# MULTI-ACTIVE OBJECTS AND THEIR APPLICATIONS

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Abstract. In order to tackle the development of concurrent and distributed systems, the active object programming model provides a high-level abstraction to program concurrent behaviours. There exists already a variety of active object frameworks targeted at a large range of application domains: modelling, verification, efficient execution. However, among these frameworks, very few consider a multi-threaded execution of active objects. Introducing *controlled* parallelism within active objects enables overcoming some of their limitations. In this paper, we present a complete framework around the multi-active object programming model. We present it through ProActive, the Java library that offers multi-active objects, and through MultiASP, the programming language that allows the formalisation of our developments. We then show how to compile an active object language with cooperative multi-threading into multi-active objects. This paper also presents different use cases and the development support to illustrate the practical usability of our language. Formalisation of our work provides the programmer with guarantees on the behaviour of the multi-active object programming model and of the compiler.

## 1. Introduction

Systems and applications nowadays run in a concurrent and distributed manner. In general, existing programming models and languages lack adequate abstractions for handling the concurrency of parallel programs and for writing distributed applications. Two well-known categories of concurrency bugs are associated with synchronisation. On the one hand, deadlocks appear when there is a circular dependency between tasks. On the other hand, data races correspond to the fact that several threads access a shared resource without proper synchronisation. In object-oriented programming, allowing several threads of control to execute methods breaks the encapsulation property of objects. Industrial programming languages generally do not enforce by default a safe parallel execution nor offer a programmer-friendly way to program concurrent applications. In Actors and active object languages, an application is designed as a set of independent entities only communicating by passing messages. This approach makes the programming of distributed and concurrent systems easier.

The active object programming model [9] reconciles object-oriented programming and concurrency. Each active object has its own local memory and cannot access the local

memory of other active objects. Objects can only exchange information through message passing, implemented with requests sent to active objects. This characteristic makes object accesses easier to trace, and thus it is easier to check their safety. Also, the absence of a shared memory between active objects makes them well-adapted to a distributed execution. Section 2 will give an overview of active-object languages.

Active object models however have limitations in terms of efficiency on multicore environments and of deadlocks. Concerning deadlocks, one solution is to allow the currently executing thread to be released and allow the current active object to handle another request. This approach is called cooperative multi-threading and is used in several languages like for example ABS (abstract behavioral specification) language [36].

However cooperative multi-threading relies on the programmer's expertise to place release points which is not always realistic. Additionally, cooperative multi-threading does not solve the problem of the inefficiency in distributed architectures made of several multicore machines. This leads us to the design of a new model based on active objects: multi-active objects [30]. This model enables local multi-threading inside an active object. In active object models, an activity is the unit of composition of the model: an activity is a set of entities evolving independently and asynchronously from other objects. In classical active-object models, an activity is a set of objects associated with a request queue and a single thread. In the multi-active object an activity is a single active object equipped with a request queue, it may serve one or several requests in parallel. This programming model relies on the notion of *compatibility between requests*, where two compatible requests can safely be run in parallel. *Groups* of methods are introduced to easily express compatibility between requests: two requests can run in parallel if they target methods belonging to two compatible groups. MULTIASP [30], is a calculus that formalises the multi-active objects.

Concerning the definition of MULTIASP, compared to [30], this article presents a new version of the operational semantics of the language, and includes an extension that deals with thread management; this article also presents a new debugging tool for multi-active objects. This article is a follow up of the article presented at Coordination 2016 [33]. Compared to [33], one contribution of this article is a full overview on the multi-active programming model including the different programming tools that we provide for this programming model. The strongest improvement featured by this article compared to [33] is the formalisation of the translation and the correctness of the translation from ABS programs into multi-active objects, and in particular the definition of the relationship between ABS configurations and their translation in MULTIASP. A brief summary of the proof is presented in this article and the details of the proof can be found in [34]. From a practical point of view, the multi-active object model is distributed as part of the PROACTIVE Java library[1] that supports the distributed execution of active objects. The proof allows us to provide more precise conditions of applicability of the equivalence between ABS programs and their translation. We summarise below our main contributions.

- We introduce the multi-active object programming model, together with the library that supports it, PROACTIVE, and with its formalisation language, MULTIASP. This language is also equipped with advanced features regarding the scheduling of requests: thread management and priority of execution. The operational semantics of MULTIASP is presented in two parts: the base semantics of the calculus, and an extension dealing with thread management.

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[1]https://github.com/scale-proactive

- We show the practical usability of the language in two ways. First, we illustrate the programming model with a case study based on a distributed peer-to-peer system. Second, we show a tool that displays the execution of multi-active objects and that helps in debugging and tuning multi-active object-based applications.
- We present an approach for encoding cooperative active objects into multi-active objects. We specify a backend translator and prove the equivalence between the ABS program and its translation in MultiASP[2].

Section 2 details the background of this paper, the active object programming model; it provides a comparison of active object languages and positions our contribution on multi-active objects. Section 3 introduces our multi-active object framework, its semantics, and the semantics of the thread management functionality. Section 4 presents the automatic translation of ABS programs into ProActive programs, shows the properties of the translation, and provides a discussion relating this work with the other ABS backends and other related works. Section 5 concludes this article.

## 2. Background: Active Objects

After a brief introduction to active objects and actors, this section provides an analysis of the characteristics that can be used to classify active-object languages. Then ASP, ABS, and Encore are presented in more details. These languages have been chosen for the following reasons: ASP is the language that we extend in our multi-active object model, ABS is the language for which we provide a backend in Section 4, and Encore features a few novel features including some controlled parallelism inside active objects. We refer to [9] for a precise description of other active object models including JCoBox, AmbientTalk, and Creol. The section concludes by a focus on the related works featuring some form of multi-threaded active objects.

2.1. **Origins and Context.** The active object programming model, introduced in [39], has one global objective: facilitate the correct programming of concurrent entities. The active object paradigm derives from actors [1]. Actors are concurrent entities that communicate by posting messages to each other. Each actor has a mailbox and a thread that processes the messages of the mailbox. Only the processing of a message can have a side effect on the actor's state. Once a message is posted to an actor, the sender continues its execution, without knowing when the message will be processed. This way the interaction between actors is asynchronous, allowing the different entities to perform tasks in parallel.

Active objects are the object-oriented descendants of actors. Like an actor, each active object has an associated thread and we call *activity* a thread together with the objects that are accessible by this thread. Active objects communicate using asynchronous method invocations: when an object invokes a method of an active object, this creates a *request* that is posted in a mailbox (also called *request queue*) on the callee side. On the invoker side, the execution continues while the request is being processed. On the callee side, the request is dropped in the request queue and waits until its turn comes to be executed.

Like in object-oriented programming, the invocations of methods on active objects can return a result. Since these invocations are asynchronous, their result cannot be known just after the invocation. To represent the expected result and to allow the invoker to continue

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[2]The backend is available at: `https://bitbucket.org/justinerochas/absfrontend-to-proactive`

its execution asynchronously, a placeholder is created for the result of the request. This place holder is called a *future*, which is a promise of response that will be later filled by the result of the request. A future is *resolved* when the value of the future is computed and available. Futures have seen their early days in MultiLisp [27] and ABCL/1 [47]. They have been formalised in ABCL/f [45], in [23], and, more recently, in a concurrent lambda calculus [40], and in the Creol language [17]. In summary, active objects and actors enforce decoupling of activities: each activity has its own memory space, manipulated by its own thread. This strict isolation of concurrent entities makes them locally safe and also suited to distributed systems.

2.2. **Design of Active Object Languages.** Existing implementations of the active object programming model make different design choices for four main characteristics that we have extracted and listed below, as answers to design questions.

*How are objects associated to activities?* We distinguish three different ways to map objects to threads/activities in active object languages:

**Uniform object model:** all objects are active objects with their own execution thread. All communications between them necessarily create requests. This model is simpler to formalise and reason about, but leads to scalability issues in practice.

  Creol [37, 17] and Rebeca [44] are uniform active object languages.

**Non uniform object model:** some objects are not active objects; they are called *passive* objects and are only accessible by one active object. This model is scalable as it requires less communication and less threads, but it is trickier to formalise and reason about because some of the objects are only locally reachable and an additional mechanism is necessary to transmit them between active objects. Reducing the number of activities also reduces the number of globally accessible references in the system, and thus enables the instantiation of a large number of objects. Non-uniform active objects reflect better the design of efficient distributed applications where many objects are created but only some of them are remotely accessible.

  ASP [12], AmbientTalk [19, 15], and Joelle [14] are typical non-uniform active-object languages. Orleans [7] is a recent industrial active object language with a non-uniform active object model.

**Object group model:** an activity is made of a set of objects sharing an execution thread, but all objects can be invoked from another activity. This approach has a good scalability and propensity to formalisation, but the addressing of all objects in distributed settings is difficult to maintain because it requires a distributed referencing system able to handle a large number of objects.

  ABS [36] and JCoBox [41] have concurrent object groups but JCoBox additionally allows data sharing for immutable objects. in JCoBox, the object groups are called coboxes, while they are called cogs (concurrent object groups) in ABS.

*How are requests scheduled?* We distinguish three request scheduling models:

**Mono-threaded scheduling:** within an active object, requests are executed sequentially without interleaving. This model is simple to reason about and has some strong properties but is the most prone to deadlock and potential inefficiency because one activity is blocked as soon as a synchronisation is required.
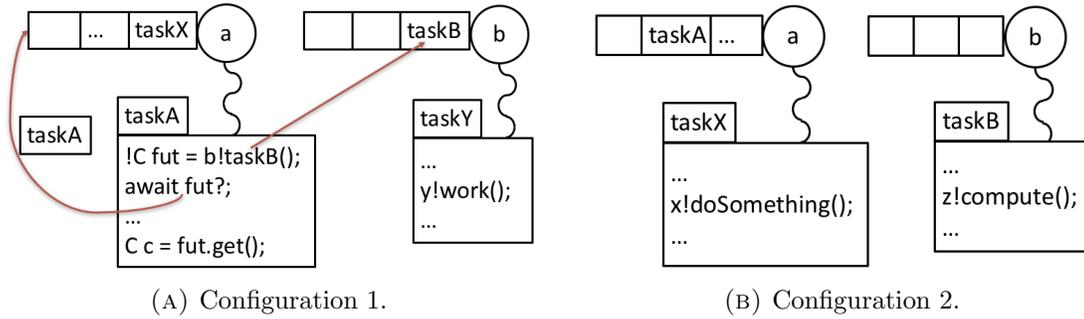
(A) Configuration 1.

(B) Configuration 2.

FIGURE 1. Cooperative scheduling in Creol.

ASP [12], AmbientTalk [19, 15], and Rebeca [44] feature Mono-threaded scheduling but Rebeca and AmbientTalk perform no synchronisation and have no deadlock.

**Cooperative scheduling:** a running request can explicitly release the execution thread to let another request progress. Requests are not processed in parallel but they might interleave. While no data races are possible, the status of an object might be difficult to predict when a request is restored after a release point if the cooperatively scheduled requests modify the object state.

Creol [37, 17], JCoBox [41], and ABS [36] are typical examples of cooperative scheduling languages. Figure 1 illustrates cooperative scheduling, based on a Creol example. It shows two objects `a` and `b` each with a queue of awaiting tasks (rectangles). The currently executed task is shown below the object. In Figure 1a, object `a` does an asynchronous method invocation on object `b`, and then awaits for the result. As the future `fut` is not yet resolved when the `await` statement executes, this suspends the execution of the current task `TaskA` that returns to the pending task queue. At this point, another request for this object can start or resume; in the example a new active task is `TaskX` is started. Figure 1b shows a later configuration, after several steps of execution; `taskA` is still in the queue of object `a`, `taskX` is running. In object `b`, `TaskY` finished and the next task has started. Finally, when `TaskB` and `taskX` finish, `taskA` can resume and retrieve the value computed by `TaskB` with a blocking call to `.get()`, shown at the end of `taskA` in Figure 1a.

**Multi-threaded scheduling:** several threads are running in parallel in the same actor or active object. Either several requests can be served in parallel, or a data-level parallelism allows a request to be processed by several threads. In this context, an *activity* becomes a set of threads together with the objects they manipulate: there is one activity per active object or per object group. Consequently, data races are possible but only within an activity. An additional mechanism is necessary to control which threads can run in parallel. Parallelism provides efficiency at the expense of possible data-races. Somehow, similarly to cooperative multithreading, efficiency and expressiveness are gained at the expense of some possible incoherency in the object state. However, the two approaches offer different trade-offs: in cooperative multithreading incoherences can be limited by removing release points, while in multi-threaded scheduling incoherences can be limited by controlling which threads can run in parallel. On the other hand, multithreading enables parallelism internally to an active object which is more efficient in some cases like in a multicore setting.

MULTIASP and parallel actor monitors [42] feature multi-threaded scheduling where several requests can be served in parallel by the same active object. Multi-threaded actors [5] feature multi-threading, but with each thread hosted by a different active-object (an actor contains several active objects in the terminology of [5]). Section 2.6 discusses in more details multithreading in active objects and actors.

*How much is the programmer aware of asynchronous aspects?* Some active object languages use a specific syntax for asynchronous method calls and a specific type for futures. This makes the programmer aware of where synchronisation occurs in the program. When the asynchronous invocation is explicit, there often exists a special type for future objects, and an operator to access the future's value. On the contrary, asynchronous method calls and futures can also be implicit: this enables transparency of distributed aspects, and facilitates the transmission of future references (sometimes called first-class futures [31]). In this case, there is almost no syntactic difference between a distributed program with asynchronous invocations and usual objects, consequently writing simple distributed programs is easier. On the other hand, explicit manipulation of futures allows the programmer to better control the program execution, but also requires a better programming expertise.

Creol [37, 17], JCoBox [41], ABS [36], and Encore [10] have explicit future types and explicit asynchronous invocations contrarily to ASP [12] where there is no specific type for futures or active objects.

*How are handled the results of asynchronous method invocations?* What distinguishes active objects from actors is the fact that communication between activities is performed by invocation of methods, according to the object's interface, and not through send and receive operations. This distinction in the terminology is also highlighted in Akka [46] where "actors" are distinguished from "typed actors" that are in fact active objects. The different languages propose different ways to handle method results:

**No return value:** In some languages the methods of an active object cannot return any value. This is for example the case of Rebeca or Scala actors [26].

**Futures:** The most classical approach is to use a future to represent the expected result of an asynchronous method call. When the returned value is needed, the program is interrupted until the value becomes available. The futures can be explicitly visible to the programmer like in ABS or transparent like in ASP. In the second case there is no need for a specific instruction to wait for the future, the current thread is automatically blocked when the value associated to a future is *needed*. This mechanism is called *wait-by-necessity*. In languages with cooperative scheduling, it is possible to let another request execute while the future is awaited (e.g. using the `await` statement in ABS).

**Asynchronous futures:** Some languages use a future to represent the expected result of an asynchronous method call but provide no synchronisation on futures. Instead a continuation is triggered upon the resolution of the future. This continuation can be more or less explicit depending on the language. Akka and AmbientTalk feature asynchronous futures. For example, in AmbientTalk, a future access creates and asynchronous invocation that will be triggered after the future has been resolved. The event-based execution of the different activities makes sequences of actions more difficult to enforce. However, an AmbientTalk program is always partitioned into separate event handlers that maintain their own execution context, making the inversion of control easier to handle.

$$
\begin{array}{lr}
g ::= b \mid x? \mid g \wedge g' & \text{guard} \\
s ::= \texttt{skip} \mid x = z \mid \texttt{suspend} \mid \texttt{await } g \mid \texttt{return } e \mid \texttt{if } e\,\{\,s\,\}\,\texttt{else}\,\{\,s\,\} \mid s\,;\,s & \text{statement} \\
z ::= e \mid e.\texttt{m}(\overline{e}) \mid e!\texttt{m}(\overline{e}) \mid \texttt{new [local]}\texttt{C}(\overline{e}) \mid x.\texttt{get} & \text{expression with side effect} \\
e ::= v \mid x \mid \texttt{this} \mid \textit{arithmetic-bool-exp} & \text{expression} \\
v ::= \texttt{null} \mid \textit{primitive-val} & \text{value}
\end{array}
$$

FIGURE 2. Syntax of the concurrent object layer of ABS (definition of method, class, and types omitted).

```
1    BankAccount ba = new BankAccount();
2    Transaction t = new local Transaction(ba);
3    WarningAgent wa = new WarningAgent();
4    Fut<Balance> bfut = ba!apply(t);
5    await bfut?;
6    Balance b = bfut.get;
7    wa!checkForAlerts(b);
8    b.commit()
```
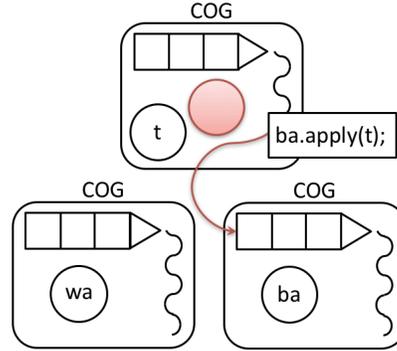
LISTING 1. ABS program code.



