TLA<sup>+</sup> Video Course – Lecture 10, Part 1

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# IMPLEMENTATION WITH REFINEMENT PRELIMINARIES

This video should be viewed in conjunction with a Web page. To find that page, search the Web for *TLA*+ *Video Course*.

The TLA<sup>+</sup> Video Course Lecture 10 Implementation With Refinement

The concept of implementation as implication we've been using works only when all the high-level specification's variables appear in the low-level spec. This lecture explains what implementation means when that isn't the case. It provides important insight into implementation, including what it means for a program to implement a TLA+ spec. But that comes in the second part. In this part, we discuss recursion and substitution, and then introduce our motivating example: another version of the Alternating Bit protocol.

[slide 2]

## **RECURSIVE DEFINITIONS**

[slide 3]

Problem:

Define an operator RemoveX that removes all instances of "X" from a sequence of strings.

Suppose we need to define an operator RemoveX that removes all instances of the string *X* from a sequence of strings.

```
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## Example:

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RemoveX(\langle "Tom", "X", "Dick", "Harry", "X" \rangle)
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For example, applying RemoveX to the sequence consisting of the five strings Tom, X, Dick, Harry, and X

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### Example:

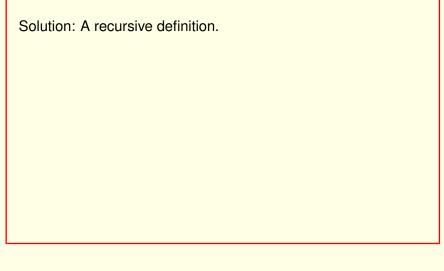
```
RemoveX(\langle "Tom", "X", "Dick", "Harry", "X" \rangle)
```

 $= \langle "Tom", "Dick", "Harry" \rangle$ 

Suppose we need to define an operator RemoveX that removes all instances of the string *X* from a sequence of strings.

For example, applying *RemoveX* to the sequence consisting of the five strings *Tom*, *X*, *Dick*, *Harry*, and *X* yields the value obtained by removing the two *X*s to obtain the string *Tom*, *Dick*, *Harry*.

[slide 7]



We do this with a recursive definition.

```
Solution: A recursive definition.
  RemoveX(sequence) \triangleq
      ... RemoveX(shorter sequence) ...
```

We do this with a recursive definition.

A recursive definition defines RemoveX of a sequence in terms of RemoveX of a shorter sequence.

```
Solution: A recursive definition.

RemoveX(sequence) ≜

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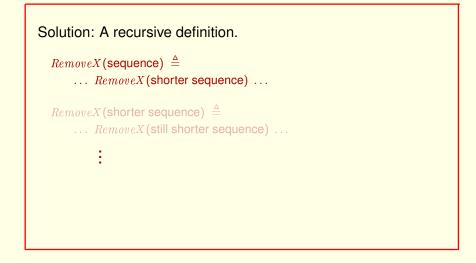
… RemoveX(still shorter sequence) …
```

We do this with a recursive definition.

A recursive definition defines *RemoveX* of a sequence in terms of *RemoveX* of a shorter sequence.

This means that RemoveX of this shorter sequence is defined to equal some expression involving RemoveX of a still shorter sequence.

[slide 10]



We can keep going like this, obtaining expressions containing *RemoveX* applied to shorter and shorter sequences.

```
Solution: A recursive definition.
  RemoveX(sequence) \triangleq
       ... RemoveX (shorter sequence) ...
  RemoveX(shorter sequence) \triangleq
       ... RemoveX (still shorter sequence) ...
   \ldots \triangleq \ldots RemoveX(\langle \rangle) \ldots
```

We can keep going like this, obtaining expressions containing *RemoveX* applied to shorter and shorter sequences.

Eventually we reach an expression containing RemoveX of the empty sequence

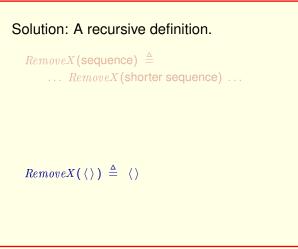
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Solution: A recursive definition.
        ... RemoveX (still shorter sequence) ...
   RemoveX(\langle \rangle) \triangleq \langle \rangle
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We can keep going like this, obtaining expressions containing *RemoveX* applied to shorter and shorter sequences.

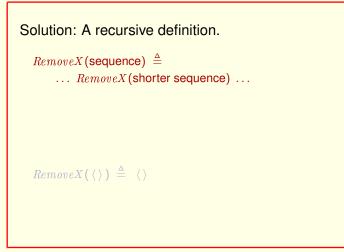
Eventually we reach an expression containing *RemoveX* of the empty sequence which of course equals the empty sequence.

So we have to do two things.

[slide 13]

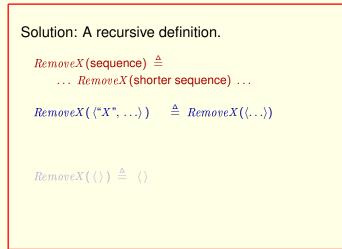


Define *RemoveX* of the empty sequence.



Define *RemoveX* of the empty sequence. And define the value of *RemoveX* of a non-empty sequence in terms of *RemoveX* of a shorter sequence.

[slide 15]



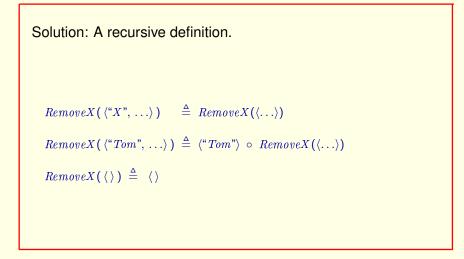
Define *RemoveX* of the empty sequence. And define the value of *RemoveX* of a non-empty sequence in terms of *RemoveX* of a shorter sequence.

RemoveX of a sequence beginning with X equals RemoveX applied to the rest of the sequence.

[slide 16]

```
Solution: A recursive definition.
   RemoveX(sequence) \triangleq
         ... RemoveX (shorter sequence) ...
   RemoveX(\langle "X", \ldots \rangle) \triangleq RemoveX(\langle \ldots \rangle)
   RemoveX(\langle "Tom", \ldots \rangle) \triangleq \langle "Tom" \rangle \circ RemoveX(\langle \ldots \rangle)
```

And RemoveX of a sequence beginning with another value, such as Tom, equals the sequence that begins with Tom and is followed by the result of applying RemoveX to the rest of the sequence.



And *RemoveX* of a sequence beginning with another value, such as *Tom*, equals the sequence that begins with *Tom* and is followed by the result of applying *RemoveX* to the rest of the sequence.

#### So we just have to write this as a single TLA<sup>+</sup> definition.

[slide 18]

 $RemoveX(\langle "X", \ldots \rangle) \triangleq RemoveX(\langle \ldots \rangle)$  $RemoveX(\langle "Tom", \ldots \rangle) \triangleq \langle "Tom" \rangle \circ RemoveX(\langle \ldots \rangle)$  $RemoveX(\langle \rangle) \triangleq \langle \rangle$ 

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[slide 19]

 $RemoveX(\langle "X", \ldots \rangle) \stackrel{\triangle}{=} RemoveX(\langle \ldots \rangle)$   $RemoveX(\langle "Tom", \ldots \rangle) \stackrel{\triangle}{=} \langle "Tom" \rangle \circ RemoveX(\langle \ldots \rangle)$   $RemoveX(\langle \rangle) \stackrel{\triangle}{=} \langle \rangle$ 

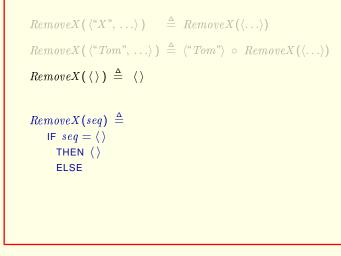
And *RemoveX* of a sequence beginning with another value, such as *Tom*, equals the sequence that begins with *Tom* and is followed by the result of applying *RemoveX* to the rest of the sequence.

#### So we just have to write this as a single TLA<sup>+</sup> definition.

[slide 20]

### $RemoveX(seq) \triangleq$

Here's the definition.



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If seq is the empty sequence, then RemoveX of seq equals the empty sequence.

