Isabelle/UTP Tutorial

Simon Foster

Frank Zeyda

April 26, 2019

Contents

1	Isat	belle/UTP Primer	1
	1.1	State-spaces and Lenses	2
	1.2	Predicate Calculus	
	1.3	Meta-logical Operators	
	1.4	Relations	
	1.5	Non-determinism and Complete Lattices	
	1.6	Laws of Programming	
	1.7	Designs	
	1.8	Reactive Designs	
2	Example UTP theory: Boyle's laws		
	2.1	Static invariant	11
	2.2	Dynamic invariants	
3	Simple Buffer in UTP CSP		
	3.1	Definitions	14
	3.2	Calculations	
	3.3	Verifications	
4	Mini-mondex example		
	4.1	Types and Statespace	16
	4.2	Actions	
		· - · · -	
	4.2 4.3 4.4	Pre/peri/post calculations	

1 Isabelle/UTP Primer

In this section, we will introduce Hoare and He's Unifying Theories of Programming [7] through a tutorial about our mechanisation, in Isabelle, called Isabelle/UTP [5, 3, 9]. The UTP is a framework for building and reasoning about heterogeneous semantics of programming and modelling languages. One of the core ideas of the UTP is that any program (or model) can be represented as a logical predicate over the program's state variables. The UTP thus begins from a higher-order logical core, and constructs a semantics for imperative relational programs, which can then be refined and extended with more complex language paradigms and theories. Isabelle/UTP mechanises this language of predicates and relations, and provides proof tactics for solving conjectures. For example, we can prove the following simple conjectures:

```
lemma (true \land false) = false
by pred-auto
lemma (true \Rightarrow P \land P) = P
by (pred-auto)
```

We discharge these using our predicate calculus tactic, *pred-auto*. It should be noted that *true*, *false*, and the conjunction operator are not simply the HOL operators; rather they act on on our UTP predicate type (' α upred).

1.1 State-spaces and Lenses

Predicates in the UTP are alphabetised, meaning they specify beheaviours in terms of a collection of variables, the alphabet, which effectively gives a state-space for a particular program. Thus the type of UTP predicates ' α upred is parametric in the alphabet ' α . In Isabelle/UTP we can create a particular state-space with the **alphabet** command:

```
alphabet myst = 
 x :: int
 y :: int
 z :: int set
```

This command creates an alphabet with three variables, x, y, and z, each of which has a defined type. A new Isabelle type is created, myst, which can be then used as the parameter for our predicate model, e.g. myst upred. In the context of our mechanisation, such variables are represented using lenses [5, 4]. A lens, $X:V\Longrightarrow S$, is a pair of functions, $get:V\to S$ and $put:S\to V\to S$, where S is the source type, and V is the view type. The source type represents a "larger" type that can in some sense be subdivided, and the view type a particular region of the source that can be observed and manipulated independently of the rest of the source.

In Isabelle/UTP, the source type is the state space, and the view type is the variable type. For instance, we here have that x has type $int \implies myst$ and z has type $int set \implies myst$. Thus, performing an assignment to x equates to application of the put function, and looking up the present valuation is application of the get function.

Since the different variable characterise different regions of the state space we can distinguish them using the independence predicate $x \bowtie z$. Two lenses are independent if they characterise disjoint regions of the source type. In this case we can prove that the two variables are different using the simplifier:

```
\mathbf{lemma} \ x \bowtie z
\mathbf{by} \ simp
```

However, we cannot prove, for example, that $x \bowtie x$ of course since the same region of the state-space is characterised by both. Lenses thus provide us with a semantic characterisation of variables, rather than a syntactic notion. For more background on this use of lenses please see our recent paper [5].

1.2 Predicate Calculus

We can now use this characterisation of variables to define predicates in Isabelle/UTP, for example & $y <_u \& x$, which corresponds to all valuations of the state-space in which x is greater than y. Often we have to annotate our variables to help Isabelle understand that we are referring

to UTP variables, and not, for example, HOL logical variables. In this case we have to decorate the names with an ampersand. Moreover, we often have to annotate operators with u subscripts to denote that they refer to the UTP version of the operator, and not the HOL version. We can now write down and prove a simple proof goal:

```
lemma '(\&x =_u 8 \land \&y =_u 5) \Rightarrow \&x >_u \&y'
by (pred\text{-}auto)
```

The backticks denote that we are writing an tautology. Effectively this goal tells us that x = 8 and y = 5 are valid valuations for the predicate. Conversely the following goal is not provable.

```
lemma '(\&x =_u 5 \land \&y =_u 5) \Rightarrow \&x >_u \&y'
apply (pred\text{-}simp) — Results in False
oops
```

We can similarly quantify over UTP variables as the following two examples illustrate.

```
lemma (\exists x \cdot \&x >_u \&y) = true
by (pred\text{-}simp, presburger)
lemma (\forall x \cdot \&x >_u \&y) = false
by (pred\text{-}auto)
```

The first goal states that for any given valuation of y there is a valuation of x which is greater. Predicate calculus alone is insufficient to prove this and so we can also use Isabelle's sledgehammer tool [1] which attempts to solve the goal using an array of automated theorem provers and SMT solvers. In this case it finds that Isabelle's tactic for Presburger arithmetic can solve the goal. In this second case we have a goal which states that every valuation of x is greater than a given valuation of y. Of course, this isn't the case and so we can prove the goal is equivalent to false.

1.3 Meta-logical Operators

In addition to predicate calculus operators, we also often need to assert meta-logical properties about a predicate, such as "variable x is not present in predicate P". In Isabelle/UTP we assert this property using the *unrestriction* operator, e.g. $x \sharp true$. Here are some examples of its use, including discharge using our tactic *unrest-tac*.

```
lemma x \sharp true
by (unrest\text{-}tac)
lemma x \sharp (\&y >_u 6)
by (unrest\text{-}tac)
lemma x \sharp (\forall x \cdot \&x =_u \&y)
by (unrest\text{-}tac)
```

The tactic attempts to prove the unrestriction using a set of built-in unrestriction laws that exist for every operator of the calculus. The final example is interesting, because it shows we are not dealing with a syntactic property but rather a semantic one. Typically, one would describe the (non-)presence of variables syntactically, by checking if the syntax tree of P refers to x. In this case we are actually checking whether the valuation of P depends on x or not. In other words, if we can rewrite P to a form where x is not present, but P is otherwise equivalent, then x is unrestricted – it can take any value. The following example illustrates this:

```
lemma x \sharp (\&x <_u 5 \lor \&x =_u 5 \lor \&x >_u 5)
```

```
by (pred-auto)
```

Of course, if x is either less than 5, equal to 5, or greater than 5 then x can take any value and the predicate will still be satisfied. Indeed this predicate is actually equal to true and thus x is unrestricted. We will often use unrestriction to encode necessary side conditions on algebraic laws of programming.

