

# Semantics of nondeterminism

Paul Blain Levy

University of Birmingham

November 17, 2009

- 1 Denotational Semantics
- 2 Nondeterminism

# Operational vs Denotational Semantics

How do we describe the meaning of a programming language?

How do we describe the meaning of a programming language?

- One approach is to say how to run a program (e.g. with an interpreter). This is called an **operational semantics**.

# Operational vs Denotational Semantics

How do we describe the meaning of a programming language?

- One approach is to say how to run a program (e.g. with an interpreter). This is called an **operational semantics**.
- **Denotational semantics** gives a **denotation** for every piece of code—even if it's not a complete program.

How do we describe the meaning of a programming language?

- One approach is to say how to run a program (e.g. with an interpreter). This is called an **operational semantics**.
- **Denotational semantics** gives a **denotation** for every piece of code—even if it's not a complete program.
- If  $M$  is a piece of code, we write  $\llbracket M \rrbracket$  for its denotation.

How do we describe the meaning of a programming language?

- One approach is to say how to run a program (e.g. with an interpreter). This is called an **operational semantics**.
- **Denotational semantics** gives a **denotation** for every piece of code—even if it's not a complete program.
- If  $M$  is a piece of code, we write  $\llbracket M \rrbracket$  for its denotation.
- **Compositionality** If a big piece of code is made up from some components, the meaning of the big piece must be given in terms of the meaning of the components.

# Operational vs Denotational Semantics

How do we describe the meaning of a programming language?

- One approach is to say how to run a program (e.g. with an interpreter). This is called an **operational semantics**.
- **Denotational semantics** gives a **denotation** for every piece of code—even if it's not a complete program.
- If  $M$  is a piece of code, we write  $\llbracket M \rrbracket$  for its denotation.
- **Compositionality** If a big piece of code is made up from some components, the meaning of the big piece must be given in terms of the meaning of the components.
- A denotational semantics has to be proven to agree with the operational semantics—otherwise it's useless.



## Example: simple *while* language

Our language has two (nonnegative) integer variables  $x$  and  $y$ .

## Example: simple `while` language

Our language has two (nonnegative) integer variables `x` and `y`. Integer expressions are given by the BNF grammar

$$E ::= x \mid y \mid E + E \mid E * E \mid n \quad (n \in \mathbb{N})$$

## Example: simple `while` language

Our language has two (nonnegative) integer variables `x` and `y`. Integer expressions are given by the BNF grammar

$$E ::= x \mid y \mid E + E \mid E * E \mid n \quad (n \in \mathbb{N})$$

Boolean expressions are given by the grammar

$$B ::= E > E \mid E = E \mid \text{true} \mid \text{not } B \mid B \text{ and } B$$

## Example: simple `while` language

Our language has two (nonnegative) integer variables `x` and `y`. Integer expressions are given by the BNF grammar

$$E ::= x \mid y \mid E + E \mid E * E \mid n \quad (n \in \mathbb{N})$$

Boolean expressions are given by the grammar

$$B ::= E > E \mid E = E \mid \text{true} \mid \text{not } B \mid B \text{ and } B$$

Commands are given by the grammar

$$M ::= \text{skip} \mid x := E \mid y := E \\ M; M \mid \text{if } B \text{ then } M \text{ else } M \mid \text{while } B \text{ do } M$$

# Semantics of Expressions

A **state** is a pair of integers e.g.  $(4, 17)$ .

This means that currently  $x = 4$  and  $y = 17$ .

# Semantics of Expressions

A **state** is a pair of integers e.g.  $(4, 17)$ .

This means that currently  $x = 4$  and  $y = 17$ .

The set of states is  $S \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$ .

# Semantics of Expressions

A **state** is a pair of integers e.g.  $(4, 17)$ .

This means that currently  $x = 4$  and  $y = 17$ .

The set of states is  $S \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$ .

Each integer expression  $E$  denotes a function  $\llbracket E \rrbracket$  from  $S$  to  $\mathbb{N}$ .

# Semantics of Expressions

A **state** is a pair of integers e.g.  $(4, 17)$ .

This means that currently  $x = 4$  and  $y = 17$ .

The set of states is  $S \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$ .

Each integer expression  $E$  denotes a function  $\llbracket E \rrbracket$  from  $S$  to  $\mathbb{N}$ .

Example: the meaning of  $+$

$\llbracket E + E' \rrbracket$  is the function mapping a state  $s$  to the integer  $\llbracket E \rrbracket s + \llbracket E' \rrbracket s$ .



# Semantics of Expressions

A **state** is a pair of integers e.g.  $(4, 17)$ .

This means that currently  $x = 4$  and  $y = 17$ .

