Behavioural types for non-uniform memory accesses*

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Abstract

Concurrent programs executing on NUMA architectures consist of concurrent entities (e.g. threads, actors) and data placed on different nodes. Execution of these concurrent entities often reads or updates state from remote nodes. The performance of such systems depends on the extent to which the concurrent entities can be executing in parallel, and on the amount of the remote reads and writes.

We consider an actor-based object oriented language, and propose a type system which expresses the topology of the program (the placement of the actors and data on the nodes), and an effect system which characterises remote reads and writes (in terms of which node reads/writes from which other nodes). We use a variant of ownership types for the topology, and a combination of behavioural and ownership types for the effect system.

1 Introduction

A prevalent paradigm in high performance machines is NUMA (non uniform memory access) systems, e.g. the AMD Bulldozer server[1]. NUMA systems have many nodes which contain processors and memory; Figure 1 shows the common NUMA structure. The nodes are connected with the other nodes through a system bus that allows processes running on a specific node to access the memory of the other nodes.

Memory access is either local, i.e. accessing memory in the local node, or remote, i.e. accessing memory of remote nodes. Remote accesses require requests to the system bus, and are thus more expensive than local accesses. Moreover, different remote accesses do not necessarily have the same cost (the time to obtain/write data in memory). Therefore, to characterize the communication (read/write) costs of a concurrent program, we need to know its topology (the placement of the actors and data on the nodes), and a characterisation of the reads and writes across nodes.

In this work we consider a concurrent language based on actors (or active objects) and objects [3], which we call $L_a$, a language where, for the sake of simplicity, mutually recursive (synchronous and asynchronous) method invocations are not allowed and all the active objects must be created in the main class.

We develop a variant of ownership types [4] to express the location of actors and of data. In particular, we propose two levels of abstraction: classes have ownership (location) parameters, the main program defines the abstract locations and creates objects in these abstract locations; finally, at runtime the abstract locations are mapped to nodes (cf. Appendix C). We also propose a combination of behavioural and ownership types to characterize the interactions (reads, writes and messages sent) among objects located in different nodes.

Ownership types [3] were first introduced to statically describe the heap topology. Here we introduce ownership-like annotations to describe the system topology, that is, its nodes and

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where threads are running and data is allocated. Behavioural types \[ \mathcal{L} \] are usually used to describe and statically, or dynamically, verify patterns of interaction between processes/threads/participants of concurrent and parallel computations. Here we present a type system that allows the programmer to specify the interactions among objects located in different nodes, and therefore we abstract the communication made through the system bus.

Outline. This paper is organised as follows: Section 2 introduces the syntax of \[ \mathcal{L} \], Section 3 gives the operational semantics, Section 4 presents the type rules, and Section 5 shows properties of \[ \mathcal{L} \], and finally Section 6 concludes. Several definitions are given in the appendix.

2 Syntax

Figure 2 presents the syntax of \[ \mathcal{L} \]. A program consists of a set of class declarations representing actors, passive objects and the main object. The use of the keyword active in a class declaration indicates that the class represents actors. Passive objects are similar to ordinary Java objects while actors have all the properties of passive objects, but in addition also have their own execution thread and may send messages to other actors. As in actor-based languages, messages are stored in private queues. A more detailed definition can be found in [3].

![Figure 2: Syntax of classes and (behavioural) types. The boxed constructs are not user syntax.](image)

Each class, active or passive, is annotated with a set of location parameters \( p_1, \ldots, p_n \) where \( p_1 \) represents the place where the instance of the class is allocated and \( p_2, \ldots, p_n \) locations that can be used in the types of the rest of the class. The location parameters of the main class, \( L_1, \ldots, L_n \), are abstractions of the concrete nodes, and at runtime will be mapped to concrete node identifiers.

A class declaration might have field and method declarations. A field declaration consists of a field identifier and its type; a method declaration consists of a method identifier, one parameter (variable and type), return type, behavioural type and an expression (method body). \[ \mathcal{L} \] has the types bool, nil, and an ownership type \( C(l_1, \ldots, l_n) \) which represents objects located in \( l_1 \) that may contain references to objects in locations \( l_2, \ldots, l_n \). The syntax of expressions is similar to other OO programming languages; note only the asynchronous method call (message sending), \( e:\text{m}(e) \).

