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Foundations of Concurrent Kleene Algebra

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Abstract. A Concurrent Kleene Algebra offers two composition operators, one that stands for sequential execution and the other for concurrent execution [10]. In this paper we investigate the abstract background of this law in terms of independence relations on which a concrete trace model of the algebra is based. Moreover, we show the interdependence of the basic properties of such relations and two further laws that are essential in the application of the algebra to a Jones style rely/guarantee calculus. Finally we reconstruct the trace model in a more abstract setting based on the notion of atoms from lattice theory.

1 Introduction

A Concurrent Kleene Algebra (CKA) is one which offers two composition operators, one that stands for sequential execution and the other for concurrent execution. They are related by an inequational form of the exchange law $(a \circ b) \bullet (c \circ d) = (a \bullet c) \circ (b \bullet d)$ of two-category or bicategory theory (e.g. [16]).

The applicability of the algebra to a partially-ordered trace model of program execution semantics and to the validation familiar proof rules for sequential programs (Hoare triples) and for concurrent programming (Jones's rely/guarantee calculus) is shown in [10]. The mentioned trace model is based on a dependence relation between atomic events.

In the present paper we investigate how the laws of concurrent Kleene algebra reflect this relation; we show that two central laws are equivalent to its transitivity and acyclicity, resp. The traces obeying a generalised version of the second law are characterised in terms of convexity w.r.t the dependence relation. Moreover we introduce the notion of an event-based concurrent Kleene algebra which is a more abstract version of the concrete trace model, based on the notions of atoms and irreducible elements. We show that in such algebras the dependence relation can be recovered from the operations of sequential and concurrent composition. Most of our reasoning has been checked by computer using the system Prover9/Mace4 [17]. A collection of input files and proofs can be found under http://www.dcs.shef.ac.uk/~georg/ka/.

Sect. 2 summarises the definitions of the trace model and its essential operators. In Sect. 3 we develop an abstract calculus of independence relations, both in formulas and diagrammatic rules. Sect. 4 presents quantales as a fundamental structure and gives the axiomatisation of CKAs in terms of quantales. Sect. 5 gives a definition of invariants as used in the mentioned rely/guarantee calculus. In Sect. 6 we establish the equivalence of two fundamental laws with (weak) acyclicity and transitivity of the basic dependence relation. Sect. 7 presents a simplified rely/guarantee calculus. Finally, Sect. 8 develops the notion of event-based CKAS and reconstructs the trace model and the dependence relation in terms of that notion. Appendix A summarises the laws characterising the various structures involved.

2 Operations on Traces and Programs

In this section we present a concrete model of Concurrent Kleene Algebra which serves as a motivation of the abstract algebraic treatment in the later sections.

We assume a set EV of event occurrences together with a dependence relation $\rightarrow \subseteq EV \times EV$ between them: $e \rightarrow f$ indicates occurrence of a data flow or control flow from event e to event f.

Definition 2.1 A trace is a set of events; the set of all traces over EV is $TR(EV) = _{df} \mathcal{P}(EV)$. A program is a set of traces; the set of all programs is $PR(EV) = _{df} \mathcal{P}(TR(EV))$.

We deliberately keep the definition of traces and programs so liberal to accommodate systems with very loose coupling of events; "conventional" linear traces can, e.g., be obtained by including time stamps into the events and defining the dependence relation such that it respects time.

Examples of very simple programs are the following. The program skip, which does nothing, is defined as $\{\emptyset\}$, and the program [e], which does only $e \in EV$, is $\{\{e\}\}$. The program false $=_{df} \emptyset$ has no traces, and therefore cannot be executed at all. It serves the rôle of the 'miracle' [18] in the development of programs by stepwise refinement.

Following [11] we will define four operators on programs P and Q:

- P * Q fine-grain concurrent composition, allowing dependences between P and Q;
- P; Q weak sequential composition, forbidding dependence of P on Q;
- $P \parallel Q$ disjoint parallel composition, with no dependence in either direction:
- $P \[] Q \]$ alternation only one of P or Q is executed, if at all; details will be given below.

To express the restrictions in this list we introduce the following independence relation.

Definition 2.2 For traces tp, tq we define the *independence relation* by

$$tp \not\leftarrow tq \Leftrightarrow_{df} \neg \exists p \in tp, q \in tq : q \rightarrow p$$
.

Viewing tp as a set of events that should occur before all the ones in tq, one can read $tp \not\leftarrow tq$ as the requirement that tp must not depend on its "future" tq.

Now, for each operator $\circ \in \{*, ;, \|, []\}$ we define an associated binary relation (\circ) between traces such that for programs P, Q we can define generically

$$P \circ Q =_{df} \{ tp \cup tq \mid tp \in P \land tq \in Q \land tp (\circ) tq \} . \tag{1}$$

From this definition it is immediate that \circ distributes through arbitrary unions of families of programs and hence is \subseteq -isotone and false-strict, i.e., $false \circ P = false = P \circ false$. Moreover, skip is a neutral element for \circ , i.e.,

$$\mathsf{skip} \circ P = P = P \circ \mathsf{skip} . \tag{2}$$

Finally, if (\circ) is symmetric then \circ is commutative.

Now the above informal descriptions are captured by the definitions

$$\begin{array}{ll} tp \ (*) \ tq \ \Leftrightarrow_{df} \ tp \cap tq = \emptyset \ , \\ tp \ (;) \ tq \ \Leftrightarrow_{df} \ tp \ (*) \ tq \ \wedge \ tp \not\leftarrow tq \ , \\ tp \ (\parallel) \ tq \ \Leftrightarrow_{df} \ tp \ (;) \ tq \ \wedge \ tq \not\leftarrow tp \ , \\ tp \ (\parallel) \ tq \ \Leftrightarrow_{df} \ tp = \emptyset \ \vee \ tq = \emptyset \ . \end{array}$$

It is clear that $([]) \subseteq ([]) \subseteq ([]) \subseteq ([*])$ and that (*), ([]) and ([]) are symmetric.

Another essential operator is the union operator which again is \subseteq -isotone and distributes through arbitrary unions. However, it is *not false*-strict.

By the Tarski-Kleene fixpoint theorems hence all recursion equations involving only the operations mentioned have \subseteq -least solutions which can be approximated by the familiar fixpoint iteration starting from false. Use of union in such a recursion enables non-trivial least fixpoints.

