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Reverse Software Engineering of Concurrent Real Time Programs

Mitchell C. Song
University of Pennsylvania

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Abstract
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The translation algorithm centers around the difference in the meaning of variables in procedural and mathematical languages. In a procedural language a variable may be assigned many values. In a mathematical language, however, a variable may be assigned only one value. The translation algorithm focuses on renaming variables in a procedural language program so that each variable is assigned only one value.

This paper also presents a methodology for proving specification correctness. The idea is based on generating scenarios that define values of variable for an applicable situation and using this to prove the specification satisfy a given requirement. This is contrasted with use of temporal logic for proving correctness of concurrent programs.

Comments
Reverse Software Engineering
Of Concurrent
Real Time Programs

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Mitchell C. Song

Department of Computer and Information Science
School of Engineering and Applied Science
University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, PA 19104-6389

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REVERSE SOFTWARE ENGINEERING
OF CONCURRENT REAL TIME PROGRAMS

Mitchell C. Song

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A thesis presented to the Faculty of Engineering and Applied Science of the University of Pennsylvania in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science in Engineering for graduate work in Computer and Information Science.

Dr. Noah S. Prywes

Dr. Jean H. Gallier
ABSTRACT

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1 INTRODUCTION

This report deals with the reverse translation of concurrent programs using shared memory into equational specifications. It is an extension of the research performed on “Reverse Software Engineering” in [11]. The goal is to achieve reuse of existing software, thereby reducing the cost of redeveloping or modifying existing software to perform on different computer systems. The research for this report was supported by the Air Force Office of Scientific Research under contract AFOSR-88-0116.

1.1 The Problem

Programs written in procedural languages are computer dependent. They are prescriptive and consist of an ordered set of statements that direct the computer. Such existing programs must be frequently modified or redeveloped to take advantage of features offered by different computer systems. As the need to use modern computer systems increases, this costly approach is used widely. The difficulty and expense lie in the developer/modifier having to understand the old programs in order to modify and test them.

1.2 The Solution

Procedural language programs are notoriously difficult to read and comprehend. There are two major difficulties in working with procedural languages. The first is the need for the user to “think like a computer” in both developing and reading a program. A program is written as a sequence of steps taken by a computer. This is regarded by Parnas as the primary reason that conventional software development does not produce reliable programs [6, 10]. The second difficulty arises from the existence of “side effects”. Side effects, though making a program more efficient, frequently obliterate from view the original algorithm on which the program is based. They add to the difficulties of understanding and modifying statements, as the statement may effect or be effected by other statements [11].
Mathematically oriented languages, on the other hand, are computer independent. They differ in that they are purely declarative or descriptive [11]. A specification contains only rules or axioms of the problem and is oblivious to computer concepts. There is no significance to the order of statements and no "side effects". Therefore, the user is freed from having to "think like a computer". They also state the algorithm explicitly. For these reasons, languages of this class are generally thought of as being easier to work with. The user only specifies what he/she wants and does not concern himself/herself with how to best utilize a given computer system. A forward translator can generate automatically an optimized program for a given computer system, taking advantage of any special features that system might offer.

We use proving correctness as a criterion for understanding a program. Equational languages are often easier to prove correct by using conventional algebraic manipulations. Since the program is nothing more then mathematical equations, the proof can be conducted mathematically. This is generally easier and leads to a more rigorous and straightforward proof. Thus, the use of equational languages can greatly reduce the cost of software development, maintenance and verification of correctness.

In light of the advantages of equational languages, it is very desirable to translate existing software into equational specifications before performing further maintenance or development. If all programming and maintenance is performed on a non-procedural, computer independent language, only one source version need to be kept. Programs can then be automatically generated in any language for any computer system using the non-procedural language program.

1.3 Contributions

We present in this report a reverse translation algorithm to translate concurrent programs using shared memory. An algorithm of this sort can greatly increase the life of existing software and reduce the cost of porting software to different computer systems. Porting
to another system merely consists of automatically forward translating the specification to 
the desired language on the desired computer system. As mentioned, multiple copies of the 
source for the same software are no longer needed. Maintenance is also made more cost 
effective. The specification is easier to comprehend and only one version need be modified.

As understanding of a program is the key objective, this document focuses on a 
methodology of using the generated specification for verification. This is also the objective 
of temporal logic, and the paper compares the use of specifications with the methodology of 
temporal logic.

1.4 Outline

Section 2 briefly describes Reverse Software Engineering and gives a summary of the re-
verse translation algorithm. Section 3 is provided for those not familiar with the MODEL 
equational language. It describes the basic components and their syntax. It also describes 
additional features such as the RENAMING clause that are used in the specifications of pro-
grams that share memory. Section 4 discusses the two forms of communication between con-
current programs, message passing and shared memory. It also explains how MODEL views 
shared memory. Section 5 gives in detail the algorithm for reverse translating concurrent 
programs that use shared memory. Section 6 presents a technique for proving specification 
correctness. Section 7 surveys temporal logic and contrasts the its proof methodology with 
that in Section 6. Finally, Section 8 summarizes the key issues in this paper.
2 SUMMARY OF REVERSE SOFTWARE ENGINEERING

Reverse Software Engineering is a process by which a procedural program is transformed, through a series of transformations, into an equational specification. This specification is the mathematical meaning of the procedural program and is computer independent.

The specification is intended as the medium in which analysis of correctness and maintenance is to be performed. The specification can then be automatically forward translated, via "Forward Software Engineering", into a new highly optimized procedural program to conform to any desired computer system. The notion of reverse software engineering is shown in Figure 1.

In a procedural language program, a variable may assume many different values during the course of an execution. In an equational language program, such as MODEL [cccc], a variable may assume one and only value. Therefore, the goal is to a uniquely named variable for each instance that a variable is assigned a value. This is accomplished by mapping each instance of an assignment in the program into an array such that every array element is assigned only one value. The dimensionality of the array is equivalent to the depth the variable is nested plus one. The equations constituting the specification are simply the assignment statements. The correctness of the translation follows from the fact that for each assignment to a variable during the execution of the source program there is an equation that defines a variable in the specification. Thus the source program and the resulting specification are equivalent in that the respective mapped variables have the same value.

The translation consists of eight transformations which are applied in succession. Each of the first five transformations generates a program that is equivalent to the input program. This first group is shown in Figure 2. It starts with the source procedural program and ends with a program that can be directly transformed into equations. In the second group of transformations shown in Figure 3, the final program is translated into equations
Figure 1: Use of Translations Between Procedural and Equational Languages
and declarations and then simplified. The transformations in the second group operate on equations. They use algebraic identities to collect common factors and use substitutions to simplify the specification.

The following is a brief explanation of the need and purpose of each transformation.

Transformation 1 converts the source program using subroutine calls, goto statements, dynamic memory allocations and shared variables into a program using only the basic types of statements.

Transformation 2 builds a tree from the source program such that intermediate nodes represent block statements and leaf nodes represents basic statements. The tree is modified in the succeeding transformations.

Transformation 3 “instruments” the assignments in the program. It nests each WHILE and DO loop within an IF statement block and introduces counters for each WHILE and DO loops, and for IF statements. These counters are used in transformation 4 to identify each instance of an assignment that can be repeated zero or more times. In addition, it eliminates nested IF statements by combining conditions used in the nested IF statements to simplify the next transformation.

Transformation 4 generates a “single-assignment” program in which a variable is assigned a value by exactly one statement. It first gives distinct names to left hand side (LHS) variables of assignments. It then substitutes variables referenced in expressions with corresponding renamed LHS variables. To simplify the next transformation, if a variable is assigned a value in more than one statement (before LHS renaming) within a loop, it adds extra variable that remembers the last assignment to the variable with the loop.

Transformation 5 generates a “single value variable” program. That is, this transformation completes the conversion of the source program into an equivalent program in which each variable has exactly one value. This is achieved by converting each variable that is assigned multiple times within a loop into an array. The resulting assignments can then be
Figure 2: Program Transformations.
Transformation 6 adds a header and declarations to the set of assignments produced previously to make it a MODEL specification. The specification is now longer than the source program, because a number of variables and conditions were added to make explicit all the interactions among variables.

Transformations 7 and 8 simplify the specification. Transformation 7 identifies common conditions and factors and eliminates multiple definitions of them. In addition, conditions and factors are simplified using identities. Transformation 8 eliminates some variables by substituting their references with defining expressions.
3 MODEL

MODEL is the language used for the object equational specification. This section, taken almost verbatim from [Ill, describes briefly the syntax and semantics of the basic parts of MODEL.

The benefit of using MODEL is that the present system accepts equational specifications and generates procedural programs in Ada, C and PL/I [2]. In addition, the “specification extension” phase of the MODEL system tolerates omissions in the user provided specification and fills-in missing parts automatically. We take advantage of this feature to simplify the translation.

A MODEL specification consists of a header, declarations and equations. The computation of a specification produces values for variables that make all equations true. The order of equation statements is irrelevant, and thus, may be in any order.

**Header** The format of a header is shown in Table 1. A header defines the specification type (MODULE, FUNCTION and PROCEDURE), name, inputs (called SOURCE) and outputs (called TARGET). A module denotes a main program. A function has only input parameters and returns a result and a procedure has input, output and update (i.e., both input and output) parameters.

EXTERNAL variables are external variables that are declared, reference or defined in external program entities in an overall software system. External variables may represent structured or elementary variables. They may be used in any kind of program entity (MODULE, FUNCTION and PROCEDURE) and must be listed in the SOURCE and/or TARGET statements.

