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- The **prerequisite** for following this (part of the) lecture is that you understand the mathematical concepts of sets and of functions as covered in earlier lectures.
- The aims are

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8 Algebras

- $\star$  to cover the mathematical concepts of algebras such as they are used in computing science and software engineering and
- \* to cover, even in this early lecture, the algebraic specification of what is known, in computing science and software engineering, as abstract data types (ADTs).







### • The **objective** is

- \* to ensure that the course student from as early as possible can use and handle this concept of specification algebras, at ease and with determination.
- The **treatment** is systematic to semiformal.

It is a main purpose of this lecture to basically just introduce the jargon — the language, as it were — of algebras.





Characterisation 8.50 By an algebra we, loosely, mean a possibly infinite set of entities and a usually finite set of operations over these entities.

- In software engineering algebras play two central mathematical roles.
- The way we structure specifications and programmes (in schemes, classes, modules, objects) can perhaps best be understood with reference to algebra.
- Steps of development, from abstract specifications to concrete ones, can likewise best be understood as some algebra morphisms.



SOFTWARE ENGINEERING: Abstraction and Modelling

8 Algebras

SOFTWARE ENGINEERING: Abstraction and Modelling

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## Introduction

- The concept of algebra is a mathematical concept that allows us to abstract observations that may have their background in topics other than mathematics.
- The concept of function can be seen as one such concept, which we, in a previous lecture, "related back" to phenomena in some actual world.
- Our concept of functions, as well as the basis of the concept of mathematical logic to be covered in a next lecture can both have their presentation improved by presenting some of their structure algebraically.
- The function algebra thus consists of the space of all functions and a few operations such as function abstraction, function application, function composition, taking the definition set of a function, taking the range set of a function and, last, taking the fix point of a function.



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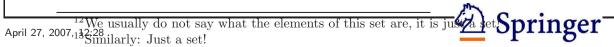


## Formal Definition of the Algebra Concept

- We shall primarily take an algebraic approach when determining, i.e., when deciding upon, the form of, and developing software development descriptions.
- An algebraic system is a set,  $^{12}$  A (finite or infinite), and a set  $^{13}$ ,  $\Omega$ , (usually finite), of operations:

$$(A, \Omega)$$
  
 $A = \{a_1, a_2, ..., a_m, ...\}, \Omega = \{\omega_1, \omega_2, ..., \omega_o\}$ 

- Set A is the carrier of the algebraic system, and
- $\bullet \Omega$  is a collection of operations defined on A.



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8.2 Formal Definition of the Algebra Concept



• Each operation  $\omega_i$ :  $\Omega$  ( $\omega_i$  in  $\Omega$ , i.e.,  $\omega_i$  of type  $\Omega$ ) is a function of some arity, say n, taking operands, i.e., argument values in A, and yielding a result value in A:

$$\omega(a_{i_1}, a_{i_2}, \dots, a_{i_n}) = a$$

- That is,  $\omega_i$  is of type  $A^n \to A$ . Different functions (in  $\Omega$ ) may have different arities.
- Think of arity as a functional, a function that applies to functions and yields their arity:

type arity: 
$$\Omega \to \mathbf{Nat}$$
, arity $(\omega_i) = n$ 



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## How Do Algebras Come About?

- Popular software devices, also known as abstract data types, such as
  - $\star$  stacks,

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8.3 How Do Algebras Come About?

- $\star$  queues,
- $\star$  tables,
- $\star$  graphs,
- **★** etc.,

can all be seen as algebras.





## Example 8.29 "Everyday" Algebras:

- 1. A Stack Algebra: The stack algebra has, as carrier, the union
  - of the set of all stack element values
  - with the set of all stack values,

and

- create empty stack,
- top of stack,
- push onto stack,
- pop from stack and
- is\_empty stack

as operations.







### 2. A Queue Algebra: The queue algebra has, as carrier, the union

- of the set of all queue element values
- with the set of all queue values and, for example,
- create empty queue,
- enqueue,
- dequeue,

as operations.

- first ("oldest"),
- last ("youngest"), and
- is empty queue





- 3. A Directory Algebra: The directory algebra has, as carrier, the union of
  - the set of all directory entry values (i.e., of value triples of entry name, date and information values)
  - with the set of all directory values and, for example,
  - create empty directory,
  - insert entry in directory,
  - directory look-up,
  - edit directory entry and
  - remove directory entry
  - as operations.



