libprocess

a concurrent and asynchronous programming library

Benjamin Hindman - ACCU Bay Area - August 1st, 2018

libprocess

- Started as an actor library as part of UC Berkeley PhD research
- Created circa 2009, before std::future, std::expected, and others (some warts of the library are because it started before C++11, but we'd welcome contributions to clean those up)
- Cross-pollination while at Twitter from work on Finagle and Scala
- Lots of contributions from Mesos committers, lives inside of Mesos repository

Main Constructs of libprocess

- 1. Promises/Futures which are used to build ...
- 2. HTTP abstractions, which make the foundation for ...
- 3. Processes (aka Actors)

Processes (aka actors) are the probably most foreign of the concepts, but they are arguably the most critical part of the library (afterall the library is named after them); we organized this talk to walk through Promises/Futures, then HTTP, before Processes because the former two are prerequisites for the latter.

Part I: Promises/Futures

Promise<T> and Future<T>

A Promise is not copyable, but can be moved (at least in theory).

```
0: Promise<string> promise;
```

You get a Future from a Promise, or can construct a ready Future from a value, or an abandoned Future from the default constructor.

```
1: Future<string> future = promise.future();
2: Future<string> ready_future("hello world");
3: Future<string> abandoned future;
```

A Future is copyable and assignable.

```
4: Future<string> future1 = future;
5: abandoned future = future1; // Now references an unabandoned future.
```

Promise<T> and Future<T> States

A promise/future starts in the PENDING state and can then transition to any of the READY, FAILED, or DISCARDED states.

We typically refer to transitioning to READY as completing the promise/future.

Transition	Promise::*()	<pre>Future::is*()</pre>	Future::on*()
READY	<pre>Promise::set(T)</pre>	<pre>Future::isReady()</pre>	Future::onReady(F&&)
FAILED	<pre>Promise::fail(const std::string&)</pre>	<pre>Future::isFailed()</pre>	<pre>Future::onFailed(F&&)</pre>
DISCARDED	<pre>Promise::discard()</pre>	<pre>Future::isDiscarded()</pre>	Future::onDiscarded(F&&)

Promise<T> and Future<T> Example

```
0: Promise<int> promise;
1: Future<int> future = promise.future();
2: future.onReady([](int i) { cout << i << endl; });</pre>
3: promise.set(42); // Prints "42".
0: Promise<int> promise;
1: Future<int> future = promise.future();
2: future.onFailed([](const string& message) { cout << message << endl; });
3: promise.fail("some failure"); // Prints "some failure".
onReady(), onFailed(), etc, is not a composable pattern, more on that later, but first ...
what about onDiscarded()?
```

Discarding a Promise/Future (aka Cancellation)

You can *try* and cancel some asynchronous operation by discarding a Future.

```
0: Promise<string> promise;
1: Future<string> future = promise.future();
2: future.discard();
3: assert(future.hasDiscard()); // Not this is not isDiscarded()!
4: assert(future.isPending());
```

Doing a discard on a Future merely signals to the owner of the Promise that you no longer care about the result. You can watch for the signal using Future::onDiscard().

```
5: future.onDiscard([&]() {
6:    // Try and cancel the asynchronous operation!
7:    promise.discard();
8: });
9: assert(future.isDiscarded());
```

Promise/Future Abandonment

It's useful to also know when a Promise/Future will *never transition*. We call this abandonment.

```
0: Future<string> abandoned = Future<string>(); // Always pending!
1: assert(abandoned.isAbandoned());

2: abandoned = Promise<string>().future(); // Always pending!
3: assert(abandoned.isAbandoned());

4: auto promise = std::make_unique<Promise<string>>();
5: abandoned = promise->future();
6: assert(!abandoned.isAbandoned());
7: promise.reset();
8: assert(abandoned.isAbandoned());
```

The concept of abandonment was added late to the library so for backwards compatibility reasons we could not add a new state but instead needed to have it be a sub-state of PENDING.

