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The Operational Semantics of Action Notation

Peter D. Mosses

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Abstract

Action notation is used in the action semantics framework, for specifying actions representing program behaviour. It is defined by a structural operational semantics together with a bisimulation-based equivalence that satisfies some simply algebraic laws.

1 Introduction

Action notation is used in action semantics, a recently-developed framework for formal semantics [11, 15]. The primary aim of action semantics is to allow useful semantic descriptions of realistic programming languages.

Action semantics combines formality with many good pragmatic features. Regarding comprehensibility and accessibility, for instance, action semantic descriptions compete with informal language descriptions. Action semantic descriptions scale up smoothly from small example languages to full-blown practical languages. The addition of new constructs to a described language does not require reformulation of the already-given description. An action semantic description of one language can make widespread reuse of that of another, related language. All these pragmatic features are highly desirable. Action semantics is, however, so far the only semantic framework that enjoys them!

*Computer Science Department, Aarhus University, Ny Munkegade Bldg. 540, DK-8000 Aarhus C, Denmark; E-mail: pdmosses@daimi.au.dk
Action semantics is *compositional*, like denotations semantics [9]. The main difference between action semantics and denotations semantics concerns the universe of semantic entities: action semantics uses entities called *actions*, rather than the higher-order functions used with denotational semantics. Actions are inherently more operational than functions: when *performed*, actions process information *gradually*.

Primitive actions, and the various ways of combining actions, correspond to fundamental concepts of information professing. Action semantics provides a particular notation for expressing actions. The symbols of action notation are suggestive words, rather than cryptic signs, which makes it possible to get a broad impression of an action semantic description from a superficial reading, even without previous experience of action semantics. The action *combinators*, a notable feature of action notation, obey desirable algebraic laws that can be used for reasoning about semantic equivalence.

See [11] for a comprehensive exposition of action semantics, which also illustrates its claimed pragmatic qualities.

Here, we focus our attention on the formal definition of action notation. The definition consists of a structural operational semantics [14, 4, 1], together with a bisimulation equivalence. A novel feature of the definition is the use of *Horn clauses* instead of inference rules. Moreover, we exploit a recently-developed *unified* meta-notation, based on the framework of unified algebras [7, 8] allowing functions that return proper *sorts* when applied to individuals; this lets us represent transition relations as functions, with non-deterministic choices between configurations being represented as proper sorts. These new techniques allow us to deal with structural operational semantics within a purely algebraic framework.

It is worth pointing out that the structural operational semantics of action notation induces an operational semantics for all languages described using action semantics. However, the induced semantics is not really structural in the usual sense, since configurations involve action terms rather than program syntax. Note that a structural operational semantics for a programming language usually involves repetitious patterns of rules for transitions, for instance determining a sequential order of execution of the components of various phrases; an action semantics for the language uses a single combinator to express the fundamental concept of sequencing, and the structural operational semantics of the combinator specifies the corresponding pattern of transitions, once and for all. Thus action semantics can be regarded as a
technique for factorization of a conventional structural operational semantics.

Why isn’t action notation defined denotationally? That would have the advantage of inducing denotational models for all languages with action semantic descriptions, as well as making domain theory available for reasoning about actions. The difficulty is that the full action notation involves concepts, such as concurrency and unbounded nondeterminism, whose available denotational models are not only very intricate but also not fully abstract with respect to the intended operational semantics of actions. Such a denotational ‘model’ would not satisfy all the desired algebraic laws. (See [10] for an experiment with defining action notation as auxiliary notation in denotational semantics.)

On the other hand, although our combination of structural operational semantics and bisimulation does verify the essential algebraic laws, this does not provide a sufficiently strong action theory for reasoning about nontrivial program equivalence. It is currently unclear how to develop a stronger action theory, to avoid the need for direct and tedious reasoning at the operational level.

The plan of this paper is as follows. Section 2 gives an informal explanation of the concept of action the use of the action used in action semantics. It also provides a small example that illustrates subset of action notation considered here. Section 3 defines the structural operational semantics of our action notation. Section 4 defines a bisimulation equivalence on actions. An Appendix summarizes the unified meta-notation used throughout. No previous exposure to action semantics or unified algebraic specifications is assumed, although a general familiarity with semantic descriptions and algebraic specifications may be helpful.

2 Action Notation

Just as the lambda-notation is used in denotational semantics for specifying functions [9], so our action notation is used in action semantics for specifying actions [11]. Action notation includes also notation for data and for auxiliary entities called yielders.

Actions are essentially dynamic, computational entities. The performance of an action directly represents information processing behavior and reflects the gradual, step-wise nature of computation. Items of data are, in contrast,
essentially static, mathematical entities, representing pieces of information, 
e.g., particular numbers. (Of course actions are ‘mathematical’ too, in the 
sense that they are abstract, formally-defined entities, analogous to abstract 
machines defined in automata theory.) A yielder represents an unevaluated item of data, whose value depends on the current information, i.e., the 
previously-computed and input values that are available to the performance 
of the enclosing action. For example, a yielder might sways evaluate to the 
datum currently stored in a particular cell, which could change during the 
performance of an action.

2.1 Actions

A performance of an action, which may be part of an enclosing action, either:

- *completes*, corresponding to normal termination (the performance of 
  the enclosing action proceeds normally); or

- *escapes*, corresponding to exceptional termination (parts of the enclos-
  ing action are skipped until the escape is trapped); or

- *fails*, corresponding to abandoning the performance of an action (the 
  enclosing action performs an alternative action, if there is one, other-
  wise it fails too); or

- *diverges*, corresponing to nontermination (the enclosing action also di-
  verges).

Actions can be used to represent the semantics of programs: action perfor-
mances correspond to possible program behaviors. Furthermore, actions can 
represent the (perhaps indirect) contribution that parts of programs, such as 
statements and expressions, make to the semantics of entire programs.