The most interesting part of the syntax is our treatment of behavioural types. We have basic operations, \( \pi \), which are reading from a remote node (\( \text{rd}(l, l) \)), writing to a remote node (\( \text{wrt}(l, l) \)), and message sending (\( \text{msg}(l, l, m) \))—this has to be reflected in the behaviour, as it adds messages to queues in remote memory. For all of them the first location is where the expression is running and the second is the location where a read/write is made or a message sent. We also have types to describe conditional expressions, \( \{ b \text{ or } b \} \), (the two branches in
the expression imply two branches in the type), and for-loops, Loop(n: b). A behavioural type, b, may be empty, ε, meaning that there is no "communication" across different nodes, the sequence of operations, bop.b, and two types in parallel, [b, b], introduced by message sendings.

3 Semantics

We now describe the dynamic semantics of $L_0$. Nodes, $N$, defined in Figure 3 aim to reflect NUMA nodes. Namely, a node in our formalism has an identifier, a heap with all the data allocated in it, and several execution threads Ethread. An execution thread belongs to an actor, and has a stack and an expression being executed. A heap is a mapping from addresses to (passive and active) objects. An object consists of a class identifier $C$ (declared by the programmer in the main class) to NUMA node identifiers.

$$N \in \text{Node} = \text{NodeId} \times \text{Heap} \times \text{EThread}$$

$$T \in \text{EThread} = \text{Stack} \times \text{Expr}$$

$$\alpha \in \text{Object} = \text{ClassId} \times \text{NodeId} \times \text{FieldId}$$

$$\kappa \in \text{NodeId} = \mathbb{N}$$

Expression execution may result in accessing remote memory; therefore we divide the operational semantics rules as follows:

1. Expressions that do not access memory or send messages. These are defined in Figure 3 and are further divided in:
   (a) The access happens locally—only one node required.
   (b) The access happens remotely—two different nodes required.

Figure 4 shows the semantic rules for the point 2. The rules on the left belong to 2(a); they take a node identifier, its heap, a stack and an expression, and reduce to a new heap, a new stack and a new expression. They have the form $\kappa, h, \sigma, e \xrightarrow{\pi} h', \sigma', e'$. The rules on the right belong to 2(b); they take two node identifiers, their heaps, a stack and an expression, and reduce to two new heaps, a new stack and a new expression. They have the form $\kappa_1, h_2, \sigma, e \parallel \kappa_2, h_2 \xrightarrow{\pi} h_1', \sigma', e' \parallel h_2'$. In both cases they reduce through an operation described by $\pi$—the remote operation made or empty, $\varepsilon$ (in the case of the absence of a remote operation). For instance, message sending in rule $\text{SMsgL}$ adds a message to the queue of an actor in the same node as this, while $\text{SMsgR}$ adds the message to the queue of an object in a different node. In the first case $\pi$ is empty and in the second case it is $\text{msg}(\kappa_1, \kappa_2, m)$. In both cases, the stack remains unchanged and the returned expression is null; namely execution is asynchronous. All the other rules, except the context rules, on the left show, as expected, reads and writes to the local heap and on the right present reads and writes to a remote heap.
The rule \texttt{[T-For]} of the predicate concatenated with a choice type which describes the behaviour of both branches. The resulting behaviour of the rule \texttt{[T-Var/Addr]} describes the behaviour of \(e\) and \(b\) not represent any communication. The type \(\texttt{[T-NewO]}\) of typing contexts \(\Gamma\). A typing context is a mapping from variables and addresses to types:

\[
\pi = \text{msg}(\kappa_1, \kappa_2, m) \quad \kappa_1, h_1, \sigma, (\kappa_2, n)!m(v) \parallel h_2, \sigma, \text{null} \parallel h'_2
\]

\[
\pi = \text{rd}(\kappa_1, \kappa_2) \quad v = h_2((\kappa_2, n))(f)
\]

\[
\pi = \text{write}(\kappa_1, \kappa_2) \quad h'_2 = h_2((\kappa_2, n), f \mapsto v)
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Figure 4: Set of semantic rules described in 2. The left rules show the reduction of expressions that execute locally (a) and the right rules, expressions that interact with remote objects (b).