The set of states is  $S \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$ .

Each integer expression  $E$  denotes a function  $\llbracket E \rrbracket$  from  $S$  to  $\mathbb{N}$ .

Example: the meaning of  $+$

$\llbracket E + E' \rrbracket$  is the function mapping a state  $s$  to the integer  $\llbracket E \rrbracket s + \llbracket E' \rrbracket s$ .

Each boolean expression  $B$  denotes a function  $\llbracket B \rrbracket$  from  $S$  to  $\mathbb{B}$  (the set of booleans).

# Semantics of Commands

If we run a program in a given starting state  $s$ , there are two possible behaviours:

- it can terminate in another state  $s'$
- it can diverge (run silently forever).

# Semantics of Commands

If we run a program in a given starting state  $s$ , there are two possible behaviours:

- it can terminate in another state  $s'$
- it can diverge (run silently forever).

We write  $S_{\perp}$  for the set of states extended with an extra element  $\perp$ , representing divergence.

A command  $M$  denotes a function  $\llbracket M \rrbracket$  from  $S$  to  $S_{\perp}$ .

# Semantics of Commands

If we run a program in a given starting state  $s$ , there are two possible behaviours:

- it can terminate in another state  $s'$
- it can diverge (run silently forever).

We write  $S_{\perp}$  for the set of states extended with an extra element  $\perp$ , representing divergence.

A command  $M$  denotes a function  $\llbracket M \rrbracket$  from  $S$  to  $S_{\perp}$ .

For example, we want the denotation of

$$\begin{aligned} &x := x + 4; \\ &\text{while } (x > y) \text{ do } \{x := x + 1\} \end{aligned}$$

to be the function that maps the state  $(x, y)$  to

- $\perp$  if  $x + 4 > y$
- $(x + 4, y)$  if  $x + 4 \leq y$ .

## Example: the meaning of while

$\llbracket \text{while } B \text{ do } M \rrbracket$  is the function mapping a state  $s$  to

- a state  $s'$  if there is a sequence of states  $s = s_0, s_1, \dots, s_n = s'$  such that

$$\begin{aligned} \llbracket B \rrbracket s_i = \text{true} \quad \text{and} \quad \llbracket M \rrbracket s_i = s_{i+1} \quad \text{for each } i < n \\ \llbracket B \rrbracket s_n = \text{false} \end{aligned}$$

- $\perp$  if there is a sequence of states  $s = s_0, s_1, \dots, s_n$  such that

$$\begin{aligned} \llbracket B \rrbracket s_i = \text{true} \quad \text{and} \quad \llbracket M \rrbracket s_i = s_{i+1} \quad \text{for each } i < n \\ \llbracket B \rrbracket s_n = \text{true} \quad \text{and} \quad \llbracket M \rrbracket s_n = \perp \end{aligned}$$

- $\perp$  if there is an infinite sequence of states  $s = s_0, s_1, \dots$  such that

$$\llbracket B \rrbracket s_i = \text{true} \quad \text{and} \quad \llbracket M \rrbracket s_i = s_{i+1} \quad \text{for each } i$$

# Procedure call

So far we've looked at **closed** commands that don't call any procedures. Let's suppose there's a parameterless procedure  $c$ . Here's the grammar of **open** commands, that are allowed to mention  $c$ .

$$N ::= M \mid N; N \mid \text{if } B \text{ then } N \text{ else } N \mid \text{while } B \text{ do } N \mid c()$$

# Procedure call

So far we've looked at **closed** commands that don't call any procedures. Let's suppose there's a parameterless procedure  $c$ . Here's the grammar of **open** commands, that are allowed to mention  $c$ .

$$N ::= M \mid N; N \mid \text{if } B \text{ then } N \text{ else } N \mid \text{while } B \text{ do } N \mid c()$$

**Recall** A closed command denotes an element of  $S \rightarrow S_{\perp}$

# Procedure call

So far we've looked at **closed** commands that don't call any procedures. Let's suppose there's a parameterless procedure  $c$ . Here's the grammar of **open** commands, that are allowed to mention  $c$ .

$$N ::= M \mid N; N \mid \text{if } B \text{ then } N \text{ else } N \mid \text{while } B \text{ do } N \mid c()$$

**Recall** A closed command denotes an element of  $S \rightarrow S_{\perp}$

**Suggestion** An open command such as

$$\begin{aligned} &x := 3; \\ &\text{if } (y > 4) \text{ then } \{c()\} \text{ else } \{y := 2\} \end{aligned}$$

denotes a function from  $S \rightarrow S_{\perp}$  to  $S \rightarrow S_{\perp}$ .

The argument to this function represents the meaning of  $c$ .