**Declarations** The format of a declaration statement is shown in Table 2. Input and output variables including parameters, external variables and variables in I/O devices must be
HEADER:
Name Statements

MODULE: <main procedure name> EXTERNAL(<variable>,...);
FUNCTION: <function name> (<input.parameter>,...) EXTERNAL(<variable>,...)
RESULT(<variable>,...);
PROCEDURE: <subroutine name> (<parameter>,...) EXTERNAL(<variable>,...);

Input/Output Argument Declarations

SOURCE: <input argument or i/o file>,...;
TARGET: <output argument or i/o file>,...;

Table 1: Header Statements in MODEL.

Declared. Other (interim) variables can also be declared, but their declarations are optional. If omitted, they are generated automatically in the extension phase of the MODEL system.

Unlike declarations in a procedural language which only identify the structure transferred in each input and output operation, the entire input and output structures must be defined. Each declaration is thus viewed as defining a multi-level tree in a depth-first manner. Each node has a level number, name, repetition (or dimension) size, and data type. Each leaf node must have a primitive data type.

The "rename clause" plays a special role in translating programs using shared variables. Therefore, it is important that we discuss this feature in detail. In numerous cases, such as in the use of shared variables, it is desired that only one memory location be updated and referenced by a number of concurrent programs. This causes a conflict with MODEL as MODEL variables follow the convention in mathematics of being assigned only one value. However, this conflict is resolved through the use of the renaming clause. The renaming clause permits the user of MODEL to specify a mapping of MODEL variables to a single
DECLARATIONS:

Input/Output: Declaration of input/output arguments are mandatory. If it is a structure, the entire input/output data must be declared down to individual data elements and their data types.

1 <structure name><repetitions><type of device>
   2 <substructure name><repetitions><structure data type>
      
      n <elementary variable name> <repetitions>
      <primitive data type> [<rename clause>];

<repetition> may consist of:
   <integer>
   <min integer>:<max integer>, or
   * : denoting 1 or more repetitions

The type of device must be declared as follows:
   sequential file (default),
   messages from other processes (tasks),
   addressed messages,
   random access,
   shared memory,
   dynamically allocated memory.

Interim variables: Declaration is optional. The translator from MODEL to a procedural language declares interim variables automatically.

Table 2: Declarations of Variables in MODEL.

variable of the interfacing program. The rename clause has the following syntax:

<rename clause> ::= RENAME <name>.

In the generated program, the MODEL variable name is renamed to <name>.

Equations  Table 3 summarizes the syntax and meaning of equations. The left hand side of an equation statement contains only a variable reference. This is the independent variable of the equation. The right hand side is an expression which consists of operations and variables. They have the syntax and meaning of arithmetic or boolean algebra (depending
on the operators).

Variables referenced in equations may be scalars or arrays. An array variable name must be followed by subscript expressions for each of its dimensions, in parenthesis. A variable in some programming languages, as well as in MODEL, may denote an entire tree structure of more elemental variables. Transformation of such structured variables into the basic variables is performed automatically by the MODEL system. If an equation contains a subscripted variable, then an equation is assumed to be repeated for all integer values in the range of 1 to the size of each subscript of the variable. Thus, an equation as well as a variable may be multidimensional. If a subscript expression has the value zero, then the RHS variable in an equation must be preceded by an IF condition preventing use of the variable in such a case.

A specification must include an explicit or implicit definition of each different size of a dimension in the variables. The definition is given through a declaration or through an equation. The size of a dimension variable can be denoted by a control variable. There are two ways to denote a control variable: by use of the prefix SIZE to denote the number of elements in a dimension of the suffix variable, or by use of the prefix END to denote a boolean vector where each element denotes whether the respective element of the suffix variable is the last one in the dimension. The size of a dimension may be specified to have a zero or positive integer value. If the size is zero, the respective variable is said to be null. The equation in which it is the LHS variable is considered to be non-existent.

Several types of operations can be used in expressions. These include arithmetic, logical and string operations. Arithmetic and boolean expressions can be mixed using the IF-THEN-ELSE operation, which has the three operands as follows:

\[
\text{IF <boolean expr> THEN <arithmetic expr> ELSE <arithmetic expr>}
\]

where ELSE <arithmetic expr> is optional.

MODEL specifications are time invariant. That is, values of variables in a MODEL
EQUATIONS:
<variable name> (<subscript expression>,...) = < expression >;

<variable name> may refer to an individual element variable or to a tree structure of subvariables.

Control variables denote the sizes of dimensions of arrays. They must be defined by equations. They can be represented as:

SIZE. <variable name> (<subscript expression>,...): denotes the number of elements in the rightmost dimension of <variable name> (<subscript expression>,...).

END. <variable name> (<subscript expression>,...): denotes whether an element is the last one in the rightmost dimension of <variable name> (<subscript expression>,...).

Subscript denotes the index of the referenced element of an array. The equation is true for all the integer values of each subscript in the range of 1 to the size of the respective dimension (defined by a constant or control variable). The equation and the array do not apply (are null) if the size of a LHS variable dimension is zero. The syntax of subscripts is: sub1, sub2,... . These subscripts are local to the equation where they are used. Equations must include qualifying conditions to avoid referencing variables with subscript expression of zero value.

Operations used in expressions include the following:

  arithmetic, logical and string operations
  if-then-else
  built-in or user-defined functions and subroutines

Note: The translator from MODEL to procedural languages tolerates in many cases omissions of definitions of control variables. There are no order of statements, loop or input/output commands.

Table 3: Equations, Variables, Subscripts and Operations in MODEL.
specification, as in mathematics, are defined by equations only and have no concept of time. All initial values are either declared in the specification or passed in as parameters. In addition to time invariance, a specification has no concept of memory space. Thus it can define an infinite number of variables. (It should be noted that the MODEL compiler does optimize memory usage when generating a program from a specification.)

Further information on MODEL is given in [2].
4 COMMUNICATION BETWEEN CONCURRENT PROCESSES

Concurrent processes can be classified into two categories, independent processes and co-operating processes. A process is independent if it cannot affect nor be affected by other processes during its execution [12]. Thus any process that does not share data with any other process is independent. Clearly, the section of code that execute in an independent process can be thought of as a sequential subroutine. Thus translation of such code into equations is equivalent to the translation of any other sequential subroutine.

The interesting case involves cooperating processes. A process is cooperating if it can affect or be affected by other processes during its execution [12]. Thus any process that share data with and/or send messages to other processes is a cooperating process.

There is only one real difference between concurrent programs and sequential programs. This is that processes in concurrent programs may execute in parallel and communicate with other executing processes. Thus the problem of extending the translation algorithm of [11] to include concurrent programs, is really the problem of translating the features in concurrent programs that facilitate interprocess communication.

4.1 Communication Through Messages

Communication through messages can be either direct or indirect. In direct communication, each process that wants to send a message must explicitly name the recipient of the message. Likewise, each process that wants to receive a message must explicitly name the sender of the message. Communication in such a scheme is carried out by means of the following primitives or a variant there of:

\[
\text{send}(P,\text{message}) \text{ - send message to process } P,
\]
\[
\text{receive}(P,\text{message}) \text{ - receive message from process } P.
\]
In indirect communication, processes communicate via an intermediate repository, commonly known as a mailbox. A mailbox is abstractly viewed as an object into which messages may be placed by processes and from which messages may be removed [12]. Here, the primitives are defined as follows:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{send}(M,\text{message}) & \quad - \text{send a message to mailbox } M, \\
\text{receive}(M,\text{message}) & \quad - \text{receive a message from mailbox } M.
\end{align*}
\]

A process may communicate with another process only if they share at least one mailbox. Each mailbox has a unique identification.

The MODEL system supports indirect communication via mailboxes. It views mailboxes as external I/O devices, i.e. external to the specification, to and from which messages may be sent and received. Although, mailboxes are viewed as external devices they do not physically exist.

To facilitate this approach, MODEL makes available to the user the two file types MAIL and POST. A MAIL file is used to communicate with other processes. It may receive from one or more other processes but can only be read by one process. POST files are used when one process wishes to send a message to many other processes. It differs from a MAIL file in that it includes the address of its destination as a key.

To send a message in MODEL one need only define a value for a variable in a MAIL file. Similarly, to receive a message one need only reference a variable in a MAIL file. This is illustrated in Figure 4. The first equation sends a message by assigning a value to \( msg\_q \). The second equation receives a message by simply referencing \( msg\_p \). Thus these equations are equivalent to the execution of the primitives \( \text{send} (\text{mailbox}\_q, \text{"send message"}) \) and \( \text{receive} (\text{mailbox}\_p, msg\_p) \), respectively.
PROCEDURE: Example1 EXTERNAL(mailbox_p, mailbox_q);
SOURCE: mailbox_p;
TARGET: mailbox_q;

1 mailbox_p IS FILE ORG=MAIL,
   2 message_p IS RECORD,
   3 msg_p IS FIELD (char(20));

1 mailbox_q IS FILE ORG=MAIL,
   2 message_q IS RECORD,
   3 msg_q IS FIELD (char(20));

msg_q = "send message";
msg = msg_p;

Figure 4: Example Specification using Mailboxes

4.2 Communication Through Shared Memory

Shared variables are used by concurrent programs to facilitate communication, in one way or another, between concurrent processes. Communication is accomplished by assigning values to and referencing from shared variables. In the course of a computation, a shared variable may be assigned many values by different processes.

MODEL follows the mathematical convention that a variable can assume only one value. Thus all values generated must be assigned to a separate variable in a MODEL specification. However, in the case of shared variables, it is desirable to update only one memory location. The renaming clause in MODEL, discussed in Section 3, permits us to show such a correspondence.