3 Independence Calculus and Exchange Laws

To prove the most essential laws about the interaction of our operators we now give a slightly more abstract treatment. We start by observing that an equivalent relation-algebraic formulation of the independence relation dotain to the definition of the property of the entire treatment of the independence relation to the equivalent treatment of the treatment of the entire treatment of the independence relation to the equivalent treatment of the entire trea

$$(tp \cup tq) \not\leftarrow tr \Leftrightarrow tp \not\leftarrow tr \land tq \not\leftarrow tr , tp \not\leftarrow (tq \cup tr) \Leftrightarrow tp \not\leftarrow tq \land tp \not\leftarrow tr .$$

It turns out that these bilinearity properties are the essence of the characteristic laws about the interplay of our various operators. This motivates the following definition.

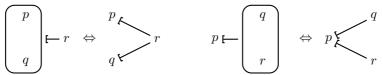
Definition 3.1 An aggregation algebra is a structure (A, +) consisting of a set A and a binary operation $+: A \times A \to A$. An independence relation on an aggregation algebra is a bilinear relation $R \subseteq A \times A$, i.e.,

$$(p+q) R r \Leftrightarrow p R r \wedge q R r ,$$

$$p R (q+r) \Leftrightarrow p R q \wedge p R r .$$

In our example of traces and programs, A would be the set of traces and + would be trace union. For now, we will however consider an aggregation algebra as absolutely free, i.e., + need not satisfy any laws. Later we will need aggregation algebras that are (commutative) semigroups or monoids. The first condition on R says that an aggregate p+q is independent of r iff both its parts p and q are independent of r. The second condition says that p is independent of the aggregate q+r iff it is independent of both its parts, q and r. An independence relation on $(TR(EV), \cup)$ is $\not\leftarrow$.

We can visualise the independence conditions by the following diagrams.



The ovals display aggregates. The letters in the ovals represent the entities that form their parts. In the first diagram, the oval around p and q denotes the aggregate p+q. The arrow-like symbols denote the independence relation R, where the sign [means that any flow of dependence is blocked there. In the leftmost diagram, the arrow relates the aggregate p+q to r, hence the aggregate formed by p and q is independent of r. In its neighbour diagram, there is no aggregate and both p and q are related to r, hence independent of r. The equivalence between the diagrams visualises the first bilinearity law. Analogous remarks apply to the second pair of diagrams.

An important tool for a uniform treatment of our operators from Sect. 2 is the following lemma, whose proof is straightforward.

Lemma 3.2

1. The set of independence relations on an aggregation algebra is closed under intersection.

2. The relations $(*), (;), (\parallel)$ and (\parallel) are independence relations on $(TR(EV), \cup)$.

We now consider the interplay of two independence relations R and S on an aggregation algebra A.

Lemma 3.3 Let R and S be independence relations on an aggregation algebra (A, +) such that $R \subseteq S$. Then

1.
$$(p+q)Rr \wedge pSq \Rightarrow pS(q+r) \wedge qRr$$
.

2.
$$pR(q+r) \wedge qSr \Rightarrow (p+q)Sr \wedge pRq$$
.

Proof.

$$(p+q) R r \wedge p S q \Leftrightarrow p R r \wedge q R r \wedge p S q$$
$$\Rightarrow p S r \wedge q R r \wedge p S q$$
$$\Leftrightarrow q R r \wedge p S (q+r).$$

$$p R (q + r) \wedge q S r \Leftrightarrow p R q \wedge p R r \wedge q S r$$
$$\Rightarrow p R q \wedge p S r \wedge q S r$$
$$\Leftrightarrow p R q \wedge (p + q) S r.$$

Obviously, we now must introduce two different kinds of arrows in diagrams. The first law can be visualised as

$$p \longmapsto q \vdash --r \quad \Rightarrow \quad p \longmapsto q \vdash --r$$

The second law looks similar. A diagrammatic proof of the first law is

$$\begin{bmatrix}
p \\
q
\end{bmatrix}
\vdash -r \Leftrightarrow
\begin{bmatrix}
p \\
q
\end{bmatrix}$$

$$r \Rightarrow p$$

$$\downarrow \\
r$$

$$\uparrow \\
r$$

$$\uparrow \\
r$$

A simple consequence is the following.

Corollary 3.4 Let R be an independence relation on an aggregation algebra (A, +). Then

$$(p+q) R r \wedge p R q \Leftrightarrow q R r \wedge p R (q+r).$$

$$p \longmapsto q \qquad \Leftrightarrow \qquad p \longmapsto q \longmapsto r$$

Proof. Set S = R in Lemma 3.3.

We can also prove the following exchange laws which are crucial for concurrent Kleene algebra.

Theorem 3.5 Let R and S be independence relations on an aggregation algebra (A, +) such that $R \subseteq S$ and S is symmetric. Then

$$(p+q) R (r+s) \wedge p S q \wedge r S s \Rightarrow p R r \wedge q R s \wedge (p+r) S (q+s)$$
.

Proof.

$$\begin{split} (p+q)\,R\,(r+s) \wedge p\,S\,q \wedge r\,S\,s \\ &\Leftrightarrow p\,R\,r \wedge q\,R\,r \wedge p\,R\,s \wedge q\,R\,s \wedge p\,S\,q \wedge r\,S\,s \\ &\Rightarrow p\,R\,r \wedge q\,S\,r \wedge p\,S\,s \wedge q\,R\,s \wedge p\,S\,q \wedge r\,S\,s \\ &\Rightarrow p\,R\,r \wedge q\,R\,s \wedge r\,S\,q \wedge (p+r)\,S\,(s) \wedge p\,S\,q \\ &\Rightarrow p\,R\,r \wedge q\,R\,s \wedge (p+r)\,S\,(q) \wedge (p+r)\,S\,(s) \\ &\Leftrightarrow p\,R\,r \wedge q\,R\,s \wedge (p+r)\,S\,(q+s) \;. \end{split}$$

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The diagrammatic statement of the exchange law (neglecting hypotheses) is

$$\begin{bmatrix}
p \\
T \\
q
\end{bmatrix}
\vdash - \begin{bmatrix}
r \\
T \\
s
\end{bmatrix}
\Rightarrow
\begin{bmatrix}
p \vdash --r \\
T \\
q \vdash --s
\end{bmatrix}$$

A diagrammatic proof is

$$\begin{bmatrix}
p \\
q
\end{bmatrix}
\vdash -
\begin{bmatrix}
r \\
s
\end{bmatrix}
\Leftrightarrow
\begin{bmatrix}
p \\
r
-r
\end{cases}
\Rightarrow
\begin{bmatrix}
p \\
r
-r
\end{cases}
\Leftrightarrow
\begin{bmatrix}
p \\
r
-r
\end{cases}
\Leftrightarrow
\begin{bmatrix}
p \\
r
-r
\end{cases}
\Leftrightarrow
\begin{bmatrix}
p \\
r
-r
\end{cases}$$

As immediately obvious from the diagrams, the hypotheses also entail

$$(p+q)R(r+s) \wedge pSq \wedge rSs \Rightarrow pRs \wedge qRr \wedge (p+s)S(q+r). \tag{3}$$

The proofs in this section, logical and diagrammatical, are only intended to give a flavour of the approach. In fact, the former ones have all been automated, hence formally verified, with Prover9 [17] and could as well have been omitted. Proofs at this level of complexity present no obstacle to ATP systems.

