add(3, 2), result(5), add(1, 2), add(-1, 1), result(0), ... that start with an add action, in which every result action returns the sum computed by the last add action, and in which every pair of result actions must be separated by one or more add actions.

```
automaton Channel(M, Index: type, i, j: Index)
    signature
    input    send(m: M, const i, const j)
    output receive(m: M, const i, const j)
    states
    buffer: Seq[M] := {}
    transitions
    input send(m, i, j)
        eff buffer := buffer + m
    output receive(m, i, j)
        pre buffer \neq {} \wedge m = head(buffer)
        eff buffer := tail(buffer)
```

Figure 5: IOA description of a reliable communication channel

Another simple automaton, Channel, is shown in Figure 5. This automaton represents a reliable communication channel, as illustrated in Figure 2, which neither loses nor reorders messages in transit. The automaton is parameterized by the type M of messages that can be in transit on the channel, by the type Index of process indices, and by two values, i and j, which represent the indices of processes that use the channel for communication. The signature consists of input actions, send(m, i, j), and output actions, receive(m, i, j), one for each value of m. The keyword const in the signature indicates that the values of i and j in these actions are fixed by the values of the automaton's parameters.

The state of the automaton Channel consists of a buffer, which is a sequence of messages (i.e., an element of type Seq[M]) initialized to the empty sequence {}. Section 8.4 describes the type constructor Seq and operators on sequences such as {}, \vdash, head, and tail.

The input action send(m, i, j) has the effect of appending m to buffer (here, \vdash is the append operator). The output action receive(m, i, j) is enabled when buffer is not empty and has the message m at its head. The effect of this action is to remove the head element from buffer.

The rest of Part I shows in more detail how IOA can be used to describe I/O automata.

3 Data types in IOA descriptions

IOA enables users to define the actions and states of I/O automata abstractly, using mathematical notations for sets, sequences, etc., without having to provide concrete representations for these abstractions. Some mathematical notations are built into IOA; others can be defined by the user.

The data types Bool, Int, Nat, Real, Char, and String can appear in IOA descriptions without explicit declarations. Section 7 describes the operators available for each of these types.

Compound data types can be constructed using the following type constructors and used without explicit declarations. Section 8 describes the operators available for types constructed in any of these fashions.

- Array[I, E] is an array of elements of type E indexed by elements of type I.
- Map[D, R] is a finite partial mapping of elements of a domain type D to elements of a range type R. Mappings differ from arrays in that their domains are always finite, and in that they may not be totally defined.

- Seq[E] is a finite sequence of elements of type E.
- Set[E] is a finite set of elements of type E.
- Mset[E] is a finite multiset of elements of type E.

In this tutorial, we describe operators on the built-in data types informally when they first appear in an example.

Users can define additional data types, as well as redefine built-in types, in one of two ways. First, they can explicitly declare enumeration, tuple, and union types analogous to those found in many common programming languages. For example,

```
type Color = enumeration of red, white, blue
type Msg = tuple of source, dest: Process, contents: String
type Fig = union of sq: Square, circ: Circle
Section 9.8 describes the operators available for each of these types. Second, users can refer to an
auxiliary specification that defines the syntax and semantics of a data type, as in
axioms Queue for Q[__] % Supplies axioms for Q[Int], Q[Set[Nat]], ...
axioms Peano for Nat % Overrides built-in axioms for Nat
axioms Graph(V, E) % Supplies axioms for graphs
```

These auxiliary specifications are written in the *Larch Shared Language (LSL)*; see Sections 9 and 10. In this report, some operators are displayed using mathematical symbols that do not appear on the standard keyboard. The following tables show the input conventions for entering these symbols. The standard meanings of the logical operators are built into LSL and IOA. The meanings of the datatype operators are defined by the LSL specifications for the built-in datatypes in Section 9.

