Developing Formal Specifications in Z

Software Requirements Engineering

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Organization of the Tutorial

- Introduction to Formal Methods (10 Minutes)
- Introduction to Z with Case Studies (3 Hours)
- Formal Methods/Z Resources (10 Minutes)
- Discussion (10 Minutes)

Quality Software

- Software
 - an executable program
 - the structure of program components
 - functionality of an application program
 - the look and feel of an interface
 - the program and all associated documents needed to operate and maintain it
- Software pervades many aspects of our lives
- Absolutely essential to improve the software quality

What is Quality?

- A key issue in the field of information technology
- Multi-dimensional concept with different levels of abstraction
- Popular views:
 - subjective, ambiguous, unclear meaning
 - luxury, class, taste
 - difficult to define and measure
- Professional view
 - quantifiable
 - manageable
 - improveable

Quality: A Definition

• Crosby (1979):

"Conformance to requirements"

Conformance to Requirements: Implications

- During the production process, measurements are continually taken to determine conformance to the those requirements:
 - measurement model
 - project tracking and oversight
 - validation criteria
 - quality assurance system
 - plans, commitment to improvement

Managerial aspects

The use of process models is encouraged

Conformance to Requirements: Implications (continued)

- Requirements must be clearly stated such that they cannot be misunderstood:
 - complete
 - unambiguous
 - verifiable
 - precise
 - concise
 - consistent

Technical aspects

The use of formal methods is encouraged

Formal Methods

Definitions

- A notation with a well defined syntax and semantics used to unambiguously specify the requirements of a software system.
- A formal method is expected to support the proof of correctness of the final implementation of the software with respect to its specification.
- The formal methods notation is used for *formal specification* of a software system:
 - As a process: translation of a non-mathematical description into a formal language
 - As a product: concise description of the properties of a system in a language with well defined semantics and formal deduction support

Why Formal Methods?

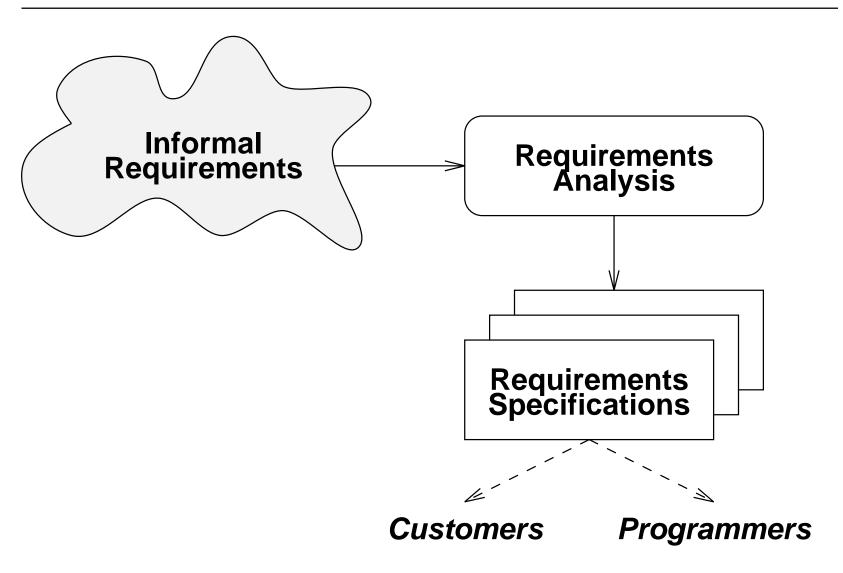
- To precisely and unambiguously describe the functionality of a software system at an abstract level that can be reasoned about formally using mathematics (or informally but rigorously)
- Precision and unambiguity are essential because for a large project many individuals have to agree on the interpretation of the specified functionality in order to produce a correct implementation.

When to Use Formal Methods

Software Development Life Cycle:

- Requirements analysis
- Requirements specification
 - As a process: when the functionality of the software is specified
 - As a product: where the expected functionality is recorded
- Architectural design
- Detailed design
- Implementation
- Testing

Requirements Specification as a Contract



Essential Properties of a Specification Document

- Correctness
- Completeness
- Unambiguous (one interpretation)
- Precision (unnecessary detail suppressed)
- Verifiable and traceable
- Independent from design
- Consistent (no conflicting features)
- Concise (lack of noise, irrelevant features)
- Annotated

Essential Properties of a Specification Document (continued)

For detailed explanations see [Davis 1993, Chapter 3]

Formal methods can assist in achieving most of the essential properties; more specifically:

- Unambiguity
- Verifiability
- Consistency
- Conciseness and Preciseness
- Annotation (especially true in case of Z notation)

Claimed Benefits, Drawbacks of Formal Methods

Benefits:

- 1. Unambiguous descriptions, i.e., there is one unique interpretation of a model given in a formal notation
- 2. Analyzable products i.e., properties such as completeness and consistency can be checked by (automated) mechanisms

• Drawbacks:

- 1. Mathematical skills, enthusiasm are required
- 2. The development and verification process is costly and effort-intensive
- 3. Complexity may explode with the dimension of the problem and can become unmanageable

Misconceptions about Formal Methods

Formal methods are for program verification only

- While formal methods can be applied during various stages of software development, their highest impact would be during the early stages, i.e., modeling and specification stages
- Program verification can be considered a secondary concern