We now apply our results to our special aggregation algebra $(TR(EV), \cup)$.

Lemma 3.6 *Let* \circ , $\bullet \in \{*, ;, \|, []\}$.

- 1. If $(\bullet) \subseteq (\circ)$ and (\circ) is symmetric then $(P \circ Q) \bullet (R \circ S) \subseteq (P \bullet R) \circ (Q \bullet S)$.
- 2. If $(\bullet) \subseteq (\circ)$ then $(P \circ Q) \bullet R \subseteq P \circ (Q \bullet R)$ and $P \bullet (Q \circ R) \subseteq (P \bullet Q) \circ R$.
- $3. \circ is associative.$

Proof.

1. For traces $tp \in P$, $tq \in Q$, $tr \in R$, $ts \in S$ we have by (1) and Theorem 3.5

$$\begin{array}{l} (tp \cup tq) \cup (tr \cup ts) \in (P \circ Q) \bullet (R \circ S) \\ \Leftrightarrow tp(\circ)tq \ \wedge \ tr(\circ)ts \ \wedge \ (tp \cup tq))(\bullet)(tr \cup ts) \\ \Rightarrow tp(\bullet)tr \ \wedge \ tq(\bullet)ts \ \wedge \ (tp \cup tr))(\circ)(tq \cup ts) \\ \Leftrightarrow (tp \cup tr) \cup (tq \cup ts) \in (P \bullet R) \circ (Q \bullet S) \ . \end{array}$$

Since $(tp \cup tq) \cup (tr \cup ts) = (tp \cup tr) \cup (tq \cup ts)$, we are done.

- 2. Similar to the proof of Part 1, using Lemma 3.3.
- 3. Use the two previous laws with $\bullet = \circ$.

A particularly important special case of Part 1 is the exchange law

$$(P * Q); (R * S) \subseteq (P; R) * (Q; S).$$
 (4)

In the remainder of this paper we shall no longer deal with the less interesting operators $\|$ and [].

4 Quantales and Concurrent Kleene Algebras

We now abstract further from the concrete example of traces and programs.

Definition 4.1 A semiring is a structure $(S, +, 0, \cdot, 1)$ such that (S, +, 0) is a commutative monoid, $(S, \cdot, 1)$ is a monoid, multiplication distributes over addition in both arguments and 0 is a left and right annihilator with respect to multiplication $(a \cdot 0 = 0 = 0 \cdot a)$. A semiring is *idempotent* if its addition is.

In an idempotent semiring, the relation \leq defined by $a \leq b \Leftrightarrow_{df} a+b=b$ is a partial ordering, in fact the only partial ordering on S for which 0 is the least element and for which addition and multiplication are isotone in both arguments. It is therefore called the *natural ordering* on S. This makes S into a semilattice with addition as join and least element 0.

Definition 4.2 A quantale [19] or standard Kleene algebra [5] is an idempotent semiring that is a complete lattice under the natural order and in which composition distributes over arbitrary suprema. The infimum and the supremum of a subset T are denoted by $\sqcap T$ and $\sqcup T$, respectively. Their binary variants are $x \sqcap y$ and $x \sqcup y$ (the latter coinciding with x + y).

Let now PR(EV) denote the set of all programs over the event set EV. From the observations in Sect. 2 the following is immediate:

Lemma 4.3 $(PR(EV), \cup, false, *, skip)$ and $(PR(EV), \cup, false, :, skip)$ both are quantales.

In a quantale S, finite and infinite iteration * and ω are defined by

$$a^* = \mu x \cdot 1 + a \cdot x , \qquad a^\omega = \nu x \cdot a \cdot x ,$$

where μ and ν denote the least and greatest fixpoint operators. The star used here is not to be confused with the separation operator * above; it should also be noted that a^{ω} in [1] corresponds to $a^* + a^{\omega}$ in the quantale setting.

It is well known that then $(S, +, \cdot, 0, 1, *)$ forms a Kleene algebra [14]. From this we obtain many useful laws for free. As instances we mention

$$a^* \cdot a^* = (a^*)^* = a^*$$
, $(a \cdot b)^* \cdot a = a \cdot (b \cdot a)^*$, $(a + b)^* = a^* \cdot (b \cdot a^*)^*$.

Since in a quantale the function defining star is continuous, Kleene's fixpoint theorem shows that $a^* = \bigsqcup_{i \in \mathbb{N}} a^i$. Moreover, we have the star induction rules

$$b + a \cdot x \le x \Rightarrow a^* \cdot b \le x$$
, $b + x \cdot a \le x \Rightarrow b \cdot a^* \le x$. (5)

Hence in $(PR(EV), \cup, false, *, skip)$ and $(PR(EV), \cup, false, :, skip)$ the program P^* consists of all finite disjoint unions and all finite sequential compositions of traces in P, resp. In the latter case P^* is denoted by P^{∞} in [11].

If, in addition, the complete lattice (S, \leq) in a quantale is completely distributive, i.e., if + distributes over arbitrary infima, then $(S, +, \cdot, 0, 1, *, \omega)$ forms an omega algebra [4]. Again this entails many useful laws, e.g.,

$$(a \cdot b)^{\omega} = a \cdot (b \cdot a)^{\omega} , \qquad (a+b)^{\omega} = a^{\omega} + a^* \cdot b \cdot (a+b)^{\omega} .$$

Since PR(EV) is a power set lattice, it is completely distributive. Hence both program quantales also admit infinite iteration with all its laws. The infinite iteration ω in $(PR(EV), \cup, false, *, skip)$ is similar to the unbounded parallel spawning !P in the π -calculus [22]. The abstract combination of two quantales leads to the following definition [10].

Definition 4.4 A concurrent Kleene algebra (CKA) is a structure (S, +, 0, *, :, 1)such that (S, +, *, 0, 1) and (S, +, ;, 0, 1) are quantales linked by the exchange axiom

$$(a*b); (c*d) \le (b;c)*(a;d)$$
.

Compared with the original exchange law (4) this one has its free variables in a different order. This does no harm, since the concrete * operator on programs is commutative and hence satisfies the above law as well. Hence we have

Corollary 4.5
$$(PR(EV), \cup, false, *, ;, skip)$$
 is a CKA.