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- 4. A Directed, Acyclic Graph Algebra: The directed acyclic graph algebra has, as carrier, the union of
  - the set of all node labels,
  - the set of all edges, and
  - the set of all acyclic graphs of (these) labeled nodes and unlabeled edges,

and, for example,

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- create empty graph,
- insert\_node in graph,
- insert\_edge in graph,
- trace edges in graph from node to node,

- depth\_first\_ search in graph and
- breadth\_first\_ search in graph,

as operations.





- 5. Patient Medical Record Algebra: The patient medical record algebra has, as carrier,
  - all conceivable patient medical records,
    - $\star$  each consisting of one dossier.

Each dossier consists of one or more sheets (i.e., records) that are of the following kinds:

- \* prior medical history,
- \* interview records,
- \* analysis records,
- \* diagnostics determination,
- \* treatment plans (including prescriptions),
- \* observations of effects of treatment,
- $\star$  etc.
- In addition the carrier also includes these different kinds of



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That is, the carrier is quite complex. The patient medical record algebra has, for example, the following operations:

- creation of a new medical record,
- inserting new information,
- editing previous (i.e., old) information,
- copying a sheet or a dossier and
- shredding a dossier.

• Algebras may have finite or infinite carriers, i.e., carriers with finite or infinite numbers of elements of possibly different types.



8.3 How Do Algebras Come About?

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# Kinds of Algebras

- There are various kinds of algebras.
- It is important to understand which kinds of algebras are of interest to software engineering and which are not.
- For that purpose we explicate the variety of algebras that you may come across.



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## Concrete Algebras

• The examples above were all examples of concrete algebras.

Characterisation 8.51 A concrete algebra has sets of known, specific values as carrier, and a set of specifically given operations.

- That is, one knows that one has a concrete algebra when one knows the elements of the carrier and when one knows the operators and how to evaluate operation invocations.
- The Boolean algebra of a later lecture is an example of a concrete, mathematical algebra.
- Other concrete, mathematical algebras are found in Example 8.30.



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8.4.1 Concrete Algebras

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## Example 8.30 Number Algebras:

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8.4.1 Concrete Algebras

- An Integer Algebra: (Integer, $\{+,-,*\}$ ), an infinite carrier algebra whose operations yield all the integers.
- A Natural Numbers Algebra: (NatNumber, {gcd, lcm}) an infinite carrier algebra where gcd, lcm are the greatest common divisor, respectively the largest common multiple (viz.: gcd(4,6)=2, lcm(4,6)=12) operations, which yield all the natural numbers.
- A Modulo Natural Number Algebra:  $(\Im_m = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, m\})$ m-1,  $\Omega = \{\oplus, \otimes\}$ ) is a finite carrier algebra:  $\oplus$  and  $\otimes$  are the addition and multiplication operations modulo m.

Several other algebras over numbers are possible.

• As software engineers we shall mostly be developing concrete algebras.

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8.4.1 Concrete Algebras Topic: 22, Slide: 16/471

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things in terms of abstract or universal algebras, to which we now turn.



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# Abstract Algebras

• Whereas concrete algebras are known, i.e., effectively constructed, abstract algebras are postulated. That is, they are what we shall call (and define as) 'axiomatised' in.

Characterisation 8.52 An abstract algebra has a sort, i.e., a presently further undefined set of entities as carrier, a set of operations, and a set of axioms that relate (i.e., constrain) properties of carrier elements and operations.

• The algebraic system of an abstract algebra is thus defined by a system of postulates, to be known henceforth as axioms — and to be treated in depth later.



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8.4.2 Abstract Algebras

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### • We shall often be using axioms

- \* to describe manifest phenomena in an actual world; and we shall likewise often be using axioms
- \* to prescribe software devices
- which will later be made "concrete", as concrete as such "phenomena" which can exist inside computers can "be". The axiom systems should not be seen as actually "being" this or that concrete world, but "only" models of it.