Formal methods are too mathematical

- Based on mathematics, but the mathematics of formal methods is not very difficult. Most formal methods are based on the set theory and predicate logic
- Symbols can be learned through practice and training
- Not necessarily more complicated than implementation languages

An example in Z

Examples in C

• Production code: [Salus 1994]

```
if (rp -> p_flag & SSWAP) {
    rp -> p_flag =& ~SSWAP;
    aretu (u.u_ssav)
}
```

- A C declaration: [Kernighan & Ritchie, 1988, p.122]
 int (*(*X[3])())[5];
- Copying string t to s: [Kernighan & Ritchie, 1988, p.105]
 while (*s++=*t++);

Inapplicable to Real Projects

- A. Hall, Seven Myths of Formal Methods, *IEEE Software*, September 1990, pp. 11–19.
- J. Bowen and H. Hinchey (editors), *Applications of Formal Methods*, Prentice-Hall International, 1995.
 - Nuclear facility
 - Instrumentation systems (Z)
 - Voting system (VDM)
 - IBM's CICS (Z, B)
 - Railroad tracking, training, signaling system, (VDM)
 - Aerospace monitoring system (Z)

- Secure operating system (Larch)
- AT&T telephone switching system (Z)
- Of course more work is needed:
 - H. Saiedian, et al, An Invitation to Formal Methods, *IEEE Computer*, April 1996.
 - H. Saiedian (Guest Editor), *Journal of Systems and Software*, Special Issue on Formal Methods Technology Transfer, March 1998.

Need for Measurements for Formal Methods

- A large number of formal methods have been proposed
- A formal method notation comes with some common advise on how to be used; syntax and semantics are given but little indication is given on how to use it effectively
- A given FM is unlikely to be equally effective for all domains
- Required components of formal methods
 - 1. formal syntax and semantics
 - 2. conceptual model
 - 3. uniform notation of an interface
 - 4. sufficient expressive power to express relevant features
 - 5. hints and suggestion for refinement, implementation in a systematic way

Philosophical View of Formal Methods

The following is from John Rushby's Talk at LFMW97:

- In engineering, mathematical models of systems are built so that the properties of those systems can be *predicted* through the power of *calculation*.
 - The power of mechanized calculation makes the construction of complex or optimized physical systems possible.
- Formal methods apply the same ideas to the construction of the complex logical design of computer systems:
 - Build a formal mathematical model of some aspect of a system
 - Calculate whether or not the system possess certain desired properties

Need for Measurements for Formal Methods (continued)

- Only qualitative and anecdotal evidence is available about the benefits and drawbacks
- For sound and objective cost analysis, a thorough study is needed to assess the degree to which the benefits and drawbacks are real
- Such a study or evidence will greatly help wider introduction of formal methods into industrial practice
- Currently the choice of one method over another is mostly a matter of personal taste not grounded on any objective evidence
- A strong need for an objective assessment of strength, weakness, application domain, and limitation of various formal methods to allow meaningful comparison and selection

Formal Methods Light: An alternative

- Do not promote full formalization; in most cases a less than completely formal approach is more helpful, convincing
- Integrate with existing, not necessarily formal models and approaches
 - A formal method should contribute to and benefit from an existing tool or notation

Model-Based Formal Methods Notations

Model-based notations

- Support the development of an abstract model of the software product
- Support the behavioral description of the abstract model
- Examples: Z, Object-Z, VDM, Larch

Specification Language Z

- Jean-Raymond Abrial, late 1970s/early 1980s
- Under continuing development at the Programming Research Group, Oxford University
- A state-based modeling/specification language
- Set theory, predicate logic
- Functional specification of sequential systems
- Object-oriented variations
- Most popular formal methods notation

Z Schemas

- The building-block for structuring specifications
- Graphical notation

SchemaNar	ne	
Signature		
Predicates		

An alternative linear notation

SchemaName = [Signature | Predicates]

Z Schemas (continued)

- Signature introduces variables and assigns them set theoretic types — similar to declarations in modern programming languages
- Predicates include expressions that relate the elements of signature:
 - Viewed in terms of invariants, pre- and post-conditions
 - ANDed by default; order is irrelevant

Identifiers in **Z**

- Identifiers may be composed of upper and lower case letters, digits, and the underscore character; must begin with a letter
- Identifiers may have suffixes:
 - ? means an input variable
 - -! means an output variable
 - means a new value (i.e., the after-operation value)
- Schema identifiers may have prefixes:
 - Δ means the state has changed (described later)
 - Ξ means no change in the state (described later)

An Example of a Z Schema

```
Reserve

passengers, passengers': PPERSON

p?: PERSON

#passengers < CAPACITY

p? ∉ passengers

passengers' = passengers ∪ {p?}

#passengers' ≤ CAPACITY
```

Alternative notation:

```
Reserve \hat{=} [p? : PERSON; ... | p? \notin passengers \wedge ...]
```

Notable Advantages of Z

- Procedural Abstraction: Schemas only describe what is to be done; issues relating to "how" are ignored
- Representational Abstraction: Schemas use high-level mathematical structures like arbitrary sets, functions, ..., without worrying about how these are to be implemented
- Allow annotation

... informal descriptions ...

_S		
	_	

... complement formal definitions ...