# Procedure call

So far we've looked at **closed** commands that don't call any procedures. Let's suppose there's a parameterless procedure  $c$ . Here's the grammar of **open** commands, that are allowed to mention  $c$ .

$$N ::= M \mid N; N \mid \text{if } B \text{ then } N \text{ else } N \mid \text{while } B \text{ do } N \mid c()$$

**Recall** A closed command denotes an element of  $S \rightarrow S_{\perp}$

**Suggestion** An open command such as

$$\begin{aligned} &x := 3; \\ &\text{if } (y > 4) \text{ then } \{c()\} \text{ else } \{y := 2\} \end{aligned}$$

denotes a function from  $S \rightarrow S_{\perp}$  to  $S \rightarrow S_{\perp}$ .

The argument to this function represents the meaning of  $c$ .

In fact, an open command must denote a **continuous** function. (Technical condition)

# Recursive definition

Let's extend the grammar of closed commands, so that we can define a closed command recursively.

$$M ::= \text{skip} \mid x:=E \mid y:=E \mid \\ M; M \mid \text{if } B \text{ then } M \text{ else } M \mid \text{while } B \text{ do } M \\ \mid \text{command } c() \{N\}$$

For example, here is a closed command:

```
x := x + 5;
command c() {
  x := 3;
  if (y > 4) then {c()} else {y := 2}
};
y := 9
```

How can we give  $\llbracket \text{command } c() \{N\} \rrbracket$  in terms of  $\llbracket N \rrbracket$ ?

# Semantics of recursion

How can we give  $\llbracket \text{command } c() \{N\} \rrbracket$  in terms of  $\llbracket N \rrbracket$ ?

For example, we want the closed command

```
command c() {  
    x := 3;  
    if (y > 4) then {c()} else {y := 2}  
}
```

to denote an element of  $S \rightarrow S_{\perp}$ , mapping a state  $(x, y)$  to

- $\perp$  if  $y > 4$
- the state  $(3, 2)$  if  $y \leq 4$ .

How can we obtain this element from the denotation of the body?

# Fixpoints

A function  $f$  from a set  $A$  to itself is called an **endofunction**.

Is there an element  $x \in A$  such that  $f(x) = x$ ?

Such an element is called a **fixpoint** of  $f$ .

A function  $f$  from a set  $A$  to itself is called an **endofunction**.

Is there an element  $x \in A$  such that  $f(x) = x$ ?

Such an element is called a **fixpoint** of  $f$ .

Examples of endofunctions on  $\mathbb{Z}$

- $x \mapsto x + 1$  has no fixpoints.
- $x \mapsto 2x$  has one fixpoint.
- $x \mapsto x^2$  has two fixpoints.
- $x \mapsto x^3$  has three fixpoints.
- $x \mapsto x$  has infinitely many fixpoints.

# Fixpoints and Recursion

An open command  $N$  denotes a continuous endofunction on  $S \rightarrow S_{\perp}$ .  
The closed command `command c() {N}` must denote a fixpoint of that endofunction.

# Fixpoints and Recursion

An open command  $N$  denotes a continuous endofunction on  $S \rightarrow S_{\perp}$ .  
The closed command `command c() {N}` must denote a fixpoint of that endofunction.

But which fixpoint? For example the open command

```
x := 3;  
if (y > 4) then {c()} else {y := 2}
```

denotes an endofunction with many fixpoints.



# Fixpoints and Recursion

An open command  $N$  denotes a continuous endofunction on  $S \rightarrow S_{\perp}$ .  
The closed command `command c() {N}` must denote a fixpoint of that endofunction.

But which fixpoint? For example the open command

```
x := 3;  
if (y > 4) then {c()} else {y := 2}
```

denotes an endofunction with many fixpoints.

Here is a wrong fixpoint: the function that maps a state  $(x, y)$  to

- the state  $(y + 2, y + 7)$  if  $y > 4$
- the state  $(3, 2)$  if  $y \leq 4$ .

# Fixpoints and Recursion

An open command  $N$  denotes a continuous endofunction on  $S \rightarrow S_{\perp}$ .  
The closed command `command c() {N}` must denote a fixpoint of that endofunction.

But which fixpoint? For example the open command

```
x := 3;  
if (y > 4) then {c()} else {y := 2}
```

denotes an endofunction with many fixpoints.

Here is a wrong fixpoint: the function that maps a state  $(x, y)$  to

- the state  $(y + 2, y + 7)$  if  $y > 4$
- the state  $(3, 2)$  if  $y \leq 4$ .

The correct answer is the **least** fixpoint, i.e. as many  $\perp$ s as possible.