FIGURE 3. ABS program execution.

2.3. **Abstract Behavioural Specification.** *ABS* [36] is an object-oriented modelling language based on active objects. ABS takes its inspiration in CREOL for the cooperative scheduling and in JCoBox for the object group model. It uses explicit asynchronous method calls and futures. ABS is intended for modelling and verification of distributed applications. The object group model of ABS is represented by Concurrent Object Groups (COGs). A COG manages a request queue and a set of tasks that have been created as a result of asynchronous method calls to any of the objects inside the COG. Inside a COG, only one task is active at any time. New objects can be instantiated in a new COG with the `new` keyword. In order to instantiate an object in the current COG, `new local` must be used instead. In the example, the transaction `t` is instantiated in the COG that is running the current (main) method. Contrarily to JCoBox, ABS makes no difference on the object kind: all objects can be referenced from any COG and all objects can be invoked either synchronously or asynchronously. Listing 1 shows an ABS program that creates two new COGs and performs asynchronous method calls. Note the specific syntax (`!`) for asynchronous method invocation and the `await` instruction on Line 5 that releases the current task if the future stored in `bfut` is not yet available. Figure 3 pictures the sending of the `apply` request to the remote COG. In the illustration, COGs are large rectangles with round angles, request queues are depicted at the top of COGs, and objects are symbolised by circles. The concurrent object part of the syntax of ABS is shown in Figure 2. In this syntax, x range over variable names, the overline notation ($\overline{e}$) is used for lists, *arithmetic-bool-exp* range over arithmetic and boolean expressions, and *primitive-val* stands for primitive (integer and boolean) values. The most significant statements and constructs have been described in the example. Note that field access is restricted to the current object (`this`).

ABS comes with numerous engines (see `http://abs-models.org/`) for verification of concurrent and distributed applications: a deadlock analyser [24], a resource consumption

```
1 BankAccount ba = PAActiveObject.newActive(BankAccount.class, null, node) ;
2 Transaction t = new Transaction(ba);
3 WarningAgent wa = PAActiveObject.newActive(WarningAgent.class, null, node);
4 Balance b = ba.apply(t); // t is deeply copied
5 wa.checkForAlerts(b); // if b is a future it is passed transparently
6 b.commit(); // a wait-by-necessity is possible here
```

LISTING 2. An example of ProActive program. *node* is not defined here.

analyser [38], a termination and cost analyser COSTABS [3, 2], and a verifier for generic program properties KeY-ABS [20, 21]. In addition to verification tools, ABS tools also comprise a frontend compiler and several backends that translate ABS programs into Maude, Java, or Haskell [8]. This work is partially based on the Java backend.

2.4. **Asynchronous Sequential Processes.** ASP [13] is an active object language with a non uniform active object model; it is intended to be close to realistic implementations of distributed systems. ASP features *mono-threaded scheduling* and futures are implicitly created from asynchronous remote method calls. ASP features a wait-by-necessity behaviour upon access to an unresolved future. ASP has proven determinism properties and formalises object groups and software components [12]. Communications ensure causal ordering of requests. PROACTIVE [6] is the Java library that enforces the ASP semantics. As the active object model of ASP is transparent, PROACTIVE active objects follow as much as possible the syntax of standard Java. The only syntactic difference is the `newActive` primitive that is used to create an active object. Listing 2 shows the same example as in the ABS above, written in PROACTIVE. Nevertheless, the semantics of the two programs is different since in ABS the future is always resolved when the `checkForAlerts` request is sent.

PROACTIVE is intended for distribution, it forms a complete middleware that supports the deployment of applications on distributed infrastructures such as clusters, grids, and clouds. To this end, when an active object is created, it is registered in the Java RMI registry, RMI being the main communication layer used in PROACTIVE. Consequently, passive objects are deeply copied when communicated between activities, the different copies are then handled independently and can be in an inconsistent state. The advantage of this approach is its scalability and its coherency with the mechanism of RMI, and consequently its practical effectiveness. Because PROACTIVE is a Java API, it must be integrated with the standard Java programming language. Proxies are created to represent generalised pointers to futures and active objects; consequently futures and active object cannot be of primitive type and a method that returns a primitive type would be called synchronously.

2.5. **Encore.** Encore [10] has an active object programming model mixed with other parallel patterns. ENCORE is essentially based on a non-uniform object model but uses capacities to handle the concurrent access to passive objects, thus enabling shared references to passive objects. ENCORE uses cooperative scheduling of requests that is similar to CREOL and ABS. Futures are explicitly typed and their value must be retrieved via a `get` construct. ENCORE natively features parallel constructs other than asynchronous method invocations. Internal parallelism can be spawned explicitly through `async` blocks, or implicitly through parallel combinators [22]. ENCORE unifies all its parallel constructs with the use of futures for handling asynchrony. A chaining operator $\rightsquigarrow$ can add a callback to a future, in order to

execute it when the future is resolved. Thus Encore features both synchronisation on futures and asynchronous futures. Cooperative scheduling and future chaining mix explicit and automatic synchronisation, and save the programmer from the burden of precisely placing all the release points in the program.

2.6. **Multi-threaded Actors and Active Objects.** In this paper, we focus on multi-threaded active objects [30], that are characterised by a controlled parallelism within an activity. Contrarily to Encore, parallelism does not occur inside a request, but between requests, and under the control of the programmer since only requests tagged as compatible can run in parallel. Comparing multi-threaded scheduling to cooperative scheduling is more complex as the concurrency model is much different: on one hand cooperative scheduling prevents race conditions that might occur within multi-threaded active objects (e.g. if the wrong requests are declared compatible), but on the other hand multi-threaded active objects provide a parallel execution that is more efficient and allow the programmer to control which requests run in parallel. Section 4 shows how cooperative scheduling can be faithfully encoded with multi-threaded active objects and provides a deeper technical insight on the comparison between the two approaches.

In [29] the authors enable automatic parallel execution of requests inside actors. They use transactional memory to undo local side-effects that may be conflicting. However this work supports actors interacting only by asynchronous messages; it does not take into account any other form of synchronisation, like futures in active objects.

Other works introduced multi-threading inside actors or active objects. Parallel actors monitors [42] (PAM) was designed at the same time as MULTIASP; it provides an interface to schedule the parallel service of requests in an actor. The framework is richer and allows the programmer to express any scheduling of request and fully control the request treatment. On the contrary, multi-active objects only allow the programmer to state which requests can be served in parallel, possibly depending on dynamic criteria. Multi-active objects feature a higher level of abstraction where the programmer is unable to reorder request or cancel some of them, overall multi-active objects preserve more guarantees of the original actor and active-object programming model. In fact, compatibility annotations could be used to generate a specific PAM scheduler that would simulate the behaviour of multi-active objects. More recently, *multi-threaded actors* have been proposed [5]. This approach is quite different from multi-active objects or PAM because each active object is mono-threaded but several active objects share the same request queue. The parallel treatment of requests in the same request queue is similar to the approach presented in this paper, but the fact that those requests are served by different actors makes a significant difference. On one side the approach of [5] ensures the absence of race-conditions but on the other side, it gives no guarantee on which object will serve which request. This approach is well adapted to stateless objects, but not adapted to stateful objects, as different requests can be handled by different objects. Indeed consider two requests targeting a multi-threaded actor, if the first one modifies the state of one of the actor's object and the second request is handled by a different object, then the state modification will not be visible by the second request.

## 3. The Multiactive Object Framework

This section presents the Multiactive object programming model, its formal model called MULTIASP, and its implementation and support inside the PROACTIVE library. Even if the

works were realised independently, the concurrency and annotation system of multi-threaded active objects shares some similarities with JAC (Java annotations for concurrency) [28].

### 3.1. **Programming Model and Language.**

3.1.1. *Principles.* Multi-active objects enable local parallelism inside active objects. To this end, the programmer can annotate the class of an active object with information about concurrency by defining a compatibility relationship between requests. The principle is to allow two independent requests to execute in parallel, but prevent requests that could conflict on some resources to run concurrently.

In the RMI style of programming, every remote invocation to an object will be run in parallel with no synchronisation. As a result, data-races can happen on concurrently accessed resources. A classic approach to solve this problem is to protect concurrent executions with a lock, but this approach is too fine-grained to be scalable, and possibly error-prone. By nature, active objects materialise a much safer model where no inner concurrency is possible. However, we aim at a programming model that is locally concurrent and more flexible than the mono-threaded active objects, but more constrained and less error-prone than bare synchronisation of threads. The principle relies on the notion of *compatible requests*. Only requests that are declared compatible can run in parallel. To start serving a new request, a multi-active object first checks that it is compatible with all the currently served requests, and with the requests that should be served before[3].

Multi-active objects extend active objects by assigning each method to at most one group. These groups define a compatibility relationship between requests: only the requests that target methods belonging to compatible groups can be executed in parallel, whereas the others will be guaranteed not to run concurrently. Since the groups and their compatibilities are defined with annotations, the application logic is not mixed with concurrency features. Two groups should be made compatible if their methods do not access the same data, and if the methods of the two groups can be executed in any order. Compatibility is a commutative, non-transitive relation. A group may be declared to be compatible with itself. We base our multi-active object framework on active objects à la ASP. An active object can be turned into a multi-active object by applying the following design methodology:

- Without annotations, a multi-active object behaves identically to a mono-threaded active object, no race condition is possible, but no local parallelism is possible either. Methods assigned to no group are incompatible with all the methods: by default methods are conflicting, and no data-race is possible.
- If some parallelism is desired, for efficiency reasons or because of potential deadlocks, each remotely invocable method can be assigned to a group. Then compatibility between the groups can be defined based on the fields accessed by each method.
- If even more parallelism is desired, the programmer has two non-exclusive options: protect the access to the fields by a locking mechanism and declare more groups as compatible, or define a compatibility function that decides at runtime which requests are compatible, depending on the request parameters or on the object state.

In all cases, we assume that the programmer defines the groups and their compatibilities correctly. Dynamic checks or static analysis should be added to ensure that no race condition appear at runtime, but this is out of scope of this paper.

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[3]Request service in ASP and PROACTIVE follows a FIFO policy.

```
1 @DefineGroups({
2   @Group(name="gettersOnImmutable", selfCompatible=true),
3   @Group(name="dataManagement", selfCompatible=true),
4   @Group(name="broadcasting", selfCompatible=false),
5   @Group(name="monitoring", selfCompatible=true)
6 })
7 @DefineRules({
8   @Compatible({"gettersOnImmutable", "broadcasting", "dataManagement"}),
9   @Compatible({"gettersOnImmutable", "monitoring"})
10 })
11 public class Peer implements Serializable, RunActive {
12   private LongWrapper identifier;
13   private Zone zone;
14
15   @MemberOf("gettersOnImmutable")
16   public LongWrapper getIdentifier() { ... }
17
18   public BooleanWrapper join(Peer p, int dimension) { ... }
19
20   @MemberOf("dataManagement")
21   public AddResponse add(AddQuery query) { ... }
22
23   @MemberOf("broadcasting")
24   public void broadcast(Key constraint, RoutingPair message) { ... }
25 }
```

LISTING 3. The Peer class of the fault tolerant broadcast application.

Multi-active objects provide a customisable trade-off between gaining some parallelism at the intra-object level, removing some deadlocks, and loosing some safety in terms of absence of data races (compared to classical active objects where the absence of data races is guaranteed). Compatibilities must be defined carefully to prevent safety problems.

3.1.2. *Multi-active objects in Practice.* PROACTIVE offers an implementation of the multi-active object programming model as an extension of its active object implementation. A set of Java annotations can be used for the specification of multi-active object notions. The annotations are processed at runtime, which enables to decide dynamically on the compatibility of requests. The three main annotations are the following:

- A `@Group` annotation can be declared on top of a class to define a group of requests. Request in the same group share the same compatibility requirements.
- A `@MemberOf` annotation can be defined on top of a method definition, and specifies the group to which the method belongs.
- A `@Compatible` annotation can be used to declare the groups that are compatible, i.e. to declare the requests that can be run in parallel safely.

As an example, consider a distributed peer-to-peer system implemented with multi-active objects. The purpose of this application is to offer a high performance distributed system for data storage. Each peer is represented by a multi-active object that is instantiated from a `Peer` class. The `Peer` class is partially shown in Listing 3. A peer has operations

that are related to the structure of the peer-to-peer system, as well as operations that are related to data management. In the annotation `DefineGroup`, four groups are defined (Lines 1 to 6). They correspond to the different concerns addressed by the class. All the groups except `broadcasting` are self compatible: they allow several requests of the same group to be run in parallel. Then compatibility rules are defined between those groups (in the annotation `DefineRules`), for example Line 8 declares that the methods of groups `gettersOnImmutable`, `broadcasting`, and `dataManagement` can be executed in parallel. One can notice that the `join` method does not belong to any group: a `join` request will always be executed alone, it is incompatible with all other requests. On the contrary requests on method `getIdentifier` can be executed in parallel with any other request.

$$
\begin{array}{rcll}
P & ::= & \overline{C}\;\{\,\overline{x}\;s\,\} & \text{program} \\
S & ::= & \mathtt{m}(\overline{x}) & \text{method signature} \\
C & ::= & \mathtt{class}\;\mathtt{C}(\overline{x})\;\{\,\overline{x}\;\overline{M}\,\} & \text{class} \\
M & ::= & S\{\,\overline{x}\;s\,\} & \text{method definition} \\
s & ::= & \mathtt{skip}\;\mid\;x = z\;\mid\;\mathtt{return}\;e\;\mid\;s\;;\;s & \text{statement} \\
z & ::= & e\;\mid\;e.\mathtt{m}(\overline{e})\;\mid\;\mathtt{new}\;\mathtt{C}(\overline{e})\;\mid\;\mathtt{newActive}\;\mathtt{C}(\overline{e}) & \text{expression with side effects} \\
e & ::= & v\;\mid\;x\;\mid\;\mathtt{this}\;\mid\;\textit{arithmetic-bool-exp} & \text{expression} \\
v & ::= & \mathtt{null}\;\mid\;\textit{primitive-val} & \text{value}
\end{array}
$$

FIGURE 4. The class-based static syntax of MultiASP.

3.1.3. MULTIASP. MULTIASP is the active object programming language that extends ASP for the support of multi-active objects. MULTIASP formalises the multi-active objects that are implemented in PROACTIVE, and allows us to reason on the execution of PROACTIVE programs. A seminal version of MULTIASP is given in [30]. This paper shows an updated version based on classes instead of object instances. In this paper, we also extend the operational semantics with advanced scheduling capabilities. MULTIASP is an imperative programming language, whose syntax is inspired from object-oriented core languages resembling to Featherweight Java [35]. As can be seen in Figure 4, the syntax of MULTIASP is also close to PROACTIVE programs. A program consists of a set of classes and one main method. Classes, methods, and statements are standard. In the syntax, $x$ ranges over variable names, $C$ over class names, and $\mathtt{m}$ over method names. We characterise a list of elements with the overlined notation. The list $\overline{x}$ denotes local variables when it appears in method bodies and object fields in class declarations. In MULTIASP, as in PROACTIVE, there are two ways to create an object: `new` creates a new object in the current activity (a passive object), and `newActive` creates a new active object. Also, no syntactic distinction exists between local and remote invocations, $e.\mathtt{m}(\overline{e})$ is the generic method invocation, that triggers an asynchronous method invocation if the targeted object is active or a local synchronous method invocation if it is passive. Similarly, as synchronisation on futures is transparent and handled through wait-by-necessity, there is no particular syntax for interacting with a future. Variables in ASP refer either to a local variable of the current method or to a field of the current object. A special variable, `this`, enables access to the current object. The sequence operator is associative with a neutral skip element: a sequence of instructions can always be rewritten as $s; s'$, with $s$ not a sequence.

$$
\begin{array}{rcl}
cn & ::= & \overline{elem} \\
elem & ::= & \text{FUT}(f,v,\sigma) \mid \text{FUT}(f,\bot) \mid \text{ACT}(\alpha,o,\sigma,p,Rq) \\
v & ::= & o \mid \alpha \mid \texttt{null} \mid primitive\text{-}val \\
Storable & ::= & [\overrightarrow{x \mapsto v}] \mid v \mid f \\
s & ::= & x = \bullet \mid \texttt{skip} \mid x = z \mid \texttt{return } e \mid s \; ; \; s \\
z & ::= & e \mid e.\texttt{m}(\overline{e}) \mid \texttt{new C}(\overline{e}) \mid \texttt{newActive C}(\overline{e}) \\
e & ::= & v \mid x \mid \texttt{this} \mid arithmetic\text{-}bool\text{-}exp
\end{array}
\qquad
\begin{array}{rcl}
E & ::= & \{\ell \mid s\} \\
F & ::= & E \mid E :: F \\
q & ::= & (f,\texttt{m},\overline{v}) \\
p & ::= & \overrightarrow{q \mapsto F} \\
Rq & ::= & \varnothing \mid q :: Rq \\
\sigma & ::= & \overrightarrow{o \mapsto Storable} \\
\ell & ::= & \texttt{this} \mapsto v, \overrightarrow{x \mapsto v}
\end{array}
$$

FIGURE 5. The runtime syntax ($e$ and $z$ similar to the static syntax).