Schema Calculus

A collection of notational conventions used to manipulate schemas and combine them into composite structures.

- Provides a framework to develop and present schemas in an incremental fashion, i.e., schemas can be constructed from existing schemas.
 - Analogous to "modular" program development.
 - Specifications become more manageable.
- Achieved primarily by means of "Schema Inclusion" and "Schema Linking" and Δ and Ξ conventions.

Schema Inclusion

• Suppose we have the following two schemas:

$$p,q:\mathbb{Z}$$
 $p \neq q$

_schemaB	
$r,s:\mathbb{N}$	
$r \geq s$	

• We can form a new schema by including two existing ones:

schemaAB		
schemaA		
schemaB		
Seriemen		

• If "expanded," *SchemaAB* will include:

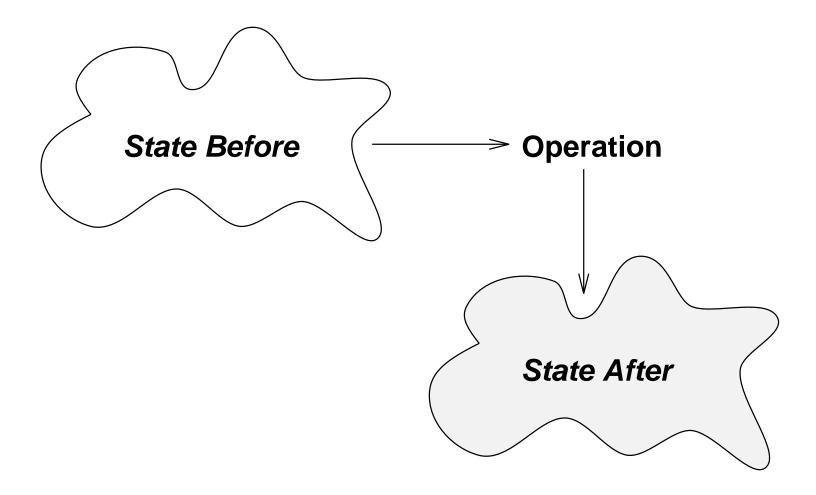
$$\begin{array}{c} schemaAB \\ p,q:\mathbb{Z};\ r,s:\mathbb{N} \\ p \neq q \land r \geq s \end{array}$$

Schema Linking

- It is possible to use propositional connectives (e.g., $\land, \lor, \neg \Rightarrow, \Leftrightarrow$) and existing schemas to construct a new one.
- We can construct schemaBA as follows: $schemaBA = schemaA \lor schemaB$
- If "expanded," *schemaBA* will include:

Δ and Ξ Conventions

Operations and changes in the state data:



Δ and Ξ Conventions (continued)

Thus, to define an operation we must have:

Operation ____ StateData

StateData'

Predicates describing *StateData* Predicates describing *StateData*'

Consider operation *Reserve* again:

- Conventionally, two schemas are given to define the state of data, one describing state before an operation, and one for describing state after the operation.
- For a simple reservation system we may have:

• *Reserve* operation can now be specified as:

```
Reserve
ResSyst
ResSyst'
p?: PERSON
#passengers < CAPACITY
p? ∉ passengers
passengers' = passengers ∪ {p?}
```

 While most operations bring about changes in the state data, some do not:

> __PassengerCount ______ ResSyst ResSyst' count!: N count! = #passengers

• Δ convention is commonly used to represent change of state; it combines the definitions of two schemas, one describing the state before an operation and one describing the state after the operation:

• Ξ convention is commonly used to represent no change of state; it can be defined in terms of Δ :

```
\_EResSyst \_
\Delta ResSyst

passengers = passengers'
```

• Operation *Reserve* can now be specified using Δ convention:

```
_Reserve_____ΔResSyst
p?: PERSON

#passengers < CAPACITY
p? ∉ passengers
passengers' = passengers ∪ {p?}
```

• Similarly, operation PassengerCount can now be specified using Ξ convention:

```
PassengerCount _______

EResSyst

count!: N

count! = #passengers
```

Δ and Ξ Conventions (Summary)

- The prefix Δ denotes a new schema built by combining the before and after specification of a state schema. The new schema (denoted by Δ) alarms about some changes made to the state; these changes must be clearly defined.
- The prefix E denotes a new schema by combining the before and after specification of a state schema but with the rule that the before and after states are identical — no change is made to the state.

Presenting Specifications in Z

- Present given sets (types), user-defined sets, and global definitions
- Present abstract state of the system, followed by the $\Delta State$ and $\Xi State$ specifications:
 - $\Delta State = [State; State']$
 - $\Xi State = [\Delta State \mid State = State']$
- Present the initial state; shows that at least one state exists
- Present operations: Successful cases, followed by error cases, followed by a total definition

Always accompany the formal definitions with informal descriptions to explain their purposes.

