

Department of Software Engineering

Documentation of Software Engineering

Z specification language

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INTRODUCTION



Example

A student may join the class if the class is not already full and if the student has not already enrolled. A new student cannot have passed all their assignments.

```
EnrolOk

AClass

student?: STUDENT

The ? in student? means input.

#enrolled < maxClassSize

student? ∉ enrolled

enrolled' = enrolled ∪ { student? }

passed' = passed
```



Zed Specification Language

- Based on typed set theory
- The most widely-used formal specification language
- Built upon schemas
 - Basic building blocks
 - Allow modularity
 - Easier to understand by using graphical presentation
- pronounced "Zed"





Set Display

```
{ tom, anne, jerry }
{ 1988, 1992, 1996, 2000, 2004 }
{ abc, bca, cab, acb, bac, cba }
```

- We use curly brackets to separate the list from its surroundings.
- The objects that make up a set are known as its *elements* or *members*.
- We separate one member from the next by a comma.



Naming a Set

• If a set has too many members to conveniently list, we can simply give them descriptive names.

PERSON - the set of all people
LEAPYEAR - the set of all leap years ever
PASSWORD - the set of all possible passwords

- We follow the convention that names we choose for our sets
 - are written entirely in capital letters PERSON not Person
 - are singular PASSWORD not PASSWORDS
 - do not contain spaces, underscores or hyphens-LEAPYEAR not LEAP YEAR



Some Standard Sets

- Some sets have names already assigned to them.
 - \mathbb{Z} (say fat zed) the set of all whole numbers, negative, zero and positive. -1, 0, 1 are members of this set.
 - N (say fat en) the set of natural numbers including zero. 0, 1, 2 are members of this set.
 - ∅ the empty set, the set with no members. Think of an empty bag there is nothing in it.

Z and \mathbb{Z} are not the same thing. Z is the name of a notation that uses maths to specify computer systems. Z is the set of all whole numbers. Whole numbers are also known as *integ*



Number Range

- If a sequence of integers form a set, we can use number range notation.
- 1..7 (say 1 up to 7) is the set of all integers between 1 and 7 inclusive.
- 1..7 is the set { 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7 }. Note that there are just two dots between the two integers that mark the beginning and end of the sequence.



Membership

- If we look at the set { 1988, 1992, 1996, 2000, 2004 } we can see that 2000 is an element of the set but 2001 is not.
 We write
- 2000 e { 1988, 1992, 1996, 2000, 2004 } where e means isa-member-of

And

2001 ‰ { 1988, 1992, 1996, 2000, 2004 } where ‰ means is-not-a-member-of



Equality

- Two sets are equal if they both have exactly the same elements. For example { 1988, 1992, 1996, 2000, 2004 } = { 2000, 1996, 1988, 2004, 1992 }
- = means is-the-same-as.
- But if two sets do not have exactly the same elements, they are not equal. For example
 - { 1988, 1992, 1996, 2000, 2004} ≠ { 1988, 1992, 1996, 2000 } are not equal because 2004 is a member of one set but not the other.
 - ≠ means is-not-the-same-as.



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BASIC TYPES



Basic Types

- a person has a name, a date of birth and an address. If we do not need to be concerned with details such as title, forename, middle names and surname, we introduce the type NAME, the set of all possible names.
- If we do not need to bother with days, months, years and calendars (e.g. Chinese, Bengali and Gregorian) we introduce the type *DATE*, the set of all possible dates.
- If we do not need to bother with house number, street, city and postcode, we introduce the type ADDRESS, the set of all postal addresses.



Basic Types

- [ADDRESS, DATE, NAME]
 - We introduce as given sets *ADDRESS*, *DATE* and *NAME*. ADDRESS is the set of all postal addresses anywhere. DATE, the set of all possible dates in all possible calendars. NAME is the set of all names in full that any person might have.



Declarations

 PERSON, the set of all possible people on this planet, is pretty large. If we want to refer to just one of them we write

aPerson: PERSON

- aPerson represents just one, any one, of all the possible elements in PERSON.
- aPerson: PERSON is an example of a declaration.



Declarations - Parts

A declaration has two parts.

aPerson: PERSON

- To the right of the colon is the name of a set; this name is PERSON.
- To the left of the colon is a name for any element from that set; this name is aPerson. Since we do not necessarily know which element aPerson represents, aPerson is called a variable.
- A variable has a name (e.g., aPerson) a type (e.g., PERSON) and a value taken from the type. Look at this declaration.
 - aPersonsAge: 0..130



Declarations - Parts (Example)

aPersonsAge: 0..130

• The name of the variable is aPersonsAge. Its type is \mathbb{Z} because the values 0, 1, 2, and so on up to 130 are all elements from the larger set \mathbb{Z} . We think of a type as an inclusive set. Each element in the same set has the same type.



Naming Variables

 We choose our own names for variables. We choose descriptive names whenever clarity is required. For example.

aPersonsAge: 0..130 rather than a: 0..130

 We choose a single letter when there is no doubt about clarity (but readers often appreciate more descriptive names).

p: PERSON is ok but aPerson: PERSON might be preferable.