```
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RemoveX(\langle \rangle) \stackrel{\Delta}{=} \langle \rangle
RemoveX(seq) \triangleq
     IF seq = \langle \rangle
        THEN \langle \rangle
        ELSE IF Head(seq) = "X"
                      THEN
                      ELSE
```

Here's the definition.

If *seq* is the empty sequence, then *RemoveX* of *seq* equals the empty sequence.

Otherwise if the head of seq (its first element) equals the string X,

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RemoveX(\langle \rangle) \stackrel{\Delta}{=} \langle \rangle
RemoveX(seq) \triangleq
     IF seq = \langle \rangle
        THEN ()
        ELSE IF Head(seq) = "X"
                     THEN RemoveX(Tail(seq))
                     ELSE
```

Here's the definition.

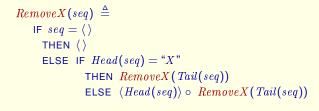
If *seq* is the empty sequence, then *RemoveX* of *seq* equals the empty sequence.

Otherwise if the head of seq (its first element) equals the string X, then RemoveX of seq equals RemoveX of the tail of seq.

[slide 24]

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       THEN ()
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                    THEN RemoveX(Tail(seq))
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Else, it equals the sequence obtained by prepending the head of *seq* to the front of *RemoveX* of the tail of *seq*.



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This is a recursive definition because the symbol we're defining appears in its definition.

[slide 26]

```
\begin{array}{l} \textbf{Recouse} X(seq) \triangleq \\ \textbf{IF } seq = \langle \rangle \\ \textbf{THEN } \langle \rangle \\ \textbf{ELSE IF } Head(seq) = "X" \\ \textbf{THEN } RemoveX(Tail(seq)) \\ \textbf{ELSE } \langle Head(seq) \rangle \circ RemoveX(Tail(seq)) \end{array}
```

