



# Message-passing concurrency in Erlang

Lecture 7 of TDA384/DIT391
Principles of Concurrent Programming

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Based on course slides by Carlo A. Furia

#### Today's menu

Actors and message passing

Sending and receiving messages

Stateful processes

Clients and servers

Generic servers

Location transparency & distribution

#### What is Erlang?

Erlang combines a functional language with message-passing features:

- The <u>functional part</u> is <u>sequential</u>, and is used to define the behavior of <u>processes</u>.
- The <u>message-passing</u> part is highly <u>concurrent</u>: it implements the <u>actor model</u>, where actors are Erlang processes.

This class covers the message-passing/concurrent part of Erlang.

**Actors and message passing** 

#### Erlang's principles

Concurrency is fundamental in Erlang, and it follows models that are quite different from those offered by most imperative languages. In Erlang (from Armstrong's PhD thesis):

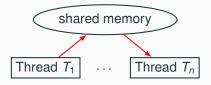
- · Processes are strongly isolated
- Process creation and destruction is a lightweight operation
- Message passing is the only way for processes to interact
- Processes have unique names
- · If you know the name of a process you can send it a message
- Processes share no resources
- · Error handling is non-local
- Processes do what they are supposed to do or fail

Compare these principles to programming using Java threads!

#### Shared memory vs. message passing

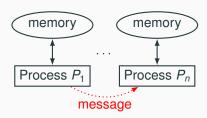
#### Shared memory:

- synchronize by writing to and reading from shared memory
- natural choice in shared memory systems such as threads



#### Message passing:

- synchronize by exchanging messages
- natural choice in distributed memory systems such as processes



#### The actor model

Erlang's message-passing concurrency mechanisms implement the actor model:

- Actors are abstractions of processes
- No shared state between actors
- Actors communicate by exchanging messages asynchronous message passing

A metaphorical actor is an "active agent which plays a role on cue according to a script" (Garner & Lukose, 1989).

#### **Actors and messages**

Each actor is identified by an address.

#### An actor can:

- send (finitely many) messages to other actors via their addresses
- change its behavior what it computes, how it reacts to messages
- · create (finitely many) new actors

#### A message includes:

- a recipient identified by its address
- content arbitrary information

#### The actor model in Erlang

The entities in the actor model correspond to features of Erlang – possibly with some terminological change.

ACTOR MODEL	ERLANG	LANGUAGE
actor	sequential process	
address	PID (process identifier)	pid type
message	any Erlang term	{From, Content}
behavior	(defined by) functions	
create actor	spawning	spawn
dispose actor	termination	
send message	send expression	To ! Message
receive message	receive expression	receiveend

# Sending and receiving messages

#### A process's life

#### A process:

- is created by calling spawn
- is identified by a pid (process identifier)
- executes a function (passed as argument to spawn)
- when the function terminates, the process ends

Function spawn (M, F, Args) creates a new process:

- the process runs function F in module M with arguments Args
- evaluating spawn returns the pid of the created process

Within a process's code, function self() returns the process's pid. Within a module's code, macro ?MODULE gives the module's name.

```
Calling spawn(fun () \rightarrow f(a1, ..., an) end) is equivalent to spawn(?MODULE, f, [a1, ..., an]) but does not require exporting f.
```

#### Processes: examples

```
A process's code:

-module(procs).

1> spawn(procs, print_sum, [3, 4]).

7  % printed sum

ending processes in the shell:

7  % printed sum

ending process

20.78.0> % pid of spawned process

2> spawn(procs, compute_sum, [1, 7]).

ending processes in the shell:

7  % printed sum

ending processes in the shell:

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ending processes in the shell:
```

```
3> spawn(fun ()-> true end).
<0.82.0> % pid of spawned process
4> self().
<0.47.0> % pid of process running shell
```

#### Sending messages

A message is any term in Erlang. Typically, a message is the result of evaluating an expression.

The expression

Pid ! Message

sends the evaluation T of Message to the process with pid Pid; and returns T as result.

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The expression

bang operator

Pid ! Message

sends the evaluation T of Message to the process with pid Pid; and returns T as result.

Bang is right-associative. Thus, to send a message to multiple recipients, we can combine multiple bangs:

Pid1 ! Pid2 ! · · · ! Pidn ! Message

#### Mailboxes

Every process is equipped with a mailbox, which behaves like a FIFO queue and is filled with the messages sent to the process in the order they arrive.