8.4.2 Abstract Algebras





**Example 8.31** Another Stack Algebra: We present another version of the stack algebra of Example 8.29(1).

- There is a distinguished, unique carrier element called the empty stack: empty().
- Let s stand for any carrier stack value, i.e., stack, and let  $E = \{e, e', \dots, e'', \dots\}$  stand for carrier stack element values. The members of E will become the elements of stacks.
- is\_empty(empty()) always holds (is always true),
- whereas is\_empty(push(e, s)), for any e and s, always fails to hold (is always false).
- Inquiring as to the **top** of a stack, s which can be thought of as one onto which one has just pushed the element e yields that e for any stack s: pop(push(e, s')) = e,
- while popping an element from the stack s' (i.e. pop(push(e, s))) yields s.





• Popping an element from, respectively inquiring as to, the top element of an empty() stack always yields the chaotic value, of no type, and representing the universally undefined element.

- We shall more explicitly use the concept of abstract algebras whenever we "lift" an example like the above by not being concrete about exactly what the elements of the stack are.
- That is, we use it when we define a parameterised algebra, that is, abstract, like for function abstraction, in one or more of the *sub-carriers* of the abstract algebra being defined.
- Thus we introduce the concept of heterogeneous algebras.



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# Heterogeneous Algebras

## Characterisation 8.53 • A heterogeneous algebra:

$$(\{A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_m\}, \Omega\})$$

- $\star$  has its carrier set A be expressible as the union of a set of disjoint sub-carriers  $A_i$ , and
- $\star$  associates with every operation  $\omega$  in  $\Omega$  a signature:

$$signature(\omega) = A_{i_1} \times A_{i_2} \times \cdots \times A_{i_n} \to A_{i_{n+1}}$$

• Thus the kth operand of  $\omega$  is of type  $A_{i_k}$ , and the result value is of type  $A_{i_{n+1}}$ .



8.4.3 Heterogeneous Algebras

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**Example 8.32** Stack Algebra: We expand on the stack algebra example, Example 8.31. Viewing that **stack** algebra as a heterogeneous algebra, the **stack** operations are (now) of the following signatures: S is the stack type, and E is the type of stack elements:

• empty:  $\mathbf{Unit} \to S$ ,

8.4.3 Heterogeneous Algebras

- is\_empty:  $S \to \mathbf{Bool}$ ,
- push:  $S \times E \rightarrow S$ ,
- top:  $S \xrightarrow{\sim} E$ , and
- pop:  $S \xrightarrow{\sim} S$ .

**Unit** is a literal. It denotes a type of one element. That element is designated by the empty parameter grouping: ().





## Universal Algebras

**Characterisation 8.54** • A universal algebra is a carrier and a set of operations with no postulates, i.e., the operations are not further constrained

#### The Morphism Concept

• When, in software development we transform abstract specifications to more concrete ones, then, usually, an *algebra* morphism is taking place.



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• Let there be two algebras:

8.4.4.1 The Morphism Concept

$$(A,\Omega),(A',\Omega')$$

• A function  $\phi: A \to A'$  is said to be a morphism (also called a homomorphism) from  $(A, \Omega)$  to  $(A', \Omega')$  if for any  $\omega \in \Omega$  and for any  $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n$  in A there is a corresponding  $\omega' \in \Omega'$ , such that:

$$M: \phi(\omega(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)) = \omega'(\phi(a_1), \phi(a_2), \dots, \phi(a_n))$$

• We say that the homomorphism relation M respects or preserves corresponding operations in  $\Omega$  and  $\Omega'$  (Fig. 8.10).





 $\omega$ '

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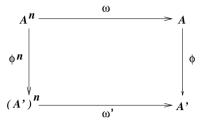


Figure 8.11: Morphism Mapping Diagram (Repeat)

•  $\phi^n$  is the *n*-fold Cartesian power of  $\phi: A \to A'$ , that is, the map  $A^n \to (A')^n$ , and is defined by:

$$\phi^n : (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) \mapsto (\phi(a_1), \phi(a_2), \dots, \phi(a_n))$$

• If  $\phi: A \to A'$  is a homomorphism of  $\Omega$ -algebras, then, by definition  $\phi$  preserves all the operations of  $\Omega$ .



