Larch: Languages and Tools for Formal Specification

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Preface

Building software often seems harder than it ought to be. It takes longer than expected, the software's functionality and performance are not as wonderful as hoped, and the software is not particularly malleable or easy to maintain. It does not have to be that way.

This book is about programming, and the role that formal specifications can play in making programming easier and programs better. The intended audience is practicing programmers and students in undergraduate or basic graduate courses in software engineering or formal methods. To make the book accessible to such an audience, we have not presumed that the reader has formal training in mathematics or computer science. We have, however, presumed some programming experience.

The roles of formal specifications

Designing software is largely a matter of combining, inventing, and planning the implementation of abstractions. The goal of design is to describe a set of modules that interact with one another in simple, well-defined ways. If this is achieved, people will be able to work independently on different modules, and yet the modules will fit together to accomplish the larger purpose. In addition, during program maintenance it will be possible to modify a module without affecting many others.

Abstractions are intangible. But they must somehow be captured and communicated. That is what specifications are for. Specification gives us a way to say what an abstraction is, independent of any of its implementations.

The specifications in this book are written in formal specification languages. We use formal languages because we know of no other way to make specifications simultaneously as precise, clear, and concise. Anyone who has attempted to write documentation for a subroutine library, drafted contracts, or studied the tax code, knows how difficult it is to achieve even precision in a natural language—let alone clarity and brevity.

Mistakes from many sources will crop up in specifications, just as they do in programs. A great advantage of formal specification is that tools can be used to help detect and isolate many of these mistakes.

Some programmers are intimidated by the mere idea of formal specifications, which they fear may be too "mathematical" for them to understand and use. Such fears are groundless. Anyone who can learn to use a programming language can learn to use a formal specification language. After all, programs themselves are formal texts. Programmers cannot escape from formality and mathematical precision, even if they want to.

Overview of the book

Chapter 1 discusses the use of formal specifications in program development, providing a context for the technical material that follows. Chapter 2 contains a very short introduction to the notation of mathematical logic. The chapter is aimed at those with no background in logic, and provides all the logic background needed to understand the remainder of the book.

The rest of the book is an in-depth look at Larch, our approach to the formal specification of program components.

Chapter 3 gives an overview of the Larch two-tiered approach to specification. Each Larch specification has components written in two languages: one that is designed for a specific programming language (a Larch interface language) and another that is independent of any programming language (LSL, the Larch Shared Language). It also introduces LP, a tool used to reason about specifications. The descriptions are all brief; details are reserved for later chapters.

The remaining chapters are relatively independent, and can be read in any order. Chapter 4 is a tutorial on LSL. It is not a reference manual, but it does cover all features of the language. Chapter 5 is an introduction to LCL, a Larch interface language for Standard C. It describes the basic structure and semantics of the language, and it presents an extended example—along with hints about how to use LCL to support a style of C programming that emphasizes abstraction. Chapter 6 is an introduction to LM3, a Larch interface language for Modula-3. Chapter 7 discusses how LP can be used to analyze and help debug specifications written in LSL. It contains a short review of LP's major features, but is not comprehensive. Chapter 8 presents a brief summary of what we believe to be the essence of Larch.

The book concludes with several appendices. Appendix A contains a handbook of LSL specifications. Appendix B contains C implementations of the abstractions specified in Chapter 5. Appendix C deals with Larch's customization of lexical conventions. Appendix D contains a bibliography on Larch, and tells how to get more information about Larch, including how to get some of the Larch tools.

Some history

This book has been a long time in the growing. The seed was planted by Steve Zilles on October 3, 1973. During a programming language workshop organized by Barbara Liskov, he presented three simple equations relating operations on sets, and argued that anything that could reasonably be called a set would satisfy these axioms, and that anything that satisfied these axioms could reasonably be called a set. We developed this idea, and showed that all computable functions over an abstract type could be defined algebraically using equations of a simple form, and considered the question of when such a specification constituted an adequate definition [40].

As early as 1974, we realized that a purely algebraic approach to specification was unlikely to be practical. At that time, we proposed a combination of algebraic and operational specifications which we referred to as "dyadic specification" [39].

By 1980 we had evolved the essence of the two-tiered style of specification used in this book [43], although that term was not introduced until 1983 [86]. An early version of the Larch Shared Language was described in 1983 [44]. The first reasonably comprehensive description of Larch was published in 1985 [50]. Many readers complained that the contemporaneous *Larch in Five Easy Pieces* [51] should have been called *Larch in Five Pieces of Varying Difficulty*. They were not wrong.

By 1990 some software tools supporting Larch were available, and we began using them to check and reason about specifications. There is now a substantial and growing collection of support tools. We used them extensively in preparing this book. All of the formal proofs presented have been checked using LP. With the exception of parts of the LM3 specifications, all specifications have been subjected to mechanical checking. This process did not guarantee that the specifications accurately capture our intent; it did serve to help us find and eliminate several errors.

In the spring of 1990, we decided that it was time to make information on Larch more widely available. We originally thought of an anthology. The editors we contacted encouraged us to prepare a book, but urged us to provide a more coherent and integrated presentation of the material. We decided to take their advice. Had our families known how much of our time this would take, they would surely have tried to talk us out of it. In any event, we apologize to Andrea, David, Jane, Mark, Michael, and Olga for all the attention that "The Book" stole from them.

Acknowledgments

An important role in the development of Larch has been played by the organizations that provided the funding necessary to keep the project alive for so long. DARPA, NSF, the Digital Equipment Corporation, and Xerox were all valued patrons. A special debt of gratitude is owed to Bob Taylor, who as Director of the Computer Science Laboratory at the Xerox Palo Alto Research Center and then as Director of Digital's Systems Research Center has been a consistent supporter and friend. He encouraged people in his laboratories to work on Larch, he encouraged and funded efforts to transfer Larch to other parts of Digital, and he made possible the close collaboration between us by facilitating numerous visits by John Guttag, first to PARC and then to SRC, and by Jim Horning to MIT.

During the almost two decades we have been working on formal specification, we have accumulated a large number of intellectual debts. To list everyone who contributed an idea or an apt criticism would be impractical.

Over the years, Larch and related topics have been discussed at many meetings of IFIP Working Group 2.3. These discussions helped us to clarify our thinking in a number of areas.

Our early work on formal specification was influenced by a variety of people in the Department of Computer Science and the Computer Systems Research Group at the University of Toronto. The high degree of interaction between the theory and systems groups there provided a conducive atmosphere for this kind of work.

In the mid-seventies, John Guttag went to work at USC (and USC-ISI) and Jim Horning at Xerox PARC. Co-workers and visitors at both of these places played a significant role in the development of the Larch Shared Language and in helping us to understand the importance of support tools.

The most influential set of people have been our colleagues at Digital (particularly SRC) and at MIT's Laboratory for Computer Science (particularly members of the Systematic Program Development Group). They have encouraged our research and provided valuable technical feedback. Without their help, Larch would not exist. A few of these colleagues made particularly notable contributions. Jim Saxe's relentless criticism and creative suggestions contributed enormously to the development of both LSL and LP. Gary Feldman, Bill McKeeman, Yang Meng Tan, and Joe Wild contributed greatly to the design of LCL, as well as building and maintaining the LCL Checker. Greg Nelson provided the formal underpinnings on which the design of LM3 rests.

Our four co-authors played vital roles in the development of this book. They have worked with us on so many versions of the material in this book that we have not tried to record which words were whose. Steve Garland was a principal author of Chapters 2 and 7 and a vital contributor to the design of LSL, LCL, and LP. He also developed the majority of the software used to check and reason about the specifications appearing in this book. But for Steve, Larch would be a paper tiger. Kevin Jones was a principal designer of LM3 and provided much of the material in Chapter 6. Andrés Modet played a major role in the design and documentation of LSL. Jeannette Wing designed the first Larch interface language (Larch/CLU) and has been a vital contributor to almost all aspects of Larch ever since.

Many other people have helped in the preparation of this book. William Ang helped with the design of the artwork on the cover. Leslie Lamport provided a Larch style for LaTeX that made our life immeasurably easier. Manfred Broy, Daniel Jackson, Eric Muller, Sue Owicki, Fred Schneider, Mark Vandevoorde, and several anonymous reviewers provided extensive and helpful comments on various drafts. Cynthia Hibbard carefully edited the series of technical reports that led to this book. Judith Blount helped us to assemble and check the list of references. Jane Horning and Mary-Claire Van Leunen helped organize the index.

Finally, we wish to thank the Palo Alto Police Department for providing perspective. In August, a draft of this book was in a car that was stolen. Several days later the police recovered the car. When asked if any of the contents of the car had been recovered, they replied "Nothing of value." The thieves had removed everything from the car, except the manuscript.

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Contents

Chapter 1

Specifications in Program Development

This book is about formal specification of programs and components of programs. We are interested in using specifications to help in the production and maintenance of high quality software.

We begin this chapter with a few remarks about programming and the role of abstraction. We then move on to discuss how specifications fit into the picture.

1.1 Programming with abstractions

Building a software system is almost entirely a design activity. Unfortunately, software is usually designed badly or barely designed at all. A symptom of negligence during design is the number of software projects that are seriously behind schedule, despite having had design phases that were "completed" right on schedule [10]. In practice, design is the phase of a software project that is declared "complete" when circumstances require it. Part of the problem is that there are few objective criteria for evaluating the quality and completeness of designs. Another part is the elapsed time between producing a design and getting feedback from the implementation process.

This book describes how formal specifications can be used effectively to structure and control the design process and to document the results.

The key to structuring and controlling the design process is, as Machiavelli said, "*Divide et impera*." Regrettably, he was not clear about how to apply this stratagem to software development.

Two primary tools for dividing a problem are *decomposition* and *abstraction*. A good decomposition factors a problem into subproblems that:

- are all at the same level of detail,
- can be solved independently, and
- have solutions that can be combined to solve the original problem.

```
int sqrt(int x) {
  requires x ≥ 0;
  modifies nothing;
  ensures ∀ i: int
    ( abs(x - (result*result)) ≤ abs(x - (i*i)) );
}
```

FIGURE 1.1. A specification of an integer square Root procedure

The last criterion is the hardest to satisfy. This is where abstraction comes in. Abstraction involves ignoring details that are irrelevant for some purpose. It facilitates decomposition by making it possible to focus temporarily on simpler problems.

Consider, for example, the problem of designing a program to compile a source language, say Modula-3, to a target language, say Alpha machine code. Much of the compiler can be designed without paying attention to many of the details of either Modula-3 or the Alpha architecture. One might well begin by abstracting to the problem of compiling a source language with a deterministic context-free grammar to a reduced instruction (RISC) set target language. One might then choose to model the compiler's design on the design of other compilers that solve the same abstract problem, e.g., to decompose the problem into the separate problems of writing a scanner, a parser, a static semantic checker, and several code generation and optimization phases.