The runtime syntax of MultiASP is shown in Figure 5. The set of elements of a MultiASP configuration $cn$ are of two kinds: activities and future binders. We rely on three infinite sets: *object locations* in the local store, ranged over by $\{o, o', \ldots\}$; *active objects names*, ranged over by $\{\alpha, \beta, \ldots\}$; and *future names*, ranged over by $\{f, f', \ldots\}$. Additionally, the following terms are defined:

- There are two kinds of runtime values. *Simple values* ($v$) can be either values of the static syntax (null, *primitive-val*), the location of an object in the local store ($o$), or active object names ($\alpha$). *Storable values* (*Storable*) are either objects, futures, or simple values. An object is a mapping[4] from field names to their values: $[\overrightarrow{x \mapsto v}]$.
- A local environment $\ell$ mapping local variables (including this) to simple values.
- A thread $F$ is a stack of methods being executed, where each method execution $E$ consists of a local environment and a statement $s$ to execute. The first method of the stack is actually executing, the others have been put in the stack due to local synchronous method calls. A special statement $x = \bullet$ allows us to remember the current execution point when a new element is added to the stack.
- Activities are of the form $\text{ACT}(\alpha, o, \sigma, p, Rq)$. An activity contains terms that define:
  - $\alpha$, the *name of the activity*.
  - $o$, the location of the *active object* in $\sigma$.
  - $\sigma$, a *local store* mapping object locations to storable values.
  - $Rq$, a FIFO *queue of requests*, awaiting to be served.
  - $p$, a set of *requests currently served*: a mapping, associating to each currently served request the corresponding thread $F$.
- Future binders are of two forms. The form $\text{FUT}(f, \bot)$ means that the value of the future has not been computed yet: it is *unresolved*. The form $\text{FUT}(f, v, \sigma)$ is used when the value of the future has been *resolved*. The future value can be either a primitive value or a reference to an active or passive object. If the future value references a passive object, then the piece of store $\sigma$ defines the content of this object. As only active objects are remotely accessible, the part of the store referenced by this location must also be transmitted when the future's value is sent back to the caller. This step involves a serialisation mechanism explained below. Note that the store $\sigma$ can contain references to other futures.

An object location is fresh if it does not exist in the store where it is added. A future or an activity name is fresh if it does not exist in the configuration, we use the following auxiliary functions:

---

[4]We denote mappings by $\overrightarrow{\_ \mapsto \_}$, and use union $\cup$ (resp. disjoint union $\uplus$) over mappings. Mapping updates are written $\sigma[x \mapsto v]$, updating the value associated to $x$ in $\sigma$. *dom* is the domain of a mapping. Additionally, for any vectors $\overline{y}$ and $\overline{v}$ of the same length, $[\overrightarrow{y \mapsto v}]$ maps the elements of one vector to the other.

$$[\![ \mathit{primitive\text{-}val} ]\!]_{(\sigma+\ell)} \triangleq \mathit{primitive\text{-}val} \qquad\qquad\qquad [\![ \texttt{null} ]\!]_{(\sigma+\ell)} \triangleq \texttt{null}$$

$$[\![ \alpha ]\!]_{(\sigma+\ell)} \triangleq \alpha$$

$$[\![ e \oplus e' ]\!]_{(\sigma+\ell)} \triangleq [\![ e ]\!]_{(\sigma+\ell)} \oplus [\![ e' ]\!]_{(\sigma+\ell)} \quad \text{if } [\![ e ]\!]_{(\sigma+\ell)} \text{ and } [\![ e' ]\!]_{(\sigma+\ell)} \text{ are primitive values}$$

$$[\![ x ]\!]_{(\sigma+\ell)} \triangleq [\![ \ell(x) ]\!]_{(\sigma+\ell)} \quad\quad \text{if } x \in \mathrm{dom}(\ell)$$

$$[\![ x ]\!]_{(\sigma+\ell)} \triangleq [\![ \ell(\texttt{this})(x) ]\!]_{(\sigma+\ell)} \quad \text{if } x \notin \mathrm{dom}(\ell)$$

$$[\![ o ]\!]_{(\sigma+\ell)} \triangleq o \quad\quad \text{if } \sigma(o) = f \,|\, [\overrightarrow{x \mapsto v}]$$

$$[\![ o ]\!]_{(\sigma+\ell)} \triangleq [\![ \sigma(o) ]\!]_{(\sigma+\ell)} \quad\quad \text{if } \sigma(o) = o' \,|\, \alpha \,|\, \texttt{null} \,|\, \mathit{primitive\text{-}val}$$

FIGURE 6. Evaluation function

- *fields*(C) returns the fields as defined in the declaration of the class named C.
- bind instantiates and initializes a method execution. If $o$ is of class $C$ and $M$ is a method of $C$ with the signature $m(\overline{y})$ and body $\{\overline{x}\ s\}$, then:

  $\mathrm{bind}(o, \texttt{m}, \overline{v'}) = \{\overrightarrow{y \mapsto v'}, \overrightarrow{x \mapsto \texttt{null}}, \texttt{this} \mapsto o \,|\, s\}$

- $[\![ e ]\!]_{(\sigma+\ell)}$ returns the value of $e$ by computing the arithmetic and boolean expressions and retrieving the values stored in $\sigma$ or $\ell$, this evaluation function is defined in Figure 6. $\oplus$ stands for any arithmetic or binary binary operator (unary operators can be expressed similarly). If one member of an arithmetic expression is an unresolved future, the function is undefined. $[\![ e ]\!]_{(\sigma+\ell)}$ returns a value and, if the value is a reference to a location in the store, it follows references recursively; it only returns a location if it points to an object[5]. $[\![ \overline{e} ]\!]_{(\sigma+\ell)}$ returns the tuple of values of $\overline{e}$.

- ready is a predicate that decides whether a request $q$ is ready to be served. We will use $\mathrm{ready}(q, p, Rq)$ where $p$ the requests currently served and $Rq$ the requests that have been received before $q$; it is *true* if $q$ is compatible with all requests in $p$ and in $Rq$:
  $\mathrm{ready}(q, p, Rq) = (\forall q' \in (\mathrm{dom}(p) \cup Rq) \,.\, \mathit{compatible}(q, q'))$.

  In the semantics, compatibility is expressed between requests. This is expressive enough to encode the compatibility relations that can be written in PROACTIVE, including compatibility depending on method parameters. It is also easy to extend it in order to define compatibility depending on object state. Compatibility on request can be derived from group compatibility by stating that two requests are compatible if they target methods belonging to compatible groups.

- Serialisation reflects the communication happening in Java RMI. All references to passive objects are serialised when communicated between activities, so that they are always handled locally. We formalise a serialisation algorithm that marks and copies the objects to serialise recursively. The function serialise takes a value $v$ and a store $\sigma$ and returns a sub-store of $\sigma$ containing the serialisation of $v$. It is defined as the mapping verifying the following (co-inductive) constraints:

  $\mathrm{serialise}(o, \sigma) = (o \mapsto \sigma(o)) \cup \mathrm{serialise}(\sigma(o), \sigma) \qquad \mathrm{serialise}([\overrightarrow{x \mapsto v}], \sigma) = \bigcup_{v' \in \overline{v}} \mathrm{serialise}(v', \sigma)$
  $\mathrm{serialise}(f, \sigma) = \mathrm{serialise}(\alpha, \sigma) = \mathrm{serialise}(\texttt{null}, \sigma) = \mathrm{serialise}(\mathit{primitive\text{-}val}, \sigma) = \varnothing$

- The function $\mathrm{rename}_\sigma(\overline{v}, \sigma')$ renames the object locations appearing in $\sigma'$ and $\overline{v}$, making them disjoint from the object locations of $\sigma$; it returns the renamed set of values $\overline{v'}$ and another store $\sigma''$, as a pair of the form $(\overline{v'}, \sigma'')$.

Figure 7 shows the semantics of MULTIASP as a transition relation between configurations. The rules only show the activities and futures involved in the reduction, the rest of

---

[5]The way the store is built guarantees that expression evaluation terminates if the store is finite.

SERVE
$$\frac{\mathrm{ready}(q,p,Rq) \quad q = (f,\mathtt{m},\overline{v})}{\mathrm{bind}(o,\mathtt{m},\overline{v}) = \{\ell \mid s\}}$$
$$\overline{\mathrm{ACT}(\alpha,o,\sigma,p,Rq::q::Rq')}$$
$$\to \mathrm{ACT}(\alpha,o,\sigma,\{q \mapsto \{\ell|s\}\} \uplus p, Rq::Rq')$$

ASSIGN-LOCAL
$$\frac{x \in \mathrm{dom}(\ell) \quad v = [\![e]\!]_{(\sigma+\ell)}}{\mathrm{ACT}(\alpha,o,\sigma,\{q \mapsto \{\ell \mid x = e; s\} :: F\} \uplus p, Rq)}$$
$$\to \mathrm{ACT}(\alpha,o,\sigma,\{q \mapsto \{\ell[x \mapsto v] \mid s\} :: F\} \uplus p, Rq)$$

ASSIGN-FIELD
$$\frac{\ell(\mathtt{this}) = o \quad x \in \mathrm{dom}(\sigma(o)) \quad x \notin dom(\ell) \quad \sigma' = \sigma[o \mapsto (\sigma(o)[x \mapsto [\![e]\!]_{(\sigma+\ell)}])]}{\mathrm{ACT}(\alpha,o_\alpha,\sigma,\{q \mapsto \{\ell \mid x = e; s\} :: F\} \uplus p, Rq) \to \mathrm{ACT}(\alpha,o_\alpha,\sigma',\{q \mapsto \{\ell \mid s\} :: F\} \uplus p, Rq)}$$

NEW-OBJECT
$$\frac{\mathit{fields}(\mathtt{C}) = \overline{y} \quad o \text{ fresh} \quad [\![\overline{e}]\!]_{(\sigma+\ell)} = \overline{v} \quad \sigma' = \sigma \cup \{o \mapsto [\overrightarrow{y \mapsto v}]\}}{\mathrm{ACT}(\alpha,o_\alpha,\sigma,\{q \mapsto \{\ell \mid x = \mathtt{new}\ \mathtt{C}(\overline{e}); s\} :: F\} \uplus p, Rq) \to \mathrm{ACT}(\alpha,o_\alpha,\sigma',\{q \mapsto \{\ell \mid x = o; s\} :: F\} \uplus p, Rq)}$$

NEW-ACTIVE
$$\frac{\mathit{fields}(\mathtt{C}) = \overline{y} \quad o,\beta \text{ fresh} \quad [\![\overline{e}]\!]_{(\sigma+\ell)} = \overline{v} \quad \sigma' = \{o \mapsto [\overrightarrow{y \mapsto v}]\} \cup \mathrm{serialise}(\overline{v},\sigma)}{\mathrm{ACT}(\alpha,o_\alpha,\sigma,\{q \mapsto \{\ell \mid x = \mathtt{newActive}\ \mathtt{C}(\overline{e}); s\} :: F\} \uplus p, Rq)}$$
$$\to \mathrm{ACT}(\alpha,o_\alpha,\sigma,\{q \mapsto \{\ell \mid x = \beta; s\} :: F\} \uplus p, Rq)\ \mathrm{ACT}(\beta,o,\sigma',\varnothing,\varnothing)$$

INVK-ACTIVE
$$\frac{[\![e]\!]_{(\sigma+\ell)} = \beta \quad [\![\overline{e}]\!]_{(\sigma+\ell)} = \overline{v} \quad f,o \text{ fresh}}{\sigma_1 = \sigma \cup \{o \mapsto f\} \quad (\overline{v_r},\sigma_r) = \mathrm{rename}_{\sigma'}(\overline{v},\mathrm{serialise}(\overline{v},\sigma)) \quad \sigma'' = \sigma' \cup \sigma_r}{\mathrm{ACT}(\alpha,o_\alpha,\sigma,\{q \mapsto \{\ell \mid x = e.\mathtt{m}(\overline{e}); s\} :: F\} \uplus p, Rq)\ \mathrm{ACT}(\beta,o_\beta,\sigma',p',Rq')}$$
$$\to \mathrm{ACT}(\alpha,o_\alpha,\sigma_1,\{q \mapsto \{\ell \mid x = o; s\} :: F\} \uplus p, Rq)\ \mathrm{ACT}(\beta,o_\beta,\sigma'',p',Rq'::(f,m,\overline{v_r}))\ \mathrm{FUT}(f,\bot)$$

INVK-ACTIVE-SELF
$$\frac{[\![e]\!]_{(\sigma+\ell)} = \alpha \quad [\![\overline{e}]\!]_{(\sigma+\ell)} = \overline{v} \quad f,o \text{ fresh} \quad \sigma_1 = \sigma \uplus \{o \mapsto f\}}{(\overline{v_r},\sigma_r) = \mathrm{rename}_{\sigma_1}(\mathrm{serialise}(\overline{v},\sigma)) \quad \sigma' = \sigma_r \cup \sigma_1}{\mathrm{ACT}(\alpha,o_\alpha,\sigma,\{q \mapsto \{\ell \mid x = e.\mathtt{m}(\overline{e}); s\} :: F\} \uplus p, Rq)}$$
$$\to \mathrm{ACT}(\alpha,o_\alpha,\sigma',\{q \mapsto \{\ell \mid x = o; s\} :: F\} \uplus p, Rq::(f,\mathtt{m},\overline{v_r}))\ \mathrm{FUT}(f,\bot)$$

INVK-PASSIVE
$$\frac{[\![e]\!]_{(\sigma+\ell)} = o \quad [\![\overline{e}]\!]_{(\sigma+\ell)} = \overline{v} \quad \mathrm{bind}(o,m,\overline{v}) = \{\ell' \mid s'\}}{\mathrm{ACT}(\alpha,o_\alpha,\sigma,\{q \mapsto \{\ell \mid x = e.\mathtt{m}(\overline{e}); s\} :: F\} \uplus p, Rq) \to \mathrm{ACT}(\alpha,o_\alpha,\sigma,\{q \mapsto \{\ell' \mid s'\} :: \{\ell \mid x = \bullet; s\} :: F\} \uplus p, Rq)}$$

RETURN-LOCAL
$$\frac{v = [\![e]\!]_{(\sigma+\ell)}}{\mathrm{ACT}(\alpha,o,\sigma,\{q \mapsto \{\ell \mid \mathtt{return}\ e; s_r\} :: \{\ell' \mid x = \bullet; s\} :: F\} \uplus p, Rq) \to \mathrm{ACT}(\alpha,o,\sigma,\{q \mapsto \{\ell' \mid x = v; s\} :: F\} \uplus p, Rq)}$$

RETURN
$$\frac{v = [\![e]\!]_{(\sigma+\ell)}}{\mathrm{ACT}(\alpha,o,\sigma,\{(f,m,\overline{v}) \mapsto \{\ell \mid \mathtt{return}\ e; s_r\}\} \uplus p, Rq)\ \mathrm{FUT}(f,\bot)}$$
$$\to \mathrm{ACT}(\alpha,o,\sigma,p,Rq)\ \mathrm{FUT}(f,v,\mathrm{serialise}(v,\sigma))$$

UPDATE
$$\frac{\sigma(o) = f \quad (v_r,\sigma_r) = \mathrm{rename}_\sigma(v,\sigma')}{\sigma'' = \sigma[o \mapsto v_r] \cup \sigma_r}{\mathrm{ACT}(\alpha,o_\alpha,\sigma,p,Rq)\ \mathrm{FUT}(f,v,\sigma')}$$
$$\to \mathrm{ACT}(\alpha,o_\alpha,\sigma'',p,Rq)\ \mathrm{FUT}(f,v,\sigma')$$

FIGURE 7. Semantics of MULTIASP.

the configuration is kept unchanged. Most of the rules are triggered depending on the shape of the first statement of an activity's thread. The reduction rules are described below:

- SERVE picks the first ready request in the queue (i.e. compatible with executing requests and with older requests in the queue) and allocates a new thread to serve it. It fetches the method body and creates the execution context.
- ASSIGN-LOCAL assigns a value to a local variable. If the statement to be executed is an assignment of an expression that can be reduced to a value, then the mapping of local variables is updated accordingly.
- ASSIGN-FIELD assigns a value to a field of the current object (the one pointed to by this). It is similar to the previous rule except that it modifies the local store.
- NEW-OBJECT creates a new local object in the store at a fresh location, after evaluation of the object parameters. The new object is assigned to a field or to a local variable by one of the two rules above.
- NEW-ACTIVE creates a new activity that contains a new active object. It picks a fresh activity name, and assigns the serialised object parameters: the initial local store of the activity is the piece of store referenced by the parameters. The freshness of the location of the new active object ensures that it is not in the serialised store.
- INVK-ACTIVE performs an asynchronous remote method invocation on an active object. It creates a fresh future with undefined value. The arguments of the invocation are serialised and put in the store of the invoked activity, possibly renaming locations to avoid clashes. The special case $\alpha = \beta$ requires a trivial adaptation with the rule INVK-ACTIVE-SELF.
- INVK-PASSIVE performs a local synchronous method invocation. The method is retrieved and an execution context is created; the thread stack is extended with this execution context. The interrupted execution context is second in the stack; the result returned by the method will replace the $\bullet$ when it is computed. Note that the distinction between synchronous and asynchronous calls depends on the kind of the reference to the invoked object: an active object is invoked synchronously if it is invoked through its local reference.
- RETURN-LOCAL handles the return value of local method invocation. It replaces the $\bullet$ in the second entry of the stack by the returned value. The return corresponds to a local invocation because it is not the only execution context in the stack.
- RETURN occurs when a request finishes. It stores the value computed by the request as a future value. Serialisation packs the objects referenced by the future value.
- UPDATE updates a future reference with a resolved value. This is performed at any time when a future is referenced and the future value is resolved.