The use of the renaming clause is illustrated in Figure 5. The procedure Example2 tests the value of flag1, and if it is FALSE, sets flag2 to TRUE. From the view of the specification, flag1 and flag2 are two separate local variables. But to the external world, procedure Example2 operates on the shared variable flag.
PROCEDURE: Example2 EXTERNAL(sharedin, sharedout);
SOURCE: sharedin;
TARGET: sharedout;

1 sharedin IS FILE ORG=SHARED,
   2 rec1(*) IS RECORD,
      3 flag1 IS FIELD (bit(1)) RENAME flag;

1 sharedout IS FILE ORG=SHARED,
   2 rec2 IS RECORD,
      3 flag2 IS FIELD (bit(1)) RENAME flag;

END.flag1(sub1) = flag1(sub1)=FALSE;
flag2 = DEPENDS.ON(flag1(sub1));
flag2 = TRUE;

Figure 5: Example Specification using Shared Variables

The DEPENDS.ON is a MODEL built in function that defines the evaluation precedence between two variables. Thus the second equation merely states that flag1 is to be evaluated before flag2.

Shared memory is viewed as an external I/O device by MODEL. Thus all shared variables are declared in SHARED files. SHARED files are external random access devices where its contents are seen by equations of a specification through templates. These templates allow an equation to only see the shared variables it updates or references. A template shows either input variables or an output variable but not both. Figure 6 shows this correspondence.
Figure 6: MODEL's View of Shared Memory
5  EXAMPLE OF TRANSFORMATION

The basic differences between concurrent programs and sequential programs are the features introduced in concurrent programs to handle interprocess communication during parallel execution of processes. For without interprocess communication, there is no real distinction between concurrent and sequential programs. Furthermore, each concurrent process is nothing more than a sequential program. So the problem of extending the RSE algorithm to translate concurrent programs is, as stated previously, really the problem of extending the translation algorithm to handle statements that facilitate interprocess communication between concurrent processes. Therefore, it is not surprising that the translation algorithm for concurrent programs is just the translation algorithm for sequential programs extended to include the translation of those features that facilitate interprocess communication.

As indicated by Section 4, there are numerous schemes for allowing interprocess communication. However, to present a translation algorithm for all possible schemes would go far beyond the bounds of this paper. We therefore limit ourselves to the translation of programs that use only shared variables as a means of communication between concurrent processes. [Note however that MODEL has features to specify and generate programs that exchange messages between processes. An example was given in Section 4.1.]

The translation algorithm is described with the aid of an example. For this we have selected the classic algorithm presented by Dekker as a software solution to the critical section problem [3]. The routines, Enter() and Leave(), that implement Dekker's algorithm are given in Figure 7. We have selected this algorithm because it shows many of the features of the reverse translation algorithm. It also shows the less attractive side of our solution. It was deliberately chosen to curb any claim of our fixing the example to our benefit.

Figure 8 shows how two processes use the procedures Enter() and Leave() to achieve mutual exclusion in their critical section. When process $p_i$ wishes to enter its critical section, it blocks process $p_j$ from entering $p_j$'s critical section by executing Enter(i). When $p_i$ is
finished, it then unblocks the other process by executing Leave(i).

Given two processes p1 and p2, each with a critical section, Dekker’s algorithm insures mutual exclusion, progress and bounded wait through the use of the shared variables c[1], c[2] and turn. c[1] and c[2] are booleans and turn is an integer that assumes either 1 or 2.

Observe that c[i] may only be changed by pi. Whenever process pi wants to enter its critical section, it sets c[i] to TRUE. A process pi may enter its critical section only if c[i]=TRUE and c[j]=FALSE. In the event that both processes wish to enter at the same time, the variable turn dictates which process enters first and which process waits. pi, upon leaving the critical section, sets turn to the index of the other process.

Despite its brevity, Dekker’s algorithm is very complex as it has numerous side effects that are not apparent superficially. The transformations given below will make these side effects explicit in the object specification.

A non-rigorous proof of correctness of Dekker’s algorithm, based on the procedural language program, is given in [3]. Using the equational language specifications, a more rigorous proof may be easily given. In Section 6, we present an approach based on the equational specification to proving correctness. It also “explains” the function of the procedure Enter() by enumerating the cases that must be considered in proving mutual exclusion, progress and bounded wait.

The following subsections describe the eight transformations that make up our algorithm. Because the main focus of this paper is to show how concurrent programs, i.e. interprocess communications, are translated and the algorithm for sequential programs has already been given in [11], we discuss in detail only those parts of the algorithm that pertain to concurrency. Other parts of the algorithm are summarized. Readers wishing more detail may consult [11].

For our example, the reader should not be concerned with the choice of the procedural programming language used, as any procedural language program can be pre-translated to

27
PROCEDURE Enter (i: integer);
  j: integer;
begin
  j = 3-i;
c[i] = true;
  while (c[j]) do
    if turn = j then
      c[i] = false;
      while (turn = j) do
        endwhile
      c[i] = true;
    endif
  endwhile
end

PROCEDURE Leave (i: integer);
begin
  turn = 3-i;
c[i] = false;
end

Figure 7: Dekker's Algorithm In Procedural Form
turn=2: SHARED INTEGER;

COBEGIN
  PROCESS p1:
    LOOP
      
      CALL Enter(1);
      <critical section>
      CALL Leave(1);
      
      ENDLOOP

  PROCESS p2:
    LOOP
      
      CALL Enter(2);
      <critical section>
      CALL Leave(2);
      
      ENDLOOP

COEND

Figure 8: The Critical Section Problem
have only the basic types of statements [11].

We note that since Enter() and Leave() are procedures, they are translated independently into separate equational specifications. We also note that because the translation algorithm makes use of line numbers in generating new names for variables, will include line numbers in our figures for completeness.

5.1 Pre-Translation

Transformation one converts the source program into a program that is composed of only the basic types of statements common to most procedural languages. These basic statements are input/output (read, write), assignment, DO, WHILE and IF statements and declaration of variables. Discussions of translating numerous “non-basic” statements to their corresponding basic statements are given in [1] and [11]. We discuss here only the transformation of statements that refer to shared variables.

As mentioned in Section 4.2, shared memory is envisioned as an external I/O device to which read and write operations are performed. Thus for each occurrence of a shared variable referenced on the RHS of a statement, we insert immediately before the statement a pseudo-read operation on the external device. We likewise insert a pseudo-write operation on the external device immediately after each occurrence of a shared variable on the LHS of an assignment statement. All shared variables are then newly declared as local variables. These local variables will later be mapped to their respective shared variables. This translation is illustrated in Figure 9.

Although a shared variable may be assigned many different values by many processes, when it is referenced the variable has only the most recent value. Therefore, the transformation of shared variables in this way does not alter the meaning of the program.

The benefit of this transformation is that the program is now void of shared variables and their side effects, i.e. all variables are local and assigned values only by statements
\( \langle \text{shared var} \rangle = \langle \text{expression} \rangle \)  \hspace{1cm} \langle \text{var} \rangle = \langle \text{expression} \rangle \\
WRITE \langle \text{var} \rangle \text{ TO } \langle \text{shared file} \rangle \\

(a) Translation of an Assignment to a Shared Variable

\( \langle \text{var1} \rangle = f(\langle \text{shared var} \rangle) \)  \hspace{1cm} \text{READ } \langle \text{var2} \rangle \text{ FROM } \langle \text{shared file} \rangle \\
\langle \text{var1} \rangle := f(\langle \text{var2} \rangle) \\

\( \langle \text{condition}(\text{shared var}) \rangle \)  \hspace{1cm} \text{READ } \langle \text{var} \rangle \text{ FROM } \langle \text{shared file} \rangle \\
\langle \text{condition}(\text{var}) \rangle \\

(b) Translation of a Reference to a Shared Variable

Figure 9: Translation of Shared Variables

within the process.

The result of Transformation 1 is show in Figure 10. The EXTERNAL statement introduced in the new program merely states that the filenames in its parameter are external devices. This statement is equivalent to the MODEL EXTERNAL statement discussed in Section 3.
01  PROCEDURE Enter (i: integer) EXTERNAL(sharedin,sharedout);  
02       j, turn: integer;  
02a1  c[2]: boolean;  
03       begin  
04           j = (i+1) mode 2;  
05           c[i] = true;  
06a1      read c[i] to sharedout;  
07b1      while (c[j]) do  
08b1      read turn from sharedin;  
08         if turn = j then  
09         c[i] = false;  
09a1      write c[i] to sharedout;  
10b1      read turn from sharedin;  
10         while (turn = j) do  
11b1      read turn from sharedin;  
11         endif  
13       while (c[j]) do  
14       read c[j] from sharedin;  
14         endif  
15       end  
15       end  
17  
18  PROCEDURE Leave (i: integer) EXTERN(sharedin,sharedout) -->0  
19       turn: integer;  
19a1  c[2]: boolean;  
20       begin  
21           turn = 3-i;  
22           c[i] = false;  
23a1      write c[i] to sharedout;  
24       end  

Figure 10: Pre-translated Program with Program Tree
5.2 Program Tree

The right side of Figure 10 shows the program tree for our sample program. The tree is constructed from the source program such that intermediate nodes represent block statements and leaf nodes represent basic statements. The remaining transformations operate on this tree. In fact, the first six transformations can be expressed as operations on the tree. However, for ease of reading we display the results of each transformation in non-tree format.

5.3 Instrumentation

We perform three depth-first traversals on the program tree. On the first traversal, we instrument each WHILE loop node as illustrated in Figure 11 and each DO loop node as illustrated in Figure 12. That is, we first nest each loop block within an IF block, the effect of which is to push the loop node further from the root. This instrumentation is necessary to account for and handle the case that the body of the loop is not executed at all as a result of failing the loop condition on the first try. We then introduce a loop counter, \( subi \), and a variable, \(sizei \) for a DO loop and \( endi \) for a WHILE loop, that defines the number of iterations. The reader should not that if the IF condition is satisfied, the nested loop will always be executed at least once. The objective of these transformations is to provide the variables that index each variable defined in a loop and obtain a count of such definitions.