Logical Operator			Datatype Operator			
Symbol	Meaning	Input		Symbol	Meaning	Input
\forall	For all	\A		<u> </u>	Less than or equal	<=
3	There exists	\E		\geq	Greater than or equal	>=
\neg	Not	~		\in	Member of	\in
\neq	Not equals	~=		∉	Not a member of	\notin
\wedge	And	\wedge		\subset	Proper subset of	\subset
\vee	Or	\/		\subseteq	Subset of	\subseteq
\Rightarrow	Implies	=>		\supset	Proper superset of	\supset
\Leftrightarrow	If and only if	<=>		\supseteq	Superset of	\supseteq
	•	·		\vdash	Append element	1-
				4	Prepend element	-

4 IOA descriptions for primitive automata

Primitive automata (i.e., automata without subcomponents) are described by specifying their names, action signatures, state variables, transition relations, and task partitions. All but the last of these elements must be present in every primitive automaton description.

4.1 Automaton names and parameters

The first line of an automaton description consists of the keyword **automaton** followed by the name of the automaton (see Figures 4 and 5). As illustrated in Figure 5, the name may be followed by a list of formal parameters enclosed within parentheses. Each parameter consists of an identifier

with its associated type (or, as in Figure 5, with the keyword type to indicate that the identifier names a type rather than an element of a type).⁴

4.2 Action signatures

The signature for an automaton is declared in IOA using the keyword **signature** followed by lists of entries describing the automaton's input, internal, and output actions. Each entry contains a name and an optional list of parameters enclosed in parentheses. Each parameter consists of an identifier with its associated type, or of an expression following the keyword **const**; entries cannot have **type** parameters. Each entry in the signature denotes a set of actions, one for each assignment of values to its non-**const** parameters.

It is possible to place constraints on the values of the parameters for an entry in the signature using the keyword **where** followed by a predicate, that is, by a boolean-valued expression. Such constraints restrict the set of actions denoted by the entry. For example, the signature

```
signature
input add(i, j: Int) where i > 0 \lambda j > 0
output result(k: Int) where k > 1
```

could have been used for the automaton Adder to restrict the values of the input parameters to positive integers and the value of the output parameter to integers greater than 1.

4.3 State variables

As in the above examples, state variables are declared using the keyword states followed by a comma-separated list of state variables and their types. State variables can be initialized using the assignment operator := followed by an expression or by a nondeterministic choice. The order in which state variables are declared makes no difference: state variables are initialized simultaneously, and the initialization given for one state variable cannot refer to the value of any other state variable.

A nondeterministic choice, indicated by the keyword **choose** following the assignment operator :=, selects an arbitrary value for the named variable that satisfies the predicate following the keyword **where**. When a nondeterministic choice is used to initialize a state variable, there must be some value of the named variable that satisfies this predicate. If this predicate is true for all values of the named variable, then the effect is the same as if no initial value had been specified for the state variable.

```
automaton Choice
  signature
   output result(i: Int)
  states
   num: Int := choose n where 1 ≤ n ∧ n ≤ 3,
   done: Bool := false
  transitions
  output result(i)
   pre ¬done ∧ i = num
  eff done := true
```

Figure 6: Example of nondeterministic choice of initial value for state variable

⁴Later versions of IOA may also allow us to parameterize automata by operations (e.g., ordering relations) on a data type.

For example, in the automaton Choice (Figure 6), the state variable num is initialized nondeterministically to some value of the variable n that satisfies the predicate $1 \le n \land n \le 3$, i.e., to one of the values 1, 2, or 3 (the value of n must be an integer because it is constrained to have the same type, Int, as the variable num to which it will be assigned). The automaton Choice can return the selected value at most once in an output action.

It is also possible to constrain the initial values of all state variables taken together, whether or not initial values are assigned to any individual state variable. This can be done using the construct so that followed by a predicate (involving state variables and automaton parameters), as illustrated by the definition of the automaton Shuffle in Figure 7.⁵ Here, the initial values of the variable cut and the array name of strings are constrained so that name[1], ..., name[52] are sorted in two pieces, each in increasing order, with the piece after the cut containing smaller elements than the piece before the cut. Note that the scope of the so that clause is the entire set of state variable declarations.

```
type cardIndex = enumeration of 1, 2, 3, ..., 52
automaton Shuffle
  signature
    internal swap(i, j: cardIndex)
    output
              deal(a: Array[cardIndex, String])
  states
    dealt: Bool := false,
            Array[cardIndex, String],
    name:
    cut:
            cardIndex,
    temp:
            String
    so that \forall i: cardIndex (i \neq 52 \land i \neq cut \Rightarrow name[i] < name[succ(i)])
               \land name [52] < name [1]
  transitions
    internal swap(i, j)
      pre ¬dealt
       eff temp := name[i];
           name[i] := name[j];
           name[j] := temp
    output deal(a)
      pre \neg dealt \land a = name
       eff dealt := true
```

Figure 7: Example of a constraint on initial values for state variables

In Figure 7, values of type Array[cardIndex, String] are arrays indexed by elements of type cardIndex and containing elements of type String (see Section 8.1). The swap actions transpose pairs of strings, until a deal action announces the contents of the array; then no further actions occur. Note that the constraint following so that limits only the initial values of the state variables, not their subsequent values.