The reason for our formulation of the exchange axiom here is that this form of the law implies commutativity of * as well as $a : b \le a * b$ and hence saves two axioms. We list some important consequences of this axiomatisation; the proofs are given in [10].

Lemma 4.6 In a CKA the following laws hold.

- 1. a * b = b * a.
- 2. (a*b); $(c*d) \le (a;c)*(b;d)$.

- 3. $a; b \le a*b$. 4. $(a*b); c \le a*(b;c)$. 5. $a; (b*c) \le (a;b)*c$.

5 Invariants

For the further development we need to deal with the set of events a program may use.

Definition 5.1 A power invariant is a program R of the form $R = \mathcal{P}(E)$ for a set $E \subseteq EV$ of events.

It consists of all possible traces that can be formed from events in E and hence is the most general program using only those events. The smallest power invariant is $\mathsf{skip} = \mathcal{P}(\emptyset)$. The term "invariant" expresses that often a program relies (whence the name R) on the assumption that its environment only uses events from a particular subset, i.e., preserves the invariant of staying in that set. We will now investigate the properties of power invariants and, later on, of their abstract counterparts.

To this end we want to define a function that forms from a program the smallest power invariant containing it. We denote, for a program P, by $|P| =_{df} \bigcup P$ the set of all events occurring in traces of P; when convenient, |P| can also be considered as a trace.

It is straightforward to check that $| _ |$ distributes through arbitrary unions. Hence it has an upper adjoint F, defined by the Galois connection

$$P \subseteq F(X) \Leftrightarrow |P| \subseteq X$$
.

This entails $F(X) = \mathcal{P}(X)$ and $|\mathcal{P}(X)| = X$. Moreover, as adjoints of a Galois connection, $\mathcal{P}(\underline{\ })$ and $|\underline{\ }|$ are \subseteq -isotone. Setting X = |P| we obtain $P \subseteq \mathcal{P}(|P|)$. Finally, for $X, Y \subseteq EV$ we have $\mathcal{P}(X) \subseteq \mathcal{P}(Y) \Leftrightarrow X \subseteq Y$.

Motivated by the above remarks we now define $\mathsf{INV}(P) =_{df} \mathcal{P}(|P|)$. Then $\mathsf{INV}(P)$ is the most general program that can be formed from the events of P. As a composition of isotone functions, INV is isotone again.

We now prepare for our abstract notion of invariants. An *invariant* is a program R with $R = \mathsf{INV}(R)$. In particular, every invariant in our concrete CKA of programs is a power invariant. In general CKAs we will replace INV by a suitable abstract operator the properties of which will be discussed below. The definition implies that invariants are fixpoints of an isotone function and hence form a complete lattice under the inclusion order.

The operation ∇ from [11] and INV are interrelated. To this end we set $\mathsf{SINGLES}(P) =_{df} \{\{e\} : \{e\} \in P\}$. Then

$$\mathsf{INV}(\mathsf{SINGLES}(Q)) = Q \nabla Q$$
, $Q \nabla R = \mathsf{INV}(\mathsf{SINGLES}(Q \cup R))$.

We shall use INV, since it leads to simpler and more intuitive formulations. We give a few useful properties of INV.

Theorem 5.2

- 1. INV(P) is the smallest invariant containing P.
- 2. $\mathsf{INV}(\mathsf{INV}(P)) = \mathsf{INV}(P)$; hence $\mathsf{INV}(P)$ is an invariant.
- 3. INV is a closure operator.
- 4. $skip \subseteq INV(P)$.
- 5. $\mathsf{INV}(P * Q) \subseteq \mathsf{INV}(P \cup Q)$.

Proof. 1. We have already seen above that $P \subseteq \mathsf{INV}(P)$. Let S be another invariant with $P \subseteq S$. Then, by isotony of INV and the definition of invariants, $\mathsf{INV}(P) \subseteq \mathsf{INV}(S) = S$.

2. Since, as remarked above, $|\mathcal{P}(X)| = X$, we have

$$\mathsf{INV}(\mathsf{INV}(P)) = \mathcal{P}(|\mathcal{P}(|P|)|) = \mathcal{P}(|P|) = \mathsf{INV}(P) \ .$$

- 3. By Part 1 INV is extensive. By the Galois connection it is isotone and by Part 2 it is idempotent.
- 4. Immediate from the definition of INV.
- 5. By the definition of * we have $|P * Q| \subseteq |P \cup Q|$ and the property follows by isotony of \mathcal{P} .

Since INV is a closure operator we have the following (see e.g. [3]).

Corollary 5.3 For set \mathcal{R} of power invariants, $\bigcap \mathcal{R}$ and $\mathsf{INV}(\bigcup \mathcal{R})$ are the meet and join of \mathcal{R} in the complete lattice of invariants, resp.

We now again abstract from the concrete case of programs and use the fact that INV is a closure and Parts 4 and 5 of Theorem 5.2 as the characteristics of abstract invariants, since these properties suffice to prove the results about the rely/guarantee calculus in Section 7 we are after.

Definition 5.4 A CKA with invariants is a structure $(S, +, 0, *, ;, 1, \iota)$ such that (S, +, 0, *, ;, 1) is a CKA and $\iota : S \to S$ is a closure operator that additionally satisfies, for all $a, b \in S$,

$$1 \le \iota a$$
, $\iota (a * b) \le \iota (a + b)$.

An invariant is an element $a \in S$ with $\iota a = a$.

In [10] a more specific view of invariants is taken: there an invariant is an element r with $1 \le r$ and $r*r \le r$, which are the properties of invariants shown in Theorem 5.6 below. This entails that the invariants are precisely the fixpoints of the finite iteration operator * w.r.t. concurrent composition *. This still allows proving many of the above properties, but does not characterise power invariants and hence is not adequate for all purposes. However, we have the following connection.

Lemma 5.5 Defining in a CKA $\iota a =_{df} a^*$ makes it a CKA with invariants.

Proof. By standard Kleene algebra * is a closure operator with $1 \le a^*$. The remaining axiom is shown by star induction (5) and isotony as follows:

$$(a*b)^* \le (a+b)^* \iff 1 + a*b*(a+b)^* \le (a+b)^* \iff 1 \le (a+b)^* \land (a+b)*(a+b)*(a+b)^* \le (a+b)^* \iff \mathsf{TRUE} \;. \qquad \Box$$

Again it is clear that the invariants in the abstract sense form a complete lattice with properties analogous to those of Corollary 5.3. Moreover, one has the usual Galois connection for closures (e.g. [7]):

$$a \le \iota b \Leftrightarrow \iota a \le \iota b$$
 . (6)

With this definition we can give a uniform abstract proof of idempotence of operators on invariants.

