

Using a Coordination Language to Specify and Analyze Systems Containing Mobile Components

P. CIANCARINI and F. FRANZÈ

University of Bologna

and

C. MASCOLO

University College London

New computing paradigms for network-aware applications need specification languages able to deal with the features of mobile code-based systems. A coordination language provides a formal framework in which the interaction of active entities can be expressed. A coordination language deals with the creation and destruction of code or complex agents, their communication activities, as well as their distribution and mobility in space. We show how the coordination language PoliS offers a flexible basis for the description and the automatic analysis of architectures of systems including mobile entities. PoliS is based on multiple tuple spaces and offers a basis for defining, studying, and controlling mobility as it allows decoupling mobile entities from their environment both in space and in time. The pattern-matching mechanism adopted for communication helps in abstracting from addressing issues. We have developed a model-checking technique for the automatic analysis of PoliS specifications. In the article we show how this technique can be applied to mobile code-based systems.

Categories and Subject Descriptors: D.2.1 [**Software Engineering**]: Requirements/Specifications; D.2.4 [**Software Engineering**]: Software/Program Verification—*Model checking*; D.3.1 [**Programming Languages**]: Formal Definitions and Theory—*Semantics*; D.3.2 [**Programming Languages**]: Language Classifications—*Concurrent, distributed, and parallel languages*

General Terms: Design, Languages, Verification

This article is an extended version of a paper published in the *Proceedings of the 9th IEEE International Workshop on Software Specification and Design (IWSSD-9)*, April 1998.

This work was partially supported by the Italian Ministero dell'Università e della Ricerca Scientifica e Tecnologica (MURST) in the framework of the 40% project "SALADIN."

Authors' addresses: P. Ciancarini, Dipartimento di Scienze dell' Informazione, University of Bologna, Mura Anteo Zamboni, 7, Bologna, I-40127, Italy; email: ciancarini@cs.unibo.it; F. Franzè, Dipartimento di Elettronica, Informatica e Sistemistica, University of Bologna, Viale Risorgimento 2, Bologna, I-40136, Italy; email: ffranze@deis.unibo.it; C. Mascolo, Department of Computer Science, University College London, Gower Street, London, WC1E 6BT, UK; email: c.mascolo@cs.ucl.ac.uk.

Permission to make digital/hard copy of part or all of this work for personal or classroom use is granted without fee provided that the copies are not made or distributed for profit or commercial advantage, the copyright notice, the title of the publication, and its date appear, and notice is given that copying is by permission of the ACM, Inc. To copy otherwise, to republish, to post on servers, or to redistribute to lists, requires prior specific permission and/or a fee.

© 2000 ACM 1049-331X/00/0400-0167 \$5.00

Additional Key Words and Phrases: Tuple space, PoliS, code mobility, temporal logic, coordination, mobility, specification

1. INTRODUCTION

The complexity of distributed applications using global communication services represents a great challenge for software engineers. How can we build geographically distributed software systems and exploit the wide availability of hardware resources, economically? How can we deal with mobile, wireless, and remote computing [Bagrodia et al. 1995; Chess et al. 1995; Ramjee et al. 1995]?

Traditional computing models are evolving in order to match the novel requirements of a networked world offering global communication services. New computing paradigms based on *code mobility* need specification languages able to express the features of architectures supporting mobile software entities [Thorn 1997]. For instance, since the original WWW architecture supports very limited forms of distributed programming, it has been extended with network-aware programming languages, like Java, which extends the functionality of WWW browsers in order to support *applets*, which are made of code loaded on demand from a remote site. Some Java-based applications are even based on migratory agents, namely processes which can decide to move to another site in order to look for some resources, and which need to be controlled in their traveling over the network [Lange and Oshima 1998; Kiniry and Zimmerman 1997].

Formal models have been used in the specification of mobile code systems. In Serugendo et al. [1998] a survey of different approaches to code mobility formalization is presented. The focus of our approach is related to the interaction of mobile entities with their environment and vice versa. This is a very complex issue as an architecture including mobile entities can be decomposed in at least three different layers:

- The *physical network*, made mostly of immobile hosts, reliable and fast connections. In this context a mobile entity consists of a piece of hardware using a wireless connection. The main problem at this level is that such a connection is usually unstable and offers low bandwidth.
- The *middleware network*, made mostly of immobile services or abstract machines, where a mobile entity consists of a process migrating from one host to another. Some problems at this level are resource management (e.g., load balancing among the available hosts), service reliability, and security.
- The *logical network*, made of application code scattered over the middleware network, where a mobile entity consists of an agent migrating from one abstract machine to another. An interesting problem at this level is how such a mobile entity can cooperate with other entities in the

application and how the code can be moved or copied among the distributed entities.

In this article we are interested in the last form of mobility, where the computing entities are usually called *software agents*. In any system including mobile entities an important issue concerns the modality of their interactions, both with other mobile entities and with the external environment. A *coordination language* provides a formal framework in which the interaction of software agents can be expressed [Ciancarini 1996]. A coordination language deals with the creation and destruction of agents, their communication activities, their distribution and mobility in space, as well as the synchronization and distribution of their actions over time.

More precisely, a coordination language consists of the following:

- (1) *Coordinables*: These are the entity types which are coordinated. These could be Unix-like processes, threads, concurrent objects, and even users.
- (2) *Coordination Media*: These are the media enabling the communication among the entities. Moreover, a coordination medium can serve to aggregate entities which should be manipulated as a whole, dynamic configuration. Examples are the classic media like semaphores, monitors, or channels, or more complex media like tuple spaces, blackboards, pipelines, etc.
- (3) *Coordination Laws*: A coordination language should dictate a number of laws to describe how entities coordinate themselves through the given coordination media and using a number of coordination primitives. Examples are laws which enact either synchronous or asynchronous behaviors, or which exploit explicit or implicit naming schemes for coordination entities.

In this article we show how the coordination language PoliS can be used to specify and analyze systems based on logical mobility: code mobility is represented as a first-class concept. The coordination media in PoliS are multiple tuple spaces, which offer a natural basis for describing mobile entities and their dynamic rearrangement. The pattern-matching mechanism adopted to access the tuple spaces helps in abstracting away from low-level addressing issues. Code can be explicitly moved from one PoliS space to another, duplicated, and eliminated. Reasoning on the formal properties of a PoliS specification can be supported by either theorem proving [Ciancarini et al. 1998] or model checking. In Ciancarini et al. [1998] we developed the basic PoliS semantics and a theorem prover for predicates based on Lamport's TLA; we applied that framework to the study of generic systems not including mobile components. In this article we focus on PoliS features useful to describe mobile entities and use a different logic more adequate for model checking. Model checking allows a completely automatic reasoning. Furthermore, due to the modularity of the

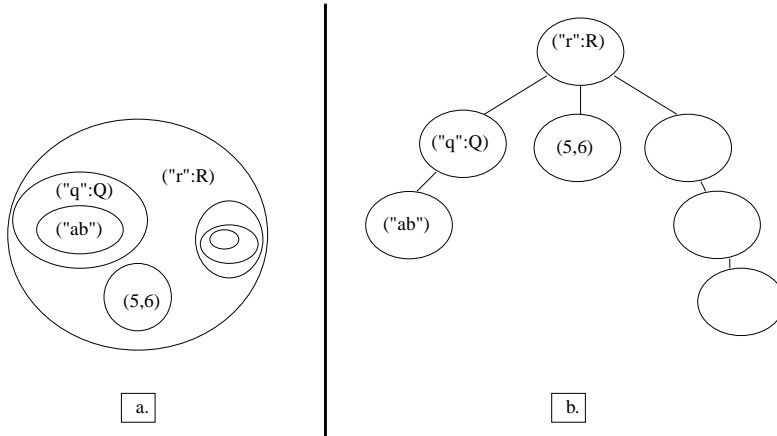


Fig. 1. PoliS nested spaces (a) and the corresponding tree interpretation (b).

model checker we developed for PoliS, it is possible to prove properties on the global specified system or on parts of it.

The article is organized as follows. Section 2 introduces the PoliS language. We then give the operational semantics for PoliS in Section 3. In Section 4 we show how PoliS can be used for the specification of mobility of code and agents. Section 5 describes the model checker we have built for PoliS. In Section 6 we model the architecture of a mobile “meeting scheduler system” [Feather et al. 1997] and analyze the system using our model checker. Section 7 discusses some related work. Finally, in Section 8 we outline some conclusions and future work.

2. OVERVIEW OF POLIS

PoliS is a coordination language whose coordination media are nested tuple spaces [Ciancarini et al. 1998]. A tuple space, or *space* for short, includes as coordinables both tuples and other spaces. PoliS specifications are modular and hierarchically structured: a PoliS specification denotes a tree of nested spaces that dynamically evolves over time. Figure 1(a) shows a structure of nested spaces (i.e., the nested circles); Figure 1(b) shows the corresponding tree whose nodes are the spaces in Figure 1(a). The two pictures represent the same concept. The labels inside the spaces represent tuples. A space can contain other spaces or tuples: *ordinary tuples*, which are ordered sequences of values, and *program tuples*, which contain the coordination rules that manage activities inside the space they belong to.

In Figure 1 ordered sequences of values (for example (5, 6)) are ordinary tuples; the tuples of the form (“r”:R) are program tuples. A program tuple (“r”:R) is composed of an identifier *r* and rule code represented by the placeholder *R*. The rule code defines which reactions can take place. The quoted notation “ ” is used to distinguish actual parameters from formal ones (i.e., the nonquoted ones). The execution of a *program tuple* is an action which can modify a space tree by removing and adding tuples.

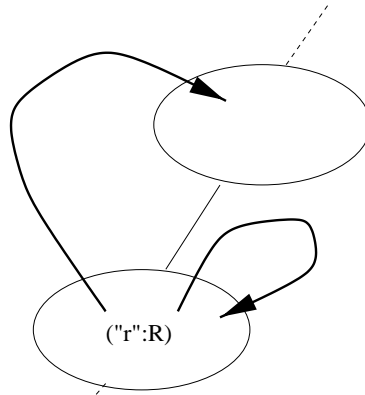


Fig. 2. The scope of a rule.

However, an action can only handle the tuples of the space it belongs to *and* the tuples of its parent space. This precisely defines both the “input” and the “output” scope of any action, as represented by a program tuple. Figure 2 shows the scope of a program tuple $(“r”:R)$. A space is modified by reactions that transform multisets of tuples into multisets of tuples (this is multiset rewriting, common to most coordination models based on *generative communication* [Banâtre and LeMétayer 1996]). A rule defines a reaction that reads and/or consumes tuples in its scope, performs a sequential computation, and produces new tuples in its scope. More precisely, a rule consists of a *precondition*, a *local computation*, and a *postcondition*. The precondition is a multiset of tuples to be found in the rule scope. The local computation is any sequential computation which does not modify the tuple space; it is encoded as a function that maps values of tuples of the precondition on values of tuples of the postcondition. The postcondition is made up of a multiset of tuples to be produced in the rule scope. We remark that this is a very general definition; actually a rule can lack some components: a rule can have an empty precondition, can involve no local computation, or can produce no tuples. The precondition can include *formal tuples*, i.e., tuples whose fields can be identifiers (i.e., the nonquoted fields). In this case actual values for those identifiers are “matched” in the tuple space.