Future Composition

Instead of using the is*() and on*() family of functions, use the composition family of functions instead:

Transition	Future::*()	
READY	Future::then(F&&)	
FAILED	<pre>Future::repair(F&&) and Future::recover(F&&)</pre>	
DISCARDED	<pre>Future::recover(F&&)</pre>	
Abandoned (PENDING and Future::isAbandoned())	<pre>Future::recover(F&&)</pre>	

Future<T> Composition Example

```
0: // Returns an instance of `Person` for the specified `name`.
1: Future < Person > find (const std::string& name);
2:
3: // Returns a parent (an instance of `Person`) of the specified `name`.
4: Future < Person > parent (const std::string& name)
5: {
6:
     return find(name)
7:
       .then([](const Person& person) {
8:
         // Try to find the mother and if that fails try the father!
9:
         return find (person.mother)
A:
           .recover([=](const Future<Person>&) {
В:
             return find (person.father);
C:
       });
D:
      });
E: }
```

Future<T> Composition Example

```
0: // Returns an instance of `Person` for the specified `name`.
1: Future < Person > find (const std::string& name);
2:
3: // Returns a parent (an instance of `Person`) of the specified `name`.
4: Future < Person > parent (const std::string& name)
5: {
6:
     return find(name)
7:
       .then([](const Person& person) {
         // Try to find the mother and if that fails try the father!
9:
         return find (person.mother)
A:
           .recover([=](const Future<Person>&) {
                                                              More on callback semantics later!
В:
             return find(person.father);
C:
          });
D:
       });
E: }
```

Infinite loops are easy to write but can cause a stack overflow.

```
0: Future<string> recv all(Socket socket)
1: {
3:
     auto helper = [socket] (string&& buffer) {
4:
       return socket.recv()
         .then([socket, buffer = std::move(buffer)](const string& data) mutable {
6:
           if (data.empty()) { // EOF.
             return buffer:
8:
9:
           buffer.append(data);
A:
           return helper(std::move(buffer));
B:
        };
C:
    };
D:
     return helper(std::string());
E: }
```

Even with tail call optimizations will leak memory (due to chain of futures, which is non-trivial to optimize).

loop()

Provides asynchronous looping semantics via an explicit construct.

```
0: Future<string> future = loop(
1:        [](...) {
2:        return iterate();
3:        },
4:        [](...) {
5:        return body();
6:     });
```

Both iterate() and body() can return a Future.

loop() Example

```
0: Future<string> recv all(Socket socket)
1: {
2:
    string buffer;
    return loop(
3:
4:
        [socket]() {
5:
         return socket.recv();
6:
        },
7:
        [buffer = std::move(buffer)](const string& data) mutable {
8:
          if (data.empty()) { // EOF.
9:
             return Break(std::move(buffer));
A:
          buffer.append(data);
B:
          return Continue();
D:
   });
E: }
```

loop() Example

```
0: Future < string > recv all (Socket socket)
1: {
2:
    string buffer;
    return loop(
3:
4:
        [socket]() {
5:
        return socket.recv();
6:
        },
7:
         [buffer = std::move(buffer)](const string& data) mutable {
8:
          if (data.empty()) { // EOF.
             return Break(std::move(buffer));
9:
A:
          buffer.append(data);
В:
          return Continue();
D:
    });
E: }
```

Discarding needs to propagate *through* the composition.

```
0: Promise<int> promise;
1: Future<string> future = promise.future()
2: .then([](int i) {
3:    return stringify(i);
4: });
5:
6: future.discard();
7:
8: assert(future.hasDiscard());
9: assert(promise.future().hasDiscard());
```

Discarding propagates through the composition.

```
0: Promise<int> promise;
1: Future<string> future = promise.future()
2: .then([](int i) {
3:    return stringify(i);
4: });
5:
6: future.discard();
7:
8: assert(future.hasDiscard());
9: assert(promise.future().hasDiscard());
```

Discarding propagates through loop () as well!