This paradigm of abstracting and then decomposing is typical of the program design process. Two important abstraction mechanisms are used: abstraction by parameterization and abstraction by specification.

Abstraction by parameterization allows a single program text to represent a potentially infinite set of computations or types. For example, the C code

```
int twice(int x) {return x + x;}
```

denotes a procedure that can be used to double any integer.

Abstraction by specification allows a single text to represent a potentially infinite set of programs. For example, the specification in Figure 1.1 describes any procedure that, given an appropriate argument, computes an integer approximation to its square root. Notice that it specifies the required result, not any particular algorithm for achieving it. Notice also that it does not describe the result completely. For example, it does not constrain the result to be positive.

For the most part, software design is the process of inventing and combining abstractions and planning their implementation.

There are several reasons why it is better to think about combining abstractions than to think about combining their implementations:

- Abstractions are easier to understand than implementations, so combining abstractions is less work.
- Relying only on properties of the abstractions makes software easier to maintain, because it is clear what properties must be preserved when an implementation is changed.
- Because an abstraction can have several implementations with different performance properties, it can be used in various contexts with different performance requirements. Any implementation can be replaced by another during performance tuning without affecting correctness.

The key to good software design is inventing appropriate abstractions around which to structure the software. Bad programmers typically don't even try to invent abstractions. Mediocre programmers invent abstractions sufficient to solve the current problem. Great programmers invent elegant abstractions that get used again and again.

1.2 Finding abstractions

Structure is sometimes identified with hierarchy; hierarchical decomposition is sometimes preached as the only "structured" programming method. The problem with hierarchical decomposition is that, as the hierarchy gets deeper, it leads to highly specialized components that assume a great deal of context. This decreases the likelihood that components will be useful elsewhere—either in the current system or in software that is built later. A relatively flat structure usually encourages more reuse.

Important boundaries in the software should correspond to stable boundaries in the problem domain. Such correspondence makes it more likely that when customers ask for a small change in the observed behavior of the software, the change can be accomplished by a small change to the implementation. Stable boundaries in the problem domain frequently involve data types, rather than individual operations, because the kinds of objects that long-lived software manipulates tend to change more slowly than the operations performed on those objects. This leads to a style of programming in which data abstraction plays a prominent role.

A *data type* (data abstraction) is best thought of as a collection of related operations that manipulate a collection of related values [68]. For example, one should think of the type `integer` as providing operations, such as `0` and `+`, rather than as an array of 32 (or perhaps 64) bits, whose high-order bit is interpreted as its sign. Similarly, one should think of the type `bond` as a collection of operations such as `get_coupon_rate` and `get_current_yield` rather than as a record containing various fields.

An *abstract type* is a type that is presented to a client in terms of its specification, rather than its implementation. To implement an abstract type, one selects a *representation* (i.e., a storage structure and an interpretation that says how values of the type are represented) and implements the type's operations in terms of that representation. Clients of an abstract type invoke its operations, rather than directly accessing its representation. When the representation is changed, programs that use the type may have to be recompiled, but they needn't be rewritten.[1]

Even in languages, such as C, that provide no direct support for abstract types, there is a style of programming in which abstract types play a prominent role. Programmers rely on conventions to ensure that the implementation of an abstract type can be changed without affecting the correctness of software that uses the abstract type. The key restriction is that programs never directly access the representation of an abstract value. All access is through the operations (procedures and functions) provided in its interface.

1.3 The many roles of specification

Abstractions are intangible. But they must somehow be captured and communicated. Specification gives us a way to say what an abstraction is, independent of any of its implementations. Writing specifications can serve to clarify and deepen designers' understanding of whatever they are specifying, by focusing attention on possible inconsistencies, lacunae, and ambiguities.

Once written, specifications are helpful to implementors, testers, and

[1]For a more comprehensive discussion of the role of data abstraction in programming, see [63].

maintainers. Specifications provide "logical firewalls" by documenting mutual obligations. Implementors are to write software that meets its specification. Clients, i.e., writers of programs that use the software interface, are to rely only on properties of the software that are guaranteed by its specification.

During module testing and quality assurance, specifications provide information that can be used to generate test data, build stubs, and analyze information flow. During system integration, specifications reduce the number and severity of interface problems by reducing the number of implicit assumptions. Finally, specifications aid in maintenance by recording the properties that must be preserved and by delimiting the changes that might affect clients.

All of these virtues can be attributed to the information hiding provided by specifications. Specification makes it possible to completely hide the implementation of an abstraction from its clients, and to completely hide the uses made by clients from the implementor [70].

1.4 Styles of specification

A good specification should be tight enough to rule out implementations that are not acceptable. It should also be loose enough to allow the most desirable (i.e., efficient and elegant) implementations. A specification that fails to rule out undesired "solutions" is not sufficiently constraining; one that places unnecessary constraints on implementations is guilty of *implementation bias*.

A *definitional specification* explicitly lists properties that implementations must exhibit. The specification in Figure 1.1 is definitional. An *operational specification* gives one recipe that has the required properties, instead of describing them directly. Figure 1.2 contains an operational specification of a square root procedure. It looks suspiciously like a program—it defines a function by showing how to compute it. In fact, every program can be viewed as a specification. The converse is not true: many specifications are not programs. Programs have to be executable, but specifications don't. This freedom can often be exploited to make specifications simpler and clearer.

There are strong arguments in favor of both the operational and definitional styles of specification. The strength of operational specification lies in its similarity to programming. This reduces the time required for programmers to learn to use specifications. Some operational specifications

```
int sqrt(int x)
  requires x ≥ 0
  effects
    i = 0;
    while i*i < x
      i = i + 1 end
    if abs(i*i - x) > abs((i - 1) * (i - 1) - x)
      then return i - 1
      else return i
```

FIGURE 1.2. An Operational Specification of Integer Square Root

are directly executable. By executing specifications as "rapid prototypes," specifiers and their clients can get quick feedback about the software system being specified.

On the other hand, definitional specifications are not bound by the constraint of constructivity. They are often shorter and clearer than operational specifications. They are also easier to modularize, because properties can be stated separately and then combined. Because definitional specifications are so different from programs, they provide a distinct viewpoint on systems that is frequently helpful.

It is often difficult to determine from an operational specification which properties are necessary parts of the thing being specified and which are unimportant. The specification in Figure 1.2, for example, allows fewer implementations than the specification in Figure 1.1. An implementation is certainly not obliged to use the simple, but horribly inefficient, specification algorithm, but it must compute the same result, and therefore must not return a negative number. This constraint might be essential in some contexts and insignificant in others. Figure 1.2 does not say, and cannot easily be modified to say, whether the sign of the result matters. Figure 1.1, on the other hand, can easily be strengthened to specify the sign if that is important.

1.5 Formal specifications

The specifications in this book are written in formal specification languages. A formal specification language provides:

- a *syntactic domain*—the notation in which the specifications are written,
- a *semantic domain*—a universe of things that may be specified, and
- a *satisfaction relation* saying which things in the semantic domain satisfy (implement) which specifications in the syntactic domain.

We use formal languages because it seems to be the easiest way to write specifications that are simultaneously precise, clear, and concise. This is hardly surprising. It is no accident that such diverse activities as chemistry, chess, knitting, and music all have their own formal notations.

Mistakes from many sources will crop up in specifications, just as they do in programs. A great advantage of formal specification is that tools can be used to help detect and isolate many of these mistakes. Anyone who has used a strongly typed programming language knows that even something as simple as a syntax and type checker is invaluable. Comparable checking and diagnosis of formal specifications is easy and worthwhile, but we can do even better. Various kinds of formal specifications can be checked more thoroughly by tools that help explore the consequences of design decisions, detect logical inconsistencies, simulate execution, execute symbolically, prove the correctness of implementation steps (refinements), etc.

Are formal specifications too "mathematical" to be used by typical programmers? No. Anyone who can learn to read and write programs can learn to read and write formal specifications. After all, each programming language is a formal language.

Chapter 2

A Little Bit of Logic

This chapter contains all the logic one needs to know to understand Larch.

The mathematical formalism underlying the Larch family of languages is multisorted first-order logic with equality. We use a few notations and basic concepts from this logic quite freely in the rest of the book. If you are already familiar with logic, you should scan this chapter quickly to see which of the many "standard" logical notations we have adopted. If you have no acquaintance with logic, don't worry. This is a brief chapter, and the parts of logic that we present are really quite simple—almost as simple as basic arithmetic and much simpler than common programming languages. If you want a fuller treatment of logic, you should consult one of the many textbooks available, but there is no reason to do so before continuing in this book.

To help the your intuition, we point out programming analogs of some of the logical concepts. However, these analogies should not be pushed too far; logic is not a programming language. We use logic to describe properties that objects might or might not have (e.g., to describe what it means to be the shortest path between two points in a graph), whereas we use programming languages to describe how to produce certain objects (e.g., to describe how to find a shortest path).

2.1 Basic logical concepts

A logical language consists of a set of *sorts* and *operators* (function symbols). Sorts are much like programming language types. An operator (e.g., `+`) stands for a map from tuples of values to values; its *signature* (e.g., `Int,Int→Int`) is a tuple of sorts for its arguments (its *domain sorts*, e.g., `Int,Int`) and a sort for its result (its *range sort*, e.g., `Int`). A *relational operator* is a binary operator with range sort `Bool` (e.g., `<:E,E→Bool`). Operators are much like identifiers for value-returning procedures in programming languages.

An *application* consists of an operator and a tuple of terms, each of which has the same sort as the corresponding domain sort for the operator. The sort of an application is the same as that of the operator's range sort.

Applications are much like procedure calls in programming languages.

An important special case is an operator whose signature has no domain sorts. We will write such applications without parentheses (e.g., `empty` rather than `empty()`). We refer to both the operator and its application as a *constant*.

The application of an infix operator may be written with the operator between the two operands (e.g., `x+y` rather than `+(x, y)`). For operators that are associative, such as +, we also allow more than two operands (e.g., `x+y+z` is equivalent to `(x+y)+z` and to `+(+(x, y), z)`).

A *variable* is an identifier standing for an arbitrary value of some sort. Logical variables are different from programming language variables because the value of a logical variable does not change over time.

A *term* is a variable, an application, or a parenthesized term.

An *equation* is a term of sort `Bool`, written as a pair of terms of the same sort, joined by the the *equality operator*, =.

A *predicate* (also called a *formula*) is a term of sort `Bool`. In order to determine whether a given predicate is true or false, we must know how to interpret the sorts and operators in the logical language. For example, `sqrt(5) = 2` is false if `sqrt` is interpreted as the square-root function over the real numbers and the constant operators `5` and `2` are interpreted as the real numbers five and two. Alternatively, the predicate is true if `sqrt` is interpreted as the greatest-integer-less-than-or-equal-to-the-square-root function. So it only makes sense to talk about whether a predicate is true or false if we are given a *structure* (interpretation) that assigns

- a nonempty set of values to each sort, and
- a total function (that maps tuples of values of its domain sorts to values of its range sort) to each operator.

