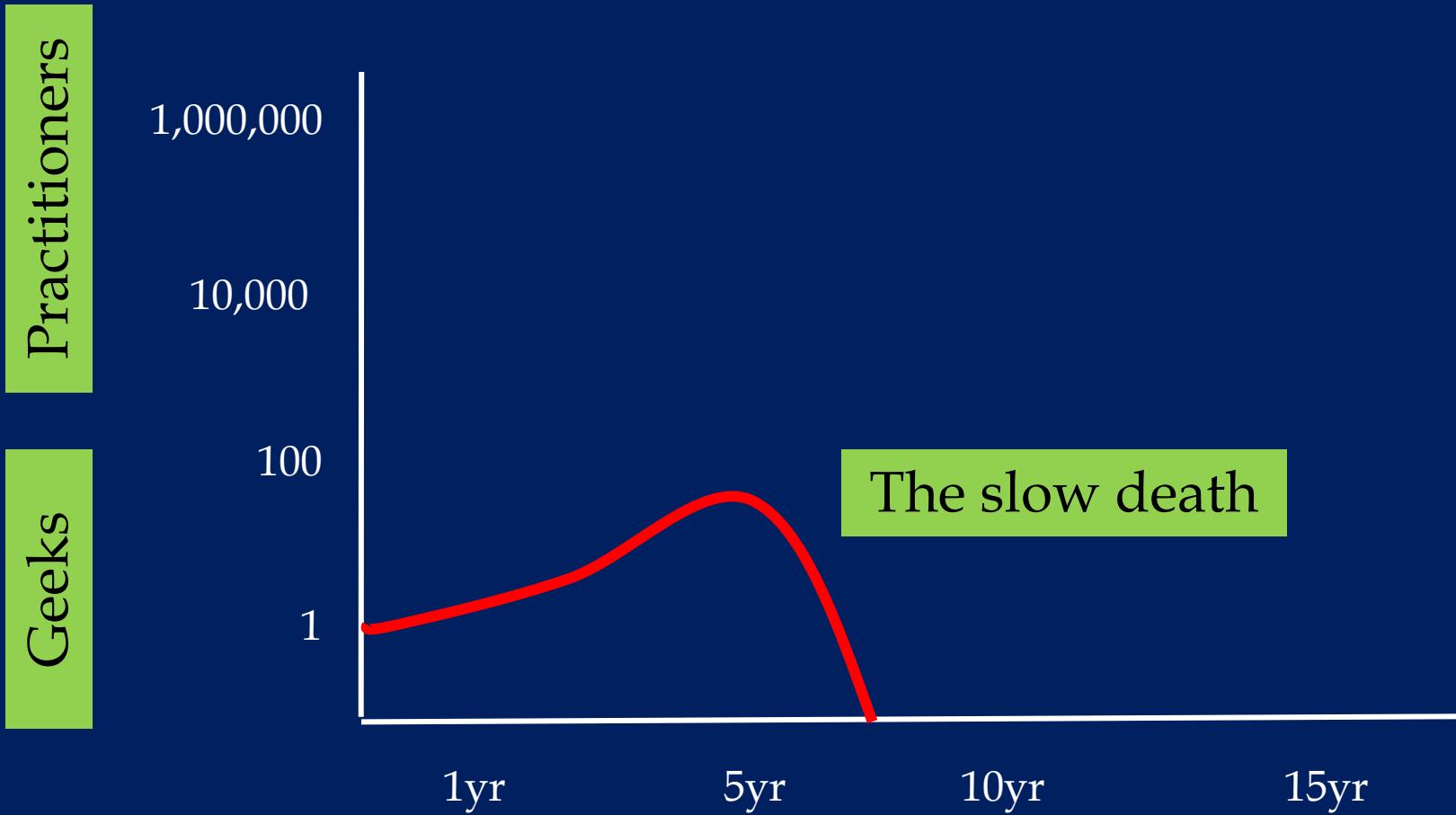
Simon Peyton Jones (Microsoft Research)