Theorem 5.6 Consider a CKA S with invariants. Let \circ be an isotone binary operation on S that has 1 as neutral element and satisfies $\forall a, b : \iota(a \circ b) \subseteq \iota(a+b)$. Then for invariant r we have $r \circ r = r$.

Proof. We first show $r \circ r \leq r$. By extensivity of ι , the assumption and r+r=r as well as invaraince of r we have $r \circ r \subseteq \iota(r \circ r) \subseteq \iota r = r$. The converse inclusion is shown by $r=r \circ 1 \leq r \circ r$, using neutrality of 1, the axiom $1 \leq \iota a$ and isotony of \circ .

The original motivation for discussing invariants was that they should allow guaranteeing that a program only uses events from a given admissible set. To this end we define a *quarantee relation*, slightly more liberally than [11], by

$$a \text{ guar } b \Leftrightarrow_{df} \iota a \leq \iota b$$
.

Since ι as a closure is extensive, isotone and idempotent, the right hand side is equivalent to $a \leq \iota b$. If b is an invariant, i.e., $b = \iota b$, we obtain by (6)

$$a \text{ guar } b \Leftrightarrow \iota a \leq \iota b \Leftrightarrow a \leq \iota b \Leftrightarrow a \leq b$$
.

We have the following properties.

Theorem 5.7

- 1. If g is an invariant then 1 guar g.
- 2. If g, g' are invariants and \circ is again an isotone binary operation satisfying $\forall a, b : \iota (a \circ b) \leq \iota (a + b)$ then

$$b \text{ guar } g \wedge b' \text{ guar } g' \Rightarrow (b \circ b') \text{ guar } (g + g')$$
.

3. For the concrete case of programs, [e] guar $G \Leftrightarrow e \in |G|$.

Proof. 1. Immediate from the axioms and the above remark on guar.

2.
$$b \text{ guar } g \wedge b' \text{ guar } g'$$
 $\Leftrightarrow \quad \{ \{ \text{ above remark on guar } \} \}$
 $\iota b \leq g \wedge \iota b' \leq g'$
 $\Rightarrow \quad \{ \{ \text{ isotony of } + \} \} \}$
 $\iota b + \iota b' \leq g + g'$
 $\Rightarrow \quad \{ \{ \text{ isotony of } \iota \} \} \}$
 $\iota (b + b') \leq g + g'$
 $\Rightarrow \quad \{ \{ \text{ assumption about } \circ \} \} \}$
 $\iota (b \circ b') \leq g + g'$
 $\Leftrightarrow \quad \{ \{ \text{ extensivity of } \iota \} \} \}$
 $\iota (b \circ b') \leq \iota (g + g')$
 $\Leftrightarrow \quad \{ \{ \text{ definition } \} \} \}$
 $(b \circ b') \text{ guar } (g + g')$.

3. By the definitions and the Galois connection for $\lfloor \cdot \rfloor$,

$$[e] \text{ guar } G \Leftrightarrow \mathsf{INV}([e]) \subseteq \mathsf{INV}(G) \Leftrightarrow \{e\} \subseteq \mathsf{INV}(G) \Leftrightarrow e \in [G]$$
.

6 Characterising Dependence

In [10] it is shown that the definitions of * and ; for concrete programs in terms of the transitive closure \rightarrow^+ of the dependence relation \rightarrow entail two important further laws that are essential for the rely/guarantee calculus to be presented below:

Theorem 6.1 Let $R = \mathcal{P}(E)$ be a power invariant in PR(EV).

1. If \rightarrow is acyclic and $e \in EV$ then

$$R * [e] \subseteq R ; [e] ; R$$
.

2. If \rightarrow is transitive then for all $P,Q \in PR(EV)$ we have

$$R*(P;Q) \subseteq (R*P); (R*Q)$$
.

This means that the two properties of Theorem 6.1 hold if \rightarrow is a strict-order. But in fact, in a sense also the reverse implication holds. To formulate it we need a further notion.

Definition 6.2 We call \rightarrow weakly acyclic if for all events e, f,

$$e \to^+ f \to^+ e \Rightarrow f = e$$
,

and weakly transitive if

$$e \to f \to g \Rightarrow (e = g \lor e \to g)$$
.

Weak acyclicity means that \rightarrow may at most have immediate self-loops (which cannot be "detected" by the ; operator, since it is defined in terms of distinct events only).

Theorem 6.3 Let [e] be again the single-event program $\{\{e\}\}$.

- 1. If $R * [e] \subseteq R$; [e]; R is valid for all power invariants R and events e then \rightarrow is weakly acyclic.
- 2. If $R*(P;Q) \subseteq (R*P)$; (R*Q) is valid for all power invariants R and programs P,Q then \rightarrow is weakly transitive.

Proof of Part 2.

Assume events p,q,r with $q \to r$ and $r \to p$ but $q \not\to p$. This implies $q \not= r$ and $r \not= p$. Assume now $p \not= q$ and set $P =_{df} [p], Q =_{df} [q]$ and $R =_{df} [] \cup [r]$. Then P;Q = [p,q] and $R*(P;Q) = [p,q] \cup [r,p,q]$. Moreover, $R*P = [p] \cup [r,p]$ and $R*Q = [q] \cup [r,q]$, hence (R*P); (R*Q) = [p,q] contradicting the assumed property. Therefore we must have $p \leftarrow q$.

We abstract this into the following

Definition 6.4 A CKA S with invariants is *-distributive if all invariants r and all $a, b \in S$ satisfy

$$r * (a; b) \le (r * a); (r * b)$$
.

We still have to prove Part 1. Rather than doing this directly we investigate a slightly more general property which is equivalent to an interesting property of traces more general than single-event ones.

Definition 6.5 A trace tp is convex if for all events $p, q \in tp$ and arbitrary event f we have

$$p \to^+ f \to^+ q \Rightarrow f \in tp$$
.

A convex trace can be considered as "closed" under dependence.

For the following lemma we introduce the auxiliary function $dep(tp) =_{df} \{q \mid \exists p \in tp : q \to^+ p\}$ on traces tp. Hence dep(tp) consists of all events on which some event of tp depends. Then we have

Lemma 6.6 Let tp be a trace and assume that $R * \{tp\} \subseteq R; \{tp\}; R$ holds for all power invariants R.

1. Dependence between a trace and any event outside occurs at most in one direction, i.e., for any event $f \notin tp$ we have

$$tp \cap dep(\{f\}) = \emptyset \ \lor \ \{f\} \cap dep(tp) = \emptyset$$
.

2. As a consequence, tp is convex.

Proof. 1. Set $R =_{df} \mathcal{P}(\{f\})$. By assumption the trace $tr = \{f\} \in R$ can be split as tr = tr'; tr'' such that tr * tp = tr'; tp; tr''.