Most logics come with a set of operators whose meanings are fixed *a priori*, for example, the equality operator for each sort. Others are the *propositional connectives* $\Leftrightarrow$ (if and only if), $\neg$ (not), $\wedge$ (and), $\vee$ (or), and $\Rightarrow$ (implies).

First-order logic provides several ways to form predicates. We describe these, as well as what it means for each kind of predicate to be true in a given structure under a given assignment of values to its variables.

- As mentioned above, an *equation* is a predicate consisting of a pair of terms of the same sort, joined by the equality operator, =. It is true if its two operands have the same value in the given structure under the given assignment of values to variables. The predicate `x = y` may be read as "x equals y." The propositional connective $\Leftrightarrow$ has the same meaning as the equality operator for the sort `Bool`. The predicate `P` $\Leftrightarrow$ `Q` may be read as "`P` if and only if `Q`."

- A *negation* is a predicate preceded by the negation operator, $\neg$. It is true if the operand of $\neg$ is false. The predicate $\neg$`P` may be read as "not `P`."

- A *conjunction* is a pair of predicates joined by the conjunction connective, $\wedge$. A conjunction is true if both its operands are true. The predicate `P` $\wedge$ `Q` may be read as "both `P` and `Q`."

- A *disjunction* is a pair of predicates joined by the disjunction connective, $\vee$. A disjunction is true if at least one of its operands is true. The predicate `P` $\vee$ `Q` may be read as "either `P` or `Q` or both."

- An *implication* is a pair of predicates joined by the implication connective, $\Rightarrow$. An implication is true if its left operand is false or its right operand is true. Therefore, `P` $\Rightarrow$ `Q` has the same meaning as $\neg$`P` $\vee$ `Q`. The predicate `P` $\Rightarrow$ `Q` may be read as "`P` implies `Q`" or "if `P` then `Q`."

- A *binding* is a predicate preceded by a variable and its sort. All occurrences of the variable in the predicate are said to be *bound* (and to have that sort). The binding is said to have *captured* the variable it binds. A variable is *free* in a predicate if there are any instances of it anywhere in the predicate that are not bound.

- A *quantified predicate* is a binding preceded by either the *existential quantifier*, $\exists$, or the *universal quantifier*, $\forall$. Bindings are only allowed immediately following quantifiers. The binding $\forall$`x:S` may be read as "for all `x` of sort `S`."

  - A *witness* for a bound variable is a value that makes the predicate in its binding true, in a structure under a given assignment, when the assignment is modified to assign the witness to the bound variable.
  - An existentially quantified predicate is true if there is at least one witness for its bound variable. The predicate $\exists$`x:S (P)` may be read as "there exists an `x` of sort `S` such that `P`."

- A universally quantified predicate is true if the predicate in its binding is true for all values of its bound variable. The predicate `∀x:S (P)` may be read as "for all `x` of sort `S`, `P`."

If a predicate is true in all structures under all assignments to its free variables, it is said to be *valid* or a *tautology*. If there exists a structure and an assignment to its free variables under which it is true, it is said to be *satisfiable*.

A *sentence* is a predicate with no free variables. By convention, we consider a free-standing predicate with free variables as standing for the sentence obtained by universally quantifying its free variables at the outermost level. Since the truth of a predicate in a structure depends only on the values assigned to its free variables, and since a sentence contains no free variables, we talk about a sentence being true in a structure, rather than in a structure under an assignment.

When a sentence is true in a structure, we say that the structure is a *model* of that sentence. Similarly, when each member of a set of sentences is true in a structure, we say that the structure is a model of that set. Consider, for example, a language with a single non-`Bool` sort, `E`, with one operator, the binary relation <, and with three variables `x`, `y`, and `z` of sort `E`. Any structure that is a model of the two sentences

```
∀ x:E ¬(x < x)

∀ x:E ∀ y:E ∀ z:E (( x < y ∧ y < z) ⇒ x < z)
```

is commonly known as a *strict partial order*, and we call these sentences *axioms* for strict partial orders.

A sentence `S` is a *logical consequence* of a set `T` of sentences if every model of `T` is also a model of `S`. For example, the sentence

```
∀ x:E ∀ y:E ¬(x < y ∧ y < x)
```

is a consequence of the axioms for strict partial orders, because it is true in all strict partial orders.

A set of sentences is *closed* under logical consequence if it contains all its logical consequences. A *theory* is a set of sentences closed under logical consequence. For example, the theory of strict partial orders is the set of all consequences of the axioms for strict partial orders; equivalently, it is the set of sentences true in all strict partial orders.

A theory is *complete* if for every sentence `S`, either `S` or `¬S` is in the theory. Most of the time, we find ourselves dealing with incomplete theories. For example, there is no computable set of sentences whose logical consequences are exactly the sentences true about the natural numbers under the usual operations of addition and multiplication.

A set of sentences is *consistent* if it has a model. It is easy to show that a sentence `S` is a consequence of a set `T` of sentences if and only if $\mathtt{T} \cup \{\neg\mathtt{S}\}$ is inconsistent. Likewise, a theory is consistent if and only if it does not contain a *contradiction*, that is, the sentence `true = false`.

2.2 Proof and consequences

In the preceding section, we provided a semantic description of what it means for a sentence `S` to be a logical consequence of a set of sentences `T`, namely that every model of `T` also be a model of `S`. Unfortunately, this definition does not provide a practical means for determining when `S` is a logical consequence of `T`. For example, `T` may have infinitely many models, some of its models may have infinitely many elements, etc.

Fortunately, there is a syntactic characterization of what it means for `S` to be a logical consequence of `T`. A formal *deduction system* consists of a set of sentences (called *logical axioms*) together with a set of functions (called *deduction rules*) that map finite sets of sentences (the *premises* of a deduction) to a single sentence (its *conclusion*). For example, the deduction rule

```
 P, P ⇒ Q
-----------
    Q
```

states that `Q` can be deduced from the premises `P` and $\mathtt{P} \Rightarrow \mathtt{Q}$.

A *proof* based on a set `T` of sentences is a finite sequence of sentences each of which is either a logical axiom, a member of `T`, or the conclusion of a deduction rule applied to a set of sentences occurring earlier in the proof. A sentence `S` is a *theorem* of `T` if it occurs in some proof based on `T`.

There are three properties that a good formal system of deduction should possess:

- It should not allow any spurious proofs. A system is *sound* if, for any `T`, every theorem of `T` is really a logical consequence of `T`.

- It should provide enough proofs. A system is *complete* if, for any `T`, every logical consequence of `T` is also a theorem of `T`.

- It should be possible to recognize what is a proof and what is not. A system is *effective* if, for any computable set `T` of sentences, the set of proofs based on `T` is also computable.

There are several sound, complete, and effective formal systems of deduction for first-order logic. For most of this book, the mere existence of good formal systems of deduction is all that counts. The choice of a particular system, or the details of that system (which we refer to as "the usual rules of first-order logic"), do not really matter. What matters is that the system is sound (because we do not want to prove anything that isn't true) and effective (because we want to know when we have a proof). Completeness of a deductive system matters less, since we often find ourselves dealing with incomplete theories. Of course, the system of deduction used in LP, Chapter 7, is sound and effective.

This concludes our whirlwind introduction to the vocabulary and notation of mathematical logic used in the remainder of this book. We rely primarily on the predicate-forming operators described on pages 9–11.

Chapter 3

An Introduction to Larch

We begin this chapter by describing the Larch approach to specification and illustrating it with a few small examples. Our intent is to give you a taste of Larch. Details are reserved for later chapters. We then discuss LP, the Larch proof assistant, a tool that supports all the Larch languages. Again, we give only a taste. Finally, we discuss the lexical and typographical conventions used for preparing and presenting the Larch specifications in this book.

3.1 Two-tiered specifications

The Larch family of languages supports a *two-tiered*, definitional style of specification. Each specification has components written in two languages: one language that is designed for a specific programming language and another language that is independent of any programming language. The former kind are *Larch interface languages*, and the latter is the *Larch Shared Language* (LSL).

Interface languages are used to specify the interfaces between program components. Each specification provides the information needed to use an interface. A critical part of each interface is how components communicate across the interface. Communication mechanisms differ from programming language to programming language. For example, some languages have mechanisms for signalling exceptional conditions, others do not. More subtle differences arise from the various parameter passing and storage allocation mechanisms used by different languages.

It is easier to be precise about communication when the interface specification language reflects the programming language. Specifications written in such interface languages are generally shorter than those written in a "universal" interface language. They are also clearer to programmers who use components and to programmers who implement them.

Each interface language deals with what can be observed by client programs written in a particular programming language. It provides a way to write assertions about program states, and it incorporates programming-language-specific notations for features such as side effects, exception

```
uses TaskQueue;
mutable type queue;
immutable type task;

task *getTask(queue q) {
  modifies q;
  ensures
    if isEmpty(q^)
      then result = NIL ∧ unchanged(q)
      else (*result)′ = first(q^) ∧ q′ = tail(q^);
}
```

FIGURE 3.1. An LCL interface specification

handling, iterators, and concurrency. Its simplicity or complexity depends largely on the simplicity or complexity of its programming language.

Larch interface languages have been designed for a variety of programming languages. The two that are discussed in this book are for C and for Modula-3. Other interface languages have been designed for Ada [15, 37], CLU [86], C++ [60, 90, 92], ML [93], and Smalltalk [17]. There are also “generic” Larch interface languages that can be specialized for particular programming languages or used to specify interfaces between programs in different languages [16, 53, 61, 88].

Larch interface languages encourage a style of programming that emphasizes the use of abstractions, and each provides a mechanism for specifying abstract types. If its programming language provides direct support for abstract types (as Modula-3 does), the interface language facility is modeled on that of the programming language; if its programming language does not (as C does not), the facility is designed to be compatible with other aspects of the programming language.

Figure 3.1 contains a sample interface specification for a small fragment of a scheduler for an operating system. The specification is written in LCL (a Larch interface language for C, described in Chapter 5). This fragment introduces two abstract types and a procedure for selecting a task from a task queue. Briefly, `*` means pointer to (as in C), `result` refers to the value returned by the procedure, the symbol ^ is used to refer to the value in a location when the procedure is called, and the symbol ′ to refer to its value when the procedure returns.