An action may be nondeterministic, having different possible performances 
for the see initial information. Nondeterminism represents implementation-
dependence, where the behaviour of a program (or the contribution of a part 
of it) may vary between different implementations—or even between differ-
ent instants of time on the same implementation. Note that nondeterminism 
does not imply actual randomness: each implementation of a nondetermi-

istic behaviour may be absolutely deterministic.
The information processed by action performance may be classified according to how far it tends to be propagated, as follows:

- **transient**: tuples of data, corresponding to intermediate results;
- **scoped**: bindings of tokens to data, corresponding to symbol tables;
- **stable**: data stored in cells, corresponding to the values assigned to variables;
- **permanent**: data communicated between distributed actions.

Transient information is made available to an action for immediate use. Scoped information, in contrast, may generally be referred to throughout an entire action, although it may also be hidden temporarily. Stable information can be changed, but not hidden, in the action, and it persists until explicitly destroyed. Permanent information cannot even be changed, merely augmented.

When an action is performed, transient information is given only on completion or escape, and scoped information is produced only on completion. In contrast, changes to stable information and extensions to permanent information are made during action performance, and are unaffected by subsequent divergence, failure, or escape.

The different kinds of information give rise to so-called *facets* of actions, focusing on the processing of at most one kind of information at a time:

- the *basic* facet, processing independently of information (control flows);
- the *functional* facet, processing transient information (actions are *given* and *give* data);
- the *declarative* facet, processing scoped information (actions *receive* and *produce* bindings);
- the *imperative* facet, processing stable information (actions *reserve* and *unreserve* cells of storage, and *change* the data stored in cells); and
- the *communicative* facet, processing permanent information (actions *send* messages, *receive* messages in buffers, and offer *contracts* to *agents*).
These facets of actions are independent. For instance, changing the data stored in a cell—or even unreserving the cell—does not affect any bindings. There are, however, some directive actions, which process a mixture of scoped and stable information, so as to provide finite representations of self-referential bindings. There are also some hybrid primitive actions and combinators, which involve more than one kind of information at once, such as an action that both reserves a cell of storage and gives it as transient data. In this paper, for simplicity, we ignore the communicative and directive facets of actions; we also ignore escapes (exceptional termination).

The notation for specifying actions consists of action primitives, which may involve yielders, and action combinators, which operate on one or two subactions. Action notation provides also some notation for specifying sorts of actions.

2.2 Yielders

Yielders are entities that can be evaluated to yield data during action performance. The data yielded may depend on the current information, i.e., the given transients, the received bindings, and the current state of the storage. In fact action notation provides primitive yielders that evaluate to compound data (tuples, maps, lists) representing entire slices of the current information, such as the current state of storage. Evaluation cannot affect the current information.

Compound yielders can be formed by the application of data operations to yielders. The data yielded by evaluating a compound yielder are the result of applying the operation to the data yielded by evaluating the operands. For instance, one can form the sum of two number yielders. Items of data are a special case of data yielders, and always yield themselves when evaluated.

2.3 Data

The information processed by actions consists of items of data, organized in structures that give access to the individual items. Data can include various familiar mathematical entities, such as truth-values, numbers, characters, strings, lists, sets, and maps. It can also include entities such as tokens and cells, used for accessing other items. Actions themselves are not data, but they can be incorporated in so-called abstractions, which are data, and
subsequently enacted back into actions. (Abstraction and enaction are a specie cue of so-called reification and reflection.) New kinds of data can be introduced ad hoc, for representing special pieces of information.

2.4 Notation

Consider the example of action notation given in Box 2.1. It illustrate the use of the main primitive actions and combinators. The intended operational interpretation of the specified action corresponds to the semantic of the statement

\[
\text{FOR } i \text{ IN } [1..10] \text{ DO } s := s + i
\]

which is supposed to have the effect of adding up the indicated values of \(i\) in the variable \(s\), in an unspecified order.

The symbols used in action notation are somewhat more verbose than is usual in Semitic notation. Nevertheless, they are entirely formal! We glow infix and ‘mixfix’ symbols, as well as prefix; infix symbols have weaker precedence than prefix symbols. Vertical lines group the terms on their right, providing a clear indication of overall term structure. (In fact quite a few of the lines in the example could be eliminated without introducing ambiguity, but then the term structure might be less obvious to readers who haven’t seen action notation before.)

This is not the place for a full explanation of all the details of action notation; the interested reader is referred to [11], where also the overall design of action notation is motivated, and its use in action semantics is illustrated. The following comments are merely intended to give a rough grasp of the main primitive actions and combinators used in the example, prior to the presentation of their formal operational semantics in the next section. We consider the various kinds of information processing in turn.

Basic Control Flow

The basic combination \(A_1 \text{ and then } A_2\) combines the actions \(A_1, A_2\) into a compound action that represents their normal, left-to-right sequencing, performing \(A_2\) only when \(A_1\) completes. complete is the unit for \(, \text{ and then } ,\)

The action \(A_1 \text{ or } A_2\) represents implementation-dependent choice between alternative actions, although if \(A_1, A_2\) are such that one or the other of them
is always bound to fail, the choice is deterministic. A failure causes the alternative currently being performed to be abandoned and, if possible, some other alternative to be performed instead, i.e., back-tracking.

| give 1  
| then  
| unfolding  
| | check not (the given natural is greater than 10)  
| and then  
| | store the sum of (it, the natural stored in the cell bound to “s”)  
| in the cell bound to “s”)  
| and  
| | give the successor of it  
| then  
| | unfold  
| or  
| | check (the given natural is greater than 10)  
| and then  
| | complete  

Box 2.1 An example of action notation

The action $A_1$ and $A_2$ represents implementation-dependent order of performance of the indivisible subactions of $A_1$, $A_2$. When these subactions cannot ‘interfere’ with each other, it indicates that their order of performance is simply irrelevant.

A performance of $A_1$ and $A_2$ arbitrarily interleaves the steps of performances of $A_1$, $A_2$ until both have completed, or until one of them escapes or fails. When the performance diverges, it may be ‘unfair’, for instance letting $A_1$ make infinitely-many steps but only finitely-many of $A_2$.

unfolding $A$ performs $A$ but whenever it reaches the dummy action unfold, it performs $A$ instead. One may prefer to regard unfolding $A$ as an abbreviation for an action, generally infinite, formed by continually substituting $A$ for unfold in $A$. (To avoid syntactic ‘singularities’ in action terms such as unfolding unfold, substitute complete and then $A$ instead of just $A$.) The action unfolding $A$ is mostly used in the semantics of iterative constructs,
with `unfold` occurring exactly once in $A$, but it can also be used with several occurrences of `unfold`.