When the type of a state variable is an Array or a tuple (Section 9.8), IOA also treats the elements of the array or the fields in the tuple as state variables, to which values can be assigned without affecting the values of the other elements in the array or fields in the tuple.

⁵At present, users must expand the ...in the definition of the type cardIndex by hand; IOA will eventually provide more convenient notations for integer subranges.

4.4 Transition relations

Transitions for the actions in an automaton's signature are defined following the keyword **transitions.** A transition definition consists of an action type (i.e., **input**, **internal**, or **output**), an action name with optional parameters and an optional **where** clause, an optional list of additional "**choose** parameters," an optional precondition, and an optional effect.

4.4.1 Transition parameters

The parameters accompanying an action name in a transition definition must match those accompanying the name in the automaton's signature, both in number and in type. However, parameters take a simpler form in a transition definition than they do in the signature. The simplest way to construct the parameter list for an action name in a transition definition is to erase the keyword const and the type modifiers from the parameter list in the signature; thus, in Figure 5,

```
input send(m: M, const i, const j) in the signature of Channel is shortened to input send(m, i, j) in the transition definition. See Section 15.3 for the actual set of rules.
```

More than one transition definition can be given for an entry in an automaton's signature. For example, the transition definition for the swap actions in the Shuffle automaton (Figure 7) can be split into two components:

```
internal swap(i, j) where i ≠ j
  pre ¬dealt
  eff temp := name[i];
    name[i] := name[j];
    name[j] := temp

internal swap(i, i)
  pre ¬dealt
```

The second of these two transition definitions does not change the state, because it has no eff clause.

4.4.2 Preconditions

A precondition can be defined for a transition of an output or internal action using the keyword **pre** followed by a predicate, that is, by a boolean-valued expression. Preconditions cannot be defined for transitions of input actions. All variables in the precondition must be parameters of the automaton, be state variables, appear in the parameter list for the transition definition, be **choose** parameters, or be quantified explicitly in the precondition. If no precondition is given, it is assumed to be true.

An action is said to be *enabled* in a state if the precondition for its transition definition is true in that state for some values of the **choose** parameters. Input actions, whose transitions have no preconditions, are always enabled.

4.4.3 Effects

The effect of a transition, if any, is defined following the keyword eff. This effect is generally defined in terms of a (possibly nondeterministic) program that assigns new values to state variables. The amount of nondeterminism in a transition can be limited by a predicate relating the values of state variables in the post-state (i.e., in the state after the transition has occurred) to each other and to their values in the pre-state (i.e., in the state before the transition occurs).

If the effect is missing, then the transition has none; i.e., it leaves the state unchanged.

Using programs to specify effects A program is a list of statements, separated by semicolons. Statements in a program are executed sequentially. There are three kinds of statements:

- assignment statements,
- conditional statements, and
- for statements.

Assignment statements An assignment statement changes the value of a state variable. The statement consists of a state variable followed by the assignment operator := and either an expression or a nondeterministic choice (indicated by the keyword choose). (As noted in Section 4.3, the elements in an array used as a state variable, or the fields in a tuple used as a state variable, are themselves considered as separate state variables and can appear on the left side of the assignment operator.)

