What is termination?

It would be nice to be able to write

P; Q

which runs P until it terminates, and then runs Q.

But what does 'terminates' mean?

We have seen two ways a CSP program can (sort of) terminate:

- deadlock: reach a state where it can perform no further actions
- diverge: perform an infinite sequence of invisible actions.

But both of these are errors rather than a positive statement that our process is finished. Therefore we introduce a special event ✓ (tick) which signals that the process has terminated successfully, and it is this event that triggers Qin P; Q.

SKIF

SKIP is a process that terminates immediately. It is essentially $\checkmark \rightarrow STOP$, but

- ullet \checkmark only arises through the process SKIP (so $\checkmark \to STOP$ is not legal syntax), and therefore
- \checkmark is outside Σ .

Think of \checkmark as a signal that the process has terminated, rather than an event like ordinary ones which required the environment to cooperate.

 Σ^{\checkmark} is the set $\Sigma \cup \{\checkmark\}$.

Handing over control

SKIP; P=P for all P: the \checkmark from the first process gets hidden. It becomes a τ action.

However STOP; P = STOP and div; P = div, because neither STOP nor div terminates properly. Further laws (e.g. associative, distributive and step) will be given later.

Sequential composition in a declarative world

One might expect the following to be true:

$$(?x : A \to P); \ Q = ?x : A \to (P; \ Q)$$

(noting that as $A \subseteq \Sigma$ we know $\checkmark \not\in A$.)

But this implies

$$(?x:A \to SKIP); x \to STOP$$

$$= ?x : A \rightarrow (SKIP; (x \rightarrow STOP))$$

which is not true because the x's have different bindings.

The input in $?x:A \to P$ does not assign a value to a *variable* x, rather it creates a new *identifier* whose scope is just P.

A hole is created in the scope of any existing x.

So the law above is only valid if Q has no free instances of the name x.

The use of sequential composition

The declarative semantics means that there is no direct way to pass information from P to Q in P; Q. This usually restricts the cases in which we can use sequencing to cases where Q is independent of what P does.

(The alternative is to put $P;\ Q$ in parallel with a process which holds the state: P can output to it and Q input.) The result is that ; is less used than you might expect given the role of sequential composition in sequential languages.

Another counter

$$ZERO = up \rightarrow POS; ZERO,$$
 where

$$POS = up \rightarrow POS; \ POS$$

$$\square \ down \to SKIP$$

POS is a process that terminates as soon as it has communicated one more down's than up's.

Iteration

$$P^* = P; P^*$$

runs P over and over again, ad infinititum.....

Note that this makes more sense in a communicating process world than in situations where a program only gives results when it terminates.

For example, $(a \to SKIP)^*$ is is indistinguishable from $\mu p.a \to p$. Similarly,

$$COPY = (left?x \rightarrow right!x \rightarrow SKIP)*$$

Distributed termination

How should $P_{|X||Y}$ Q terminate? If $ec{\checkmark}$ were a possible member of XY there would be four answers:

- If $\checkmark \not\in X \cup Y$ then it can never terminate.
- If $\checkmark \in X \land Y$ then it will terminate whenever P does.
- If $\checkmark \in Y \land X$ then it will terminate whenever Q does.
- If $\checkmark \in X \cap Y$ then it terminates when both P and Q do.

questions about what the unterminated process does after the other has The first is too severe, and the next two are asymmetric and pose terminated.

The last is known as distributed termination: the parallel combination has not terminated until both components have.

But $X,\,Y\subseteq \Sigma$, so we don't have this sort of choice. All CSP parallel operators (even $\parallel \parallel$) use distributed termination.

Termination and other operators

The fact that $\checkmark \not\in \Sigma$ has two other consequences:

- ullet is never hidden by the hiding operator $P\setminus X$ (as $X\subseteq \Sigma$), and
- ullet is never either the subject or target of renaming $P[\![R]\!]$ (as R is a relation on Σ).

Laws of sequencing

$$(P\sqcap Q);\ R\ =\ (P;\ R)\sqcap (Q;\ R) \qquad \langle ;\text{-dist-I}\rangle$$

$$P; \ (Q \sqcap R) \ = \ (P; \ Q) \sqcap (P; \ R) \qquad \langle ; \text{-dist-r} \rangle$$

$$P; (Q; R) = (P; Q); R$$
 $\langle ; \text{-assoc} \rangle$

$$SKIP; P = P$$

 $\langle ; -unit-I \rangle$

$$P; SKIP = P$$
 (; -unit-r)

The last of the above laws, though intuitively obvious, requires a good deal of care in modelling to make it true.

A less obvious law

In order to get $\langle ; -unit-r \rangle$ to work, we have to adopt the following.

It states the principle that termination is something signalled to the environment, rather than negotiated with it.

$$P \square SKIP = P \triangleright SKIP \quad \langle \square \text{-}SKIP \text{ resolve} \rangle$$

 $P \vartriangleright Q$ is the process that can choose to act like Q but can offer the initial choices of P.

This law says that any process that has the option to terminate is refined by SKIP.

Two step laws

Step laws now have to account for initial √'s. Consider;.