Problem: how does the lambda used in the composition get the discard signal!?

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<u>Solution</u>: Future::then() does a preemptive discard.

Current semantics are *not intuitive* for most people, what we wish we did was introduce a discardable() helper that folks could have used instead.

<u>Problem</u>: sometimes you don't want the discard to propagate!

Solution: introduced an undiscardable() helper.

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Also have an undiscardable(F&&) variant that takes some callable F.

There are two possible ways in which the callbacks to the Future::onReady() family of functions as well as the composition functions like Future::then() get invoked:

- 1. By the caller of Future::onReady(), Future::then(), etc if the future is no longer pending.
- 2. By the caller of Promise::set(), Promise::fail(), etc if callbacks have been set up while the future was still pending.

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```
0: Promise<string> promise;
1: Future<string> future = promise.future();
2:
3: promise.set("hello world");
4:
5: future
6: .then([](const string& s) { // Callback executed here!
7: cout << s << endl;
8: });</pre>
```

2. By the caller of Promise::set(), Promise::fail(), etc if callbacks have been set up while the future was still pending.

```
0: Promise<string> promise;
1: Future<string> future = promise.future();
2:
3: future
4:    .then([](const string& s) {
5:     cout << s << endl;
6:    });
7:
8: promise.set("hello world");    // Callback executed here!</pre>
```

There are two possible ways in which the callbacks to the Future::onReady() family of functions as well as the composition functions like Future::then() get invoked:

- 1. By the caller of Future::onReady(), Future::then(), etc if the future is no longer pending.
- 2. By the caller of Promise::set(), Promise::fail(), etc if callbacks have been set up while the future was still pending.

We call these callback semantics *synchronous* because the callbacks will be executed synchronously with respect to the caller of the functions in either 1. or 2. above.

This means that it is critical to consider the synchronization that might be necessary for your code given that multiple possible callers could execute your callbacks! It also means that best practices are that callbacks DO NOT BLOCK, otherwise you may cause some code to block completely unexpectedly (which is a debug nightmare).

Using defer() for Asynchronous Callbacks

We introduced defer () for asynchronously executing a callback on a pool of threads.

Unlike std::async(), you can easily compose defer() with other callables (it's more like a callable decorator).

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More on defer later!

collect(), await()

Future::after()

Future::after()

```
0: list<Future<T>> futures = ...;
1:
2: collect(futures)
        .after(Milliseconds(100), defer(self(), [] (Future<list<T>> future) {
        future.discard();
        // Handle timeout.
     }))
3: .then([] (const list<T>& ts) {
        // Use each `T` that has been collected.
5: });
```

Part II: HTTP

HTTP Endpoints via http::Route()***

HTTP Endpoints via http::Route()***

```
0: auto route = http::Route(
       "/foo/bar/baz",
1:
      None(),
3:
      [](const http::Request& request) {
4:
         return parse(request)
           .then([](T t) {
6:
             if (invalid(t)) {
7:
               return http::BadRequest("Failed to parse request");
9:
A:
             return http::OK();
B:
       });
       });
```

HTTP Clients

```
0: Future<a triple>trip::Response> response = http::connect(network::Address(ip, port))
     .then([](http::Connection& connection) {
1:
2:
       http::Request request;
      request.method = "GET";
3:
4:
   request.url.path = ...;
      request.headers = ...;
      return connection.send(request);
7:
    });
8:
9: response = http::get(http::URL(...));
A: response = http::post(http::URL(...));
```

Part III: Processes (aka Actors)

Processes

Inspired by Erlang, an "actor" in libprocess is called a "process" (not to be confused by an operating system process).

A process receives **events** that it processes one at a time. Because a process is only processing one event at a time there's **no need for synchronization within the process**.

Process Lifecycle