The expression or nondeterministic choice in an assignment statement must have the same type as the state variable. The value of the expression is defined mathematically, rather than computationally, in the state before the assignment statement is executed. The value of the expression then becomes the value of the state variable in the state after the assignment statement is executed. Execution of an assignment statement does not have side-effects; i.e., it does not change the value of any state variable other than that on the left side of the assignment operator.

```
axioms Subsequence for Seq[__]
automaton LossyChannel(M: type)
  signature
    input
            send(m: M),
            crash
    output receive(m: M)
  states
    buffer: Seq[M] := \{\}
  transitions
    input send(m)
      eff buffer := buffer \vdash m
    input crash
      eff buffer := choose b where b \prec buffer
    output receive(m)
      pre buffer \neq \{\} \lambda m = head(buffer)
      eff buffer := tail(buffer)
```

Figure 8: IOA description of a lossy communication channel

The definition of the crash action in the LossyChannel automaton (Figure 8) illustrates the use of the choose ...where construct to constrain the new value of the state variable buffer to be a nondeterministically chosen subsequence of the old value. LossyChannel is a modification of the reliable communication channel (Figure 5) in which the additional input action crash may cause the sequence buffer to lose messages (but not to reorder them).

The axioms statement at the beginning of Figure 8 identifies an auxiliary specification (Figure 9), which overrides the default axioms for the built-in type constructor Seq[E] for the sequence data type (see Section 8.4) to add a definition for the subsequence relation \leq appearing in the

definition of transitions for the crash action. Because this relation is not one of the built-in operators provided by IOA for the sequence data type, we must supply a specification to define its properties, namely, that a subsequence does not reorder elements, and that it need not contain consecutive elements from the larger sequence. Figure 9 conveys this information by presenting a recursive definition for \leq . Section 9 provides more information about how to read such auxiliary specifications.

```
Subsequence(E): trait includes Sequence(E) introduces \_\_\_: Seq[E], Seq[E] \rightarrow Bool asserts with e, e1, e2: E, s, s1, s2: Seq[E] \{\} \leq s; \neg((s \vdash e) \leq \{\}); (s1 \vdash e1) \leq (s2 \vdash e2) \Leftrightarrow (s1 \vdash e1) \leq s2 \lor (s1 \leq s2 \land e1 = e2)
```

Figure 9: Auxiliary specification with recursive definition of subsequence operator

An abbreviated form of nondeterministic choice can be used in the assignment statement to express the fact that a transition can change the value of a state variable, without specifying what the new value may be. Such a nondeterministic choice consists of the keyword **choose** alone, without a subsequent variable or **where** clause. The statement x := choose is equivalent to the somewhat longer statement x := choose y where true. Both of these statements give a transition a license to change the value of the state variable x. As described below, constraints on the new values for modified variables, if any, can be given in a **so that** clause for the entire effect.

Conditional statements A conditional statement is used to select which of several program segments to execute in a larger program. It starts with the keyword if followed by a predicate, the keyword then, and a program segment; it ends with the keywordfi. In between, there can be any number of elseif clauses (each of which contains a predicate, the keyword then, and a program segment), and there can be a final else clause (which also contains a program segment). Figure 10 illustrates the use of a conditional statement in defining an automaton that distributes input values into one of three sets. Section 8.2 describes the set data type and the operators {} and insert.

For statements A for statement is used to perform a program segment once for each value of a variable that satisfies a given condition. It starts with the keyword for followed by a variable, a clause describing a set of values for this variable, the keyword do, a program segment, and the keyword od.

Figure 11 illustrates the use of a for statement in a high-level description of a multicast algorithm. Its first line defines the Packet data type to consist of triples [contents, source, dest], in which contents represents a message, source the Node from which the message originated, and dest the set of Nodes to which the message should be delivered. The state of the multicast algorithm consists of a multiset network, which represents the packets currently in transit, and an array queue, which represents, for each Node, the sequence of packets delivered to that Node, but not yet read by the Node.

The meast action inserts a new packet in the network; the notation [m, i, I] is defined by the tuple data type (Section 9.8) and the insert operator by the multiset data type (Section 8.3). The deliver action, which is described using a for statement, distributes a packet to all nodes in its destination set (by appending the packet to the queue for each node in the destination set and

```
automaton Distribute
  signature
    input get(i: Int)
  states
    small: Set[Int] := \{\},\
    medium: Set[Int] := {},
    large: Set[Int] := {},
    bound1: Int,
    bound2: Int
    so that bound1 < bound2
  transitions
    input get(i)
      eff if i < bound1 then small := insert(i, small)</pre>
          elseif i < bound2 then medium := insert(i, medium)</pre>
          else large := insert(i, large)
          fi
```