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#### Special Kinds of Morphisms

- We classify morphisms according to their properties as functions.
- If  $\phi: A \to A'$  is a morphism, then we call  $\phi$ 
  - $\star$  an isomorphism if  $\phi$  is bijective;
  - $\star$  an epimorphism if  $\phi$  is surjective, and
  - $\star$  a monomorphism if  $\phi$  is injective.





#### • Some further characterisations:

- \* The abstract properties of an algebraic system are exactly those which are invariant (i.e., which do not change) under isomorphism.
- \* For epimorphisms, A' is called the homomorphic image of A, and we regard  $(A', \Omega')$  as an abstraction or a model of  $(A, \Omega)$ .
- $\star$  A monomorphism  $A \to A'$  is sometimes called an embedding of A into A'.



8.4.4.2 Special Kinds of Morphisms

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- We single out morphisms that map algebras onto themselves.
- We call a morphism  $\phi: A \to A'$ 
  - $\star$  that maps  $(A,\Omega)$  into itself an endomorphism.
  - $\star$  If  $\phi$  is also bijective, hence an isomorphism,  $\phi:A\to A$ , then we call it an *automorphism*.





# Specification Algebras

- The mathematical concept of algebras has had a great influence on our way of presenting software designs, prescriptions for software, and, in general, any kind of documentation related also to software development.
- The whole concept of *object-orientedness* is basically an algebraic concept.
- Giving meaning, i.e., semantics, to syntactic constructs by means of presenting morphisms from syntactic algebras to semantics algebras is obviously another algebraic concept.



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8.5 Specification Algebras

- Thus it is that in programming as well as in specification languages we find syntactic means for presenting what amounts to heterogeneous algebras.
- In RSL the syntactic construct for presenting a heterogeneous algebra is called a **class** expression.
- In an RSL class expression one therefore expects to find syntactic means for defining the carriers and the operations of a heterogeneous algebra.
- We now turn to this subject.
- But we first remind the reader of an earlier lecture in which we first introduced the class concept.



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Syntactic Means of Expressing Algebras

- To define the various carriers we define their **type**s, and
- to define the various operations over these carriers we define these as function **values**.



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8.5.1 Syntactic Means of Expressing Algebras

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• Schematically:

#### class

### type

A, B, C, D, ...

#### value

$$f: A \rightarrow B$$

$$f(a) \equiv \dots$$

g: 
$$C \to D$$

$$g(c) \equiv ...$$

#### end

• The above class expression defines carriers A, B, C and D (etcetera), and operations f and g (etcetera).



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## An Example Stack Algebra

**Example 8.33** Stack Algebra: We bring a third version of the stack algebra of Examples 8.29(1) and 8.31.

- Let us define an algebra of simple stacks.
  - $\star$  E and S are the stack element type, respectively the stack types, i.e., are the types of interest. .
  - \* The operations empty and is\_empty generate empty stacks, i.e., stacks of no elements, respectively tests whether an arbitrary stack is empty;
  - \* push, top and pop are the operations of interest.
  - \* An empty stack is empty.

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8.5.2 An Example Stack Algebra





- \* One cannot pop from an empty stack (i.e., generate a remaining stack), nor can one observe the top of an empty stack.
- \* Observing the top of a stack which is the ["most recent"] result of having pushed the element e "onto" a ["previous"] stack s yields that element e.
- \* Generating the stack after a pop of a stack which is the ["most recent"] result of having pushed any element e "onto" the ["previous"] stack s yields that stack s.



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class

type E, S

value

empty:  $Unit \rightarrow S$ 

is\_empty:  $S \to \mathbf{Bool}$ 

push:  $E \to S \to S$ 

top:  $S \xrightarrow{\sim} E$ 

pop:  $S \xrightarrow{\sim} S$ 

axiom

is\_empty(empty()), top(empty())  $\equiv$  **chaos**, pop(empty())  $\equiv$  **chaos**,

 $\forall$  e,e':E, s:S •

 $top(push(e)(s)) \equiv e \land$ 

 $pop(push(e)(s)) \equiv s$ 

end

The above formalisation should, by now, look rather conventional!