In addition to presence of variables, we will often want to substitute a variable for an expression. We write this using the familiar syntax P[v/x], and also $P[v_1,v_2,v_3/x_1,x_2,x_3]$ for an arbitrary number of expressions and variables. We can evaluate substitutions using the tactic *subst-tac* as the following examples show:

```
lemma (\&y =_u \&x)[2/x] = (\&y =_u 2)
by (subst-tac)
lemma (\&y =_u \&x \land \&y \in_u \&z)[2/y] = (2 =_u \&x \land 2 \in_u \&z)
by (subst-tac)
lemma (\exists \&x \cdot \&x \in_u \&z)[76/\&x] = (\exists \&x \cdot \&x \in_u \&z)
by (subst-tac)
lemma true[1,2/\&x,\&y] = true
by (subst-tac)
```

We can also, of course, combine substitution and predicate calculus to prove conjectures containing substitutions. Below, we prove a theorem in two steps, first applying the substitution, and then secondly utilising predicate calculus. Note the need to add the type coercion: 1 – this is because both 1 and 2 are polymorphic (e.g. they can also have type real), and thus explicit types must be added.

```
lemma (\&x =_u 1 \land \&y =_u \&x)[2/x] = false (is ?lhs = ?rhs) proof – have ?lhs = (2 =_u (1 :_u int) \land \&y =_u 2) by (subst-tac) also have ... = ?rhs by (pred-auto) finally show ?thesis . ged
```

Isabelle/UTP also supports a more general notation for substitutions, where-by variable maplets can be considered as explicit objects that correspond to functions on the state-space. For example, $[\&x\mapsto_s 1, \&y\mapsto_s 2]$ is a substitution that replaces x with 1 and y with 2. Such substitution functions (σ) can be applied to an expression or predicate using the dagger operator: $\sigma \dagger P$. Thus, we can perform the following simplification:

```
lemma [\&x \mapsto_s 1, \&y \mapsto_s 2] \dagger (\&x <_u \&y) = ((1:_u int) <_u 2) by (subst-tac)
```

This notation thus allows us to deal with state space much more flexibly. The more standard notation P[v/x] is in fact syntactic sugar to application of the singleton substitution function $[x \mapsto_s v]$.

So far, we have considered UTP predicates which contain only UTP variables. However it is possible to have another kind of variable – a logical HOL variable which is sometimes known as a "logical constant" [8]. Such variables are not program or model variables, but they simply exist to assert logical properties of a predicate. The next two examples compare UTP and HOL variables in a quantification.

```
lemma (\forall x \cdot \&x =_u \&x) = true
by (pred\text{-}auto)
lemma (\forall x \cdot «x» =_u «x») = true
```

The first quantification is a quantification of a UTP variable, which we've already encountered. The second is a quantifier over a HOL variable, denoted by the quantifier being bold. In addition we refer to HOL variables, not using the ampersand, but the quotes $\ll k \gg$. These quotes allow us to insert an arbitrary HOL term into a UTP expression, such as a logical variable.

1.4 Relations

by (pred-auto)

Relations, $('\alpha, '\beta)$ urel, are a class of predicate in which the state space is a product – i.e. $('\alpha, '\beta)$ urel – and divides the variables into input or "before" variables and output or "after" variables. In Isabelle/UTP we can write down a relational variable using the dollar notation, as illustrated below:

term
$$(\$x' =_u 1 \land \$y' =_u \$y \land \$z' =_u \$z) :: myst hrel$$

Type ' α hrel is the type of homogeneous relations, which have the same before and after state. This example relation can be intuitively thought of as the relation which sets x to 1 and leaves the other two variables unchanged. We would normally refer to this as an assignment of course, and for convenience we can write such a predicate using a more convenient syntax, x := 1, which is equivalent:

lemma
$$(x := 1) = ((\$x' =_u 1 \land \$y' =_u \$y \land \$z' =_u \$z) :: myst hrel)$$
 by $(rel-auto)$

Since we are now in the world of relations, we have an additional tactic called *rel-auto* that solves conjectures in relational calculus. We can use relational variables to write to loose specifications for programs, and then prove that a given program is a refinement. Refinement is an order on programs that allows us to assert that a program refines a given specification, for example:

lemma
$$(\$x'>_u \$y) \sqsubseteq (x, y) := ((\&y + 3), 5)$$
 by $(rel-auto)$

This tells us that the specification that the after value of x must be greater than the initial value of y, is refined by the program which adds 3 to y and assigns this to x, and simultaneously assigns 5 to y. Of course, this is not the only refinement, but an interesting one. A refinement conjecture $P \sqsubseteq Q$ in general asserts that Q is more deterministic than P. In addition to assignments, we can also construct relational specifications and programs using sequential (or relational) composition:

lemma
$$x := 1$$
 ;; $x := (\&x + 1) = x := 2$ **by** $(rel-auto)$

Internally, what is happening here is quite subtle, so we can also prove this law in the Isar proof scripting language which allows us to further expose the details of the argument. In this proof we will make use of both the tactic and already proven laws of programming from Isabelle/UTP.

```
lemma x := 1 ;; x := (\&x + 1) = x := 2 proof -
```

— We first show that a relational composition of an assignment and some program P corresponds to substitution of the assignment into P, which is proved using the law assigns-r-comp.

have
$$x := 1$$
 ;; $x := (\&x + 1) = (x := (\&x + 1))[1/\$x]$

```
by (simp\ add:\ assigns-r-comp\ alpha\ usubst)
— Next we execute the substitution using the relational calculus tactic.

also have ... = x := (1+1)
by (rel-auto)
— Finally by evaluation of the expression, we obtain the desired result of 2.

also have ... = x := 2
by (simp)
finally show ?thesis.
```

UTP also gives us an if-then-else conditional construct, written $P \triangleleft b \triangleright Q$, which is a more concise way of writing **if** b **then** P **else** Q. It also allows the expression of while loops, which gives us a simple imperative programming language.

```
lemma (x := 1 ;; (y := 7 \triangleleft \$x >_u 0 \triangleright y := 8)) = (x,y) := (1,7) by (rel-auto)
```

Below is an illustration of how we can express a simple while loop in Isabelle/UTP.

```
term (x,y) := (3,1);; while (\&x>_u 0) do x := \&x - 1;; y := \&y * 2 od
```

1.5 Non-determinism and Complete Lattices

So far we have considered only deterministic programming operators. However, one of the key feature of the UTP is that it allows non-deterministic specifications. Determinism is ordered by the refinement order $P \sqsubseteq Q$, which states that P is more deterministic that Q, or alternatively that Q makes fewer commitments than P. The refinement order $P \sqsubseteq Q$ corresponds to a universally closed implication $Q \Rightarrow P$. The most deterministic specification is false, which also corresponds to a miraculous program, and the least is true, as the following theorems demonstrate.

```
theorem false-greatest: P \sqsubseteq false
by (rel-auto)
theorem true-least: true \sqsubseteq P
by (rel-auto)
```