The specification of `getTask` is not self-contained. For example, looking only at this specification there is no way to know which task

```
TaskQueue: trait
  includes Nat
  task tuple of id: Nat, important: Bool
  introduces
    new: → queue
    __ ⊣ __: task, queue → queue
    isEmpty, hasImportant: queue → Bool
    first: queue → task
    tail: queue → queue
  asserts
    queue generated by new, ⊣
    ∀ t: task, q: queue
      isEmpty(new);
      ¬isEmpty(t ⊣ q);
      ¬hasImportant(new);
      hasImportant(t ⊣ q) ==
        t.important ∨ hasImportant(q);
      first(t ⊣ q) ==
        if t.important ∨ ¬hasImportant(q)
          then t else first(q);
      tail(t ⊣ q) ==
        if first(t ⊣ q) = t then q else t ⊣ tail(q)
```

FIGURE 3.2. LSL specification used by getTask

`getTask` selects. Is it the one that has been in `q` the longest? Is it is the one in `q` with the highest priority?

Interface specifications rely on definitions from *auxiliary specifications*, written in LSL, to provide semantics for the primitive terms they use. Specifiers are not limited to a fixed set of notations, but can use LSL to define specialized vocabularies suitable for particular interface specifications or classes of specifications.

Figure 3.2 contains a portion of an LSL specification that specifies the operators used in the interface specification of `getTask`. Based on the information in this LSL specification, one can deduce that the task pointed to by the result of `getTask` is the most recently inserted `important` task, if such a task exists. Otherwise it is the most recently inserted task.

Many informal specifications have a structure similar to this. They implicitly rely on auxiliary specifications by describing an interface in terms of concepts with which readers are assumed to be familiar, such as sets, lists, coordinates, and windows. But they don't define these auxiliary concepts. Readers can misunderstand such specifications, unless their intuitive understanding exactly matches the specifier's. And there is no way to be sure that such intuitions do match. LSL specifications provide unambiguous mathematical definitions of the terms that appear in interface specifications.

Larch encourages a separation of concerns, with basic constructs in the LSL tier and programming details in the interface tier. We suggest that specifiers keep most of the complexity of specifications in the LSL tier for several reasons:

- LSL specifications are likely to be more reusable than interface specifications.
- LSL has a simpler underlying semantics than most programming languages (and hence than most interface languages), so specifiers are less likely to make mistakes, and any mistakes they do make are more easily found.
- It is easier to make and to check assertions about semantic properties of LSL specifications than about semantic properties of interface specifications.

Many programming errors are easily detected by running the program, that is, by testing it. While some Larch specifications can be executed, most of them cannot. The Larch style of specification emphasizes brevity and clarity rather than executability. To make it possible to validate specifications before implementing or executing them, Larch permits specifiers to make assertions about specifications that are intended to be redundant. These assertions can be checked mechanically. Several tools that assist specifiers in checking these assertions as they debug specifications are already in use, and others are under development.[1]

3.2 LSL, the Larch Shared Language

LSL specifications define two kinds of symbols, *operators* and *sorts*. The concepts of operator and sort are the same as those used in Chapter 2. They are similar to the programming language concepts of procedure and type, but it is important not to confuse these two sets of concepts. When discussing LSL specifications, we will consistently use the words “operator” and “sort.” When talking about programming language constructs, we will use the words “procedure” (or “function,” “routine,” or “method,” as appropriate) and “type.” As discussed in Chapter 2, operators stand for total functions from tuples of values to values. Sorts stand for disjoint non-empty sets of values, and are used to indicate the domains and ranges of operators. In each interface language, “procedure” and “type” must mean what they mean in that programming language.

The *trait* is the basic unit of specification in LSL. A trait introduces some operators and specifies some of their properties. Sometimes the trait defines an abstract type. However, it is frequently useful to define a set of properties that does not fully characterize a type.

Figure 3.3 shows a trait that specifies a class of tables that store values in indexed places. It is similar to specifications in many “algebraic” specification languages.

The specification begins by *including* another trait, `Integer`. This specification, which can be found in the LSL handbook in Appendix A, page 163, supplies information about the operators `+`, `0`, and `1`, which are used in defining the operators introduced in `Table`.

The *introduces clause* declares a set of operators, each with its *signature* (the sorts of its domain and range). Signatures are used to sort-check terms in much the same way as procedure calls are type-checked in programming languages.

The *body* of the specification contains, following the reserved word

[1]See Appendix D for a list.

```
Table: trait
   includes Integer
   introduces
      new: → Tab
      add: Tab, Ind, Val → Tab
      __ ∈ __: Ind, Tab → Bool
      lookup: Tab, Ind → Val
      size: Tab → Int
   asserts ∀ i, i1: Ind, v: Val, t: Tab
        ¬(i ∈ new);
        i ∈ add(t, i1, v) == i = i1 ∨ i ∈ t;
        lookup(add(t, i, v), i1) ==
           if i = i1 then v else lookup(t, i1);
        size(new) == 0;
        size(add(t, i, v)) ==
            if i ∈ t then size(t) else size(t) + 1
```

FIGURE 3.3. `Table.lsl`

`asserts`, equations between terms containing operators and variables.[2] The third equation resembles a recursive function definition, since the operator `lookup` appears on both the left and right sides. However, it merely states a relation that must hold among `lookup`, `add`, and the built-in operator `if__then__else__`; it does not fully define `lookup`. For example, it doesn't say anything about the value of the term `lookup(new, i)`.

The *theory* of a trait is the set of all logical consequences of its assertions. It is an infinite set of formulas in multisorted first-order logic with equality. It contains everything that logically follows from its assertions, but nothing else. The theory associated with `Table` contains equalities and disequalities that can be proved by substitution of equals for equals. LSL also provides two constructs for non-equational assertions that can be used to generate stronger (larger) theories. These important constructs are discussed in Chapter 4.

It is instructive to note some of the things that `Table` does *not* specify:

1. It does not say how tables are to be represented.
2. It does not give algorithms to manipulate tables.
3. It does not say what procedures are to be implemented to operate on tables.
4. It does not say what happens if one looks up an `Ind` that is not in a `Tab`.

The first two decisions are in the province of the implementation. The third and fourth are recorded in interface specifications.

3.3 Interface specifications

An interface specification defines an interface between program components, and is written in a programming-language-specific Larch interface language. Each specification must provide the information needed to use an interface and to write programs that implement it. At the core of each Larch interface language is a model of the state manipulated by the associated programming language.

---

[2]The equation connective in LSL, ==, has the same semantics as the equality symbol, =. It is used only to introduce another level of precedence into the language.

PROGRAM STATES

States are mappings from *locs* (abstract storage locations, also known as objects) to *values*. Each variable identifier has a type and is associated with a loc of that type. The major kinds of values that can be stored in locs are:

- *basic values*. These are mathematical constants, like the integer `3` and the letter `A`. Such values are independent of the state of any computation.
- *exposed types*. These are data structures that are fully described by the type constructors of the programming language (e.g., C's `int *` or Modula-3's `ARRAY [1..10] OF INTEGER`). The representation is visible to, and may be relied on by, clients.
- *abstract types*. As mentioned in Chapter 1, data types are best thought of as collections of related operations on collections of related values. Abstract types are used to hide representation information from clients.

Each interface language provides operators (e.g., ^ and `'`) that can be applied to locs to extract their values in the relevant states (usually the pre-state and the post-state of a procedure).

Each loc's type defines the kind of values it can map to in any state. Just as each loc has a unique type, each LSL term has a unique sort. To connect the two tiers in a Larch specification, there is a mapping from interface language types (including abstract types) to LSL sorts. Each type of basic value, exposed type, and abstract type is *based on* an LSL sort. Interface specifications are written using types and values. Properties of these values are defined in LSL, using operators on the corresponding sorts.

For each interface language, a standard LSL trait defines operators that can be applied to values of the sorts that the programming language's basic types and other exposed types are based on. Users familiar with the programming language will already have an intuitive understanding of these operators. Abstract types are typically based on sorts defined in traits supplied by specifiers.

PROCEDURE SPECIFICATIONS

The specification of each procedure in an interface can be studied, understood, and used without reference to the specifications of other procedures. A specification consists of a procedure header (declaring the types of its arguments and results) followed by a body of the form:

```
requires reqP
modifies modList
ensures  ensP
```

A specification places constraints on both clients and implementations of the procedure. The *requires clause* is used to state restrictions on the state, including the values of any parameters, at the time of any call. The *modifies* and *ensures clauses* place constraints on the procedure's behavior when it is called properly. They relate two states, the state when the procedure is called, the *pre-state*, and the state when it terminates, the *post-state*.

A requires clause refers only to values in the pre-state. An ensures clause may also refer to values in the post-state.

A modifies clause says what locs a procedure is allowed to change (its *target list*). It says that the procedure must not change the value of any locs visible to the client except for those in the target list. Any other loc must have the same value in the pre and post-states. If there is no modifies clause, then nothing may be changed.

For each call, it is the responsibility of the client to make the requires clause true in the pre-state. Having done that, the client may assume that:

- the procedure will terminate,
- changes will be limited to the locs in the target list, and
- the postcondition will be true on termination.

The client need not be concerned with how this happens.

The implementor of a procedure is entitled to assume that the precondition holds on entry, and is only responsible for the procedure's behavior if it is. A procedure's behavior is totally unconstrained if its precondition isn't satisfied, so it is good style to keep the requires clause weak. An omitted requires clause is equivalent to `requires true` (the weakest possible requirement).

TWO INTERFACE LANGUAGE EXAMPLES

Figure 3.4 contains a fragment of a specification written in LCL (a Larch interface language for Standard C). Figure 3.5 contains a fragment of a similar specification written in LM3 (a Larch interface language for Modula-3). They use the same `Table` trait of Figure 3.3. We present

```
mutable type table;
uses Table(table for Tab, char for Ind,
           char for Val, int for Int);
constant int maxTabSize;

table table_create(void) {
  ensures result′ = new ∧ fresh(result);
  }
bool table_add(table t, char i, char c) {
  modifies t;
  ensures result = (size(tˆ) < maxTabSize ∨ i ∈ tˆ)
    ∧ (if result then t′ = add(tˆ, i, c)
                 else t′ = tˆ);
  }
char table_read(table t, char i) {
  requires i ∈ tˆ;
  ensures result = lookup(tˆ, i);
  }
```

FIGURE 3.4. A Sample LCL Interface Specification

```
INTERFACE Table;
<* TRAITS Table(CHAR FOR Ind, CHAR FOR Val,
                INTEGER FOR Int) *>
  TYPE T <: OBJECT
    METHODS
      Add(i: CHAR; c: CHAR) RAISES {Full};
      Read(i: CHAR): CHAR;
    END;
  PROCEDURE Create( ): T;
  CONST MaxTabSize: INTEGER = 100;
  EXCEPTION Full;
<*
  FIELDS OF T
    val :  Tab;
  METHOD T.Add(i, c)
    MODIFIES SELF.val
    ENSURES SELF.val' = add(SELF.val, i, c)
      EXCEPT size(SELF.val) ≥ MaxTabSize
           ∧  ¬(i ∈ SELF.val)
         => RAISEVAL = Full ∧ UNCHANGED(ALL)
  METHOD T.Read(i)
    REQUIRES i ∈ SELF.val
    ENSURES RESULT = lookup(SELF.val, i)
  PROCEDURE Create
    ENSURES RESULT.val = new ∧ FRESH(RESULT)
*>
END Table.
```

FIGURE 3.5. A Sample LM3 Interface Specification

```
void choose(int x, int y) int z; {
  modifies z;
  ensures z′ = x ∨ z′ = y;
}
```

FIGURE 3.6. A specification of choose

these examples here simply to convey an impression of how programming language dependencies influence Larch interface languages. At this point, you should not be concerned with their exact meaning; the notations used are described in detail in Chapters 5 and 6.