On the second traversal, we instrument each IF node as shown in Figures 13 and 14. If the distance to the root is one, then we transform the IF node into a DO loop. Note that the DO loop is executed either zero or once. The reason for this instrumentation is largely for uniformity in the tree, consisting of loop blocks with IF blocks nested in them.

If the distance to the root node is greater then one, then we introduce in each loop sublinear subscripts for each conditional block.
Figure 11: Transforming WHILE Loop

A sublinear subscript denotes the index of the variables defined in the IF block, i.e. conditional block, and is viewed as a vector with an element for each subscript of the immediately nesting loop. A sublinear subscript is called $slk$, where $k$ is the statement number of the respective THEN or ELSE block of the IF statement. The condition itself is called $slcj$, where $j$ is the statement number of the IF condition. $slcj$ and $slk$ are functions of their respective loop counter $subi$. Note that $subi$ may itself be a sublinear subscript. The values of the sublinear subscripts are defined by the function $\text{sublinear}()$. Given a sublinear condition $slcj$, sublinear subscript $slk$, and subscript $subi$, the following relationship holds for the sublinear function:

$$\text{sublinear}(slcj,slk,subi) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{IF } subi=1 \text{ THEN } slcj \text{ THEN } 1 \text{ ELSE } 0 \\ \text{ELSE IF } slcj \text{ THEN } slk+1 \text{ ELSE } slk. \end{cases}$$

Thus a sublinear subscript is incremented only if the sublinear condition is true.
Source Program

line i: DO I=(exp1)TO(exp2),(exp3)

(block)

ENDDO

Target Program

IF (exp2) ≥ (exp1) THEN
sizei = ((exp2)-(exp1)+(exp3))/(exp3)
DO subi=1 TO sizei
I = IF subi=1 THEN exp1 ELSE I+exp3
(block)
ENDDO
ENDIF

Note: (exp1), (exp2) and (exp3) are integer expressions where (exp3)>0 and they do not depend on the block.

Figure 12: Transforming DO Loop

Source Program

line i: IF (condition) THEN
(block)
line j: ELSE
(block)
ENDIF

Target Program

sizei = IF (condition) THEN 1 ELSE 0
sizej = IF ~(condition) THEN 1 ELSE 0
DO subi=1 TO sizei
(block)
ENDDO
DO subj=1 TO sizej
(block)
ENDDO

Figure 13: Transforming Non-Loop-Nested IF
Source Program

line j: IF (condition) THEN
   (block)
line k: ELSE
   (block)
ENDIF

Target Program

slcj = (condition)
prev.slj = IF subi>1 THEN slj
prev.slk = IF subi>1 THEN slk
slj = sublinear(slcj,slj,subi)
slk = sublinear(\^slcj,slk,subi)
IF slcj THEN
   (block)
ELSE
   (block)
ENDIF

Notes: subi is the subscript of the loop that directly nests the IF.
prev.slj and prev.slk are saved values of sublinear subscripts slj, slk previous to their updating (in the subi-1 iteration).

Figure 14: Transforming Nested IF
Figure 15: Transforming Assignments to a Program Array Variable

On the third traversal, each statement that assigns a value to a program array variable is instrumented as illustrated in Figure 15. That is, each statement is nested in a series of loops, where the number of loops is equivalent to the dimension of the array variable. The effect is to update all other elements of the array with their respective old values whenever a given element of the array is assigned a value. How this benefits our translation may seem unclear at this point but suffice it to say that this instrumentation greatly simplifies subscript determination in transformation 5. For a more detailed explanation, the reader may consult [11].

This instrumentation of arrays, however, is unnecessary for arrays mapped to shared arrays since each element of the array is updated (through a read or an assignment operation) before its use. Thus in the instrumented program, array variable c is not nested in a loop. All references to an element of c is preceded by an update to that element.

Figure 16 shows the instrumented program.
PROCEDURE Enter (i: integer) EXTERNAL(sharedin,sharedout);

begin
  j = (i+1) mode 2;
  c[i] = true;
  write c[i] to sharedout;
  read c[j] from sharedin;
  size7 = if c[j] then 1 else 0;
  do sub1=1 to size7
  sub2 = 0;
  while (if sub2=0 then TRUE else ^end7) do
    sub2 = sub2 + 1;
    read turn from sharedin;
    slc8 = turn=j;
    prev.s18 = if sub2>1 then s18;
    s18 = sublinear(slc8,s18,sub2);
    if slc8 then
      c[i] = false;
      write c[i] to sharedout;
      read turn from sharedin;
      slc10 = turn=j;
      prev.s110 = if sl18>1 then s110;
      s110 = sublinear(slc10,s110,s18);
      if slc10 then
        sub3 = 0;
        while (if sub3=0 then TRUE else ^end10) do
          sub3 = sub3 + 1;
          read turn from sharedin;
          end10 = ~(turn=j);
        endwhile
        c[i] = true;
        write c[i] to sharedout;
      endwhile
    endif
  endwhile
end

PROCEDURE Leave (i: integer) EXTERN(sharedin,sharedout);

begin
  turn = 3-i;
  write turn to sharedout;
  c[i] = false;
  write c[i] to sharedout;
end

Figure 16: Instrumented Program
5.4 Renaming for Single Assignment

This transformation transforms the output program of Transformation 3 into a single assignment program. A *single assignment program* is a program where each of its variables is assigned a value by one assignment statement only. The transformation is accomplished by renaming each LHS variable in an assignment statement to have a unique name.

This transformation has three phases: (1) LHS renaming, (2) addition of localizing loop variables and (3) RHS renaming.

**LHS renaming** This phase renames the variables on the LHS of each assignment statement (for the purpose of our algorithm, a READ statement is considered to be an assignment statement). This is accomplished by simply appending the line number of the statement to the LHS variable name. This results in a distinct LHS variable for each assignment statement. In this way the single assignment rule is applied to the program.

Figure 17 shows a table that summarizes the LHS renaming. It shows for each LHS variable the statement address, i.e. line number, it appears in and its new name for that occurrence. The subscripts column is actually generated in the next transformation and will be used to achieve our goal of having each variable assume only one value.

**Localizing Loop Variables** This phase is concerned with adding assignments to localize loop variables. It merges conditional assignments to the same variable to reduce the number of LHS variables that must be considered for RHS referencing. It also defines for each LHS variable in a loop two types of *dimension-reduction* variables: a boolean variable that denotes whether the variable is null, i.e. is not assigned a value, and a variable that represents the last value of the variable at the termination of each loop provide it is not null. These dimension-reduction variables facilitate the generation of substituting expressions for RHS variables.
As will be noted, localizing loop variables will not be necessary for variables declared in the pre-translation of shared variables as on every reference we read a separate variable.

**RHS variables** This phase generates the expressions for substituting renamed LHS variables for variables on the RHS of each assignment statement. The tree is scanned to find for each RHS variable the same named LHS variables that have been assigned values preceding the RHS reference. In the case of variables introduced by the pre-translation of shared variables this is always the assignment statement (or read statement) that immediately precedes its reference. For this reason dimension-reduction variables are not needed. As an example refer to Figure 19, line 14b1 is a read statement with c..14[j..5] as the LHS variable. So in line 14b2, the RHS variable c[j..5] is renamed to c..14[j..5].

This renaming is also illustrated in the RHS renaming table of Figure 18. It shows for each RHS occurrence of a variable its statement address and the substituting expression. For original local variables, i.e. those not as a result of the pre-translation of shared variables, the substituting expression may be simple or complex. But for those variables declared as a result of the pre-translation, the substituting expression is always simple as evidenced in the table.

Figure 19 shows the resulting single assignment program.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>var</th>
<th>statement address</th>
<th>renamed as</th>
<th>subscripts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>j</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>j_5</td>
<td>scalar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>c_5</td>
<td>i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7b1</td>
<td>c_7</td>
<td>j_5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
<td>c_9</td>
<td>sub1,s[l8[sub1,sub2]],i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12</td>
<td>c_12</td>
<td>sub1,s[l8[sub1,sub2]],i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>14b1</td>
<td>c_14</td>
<td>sub1,s[l8[sub1,sub2]],j_5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>23</td>
<td>c_23</td>
<td>i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>turn</td>
<td>8b1</td>
<td>turn_8</td>
<td>sub1,sub2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10b1</td>
<td>turn_10</td>
<td>sub1,s[l8[sub1,sub2]]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11b1</td>
<td>turn_11</td>
<td>sub1,s[l10[sub1,s[l8[sub1,sub2]],sub3]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>22</td>
<td>turn_22</td>
<td>scalar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>size7</td>
<td>7b2</td>
<td>size7</td>
<td>scalar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>slc8</td>
<td>8b2</td>
<td>slc8</td>
<td>sub1,sub2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prev.s18</td>
<td>8b3</td>
<td>prev.s18</td>
<td>sub1,sub2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>s18</td>
<td>8b4</td>
<td>s18</td>
<td>sub1,sub2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>slc10</td>
<td>10b2</td>
<td>slc10</td>
<td>sub1,s[l8[sub1,sub2]]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prev.s110</td>
<td>10b3</td>
<td>prev.s110</td>
<td>sub1,s[l8[sub1,sub2]]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>s110</td>
<td>10b4</td>
<td>s110</td>
<td>sub1,s[l8[sub1,sub2]]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>end10</td>
<td>11b2</td>
<td>end10</td>
<td>sub1,s[l10[sub1,s[l8[sub1,sub2]],sub3]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>end7</td>
<td>14b2</td>
<td>end7</td>
<td>sub1,sub2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 17: LHS Renaming Table
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>var</th>
<th>statement address</th>
<th>substituting expression</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>j</td>
<td>7b1</td>
<td>j.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7b2</td>
<td>j.5</td>
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<td>j.5</td>
</tr>
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<td>c.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7b2</td>
<td>c.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9a1</td>
<td>c.9</td>
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<td>c.12</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>23a1</td>
<td>c.23</td>
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<td>turn</td>
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<td>turn_8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10b2</td>
<td>turn_10</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11b2</td>
<td>turn_11</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>22a1</td>
<td>turn_22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>7b3</td>
<td>size7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>slc8</td>
<td>8b4</td>
<td>slc8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
<td>slc8</td>
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<td></td>
<td>10b4</td>
<td>sl10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>end7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>end7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>end10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>end10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 18: RHS Renaming Table
PROCEDURE Enter (i: integer) EXTERNAL(sharedin,sharedout);

