CITS5501 Software Testing and Quality Assurance Formal methods

Unit coordinator: Arran Stewart

Specification languages

Sources

- Pressman, R., Software Engineering: A Practitioner's Approach, McGraw-Hill, 2005
- Huth and Ryan, Logic in Computer Science
- Pierce et al, Software Foundations vol 1
- Alloy tutorial at http://alloytools.org/tutorials/online/

System specifications can suffer from a few potential problems.

- Contradictions. In a very large set of specifications, it can be difficult to tell whether there are requirements that contradict each other.
 - Can arise where e.g. specifications are obtained from multiple users/stakeholders
 - Example: one requirement says "all temperatures" in a chemical reactor must be monitored, another (obtained from another member of staff) says only temperatures in a specific range.

- Ambiguities. i.e., statements which can be interpreted in multiple different ways.
 - "The operator identity consists of the operator name and password; the password consists of six digits. It should be displayed on the security screen and deposited in the login file when an operator logs into the system."

- Ambiguities. i.e., statements which can be interpreted in multiple different ways.
 - "The operator identity consists of the operator name and password; the password consists of six digits. It should be displayed on the security screen and deposited in the login file when an operator logs into the system."
- ... Does "it" refer to the identity, or the password?

- Ambiguities. i.e., statements which can be interpreted in multiple different ways.
 - "The operator identity consists of the operator name and password; the password consists of six digits. It should be displayed on the security screen and deposited in the login file when an operator logs into the system."
- ... Does "it" refer to the identity, or the password?
- "Should" can be ambiguous does "The system should do X"
 mean the system must do X, or that it is optional but desirable
 that the system do X?

- Ambiguities. i.e., statements which can be interpreted in multiple different ways.
 - "The operator identity consists of the operator name and password; the password consists of six digits. It should be displayed on the security screen and deposited in the login file when an operator logs into the system."
- ... Does "it" refer to the identity, or the password?
- "Should" can be ambiguous does "The system should do X"
 mean the system must do X, or that it is optional but desirable
 that the system do X?
- Many terms have both technical and non-technical meanings (possibly multiple of each): for instance, "reliable", "robust", "composable", "category", "failure", "orthogonal", "back end", "kernel", "platform", "entropy" . . .

• Vagueness. Vagueness occurs when it's unclear what a concept covers, or which things belong to a category and which don't.

- Vagueness. Vagueness occurs when it's unclear what a concept covers, or which things belong to a category and which don't.
- "is tall" is vague: some people are definitely tall, and some are definitely short, but it can be difficult to tell when exactly someone meets the criterion of being tall.

- Vagueness. Vagueness occurs when it's unclear what a concept covers, or which things belong to a category and which don't.
- "is tall" is vague: some people are definitely tall, and some are definitely short, but it can be difficult to tell when exactly someone meets the criterion of being tall.
- Likewise "fast", "performant", "efficiently", "scalable", "flexible", "is user-friendly", "should be secure", "straightforward to understand" are all vague.

• *Incompleteness*. This covers specifications that, for instance, fail to specify what should happen in some case.

- *Incompleteness*. This covers specifications that, for instance, fail to specify what should happen in some case.
- e.g. An obviously incomplete requirement: "A user may specify normal or emergency mode when requesting a system shutdown. In normal mode, pending operations shall be logged and the system shut down within 2 minutes."

- *Incompleteness*. This covers specifications that, for instance, fail to specify what should happen in some case.
- e.g. An obviously incomplete requirement: "A user may specify normal or emergency mode when requesting a system shutdown. In normal mode, pending operations shall be logged and the system shut down within 2 minutes."
- ... So what happens in emergency mode?

- *Incompleteness*. This covers specifications that, for instance, fail to specify what should happen in some case.
- e.g. An obviously incomplete requirement: "A user may specify normal or emergency mode when requesting a system shutdown. In normal mode, pending operations shall be logged and the system shut down within 2 minutes."
- ... So what happens in emergency mode?
- But other cases of incompleteness may be harder to spot.

- In addition to these, there are many other ways requirements can be written poorly –
 - e.g. Overly long and complex sentences, mixed levels of abstraction (mixing high-level, abstract statements with very low-level ones \rightarrow difficult to distinguish high-level architecture from low-level details), undefined jargon terms, specifying implementation rather than requirements (how vs what), over-specifying, don't satisfy business needs, etc.