#### Informal Explanation of Some RSL Constructs

- Since this is one of the earlier examples of a full-scale use of several hitherto unexplained, but nevertheless rather simple RSL constructs, let us explain them in anticipation of material of later lectures.
  - \* The RSL keywords class and end delineate the class expression.
  - \* The class expression, in this case, contains three kinds of definitions: **type**, function **value** and **axiom**.
  - \* The **type** definitions you should be familiar with.
  - \* The **value** definitions name a number of values. Here, all these values are functions: one 0-ary (nullary), one 2-ary (binary, dyadic), and three 1-ary (unary, monadic). These function values are given just their type, called their **signature** (no function definition [body]).



8.5.2.1 Informal Explanation of Some RSL Constructs

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- \* The **axiom** definitions, that is, the axioms, constrain the function values to lie within a smaller function space than defined by their signatures.
- $\star$  We leave deciphering the specific functionality of these axioms to the reader, but close by explaining the use of the  $\forall$  "binder".
  - $\diamond$  The clause:  $\forall$  e,e':E, s:S  $\cdot$   $\mathcal{A}_1, \mathcal{A}_2, \ldots, \mathcal{A}_n$ , (where the individual  $\mathcal{A}_i$  are the axioms expressions that may or may not contain the quantifier variables e, e', and s) expresses that these axioms' variables take values that range over the types E, E, and S, respectively.



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# An Example Queue Algebra

**Example 8.34** Queue Algebra: We give a formal example of the queue algebra of Example 8.29(2).

- Let us define an algebra of simple queues:
  - $\star$  E and Q are the queue element type, respectively the queue type, i.e., are the types of interest.
  - \* The operations empty and is\_empty generate empty queues, i.e., queues of no elements, respectively tests whether an arbitrary queue is empty,
  - \* and enq and deq are the operations of interest.
  - \* The interesting functions are here defined in terms of the *hidden functions* dq and rq.



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```
hide \begin{array}{l} \operatorname{dq,rq} \ \mathbf{in} \\ \mathbf{class} \\ \mathbf{type} \\ E, \, Q \\ \mathbf{value} \\ \operatorname{empty:} \ \mathbf{Unit} \to Q, \ \operatorname{is\_empty:} \ Q \to \mathbf{Bool} \\ \operatorname{enq:} \ E \to Q \to Q, \ \operatorname{deq:} \ Q \overset{\sim}{\to} (Q \times E) \\ \operatorname{dq:} \ Q \overset{\sim}{\to} E, \ \operatorname{rq:} \ Q \overset{\sim}{\to} Q \\ \mathbf{axiom} \end{array}
```

```
is\_empty(empty()), deq(empty()) \equiv \mathbf{chaos}, \\ dq(empty()) \equiv \mathbf{chaos}, rq(empty()) \equiv \mathbf{chaos}, \\ forall e,e':E, q:Q \bullet \\ \sim is\_empty(enq(e)(q)), \\ dq(enq(e)(empty())) \equiv e, \\ rq(enq(e)(empty())) \equiv empty(), \\ dq(enq(e)(enq(e')(q))) \equiv dq(enq(e')(q)), \\ rq(enq(e)(enq(e')(q))) \equiv enq(e)(rq(enq(e')(q))), \\ deq(enq(e)(q)) \equiv (rq(enq(e)(q)), dq(enq(e)(q))) \\ \mathbf{end}
```

• Operation dq is called an auxiliary operation.

- It finds the first element enqueued, i.e., the, "oldest", or the most distantly, in time, inserted element.
- Auxiliary operation rq reconstructs the queue less its currently dequeued element.



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#### Some Notation: hide

- The functions dq and rq are defined as hidden functions.
  - \* They are not intended to be used outside the class expression
  - \* inside which they only serve as auxiliary functions, that is, auxiliary operations.
- The marker **hide** effects that it can be syntactically checked that they are not used outside the scope of the class definition.
- Hiding values (or types) enable us to reasonably simply characterise, as here, the *functions of interest* deq and enq.



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## Towards Semantic Models of "class" Expressions

- So, a **class** expression, even the little we have so far introduced about class expressions, can be seen to "cluster" the introduction of a number of identifiers, to wit: A, B, C, D, f, g, or E, S, empty, is\_empty, push, pop, top, or E, Q, empty, is\_empty, deq, enq, dq, and rq.
- But what does it all mean?

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8.5.4 Towards Semantic Models of "class" Expressions

• We return now to a thread first begun in Sect. .





- Namely to informally explain the semantics of **RSL** constructs. The "story" applies, inter alia, here.
- As already outlined, in Sect. , the meaning of a class expression is a set of *models*.
- Each model in the set maps all identifiers defined in the class expression, whether hidden or not, into their meaning.
- The meanings of the above-mentioned identifiers, for example, E, S,
   empty, is\_empty, push, pop, and top, are as follows:
  - \* Any type identifier is mapped into the set of values as constrained by the axioms over these values, and
  - \* a function identifier is mapped into a function value, as constrained by the axioms over these function values.



8.5.4 Towards Semantic Models of "class" Expressions

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- Since the axioms do not normally constrain the function values to one specific function, but to a (possibly infinite) space of functions over suitable input argument value and result value relations, we have that the meaning of a class expression is a possibly infinite set of models: one for each combination of defined function values, etc.
- We shall later see a need for allowing these models to further map identifiers not (at all) mentioned in the class expression into arbitrary values (including set values).
- The meaning of the stack class expression is thus a set of models, with each model mapping at least the seven identifiers mentioned in the stack class expression into respective meanings: the value type of all elements, of all stacks, and specific values for empty, is-empty, push, pop and top functions.



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8.6.1 "class" Expressions

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## RSL Syntax for Algebra Specifications

# "class" Expressions

• We have several times illustrated the RSL syntax for presenting an algebra in the form of a class of models:

```
type
... [sorts and type definitions] ...
value
... [value, incl. function definitions] ...
axiom
... [properties of types and values (functions) ...]
end
```

• The meaning of a class expression is a set,

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\* of models in the form of

- $\star$  bindings
  - the type and value identifiers introduced in the class
     expression and
  - ♦ mathematical entities such a numbers, sets, Cartesians and functions.



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- We shall only occasionally wrap our type and value definitions and our axioms into a class expression, but in a sense we really ought to so so!
- The intended meaning is of course the same.



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### "scheme" Declarations

• The scheme construct of RSL allows us to name classes:

```
scheme A =
 class
 type
   ... [sorts and type definitions] ...
 value
   ... [value, incl. function definitions] ...
 axiom
   ... [properties of types and values (functions) ...]
end
```

• Identifier A now names the class of all the models denoted by the class expression.



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8.6.2 "scheme" Declarations

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- We have made a tour de force of covering, ever so cursorily, some concepts of mathematical algebra.
- The purpose has been twofold.
  - \* First, to put names to a number of algebra concepts which can be used for later characterising a number of specification concepts, principles and techniques.
  - \* Second, we showed notation and elegance of the definitions, something that we, as software engineers, can learn from and ought to copy.





- That is, there are so many ideas of specification and of development that can be characterised using these algebraic concepts,
- and knowing this may induce us to further study (especially the universal) algebraic notions.
- Although such a study is outside the aims of these lectures it would reveal the usefulness of the lemmas and theorems of universal algebra.
- We shall endeavour, however, to communicate, wherever relevant, the spirit of the underlying algebraic concepts.





- We have finally, in this section on algebra, shown how the software community has taken the *prescribed medicine*:
  - \* The concept of algebra, as a mathematical structure of carriers and operations, has found its way into programming and into specification languages.
  - $\star$  We have shown the initial concepts of the RSL class specification construct,
  - \* syntactically as well as semantically.
- In programming languages this algebra concept is usually manifested in so-called *object-orientedness*.
- In specification languages this algebra concept is usually manifested in so-called *module*, class or abstract data type constructs.



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**Principle 8.3** Algebraic Semantics: is that of capturing core notions of a domain, or of requirements, or of software designs, by expressing these as algebras.

**Techniques 3** Algebra construction consists in expressing

- (i) the sorts (i.e., abstract types) of the carrier by naming them,
- (ii) the signature of the operations (functions), and
- (iii) in providing an appropriate (small) set of axioms that relate elements of the carrier and the operations



SOFTWARE ENGINEERING: Abstraction and Modelling

8.7.2 Principles, Techniques and Tools



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### Tool 8.2 Algebra tools include

- the class and scheme constructs of RSL (and of similar, basically model-oriented languages (for example: B, event-B, VDM++, and Object-Z)),
- CASL, the Common Algebraic Specification Language, and
- CafeOBJ