```
0: class FooProcess : public Process<FooProcess> {};
1:
2: FooProcess process;
3: spawn(process);
4: terminate(process);
5: wait(process);
```

Process Events

Each process has a queue of incoming Event's that it processes one at a time. Other actor implementations often call this queue the "mailbox".

There are 5 different kinds of events that can be enqueued for a process:

- MessageEvent: a Message has been received.
- DispatchEvent: a method on the process has been "dispatched".
- HttpEvent: an http::Request has been received.
- ExitedEvent: another process which has been linked has terminated.
- TerminateEvent: the process has been requested to terminate.

DispatchEvent

```
0: class FooProcess : public Process<FooProcess>
1: {
     string foo(int i)
3:
4: return stringify(i);
5:
6: };
7:
8: FooProcess process;
9: spawn (process);
A:
B: Future<string> future = dispatch(process, &FooProcess::foo, 42);
D: terminate(process);
E: wait(process);
```

HttpEvent

```
0: class FooProcess : public Process<FooProcess>
1: {
    void initialize() override
3:
4:
    route(
         "/foo/bar/baz",
5:
6:
         None(),
7: [](const http::Request& request) {
8:
        return http::OK();
9:
   });
A:
B: };
```

Processes and the Pimpl Pattern

```
0: class FooProcess : public Process<FooProcess> { string foo(int i); };
1:
2: class Foo {
3: public:
   Foo() { spawn(process); }
4:
5: ~Foo() { terminate(process); wait(process); }
   Future < string > foo(int i) { return dispatch (process, & Foo Process:: foo, i); }
7: private:
8:
   FooProcess process;
9: };
A:
B: Foo foo;
C: Future < string > future = foo.foo(42);
```

Processes Provide an Execution Context

<u>Problem</u>: remember the callback semantics and defer()? Still tricky to do synchronization!

```
0: auto object = std::make shared<Object>();
1: auto route = http::Route(
      "/foo/bar/baz",
      None(),
4:
   [=] (const http::Request& request) {
         return process (request)
6:
           .then([=](T t) {
7:
            object->foo();
                                             // Need to synchronize access to `object`.
8:
            return http::OK();
9:
       });
      });
A:
```

Solution #1: Asynchronous Synchronization

```
0: Mutex mutex;
1: auto object = std::make shared<Object>();
2: auto route = http::Route(
       "/foo/bar/baz",
4:
      None(),
      [=] (const http::Request& request) {
6:
         return process(request)
7:
           .then([=](T t) {
8:
             return mutex.lock()
9:
               .then([]() {
                 object->foo();
A:
                 return http::OK();
B:
D:
                .onAny([]() {
                 mutex.unlock();
               });
           });
G:
H:
       });
```

Solution #2: Processes

```
0: class FooProcess: public Process<FooProcess>
1: {
    void initialize() override
3:
4:
   route(
           "/foo/bar/baz",
6:
          None(),
7:
          [=] (const http::Request& request) {
8:
             return process(request)
9:
               .then (defer(self(), [=](T t))
                 object.foo();
A:
                 return http::OK();
В:
               });
          });
    Object object;
G: };
```

Actor Programming Model Review

- Not OOP, more composition than inheritance (if ever inheritance)
- Easy to reason about, basically every actor is a server that handles requests and returns responses
- Makes it easy to do integration like tests in unit tests
- Not a panacea, can become a performance bottleneck if you aren't careful to put too much in a single actor

Part IV: Misc

Owned<T>, Shared<T>

Similar to std::unique_ptr and std::shared_ptr except Shared<T> forces only const T uses of T and it provides an own() member that enables asynchronous recovery of memory.

```
0: Owned<Matrix> matrix(new Matrix());
1: matrix->put(0, 0, value);
2: Shared<Matrix> shared = matrix.share();
3: // shared->put(0, 0, value); <--- Does not compile.
4: for (size t i = 0; i < THREADS; i++) {
5: std::thread([shared]() {
  process(shared->get(..., ...));
   });
8: }
9:
A: Future<Owned<string>> owned = shared.own();
```

Clock

Questions, Code Examples ...