The tuples of the precondition must be read or consumed in the rule scope (Figure 2). When a program tuple is enabled, i.e., its precondition tuples exist in the program tuple scope, the reaction can take place: the tuples to be consumed locally are removed from the space containing the program tuple; the tuples to be consumed externally are removed from the parent space of the space containing the program tuple; the local computation is performed; and the tuples of the postcondition are produced. A tuple in the precondition must be *read* if the symbol “?” is put in front of it and must be *consumed* otherwise; a read or consume operation involves the parent space if the symbol “↑” is put in front of a tuple and involves the

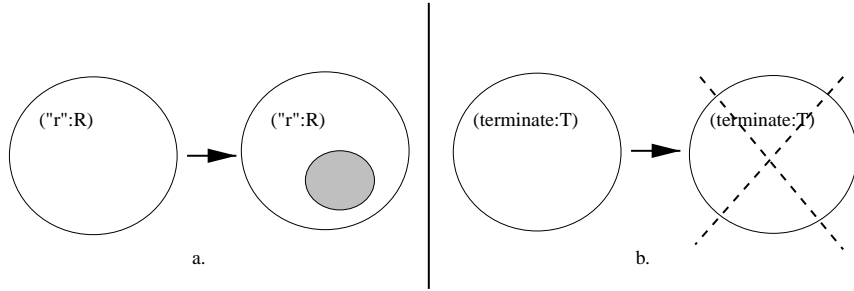


Fig. 3. Creation (a) and termination (b) of spaces.

local space if the symbol is missing; a tuple in the postcondition must be *produced* in the parent space if the symbol “ \uparrow ” is put in front of it and must be produced locally otherwise.

Rules are first-class entities in PoliS: in fact, they are themselves part of spaces as (program) tuples that can be read, consumed, or produced just like ordinary tuples. A program tuple has the form (“*rule_id*”: *rule*) where *rule_id* is a rule identifier, and *rule* is PoliS rule code. The identifier simplifies reading or consuming program tuples and allows the existence of multiple copies of program tuples with the same code but different rule identifiers.

Rules can also create and destroy tuple spaces. They can generate new spaces using the primitive **tsc** (for *tuple space creation*) in the postcondition part. For example, the execution of a rule containing a **tsc**(*M*) operation in its postcondition causes the space *M* to be added as a child space of the space where the rule is executed. Spaces can also be destroyed by particular rules called *termination rules*. Whenever a termination rule is enabled the tuple space terminates and disappears. Termination rules can read tuples only locally (i.e., not in the parent space, as the termination condition is meant to be local to the space configuration) and produce tuples in the parent space, as the local space disappears. When the tuples to be read are in the space, the reaction specified by the termination rule takes place in the usual way. Local computation and tuple production are used to communicate possible results to the parent space, and then the space terminates. Termination rules are given by means of special program tuples whose names are replaced by the keyword **terminate**. In Figure 3(a) a new space is created upon the activation of rule *R*. In Figure 3(b) a space is destroyed when the termination rule *T* is enabled. A simple example helps in explaining both the syntax and the semantics of PoliS. Let us consider a client-server system. A client emits requests and a server serves them. Such a system can be described by two distinct spaces both included in the main space representing the client and the server.

Figure 4 contains the specification of the system. The *StartContext* space is the main space, which contains the program tuple (“*create*”: *CREATE*). The name of the tuple is *create* (as it is quoted, it is the actual name of the tuple); instead *CREATE* acts as a “macro,” expanded in the

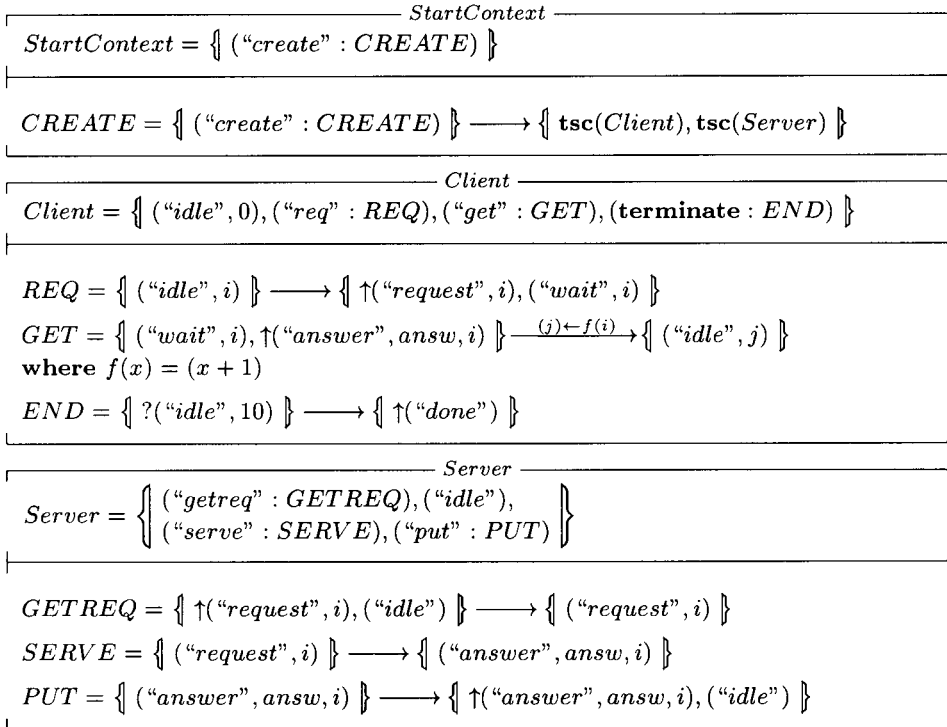


Fig. 4. Specification of a client-server system in PoliS.

corresponding text below in the figure. The rule denoted by *CREATE* creates the spaces *Client* and *Server* that contain the tuples describing the client and the server, respectively. The rule also consumes the program tuple (“create”:*CREATE*) in order to ensure this rule is only applied once in the initialization phase. After that, the code of *CREATE* will disappear, and it will not be possible to apply the rule anymore.

Client is the client space and contains the tuple (“idle”, *i*) that indicates the state of the client, the program tuple (“req”:*REQ*), (“get”:*GET*), and the termination rule (**terminate** : *END*) that contains the code of the rules *REQ*, *GET*, and *END* (specified below), respectively. The rule *REQ* emits a new request (tuple) in the main space (“request”,*i*) and changes the state of the client from (“idle”, *i*) to (“wait”, *i*) where *i* is the number associated with the request. The rule *GET* waits for an answer in the main space (“answer”,*answ*,*i*) where *i* corresponds to the number of the request (the rule checks if the tuple (“wait”, *i*) is present). It emits a new state tuple with the number *i* increased by one by the function *f* on the arrow in the rule (specified in the **where** clause). The *Client* space terminates as soon as it receives the 10th answer. The termination rule *END* checks if the *Client* space contains the tuple (“idle”, 10), which means that the client

| | | |
|---|-----|---|
| MS | ::= | { elem } MS \oplus MS MS \ MS (MS) |
| elem | ::= | tuple MS |
| tuple | ::= | data program |
| program | ::= | ("r" : Code) |
| data | ::= | (datalist) |
| datalist | ::= | "data" value "data", datalist value, datalist |
| "r" \in Ruleid, the set of rule identifiers | | |
| Code \in Rulecode, the set of rules code specified in Figure 7. | | |
| In the concrete syntax, Code is usually substituted with a macro that expands in the code itself. | | |
| value \in Values | | |
| data \in String | | |

Fig. 5. PoliS abstract syntax.

has received 10 answers from the server. The tuple (*done*) represents a termination message sent by the consumer to the main space before dying.

Server is the server space. It contains a tuple denoting its state and three rules: the rule *GETREQ* checks if the state is idle and if a request is present in the main space, then moves the request in the local space. The rule *SERVE* generates an answer to the request. The rule *PUT* resets the state of the server to idle (emitting the tuple (*idle*) locally), and moves the answer tuple to the main space.

The example above shows that the basic communication mechanisms of PoliS are asynchronous. Rules are transactions and therefore execute in an atomic fashion. They also offer a basic mechanism for synchronization of operations: the rules can atomically read/consume multiple tuples allowing quite complex evolutions. Tuples representing messages are put in the environment by entities which have to communicate. Hence, communication is decoupled because communicating entities do not necessarily know each other; they access tuples by pattern matching. Messages have no destination address, so their contents determine the set of possible receivers. Thus, a space represents at the same time both a component performing computations and a persistent, multicast channel supporting communication among components it contains. Any space communicates with the parent space using a pattern-matching mechanism, thus minimizing the assumptions over the the rest of the system.

In the next section we describe the formal operational semantics of PoliS.

3. ABSTRACT SYNTAX AND OPERATIONAL SEMANTICS FOR POLIS

We describe the semantics of a PoliS specification as the application of simple rewriting operations on multisets. In Figure 5 we show the abstract syntax for PoliS. A multiset (*MS*) is composed of elements that are tuples or multisets, or can be built as the union or difference of multisets. A tuple can be a data tuple or a program tuple. A data tuple is a sequence of values

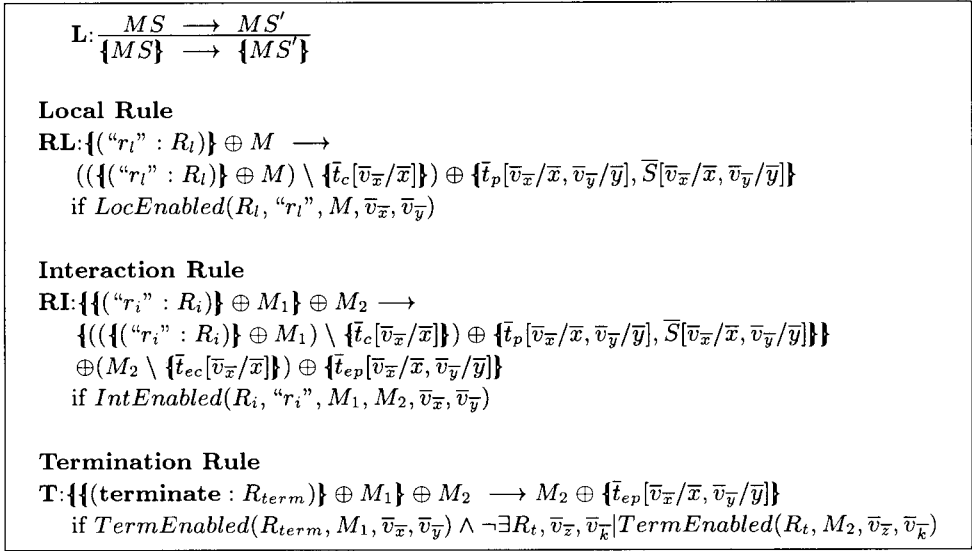


Fig. 6. Structured operational semantics rules and axioms.