In this context *true* corresponds to a programmer error, such as an aborting or non-terminating program (the theory of relations does not distinguish these). We can similarly specify a non-deterministic choice between P and Q with $P \sqcap Q$, or alternatively $\prod A$ where A is a set of possible behaviours. Predicate $P \sqcap Q$ encapsulates the behaviours of both P and Q, and is thus refined by both. We can also prove a variety of theorems about non-deterministic choice.

```
theorem Choice-equiv:

fixes P \ Q :: '\alpha \ upred

shows \prod \{P, \ Q\} = P \sqcap Q

by simp
```

Theorem *Choice-equiv* shows the relationship between the big choice operator and its binary equivalent. The latter is simply a choice over a set with two elements.

```
theorem Choice-refine:

fixes A B :: '\alpha \ upred \ set

assumes B \subseteq A

shows \prod A \sqsubseteq \prod B

by (simp \ add: Sup\text{-subset-mono } assms)
```

The intuition of theorem *Choice-refine* is that a specification with more options is refined by one with less options. We can also prove a number of theorems about the binary version of the operator.

```
theorem choice-thms: fixes P \ Q :: '\alpha \ upred shows P \ \sqcap P = P P \ \sqcap Q = Q \ \sqcap P (P \ \sqcap Q) \ \sqcap R = P \ \sqcap (Q \ \sqcap R) P \ \sqcap true = true P \ \sqcap false = P P \ \sqcap Q \ \sqsubseteq P by (simp-all \ add: \ lattice-class.inf-sup-aci \ true-upred-def \ false-upred-def)
```

Non-deterministic choice is idempotent, meaning that a choice between P and P is no choice. It is also commutative and associative. If we make a choice between P and true then the erroneous behaviour signified by the latter is always chosen. Thus our operator is a so-called "demonic choice" since the worst possibility is always picked. Similarly, if a choice is made between P and a miracle (false) then P is always chosen in order to avoid miracles. Finally, the choice between P and Q can always be refined by removing one of the possibilities.

Since predicates form a complete lattice, then by the Knaster-Tarski theorem the set of fixed points of a monotone function F is also a complete lattice. In particular, this complete lattice has a weakest and strongest element which can be calculated using the notations μ F and ν F, respectively. Such fixed point constructions are of particular use for expressing recursive and iterative constructions. Isabelle/HOL provides a number of laws for reasoning about fixed points, a few of which are detailed below.

```
theorem mu\text{-}id: (\mu\ X\cdot X)=true
by (simp\ add:\ mu\text{-}id)
theorem nu\text{-}id: (\nu\ X\cdot X)=false
by (simp\ add:\ nu\text{-}id)
theorem mu\text{-}unfold: mono\ F\Longrightarrow (\mu\ X\cdot F(X))=F(\mu\ X\cdot F(X))
by (simp\ add:\ def\text{-}gfp\text{-}unfold)
theorem nu\text{-}unfold: mono\ F\Longrightarrow (\nu\ X\cdot F(X))=F(\nu\ X\cdot F(X))
by (simp\ add:\ def\text{-}lfp\text{-}unfold)
```

Perhaps of most interest are the unfold laws, also known as the "copy rule", that allows the function body F of the fixed point equation to be expanded once. These state that, provided that the body of the fixed point is a monotone function, then the body can be copied to the outside. These can be used to prove equivalent laws for operators like the while loop.

1.6 Laws of Programming

Although we have some primitive tactics for proving conjectures in the predicate and relational calculi, in order to build verification tools for programs we need a set of algebraic "laws of programming" [6] that describe important theoretical properties of the operators. Isabelle/UTP contains several hundred examples of such laws, and we here outline a few of them.

```
theorem seq-assoc: (P ;; Q) ;; R = P ;; (Q ;; R) by (rel-auto)
```

```
theorem seq-unit:

P :; II = P

II :; P = P

by (rel-auto)+

theorem seq-zero:

P :; false = false

false :; P = false

by (rel-auto)+
```

Sequential composition is associative, has the operator II as its left and right unit, and false as its left and right zeros. The II operator is a form of assignment which simply identifies all the variables between the before and after state, as the following example demonstrates.

```
\mathbf{lemma} \ x := \& x = II
\mathbf{by} \ (rel-auto)
```

In the context of relations, *false* denotes the empty relation, and is usually used to represent a miraculous program. This is intuition of it being a left and right zero: if a miracle occurred then the whole of the program collapses. The conditional $P \triangleleft b \triangleright Q$ also has a number of algebraic laws that we can prove.

```
theorem cond-true: P \triangleleft true \triangleright Q = P
by (rel\text{-}auto)
theorem cond-false: P \triangleleft false \triangleright Q = Q
by (rel\text{-}auto)
theorem cond-commute: (P \triangleleft \neg b \triangleright Q) = (Q \triangleleft b \triangleright P)
by (rel\text{-}auto)
theorem cond-shadow: (P \triangleleft b \triangleright Q) \triangleleft b \triangleright R = P \triangleleft b \triangleright R
by (rel\text{-}auto)
```

A conditional with true or false as its condition presents no choice. A conditional can also be commuted by negating the condition. Finally, a conditional within a conditional over the same condition, b, presents and unreachable branch. Thus the inner branch can be pruned away. We next prove some useful laws about assignment:

```
theorem assign-commute:

assumes x \bowtie y \ y \ \sharp \ e \ x \ \sharp \ f

shows x := e;; \ y := f = y := f \ ;; \ x := e

using assms by (rel\text{-}auto)

theorem assign-twice:

shows x := \langle e \rangle ;; \ x := \langle f \rangle = x := \langle f \rangle

by (rel\text{-}auto)

theorem assign-null:

assumes x \bowtie y

shows (x, y) := (e, \& y) = x := e

using assms by (rel\text{-}auto)
```

Assignments can commute provided that the two variables are independent, and the expressions being assigned do not depend on the variable of the other assignment. A sequence of assignments to the same variable is equal to the second assignment, provided that the two expressions are

both literals, i.e. $\ll e \gg$. Finally, in a multiple assignment, if one of the variables is assigned to itself then this can be hidden, provided the two variables are independent.