3.4 Relating implementations to specifications

In this book we emphasize using specifications as a communication medium. Programmers are encouraged to become clients of well-specified abstractions that have been implemented by others. This book does not discuss the process of implementing specifications; there is already a copious literature on the subject.

One of the advantages of Larch's two-tiered approach to specification is that the relationship of implementations to specifications is relatively straightforward. Consider, for example, the LCL specification in Figure 3.6 and the C implementation in Figure 3.7.

The specification defines a relation between the program state when `choose` is called and the state when it returns. This relation contains all pairs of states *<pre, post>* in which

- the states differ only in the value of the global variable `z`, and
- in *post* the value of `z` is that of one of the two arguments passed to `choose`.

The implementation also defines a relation on program states. This relation contains all pairs of states *<pre, post>* in which

- the states differ only in the value of the variable `z`, and
- in *post* the value of `z` is the maximum of the two arguments passed to `choose`.

```
void choose(int x, int y) {
  if (x > y) z = x;
  else z = y;
}
```

FIGURE 3.7. An implementation of choose

We say that the implementation of `choose` in Figure 3.7 *satisfies* the specification in Figure 3.6—or is a *correct implementation* of Figure 3.6[3]—because the relation defined by the implementation is a subset of the relation defined by the specification. Every possible behavior that can be observed by a client of the implementation is permitted by the specification.

The definition of satisfaction we have just given is not directly useful. In practice, formal arguments about programs are not usually made by building and comparing relations. Instead, such proofs are usually done by pushing predicates through the program text, in ways that can be justified by appeal to the definition of satisfaction. A description of how to do this appears in the books [21, 36].

The notion of satisfaction is a bit more complicated for implementations of abstract types, because the implementor of an abstract type is working simultaneously at two levels of abstraction. To implement an abstract type, one chooses data structures to represent values of the type, then writes the procedures of the type in terms of that representation. However, since the specifications of those procedures are in terms of abstract values, one must be able to relate the representation data structures to the abstract values that they represent. This relation is an essential (but too often implicit) part of the implementation.

Figure 3.8 shows an implementation of the LCL specification in Figure 3.4. A value of the abstract type `table` is represented by a pointer to a struct containing two arrays and an integer. You need not look at the details of the code to understand the basic idea behind this implementation. Instead, you should consider the abstraction function and representation invariant.

The *abstraction function* is the bridge between the data structure used

[3]"Correct" is a dangerous word. It is not meaningful to say that an implementation is "correct" or "incorrect" without saying what specification it is claimed to satisfy. The technical sense of "correct" that is used in the formal methods community does not imply "good," or "useful," or even "not wrong," but merely "consistent with its specification."

```
#include "bool.h"
#define maxTabSize (10)

typedef struct {char ind[maxTabSize];
                char val[maxTabSize];
                int next;} tableRep;
typedef tableRep * table;

table table_create(void) {
  table t;
  t = (table) malloc(sizeof(tableRep));
  if (t == 0) {
    printf("Malloc returned null in table_create\n");
    exit(1);
  }
  t->next = 0;
  return t;
}
bool table_add(table t, char i, char c) {
  int j;
  for (j = 0; j < t->next; j++)
    if (t->ind[j] == i) {
      t->val[j] = c;
      return TRUE;
    }
  if (t->next == maxTabSize) return FALSE;
  t->val[t->next++] = c;
  return TRUE;
}
char table_read(table t, char i) {
  int j;
  for (j = 0; TRUE; j++)
    if (t->ind[j] == i) return t->val[j];
}
```

FIGURE 3.8. Implementing an abstract type

in the implementation of an abstract type and the abstract values being implemented. It maps each value of the representation type to a value of the abstract type. Here, we represent a `table` by a pointer, call it `t`, to a struct. If the triple `<ind, val, next>` contains the values of the fields of that struct in some state `s`, then we can define the abstract value represented by `t` in state `s` as `toTab(<ind, val, next>)`, where

```
toTab(<ind, val, next>) ==
  if next = 0 then empty
  else insert(toTab(<next - 1, ind, val>),
              ind[next], val[next])
```

Abstraction functions are often many-to-one. Here, for example, if `t->next = 0`, `t` represents the empty `table`, no matter what the contents of `t->ind` and `t->val`.

The typedefs in Figure 3.8 define a data structure sufficient to represent any value of type `table`. However, it is not the case that any value of that data structure represents a value of type `table`. In defining the abstraction function, we relied upon some implicit assumptions about which data structures were valid representations. For example, `toTab` is not defined when `t->next` is negative. A *representation invariant* is used to make such assumptions explicit. For this implementation, the representation invariant is

- The value of `next` lies between `0` and `maxTabSize`:

  $$0 \leq \texttt{t->next} \wedge \texttt{t->next} \leq \texttt{maxTabSize}$$

- and no index may appear more than once in the fragment of `ind` that lies between `0` and `next`:

  $$\forall\ \texttt{i,j:int}\ (0 \leq \texttt{i} \wedge \texttt{i} < \texttt{j} \wedge \texttt{j} < \texttt{t->next}) \Rightarrow \texttt{(t->ind)[i]} \neq \texttt{(t->ind)[j]}$$

To show that that this representation invariant holds, we use a proof technique called *data type induction*. Since `table` is an abstract type, we know that clients cannot directly access the data structure used to represent a `table`. Therefore, all values of type `table` that occur during program execution will have been generated by the functions specified in the interface. So to show that the invariant holds it suffices to show, reasoning from the code implementing the functions on `table`s, that

- the value returned by `table_create` satisfies the invariant (this is the basis step of the induction),

- whenever `table_add` is called, if the invariant holds for `t^` then the invariant will also hold for `t'`, and

- whenever `table_read` is called, if the invariant holds for `t^` then the invariant will also hold for `t'`.

A slightly different data type induction principle can be used to reason about clients of abstract types. To prove that a property holds for all instances of the type, i.e., that it is an *abstract invariant*, one inducts over all possible sequences of calls to the procedures that create or modify locs of the type. However, one reasons using the specifications of the procedures rather than their implementations. For example, to show that the `size(t)` is never greater than `maxTabSize` one shows that

- the specification of `table_create` implies that the size of the `table` returned is not greater than `maxTabSize`, and

- the specification of `table_add` combined with the hypothesis `t^` $\leq$ `maxTabSize` implies that `t'` $\leq$ `maxTabSize`.

Given the abstraction function, it is relatively easy to define what it means for the procedure implementations in Figure 3.8 to satisfy the specifications in Figure 3.4. For example, we say that the implementation of `table_read` satisfies its specification because the image under the abstraction function of the relation between pre and post-states defined by the implementation (i.e., what one gets by applying the abstraction function to all values of type `table` in the relation defined by the implementation) is a subset of the relation defined by the specification. Notice, by the way, that any argument that the implementation of `table_read` satisfies its specification will rely on both the `requires` clause of the specification and on the representation invariant.

3.5 LP, the Larch proof assistant

The discussions of LSL, LCL, and LM3 have alluded to tools supporting those languages. LP is a tool that is used to support all three. Chapter 7, which is about reasoning about LSL specifications, contains a brief description of LP. Here we give merely a glimpse of its use.

LP is a proof assistant for a subset of multisorted first-order logic with equality, the logic—described in Chapter 2—on which the Larch languages are based. It is designed to work efficiently on large problems and to be used by specifiers with relatively little experience with theorem proving. Its design and development have been motivated primarily by our work on LSL, but it also has other uses, for example, reasoning about circuit designs [75, 79], algorithms involving concurrency [25], data types [92], and algebraic systems [65].

LP is intended primarily as an interactive proof assistant or proof debugger, rather than as a fully automatic theorem prover. Its design is based on the assumption that initial attempts to state and prove conjectures usually fail. So LP is designed to carry out routine (but possibly lengthy) proof steps automatically and to provide useful information about why proofs fail. To keep users from being surprised and confused by its behavior, LP does not employ complicated heuristics for finding proofs automatically. It makes it easy for users to employ standard techniques such as proof by cases, by induction, or by contradiction, but the choice among such strategies is left to the user.

THE LIFE CYCLE OF PROOFS

Proving is similar to programming: proofs are designed, coded, debugged, and (sometimes) documented.

Before designing a proof it is necessary to formalize the things being reasoned about and the conjecture to be proved. The design of the proof proper starts with an outline of its structure, including key lemmas and methods of proof. The proof itself must be given in sufficient detail to be convincing. What it means to be convincing depends on who (or what) is to be convinced. Experience shows that humans are frequently convinced by unsound proofs, so we look for a mechanical "skeptic" that is just hard enough (but not too hard) to convince.

Once part of a proof has been coded, LP can be used to debug it. Proofs of interesting conjectures hardly ever succeed the first time. Sometimes the conjecture is wrong. Sometimes the formalization is incorrect or incomplete. Sometimes the proof strategy is flawed or not detailed enough. LP provides a variety of facilities that can be used to understand the problem when an attempted proof fails.

While debugging proofs, users frequently reformulate axioms and conjectures. After any change in the axiomatization, it is necessary to recheck not only the conjecture whose proof attempt uncovered the

```
Nat: trait
  includes AC(+, Nat)
  introduces
    0: → Nat
    s: Nat → Nat
    __ < __: Nat, Nat → Bool
  asserts
    Nat generated by 0, s
    ∀ i, j, k: Nat
      i + 0 == i;
      i + s(j) == s(i + j);
      ¬(i < 0);
      0 < s(i);
      s(i) < s(j) == i < j
    implies ∀ i, j, k: Nat
      i < j ⇒ i < (j + k)
```

FIGURE 3.9. A trait containing a conjecture

problem, but also the conjectures previously proved using the old axioms. LP has facilities that support such regression testing.

LP will, upon request, record a session in a script file that can be replayed. LP "prettyprints" script files, using indentation to reflect the structure of proofs. It also annotates script files with information that indicates when subgoals are introduced (e.g., in a proof by induction), and when subgoals and theorems are proved. On request, as LP replays a script file, it will halt replay at the first point where the annotations and the new proof diverge. This checking makes it easier to keep proof attempts from getting "out of sync" with their author's conception of their structure.

A SMALL PROOF

Figure 3.9 contains a short LSL specification, including a simple conjecture (following the reserved word `implies`) that is supposed to follow from the axioms. Figure 3.10 shows a script for an LP proof of that conjecture.