The local rules reflect a classical object oriented language: NEW-OBJECT and ASSIGN-FIELD modify the local store, and INVK-PASSIVE and RETURN-LOCAL affect the local execution context. The other rules deal with parallelism and communication. Given a program $P = \overline{C} \; \{\overline{x} \; s\}$, executing $P$ requires to create an initial configuration with a single activity that serves one request containing the main block $s$ with local variables $\overline{x}$: $cn_0 = \text{ACT}(\alpha, o, \varnothing, \{q \mapsto \overline{\{x \mapsto \texttt{null}, \texttt{this} \mapsto o \mid s\}\}}, \varnothing)$. Classically $\rightarrow^*$ denotes the transitive closure of $\rightarrow$. In [30], it was proven that this semantics ensures that request services are scheduled such that *parallelism is maximised while preventing two incompatible requests from being served in parallel*. Safe parallelism can be formalised as follows

**Theorem 3.1** (Safe parallelism)**.** *Any two requests served in parallel are compatible: if $cn_0$ is the initial configuration and $cn_0 \rightarrow^* \text{ACT}(\alpha, o, \sigma, \{q \mapsto \{\ell \mid s\} :: F\} \uplus \{q' \mapsto \{\ell' \mid s'\} :: F'\} \uplus p, Rq) \; Q$ with $q = (f, \texttt{m}, \overline{v})$, $q' = (f', \texttt{m}', \overline{v}')$ then compatible$(q, q')$.*

```
1 @DefineThreadConfig(threadPoolSize=2, hardLimit=false)
2 @Group(name="monitoring", selfCompatible=true, minThreads=1, maxThreads=2)
```
LISTING 4. An example of annotations for thread management.

```
1 @DefinePriorities({
2   @PriorityHierarchy({
3     @PrioritySet({"gettersOnImmutable"}),
4     @PrioritySet({"broadcasting", "dataManagement"}),
5     @PrioritySet({"monitoring"})
6   })
7 })
```
LISTING 5. An example of priority annotations.

3.2. **Request Scheduling Extension.** The semantics presented above ensures that any ready request can be served immediately, which maximizes parallelism. While this property is strong and valuable, such a scheduling policy might reveal inefficient in practice and some additional mechanism is needed to control the number of threads running in parallel. To control the parallelism the programmer can limit the number of executing threads globally or per group. We detail below the annotations provided in PROACTIVE for thread limitation and extend the semantics to model this aspect.

3.2.1. *Controlling thread creation in ProActive.* To customise scheduling inside multi-active objects we introduce scheduling annotations. The `@DefineThreadConfig` annotation allows the programmer to control two aspects:

• **The maximum number of threads used by a multi-active object.** This is the *thread limit* of the multi-active object. It prevents a potential thread explosion at runtime. This limit is checked whenever a thread is to be created or activated.
• **The kind of thread limit.** It can be of two kinds: either *soft* of *hard*. A *soft thread limit* counts, in the thread limit, only the threads that are currently active, i.e. that are not blocked in wait-by-necessity. On the contrary, a *hard thread limit* counts, in the thread limit, all the created threads, even the ones that are in wait-by-necessity.

The `@DefineThreadConfig` annotation is illustrated in Listing 4, Line 1. A multi-active object created with this annotation has two threads at maximum to process its requests. Since the configuration specifies a soft thread limit, additional threads can be created to compensate threads that are blocked in wait-by-necessity. The thread limit and the kind of thread limit can also be changed programmatically and dynamically through the API.

In addition to the global thread limitation that applies per multi-active object, a mechanism controls the number of threads allocated to a given group. This mechanism first reserves some threads for the processing of the requests of the group. Second, it specifies the maximum number of threads that can be used by the requests of the group at the same time. Since these specifications apply to groups of requests, we extend the `@Group` annotation with two optional parameters. Line 2 of Listing 4 shows a group definition where one thread is reserved for the group and this group cannot use more than two threads.

When the number of threads is limited, requests compete for thread resources. Due to the limited number of threads, there might exist requests ready for execution (because

they fulfil compatibility conditions), but that cannot be executed because all threads of the multi-active object are busy. Such requests form the *ready queue* of a multi-active object. By default, the ready queue is, like the reception queue, ordered according to the order of reception. We introduce a priority mechanism that allows the programmer to determine an order of importance in the execution of requests. Priorities applies on the ready request queue, and thus on compatible requests. We extend the set of multi-active object annotations with priority annotations that relate groups of requests. We represent the priority dependencies with a graph structure, that allows a partial ordering of requests. A `@PriorityHierarchy` annotation creates an ordering on groups. The order in which the groups are declared defines the priority dependencies, like `group1 > group2 > group3`. Several groups can belong to the same priority level. Listing 5 shows an example of priority annotations applied to the `Peer` class of Listing 3. It states that methods of the group `gettersOnImmutable` should be served in priority compared to other methods, `monitoring` methods have the lowest priority, and there is no order between the two other groups.

Overall, the advanced scheduling annotations for priorities and manipulation of threads offer a high-level specification mechanism to deal with fine-grained optimisation of multi-active object-based applications. The ProActive API also allows the programmer to switch between hard and soft thread limit at runtime, for the current active object.

3.2.2. *The semantics of request scheduling.* We formalise in MultiASP the management of threads in multi-active objects. Our approach is to introduce in the semantics additional qualifiers on activities and requests to record scheduling informations. First, we extend the syntax of MultiASP so that the thread limit mechanism can be programmatically changed between a *soft limit* and a *hard limit*. The syntax is extended with two new statements:

$$s \quad ::= \quad ... \quad | \quad \textbf{setLimitSoft} \quad | \quad \textbf{setLimitHard}$$

Then, we extend the MultiASP semantics with request scheduling aspects. We suppose that the group of a request $q$ can be retrieved through an auxiliary function $group(q)$. Additionally, a filtering operator $p\big|_g$ returns the requests from group $g$ among the set of threads $p$. The thread limit of a group $g$ can be retrieved with $\mathcal{L}_g$. To indicate the status of each thread, we qualify each of the currently served requests as either actively served: $q_A$, or passively served: $q_P$. Each entry in the current request queue is now either $q_A \mapsto F$ or $q_P \mapsto F$. Passively served requests are requests that have been blocked in wait-by-necessity. The auxiliary function $\text{Active}(p)$ returns the number of actively served requests in the set of threads $p$. Each activity has either a soft limit status written $\text{ACT}(\ldots)_S$, or a hard limit status written $\text{ACT}(\ldots)_H$. An activity has by default a soft limit status when it is created. $sh$ is used as a variable ranging over $S$ and $H$: $sh ::= S \,|\, H$. Finally, we modify the reduction rules of the operational semantics as follows:

- We add a rule ACTIVATE-THREAD for activating a thread. It looks at the group of the considered request and checks if this group has not reached its thread limit. The $sh$ variable is used so that the kind of thread limit is kept unchanged.

    ACTIVATE-THREAD
    $$\frac{group(q) = g \qquad \text{Active}(p\big|_g) < \mathcal{L}_g}{\text{ACT}(\alpha, o, \sigma, \{q_P \mapsto F\} \uplus p, Rq)_{sh} \rightarrow \text{ACT}(\alpha, o, \sigma, \{q_A \mapsto F\} \uplus p, Rq)_{sh}}$$

- Each rule allowing a thread to progress requires that the request processed by this thread is active. To this end, $q$ is replaced by $q_A$ in all MULTIASP reduction rules except for SERVE and UPDATE.
- The SERVE rule is only triggered if the thread limit of the request group is not reached, i.e. if: $\text{Active}(p\big|_{group(q)}) < \mathcal{L}_g$.
- We add two additional rules, SET-HARD-LIMIT and SET-SOFT-LIMIT, for changing the kind of thread limit of an activity:

  SET-HARD-LIMIT
  $$\text{ACT}(\alpha, o, \sigma, \{q_A \mapsto \{\ell \mid \textbf{setLimitHard}; s\} :: F\} \uplus p, Rq)_{sh} \to \text{ACT}(\alpha, o, \sigma, \{q_A \mapsto \{\ell \mid s\} :: F\} \uplus p, Rq)_H$$

  SET-SOFT-LIMIT
  $$\text{ACT}(\alpha, o, \sigma, \{q_A \mapsto \{\ell \mid \textbf{setLimitSoft}; s\} :: F\} \uplus p, Rq)_{sh} \to \text{ACT}(\alpha, o, \sigma, \{q_A \mapsto \{\ell \mid s\} :: F\} \uplus p, Rq)_S$$

- A wait-by-necessity occurs only in case of method invocation on a future, since field access is only allowed on the current object `this`. We add a rule INVK-FUTURE that passivates the current thread when a method invocation is performed on a future that has not been updated locally yet. This rule is only applied for activities in *soft thread limit* and when a method is invoked on a reference to a future.

INVK-FUTURE
$$\frac{[\![e]\!]_{(\sigma + \ell)} = o' \qquad \sigma(o') = f}{\text{ACT}(\alpha, o, \sigma, \{q_A \mapsto \{\ell \mid x = e.\texttt{m}(\overline{e}); s\} :: F\} \uplus p, Rq)_S \to \text{ACT}(\alpha, o, \sigma, \{q_P \mapsto \{\ell \mid x = e.\texttt{m}(\overline{e}); s\} :: F\} \uplus p, Rq)_S}$$

In summary, four rules are added to MULTIASP semantics, and the terms for activities and requests are qualified with thread indicators to take into account advanced scheduling mechanisms of multi-active objects. Note that the thread limit is only checked upon thread activation, thus when switching from soft to hard limit, there may be interrupted passive threads in the set of currently executed requests. In other words, it is not always true that, when the current limit is hard, there is no passivated currently executed request. This corresponds to the behaviour of PROACTIVE that checks thread limit only upon creation or activation of a thread. Though the semantics allows for activation/passivation loops for the same thread, in practice useless activations are avoided by monitoring the status of the futures and activating, by a notification mechanism, a thread that can progress.

3.3. **Development Support.** We conclude this section by presenting a visualisation tool dedicated to multi-active objects. Its purpose is to help the programmer understand the behaviour of his multi-active object applications and to debug concurrent programs easily.

3.3.1. *Viewing executions.* The multi-active object programming model is designed such that there is a minimum specification to be written by the programmer. However, multi-active objects are very good for programming systems that involve complex coordination of entities and massive parallelism. For these advanced cases, being able to observe the behaviour of the application is crucial, either to debug it or to improve its performance.

We present a debugger that offers a visualisation of multi-active object executions based on a post mortem analysis. The user of this tool can observe the application execution while being exposed to a view that corresponds to the notions he manipulates when programming. In the main frame, a thread is represented by a sequence of requests on a time line. A screenshot of the debugger tool is provided in Figure 8. In this example, two single-threaded multi-active objects are displayed. Arrows represent the request sending between multi-active
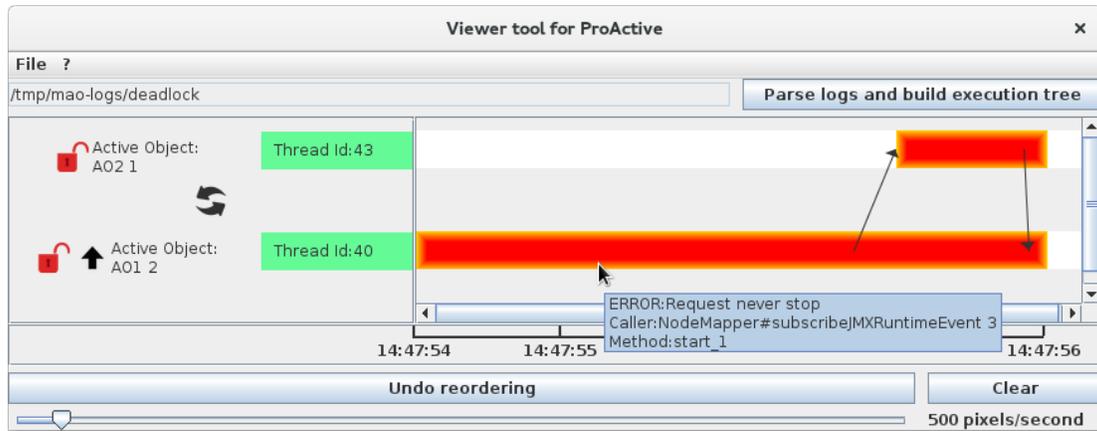
FIGURE 8. The debugger tool: deadlock scenario (screenshot).

objects. The length of an element is representative of its duration. A mouse-over on a request displays the name of the request, the identity of the sender, and the timestamp of its reception. The debugger highlights the compatibility of the selected request with respect to others. A precise listing of requests can also be viewed based on a particular timestamp, distinguishing the requests that are being executed, the ones in the queue, the completed ones, and the ones that will be received later.

3.3.2. *Use case.* In active objects, a deadlock is generally caused by a circular dependency of requests. With multi-active objects, a deadlock can be due to two constraints: a lack of compatibility or a lack of threads. We show in Figure 8 the debugger tool in a scenario where it helps the programmer to identify a deadlock in a multi-active object execution (red requests). The debugger produces in this case the 'request never ends' error, informing the user of a potentially faulty execution. The representation of communications shows that there is a circular request dependency between multi-active objects First and Second. For example, if the request received by First was not compatible with the request that executes, then it would never execute. Here the deadlock is instead due to a lack of threads: no more thread can be created. This case only happens if the soft thread limit is not activated, else another thread could compensate the thread that is in wait-by-necessity.

Besides deadlocks, the debugger also shows the sequence of actions that occurred in a particular execution, and thus help in spotting race conditions that can happen, typically the concurrent sending of requests to the same target object that would create non-deterministic behaviour. This tool is part of the ProActive framework.

## 4. Encoding of Cooperative Active Objects into Multi-active Objects

We present in this section a particular application of multi-active objects that consists in encoding the cooperative active object language ABS into the multi-active objects of MultiASP/ProActive. In other words, we present here a ProActive backend for ABS that translates ABS code to Java programs that use the ProActive library and offers a distributed execution of ABS programs. We also formalise and prove the correctness of the translation from ABS to MultiASP programs.

```
1 Class COG {
2   UUID freshID()
3   UUID register(Object x, UUID id)
4   Object retrieve(UUID id)
5   Object execute(UUID id, MethodName m, params) {
6     w=this.retrieve(id); x=w.m(params); return x}
7   Object execute_condition(UUID id, MethodName cm, params) {
8     w=this.retrieve(id); x=w.cm(params); return x}
9 }
```

LISTING 6. The COG class in MultiASP

4.1. **ProActive Backend and Translational Semantics.** One way to execute ABS programs is to use the Java backend. The Java backend translates ABS programs into Java programs according to ABS semantics, but without distribution support. The PROACTIVE backend relies on the Java backend concerning the functional layer of the language, introducing a new translation for the object and concurrency layer, plus distributed notions.