# Fixpoints and Recursion

An open command  $N$  denotes a continuous endofunction on  $S \rightarrow S_{\perp}$ .  
The closed command `command`  $c() \{N\}$  must denote a fixpoint of that endofunction.

But which fixpoint? For example the open command

```
x := 3;  
if (y > 4) then {c()} else {y := 2}
```

denotes an endofunction with many fixpoints.

Here is a wrong fixpoint: the function that maps a state  $(x, y)$  to

- the state  $(y + 2, y + 7)$  if  $y > 4$
- the state  $(3, 2)$  if  $y \leq 4$ .

The correct answer is the **least** fixpoint, i.e. as many  $\perp$ s as possible.

It turns out that every continuous function has a least fixpoint.

# Fixpoints and Recursion

An open command  $N$  denotes a continuous endofunction on  $S \rightarrow S_{\perp}$ . The closed command `command c() {N}` must denote a fixpoint of that endofunction.

But which fixpoint? For example the open command

```
x := 3;
if (y > 4) then {c()} else {y := 2}
```

denotes an endofunction with many fixpoints.

Here is a wrong fixpoint: the function that maps a state  $(x, y)$  to

- the state  $(y + 2, y + 7)$  if  $y > 4$
- the state  $(3, 2)$  if  $y \leq 4$ .

The correct answer is the **least** fixpoint, i.e. as many  $\perp$ s as possible.

It turns out that every continuous function has a least fixpoint.

To model open commands as endofunctions, we need a suitable fixpoint theory.

Note that we started off knowing what the meaning of a program should be, because we knew how to run a program.

Note that we started off knowing what the meaning of a program should be, because we knew how to run a program.

We also knew when we wanted two programs to be equivalent, i.e. to have the same meaning.

Note that we started off knowing what the meaning of a program should be, because we knew how to run a program.

We also knew when we wanted two programs to be equivalent, i.e. to have the same meaning.

An important question to address before formulating a denotational semantics is: when should two pieces of code be considered equivalent?

Note that we started off knowing what the meaning of a program should be, because we knew how to run a program.

We also knew when we wanted two programs to be equivalent, i.e. to have the same meaning.

An important question to address before formulating a denotational semantics is: when should two pieces of code be considered equivalent?

Ideally two pieces of code should have the same denotation if and only if they are equivalent in some *a priori* sense.



Let's say we add a printing commands to our language. Then a command, in a given starting state  $s$ , has three possible behaviours:

- to print a finite string  $m$ , then terminate in a state  $s'$
- to print a finite string  $m$ , then diverge
- to print an infinite string  $m$ .

Let's write  $\text{Beh}$  for the set of behaviours.

Let's say we add a printing commands to our language.  
Then a command, in a given starting state  $s$ , has three possible behaviours:

- to print a finite string  $m$ , then terminate in a state  $s'$
- to print a finite string  $m$ , then diverge
- to print an infinite string  $m$ .

Let's write Beh for the set of behaviours.

A closed command denotes an element of  $S \rightarrow \text{Beh}$ .

An open command denotes a (continuous) endofunction on  $S \rightarrow \text{Beh}$ .

# Additional Features

We can consider many different programming language features, and try to come up with denotational models for them:

- higher-order functions (functions that take functions as parameters)
- data types
- recursively defined types
- input
- exceptions
- control operators
- local variables
- function variables
- different parameter-passing mechanisms.

# Why consider nondeterminism?

So far, we've looked at programs that are **deterministic**: given the starting state, the behaviour follows inexorably.

# Why consider nondeterminism?

So far, we've looked at programs that are **deterministic**: given the starting state, the behaviour follows inexorably.

But lots of programs in reality depend on hidden factors. Run them twice and they'll do something different, for no intelligible reason.

# Why consider nondeterminism?

So far, we've looked at programs that are **deterministic**: given the starting state, the behaviour follows inexorably.

But lots of programs in reality depend on hidden factors. Run them twice and they'll do something different, for no intelligible reason.

- Perhaps because they involve concurrent threads, and the behaviour depends on the details of the scheduler, or on what other programs are being run by other users.
- Perhaps because they allocate some free memory, and the behaviour depends on which location is chosen.
- ...

# Why consider nondeterminism?

So far, we've looked at programs that are **deterministic**: given the starting state, the behaviour follows inexorably.

But lots of programs in reality depend on hidden factors. Run them twice and they'll do something different, for no intelligible reason.

- Perhaps because they involve concurrent threads, and the behaviour depends on the details of the scheduler, or on what other programs are being run by other users.
- Perhaps because they allocate some free memory, and the behaviour depends on which location is chosen.
- ...

The programmer has to assume that a program has a range of possible behaviours, and to ensure that all of them are acceptable.