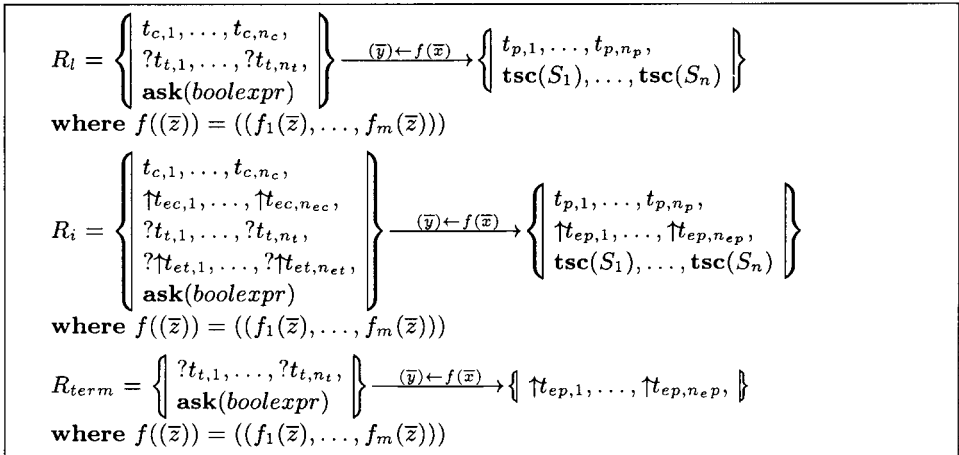


Fig. 7. Classification of PoliS rules macro.

and strings, whereas a program tuple is composed of an identifier and of rule code.

The semantics of PoliS is introduced in the Figures 6, 7, and 8. Figure 6 shows the SOS (Structured Operational Semantics) axioms and rules:

—**L** is a rule describing the local computations. It formalizes the local and isolated evolution of subspaces or subsets of tuples inside a space.

$$\begin{array}{l}
\text{LocEnabled}(R_l, "r_l", M, \bar{v}_x, \bar{v}_y) \triangleq \\
\{\bar{t}_c[\bar{v}_x/\bar{x}], \bar{t}_t[\bar{v}_x/\bar{x}]\} \subseteq \{"r_l" : R_l\} \oplus M \wedge \bar{v}_y = f(\bar{v}_x) \wedge \text{boolexpr}[\bar{v}_x/\bar{x}] \\
\wedge \forall R, \bar{v}_x, \bar{v}_y : ((\text{terminate} : R) \in M \Rightarrow \neg \text{TermEnabled}(R, M, \bar{v}_x, \bar{v}_y)) \\
\text{IntEnabled}(R_i, "r_i", M_1, M_2, \bar{v}_x, \bar{v}_y) \triangleq \\
\{\bar{t}_c[\bar{v}_x/\bar{x}], \bar{t}_t[\bar{v}_x/\bar{x}]\} \subseteq \{"r_i" : R_i\} \oplus M_1 \\
\wedge \{\bar{t}_{ec}[\bar{v}_x/\bar{x}], \bar{t}_{et}[\bar{v}_x/\bar{x}]\} \subseteq M_2 \wedge \bar{v}_y = f(\bar{v}_x) \wedge \text{boolexpr}[\bar{v}_x/\bar{x}] \\
\wedge \forall R, \bar{v}_x, \bar{v}_y : ((\text{terminate} : R) \in M_1 \Rightarrow \neg \text{TermEnabled}(R, M_1, \bar{v}_x, \bar{v}_y)) \\
\wedge \forall R, \bar{v}_x, \bar{v}_y : ((\text{terminate} : R) \in M_2 \Rightarrow \neg \text{TermEnabled}(R, M_2, \bar{v}_x, \bar{v}_y)) \\
\text{TermEnabled}(R_{term}, M, \bar{v}_x, \bar{v}_y) \triangleq \\
\{\bar{t}_t[\bar{v}_x/\bar{x}]\} \subseteq \{(\text{terminate} : R_{term})\} \oplus M \wedge \bar{v}_y = f(\bar{v}_x) \wedge \text{boolexpr}[\bar{v}_x/\bar{x}]
\end{array}$$

Fig. 8. Precondition predicates.

—The axioms **RL**, **RI**, and **T** define the semantics of PoliS rules. These axioms show the reaction taking place when a *program tuple* (“r”:R) is enabled in a space (M). The formalization of the code macro R is shown in Figure 7 according to the type of R (an example of use of these macros can be found in Figure 4). R can be a local rule (i.e., R_l), or an interactive rule (i.e., R_i), or a termination rule (i.e., R_{term}). The notation t_c, t_p, t_{ec}, t_{ep} denotes the lists of tuples to be consumed locally, produced locally, produced and consumed in the parent space, respectively. \bar{S} is the list of spaces to be created by the rule. \bar{v}_x and \bar{v}_y are the formal parameter lists to be substituted by \bar{x} and \bar{y} .

Figure 6 shows these three types of semantics rules:

—Local rules consume, test, and produce only local tuples, without involving the parent space. The axiom **RL** shows the transition applied on the space M: if the program tuple (“r_l” : R_l) is in M, and if the rule R_l is enabled (condition expressed by the predicate *LocEnabled* specified in Figure 8), then the space M is updated deleting the tuples that the rule consumes and adding the tuples (and the new spaces) that the rule produces.

Figure 7 contains the specification of R_l.

—Interaction rules interact also with the parent space. The specification of the axiom **RI** shown in Figure 6 is similar to the one of **RL** just described. Besides updating the space M₁ it updates the space M₂, parent of M₁, as the rule acts on it as well.

—Termination rules, when enabled, cause the termination of the space they are in. These rules have priority over the other rules. Moreover, a termination rule can only test internal tuples and produce external ones; other operations do not make sense, since the local space terminates. The axiom **T** shows how a space terminates and how some tuples are added to the parent space.

The rule macros R_l , R_i , and R_{term} in Figure 6 expand as shown in Figure 7. The notation $(t_{c,1}, \dots, t_{c,n_c})$ denotes the tuples to be consumed locally; the notation $(t_{t,1}, \dots, t_{t,n_t})$ denotes the tuples that are tested locally; and $(t_{p,1}, \dots, t_{p,n_p})$ are the tuples that are produced. $(\mathbf{tsc}(S_1), \dots, \mathbf{tsc}(S_n))$ denotes the generated subspaces. In the specification of R_i and R_{term} the notation $(\uparrow t_{ec,1}, \dots, \uparrow t_{ec,n_{ec}})$ denotes the tuples consumed in the parent space, while $(? \uparrow t_{et,1}, \dots, ? \uparrow t_{et,n_{et}})$ are the tuples that are only read from the parent space. Finally, the notation $(\uparrow t_{ep,1}, \dots, \uparrow t_{ep,n_{ep}})$ denotes the tuples produced in the parent space. The PoliS construct **ask** checks the values of tuples parameters. The general form of the **ask** predicate is **ask**(*predicate*), and it is another condition to be added to the precondition set.

The predicates *TermEnabled*, *LocEnabled*, and *IntEnabled* used in Figure 6 are formally described in Figure 8 to check if the rules are enabled. The *TermEnabled* condition is true if the rule R_{term} is enabled, i.e., if the program tuple $(term : R_{term})$ is in the same space M as the tuples to be tested. The *LocEnabled* condition is true if the rule R_l is enabled, i.e., if the program tuple $(“r”:R_l)$ is in the same space M as the tuples to be consumed and tested. Furthermore, no termination rules (which have priority) should be enabled. The *IntEnabled* condition is true if the interaction rule R_i is enabled, i.e., if the program tuple $(“r”:R_i)$ is in the space M_1 and if the tuple it has to test and consume on the local and parent spaces is respectively in M_1 and in the parent of M_1 (i.e., M_2). Furthermore, no termination rules should be enabled in M_1 or M_2 .

For sake of brevity we do not describe the semantics for operator \oplus and \setminus ; they have their intuitive meanings of multiset union and difference, respectively. We are now ready to define a transition system for PoliS.

$$PoliS_{TransitionSystem} = (MS, \rightarrow_{MS})$$

where the MS syntax is defined in Figure 5 and where $\rightarrow_{MS} \subseteq MS \times MS$ is the minimal relation satisfying the rules described above.

The transition system to be associated to a PoliS specification $Spec$ is formally defined as a triple $(\uparrow Spec, \rightarrow_{Spec}, StartContext)$ where

StartContext is the initial MS (called *initial state*)

$\uparrow Spec \subseteq MS$ is a minimal subset of MS such that

$$\frac{MS_1 \in \uparrow Spec \quad MS_1 \rightarrow MS_2}{MS_2 \in \uparrow Spec}$$

$\rightarrow_{Spec} \subseteq \uparrow Spec \times \uparrow Spec$ is the restriction of \rightarrow to $\uparrow Spec$;

StartContext $\in \uparrow Spec$.

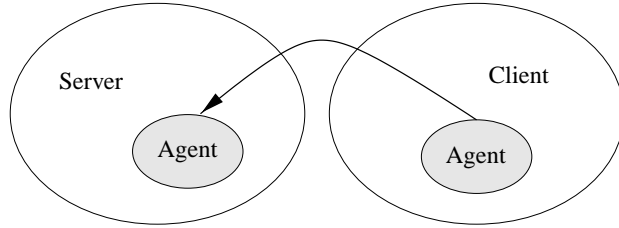


Fig. 9. A simple client-server system with a mobile agent.

The transition system model and the operational semantics have been used for the construction of a model checker for PoliS, which we present in Section 5.

4. POLIS AND MOBILITY

Modern network technologies including mobile computers and devices, and the programming languages for the Internet, like Java, require novel software design techniques. An important feature in network applications is mobility; however, it is still unclear which entities can be mobile and especially why and when they should move over the network. Mobility can range from mobility of data, as in client-server architectures, to mobility of code, as in Java-based applications, to mobility of agents, as in some applications for electronic commerce, to mobility of whole operating environments, as in platforms including mobile hardware.

In this section we show how PoliS can be used for the specification of systems containing mobile components, and in the next sections we illustrate how we use our model checker to analyze mobile systems.

The PoliS language allows the specification of both data and code mobility as first-class operations. Mobility of data is denoted by rules which are able to consume tuples locally and to produce tuples outside the local space (or vice versa). Code mobility is denoted by rules which are able to consume and produce tuples containing code, i.e., other rules. The ability of moving code and data and the creation/destruction operations acting on spaces allows the specification of mobility of complex agents carrying code and data as well.

Agents in this context are represented by spaces containing tuples and rules. Agent mobility is coded by a combination of code and data mobility. In order to show how agent mobility can be expressed in PoliS we modify the example in Figure 4 by adding an agent that is sent from the client to the server to perform some computations (Figure 9). The example shows how we specify mobility of data, code, and agents. Figure 10 contains the PoliS specification of the system.