The `declare` commands introduce the variables and operators in the LSL specification. The `assert` commands supply the LSL axioms relating the operators; the `Nat generated by` assertion provides an induction scheme for `Nat`. The `prove` command initiates a proof by

```
set name nat
declare sort Nat
declare variables i, j, k: Nat
declare operators
  0: → Nat
  s: Nat → Nat
  +: Nat, Nat → Nat
  <: Nat, Nat → Bool
  ..
assert Nat generated by 0, s
assert ac +
assert
  i + 0 == i
  i + s(j) == s(i + j)
  ¬(i < 0)
  0 < s(i)
  s(i) < s(j) == i < j
  ..
set name lemma
prove i < j ⇒ i < (j + k) by induction on j
  <> 2 subgoals for proof by induction on j
    [] basis subgoal
    resume by induction on i
    <> 2 subgoals for proof by induction on i
      [] basis subgoal
      [] induction subgoal
    [] induction subgoal
  [] conjecture
qed
```

FIGURE 3.10. Sample LP proof script

induction of the conjecture. The *diamond* (<>) annotations are provided by LP; they indicate the introduction of subgoals for the inductions. The *box* ([ ]) annotations are also provided by LP; they indicate the discharge of subgoals and, finally, of the main proof. The `resume` command starts a nested induction. No other user intervention is needed to complete this proof. The `qed` command on the last line asks LP to confirm that there are no outstanding conjectures.

3.6 Lexical and typographic conventions

The Larch languages were designed for use with an open-ended collection of programming languages, support tools, and input/output facilities, each of which may have its own lexical conventions and capabilities. To avoid conflicts, LSL assigns fixed meanings to only a small number of characters. To conform to local conventions and to exploit locally available capabilities, LSL's character and token classes are extensible, and can be tailored for particular purposes by *initialization files*. Since LSL terms appear in interface specifications, corresponding extensibility is a part of each interface language. Appendix C explains the structure of these files and gives the initialization files used in checking the specifications in this book.

There are several semantically equivalent forms of each Larch language. Any of these forms can be translated mechanically into any other without losing information.

- *Presentation forms* are used in environments, such as this book, that have rich character sets with symbols such as $\forall$, $\exists$, $\wedge$, $\vee$, $\in$.

- *Interchange form* is an encoding of the language using a widely available subset of the ISO Latin[4] character set. Characters outside this subset are represented by *extended characters*—sequences of characters from the subset, preceded by a backslash (or other designated character). Interchange form is the "lowest common denominator" for each Larch language. Each Larch tool can parse it and generate it on demand.

- *Interactive forms* may be used by Larch editors, browsers, checkers, etc., for interaction with users. Many such forms will not be limited

[4]This is also a subset of the older ASCII subset.

to character strings for input and output (e.g., they will use menus and pointing), and some may impose additional constraints and equivalences (e.g., case folding, operator precedence).

Chapter 4

LSL: The Larch Shared Language

This chapter provides a tutorial introduction the the Larch Shared Language (LSL). It begins by systematically working through the features of the language, illustrating each with a short example. It concludes with a slightly longer example, designed to illustrate how the various features of the language can be used in concert.

4.1 Equational specifications

LSL's basic unit of specification is a *trait*. Consider, for example, the specification of tables that store values in indexed places, Figure 4.1. This is similar to a conventional algebraic specification, as it would be written in many languages [4, 20, 24, 96].

The trait can be referred to by its name, `Table1`. This should not be

```
Table1: trait
introduces
  new: → Tab
  add: Tab, Ind, Val → Tab
  __ ∈ __: Ind, Tab → Bool
  lookup: Tab, Ind → Val
  isEmpty: Tab → Bool
  size: Tab → Int
  0,1: → Int
  __ + __: Int, Int → Int
asserts ∀ i, i1: Ind, val: Val, t: Tab
  ¬(i ∈ new);
  i ∈ add(t, i1, val) == i = i1 ∨ i ∈ t;
  lookup(add(t, i, val), i1) ==
    if i = i1 then val else lookup(t, i1);
  size(new) == 0;
  size(add(t, i, val)) ==
    if i ∈ t then size(t) else size(t) + 1;
  isEmpty(t) == size(t) = 0
```

FIGURE 4.1. A table trait

confused with the name of a data abstraction (e.g., the sort `Tab`) or operator (e.g., `lookup`). The name of a trait is independent of the names that appear within it.

The part of the trait following `introduces` declares a list of *operators*, each with its *signature* (the *sorts* of its *domain* and *range*). As discussed in Chapter 2, an operator stands for a total function that maps a tuple of values of its domain sorts to its range sort. Every operator used in a trait must be declared; signatures are used to sort-check *terms* in much the same way as expressions are type-checked in programming languages. Sorts are denoted by identifiers and are declared implicitly by their appearance in signatures.

The remainder of this trait constrains the operators by means of *equations*. An equation consists of two terms of the same sort, separated by = or ==. The operators = and == are semantically equivalent, but have a different precedence, as discussed below. We use == as the main connective in equations. Equations of the form *term* == `true` can be abbreviated by simply writing *term*; thus the first equation in `Table1` is an abbreviation for

```
¬(i ∈ new) == true
```

Double underscores (__) in an operator declaration indicate that the operator will be used in *mixfix terms*. For example, ∈ is declared as a binary infix operator. Infix, prefix, postfix, and distributed operators (such as __+__, −__, `__!`, `{__}`, `__[__]`, and `if__then__else__`) are integral parts of many familiar mathematical and programming notations, and their use can contribute substantially to the readability of specifications.

LSL's grammar for mixfix terms is intended to ensure that legal terms parse as readers expect—even without studying the grammar.[1] LSL has a simple precedence scheme for operators:

- postfix operators that consist of a dot followed by an identifier (as in field selectors, e.g., `.first`) bind most tightly;
- other user-defined operators and the built-in Boolean negation operator ¬ bind more tightly than
- the built-in equality operators (= and ≠), which bind more tightly than

[1]However, writers of specifications should take pity on readers and study the grammar.

- the built-in propositional connectives ($\wedge$, $\vee$, and $\Rightarrow$), which bind more tightly than
- the built-in conditional connective (`if__then__else__`), which binds more tightly than
- the equation connective (==).

For example, the equation `v == x + w.a.b = y ∨ z` is equivalent to the term `v = (((x + ((w.a).b)) = y) ∨ z)`. LSL allows unparenthesized infix terms with multiple occurrences of an operator at the same precedence level, but not different operators; it associates such terms from left to right. Fully parenthesized terms are always acceptable. Thus `x ∧ y ∧ z` is equivalent to `(x ∧ y) ∧ z`, but `x ∨ y ∧ z` must be written as `(x ∨ y) ∧ z` or as `x ∨ (y ∧ z)`, depending on which is meant.

Each well-formed trait defines a *theory* (a set of sentences closed under logical consequence, see Chapter 2) in multisorted first-order logic with equality. Each theory contains the trait's assertions, the conventional axioms of first-order logic, everything that follows from them, and nothing else. This *loose* semantic interpretation guarantees that formulas in the theory follow only from the presence of assertions in the trait—never from their absence. This is in contrast to algebraic specification languages based on initial algebras [34] or final algebras [85]. Using the loose interpretation ensures that all theorems proved about an incomplete specification remain valid when it is extended.

Each trait should be *consistent:* it must not define a theory containing the equation `true == false`. Consistency is often difficult to prove and is undecidable in general. Inconsistency is often easier to detect and can be a useful indication that there is something wrong with a trait. Detecting inconsistencies is discussed in Chapter 7.

4.2 Stronger theories

Equational theories are useful, but a stronger theory is often needed, for example, when specifying an abstract type. The constructs `generated by` and `partitioned by` provide two ways of strengthening equational specifications.

A *generated by* clause asserts that a list of operators is a complete set of *generators* for a sort. That is, each value of the sort is equal to one that can be written as a finite number of applications of just those operators, and variables of other sorts. This justifies a *generator induction schema* for proving things about the sort. For example, the natural numbers are generated by `0` and `succ`, and the integers are generated by `0`, `succ`, and `pred`.

The assertion

```
Tab generated by new, add
```

if added to `Table1`, could be used to prove theorems by induction over `new` and `add`, since, according to this assertion, any value of sort `Tab` can be constructed from `new` by a finite number of applications of `add`. For example, to prove

```
∀ t:Tab, i:Ind (i ∈ t ⇒ size(t) > 0)
```

one can do an inductive proof with the structure

- Basis step:

```
∀ i:Ind (i ∈ new ⇒ size(new) > 0)
```

- Induction step:

```
∀ t:Tab, i1:ind, v1:Val
   (∀ i:Ind (i ∈ t ⇒ size(t) > 0)
     ⇒ (∀ i:Ind (i ∈ add(t, i1, v1)
           ⇒ size(add(t, i1, v1)) > 0)))
```

A *partitioned by* clause asserts that a list of operators constitutes a complete set of *observers* for a sort. That is, all distinct values of the sort can be distinguished using just those operators. Terms that are not distinguishable using any of them are therefore equal. For example, sets are partitioned by ∈, because sets that contain the same elements are equal. Each partitioned by clause is a new axiom that justifies a deduction rule for proofs about values of the sort. For example, the assertion

```
Tab partitioned by ∈, lookup
```

adds the deduction rule

```
∀ i1:ind (i1 ∈ t1 = i1 ∈ t2),
∀ i1:ind (lookup(t1, i1) = lookup(t2, i1)))
-----------------------------
           t1 = t2
```

If added to `Table1` this partitioned by clause could be used to derive theorems that do not follow from the equations alone. For example, to prove the commutativity of `add` of the same value,

```
∀ t:Tab, i,i1:Ind, v Val
   (add(add(t, i, v), i1, v)
     = add(add(t, i1, v), i, v))
```

one discharges the two subgoals

```
∀ i2:ind
   (i2 ∈ add(add(t, i, v), i1, v)
     = i2 ∈ add(add(t, i1, v), i, v))
∀ i2:ind
   (lookup(add(add(t, i, v), i1, v), i2)
     = lookup(add(add(t, i1, v), i, v), i2))
```

4.3 Combining traits

`Table1` contains three operators that it does not define: `0`, `1`, and `+`. Without more information about these operators, the definition of `size` is not particularly useful. We could add assertions to `Table1` to define these operators. However, it is often better to specify such operators in a separate trait that is included by reference. This makes the specification more structured and makes it easier to reuse existing specifications, such as the traits given in Appendix A. We might remove the explicit introductions of these operators in `Table1`, and instead add an *external reference* to the trait `Integer` (page 163):

```
includes Integer
```

which not only introduces the operators, but also defines their properties.

The theory associated with an including trait is the theory associated with the union of its `introduces` and `asserts` clauses with those of its included traits.