Such a definition must be preceded by a RECURSIVE declaration of the symbol being defined, with its arguments indicated by underscore characters.

```
\begin{array}{l} \text{RecURSIVE } RemoveX(\_) \\ RemoveX(seq) \triangleq \\ \text{IF } seq = \langle \rangle \\ \text{THEN } \langle \rangle \\ \text{ELSE } \text{IF } Head(seq) = "X" \\ \text{THEN } RemoveX(Tail(seq)) \\ \text{ELSE } \langle Head(seq) \rangle \circ RemoveX(Tail(seq)) \end{array}
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Such a definition must be preceded by a RECURSIVE declaration of the symbol being defined, with its arguments indicated by underscore characters.

This is the complete definition of *RemoveX*.

If you've used a "functional" programming language, recursive definitions will seem natural.

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If not, think of using a recursive definition when implementing the operator with a program requires a loop.

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[slide 30]

## **SUBSTITUTION**

[slide 31]

Substitution is a fundamental operation of mathematics.

There's no standard notation for expressing it.

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[slide 33]

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In this lecture I will write the expression obtained by substituting an expression e for the symbol vin an expression f like this

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[slide 34]

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In this lecture I will write the expression obtained by substituting an expression e for the symbol vin an expression f like this

f WITH  $v \leftarrow e$ 

Substitution is a fundamental operation of mathematics.

But mathematicians have no standard notation for expressing it.

In this lecture I will write the expression obtained by substituting an expression e for the symbol v in an expression f like this, which I'll read as "f with e substituted for v."

[slide 35]

There's no standard notation for expressing it.

In this lecture I will write the expression obtained by substituting an expression e for the symbol vin an expression f like this

f WITH  $v \leftarrow e$ 

For example  $(y^3 - y)$  WITH  $y \leftarrow x + 2$ 

For example  $y^3 - y$  with x + 2 substituted for y

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For example  $(y^3 - y)$  WITH  $y \leftarrow x + 2$ equals  $(x + 2)^3 - (x + 2)$ .

For example  $y^3 - y$  with x + 2 substituted for y equals the expression (x + 2) cubed minus the expression (x + 2).

Substitution is a fundamental operation of mathematics.

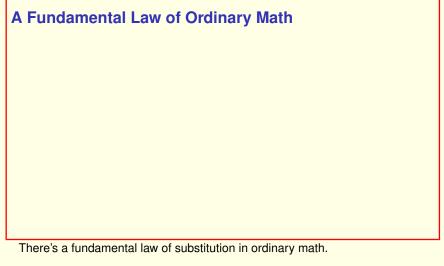
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> f WITH  $v \leftarrow e$ This is not TLA<sup>+</sup> notation.

For example  $y^3 - y$  with x + 2 substituted for y equals the expression (x + 2) cubed minus the expression (x + 2).

This is not TLA<sup>+</sup> notation. I'm using it only for this lecture.



It says that

## A Fundamental Law of Ordinary Math

For any variable v and expressions e and f

There's a fundamental law of substitution in ordinary math.

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### A Fundamental Law of Ordinary Math

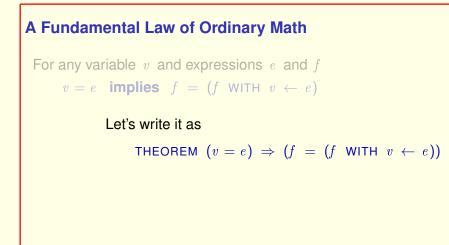
For any variable v and expressions e and f

v = e implies  $f = (f \text{ WITH } v \leftarrow e)$ 

There's a fundamental law of substitution in ordinary math.

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There's a fundamental law of substitution in ordinary math.

It says that for any variable v and expressions e and f, v equals e implies that f equals the expression f with e substituted for v.

Let's write it as this theorem.

# A Fundamental Law of Ordinary Math For any variable v and expressions e and f v = e implies $f = (f \text{ WITH } v \leftarrow e)$ Let's write it as THEOREM $(v = e) \Rightarrow (f = (f \text{ WITH } v \leftarrow e))$ I'll call this the Simple Substitution Law

There's a fundamental law of substitution in ordinary math.

It says that for any variable v and expressions e and f, v equals e implies that f equals the expression f with e substituted for v.

Let's write it as this theorem.

I'll call this law the *Simple Substitution Law*, though it's not what mathematicians call it.

[slide 43]

Ordinary math corresponds to the constant expressions of TLA<sup>+</sup>.

Mathematicians' variables are the CONSTANTS of TLA<sup>+</sup>.

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[slide 48]

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**Temporal Logic of Actions** 

And T-L-A stands for the temporal logic of actions.

The Simple Substitution Law

[slide 50]

This is not true if v is a variable or e is a non-constant expression.

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#### Example

The Simple Substitution Law is not true if v is a variable or e is a non-constant expression.

Here's an example that shows it's not true.

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**Example**  $v \leftarrow y, e \leftarrow x + 2, f \leftarrow y'$  where x and y are variables

The Simple Substitution Law is not true if v is a variable or e is a non-constant expression.

Here's an example that shows it's not true.

Let's substitute y for v, x + 2 for e, and y prime for f in the law – where x and y are variables.

[slide 53]

This is not true if v is a variable or e is a non-constant expression.

Example  $v \leftarrow y, e \leftarrow x+2, f \leftarrow y'$  where x and y are variables THEOREM

The law states that

THEOREM  $(v = e) \Rightarrow (f = (f \text{ WITH } v \leftarrow e))$ This is not true if v is a variable or e is a non-constant expression. Example  $v \leftarrow y, e \leftarrow x+2, f \leftarrow y'$  where x and y are variables THEOREM  $(y = x + 2) \Rightarrow$ 

The law states that

"*v* equals e", which is "*y* equals x + 2", implies that

[slide 55]

THEOREM 
$$(v = e) \Rightarrow (f = (f \text{ WITH } v \leftarrow e))$$

**Example**  $v \leftarrow y, e \leftarrow x+2, f \leftarrow y'$  where x and y are variables THEOREM  $(y = x + 2) \Rightarrow (y' =$ 

The law states that

"*v* equals e", which is "*y* equals x + 2", implies that

f, which is y prime, equals

[slide 56]

THEOREM 
$$(v = e) \Rightarrow (f = (f \text{ WITH } v \leftarrow e))$$

**Example**  $v \leftarrow y, e \leftarrow x+2, f \leftarrow y'$  where x and y are variables THEOREM  $(y = x+2) \Rightarrow (y' = (x+2)')$ 

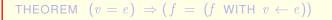
The law states that

"*v* equals e", which is "*y* equals x + 2", implies that

f, which is y prime, equals

"the expression f with x + 2 substituted for y", which is x + 2 prime.

[slide 57]



Example  $v \leftarrow y$ ,  $e \leftarrow x+2$ ,  $f \leftarrow y'$  where x and y are variables THEOREM  $(y = x+2) \Rightarrow (y' = (x+2)')$ This is an assertion about a behavior.

This formula is an assertion about a behavior, and the theorem asserts that it's true for all behaviors.

THEOREM 
$$(v = e) \Rightarrow (f = (f \text{ WITH } v \leftarrow e))$$

**Example**  $v \leftarrow y, e \leftarrow x+2, f \leftarrow y'$  where x and y are variables THEOREM  $(y = x + 2) \Rightarrow (y' = (x + 2)')$ This is an assertion about a behavior. Asserts y = x + 2 in first state of behavior.

This formula is an assertion about a behavior, and the theorem asserts that it's true for all behaviors.

This is a state formula, so it asserts that y = x + 2 is true in the first state of the behavior.

[slide 59]

THEOREM 
$$(v = e) \Rightarrow (f = (f \text{ WITH } v \leftarrow e))$$

**Example**  $v \leftarrow y, e \leftarrow x+2, f \leftarrow y'$  where x and y are variables THEOREM  $(y = x + 2) \Rightarrow (y' = (x + 2)')$ This is an assertion about a behavior. Asserts y = x + 2 in first state of behavior.

This action formula asserts that the value of y in the second state of the behavior equals the value of x plus two in that second state –

THEOREM 
$$(v = e) \Rightarrow (f = (f \text{ WITH } v \leftarrow e))$$
  
This is not true if  $v$  is a variable or  $e$  is a non-constant expression.

**Example**  $v \leftarrow y, e \leftarrow x+2, f \leftarrow y'$  where x and y are variables THEOREM  $(y = x + 2) \Rightarrow \boxed{(y' = (x + 2)')}$ This is an assertion about a behavior. Asserts y = x + 2 in first state of behavior. Asserts y = x + 2 in second state of behavior.

This action formula asserts that the value of y in the second state of the behavior equals the value of x plus two in that second state – in other words, that y = x + 2 is true in the second state of the behavior.

THEOREM 
$$(v = e) \Rightarrow (f = (f \text{ WITH } v \leftarrow e))$$

**Example**  $v \leftarrow y$ ,  $e \leftarrow x+2$ ,  $f \leftarrow y'$  where x and y are variables **THEOREM**  $(y = x+2) \Rightarrow (y' = (x+2)')$ Asserts y = x+2 in the first state implies y = x+2 in the second state.

This action formula asserts that the value of y in the second state of the behavior equals the value of x plus two in that second state – in other words, that y = x + 2 is true in the second state of the behavior.

So this formula asserts that y = x + 2 true in the first state implies that it's also true in the second state.

THEOREM 
$$(v = e) \Rightarrow (f = (f \text{ WITH } v \leftarrow e))$$

**Example**  $v \leftarrow y, e \leftarrow x + 2, f \leftarrow y'$  where x and y are variables

THEOREM  $(y = x + 2) \Rightarrow (y' = (x + 2)')$ 

Asserts y = x + 2 in the first state implies y = x + 2 in the second state.

Not true for all behaviors

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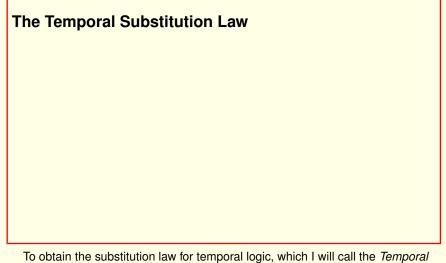
#### Which is not true for all behaviors.

[slide 63]

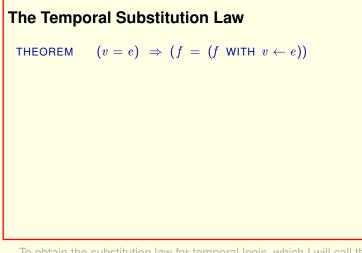
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The law is not true if v is a variable or e is a non-constant expression.



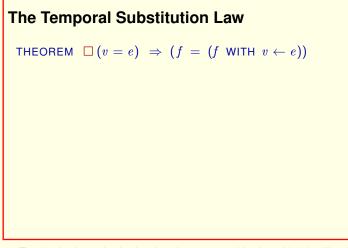
Substitution Law



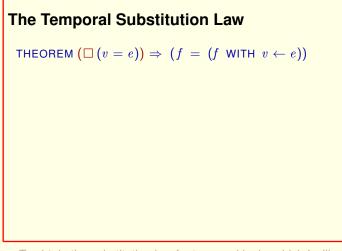
To obtain the substitution law for temporal logic, which I will call the *Temporal Substitution Law* 

We change the Simple Substitution Law

[slide 66]

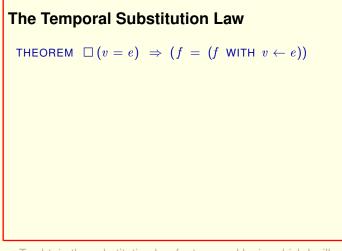


To obtain the substitution law for temporal logic, which I will call the *Temporal Substitution Law* We change the Simple Substitution Law by adding this *always* operator.



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## The Temporal Substitution Law

**THEOREM**  $\Box (v = e) \Rightarrow (f = (f \text{ WITH } v \leftarrow e))$ 

Asserts that, for every behavior:

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So the law now asserts that, for every behavior:

## The Temporal Substitution Law

THEOREM  $\Box (v = e) \Rightarrow (f = (f \text{ WITH } v \leftarrow e))$ 

Asserts that, for every behavior:

if v = e is true in all states of the behavior

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We change the Simple Substitution Law by adding this *always* operator.

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So the law now asserts that, for every behavior: if v = e is true in all states of the behavior,

[slide 71]

## The Temporal Substitution Law

THEOREM  $\Box (v = e) \Rightarrow (f = (f \text{ WITH } v \leftarrow e))$ 

Asserts that, for every behavior:

if v = e is true in all states of the behavior then  $f = (f \text{ WITH } v \leftarrow e)$  is true on the behavior

To obtain the substitution law for temporal logic, which I will call the *Temporal Substitution Law* 

We change the Simple Substitution Law by adding this *always* operator.

The statement of the theorem is parsed like this,

So the law now asserts that, for every behavior: if v = e is true in all states of the behavior, then the formula "*f* equals *f* with *e* substituted for *v*" is true on the behavior. [slide 72]

#### The Temporal Substitution Law

THEOREM  $\Box (v = e) \Rightarrow (f = (f \text{ WITH } v \leftarrow e))$ 

Asserts that, for every behavior:

if v = e is true in all states of the behavior then  $f = (f \text{ WITH } v \leftarrow e)$  is true on the behavior

#### Example

Let's look at the same example as before.

# The Temporal Substitution Law THEOREM $\Box (v = e) \Rightarrow (f = (f \text{ WITH } v \leftarrow e))$ Asserts that, for every behavior: if v = e is true in all states of the behavior **then** $f = (f \text{ WITH } v \leftarrow e)$ is true on the behavior **Example** $v \leftarrow y$ , $e \leftarrow x + 2$ , $f \leftarrow y'$ where x and y are variables

Let's look at the same example as before.

With y substituted for v, x + 2 substituted for e and y prime substituted for f, where x and y are variables.