**Transient Information Processing**

The primitive action `give Y` completes, giving the data yielded by evaluating the yielder $Y$, provided that this is an individual; it fails when $Y$ yields nothing. The action `check Y` requires $Y$ to yield a truth-value; it completes when the value is true, otherwise it fails, without committing. It is used for guarding alternatives. For instance, `(check Y and then $A_1$)` or `(check not Y and then $A_2$)` expresses a *deterministic* choice between $A_1$ and $A_2$, depending on the condition $Y$.

The functional action combination $A_1$ then $A_2$ represents ordinary functional composition of $A_1$ and $A_2$: the transients given to the whole action are propagated only to $A_1$, the transients given by $A_1$ on completion are given only to $A_2$, and only the transients given by $A_2$ are given by the whole action. Regarding control flow, $A_1$ then $A_2$ specifies normal sequencing, as in $A_1$ and then $A_2$. When $A_1$ doesn’t give any transients and $A_2$ doesn’t refer to any given transients, $A_1$ then $A_2$ may be used interchangeably with $A_1$ and then $A_2$.

The basic action combination $A_1$ and $A_2$ passes given transients to both the subactions, and concatenates the transients given by the subactions when they both complete; similarly for $A_1$ and then $A_2$. Finally, each alternative of $A_1$ or $A_2$, when performed, is given the same transients as the combination, and of course the combination gives only the transients given by the non-failing alternative performed, if any.

Whereas the data flow in $A_1$ then $A_2$ is analogous to that in ordinary function composition $g \circ f$ (at least when the functions are strict) the data flow in $A_1$ and $A_2$ is analogous to so-called target-tupling of functions, sometimes written $[f, g]$ and defined by $[f, g](x) = (f(x), g(x))$.

The yielder `given Y` yields all the data given to its evaluation, provided that this is of the data sort $Y$. For instance the `given truth-value` (where ‘the’ is optional) yields `true` or `false` when the given data consists of that single individual of sort `truth-value`. Otherwise it yields `nothing`. Similarly, `given Y #n` yields the $n$’th individual component of a given tuple, for $n > 0$, provided that this component is of sort $Y$ (not illustrated in the example). The yielder ‘it’ yields the same as the `given datum`, where `datum` is a sort that
can be specialized to include all sorts of data items.

It is primarily the presence of $A_1$ then $A_2$ in functional action notation that causes the *transience* of transient data. This combinator does not automatically make the given transients available to $A_2$, so unless $A_1$ propagates them, they simply disappear.

**Scoped Information Processing**

The yielder the $d$ bound to $T$ evaluates to the current binding for the particular token $T$, provided that it is of data sort $d$, otherwise it yields nothing. (The primitive actions and combinators provided in action notation for producing bindings are not considered in this paper.)

**Stable Information Processing**

The imperative action *store* $Y_1$ in $Y_2$ changes the data stored in the cell yielded by $Y_2$ to the storable data yielded by $Y_1$. The cell concerned must have been previously reserved (using the primitive action *revere* $Y$) otherwise the storing action fails.

The yielder the $d$ stored in $Y$ yields the data currently stored in the cell yielded by $Y$, provided that it is of the sort $d$. Otherwise it yields *nothing*.

**Data Operations**

Various commonly-used data types (truth-values, natural numbers, stings, storage cells) are provided by a general data notation included in action notation. All data operations extend naturally to yielders, yielding the result of applying the operation concerned to the data items yielded by evaluating the arguments. For added readability, the operations ‘the’ and ‘of’ are provided; they denote the identity function on data.

Notice that we allow data operations to be applied to entire *sorts* of data—not only to individuals. The formal basis for this is provided by the framework of unified algebras [7], which is summarized in the Appendix of this paper.

So much for an informal explanation of the illustrative subset of action notation used in the example. Next we specify the intended interpretation of the notation formally.
3 Operational Semantics

We use a variant of structural operations semantic [14, 1] to define a transition system. Sequences of transitions correspond to possible performances of actions, representing program behaviours. In Section 4 we consider the definition of action equivalence in terms of transition bisimulation.

The key idea is to use a transition function mapping individual configurations to arbitrary sorts of configurations, rather than a transition relation between configurations. It is notationally just as easy to specify a fiction as a relation, and by allowing proper sorts (not merely individuals) as results we can still cope with nondeterminism. Moreover, we can specify the result to be a single individual when the transition from a particular configuration is deterministic, rather than leaving determinism implicit; we can even specify directly that a configuration is blocked, using a vacuous sort such as nothing! (The formal basis for using sorts as arguments and results of operations is provided by the framework of unified algebras [7], summarized in the Appendix of this paper.)

A less significant point is that we use positive Horn clauses instead of inference rules. The only drawback of this seems to be that meta-proofs using induction on the length of inference become less immediate, because one has to consider the inference rules for Horn clause logic, as demonstrated in [12] (see also [13]). By considering the initial model of the Horn clauses we obtain the effect of demanding the least transition relation satisfying the corresponding inference rules.

Readers who are experienced in structural operational semantics may notice below—once they have become accustomed to the notation used here—some novel techniques that improve the modularity of our description. For example, the function simplified $x$ applies reductions to the syntactic part of a configuration after each transition.

The structural operational semantics of the full action notation used in action semantics is given in [11, Appendix C]; it is about 12 pages long. For simplicity, we here ignore information not pertinent to the performance of actions in our illustrative subset of action notation.
Box 3.1 Modules

The entire specification below is formulated in the meta-notation provided by the framework of unified algebras, summarized in the Appendix. Note especially that \( x \leq y \) holds when \( x \) denotes a sort included in the sort \( y \),
whereas $x : y$ also requires $x$ to denote an individual value. The operations $x \mid y$ and $x \& y$ provide sort union and intersection, respectively. For our use of unified algebras in this paper, sorts can be regarded as sets, with individuals corresponding to singletons.

The modular structure of the specification is given in Box 3.1 (the order in which modules are presented has no formal significance).