Since alphabetised relations form a complete lattice, we can denote iterative constructions like the while loop which is defined as $while_{\perp}$ b do P od = (μ $X \cdot P$;; $X \triangleleft b \triangleright_r II$). We can then prove some common laws about iteration.

```
theorem while-false: while \bot false do P od = II by (simp\ add:\ while-bot-false)
theorem while-unfold: while \bot b do P od = (P\ ;;\ while \bot b do P od) \triangleleft b \triangleright_r II using while-bot-unfold by blast
```

As we have seen, the predicate true represents the erroneous program. For loops, we have it that a non-terminating program equates to true, as the following example demonstrates.

```
lemma while_{\perp} true do x := (&x + 1) od = true by (simp\ add:\ assigns-r-feasible\ while-infinite)
```

A program should not be able to recover from non-termination, of course, and therefore it ought to be the case that true is a left zero for sequential composition: true;; P = true. However this is not the case as the following examples illustrate:

```
lemma true ;; P = true apply (rel\text{-}simp) nitpick — Counterexample found oops
lemma true ;; (x,y,z) := (\ll c_1 \gg, \ll c_2 \gg, \ll c_3 \gg) = ((x,y,z) := (\ll c_1 \gg, \ll c_2 \gg, \ll c_3 \gg) :: myst hrel) by (rel\text{-}auto)
```

The latter gives an example of a relation for which true is actually a left unit rather than a left zero. The assignment $\langle [\&x \mapsto_s \ll c_1 \gg, \&y \mapsto_s \ll c_2 \gg, \&z \mapsto_s \ll c_3 \gg] \rangle_a$ does not depend on any before variables, and thus it is insensitive to a non-terminating program preceding it. Thus we can see that the theory of relations alone is insufficient to handle non-termination.

1.7 Designs

by (rel-blast)

Though we now have a theory of UTP relations with which can form simple programs, as we have seen this theory experiences some problems. A UTP design, $P \vdash_r Q$, is a relational specification in terms of assumption P and commitment Q. Such a construction states that, if P holds and the program is allowed to execute, then the program will terminate and satisfy its commitment Q. If P is not satisfied then the program will abort yielding the predicate true. For example the design $(\$x \neq_u 0) \vdash_r y := \& y \ div \& x$ represents a program which, assuming that $x \neq 0$ assigns y divided by x to y.

```
lemma dex1: (true \vdash_r (x,y) := (2,6)) ;; ((\$x \neq_u 0) \vdash_r (y := (\&y \ div \ \&x))) = true \vdash_r x,y := 2,3

by (rel-auto, fastforce+)

lemma dex2: (true \vdash_r (x,y) := (0,4)) ;; ((\$x \neq_u 0) \vdash_r y := (\&y \ div \ \&x)) = true
```

The first example shows the result of pre-composing this design with another design that has a true assumption, and assigns 2 and 6 to x and y respectively. Since x satisfies $x \neq 0$, then the design executes and changes y to 3. In the second example 0 is assigned to x, which leads to the design aborting. Unlike with relations, designs do have true as a left zero:

```
theorem design-left-zero: true ;; (P \vdash_r Q) = true
by (simp\ add:\ H1\text{-left-zero}\ H1\text{-rdesign}\ Healthy\text{-def})
```

Thus designs allow us to properly handle programmer error, such as non-termination.

The design turnstile is defined using two observational variables ok, ok': \mathbb{B} , which are used to represent whether a program has been (ok) and whether it has terminated (ok'). Specifically, a design $P \vdash Q$ is defined as $(ok \land P) \Rightarrow (ok' \land Q)$. This means that if the program was started (ok) and satisfied its assumption (P), then it will terminate (ok') and satisfy its commitment (Q). For more on the theory of designs please see the associated tutorial [2].

1.8 Reactive Designs

A reactive design, \mathbf{R}_s ($P \vdash Q$), is a specialised form of design which is reactive in nature. Whereas designs represents programs that start and terminate, reactive designs also have intermediate "waiting" states. In such a state the reactive design is waiting for something external to occur before it can continue, such as receiving a message or waiting for sufficient time to pass as measured by a clock. When waiting, a reactive design has not terminated, but neither is it an infinite loop or some other error state.

Reactive designs have two additional pair of observational variables:

- $wait, wait' : \mathbb{B}$ denote whether the predecessor is in a waiting state, and whether the current program is a waiting state;
- $tr, tr' : \mathcal{T}$ denotes the interaction history using a suitable trace type \mathcal{T} .

For more details on reactive designs please see the associated tutorial [2].

2 Example UTP theory: Boyle's laws

In order to exemplify the use of Isabelle/UTP, we mechanise a simple theory representing Boyle's law. Boyle's law states that, for an ideal gas at fixed temperature, pressure p is inversely proportional to volume V, or more formally that for k = p * V is invariant, for constant k. We here encode this as a simple UTP theory. We first create a record to represent the alphabet of the theory consisting of the three variables k, p and V.

```
alphabet boyle =
  k :: real
  p :: real
  V :: real

type-synonym boyle-rel = boyle hrel
declare boyle.splits [alpha-splits]
```

The two locale interpretations below are a technicality to improve automatic proof support via the predicate and relational tactics. This is to enable the (re-)interpretation of state spaces to remove any occurrences of lens types after the proof tactics *pred-simp* and *rel-simp*, or any of their derivatives have been applied. Eventually, it would be desirable to automate both interpretations as part of a custom outer command for defining alphabets.

```
interpretation boyle-prd: — Closed records are sufficient here. lens-interp \lambda r::boyle. (k_v \ r, \ p_v \ r, \ V_v \ r)
```

2.1 Static invariant

We first create a simple UTP theory representing Boyle's laws on a single state, as a static invariant healthiness condition. We state Boyle's law using the function B, which recalculates the value of the constant k based on p and V.

```
definition B(\varphi) = ((\exists k \cdot \varphi) \land (\&k =_u \&p * \&V))
```

We can then prove that B is both idempotent and monotone simply by application of the predicate tactic. Idempotence means that healthy predicates cannot be made more healthy. Together with idempotence, monotonicity ensures that image of the healthiness functions forms a complete lattice, which is useful to allow the representation of recursive and iterative constructions with the theory.

```
lemma B-idempotent: B(B(P)) = B(P)
by pred-auto
lemma B-monotone: X \sqsubseteq Y \Longrightarrow B(X) \sqsubseteq B(Y)
by pred-blast
```

We also create some example observations; the first (φ_1) satisfies Boyle's law and the second doesn't (φ_2) .

```
definition \varphi_1 = ((\&p =_u 10) \land (\&V =_u 5) \land (\&k =_u 50))
definition \varphi_2 = ((\&p =_u 10) \land (\&V =_u 5) \land (\&k =_u 100))
```

We first prove an obvious property: that these two predicates are different observations. We must show that there exists a valuation of one which is not of the other. This is achieved through application of *pred-tac*, followed by *sledgehammer* [1] which yields a *metis* proof.

```
lemma \varphi_1-diff-\varphi_2: \varphi_1 \neq \varphi_2
by (pred-simp, fastforce)
```

We prove that φ_1 satisfies Boyle's law by application of the predicate calculus tactic, pred-tac.

```
lemma B-\varphi_1: \varphi_1 is B by (pred-auto)
```