Figure 10: Example of a conditional statement

```
type Packet = tuple of contents: Message, source: Node, dest: Set[Node]
automaton Multicast
  signature
              mcast(m: Message, i: Node, I: Set[Node])
    input
    internal deliver(p: Packet)
              read(m: Message, j: Node)
    output
  states
    network: Mset[Packet] := {},
            Array[Node, Seq[Packet]]
    so that \forall i: Node (queue[i] = {})
  transitions
    input mcast(m, i, I)
      eff network := insert([m, i, I], network)
    internal deliver(p)
      \mathbf{pre} \ \mathsf{p} \in \mathtt{network}
      eff for j: Node in p.dest do queue[j] := queue[j] ⊢ p od;
           network := delete(p, network)
    output read(m, j)
      pre queue[j] \neq {} \land head(queue[j]).contents = m
      eff queue[j] := tail(queue[j])
```

Figure 11: Example showing use of a for statement

then deleting the packet from the network). The read action receives the contents of a packet at a particular Node by removing that packet from the queue of delivered packets at that Node.

In general, the clause describing the set of values for the control variable in a for statement consists either of the keyword in followed by an expression denoting a set (Section 8.2) or multiset (Section 8.3) of values of the appropriate type, or of the keywords so that followed by a predicate. The program following the keyword do is executed once for each value in the set or multiset following the keyword in, or once for each value satisfying the predicate following the keywords so that. These versions of the program are executed in an arbitrary order. However, IOA restricts the form of the program so that the effect of the for statement is independent of the order in which the versions of the program are executed.

Using predicates on states to specify effects The results of a program can be constrained by a predicate relating the values of state variables after a transition has occurred to the values of state variables before the transition began. Such a predicate is particularly useful when the program contains the nondeterministic **choose** operator. For example,

```
input crash
  eff buffer := choose
    so that buffer ' ≤ buffer
```

is an alternative, but equivalent way of describing the crash action in LossyChannel (Figure 8). The assignment statement indicates that the crash action can change the value of the state variable buffer. The predicate in the so that clause constrains the new value of buffer in terms of its old value. A primed state variable in this predicate (i.e., buffer) indicates the value of the variable in the post-state; an unprimed state variable (i.e., buffer) indicates its value in the pre-state. For another example,

```
eff name[i] := choose;
   name[j] := choose
   so that name'[i] = name[j] \land name'[j] = name[i]
```

is an alternative way of writing the effect clause of the swap action in Shuffle (Figure 7). The assignment statements indicate that the array name may be modified at indices i and j, and the so that clause constrains the modifications. This notation allows us to eliminate the temp state variable needed previously for swapping.

There are important differences between where and so that clauses. A where clause can be attached to a nondeterministic choose operator in a single assignment statement to restrict the value chosen by that operator; variables appearing in a where clause denote values in the state before the assignment statement is executed. A so that clause can be attached to an entire eff clause; unprimed variables appearing in a so that clause denote values in the state before the transition represented by the entire eff clause occurs, and primed variables denote values in the state after the transition has occurred.

4.4.4 Choose parameters

Two kinds of parameters can be specified for a transition: ordinary parameters, corresponding to those in the automaton's signature, and additional "choose parameters," which provide a convenient way to relate the postcondition for a transition to its precondition. Figure 12 illustrates the use of choose parameters.

The automaton LossyBuffer represents a message channel that loses a message each time it transmits one. The state of the automaton consists of a multiset buff of messages of type M. The input action for the channel, get(m), simply adds the message m to buff. The output action, put(m), delivers m while dropping another message, given by the **choose** parameter n. The precondition

```
automaton LossyBuffer(M: type)
  signature
  input get(m: M)
  output put(m: M)
  states
  buff: Mset[M] := {}
  transitions
  input get(m)
    eff buff := insert(m, buff)
  output put(m)
    choose n: M
    pre m ∈ buff ∧ n ∈ buff ∧ (m ≠ n ∨ count(n, buff) > 1)
    eff buff := delete(m, delete(n, buff))
```

Figure 12: Example of the use of choose parameters

ensures that both m and n a remembers of the multiset buff and, if m and n happen to be the same message, that buff contains two copies of this message.

