

Specifications

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Motivation

- When choosing a particular data-structure, I care about:
 - How to create the structure
 - What operations I can perform
 - and what these operations do
 - The performance
- If someone else implemented it for me, I don't really care about the data-structure
- An algebraic specification is an abstraction that focuses on the operations, not the data-structure (or performance)



Algebraic specifications in ocaml

- Ocaml lets you specify the operations in a signature
- The types give *some* information on what the operations do
- The comments should give the remainder of the information
- Signatures (with comments) are precisely the right abstraction level for specifications!



Example specification (taken from Batteries)

```
module BatDeque: sig .. end
```

```
type 'a t = 'a dq
```

A synonym for convenience

Construction

```
val empty : 'a dq
```

The empty deque.

```
val cons : 'a -> 'a dq -> 'a  
dq
```

`cons x dq` adds `x` to the front of `dq`.
O(1)

```
val snoc : 'a dq -> 'a -> 'a  
dq
```

`snoc x dq` adds `x` to the rear of `dq`. O(1)

Deconstruction

```
val front : 'a dq -> ('a *  
'a dq) option
```

`front dq` returns `Some (x, dq')` iff `x` is at the front of `dq` and `dq'` is the rest of `dq` excluding `x`, and `None` if `dq` has no elements. O(1) amortized, O(n) worst case

```
val rear : 'a dq -> ('a dq *  
'a) option
```

`rear dq` returns `Some (dq', x)` iff `x` is at the rear of `dq` and `dq'` is the rest of `dq` excluding `x`, and `None` if `dq` has no elements. O(1) amortized, O(n) worst case



Example specifications

- These are abstract specifications for:
 - implementers
 - users
- It's abstract because it does not say what datatypes are used, just what the consequences of those choices are
- They leave things implicit that we take for granted:
 - after adding to the front of the queue, the remainder stays unchanged
 - after taking from the front of the queue, the remainder stays unchanged
 - etc.
- It's not so suitable for proving and testing



Here is an alternative specification:

- `front empty = None`
- `rear empty = None`
- `front (cons x xs) = Some (x, xs)`
- `rear (snoc x xs) = Some (x, xs)`
- This specification is:
 - Algebraic: it consists of equalities (between ocaml terms)
 - Formal: it is written in a set language (here: algebraic+ocaml) with a clear interpretation
 - Great for testing and proving! (But not necessarily intuitive)
 - Incomplete and overly restrictive at the same time :-)



Coming up with a specification: terminology

- A module with an abstract specification will generally have three kinds of operations:
 - Construction: Functions to create things of type t
 - Deconstruction: Functions to observe what things of type t look like
 - Manipulation: Functions that don't really fit in either category.
- A function of type ' $\dots \rightarrow t$ ' is often a Construction function. If the \dots do not contain ' t ', it is always a Construction function.
- A function using things of type ' t ' as arguments, that does not result in a value with ' t ' in it, is always a Deconstruction function.
- Remaining functions (something of type t occurs in an argument and in the result) can be of all three kinds (often it's a matter of opinion).
- Note: A function whose type does not have a t in it, is neither and should not be in the module.



Coming up with a specification

- The only way to observe what a function does, is through the deconstruction functions.
- The implementation should be irrelevant, so the type of both sides of the rule should never be t
- As a consequence, any rule ($L = R$) will use a deconstruction function.