We prove that φ_2 does not satisfy Boyle's law by showing that applying B to it results in φ_1 . We prove this using Isabelle's natural proof language, Isar.

```
lemma B-\varphi_2: B(\varphi_2) = \varphi_1

proof –

have B(\varphi_2) = B(\&p =_u 10 \land \&V =_u 5 \land \&k =_u 100)

by (simp\ add:\ \varphi_2\text{-}def)
```

```
also have ... = ((\exists k \cdot \&p =_u 10 \land \&V =_u 5 \land \&k =_u 100) \land \&k =_u \&p*\&V) by (simp \ add: B\text{-}def) also have ... = (\&p =_u 10 \land \&V =_u 5 \land \&k =_u \&p*\&V) by pred\text{-}auto also have ... = (\&p =_u 10 \land \&V =_u 5 \land \&k =_u 50) by pred\text{-}auto also have ... = \varphi_1 by (simp \ add: \varphi_1\text{-}def) finally show ?thesis.
```

2.2 Dynamic invariants

Next we build a relational theory that allows the pressure and volume to be changed, whilst still respecting Boyle's law. We create two dynamic invariants for this purpose.

```
definition D1(P)=((\$k=_u\$p*\$V\Rightarrow\$k'=_u\$p'*\$V')\wedge P) definition D2(P)=(\$k'=_u\$k\wedge P)
```

D1 states that if Boyle's law satisfied in the previous state, then it should be satisfied in the next state. We define this by conjunction of the formal specification of this property with the predicate. The annotations p and p refer to relational variables p and p. D2 states that the constant k indeed remains constant throughout the evolution of the system, which is also specified as a conjunctive healthiness condition. As before we demonstrate that D1 and D2 are both idempotent and monotone.

```
lemma D1-idempotent: D1(D1(P)) = D1(P) by rel-auto lemma D2-idempotent: D2(D2(P)) = D2(P) by rel-auto lemma D1-monotone: X \sqsubseteq Y \Longrightarrow D1(X) \sqsubseteq D1(Y) by rel-auto lemma D2-monotone: X \sqsubseteq Y \Longrightarrow D2(X) \sqsubseteq D2(Y) by rel-auto
```

Since these properties are relational, we discharge them using our relational calculus tactic rel-tac. Next we specify three operations that make up the signature of the theory.

```
definition InitSys :: real \Rightarrow real \Rightarrow boyle-rel where InitSys ip iV
= [(\ll ip \gg >_u 0 \land \ll iV \gg >_u 0)]^\top ;; (p, V, k) := (\ll ip \gg, \ll iV \gg, (\ll ip \gg *\ll iV \gg))
definition ChPres :: real \Rightarrow boyle-rel where ChPres dp
= ([(\&p + \ll dp \gg >_u 0)]^\top ;; p := (\&p + \ll dp \gg) ;; V := (\&k/\&p))
definition ChVol :: real \Rightarrow boyle-rel where ChVol \ dV
= ([(\&V + \ll dV \gg >_u 0)]^\top ;; V := (\&V + \ll dV \gg) ;; p := (\&k/\&V))
```

InitSys initialises the system with a given initial pressure (ip) and volume (iV). It assumes that both are greater than 0 using the assumption construct ?[c] which equates to II if c is true and false (i.e. errant) otherwise. It then creates a state assignment for p and V, uses the B healthiness condition to make it healthy (by calculating k), and finally turns the predicate into a postcondition using the $\lceil P \rceil_>$ function.

ChPres raises or lowers the pressure based on an input dp. It assumes that the resulting pressure change would not result in a zero or negative pressure, i.e. p + dp > 0. It assigns the updated value to p and recalculates V using the original value of k. ChVol is similar but updates the volume.

```
lemma D1-InitSystem: D1 (InitSys ip iV) = InitSys ip iV by rel-auto
```

InitSys is D1, since it establishes the invariant for the system. However, it is not D2 since it sets the global value of k and thus can change its value. We can however show that both ChPres and ChVol are healthy relations.

```
lemma D1: D1 (ChPres dp) = ChPres dp and D1 (ChVol dV) = ChVol dV by (rel-auto, rel-auto)

lemma D2: D2 (ChPres dp) = ChPres dp and D2 (ChVol dV) = ChVol dV by (rel-auto, rel-auto)
```

Finally we show a calculation a simple animation of Boyle's law, where the initial pressure and volume are set to 10 and 4, respectively, and then the pressure is lowered by 2.

```
lemma ChPres-example:
 (InitSys\ 10\ 4\ ;;\ ChPres\ (-2)) = p, V, k := 8,5,40
proof -
  — InitSys yields an assignment to the three variables
 have InitSys \ 10 \ 4 = p, V, k := 10, 4, 40
   by (rel-auto)
   - This assignment becomes a substitution
 hence (InitSys 10 4 ;; ChPres (-2))
        = (ChPres (-2))[10,4,40/\$p,\$V,\$k]
   by (simp add: assigns-r-comp alpha usubst)
   - Unfold definition of ChPres
 also have ... = ([((\&p - 2) >_u 0)]^{\top} [10,4,40/\$p,\$V,\$k]]
                    p := (\&p - 2) ; V := (\&k / \&p)
   by (simp add: ChPres-def lit-numeral lit-uminus usubst unrest)
 — Unfold definition of assumption
 also have ... = ((p, V, k) := (10, 4, 40) \triangleleft (8 :_u real) >_u 0 \triangleright false)
                p := (\&p - 2) ; V := (\&k / \&p)
   by rel-auto
 — (\theta::'a) < (8::'a) is true; simplify conditional
 also have ... = (p, V, k) := (10, 4, 40) ;; p := (\&p - 2) ;; V := (\&k / \&p)
   by rel-auto
   - Application of both assignments
 also have ... = p, V, k := 8, 5, 40
   by rel-auto
 finally show ?thesis.
qed
hide-const k
hide-const p
hide-const V
```

3 Simple Buffer in UTP CSP

theory utp-csp-buffer

hide-const B

```
\mathbf{imports}\ \mathit{UTP-Circus.utp-circus-easy-parser} \mathbf{begin}
```

3.1 Definitions

A stateful CSP (Circus) process is parametrised over two alphabets: one for the state-space, which consists of the state variables, and one for events, which consists of channels. We first define the statespace using the **alphabet** command. The single state variable buf is a list of natural numbers that is currently in the buffer.

```
alphabet st-buffer =
buff :: nat list
val :: nat
```

Channels are created using the **datatype** command. In this case we can either input a value to go in the buffer, or output one presently in the buffer.

```
\begin{array}{c} \mathbf{datatype} \ \mathit{ch-buffer} = \\ \mathit{inp} \ \mathit{nat} \mid \mathit{outp} \ \mathit{nat} \end{array}
```

We create a useful type to describe an action of the buffer as a CSP action parametrised by the state and event alphabet.

```
type-synonym act-buffer = (st-buffer, ch-buffer) action
```