## 4 Type Checking

Figure 5 shows the typing rules of \(\mathcal{L}_a\). They have the form \(\Gamma \vdash e : T, b\) where \(\Gamma\) is a sequence of typing contexts \(\Gamma\). A typing context is a mapping from variables and addresses to types:

\[
\Gamma \in \text{TypingContext} = (\text{var} \cup \text{Addr}) \rightarrow \text{Type}
\]

The result of each rule is the type \(T\) of the expression \(e\) and the effect \(b\) (the behavioural type) that describes the behaviour of \(e\), that is, the memory accesses and messages sent to remote locations. The type \(T\) associated to an expression is found in a standard way: similar can be found in \([2]\), therefore we focus only in the behaviour produced. The rules for variables and values, \texttt{[T-Var/Addr]}, \texttt{[T-True/False]}, \texttt{[T-Skip/Null]} result in empty effects, \(\epsilon\), because they do not represent any communication. The resulting behaviour of the rule \texttt{[T-Cond]} is the behaviour of the predicate concatenated with a choice type which describes the behaviour of both branches. The rule \texttt{[T-For]} returns a loop type \texttt{Loop}(\(n: b\)), where \(n\) is the number of iterations of the loop and \(b\) is the behavioural type of its body. Typing a \texttt{let} expression results in the concatenation of the behaviour of both expressions. The behaviour of the creation of an object, with \texttt{[T-NewO]}, is a \texttt{write} behaviour, from the location of the \texttt{this} to the location of the new object, as new data is written to memory. The field write is also represented by the \texttt{write} behaviour, given that it changes data already in memory. The behaviour of the expression \(e.f = e'\) returns the concatenation of the behaviour of \(e\), the behaviour of \(e'\) and the \texttt{write} from the location of the \texttt{this} to the location of the object changed. Following the same idea, the field read, \(e,f\), is represented by the \texttt{read} behaviour and therefore its behaviour is the concatenation of the behaviour of \(e\) with a \texttt{read} type from the location of the \texttt{this} and to the location of the object read. The typing rule, \texttt{[T-Call]}, describes synchronous method invocation which is only allowed if the receiver is in the same location as the \texttt{this} object. Its behaviour is the behaviour of the receiver concatenated with the behaviour of the expression passed as argument and the behavioural type annotated in
Theorem 1. If $\Sigma \circlearrowright \Sigma \land \Sigma \overset{\delta}{\rightarrow} \Sigma$ then $\exists \Sigma' : \Sigma' \circlearrowright \Sigma \land \Sigma \subseteq_{\pi} \Sigma'$

Theorem 1 is a corollary of Lemmas 1 and 2.

Lemma 1. If $\sigma, e, e' \overset{\sigma}{\rightarrow} h', \sigma', e' \land h, \sigma \vdash e \triangleright T, b \land \neg (\sigma |_{\Sigma_2} = \emptyset \land e = \text{null})$ then $\exists b' : h', \sigma' \vdash e' \triangleright T, b'$

5 The global behaviour

We define a global behaviour, $\Sigma$, as a sequence of behavioural types $\Sigma \in \mathcal{B}$.

The behaviour of a node, $\mathcal{N}$, describes the remote reads, writes and message sends to be executed by that node; it is obtained from the behaviour of the execution threads and message queues of all actors in that node (cf. $\mathcal{N} \triangleright \mathcal{N}$ from Def. 4 in App. B).

The global behaviour of a runtime configuration, $\overline{\mathcal{N}}$, describes the remote reads, writes and message sends to be executed by all nodes; it is the parallel combination of the behaviours of each the nodes $\mathcal{N}_i$ (cf. $\overline{\mathcal{N}} \triangleright \Sigma$ from Def. 4 in App. B). This context gives a global behaviour, the reads, writes and sends among different nodes. We implicitly assume a well-formed program and we state soundness of our typing:

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Lemma 2. If $\kappa_1, h_1, \sigma, e \parallel \kappa_2, h_2 \xrightarrow{\pi} h'_1, \sigma', e' \parallel h'_2 \land h_1 \cup h_2, \sigma \vdash T$, then $\exists b' : h'_1 \cup h'_2, \sigma' \vdash e' \triangleright T, b' \land b \sqsubseteq \pi b'$

6 Final Remarks

Related Work. As far as we know there is no integration of behavioural types in the active/passive object paradigm, however there are already a few programming languages that use session (behavioural) types in actor-based languages, namely: the integration of session types in a Featherweight Erlang introduced by Mostrous and Vasconcelos [7]; an implementation of multiparty session types in an actor library written in Python presented by Neykova and Yoshida [8]; and the behavioural type system for an actor calculus, proposed by Crafa [5]. To the best of our knowledge there is no formalism that combines behavioural types with ownership types to describe memory accesses; the closest work that we know uses session types in a compilation framework for distributed memory chip-level multiprocessing systems and was presented by Yoshida et al. [10].