Client is the client space. It contains the subspace *Agent*, the tuple (*get_ready*), and the program tuple (*send*:*SEND*). The data tuple (*get_ready*) tells the agent to get ready to be sent. The code of the rule *SEND* actually sends the agent (once ready), i.e., the tuple *frozen* and a program

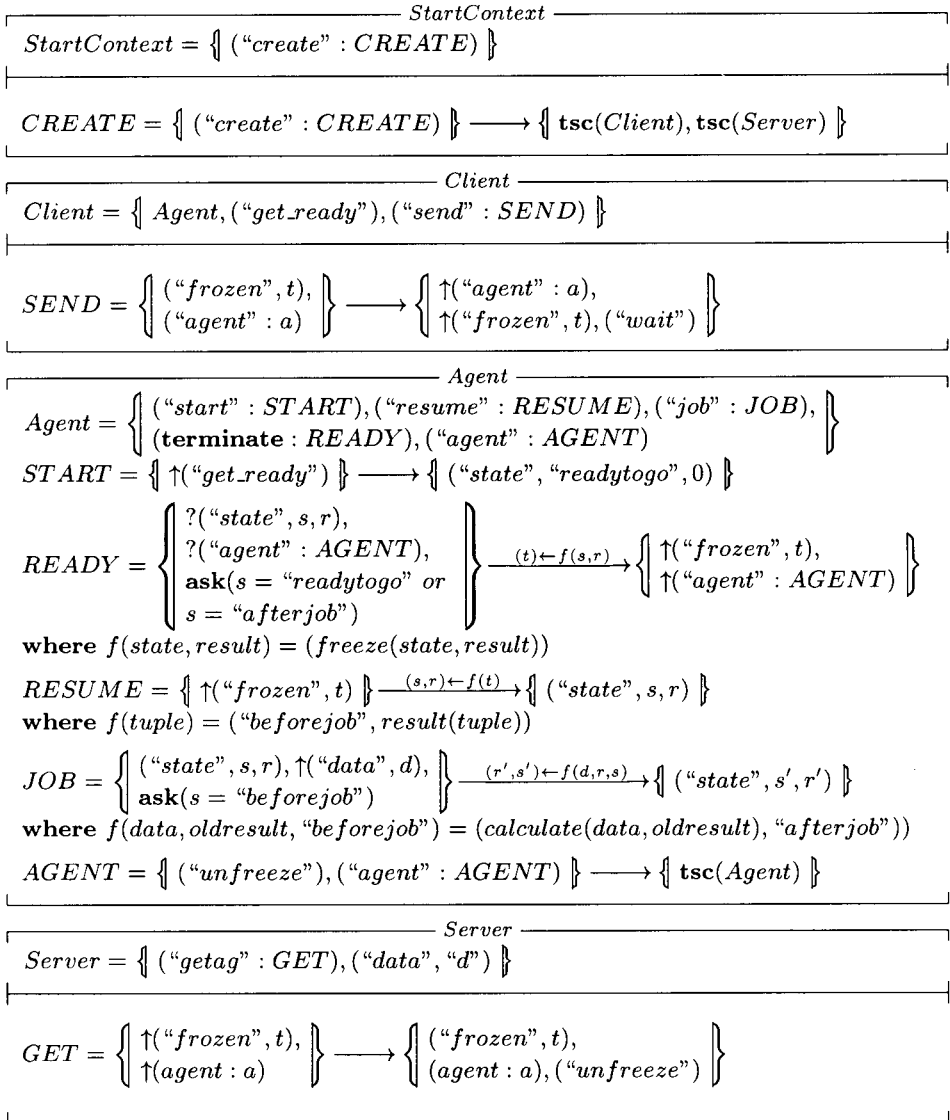


Fig. 10. Specification of a client-server system with a mobile agent.

tuple $(agent:a)$, where a is a formal parameter that is matched with a piece of code (in this case the code $AGENT$ when present).

The *Agent* space is described in the same figure. The rule $START$ consumes the data tuple (get_ready) from the client space (i.e., the parent space) and produces the tuple $(state, readytogo, 0)$ into the agent local space enabling the rule $READY$ for execution. The termination rule

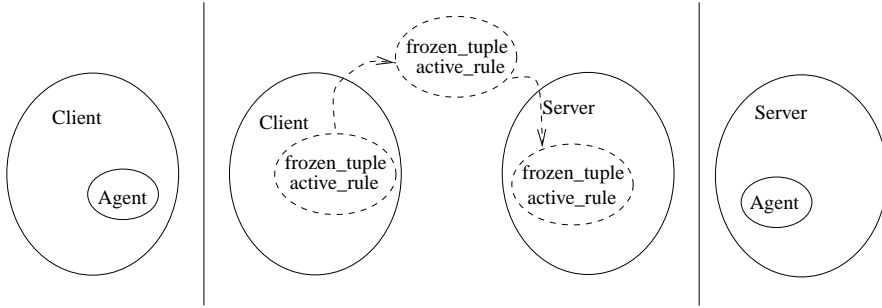


Fig. 11. Agent mobility in PoliS.

READY terminates the space saving the status of the agent, i.e., the *frozen* tuple, and the activation rule (“*agent*”:*AGENT*) in the client space. The predicate **ask** checks if the value of *s* (contained in the *state* tuple) is either *readytogo* or *afterjob*, i.e., the agent is ready to be sent, or it has finished a job. This enables the client’s rule *SEND*, already described. The *Agent* space also contains the program tuples (“*agent*”:*AGENT*), (“*resume*”:*RESUME*), and (“*job*”:*JOB*). The first acts as an “unfreeze” for the agent space whenever the agent is “frozen” (i.e., it generates the new space). The rule *RESUME* reacts when the agent space has been created, getting the frozen status of the agent and emitting the status tuple in the agent space. The rule *JOB* denotes the real code for executing a job: it is used when the agent is at the server site and the “data” are available. The **where** clause is abstractly specified as a function *f* because, in the spirit of most coordination languages (which separate computation from coordination), we omit computation details; however, it could be refined defining the exact mechanism for the computation of the result. The *Server* space contains the data that will be used by the agent code *JOB* to compute a result, and the program tuple (“*getag*”:*GET*), to gather an agent from the environment. The rule *GET* gathers the frozen agent and the activation code (i.e., (“*agent*”:*a*), with the formal parameter *a* matching the real code), and emits the tuple (*unfreeze*) so that the agent can unfreeze itself.

As the example shows, code mobility can be modeled in PoliS consuming and producing tuples representing code (i.e., containing rules). For instance, the rule *SEND* consumes locally and produces in the environment the program tuple containing the activation code for the agent, i.e., (“*agent*”:*a*), where *a* is a formal parameter matched with the code *AGENT* when available. Agent mobility is depicted in Figure 11. An agent is “frozen,” and the code for the reactivation of the agent is moved together with its frozen status to another location, where the agent will be reactivated.

This approach to agent mobility has several advantages. PoliS shows clearly that code and state mobility are orthogonal concepts. For instance, we can specify the movement of several agents sharing the same code

simply using as many status tuples as agents and a single code tuple. Another example is that we can redefine the behavior of an agent changing its code but keeping its state. Another advantage is related to the performance of the model checker we have implemented for the language (see Section 5): the consideration of space (i.e., agent) mobility as first-class in the language on one hand would allow rules to consume and produce spaces as normal tuples. On the other this would lead to an explosion in the number of states to be considered by the tool. Nevertheless, we are exploring the possibility of enhancing the language with space mobility and studying how we can still reason automatically on such a model.

The basic mobility mechanism we have in PoliS is constrained to be “step by step,” i.e., no general visibility on all the possible locations is considered. Agents can be either “pushed” to known locations, or “pulled” inside a space by the space itself. A tuple of data or code can be moved from one space to the parent, or pulled from the parent to the local space, and a complex path composed of these steps can be generated. This abstraction models a general network architecture including layered routers, hierarchical LANs structure, and fire-walls [Cardelli and Gordon 2000]. The ability to dynamically rearrange the hierarchy of spaces allows a strong control on agent interactions. Moreover, from a model-checking perspective the “step-by-step” mobility mechanism permits a more constrained space explosion than with a general “move-to-location” mechanism.

In the next section we introduce the model checker that we have built on PoliS and its features.

5. MODEL CHECKING A COORDINATION MODEL

Theorem proving has been the most traditional method of system analysis [Broy 1996]. In theorem proving, a deductive system with axioms and derivation rules is usually defined. Starting from the axioms and using the rules it is possible to prove new theorems. Such a method can be applied to software systems as well: if the axiom set is enriched with a formal definition of a software system, then the properties derived from the deductive system are the properties that the system satisfies. In Ciancarini et al. [1998] a mapping between the PoliS operational semantics and TLA (Temporal Logic of Action) [Lamport 1994] has been studied. This allowed us to use a theorem prover for formal reasoning on PoliS specifications. However, theorem provers require human interaction in order to complete proofs, while model-checking techniques provide completely automatic verification frameworks. In this article we exploit a model-checking technique to perform analysis on PoliS specification documents. Model checking was initially used for the verification of hardware systems. A landmark paper [Clarke et al. 1986] suggested and studied a model-checking approach for software systems. Model checking aims at finding an assignment (*model*) for system variables that satisfies the formulae describing some system properties. Given a model of a software system (derived from its operational specification) a model checker makes an exhaustive analysis of

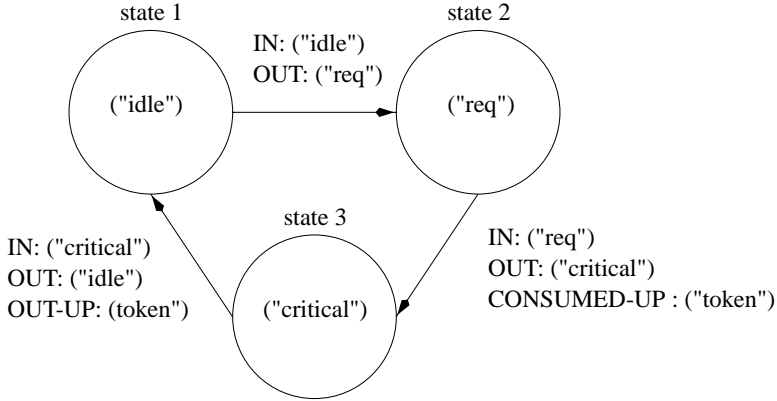


Fig. 12. Graph for the simple space component.

variable values possible in the model. This method may seem trivial and inefficient, but it is very powerful for systems with finite-state models.

Model checkers are completely automatic. An important feature of model checking is the ability to find counterexamples (i.e., a path that leads to a scenario where the property is false). Abstract model checking [Clarke et al. 1994] and deductive model checking [Simpa et al. 1996] are the most often exploited techniques to deal with infinite systems. The exponential explosion of the number of system states can also be managed with symbolic model checking and the use of BDD (Binary Decision Diagrams) [Burch et al. 1992]. The model checker we have built exploits PoliS modularity features (i.e., spaces defining context boundaries) in order to reduce the space of the graphs built for a specification. The algorithm applied for the verification of properties follows the one presented in Clarke et al. [1986]. The logic is based on CTL (Computation Tree Logic) [Clarke et al. 1986]: the differences between our logic and CTL are related to the spaces-based coordination model. In the following sections, we will give the details of the graph construction, the logic and the model checking.