Mailboxes make message-passing asynchronous: the sender does not wait for the recipient to receive the message; messages queue in the mailbox until they are processed

To check the content of process Pid's mailbox, use functions:

- process\_info(Pid, message\_queue\_len): how many elements are in the mailbox
- process\_info(Pid, messages): list of messages in the mailbox (oldest to newest)
- flush(): empty the current process's mailbox

```
1> self() ! self() ! hello. % send 'hello' twice to self
2> self() ! world. % send 'world' to self
3> erlang:process_info(self(), messages)
{messages, [hello, hello, world]} % queue in mailbox
```

#### **Receiving messages**

To receive messages use the receive expression:

```
receive
  P1 when C1 -> E1;
    :
    Pn when Cn -> En
end
```

Evaluating the **receive** expression selects the **oldest** term T in the receiving process's mailbox that matches a pattern Pk and satisfies condition Ck. If a term T that matches exists, the **receive** expression evaluates to  $Ek\langle Pk \triangleq T\rangle$ ; otherwise, evaluation blocks until a suitable message arrives.

#### The receiving algorithm

How evaluating **receive** works, in pseudo-code:

```
Term receive(Queue<Term> mailbox, List<Clause> receive) {
  while (true) {
    await(!mailbox.isEmpty()); // block if no messages
    for (Term message: mailbox) // oldest to newest
      for (Clause clause: receive) // in textual order
        if (message.matches(clause.pattern))
             // apply bindings of pattern match
             // to evaluate clause expression
          return clause.expression\langleclause.pattern\triangleqmessage\rangle;
```

# Receiving messages: examples

A simple echo function, which prints any message it receives:

```
echo() ->
  receive Msg -> io:format("Received: ~p~n", [Msg]) end.
```

Sending messages to echo in the shell:

```
1> Echo=spawn(echo, echo, []).
% now Echo is bound to echo's pid
2> Echo ! hello. % send 'hello' to Echo
Received: hello % printed by Echo
```

To make a receiving process permanent, it calls itself after receiving:

```
repeat_echo() ->
  receive Msg -> io:format("Received: ~p~n", [Msg]) end,
  repeat_echo() % after receiving, go back to listening
```

tail recursive, thus no memory consumption problem!

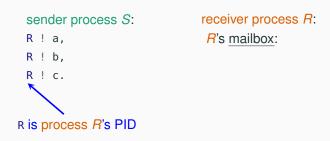
# Message delivery order

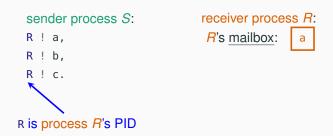
Erlang's runtime only provides weak guarantees of message delivery order:

- if a process *S* sends some messages to another process *R*, then *R* will receive the messages in the same order *S* sent them
- if a process S sends some messages to two (or more) other processes R and Q, there is no guarantee about the order in which the messages sent by S are received by R relative to when they are received by Q

<u>In practice</u>, pretty much all the Erlang code we will write does <u>not rely on any assumptions</u> about message delivery order.

Even <u>defining</u> – let alone enforcing – an <u>absolute time</u> across multiple independent processes (which could even be geographically distributed) would be tricky: in order to synchronize, processes can only exchange messages!

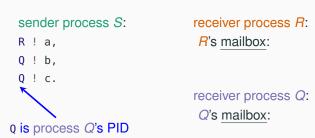




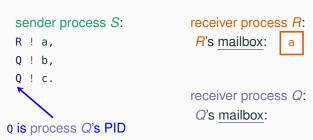




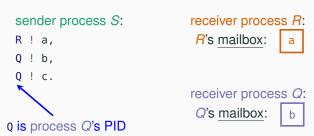
If process S sends messages a, b, c – in this order – to process R and to process Q, R and Q may receive them in any order in their mailboxes relative to each other.