Given and User-defined Sets/Types

• Given sets (types) are presented in upper case (or initial in upper case), enclosed in brackets:

```
[ACCT] [Book, User]
```

• User-defined sets or types – several ways of presenting them. Examples of an enumerated-like definition:

```
MESSAGE ::= "Full" | "Empty" | "OK"

Colors ::= green | red | blue | white
```

Global Definitions

• Introduced by means of axiomatic descriptions:

• If there is no constraining predicate:

Description

• Examples:

Capacity:
$$\mathbb{N}$$
Capacity = 200

MaxQty

Abstract State of the System

- Every sequential system has an abstract state space which should be specified via a schema. For large systems, the abstract schema may be constructed of several other schemas using the schema calculus.
- An Example: A simple library system

```
LibSystem _____
members: P PERSON
shelved: P BOOK
```

checked: BOOK → PERSON

 $shelved \cap dom\ checked = \emptyset$ ran $checked \subseteq members$

 \forall mem : PERSON • #(checked > {mem}) \le MaxLoan

A Case Study in Z: APhoneDir System

- Objective: Construct a telephone directory system (called *PhoneDir*), for a university to maintain a record of faculty and their telephone numbers.
- System Requirements:
 - A faculty may have one or more telephone numbers
 - Some faculty may not have a telephone number yet
 - A number may be shared by two or more faculty
 - Must be able to add new faculty and/or new entries
 - Must be able to remove faculty and/or existing entries
 - Must be able to query the system for a faculty or number
- Based on an example by Diller (1994).

Present Given, User-defined Types

- A type to represent individual persons
 [PERSON]
 - We are not interested in more detail about persons.
- Can use natural numbers \mathbb{N} to model telephone numbers, or as an alternative, can assume a given type: [PHONE]
- Note that we could have restricted the range, e.g., PHONE = 41000...49999

Present Given, User-defined Types (continued)

Output messages:

Abstract State of *PhoneDir* **System**

• A set of type *PERSON* representing the faculty:

 $faculty : \mathbb{P} PERSON$

• Abstract representation of an instance of *faculty*:

chen

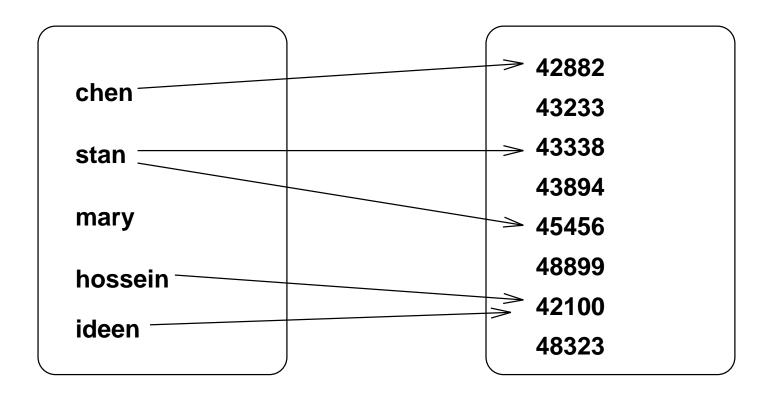
stan

mary

hossein

ideen

- We need another set representing a *directory* in the system: *directory* :????
- Abstract representation of an instance of *directory*:



 directory is a subset of Cartesian product of PERSON × PHONE

Pairs of values: one from *PERSON*, and one from *PHONE*.

- In Z, we represent the above as a "relation"
- A relation is a set of connections between two sets: $directory = \{(chen, 42882), (stan, 43338), (stan, 45456), \ldots\}$
- Alternatively, use \mapsto symbol to show connections: $directory = \{chen \mapsto 42882, stan \mapsto 43338, stan \mapsto 45456,...\}$
- Declaring a variable of type relation:
 directory: PERSON → PHONE

Partial list of operations available on a relation:

- domaindom directory = {chen, stan, hossein, ideen}
- range ran *directory* = {42882, 43338, 45456, 42100}
- inverse $directory^{\sim} = \{42882 \mapsto chen, 43338 \mapsto stan, \ldots\}$
- Also domain restriction (<), domain subtraction (<), range restriction (▷), range subtraction (▷), relational image (||), etc.

We can now define the before state and after state of *PhoneDir*:

Before state

```
\_PhoneDir\_
faculty: PPERSON
directory: PERSON 	o PHONE
dom\ directory 	o faculty
```

After state (decorate names with prime)

```
\_PhoneDir' \_ faculty' : \mathbb{P} PERSON directory' : PERSON <math>\leftrightarrow PHONE dom\ directory' \subseteq faculty'
```

Defining $\Delta PhoneDir$ **System**

• Δ*PhoneDir*:

```
\triangle PhoneDir
faculty, faculty' : \mathbb{P} PERSON
directory, directory' : PERSON \leftrightarrow PHONE
dom directory \subseteq faculty
dom directory' \subseteq faculty'
```

Or alternatively as:

```
_\Delta PhoneDir ____ PhoneDir _ PhoneDir'
```

Defining E*PhoneDir* **System**

• *EPhoneDir*:

```
\triangle PhoneDir
\triangle PhoneDir
faculty' = faculty
directory' = directory
```

Defining the Initial State of *PhoneDir* **System**

- Presenting the initial state
- Note that *InitPhoneDir* does not really exists

Adding a New Faculty to PhoneDir System

- Input to the operation: *name*? : *PERSON*
- Output from the operation: *rep*! : *MESSAGE*
- Successful operation:

```
AddMemberOK

ΔPhoneDir
name?: PERSON
rep!: MESSAGE

name? ∉ faculty
faculty' = faculty ∪ {name?}
directory' = directory
rep! = 'OK'
```

Adding a New Faculty to *PhoneDir* System (continued)

Error Cases:

