

The Calculus of Communicating Systems

Johannes Åman Pohjola

UNSW
Term 22022

## Where we are at

Last lecture, we studied compositional proof techniques.
This lecture, we'll take a brief detour into the world of process algebra, a high level formalism for describing concurrent systems.

Many of the resources for this lecture were borrowed from Graham Hutton.

## CCS

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## Why do we learn this?

This gives us a symbolic way to describe our transition diagrams, and reason about them algebraically rather than diagramatically.

## Processes

Processes in CCS are defined by equations:

## Example

The equation:
CLOCK = tick
defines a process CLOCK that simply executes the action "tick" and then terminates. This process corresponds to the first location in this labelled transition system (LTS):

An LTS is like a transition diagram, save that our transitions are just abstract actions and we have no initial or final location.

## Action Prefixing

## Example

$$
\mathrm{CLOCK}_{2}=\text { tick.tock }
$$

defines a process called $\mathrm{CLOCK}_{2}$ that executes the action "tick" then the action "tock" and then terminates.
$\stackrel{\text { tick }}{ } \stackrel{\text { tock }}{ }$ •
The process:

$$
\mathrm{CLOCK}_{3}=\text { tock.tick }
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has the same actions as $\mathrm{CLOCK}_{2}$ but arranges them in another order.

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## Definition

If $a$ is an action and $P$ is a process, then $x . P$ is a process that executes $x$ before $P$. This brackets to the right, so:

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x \cdot y \cdot z \cdot P=x \cdot(y \cdot(z . P))
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## Stopping

More precisely, we should write:

$$
\mathrm{CLOCK}_{2}=\text { tick.tock.STOP }
$$

where STOP is the trivial process with no transitions.

## Loops

Up to now, all processes make a finite number of transitions and then terminate. Processes that can make a infinite number of transitions can be pictured by allowing loops:

## Example (Loops)

tick $=$ the process that diverges
A - executing "tick" transitions

$$
\text { tock } \Upsilon_{\bullet}^{\bullet} \text { tick }=\begin{aligned}
& \text { the process that alternates } \\
& \text { "tick" and "tock" forever }
\end{aligned}
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$\mathrm{CLOCK}_{4}=$ tick. $\mathrm{CLOCK}_{4}$

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { tock } \prod^{\bullet} \text { tick }=\begin{array}{l}
\text { the process that alternates } \\
\text { "tick" and "tock" forever }
\end{array} \\
\text { CLOCK }_{5}=\text { tick.tock. } \text { CLOCK }_{5}
\end{gathered}
$$

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## Equality of Processes

These two processes are physically different:

tick $\overbrace{\bullet}^{\bullet}$ L tick
$\mathrm{CLOCK}_{6}=$ tick.tick. $\mathrm{CLOCK}_{6}$

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## Informal Definition

We consider two process to be equal if an external observer cannot distinguish them by their actions.
We will refine this definition later.

## A Simple Vending Machine

Vending Machines are very common examples for process algebra.

## Example (An inflexible machine)

Suppose I define my vending machine as:
$\mathbf{V M} \mathbf{M}_{1}=$ in50ф.outCoke.in20\$.outMars. $\mathbf{V M}_{1}$


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Suppose I define my vending machine as:
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This machine is not very flexible:

- It only accepts exact money.
- The customer has no choice: The machine dispenses Coke and Mars bars alternately.


## Choice

To make a more flexible kind of vending machine, we need a (nondeterministic) choice operator.

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$$



Here we have a process $V_{2}$ that repeatedly either inputs $50 \$$ and outputs a coke, or inputs $20 \$$ and outputs a mars bar.

## Definition

If $P$ and $Q$ are processes then $P+Q$ is a process which can either behave as the process $P$ or the process $Q$.

## Choice Equalities

Observe that we have the following identities about choice:

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P+(Q+R)=(P+Q)+R \quad \text { (associativity) }
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What about the equation:

$$
a .(P+Q) \quad \stackrel{?}{=} \quad(a \cdot P)+(a \cdot Q)
$$



## Branching Time

## Example

$\mathbf{V M}_{3}=$ in50ф.(outCoke + outPepsi)
$\mathbf{V M} \mathbf{M}_{4}=($ in50q.outCoke $)+($ in50\$.outPepsi $)$

outCoke ${ }^{\bullet}$ outPepsi
outCoke $\downarrow \downarrow$ outPepsi
Or in pictures:


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Or in pictures:


## Reactive Systems

$\mathbf{V M}_{3}$ allows the customer to choose which drink to vend after inserting 50q. In VM 4 however, the machine makes the choice when the customer inserts a coin.