5.1 The PoliS Graph Construction

In Section 3 we have described an operational semantics for PoliS. We now consider the transition system defined by the Structural Operational Semantics (SOS); the graph obtained from the unfolding of a transition system of a real system is something quite similar to our model. The main difference between SOS unfolding and our model is that in SOS a unique monolithic graph is built to represent a system, while here we associate a graph to each subspace definition. The nodes of the graph show how a space evolves; instead, edges are labeled with tuples produced/consumed and tested in the parent spaces. As an example consider the space *Component* in Figure 13 and the graph built for this space in Figure 12. The component can be idle or performing some critical actions (when it obtains the token). It can also return the token (by rule *PUT*). The three nodes in Figure 12

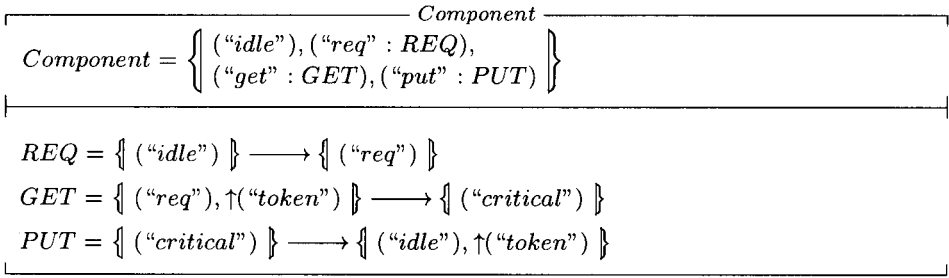
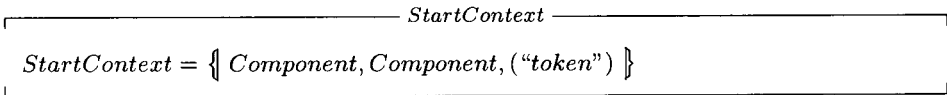


Fig. 13. Specification of a simple component.

Fig. 14. Specification for *StartContext*.

indicate the possible states for the space *Component*, namely *idle*, *critical*, and *req*. The arrows show the transitions due to the application of the rules *REQ*, *GET*, or *PUT*. The labels on the arrows describe the tuples tested, consumed, and produced in each transition. Our model checker works recursively starting from the more deeply nested spaces, up to the main space.

We distinguish two kinds of spaces: spaces which do not contain other spaces and spaces which contain subspaces. From hereafter we call *simple spaces* the former, and *compound spaces* the latter. The graph for simple spaces is built according to the SOS transition system. In graphs for compound spaces we exploit *configurations*. A configuration is a triple (*graph*, *instance*, *state*) that uniquely identifies a state in a graph of a space: a configuration is a descriptor for a subspace instance. A graph for a compound space contains a configuration for each subspace. In Figure 14 we describe the specification for a root space (named *StartContext*) including two instances of space *Component* given in Figure 13. The graph is built according to the SOS: a labeled transition for each rule activation is built from the initial state (defined by an initial multiset). The final state represents the multiset with rewritten tuples. The transition label includes tuples to be tested, consumed, or produced in the parent space. When a computation is performed inside a subspace, everything in the state representing the parent space is unchanged, but the configuration of the subspace. In Figure 15 we show how we exploit configurations.¹ The initial state of the graph corresponding to the main space (*StartContext*) con-

¹To avoid confusion the transition labels of the figure do not contain the list of the tested, consumed, or produced tuples; instead, we label the edges with the names of the rules applied.

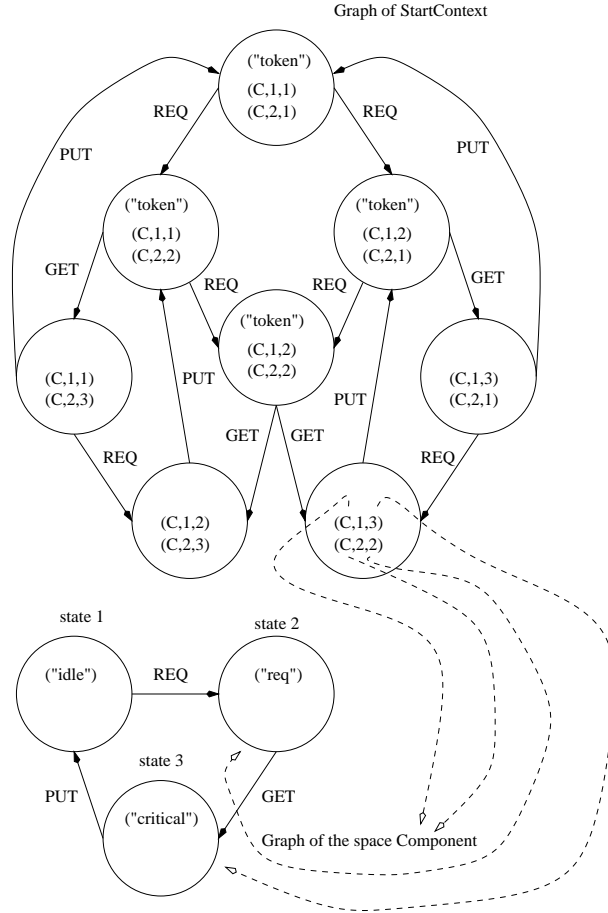


Fig. 15. Representation of configurations.

tains the tuple *token* and two configurations corresponding to the two instances of the two components $(C, 1, 1)$, $(C, 2, 1)$ (C stands for *Component*), where the second parameter denotes the instance identifier (i.e., *Component1* and *Component2*), and the last parameter is a pointer to the state of the graph of the *Component* space (i.e., the state 1 in both cases).

Our model is more useful and powerful than the SOS model mainly for two reasons: first, we save space when there are several instances of some graph definition, as in the previous example; second, we can abstract a single space and analyze its model independently from other spaces. However, building a graph independently from its context introduces some problems. For example, the case in which a formal tuple has to be consumed in the parent space has to be handled. Uninstantiated identifiers can hold any value, so for correctness, while building the graph, all the cases have to be considered (i.e., all values for each domain). We handled

| | |
|---|---|
| $\text{ptf} ::= \text{context} \mid$ $\text{temporal} \mid$ $\text{classic} \mid$ $(\text{ptf}) \mid$ $\text{atom} \mid$ $\forall i \in [\text{min}, \text{max}] (\text{ptf}) \mid$ $\exists i \in [\text{min}, \text{max}] (\text{ptf})$ | $\text{temporal} ::= \mathbf{X}\text{ptf} \mid$ $\mathbf{\&X}\text{ptf} \mid$ $\mathbf{*}(\text{ptf } \mathbf{U}\text{ptf}) \mid$ $\mathbf{\&}(\text{ptf } \mathbf{U}\text{ptf}) \mid$ $\mathbf{*}\mathbf{\diamond}\text{ptf} \mid$ $\mathbf{\&}\mathbf{\diamond}\text{ptf} \mid$ $\mathbf{*}\mathbf{\square}\text{ptf} \mid$ $\mathbf{\&}\mathbf{\square}\text{ptf} \mid$ $\text{ptf} \rightsquigarrow \text{ptf}$ |
| $\text{context} ::= \text{ptf} \in C \mid$ $\text{ptf} \in \mathbf{*}C \mid$ $\text{ptf} \in \mathbf{\&}C \mid$ $\text{ptf} \in \mathbf{\%}C$ | $\text{classic} ::= \text{ptf} \wedge \text{ptf} \mid$ $\text{ptf} \vee \text{ptf} \mid$ $\neg \text{ptf} \mid$ $\text{ptf} \Rightarrow \text{ptf}$ |
| $\text{atom} ::= \text{tuple}$ | |

Fig. 16. PTL syntax.

this problem making a guess on a fixed range of natural numbers given with the specification of the system to be analyzed.

In the following we introduce the logic we use to reason on these graphs and then, the details of the model-checking tool.

5.2 The PoliS Temporal Logic

The PoliS Temporal Logic (PTL) is a CTL [Clarke et al. 1986] dialect. The main differences between PTL and CTL depend on the definition of our model, which is based on spaces (multisets). All the formulae are evaluated in a context (a space); moreover, we assume that formulae without an explicit context are evaluated in the *StartContext*. An atomic proposition *atom* is a tuple and is true in a context *C* if the tuple it represents belongs to a space *C*. We have also added classical logic operators and some temporal operators. In Figure 16 we sketch the PTL syntax.

- A *ptf* can be a *temporal*, a *classic*, a parenthesized *ptf*, or an *atom*; a *ptf* can be universally or existentially quantified over some variables;
- a *context* is a PTL formula that has a pattern like $\text{ptf} \in C$ (space *C*), $\text{ptf} \in \mathbf{*}C$ (all *C* spaces), $\text{ptf} \in \mathbf{\&}C$ (at least one *C* space), or $\text{ptf} \in \mathbf{\%}C$ (exactly one *C* space), these because in a specification there can be more than one instance of the same space;
- a *temporal* is a CTL formula: the canonical operators **A** (for all paths) and **E** (at least a path does exist) for path quantification are described respectively by symbols ***** and **&**. **X** and **U** are PTL symbols for CTL operators Next and Until;
- $\mathbf{*}\mathbf{\diamond}\text{ptf}$ is defined as $\mathbf{*}(\text{true}\mathbf{U}\text{ptf})$: it means “for all paths *ptf* will be eventually true”;

- $\&\diamond ptf$ is defined as $\&(\text{trueU}ptf)$: it means “for at least one path ptf will be eventually true”;
- $\&*\square ptf$ is defined as $\neg\&\diamond\neg ptf$: it means that “for all paths ptf is always true”;
- $\&\square ptf$ is defined as $\neg*\diamond\neg ptf$: it means that “for at least a path ptf is always true”;
- $ptf \rightsquigarrow ptf'$ is defined as $*\square(ptf \Rightarrow *\square ptf')$: it means that “for all paths it is always true that ptf implies that for all paths ptf' will be eventually true”;
- a *classic* is a PTL formula with classical logic operators;
- an *atom* is simply a tuple.

5.3 The PoliS Model Checker

We now describe the details of our model-checking tool. PoliMC is our model checker for PoliS. The model checker gets two inputs: a system specification written in PoliS and a set of properties to be verified, written in PTL. PoliMC first parses the PoliS specification and builds up a model for it as described in Section 5.1; then, it parses the PTL formulae and builds syntactic trees. Finally, it starts the model-checking phase.

The model-checking algorithm we apply follows the guidelines given by Clarke et al. [1986]. As we have shown in Section 5.2 all formulae can be rewritten using these operators: \mathbf{X} , \mathbf{U} (preceded by $\&$ or $*$), \wedge , \neg . Thus, the only temporal formulae to verify are of the form

$$p \wedge q, \neg p, \&\mathbf{X}p, *\mathbf{X}p, \&(p\mathbf{U}q), *(p\mathbf{U}q).$$

The quantified formulae are handled like macros. A universally quantified formula is expanded in a logic conjunction of its subformulae, while an existentially quantified formula is substituted by the logic disjunction of its subformulae. For instance

$$\forall i \in [0, 3](ptf_i) \equiv (ptf_0 \wedge ptf_1 \wedge ptf_2 \wedge ptf_3)$$

$$\neg i \in [0, 3](ptf_i) \equiv (ptf_0 \vee ptf_1 \vee ptf_2 \vee ptf_3).$$

The main difference with respect to the Clarke algorithm is in the handling of *context* formulae. Each subformula is checked inside its context. When, during the checking, PoliMC finds a *context* formula like $p \in C$, it leaves the current graph and starts checking the graph bound to C . This task is performed recursively. When the checking is finished the currently checked state of the parent graph which contains a configuration (*state*, *graph*, *instance*) where *graph* is bound to C and where *state* is a state of the graph satisfying p , is labeled with the formula $p \in C$.