• Faculty already exists in the *PhoneDir*, i.e., $name? \in faculty$

```
_FacultyExists

EPhoneDir

name?: PERSON

rep!: MESSAGE

name? ∈ faculty

rep! = 'Faculty already exists'
```

A total definition:

 $AddMember \stackrel{\widehat{=}}{=} AddMemberOK \lor FacultyExists$

Adding an Entry to PhoneDir System

- Input to the operation: name?: PERSON and number?: PHONE
- Output report from the operation: rep! : MESSAGE
- Successful operation:

Adding an Entry to *PhoneDir* System (continued)

Error Cases:

- Input not a legitimate faculty, i.e., name? ∉ faculty
 Note that we have already defined a schema for this case (NotFaculty); we will reuse it.
- Entry already exists in *directory*, i.e.,
 name? → number? ∈ directory

```
_EntryExists

EPhoneDir

number?: PHONE

name?: PERSON

rep!: MESSAGE

name? → number? ∈ directory

rep! = 'Entry already exists'
```

Adding an Entry to *PhoneDir* System (continued)

• Constructing a total operation for adding an entry:

 $AddEntry = AddEntryOK \lor NotFaculty \lor EntryExists$

Removing a Faculty from PhoneDir System

- Input: *name*? : *PERSON*
- Output: *rep*! : *MESSAGE*
- Successful operation:

Side Notes: Operations on Relations

• Domain subtraction \triangleleft : Given a set S and a relation R, $S \triangleleft R$ constructs a new relation of pairs from R whose first elements (i.e., domain elements) are not in S. Example:

$$\{s_1, s_3\} \lessdot \{s_1 \mapsto r_1, s_2 \mapsto r_2, s_3 \mapsto r_3, s_4 \mapsto r_4, s_5 \mapsto r_5\} = \{s_2 \mapsto r_2, s_4 \mapsto r_4, s_5 \mapsto r_5\}$$

• Domain restriction \lhd : Given a set S and a relation R, $S \lhd R$ constructs a new relation of pairs from R whose first elements (i.e., domain elements) are restricted to those in S. Example:

$$\{s_1, s_3\} \lhd \{s_1 \mapsto r_1, s_2 \mapsto r_2, s_3 \mapsto r_3, s_4 \mapsto r_4, s_5 \mapsto r_5\} = \{s_1 \mapsto r_1, s_3 \mapsto r_3\}$$

 Similar operations for range of a relation, namely range subtraction (⊳) and range restriction (⊳)

Removing a Faculty from *PhoneDir* System (continued)

Error case: there is no such faculty to be removed, i.e.,
 name? ∉ faculty

A total definition:

 $RemoveFaculty \stackrel{\frown}{=} RemoveFacultyOK \lor NotFaculty$

Removing an Entry from *PhoneDir* System

- Input: *number*?: *PHONE*, *name*?: *PERSON*
- Output *rep*! : *MESSAGE*
- Successful operation:

```
RemoveEntryOK ______ΔPhoneDir number?: PHONE name?: PERSON rep!: MESSAGE _______ name? → number? ∈ directory directory' = directory \ {name? → number?} faculty' = faculty rep! = '0K'
```

Removing an Entry from *PhoneDir* System (continued)

Error cases: entry does not exists, i.e.,
 name? → number? ∉ directory

```
_InvalidEntry ______

EPhoneDir

number?: PHONE; name?: PERSON

rep!: MESSAGE

name? → number? ∉ directory

rep! = 'Invalid entry'
```

A total definition:

 $RemoveEntry \stackrel{\frown}{=} RemoveEntryOK \lor InvalidEntry$

Querying the *PhoneDir* **System**

Query by person:

- Input: *name*? : *PERSON*
- Output: *numbers*! : ℙ *PHONE*
- Successful operation:

```
FindNumbersOK

EPhoneDir

name?: PERSON

numbers!: ℙ PHONE

rep!: MESSAGE

name? ∈ faculty

name? ∈ dom directory

numbers! = directory(| {name?} |)

rep! = 'OK'
```

Side Notes: Operations on Relations

• Relational image (||): Given a set S and a relation R, applying relational image constructs a new set of elements from range of R which are related to by elements of S. Example

$$\{s_1 \mapsto r_1, s_2 \mapsto r_2, s_3 \mapsto r_3, s_4 \mapsto r_4, s_5 \mapsto r_5\} (|\{s_1, s_3, s_9\}|) = \{r_1, r_3\}$$

Relational inverse: inverses the order of pairs. Example:

$$\{s_1 \mapsto r_1, s_2 \mapsto r_2, s_3 \mapsto r_3, s_4 \mapsto r_4, s_5 \mapsto r_5\}^{\sim} = \{r_1 \mapsto s_1, r_2 \mapsto s_2, r_3 \mapsto s_3, r_4 \mapsto s_4, r_5 \mapsto s_5\}$$

Querying the *PhoneDir* **System (continued)**

Error Cases:

- Input not a legitimate faculty: we already have a schema for this (NotFaculty); it will be reused
- Faculty does not have a number yet, i.e., *name*? ∉ *directory*

```
__InvalidName

EPhoneDir

name?: PERSON

rep!: MESSAGE

name? ∉ dom directory

rep! = 'Faculty has no number'
```

A total definition

 $FindNumbers \stackrel{\hat{}}{=} FindNumbersOK \lor NotFaculty \lor InvalidName$