Coming up with a specification

- Every function / constant should occur in some part of the specification. Together with the rule to use a deconstructor, this makes it easy to come up with these:
- $\text{front empty} = \text{None}$
- $\text{rear empty} = \text{None}$
- $\text{front (cons } x \text{ xs)} = \text{Some } (x, \text{xs})$
- $\text{rear (snoc } x \text{ xs)} = \text{Some } (x, \text{xs})$



Coming up with a complete specification

- It's a whole separate science to decide whether a specification is complete or not
- If we can proof what we want to, our specification is 'complete enough'
- If there's a wrong implementation that our specification does not rule out, it is not complete enough
- If there's a correct implementation that our specification does rule out, it is overly restrictive



A wrong implementation

- `front empty = None`
- `rear empty = None`
- `front (cons x xs) = Some (x, xs)`
- `rear (snoc x xs) = Some (x, xs)`

- Can be satisfied by:
- `type 'a t = 'a list`
- `let empty = []`
- `let cons x xs = x::xs`
- `let snoc x xs = x::xs`
- `let front = function [] -> None | (x::xs) -> Some (x, xs)`
- `let rear = function [] -> None | (x::xs) -> Some (x, xs)`

Let's do the proofs!



A wrong implementation

- front empty
= {empty def}
front []
= {front def}
match [] with [] -> None | (x::xs) -> Some (x,xs)
= {match}
None

- type 'a t = 'a list
- let empty = []
- let cons x xs = x::xs
- let snoc x xs = x::xs
- let front = function [] -> None | (x::xs) -> Some (x, xs)
- let rear = function [] -> None | (x::xs) -> Some (x, xs)

front empty = None !



A wrong implementation

- rear empty
= {empty def}
rear []
= {rear def}
match [] with [] -> None | (x::xs) -> Some (x,xs)
= {match}
None

- type 'a t = 'a list
- let empty = []
- let cons x xs = x::xs
- let snoc x xs = x::xs
- let front = function [] -> None | (x::xs) -> Some (x, xs)
- let rear = function [] -> None | (x::xs) -> Some (x, xs)

rear empty = None !



A wrong implementation

- `front (cons x xs)`
= {cons def}
 `front (x :: xs)`
= {front def}
 `match x :: xs with [] -> None | (x::xs) -> Some (x,xs)`
= {match}
 `Some (x, xs)`

- `type 'a t = 'a list`
- `let empty = []`
- `let cons x xs = x::xs`
- `let snoc x xs = x::xs`
- `let front = function [] -> None | (x::xs) -> Some (x, xs)`
- `let rear = function [] -> None | (x::xs) -> Some (x, xs)`

`front (cons x xs) = Some (x, xs)`



A wrong implementation

- `rear (snoc x xs)`
= {snoc def}
 `rear (x :: xs)`
= {rear def}
 `match x :: xs with [] -> None | (x::xs) -> Some (x,xs)`
= {match}
 `Some (x, xs)`

- `type 'a t = 'a list`
- `let empty = []`
- `let cons x xs = x::xs`
- `let snoc x xs = x::xs`
- `let front = function [] -> None | (x::xs) -> Some (x, xs)`
- `let rear = function [] -> None | (x::xs) -> Some (x, xs)`

`rear (snoc x xs) = Some (x, xs)`



A wrong implementation

- `front empty = None`
 - `rear empty = None`
 - `front (cons x xs) = Some (x, xs)`
 - `rear (snoc x xs) = Some (x, xs)`
-
- `type 'a t = 'a list`
 - `let empty = []`
 - `let cons x xs = x::xs`
 - `let snoc x xs = x::xs`
 - `let front = function [] -> None | (x::xs) -> Some (x, xs)`
 - `let rear = function [] -> None | (x::xs) -> Some (x, xs)`

Why is this implementation wrong?



Completing our specification

- Here's a property that will fail for our implementation:
- `match front xs, front (snoc y xs) with`
 - | `Some (a, _), Some (b, _) -> a = b`
 - | `None, Some (b, _) -> y = b`
 - | `_, _ -> false`
- `type 'a t = 'a list`
- `let empty = []`
- `let cons x xs = x::xs`
- `let snoc x xs = x::xs`
- `let front = function [] -> None | (x::xs) -> Some (x, xs)`
- `let rear = function [] -> None | (x::xs) -> Some (x, xs)`