In addition to these, there are many other ways requirements can be written poorly –
 e.g. Overly long and complex sentences, mixed levels of abstraction (mixing high-level, abstract statements with very low-level ones → difficult to distinguish high-level architecture from low-level details), undefined jargon terms, specifying

 Formal specifications can potentially help avoid ambiguity, vagueness, contradiction and some gaps in completeness.

over-specifying, don't satisfy business needs, etc.

implementation rather than requirements (how vs what),

- In addition to these, there are many other ways requirements can be written poorly −
 e.g. Overly long and complex sentences, mixed levels of abstraction (mixing high-level, abstract statements with very low-level ones → difficult to distinguish high-level architecture from low-level details), undefined jargon terms, specifying implementation rather than requirements (how vs what), over-specifying, don't satisfy business needs, etc.
- Formal specifications can potentially help avoid ambiguity, vagueness, contradiction and some gaps in completeness.
- Other problems, not so much. Just as it's possible to write programs badly in any language, it's also possible to write formal specifications badly.

There is still a need for *review* of specifications, as with any artifact.

Some example requirements¹:

- "The system shall be highly reliable."
- "Credit card details must be encrypted."
- "The system should be easy to use by medical staff and should be organized in such a way that user errors are minimized."
- "The system shall have a response time of under 0.1 seconds."
- "If the LAUNCH-MISSILE signal is set to TRUE and the ABORT-MISSILE signal is set to TRUE then do not launch the missile, unless the ABORT-MISSILE signal is set to FALSE and the ABORT-MISSILE-OVERRIDE is also set to FALSE, in which case the missile is not to be launched."

¹Sources: Pressman; LaPlante, Requirements Engineering, bitter experience.

Formal specifications

- Formal specifications can help with ameliorating these problems.
- Sometimes, just the process of attempting to formalize a requirement can reveal problems with it.
- Using a formal model can help reveal ambiguity and vagueness and allow them to be eliminated
- It may also be possible (depending on the mathematical model used) to detect inconsistencies
- Detecting whether a specification is complete is more difficult.
 - Some gaps may be able to be detected
 - But there are nearly always some details that are left undefined, or scenarios that may not have been considered.

Formal specifications

- Formal specifications have a meaning defined in terms of mathematics.
- Similar to programming languages, there are different sorts of formal specification languages and tools, with different sorts of scope.

Types of specification languages/notations

Some are small and specific in scope. For instance:

- State charts, which we have seen, define states and transitions between them.
- Backus-Naur Form, which we have also seen, defines languages

 sets of strings.
- Regular expressions also define sets of strings (most programming languages have an implementation of them)
- π -calculus is used to represent concurrent systems

These examples highlight another reason to use formal specifications: sometimes they're the most concise way of saying something. Writing a grammar or set of state transitions in natural language (rather than BNF or as a state chart) would be a gruelling and horrible exercise.

Types of specification languages/notations

 Some languages/notations more general, and are intended to be able to describe a wide range of systems. They may be based on numerous different mathematical formalisms – predicate logic + set theory, category theory, etc.

Formal specification languages

Some examples of general-purpose specification languages:

Z notation

- based on set theory and predicate logic
- developed in the 1970s.
- Now has an ISO standard, and variations (e.g. object-oriented versions)

TLA+:

- Stands for "Temporal Logic of Actions"
- A general-purpose specification language
- Especially well-suited for writing specifications of concurrent and distributed systems
- For finite state systems, can check (up to some number of steps) that particular properties hold (e.g. safety, no deadlock)

Formal specification languages

- We'll be using the **Alloy** specification language
- Alloy is both a language for describing structures, and a tool (written in Java) for exploring and checking those structures.
- Influenced by Z notation, and modelling languages such as UML (the Unified Modelling Language).
- Website: http://alloy.mit.edu/ (The Alloy Analyzer tool can be downloaded from here.)
- Online demo: the website at http://alloy4fun.inesctec.pt allows
 Alloy to be run via a web browser.

Alloy language

- We'll look at a simple model of a file system (based on the Alloy tutorial at http://alloytools.org/tutorials/online/)
- To a first approximation, Alloy looks a little like Java:

```
// A file system object in the file system
sig FSObject { parent: lone Dir }

// A directory in the file system
sig Dir extends FSObject { contents: set FSObject }

// A file in the file system
sig File extends FSObject { }
```

Alloy

In Alloy, we declare rules about a mini-universe: things that exist, and properties that should be true of them.

• "There are things called animals"

```
sig Animal {}
```

"A cat is a sort of animal"

```
sig Cat extends Animal {}
```

Alloy's semantics are defined in terms of mathematical relations.

Example relations:

- "Is less than". e.g. "2 < 4", "10 < 9".
- "Is the blood relative of". e.g. "Alice is the blood relative of Bob".
- "Shares an office with". e.g. "Bob shares an office with Carol".

These are all *binary relations*. Statements about two entities, which can be true or false.

Relations can also be *unary* (about one entity):

- "Is even". e.g. "even(2).
- "Is an employee". e.g. "Dan is an employee".

They can be ternary:

• "_ is delivered to _, by _". e.g. "The *blue book* was delivered to *Alice*, by *Bob*".

Or, in general, they can be n-ary – a statement about n things.