Case 1: $tr' = \{f\} \land tr'' = \emptyset$. Hence $tr * tp = \{f\}$; tp. This implies $\{f\} \cap dep(tp) = \emptyset$.

Case 2: $tr' = \emptyset \land tr'' = \{f\}$. Hence $tr * tp = tp ; \{f\}$. This implies $tp \cap dep(\{f\}) = \emptyset$.

2. Suppose $f \notin tp$. The premise $p \to^+ f$ implies $p \in tp \cap dep(\{f\})$ while $f \to^+ q$ implies $f \in \{f\} \cap dep(tp)$. In particular, both sets are non-empty, contradicting Part 1.

The case of singleton traces is covered as follows:

Lemma 6.7 All traces $\{e\}$ are convex iff \rightarrow is weakly acyclic.

Proof. (\Rightarrow) Assume $e \to^+ f \to^+ e$. Then by the assumed convexity of $\{e\}$ we get $f \in \{e\}$, i.e., f = e.

(\Leftarrow) Assume $p \to^+ f \to^+ q$ for $p, q \in \{e\}$, i.e., $e \to^+ f \to^+ e$. Then by the assumed weak acyclicity f = e, i.e., $f \in \{e\}$. □

We now want to show that also the reverse of Lemma 6.6 holds.

Lemma 6.8 Let tp be convex. Then for all power invariants R the formula $R * \{tp\} \subseteq R$; $\{tp\}$; R is valid.

Proof. Consider some $tr \in R$. We need to show $\{tr\} * \{tp\} \subseteq R ; \{tp\} ; R$. The claim holds vacuously if $tp \cap tr \neq \emptyset$. Hence assume that $tp \cap tr = \emptyset$ and set

$$tr' =_{df} tr \cap dep(tp)$$
, $tr'' =_{df} tr - dep(tp)$.

In particular, $tp \cap tr' = \emptyset$. From Lemma 6.3 of [10] we know

$$tr'' \cap dep(tp) = tr'' \cap dep(tr') = \emptyset$$
.

If we can show that also $tp \cap dep(tr') = \emptyset$ we have $\{tr\} * \{tp\} = \{tr'\}; \{tp\}; \{tr''\}$ and are done. Therefore, suppose $p \in tp \cap dep(tr')$, say $p \to^+ r$ for some $r \in tr'$. By definition of tr' there is a $q \in tp$ with $r \to^+ q$. Since tp is assumed to be convex, this implies $r \in tp$, a contradiction to $r \in tr'$ and $tp \cap tr' = \emptyset$.

Next, we consider general programs.

Definition 6.9 A program is *convex* if all its traces are.

Lemma 6.10 P is convex iff it satisfies for all power invariants R

$$R * P \subseteq R ; P ; R$$
.

Proof. (\Rightarrow) Immediate from the definition and Lemma 6.8.

(\Leftarrow) Consider traces $tp \in P$ and $tr \in R$. We need to show $\{tr\} * \{tp\} \subseteq R; \{tp\}; R$. The claim holds vacuously if $tp \cap tr \neq \emptyset$. Hence let $tp \cap tr = \emptyset$. By the assumption there are traces $tp' \in P$ and $tr', tr'' \in tr$ with $tp' \cap tr' = tp' \cap tr'' = tr' \cap tr'' = \emptyset$ and $tr' \not\leftarrow tp' \wedge tp' \not\leftarrow tr'' \wedge tr' \not\leftarrow tr''$ such that $tp \cup tr = tr' \cup tp' \cup tr''$. But by disjointness this implies tp' = tp and we are done.

These results motivate the following abstraction.

Definition 6.11 An element a of a CKA with invariants is called *convex* iff for all invariants r we have $r * a \le r$; a; r.

By b; $c \le b * c$, commutativity of * and idempotence of invariants (Theorem 5.6) this inequation strengthens to an equality. This means that convex elements behave like "atoms" w.r.t. sequentialisation. Convexity will be important for one of the rules presented in the next section.

7 A Simplified Rely/Guarantee-Calculus

In [13] Jones has presented a calculus that considers properties of the environment on which a program wants to rely and the ones it, in turn, guarantees for the

environment. The basis of this calculus are quintuples of the form $P R \{Q\} S G$ which express that after a pre-history modelled by program P the program Qwhen run in concurrent composition with a program satisfying the invariant Rwill achieve overall history S and guarantee invariant G. In general CKAs these quintuples can be formalised by

$$a \ r \{b\} s g \Leftrightarrow_{df} a \{r * b\} s \land b \text{ guar } g$$
.

when r and q are invariants. They are based on the following Hoare triples:

$$c\{d\} e \Leftrightarrow_{df} c; d \leq e$$
.

In [10] it is shown that all the standard rules for Hoare triples also hold for this abstract version.

However, in the setting of the present paper the following type of quadruples with an invariant r works just as well:

$$a r \{b\} s \Leftrightarrow_{df} a \{r * b\} s$$
.

If information about the events of a program b is needed (the rôle of g in the original quintuples of the Jones calculus is, to a certain extent, to carry this information), one can use the smallest invariant ιb containing b, since b guar ιb .

We give the simplified versions of the original rely/guarantee-properties; the proofs result in a straightforward way from the ones shown in [10] by omitting the guarantee parts.

For concurrent composition we obtain

Theorem 7.1 For invariants r, r',

$$a \ r \{b\} s \land a' \ r' \{b'\} s' \land b' \leq r \land b \leq r' \Rightarrow (a \sqcap a') \ (r \sqcap r') \{b * b'\} \ (s \sqcap s') \ .$$

For sequential composition one has

Theorem 7.2 Let, for CKA elements a, b, denote $a \sqcap b$ their meet (which exists, since CKAs are quantales). For invariants r, r',

$$a \ r\{b\} \ s \land s \ r'\{b'\} \ s' \Rightarrow a \ (r \sqcap r')\{b;b'\} \ s'$$

provided b; b' is protected from $r \sqcap r'$, i.e.,

$$(r \sqcap r') * (b ; b') < (r * b) ; (r' * b')$$
.

The protectedness assumption holds in particular if the underlying CKA is *-distributive, since $r \sqcap r'$ is again an invariant and hence

$$(r \sqcap r') * (b;b') < ((r \sqcap r') * b); (r \sqcap r') * b') < (r * b); (r' * b').$$

Next we give rules for 1, union and convex programs.

Theorem 7.3

- 1. $a r \{1\} s \Leftrightarrow a \{r\} s$.
- 2. $a r \{b+b'\} s \Leftrightarrow a r \{b\} s \wedge a r \{b'\} s$. 3. If b is convex then $a r \{b\} s \Leftrightarrow a \{r; b; r\} s$.