[slide 74]

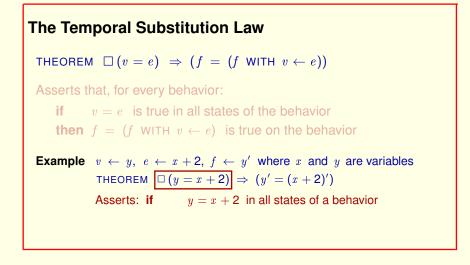
The Temporal Substitution Law THEOREM  $\Box (v = e) \Rightarrow (f = (f \text{ WITH } v \leftarrow e))$ Asserts that, for every behavior: if v = e is true in all states of the behavior **then**  $f = (f \text{ WITH } v \leftarrow e)$  is true on the behavior **Example**  $v \leftarrow y, e \leftarrow x + 2, f \leftarrow y'$  where x and y are variables THEOREM  $\Box$  (y = x + 2)  $\Rightarrow$  (y' = (x + 2)')

Let's look at the same example as before.

With *y* substituted for *v*, x + 2 substituted for *e* and *y* prime substituted for *f*, where *x* and *y* are variables.

#### The law now

[slide 75]



Let's look at the same example as before.

With *y* substituted for *v*, x + 2 substituted for *e* and *y* prime substituted for *f*, where *x* and *y* are variables.

The law now asserts that if y equals x + 2 in **all** states of a behavior

[slide 76]

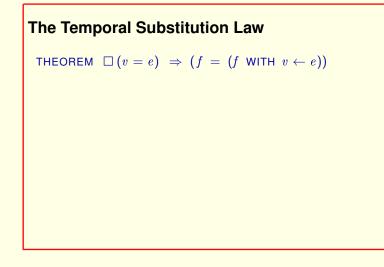
The Temporal Substitution Law THEOREM  $\Box (v = e) \Rightarrow (f = (f \text{ WITH } v \leftarrow e))$ Asserts that, for every behavior: if v = e is true in all states of the behavior **then**  $f = (f \text{ WITH } v \leftarrow e)$  is true on the behavior **Example**  $v \leftarrow y, e \leftarrow x + 2, f \leftarrow y'$  where x and y are variables THEOREM  $\Box (y = x + 2) \Rightarrow (y' = (x + 2)')$ Asserts: if y = x + 2 in all states of a behavior then y = x + 2 in the second state of the behavior

then y equals x + 2 in the second state of the behavior.

The Temporal Substitution Law THEOREM  $\Box (v = e) \Rightarrow (f = (f \text{ WITH } v \leftarrow e))$ Asserts that, for every behavior: if v = e is true in all states of the behavior **then**  $f = (f \text{ WITH } v \leftarrow e)$  is true on the behavior **Example**  $v \leftarrow y, e \leftarrow x + 2, f \leftarrow y'$  where x and y are variables THEOREM  $\Box (y = x + 2) \Rightarrow (y' = (x + 2)')$ Asserts: if y = x + 2 in all states of a behavior then y = x + 2 in the second state of the behavior

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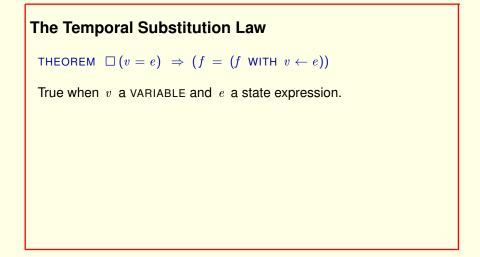
Which is obviously true of all behaviors.

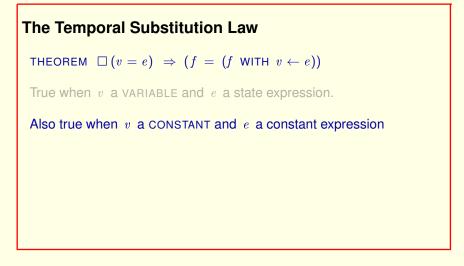


then y equals x + 2 in the second state of the behavior.

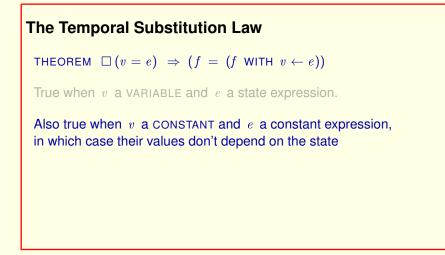
Which is obviously true of all behaviors.

[slide 79]



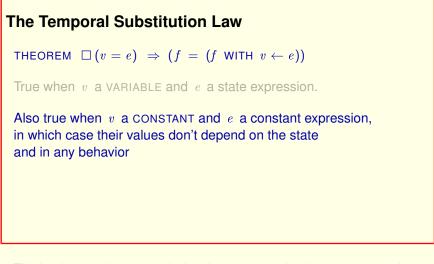


The law is also true when v is a declared CONSTANT and e is a constant expression,

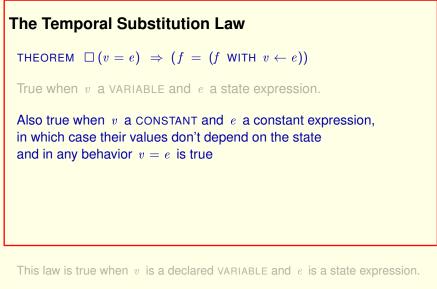


The law is also true when v is a declared CONSTANT and e is a constant expression,

in which case the values of v and e don't depend on the state,



The law is also true when v is a declared CONSTANT and e is a constant expression, in which case the values of v and e don't depend on the state, and therefore, in any behavior,



The law is also true when v is a declared CONSTANT and e is a constant expression, in which case the values of v and e don't depend on the state, and therefore, in any behavior, v = e is true in the initial state

# The Temporal Substitution Law THEOREM $\Box (v = e) \Rightarrow (f = (f \text{ WITH } v \leftarrow e))$ True when v a VARIABLE and e a state expression. Also true when v a CONSTANT and e a constant expression, in which case their values don't depend on the state and in any behavior v = e is true iff $\Box(v = e)$ is. This law is true when v is a declared VARIABLE and e is a state expression.

The law is also true when v is a declared CONSTANT and e is a constant expression,

in which case the values of v and e don't depend on the state,

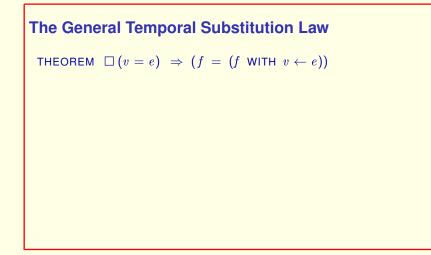
and therefore, in any behavior, v = e is true in the initial state

if and only if it's true in all states of the behavior.

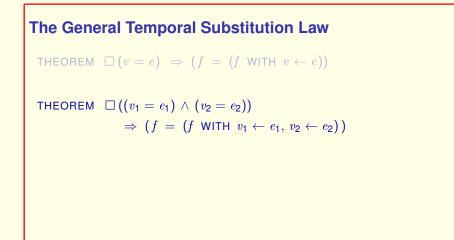
[slide 85]

## The Temporal Substitution Law THEOREM $\Box (v = e) \Rightarrow (f = (f \text{ WITH } v \leftarrow e))$ True when v a VARIABLE and e a state expression. Also true when v a CONSTANT and e a constant expression, in which case their values don't depend on the state and in any behavior v = e is true iff $\Box(v = e)$ is. So we get the Ordinary Substitution Law: THEOREM $(v = e) \Rightarrow (f = (f \text{ WITH } v \leftarrow e))$

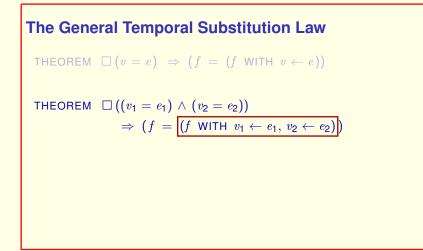
So The Temporal Substitution Law becomes the Ordinary Substitution Law.



There's a straightforward generalization of the Temporal Substitution Law ...



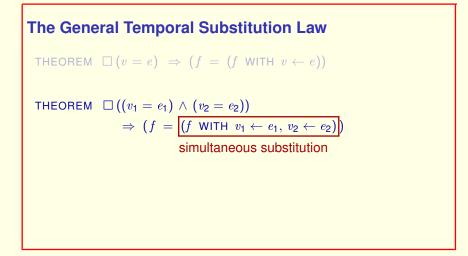
There's a straightforward generalization of the Temporal Substitution Law ... to substitution for two variables.

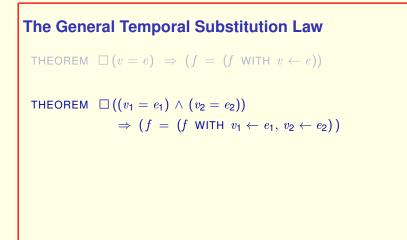


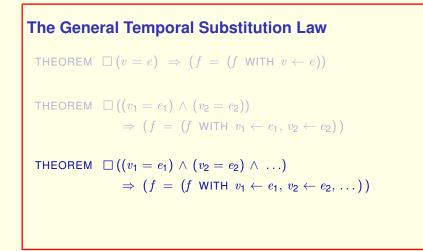
There's a straightforward generalization of the Temporal Substitution Law ... to substitution for two variables.

The meaning of this WITH expression should be obvious, except perhaps for the fact that

[slide 89]

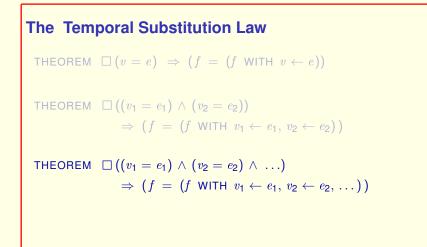






And this obviously generalizes to substitution for any number of variables.

[slide 92]



And this obviously generalizes to substitution for any number of variables.

### It's this general version that I'll refer to as the Temporal Substitution Law. [slide 93]

We now come to the motivating example of this lecture, the AB2 protocol.

THE AB2 PROTOCOL

The AB2 protocol is AB protocol with one simple modification:

The AB2 protocol is the same as the Alternating Bit protocol of Lecture 9 except for one simple modification:

The AB2 protocol is the same as the Alternating Bit protocol of Lecture 9 except for one simple modification:

Messages are detectably corrupted rather than lost.

[slide 96]

A corrupted message is represented by a value *Bad* unequal to any message that can be sent.

The AB2 protocol is the same as the Alternating Bit protocol of Lecture 9 except for one simple modification:

Messages are detectably corrupted rather than lost.

A corrupted message is represented by a special value *Bad* that doesn't equal any message that can be sent.

[slide 97]

A corrupted message is represented by a value *Bad* unequal to any message that can be sent.

The specification is in module AB2

The specification is in module AB2,

[slide 98]

A corrupted message is represented by a value *Bad* unequal to any message that can be sent.

The specification is in module AB2, which you can now download.

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Module AB2 is obtained by making simple modifications to module AB. If starts like AB by

[slide 100]

**EXTENDS** Integers, Sequences

Module AB2 is obtained by making simple modifications to module AB. If starts like AB by extending the *Integers* and *Sequences* modules, and

[slide 101]

**EXTENDS** Integers, Sequences

CONSTANT Data

Module AB2 is obtained by making simple modifications to module AB.

If starts like AB by extending the *Integers* and *Sequences* modules, and declaring the constant *Data*, the set of possible data values that can be sent.

It also declares

[slide 102]

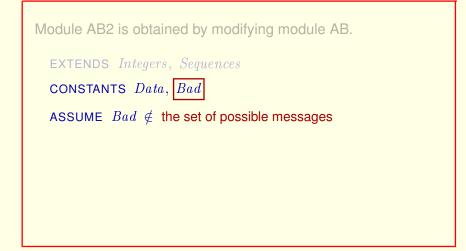
EXTENDS Integers, Sequences CONSTANTS Data, Bad

Module AB2 is obtained by making simple modifications to module AB.

If starts like AB by extending the *Integers* and *Sequences* modules, and declaring the constant *Data*, the set of possible data values that can be sent.

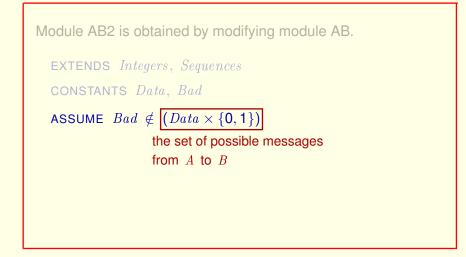
It also declares the constant Bad, and adds the assumption

[slide 103]



that *Bad* is not an element of the set of possible messages that can be sent, which equals

[slide 104]



that Bad is not an element of the set of possible messages that can be sent, which equals the set of possible messages that can be sent from A to B

[slide 105]

Module AB2 is obtained by modifying module AB. **EXTENDS** Integers, Sequences CONSTANTS Data, Bad ASSUME  $Bad \notin (Data \times \{0,1\}) \cup \{0,1\}$ the set of possible messages from B to A

that Bad is not an element of the set of possible messages that can be sent, which equals the set of possible messages that can be sent from A to B

union with the set of possible messages that can be sent from B to A, which contains the two values 0 and 1.

[slide 106]

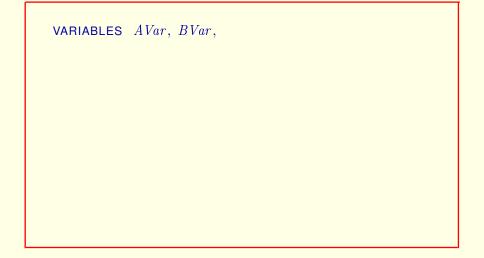
EXTENDS Integers, Sequences CONSTANTS Data, Bad

ASSUME  $Bad \notin (Data \times \{0,1\}) \cup \{0,1\}$ 

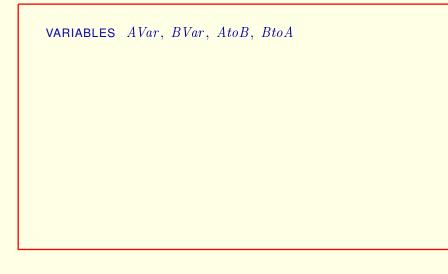
that Bad is not an element of the set of possible messages that can be sent, which equals the set of possible messages that can be sent from A to B

union with the set of possible messages that can be sent from B to A, which contains the two values 0 and 1.

[slide 107]

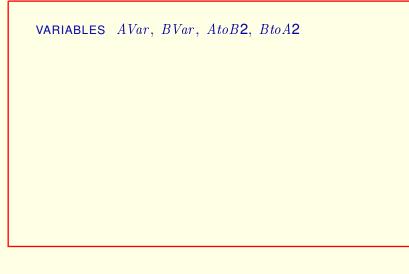


The variables AVar and BVar are the same as as in module AB, but



The variables AVar and BVar are the same as as in module AB, but the message sequences AtoB and BtoA are renamed

[slide 109]



The variables AVar and BVar are the same as as in module AB, but the message sequences AtoB and BtoA are renamed AtoB2 and BtoA2.

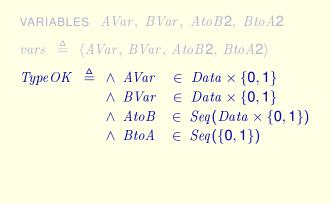
[slide 110]

VARIABLES AVar, BVar, AtoB2, BtoA2  $vars \triangleq \langle AVar, BVar, AtoB2, BtoA2 \rangle$ 

The variables AVar and BVar are the same as as in module AB, but the message sequences AtoB and BtoA are renamed AtoB2 and BtoA2.

vars is again defined to be the tuple of all variables.

[slide 111]

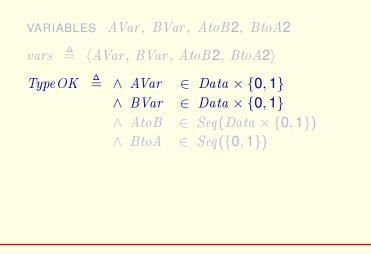


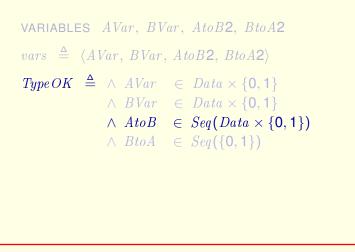
The variables AVar and BVar are the same as as in module AB, but the message sequences AtoB and BtoA are renamed AtoB2 and BtoA2.

vars is again defined to be the tuple of all variables.

Here's the definition of TypeOK from AB.

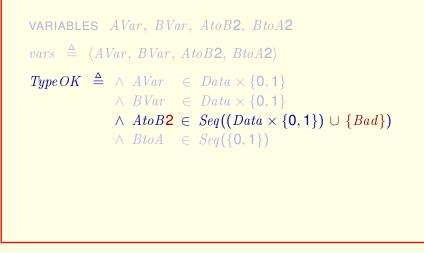
[slide 112]



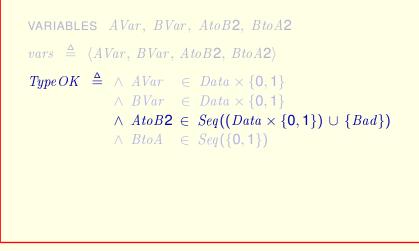


In module AB, the variable AtoB equals a sequence of Data, bit pairs,

[slide 114]



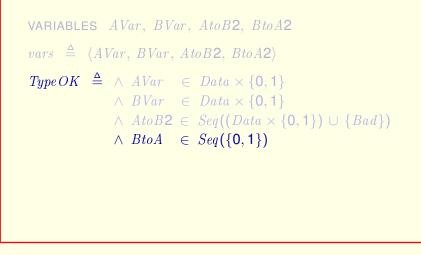
In module AB, the variable AtoB equals a sequence of Data, bit pairs, while the elements of the sequence AtoB2 are either Data, bit pairs or else equal to Bad.



In module AB, the variable AtoB equals a sequence of Data, bit pairs, while the elements of the sequence AtoB2 are either Data, bit pairs or else equal to Bad.

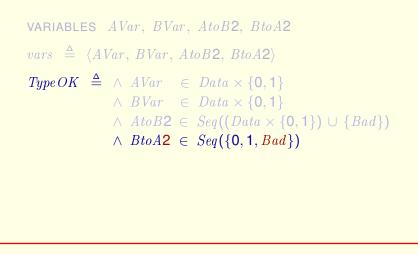
## Stop the video and make sure you understand this formula.

[slide 116]



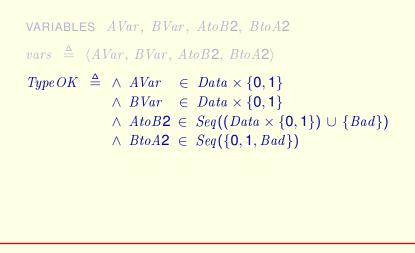
Similarly, where BtoA of module AB is a sequence of zeros or ones,

[slide 117]



Similarly, where BtoA of module AB is a sequence of zeros or ones, BtoA2 is a sequence of the values zero, one, or Bad.

[slide 118]

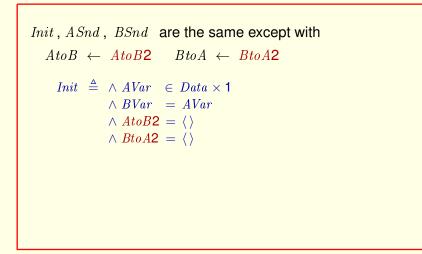


Similarly, where BtoA of module AB is a sequence of zeros or ones, BtoA2 is a sequence of the values zero, one, or Bad.

[slide 119]

Init, ASnd, BSnd are the same except with  $AtoB \leftarrow AtoB2$   $BtoA \leftarrow BtoA2$ 

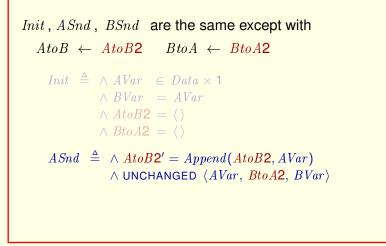
The initial-state formula and the actions in which A and B send messages are the same except for renaming the variables AtoB and BtoA.



The initial-state formula and the actions in which A and B send messages are the same except for renaming the variables AtoB and BtoA.

Here's the initial-state formula.

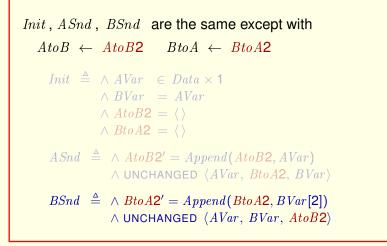
[slide 121]



The initial-state formula and the actions in which A and B send messages are the same except for renaming the variables AtoB and BtoA.

Here's the initial-state formula.

A's send-message action.



The initial-state formula and the actions in which A and B send messages are the same except for renaming the variables AtoB and BtoA.

Here's the initial-state formula.

A's send-message action.

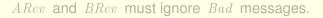
And *B*'s send-message action.

[slide 123]

ARcv and BRcv must ignore Bad messages.

The receive actions of A and B must ignore corrupted messages, which equal Bad.

[slide 124]



## ARcv is the same as before.

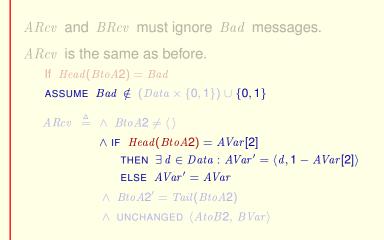
$$\begin{array}{rcl} ARcv & \triangleq & \land & BtoA2 \neq \langle \, \rangle \\ & \land & \mathsf{IF} & Head(BtoA2) = AVar[2] \\ & & \mathsf{THEN} & \exists d \in Data : AVar' = \langle d, \mathbf{1} - AVar[2] \rangle \\ & & \mathsf{ELSE} & AVar' = AVar \\ & \land & BtoA2' = Tail(BtoA2) \\ & \land & \mathsf{UNCHANGED} & \langle AtoB2, BVar \rangle \end{array}$$

The receive actions of *A* and *B* must ignore corrupted messages, which equal *Bad*.

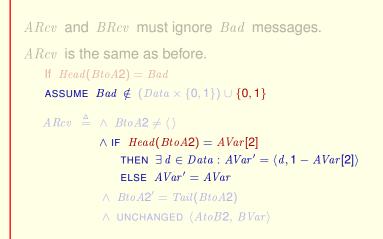
A's receive action is the same as before, except for the change of variables.

[slide 125]