Choose parameters provide syntactic sugar for defining transitions. It is possible to define transitions without them by using explicit quantification. For example, the transition for the put action in Figure 12 can be rewritten as follows:

In general, to eliminate **choose** parameters, one quantifies them explicitly in the precondition for the transition, and then repeats the quantified precondition as part of the effect.

4.5 Tasks

A final, but optional part in the description of an I/O automaton is a partition of the automaton's output and internal actions into a set of disjoint tasks. This partition is indicated by the keyword tasks followed by a list of the sets in the partition. If the keyword tasks is omitted, and no task partition is given, all output and internal actions are presumed to belong to the same task.

To see why tasks are useful, consider the automaton Shuffle described in Figure 7. The traces of this automaton can be either infinite sequences of swap actions, a finite sequence of swap actions, or a finite sequence of swap actions followed by a single deal action: nothing in the description in Figure 7 requires that a deal action ever occur. By adding

```
tasks
  {swap(i, j) for i: cardIndex, j: cardIndex};
  {deal(a) for a: Array[cardIndex, String]}
```

to the description of Shuffle, we can place all swap actions in one task (or thread of control) and all deal actions in another. The definition of a fair execution of an I/O automaton requires that, whenever a task remains enabled, some action in that task will eventually be performed. Thus this task partition for Shuffle prevents swap actions from starving a deal action in any fair execution. There are no fairness requirements, however, on the actions within the same task: the description of Shuffle does not require that every pair of elements in the array will eventually be interchanged.

Variables appearing in task definitions must be introduced using the keyword for, either within the braces defining individual tasks (as illustrated for Shuffle) or outside the braces. For example

the task partition

tasks {deliver(p) for p: Packet}; {read(m, j) for m: Message} for j: Node for the Multicast automaton places the read actions for different nodes in different tasks, so that the execution of read actions for one node cannot starve execution of receive actions for another. The values of variables appearing in task definitions can be constrained further by where clauses following the for clauses.

Editorial note: Do we want to allow more general set-theoretic notations for defining tasks??? For example, do we want to allow $\{foo(i) \ for \ i: \ I\} \cup \{bar(i) \ for \ i: \ I\}$ in addition to or in place of $\{foo(i), bar(i) \ for \ i: \ I\}$?

5 IOA notations for operations on automata

We often wish to describe new automata in terms of previously defined automata. IOA provides notations for composing several automata, for hiding some output actions in an automaton, and for specializing parameterized automata.⁶

5.1 Composition

We illustrate composition by describing the LeLann-Chang-Roberts (LCR) leader election algorithm as a composition of process and channel automata.

In this algorithm, a finite set of processes arranged in a ring elect a leader by communicating asynchronously. The algorithm works as follows. Each process sends a unique string representing its name, which need not have any special relation to its index, to its right neighbor. When a process receives a name, it compares it to its own. If the received name is greater than its own in lexicographic order, the process transmits the received name to the right; otherwise the process discards it. If a process receives its own name, that name must have traveled all the way around the ring, and the process can declare itself the leader.

Figure 13 describes such a process, which is parameterized by the type I of process indices and by a process index i. The assumes clause identifies an auxiliary specification, RingIndex (Figure 14), that imposes restrictions on the type I. This specification requires that there be a ring structure on I induced by the operators first, right, and left, and that name provide a one-one mapping from indices of type I to names of type String.

The type declaration on the first line of Figure 13 declares Status to be an enumeration (Section 9.8) of the values waiting, elected, and announced.

The automaton Process has two state variables: pending is a multiset of strings, and status has type Status. Initially, pending is set to {name(i)} and status to waiting. The input action receive(m, left(i), i) compares the name received from the Process automaton to the left of this automaton in the ring and the name of the automaton itself. There are two output actions: send(m, i, right(i)), which simply sends a message in pending to the Process automaton on the right in the ring, and leader(m, i), which announces successful election. The two kinds of output actions are placed in separate tasks, so that a Process automaton whose status is elected must eventually perform a leader action.

Editorial note: Should we say something about why the transitions are specified as send(m, i, j) and receive(m, j, i)? The signature of the automaton restricts the values of j to be left(i) and checking to ensure that this convention is being respected?

⁶Eventually IOA will also provide notations for renaming actions.