### 3.1 Abstract Syntax

The grammar below specifies the abstract syntax of a kernel of our subset of action notation. The nonterminal symbols of the grammar are capitalized, and the terminal symbols are quoted, to avoid confusion between notation for syntactic and semantic entities. Moreover, the brackets $[...]$ denote construction of nodes in trees.

The abstract site of notation for data is left open, so the user of action notation may add nonstandard data notation. A uniform abstract syntax is adopted for applications of unary and binary data operations (which may concretely exploit mixfix notation). The operational semantics of action notation does not depend on the details of notation for data, only on the existence of its intended interpretation.

**closed except Data.**

**grammar:**

#### 3.1.1 Actions

- **Action** = Simple-Action $|$ $[[\text{"unfolding" Action }]]$ $|$ $[[\text{Action Action-Infix Action }]].$

- **Simple-Action** = “complete” $|$ “unfold” $|$ $[[\text{“give” Yielder }]]$ $|$ $[[\text{“store” Yielder “in” Yielder }]].$

- **Action-Infix** = “or” $|$ “and” $|$ “and then” $|$ “then” $.$
3.1.2 Yielders

- **Yielder** = Data-Constant | [ Data-Unary "(" Yielder ")" ] | [Data-Binary "(" Yielder "," Yielder ")" ] | ["given" Data] | ["the" Data "bound to" Yielder] | ["the" Data "stored in" Yielder].

3.1.3 Data

- **Data** = Data-Constant | [ DataUnary "(" Data ")" ] | [ Data Binary "(" Data "," Data ")" ] | □.
- **Data-Constant** = □.
- **Data-Unary** = □.
- **Data-Binary** = □.

The □’s indicate productions left open.

The only bits of of our illustrative subset of action notation not covered by the kernel are the primitive action check Y and the yielder it. These are abbreviations determined by a function expand mapping trees to kernel abstract syntax trees, defined as follows:

- expand ["check" Y : Yielder ] =
  [ [ "give" [ (expand Y ) " & " "true" ] ] "then" "complete" ].
- expand "it" = [ "given" "datum" ].

(Other sorts of nodes are left unchanged).

3.2 Configurations

The configurations used in operational semantics involve syntactic components, representing what remains to be performed, as well as essentially semantic entities, such as storage maps.

The specifications below use standard data notation for tuples, maps, etc., defined algebraically in [11, Appendix E]. For convenience, they also
use the sort of data tuples, data, and special sorts of maps, bindings and storage, which are specified in [11, Appendix B].

3.2.1 Acting

Acting is a generalization of Action. The new constructs include Terminated entities, which stand for the outcome of the performance of a subaction, and may contain transient data. They also include Action entities with attached data.

grammar:

- Acting = Terminated | Intermediate.
- Terminated = Completed | Failed.
- Completed = ⟨“completed” data⟩.
- Failed = “failed”.
- Intermediate = Simple-Action | [” unfolding” Acting] | [Acting Action-Infix Acting] | ⟨Action data⟩.

The data notation ⟨...⟩ denotes tuple concatenation, as does ⟨., .⟩ below.

3.2.2 States

A state represents a point in the performance of an action. The local information corresponds to the current scoped and stable information, the transient data being incorporated in the acting component of the state. (We put bindings together with storage here only because bindings cannot change in our illustrative subset of action notation; in [11] they are treated analogously to transient data.) Note that (Action, info) ≤ state, by the associativity of tuple concatenation.

introduces: state, local-info, info.

(1) state = (Acting, local-info).
3.2.3 Commitments

introduces: commitments, committed, uncommitted.

(1) commitments = committing | uncommitted (individual).

3.3 Transition Functions

The factions specified below correspond to a structural operational semantics. They are, in general, not compositional.

closed except Data.

3.3.1 Actions

run \(s\) is the sort of final outcomes obtained by repeatedly making transitions from the intermediate state \(s\). stepped \(s\) is the sort of intermediate or final outcomes obtained by performing only the first transition from the intermediate state \(s\).

introduces: run _, stepped _.

• run _ :: state \(\rightarrow\) (Terminated, storage).

(1) stepped \((A, b, s) \geq (A' : \text{intermediate}, s' : \text{storage}, c' : \text{commitment})\) ;
run \((A', b, s') \geq (A'' : \text{Terminated}, s'' : \text{storage}) \Rightarrow\)
run \((A : \text{Acting}, b : \text{bindings}, s : \text{storage}) \geq (A'', s'')\).

(2) stepped \((A, l) \geq (A' : \text{Terminated}, s' : \text{storage}, c' : \text{commitment}) \Rightarrow\)
run \((A : \text{Acting}, l : \text{local-info}) \geq (A', s')\).
• stepped :: state → (Acting, storage, commitment).

(3) stepped (A : Terminated, l : local − info) = nothing.

3.3.1.1 Simple

(1) \( i = (d : \text{data}, b : \text{bindings}, s : \text{storage}) \); evaluated \( (Y, i) = \) evaluated \( (Y, i) = \) nothing ⇒

stepped (\["give" Y :Yilder \], i : info) =
stepped (\["store" Y :Yilder "in" Y_2 : Yilder \], i : info) =
stepped (\["store" Y_1 :Yilder "in" Y : Yilder \], i : info) =
("failed", s, uncommitted).

(2) stepped ("complete", d :data, b :bindings, s :storage) =
= ("completed", ( ), s, uncommitted).

(3) stepped ("unfold", d :data, b :bindings, s :storage) = nothing.

(4) evaluated (Y, d, b, s) = d' : data ⇒
stepped (\["give" Y :Yilder \], d :data, b :bindings, s :storage) =
("completed", d', s, uncommitted).

(5) evaluated (Y_1, d, b, s) = v : storable;
evaluated (Y_2, d, b, s) = c : cell ⇒
stepped (\["store" Y_1 "in" Y_2 \], d :data, b :bindings, s :storage) =
if c is in mapped-set of s
then ("completed", ( ), overlay (map c to v, s), committed)
ext else ("failed", s, uncommitted).

3.3.1.2 Compound

introduces: simplified _, unfolded _, given _.
Stepping

(1) \(\text{stepped ("unfolding" } A : \text{Action}, d : \text{data}, b : \text{bindings}, s : \text{storage}) =\)
\(\text{given (unfolded } (A, ["unfolding" } A])\), \(d\), \(s\), uncommitted) .