First, to translate the object model of ABS into multi-active objects, we put several objects under the control of one active object, which fits the active object group model of ABS. Compared to translating each ABS object into a multi-active object, this solution requires less synchronisation between activities and is more scalable. Indeed to guarantee that a single thread executes in a set of active objects we would need to synchronise the different active objects and schedule their execution. Implementing such a scheduling pattern would not only be difficult and costly (each synchronisation should be performed either by a method invocation or by a future access) but also would not match the active object principles (loose coupling between active objects). In the translation, we introduce a COG class for representing ABS COGs. Only objects of the COG class are multi-active objects. The COG class in MULTIASP is shown in Listing 6. UUID represent the type of object identifiers. The COG class has methods to store and retrieve locally the translated ABS objects, and to generically execute a method on them. A special method `execute_condition` is used to execute await conditions. It is a separate method because it does not have the same purpose as `execute` that serves external asynchronous requests; and the two methods follow different compatibility rules. We assign to every translated ABS object a unique identifier.

Second, all translated ABS classes are extended with two parameters: a *cog* parameter, storing the COG to which the object belongs, and an *id* parameter, storing the identifier of the object in that COG. The methods *cog()* and *myId()* return those two parameters. A dummy method *get()* that returns `null` is also added to each object, it is used to perform synchronisation on future objects.

Concerning statements, the translation only impacts the statements that deal with object creation, method invocation, or future manipulation. The translation of ABS statements and expressions into MULTIASP is shown in Figure 9, and explained below. The code that is generated by the PROACTIVE backend for ABS is similar to what is shown in MULTIASP. We organise the description as follows. First we describe the storage and access to objects, this explains the translation of the two `new` statements. Then, we define the translation of method invocations and particularly of asynchronous method calls. Section 4.1.3 defines synchronisation on futures and cooperative scheduling aspects. Requests are split into three groups: one for executing requests, one for allocating fresh object identifiers, and a third

$[\![x = \texttt{new } \texttt{C}(\overline{e})]\!] \triangleq newcog = \texttt{newActive } \texttt{COG}();$
$\quad\quad\quad id = newcog.freshId();$
$\quad\quad\quad no = \texttt{new } \texttt{C}(\overline{e}, newcog, id);$
$\quad\quad\quad z = newcog.register(no, id);$
$\quad\quad\quad x = no$

$[\![x = \texttt{new local } \texttt{C}(\overline{e})]\!] \triangleq t = \texttt{this}.cog();$
$\quad\quad\quad id = t.freshId();$
$\quad\quad\quad no = \texttt{new } \texttt{C}(\overline{e}, t, id);$
$\quad\quad\quad z = t.register(no, id);$
$\quad\quad\quad x = no$

$[\![x = e!\texttt{m}(\overline{e})]\!] \triangleq t = e.cog(); id = e.myId();$
$\quad\quad\quad x = t.execute(id, \texttt{m}, \overline{e})$

$[\![x = e.\texttt{m}(\overline{e})]\!] \triangleq t = e.cog(); b = \texttt{this}.cog();$
$\quad\quad\quad \texttt{if}(t == b) \quad \{x = e.\texttt{m}(\overline{e})\}$
$\quad\quad\quad \texttt{else} \{ \quad id = e.myId();$
$\quad\quad\quad\quad x = t.execute(id, \texttt{m}, \overline{e});$
$\quad\quad\quad\quad \textbf{setLimitHard};$
$\quad\quad\quad\quad w = x.get();$
$\quad\quad\quad\quad \textbf{setLimitSoft}\}$

$[\![x = e]\!] \triangleq x = e$

$[\![x = y.get]\!] \triangleq \textbf{setLimitHard};$
$\quad\quad\quad w = y.get();$
$\quad\quad\quad \textbf{setLimitSoft};$
$\quad\quad\quad x = y$

$[\![await\ g]\!] \triangleq \texttt{if}(\neg g) \quad \{$
$\quad\quad\quad t = \texttt{this}.cog();$
$\quad\quad\quad id = \texttt{this}.myId();$
$\quad\quad\quad z = t.execute\_condition(id, condition\_g, \overline{x});$
$\quad\quad\quad w = z.get() \}$
$\quad\quad$ where $\overline{x}$ are the local variables used in $g$
$\quad\quad$ and $g$ contains no future await of the form $y$?

$[\![suspend]\!] \triangleq t = \texttt{this}.cog();$
$\quad\quad\quad id = \texttt{this}.myId();$
$\quad\quad\quad z = t.execute\_condition(id, condition\_True, \overline{x});$
$\quad\quad\quad w = z.get()$

$[\![await\ x?]\!] \triangleq w = x.get()$

$[\![await\ g \wedge g']\!] \triangleq [\![await\ g]\!]; [\![await\ g']\!]$

FIGURE 9.   Translational semantics from ABS to MULTIASP

one for registering objects in a *cog*. Groups and compatibility are presented in Section 4.1.4. Section 4.1.5 describes `await` statement on boolean expressions.

4.1.1. *Object addressing.* To allow all objects to be accessible like in ABS, we use a two-level reference system. Each COG is accessible by a global reference and each ABS object is accessible inside its COG through a local identifier. The pair (COG, identifier) is a unique reference for all translated ABS objects and allows the runtime to retrieve any object.

We translate the ABS `new` statement ($[\![x = \texttt{new } \texttt{C}(\overline{e})]\!]$), that creates a new object in a new COG, with the instantiation of a COG multi-active object and of the new object in MULTIASP. First, the COG multi-active object is created with the `newActive` primitive. Thus, further method invocations on the *newcog* variable will be asynchronous remote method calls. Then, a fresh identifier is retrieved from the new COG, to create the new object that is stored in a reserved temporary local variable *no*. The new object is a passive object that has a reference to its COG. Then, the new object is referenced in the new COG through the `register` method. Since the new COG is a remote multi-active object, the new object is copied when it is transmitted to the new COG through the `register` invocation. Finally, the x variable references the new object that is ready to be used.

For objects that are created with `new local` in ABS ($[\![x = \texttt{new local } C(\overline{e})]\!]$), the translation in MULTIASP is similar to the translation of the ABS `new` statement, but the local COG is retrieved instead of creating a new one. No new activity is created here and the object is registered locally, without copy.

4.1.2. *Method invocation.* When an asynchronous method call is performed in ABS ($e!\texttt{m}(\overline{e})$), in MULTIASP a remote method invocation is executed. Because of the hierarchical object referencing, we first retrieve the COG of the translated object that is invoked in ABS, as well as the identifier of the object. Then, we perform a generic method call (implicitly asynchronous) named `execute`, on the retrieved COG. The `execute` method of the COG class looks up the targeted object through its identifier and runs on it the given method by reflection, with the translated parameters. In MULTIASP, an asynchronous method

call entails a copy of the invocation parameters. Consequently, several copies of the same translated ABS object exist in MultiASP, whereas only one copy of each object exists in ABS. This is not a problem because only one of these copies is registered and when an object's copy is used in the translated program (i.e. a method is invoked on it[6]), the same process is always applied: the invocation is forwarded to the cog that manages the only registered object. Thus, in the end, only this registered object is manipulated by all the invocations made on the object's copies. Consequently, the behaviour by reference of ABS (and other similar active object languages) can be simulated with the behaviour by copy of MultiASP. The same mechanism is applied to handle the translation of future updates. Also, since the copies of an object are only used to retrieve the registered object, all transmitted objects between cog can be lightweight: they only need to embed the reference to the `COG` and the identifier of the only registered object. In the ProActive backend, we tune the serialisation mechanism so that only those fields are transmitted between activities, saving memory and bandwidth in the execution of the translated program .

For the case of synchronous method calls, in ABS ($!e.\mathtt{m}(\overline{e})$), we distinguish two cases, like in the ABS semantics. Either the call is local and an execution context is pushed in the stack, or the call is remote and we perform an asynchronous method invocation and immediately wait the associated future, blocking the current activity thread (see below).

4.1.3. *Cooperative scheduling.* First, we consider the translation of ABS `await` statements on future variables ($[\![await\ x?]\!]$). In ABS, an await statement on an unresolved future makes the current request release the execution thread. In order to stop the execution of the request in the multi-active object-based translation, we trigger a wait-by-necessity. To this end, we call the dummy *get()* method so that a wait-by-necessity is automatically triggered if the future is unresolved. However, in MultiASP, a wait-by-necessity blocks the thread and does not release it. To encode cooperative scheduling we configure the `COG` class with the following annotations configuring its internal scheduling. Since in the translation, all remote method invocations go through the `execute` method of the `COG` class, we put this method in a multi-active object group. We declare this group self compatible so that several `execute` methods can be scheduled on several threads of the multi-active object at the same time. Then, we set a thread limit of one thread and we use a soft thread limit:

```
@Group(name="scheduling", selfCompatible=true)
@DefineThreadConfig(threadPoolSize=1, hardLimit=false)
```

This configuration first allows a single execute method to run at any time, so that there cannot be more than one running thread in a cog multi-active object. The soft thread limit also allows a thread to process an `execute` request while another `execute` request is passivated, waiting for a future. Finally, as the translation of the await statement triggers a wait-by-necessity, this setting ensures exactly the synchronisation of multi-active object threads that simulates the cooperative scheduling of ABS through the `await` statement.

Second, we consider the translation of ABS `get` statements ($[\![x = y.get]\!]$). In ABS, a `get` statement retrieves a future value, blocking the execution thread if necessary. Compared to `await`, another thread cannot continue executing while waiting for a future through a `get` statement. In the translation, we temporarily go from a soft thread limit to a hard thread limit so that no other thread can start while the current thread is waiting for the future to be resolved. To this end, we use the **setLimitSoft** and **setLimitHard** statements

---

[6]Field access outside the current object is not allowed in ABS and ASP.

introduced in Section 3.2. In the translation, a **setLimitHard** statement precedes the call
to the *get()* method, so that no other thread starts or resumes while performing the `get`
operation. Then, the soft thread limit is restored.

4.1.4. *Groups and compatibility.* In general, to simulate the scheduling of ABS executions,
we create different method groups in the `COG` class, and each group has its own thread limit:

$$group(\mathit{freshId}) = g_1 \qquad group(\mathit{execute}) = g_2 \qquad group(\mathit{register}) = g_3$$
$$\mathcal{L}_{g_1} = 1 \qquad \mathcal{L}_{g_2} = 1 \qquad \mathcal{L}_{g_3} = \infty$$

The compatibility relationship is defined such that[7]:

$$compatible(q, q') \underline{\text{iff}} \left( \begin{array}{l} (q = (\_, \mathit{freshId}, \_) \ \Rightarrow \ q' \neq (\_, \mathit{freshId}, \_)) \ \wedge \\ (\nexists id, x, \mathtt{m}, \overline{e}.\ q = (\_, \mathit{register}, [x, id]) \wedge q' = (\_, \mathit{execute}, [id, \mathtt{m}, \overline{e}])) \end{array} \right)$$

Group $g_1$ encapsulates *freshId* requests. These requests cannot execute in parallel safely,
so $g_1$ is not self compatible. Group $g_2$ gathers *execute* requests (i.e. ABS requests). It
is limited to one thread to comply with the threading model of ABS, and the requests
are self compatible to enable interleaving. Group $g_3$ contains *register* requests that are
self compatible and that have no thread limit. Concerning compatibility between groups,
$g_1$ is compatible with other groups. Concerning $g_3$ and $g_2$, their compatibility is defined
dynamically such that an *execute* request and a *register* request are compatible if they do
not affect the same identifier. `execute_condition` methods are compatible with everything.

4.1.5. `await` *on conditional expressions.* Regarding the translation of the `await` *on conditions*
and of the `suspend` statement of ABS, we realise it by the means of an additional multi-
active object group and of a special configuration of its thread limit. First, note that futures
are single-valued assignments, and once they are available they will remain available. Second,
as defined in [25], the ABS `await` statement accepts only monotonic guards and conjunctive
composition. Because of monotonicity, the translation of conjunctive ABS conditional
guards ($[\![await\ g \wedge g']\!]$) can be performed sequentially. Concerning futures, this can be done
by calls to the *get()* method of the translated ABS objects (the activity is in soft limit at
this point). Then, in order to translate ABS conditional guards ($[\![await\ g]\!]$), for each guard
$g$, we generate a method *condition_g* that takes as parameters the variables $\overline{x}$ used in $g$. A
condition evaluation $g$ is defined as follows:

$$condition\_g(\overline{x}) = \mathtt{while}(\neg g)\ skip;\mathtt{return\ null}$$

In more recent semantics of ABS, guard are not monotonic; to encode this semantics,
we would have to check again the boolean part of the condition when the thread is resumed
(at this point no other thread can interfere with the object state). Each conjunctive guard
should be re-ordered so that it starts by a set of guards on futures (monotonic by nature),
and finishes with a boolean expression guard. This boolean part of the await would be the
only non-monotonic part that should be checked again when the service thread is resumed.

We translate the ABS `suspend` statement ($[\![suspend]\!]$) similarly to conditional guards,
but with a condition that is always true. We define an *execute_condition* method in the
`COG` class that generically executes generated condition methods. The *execute_condition*

---

[7]We use $\_$ as a wildcard: $q = (\_, \mathtt{m}, \_)$ means that there is a future and a set of parameters such that $q$ has
this form, in other words "$q$ is a request on method $\mathtt{m}$.

method has its own group with an infinite thread limit because any number of conditions can evaluate in parallel (those requests are compatible with all the other requests):

$$group(\mathit{execute\_condition}) = g_4 \quad \mathcal{L}_{g_4} = \infty$$

4.1.6. *Distribution.* In addition to the translation of active object paradigms, the ABS compiler is slightly modified in order to enable distributed execution of ABS programs. We also make some other adaptations in the generated Java classes to ensure an efficient distributed execution.

**Serialisation.** The main challenge when moving objects from one memory space to another is to reshape them so that they can be transmitted on the network medium. A serialised version of an object must be created by the sender so that the object graph can be rebuilt from the serialised version by the recipient. As PROACTIVE is based on Java RMI, all objects that are part of a remote method call (i.e. parameters and return values) must implement the Java `Serializable` interface, otherwise a distributed execution throws an exception. Thus, the generated Java classes implement this interface.

**Copy Optimisation.** To minimise copy overhead, in the PROACTIVE translation we declare the translated class fields with the `transient` Java keyword, which prevents them from being embedded in a serialised version of an object (they are replaced by `null`). The fields that receive a value when the object is created go through a customised serialisation mechanism: they are copied only the first time they are serialised (i.e. when the object is copied into its hosting COG). After this initial copy, we only copy the object identifier and the reference to its COG. We could also represent all the objects as generalised references and store the object's state in a dedicated place. However the translation of local synchronous calls to the original object would become highly inefficient (compared to the current Java method invocation). This would also make the formalisation more complex.

**Deployment.** Any distributed program needs a deployment specification mechanism in order to place pieces of the program on different machines. PROACTIVE embeds a deployment descriptor that is based on XML configuration files, where the programmer declares physical machines to be mapped to virtual nodes. Such virtual nodes can then be used in the program in order to deploy an active object on them. In our case, as the PROACTIVE program is generated, we have to raise the node specification mechanism at the level of the ABS program. We slightly modified the ABS syntax (and parser) to allow the programmer to specify the name of the node on which a new COG must be deployed. The PROACTIVE backend then links this node name to the deployment descriptor of PROACTIVE. Now, an ABS `new` statement is optionally followed by a string that identifies a node, as follows:

```
Server server = new "mynode" Server();
```

During translation, the PROACTIVE node object corresponding to this node identifier is retrieved, and given as parameter of the `newActive` primitive to deploy the active object on this node. For this specification to work, a simple descriptor file similar to the following one must be created and attached to the ABS program:

```
<GCMDeployment>
  <hosts id="mynode" hostCapacity="1"/>
  <sshGroup hostList="172.16.254.1"/>
</GCMDeployment>
```

In this example, the virtual node `"mynode"` is mapped to the machine with the IP address mentioned in the `hostList` attribute. DNS names can be specified here as well. Many other deployment options can also be defined [6]. If several machines are specified in the `hostList`, then the ProActive backend picks one machine in the list each time a new COG is created, in a round robin manner. If no node is specified in ABS, then the new COG is created on the same machine in a different JVM, enforcing a strict isolation of COGs.