It is often convenient to combine several traits dealing with different aspects of the same operator. This is common when specifying something that is not easily thought of as a data type. Consider, for example, the specifications of properties of relations in Figure 4.2. The trait `equivalence1` has the same associated theory as the less structured trait `equivalence2`.

```
reflexive: trait
  introduces __ ◇ __: T, T → Bool
  asserts ∀ x: T
    x ◇ x

symmetric: trait
 introduces  __◇ __: T, T → Bool
  asserts ∀ x, y: T
    x ◇ y == y ◇ x

transitive: trait
  introduces __ ◇ __: T, T → Bool
  asserts ∀ x, y, z: T
    (x ◇ y ∧ y ◇ z) ⇒ x ◇ z

equivalence1: trait
  includes reflexive, symmetric, transitive

equivalence2: trait
  introduces __ ◇ __: T, T → Bool
  asserts ∀ x, y, z: T
    x ◇ x;
    x ◇ y == y ◇ x;
    (x ◇ y ∧ y ◇ z) ⇒ x ◇ z
```

FIGURE 4.2. Specifications of kinds of relations

```
equivalence: trait
  includes
    (reflexive, symmetric, transitive)(≡ for ◇)
```

FIGURE 4.3. An example of renaming

4.4 Renaming

The trait `equivalence1` relies heavily on the use of the same operator symbol, ◇, and the same sort identifier, `T`, in the three included traits. In the absence of such happy coincidences, renaming can be used to make names coincide, to keep them from coinciding, or simply to replace them with more suitable names, as in Figure 4.3, where ◇ is replaced by a more customary symbol for an equivalence relation.

In general, the phrase *Tr* `(`*name1* `for` *name2*`)` stands for the trait *Tr* with every occurrence of *name2* (which must be either a sort or an operator) replaced by *name1*. If *name2* is a sort, this renaming changes the signatures of all of the operators in *Tr* in whose signatures *name2* appears.

The two specifications in Figure 4.4 have the same theory. Note that the infix operator `__∈__` was replaced by the operator `defined`, and that the operator `lookup` was replaced by the mixfix operator `__[__]`. All renamings preserve the order of operands.

Any sort or operator in a trait can be renamed when that trait is referenced in another trait. Some, however, are more likely to be renamed than others. It is often convenient to single these out so that they can be renamed positionally. For example, if the header for the trait had been

```
SparseArray(Val, Arr): trait
```

the reference

```
includes SparseArray(Int, IntArr)
```

would be equivalent to

```
includes SparseArray(Int for Val, IntArr for Arr)
```

4.5 Stating intended consequences

It is not possible to prove the "correctness" of a specification, because there is no absolute standard against which to judge correctness. But since

```
SparseArray: trait
  includes Table1(Arr for Tab, defined for ∈,
      assign for add, __[__] for lookup, Int for Ind)

SparseArrayExpanded: trait
  introduces
    new: → Arr
    assign: Arr, Int, Val → Arr
    defined: Int, Arr → Bool
    __[__]: Arr, Int → Val
    isEmpty: Arr → Bool
    size: Arr → Int
    0,1: → Int
    __ + __: Int, Int → Int
asserts ∀ i, i1: Int, val: Val, t: Arr
  ¬defined(i, new);
  defined(i, assign(t, i1, val)) ==
                    i = i1 ∨ defined(i, t);
  assign(t, i, val)[i1] ==
                    if i = i1 then val else t[i1];
  size(new) == 0;
  size(assign(t, i, val)) ==
    if defined(i, t) then size(t) else size(t) + 1;
  isEmpty(t) == size(t) = 0
```

FIGURE 4.4. Two specifications of sparse arrays

specifications can contain errors, specifiers need help in locating them. LSL specifications cannot, in general, be executed, so they cannot be tested in the way that programs are commonly tested. LSL sacrifices executability in favor of brevity, clarity, flexibility, generality, and abstraction. To compensate, it provides other ways to check specifications.

This section briefly describes ways in which specifications can be augmented with redundant information to be checked during validation. Chapter 7 discusses the use of LP, the Larch proof assistant, in specification debugging.

Checkable properties of LSL specifications fall into three categories: *consistency*, *theory containment*, and *completeness*. As discussed earlier, the requirement of consistency means that any trait whose theory contains the equation `true == false` is illegal.

Implies clauses make claims about theory containment. Suppose we think that a consequence of the assertions of `SparseArray` is that no array with a defined element is empty. To formalize this claim, we could add to `SparseArray`

```
implies ∀ a: Arr, i: Int
   defined(i, a) ⇒ ¬isEmpty(a)
```

The theory to be implied can be specified using the full power of LSL, including equations, generator clauses, partitioning clauses, and references to other traits. Attempting to verify that such a theory actually is implied can be helpful in error detection, as discussed in Chapter 7. Implications also help readers confirm their understanding. Finally, they can provide useful lemmas that will simplify reasoning about specifications that use the trait.

LSL does not require that each trait define a *complete theory*, that is, one in which each sentence is either true or false. Many finished specifications (intentionally) do not fully define all their operators. Furthermore, it can be useful to check the completeness of some definitions long before finishing the specification they are part of. Therefore, instead of building in a single test of completeness that is applied to all traits, LSL provides a way to include within a trait specific checkable claims about completeness, using `converts` clauses.

Adding the claim

```
implies converts isEmpty
```

to `Table1` says that the trait's axioms fully define `isEmpty`. This means that, if the interpretations of all the other operators are fixed, there is only one interpretation of `isEmpty` that satisfies the axioms. (A more complete discussion of the meaning of `converts` is contained in Section 7.1.)

The stronger claim

```
implies converts isEmpty, lookup
```

however, cannot be verified, because the meaning of terms of the form `lookup(new, i)` is not defined by the trait. This incompleteness in `Table1` could be resolved by adding another axiom to the trait, perhaps

```
lookup(new, i) == errorVal
```

But it is generally better not to add such axioms. The specifier of `Table1` should not be concerned with whether the sort `Val` has an `errorVal` and should not be required to introduce irrelevant constraints on `lookup`. Extra axioms give readers more details to assimilate; they may preclude useful specializations of a general specification; sometimes there simply is no reasonable axiom that would make an operator convertible (consider division by 0).

LSL provides an `exempting` clause that lists terms that are not claimed to be defined.[2] The claim

```
implies converts isEmpty, lookup
   exempting ∀ i: Ind lookup(new, i)
```

means that `isEmpty` and `lookup` are fully defined by the trait's axioms plus interpretations of the other operators and of all terms of the form `lookup(new, i)`. This is provable from the specification of `Table1`.

4.6 Recording assumptions

Many traits are suitable for use only in certain contexts. Just as we write preconditions that document when a procedure may properly be called, we write *assumptions* in traits that document when a trait may properly be included. As with preconditions, assumptions impose a proof obligation on the client, and may be presumed within the trait containing them.

It is useful to construct general specifications that can be specialized in a variety of ways. Consider, for example, the specification in Figure 4.5. We might specialize this to `IntegerBag` by renaming `E` to `Int` and

[2] This is different from "that are claimed not to be defined."

```
Bag0(E): trait
  introduces
    { }: → B
    insert, delete: E, B → B
    __ ∈ __: E, B → Bool
  asserts
    B generated by { }, insert
    B partitioned by delete, ∈
    ∀ b: B, e, e1, e2: E
      delete(e, { }) == { };
      delete(e1, insert(e2, b)) ==
        if e1 = e2 then b
        else insert(e2, delete(e1, b));
      ¬(e ∈ { });
      e1 ∈ insert(e2, b) == e1 = e2 ∨ e1 ∈ b
```

FIGURE 4.5. A specification of bags

```
Bag1(E): trait
  includes Bag0, Integer
  introduces
    rangeCount: E, E, B → Int
    __ < __: E, E → Bool
  asserts ∀ e1, e2, e3: E, b: B
    rangeCount(e1, e2, { }) == 0;
    rangeCount(e1, e2, insert(e3, b)) ==
      rangeCount(e1, e2, b)
        + (if e1 < e3 ∧ e3 < e2 then 1 else 0)
```

FIGURE 4.6. A specialization of Bag0

including it in a trait in which operators dealing with `Int` are specified, for example,

```
IntegerBag: trait
  includes Integer, Bag0(Int)
```

The interactions between `Integer` and `Bag0` are limited. Nothing in `Bag0` depends on any particular operators being introduced in including traits, let alone their having any special properties. Therefore `Bag0` needs no assumptions.

Consider, however, extending `Bag0` to `Bag1` by adding an operator, `rangeCount`, to count the number of entries in a `B` that lie between two values, as in Figure 4.6.

As written, `Bag1` says nothing about the properties of the $<$ operator. But it probably doesn't make sense in any specialization unless $<$ provides an ordering on the values of sort `E`. We cannot define $<$ within `Bag1`, because it will depend on the trait using `Bag1`. What we need is an *assumes clause*, as in Figure 4.7.

Since `Bag2` may presume its assumptions, its (local) theory is the same as if `TotalOrder(E)`, page 194, had been included rather than assumed; `Bag2` inherits all the introductions and assertions of `TotalOrder`. Therefore, the assumption of `TotalOrder` can be used to derive various properties of `Bag2`, for example, that `rangeCount` is monotonic in its second argument, as claimed in the implies clause.

The difference between `assumes` and `includes` appears when `Bag2` is used in another trait. Whenever a trait with assumptions is included or assumed, its assumptions must be *discharged*. For example, in

```
Bag2(E): trait
  assumes TotalOrder(E)
  includes Bag0, Integer
  introduces rangeCount: E, E, B → Int
  asserts ∀ e1, e2, e3: E, b: B
    rangeCount(e1, e2, { }) == 0;
    rangeCount(e1, e2, insert(e3, b)) ==
      rangeCount(e1, e2, b)
        + (if e1 < e3 ∧ e3 < e2 then 1 else 0)
  implies ∀ e1, e2, e3: E, b: B
    e1 ≤ e2 ⇒
      rangeCount(e3, e1, b) ≤ rangeCount(e3, e2, b)
```

FIGURE 4.7. An example of an assumption

```
IntegerBag1: trait
  includes Integer, Bag2(Int)
```

the assumption to be discharged is that the (renamed) theory associated with `TotalOrder` is a subset of the theory associated with the rest of `IntegerBag1` (i.e., `Integer`). When a trait includes a trait with assumptions, it is often possible to confirm that these assumptions are *syntactically discharged* by noticing that the same traits are assumed or included by the including trait. For example, the `Integer` trait, page 163 directly includes `TotalOrder`. A more complete discussion of how assumptions are discharged is contained in Chapter 7.

4.7 Built-in operators and overloading

In our examples, we have freely used the predicate connectives defined in Chapter 2. We have also used some heavily overloaded and apparently unconstrained operators: `if__then__else__`, $=$, and $\neq$. These operators are built into the language. This allows them to have appropriate syntactic precedence. More importantly, it guarantees that they have consistent meanings in all LSL specifications, so readers can rely on their intuitions about them.