(2) \(\text{stepped } (A_1, l) \geq (A'_1 : \text{Acting}, s' : \text{storage}, c' : \text{commitment}) ;\)
\([A_1 \circ A_2] : [\text{Intermediate ("and then" } | \text{ "then"}) \text{ Intermediate }] |\)
\([\text{Intermediate "and" (Intermediate } | \text{ Completed})] \Rightarrow\)
\(\text{stepped([A_1 \circ A_2], l : local-info)} \geq (\text{simplified } [A'_1 \circ A_2], s', c') .\)

(3) \(\text{stepped } (A_2, l) \geq (A'_2 : \text{Acting}, s' : \text{storage}, c' : \text{commitment}) ;\)
\([A_1 \circ A_2] : [\text{(Intermediate } | \text{ Completed}) \text{ "and" Intermediate }] \Rightarrow\)
\(\text{stepped([A_1 \circ A_2], l : local-info)} \geq (\text{simplified } [A'_1 \circ A_2], s', c') .\)

(4) \(\text{stepped } (A_1, l) \geq (A'_1 : \text{Acting}, s' : \text{storage}, \text{ uncommitment}) ;\)
\([A_1 \circ A_2] : [\text{Intermediate "or" Intermediate }] \Rightarrow\)
\(\text{stepped([A_1 \circ A_2], l : local-info)} \geq (\text{simplified } [A'_1 \circ A_2], s', \text{ uncommitted}) .\)

(5) \(\text{stepped } (A_2, l) \geq (A'_2 : \text{Acting}, s' : \text{storage}, \text{ uncommitment}) ;\)
\([A_1 \circ A_2] : [\text{Intermediate "or" Intermediate }] \Rightarrow\)
\(\text{stepped([A_1 \circ A_2], l : local-info)} \geq (\text{simplified } [A'_1 \circ A_2], s', \text{ uncommitted}) .\)

(6) \(\text{stepped } (A_1, l) \geq (A'_1 : \text{Acting}, s' : \text{storage}, c : \text{commitment}) ;\)
\([A_1 \circ A_2] : [\text{Intermediate "or" Intermediate }] \Rightarrow\)
\(\text{stepped([A_1 \circ A_2], l : local-info)} \geq (A'_1, s', c') .\)

(7) \(\text{stepped } (A_2, l) \geq (A'_2 : \text{Acting}, s' : \text{storage}, c : \text{commitment}) ;\)
\([A_1 \circ A_2] : [\text{Intermediate "or" Intermediate }] \Rightarrow\)
\(\text{stepped([A_1 \circ A_2], l : local-info)} \geq (A'_2, s', c') .\)

Simplifying

The function \(\text{simplified}\) is only applied to an intermediate compound acting \(A\)
where an immediate component of \(A\) is the acting part of the result of applying \(\text{stepped}\). The result is an acting equivalent to \(A\), simplified for instance by propagating "failed". The specification of \(\text{simplified } [A_1 \circ A_2]\) when both
$A_1$ and $A_2$ are terminated shows how the flow of transient information out of actions is determined by the various combinators.

- simplified $\_ :: \text{Acting} \to \text{Acting}$.

(1) $\begin{array}{l}
\llbracket A'_1 \circ O \ A_2 \rrbracket : \\
\qquad \llbracket \text{Failed ("and then" | "then") Intermediate} \rrbracket | \\
\qquad \llbracket \text{Failed ("and" (intermediate | completed)} \rrbracket | \\
\qquad \text{completed "or" Intermediate} \Rightarrow \\
\text{simplified } [A'_1 \circ O \ A_2] = A'_1 .
\end{array}$

(2) $\begin{array}{l}
\llbracket A_1 \circ O \ A'_2 \rrbracket : \\
\qquad \llbracket \text{Intermediate | Completed} \text{ "and" Failed \} | \\
\qquad \text{Intermediate \text{ "or" Completed}} \Rightarrow \\
\text{simplified } [A_1 \circ O \ A'_2] = A'_2 .
\end{array}$

(3) $\begin{array}{l}
\llbracket A'_1 \circ O \ A'_2 \rrbracket : \\
\qquad \llbracket \text{Intermediate Action-Infix Intermediate} \Rightarrow \\
\text{simplified } [A'_1 \circ O \ A'_2] = [A'_1 \circ O \ A'_2] .
\end{array}$

(4) simplified $\llbracket \text{"failed" \text{ "or" } A_2 \text{ : Intermediate} \rrbracket = A_2 .

(5) simplified $\llbracket A_1 \text{ : Intermediate \text{ "or" \text{ "failed"} } \rrbracket = A_1 .

(6) simplified $\llbracket \text{"completed" } d_1 \text{ : data \text{ "and" \text{ "completed" } d_2 \text{ : data}} \rrbracket = \\
\qquad \langle \text{"completed" } (d_1,d_2) \rangle .

(7) simplified $\llbracket A_1 \text{ : Completed \text{ "and then" } A_2 \text{ :Intermediate} \rrbracket = [A_1 \text{ "and" } A_2] .

(8) simplified $\llbracket \text{"completed" } d_1 \text{ : data \text{ "then" } A_2 \text{ :Intermediate} \rrbracket = \\
\qquad \text{given } (A_2,d_1) .

\textbf{Unfolding}

unfolded ($A, [\text{"unfolding" } A])$ is used to replace free occurrences of the dummy action unfold by $[\text{"unfolding" } A]$ before performing $A$. Each unfolding takes a step, so performing $\llbracket \text{"unfolding" \text{ "unfold"} } \rrbracket$ takes infinitely-many steps.

- unfolded $\_ :: (\text{Action, Action}) \to \text{Action}$.

(1) unfolded ($A_1 : \text{Simple-Action}, A_0 : \text{Action}$) = \\
\quad \text{If } A_1 \text{ "unfold" then } [\llbracket \text{"unfolding" } A_0 \rrbracket \text{ else } A_1 .