We define an action that initialises the buffer state by setting it to empty.

```
abbreviation Init :: act\text{-}buffer where Init \equiv buff := []
```

We define the main body of behaviour for the buffer as an abbreviation. We can either input a value and then place it into the buffer, or else, provided that the buffer is non-empty, we can output a value presently in the buffer.

```
abbreviation DoBuff :: act\text{-}buffer where DoBuff \equiv (inp?(val) ;; buff := buff @ [val] \Box \#buff > 0 \&\& outp!(hd(buff)) ;; buff := tl(buff))
```

The main action of the buffer first initialises the single state variable buff, and enters a recursive loop where it does DoBuff over and over.

```
definition Buffer :: act-buffer where [rdes-def]: Buffer = Init ;; while true do DoBuff od
```

 $Init = \mathbf{R}_s(true_r \vdash false \diamond \Phi(true, [\&buff \mapsto_s \langle \rangle], \langle \rangle))$

3.2 Calculations

The $buff := \langle \rangle$ action is represented by a simple contract with a true precondition, false pericondition (i.e. there is no intermediate behaviour), and finally sets the state variable to be empty, whilst leaving the state unchanged. There are no constraints on the initial state.

```
lemma Init-contract:
```

```
by (rdes\text{-}simp)

lemma DoBuff\text{-}contract:
DoBuff = \mathbf{R}_s \ (true_r \vdash \mathcal{E}(true,\langle\rangle, (\prod x \cdot \{(inp\cdot \ll x \gg)_u\}_u) \cup_u \ (\{(outp\cdot head_u(\&buff))_u\}_u \triangleleft 0 <_u \#_u(\&buff) \triangleright \{\}_u))

\diamond
((\prod x \cdot \Phi(true, [\&buff \mapsto_s \&buff \hat{\ }_u \ \langle \ll x \gg \rangle, \ val \mapsto_s \ll x \gg], \langle (inp\cdot \ll x \gg)_u \rangle)) \lor
```

```
\Phi(0 <_u \#_u(\&buff), [\&buff \mapsto_s tail_u(\&buff)], \langle (outp \cdot head_u(\&buff))_u \rangle)))
  by (rdes-eq)
lemma Buffer-contract:
  Buffer = \mathbf{R}_s(true_r \vdash \Phi(true, [\&buff \mapsto_s \langle \rangle], \langle \rangle) ;;
                        ((\bigcap x \cdot \Phi(true, [\&buff \mapsto_s \&buff \mid_u \langle \ll x \gg), val \mapsto_s \ll x \gg], \langle (inp \cdot \ll x \gg)_u \rangle)) \vee
                        \Phi(0 <_u \#_u(\&buff), [\&buff \mapsto_s tail_u(\&buff)], \langle (outp \cdot head_u(\&buff))_u \rangle))^{\star c};;
                        \mathcal{E}(true,\langle\rangle, (\bigcap x \cdot \{(inp\cdot \ll x \gg)_u\}_u) \cup_u (\{(outp\cdot head_u(\&buff))_u\}_u \triangleleft 0 <_u \#_u(\&buff)
\triangleright \{\}_u)) \diamond
                       false)
  unfolding Buffer-def DoBuff-contract by (rdes-simp)
3.3
         Verifications
We first show that the buffer always outputs the same elements that were input first.
abbreviation inps t \equiv [x. inp \ x \leftarrow t]
abbreviation outps t \equiv [x. \ outp \ x \leftarrow t]
lemma P1-lemma:
  [true \vdash (outps(\langle trace \rangle) \leq (buff @ inps(\langle trace \rangle))) \mid true]_C \sqsubseteq while_C true do DoBuff od
  apply (rdes-refine-split)
    apply (simp-all add: rpred closure usubst)
  apply (rule\ conjI)
   apply (rule crf-star-inductl)
    apply (simp add: closure)
   apply (rule RR-refine-intro)
  apply (simp-all add: closure)
   apply (rel-auto)
  apply (smt Prefix-Order. Cons-prefix-Cons Prefix-Order. prefix-Nil append-Cons append-Nil ch-buffer. simps (6)
concat-map-maps hd-Cons-tl maps-simps(1) not-Cons-self2)
   apply (rule crf-star-inductl)
    apply (simp add: closure)
   apply (rule RR-refine-intro)
  apply (simp-all add: closure)
   apply (rel-auto)
   apply (smt Prefix-Order.Cons-prefix-Cons append.left-neutral append-Cons ch-buffer.simps(6) concat-map-maps
hd-Cons-tl less-eq-list-def maps-simps(1) prefix-code(2))
lemma P1: [true \vdash outps(\ll trace \gg) \leq inps(\ll trace \gg) \mid true]_C \sqsubseteq Buffer
proof -
  have [true \vdash outps(\ll trace \gg) \leq inps(\ll trace \gg) \mid true]_C
        Init :: [true \vdash outps(\ll trace \gg) \leq inps(\ll trace \gg) \mid true]_C
    by (rdes-refine)
  moreover have Init ;; [true \vdash outps(\ll trace \gg) \leq inps(\ll trace \gg) \mid true]_C
                 Init ; [true \vdash outps(\ll trace \gg) \leq (buff @ inps(\ll trace \gg)) \mid true]_C
    by (rdes-refine)
  moreover have Init :: [true \vdash outps(\ll trace \gg) < (buff @ inps(\ll trace \gg)) \mid true]_C
```

Buffer

ultimately show ?thesis

by (simp)

by (simp add: Buffer-def P1-lemma urel-dioid.mult-isol)

qed

```
lemma Buffer-deadlock-free: CDF \sqsubseteq Buffer unfolding Buffer-def by (rdes-refine; blast)
```

4 Mini-mondex example

```
theory utp-csp-mini-mondex imports UTP-Circus.utp-circus begin
```

This example is a modified version of the Mini-Mondex card example taken from the 2014 paper "Contracts in CML" by Woodcock et al.