4.1.7. *Wrap up and applicability.* In conclusion, by carefully setting multi-active object annotations, and by adapting to distribution requirements, we are able to execute ABS programs in a distributed setting by using ProActive. This translation is automatically handled by the ProActive backend for ABS. The approach presented here and instantiated in the case of ABS and MultiASP could be generalized and applied to other active object languages, and systematically provide a way to deploy and run most active object languages. The effort to port our result to other active object languages depends on the target language. To get an efficient translation of different active object models into distributed multi-active objects, one needs to answer the questions related to the object model and to the scheduling model of the active object language. Most of all, one must carefully consider the location of objects: "Should objects be grouped to preserve the performance of the application? If yes, how and under which control?". When it comes to distributing active objects over several memory spaces, the only scalable solution that we have seen is to address the objects hierarchically. This strategy is easily applicable to any active object language based on object groups. For example, adapting this work to JCoBox should raise no technical difficulty. The most challenging aspect is that in JCoBox the objects share a globally accessible and immutable memory. In this case, the global memory could be translated into an active object that holds all immutable objects: since they are immutable, communicating them by copy is correct. In the case of uniform active object languages, like Creol, creating one active object per translated object handles straightforwardly the translation but limits scalability. The best approach is to group several objects behind a same active object for performance reasons, like building abstract object groups that resemble ABS and JCoBox. In the case of Encore, objects are already separated into active and passive objects, which makes the translation of the object model easier. Once the distributed organisation of objects has been defined, then preserving the semantics of the source language relies on a precise interleaving of local threads, which is possible thanks to the various threading controls offered by multi-active objects. Simulating policies different from cooperative scheduling is also possible with multi-active objects. For example, the transposition of the ProActive backend to AmbientTalk could seem tricky on the scheduling aspect, due to the existence of callbacks. However, a callback on a future can still be considered as a request that is immediately executed in parallel, but starts by a wait-by-necessity on the adequate future.

4.2. **Experimental Evaluation.** We evaluate the ProActive backend for ABS on several ABS applications and we compare the execution of the ProActive program generated by the ProActive backend to the execution of the program generated by the Java backend for ABS. We first test four example programs given in the ABS tool suite. These examples involve a bank account program that consists of 167 lines of ABS and that creates 3 COGs, a leader election algorithm over a ring (62 lines, 4 COGs), a chat application (324 lines, 5 COGs), and a deadlock example that hangs by circular dependencies between activities (69 lines,

(A) Against existing solution (time in minutes)   (B) Against native code (time in seconds)
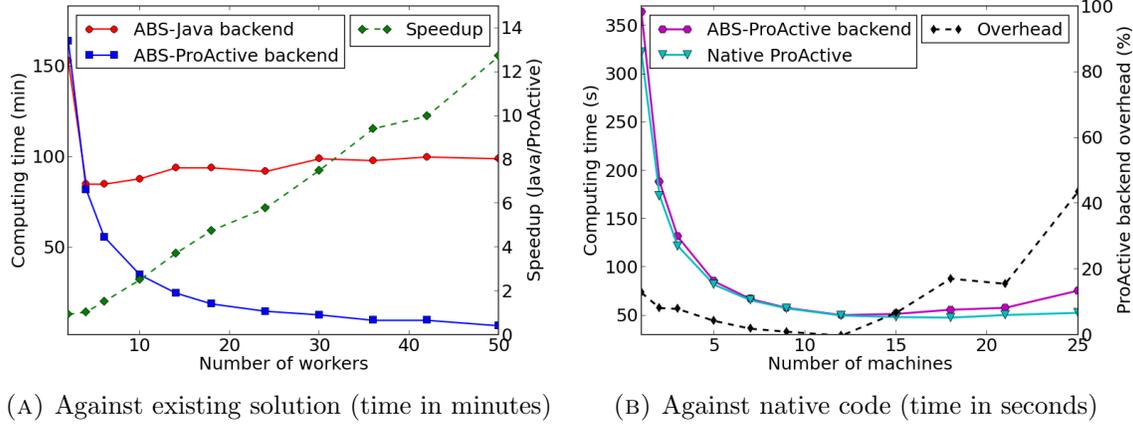
FIGURE 10. Execution time of DNA-matching ABS application

2 COGs). For all examples, we observe that the behaviour of the program translated with the PROACTIVE backend is the same as the one translated with the Java backend. Thus, the scheduling policy enforced in PROACTIVE faithfully respects the one of the reference implementation. These examples run in a few milliseconds, thus they are inadequate for performance analysis of distributed executions.

We focus the rest of the experiments on an application that requires more computational resources: the pattern matching of a DNA sequence in a database. We implement a MapReduce programming approach [18] with one COG per worker. We search a pattern of 250 bytes in a database of 5MB of DNA sequences. We compute the global execution time when varying the number of workers. When executing the program given by the Java backend, we execute it on a single machine; when using the PROACTIVE backend, we deploy two multi-active objects (i.e. two workers) per machine. We use a cluster of the Grid5000 platform [11], where machines have 2 CPUs of 2.6GHz with 2 cores, and 8GB of memory.

Figure 10a shows the execution time of both PROACTIVE and Java translations of the ABS application from 2 to 50 workers. The PROACTIVE backend scales as expected. The execution of the Java program reaches an optimal degree of parallelism for 4 workers (the number of cores of the machine) and then cannot benefit from higher parallelism. With the PROACTIVE backend and 25 machines, the application completes in 19 minutes.

We further evaluate whether the PROACTIVE backend is effective compared to a program that would be directly written in PROACTIVE. Figure 10b compares the execution time of the two implementations of the DNA matching application: the first one is the generated program of the PROACTIVE backend for ABS, and the second one is a hand-written version of the application in PROACTIVE, i.e. executing according to PROACTIVE semantics. Here, the program generated by the PROACTIVE backend has been slightly modified: we have manually replaced the translation of functional ABS types (integers, booleans, lists, and maps) with the corresponding standard Java types. Indeed, the implementation of the functional layer of ABS in Java is not as efficient as primitive Java types. Considering that our point is to evaluate the additional communication cost of the PROACTIVE translation, we do not take into account the implementation of ABS types in Java. The performance is approximately 30 times better depending on the implementation of types. This experiment can be split into two parts: when the number of machines grows up to 12 some speed-up can be noticed in both

implementations, while above 12 machines the time spent in communication becomes too important compared to the computation time, and no significant performance improvement is obtained when adding more machines. While the amount of computation performed by each peer is significant, the overhead introduced by the PROACTIVE backend is rather low compared to a native version of the application, since it is overall under 10%. At a larger scale, the generated version is characterised by additional communications to access intermediate objects and thus the translated application suffers even more from the time wasted in communication; it becomes less efficient.

To conclude, with the PROACTIVE backend, one can run efficiently high-performance distributed application written in ABS and benefit from distribution compared to the Java backend. We conducted experiments with a new backend for Java 8 on the same applications and reached a similar conclusion. This comparison is based on a "high-performance computing" application. An application relying on more thread interleaving, and coordination of interleaving threads would probably be less efficient in the PROACTIVE backend.

4.3. **Formal Study of the Translation.** This section investigates the equivalence between ABS programs and their translation in MULTIASP. We present two theorems stating under which conditions the ABS program and its MULTIASP translation are equivalent. More precisely, we have one theorem for each direction of the simulation. We achieve the proofs of the theorems in terms of weak simulation in the two cases. We formally prove that, except from some reasonable differences between the two languages, the translated program behaves exactly like the original one. The differences are mostly due to the distributed nature of the execution, and to the fact that futures have a different semantics in the two languages. It would have been possible to overcome those differences by providing an encoding that is more artificial and less shallow (adding intermediate objects or threads) but this would have prevented us from drawing conclusions about the similarities and differences between the languages. Figure 11 recalls the runtime syntax of ABS. It defines the structure of ABS runtime configurations. Compared to MULTIASP configurations, the structure of objects and futures are relatively similar except that each object has an entry in the configuration and thus active objects and futures do not have a local store; additionally request queues consist of already instantiated method bodies. A *cog* element is used to denote which object of each COG is the active one.

The semantics of ABS is shown in Figure 12, it uses a function bind and an evaluation function [[ ]] similar to the ones of MULTIASP. It uses two reserved variables in the local stores: *destiny* stores the identifier of the future for which the current computation is performed; *cont* stores the identifier of the future of the request that was interrupted in order to perform a local synchronous method invocation; this request should be recovered upon reaching the `return` statement. The rest of the semantics is quite similar to [24]. The asynchronous invocation enqueues a new request and creates a new futures. Two rules exist for creating an object inside the same *cog*, or inside a newly created one. When reaching an `await` statement that releases the current thread, the interrupted request is re-scheduled: it is inserted at any point in the request queue.[8] This semantics ensures that the order of incoming requests is kept unchanged while the interrupted ones are re-schedule at any point in the future. This encodes the FIFO ordering of service requests discussed below.

---

[8] *Schedule*$(p, \overline{q})$ is a function that inserts $p$ at any position inside $\overline{q}$

$$
\begin{array}{rcl}
cn & ::= & \epsilon \mid fut(f, val) \mid ob(o, a, p, \overline{q}) \mid cog(c, act) \mid cn\ cn \\
p & ::= & q \mid \mathtt{idle} \\
q & ::= & \{l \mid s\} \\
v & ::= & o \mid f \mid \mathtt{null} \mid primitive\text{-}val
\end{array}
\qquad
\begin{array}{rcl}
act & ::= & o \mid \varepsilon \\
val & ::= & v \mid \bot \\
a & ::= & \overline{x \mapsto v}
\end{array}
$$

FIGURE 11. Runtime syntax of ABS.

Compared to the semantics of ABS appearing in [24], the following changes have been made: requests are organised in queues to enforce FIFO ordering of requests (see below); *return* statements terminate the execution of the current method like in mainstream programming languages; continuation is handled as a reserved variable, like *destiny* and not as a special statements, this was necessary because of the new semantics for *return*. Our objective is to establish a correspondence between the configurations of ABS and the ones of the program translated in MultiASP. The proofs of lemmas and theorems presented in this section can be found in [34].

To reason on the equivalence between ABS and MultiASP configurations, we adopt the following conventions on object locations and activity names. We identify activity names of MultiASP with COG names (ranged over by $\alpha$, $\beta$). Also, object locations are valid only locally in MultiASP and globally in ABS, their equivalent global reference is the pair (activity name, identifier). We suppose that each object name in ABS is of the form $i\_\alpha$ where $\alpha$ is the name of the COG where the object is created, and where $i$ is unique locally in activity $\alpha$. The semantics then allows us to choose the MultiASP identifier of the created object such that it is equal to the desired location "$i$".

4.3.1. *Restrictions of the translation.* The proof of correctness of the translation is valid under four specific restrictions. We detail them below.

(1) **Causal ordering of requests** (applies in both directions of the equivalence). MultiASP ensures causal ordering of communications with a rendez-vous that precedes all asynchronous method calls: the request *is dropped* in the remote request queue *synchronously*. This brief synchronisation does not exist in ABS where requests can arrive in any order. The difference between the modes of message transmission being unrelated to our study, we constrain the semantics of ABS so that it uses the same communication timing as MultiASP. Thus in the semantics of Figure 12, the message sending and reception rule of the original ABS is replaced by the RENDEZ-VOUS-COMM rule.

(2) **FIFO service of requests** (applies in both directions of the equivalence). In MultiASP, while thread activation can happen in any order, the order in which requests are served is FIFO by default instead of the non-deterministic activation of a thread featured by ABS semantics. In both the Java backend and the PROACTIVE backend, activation and request service are FIFO, although PROACTIVE supports the definition of different policies through multi-active object annotations [32]. Consequently, we only reason on executions that enforce a FIFO policy, i.e. executions that serve requests and resume them in a FIFO order. The semantics of Figure 12 enforces such a FIFO service of incoming requests, while interleaving the service of interrupted requests in a non-deterministic manner.

(3) **Absence of 'futures of futures'** (applies in the direction from ABS to MultiASP). The semantics of futures is very different in the two languages and must be handled carefully. Firstly, a variable holding a pointer to a future object in MultiASP is equivalent

$$\text{(Skip)} \quad \frac{}{\begin{array}{c} ob(o,a,\{l \mid \texttt{skip};s\},\overline{q}) \\ \xrightarrow{\text{A}} ob(o,a,\{l \mid s\},\overline{q}) \end{array}}$$

$$\text{(Assign-Local)} \quad \frac{x \in \mathrm{dom}(l) \quad v = [\![e]\!]^A_{(a+l)}}{\begin{array}{c} ob(o,a,\{l \mid x = e;s\},\overline{q}) \\ \xrightarrow{\text{A}} ob(o,a,\{l[x \mapsto v] \mid s\},\overline{q}) \end{array}}$$

$$\text{(Assign-Field)} \quad \frac{x \in \mathrm{dom}(a) \smallsetminus \mathrm{dom}(l) \quad v = [\![e]\!]^A_{(a+l)}}{\begin{array}{c} ob(o,a,\{l \mid x = e;s\},\overline{q}) \\ \xrightarrow{\text{A}} ob(o,a[x \mapsto v],\{l \mid s\},\overline{q}) \end{array}}$$

$$\text{(Cond-True)} \quad \frac{\texttt{true} = [\![e]\!]^A_{(a+l)}}{\begin{array}{c} ob(o,a,\{l \mid \texttt{if } e \texttt{ then } \{s_1\} \texttt{ else } \{s_2\};s\},\overline{q}) \\ \xrightarrow{\text{A}} ob(o,a,\{l \mid s_1;s\},\overline{q}) \end{array}}$$

$$\text{(Cond-False)} \quad \frac{\texttt{false} = [\![e]\!]^A_{(a+l)}}{\begin{array}{c} ob(o,a,\{l \mid \texttt{if } e \texttt{ then } \{s_1\} \texttt{ else } \{s_2\};s\},\overline{q}) \\ \xrightarrow{\text{A}} ob(o,a,\{l \mid s_2;s\},\overline{q}) \end{array}}$$

$$\text{(Await-True)} \quad \frac{f = [\![x]\!]^A_{(a+l)} \quad v \neq \bot}{\begin{array}{c} ob(o,a,\{l \mid \texttt{await } x\,?;s\},\overline{q}) \; fut(f,v) \\ \xrightarrow{\text{A}} ob(o,a,\{l \mid s\},\overline{q}) \; fut(f,v) \end{array}}$$

$$\text{(Await-False)} \quad \frac{f = [\![x]\!]^A_{(a+l)} \quad Schedule(\{l \mid \texttt{await } x\,?;s\},\overline{q}) = \overline{q'}}{\begin{array}{c} ob(o,a,\{l \mid \texttt{await } x\,?;s\},\overline{q}) \; fut(f,\bot) \\ \xrightarrow{\text{A}} ob(o,a,\texttt{idle},\overline{q'}) \; fut(f,\bot) \end{array}}$$

$$\text{(Release-Cog)} \quad \frac{}{\begin{array}{c} ob(o,a,\texttt{idle},\overline{q}) \; cog(c,o) \\ \xrightarrow{\text{A}} ob(o,a,\texttt{idle},\overline{q}) \; cog(c,\epsilon) \end{array}}$$

$$\text{(Activate)} \quad \frac{c = a(\text{cog})}{\begin{array}{c} ob(o,a,\texttt{idle},\{l \mid s\} :: \overline{q}) \; cog(c,\epsilon) \\ \xrightarrow{\text{A}} ob(o,a,\{l \mid s\},\overline{q}) \; cog(c,o) \end{array}}$$

$$\text{(Read-Fut)} \quad \frac{f = [\![e]\!]^A_{(a+l)} \quad v \neq \bot}{\begin{array}{c} ob(o,a,\{l \mid x = e.\texttt{get};s\},\overline{q}) \; fut(f,v) \\ \xrightarrow{\text{A}} ob(o,a,\{l \mid x = v;s\},\overline{q}) \; fut(f,v) \end{array}}$$

$$\text{(New-Object)} \quad \frac{\begin{array}{c} o' = \mathrm{fresh}(\texttt{C}) \quad fields(\texttt{C}) = \overline{x} \\ \overline{v} = [\![\overline{e}]\!]^A_{(a+l)} \quad a' = [\overline{x \mapsto v}, \text{cog} \mapsto c] \end{array}}{\begin{array}{c} ob(o,a,\{l \mid x = \texttt{new local } \texttt{C}(\overline{e});s\},\overline{q}) \; cog(c,o) \\ \xrightarrow{\text{A}} ob(o,a,\{l \mid x = o';s\},\overline{q}) \; cog(c,o) \; ob(o',a',\texttt{idle},\varnothing) \end{array}}$$

$$\text{(New-Cog-Object)} \quad \frac{\begin{array}{c} c' = \mathrm{fresh}(\,) \quad o' = \mathrm{fresh}(\texttt{C}) \quad fields(\texttt{C}) = \overline{x} \\ \overline{v} = [\![\overline{e}]\!]^A_{(a+l)} \quad a' = [\overline{x \mapsto v}, \text{cog} \mapsto c'] \end{array}}{\begin{array}{c} ob(o,a,\{l \mid x = \texttt{new } \texttt{C}(\overline{e});s\},\overline{q}) \\ \xrightarrow{\text{A}} ob(o,a,\{l \mid x = o';s\},\overline{q}) \\ ob(o',a',\texttt{idle},\varnothing) \quad cog(c',\epsilon) \end{array}}$$