Querying the *PhoneDir* **System (continued)**

Querying by the number:

- Input: *number*?: *PHONE*
- Output: *names*!: \mathbb{P} *PERSON*, *rep*!: *MESSAGE*
- Successful operation

Querying the *PhoneDir* **System (continued)**

Error Case:

Invalid number, i.e., number ∉ ran directory,

_InvalidNumber EPhoneDir number?: PHONE rep!: MESSAGE number? ∉ ran directory rep! = 'Invalid number'

A total definition

 $FindNames \stackrel{\frown}{=} FindNamesOK \lor InvalidNumber$

Summary of Essential Operators on Relations

Operator	Synopsis	Meaning
\leftrightarrow	$R_1 \leftrightarrow R_2$	Binary relation between R_1 and R_2
\mapsto	$r_1 \mapsto r_2$	Maplet
dom	dom R	Domain of R
ran	ran R	Range of R
_(_)	$R(\mid S\mid)$	Relational image
\triangleleft	$S \lhd R$	Domain restriction
\triangleleft	$S \lhd R$	Domain subtraction
\triangleright	$R \rhd S$	Range restriction
⊳	$R \triangleright S$	Range subtraction
\oplus	$R_1 \oplus R_2$	Relational overriding

Functions in Z

- A special kind of relation: $S_1 \rightarrow S_2$
- Each element of S_1 is related to at most one element of S_2
- Several different kinds of functions:
 - total →
 - partial →
 - injective (one-to-one, i.e., no sharing of elements in S_2); can be partial (\rightarrowtail) or total (\rightarrowtail)
 - surjective (onto, i.e., the range of function is the entire S_2); can be partial (\rightarrow) or total (\rightarrow)
 - bijective function →: injective and surjective

An Example Using Functions in Z

- Consider a simple library program that manages available books that library users (borrowers) may want to barrow.
 The program maintains a table of which users have borrowed which book and allows borrowing or returning books.
- Based on the storage manager example given in [Woodcock and Loomes, 1989]; a more elaborate example is in [Diller 1994].
- Requirements
 - No book is borrowed simultaneously by more than one user
 - A library user may borrow more than one book
 - Some books may not be borrowed

- Some library users may not borrow any books

 Assume the following types for library users and library books:

[USER, BOOK]

• Define *MESSAGE* as follow:

• Define the abstract state of the library system

```
\_LibSys\_available: \mathbb{P}\ BOOKborrowed: BOOK \Rightarrow USER
available \cup dom\ borrowed = BOOKavailable \cap dom\ borrowed = \varnothing
```

Why using a partial function?

• Define $\Delta LibSys$

```
available, available' : \mathbb{P} BOOK

borrowed, borrowed' : BOOK <math>\Rightarrow USER

available \cup dom borrowed = BOOK

available \cap dom borrowed = \varnothing

available' \cup dom borrowed' = BOOK

available' \cap dom borrowed' = \varnothing
```

• Define $\Xi LibSys$

```
\Xi LibSys =
[\Delta LibSys \mid borrowed' = borrowed \land available' = available']
```

• Define the initial abstract state

• Defining *CheckOut* operation (successful case)

• Error case: *b*? *∉* available

_NotAvailable ELibSys b?: BOOK rep!: MESSAGE b? ∉ available rep! = 'Book not available'

A total definition of CheckOut
 CheckOut

 ^ˆ CheckOutOK ∨ NotAvailable

• Define *ReturnOK* for returning a book (successful case)

• Error case: recording an incorrect return

• A total definition for *Return*

 $Return = ReturnOK \lor InvalidReturn$

Essential Operators on Functions

Operator	Meaning
-+ →	Partial function
-++>	Finite partial function
\rightarrow	Total function
>>	Partial surjective function
→→	Total surjective function
\rightarrowtail	Partial injective function
>+→	Partial injective function
>→	Total bijective function

Sequences in Z

- Another important typing mechanism: A sequence is a special kind of function (thus a kind of relation, or a kind of set). Operations available on functions can be applied to sequences
- Brackets are used to represent elements of a sequence:
 colors = \(\(\text{green}, \text{white}, \text{red}, \text{blue} \) \
- Representing *colors* as a function:

```
\langle green, white, red, blue \rangle = \{(1, green), (2, white), (3, red), (4, blue)\}
```

• In general, a sequence s of type T is a function from \mathbb{N} to T, i.e., $\operatorname{dom} s = \{1, 2, 3, ..., \#s\}$. Formally, $\operatorname{seq} T = \{f : \mathbb{N} \twoheadrightarrow T \mid \operatorname{dom} f = 1 ... \#f\}$

Sequences in Z (continued)

- Special operations available on a sequence:
 - head(colors) = green
 - last(colors) = blue
 - $front(colors) = \langle green, white, red \rangle$
 - $tail(colors) = \langle white, red, blue \rangle$
 - concatenation:

```
colors \cap \langle blue \rangle = \langle green, white, red, blue, blue \rangle
```

An Example Using Sequences in Z

- Assume a *Queue* of non-repeating elements of type *ELEM*
- Operations: Enqueue, Dequeue, IsEmpty, and QueueSize
- Abstract state (generic construction)