j_5, turn_8, turn_10, turn_11: integer;
c_5[2], c_7[2], c_9[2], c_12[2], c_14[2]: integer;
begin
  j_5 = (i+1) mode 2;
c_6[i] = true;
write c_6[i] to sharedout;
read c_7[j_5] from sharedin;
size7 = if c_7[j_5] then 1 else 0;
do sub1=1 to size7
  sub2 = 0;
  while (if sub2=0 then TRUE else ~end7) do
    sub2 = sub2 + 1;
read turn_8 from sharedin;
prev.s18 = if sub2>1 then s18;
s18 = sublinear(s1c8,s1c8,sub2);
if s1c8 then
c_9[i] = false;
write c_9[i] to sharedout;
read turn_10 from sharedin;
slc10 = turn_10=j_5;
prev.s110 = if slc10>1 then sl10;
s110 = sublinear(slc10,sl10,s18);
if slc10 then
  sub3 = 0;
  while (if sub3=0 then TRUE else ~end10) do
    read turn_11 from sharedin;
    end10 = ~(turn_11=j_5);
  endwhile
  c_12[i] = true;
write c_12[i] to sharedout;
endif
read c_14[j_5] from sharedin;
end7 = ~(c_14[j_5]);
endwhile
enddo
end

PROCEDURE Leave (i: integer) EXTERNAL(sharedin,sharedout);
turn_22: integer;
c_23[2]: boolean;
begin
  turn_22 = 3-i;
write turn_22 to sharedout;
c_23[i] = false;
write c_23[i] to sharedout;
end

Figure 19: Single Assignment Program
5.5 Single Value Assignment

To achieve single value assignment, the declaration of each LHS variable in a loop is modified to increase its dimension by one for each level the variable is nested. If the size of a dimension is not known at this point, an asterisk (*) is used to denote an arbitrary size. The sizes for these dimensions are computed at run time by the assignments to the size and end variables. The respective loop counters are then inserted as subscripts to these variables. The order of the subscripts reflects the order of the nesting loops. The subscripts, therefore, represent the loops the variable is nested in. If a variable is nested in an IF block, the sublinear subscript defined for that IF block is used in place of the loop counter. Note that this rule for substituting a sublinear subscript for a loop counter is a recursive rule, as a sublinear subscript is itself a loop counter.

The subscripts of each variable is shown in the subscripts column of Figure 17 and the program with the added subscripts is shown in Figure 20.

This completes our transformation from procedural language program to procedural language program. The next transformation extracts the equations from the single value variable program. The remaining transformations are concerned with simplifying the initial equations.

5.6 Initial Specification

Figures 22, 23 and 24 are the results of transformation 6. The equations are merely the assignment statements of the program in Figure 20 with MODEL key words, in capital letters, substituted. They include the header and variable declarations necessary in MODEL.

The header and I/O declarations in a MODEL specification establish the interface with the external environment. The procedure name identifies itself to the external en-
PROCEDURE Enter (i: integer) EXTERNAL(sharedin,sharedout);

PROCEDURE Leave (i) EXTERN(sharedin,sharedout);

begin
end
vironment and the EXTERNAL parameters allow the sharing of memory with other processes. All structures in the EXTERNAL parameters must be listed in either or both the SOURCE and TARGET statements and defined via the declaration statement. The statement ORG=SHARED states that the file, i.e. memory, is shared with other tasks. The RENAME clause maps the structure being declared to the structure following the RENAME clause.

Variables in SHARED files are structured as they appear in a depth-first search of the program tree. Declarations of SHARED files needed to describe the I/O for renamed variables are determined as follows. First, renamed variables are first grouped into input and output variables. Then, each of the two groups are further separated into smaller groups such that variables in the same group have the same subscripts. Each of these groups corresponds to a SHARED file in our specification.

The control variables SIZE.s18(*,*), END.slc8(sub1,sub2) and END.turn_11(sub1,sl10(sub1,sl8(sub1,sub2)),sub3) denotes the size of the first (sub1), second (sub2) and third (sub3) dimensions, respectively.

An equation is such that its dependencies on other variables are explicitly given in the equation. Thus the order of evaluation of an equation is determined by its dependencies. However, an equation’s dependencies does not always determine timing precedences between shared variables.

Shared variables are often placed in a procedural program under the assumption that they will be evaluated in a certain order. That is to say, a time dependency exists in concurrent programs that use shared variables. To change the order of evaluation of a shared variable will most certainly change the meaning of the program. Thus, it is crucial that this order of evaluation be preserved. Equations, however, are time invariant and do not express timing dependencies. Therefore, another mechanism is introduced to enforce this dependency. This is the DEPENDS_ON() function. An equation of the form
\[ x = \text{DEPENDS\_ON}(y) \]

indicates a precedence of \( y \) over \( x \). That is, \( y \) is to be evaluated before \( x \).

Figure 21 illustrates by example how MODEL views shared memory. Each of the three shared files of Enter() are represented in the figure as a separate tree structure. The shape of each tree (the solid edges) is defined by the declaration of the file it represents, which is identified by the root label. The top two trees represents the two SOURCE files sharedin1 and sharedin2. The bottom tree represents the TARGET file sharedout. The combination of the solid and dotted directed edges between nodes within the same tree indicates the order of reading (for SOURCE) or writing (for TARGET) defined by a depth-first traversal of the tree (note that nodes with an asterisk may be visited repeatedly). The dotted directed edges between trees represent precedences that exist but are not determined by either data dependencies or file declarations. The algorithm to determine these edges is given below.

The following algorithm determines the directed edges between trees. For each statement that references or assigns to variable \( x \) renamed to a shared variable, we scan the program tree in reverse depth-first order looking for the first (nearest) preceding statement with an occurrence of any other variable \( y \) renamed to a shared variable. (This excludes READ and WRITE statements as they are not part of the specification.) If a precedence edge, dotted or solid, does not already exist between the two variables, we than add a dotted directed edge from \( y \) to \( x \). This is accomplished by adding to the specification the statement:

\[ x = \text{DEPENDS\_ON}(y). \]

If the nearest statement is an IF statement then we may arbitrarily pick the last such \( y \) in the THEN block or the ELSE block. The resulting edges along with their respective statement are shown in Figure 21 as dotted directed edges between trees.

Since the thrust of this research has been on the ease of user understanding of the algorithm that underlies a program, it is important to note that a diagram such as in Figure 21 can be generated automatically and is important to our “explaining” goal.
\( c_{-7(1:2)} = \text{DEPENDS}_\text{ON}(c_{-12(i)}) \)

\( c_{-7(1:5)} = \text{DEPENDS}_\text{ON}(c_{-6(i)}) \)

\( c_{-14(1:5)} = \text{DEPENDS}_\text{ON}(c_{-12(i)}) \)

\( c_{-14(1:5)} = \text{DEPENDS}_\text{ON}(c_{-12(i)}) \)

\( c_{-9(i)} = \text{DEPENDS}_\text{ON}(\text{turn}_{-8}) \)

\( c_{-12(i)} = \text{DEPENDS}_\text{ON}(\text{turn}_{-11}) \)

\( \text{turn}_{-10} = \text{DEPENDS}_\text{ON}(c_{-9(i)}) \)

\( \text{turn}_{-11} = \text{DEPENDS}_\text{ON}((\text{turn}_{-10}) \)

Figure 21: Dataflow Diagram of the Shared Structures Sharedin1, Sharedin2 and Sharedout
5.7 Final Specification

The 7-th and 8-th transformation simplifies the logic and reduces the equations, respectively. Because of the simplicity of the way variables renamed to shared variables are transformed, the equations are already in a reduced form. Thus Transformations 7 and 8 have little or no effect on these equations.

Since no further simplification can be performed on our initial specifications, they are also our final specifications.

5.8 Comments

At first glance the reader may be surprised at the length of the final specification for Enter(). However, the reader is reminded of our goal of making explicit in the final specification the subtle attributes in the source program. This, we feel, is one of the important result.

Procedural language programs often look deceivingly simple. A user of a procedural language program may feel that they completely understand what a program does. When in reality, they may not have considered the many special cases that are often hidden in a program. As any programmer knows, it is these special cases that often cause the most trouble and require the most time. A specification generated through the reverse translation algorithm makes explicit to the user many of these special cases by showing all conditions and naming each value explicitly through the single value variables. The resulting specification also makes explicit the order of evaluation and sharing of data with other processes through its file declarations.