Tokyo Haskell Users Group  
April 2010

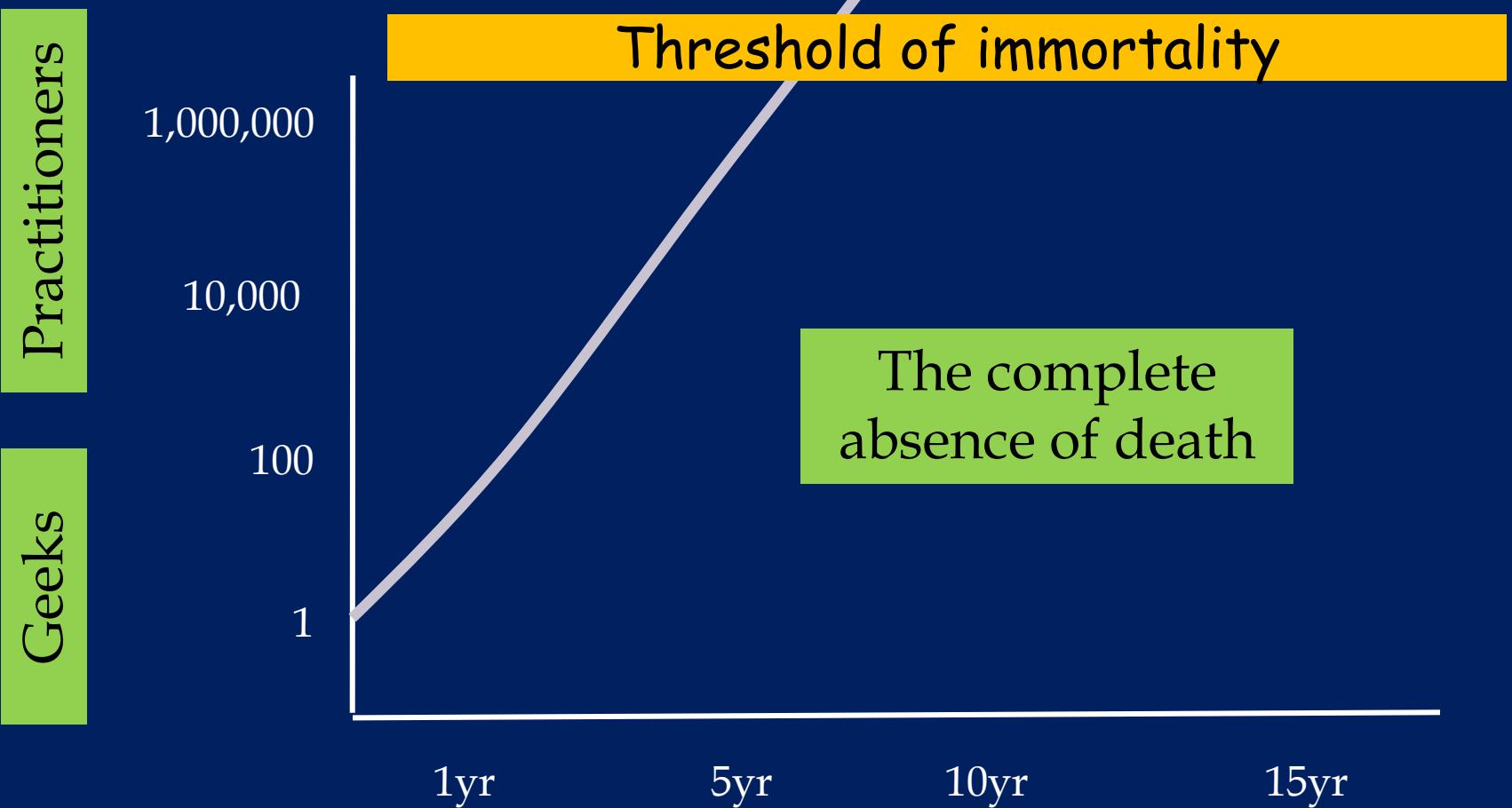
# Most new programming languages



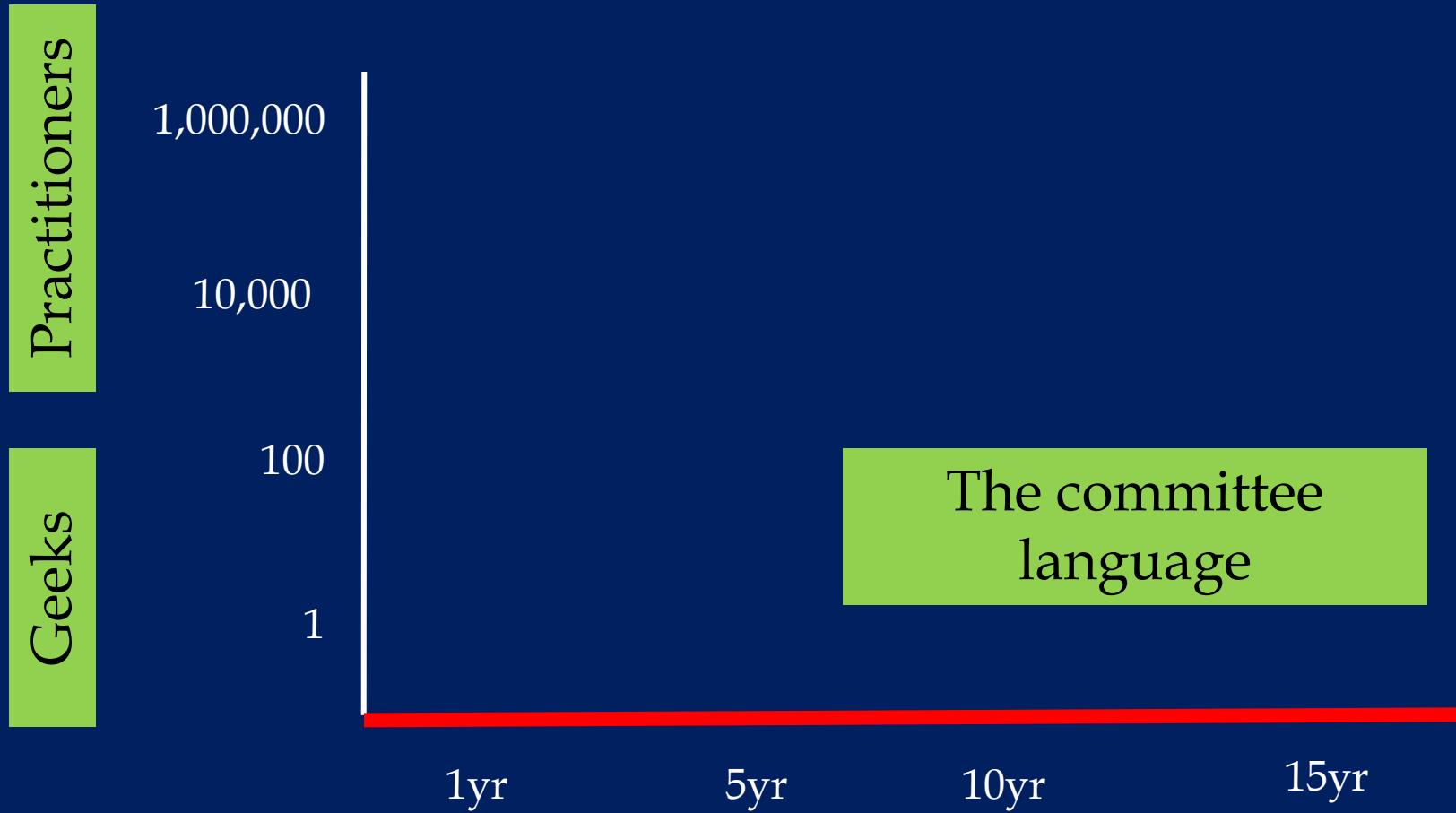
# Successful research languages



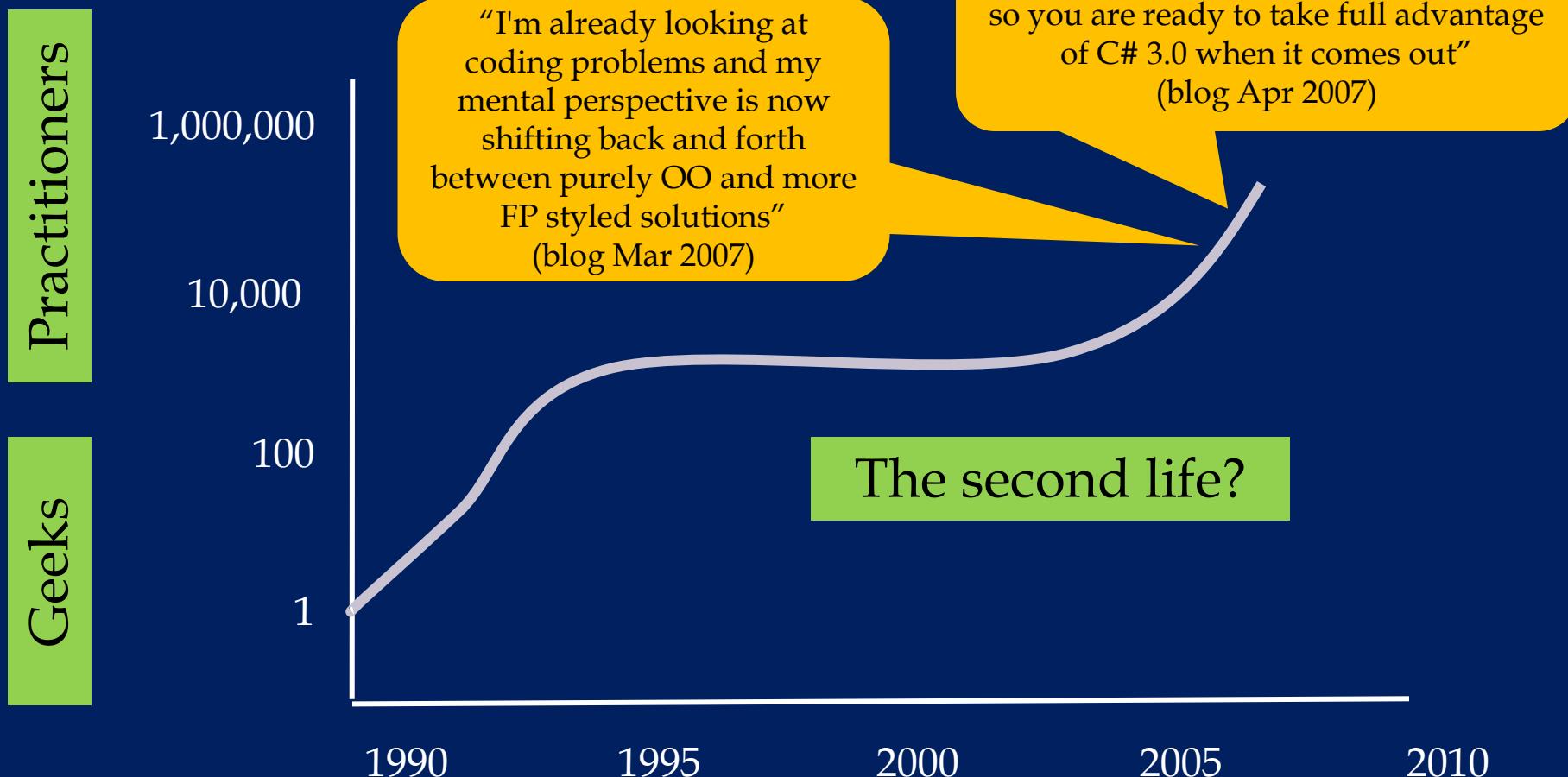
# *C++, Java, Perl, Ruby*



# Committee languages

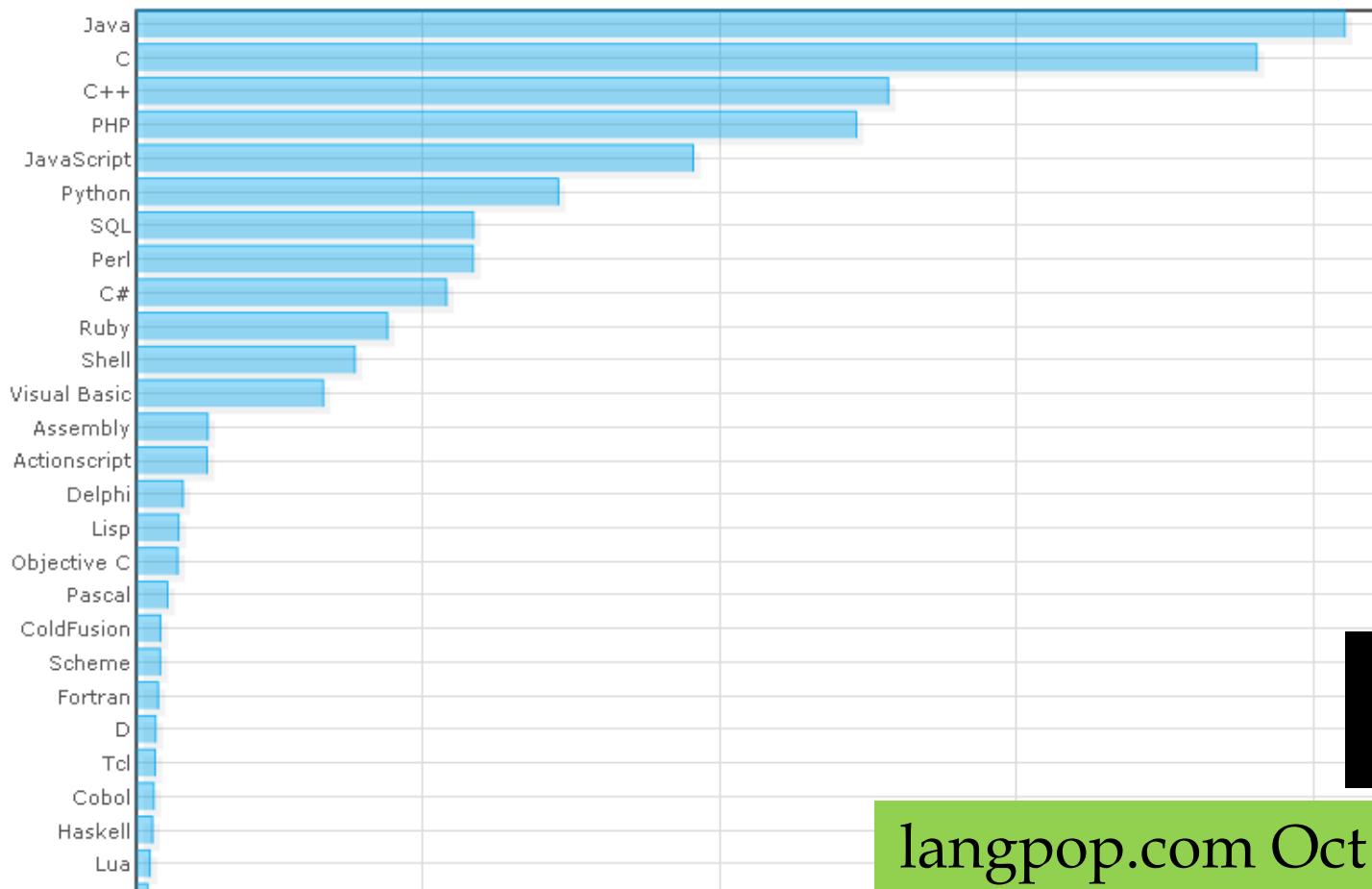


# Haskell

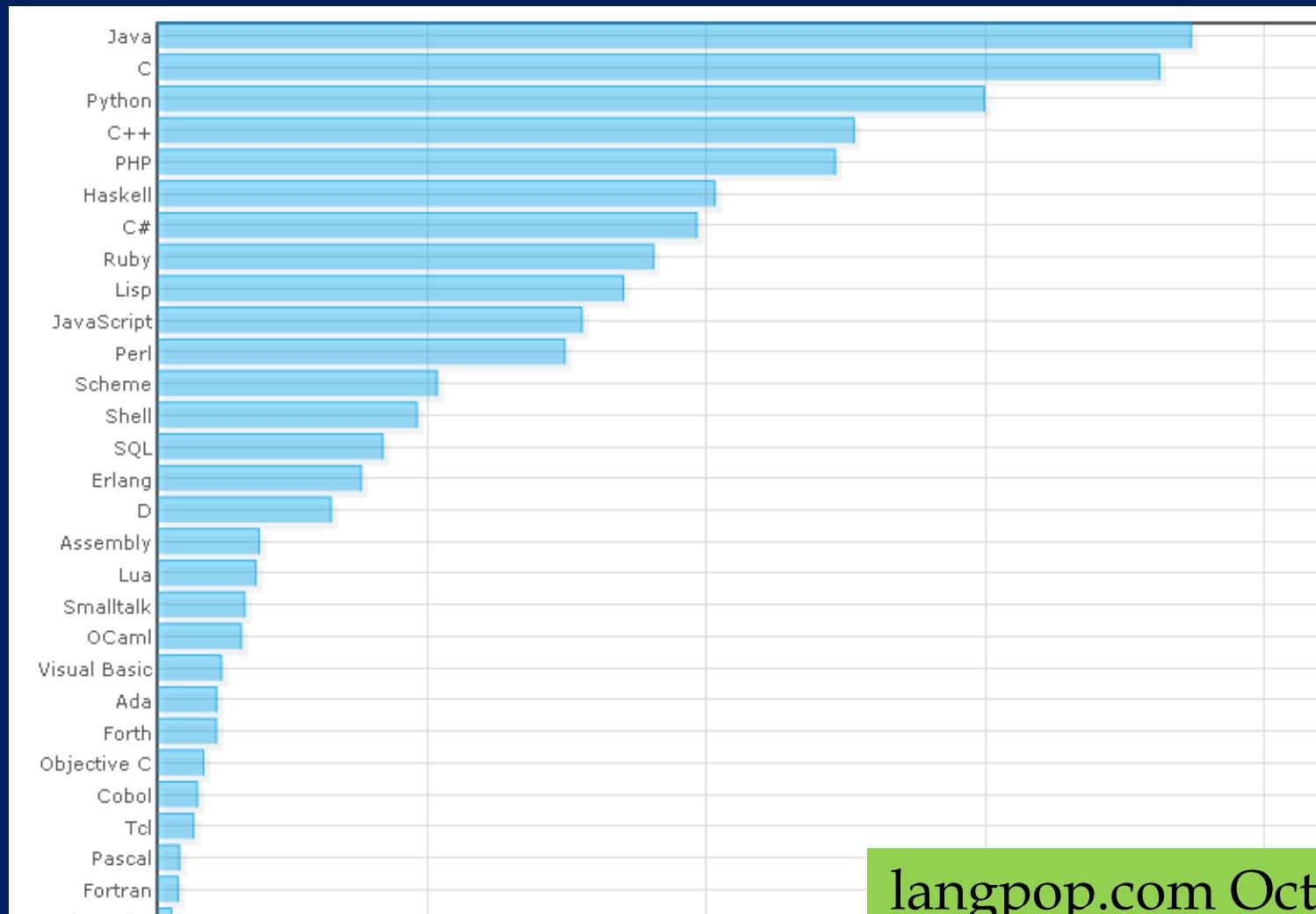


# Language popularity how much language X is used

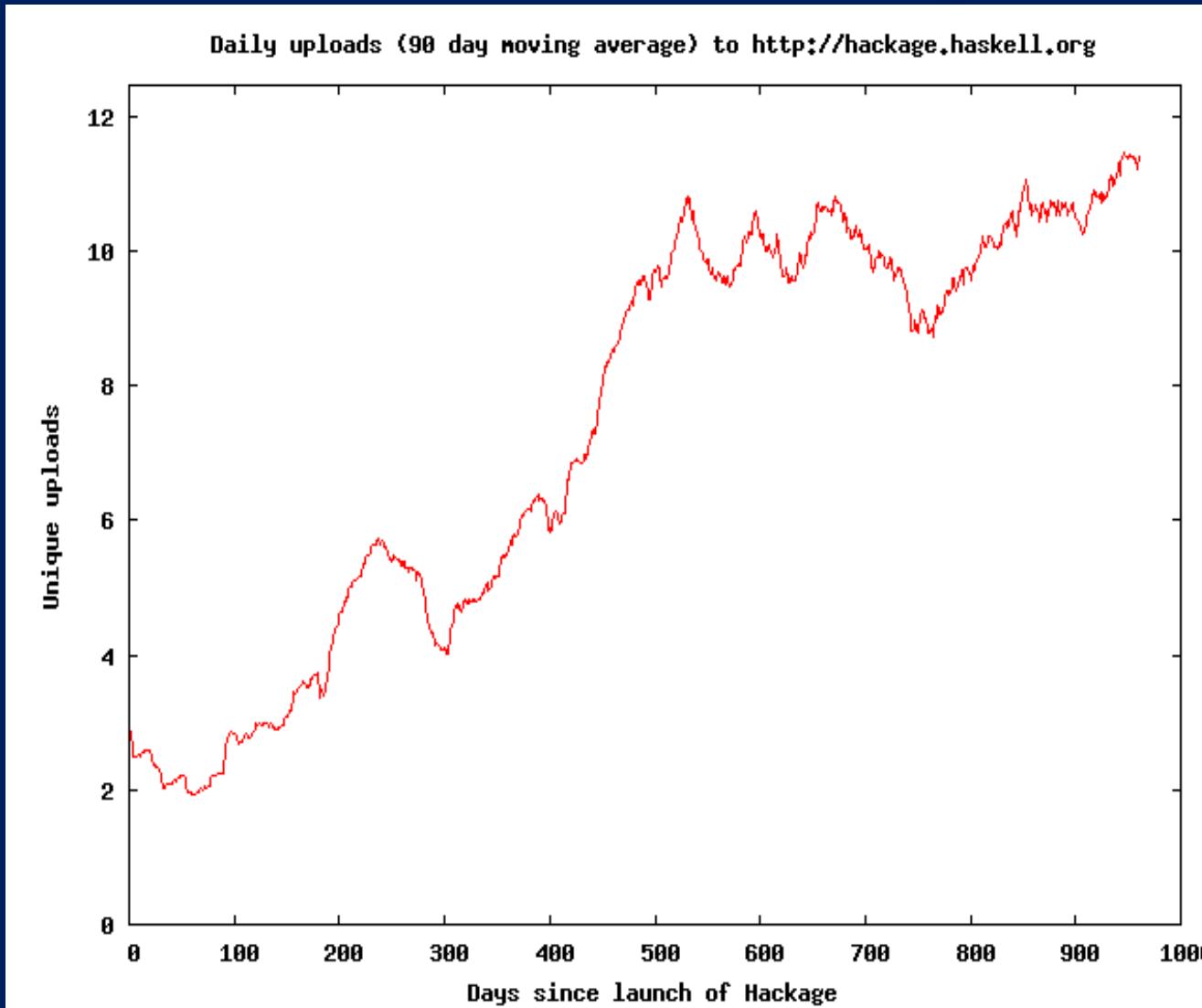
This is a chart showing combined results from all data sets.