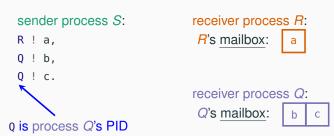
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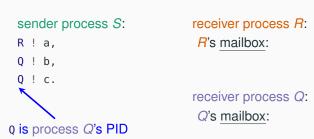
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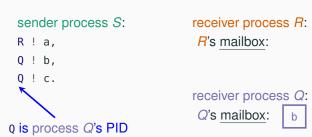
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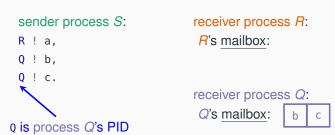
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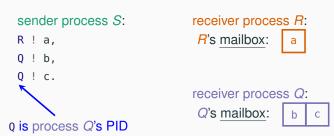
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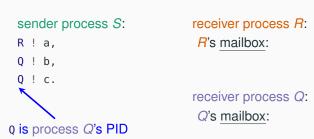
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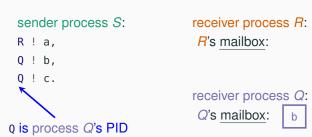
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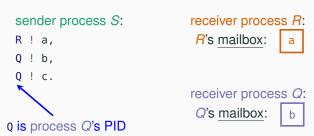
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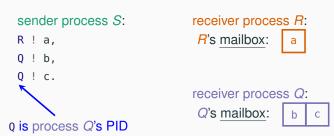
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# Stateful processes

# A ping server

A ping server is constantly listening for requests; to every message ping, it replies with a message ack sent back to the sender.

In order to identify the sender, it is customary to encode messages as tuple of the form:

Combining the echo and ping servers:

### Stateful processes

Processes can only operate on the arguments of the function they run, and on whatever is sent to them via message passing. Thus, we store state information using arguments, whose value gets updated by the recursive calls used to make a process permanently running.

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A stateful process can implement the message-passing analogue of the concurrent counter that used Java threads. The Erlang counter function recognizes two commands, sent as messages:

- increment: add one to the stored value
- count: send back the currently stored value

# **Concurrent counter: first attempt**

```
base_counter(N) ->
  receive {From, Command} -> case Command of
      increment -> base_counter(N+1);
                                           % increment counter
               -> From ! {self(), N},
      count
                                           % send current value
                  base counter(N):
                                   % do not change value
     U
               -> io:format("? ~p~n", [U]) % unrecognized command
 end end.
            Evaluated only when spawning a process running FCount
increment_twice() ->
  Counter = spawn(counter, base_counter, [0]), % counter initially 0
   % function sending message 'increment' to Counter
 FCount = fun () -> Counter ! {self(), increment} end,
  spawn(FCount), spawn(FCount), % two processes running FCount
  Counter ! {self(), count}, % send message 'count'
   % wait for response from Counter and print it
  receive {Counter, N} -> io:format("Counter is: ~p~n", [N]) end.
```

# **Concurrent counter: first attempt (cont'd)**

Running increment\_twice does not seem to behave as expected:

```
1> increment_twice().
Counter is: 0
```

The problem is that there is no guarantee that the message delivery order is the same as the sending order: the request for count may be delivered before the two requests for increment (or even before the two processes have sent their increment requests).

A <u>temporary workaround</u> is <u>waiting some time</u> before asking for the count, hoping that the two increment messages have been delivered: wait\_and\_hope() ->

```
Counter = spawn(counter, base_counter, [0]), % counter initially 0

FCount = fun () -> Counter ! {self(), increment} end,

spawn(FCount), spawn(FCount), % two processes running FCount

timer:sleep(100), % wait for 'increment' to be delivered

Counter ! {self(), count}, % send message 'count'

receive {Counter, N} -> io:format("Counter is: ~p~n", [N]) end.
```

# Synchronization in an asynchronous world

Since there is no guarantee that the message delivery order is the same as the sending order when multiple processes are involved, the only robust mechanism for synchronization is exchanging messages following a suitable protocol.

