6.7 Nondeterminacy

In Algol 68, the lack of ordering among expression operands is explicitly defined as an example of nondeterminacy, which the language designers call collateral execution. Several other built-in constructs are nondeterministic in Algol 68, and an explicit collateral statement allows the programmer to specify nondeterminacy in the evaluation of arbitrary expressions when desired.

Dijkstra [Dij75] has advocated the use of nondeterminacy for selection and logically controlled loops. His guarded command notation has been adopted by several languages. One of these is SR, which we will study in more detail in Chapter 12. Imagine for a moment that we are writing a function to return the maximum of two integers. In C, we would probably employ a code fragment something like this:

```c
if (a > b) max = a;
else max = b;
```

Of course, we could also write

```c
if (a >= b) max = a;
else max = b;
```

These fragments differ in their behavior when \( a = b \): the first sets \( \text{max} = b \); the second sets \( \text{max} = a \). As a practical matter the difference is irrelevant, since \( a \) and \( b \) are equal, but it is in some sense aesthetically unpleasant to have to make an arbitrary choice between the two. More important, the arbitrariness of the choice makes it more difficult to reason about the code formally, or to prove it is correct.

In a language with guarded commands (the example here is in SR), one could write:
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The general form of this construct is

\[
\text{if } \text{condition } \rightarrow \text{stmt\_list} \\
[] \text{condition } \rightarrow \text{stmt\_list} \\
[] \text{condition } \rightarrow \text{stmt\_list} \\
\ldots \\
\text{fi}
\]

Each of the conditions in this construct is known as a **guard**. The guard and its following statement, together, are called a **guarded command**. When control reaches an `if` statement in a language with guarded commands, a nondeterministic choice is made among the guards that evaluate to true, and the statement list following the chosen guard is executed. In SR, the final condition may optionally be `else`. If none of the conditions evaluates to true, the statement list following the `else`, if any, is executed. If there is no `else`, the `if` statement as a whole has no effect. (In Dijkstra's original proposal, there was no `else` guard option, and it was a dynamic semantic error for none of the guards to be true.) Interestingly, SR provides no separate `case` construct: the SR compiler detects when the conditions of an `if` statement test the same expression against a nonoverlapping set of compile-time constants, and generates table-lookup code as appropriate.

SR uses guarded commands for several purposes in addition to selection. Its logically controlled looping construct (again patterned on Dijkstra's proposal) looks very much like the `if` statement:

\[
\text{do } \text{condition } \rightarrow \text{stmt\_list} \\
[] \text{condition } \rightarrow \text{stmt\_list} \\
[] \text{condition } \rightarrow \text{stmt\_list} \\
\ldots \\
\text{od}
\]

For each iteration of the loop, a nondeterministic choice is made among the guards that evaluate to true, and the statement list following the chosen one is executed. The loop terminates when none of the guards is true (there is no `else` guard option for loops). Using this notation, we can write Euclid's greatest common divisor algorithm as follows:

\[
\text{do } a > b \rightarrow a := a - b \\
[] b > a \rightarrow b := b - a \\
\text{od}
\]

\[
gcd := a
\]

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process client:
  loop
    toss coin
    if heads, send read request to server
    wait for response
    if tails, send write request to server
    wait for response

process server:
  loop
    receive read request
    reply with data
    OR
    receive write request
    update data and reply

Figure 6.7 Example of a concurrent program that requires nondeterminacy. The server must be able to accept either a read or a write request, whichever is available at the moment. If it insists on receiving them in any particular order, deadlock may result.

Nondeterministic Concurrency

While nondeterministic constructs have a certain appeal from an aesthetic and formal semantics point of view, their most compelling advantages arise in concurrent programs, for which they can affect correctness. Imagine, for example, that we are writing a simple dictionary program to support computer-aided design on a network of personal computers. The dictionary keeps a mapping from part names to their specifications. A dictionary server process handles requests from clients on other workstations on the network. Each request may be either a read (return me the current specification for part X) or a write (define part Y as follows).\(^1\) Clients send requests at unpredictable times. As a result, the server cannot tell at any given time whether it should try to receive a read or a write request. If it makes the wrong choice the entire system may deadlock (see Figure 6.7).