## Some nondeterministic constructs

There are various nondeterministic constructs we can put into a language. An example is `or` which chooses to go left or right:

```
{x := 3; y := 4} or {x := 7}
```

A more powerful construct is `somenumber`, which offers infinitely many possibilities:

```
x := somenumber;  
print "hello" x times
```

Here is an attempt to achieve `x := somenumber` using just `or`.

```
local z := 0  
z := 0 or z := 1;  
x := 0;  
while (z = 0) do {  
    x := x + 1;  
    {z := 0} or {z := 1}  
}
```



## Some nondeterministic constructs

There are various nondeterministic constructs we can put into a language. An example is `or` which chooses to go left or right:

```
{x := 3; y := 4} or {x := 7}
```

A more powerful construct is `somenumbers`, which offers infinitely many possibilities:

```
x := somenumbers;  
print "hello" x times
```

Here is an attempt to achieve `x := somenumbers` using just `or`.

```
local z := 0  
z := 0 or z := 1;  
x := 0;  
while (z = 0) do {  
    x := x + 1;  
    {z := 0} or {z := 1}  
} //This may diverge.
```

# Erratic vs Ambiguous Nondeterminism

Suppose  $E$  and  $E'$  are two expressions that might return an integer or might diverge.

# Erratic vs Ambiguous Nondeterminism

Suppose  $E$  and  $E'$  are two expressions that might return an integer or might diverge.

$E$  or  $E'$  chooses to go left or right, and evaluates  $E$  or  $E'$  accordingly.

$E$  amb  $E'$  evaluates  $E$  and  $E'$  concurrently, and returns whatever it gets first. This will diverge only if both  $E$  and  $E'$  diverge.

# Erratic vs Ambiguous Nondeterminism

Suppose  $E$  and  $E'$  are two expressions that might return an integer or might diverge.

$E$  or  $E'$  chooses to go left or right, and evaluates  $E$  or  $E'$  accordingly.

$E$  amb  $E'$  evaluates  $E$  and  $E'$  concurrently, and returns whatever it gets first. This will diverge only if both  $E$  and  $E'$  diverge.

$(3 \text{ or } 4) \text{ or } (3 \text{ or } 8 \text{ or } 9 \text{ or diverge})$

can return 3, 4, 8 or 9 or diverge.

$(3 \text{ or } 4) \text{ amb } (3 \text{ or } 8 \text{ or } 9 \text{ or diverge})$

can return 3, 4, 8 or 9. It cannot diverge.

Amb is more powerful than somenumber.

# Example Application

Two programs are equivalent when they have the same **properties**. What properties should we consider?

# Example Application

Two programs are equivalent when they have the same **properties**. What properties should we consider?

The program must not kill the customer.

# Example Application

Two programs are equivalent when they have the same **properties**. What properties should we consider?

The program must not kill the customer.

**safety property**

# Example Application

Two programs are equivalent when they have the same **properties**. What properties should we consider?

The program must not kill the customer.

**safety property**

The program must greet the customer.



# Example Application

Two programs are equivalent when they have the same **properties**. What properties should we consider?

The program must not kill the customer.

**safety property**

The program must greet the customer.

**liveness property**

# Example Application

Two programs are equivalent when they have the same **properties**. What properties should we consider?

The program must not kill the customer.

**safety property**

The program must greet the customer.

**liveness property**

If the program insults the customer, it must apologize.

# Example Application

Two programs are equivalent when they have the same **properties**. What properties should we consider?

The program must not kill the customer.

**safety property**

The program must greet the customer.

**liveness property**

If the program insults the customer, it must apologize.

**conditional liveness property**

# Example Application

Two programs are equivalent when they have the same **properties**. What properties should we consider?

The program must not kill the customer.

**safety property**

The program must greet the customer.

**liveness property**

If the program insults the customer, it must apologize.

**conditional liveness property**

The program must stop insulting the customer.

# Example Application

Two programs are equivalent when they have the same **properties**. What properties should we consider?

The program must not kill the customer.

**safety property**

The program must greet the customer.

**liveness property**

If the program insults the customer, it must apologize.

**conditional liveness property**

The program must stop insulting the customer.

**infinite liveness property**

# Infinite trace equivalence

Let's take a language with printing and nondeterminism.

Two programs are **infinite trace equivalent** when they have the **same range of behaviours** for any starting state.

# Infinite trace equivalence

Let's take a language with printing and nondeterminism.

Two programs are **infinite trace equivalent** when they have the **same range of behaviours** for any starting state.

Probably the most obvious equivalence to consider.

# Infinite trace equivalence

Let's take a language with printing and nondeterminism.

Two programs are **infinite trace equivalent** when they have the **same range of behaviours** for any starting state.

Probably the most obvious equivalence to consider.