For example, the counter sends notifications of every update to a monitoring process:

```
counter(N, Log) -> receive
{_, increment} -> % send notification, update count
    Log ! {self(), N+1}, counter(N+1, Log);
    {From, count} -> % send count, next message
        From ! {self(), N}, counter(N, Log) end.
```

# Concurrent counter – with monitoring process

```
counter(N, Log) -> receive
  {_, increment} -> % send notification, update count
     Log ! {self(), N+1}, counter(N+1, Log);
  {From, count} -> % send count, next message
     From ! {self(), N}, counter(N, Log) end.
% set up counter and incrementers; then start monitor
increment and monitor() ->
  Counter = spawn(?MODULE, counter, [0, self()]),
  FCount = fun () -> Counter ! {self(), increment} end,
  spawn(FCount), spawn(FCount),
  monitor counter(Counter). % start monitor
                     what happens to messages not in this format?
monitor_counter(Counter) -> receive {Counter, N} ->
      io:format("Counter is: ~p~n", [N]) end,
         monitor_counter(Counter).
```

# Concurrent counter – with monitoring process

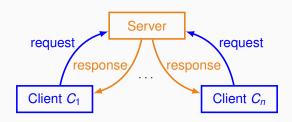
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counter(N, Log) -> receive
  {_, increment} -> % send notification, update count
     Log ! {self(), N+1}, counter(N+1, Log);
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     From ! {self(), N}, counter(N, Log) end.
% set up counter and incrementers; then start monitor
increment and monitor() ->
  Counter = spawn(?MODULE, counter, [0, self()]),
  FCount = fun () -> Counter ! {self(), increment} end,
  spawn(FCount), spawn(FCount),
  monitor counter(Counter). % start monitor
what happens to messages not in this format? they stay in the mailbox
monitor_counter(Counter) -> receive {Counter, N} ->
      io:format("Counter is: ~p~n", [N]) end,
         monitor_counter(Counter).
```

# Clients and servers

#### Client/server communication

The client/server architecture is a widely used communication model between processes using message passing:

- 1. a server is available to serve requests from any clients
- 2. an arbitrary number of <u>clients</u> <u>send commands</u> to the server and wait for the server's response



Many Internet services (the web, email, ...) use the client/server architecture.

#### Servers

#### A server is a process that:

- responds to a fixed number of commands its interface
- runs indefinitely, serving an arbitrary number of requests, until it receives a shutdown command
- can serve an arbitrary number of clients which issue commands as messages

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Each command is a message of the form:

```
{Command, From, Ref, Arg1, ..., Argn}
```

- · Command is the command's name
- From is the pid of the client issuing the command
- Ref is a unique identifier of the request (so that clients can match responses to requests)
- Arg1, ..., Argn are any arguments to the command

Each commands is encapsulated in a function, so that clients need not know the structure of messages to issue commands.

#### A math server

The interface of a math server consists of the following commands: factorial (M): compute the factorial of M status(): return the number of requests served so far (without incrementing it) stop(): shutdown the server We build an Erlang module with interface: start(): start a math server, and return the server's pid factorial(S, M): compute factorial of M on server with pid S status(S): return number of requests served by server with pid S stop(S): shutdown server with pid S -module(math\_server). -export([start/0,factorial/2,status/1,stop/1]).

# Math server: event loop

```
loop(N) ->
               ordinary Erlang function computing factorial
  receive
      % 'factorial' command
    {factorial, From, Ref, M} ->
      From ! {response, Ref, compute_factorial(M)},
      loop(N+1); % increment request number
      % 'status' command
    {status, From, Ref} ->
      From ! {response, Ref, N},
      loop(N); % don't increment request number
      % 'stop' command
    {stop, _From, _Ref} ->
      οk
  end.
```

This function need **not** be exported, unless it is spawned by another function of the module using spawn(?MODULE, loop, [0]). (In that case, it's called via its module, so it must be exported.)

# Math server: starting and stopping

We start the server by spawning a process running loop(0):

```
% start a server, return server's pid
start() ->
  spawn(fun () -> loop(0) end).
```

We shutdown the server by sending a command stop:

```
% shutdown 'Server'
stop(Server) ->
  Server ! {stop, self(), 0}, % Ref is not needed
  ok.
```

We compute a factorial by sending a command factorial:

```
% compute factorial(M) on 'Server'
factorial(Server, M) ->
Ref = make_ref(), % unique reference number
% send request to server
Server ! {factorial, self(), Ref, M},
% wait for response, and return it
receive {response, Ref, Result} -> Result end.
```

```
We compute a factorial by sending a command factorial:

returns number that is unique
on 'Server'
among all connected nodes in the system
factorial(Server, M) ->

Ref = make_ref(), % unique reference number
% send request to server

Server! {factorial, self(), Ref, M},
% wait for response, and return it
receive {response, Ref, Result} -> Result end.
```