4.1 Types and Statespace

```
type-synonym index = nat — Card identifiers type-synonym money = int — Monetary amounts.
```

type-synonym action-mdx = (st-mdx, ch-mdx) action

In the paper money is represented as a nat, here we use an int so that we have the option of modelling negative balances. This also eases proof as integers form an algebraic ring.

```
alphabet st\text{-}mdx = accts: (index, money) \ pfun — Index record of each card's balance

\mathbf{datatype} \ ch\text{-}mdx = pay \ index \times index \times money \mid \text{--} \text{Request a payment between two cards} \\ transfer \ index \times index \times money \mid \text{--} \text{Effect the transfer} \\ accept \ index \mid \text{--} \text{Accept the payment} \\ reject \ index \text{--} \text{Reject it}
```

4.2 Actions

The Pay action describes the protocol when a payment of n is requested between two cards, i and j. It is slightly modified from the paper, as we firstly do not use operations but effect the transfer using indexed assignments directly, and secondly because before the transfer can proceed we need to check the balance is both sufficient, and that the transfer amount is greater than 0. It should also be noted that the indexed assignments give rise to preconditions that the list is defined at the given index. In other words, the given card records must be present.

definition $PaySet :: index \Rightarrow (index \times index \times money)$ set where

```
[upred-defs]: PaySet cardNum = \{(i,j,k).\ i < cardNum \land j < cardNum \land i \neq j\}
definition AllPay :: index \Rightarrow action-mdx where
```

 $AllPay\ cardNum = ((i, j, n) \in PaySet\ cardNum \cdot Pay\ i\ j\ n)$

The Cycle action just repea the payments over and over for any extant and different card indices. In order to be well-formed we require that cardNum > 2.

```
definition Cycle :: index \Rightarrow action\text{-}mdx where Cycle cardNum = (\mu_C \ X \cdot AllPay(cardNum) \ ;; \ X)
```

The Mondex action is a sample setup. It requires creates cardNum cards each with 100 units present.

```
definition Mondex :: index \Rightarrow action-mdx where Mondex(cardNum) = (accts :=_C entr_u(\{0..10\}_u, \lambda x. 100) ;; Cycle(cardNum))
```

4.3 Pre/peri/post calculations

The behaviour of a reactive program is described in three parts: (1) the precondition, that describes how the state and environment must behave to ensure valid behaviour; (2) the pericondition that describes the commitments the program makes whilst in an intermediate state in terms of events only; and (3) the postcondition that describes the commitments after the process terminates. The pericondition refers only to the trace, as the state is invisible in intermediate states – it can only be observed through events. The pre- and postcondition can refer to both the state and the trace; although the form can only refer to a prefix of the trace and before state variables – only the postcondition refers to after state.

```
lemma Pay-CSP [closure]: Pay i j n is CSP by (simp add: Pay-def closure)
```

The precondition of pay requires that, under the assumption that a payment was requested by the environment (pay is present at the trace head), and that the given amount can be honoured by the sending card, then the two cards must exist. This arises directly from the indexed assignment preconditions.

The pericondition has three cases: (1) nothing has happened and we are not refusing the payment request, (2) the payment request happened, but there isn't enough (or non-positive) money and reject is being offered, or (3) there was enough money and accept is being offered.

The postcondition has two options. Firstly, the amount was wrong, and so the trace was extended by both pay and reject, with the state remaining unchanged. Secondly, the payment was fine and so the trace was extended by pay and accept, and the states of the two cards was updated appropriately.

```
 \begin{aligned} & \textbf{lemma} \ Pay\text{-}contract \ [rdes\text{-}def] \colon \\ & \textbf{assumes} \ i \neq j \\ & \textbf{shows} \\ & Pay \ i \ j \ n = \\ & \textbf{R}_s \ (\ \mathcal{I}(\lessdot i \gg \in_u \ dom_u(\&accts) \land \lessdot n \gg >_u \ \theta \land \&accts(\lessdot i \gg)_a \geq_u \lessdot n \gg \land \lessdot j \gg \notin_u \ insert_u \lessdot i \gg \ dom_u(\&accts), \langle (pay\cdot(\lessdot i \gg, \lessdot j \gg, \lessdot n \gg)_u)_u \rangle) \\ & \qquad \qquad \vdash \ (\mathcal{E}(true, \langle \rangle, \ \{(pay\cdot(\lessdot i \gg, \lessdot j \gg, \lessdot n \gg)_u)_u\}_u) \lor \\ & \qquad \qquad \qquad \mathcal{E}(true, \langle (pay\cdot(\lessdot i \gg, \lessdot j \gg, \lessdot n \gg)_u)_u \rangle, \ \{(reject\cdot \lessdot i \gg)_u\}_u) \\ & \qquad \qquad \dashv (\lessdot i \gg \notin_u \ dom_u(\&accts) \lor \lessdot n \gg \leq_u \ \theta \lor \&accts(\lessdot i \gg)_a \lessdot_u \lessdot n \gg) \rhd_R \end{aligned}
```

 $\mathcal{E}(true, \langle (pay \cdot (\langle i \rangle, \langle j \rangle, \langle n \rangle)_u)_u \rangle, \{(accept \cdot \langle i \rangle)_u\}_u))$

```
\diamond (\Phi(true,id,\langle (pay\cdot(\ll i\gg, \ll j\gg, \ll n\gg)_u)_u, (reject\cdot \ll i\gg)_u\rangle)
             \triangleleft (\ll i \gg \notin_u dom_u(\&accts) \lor \ll n \gg \leq_u \theta \lor \&accts(\ll i \gg)_a <_u \ll n \gg) \rhd_R
           \Phi(true, [\&accts \mapsto_s \&accts(\lessdot i \gg \mapsto \&accts(\lessdot i \gg)_a - \lessdot n \gg, \lessdot j \gg \mapsto \&accts(\lessdot j \gg)_a + \lessdot n \gg)_u]
                  \langle (pay \cdot (\langle i \rangle, \langle j \rangle, \langle n \rangle)_u, (accept \cdot \langle i \rangle)_u \rangle)) \rangle
  using assms by (simp add: Pay-def closure, rdes-eq)
lemma Pay-wf [closure]:
  Pay i j n is NCSP
  by (simp add: Pay-def closure)
lemma Pay-Productive [closure]: Pay i j n is Productive
  by (simp add: Pay-def closure)
lemma PaySet-cardNum-nempty [closure]:
  cardNum \ge 2 \Longrightarrow \neg PaySet \ cardNum = \{\}
  by (rel-simp, presburger)
lemma AllPay-wf [closure]:
  cardNum > 2 \Longrightarrow AllPay \ cardNum \ is \ NCSP
  by (simp add: AllPay-def closure)
lemma AllPay-Productive [closure]:
  cardNum \geq 2 \Longrightarrow AllPay \ cardNum \ is \ Productive
  by (simp add: AllPay-def closure)
```

4.4 Verification

We perform verification by writing contracts that specify desired behaviours of our system. A contract $[P \vdash Q \mid R]_C$ consists of three predicates that correspond to the pre-, peri-, and postconditions, respectively. The precondition talks about initial state variables and the *trace* contribution via a special variable. The pericondition likewise talks about initial states and traces. The postcondition also talks about final states.