Conclusion. This paper presents the formalisation of a small object-oriented programming language that amalgamates behavioural types with ownership types in order to describe remote memory accesses in NUMA systems. Ownership types play a role in the representation of the topology and behavioural types in the definition of reads, writes and messages sent to remote locations. This sequence of memory access operations are annotated in the method declarations as the ownership/location parameters are annotated in class declarations. This formalisation is just the first step towards a programming language that optimises performance by moving objects to nodes where they have a cheaper cost (the cost of interacting with other objects and of doing remote accesses).

References

A Identifier Conventions and Semantics

Identifier conventions.

\[ n \in \mathbb{N} \quad C \in \text{ClassId} \quad m \in \text{MethId} \quad f \in \text{FieldId} \quad L \in \text{LocId} \quad p \in \text{OwnershipId} \quad x, i \in \text{varId} \]

Semantic rules for expressions that do not perform remote operations.

![Semantic rules for expressions that do not perform remote operations.](image)

Figure 6: Semantic rules for expressions that do not perform remote operations. Null-pointer exceptions included.

**Global rules.** In the same way that an expression may or may not access to the heap of a different location from where it is running the global semantics need to express if there is an access to a different node or not. Therefore we have two global rules: [GsExec1] that shows the reduction of the configuration considering one node and [GsExec2] which describes the reduction considering two different nodes.

![Global semantics](image)

Figure 7: Global semantics
B Auxiliary definitions, shorthands and lookup functions

Definition 1 (Well-formed program and class).

\[ ∇ P ≜ ∀[\text{active}] \class C(\ldots) \in P : P ⊢ C \quad P ⊢ C ≜ \begin{cases} \mathcal{O}(C) = \{p_1, \ldots, p_n\} & ∨ \forall m : \mathcal{M}(C, m) = (T, x : T', e, b) \quad ⟨\text{this} \mapsto C(p_1, \ldots, p_n), x \mapsto T'⟩ \vdash e \triangleright T, b' \\ \implies b = f(b') \end{cases} \]

Given that the effects returned during type checking do not exclude reads and writes happening in the same node, we apply a function \( \text{filter}(b) \) in order to exclude such annotations. The function is defined as follows:

\[
\text{filter}(e) = \varepsilon 
\text{filter}([b_1, b_2]) = [\text{filter}(b_1), \text{filter}(b_2)] 
\forall \alpha \in \text{dom}(h) : α \downarrow 1 = \kappa \wedge (h(α) \downarrow 2 = \kappa, \downarrow h) 
\land \quad \forall i \in \{1..n\} : \text{heaps}(h) \vdash σ_i \land \exists T_i, b_i : h, σ_i \vdash e_i \triangleright T_i, b_i 
\text{filter}( Loop(n : b). b') = (\text{if} \text{filter}(b) = \varepsilon \text{then} \varepsilon \text{else} \text{Loop}(n : \text{filter}(b))). \text{filter}(b')
\]

Note that if the expressions nested in for-loops or conditional expressions have behaviour \( \varepsilon \), then the the loop or choice types are not annotated.

Definition 2 (Well-formed (1) configuration, (2) node, (3) heap, (4) stack and (5) stack frame).

\[ (1) ∃ h : N \iff \forall i : N_i \downarrow i \iff i = j \land \forall N'' : N'' \vdash N'' \\
(2) N \vdash h, (⟨(σ_1, e_1), \ldots, (σ_n, e_n)⟩) \iff (∀α ∈ \text{dom}(h) : α \downarrow 1 = \kappa \wedge h(α) \downarrow 2 = \kappa, \downarrow h) 
\land \quad \forall i ∈ \{1..n\} : \text{heaps}(h) \vdash σ_i \land \exists T_i, b_i : h, σ_i \vdash e_i \triangleright T_i, b_i 
(3) N \vdash h \iff \forall α \in \text{dom}(h) : \text{heaps}(h) \vdash α : \text{owners}(h, α) 
(4) h \vdash α : \phi_1, \ldots, \phi_n \iff (∀i ∈ \{1..n\} : h \vdash \phi_i) 
(5) h \vdash (this \mapsto α, x_1 \mapsto v_1, \ldots, x_n \mapsto v_n) \iff \{α, v_1 \ldots v_n\} \subseteq \{\text{true, false, null}\} \cup \text{dom}(h) \]

Definition 3 (Value agreement).