The verification of a formula of the form $p \in \{\%, \&, *\}C$ is similar: a state of the parent of the graph bound to C can be labeled if among all the configurations it contains, which have the *graph* component bound to C , there is respectively only one configuration, some configurations, or all the configurations satisfying the formula p .

The verification of a formula is performed bottom-up: if the length of the formula is n , PoliMC first checks all the subformulae of length less than n ; then it labels each state according to the labeling of the subformulae.

The verification of *atom* formulae is trivial: an *atom* is a tuple, and a state will be labeled with this formula if and only if it represents a space which contains the tuple.

The verification of formulae $p \wedge q$ and $\neg q$ depends on the verification of p and q . $\&\mathbf{X}p$ and $*\mathbf{X}p$ can be easily checked too: a state s is labeled with these formulae if some or all the states s' in the transitions of type (s, s') are labeled with p .

The verification of formulae that contain the until (\mathbf{U}) operator is more complex. The check for $*(p)$ is done forward, while the check for $\&(p\mathbf{U}q)$ is done backward, operating recursively. According to the (\mathbf{U}) definition a state s can be labeled with $*(p\mathbf{U}q)$ if s is labeled with q , or if it is labeled with p and all its successor states are labeled with $*(p\mathbf{U}q)$. On the contrary, a state s can be labeled with $\&(p\mathbf{U}q)$ if it is labeled with q or if it is labeled with p and one of its successor states is labeled with $\&(p\mathbf{U}q)$. We remark that if a specification contains the creation of new spaces we could obtain infinite graphs; thus we use model checking on a constrained version of the specification where we limit the number of possible generated spaces. This implies that we cannot “prove” properties on the model, as we do not explore all the possible paths. Therefore, we use the tool to test the specifications, to see if formulas are satisfiable, and to find counterexamples.

In the following section we formalize a system with mobile components using PoliS and show how it can be analyzed using the model checker.

6. SPECIFICATION OF AN ARCHITECTURE WITH MOBILE AGENTS

We use PoliS to specify a “meeting scheduler system” including mobile agents. This problem was proposed as a case study in mobility for the International Workshop on Software Specification and Design [Feather et al. 1997]. We first give an informal description (Section 6.1), then a PoliS specification (Section 6.2).

6.1 The Meeting Scheduler System: An Informal Description

An organization manages meetings as follows. A meeting initiator asks all potential attendees for the following information to be included in their personal agendas:

—a set of dates on which they cannot attend a meeting (exclusion set);

—a set of dates on which they would prefer a meeting to take place (preference set). For simplicity, and without loss of generality, we assume that all days outside the exclusion set and not yet fixed for a meeting are free and represent the preference set.

The proposed meeting date should belong to none of the exclusion sets and to as many preference sets as possible. A date conflict occurs when no date can be found. Conflicts can be resolved in two ways:

- some participants remove some dates from their exclusion set;
- some participants withdraw from the meeting.

The system should assist users in the following activities.

- Plan meetings consistently, using the constraints expressed by participants.
- Replan a meeting dynamically (to offer flexibility). Participants should be allowed to modify their exclusion and preference sets before a meeting date is decided. A meeting date initially found may need to be modified; sometimes the meeting may even be canceled.
- Support conflict resolution according to some arbitrary resolution policies.

The meeting scheduler system must in general handle several meeting requests in parallel. Meeting requests can compete by overlapping in time: concurrency must thus be managed.

Admittedly, this problem can be solved with more conventional technologies: there is no need of mobile agents if we centralize all data in some “meeting server.” The main advantage of using mobile agents is that an agent can exploit reliable links to travel and perform local computations on a site avoiding movement when, for instance, the net is congested. We use this case study only to show how PoliS can be used to deal with a solution based on mobile agents.

6.2 A Specification Including Mobile Agents

The “meeting scheduler system” specification document in PoliS is organized as follows: every initiator of a meeting is associated to a multiset of tuples representing a mobile agent. Several agents (one for each meeting) can run in parallel. Each initiator agent moves among the sites of participants collecting preferences and trying to decide a date (see Figure 18). For simplicity we assume that a meeting can take place only if all potential attendees will participate. An agent collects information inside a participant space; then it is frozen and moved outside the space:

Figures 17, 19, and 20 show the specification of three kinds of spaces. The *StartContext* (Figure 17) is the initial space: it includes p participants and n agents, one for each meeting. Each *Participant* space (Figure 19) has an initial state consisting of tuples representing its agenda: some

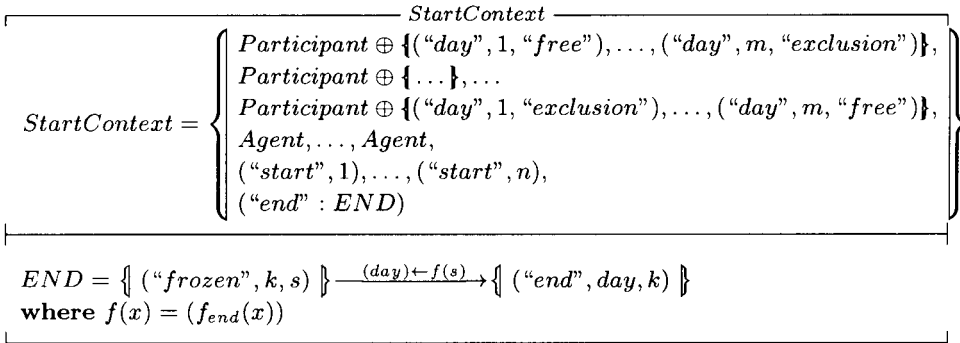


Fig. 17. The meeting scheduler: The main space.

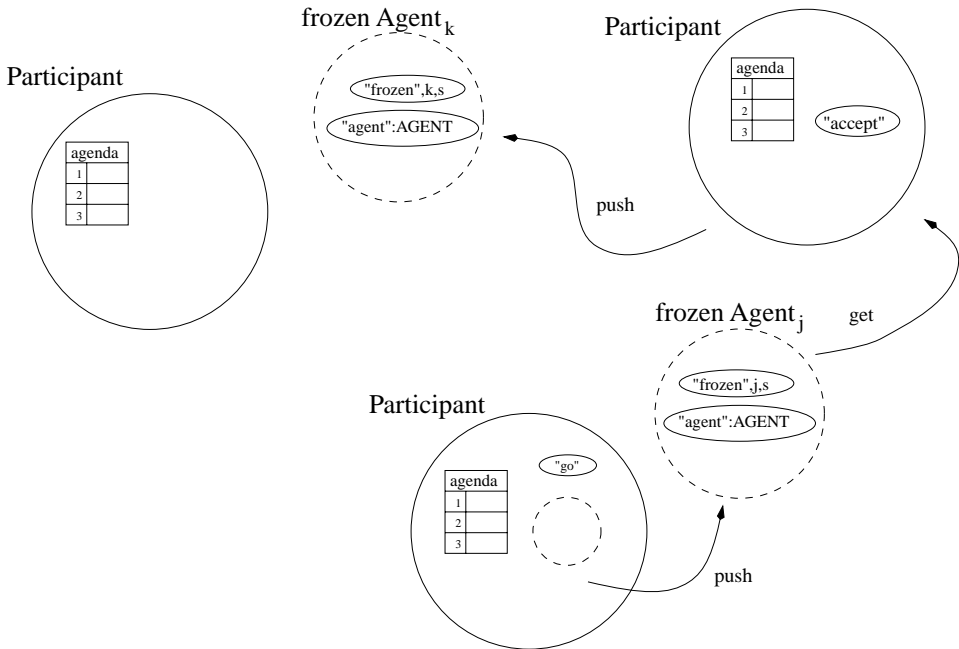


Fig. 18. Agents system architecture.

days are marked “free” and others are marked “exclusion,” meaning that these dates are in the participant exclusion set (we implicitly assume that the number of meetings (n) is less or equal to the number of days in the agenda (m)). Agendas are represented by the multisets after the \oplus operator in the *StartContext* definition of Figure 17. Tuples (“start”, n) are consumed by agents to prepare themselves for the shipping, get a self identifier n , and start migrating (see rule *START* in the *Agent* space).

The *StartContext* space includes just the program tuple (“end”: *END*): the code of the rule *END* associated with the program tuple checks that all the potential attendees will participate, i.e., the condition for the meeting

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \hline
 \text{Participant} \\
 \hline
 \text{Participant} = \left\{ \left(\text{"get"} : \text{GETAG} \right), \left(\text{"push"} : \text{PUSHAG} \right), \right. \\
 \left. \left(\text{"extend"} : \text{EXTEND} \right), \left(\text{"accept"} \right) \right\} \\
 \hline
 \\
 \text{GETAG} = \left\{ \uparrow \left(\text{"frozen"} : h, s \right), \right. \\
 \left. \uparrow \left(\text{"agent"} : a \right), \left(\text{"accept"} \right) \right\} \longrightarrow \left\{ \left(\text{"frozen"} : h, s \right), \right. \\
 \left. \left(\text{"agent"} : a \right), \left(\text{"agent"} \right) \right\} \\
 \\
 \text{PUSHAG} = \left\{ \left(\text{"frozen"} : h, s \right), \right. \\
 \left. \left(\text{"agent"} : a \right), \left(\text{"go"} \right) \right\} \longrightarrow \left\{ \uparrow \left(\text{"frozen"} : h, s \right), \right. \\
 \left. \uparrow \left(\text{"agent"} : a \right), \left(\text{"accept"} \right) \right\} \\
 \\
 \text{EXTEND} = \left\{ \left(\text{"day"} : d, \text{"exclusion"} \right), \right. \\
 \left. ? \left(\text{"accept"} \right) \right\} \longrightarrow \left\{ \left(\text{"day"} : d, \text{"free"} \right) \right\} \\
 \hline
 \end{array}$$

Fig. 19. The meeting scheduler: The participant space.

to take place (the function f_{end} checks if the number of participants has reached a given number and outputs a date).

Each *Participant* space can accept incoming *agents*. It contains some program tuples to activate the following rules. The rule *GETAG* allows the agent to enter in a space. It consumes the tuples (*frozen*, *h*, *s*) and (*agent*: *a*) from the main space and generates them locally. It also consumes the (*accept*) tuple locally and generates the tuple (*agent*), meaning that the frozen agent has been entered in the local space. The rule *PUSHAG* moves the agent out of a space. It moves the tuples (*agent*) and (*frozen*, *h*, *s*) to the main space. Figure 18 shows the actions of the two rules. Participants can extend the set of possible dates using the rule *EXTEND*, to solve conflicts that can arise. This rule simply decides to free a date removing the tuple (*day*, *d*, *exclusion*) and emitting (*day*, *d*, *free*).