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Or in pictures:


## Reactive Systems

$\mathbf{V M}_{3}$ allows the customer to choose which drink to vend after inserting 50q. In VM 4 however, the machine makes the choice when the customer inserts a coin. They are different in this reactive view, but they have the same behaviours!

## Equivalences

The equation

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## Terminology

Our notion of equality without this equation is called (strong) bisimilarity.

## Exercises

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- A clock that ticks each cycle or tocks each cycle.
- A vending machine for Mars and Coke that gives change.


## Parallel Composition

## Definition

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## Example (Clocks)

$$
\text { ACLOCK = tick.beep } \mid \text { tock }
$$

## CCLOCK $=$ TICLK|TOCLK



$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { TICLK }=\text { tick. TICLK } \\
& \text { TOCLK }=\text { tock.TOCLK }
\end{aligned}
$$

Exercise: Express these processes without parallel composition.

## Synchronization

In CCS, every action $a$ has an opposing coaction $\bar{a}$ ( and $\overline{\bar{a}}=a$ ):
Actions: tick tock in50 $\ddagger$ outCoke ...
Coactions: $\overline{\text { tick }} \overline{\text { tock }} \overline{\text { in50థ }} \overline{\text { outCoke }} \ldots$

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| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Coactions: | $\overline{\text { tick }}$ | $\overline{\text { tock }}$ | $\overline{\text { in } 50 \Phi}$ | $\overline{\text { outCoke }}$ | $\ldots$ |

It is a convention to think of an action as an output event and a coaction as an input event. If a system can execute both an action and its coaction, it may execute them both simultaneously by taking an internal transition marked by the special action $\tau$.

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## Example (Relay Race)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { RACE }=\mathbf{R U N}_{1} \mid \mathbf{R U N}_{2} \\
& \mathbf{R U N}_{1}=\text { start.baton } \\
& \mathbf{R U N}_{2}=\overline{\text { baton.finish }}
\end{aligned}
$$



## Expansion Theorem

Let $P$ and $Q$ be processes. By expanding recursive definitions and using our existing equations for choice we can express $P$ and $Q$ as $n$-ary choices of action prefixes:

$$
P=\sum_{i \in I} \alpha_{i} . P_{i} \text { and } Q=\sum_{j \in J} \beta_{j} . Q_{j} .
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Then, the parallel composition can be expressed as follows:

$$
P \mid Q=\sum_{i \in I} \alpha_{i} \cdot\left(P_{i} \mid Q\right)+\sum_{j \in J} \beta_{j} \cdot\left(P \mid Q_{j}\right)+\sum_{i \in I, j \in J, \alpha_{i}=\bar{\beta}_{j}} \tau .\left(P_{i} \mid Q_{j}\right) .
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$$

From this, many useful equations are derivable:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
P \mid Q & =Q \mid P \\
P \mid(Q \mid R) & =(P \mid Q) \mid R \\
P \mid \text { STOP } & =P
\end{array}
$$

## Restriction

We wish a way to say "these are all the processes that there are", in other words, to force synchronization to happen and not allow certain actions to be taken alone.

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## Definition

If $P$ is a process and $a$ is an action (not $\tau$ ), then $P \backslash a$ is the same as the process $P$ except that the actions $a$ and $\bar{a}$ may not be executed. We have

$$
(a . P) \backslash b=a .(P \backslash b) \quad \text { if } a \notin\{b, \bar{b}\}
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## Example (Relay Race)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathbf{R A C E}=\left(\mathbf{R U N}_{1} \mid \mathbf{R U N}_{2}\right) \backslash \text { baton } \\
& \mathbf{R U N}_{1}=\text { start.baton } \\
& \mathbf{R U N}_{2}=\overline{\text { baton.finish }}
\end{aligned}
$$



## Another Example

A man that eats every time a clock ticks:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\mathrm{CLOCK}_{4} & =\text { tick.CLOCK } \\
\text { MAN } & =\overline{\text { tick.eat.MAN }} \\
\text { EXAMPLE } & =\left({\left.\mathrm{MAN} \mid \mathrm{CLOCK}_{4}\right) \backslash \text { tick }}^{\text {MAN }}\right.
\end{array}
$$

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After deriving the picture, we get:


## Semantics

Up until now, our semantics were given informally in terms of pictures. Now we will formalise our semantic intuitions.

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Our set of locations in our labelled transition system will be the set of all CCS processes. Locations can now be labelled with what process they are:


We will now define what transitions exist in our LTS by means of a set of inference rules. This technique is called operational semantics.