\[
\begin{array}{c|c}
\text{[WFTrue]} & \text{[WFFalse]} & \text{[WFNull]} & \text{[WFObj]} \\
\hline
h \vdash \text{true} : \text{bool} & h \vdash \text{false} : \text{bool} & T = \text{nil} \lor \text{isValid}(T) & h \vdash \text{null} : T \\
\hline
h \vdash \alpha : C(\mathcal{F}) & \forall i ∈ I : h \vdash v_i : \mathcal{F}(C, f_i)[\mathcal{F}] & h, α \vdash (this \mapsto α, x \mapsto v_i) \vdash v_i \triangleright \mathcal{M}(C, m_i)[\mathcal{F}], b & h \vdash α : C(\mathcal{F}) \\
\hline
\end{array}
\]

\text{[WFAobj]} 
\text{For 1 some index set } h(α) = (C, (f_i ↦ v_i)_{i ∈ I}, m_1(v_1) :: \ldots :: m_n(v_n) :: \emptyset) 
\forall i ∈ I : h \vdash v_i : \mathcal{F}(C, f_i)[\mathcal{F}] 
\end{array}
\]

\[ h, α \cdot (this \mapsto α, x \mapsto v_i) \vdash v_i \triangleright \mathcal{M}(C, m_i)[\mathcal{F}], b \\
\]

[WF] 
\[ h(1) : N_1, \ldots, N_n \to \mathfrak{b}_1, \ldots, \mathfrak{b}_n \iff (∀i : 1..n : N_i \triangleright b_i) 
(2) h, σ, (σ_1, e_1), \ldots, (σ_n, e_n) \triangleright b_1, \ldots, b_n \iff (∀i : 1..n : h, σ, e_i \triangleright b_i) 
(3) h, σ, e \triangleright b \land \text{filter}(b \triangleright b_1 \ldots b_n) \iff (∃ T : h, σ \triangleright e \triangleright T, b) 
\]

\[ (h(σ) = (C, (κ^+, \ldots, m_1(v_1) :: \ldots :: m_n(v_n) :: \emptyset) \land (∀j ∈ 1..n : ∃ T_j : h, σ \triangleright \mathcal{M}(C, n)[κ^+] \triangleright T_j, b_j) \]

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**Definition 5** (Global behaviour reduction).

\[ \Sigma \sqsubseteq \Sigma' \text{ iff } \Sigma = \overline{b}_1, b, \overline{b}_2 \land \Sigma' = \overline{b}_1', b', \overline{b}_2' \land b \sqsubseteq_{\pi} b' \land (b = [b_1, b_2] \implies b' = b_1 \land \exists b_j \in \Sigma, b_j' = b_j \circ b_2) \]

**Definition 6** (Behaviour reduction).

\[ b_1 \sqsubseteq_{\pi} b_2 \text{ iff } b_1 = \pi \circ b_2 \]

\[ b_1 \sqsubseteq_{\pi} b_2 \text{ iff } b_1 = b_2 \lor b_1 = \{ b_2 \text{ or } \} \lor b_1 = \{ \} \lor b_2 \lor (b_1 = \text{Loop}(n \circ b), b') \land b_2 = \text{Loop}(n - 1 \circ b', b') \land b_1 = [b_2, \]}

**Lookup functions** Considering \( P \), the globally accessible program, and the class declaration \( C[p^+] \{ Fd \ M d \} \in P \):

\[ \mathcal{O}(C) = \{ p^+ \} \quad \mathcal{F}(C, f) = T \text{ iff } f : T \in Fd \quad \mathcal{F}_c(C) = \{ Fd \} \]

\[ \mathcal{M}(C, m) = (T, T', e, b) \text{ iff } \text{def } m(x : T') : T \in b \{ e \in M d \}
\]

\[ \mathcal{F}(C, f)[l_1, \ldots, l_n] = \mathcal{F}(C, f)[l_1/p_1, \ldots, l_n/p_n] \text{ where } \mathcal{O}(C) = \{ p_1, \ldots, p_n \} \]

**Operations on the heap**

\[ h[\alpha \rightarrow o] = h' \text{ where } h'(\alpha) = o \land \forall \alpha_i \in \text{dom}(h) \setminus \{ \alpha \} : h(\alpha_i) = h'(\alpha_i) \]

\[ h[\alpha, f \mapsto v] = h' \text{ where } h'(\alpha) = h(\alpha)[f \mapsto v] \land \forall \alpha_i \in \text{dom}(h) \setminus \{ \alpha \} : h(\alpha_i) = h'(\alpha_i) \]

\[ h[\alpha :: m(v)] = h' \text{ where } h(\alpha) = o \land \alpha_{\not\in 4} \neq \bullet \land h' = h[\alpha \mapsto (\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}, \alpha_{4}, m(v) :: \alpha_{4})] \land \forall \alpha_i \in \text{dom}(h) \setminus \{ \alpha \} : h(\alpha_i) = h'(\alpha_i) \]

\[ \text{owners}(h, \alpha) = C(\sigma) \text{ where } h(\alpha) = C \land h(\alpha)_{L_2} = \pi \]

\[ h_1 \cup h_2 = h \text{ where } \forall \alpha \in \text{dom}(h) : h_1(\alpha) = h(\alpha) \lor h_2(\alpha) = h(\alpha) \]