```
ARcv and BRcv must ignore Bad messages.
ARcv is the same as before.
    If Head(BtoA2) = Bad
   ARcv \triangleq \land BtoA2 \neq \langle \rangle
               \wedge IF Head(BtoA2) = AVar[2]
                   THEN \exists d \in Data : AVar' = \langle d, 1 - AVar[2] \rangle
                   ELSE AVar' = AVar
                \wedge BtoA2' = Tail(BtoA2)
                \wedge UNCHANGED \langle AtoB2, BVar \rangle
```

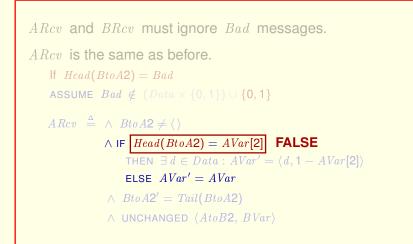


then our assumption means that Bad doesn't equal 0 or 1,



then our assumption means that Bad doesn't equal 0 or 1,

but AVar[2] does equal either 0 or 1



then our assumption means that Bad doesn't equal 0 or 1,

but AVar[2] does equal either 0 or 1

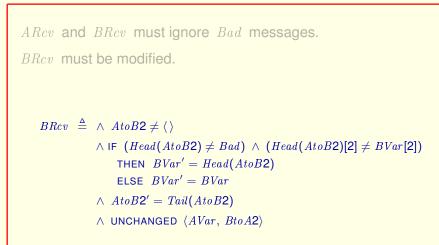
So the **if** condition is false, and the action leaves *AVar* unchanged, meaning that *A* ignores the message.

[slide 129]

ARcv and BRcv must ignore Bad messages.

BRcv must be modified.

To ignore corrupted messages, BRcv must be modified beyond just renaming the variables AtoB and BtoA.



## Here's the new definition.