## Inference Rules

In logic we often write:


To indicate that $C$ can be proved by proving all assumptions $A_{1}$ through $A_{n}$. For example, the classical logical rule of modus ponens is written as follows:

$$
\frac{A \Rightarrow B \quad A}{B} \text { Modus Ponens }
$$

## Operational Semantics

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$$
\begin{aligned}
& \underset{\text { a.P } \xrightarrow{a} P}{ } \text { Act } \frac{P \xrightarrow{a} P^{\prime}}{P+Q \xrightarrow{a} P^{\prime}} \text { Choice }_{1} \quad \frac{Q \xrightarrow{a} Q^{\prime}}{P+Q \xrightarrow{a} Q^{\prime}} \text { Choice }_{2} \\
& \frac{P \xrightarrow{a} P^{\prime}}{P\left|Q \xrightarrow{a} P^{\prime}\right| Q} \operatorname{PAR}_{1} \quad \frac{Q \xrightarrow{a} Q^{\prime}}{P|Q \xrightarrow{a} P| Q^{\prime}} \operatorname{PAR}_{2} \quad \xrightarrow{P\left|Q \xrightarrow{a} P^{\prime} Q \xrightarrow{\bar{a}} Q^{\prime}\right| Q^{\prime}} \text { SYNC } \\
& \frac{P \xrightarrow{a} P^{\prime} \quad a \notin\{b, \bar{b}\}}{P \backslash b \xrightarrow{a} P^{\prime} \backslash b} \text { Restrict }
\end{aligned}
$$

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& \underset{\text { a.P } \xrightarrow{a} P}{ } \text { Act } \frac{P \xrightarrow{a} P^{\prime}}{P+Q \xrightarrow{a} P^{\prime}} \text { Choice }_{1} \frac{Q \xrightarrow{a} Q^{\prime}}{P+Q \xrightarrow{a} Q^{\prime}} \text { Choice }_{2}
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& \xrightarrow{P \xrightarrow{a} P^{\prime} \quad a \notin\{b, \bar{b}\}} \text { R\b } \text { Restrict }
\end{aligned}
$$

## Bisimulation Equivalence

Two processes (or locations) $P$ and $Q$ are bisimilar iff they can do the same actions and those actions themselves lead to bisimilar processes. All of our previous equalities can be proven by induction on the semantics here.

## Proof Trees

The advantages of this rule presentation is that they can be "stacked" to give a neat tree like derivation of proofs.


Exercise: Show $((a . P)+Q)|\overline{\text { a. }} R \xrightarrow{\tau} P| R$

## Value Passing

We add synchronous channels into CCS by letting actions take parameters.

## Actions: $a(3) \quad c(15) \times($ True $) \ldots$

Coactions: $\overline{\mathrm{a}}(x) \quad \bar{c}(y) \quad \bar{c}(z)$

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The parameter of an action is the value to be sent, and the parameter of a coaction is the variable in which the received value is stored.

## Example (Buffers)

A one-cell sized buffer is implemented as:

$$
\mathbf{B U F F}=\overline{\operatorname{in}}(x) \cdot \mathrm{out}(x) \cdot \mathbf{B U F F}
$$

Larger buffers can be made by stitching multiple BUFF processes together! This is one (overkill) way to model asynchronous communication in CCS.

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We can define an if statement like so:

$$
\text { if } \varphi \text { then } P \text { else } Q \equiv([\varphi] \cdot P)+([\neg \varphi] \cdot Q)
$$

## Assignment

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If $P$ is a process and $x$ is a variable in the state, and $e$ is an expression, then $\llbracket x:=e \rrbracket P$ is the same as $P$ except that it first updates the variable $x$ to have the value $e$ before making the transition.

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With this, our value-passing CCS is now just as expressive as Ben-Ari's pseudocode. Moreover, the connection between CCS and transition diagrams is formalised, enabling us to reason symbolically about processes rather than semantically.

## Process Algebra

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- The Algebra of Communicating Processes (Bergstra and Klop, 1982) which distinguishes between deadlock and termination.
- The Communicating Sequential Processes formalism (Hoare, 1978) with a more refined treatment of nondeterminism.
- The $\pi$-calculus (Milner et al. 1992), a derivative of CCS that allows for first class channels and processes.


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- The $\pi$-calculus (Milner et al. 1992), a derivative of CCS that allows for first class channels and processes.
There are dozens of equivalences other than strong bisimulation that are useful for various scenarios.


## What Now?

Next, we'll discuss distributed algorithms and commitment and consensus topics.