# Language popularity how much language X is talked about



# Hackage



1976 packages

533 developers

256 new packages  
Jan-Mar 2010

11.5 uploads/day

4k downloads/day

# Parallelism is a big opportunity for Haskell

- The language is naturally parallel (the opposite of Java)
- Everyone is worried about how to program parallel machines

# Haskell has three forms of concurrency

- Explicit threads
  - Non-deterministic by design
  - Monadic: **forkIO** and **STM**
- Semi-implicit
  - Deterministic
  - Pure: **par** and **seq**
- Data parallel
  - Deterministic
  - Pure: parallel arrays
  - Shared memory initially; distributed memory eventually; possibly even GPUs
- General attitude: using **some** of the parallel processors you already have, **relatively easily**

```
main :: IO ()  
= do { ch <- newChan  
; forkIO (ioManager ch)  
; forkIO (worker 1 ch)  
... etc ... }
```

```
f :: Int -> Int  
f x = a `par` b `seq` a + b  
      where  
        a = f (x-1)  
        b = f (x-2)
```

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- Monadic: **forkIO** and **STM**

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main :: IO ()  
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- Semi-implicit

- Deterministic

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```

Today's focus

distributed memory eventually;

- General attitude: using some of the parallel processors you already have, relatively easily

After 30 years of research, the most widely-used co-ordination mechanism for shared-memory task-level concurrency is....