$$\text{(Rendez-vous-Comm)} \quad \frac{f = \mathrm{fresh}(\,) \quad o' = [\![e]\!]^A_{(a+l)} \quad \overline{v} = [\![\overline{e}]\!]^A_{(a+l)} \quad q'' = \mathrm{bind}(o',f,m,\overline{v},\mathrm{class}(o'))}{\begin{array}{c} ob(o,a,\{l \mid x = e!\texttt{m}(\overline{e});s\},\overline{q}) \; ob(o',a',p,\overline{q'}) \\ \xrightarrow{\text{A}} ob(o,a,\{l \mid x = f;s\},\overline{q}) \; ob(o',a',p,\overline{q'} :: q'') \; fut(f,\bot) \end{array}}$$

$$\text{(Context)} \quad \frac{cn \xrightarrow{\text{A}} cn'}{cn \; cn'' \xrightarrow{\text{A}} cn' \; cn''}$$

$$\text{(Cog-Sync-Call)} \quad \frac{\begin{array}{c} o' = [\![e]\!]^A_{(a+l)} \quad \overline{v} = [\![\overline{e}]\!]^A_{(a+l)} \quad f = \mathrm{fresh}(\,) \\ c = a'(\text{cog}) \quad f' = l(\text{destiny}) \\ \{l' \mid s'\} = \mathrm{bind}(o',f,\texttt{m},\overline{v},class(o')) \end{array}}{\begin{array}{c} ob(o,a,\{l \mid x = e.\texttt{m}(\overline{e});s\},\overline{q}) \; ob(o',a',\texttt{idle},\overline{q'}) \; cog(c,o) \\ \xrightarrow{\text{A}} ob(o,a,\texttt{idle},\overline{q} :: \{l \mid \texttt{await } f?;x = f.\texttt{get};s\}) \; fut(f,\bot) \\ ob(o',a',\{l'[cont \mapsto f'] \mid s'\},\overline{q'}) \; cog(c,o') \end{array}}$$

$$\text{(Cog-Sync-Return-Sched)} \quad \frac{\begin{array}{c} v = [\![e]\!]^A_{(a+l)} \quad c = a'(\text{cog}) \\ f = l'(\text{destiny}) \quad l(\text{cont}) = f \end{array}}{\begin{array}{c} ob(o,a,\{l \mid \texttt{return } e;s\},\overline{q}) \; cog(c,o) \\ ob(o',a',\texttt{idle},\overline{q'} :: \{l' \mid s\} :: \overline{q''}) \; fut(f,\bot) \\ \xrightarrow{\text{A}} ob(o,a,\texttt{idle},\overline{q}) \; cog(c,o') \\ ob(o',a',\{l' \mid s\},\overline{q'} :: \overline{q''}) \; fut(f,v) \end{array}}$$

$$\text{(Self-Sync-Call)} \quad \frac{\begin{array}{c} f' = l(\text{destiny}) \quad o = [\![e]\!]^A_{(a+l)} \quad \overline{v} = [\![\overline{e}]\!]^A_{(a+l)} \\ f = \mathrm{fresh}(\,) \quad \{l' \mid s'\} = \mathrm{bind}(o,f,\texttt{m},\overline{v},class(o)) \end{array}}{\begin{array}{c} ob(o,a,\{l \mid x = e.\texttt{m}(\overline{e});s\},\overline{q}) \\ \xrightarrow{\text{A}} ob(o,a,\{l'[cont \mapsto f'] \mid s'\},\overline{q} :: \{l \mid \texttt{await } f?;x = f.\texttt{get};s\}) \\ fut(f,\bot) \end{array}}$$

$$\text{(Rem-Sync-Call)} \quad \frac{\begin{array}{c} o' = [\![e]\!]^A_{(a+l)} \quad f = \mathrm{fresh}(\,) \quad a(\text{cog}) \neq a'(\text{cog}) \\ q'' = \mathrm{bind}(o',f,m,\overline{v},\texttt{class}(o')) \end{array}}{\begin{array}{c} ob(o,a,\{l \mid x = e.\texttt{m}(\overline{e});s\},\overline{q}) \; ob(o',a',p,\overline{q'}) \\ \xrightarrow{\text{A}} ob(o,a,\{l \mid f = e!\texttt{m}(\overline{e});x = f.\texttt{get};s\},\overline{q}) \\ ob(o',a',p,\overline{q'} :: q'') \; fut(f,\bot) \end{array}}$$

$$\text{(Return)} \quad \frac{v = [\![e]\!]^A_{(a+l)} \quad f = l(\text{destiny}) \quad cont \notin \mathrm{dom}(l)}{\begin{array}{c} ob(o,a,\{l \mid \texttt{return } e;s\},\overline{q}) \; fut(f,\bot) \\ \xrightarrow{\text{A}} ob(o,a,\texttt{idle},\overline{q}) \; fut(f,v) \end{array}}$$

$$\text{(Self-Sync-Return-Sched)} \quad \frac{v = [\![e]\!]^A_{(a+l)} \quad f = l'(\text{destiny}) \quad l(\text{cont}) = f}{\begin{array}{c} ob(o,a,\{l \mid \texttt{return } e;s\},\overline{q} :: \{l' \mid s\} :: \overline{q'}) \; fut(f,\bot) \\ \xrightarrow{\text{A}} ob(o,a,\{l' \mid s\},\overline{q} :: \overline{q'}) \; fut(f,v) \end{array}}$$

Figure 12. Semantics of ABS.

to the same variable holding directly the future reference in ABS (several subsequent references might be followed this way). This is because the MultiASP semantics use additional locations to handle transparent futures. Secondly, the equivalence can follow future references in ABS. This is because future update occurs transparently

in MultiASP while in ABS they only happen upon a `get` operation. Thus in the MultiASP configuration, more future updates might have been performed compared to the ABS configuration. However following (future or location) references is not always sufficient. Indeed, consider the ABS configurations (i) $fut(f, f')\ fut(f', \bot)$ and the configuration (ii) $fut(f, \bot)$; they are observationally different, whereas in MultiASP they are not because any synchronisation on the future $f$ will synchronise on the future $f'$ too. Consequently we restrict ourselves to *programs that do not create futures of futures*, i.e. that cannot create terms of the form $fut(f, f')$ in any reachable configuration. The transparency of futures and of future updates creates an intrinsic an unavoidable difference between the two active object languages. However, this is not a major restriction on expressiveness because it is still possible to have a wrapper for futures values: a future value that is an object containing a future. Such a wrapper could be created by the translation but this would break the one-to-one mapping between ABS and MultiASP futures.

(4) **Forward-based distributed future updates** (applies in the direction from MultiASP to ABS). The distributed future update mechanism of MultiASP cannot be strictly faithfully represented in ABS. The problem arises when futures are transmitted between activities, for example when a future is a parameter of a request sent to another activity. In this case in MultiASP, two proxies for the same future will exist in the store of the two activities, whereas only one centralised future exists in ABS. This situation can create intermediate states in MultiASP where the future value is available but not completely propagated to all the locations where the future has been transmitted. This can create behaviours that are not possible to reach in ABS, because a future update is atomically made available to all activities referencing the future. This difference is only observable when the flow of method invocations races with the flow of future updates. Enforcing an atomic future update in MultiASP would directly solve the issue but this is not realistic in a distributed setting. The solution we advocate for handling the potential inconsistency in future resolution is related to the future update mechanism of ProActive: the value of a future is transmitted between activities along the same chain as the future was transmitted originally. We extend the causally-ordered communications to the transmission of future values (instead of just having causally ordered request sending). This prevents any observable inconsistency in the future updates and simulates faithfully the ABS behaviour. This solution does not require many additional synchronisations; it is reasonable and relevant in a distributed context.

Restrictions (1) and (2) already exist in the Java backend for ABS. And we can notice that these differences are more related to request scheduling policies and to communication channels than to the nature of the two active object languages. Also, restriction (4) is related to distributed systems, and any distributed translation would have to deal with some inconsistency in the observability of a future result. In the end, restriction (3) is the only one that gives a real insight on the differences of the two active object languages, because it is related to way the futures are designed and handled in the languages.

4.3.2. *Equivalence relation.* We define an equivalence relation $\approx$ between MultiASP and ABS terms. This equivalence relation aims at proving that any single step of one calculus can be simulated by a sequence of steps in the other. The notion of observational equivalence is a bit similar to the proof in [16]. In particular, we can use the same observation notion:

(1a) $\forall \alpha.\quad \exists a.\, cog(\alpha, a) \in cn \ \underline{\text{iff}}\ \exists o_\alpha, \sigma, p, Rq.\, act(\alpha, o_\alpha, \sigma, p, Rq) \in \underline{cn}\ \underline{\text{with}}\ \forall i.$

(1b) $\quad \exists \overline{v}, p', \overline{q}.\, ob(i\_\alpha, \overrightarrow{x \mapsto v}, p', \overline{q}) \in cn\ \underline{\text{iff}}\ \exists o, \overline{v'}.\, \sigma(o) = [cog \mapsto \alpha, myId \mapsto i, \overrightarrow{x \mapsto v'}]\ \underline{\text{with}}$

(1c) $\quad \overline{v} \approx_\sigma^{cn} \overline{v'}\ \wedge$

(1d) $\quad \begin{pmatrix} \exists l, s.\, p' = \{l|s\}\ \underline{\text{iff}}\ \exists f, i, \mathtt{m}, \overline{v''}, \ell', s', \ell'', s''.\big((f, execute, i, \mathtt{m}, \overline{v''})_A \mapsto \{\ell'|s'\} :: \{\ell''|s''\} \in p \\ \wedge\ \ell'(\mathtt{this}) = o\big)\ \underline{\text{with}}\ \forall x \in dom(l)\backslash destiny.\, l(x) \approx_\sigma^{cn} \ell'(x) \wedge l(destiny) = f) \wedge s \approx_{\sigma+\ell'}^{cn} s' \end{pmatrix} \wedge$

(1e) $\quad \forall f.\begin{pmatrix} \big(\exists l, s.(\{l|s\} \in \overline{q} \wedge l(destiny) = f)\big)\ \underline{\text{iff}} \\ \exists i, \mathtt{m}, \overline{v''}, \ell', s', \ell'', s''.\Big(\big((f, execute, i, \mathtt{m}, \overline{v''})_P \mapsto \{\ell'|s'\} :: \{\ell''|s''\} \in p \wedge \ell'(\mathtt{this}) = o\big) \\ \vee\ \big((f, execute, i, \mathtt{m}, \overline{v''}) \in Rq \wedge o_\alpha.retrieve(i) = o \wedge \mathrm{bind}(o, \mathtt{m}, \overline{v''}) = \{\ell'|s'\}\big)\Big) \\ \underline{\text{with}}\quad (\forall x \in \mathrm{dom}(l)\backslash\{destiny\}.\, l(x) \approx_\sigma^{cn} \ell'(x)) \wedge s \approx_{\sigma+\ell'}^{cn} s' \end{pmatrix}$

(2) $\forall f.\quad \exists v.\, fut(f, v) \in cn\ \underline{\text{iff}}\ \exists v', \sigma.\,(\textsc{fut}(f, v', \sigma) \in \underline{cn} \wedge \mathrm{Method}(f) = execute)\ \underline{\text{with}}\ v \approx_\sigma^{cn} v'$

(3) $\forall f.\quad fut(f, \bot) \in cn\ \underline{\text{iff}}\ \textsc{fut}(f, \bot) \in \underline{cn} \wedge \mathrm{Method}(f) = execute$

FIGURE 13. Equivalence between ABS and MULTIASP configurations. Method($f$) returns the method of the request corresponding to future $f$. We use the notation: $\exists y.\, P\ \underline{\text{iff}}\ \exists x.\, Q\ \underline{\text{with}}\ R$, meaning: $(\exists y.\, P\ \underline{\text{iff}}\ \exists x.\, Q) \wedge \forall x, y.\, P \wedge Q \Rightarrow R$. This allows $R$ to refer to $x$ and $y$.[9]

processes are observed based on remote method invocations. The equivalence relation $\approx$ consists of three parts: equivalence of values, equivalence of statements, and equivalence of configurations. In the following, we use the notation $cn$ for an ABS configuration and $\underline{cn}$ for a MULTIASP configuration.

**Definition 4.1** (Equivalence of values). $\approx_\sigma^{cn}$ is an equivalence relation between values (or between a value and a storable), in the context of a MULTIASP store $\sigma$ and of an ABS configuration $cn$, such that:

$$v \approx_\sigma^{cn} v \qquad\qquad f \approx_\sigma^{cn} f \qquad\qquad i\_\alpha \approx_\sigma^{cn} [cog \mapsto \alpha, Id \mapsto i, \overrightarrow{x \mapsto v'}]$$

$$\frac{v \approx_\sigma^{cn} \sigma(o)}{v \approx_\sigma^{cn} o} \qquad\qquad\qquad \frac{fut(f, v') \in cn \qquad v' \approx_\sigma^{cn} v}{f \approx_\sigma^{cn} v}$$

Runtime values in ABS are either object references, future references, or primitive values. The equivalence relation $\approx_\sigma^{cn}$ specifies that two values or futures are equivalent if they are the same. An object is only characterised by its identifier and its COG name. The two last cases are more interesting and reflect the difference between the future update mechanisms of ABS and MULTIASP. First, the equivalence can follow as many local indirections in the MULTIASP store as necessary. Second, the equivalence can follow future references in ABS, because a future can be updated transparently in MULTIASP while in ABS the explicit future read has not occurred yet.

**Definition 4.2** (Equivalence of statements).
$s \approx_{(\sigma+\ell')}^{cn} s'\ \underline{\text{iff}}$ either $[\![s]\!] = s'$ or $s = (x = v; s_1)\ \wedge\ s' = (x = e; [\![s_1]\!])\ with\ v \approx_\sigma^{cn} [\![e]\!]_{(\sigma+\ell')}.$

Two MULTIASP and ABS statements are equivalent if one is the translation of the other, or if both start with an assignment of equivalent values to the same variable, followed by an ABS statement on one side and its translation on the MULTIASP side.

Finally, we define an equivalence between ABS and MULTIASP configurations; note that the following definition only deals with MULTIASP configurations that are obtained when evaluating the translation ob an ABS program.

**Definition 4.3** (Equivalent configurations)**.** The ABS configuration $cn$ and the MULTIASP configuration $\underline{cn}$ are equivalent, written $cn \approx \underline{cn}$, iff the three condition of Figure 13 hold.

In more details, the equivalence of Figure 13 globally considers three cases:

– The first five lines deal with equivalence of COGs. This case compares both activity content and activity requests on the ABS and MULTIASP sides:

• To compare objects (Lines `1a`-`1c`), we rely on the fact that activities have the same name in ABS and in MULTIASP. Each ABS object $ob$ must correspond to one MULTIASP object in the equivalent activity $\alpha$. The object equivalent to $ob$ must (i) be in the store, (ii) reference $\alpha$ as its COG, (iii) have $i$ as identifier (the corresponding ABS identifier is $i\_\alpha$), and (iv) have the other fields equivalent to the ones of $ob$.

• To compare the requests, we compare the tasks that exist in ABS $ob$ terms to the tasks that exist in the corresponding MULTIASP $act$ terms. We consider two cases:

(1) Concerning the active task (Line `1d`): the single active task of $ob$ in ABS (in $p'$) must have exactly one equivalent active task in MULTIASP (in $p$). In MULTIASP, this task must have two elements in the current stack[10]: the call to the COG (the *execute* call) and the stacked call that redirected to the targeted object $o$, where $o$ is equivalent to $ob$. In addition, values of local variables must be equivalent, except *destiny* that must correspond to the future of the MULTIASP request. Finally, the current thread of the two tasks must be equivalent according to the equivalence on statement.

(2) Concerning the inactive tasks (Line `1e`), two cases are possible. Either the task has already started and has been interrupted: it is passive and the comparison is similar to the active task case. Or the task has not started yet: there must be a corresponding entry in the request queue $Rq$ of the MULTIASP active object $\alpha$; additionally (i) computed futures must be equivalent, (ii) invoked objects must be equivalent, and (iii) the method body built by *bind* must be equivalent to the ABS task. It is important to notice that the order of the request queue $Rq$ of the MULTIASP object is the same as the part of the ABS queue $\overline{q}$ that corresponds to the second case, i.e. not yet started requests.

– Line `2` deals with the equivalence of resolved futures. A future value in MULTIASP refers to its local store. Two resolved futures are equivalent if their values are equivalent. In MULTIASP, only futures from *execute* method calls are considered, because they represent the applicative method calls.