Part 3 has only been given for concrete single-event programs in [10]; therefore we give a quick proof for the abstract form here:

$$a r \{b\} s \Leftrightarrow a; (r * b) \subseteq s \Leftrightarrow a; (r; b; r) \subseteq s \Leftrightarrow a \{r; b; r\} s.$$

8 Event-Based Algebras

The definition of a CKA does not mention the dependence relation anymore. However, in the next section, when we establish a sufficient condition for protectedness, we shall need it, even at the level of single events. Therefore we now give algebraic characterisations of traces and events.

Throughout this section we assume a CKA S with $1 \neq 0$. A *subatom* is an element a such that $b \leq a \Rightarrow b = 0 \lor b = a$. A subatom different from 0 is called an atom.

Definition 8.1 An element $t \in S$ is called a *trace* if it is a subatom and join-prime, i.e., if

$$\forall \, a \in S : a \leq t \, \Rightarrow \, a = 0 \, \lor \, a = t \, \, , \\ \forall \, T \, \subseteq \, S : T \neq \emptyset \, \land \, t \leq \sqcup \, T \, \Rightarrow \, \exists \, a \in T : t \leq a \, \, .$$

The set of all traces is denoted by TR(S). For b in S the set of traces of b is

$$TR(b) =_{df} \{a \in TR(S) \mid a \leq b\}$$
.

By this definition 0 is a trace. The traces different from 0 would be called atoms in lattice theory (e.g. [3]). Admitting also 0 as a trace saves a number of case distinctions. It is immediate that every trace a is +-irreducible, i.e.,

$$a = b + c \Rightarrow b = a \lor c = a$$
.

Moreover, if a is a trace and $b \le a$ then b is a trace again. In particular, if a * b is a trace then by Lemma 4.6(3) also a ; b is a trace.

In our concrete model the abstract traces different from 0 correspond to singleton programs.

Definition 8.2 In a CKA S we define a relation \sqsubseteq by

$$a \sqsubseteq b \Leftrightarrow_{df} \exists c : b = a * c$$
.

To investigate its properties we need

Definition 8.3 A subset $E \subseteq S$ is well behaved if the following conditions hold (for $a, b, c \in E$):

- (a) $1 \in E$.
- (b) $E * E \subseteq E$.
- (c) * is cancellative on E, i.e., $a*b \neq 0 \land a*b = a*c \implies b = c$.
- (d) 1 is *-irreducible in E, i.e., $1 = a * b \Rightarrow a = 1 \lor b = 1$.

Lemma 8.4

1. \sqsubseteq is a preorder, i.e., reflexive and transitive.

Assume now that $E \subseteq S$ is well behaved. Then we have the following additional properties.

- 2. \sqsubseteq is antisymmetric on E.
- 3. 1 is the \sqsubseteq -least element of E.
- 4. If $0 \in E$ then it is the \sqsubseteq -greatest element of E.

Proof. 1. Reflexivity follows by choosing c = 1 in the definition of \sqsubseteq .

For transitivity assume $a \sqsubseteq b$ and $b \sqsubseteq c$, say b = a * d and c = b * e. Then c = (a * d) * e = a * (d * e).

2. Assume $a \sqsubseteq b$ and $b \sqsubseteq a$. If a = 0 then b = 0 follows form the definition of $a \sqsubseteq b$, since 0 is an annihilator for *. Otherwise let b = a * c and a = b * d. Then a * 1 = a = b * d = a * c * d, hence 1 = c * d by cancellativity. Now, irreducibility of 1 implies $c = 1 \lor d = 1$ and hence c = 1 = d, showing a = b.

3. and (4) are straightforward from the definition of \sqsubseteq , neutrality of 1 and annihilation of 0.

In our concrete model, the set E of singleton programs is well behaved and the relation \sqsubseteq is isomorphic to the subset relation on concrete traces.

Assume now that E is well behaved and hence \sqsubseteq is a partial order on E. The supremum of a subset $D \subseteq E$ w.r.t. \sqsubseteq , if existent, is denoted by $\circledast D$.

Lemma 8.5 If $0 \in D \subseteq E$ then 0 = (*)D.

This is immediate from the definition of \sqsubseteq and suprema.

Definition 8.6 Assume that E is well behaved. Then $e \in E$ is called an E-event if it is subatomic and join-prime w.r.t. \sqsubseteq , i.e., if

$$\forall\, d\in E: d\sqsubseteq e \,\Rightarrow\, d=1\,\vee\, d=e\,\,,$$

$$\forall\, D\subseteq E: D\neq\emptyset\,\wedge\, \circledast D \text{ exists } \Rightarrow\, (t\sqsubseteq\circledast D\,\Rightarrow\, \exists\, d\in D: t\sqsubseteq d)\,\,.$$

By this definition 1 is an E-event, as is 0 if $0 \in E$. The E-events different from 0, 1 are atoms w.r.t. \sqsubseteq in E. Clearly, every E-event a is *-irreducible in E:

$$a = b * c \Rightarrow b = a \lor c = a$$
.

To put things into perspective, we note that the order \sqsubseteq corresponds to the well-known divisibility order on the natural numbers and E-events play the same rôle as the prime numbers.

Definition 8.7 A CKA S is event-based if the following properties hold:

- (a) 1 is a trace.
- (b) Every element is the supremum of its traces, i.e., for all $a \in S$ we have $a = \coprod TR(a)$.
- (c) The set TR(S) of traces is well behaved. By EV(S) we denote the set of TR(S)-events and call them the *events* of S. The set of events of trace t is

$$EV(t) =_{df} \{e \in EV(S) \mid e \sqsubseteq t\}$$
.

- (d) The set TR(S) of traces is a complete lattice w.r.t. \sqsubseteq and every trace is the supremum of its events, i.e., for all $t \in TR(S)$ we have $t = \circledast EV(t)$.
- (e) For all events e we have e * e = 0 and hence e; e = 0.

For an arbitrary $a \in S$ we then set $EV(a) =_{df} \bigcup_{t \in TR(a)} EV(t)$.

Hence our concrete model of programs forms an event-based CKA. Event-based CKAs are quite similar to the feature algebras developed in [12] for the description of product families.

The definition of an event-based CKA S immediately yields

Lemma 8.8

- 1. EV(0) = EV(S).
- 2. $EV(1) = \{1\}.$
- 3. For traces a, b with $a * b \neq 0$ we have $EV(a * b) = EV(a) \cup EV(b)$ and hence $a * b = \{ \} \{ a, b \}.$

8.1 Abstract Dependence and Protection

In this section we define an abstract counterpart to the dependence relation and use it to give an intuitive sufficient criterion for protectedness. For it we need an abstract formulation of the dependence relation.