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**Locks and condition variables**

After 30 years of research, the most widely-used co-ordination mechanism for shared-memory task-level concurrency is....

**Locks and condition variables**

**(invented 30 years ago)**

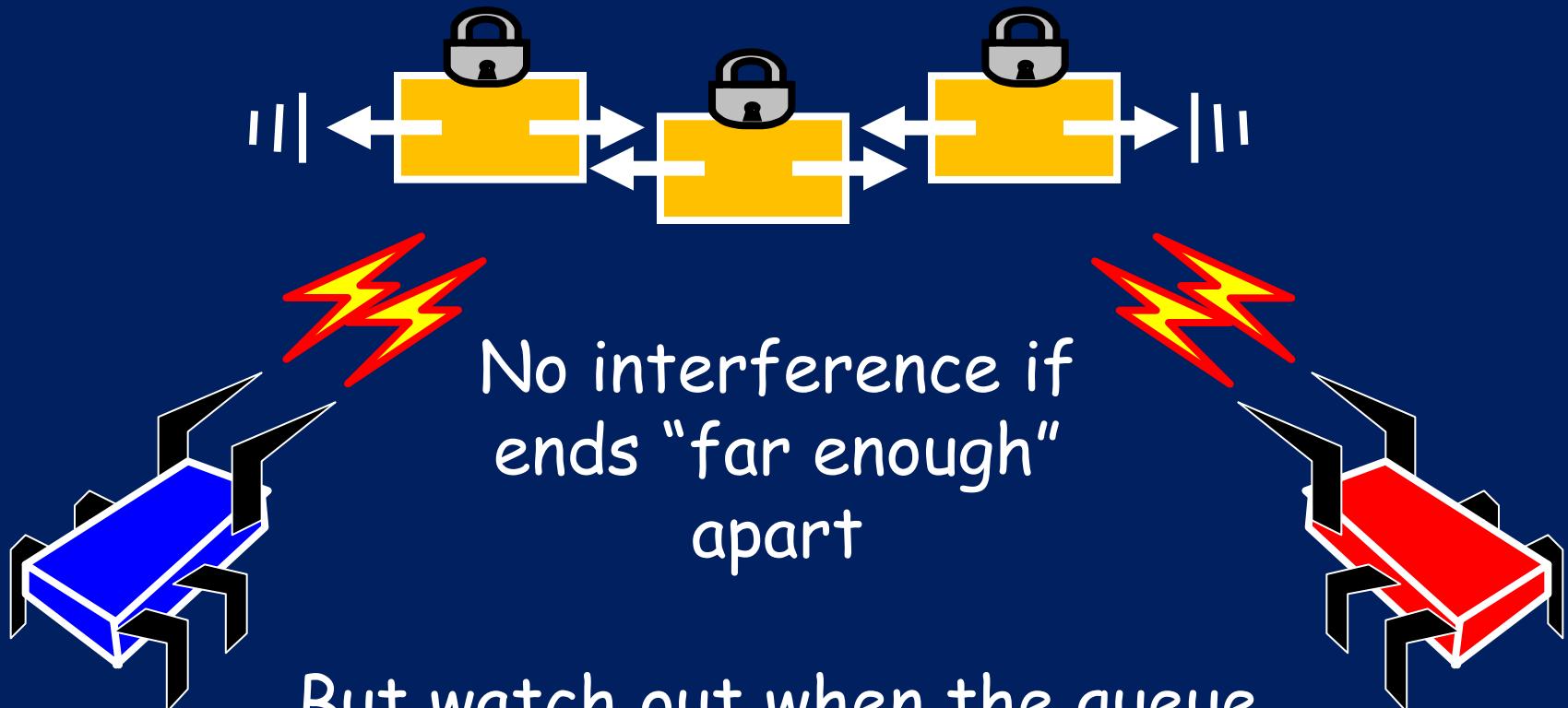
# What's wrong with locks?

A 10-second review:

- **Races**: due to forgotten locks
- **Deadlock**: locks acquired in “wrong” order.
- **Lost wakeups**: forgotten notify to condition variable
- **Diabolical error recovery**: need to restore invariants and release locks in exception handlers
- These are serious problems. But even worse...

# Locks are absurdly hard to get right

Scalable double-ended queue: one lock per cell



But watch out when the queue  
is 0, 1, or 2 elements long!

# Locks are absurdly hard to get right

Coding style	Difficulty of concurrent queue
Sequential code	Undergraduate

# Locks are absurdly hard to get right

Coding style	Difficulty of concurrent queue
Sequential code	Undergraduate
Locks and condition variables	Publishable result at international conference

# Atomic memory transactions

Coding style	Difficulty of concurrent queue
Sequential code	Undergraduate
Locks and condition variables	Publishable result at international conference
Atomic blocks	Undergraduate

# Atomic memory transactions

```
{ atomic { ... sequential get code ... }
```

- To a first approximation, just write the sequential code, and wrap **atomic** around it
- All-or-nothing semantics: **Atomic commit**
- Atomic block executes in **Isolation**
- Cannot deadlock (there are no locks!)
- Atomicity makes error recovery easy  
(e.g. exception thrown inside the get code)

ACID

Optimistic  
concurrency

# How does it work?

```
atomic { ... <code> ... }
```

One possibility:

- Execute `<code>` without taking any locks
- Each read and write in `<code>` is logged to a thread-local transaction log
- Writes go to the log only, not to memory
- At the end, the transaction tries to **commit** to memory
- Commit may fail; then transaction is re-run

# Realising STM in Haskell

# Realising STM in Haskell

```
main = do { putStrLn (reverse "yes")
           ; putStrLn "no" }
```

- Effects are explicit in the type system
  - `(reverse "yes") :: String` -- No effects
  - `(putStrLn "no") :: IO ()` -- Can have effects
- The main program is an effect-ful computation
  - `main :: IO ()`

# Mutable state

```
newRef :: a -> IO (Ref a)
readRef :: Ref a -> IO a
writeRef :: Ref a -> a -> IO ()
```

```
main = do { r <- newRef 0
           ; incR r
           ; s <- readRef r
           ; print s }
```

```
incR :: Ref Int -> IO ()
incR r = do { v <- readRef r
              ; writeRef r (v+1)
              }
```

Reads and writes are 100% explicit!