Most message-based concurrent languages provide at least one nondeterministic construct that can be used to specify communication with any of several possible communication partners. In SR, one could write our dictionary server as follows:

```
# declarations of request types:
op read_data(n : name) returns d : description
opal write_data(n : name; d : description)
```

\(^1\) This is of course an oversimplified example. Among other things, any real system of this sort would need a mechanism to lock parts in the dictionary, so that no two clients would ever end up designing new specifications for the same part concurrently.
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# local subroutines:
proc lookup ... # find info in dictionary
proc update ... # change info in dictionary

# code for server:
process server
   do true -> # loop forever
      in read_data(n) returns d -> d := lookup(n)
          [] write_data(n, d) -> update(n, d)
      ni
   od
end

Here **in** is a nondeterministic construct whose guards can contain communication statements. The guard **write_data(n, d)** will evaluate to true if and only if some client is attempting to send a request containing a new specification for a part. We shall see in Section 12.5.3 that more elaborate guards can allow a server to constrain the types of requests that it is willing to receive at a given point in time, or even to “peek” inside a message to see if it is acceptable. If none of the guards of an **in** statement is true, the server waits until one is.

**Choosing among Guards**

What happens if two or more guards evaluate to true? How does the language implementation choose among them? We have glossed over this issue so far. The most naive implementation would treat a guarded command construct like a conventional **if**...**then**...**else**:

```
server:
   loop
      if read_data request available
         ...
      elsif write_data request available
         ...
      else wait until some request is available

The problem with this implementation is that it always favors one type of request over another; if **read_data** requests are always available, **write_data** requests will never be received.
```

A slightly more sophisticated implementation would maintain a circular list of the guards in each set of guarded commands. Each time it encounters the construct in which these commands appear, it would check guards beginning with the one after the one that succeeded last time. This technique works well in many cases, but can fail consistently in others. In the following, for example (again in SR), the guard of the first **in** statement combines a communication test with a Boolean condition:
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process silly
var count : int := 0
do true ->
in A() st count % 2 = 1 -> . . .
[] B() -> . . .
[] C() -> . . .
ni
  count++
  od

This example is somewhat contrived, but illustrates the problem. The st ("such that") clause in the first guard indicates that it can be chosen only on odd iterations of the loop. Now imagine that A, B, and C requests are always available. If we always check guards starting with the one after the one that succeeded last time (beginning at first with the initial guard), then B will be chosen in the first iteration (because \( \text{count mod 2} \neq 1 \)), C will be chosen in the second iteration (when \( \text{count} = 2 \)), B will be chosen again in the third iteration (because again \( \text{count mod 2} \neq 1 \)), and so forth. A will never be chosen. The lesson to be learned from this example is that no deterministic algorithm will provide a truly satisfactory implementation of a nondeterministic construct (see sidebar on page 119 ).

One final issue has to do with side effects. Guarded command constructs make a nondeterministic choice among the guards that evaluate to true. They do not, however, guarantee that all guards will be evaluated before the choice is made; the implementation is free to ignore the rest of the guards once it has chosen one

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**DESIGN & IMPLEMENTATION**

**Nondeterminacy and fairness**

Ideally, what we should like in a nondeterministic construct is a guarantee of fairness. This turns out to be trickier than one might expect: there are several plausible ways that “fair” might be defined. Certainly we should like to guarantee that no guard that is always true is always skipped. Probably, we should like to guarantee that no guard that is true infinitely often (in a hypothetical infinite sequence of iterations) is always skipped. Better, we might ask that any guard retain that is true infinitely often be chosen infinitely often. This stronger notion of fairness will obtain if the choice among true guards is genuinely random. Unfortunately, good pseudorandom number generators are expensive enough that we probably don’t want to use them to choose among guards. As a result, most implementations of guarded commands are not provably fair. Many simply employ the circular list technique. Others use somewhat “more random” heuristics. Many machines, for example, provide a fast-running clock register that can be read efficiently in user-level code. A reasonable “random” choice of the guard to evaluate first can be made by interpreting this clock as an integer, and computing its remainder modulo the number of guards.
that is true. A program may therefore produce unexpected or even unpredictable results if any of the guards have side effects. This problem is the programmer’s responsibility in SR. An alternative would have been to prohibit side effects and have the compiler verify their absence.

CHECK YOUR UNDERSTANDING

48. What is a guarded command?

49. Explain why nondeterminacy is particularly important for concurrent programs.

50. Give three alternative definitions of fairness in the context of nondeterminacy.

51. Describe three possible ways of implementing the choice among guards that evaluate to true. What are the tradeoffs among these?