**Operations on objects**

\[ o(f) \equiv o_{\not\in 4}(f) \]

\[ o(f \mapsto v) \equiv (o_{\not\in 4}, o_{\in 2}, (f \mapsto v, t_i = v_i), o_{\in 4}) \text{ where } o_{\not\in 4} = f \mapsto t_i = v_i \]

\[ \text{initObj}(C(L_1, \ldots, L_m)) = \begin{cases} (C, \kappa_1, \ldots, \kappa_m, (f_i \mapsto \text{init}(T_i))_{i \in 1..n}, \emptyset) & \text{isActive}(C) \\ (C, \kappa_1, \ldots, \kappa_m, (f_i \mapsto \text{init}(T_i))_{i \in 1..n}, \bullet) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \]

\[ \text{where } \mathcal{F}_c(C) = \{ f_1 : T_1, \ldots, f_n : T_n \} \text{ and } \forall j \in 1..m : \kappa_j = L(L_j) \]

**Operations on types**

\[ \text{init}(T) \equiv \text{if } T = \text{bool} \text{ then false else null} \quad \ell(\Gamma) = l \text{ iff } \Gamma = \_ \land \Gamma(\text{this}) = C(l, \) \]

**Other definitions**

\[ e[C, \kappa_1, \ldots, \kappa_n] = e[\kappa_1/p_1, \ldots, \kappa_n/p_n] \text{ where } \mathcal{O}(C) = \{ p_1, \ldots, p_n \} \]

\[ \text{heaps}(N_1, \ldots, N_n) = h_1 \cup \cdots \cup h_n \text{ iff } \forall i \in 1..n : N_i_{L_2} = h_i \]

\[ h, \sigma \vdash e \circ T, b \text{ iff } \text{buildContext}(h, \sigma) \vdash e \circ T, b \]

\[ \text{typeOf}(h, v) \equiv \text{if } v = \text{true} \lor v = \text{false} \text{ then bool else owners}(h, v) \]

\[ \text{buildContext}(h, \varphi_1) = \Gamma_n \quad \text{buildContext}(h, \varphi_n) = \Gamma_1 \quad \text{buildContext}(h, \varphi_n) = \Gamma_1 \]

\[ \text{buildContext}(h, \alpha \cdot \varphi_1 \ldots \varphi_n) \]

\[ \text{buildContext}(h, \text{this} \rightarrow \alpha, x_1 \rightarrow v_1, \ldots, x_n \rightarrow v_n) = \Gamma \]
C Topology Example

Consider the following code with three class declarations: an active class C, a passive D and the class Main. An active object, instance of C, has three fields pointing to three objects in different locations of type D. The class main creates three abstract (or symbolic) locations L1, L2, L3 and the body of the main method.

```java
active class C(p1, p2, p3)
d1: D(p1)
d2: D(p2)
d3: D(p3)

class D(p)

class Main(L1, L2, L3)
def main():
    as b write(L1, L2). write(L1, L3) {
        let x = new C(L1, L2, L3) in
        let y = (x.d1 = new D(p1)) in
        let z = (x.d2 = new D(p2)) in
        x.d3 = new D(p3)
    }
```

The topology after execution of the main method is depicted in the following figure. In the abstract location L1 there is an instance of class C and an instance of class D. Abstract locations L2 and L3 have both an instance of class D. Although the programmer define 3 abstract locations, the machine might have a different number of nodes. For instance, in a system with two different nodes, we could have the mapping \((L1 \mapsto \kappa_1, L2 \mapsto \kappa_2, L3 \mapsto \kappa_2)\) between abstract locations and node identifiers, which means that the objects in L1 are in the node \(\kappa_1\), and objects from L2 and L3 are in the same node.

![Diagram of NUMA system with two different nodes](image)

Figure 8: The ownership topology after the execution of the expression in the method main.

Figure 9: NUMA system with two different nodes