(2) \([\text{unfolding } A_1 : \text{Action }], A_0 = [\text{"unfolding" } A_1].\)

(3) \(\text{unfolded } (A_1 : \text{Action } O : \text{Action-Infix } A_2 : \text{Action }], A_0 = [(\text{unfolded } (A_1, A_0) O (\text{unfolded } (A_2, A_0))].\)

Giving

given \(A, d\) is used to freeze the initial transient data \(d\) given to \(A\). The specification of given shows clearly how the flow of data into actions is determined by the various combinators.

- \(\text{given } :: (\text{Action}, \text{data}) \rightarrow \text{Action}.\)

(1) \(\text{given } (A : \text{Terminated}, d : \text{data}) = A.\)

(2) \(A : \text{Simple-Action}[\text{"unfolding" } \text{Action }\Rightarrow.\)
\(\text{given } (A, d : \text{data}) = (A, d).\)

(3) \(O : \text{"or" } | \text{"and" } | \text{"and then" } \Rightarrow.\)
\(\text{given } ([A_1 : \text{Acting } O A_2 : \text{Acting }], d : \text{data}) = [(\text{given } (A_1, d)) O (\text{given } (A_2, d))].\)

(4) \(\text{given } ([A_1 : \text{Acting } \text{"then" } A_2 : \text{Acting }], d : \text{data}) = [(\text{given } (A_1, d)) \text{"then" } A_2].\)

3.3.2 Yielders

The evaluation of yielders is compositional, but note that yielders occurring in the action of an abstraction do not get evaluated.

introduces: \(\text{evaluated } ::.\)

- \(\text{evaluated } :: (\text{Yielder}, \text{info}) \rightarrow \text{data}.\)

(1) \(\text{evaluated } (Y : \text{Data-Constant}, i : \text{info}) = \text{entity } Y.\)

(2) \(\text{evaluated } ([O : \text{Data-Unary } [\text{"} Y : \text{Yielder } \text{"} i] i : \text{info}) = \text{unary-operation } O \text{ (evaluated) } (Y, i)).\)

(3) \(\text{evaluated } ([O : \text{Data-Binary } [\text{"} Y_1 : \text{Yielder } \text{"} Y_2 : \text{Yielder } \text{"} i] i : \text{info}) = \text{binary-operation } O \text{ (evaluated) } (Y_1, i) \text{ (evaluated) } (Y_2, i)).\)
3.3.3 Data

For a data term \( d \) with abstract syntax \( D \), we expect \( \text{entity} \; D = d \). Given the full specification of Data, the corresponding semantic equations could be generated automatically.

introduces: \( \text{entity} \; _- \), \( \text{unary-operation} \; _-_- \), \( \text{binary-operation} \; _-_-_- \).

- \( \text{entity} \; _- :: \text{Data} \rightarrow \text{data} \).
- \( \text{unary-operation} \; _-_- :: \text{Data-Unary}, \text{data} \rightarrow \text{data} \rightarrow \text{data} \).
- \( \text{binary-operation} \; _-_-_- :: \text{Data-Binary}, \text{data} \rightarrow \text{data} , \text{data} \rightarrow \text{data} \).

4 Action Equivalence

The operational semantics of Action Notation determines the processing possibilities of each action. But this does not, by itself, provide a useful notion of equivalence between actions. For if two compound actions have exactly the same processing possibilities, it is easy to see that they must have the same compositional structure.

From a user’s point of view, however, two actions may be considered equivalent whenever there is no conclusive test that reveals the differences in their processing possibilities. A test on an action may consist of performing it in a particular action context, and checking that it completes; diverging
tests may be regarded as inconclusive. (In the full action notation, one could
also test the communication behaviour arising when an action is performed
by a distributed system of agents)

We expect the testing equivalence of actions to include various algebraic
laws, such as associativity of the action combinators. Moreover, we expect it
to be a congruence, i.e., preserved by the combinators. Then the laws can
be used in algebraic reasoning to show that various compound actions are
equivalent, perhaps justifying a simple program transformation rule for some
language on the basis of its action semantics.

Unfortunately, it is difficult to verify directly that a testing equivalence
includes particular laws: one would have to consider all possible tests on the
actions involved in the laws! Instead, we define another, similar equivalence
called bisimulation, which can more easily be shown to include the intended
laws. Here (in contrast to CCS [5]) bisimulation is actually a congruence, and
it follows easily that it is included in the contextual testing equivalence.

The techniques used here were developed by Park, Milner, de Nicola,
and Hennessy, mainly in connection with studies of the specification calculus
CCS. The notation and presentation below follow [6], although note that here
we have to deal with local information and commitments, as well as actions.

First we define transition relations on states:

**Definition 4.1** For each \( c : \text{commitment} \) let \( \xrightarrow{c} \subseteq \text{state} \times \text{state} \) be the state
transition relation determined by **stepped** as follows:

\[
(A, b, s) \xrightarrow{c} (A', b, s') \text{ iff stepped } (A, b, s) \geq (A', s', c).
\]

where \( A, A' : \text{Acting} ; b : \text{bindings} ; s, s' : \text{storage} ; c : \text{commitment} \). When \( c \)
is uncommitted we write \( \xrightarrow{\bot} \) instead of \( \xrightarrow{c} \) (and then always \( s = s' \)).

Further, for each \( c : \text{commitment} \) let \( \xrightarrow{c} \subseteq \text{state} \times \text{state} \) be the observable
state transition relation defined by

\[
\xrightarrow{c} = \xrightarrow{\bot} \cup \xrightarrow{c} \cup \xrightarrow{c} \\
\]

(whem \( R_1R_2 \) denotes the composition of relations \( R_1, R_2 \) and \( R^* \) denotes the
reflexive transitive closure of \( R \)).

Now we insider relations on actions, i.e., elements of Action:
Definition 4.2 Let $\mathcal{H}$ be the function over binary relations $R \subseteq \text{Action} \times \text{Action}$ such that $(A_1, A_2) \in \mathcal{H}(R)$ iff, for all $l : \text{local-info}$,

- Whenever $(A_1, l) \xrightarrow{c} (A_1', l')$ then,
  - $(A_2, l) \xrightarrow{c} (A_2', l')$, if $A_1' : \text{Terminated}$,
  - for some $A_2'$ with $(A_1', A_2') \in R, (A_2, l) \xrightarrow{c} (A_2', l')$, otherwise;
- Whenever $(A_2, l) \xrightarrow{c} (A_2', l')$ then,
  - $(A_1, l) \xrightarrow{c} (A_2', l')$, if $A_2' : \text{Terminated}$,
  - for some $A_1'$ with $(A_1', A_2') \in R, (A_1, l) \xrightarrow{c} (A_1', l')$, otherwise.