```
ARcv and BRcv must ignore Bad messages.
BRcv must be modified.
   BRcv \triangleq \wedge AtoB2 \neq \langle \rangle
              \land IF (Head(AtoB2) \neq Bad) \land (Head(AtoB2)[2] \neq BVar[2])
                  THEN BVar' = Head(AtoB2)
                  ELSE BVar' = BVar
              \wedge AtoB2' = Tail(AtoB2)
              \wedge UNCHANGED \langle AVar, BtoA2 \rangle
```

Here's the new definition.

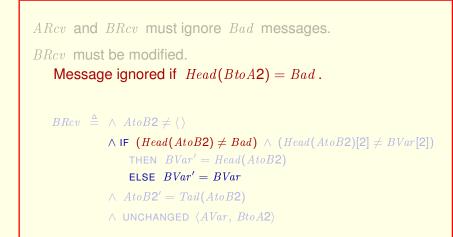
In the if formula

[slide 132]

```
ARcv and BRcv must ignore Bad messages.
BRcv must be modified.
   BRcv \triangleq \wedge AtoB2 \neq \langle \rangle
              \land IF (Head(AtoB2) \neq Bad) \land (Head(AtoB2)[2] \neq BVar[2])
                  THEN BVar' = Head(AtoB2)
                  ELSE BVar' = BVar
              \wedge AtoB2' = Tail(AtoB2)
              \wedge UNCHANGED \langle AVar, BtoA2 \rangle
```

Here's the new definition.

In the if formula this conjunct has been added to the test.



Here's the new definition.

In the if formula this conjunct has been added to the test.

So *BVar* is left unchanged and the message being received is ignored if it equals *Bad*.

[slide 134]

LoseMsg is replaced by CorruptMsg

Finally, the LoseMsg action is replaced by a CurruptMsg action,

[slide 135]

LoseMsg is replaced by CorruptMsg, which changes messages in AtoB2 and BtoA2to Bad instead of removing them.

Finally, the LoseMsg action is replaced by a CurruptMsg action, which changes messages in AtoB2 and BtoA2 to Bad instead of removing them.

[slide 136]

LoseMsg is replaced by CorruptMsg, which changes messages in AtoB2 and BtoA2to Bad instead of removing them.

Finally, the LoseMsg action is replaced by a CurruptMsg action, which changes messages in AtoB2 and BtoA2 to Bad instead of removing them.

Here is the definition, which is the same as the LoseMsg action,

[slide 137]

LoseMsg is replaced by CorruptMsg, which changes messages in AtoB2 and BtoA2to Bad instead of removing them.

Finally, the LoseMsg action is replaced by a CurruptMsg action, which changes messages in AtoB2 and BtoA2 to Bad instead of removing them.

Here is the definition, which is the same as the *LoseMsg* action, except for these parts that describe the change to *AtoB2* or *BtoA2*.

[slide 138]