In comprehending the specification it is important to remember that the specification is NOT a procedural language program. A user should not attempt to comprehend the specification by asking, “what is the specification doing?” Rather, the user should view the specification as a set of equations that define values and ask what are the values being defined.
PROCEDURE: Enter (i) EXTERNAL(sharedin1,sharedin2,sharedin3,sharedout);

SOURCE: i, sharedin1, sharedin2, sharedin3;
TARGET: sharedout;
i IS FIELD (DEC);

1 sharedin1 IS FILE ORG=SHARED,
  2 c_7 IS FIELD (BIT(1)) RENAME AS c[1:2],
  2 grp1(0:1) IS GROUP,
     3 grp2(*) IS GROUP,
        4 turn_8 IS FIELD (DEC) RENAME AS turn,
        4 c_14(1:2) IS FIELD (BIT(1)) RENAME AS c[1:2];

1 sharedin2 IS FILE ORG=SHARED,
  2 grp1(0:1) IS GROUP,
     3 grp2(*) IS GROUP,
        4 turn_10 IS FIELD (DEC) RENAME AS turn,

1 sharedin3 IS FILE ORG=SHARED,
  2 grp1(0:1) IS GROUP,
     3 grp2(*) IS GROUP,
        4 grp3(*) IS GROUP,
           5 turn_11 IS FIELD (DEC) RENAME AS turn;

1 sharedout IS FILE ORG=SHARED,
  2 c_6 IS FIELD (BIT(1)) RENAME AS c[1:2],
  2 grp1(0:1) IS GROUP,
     3 grp2(*) IS GROUP,
        4 c_9(1:2) IS FIELD (BIT(1)) RENAME AS c[1:2],
        4 c_12(1:2) IS FIELD (BIT(1)) RENAME AS c[1:2],

  c_7(j_5) = DEPENDS_ON(c_6(i));
  c_9(sub1,sl8(sub1,sub2),i) = DEPENDS_ON(turn_8(sub1,sub2));
  turn_10(sub1,sl8(sub1,sub2)) = DEPENDS_ON(c_9(sub1,sl8(sub1,sub2),i));
  turn\_11(sub1,sl10(sub1,sl8(sub1,sub2)),sub3) = DEPENDS_ON(turn\_10(sub1,sl8(sub1,sub2)));
  c_12(sub1,sl8(sub1,sub2),i) = DEPENDS_ON(turn\_11(sub1,sl8(sub1,sub2),sub3));
  c_14(sub1,sub2,j_5) = DEPENDS_ON(c_12(sub1,sl8(sub1,sub2),i);

---

Figure 22: Specification for Enter - Header and Declarations

---
j_5 = 3-i;
c_6(i) = true;
c_9(sub1,s18(sub1,sub2),i) = false;
c_12(sub1,s18(sub1,sub2),i) = true;

s1c8(sub1,sub2) = turn_8(sub1,sub2) = j_5;
s18(sub1,sub2) = sublinear(s1c8(sub1,sub2),s18(sub1,sub2),sub2);
s1c10(sub1,s18(sub1,sub2)) = turn_10(sub1,s18(sub1,sub2)) = j_5;
s110(sub1,s18(sub1,sub2)) = sublinear(s1c10(sub1,s18(sub1,sub2)),
     s110(sub1,s18(sub1,sub2)),s18(sub1,sub2));

SIZE.slc8(*,*) = if c_7(j_5) then 1 else 0;
END.turn_11(sub1,s110(sub1,s18(sub1,sub2)),sub3) =
    ^(turn_11(sub1,s110(sub1,s18(sub1,sub2)),sub3) = j_5);
END.slc8(sub1,sub2) = ^\neg(c_14(sub1,sub2,j_5));

Figure 23: Specification for Enter - Equations

-------------------------------------------------------------------

PROCEDURE: Leave (i) EXTERNAL(sharedout);

SOURCE: i;
TARGET: sharedout;
i IS FIELD (DEC);

1 sharedout IS FILE ORG=SHARED,
    2 turn_22 IS FIELD (DEC) RENAME AS turn,
    2 c_23(1:2) IS FIELD (BIT(i)) RENAME AS c[1:2];

turn_22 = 3-i;
c_23(i) = false;

Figure 24: Specification for Leave

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6 Proving Correctness of The Specification

The key objective of reverse software engineering is to improve the understandability of programs. Our belief is if a program is easier to prove correct then it is also easier to understand. Therefore, we use ease of proving correctness as an indicator for ease of understandability.

Using the ease of proving correctness as an indicator, we claim the generated specification is easier to understand then the source procedural program. The following proof is presented in support of this claim.

In determining the correctness of Dekker’s Algorithm it suffices to show the correctness of the specification generated by Reverse Software Engineering. There are three requirements that we must verify. They are: (1) mutual exclusion, (2) deadlock free and (3) bounded-wait.

Before preceding, we make the following observation. From Figure 8 it can be seen that process pi may only enter its critical section if Enter(i) has terminated. Therefore, proving the specifications satisfy the above three requirements is really proving appropriate termination of Enter(). The termination of Enter() is determined by the control variables SIZE.slc8(*,*) END.slc8(sub1,sub2) and END.turn_11(sub1,sl10(sub1,sl8(sub1,sub2)),sub3); they define the range of the first, second and third dimensions, respectively, of multidimensional variables. If SIZE.slc8(*,*)=0, the range of the first dimension is zero which by definition implies the other two variables do not exist, i.e. they are NULL. END.slc8(sub1,sub2) is TRUE for the last value in the second dimension. Likewise, END.turn_11(sub1,sl10(sub1,sl8(sub1,sub2)),sub3) is TRUE for the last value of the third dimension. Thus the specification terminates if SIZE.slc8(*,*)=0 or END.slc8(sub1,sub2)=TRUE and END.turn_11 is NULL or END.slc8(sub1,sub2)=TRUE and END.turn_11(sub1,sl10(sub1,sl8(sub1,sub2)),sub3)=TRUE.

The reader should keep in mind during the proofs the renaming of variables defined in
the specifications. Because the two processes may be executing both Enter(1) and Enter(2) concurrently, the same variable name may appear in a proof twice. Once for the occurrence in the specification executing in p1 and once for p2. To distinguish between the two referenced variable name, we prefix the name of the variable with the appropriate process name.

The approach we use for proving the three requirements is as follows. We first derive for each requirement the applicable situations. Then for each applicable situation, we generate a scenario of source variable value from which target values are determined. The values are then used as the base of our proof. Note that the process of generating scenarios may lead to the awareness of additional situations. In this way the two steps are performed iteratively.

Table 4 shows the applicable situations for each of the three proof requirements and the corresponding scenario. The applicable situations are derived in a goal/subgoal tree structure fashion. Table 5 shows the four generated scenarios. A scenario represents a computation of the specification with a given set of input values. This set of input values may constrain other input values.

Each situation in Table 4 defines initial values for the specification. With these initial values the target values defined by the specification are determined. For example, the first applicable situation for mutual exclusion states \( p_i \) request entry into \( cs_i \), \( p_j \) is in \( cs_j \) and initially \( turn=i \). These initial conditions are all that is necessary to determine the values of each input variable in the specification. They are shown in Table 5 in the column labeled scenario 2. The values of \( c_{7}(j,5) \) and \( c_{14}(1,sub2j,5) \) are determined by the condition \( p_j \) is in \( cs_j \). \( turn_{8}(1,1) \) and \( turn_{8}(1,sub2) \) are determined by the initial condition \( turn=i \). This is an example of one input value what another input value may be. A quick scan of the specification reveals that only \( p_i \) changes \( turn \) to \( j \) and this occurs in specification \( Leave(i) \). Thus initial \( turn=i \) implies \( turn=i \) for all values of \( turn \) in specification \( Enter(i) \). With all input values determined, the values of all other variables are defined as shown in scenario 2.

Scenarios are similarly generated for all applicable situations. Our 12 situations result
in four scenarios. As might be expected more then one set of initial conditions may generate the same scenario. It may interest the reader that these four scenarios are also the only possible scenarios for Enter(i) and express all possible values of each variable.

The generation of scenarios is similar to tracing a program with a set of initial input values. The difference is that all values are determined and summarized for immediate reference. Furthermore, the process of generating a scenario of values can be automated. All that is required is some set of initial source variable values. The automation of this process allows the analyst to interatively develop the applicable situations table with the aid of a computer. This can greatly reduces the possibility of incorrect results due to human error.
### Requirements Tree Structure of Applicable Situations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Requirement</th>
<th>Scenario</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mutual Exclusion</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pi request entry into cs_i and pj is in cs_j</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>initially turn=i</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>initially turn=j</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Progress</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both pi and pj request entry into their cs</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>initially turn=i</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>initially turn=j</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Bounded-wait</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pi request entry into cs_i and pj not in cs_j</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>initially turn=i</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>initially turn=j</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pi request entry into cs_i and pj in cs_j</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pj leaves and does not want to re-enter cs_j</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>initially turn=i</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>initially turn=j</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>turn=i</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>turn=i</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pj leaves and wants to re-enter cs_j</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>initially turn=i</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>initially turn=j</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>turn=i</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>turn=i</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ ^{1}pi.\text{turn}_{8}(1,1)=j \text{ and } pi.\text{turn}_{10}(1,1)=i \text{ follows } pj.\text{turn}_{23}=i \]
\[ ^{2}pi.\text{turn}_{11}(1,1,\text{sub}3)=j \text{ and } \text{sub}3=q \text{ follows } pj.\text{turn}_{23}=i. \]

Table 4: Summary of Applicable Situations for the Three Requirements
For all $\text{sub2} > 1$

For all $\text{sub3} \leq q$, where $0 \leq q$ corresponds to $pj$ defining $pj.\text{turn}{}_{-2}$ = $i$. If $q=0$, then $\text{sub3} = 0$ and the variable is NULL.