We can think of predicates as being functions — an n-ary predicate isn't true or false in itself, until we supply it with n arguments.

• "Is less than" isn't true or false, but "2 < 4" is.

Another way of viewing relations is as being a sort of table – containing all the things of which the predicate is true.

e.g. "shares an office with":

Person A	Person B
Alice	Bob
Bob	Alice
Dan	Eve
Eve	Dan

Relations can be finite, or infinite.

An infinite relation: "is less than"

Number A	Number B
1	2
1	3
2	3

Alloy - sigs

sig Animal {} says "There are things called animals".

It defines a unary relation, "Animal". Something thing can be-an-animal, or not.

Alloy – sigs

sig Cat extends Animal {} says "Cats are a sort of animal".

If something has the property "is-an-animal", then it might also have the property "is-a-cat".

We can read "extends" as also meaning "is a kind of", or "is a subtype of".

Alloy – subtypes

- So, extends indicates subtypes (similar to Java).
- Here, Dir and File are both subtypes of FSObject:

```
sig FSObject {}
sig Dir extends FSObject {}
sig File extends FSObject {}
```

- When we declare Dir or a File to be sub-types of FSObject, they are considered to be mutually disjoint sets
- The above says "There are things called FSObjects. An FSObject might be a Dir or it might be a File, but not both".

We can specify properties of entities:

```
// A file system object in the file system
sig FSObject { parent: lone Dir }

// A directory in the file system
sig Dir extends FSObject { contents: set FSObject }

// A file in the file system
sig File extends FSObject { }
```

```
// A file system object in the file system
sig FSObject { parent: lone Dir }

// A directory in the file system
sig Dir extends FSObject { contents: set FSObject }

// A file in the file system
sig File extends FSObject { }
```

These are usually written within the sig of an entity.

They actually represent relations between entities.

```
// A file system object in the file system sig FSObject { parent: lone Dir } \,
```

There are multiple ways of reading this:

- "There are such things as FSObjects. An FSObject has the property 'parent'. An FSObject can have zero or one parents."
 Or –
- "A relation 'parent' exists between FSObjects and Dirs.
 Whenever an FSObject appears in the relation, it can be association with at most one Dir."

These are exactly equivalent.

```
// A file system object in the file system
sig FSObject { parent: lone Dir }
```

- The "lone" means "zero or one". It is a cardinality.
- Other possible cardinalities are:
 - "some" (one or more)
 - "one" (exactly one)
 - "set" (zero or more)
- When we specify a property using a colon in this way, the default multiplicity is one.
- We can use cardinalities whenever we are specifying a set or relation: since sigs also represent sets (e.g. the set of Dirs), we can give them cardinalities, too.

```
one sig RootDir extends Dir { }
```

There exists a "RootDir", but only one of them.

Games:

- There are things called games.
- Games can be board games, or field games.
- There may be other sorts of games.

Alloy language – comments

```
// A file system object in the file system
sig FSObject { parent: lone Dir }

// A directory in the file system
sig Dir extends FSObject { contents: set FSObject }

// A file in the file system
sig File extends FSObject { }
```

• Comments can be written in multiple ways

Alloy language – comments

```
// A file system object in the file system
sig FSObject { parent: lone Dir }

// A directory in the file system
sig Dir extends FSObject { contents: set FSObject }

// A file in the file system
sig File extends FSObject { }
```

- Comments can be written in multiple ways
 - single-line comments with "//" or " - "

Alloy language – comments

```
// A file system object in the file system
sig FSObject { parent: lone Dir }

// A directory in the file system
sig Dir extends FSObject { contents: set FSObject }

// A file in the file system
sig File extends FSObject { }
```

- Comments can be written in multiple ways
 - single-line comments with "//" or " - "
 - multi-line comments with "/* ... */"

Alloy – facts

How can we express that any FSObject is either a Dir or a File?
 (i.e., there are no other sorts of FSObject)

Alloy – facts

- How can we express that any FSObject is either a Dir or a File? (i.e., there are no other sorts of FSObject)
- Alloy also allows us to specify constraints. These are introduced with the keyword fact.

```
sig FSObject { parent: lone Dir }
sig Dir extends FSObject { contents: set FSObject }
sig File extends FSObject { }

// All file system objects are either files or directories
fact { File + Dir = FSObject }
```

Alloy – facts

The general syntax for a fact is

```
fact name { formulas }
```

• formulas are Boolean expressions, and by putting them in a fact, we're constraining them to be true.

Alloy – abstract signatures

 (An alternative way to say that all FSObjects must be Dirs or Files would be to declare FSObject abstract)

Alloy – abstract signatures

- (An alternative way to say that all FSObjects must be Dirs or Files would be to declare FSObject abstract)
- (This is similar to the use of the abstract keyword in Java; it means there are no objects that are directly of type FSObject; they must be members of some subtype, instead.)