Definition 4.3 $R \subseteq \text{Action} \times \text{Action}$ is a bisimulation if $R \subseteq \mathcal{H}(R)$.

Let $\approx = \bigcup \{R \mid R \text{ is a bisimulation}\}$. When $A_1 \approx A_2$ we say that $A_1$ and $A_2$ are bisimilar.

Notice that two actions can only be bisimilar when they have similar transitions for any particular binding and storage information. In practice, this means that they must refer to exactly the same items of the current information.

Proposition 4.1 $\approx$ is the largest bisimulation, the largest fixed point of $\mathcal{H}$, and an equivalence relation.

Proof: Using the monotonicity of $\mathcal{H}$. See [6] for the details of a similar proof. \qed

Proposition 4.2 $\approx$ is a congruence for the constructs of action notation.

Proof: From the definitions, and by constructing bisimulations containing the compound actions when subactions are bisimilar. For example, consider the combinator $A' \text{ then } A$ : we have to show that whenever $A_1 \approx A_2$ we get also $(A_1 \text{ then } A) \approx (A_2 \text{ then } A)$, and similarly for the other argument of .then_. It is enough to show that $\{(A_1 \text{ then } A, A_2 \text{ then } A) \mid A_1 \approx A_2; A, A_1, A_2 : \text{Action}\}$ is a bisimulation. For any $l : \text{local-info}$, and any transition $(A_1, l) \xrightarrow{c} (A_1', l')$ to a terminated state, we have $(A_2, l) \xrightarrow{c} (A_2', l')$ and the result follows immediately. Similarly for transitions to intermediate states,
only now \((A_2, l) \xrightarrow{c} (A'_2, l')\) for some \(A_2\) with \(A'_1 \approx A'_2\).

\[\square\]

The associativity of all our binary action combinators, the idempotence of the choice combinator ‘or’, and the unit properties of complete for both the basic sequencing combinator ‘and then’ and for interleaving ‘and’, as well as various other simple algebraic laws, can be shown just as easily. More usefully, these same laws (and others) can also be shown to hold for the bisimulation equivalence defined for the full action notation in [11].

5 Conclusion

We have seen how a unified metanotation can be used to define a structural operational semantics for a simple subset of action notation. A straightforward definition of bisimulation equivalence provides some essential algebraic laws for action equivalence. The extension to the full action notation, including concurrent action performance with asynchronous message-passing and process creation, can be found in [11], as can a fuller description of the unified metanotation.

The author welcomes comments on this work, and suggestions for how best to increase the strength of action theory.

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Appendix: A Unified Meta-Notation

The metanotation summarized below is a subset of that used in [11].

Metanotation is for specifying formal notation: what symbols are used, how they may be put together, and their intended interpretation.

Our metanotation here supports a unified treatment of sorts and individuals (i.e., types and objects): an individual is treated as a special case of a sort. Thus operations can be applied to sorts as well as individuals. A vacuous sort represents the lack of an individual, in particular the undefined result of a partial operation. Sorts may be related by inclusion; sort equality
is just mutual inclusion. But a sort is not determined just by the set of individuals that it includes: it has an intension, stemming from the way it is expressed. For example, the sort of those natural numbers that are in the range of the successor operation may be distinct from the sort of those that have a well-defined reciprocal, even though their sets of individuals are the same.

The meta-notation provides (positive) Horn clauses and (initial) constraints—explained below—for specifying the intended interpretation of symbols. Specifications may be divided into mutually-dependent and nested modules, presented incrementally in any order.

A model of a specification consists of a distributive lattice of sorts with a bottom, a distinguished subset of individuals, and a monotonic function on the lattice for each operation, such that all the specified clauses and constraints are satisfied. See [7] for the formal details.

Vocabulary

The vocabulary of the meta-notation consists of constant and operation symbols, variables, titles, and special marks.

Symbols are of two forms: quoted or unquoted. Quoted symbols always stand for constants. In unquoted symbols the underline character _ indicates the positions of arguments. Symbols without _ always stand for constants. Symbols are written here in this saris-serif font. An operation symbol is classified as an infix when it both starts and ends with a _, and as a postfix or postfix when it only ends, respectively starts, with a _. It is called an outfix when _ only occurs internally.

There is one built-in constant symbol, nothing, and there are two built-in infix operation symbols, _ | _ _ _ _ & _ _ .

Variables are sequences of letters, here written in this italic font, optionally followed by primes ’ and/or a numerical subscript or suffix.

Titles are sequences of words, here capitalized and written in This Bold Font.

A pair of grouping parentheses ( ) may be replaced by a vertical line to the left of the grouped material. Reference numbers for parts of specifications have no formal significance.
Sentences

A sentence is essentially a Horn clause involving formulae that assert equality, sort inclusion, or individual inclusion between the values of terms. The variables occurring in the terms range over all values, not only over individuals. The universal quantification is left implicit.

Terms

Terms consist essentially of constant symbols, variables, and applications of operation symbols to subterms. We use mixfix notation, writing the application of an operation symbol $S_0 \ldots S_n$ to terms $T_1, \ldots, T_n$ as $S_0 T_1 \ldots T_n S_n$. Infixes have weaker precedence than prefixes, which themselves have weaker precedence than postfixes. Moreover, infixes are grouped to the left, so we may write $x | y | z$ without parentheses. Grouping parentheses ( ) may be freely inserted for further disambiguation.

The value of a term is determined by the interpretation of the variables that occur in it. Such a value may be an individual (which is regarded as a special kind of sort), a vacuous sort, or a proper sort that includes some individuals.