```
The definitions of Next and the safety specification Spec are straightforward.
```

The definitions of Next and of the safety specification Spec

The definitions of *Next* and the safety specification *Spec* are straightforward.

The definitions of Next and of the safety specification Spec

are what you should expect.

[slide 140]

The definitions of *Next* and the safety specification *Spec* are straightforward.

 $Next \triangleq ASnd \lor ARcv \lor BSnd \lor BRcv \lor CorruptMsg$  $Spec \triangleq Init \land \Box[Next]_{vars}$ 

Liveness is discussed later.

The definitions of Next and of the safety specification Spec

are what you should expect.

I'll discuss liveness later.

[slide 141]

The AB2 protocol is essentially the same as the AB protocol.

The AB2 protocol is essentially the same as the ordinary alternating bit protocol of module AB.

The *AB*<sup>2</sup> protocol is essentially the same as the *AB* protocol.

It too implements the high-level safety specification in module *ABSpec*.

The AB2 protocol is essentially the same as the ordinary alternating bit protocol of module AB.

As we expect, it too implements the high-level safety specification of the protocol in module *ABSpec*.

This is expressed in module AB2 the same as in module AB,

[slide 143]

The *AB*<sup>2</sup> protocol is essentially the same as the *AB* protocol.

It too implements the high-level safety specification in module *ABSpec*.

```
ABS \triangleq instance ABSpec
```

by importing module ABSpec with renaming

The *AB*<sup>2</sup> protocol is essentially the same as the *AB* protocol.

It too implements the high-level safety specification in module *ABSpec*.

 $ABS \triangleq$  instance ABSpecTheorem  $Spec \Rightarrow ABS!Spec$ 

by importing module ABSpec with renaming

and stating this theorem.

# **CHECKING AB2**

[slide 146]

You should now check that the AB2 protocol implements the high-level safety spec of module ABSpec.

As with the AB spec, a model must provide:

As with the AB spec, a model must provide two things:

As with the AB spec, a model must provide:

- A value for the constant Data.

As with the *AB* spec, a model must provide two things:

First, it has to provide A value for the constant Data.

```
Now check that the AB2 protocol implements the high-level safety spec of module ABSpec.
```

As with the AB spec, a model must provide:

```
- A value for the constant Data .
```

Use a set  $\{d1, d2, d3\}$  of model values.

As with the *AB* spec, a model must provide two things:

First, it has to provide A value for the constant *Data*. For example, you can use this set of three model values.

## As with the AB spec, a model must provide:

- A value for the constant *Data* .

Use a set  $\{d1, d2, d3\}$  of model values.

 A state constraint to bound the lengths of *AtoB2* and *BtoA2*.

As with the *AB* spec, a model must provide two things:

First, it has to provide A value for the constant *Data*. For example, you can use this set of three model values.

Second, it must provide a state constraint to bound the lengths of the sequences AtoB2 and BtoA2.

[slide 151]

# As with the AB spec, a model must provide:

- A value for the constant *Data*.

Use a set  $\{d1, d2, d3\}$  of model values.

- A state constraint to bound the lengths of *AtoB2* and *BtoA2*.

Use  $(AtoB2 < 4) \land (BtoA2 < 4)$ .

As with the *AB* spec, a model must provide two things:

First, it has to provide A value for the constant *Data*. For example, you can use this set of three model values.

Second, it must provide a state constraint to bound the lengths of the sequences AtoB2 and BtoA2.

You can constrain them both to have length less than four.

[slide 152]

A model of AB2 most also specify a value for Bad.

A model of specification AB2 most also specify a value for the constant Bad.

A model of *AB*2 most also specify a value for *Bad*.

It must satisfy

ASSUME Bad  $\notin$  (Data  $\times$  {0, 1})  $\cup$  {0, 1}

A model of specification AB2 most also specify a value for the constant Bad.

That value must satisfy the module's assumption,

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A model of *AB*2 most also specify a value for *Bad*.

A model of specification *AB*2 most also specify a value for the constant *Bad*.

That value must satisfy the module's assumption,

when Data also equals the value the model assigns to it.

| A model of $AB2$ most also specify a value for $Bad$ .  |  |
|---|--|
| It must satisfy $\{d1, d2, d3\}$ ASSUME $Bad \notin (\frac{Data}{2} \times \{0, 1\}) \cup \{0, 1\}$ |  |
| An obvious choice:  | Bd         @ Ordinary assignment         Older value         Ordinary assignment |

A model of specification AB2 most also specify a value for the constant Bad.

That value must satisfy the module's assumption, when *Data* also equals the value the model assigns to it.

An obvious choice is to let the model assign the string quote-bad to the constant *Bad*.

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### Running the model produces this TLC error:

Attempted to check equality of integer 0 with non-integer: "Bad"

But running the model produces this TLC error: Attempted to check equality of integer 0 with non-integer quote-bad.

#### Running the model produces this TLC error:

Attempted to check equality of integer 0 with value I don't know to be an integer: "Bad"

But running the model produces this TLC error: Attempted to check equality of integer 0 with non-integer quote-bad.

What TLC really means is that it tried to check if 0 equals the value quote-bad, and it doesn't even know whether or not that value is an integer.

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Running the model produces this TLC error: Attempted to check equality of integer 0 with non-integer: "Bad"

We think that "Bad" and 0 are different

We naturally think that "Bad" and 0 are different,

Running the model produces this TLC error:

Attempted to check equality of integer 0 with non-integer: "Bad"

We think that "Bad" and 0 are different, but the semantics of TLA<sup>+</sup> don't say that they are.

#### We naturally think that "Bad" and 0 are different,

But the semantics of TLA<sup>+</sup> doesn't specify that they're different. So TLC doesn't know whether or not they're equal.

Running the model produces this TLC error:

```
Attempted to check equality of integer 0 with non-integer: "Bad"
```

We think that "*Bad*" and 0 are different, but the semantics of TLA<sup>+</sup> don't say that they are.

What value of *Bad* satisfies

We naturally think that "*Bad*" and 0 are different, But the semantics of TLA<sup>+</sup> doesn't specify that they're different. So TLC doesn't know whether or not they're equal.

What value of *Bad* does satisfy this condition?

We don't know, and we don't need to know. To define the model, all we need to know is:

```
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```

```
Running the model produces this TLC error:
   Attempted to check equality of integer 0 with
   non-integer: "Bad"
We think that "Bad" and 0 are different, but the
semantics of TLA<sup>+</sup> don't say that they are.
            does TLC think
What value of Bad_{\wedge} satisfies
```

What value does *TLC think* satisfies the condition? And the answer to *that* question is:

```
Running the model produces this TLC error:
   Attempted to check equality of integer 0 with
   non-integer: "Bad"
We think that "Bad" and 0 are different, but the
```

```
semantics of TLA<sup>+</sup> don't say that they are.
```

```
\begin{array}{c} \text{does TLC think} \\ \text{What value of } Bad_{\wedge} \text{satisfies} \end{array}
```

 $\begin{array}{c} \{d1, d2, d3\} \\ Bad \notin (\frac{Data}{2} \times \{0, 1\}) \cup \{0, 1\} \end{array}$ 

A model value.