First, the case where no ✓ is possible.

Provided x is not free in Q,

$$(?x:A\to P);\ Q=?x:A\to (P;\ Q)\qquad [x\not\in fv(Q)]\, \langle \text{;-step}\rangle$$

When \checkmark is possible we use $\langle \Box$ -SKIP resolve \rangle and the following.

When x is not free in Q,

$$((?x:A \to P) \rhd SKIP); Q = (SI)$$

$$(?x:A \to (P; Q)) \rhd Q$$

Laws of distributed termination

$$SKIP_X \parallel_Y SKIP = SKIP$$

 $\langle_X \, ||_{\, Y}\text{-termination} \rangle$

$$SKIP \parallel SKIP = SKIP$$

$$\langle \parallel$$
-termination \rangle
 $\langle \gg$ -termination \rangle

$$SKIP \gg SKIP = SKIP$$

$$\langle /\!\!/$$
-termination \rangle

See book for more laws involving; and SKIP. $SKIP /\!\!/_X SKIP = SKIP$

An example of UFP

To prove ZERO is equivalent to $COUNT_0$ we prove that the vector of processes $\langle Z_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N} \rangle$, defined

$$Z_0 = ZERO$$
 and $Z_{n+1} = POS$; Z_n

(an inductive definition rather than a recursive one) is a fixed point of the constructive recursion defining \overline{COUNT} .

$$Z_0 = up \rightarrow POS; Z_0 = up \rightarrow Z_1$$
, and

$$Z_{n+1} = (up \to POS; POS)$$

$$\Box \ down \to SKIP); \ Z_n$$

$$= (up \to POS; \ POS; \ Z_n)$$

$$\square (down \to SKIP; Z_n)$$
 by $\langle : -step \rangle$ etc.

$$=(up \to POS; POS; Z_n)$$

$$\square (down \to Z_n)$$

by $\langle ; -unit-l \rangle$

$$= up \rightarrow Z_{n+2}$$

$$\square down \to Z_n$$

This completes the proof.

\checkmark and the traces model

 \checkmark 's can now appear in traces, but only as the last event, so $\mathcal T$ is extended to be all nonempty prefix-closed subsets of

$$\Sigma^{*\checkmark} = \Sigma^* \cup \{s^{\hat{}}\langle\checkmark\rangle \mid s \in \Sigma^*\}$$

$$traces(SKIP) = \{\langle \rangle, \langle \checkmark \rangle \}$$
$$traces(P; Q) = (traces(P) \cap \Sigma^*)$$
$$\cup \{s^{\hat{}}t \mid s^{\hat{}}\langle \checkmark \rangle \in traces(P)$$
$$\wedge t \in traces(Q) \}$$

See book for the effects of \checkmark on the other clauses of trace semantics.

✓ and failures

Since we need to distinguish SKIP and $SKIP \sqcap STOP$, it follows that ✓ needs to be in refusal sets.

carefully: if a process can accept \checkmark , then it can refuse everything else. But if you want $\langle \Box$ -SKIP resolve \rangle to be true, this has to be done

See book for details.

Interrupt

P riangle Q is a process that behaves like P until an initial event of Qoccurs, at which point Q takes over.

Somewhere between \parallel (for P) and \square (for Q).

Almost invariably Q takes the form $?x:A\to Q'$ or $a\to Q'$, because otherwise Q might perform au actions while P is running. So (over $\mathcal{N})$ $P \bigtriangleup \operatorname{div} = \operatorname{div}$, and in general $P \bigtriangleup \operatorname{div}$ is never stable.

 \triangle can introduce nondeterminism when $initials(Q) \cap \alpha P \neq \{\}$.

Resetting

For example, if $reset \notin \alpha P$

$$Resettable(P) = P \triangle reset \rightarrow P$$

is a process that behaves like P but at any time can be sent back to the start by the event reset.

Example

 \triangle useful for controlled faults: for example

$$P^{\sharp} = (P \triangle spike \rightarrow CHAOS) \triangle \sharp \rightarrow STOP$$

Suppose we can control spikes but not ξs . Under what circumstances can we build an operator $recover(\cdot)$ so that $recover(P^{\sharp}) = P \parallel (\mu p. \sharp \rightarrow p)$

Recovery

We can use
$$resettable(P^{\sharp} \parallel STOP) \ _{\{spike\}}$$

under a double renaming construct which, each time 4 happens, resets and replays the current trace (without $\frac{1}{2}$ s) to P, hiding the replay.

But only when P is deterministic.

Laws

 \triangle is distributive, has left and right unit STOP, and over $\mathcal N$ is strict in both arguments.

A new operator

 $P \ominus_A Q$ behaves like P until P performs an action in A, at which point it starts Q.

Like P throwing an exception, hence the throw operator.

Both useful for programming, and also for theory.....

Laws

 Θ_A is distributive. Over ${\mathcal N}$ it is strict in the left argument but not in the right.

$$(?x:A \to P(x)) \Theta_B Q =$$

$$?x:A \to (P(x)) \Theta_B Q \not\leftarrow x \not\in B \not\rightarrow Q)$$

Not in FDR till 2.91.