Definition 8.9 We call element a sequentially independent of element b, in signs $a \neq b$, if $a * b \leq a$; b.

The following properties are shown by straightforward calculation and, in the last case, by Theorem 5.6:

Lemma 8.10

- 1. $0 \neq a \text{ and } a \neq 0$.
- 2. $1 \leftrightarrow a \text{ and } a \leftrightarrow 1$.
- 3. $a \nleftrightarrow c \land b \nleftrightarrow c \Rightarrow (a+b) \nleftrightarrow c$.
- 4. $a \nleftrightarrow b \land a \nleftrightarrow c \Rightarrow a \nleftrightarrow (b+c)$.
- 5. If r is an invariant then $r \leftarrow r$.

Part 5 shows that for general programs this notion behaves in an unexpected way. However, in our concrete model it works fine for singleton programs:

$$\{tp\} \not \leftarrow \{tq\} \;\; \Leftrightarrow \;\; \forall \, p \in tp, q \in tq : \neg (p \leftarrow q) \ .$$

In particular, $[p] \neq [q] \Leftrightarrow \neg (p \leftarrow q)$. This motivates the following

Definition 8.11 In an event-based CKA we define the dependence relation between events e, f by

$$e \to f \Leftrightarrow_{df} \neg (f \nleftrightarrow e) \Leftrightarrow f; e \neq f * e$$
.

We denote the converse of \to by \leftarrow . We say that the algebra respects dependence if $e \leftarrow f \ \Rightarrow \ e \ ; f = 0.$

Lemma 8.12 Consider traces tp, tq of an event-based CKA that respects dependence.

- 1. If $p \to q$ for some $p \in EV(tp)$ and $q \in EV(tq)$ then tp ; tq = 0.
- 2. If $tp * tq \neq 0$ then

$$tp \nleftrightarrow tq \Leftrightarrow \forall p \in EV(tp), q \in EV(tq) : p \nleftrightarrow q$$
.

Proof. 1. By additivity of ; we have tp; $tq = \Re\{u; v \mid u \in EV(tp), v \in EV(tq)\}$ and the claim follows from Lemma 8.5.

- 2. (\Leftarrow) Immediate from event-basedness and additivity of * and ;.
 - (\Rightarrow) By Part 1 we have p; $q \neq 0$ for all $p \in EV(tp)$ and $q \in EV(tq)$. Since TR(S) is assumed to be well behaved, also p * q is a trace, and from p; $q \leq p * q$ it follows that p; q = p * q.

With these prerequisites it is now possible to completely replay the proof of Theorem 6.1 in the abstract setting of event-based CKAs; we omit the details.

9 Related Work and Outlook

Our basic model and its algebraic abstraction by CKAs reflect a non-interleaving view of concurrency and hence rather falls into the class of partial-order models for true concurrency, which is also shown by the discussion after Theorem 6.1. Nevertheless, as detailed in [10], there are certain connections to interleaving-based process algebras such as ACP, CCS, CSP, mCRL2 and the π -calculus. Moreover, [10] provides a discussion of the relation of our approach to some to the more prominent representatives of partial order-semantics.

Recently, Prisacariu has proposed synchronous Kleene algebra (SKA) [21]. Conceptually, it seems to be an interesting special case of ours, useful when communication between threads is synchronised. Semantically, Prisacariu's model is based on languages formed by strings of sets of letters; e.g., a, b, cad, eb is a string. The letters in each set model actions that are executed in parallel. Besides the usual regular operations, an operation of synchronous parallel composition on strings is defined similarly to a zip in functional programming, and lifted to a

complex product at the language level. It is shown that the language models are the free algebras in the class of SKAs. At the axiomatic level, parallel composition interacts with sequential composition via an equational strengthening of the exchange law (4). Our model cannot satisfy such an equational form of the exchange law, because our sequential and concurrent compositions have the same unit, and the exchange equation would make the compositions identical. CKAs are more general also in that they cover also asynchronous models and interleaving semantics. An additional minor difference is that the axiomatisation of SKAs is purely based on Kozen's first-order axiomatisation[14,15], and not on quantales. Hence it can be fully treated with first-order theorem provers.

Although CKA is not a direct abstraction of the familiar concurrency calculi, we envisage that many of them can be mapped into our basic model of programs and its abstraction CKA. A first experiment along these lines is a trace model of a core subset of the π -calculus in [11]. Moreover, the study [9] shows how to apply the trace model in a unified description of the various phenomena arising in concurrent programs operating on shared/private and weakly/strongly consistent memory, communicating in a synchronised or buffered way, and using dynamic/nested and disposed/collected resources. Further studies will concern the elaboration of these ideas.

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A Axiom Systems

For ease of reference we summarise the algebraic structures employed in the paper.

- 1. A semiring is a structure $(S, +, 0, \cdot, 1)$ such that (S, +, 0) is a commutative monoid, $(S, \cdot, 1)$ is a monoid, multiplication distributes over addition in both arguments and 0 is a left and right annihilator with respect to multiplication $(a \cdot 0 = 0 = 0 \cdot a)$. A semiring is *idempotent* if its addition is.
- 2. A quantale [19] or standard Kleene algebra [5] is an idempotent semiring that is a complete lattice under the natural order and in which composition distributes over arbitrary suprema. The infimum and the supremum of a subset T are denoted by $\sqcap T$ and $\sqcup T$, respectively. Their binary variants are $x \sqcap y$ and $x \sqcup y$ (the latter coinciding with x + y).
- 3. A concurrent Kleene algebra (CKA) is a structure (S,+,0,*,;,1) such that (S,+,0,*,1) and (S,+,0,;,1) are quantales linked by the exchange axiom

$$(a*b); (c*d) \le (b;c)*(a;d)$$
.

4. A CKA with invariants $(S, +, 0, *, ;, 1, \iota)$ consists of a CKA (S, +, 0, *, ;, 1) and a closure operator $\iota: S \to S$ that additionally satisfies, for all $a, b \in S$,

$$1 \le \iota a$$
, $\iota (a * b) \le \iota (a + b)$.

An invariant is an element $a \in S$ with $\iota a = a$.

5. A rely/guarantee-CKA [10] is a pair (S, I) such that S is a CKA and $I \subseteq I(S)$ is a set of invariants, i.e. of elements r satisfying $r = r^*$, such that $1 \in I$ and for all $r, r' \in I$ also $r \sqcap r' \in I$ and $r * r' \in I$. Moreover, all $r \in I$ and $a, b \in S$ have to satisfy

$$r * (a; b) \le (r * a); (r * b)$$
.