• Define InitQueue', $\Delta Queue$, $\Xi Queue$ Schemas

```
\Delta Queue \stackrel{\frown}{=} [Queue; Queue' \mid \#q = \# \operatorname{ran} q \wedge \#q' = \# \operatorname{ran} q']

\Xi Queue \stackrel{\frown}{=} [\Delta Queue \mid q' = q]

InitQueue' \stackrel{\frown}{=} [Queue' \mid q' = \langle \rangle]
```

• Operation *Enqueue*

```
Enqueue [ELEM]
\Delta Queue
e? : ELEM
rep! : MESSAGE
(e? \notin ran \ q \land q' = q \land \langle e? \rangle \land rep! = \text{`OK'})
\lor
(e? \in ran \ q \land q' = q \land rep! = \text{`Duplicate entry'})
```

• Operation *Dequeue*

```
Dequeue [ELEM]
\Delta Queue
e!: ELEM
rep!: MESSAGE
(q \neq \langle \rangle \land e! = head(q) \land q' = tail(q) \land rep! = \text{`OK'})
\lor
(q = \langle \rangle \land q' = q \land rep! = \text{`Empty queue'})
```

Query operations

 Using the generic definitions: Construct a queue for 3-digit print jobs:

PrintQueue = Queue[100..999]

Other Notable Aspects of Z

- Bag data type
- More operators
- Generic constant definitions an example:

Calculation of pre-conditions

Calculating Pre-Conditions

- Objective: to demonstrate the validity of an operation, i.e., there exists at least one state in which the operation can be carried out.
- Alternatively, the objective can be stated as answering the following question: [Wordsworth 1992, p.123]

For what combinations of inputs and starting states can we find outputs and ending states that satisfy the predicates of a given operation?

Uses of existential quantifier operator

- An informal approach to determining the pre-conditions: look for predicates not involving state-after variables (decorated with ') or output variables (decorated with !)
- This approach works if
 - 1. pre-conditions are explicitly stated (preferably before any predicates involving state-after and output variables) and without implicitly relying on the state invariants
 - 2. pre-conditions are stated in terms of before-state (not after-state)

- A more formal approach to calculate the *PreOp* schema for some operation *Op*
 - 1. PreOp = Op; expand PreOp
 - 2. Hide all after-state and output variables from the signature of PreOp; existentially quantify all such variables in the predicate part
 - 3. Simplify predicates in the *PreOp* to eliminate variables decorated with ' or !

• As an example consider operation *Reserve*:

```
Reserve \_
\Delta ResSyst
p? : PERSON
p? \notin passengers
passengers' = passengers \cup \{p?\}
```

• Expand *Reserve* into *PreReserve*:

```
__PreReserve______

passengers, passengers': PPERSON

p?: PERSON

#passengers ≤ CAPACITY

#passengers' ≤ CAPACITY

p? ∉ passengers

passengers' = passengers ∪ {p?}
```

Hide after-state and output variables from signature;
 existentially quantify them in the predicate part:

```
PreReserve

passengers: PPERSON

p?: PERSON

∃ passengers': PPERSON •

(#passengers ≤ CAPACITY ∧

#passengers' ≤ CAPACITY ∧

p? ∉ passengers ∧

passengers' = passengers ∪ {p?})
```

• Simplify the predicate by applying the *one-point* rule: substitute $passengers \cup \{p?\}$ where passengers' occurs

```
PreReserve

passengers: PPERSON

p?: PERSON

#passengers ≤ CAPACITY ∧

#(passengers ∪ {p?}) ≤ CAPACITY ∧

p? ∉ passengers
```

- Further simplifications:
 - 1. Since $p? \notin passengers$ and $\#(passengers \cup \{p?\}) \leq CAPACITY$, conclude that $\#passengers + 1 \leq CAPACITY$
 - 2. Since $\#passengers \leq CAPACITY$ and $\#passengers + 1 \leq CAPACITY$, conclude that #passengers < CAPACITY

• We now have:

```
PreReserve

passengers: PPERSON

p?: PERSON

#passengers < CAPACITY ∧

p? ∉ passengers
```

- The pre-conditions of *Reserve* operation are:
 - 1. #passengers < CAPACITY and
 - 2. $p? \notin passengers$

Side Notes for Calculating Pre-Conditions

- One-point rule is defined as follows: [Wordsworth 1992]
 - $(\exists x : T \bullet (x = E \land P(x))) \Leftrightarrow (E \in T \land P(E))$

where x is a variable, P(x) is a predicate in which x is free, T is a set expression, and E is an expression of appropriate type.

- Z supports a schema operation called pre
- For a schema S, pre S is the result of hiding all variables decorated with ' and !

According to Spivey [Spivey 1992, p.77], pre S contains only the components of S corresponding to the state before the operation and its input.

Formal Methods Resources

- Articles
- Books
- Conference Proceedings/Journals
- WWW/FTP Archives
- Electronic Forums
- Postal Mailing List

Introductory and Informative Articles

Introduction to Z:

- J. M. Spivey, An Introduction to Z and Formal Specifications, *Software Engineering Journal*, January 1989, pp. 40–50.
- H. Saiedian, Formal Methods in Information Systems Engineering, in *Software Requirements Engineering*, 2e, Thayer and Dorfman (editors), pp. 336-349, IEEE-CS, Los Alamitos, CA, 1997.