The value of the constant nothing is a vacuous sort, included in all other sorts. Operations map sorts to sorts, preserving sort inclusion. $\_ | \_ \_ \_$ is sort union and $\_ & \_ \_ \_$ is sort intersection; they are the join and meet, respectively, of the sort lattice, and enjoy the usual properties of set union and intersection: associativity, commutativity, idempotency, and distribution over each other (De Morgan’s laws). Moreover, nothing is the unit for $\_ | \_$. There is no point in having a unit for $\_ & \_ \_$, as it would be a sort that includes everything.

Formulae

$T_1 = T_2$ asserts that the values of the terms $T_1$ and $T_2$ are the same (individuals or sorts).

$T_1 \leq T_2$ asserts that the value of the term $T_1$ is a subsort of that of the term $T_2$; so does $T_2 \geq T_1$. Sort inclusion is the partial order of the sort lattice.

$T_1 : T_2$ asserts that the value of the term $T_1$ is an individual included in
the (sort) value of the term $T_2$.

The mark $\Box$ (read as ‘filled in later’) in a term abbreviates the other side of the enclosing equation. Thus $T_2 = T_1 \mid \Box$ specifies the same as $T_2 = T_1 \mid T_2$ (which is equivalent to $T_2 \geq T$).

The mark disjoint following an equation or inclusion $T = T_1 \mid \ldots \mid T_n$ abbreviates equations asserting vacuity of the pairwise intersections of the $T_i$. The mark individual abbreviates equations asserting that each $T_i$ is an individual, as well as their disjointness.

$F_1; \ldots; F_n$ is the conjunction of the formulae $F_1, \ldots, F_n$. Conjunctions with a common term may be abbreviated, e.g., $x, y : x$ abbreviates $x : z ; y : z$ and $x : y = z$ abbreviates $x : y ; y = z$.

**Clauses**

A (generalized positive Horn) clause $F_1; \ldots; F_m \Rightarrow C_1; \ldots; C_n$, where $m, n \geq 1$, asserts that whenever all the antecedent formulae $F_i$ hold, so do all the consequent clauses (or formulae) $C_j$. Note that clauses cannot be nested to the left of $\Rightarrow$, so $F_1 \Rightarrow F_2 \Rightarrow F_3$ is unambiguously grouped as $F_1 \Rightarrow (F_2 \Rightarrow F_3)$.

We restrict the interpretation of a variable $V$ to individuals of some sort $T$ in a clause $C$ by specifying $V : T \Rightarrow C$. Alternatively we may simply replace some occurrence of $V$ as an argument in $C$ by $V : T$. We restrict $V$ to subsorts of $T$ by writing $V \leq T$ instead of $V : T$.

**Functionalities**

A functionality clause $S :: T_1, \ldots, T_n \rightarrow T$ specifies that the value of any application of the operation $S$ is included in $T$ whenever the values of the argument terms are included in the $T_i$. It does not by itself indicate whether the value might be an individual, a proper sort, or a vacuous sort.

Such a functionality may be augmented by the some attributes, for example ‘total’ which abbreviates a clause asserting that the operation is a natural extension of an ordinary total operation on individuals to proper (and vacuous) sorts. It is straightforward to translate ordinary many-sorted algebraic specifications into our metanotation using functionalities and attributes; similarly for order-sorted specifications [2] written in OBJ3 [3].
Specifications

A modular specification $S$ is of the form $B \ M_1 \ldots \ M_n$, where $B$ is a basic specification, and the $M_i$ are modules. Either $B$ or the $M_i$ (but not both) may be absent. $B$ is inherited by all the $M_i$.

Each symbol stands for the same value or operation throughout a specification—except for symbols introduced privately. All the symbols (but not the variables) used in a module have to be explicitly introduced: either in the module itself, or in an outer basic specification, or in a referenced module.

Basic Specifications

A basic specification $B$ may introduce symbols, assert sentences, and impose (initial) constraints on subspecifications. The metanotation for basic specifications is as follows.

introduces: $O_1, \ldots, O_n$. introduces the indicated symbols, which stand for constants and/or operations. Also privately introduces: $O_1, \ldots, O_n$. introduces the indicated symbols, but here the enclosing module translates them to new symbols, so that they cannot clash with symbols specified in other modules.

$C$, asserts the clause $C$ as an axiom, to hold for any assignment of values to the variables that occur in it. Omitting $C$ gives the empty specification, made visible by a period.

$B_1, \ldots, B_n$ specifies all that the basic specifications $B_1, \ldots, B_n$ specify, i.e., it is their union. The order of the $B_i$ is irrelevant, so symbols may be used before they are introduced.

includes: $R_1, \ldots, R_n$. specifies the same as all the modules indicated by the references $R_i$. needs: $R_1, \ldots, R_n$, is similar to includes: $R_1, \ldots, R_n$, except that it is not transitive: symbols introduced in the modules referenced by the $R_i$ are not regarded as being automatically available for use in modules that reference the enclosing module.

grammar: $S$ augments the basic specification $S$ with standard specifications of strings and syntax trees (from [11, Appendix E]), and with the introduction of each constant symbol that occurs as the left hand side of an equation in $S$. Similarly when $S$ is a series of modules.

closed . specifies the constraint that the enclosing module is to have
a *standard* (i.e., initial) interpretation. This means that it must be possible, using the specified symbols, to express every *individual* that is included in some expressible sort (*no junk*), and moreover that terms have equal/included/individual values only when that logically follows from the specified axioms (*no confusion*). **closed except** $R_1, \ldots, R_n$ . specifies a similar constraint, but leaves the (sub)modules referenced by the $R_i$ open, so that they may be specialized in extensions of the specification. **open** . merely indicates that the enclosing module is not to be closed.

**Modules**

A module $M$ is of the form $I S$, where $I$ is a title that identifies the specification $S$.

Modules may also be nested, in which case an inner module inherits the basic specifications of all the enclosing modules, and the series of titles that identifies the immediately enclosing module.

Parameterization of modules is rather implicit: unconstrained submodules, specified as **open** . , can always be specialized.

A series of titles $I_1/\ldots/I_n$ refers to a module (together with all its submodules). A common prefix of the titles of the enclosing module and of the referenced module may be omitted. In particular, sibling modules in a nest can be referenced using single titles. $R/\ast$ refers to all submodules of $R$.

**References**