We first show that any payment leaves the total value shared between the cards unchanged. This is under the assumption that at least two cards exist. The contract has as its precondition that initially the number of cards is cardNum. The pericondition is true as we don't care about intermediate behaviour here. The postcondition has that the summation of the sequence of card values remains the same, though of course individual records will change.

```
lemma uminus-inter-insert [simp]:  (-A) \cap (-insert \ x \ B) = (-insert \ x \ A) \cap (-B)  by (auto) theorem money-constant: assumes finite cards i \in cards \ j \in cards \ i \neq j shows [(dom_u(\&accts) =_u \ll cards \gg) \vdash true \ | \ (sum_u(\$accts) =_u \ sum_u(\$accts'))]_C \sqsubseteq Pay \ i \ j \ n  — We first calculate the reactive design contract and apply refinement introduction proof (simp \ add: assms \ Pay-contract, \ rule \ CRD-refine-rdes)
```

— Three proof obligations result for the pre/peri/postconditions. The first requires us to show that the contract's precondition is weakened by the implementation precondition. It is because the implementation's precondition is under the assumption of receiving an input and the money amount constraints. We discharge by first calculating the precondition, as done above, and then using the relational calculus tactic.

from assms

— The second is trivial as we don't care about intermediate states.

```
 \begin{array}{l} \mathbf{show} \ [true]_{S < [\![}x \rightarrow \&tt]\![\![}r \rightarrow \$ref']\!] \sqsubseteq \\ ([dom_u(\&accts) =_u \ll cards \gg]_{S <} \wedge \\ (\mathcal{E}(true, \langle\rangle, \{(pay \cdot (\ll i \gg, \ll j \gg, \ll n \gg)_u)_u\}_u) \vee \\ \mathcal{E}(true, \langle(pay \cdot (\ll i \gg, \ll j \gg, \ll n \gg)_u)_u\rangle, \{(reject \cdot \ll i \gg)_u\}_u) \triangleleft (\ll i \gg \notin_u \ dom_u(\&accts) \vee \ll n \gg \leq_u \ 0 \vee \&accts(\ll i \gg)_a <_u \ll n \gg) \triangleright_R \\ \mathcal{E}(true, \langle(pay \cdot (\ll i \gg, \ll j \gg, \ll n \gg)_u)_u\rangle, \{(accept \cdot \ll i \gg)_u\}_u))) \\ \mathbf{by} \ (simp \ add: \ rpred \ usubst, \ rel-auto) \end{array}
```

— The third requires that we show that the postcondition implies that the total amount remains unaltered. We calculate the postcondition, and then use relational calculus. In this case, this is not enough and an additional property of lists is required ($?i < \#_u(?xs) \Longrightarrow foldr\ uovrd\ (?xs[?i:=?v])\ 0 = foldr\ uovrd\ ?xs\ 0 - ?xs(?i)_a \oplus ?v)$ that can be retrieved by sledgehammer. However, we actually had to prove that property first and add it to our library.

```
from assms show [sum_u(\$accts) =_u sum_u(\$accts')]_S'[x \rightarrow \&tt]] \sqsubseteq ([dom_u(\&accts) =_u «cards»]_{S <} \land \Phi(true,id,\langle(pay\cdot(«i», «j», «n»)_u)_u, (reject\cdot«i»)_u\rangle) \triangleleft («i» \notin_u dom_u(\&accts) \lor «n» \le_u 0 \lor \&accts(«i»)_a <_u «n») \triangleright_R \Phi(true,[\&accts \mapsto_s \&accts(«i» \mapsto \&accts(«i»)_a - «n», «j» \mapsto \&accts(«j»)_a + «n»)_u],\langle(pay\cdot(«i», «j», «n»)_u)_u, (accept\cdot«i»)_u\rangle)) by (rel-auto, simp-all\ add:\ pfun-sums-upd-2) qed
```

The next property is that no card value can go below 0, assuming it was non-zero to start with.

theorem no-overdrafts:

```
assumes finite cards i \in cards j \in cards i \neq j

shows [(dom_u(\&accts) =_u \ll cards \gg) \vdash true \mid (\forall k \cdot \ll k \gg \in_u \ll cards \gg \land \$accts(\ll k \gg)_a \geq_u 0 \Rightarrow

\$accts'(\ll k \gg)_a \geq_u 0)]_C \sqsubseteq Pay \ i \ j \ n

using assms

apply (simp \ add: Pay-contract)

apply (rule \ CRD-refine-rdes)

apply (rel-auto)

apply (rel-auto)

apply (rel-auto)

apply (rel-simp)

apply (metis \ diff-ge-0-iff-ge \ dual-order.trans \ le-add-same-cancel 2 \ less-le \ not-le \ pfun-app-upd-1 \ pfun-app-upd-2)

done
```

The next property shows liveness of transfers. If a payment is accepted, and we have enough money, then the acceptance of the transfer cannot be refused. Unlike the previous two examples, this is specified using the pericondition as we are talking about intermediate states and refusals.

```
theorem transfer-live:
```

```
assumes finite cards i \in cards \ j \in cards \ i \neq j \ n > 0

shows [(dom_u(\&accts) =_u \ll cards \gg) + (\ll trace \gg \neq_u \ \langle \rangle \land last_u(\ll trace \gg) =_u \ (pay \cdot (\ll(i,j,k)\gg))_u \land \ll n \gg \leq_u \&accts(\ll i \gg)_a \Rightarrow (accept \cdot (\ll(i)\gg))_u \notin_u \ll refs \gg) + true]_C \sqsubseteq Pay \ i \ j \ n

using assms
```

```
apply (simp add: Pay-contract)
apply (rule CRD-refine-rdes)
apply (rel-auto)+
done
```

end

References

- [1] J. C. Blanchette, L. Bulwahn, and T. Nipkow. Automatic proof and disproof in Isabelle/HOL. In *FroCoS*, volume 6989 of *LNCS*, pages 12–27. Springer, 2011.
- [2] A. Cavalcanti and J. Woodcock. A tutorial introduction to CSP in unifying theories of programming. In *Refinement Techniques in Software Engineering*, volume 3167 of *LNCS*, pages 220–268. Springer, 2006.
- [3] A. Feliachi, M.-C. Gaudel, and B. Wolff. Unifying theories in Isabelle/HOL. In *UTP 2010*, volume 6445 of *LNCS*, pages 188–206. Springer, 2010.
- [4] J. Foster. Bidirectional programming languages. PhD thesis, University of Pennsylvania, 2009.
- [5] S. Foster, F. Zeyda, and J. Woodcock. Unifying heterogeneous state-spaces with lenses. In Proc. 13th Intl. Conf. on Theoretical Aspects of Computing (ICTAC), volume 9965 of LNCS. Springer, 2016.
- [6] T. Hoare, I. Hayes, J. He, C. Morgan, A. Roscoe, J. Sanders, I. Sørensen, J. Spivey, and B. Sufrin. The laws of programming. *Communications of the ACM*, 30(8):672–687, August 1987.
- [7] T. Hoare and J. He. Unifying Theories of Programming. Prentice-Hall, 1998.
- [8] C. Morgan. Programming from Specifications. Prentice Hall, 1990.
- [9] F. Zeyda, S. Foster, and L. Freitas. An axiomatic value model for Isabelle/UTP. In *Proc. 6th Intl. Symp. on Unifying Theories of Programming*, volume 10134 of *LNCS*, pages 155–175. Springer, 2016.