For all $\text{sub2} \leq n$, where $0 \leq n$ corresponds to $pj$ defining either $pj.\text{c23}(j) = \text{FALSE}$ or $pj.\text{c23}(j) = \text{FALSE}$. If $n=0$, then $\text{sub2} = 0$ and the variable is NULL.

c$_{12}(1,1,i)$ is defined only if END.$\text{turn}{}_{11}$ is NULL or END.$\text{turn}{}_{11}(1,1,q+1) = \text{TRUE}$.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Scenario 1</th>
<th>Scenario 2</th>
<th>Scenario 3</th>
<th>Scenario 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SOURCE</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c$_7(j,5)$</td>
<td>FALSE</td>
<td>TRUE</td>
<td>TRUE</td>
<td>TRUE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\text{turn}{}_{8}(1,1)$</td>
<td>NULL</td>
<td>$i$</td>
<td>$j_5$</td>
<td>$j_5$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\text{turn}{}_{8}(1,\text{sub2})$</td>
<td>NULL</td>
<td>$i$</td>
<td>$i$</td>
<td>$i$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\text{turn}{}_{10}(1,1)$</td>
<td>NULL</td>
<td>NULL</td>
<td>$i$</td>
<td>$j_5$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\text{turn}{}_{11}(1,1,\text{sub3})$</td>
<td>NULL</td>
<td>NULL</td>
<td>NULL</td>
<td>$j_5$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\text{turn}{}_{11}(1,1,q+1)$</td>
<td>NULL</td>
<td>NULL</td>
<td>$i$</td>
<td>$j_5$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c$_{14}(1,\text{sub2},j,5)$</td>
<td>NULL</td>
<td>TRUE</td>
<td>TRUE</td>
<td>TRUE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c$_{14}(1,\text{n+1},j,5)$</td>
<td>NULL</td>
<td>FALSE</td>
<td>FALSE</td>
<td>FALSE</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| TARGET    |            |            |            |            |
| c$_6(i)$ | TRUE       | TRUE       | TRUE       | TRUE       |
| c$_{9}(1,1,i)$ | NULL | NULL | FALSE | FALSE |
| c$_{12}(1,1,i)$ | NULL | NULL | TRUE | TRUE |
| $\text{slc8}(1,1)$ | NULL | FALSE | TRUE | TRUE |
| $\text{sl8}(1,1)$ | NULL | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| $\text{slc10}(1,1)$ | NULL | NULL | FALSE | TRUE |
| $\text{sl10}(1,1)$ | NULL | NULL | 0 | 1 |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Data Control Variables</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$\text{SIZE.slc8}(<em>,</em>)$</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>END.$\text{turn}{}_{11}(1,1,\text{sub3})$</td>
<td>NULL</td>
<td>NULL</td>
<td>NULL</td>
<td>FALSE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>END.$\text{turn}{}_{11}(1,1,q+1)$</td>
<td>NULL</td>
<td>NULL</td>
<td>NULL</td>
<td>TRUE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>END.$\text{slc8}(1,\text{sub2})$</td>
<td>NULL</td>
<td>FALSE</td>
<td>FALSE</td>
<td>FALSE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>END.$\text{slc8}(1,\text{n+1})$</td>
<td>NULL</td>
<td>TRUE</td>
<td>TRUE</td>
<td>TRUE</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5: Scenarios Table
**Mutual exclusion** The requirement for mutual exclusion is that if one process \( (p_j) \) is executing in its critical section \( (cs_j) \), the other process \( (p_i) \) cannot be executing in its critical section \( (cs_i) \).

*Proof.* We have as a given condition process \( p_j \) in \( cs_j \) and \( p_i \) request entry into \( cs_i \). According to Table 4 scenarios 2 and 4 summarize this situation. Scenario 2 shows the value of each variable in \( Enter(i) \) given this condition and \( turn=i \). Scenario 4 show the value of each variable in \( Enter(i) \) given this condition and \( turn=j \). From scenarios 2 and 3 it can be seen that \( \text{pi.END.slc8(1,sub2)}=\text{FALSE} \) for \( sub2\leq n \), where \( n \) corresponds to either \(pj.c.9(j)=\text{FALSE} \) or \(pj.c.23(j)=\text{FALSE} \). Thus we conclude \( p_i \) does not enter \( cs_i \) as long as \( p_j \) is in \( cs_j \) and mutual exclusion is observed. \( \square \)

**Progress** If both processes wants to enter its cs simultaneously, one will be allowed to enter in a finite amount of time.

*Proof.* We have as our initial condition processes \( p_i \) and \( p_j \) both request entry simultaneously. Without loss of generality, we assume \( turn=i \).

From Table 4 we know that Scenario 4 shows the value of each variable in \( Enter(j) \) for this initial condition. According to Scenario 4, \( pj.END.turn.11(1,1,sub3)=\text{FALSE} \) for \( sub3\leq q \), where \( q \) corresponds to \( p_i \) defining \( p_i.turn.22=j \). Thus \( p_j \) does not enter \( cs_j \).

Scenario 2 shows the value of each variable in \( Enter(i) \) for the same initial condition. Scenario 4 shows \( pi.END.turn.11 \) is NULL and \( pi.END.slc8(1,n+1)=\text{TRUE} \), where \( n \) corresponds to \( p_j \) defining \( pj.c.9(1,1,j)=\text{FALSE} \). Thus \( p_i \) enters \( cs_i \) for some value \( n \) and progress is observed. \( \square \)
**Bounded-wait**  The requirement for bounded-wait is that there is a bound in the number of times process \( p_j \) may enter \( cs_j \) between the moment process \( p_i \) makes a request to enter \( cs_i \) and the moment the request is granted.

*Proof.*

Case 1. \( p_i \) request entry into \( cs_i \) and \( p_j \) is not in, nor requesting to enter \( cs_j \).

Scenario 1 summarizes this situation. But Scenario 1 shows END.turn._11 and END.slc8 are NULL. Thus \( p_i \) enters \( cs_i \) immediately.

Case 2. \( p_i \) request entry into \( cs_i \) and \( p_j \) is in \( cs_j \) leaves and does not want to re-enter \( cs_j \).

Subcase 1. Initially turn=\( i \).

This condition is summarized by Scenario 2. Scenario 2 shows \( p_i.\text{END.turn._11} \) is NULL and \( p_i.\text{END.slc8}(1,n+1) = \text{TRUE} \), where \( n \) corresponds to \( p_j \) defining \( p_j.c_{23}(j) = \text{FALSE} \) via Leave\((j)\). Thus \( p_i \) enters \( cs_i \) for some value \( n \).

Subcase 2. Initially turn=\( j \).

This condition is summarized by scenarios 3 and 4. Scenario 3 shows \( p_i.\text{END.turn._11} \) is NULL and \( p_i.\text{END.slc8}(1,n+1) = \text{TRUE} \) for some \( n \) corresponding to \( p_j \) defining \( p_j.c_{23}(j) = \text{FALSE} \) via Leave\((j)\). Thus \( p_i \) enters \( cs_i \) for some value \( n \).

Scenario 4 shows \( p_i.\text{END.turn._11}(1,1,q+1) = \text{TRUE} \) for some \( q \) corresponding to \( p_j \) defining \( p_j.\text{turn}_22 = i \), and \( p_i.\text{END.slc8}(1,n+1) = \text{TRUE} \) for some \( n \) corresponding to \( p_j \) defining \( p_j.c_{23}(j) = \text{FALSE} \). Thus \( p_i \) enters \( cs_i \) for some values \( q \) and \( n \).

Case 3. \( p_i \) request entry into \( cs_i \) and \( p_j \) in \( cs_j \) leaves and wants to re-enter \( cs_j \).

Subcase 1. Initially turn=\( i \).

If \( p_i \) detects \( p_j \) has left \( cs_j \), i.e. \( p_i.c_{14}(1,n+1,j) = \text{FALSE} \), then this is the same as Subcase 1 of Case 2.

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On the other hand, if \( p_j \) is sufficiently fast to reference \( \text{Enter}(j) \) before \( p_i \) detects \( p_j \) has left \( c_{sj} \) then we have both \( p_i \) and \( p_j \) requesting entry into their \( cs \) and \( \text{turn}=i \). But this is equivalent to proving progress where we have already shown \( p_i \) enters \( cs_i \).

Subcase 2. Initially \( \text{turn}=j \).

This condition again corresponds to scenario 3 and 4. If \( p_i \) detects \( p_j \) has left \( c_{sj} \), i.e. \( p_i.c_{14}(1,n+1,j)=\text{FALSE} \), then this is the same as Subcase 1 of Case 2. So we assume that \( p_j \) is sufficiently fast to reference \( \text{Enter}(j) \) before \( p_i \) detects \( p_j \) has left \( c_{sj} \).

Scenario 3 shows \( p_i.c_{9}(1,i)=\text{FALSE} \). Thus \( p_j \) may re-enter its \( cs \) any number of times. But Scenario 3 also shows \( p_i.\text{END}.\text{turn}._{11} \) is NULL and \( p_i.c_{12}(1,i)=\text{TRUE} \). Thus there is a bound on the number of times \( p_j \) may re-enter its \( cs \). So for some instance we have both \( p_i \) and \( p_j \) requesting to enter their respective \( cs \) and \( \text{turn}=i \). But this is equivalent to showing progress where we have shown \( p_i \) enters \( cs_i \).

Scenario 4 shows \( p_i.c_{9}(1,i)=\text{FALSE} \). Again \( p_j \) may re-enter its \( cs \) any number of times. But Scenario 4 shows \( p_i.\text{END}.\text{turn}._{11}(1,1,q+1)=\text{TRUE} \) for some \( q \) corresponding to \( p_j \) defining \( p_j.\text{turn}._{22}=i \) and \( p_i.c_{12}(1,i)=\text{TRUE} \). Thus there is a bound on the number of times \( p_j \) may re-enter its \( cs \). So for some instance we have both \( p_i \) and \( p_j \) requesting to enter their respective \( cs \) and \( \text{turn}=i \). This is again equivalent to showing progress where it was shown \( p_i \) enters \( cs_i \).

Thus for all possible cases \( p_i \) enters \( cs_i \) and the requirement of bounded-wait is observed. □

To summarize, we proceed a proof by the derivation of the applicable situations and the generation of scenarios. We then perform the proof by referencing the values defined in the scenarios. In contrast, a proof given in [3] involves tracing the execution of the procedural program.
7 SURVEY OF TEMPORAL LOGIC

"Temporal logic is a logic of propositions whose truth and falsity may depend on time" [5]. Its interest lies in its usefulness in analysis and formalization of concurrent programs.