Can recognize all the properties of our customer service program.



# Infinite trace equivalence

Let's take a language with printing and nondeterminism.

Two programs are **infinite trace equivalent** when they have the **same range of behaviours** for any starting state.

Probably the most obvious equivalence to consider.

Can recognize all the properties of our customer service program.

Can we give a denotational semantics for this equivalence?

# Infinite trace equivalence

Let's take a language with printing and nondeterminism.

Two programs are **infinite trace equivalent** when they have the **same range of behaviours** for any starting state.

Probably the most obvious equivalence to consider.

Can recognize all the properties of our customer service program.

Can we give a denotational semantics for this equivalence?

A closed command will denote a **relation** from  $S$  to Beh, i.e. an element of  $S \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(\text{Beh})$ .

# Infinite trace equivalence

Let's take a language with printing and nondeterminism.

Two programs are **infinite trace equivalent** when they have the **same range of behaviours** for any starting state.

Probably the most obvious equivalence to consider.

Can recognize all the properties of our customer service program.

Can we give a denotational semantics for this equivalence?

A closed command will denote a **relation** from  $S$  to Beh, i.e. an element of  $S \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(\text{Beh})$ .

What about an open command?

Could an open command denote an endofunction on  $S \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(\text{Beh})$ ?

Could an open command denote an endofunction on  $S \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(\text{Beh})$ ? **No**

Could an open command denote an endofunction on  $S \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(\text{Beh})$ ? **No**  
Let's say there's just one character,  $\checkmark$ . Here's an open command  $N$

```
{  
  x := somenumber;  
  print x ticks;  
  x := somenumber;  
  y := somenumber;  
  {skip or diverge}  
} or {c()}
```

# Infinite traces and endofunctions

Could an open command denote an endofunction on  $S \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(\text{Beh})$ ? **No**  
Let's say there's just one character,  $\checkmark$ . Here's an open command  $N$  **and**  
**another one  $N'$**

```
{
  x := somenumber;
  print x ticks;
  x := somenumber;
  y := somenumber;
  {skip or diverge}
} or {c()} or {print $\checkmark$ ; c()}
```

## Same endofunction

```
{  
  x := somenumber;  
  print x ticks;  
  x := somenumber;  
  y := somenumber;  
  {skip or diverge}  
} or {c()} or {print✓. c()}
```

In a given starting state  $s$



## Same endofunction

```
{  
  x := somenumber;  
  print x ticks;  
  x := somenumber;  
  y := somenumber;  
  {skip or diverge}  
} or {c()} or {print✓. c()}
```

In a given starting state  $s$

- can it print  $n$  ticks and terminate in state  $s'$ ?

## Same endofunction

```
{  
  x := somenumber;  
  print x ticks;  
  x := somenumber;  
  y := somenumber;  
  {skip or diverge}  
} or {c()} or {print✓. c()}
```

In a given starting state  $s$

- can it print  $n$  ticks and terminate in state  $s'$ ? Always

## Same endofunction

```
{  
  x := somenumber;  
  print x ticks;  
  x := somenumber;  
  y := somenumber;  
  {skip or diverge}  
} or {c()} or {print✓. c()}
```

In a given starting state  $s$

- can it print  $n$  ticks and terminate in state  $s'$ ? Always **Always**

## Same endofunction

```
{  
  x := somenumber;  
  print x ticks;  
  x := somenumber;  
  y := somenumber;  
  {skip or diverge}  
} or {c()} or {print✓. c()}
```

In a given starting state  $s$

- can it print  $n$  ticks and terminate in state  $s'$ ? Always **Always**
- can it print  $n$  ticks and diverge?

## Same endofunction

```
{  
  x := somenumber;  
  print x ticks;  
  x := somenumber;  
  y := somenumber;  
  {skip or diverge}  
} or {c()} or {print✓. c()}
```

In a given starting state  $s$

- can it print  $n$  ticks and terminate in state  $s'$ ? Always **Always**
- can it print  $n$  ticks and diverge? Always

## Same endofunction

```
{  
  x := somenumber;  
  print x ticks;  
  x := somenumber;  
  y := somenumber;  
  {skip or diverge}  
} or {c()} or {print✓. c()}
```

In a given starting state  $s$

- can it print  $n$  ticks and terminate in state  $s'$ ? Always **Always**
- can it print  $n$  ticks and diverge? Always **Always**

## Same endofunction

```
{  
  x := somenumber;  
  print x ticks;  
  x := somenumber;  
  y := somenumber;  
  {skip or diverge}  
} or {c()} or {print✓. c()}
```

In a given starting state  $s$

- can it print  $n$  ticks and terminate in state  $s'$ ? Always **Always**
- can it print  $n$  ticks and diverge? Always **Always**
- can it print infinitely many ticks?