The *Agent* space (Figure 20) contains some rules and a termination rule to make the agent to freeze. The rule *START* fires an agent to build a calendar (i.e., the tuples (*M*, *d*, *v*) where *d* is a day and where *v* is the number of potential attendees for day *d*; initially all days are free; then for all these tuples *v* is 0. The rule *AGENT* generates (by **tsc**) a new agent space inside the participant space (Figure 21). The first rule enabled in a new agent space, inside a participant space, is *RESUME*: this rule is used to get and restore the frozen state of the agent. It emits a tuple (*go*) enabling rule *PUSHAG* for a next move. An agent contains also rule *U* (Update) and rule *WITHDRAW*. The rule *U* updates the agenda of a participant using the following policy: a participant takes the first free date, if it exists, and books it; a participant cannot book more than one date. Rule *U* also updates the internal agent table,² represented by tuples

²Each agent tries to establish a single meeting, and the figure contains, for each date, the number of participants that would accept that date.

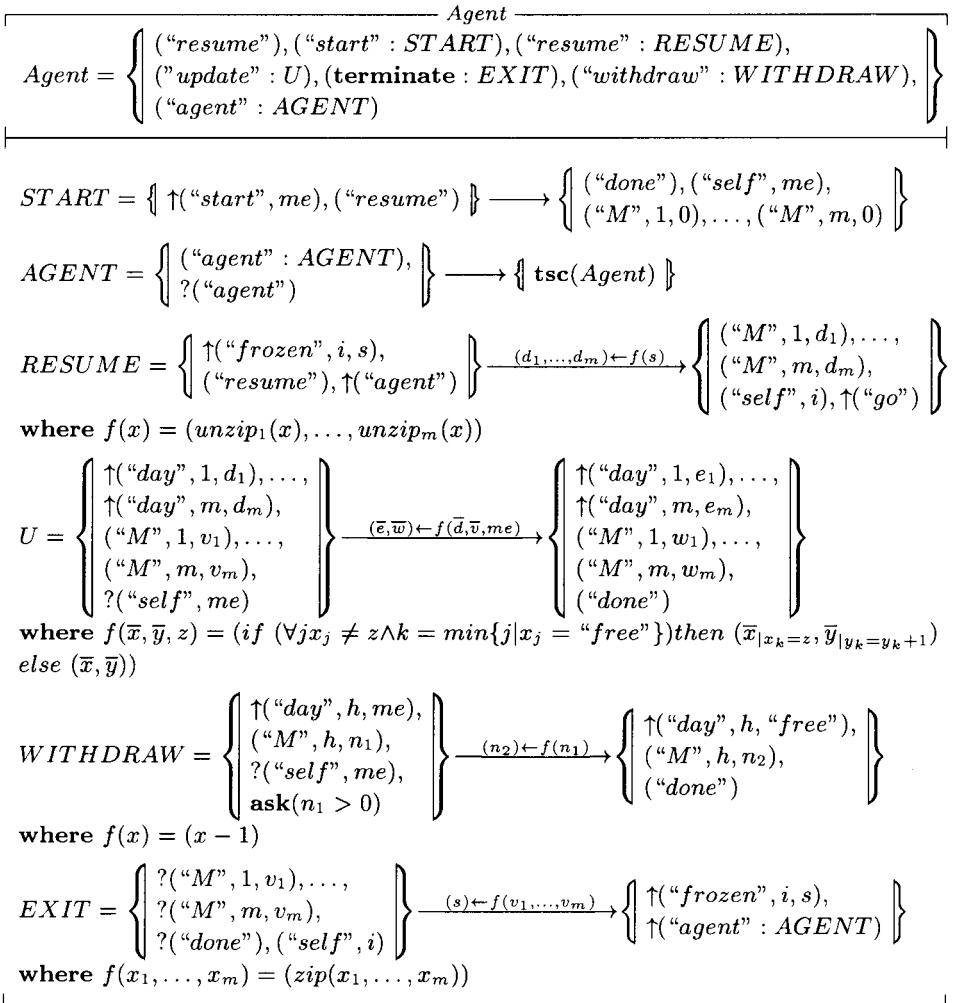


Fig. 20. The meeting scheduler: The agent space.

like $(\text{"M"}, d, v)$ as explained above. In Figure 21 an updating is shown: the participant agenda is updated booking day "1" with the name of the meeting (i.e., the name of the agent): "Z", and increasing by 1 the counter of the meeting potential attendees for day "1" (that now is 2) in the agent table. The rule *WITHDRAW* models a withdrawing from a meeting by a participant. It consumes the tuple $(\text{"day"}, h, \text{me})$ and emits a tuple $(\text{"day"}, h, \text{free})$ in the *Participant* space. It also decreases the number of supposed participants to the meeting h (i.e., it consumes the tuple $(\text{"M"}, h, n_1)$ and emits the tuple $(\text{"M"}, h, n_2)$ where $n_2 = n_1 - 1$). The rule *EXIT* is a *termination* rule (see Section 2 for its semantics). It terminates the agent space, by freezing the agent and moving it outside: this is performed

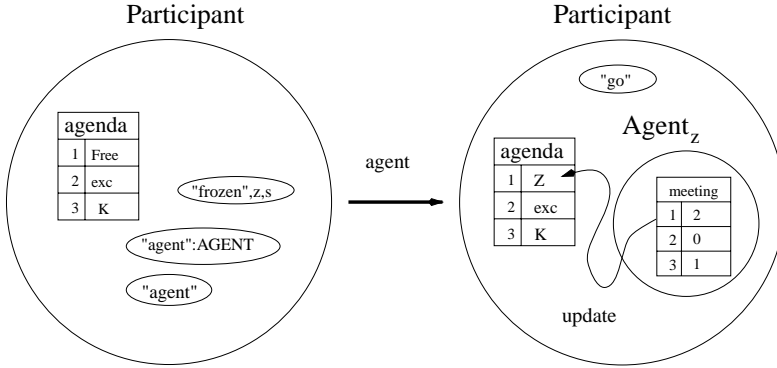


Fig. 21. An agent performing an update.

producing a tuple that represents the frozen state (“frozen”, i, s) and a tuple (“agent”:AGENT) for regenerating an Agent space.

The model of mobility of the meeting agents is exactly the one specified in Section 4 and shown in Figure 11. The meeting agent space is frozen when the agent has finished collecting information in the participant site. Then, some tuples are emitted in the main space, while other participants can get the agent tuples, and the agent is regenerated inside another participant site. When the meeting agent has finished, a tuple with the decided meeting date is emitted, and the agent is destroyed (by the rule *END*).

6.3 Analysis of the Meeting Scheduler System

We have used PoliMC to analyze some liveness properties of this system. We use the model checker on finite versions of the specification. The properties we prove for these versions are satisfiable on the abstract specification, but we cannot say that such properties are verified in general. Since some components can move we are interested in studying the dynamic behavior of the system. For instance, we would like to prove that an agent will be able to establish a meeting date, or that some properties on the migration of an agent inside/outside the components are true. Formally we can write

$$End = (\forall agent(\exists day(("end", day, agent) \in StartContext)))$$

$$Move = (((done) \in \&Agent) \in \&Participant).$$

End states that each agent finds a date for its meeting (i.e., all the meetings are arranged). *Move* states that an agent is in a participant site (i.e., an agent space is inside a participant space) and that it has performed some actions (i.e., the tuple (*done*) is produced). We study a configuration where the number of meetings to be arranged, namely the number of agents, is smaller than the available days; otherwise, trivially, some agents will never find a date. We would like to verify the following:

$$*\square* \diamond End \quad (1)$$

That is, the *End* property (i.e., each agent finds a date for its meeting) will be valid for all the executions (i.e., all the execution paths lead to a state where the *End* condition is verified). However, PoliMC shows that (1) is false. To understand this we can think of a scenario where agents are not able to agree, choosing the same date and then withdrawing it. Nevertheless, PoliMC also verifies the falsity of

$$*\square* \diamond Move. \quad (2)$$

Property (2) states that the *Move* property will be valid (i.e., agents move indefinitely) for all executions. The falsity of (2), verified with the model checker, guarantees that this cannot happen, so we are sure to have a scenario where all meetings are arranged. PoliMC verifies that this property is not true if the number of meetings (agents) is greater than the number of the available days.

As (1) and (2) are proved false we can verify the following formula:

$$*\square* \diamond (End \vee Move) \quad (3)$$

That is, in all the executions it is true that some agents move or all the meetings are arranged. This shows that the system cannot deadlock. In this example, however, properties (1) and (2) above cannot help us to guarantee progress. Therefore, to ensure that all the meetings will be arranged we need a fairness condition in the following form:

$$*\square \& \diamond End \Rightarrow (1), \quad (4)$$

i.e.,

$$*\square \& \diamond End \Rightarrow *\square* \diamond End. \quad (5)$$

Property (5) states that if from all the states of all paths we can find at least one path in which *End* is eventually valid, then *End* will be valid in all the paths. In other words if we are always in a state that allows to arrange all the meetings, then this will eventually happen. PoliMC verifies successfully the hypothesis of property (5):

$$*\square \& \diamond End \quad (6)$$

Hence, property (6) in conjunction with (5) leads to the verification of (1).

Finally we remark that if we remove some rules used to resolve conflicts (like rule *WITHDRAW* or rule *EXTEND*), property (6) is not verified, i.e., there are some states where no path leads to *End*. In other words, sometimes a system can reach a state in which it is impossible to arrange some meetings, and some agents move indefinitely. To avoid these situa-

tions the withdrawing or the extension of the free dates by some participants should be considered.

In order to verify properties using the model checker, we have instantiated the specification of the meeting scheduler system. Here we show a part of the specification instantiated with two possible meeting days (i.e., two agents) and two participants. The model checker accepts as input two files containing respectively the PoliS specification of the system and the formulae to be verified. What follows is a part of the specification file for the meeting scheduler:

```

startcontext={
  Participant,Participant,
  Agent,Agent,("start",1),("start",2),
  ("end":END)
}
rule END=
  ("frozen",k,(day1,num1,day2,num2)),
  ask(num1=PART\ /num2=PART)
}
[(d)<--f(day1,num1,day2)]-->
{
  ("end",k,d)
}
where f(x,y,z)=(if (y=PART) then (x) else (z));

```

PART is a constant defining the number of participants. Notice that the state s of the frozen agent ("*frozen*", k , s_2) consumed by the rule *END* (Figure 17) has been expanded in order to express the conditions on the **where** clause, (day1, num1, day2, num2): day1 and day2 indicate the two possible meeting dates, while num1 and num2 indicate respectively the number of the participants to the two meetings.

The check (*ask*) on the expanded state of the meeting agent has also been inserted: it checks if one of the two dates has been chosen by both the participants. Here is the specification of property (3):

```

*[]*<> (
  (forall agent in [1,2] (
    exists day in [1,2] (
      ("end",day,agent)))
  ((("done") in & Agent) in & Participant))

```

The range of the agents and the days is explicitly set ([1,2]). At the moment the textual specifications input for the model checker have to be written by the specifier, but an interface tool that translates PoliS-Latex specifications into textual ones can easily be designed. As the model checker works on finite instances of the specification, the user has to define the range of the parameters. Furthermore, the user has to declare the abstract PoliS functions after the **where** clause (i.e., where $f(x,y,z)=(if (y=PART) then (x) else (z))$).