Alloy – operators

Operators are available to construct Boolean expressions.

- subset: in
 - set1 in set2 set1 is a subset of set2
 - informally: "some set2 are set1", or "a set2 may be set1"; but the set-theoretic meaning is more precise.
- set equality: =
 - set1 = set2 set1 equals set2
- scalar equality: =
 - scalar = value scalar equals value

Alloy – subsets

- We saw that subtypes are disjoint.
- We can also declare subsets:

```
sig signame in supername { ... }
```

 Subsets are not necessarily disjoint, and may have multiple parents

Alloy – subsets

```
sig Animal {}
sig Cat extends Animal {}
sig Dog extends Animal {}
sig FurryPet in Cat + Dog {}
```

- "FurryPet" is a subset of the union of Cat and Dog.
- Some dogs and cats may not be furry (hairless breeds).
- We could *make* them all furry as follows:

```
fact { Cat + Dog = FurryPet }
```

Are there animals other than cats and dogs?
 Can they be furry?

More operators

- We can use Boolean connectives and, or, implies, iff, not to join Boolean expressions.
- e.g.

fact {
$$A + B = C$$
 and $X + Y = Z$ }

- In our file-system example, we also saw things in the *body* of signatures (i.e., between the braces).
- // A file system object in the file system
 sig FSObject { parent: lone Dir }

 // A directory in the file system
 sig Dir extends FSObject { contents: set FSObject }

 // A file in the file system
 sig File extends FSObject { }

```
  // A file system object in the file system
  sig FSObject { parent: lone Dir }

  // A directory in the file system
  sig Dir extends FSObject { contents: set FSObject }

  // A file in the file system
  sig File extends FSObject { }
```

- To a first approximation, we can think of relations as behaving like fields in an OO language.
- sig FSObject { parent: lone Dir } can be read as
 "Things of type FSObject have a parent, which is of type Dir".
- lone means "at most one" i.e., you can have zero or one parents.
 (We need this because the root directory has no parent.)

```
• // A file system object in the file system
sig FSObject { parent: lone Dir }

// A directory in the file system
sig Dir extends FSObject { contents: set FSObject }

// A file in the file system
sig File extends FSObject { }
```

More precisely, parent is a relation between FSObject and Dir.

Relations – multiplicities

- **lone** is a type of multiplicity it says how many of something there are.
- Other multiplicities:
 - one one
 - some at least one; one or more
 - set zero or more
 - no zero
- The default multiplicity is one.

Relations – multiplicities

- In set theory terms . . .
- one means the relation is a total function —
 sig Student { name : one String } —
 for every Student, we can map to a string which is their name.
- lone means the relation is a partial function —
 sig Student { driverLicenseNum : lone String } \
 for every Student, we may be able to map to a diver's license number.
 - (Here, it's assumed you can't have more than one license.)

• So, signature declarations will look like:

```
sig SomeName {
  field1 : FieldType,
  field2a, field2b : OtherFieldType
}
```

• The order of declarations doesn't matter — SomeName, FieldType and OtherFieldType could be declared in any order in a file.

- // A directory in the file system
 sig Dir extends FSObject { contents: set FSObject }
- Here, we say that a Dir has a field contents, which is a set of FSObjects.
- The could contain one item, many items, or no items.

Examples

```
"A car has one engine"
sig Car { engine: one Engine }, or
sig Car { engine: Engine }
"People have zero or more hobbies"
sig Person { hobbies: set Activity }
```

• Classes have at least one lecturer, and zero or more students.

- Classes have at least one lecturer, and zero or more students.
- Animals have zero or more legs

- Classes have at least one lecturer, and zero or more students.
- Animals have zero or more legs
- Some animals are carnivores

- Classes have at least one lecturer, and zero or more students.
- Animals have zero or more legs
- Some animals are carnivores
- Textbooks have one or more pages

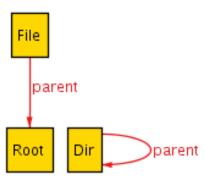
Back to the file system example

```
sig FSObject { parent: lone Dir }
sig Dir extends FSObject { contents: set FSObject }
sig File extends FSObject { }
// There exists a root
one sig Root extends Dir { } { no parent }
```

- FSObjects have parents, and directories have contents, and we have constrained the multiplicities . . .
- but there's currently no connection between them.

File system

• So we could have this situation:



File system

• We will need to constrain things more, so we'll use a fact.

```
// A directory is the parent of its contents
fact { all d: Dir, o: d.contents | o.parent = d }
```

- This says: "for any thing (let's call it d for the moment) of type Dir, and for any thing (let's call it o for the moment) which is in the set d.contents:
 o's parent is d.
- It uses a quantifier ("all") we'll look at these more later.