Completing our specification

- Here's a property that will fail:
- match front xs, front (snoc y xs) with
 - | Some (a, _), Some (b, _) -> a = b
 - | None, Some (b, _) -> y = b
 - | _, _ -> false
- Ugly properties like this will make it hard to prove things
- Coming up with 'beautiful' properties is not always possible
- Different function types can help improve things



Our specification is overly restrictive

- Take a look at this property:
- $\text{front}(\text{cons } x \text{ } xs) = \text{Some } (x, xs)$
- This requires that the xs on both sides is *identical* according to ocaml's identity.
- All we really require is that:
- $\text{front}(\text{cons } x \text{ } xs) = \text{Some } (x, xs')$
for some xs' , such that xs and xs' *behave* the same.
- Let's look at the difference between these things!



A deque implementation

- A common way to implement a queue is by using two stacks (i.e. regular lists), and reversing one when the other is empty:
- `type 'a t = ('a list * 'a list)`
- `let empty = ([], [])`
- `let cons x (a,b) = (x::a, b)`
- `let snoc x (a,b) = (a, x::b)`
- `let front x = function`
 - `| (x::xs,ys) -> Some x (xs,ys)`
 - `| ([],ys) -> (match (List.rev ys) with`
 - `[] -> None | (h::tl) -> Some h (tl, [])`



Two similar queues

- These queues now represent the same data:
 - $([1;2;3], [])$
 - $([1;2], [3])$
 - $([1], [3;2])$
 - $([], [3;2;1])$
-
- From the perspective of the user, we might be tempted to say: $([1;2;3], []) = ([], [3;2;1])$
(since the implementation is hidden!)
 - From the perspective of the implementer, this is not true!



An optimization

- Our 'deque' implementation has a 'front' and a 'rear', which could lead to this unfortunate behavior:
- $\text{rear}([1;2;3;4],[]) = \text{Some}(4, ([],[3;2;1]))$
- $\text{front}([], [3;2;1]) = \text{Some}(1, ([2;3], []))$
- $\text{rear}([2;3], []) = \text{Some}(3, ([],[2]))$
- ... we keep reversing the list!
- To avoid this and get $O(1)$ complexity back, the two lists are kept 'of similar size'
- I won't discuss the precise conditions here



A possible run

- $\text{cons } (1, ([2;3;4;5;6], []))$
= {according to some implementation}
 $([1;2;3], [6;5;4])$
- $\text{front } ([1;2;3], [6;5;4])$
= {according to some implementation}
 $\text{Some } (1, ([2;3], [6;5;4]))$
- This implementation violates:
 $\text{front } (\text{cons } x \text{ } xs) = \text{Some } (x, xs)$
- But it satisfies:
 $\text{front } (\text{cons } x \text{ } xs) = \text{Some } (x, xs')$
for *some* xs' where xs and xs' *behave* the same.



Using = more conveniently

- The = is defined in ocaml as structural equality.
I don't want to change its definition.
(if I did, I could fix the 'error' in the textbook)
- We can use a different symbol, say \equiv , to indicate that two things are equal *in behavior*.
- I'll define it somewhat informally:
 - $x \equiv y = \text{eq } x \ y$ for 'eq' as defined in our module
 - $x \equiv y = x = y$ for $x, y : \text{int, float, ...}$ (basic built-in type)
 $(a, b) \equiv (c, d) = (a = c \ \&\& \ b = d)$
 $\text{Some } a \equiv \text{None} = \text{false}$
 $\text{Some } a \equiv \text{Some } b = (a = b)$
... similar for all other exposed types (this is the informal part)



Using \equiv ...

- We'd need to prove that we can use \equiv in the same way we have used $=$
- .. which would require a course in logic
- .. and it would also give us precise conditions that our 'eq' implementation needs to satisfy
- We'll see a clever way of defining an 'eq' function on Wednesday
(that will satisfy the conditions not mentioned here)



Final remarks

- Coming up with accurate specifications is hard
- It's good to be pragmatic sometimes:
 - If you can prove what you need to prove, it's enough
 - If you're not doing proofs, aim for testability!