Naming Variables – Naming Convention

- We follow the convention that names we choose for our variables
 - start with a lower case letter person not Person
 - are written entirely in lower case except the first letter of each word in the name – aPersonsAge not apersonsage
 - do not contain spaces, underscores or hyphens anAddress not an Address
- Writing variable names in a mixture of lower and upper case (capital) letters helps us to tell them apart from type names, which are written entirely in upper case.



Consistency

- Every Z object is a type of one kind or another. This is important because it helps us discover inconsistencies in what we write.
 - For example, given the type

[PERSON]

and the declarations

p, q: PERSON

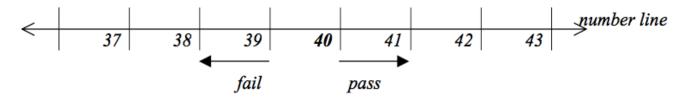
 $r: \mathbb{Z}$

- p = q is consistent because both p and q are variables of type PERSON.
- But to say p = r is a nonsense because p is of type PERSON and r is of type integer. How can you say that a person and an integer are the same object?



The Numeric Comparison and Operators

• 40% is a critical mark in some exams. A mark of 40 or more is a pass. A mark of 39 or less is a fail. The boundary between fail and pass is shown on the number line below.



- 39 is-less-than 40. We write 39 < 40. < means is-less-than.
- 41 is-more-than 40. We write 41 > 40. > means is-more-than.
- < and > are known as comparison or relational operators.
- ≤ means less-than-or-equal-to. ≥ means more-than-or-equal-to.



Predicates

- The types of predicate we shall discuss include
 - =, ∈ equals and membership
 - <,> relations: less than and more than
 - A, V connectives: conjunction (and) and disjunction (or)
- Putting the declaration and predicate together, as shown below, specifies a set.

$$\{ n: \mathbb{Z} | n > 0 \}$$

- The declaration and predicate parts are separated by a symbol.
- The declaration to the left of the | is the source of the elements of the set. The predicate to the right of the |.



The Connectives

- The connectives include conjunction (and) and disjunction (or). They allow us to connect smaller predicates together to form larger ones.
- For example, given the declaration $n : \mathbb{Z}$, here are two small predicates that say n is more than zero and n is less than 6.

Now join them together with a ∧, which means and-at-the-same-time.

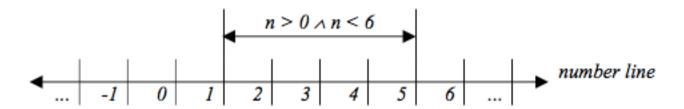
$$n>0 \land n<6$$



The Connectives – conjunction

 We then have a composite predicate known as a conjunction. This predicate is true if n is more than 0 and, at the same time, n is less than 6.

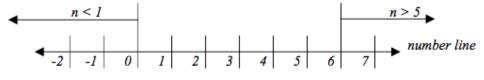
$$\{ n : \mathbb{Z} \mid n > 0 \land n < 6 \} = \{ 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 \}$$





The Connectives – disjunction

Here are two small predicates that say n is less than 1 and n is more than 5.



Now join them together with V, meaning or.



The Connectives – disjunction

 We then have a composite predicate known as a disjunction. The predicate is true if either n is less than 1 or n is more than 5.

$$\{ n : \mathbb{Z} \mid n < 1 \lor n > 5 \} = \{ ..., -2, -1, 0, 6, 7, 8, ... \}$$

This is the set of all integers excluding { 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 }



It is easy to remember what the two symbols Λ and V mean when you notice that the Λ looks a bit like the Λ in And.



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SCHEMAS



Schemas

- Now we see how to combine declarations and predicates into structures called schemas.
- A schema represents a system's state.
- A collection of schemas models the behaviour of a computer system.
- System: The system we shall look at is a simple counter. A
 counter would be used, for example, to count the number
 of vehicles passing a census point, the number of people
 entering a stadium or the number of fleas in a bird's nest.
- **State**: The contents of a system's memory are called its state.





Z Schema

		Schema name	
Container —	7		
contents: N capacity: N			Schema signature
contents ≤ capacity	 		- Schema predicates

Schema predicates are always true Predicates can refer only to elements in the signature



Schemas – System and State

- System: The system we shall look at is a simple counter. A
 counter would be used, for example, to count the number
 of vehicles passing a census point, the number of people
 entering a stadium or the number of fleas in a bird's nest.
- **State**: The contents of a system's memory are called its state. For our counter system that would be the current value of the count together with the maximum it can reach.
 - We would have the initial state when the count is zero, maximum is 9999 (say).
 - Initial state: count = 0, maximum = 9999



Schemas – State (Interim and End State)

 We might have an interim state when the count is between zero and the maximum value that count can have.

Interim state: count = 147, maximum = 9999

 We might have an end state when the count has reached it maximum value and cannot be advanced any further.

End state: count = 9999, maximum = 9999

• Effectively, the state of a system is the collection of values stored in its variables.