– Line `3` states that the same futures must be unresolved in both configurations.

Overall, the association of the equivalence of values (Definition 4.1), the equivalence of statements (Definition 4.2), and the equivalence of ABS and MULTIASP configurations (Definition 4.3), forms the global equivalence relation $\approx$. We rely on equivalence $\approx$ to prove that our translation of ABS programs into MULTIASP is correct.

4.3.3. *Preliminary Lemmas.* Before stating the two theorems ensuring the correctness of the translation, we provide some basic properties of ABS and of the equivalence relation.

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[9]By abuse of notation and for readability, we flatten the arguments of the request and write $(f, execute, i, \mathtt{m}, \overline{v''})$ instead of $(f, execute, (i :: \mathtt{m} :: \overline{v''}))$.

[10]The proof only deals with asynchronous invocations, and thus the stack never contains more than two elements. The synchronous invocations are identical to the Java backend and can be studied in this context.

**Lemma 4.1** (Activated object in ABS). *In an* ABS *configuration, if an object ob has a non-idle active request, then there exists a* COG *in which ob is the current active object.*

$$ob(i\_\alpha, \overrightarrow{x \mapsto v}, p, \overline{q}) \in cn \wedge p \neq \mathtt{idle} \Rightarrow cog(\alpha, i\_\alpha) \in cn$$

**Lemma 4.2** (Equivalence of values). $\qquad v \approx^{cn}_\sigma v' \Rightarrow v \approx^{cn}_\sigma [\![v']\!]$

**Lemma 4.3** (Equivalence of evaluation functions). *Let cn be an* ABS *configuration and suppose* $cn \approx \underline{cn}$. *Let* $ob(o\_\alpha, a, \{l|s\}, \overline{q}) \in cn$. *By definition of* $\approx$, *there exists a single activity* $\mathrm{ACT}(\alpha, o, \sigma, p, Rq) \in \underline{cn}$, *with* $\sigma(o) = [cog \mapsto \alpha, myId \mapsto i, a']$ *and* $(f, execute, i, \mathtt{m}, \overline{v''})_A \mapsto \{\ell'|s'\} :: \{\ell''|s''\} \in p \wedge \ell'(\mathtt{this}) = o$. *For any* ABS *expression e we have:* $[\![e]\!]^A_{a+l} \approx^{cn}_\sigma [\![e]\!]_{\sigma+\ell'}$

The serialisation mechanism, and the renaming of local references, are crucial points of difference between ABS and MULTIASP. Lemma 4.4 deals with these aspects.

**Lemma 4.4** (Equivalence after serialisation and renaming).

$$v \approx^{cn}_\sigma v' \wedge \sigma' = serialise(\sigma, v') \Rightarrow v \approx^{cn}_{\sigma'} v'$$
$$\overline{v} \approx^{cn}_\sigma \overline{v'} \wedge (\overline{v''}, \sigma') = rename_\sigma(\overline{v'}, \sigma) \Rightarrow \overline{v} \approx^{cn}_{\sigma'} \overline{v''}$$

Besides the lemmas above, to reason on the properties of the translation, we rely on the fact that all ABS objects are locally registered, in MULTIASP, in the active object encoding their COG, and we define an invariant for that:

**Invariant Reg.** *For every activity* $\alpha$ *such that* $o_\alpha$ *is the location of the active object of activity* $\alpha$ *in its store* $\sigma_\alpha$, *if the current task is an invocation to* $o_\alpha.retrieve(i)$, *then this invocation succeeds because the object has been registered first. The invocation returns some object* $o'$ *such that* $i\_\alpha \approx^{cn}_\sigma o'$.

4.3.4. *Properties of the translation.* To prove the correctness of the translation from ABS to MULTIASP, we prove two theorems. The two theorems exactly specify under which conditions each semantics simulates the other. We first define formally the initial configuration. Let $P = \overline{IC} \{\overline{x}\ s\}$ be an ABS program, let $cn_0$ be the corresponding initial ABS configuration: $ob(start, \varnothing, p, \varnothing)$, where the process $p$ is the activation of the program main block: $p = \{\overrightarrow{x \mapsto \mathtt{null}}|s\}$. $[\![P]\!]$ is the MULTIASP program obtained by translation. Its initial MULTIASP configuration is: $\mathrm{ACT}(\alpha_0, o, \sigma_0[o \mapsto \varnothing], q_0 \mapsto \{\overrightarrow{x \mapsto \mathtt{null}}|[\![s]\!]\}, \varnothing)$. It is easy to see that this initial configuration has the same behaviour as

$\mathrm{ACT}(\alpha_0, o, \sigma_0[o \mapsto \varnothing, start \mapsto \varnothing], (f, execute, start, \mathtt{m}) \mapsto \{\overrightarrow{x \mapsto \mathtt{null}}|[\![s]\!]\} :: \{\varnothing|x = \bullet\}, \varnothing)$.

We denote this new MULTIASP initial configuration $\underline{cn_0}$ and notice that $cn_0 \approx \underline{cn_0}$.

**Theorem 4.5** (ABS to MULTIASP). *The translation simulates all* ABS *executions with FIFO policy and rendez-vous communications, provided that no future value is a reference to another future.*

$$cn_0 \overset{A}{\to}{}^* cn \wedge \nexists f, f'. fut(f, f') \in cn \Rightarrow \exists \underline{cn}. \underline{cn_0} \to^* \underline{cn} \wedge cn \approx \underline{cn}$$

**Theorem 4.6** (MULTIASP to ABS). *Any reduction of the* MULTIASP *translation corresponds to a valid* ABS *execution.*

$$\underline{cn_0} \to^* \underline{cn} \Rightarrow \exists cn. cn_0 \overset{A}{\to}{}^* cn \wedge cn \approx \underline{cn}$$

| ABS rule | MultiASP rule | Additional MultiASP rules |
|----------|---------------|---------------------------|
| Assign-Local | Assign-Local | – |
| Assign-Field | Assign-Field | – |
| Await-True | – | Update / – , Invk-Passive, Return-Local, Assign-Local-Tmp |
| Await-False | Invk-Future | – |
| Release-Cog | – | – |
| Activate | – | Activate-Thread / (Serve, Invk-Passive, Return-Local, Assign-Local-Tmp) |
| Read-Fut | – | Set-Hard-Limit, Update / – , Invk-Passive, Return-Local, Set-Soft-Limit, Assign-Local-Tmp |
| New-Object | New-Object | Invk-Passive, Assign-Local-Tmp Return-Local |
| New-Cog-Object | New-Object | New-Active,Assign-Local-Tmp, Invk-Active-Meta, Return |
| Rendez-vous-Comm | Invk-Active | Invk-Passive, Return-Passive, Assign-Local-Tmp |
| Return | Return | Return-Local, Assign-Local-Tmp |

Table 1. Summary of the simulation of ABS in MultiASP. Assign-Local-Tmp is Assign-Local on a variable introduced by the translation. Invk-Active-Meta is Invk-Active on a method that is not *execute*.

The proof of the first theorem can be found in [34], this proof is a classical case analysis on the ABS reduction rule used for evaluating the current configuration (we do an induction on the reduction). Table 1 summarises the most informative part of the proof of Theorem 4.5. It shows which MultiASP rule (second column) is used to simulate which ABS rule (first column. The third column shows additional non-observable steps that are introduced in the MultiASP translation. These additional steps are needed to reach an equivalent configuration but they are always local and they never introduce concurrency. They typically deal with object registration, access to intermediate objects, or scheduling inside the *cog* object. As expected, the proof case for the Read-Fut rule uses the fact that "futures of futures" are forbidden. Lemmas 4.3 and 4.4 are used frequently to ensure the equivalence of the configurations, and in particular the equivalence between a direct object reference of ABS and the local MultiASP object representing an object registered in another *cog*.

A detailed proof sketch for Theorem 4.6 can also be found in [34]. In this proof the equivalence relation $\approx$ has to be adapted because of the existence of additional (deterministic) statements in the translation. Table 2 summarises this second proof by showing which ABS rule is used to simulate which MultiASP rule. Again, in some cases, a few (non-observed) additional ABS rules are applied to reach an equivalent configuration.

4.4. **Discussion on the Translation and its Properties.** In the translation, ABS requests, cogs, and futures respectively match MultiASP requests, active objects, and futures. For each ABS object there exist several copies of this object in MultiASP; all copies share the same value for the field cog and identifier, but only the copy that is hosted

| MultiASP rule | ABS rule | Additional ABS rules |
|---|---|---|
| Assign-Local | Assign-Local | – |
| Assign-Field | Assign-Field | – |
| Invk-Future | Await-False | Release-Cog |
| Invk-Passive | – | –/Read-Fut/Await-True |
| Activate-Thread | Activate | – |
| Serve | Activate | – |
| Invk-Active | Rendez-vous-Comm | – |
| New-Object in an activity with no ABS object | New-Cog-Object | – |
| New-Object in a non-empty activity | New-Object | – |
| Return | Return | – |
| Others | – | – |

Table 2. Summary table of the simulation of MultiASP in ABS.

in the right cog/activity is equivalent to the ABS object. This forms a shallow translation: applicative requests, futures, active objects, and object fields are mapped faithfully by the same notion in MultiASP as in ABS. The main difference is that all requests transit by the cog active object that acts as a local scheduler; "execute" requests have no counterpart in ABS. In the equivalence relation, the objects are identified by their identifier and their cog name, and the equivalence can follow futures. The equivalence between requests distinguishes two cases. First, for active tasks, there is a single active task per cog in ABS and it must correspond to the single active thread serving an *execute* request in MultiASP. Second, inactive tasks in ABS correspond either to passive requests being currently interrupted or to requests that have not been served yet in MultiASP. For each request that has started its execution, the second element in the stack of method calls corresponds to the invoked request, and the equivalence of executed statements, of local variables, and of the corresponding future is verified.

In both directions, we prove a weak simulation relation with additional non-observable steps dealing with the intermediate structures created by the translation. Additional steps also ensure equivalence concerning future updates. However, our results are stronger than the standard guarantees given by a weak simulation because the added steps do not introduce concurrency, the silent actions are always confluent. Overall, most of the properties provided by ABS tools like absence of deadlock or resource consumption are guaranteed to be preserved by our translation. The most striking example of an observable reduction in ABS that is not observable in MultiASP is the update of a future with its computed value. Indeed, the transparent creation and update of futures creates an intrinsic difference between the two programming languages. This is why, in the first theorem, we exclude the possibility for a future value to be itself a future. Also, concerning assignments, only the ones concerning ABS local variables can be observed in MultiASP, assignments of temporary variables introduced by the translation have no counterpart in ABS. Concerning asynchronous method invocations, only the applicative ABS requests are observable.

Identifying the differences of observability between active object languages gives a significant insight on their design and differences. We could observe the crucial differences between the language because we chose a faithful translation that matches most of the

elements of ABS and MultiASP configurations in a one-to-one way. The divergent notions of the two languages can be spotted easily thanks to our shallow translation.

4.5. **Related Works and Discussion on the Execution of Active Object Programs.** Using a backend allows to decouple the language for specifying and verifying the program from the execution language, and makes it possible to explore easily new programming paradigms. Such a design enables writing programs and proving properties on a high-level language, and relying on massively used platforms for implementation.

A closely related ongoing work [43] aims at implementing the ABS semantics with the paradigms of Java 8, using a lightweight thread continuation mechanism (representative of cooperative scheduling). This work makes a particular focus on efficiency, as opposed to the seminal Java backend for ABS. Preliminary results showed that the Java 8 backend for ABS scales much better than the existing Java backendconcerning the number of threads co-allocated on the same machine. However, to the best of our knowledge, this backend is still under development and does not support distributed execution.

In parallel with this work, ABS has been extended with *deployment components* [8] which are specific objects representing the locations where new COGs must be deployed. Deployment components are specific objects of the ABS language. They are used to reason on the deployment of the application: they represent an abstraction of the deployment location and enable the reasoning on the distributed nature of the application. Instead we use *virtual nodes* expressing deployment in the ABS syntax similarly to the ProActive approach. Those two contrary design decisions reveal the difference of nature between the two languages concerning deployment. The distribution system of ABS is meant to reason on object distribution. On the contrary, ProActive virtual nodes are meant to be used in conjunction with external deployment tools. ProActive virtual nodes are binders to entries in a deployment descriptor file. The expressiveness in terms of distribution of ProActive is closer to languages like Akka where deployment locations are strings. Deployment components can be manipulated and stored like any other object in ABS and cannot be translated simply into ProActive virtual nodes that are only strings pointing to a specific entry in a deployment file. It would be possible to use some specific MultiASP active objects to represent deployment components, but the relation with the normal *cog* objects would need to be specified both in practice, involving more development, and from a theoretical point of view, a new equivalence relation would be needed.

The Haskell backend [8] for ABS, also focuses on a distributed execution of ABS programs. As opposed to Java-based backends, lightweight thread continuations are natively available in Haskell, which makes the Haskell backend for ABS very efficient even with a high degree of local parallelism: much more COGs can be hosted on the same machine than with programs generated by the ProActive backend. In this work, the ABS compiler is extended to integrate the notion of deployment components within the ABS language. The Haskell backend for ABS also has support for garbage collection of distributed objects, built on top of the Haskell garbage collector. In ProActive, activation of distributed garbage collection is optional, but it is less crucial since all passive objects are garbage collected by the JVM. Nevertheless, to the best of our knowledge, the ProActive backend is the only backend that generates a distributed and executable code formally proven to be correct with respect to the ABS semantics.

Our backend suffers from several performance limitations inherent to the approach and to the conceptual differences between the languages. First, in some cases, many threads

might be blocked in a wait-by-necessity state and this could be improved in several ways. Currently, the PROACTIVE library reuses a blocked thread to serve a new request if it is sure that the re-used thread cannot be re-activated while the new request is served: a request re-uses a blocked thread if this request will resolve the future on which the thread is blocked. In other cases, the nature of Java (non-preemptive with heavy threads) prevents us from doing further optimisations without relying on a heavier compilation phase, e.g. using continuations, and without breaking the direct correspondence between the two languages, and the simplicity of the object language translation. Another approach could consist in creating more active objects, i.e. one per ABS object, but, as discussed in the introduction of this section, this would make the synchronisation between the different objects tricky. Finally, the `await` statement on a boolean expression relies on a busy-wait polling which can be highly inefficient, a wait-notify translation could be more efficient provided the monitoring of field mutation is done efficiently [4]. Wait-notify is already used to implement wait-by-necessity in PROACTIVE, it is thus used by `await` operations on futures. We however do not use wait-notify for the computation of boolean expressions because this would require to explicitly do a wait (upon evaluation of the expression) and a notify (upon modification of the related variables). Wait and notify are not ASP primitives and do not follow the active-object paradigm, we cannot use them in the current approach.

These limitations illustrate the different approaches of the two languages: PROACTIVE library was designed to compose distributed applications made of heavy threads with relatively few synchronisation points. ABS was designed to model parallel applications with many synchronisations and no problem of distribution. PROACTIVE shines for implementing distributed applications typical of high-performance computing: intensive computations that feature complex synchronisations but not many threads and synchronisation points per machine. Consequently our backend is very efficient for applications that do not do many cooperative thread-release or many conditional awaits. Indeed, we showed that such HPC applications can be run efficiently with the PROACTIVE backend.

## 5. Conclusion

This paper presents a framework for multi-active objects, featuring programmer-friendly concurrent programming, advanced request scheduling mechanisms, and development support. We give the guidelines of the programming model usage through practical applications. The implementation of multi-active objects given by PROACTIVE offers a set of annotations that allow the programmer to control the multi-threaded execution of active objects. The formalisation of the PROACTIVE library in the MULTIASP programming language provides an operational semantics to reason on multi-active object executions. Priorities and thread management, combined with multi-active object compatibilities, reveal to be convenient to encode scheduling patterns. This article presents the PROACTIVE backend for ABS. This backend automatically transforms ABS models into distributed applications. We formalise the translation and prove its correctness. We establish an equivalence relation between ABS and MULTIASP configurations, and we prove two theorems that corroborate the correctness of the translation, illustrating the conceptual differences between the two languages.

Overall, we attach a particular interest to three objectives: usability, correctness, and performance of our framework. We address the complete spectrum of the multi-active object programming model, from design to execution. Testing our developments in realistic settings assesses the efficiency of our implementation. On the other hand, our work is formalised and

we highlight the properties of our model. Thus, we believe that we reinforce the guarantees offered by the multi-active object programming model, on which the programmer can rely.

In the future, we want to investigate the verification of compatibility annotations, but also the dynamic tuning of thread management aspects where the thread scheduler could adjust at runtime the number of threads allocated depending on the status of the machine and of the active object.

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