You can't say  $(r + 6)$ , because  $r :: \text{Ref Int}$

# Concurrency in Haskell

**fork :: IO a -> IO ThreadId**

- fork spawns a thread
- it takes an action as its argument

```
main = do { r <- newRef 0  
          ; fork (incR r)  
          ; incR r  
          ; ... }
```

A  
race

incR :: Ref Int -> IO ()

incR r = do { v <- readRef f; writeRef r (v+1) }

# Atomic blocks in Haskell

```
atomic :: IO a -> IO a
```

```
main = do { r <- newRef 0
          ; fork (atomic (incR r))
          ; atomic (incR r)
          ; ... }
```

- `atomic` is a function, not a syntactic construct
- A worry: what stops you doing `incR` outside `atomic`?

# STM in Haskell

- Better idea:

```
atomic    :: STM a -> IO a
newTVar  :: a -> STM (TVar a)
readTVar :: TVar a -> STM a
writeTVar :: TVar a -> a -> STM ()
```

```
incT :: TVar Int -> STM ()
incT r = do { v <- readTVar r; writeTVar r (v+1) }

main = do { r <- atomic (newTVar 0)
           ; fork (atomic (incT r))
           ; atomic (incT r)
           ; ... }
```

# STM in Haskell

```
atomic :: STM a -> IO a
newTVar :: a -> STM (TVar a)
readTVar :: TVar a -> STM a
writeTVar :: TVar a -> a -> STM ()
```

- Notice that:
- Can't fiddle with TVars outside atomic block [good]
- Can't do IO inside atomic block [sad, but also good]
- No changes to the compiler (whatsoever). Only runtime system and primops.
- ...and, best of all...

# STM computations compose (unlike locks)

```
incT :: TVar Int -> STM ()
```

```
incT r = do { v <- readTVar r; writeTVar r (v+1) }
```

```
incT2 :: TVar Int -> STM ()
```

```
incT2 r = do { incT r; incT r }
```

```
foo :: IO ()
```

```
foo = ...atomic (incT2 r)...
```

Composition  
is THE way  
we build big  
programs  
that work

- An **STM** computation is always executed atomically (e.g. incT2). The type tells you.
- Simply glue **STMs** together arbitrarily; then wrap with **atomic**
- No nested atomic. (What would it mean?)

# Exceptions

- STM monad supports exceptions:

```
throw :: Exception -> STM a
```

```
catch :: STM a -> (Exception -> STM a) -> STM a
```

- In the call (`atomic s`), if `s` throws an exception, the transaction is aborted with no effect; and the exception is propagated into the IO monad
- No need to restore invariants, or release locks!
- See paper for the question of the exception value itself

# Three new ideas

retry  
orElse  
always

# Idea 1: compositional blocking

```
withdraw :: TVar Int -> Int -> STM ()  
withdraw acc n = do { bal <- readTVar acc  
                      ; if bal < n then retry;  
                      ; writeTVar acc (bal-n) }  
  
retry :: STM ()
```

- **retry** means “abort the current transaction and re-execute it from the beginning”.
- Implementation avoids the busy wait by using reads in the transaction log (i.e. **acc**) to wait simultaneously on all read variables

# Compositional blocking

- No condition variables!
- Retrying thread is woken up automatically when `acc` is written. No lost wake-ups!
- No danger of forgetting to test everything again when woken up; the transaction runs again from the beginning.

e.g. `atomic (do { withdraw a1 3 ; withdraw a2 7 })`

# Why “compositional”?

- Because **retry** can appear anywhere inside an atomic block, including nested deep within a call.  
e.g. `atomic (do { withdraw a1 3  
; withdraw a2 7 })`
- Waits for  $a1 > 3$  AND  $a2 > 7$ , **without changing withdraw**
- Contrast:  
`atomic (a1 > 3 && a2 > 7) { ...stuff... }`  
which breaks the abstraction inside  
“...stuff...”

# Idea 2: Choice

```
atomic (do {  
    withdraw a1 3  
    `orelse'  
    withdraw a2 3  
; deposit b 3 })
```

Try this

...and if it  
retries,  
try this

...and  
and then  
do this

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

# Choice is composable too

```
transfer :: TVar Int -> TVar Int  
          -> TVar Int -> STM ()
```

```
transfer a1 a2 b = do  
  { withdraw a1 3  
    `orElse`  
    withdraw a2 3  
  
    ; deposit b 3 }
```

atomic  
(transfer a1 a2 b  
 `orElse`  
 transfer a3 a4 b)

- transfer has an orElse, but calls to transfer can still be composed with orElse

# Composing transactions

- A transaction is a value of type  $(STM\ t)$
- Transactions are first-class values
- Build a big transaction by composing little transactions: in sequence, using choice, inside procedures....
- Finally seal up the transaction with  
 $\text{atomic} :: STM\ a \rightarrow IO\ a$
- No nested atomic! But orElse is like a nested transaction
- No concurrency within a transaction!