## Same endofunction

```
{  
  x := somenumber;  
  print x ticks;  
  x := somenumber;  
  y := somenumber;  
  {skip or diverge}  
} or {c()} or {print✓. c()}
```

In a given starting state  $s$

- can it print  $n$  ticks and terminate in state  $s'$ ? Always **Always**
- can it print  $n$  ticks and diverge? Always **Always**
- can it print infinitely many ticks? Iff  $c$  can



## Same endofunction

```
{  
  x := somenumber;  
  print x ticks;  
  x := somenumber;  
  y := somenumber;  
  {skip or diverge}  
} or {c()} or {print✓. c()}
```

In a given starting state  $s$

- can it print  $n$  ticks and terminate in state  $s'$ ? Always **Always**
- can it print  $n$  ticks and diverge? Always **Always**
- can it print infinitely many ticks? Iff  $c$  can **Iff  $c$  can.**

# Same endofunction

```
{  
  x := somenumber;  
  print x ticks;  
  x := somenumber;  
  y := somenumber;  
  {skip or diverge}  
} or {c()} or {print✓. c()}
```

In a given starting state  $s$

- can it print  $n$  ticks and terminate in state  $s'$ ? Always **Always**
- can it print  $n$  ticks and diverge? Always **Always**
- can it print infinitely many ticks? Iff  $c$  can **Iff  $c$  can.**

Whatever  $c$  can do,  $N$  and  $N'$  have the **same range of behaviours** in any starting state.

# Different fixpoints

Let's apply the recursion operator to  $N$

```
command c() {  
  {  
    x := somenumber;  
    print x ticks;  
    x := somenumber;  
    y := somenumber;  
    {skip or diverge}  
  } or {c()}  
}
```

In starting state  $(0, 0)$ , can this print infinitely many ticks?

# Different fixpoints

Let's apply the recursion operator to  $N$

```
command c() {  
  {  
    x := somenumber;  
    print x ticks;  
    x := somenumber;  
    y := somenumber;  
    {skip or diverge}  
  } or {c()}  
}
```

In starting state  $(0, 0)$ , can this print infinitely many ticks? No

# Different fixpoints

Let's apply the recursion operator to  $N$  and to  $N'$

```
command c() {  
  {  
    x := somenumber;  
    print x ticks;  
    x := somenumber;  
    y := somenumber;  
    {skip or diverge}  
  } or {c()} or {print✓; c()}  
}
```

In starting state  $(0, 0)$ , can this print infinitely many ticks? No

# Different fixpoints

Let's apply the recursion operator to  $N$  and to  $N'$

```
command c() {  
  {  
    x := somenumber;  
    print x ticks;  
    x := somenumber;  
    y := somenumber;  
    {skip or diverge}  
  } or {c()} or {print✓; c()}  
}
```

In starting state  $(0, 0)$ , can this print infinitely many ticks? No **Yes**

## Solution [2005]: use game semantics

```
{  
  x := somenumber;  
  print x ticks;  
  x := somenumber;  
  y := somenumber;  
  {skip or diverge}  
} or {c()} or {print✓. c()}
```

$N$  and  $N'$  must have different denotations.

## Solution [2005]: use game semantics

```
{  
  x := somenumber;  
  print x ticks;  
  x := somenumber;  
  y := somenumber;  
  {skip or diverge}  
} or {c()} or {print✓. c()}
```

$N$  and  $N'$  must have different denotations.

$N'$  can tick, then call its argument  $c$ .  $N$  cannot.



An **open behaviour** might look like this.

- Proponent prints 3 ticks, then calls  $c$  in state  $(7, 3)$ .
- Opponent returns in state  $(5, 9)$ .
- Proponent prints 7 ticks, then calls  $c$  in state  $(8, 8)$ .
- Opponent returns in state  $(1, 0)$ .
- Proponent prints infinitely many ticks.

An open command denotes a function from states to open behaviours.

An **open behaviour** might look like this.

- Proponent prints 3 ticks, then calls  $c$  in state  $(7, 3)$ .
- Opponent returns in state  $(5, 9)$ .
- Proponent prints 7 ticks, then calls  $c$  in state  $(8, 8)$ .
- Opponent returns in state  $(1, 0)$ .
- Proponent prints infinitely many ticks.

An open command denotes a function from states to open behaviours.

This gives us enough information to model recursion properly.

We can also consider **branching time properties** that ask: at what point during execution are choices made?

# Bisimulation

We can also consider **branching time properties** that ask: at what point during execution are choices made?