State Space Schemas

 Here is an example state-space schema, representing part of a system that records details about the phone numbers of staff. (Assume that NAME is a set of names, and PHONE is a set of phone numbers.)

PhoneBook _____

known: IP NAME

 $tel: NAME \rightarrow PHONE$

dom tel = known



State Space Schemas

- The declarations part of this schema introduces two variables: *known* and *tel*.
- The value of *known* will be a subset of *NAME*, i.e., a set of names. [This variable will be used to represent all the names that we know about — those that we can give a phone number for.]
- The value of tel will be a partial function from NAME to PHONE, i.e., it will associate names with phone numbers.
- The domain of tel is always equal to the set known.

PhoneBook .

known: IP NAME

 $tel: NAME \rightarrow PHONE$

dom tel = known





System State Schemas

- A counter has just two variables, one that we shall name count, one that we shall name maximum. count can equal, but never exceed, maximum. Variables are derived from what an object has.
- A schema is a set of variables together with a set of predicates constraining those variables. A schema is drawn as an open box - see below.

— Counter —	
count : №	
maximum : N	
count ≤ maximum	





System State Schemas

Our schema, named Counter and shown above, has two variables, count and maximum, and one predicate count ≤ maximum.

 We (nearly) always start schema names with an uppercase letter. A schema name cannot contain spaces.





Schemas - The Initial State

We describe the state the system is in when it is first started. The *InitCounter* schema defined below describes the initial state of Counter.

InitCounter Counter	
count = 0 maximum = 9999	
—InitCounter ———— count : № maximum : №	
count ≤ maximum count = 0 maximum = 9999	



Query System State

– QueryCount – ECounter count! : N	
count! = count	

Ecounter (say Xi Counter) says include all the variables and predicates defined in the Counter schema; the values stored in these variables will not change.

The declaration count!: N says count output is drawn from the set N. The! mark stands for

output.

The predicate count! = count says count output is the same as the (system variable) count.



Change System State

- Not only does a schema define and report on a system's state, it also describes changes in that state.
- The value of count does not remain the same forever. From time to time the counter will be clicked and the value stored in count will be moved on. The Click schema shown below updates the count system state variable but leaves the maximum variable unchanged.

```
Click
ΔCounter

count < maximum
count' = count + 1
maximum' = maximum
```



Change System State

```
Click

\( \Delta \cont < maximum \)

count < maximum

count' = count + 1

maximum' = maximum
```

- ΔCounter (say delta Counter) says
 - include all the variables and predicates defined in the Counter schema
 - the values stored in some (or all) of these variables may well change
 - decorate each variable with a 'to represent the state after an update has taken place





A student may join the class if the class is not already full and if the student has not already enrolled. A new student cannot have passed all their assignments.



A student may join the class if the class is not already full and if the student has not already enrolled. A new student cannot have passed all their assignments.

```
EnrolOk

AClass

student?: STUDENT

The ? in student? means input.

#enrolled < maxClassSize

student? ∉ enrolled

enrolled' = enrolled ∪ { student? }

passed' = passed
```





An existing student is transferred to the passed set provided they have passed all their assignments and have not already been transferred. Every student in passed must also be in enrolled.



An existing student is transferred to the passed set provided they have passed all their assignments and have not already been transferred. Every student in passed must also be in enrolled.

```
CompleteOk
ΔClass
student?: STUDENT

student? ∈ enrolled
student? ∉ passed
enrolled' = enrolled
passed' = passed ∪ { student? }
```



Only those existing students who have passed may leave with a certificate

```
-LeaveWithCertificateOk

ΔClass

student?: STUDENT

student? ∈ passed

enrolled' = enrolled \ { student? }

passed' = passed \ { student? }
```





Success and Error Schemas

The Success schema has just one declaration and one predicate. It will be combined with other schemas to indicate their successful outcome.

```
report! = success
```

The class is full if the number of enrolled students has reached (or by some mistake has exceeded) the maximum class size.

```
ClassFull

EClass

report!: REPORT

#enrolled > maxClassSize

report! = classFull
```



A student cannot be enrolled again if they are already enrolled.

```
AlreadyEnrolled

EClass

student? : STUDENT

report! : REPORT

student? ∈ enrolled

report! = alreadyEnrolled
```



report! = notEnrolled

Example 4

If a student is not enrolled they cannot be passed.

-NotEnrolled

EClass

student? : STUDENT

report! : REPORT

student? ∉ enrolled



The same student cannot be passed twice.

A student who has not passed cannot leave with a certificate.

```
NotPassed

EClass

student?: STUDENT

report!: REPORT

student? ∉ passed

report! = notPassed
```





 A hotel maintains a record of the current state of its rooms, whether occupied or not. Write and explain a Z specification for the system described below.

Use Case: Commission

Purpose: to add a new room to the hotels rooms for guests system

Pre-conditions: the room has not already been added

Initiating Actor: accommodation manager

1 manager inputs details of the new room

2 system confirms new room added

3 exit success

Exceptions

2a room already in the system

2a1 exit failure



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REFERENCES





References/1

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QUESTIONS?



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thank you.