# Algebra

Nice equations:

- `orElse` is associative (but not commutative)
- `retry `orElse` s = s`
- `s `orElse` retry = s`

(STM is an instance of `MonadPlus`)

# Idea 3: invariants

- The route to sanity is by establishing invariants that are **assumed on entry**, and **guaranteed on exit**, by every atomic block
- We want to check these guarantees. But we don't want to test every invariant after every atomic block.
- Hmm.... Only test when something read by the invariant has changed.... rather like retry

# Invariants: one new primitive

```
always :: STM Bool -> STM ()
```

```
newAccount :: STM (TVar Int)
```

```
newAccount = do { v <- newTVar 0
                 ; always (do { cts <- readTVar v
                               ; return (cts >= 0) })
                 ; return v }
```

Any transaction that modifies  
the account will check the  
invariant (no forgotten checks)

An arbitrary  
boolean-valued  
STM computation

# What always does

always :: STM Bool -> STM ()

- **always** adds a new invariant to a global pool of invariants
- Conceptually, every invariant is checked after every transaction
- But the implementation checks only invariants that read TVars that have been written by the transaction
- ...and garbage collects invariants that are checking dead TVars

# What does it all mean?

- Everything so far is intuitive and arm-wavey
- But what happens if it's raining, and you are inside an `orElse` and you throw an exception that contains a value that mentions...?
- We need a precise specification!

We have  
one

IO transitions  $P; \Theta \xrightarrow{a} Q; \Theta'$

$$\begin{array}{lcl}
 \mathbb{P}[\text{putChar } c]; \Theta & \xrightarrow{!c} & \mathbb{P}[\text{return } ()]; \Theta & (PUTC) \\
 \mathbb{P}[\text{getChar}]; \Theta & \xrightarrow{?c} & \mathbb{P}[\text{return } c]; \Theta & (GETC) \\
 \mathbb{P}[\text{forkIO } M]; \Phi, \Delta & \rightarrow & (\mathbb{P}[\text{return } t] \mid M_t); \Phi, \Delta \cup \{t\} \quad t \notin \Delta & (FORK) \\
 \\ 
 \frac{M \rightarrow N}{\mathbb{P}[M]; \Theta \rightarrow \mathbb{P}[N]; \Theta} \quad (ADMIN) \\
 \\ 
 \frac{M; \Theta \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} \text{return } N; \Theta'}{\mathbb{P}[\text{atomically } M]; \Theta \rightarrow \mathbb{P}[\text{return } N]; \Theta'} \quad (ARET) \quad \frac{M; \Phi, \Delta \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} \text{throw } N; \Phi, \Delta'}{\mathbb{P}[\text{atomically } M]; \Phi, \Delta \rightarrow \mathbb{P}[\text{throw } N]; \Phi, \Delta'} \quad (ATHROW)
 \end{array}$$

Administrative transitions  $M \rightarrow N$

$$\begin{array}{lll}
 M \rightarrow V & & \text{if } \mathcal{E}[M] = V \text{ and } M \not\equiv V & (EVAL) \\
 \text{return } N >= M \rightarrow MN & & & (BIND) \\
 \text{throw } N >= M \rightarrow \text{throw } N & & & (THROW) \\
 \text{catch } (\text{throw } M) N \rightarrow NM & & & (CATCH1) \\
 \text{catch } (\text{return } M) N \rightarrow \text{return } M & & & (CATCH2)
 \end{array}$$

STM transitions  $\mathbb{E}; \Theta \Rightarrow N; \Theta'$

$$\begin{array}{lll}
 \mathbb{E}[\text{readTVar } r]; \Phi, \Delta & \Rightarrow & \mathbb{E}[\text{return } \Phi(r)]; \Phi, \Delta & \text{if } r \in \text{dom}(\Phi) & (READ) \\
 \mathbb{E}[\text{writeTVar } r N]; \Phi, \Delta & \Rightarrow & \mathbb{E}[\text{return } ()]; \Phi[r \mapsto M], \Delta & \text{if } r \in \text{dom}(\Phi) & (WRITE) \\
 \mathbb{E}[\text{newTVar } M]; \Phi, \Delta & \Rightarrow & \mathbb{E}[\text{return } r]; \Phi[r \mapsto M], \Delta \cup \{r\} & \text{if } r \notin \Delta & (NEW) \\
 \\ 
 \frac{M \rightarrow N}{\mathbb{E}[M]; \Theta \rightarrow \mathbb{E}[N]; \Theta} \quad (ADMIN) \\
 \\ 
 \frac{\mathbb{E}[M_1]; \Theta \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} \mathbb{E}[\text{return } N]; \Theta'}{\mathbb{E}[M_1 \text{ 'orElse' } M_2]; \Theta \Rightarrow \mathbb{E}[\text{return } N]; \Theta'} \quad (OR1) \quad \frac{\mathbb{E}[M_1]; \Theta \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} \mathbb{E}[\text{throw } N]; \Theta'}{\mathbb{E}[M_1 \text{ 'orElse' } M_2]; \Theta \Rightarrow \mathbb{E}[\text{throw } N]; \Theta'} \quad (OR2) \\
 \\ 
 \frac{\mathbb{E}[M_1]; \Theta \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} \mathbb{E}[\text{retry}]; \Theta'}{\mathbb{E}[M_1 \text{ 'orElse' } M_2]; \Theta \Rightarrow \mathbb{E}[M_2]; \Theta} \quad (OR3)
 \end{array}$$

# Conclusions

- Atomic blocks (`atomic`, `retry`, `orElse`) are a real step forward
- It's like using a high-level language instead of assembly code: whole classes of low-level errors are eliminated.
- Not a silver bullet:
  - you can still write buggy programs;
  - concurrent programs are still harder to write than sequential ones;
  - aimed at shared memory
- But the improvement is very substantial