Articles (continued)

Introduction to Formal Methods

- A. Hall, Seven Myths of Formal Methods, *IEEE Software*, pp. 11–19, September 1990.
- H. Saiedian, et al, An Invitation to Formal Methods, *IEEE Computer*, Vol. 29, No. 4, April 1996.
- Luqi and J. Goguen, Formal Methods: Promises and Problems, *IEEE Software*, Vol. 14, No. 1, pp. 73-85, January 1997.

Articles (continued)

Industrial Issues:

- H. Saiedian, Guest Editor, Research Issues in Formal
 Methods Technology Transfer, *Journal of Systems and Software*, March 1998 (special issue on technology transfer).
- H. Saiedian and M. Hinchey, Challenges in the Successful Transfer of Formal Methods Technology into Industrial Applications, *Information and Software Technology*, 38(5):313-322, May 1996.
- D. Craigen, S. Gerhart and R. Ralston, Formal Methods Reality Check: Industrial Usage, *IEEE Trans. on Software Engineering*, pp. 90-98, February 1995.

Articles (continued)

Educational Issues:

- H. Saiedian, Mathematics of Computing, *Computer Science Education*, Vol. 3(3), pp. 203–221, 1992.
- D. Garlan, Making Formal Methods Education Effective for Professionals, *Information and Software Technology*, pp. 261–268, May/June 1995.
- J. Wing, Hints to Specifiers, in *Teaching and Learning Formal Methods*, Dean and Hinchey (editors), Springer-Verlag, 1996.

Z Books

More than a dozen textbooks on Z; some popular titles include:

- V. Alagar and K. Periyasamy, *Specification of Software Systems*, Springer-Verlag, 1998.
- R. Barden, S. Stepney and D. Cooper, *Z in Practice*, Prentice-Hall, 1994.
- A. Diller, *Z: An Introduction to Formal Methods*, John Wiley, 2nd Edition, 1994.
- N. Dean and M. Hinchey, *Teaching and Learning Formal Methods*, Academic Press, 1996.
- I. Hayes (editor), *Specification Case Studies*, Prentice-Hall, 2nd Edition, 1993.
- J. Jacky, *The Way of Z*, Cambridge, 1997.

Z Books (continued)

- B. Potter and J. Sinclair and D. Till, *An Introduction to Formal Specification and Z*, 2e, Prentice-Hall, 1995.
- J. Spivey, *The Z Notation: A Reference Manual*, Prentice-Hall, 2nd Edition, 1992.
- J. Woodcock and J. Davies, *Using Z: Specification, Proof and Refinement*, Prentice-Hall, 1995.
- J. Wordsworth, *Software Development with Z*, Addison-Wesley, 1992.

Conferences Proceedings

- Formal Methods Europe. Proceedings published in the Springer-Verlag Lecture Notes in Computer Science series
- *Z User Meeting* (ZUM). Proceedings published in the Springer-Verlag *Workshops in Computing* series since the 4th meeting in 1989. Proceedings of ZUM 1995–98 published in Springer-Verlag's LNCS series. Last two years' proceedings:
 - J. Bowen M. Hinchey, and D. Till (editors), ZUM'97: The Z Formal Specification Notation, Proceedings of the 10th International Conference of Z Users, Readings, UK, LNCS 1212, Springer-Verlag, 1997.
 - J. Bowen, A. Fett, M. Hinchey (editors), *ZUM'98: The Z Formal Specification Notation*, Proceedings of the 11th International Conference of Z Users, Berlin, Germany,

LNCS 1493, Springer-Verlag, 1998.

Journals

Journals that regularly publish articles on or related to formal methods and Z or run special issues include:

- Formal Aspects of Computing, Springer-Verlag
- Formal Methods in System Design, Kluwer Academic
- The Computer Journal, BCS/IEE
- *Information and Software Technology*, Elsevier Science
- *IEEE Computer*, IEEE-CS
- *IEEE Software*, IEEE-CS
- IEEE Trans. Software Engineering, IEEE-CS

Formal Methods/Z Archives

Global WWW Home Pages — Fairly Comprehensive

Include advance programs, articles, bibliographies, courses, meetings, personalities, standards, technical-reports, tools, ...

- www.afm.sbu.ac.uk/fm/
- www.afm.sbu.ac.uk/z/
- shemesh.larc.nasa.gov/fm/
- www.cs.cmu.edu/Groups/formal-methods/formal-methods.html

Electronic Forums

USENET Newsgroups:

- comp.specification.misc, a discussion group interested in issues related to formal methods
- comp.specification.z, a discussion group interested in discussing or addressing questions related to Z

References (cited in the presentation)

- A. Davis, *Software Requirements: Objects, Functions, and States*, Prentice-Hall, Revision Edition, 1993.
- A. Diller, *Z: An Introduction to Formal Methods*, John Wiley, 2nd Edition, 1994.
- J. Spivey, *The Z Notation*, Second Edition, Prentice-Hall, 1992.
- P. Salus, A Quarter Century of UNIX, Addison-Wesley, 1994.
- B. Kernighan and D. Ritchie, *The C Programming Language*, 2nd Ed., Prentice-Hall, 1988.
- J. Woodcock and M. Loomes, *Software Engineering Mathematics*, Addison-Wesley, 1989.
- J. Wordsworth, *Software Development with Z*, Addison-Wesley, 1992.