An execution of a program can be viewed as a sequence of states, called execution states, that undergo a series of transformations determined by the program's instructions [8]. In different states, program entities such as variables may have different values. Temporal logic enables us to discuss this change of situation over time in a formal setting.

We make no attempt here to fully formalize temporal logic. Our only interest is to present an example of how a proof in temporal logic may proceed and contrast this with the alternative approach given in Section 6. Any reader not familiar with temporal logic and wishing more detail is encouraged to read [5, 8, 9].

The execution of a concurrent program may be modeled as taking place in discrete steps. That is, although two or more processes of a program may be executing in parallel, only one statement from all processes is executed in a given step. Thus an execution of a concurrent program can be viewed as a sequentialization of its statements. The order of execution, however, is arbitrary and may vary on each run. This model of computation is called the *interleaving model* and the justification of this model is given in [5]. It is on the basis of this model that we give our example proof.

Before we present our example proof in temporal logic we need to first lay a foundation on which to proceed. We assume some minimal familiarity with temporal logic on the part of the reader.

The following definitions and rule were obtained from [5]. The invariant rule we give is stated without proof as the proof is already given in [5]. This is justified since reproduction of the proof here would mean the formalization of temporal logic which we have already stated is not our goal.
Logical operators and their meanings:

○A: “A holds at the time point immediately after the reference point” (nextime operator).

□A: “A holds at all time points after the reference point” (always operator).

◇A: “There is a time point after the reference point at which A holds” (eventually operator).

Other meanings:

α “The action represented by α is executed (next”).

at α “The action represented by α is the next one to be executed”, (“α is ready to execute”).

at ci “One of the action represented by a member of set ci is the next one to be executed.”

Abbreviations:

\[ C \text{ invof } \alpha \quad \text{for } \alpha \land C \to \circ C \]

(“C is an invariant of α”),

\[ C \text{ invof } M \quad \text{for } C \text{ invof } \alpha_1 \land \ldots \land C \text{ invof } \alpha_n, \text{ where } M=\{\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n\} \]

(“C is an invariant of every } \alpha \in M”).

\[ \text{exor } (A_1, \ldots, A_k) \quad \text{for } (A_1 \land \neg A_2 \land \ldots \land \neg A_k) \lor \]

\[(\neg A_1 \land A_2 \land \ldots \land \neg A_k) \lor \]

\[\vdots\]

\[(\neg A_1 \land \ldots \land \neg A_{k-1} \land A_k) \lor \]

(“Exactly one of } A_1, \ldots, A_k \text{ is true”),

\[ \text{excl } (A_1, \ldots, A_k) \quad \text{for exor } (A_1, \ldots, A_k) \lor (\neg A_1 \land \ldots \land \neg A_k) \]

(“At most one of } A_1, \ldots, A_k \text{ is true”).
Invariance rule:

(inv) \( A \rightarrow B, \) \( B \text{ invo}f \ M_\Pi \vdash A \rightarrow \square B. \)

This rule states “in order to prove that \( B \) holds in every execution state from a state in which \( A \) holds, show that \( B \) is true in this first state and is invariant under every action” [5].

A label, say \( \alpha_i \) is associated with each statement of the program. This label is unique and does not occur as a label for any other statement in the program.

Proving Mutual Exclusion  To contrast the difference between the approach given in Section 6 to that of temporal logic, we will again show mutual exclusion for Dekker’s algorithm. The proof is performed with respect to the original procedural language program of Figure 7.

As stated previously, we must show that if one process (\( p_j \)) is executing in its critical section (\( cs_j \)), the other process (\( p_i \)) cannot be executing in its critical section (\( cs_i \)).

We perform the following proof by the invariant method. In this method, we merely state mutual exclusion as an assertion and show this assertion is invariant under every action of the program.

For brevity let \( \Pi \) represent the main program, i.e. the program the two processes reside in. We then observe the following facts about \( \Pi \):

F1: For \( p_i \) to enter \( cs_i \), it must be that \( c[j]=\text{FALSE} \).
F2: \( p_i \) sets \( c[i]=\text{TRUE} \) before entering \( cs_i \).
F3: \( p_i \) always sets \( c[i]=\text{FALSE} \) after leaving \( cs_i \).
F4: \( c[i]=\text{TRUE} \) while \( p_i \) is in \( cs_i \).
F5: Only \( p_i \) changes the value of \( c[i] \).
Proof. Let $\alpha_k$ be the label for line $k$ in $\text{Enter}(i)$ and $\text{Leave}(i)$ of Figure 7. Likewise, let $\beta_k$ be the label for line $k$ in $\text{Enter}(j)$ and $\text{Leave}(j)$. Finally, let $c_i$ and $c_j$ be the sets of labels in the critical sections of $p_i$ and $p_j$, respectively. Then the assertion of mutual exclusion is:

$$\Pi \vdash \text{Start}_{\Pi} \rightarrow \Box \text{excl} \ (at \ c_i, \ at \ c_j).$$

To show mutual exclusion we need only show that the assertion of mutual exclusion is derivable.

Derivation of the assertion. Let $A \equiv \text{excl} \ (at \ c_i, \ at \ c_j)$ and let $M_{\Pi}$ be the set of all labels in $\Pi$. The derivation is as follows:

\begin{align*}
(1) & \quad \text{Start}_{\Pi} \rightarrow A & \text{definition of start} \\
(2) & \quad A \ \text{invof} \ M_{\Pi}\setminus\{\alpha_6,\ldots,\alpha_{14},\alpha_{22},\alpha_{23},\beta_6,\ldots,\beta_{14},\beta_{22},\beta_{23}\} & \text{since without occurrence of c[i],c[j] and turn} \\
(3) & \quad \text{at} \ \{\alpha_6,\ldots,\alpha_{14},\alpha_{22},\alpha_{23}\} \land A \rightarrow \neg \text{at} \ c_i & \Pi \\
(4) & \quad \{\alpha_6,\ldots,\alpha_{13},\alpha_{22},\alpha_{23}\} \land A \rightarrow \circ A & \Pi, \ (3) \\
(5) & \quad \alpha_6 \rightarrow \circ c[i]=\text{TRUE} & \Pi \\
(6) & \quad \alpha_9 \rightarrow \circ c[i]=\text{FALSE} & \Pi \\
(7) & \quad \alpha_{12} \rightarrow \circ c[i]=\text{TRUE} & \Pi \\
(8) & \quad \alpha_9 \rightarrow \Diamond \alpha_{12} & \Pi \\
(9) & \quad \text{at} \ \alpha_{14} \rightarrow c[i]=\text{TRUE} \land c[j]=\text{FALSE} & \Pi,(5),(6),(7),(8) \\
(10) & \quad c[i]=\text{TRUE} \land c[j]=\text{FALSE} \rightarrow \neg \text{at} \ c_j & \Pi,F_1,F_2,F_3,F_4 \\
(11) & \quad \text{at} \ \alpha_{14} \land A \rightarrow \neg \text{at} \ c_i \land \neg \text{at} \ c_j & \Pi,(9),(10) \\
(12) & \quad \alpha_{14} \land A \rightarrow \circ A & \Pi,(11) \\
(13) & \quad A \ \text{invof} \ \{\beta_6,\ldots,\beta_{14},\beta_{22},\beta_{23}\} & \text{in the same way as (4) and (12)} \\
(14) & \quad A \ \text{invof} \ M_{\Pi} & (2),(4),(12),(13) \\
(15) & \quad \text{Start}_{\Pi} \rightarrow \Box \ A & (\text{inv}), \ (1), \ (14) \ \square
\end{align*}

We point out that this is not a derivation in the strict sense. Some steps have been abbreviated and purely logical rules and laws have been omitted. This was done to minimize time spent on developing temporal logic for this example.

This proof technique is mathematically rigorous and is widely regarded as a promising approach to proving program correctness. However, this approach requires the user to be
knowledgeable in (temporal) logic.

The approach we have presented in Section 6 requires no understanding of any formal logic. All that is required is some basic understanding of regular and boolean algebra.

The process of proving an assertion in temporal logic is entirely manual. The analyst must first formally state the assertion he/she wishes to prove. Then he/she must manually step through the program with no aid.

On the otherhand, the approach in Section 6 is largely automated. Information is gained both interactively and automatically. The applicable situations are derived while interacting with the computer. The computer also automatically generates the scenario of variable values determined by the initial source variable values. No manual stepping through of the specification is require.
8 CONCLUSION

Reverse Software Engineering is a method to utilize outdated programs to reduce the cost of developing new replacement systems. The old computer systems are assumed to be inadequate in functionality and implementation technology. Still, to reduce cost it is desired to reuse what is available in the old system as a basis for making appropriate modifications. This is becoming increasingly important as the rapid advancements in new technology quickly age existing systems [11].

One of the major problems with software development and modification is the need of the user to "think like a computer." By translating the procedural language program into a specification we relieve the user of computer oriented concerns such as execution sequences, loops, side effects and efficiency. The generated specification contain only dataflow information and rules for data transformation [6]. All analysis and modification are performed on the specification. Efficient programs are then automatically generated from the specification.

By using a mathematical representation as a medium for understanding, analyzing and modifying old programs we can avoid many of the difficulties inherent in procedural language programs and reduce software development costs. This is the underlying notion of this paper.

The major contribution of this paper is the algorithm for translating concurrent procedural programs into specifications, and especially the new treatment of shared memory. To maintain in the specification the time precedences in the program, declarations of the shared memory specify order of references and use a renaming scheme to map these declarations to the structure of the real shared memory.

Another contribution is the methodology of proving program correctness presented in Section 6. By using the Scenario Table the reader can more easily comprehend the values being defined and prove assertions about the specification.
We have also described graphical ways of presenting information about the specification, the generation of which may be automated. This is the dataflow diagram of shared memory, the Applicable Situations table and the Scenarios table.
References