**Example** The program can print “a” and then be in a position where it can print “b” and can also print “c”.

```
print "a"; {print "b" or print "c"}  
{print "a"; print "b" } or {print "a"; print "c" }
```

Two programs with the same branching time properties are **bisimilar**.

# Bisimulation

We can also consider **branching time properties** that ask: at what point during execution are choices made?

**Example** The program can print “a” and then be in a position where it can print “b” and can also print “c”.

$$\text{print "a"; \{print "b" or print "c"\}}$$
$$\{\text{print "a"; print "b" }\} \text{ or } \{\text{print "a"; print "c" }\}$$

Two programs with the same branching time properties are **bisimilar**.

This means they have the same **branching tree**.

We can also consider **branching time properties** that ask: at what point during execution are choices made?

**Example** The program can print “a” and then be in a position where it can print “b” and can also print “c”.

$$\text{print "a"; } \{ \text{print "b" or print "c"} \}$$
$$\{ \text{print "a"; print "b"} \} \text{ or } \{ \text{print "a"; print "c"} \}$$

Two programs with the same branching time properties are **bisimilar**.

This means they have the same **branching tree**.

Let's write Trees for the set of branching trees.

We can also consider **branching time properties** that ask: at what point during execution are choices made?

**Example** The program can print “a” and then be in a position where it can print “b” and can also print “c”.

$$\text{print "a"; } \{ \text{print "b" or print "c"} \}$$
$$\{ \text{print "a"; print "b"} \} \text{ or } \{ \text{print "a"; print "c"} \}$$

Two programs with the same branching time properties are **bisimilar**.

This means they have the same **branching tree**.

Let's write  $Trees$  for the set of branching trees.

A closed command should denote a function from  $S$  to  $Trees$ .

# Bisimulation

We can also consider **branching time properties** that ask: at what point during execution are choices made?

**Example** The program can print “a” and then be in a position where it can print “b” and can also print “c”.

$$\text{print "a"; \{print "b" or print "c"\}}$$
$$\{\text{print "a"; print "b" }\} \text{ or } \{\text{print "a"; print "c" }\}$$

Two programs with the same branching time properties are **bisimilar**.

This means they have the same **branching tree**.

Let's write `Trees` for the set of branching trees.

A closed command should denote a function from  $S$  to `Trees`.

What about an open command?



# Context Lemma For Bisimilarity

Could an open command denote an endofunction on  $S \rightarrow \text{Trees}$ ?

# Context Lemma For Bisimilarity

Could an open command denote an endofunction on  $S \rightarrow \text{Trees}$ ?

Apparently

# Context Lemma For Bisimilarity

Could an open command denote an endofunction on  $S \rightarrow \text{Trees}$ ?

Apparently

Theorem (the **context lemma**)

Suppose that  $N$  and  $N'$  are open commands that, in any starting state, are bisimilar whatever  $c$  may do

i.e. they represent the same endofunction on  $S \rightarrow \text{Trees}$ .

Then **command**  $c() \{N\}$  and **command**  $c() \{N'\}$  are bisimilar

i.e. they represent the same fixpoint.

# Context Lemma For Bisimilarity

Could an open command denote an endofunction on  $S \rightarrow \text{Trees}$ ?

Apparently

## Theorem (the **context lemma**)

Suppose that  $N$  and  $N'$  are open commands that, in any starting state, are bisimilar whatever  $c$  may do

i.e. they represent the same endofunction on  $S \rightarrow \text{Trees}$ .

Then **command**  $c() \{N\}$  and **command**  $c() \{N'\}$  are bisimilar

i.e. they represent the same fixpoint.

The proof is elegant but mysterious.

It doesn't tell us how to find that fixpoint, given the endofunction.

# Context Lemma For Bisimilarity

Could an open command denote an endofunction on  $S \rightarrow \text{Trees}$ ?

Apparently

Theorem (the **context lemma**)

Suppose that  $N$  and  $N'$  are open commands that, in any starting state, are bisimilar whatever  $c$  may do

i.e. they represent the same endofunction on  $S \rightarrow \text{Trees}$ .

Then **command**  $c() \{N\}$  and **command**  $c() \{N'\}$  are bisimilar

i.e. they represent the same fixpoint.

The proof is elegant but mysterious.

It doesn't tell us how to find that fixpoint, given the endofunction.

**Possible research direction** Use “least” fixpoint with several different orderings.

# New directions in nondeterminism

- Find semantics of bisimilarity.
- Roscoe's "Seeing Beyond Divergence" model of conditional liveness combines least and greatest fixpoint for recursion.
- [2007] The context lemma holds if we include  $\text{amb}$  for integer expressions
- [2007] but not if we include  $\text{amb}$  for expressions that return functions.
- Functional languages
- Relate to other kinds of semantics