```
We compute a factorial by sending a command factorial:

returns number that is unique
% compute factorial(M) on 'Server'
among all connected nodes in the system
factorial(Server, M) ->

Ref = make_ref(), % unique reference number
% send request to server

Server ! {factorial, self(), Ref, M}, pid of process
% wait for response, and return it calling factorial
receive {response, Ref, Result} -> Result end.
```

```
We compute a factorial by sending a command factorial:
                         returns number that is unique
 % compute factorial(M) on 'Server' among all connected nodes in the system
 factorial(Server, M) ->
   Ref = make_ref & wnique reference number
     % send request to server
   Server ! {factorial, self(), Ref, M},
                                                pid of process
     % wait for response, and return it
                                                calling factorial
   receive {response, Ref, Result} -> Result end.
We get the server's status by sending a command status:
 % return number of requests served so far by 'Server'
 status(Server) ->
   Ref = make_ref(), % unique reference number
     % send request to server
   Server ! {status, self(), Ref},
     % wait for response, and return it
   receive {response, Ref, Result} -> Result end.
```

#### Math server: clients

After creating a server instance, clients simply interact with the server by calling functions of module math\_server:

```
1> Server = math_server:start().
<0.27.0>
2> math_server: factorial(Server, 12).
479001600
3> math_server:factorial(Server, 4).
24
4> math_server:status(Server).
2
5> math_server:status(Server).
5> math_server:stop(Server).
ok
6> math_server: status(Server).
% blocks waiting for response
```

# Generic servers

#### **Generic servers**

A generic server takes care of the communication patterns behind every server. Users instantiate a generic server by providing a suitable handling function, which implements a specific server functionality.

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A generic server takes care of the communication patterns behind every server. Users instantiate a generic server by providing a suitable handling function, which implements a specific server functionality.

A generic server's start and stop functions are almost identical to the math server's – the only difference is that the event loop also includes a handling function:

```
start(InitialState, Handler) ->
  spawn(fun () -> loop(InitialState, Handler) end).
stop(Server) ->
  Server ! {stop, self(), 0}, % Ref is not needed
  ok.
```

# Generic server: event loop

A generic server's event loop includes the current state and the handling function as arguments:

```
loop(State, Handler) ->
  receive
      % a request from 'From' with data 'Request'
    {request, From, Ref, Request} ->
        % run handler on request
      case Handler(State, Request) of
          % get handler's output
        {reply, NewState, Result} ->
            % the requester gets the result
          From ! {response, Ref, Result},
            % the server continues with the new state
          loop(NewState, Handler)
      end:
    {stop, _From, _Ref} -> ok
  end.
```

# Generic server: issuing a request

A generic server's function request takes care of sending generic requests to the server, and of receiving back the results.

```
% issue a request to 'Server'; return answer
request(Server, Request) ->
Ref = make_ref(), % unique reference number
% send request to server
Server ! {request, self(), Ref, Request},
% wait for response, and return it
receive {response, Ref, Result} -> Result end.
```

# Math server: using the generic server

Here is how we can define the math server using the generic server.

Starting and stopping use the handling function math\_handler:

```
start() -> gserver:start(0, fun math_handler/2).
stop(Server) -> gserver:stop(Server).
```

The handling function has two cases, one per request kind:

```
math_handler(N, {factorial, M}) -> {reply, N+1, compute_factorial(M)};
math_handler(N, status) -> {reply, N, N}.
```

The exported functions factorial and status — which are called by clients — call the generic server's request function.

```
factorial(Server, M) -> gserver:request(Server, {factorial, M}).
status(Server) -> gserver:request(Server, status).
```

# Servers: improving robustness and flexibility

We extend the implementation of the generic server to improve:

robustness: add support for error handling and crashes

flexibility: add support for updating the server's functionality while

the server is running

performance: discard spurious messages sent to the server, getting

rid of "junk" in the mailbox

All these extensions to the generic server do not change its interface; thus instance servers relying on it will still work, with the added benefits provided by the new functionality!

#### **Robust servers**

If computing the handling function on the input fails, we catch the resulting exception and notify the client that an error has occurred.

To handle any possible exception, use the catch(E) built-in function:

- if evaluating E succeeds, the result is propagated;
- if evaluating E fails, the resulting exception Reason is propagated as {'EXIT', Reason}

This is how we perform exception handling in the event loop:

{reply, NewState, Result} ->