What value does *TLC think* satisfies the condition? And the answer to *that* question is:

A model value.

TLC assumes a model value does not equal any value that you might expect it to be different from.

TLC assumes a model value does not equal any value that you would expect it to be different from.

You don't need to know precisely what that means.

TLC assumes a model value does not equal any value that you might expect it to be different from.

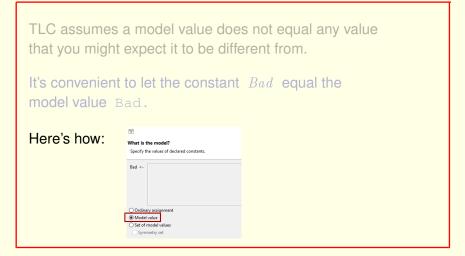
It's convenient to let the constant *Bad* equal the model value Bad.

It's convenient to have the model assign to the constant *Bad* the model value of the same name.

TLC assumes a model value does not equal any value that you might expect it to be different from. It's convenient to let the constant *Bad* equal the model value Bad. E<sup>®</sup> Here's how: What is the model? Specify the values of declared constants. Rad <-Ordinary assignment Model value O Set of model values Symmetry set

It's convenient to have the model assign to the constant *Bad* the model value of the same name.

To do that, in the window for assigning a value to the constant,



It's convenient to have the model assign to the constant *Bad* the model value of the same name.

To do that, in the window for assigning a value to the constant, just select the model value option

You can now run TLC to check that the AB2 specification implements the specification of module ABSpec.

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LIVENESS OF AB2

[slide 169]

Module AB2 next defines FairSpec to be the obvious analogue of formula FairSpec of module AB.

But it doesn't implement *ABS*!*FairSpec*.

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But this specification *FairSpec* doesn't implement the high-level specification *FairSpec* of module *ABSpec*.

[slide 171]

But it doesn't implement *ABS*!*FairSpec*.

Fairness requirements on subactions of *Next* can't guarantee that any messages are received before they're corrupted.

Module AB2 next defines FairSpec to be the obvious analogue of formula FairSpec of module AB.

But this specification *FairSpec* doesn't implement the high-level specification *FairSpec* of module *ABSpec*.

I believe that fairness requirements on subactions of *Next* cannot guarantee that any messages are received before they're corrupted.

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But it doesn't implement *ABS*!*FairSpec*.

Fairness requirements on subactions of *Next* can't guarantee that any messages are received before they're corrupted.

To do that, we change the safety spec.

To guarantee that, we change the safety spec.

We let sending a message add something to the state that determines if the message can be corrupted.

We could add a component to each message.

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We could add a component to each message. For example

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("Tom", 0, TRUE>
 message cannot be corrupted

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We could add a component to each message. For example We could let a component with value TRUE mean that the message *cannot* be corrupted.

We could add a component to each message.

```
("Tom", 0, TRUE>
message cannot be corrupted
("Tom", 0, FALSE>
message can be corrupted
```

We let sending a message add something to the state that determines if the message can be corrupted.

We could add a component to each message. For example We could let a component with value TRUE mean that the message *cannot* be corrupted. And let a component with value FALSE mean that the message *can* be corrupted.

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We could add a component to each message.

An imaginary component that's not meant to be implemented

It's an imaginary component that's not meant to be implemented

We could add a component to each message.

An imaginary component that's not meant to be implemented and serves only to specify liveness.

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and serves only to specify liveness.

It's best to keep the real and imaginary parts of the state separate

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It's best to keep the real and imaginary parts of the state separate

by putting them in different variables.

[slide 181]

## Instead of

 $AtoB2: \langle \langle "Tom", 0, TRUE \rangle, \langle "Tom", 0, FALSE \rangle, \langle "Fred", 0, FALSE \rangle \rangle$ 

It's best to keep the real and imaginary parts of the state separate

by putting them in different variables.

Instead of adding an imaginary component to the messages in AtoB2,

# Instead of

 $AtoB\mathbf{2}: \qquad \langle \langle ``Tom", \mathbf{0}, \mathsf{TRUE} \rangle, \ \langle ``Tom", \mathbf{0}, \mathsf{FALSE} \rangle, \ \langle ``Fred", \mathbf{0}, \mathsf{FALSE} \rangle \rangle$ 

### we have

AtoB2:  $\langle ("Tom", \mathbf{0}), \langle "Tom", \mathbf{0} \rangle, \langle "Fred", \mathbf{1} \rangle \rangle$ 

It's best to keep the real and imaginary parts of the state separate

by putting them in different variables.

Instead of adding an imaginary component to the messages in AtoB2,

#### We have the same messages in AtoB2

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## Instead of

 $AtoB2: \langle \langle "Tom", 0, TRUE \rangle, \langle "Tom", 0, FALSE \rangle, \langle "Fred", 0, FALSE \rangle \rangle$ 

### we have

| Ato B2:    | $\langle \langle "Tom", 0 \rangle, \rangle$ | $\langle "Tom", 0 \rangle,$ | $\langle$ " <i>Fred</i> ", 1 $\rangle \rangle$ |
|------------|---|-----------------------------|--|
| AtoBgood : | <pre>{ TRUE ,</pre>                         | FALSE ,                     | FALSE >  |

It's best to keep the real and imaginary parts of the state separate

by putting them in different variables.

Instead of adding an imaginary component to the messages in AtoB2,

We have the same messages in AtoB2 and put the sequence of their imaginary components into a separate variable AtoBgood.

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And we similarly have *BtoA2* and *BtoAgood*.

And we similarly have *BtoA2* and the imaginary variable *BtoAgood*.

The resulting specification SpecP is defined in a module named AB2P, which EXTENDS module AB2.

*AtoBgood* and *BtoAgood* are imaginary variables, not meant to be implemented.

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The variables *AtoBgood* and *BtoAgood* are imaginary variables; they're not meant to be implemented.

[slide 187]

*AtoBgood* and *BtoAgood* are imaginary variables, not meant to be implemented. They are used only for defining the fairness requirements.

The resulting specification SpecP is defined in a module named AB2P, which EXTENDS module AB2.

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They are used only for defining the fairness requirements.

[slide 188]

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Deciding in advance if a message can be deleted doesn't change the values the variables of AB2 can assume.

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So if we ignore the values of AtoBgood and BtoAgood,

Deciding in advance if a message can be deleted doesn't change the values that the variables of AB2 can assume.

So if we ignore the values of the imaginary variables AtoBgood and BtoAgood,

[slide 190]

*AtoBgood* and *BtoAgood* are imaginary variables, not meant to be implemented. They are used only for defining the fairness requirements.

Deciding in advance if a message can be deleted doesn't change the values the variables of AB2 can assume.

So if we ignore the values of AtoBgood and BtoAgood, then Spec and SpecP allow the same behaviors.

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So if we ignore the values of the imaginary variables AtoBgood and BtoAgood, then specifications Spec and SpecP allow the same behaviors.

[slide 191]

You can read the definitions of SpecP and of specification FairSpecP with fairness requirements in module AB2P.

You can read the definitions of SpecP and of the specification FairSpecP with fairness requirements in module AB2P.

You can read the definitions of *SpecP* and of specification *FairSpecP* with fairness requirements in module *AB2P*.

Stop the video and download it now.

You can read the definitions of SpecP and of the specification FairSpecP with fairness requirements in module AB2P.

Stop the video and download that module now.

[slide 193]

Our discussion of liveness of the AB2 protocol stops here. The second part of this lecture considers only the protocol's safety spec, explaining the precise sense in which it implements the safety spec of the AB protocol, and how to check that it does. Imaginary variables will appear again.

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