In order to further constrain the state explosion, we are researching techniques of context constrains for compositional reachability analysis (CRA) [Graf and Steffen 1990; Cheung and Kramer 1996]. As in PoliS the

components (namely the spaces) make assumptions on their external environment (namely their parent space) using the rule scope (see Figure 2). This kind of analysis can be applied in order to drastically reduce the number of states of the graph. An other approach that could be followed to further reduce the state explosion is symbolic model checking. Enders et al. [1992] exploit a technique for building a BDD of parallel processes from basic BDDs. The bottom-up fashion of this approach is similar to our technique of building compound spaces from simple spaces.

7. RELATED WORK

PoliS is not the first formal language used to study systems including mobile entities. However, to our knowledge, our proposal is the first attempt to build an automatic framework to analyze properties on specifications of mobile code-based systems.

In terms of formal languages, process algebras have been used for the specification of mobility aspects. The π -calculus [Milner 1999] has been the first language offering features to specify movement across *channels*. However the π -calculus does not support a notion of *location*. Many extensions to the π -calculus have been developed in order to overcome this and other issues. For instance, both the Join calculus [Fournet et al. 1996] and the extension defined in Amadio [1997] explicitly add a notion of location. Klaim [DeNicola et al. 1998] is a language based on the tuple space coordination model, like PoliS, in which a process algebra is integrated with a type system in order to study security issues.

In general, process algebra-based languages focus on the notion of *process* and do not provide the notion of “environment” of the computation. More sophisticated languages offer a concept of environment that we provide with tuple-spaces.

The Chemical Abstract Machine (CHAM) [Berry and Boudol 1992] has *membranes* that are very similar to our spaces; however, the CHAM does not support code mobility, as the rules are globally defined outside the “chemical solution” (i.e., the global tuple space).

The ambient calculus [Cardelli and Gordon 2000] provides the notion of *ambient*, which is the mobility unit of the language. *Ambients* are like our spaces, but their mobility is first-class in the language, unlike in PoliS. The ambient calculus introduces a concept of “step-by-step” mobility as well. The complexity due to the first-class *ambients* mobility make it quite difficult to reason, in particular with tools, on the specifications.

Mobile UNITY [McCann and Roman 1998] is a state-based language used for the specification of physical and logical mobility. It provides a temporal logic that allows reasoning. However, no automatic tools exist supporting Mobile UNITY. In Picco et al. [1997] Mobile UNITY has been used to formalize some common mobile-code paradigms (i.e., Code on Demand, Remote Evaluation, and Mobile Agents). All these paradigms can be also encoded in PoliS, and we are looking at the possibility of reasoning with our automatic tool on them. Furthermore, in Mobile UNITY the dynamic

replication of components is not allowed. Therefore, in the Code on Demand paradigm the used code needs to be sent back to the server to be sent again. In PoliS the dynamic cloning of code is allowed, and the Code on Demand paradigm can be formalized more directly.

8. FUTURE WORK AND CONCLUSIONS

Traditional languages, models, and methods used to specify and design applications on a single computer usually lack of abstractions to appreciate and understand the problems raised when the computing platform is a “network computer.” Mobility is an obvious example: even if admittedly we could define “mobile code” as an application going around on a floppy disk, it is a concept that is especially interesting and complex when a networked programmable infrastructure is available, like an intranet or even the whole Internet.

In this article we have studied how a coordination language can be used to specify and analyze systems including mobile components. The idea consists of having a coordination language that can express a dynamic topology of components and the mobility of code and data. We analyze PoliS documents with a model checker that can test formal properties of the system being specified. An enhancement of PoliS with first-class space mobility is possible [Mascolo 1999]. We are interested in studying the ability of automatic reasoning on such a model using an approach similar to the one we use in the model checker we presented in this article.

Security issues are important in a mobile-code setting. Languages such as Klaim [DeNicola et al. 1998] and the Ambient calculus [Cardelli and Gordon 2000] use “capabilities” on operations, or type systems, to face security aspects. We see a possible development of PoliS in this direction, and it would be interesting to study which kind of automatic analysis we can perform on security properties.

In terms of language interface improvements we are studying a visual notation for PoliS in order to simplify the impact on the users. We are developing an XML-based abstract syntax [Bray et al. 1998] in order to make PoliS specifications more portable and possibly to be able to be integrated with other XML-based frameworks, like the UML notation [Booch et al. 1999].

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We would like to thank W. Emmerich, A. Finkelstein, and the anonymous reviewers for their careful reading and valuable comments.

REFERENCES

- AMADIO, R. 1997. An asynchronous model of locality, failure, and process mobility. In *Proceedings of the 2nd International Conference on Coordination Models and Languages (COORDINATION '97)*, Lecture Notes in Computer Science, vol. 1282. Springer-Verlag, New York.

- BAGRODIA, R., CHU, W., KLEINROCK, L., AND POPEK, G. 1995. Vision, issues, and architecture for nomadic computing. *IEEE Personal Commun.* 2, 6, 14–27.
- BANÂTRE, J.-P. AND LE MÉTAYER, D. 1996. Gamma and the chemical reaction model: Ten years after. In *Coordination Programming: Mechanisms, Models and Semantics*, J.-M. Andreoli, C. Hankin, and D. L. Métayer, Eds. Imperial College Press, London, UK, 3–41.
- BERRY, G. AND BOUDOL, G. 1992. The Chemical Abstract Machine. *Theor. Comput. Sci.* 96, 1 (6 Apr. 1992), 217–248.
- BOOCH, G., RUMBAUGH, J., AND JACOBSON, I. 1999. *The Unified Modeling Language User Guide*. Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., Inc., Redwood City, CA.
- BRAY, T., PAOLI, J., AND SPERBERG-MCQUEEN, C. M. 1998. Extensible markup language. <http://www.w3.org/TR/1998/REC-xml-19980210>
- BROY, M. 1996. Experiences with software specification and verification using LP, the Larch proof assistant. *Formal Methods Syst. Des.* 8, 3, 221–272.
- BURCH, J. R., CLARKE, E. M., McMILLAN, K. L., DILL, D. L., AND HWANG, L. J. 1992. Symbolic model checking: 10^{20} states and beyond. *Inf. Comput.* 98, 2 (June), 142–170.
- CARDELLI, L. AND GORDON, A. 2000. Mobile ambients. *Theor. Comput. Sci.* 240, 1.
- CHESS, D. 1995. Itinerant agents for mobile computing. *IEEE Personal Commun.* 2, 5 (Oct.), 34–49.
- CHEUNG, S. C. AND KRAMER, J. 1996. Context constraints for compositional reachability analysis. *ACM Trans. Softw. Eng. Methodol.* 5, 4, 334–377.
- CIANCARINI, P. 1996. Coordination models and languages as software integrators. *ACM Comput. Surv.* 28, 2, 300–302.
- CIANCARINI, P., MAZZA, M., AND PAZZAGLIA, L. 1998. A logic for a coordination model with multiple spaces. *Sci. Comput. Program.* 31, 2-3, 231–261.
- CLARKE, E. M., EMERSON, E. A., AND SISTLA, A. P. 1986. Automatic verification of finite-state concurrent systems using temporal logic specifications. *ACM Trans. Program. Lang. Syst.* 8, 2 (Apr. 1986), 244–263.
- CLARKE, E. M., GRUMBERG, O., AND LONG, D. E. 1994. Model checking and abstraction. *ACM Trans. Program. Lang. Syst.* 16, 5 (Sept. 1994), 1512–1542.
- DE NICOLA, R., FERRARI, G. L., AND PUGLIESE, R. 1998. KLAIM: a kernel language for agents interaction and mobility. *IEEE Trans. Softw. Eng.* 24, 5, 315–330.
- ENDERS, R., FILKORN, T., AND TAUBNER, D. 1991. Generating BDDs for symbolic model checking in CCS. In *Proceedings of the 3rd International Conference on Computer Aided Verification (CAV '91, Aalborg, Denmark, July)*, Springer Lecture Notes in Computer Science, vol. 575. Springer-Verlag, Berlin, Germany, 203–213.
- FEATHER, M., FICKAS, S., FINKELSTEIN, A., AND VAN LAMSWERDE, A. 1997. Requirements and specification exemplars. *J. Autom. Softw. Eng.* 4, 4, 419–438.
- FOURNET, C., GONTHIER, G., LÉVY, J. J., MARANGET, L., AND RÉMY, D. 1996. A calculus of mobile agents. In *Proceedings of the International Conference on Concurrency Theory*, Springer-Verlag, Berlin, Germany, 406–421.
- GRAF, S. AND STEFFEN, B. 1990. Compositional minimization of finite state systems. In *Proceedings of the 2nd International Conference on Computer Aided Verification (CAV, New Brunswick, NJ, June)*, Springer Lecture Notes in Computer Science, vol. 531. Springer-Verlag, Berlin, Germany, 186–196.
- KINIRY, J. AND ZIMMERMAN, D. 1997. A hands-on look at Java mobile agents. *IEEE Internet Comput.* 1, 4, 21–33.
- LAMPORT, L. 1994. The temporal logic of actions. *ACM Trans. Program. Lang. Syst.* 16, 3 (May 1994), 872–923.
- LANGE, D. B. AND OSHIMA, M. 1988. *Programming and Deploying Java TM Mobile Agents with Aglets TM*. Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., Inc., Redwood City, CA.
- MASCOLO, C. 1999. MobiS: A specification language for mobile systems. In *Proc. 3 on rd Int. Conf. on Coordination Languages and Models ((COORDINATION '99), (Apr.))*, Springer-Verlag, New York, 37–52.
- MCCANN, P. J. AND ROMAN, G. C. 1998. Compositional programming abstractions for mobile computing. *IEEE Trans. Softw. Eng.* 24, 2 (Feb.), 97–110.

- MILNER, R. 1999. *Communicating and Mobile Systems: The π -Calculus*. Cambridge University Press, New York, NY.
- PICCO, G. P., ROMAN, G.-C., AND McCANN, P. J. 1997. Expressing code mobility in mobile UNITY. *SIGSOFT Softw. Eng. Notes* 22, 6, 500–518.
- RAMJEE, R., LAPORTA, T., AND VEERARAGHAVAN, M. 1995. The use of network-based migrating agents for personal communication services. *IEEE Personal Commun.* 2, 6, 62–68.
- SERUGENDO, G. D., MUHUGUSA, M., AND TSCHUDIN, C. 1998. A survey of theories for mobile agents. *World Wide Web J.* 1, 3, 139–153.
- SIMPA, H., URIBE, T., AND MANNA, Z. 1996. Deductive model checking. In *Proceedings of the 8th International Conference on Computer-Aided Verification (CAV '96, New Brunswick, NJ, July/Aug.)*, R. Alur and T. A. Henzinger, Eds. Springer Lecture Notes in Computer Science, vol. 1102. Springer-Verlag, New York, NY.
- THORN, T. 1997. Programming languages for mobile code. *ACM Comput. Surv.* 29, 3, 213–239.

Received: September 1998; revised: March 1999 and December 1999; accepted: February 2000