```
case catch(Handler(State, Request)) of
  % in case of error
{'EXIT', Reason} ->
    % the requester gets the exception
From ! {error, Ref, Reason},
    % the server continues in the same state
loop(State, Handler);
% otherwise (no error): get handler's output
```

#### Flexible servers

Changing the server's functionality requires a new kind of request, which does not change the server's state but it changes the handling function.

The event loop now receives also this new request kind:

```
% a request to swap 'NewHandler' for 'Handler'
{update, From, Ref, NewHandler} ->
From ! {ok, Ref}, % ack
% the server continues with the new handler
loop(State, NewHandler);
```

Function update takes care of sending requests for changing handling function (similarly to what request does for basic requests):

```
% change 'Server's handler to 'NewHandler'
update(Server, NewHandler) ->
Ref = make_ref(), % send update request to server
Server ! {update, self(), Ref, NewHandler},
receive {ok, Ref} -> ok end. % wait for ack
```

# Discarding junk messages

If unrecognized messages are sent to a server, they remain in the mailbox indefinitely (they never pattern match in receive). If too many such "junk" messages pile up in the mailbox, they may slow down the server.

To avoid this, it is sufficient to match any unknown messages and discard them as last clause in the event loop's receive:

```
% discard unrecognized messages
_ -> loop(State, Handler)
```

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```
% discard unrecognized messages
_ -> loop(State, Handler)
```

To avoid clients waiting forever for responses to discarded requests, we add a timeout to request:

#### receive

```
{response, Ref, Result} -> Result
% after 10 seconds, give up
after 10000 -> timeout end.
```

**Location transparency &** 

distribution

# **Registered processes**

One needs another process's pid to exchange messages with it. To increase the flexibility of exchanging pids in <u>open systems</u>, it is possible to <u>register</u> processes with a symbolic name:

- register(Name, Pid): register the process Pid under Name; from now on, Name can be used wherever a pid is required
- unregister(Name): unregister the process under Name; when a registered process terminates, it implicitly unregisters as well
- registered(): list all names of registered processes
- whereis(Name): return pid registered under Name

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- whereis(Name): return pid registered under Name

In the generic server, we can add a registration function with name:

```
% start a server and register with 'Name'
start(InitialState, Handler, Name) ->
register(Name, start(InitialState, Handler)).
```

All other server functions can be used by passing Name for Server.

#### From concurrent to distributed

Message passing concurrency works in the same way independent of whether the processes run on the same computer or in a distributed setting.

In Erlang, we can turn any application into a distributed one by running processes on different nodes:

- start an Erlang runtime environment on each node
- connect the nodes by issuing a ping
- load the modules to be execute on all nodes in the cluster
- · for convenience, register the server processes
- to identify registered process Name running on a node node@net\_address use the tuple {Name, 'node@net\_address'}
   wherever you would normally use a registered name or pid

# Distribution: setting up nodes

In our simple experiments, the nodes are processes on the same <a href="https://physical.local.machine">physical local machine</a> (IP address 127.0.0.1, a.k.a. local host), but the very same commands work on different machines connected by a network.

# Node server@127.0.0.1:

```
> erl -name 'server@127.0.0.1'
    -setcookie math_cluster
s1>
```

#### Node client@127.0.0.1:

```
> erl -name 'client@127.0.0.1'
    -setcookie math_cluster
cl>
```

A <u>cookie</u> is an identifier that all nodes in the same connected group share.

#### Distribution: connect nodes and load modules

Nodes are invisible to each other until a message is exchanged between them; after that, they are connected.

```
Node client@127.0.0.1:
```

```
% send a ping message to connect client to server node
cl> net_adm:ping('server@127.0.0.1').
pong % the nodes are now connected
% list connected nodes
c2> nodes().
['server@127.0.0.1']
% load module 'ms' in all connected nodes
c3> nl(ms).
abcast % the module is now loaded
```

# **Distribution:** server setup

We start the math server on the node server, and register it under the name mserver.

Then, we can issue request from the client node using {mserver, 'server@127.0.0.1'} instead of pids.

The very same protocol works for an arbitrary number of client nodes.

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