Similarly, LSL recognizes decimal numbers, such as 0, 24, and 1992, without explicit declarations and definitions. In principle, each literal could be defined within LSL, but such definitions are not likely to advance anyone's understanding of the specification. `DecimalLiteral`,

```
OrderedString(E, Str): trait
  assumes TotalOrder(E)
  includes DerivedOrders(Str)
  introduces
    empty: → Str
    __ -| __: E, Str → Str
    __ < __: Str, Str → Bool
  asserts
    Str generated by empty, -|
    ∀ e, e1: E, s, s1: Str
      empty < (e -| s);
      ¬(s < empty);
      (e -| s) < (e1 -| s1) ==
        e < e1 ∨ (e = e1 ∧ s < s1)
  implies TotalOrder(Str)
```

FIGURE 4.8. An example of overloading

page 164 is a predefined quasi-trait that implicitly defines all the numerals that appear in a specification.

In addition to the built-in overloaded operators and numbers, LSL provides for user-defined overloadings. Each operator must be declared in an `introduces` clause and consists of an identifier (e.g., `empty`) or operator symbol (e.g., __<__) and a signature. The signatures of most occurrences of overloaded operators are deducible from context. Consider, for example, Figure 4.8.[3] The operator symbol $<$ is used in the last equation to denote two different operators, one relating terms of sort `Str`, and the other, terms of sort `E`, but their contexts determine unambiguously which is which.

LSL provides notations for disambiguating an overloaded operator when context does not suffice. Any subterm of a term can be qualified by its sort. For example, `a:S` in `a:S = b` explicitly indicates that `a` is of sort `S`. Furthermore, since the two operands of = must have the same sort, this qualification also implicitly defines the signatures of = and `b`. The last axiom in Figure 4.8 could also be written as

```
(e -| s):Str < (e1 -| s1):Str ==
    e:E < e1:E ∨ (e = e1 ∧ s:Str < s1:Str)
```

[3] `DerivedOrders` is in Appendix A, page195. It relates the ordering relations $\leq$, $\geq$, $<$, and $>$ to each other.

```
introduces
  cold, warm, hot: → Temp
  succ: Temp → Temp
asserts
  Temp generated by cold, warm, hot
  equations
    cold ≠ warm;
    cold ≠ hot;
    warm ≠ hot;
    succ(cold) == warm;
    succ(warm) == hot
```

FIGURE 4.9. Expansion of an enumeration shorthand

Outside of terms, overloaded operators can be disambiguated by directly affixing their signatures, for example

```
implies converts <:Str,Str→Bool
```

4.8 Shorthands

Enumerations, tuples, and unions provide compact, readable representations for common kinds of theories. They are syntactic shorthands for things that could be written in LSL without them.

ENUMERATIONS

The enumeration shorthand defines a finite ordered set of distinct constants and an operator that enumerates them. For example,

```
Temp enumeration of cold, warm, hot
```

is equivalent to including a trait with the body appearing in Figure 4.9.

TUPLES

The tuple shorthand is used to introduce fixed-length tuples, similar to records in many programming languages. For example,

```
C tuple of hd: E, tl: S
```

is equivalent to including a trait with the body appearing in Figure 4.10. Each field name (e.g., `hd`) is incorporated in two distinct operators (e.g., `__.hd:C→E` and `set_hd:C,E→C`).

```
introduces
  [__, __]: E, S → C
  __.hd: C → E
  __.tl: C → S
  set_hd: C, E → C
  set_tl: C, S → C
asserts
  C generated by [__, __]
  C partitioned by .hd, .tl
  ∀ e,e1: E, s,s1: S
    ([e, s]).hd == e;
    ([e, s]).tl == s;
    set_hd([e, s], e1) == [e1, s];
    set_tl([e, s], s1) == [e, s1]
```

FIGURE 4.10. Expansion of a tuple shorthand

```
S_tag enumeration of atom, cell
introduces
  atom: A → S
  cell: C → S
  __.atom: S → A
  __.cell: S → C
  tag: S → S_tag
asserts
  S generated by atom, cell
  S partitioned by .atom, .cell, tag
  ∀ a: A, c: C
    atom(a).atom == a;
    cell(c).cell == c;
    tag(atom(a)) == atom;
    tag(cell(c)) == cell
```

FIGURE 4.11. Expansion of a union shorthand

UNIONS

The union shorthand corresponds to the tagged unions found in many programming languages. For example,

```
S union of atom: A, cell: C
```

is equivalent to including a trait with the body appearing in Figure 4.11. Each field name (e.g., `atom`) is incorporated in three distinct operators (e.g., `atom:→S_tag`, `atom:A→S`, and `__.atom:S→A`).

```
InsertGenerated (E, C): trait
  introduces
    empty: → C
    insert: E, C → C
  asserts
    C generated by empty, insert
```

FIGURE 4.12. InsertGenerated.lsl

4.9 Further examples

We have now covered all the facilities of the Larch Shared Language. The next series of examples illustrates their coordinated use.

The trait `InsertGenerated`, Figure 4.12, abstracts the common properties of data structures that contain elements, such as sets, bags, queues, stacks, and strings. `InsertGenerated` is useful both as a starting point for specifications of many different data structures and as an assumption when defining generic operators over such data structures.

The generated by clause in `InsertGenerated` asserts that each value of sort `C` can be constructed from `empty` by repeated applications of `insert` (i.e., `empty` and `insert` constitute a complete set of generators for `C`). This assertion is carried along when `InsertGenerated` is included in or assumed by other traits, even if those traits introduce additional operators with range `C`.

The trait `Container`, Figure 4.13, includes `InsertGenerated`. It constrains the operators introduced in `InsertGenerated`, as well as the operators it introduces. The axioms defining `count` guarantee that insertions are not lost. This implies, for example, that sets do not satisfy this definition of container. The last axiom asserts that, when applied to a non-empty container, `tail` removes an element equal to the element returned by `head`. Notice that these axioms do not imply the stronger property `¬isEmpty(c) ⇒ insert(head(c), tail(c)) = c`.

The converts clause adds checkable redundancy to the specification. The implied formula follows from the last axiom and the two axioms defining `count`. If `head` were to return something that was not in `c`, inserting it back in would change the count for that value.

`PQueue`, Figure 4.14, specializes `Container` by constraining `head` and `tail` in a way that is consistent with the last two axioms of `Container`. The first implication states a fact that may be helpful in

```
Container (E, C): trait
  includes InsertGenerated, Integer
  introduces
    isEmpty: C → Bool
    count: E, C → Int
    __ ∈ __: E, C → Bool
    head: C → E
    tail: C → C
  asserts
    C partitioned by isEmpty, head, tail
    ∀ e, e1: E, c: C
      isEmpty(empty);
      ¬isEmpty(insert(e, c));
      count(e, empty) == 0;
      count(e, insert(e1, c)) ==
        count(e, c) + (if e = e1 then 1 else 0);
      e ∈ c == count(e, c) > 0;
      ¬isEmpty(c) ⇒
        count(e, insert(head(c), tail(c)))
          = count(e, c)
  implies
    ∀ c: C
      ¬isEmpty(c) ⇒ count(head(c), c) > 0;
    converts isEmpty, count, ∈
```

FIGURE 4.13. Container.lsl

```
PQueue (E, Q): trait
  assumes TotalOrder (E)
  includes Container(Q for C)
  asserts ∀ e, e1: E, q: Q
    head(insert(e, q)) ==
      if isEmpty(q) ∨ e > head(q)
        then e else head(q);
    tail(insert(e, q)) ==
      if isEmpty(q) ∨ e > head(q)
        then q else insert(e, tail(q))
  implies
    ∀ q: Q, e: E
      e ∈ q ⇒ ¬(e < head(q))
    converts head, tail, isEmpty, count, ∈
      exempting head(empty), tail(empty)
```

FIGURE 4.14. PQueue.lsl

reasoning about `PQueue` and may help readers solidify their understanding of the trait. The second implication states that the trait fully defines `head` and `tail` (except when applied to `empty`), `isEmpty`, `count`, and ∈. The axioms that convert `isEmpty`, `count`, and ∈ are inherited from `Container`.

Unlike the preceding traits in this section, `PQueue` specifies a complete abstract type constructor. In such a trait there is a distinguished sort, sometimes called the *type of interest* [40] or *data sort*. An abstract type's operators can be categorized as *generators*, *observers*, and *extensions* (sometimes in more than one way). A set of generators produces all the values of the distinguished sort. The extensions are the remaining operators whose range is the distinguished sort. The observers are the operators whose domain includes the distinguished sort and whose range is some other sort. An abstract type specification usually has axioms sufficient to convert the observers and extensions. The distinguished sort is usually partitioned by at least one subset of the observers and extensions.

In the example of `PQueue`, `Q` is the distinguished sort, `empty` and `insert` form a generator set, `tail` is an extension, `head`, `isEmpty`, `count` and ∈ are the observers, and `head`, `tail`, and `isEmpty` form a partitioning set.

A good heuristic for writing enough equations to adequately define an abstract type is to write an equation defining the result of applying each observer or extension to each generator. For `PQueue`, this rule suggests writing equations for

```
 1) isEmpty(empty)
 2) count(e, empty)
 3) e ∈ empty
 4) head(empty)
 5) tail(empty)
 6) isEmpty(insert(e, q))
 7) count(e, insert(e1, q))
 8) e ∈ insert(e1, q)
 9) head(insert(e, q))
10) tail(insert(e, q))
```

`PQueue` contains explicit equations for only the last two of these; it inherits equations for five more from `Container`. The third and eighth terms in the list do not appear explicitly in equations. Instead, ∈ is defined by relating it directly to `count`. The remaining two terms, `head(empty)` and `tail(empty)`, are explicitly exempted.

```
PairwiseExtension (∘, ⊙, E, C): trait
  assumes Container(E, C)
  introduces
    __∘ __: E, E → E
    __⊙ __: C, C → C
  asserts ∀ e1, e2: E, c1, c2: C
    empty ⊙ empty == empty;
    (¬isEmpty(c1) ∧ ¬isEmpty(c2))
      ⇒ c1 ⊙ c2 = insert(head(c1) ∘ head(c2),
                          tail(c1) ⊙ tail(c2));
  implies
    converts ⊙
    exempting ∀ e: E, c: C
      empty ⊙ insert(e, c),
      insert(e, c) ⊙ empty

PairwiseSum(C): trait
  assumes Container(Int, C)
  includes Integer, PairwiseExtension(+, ⊕, Int, C)
  implies Associative(⊕, C),
          Commutative(⊕ for ∘, C for T, C for Range)
```

FIGURE 4.15. Specification of generic operators

The traits `PairwiseExtension` and `PairwiseSum`, Figure 4.15, specify generic operators that can be used with various kinds of containers.

`PairwiseExtension` is a generic trait that may be instantiated using a variety of data structures and operators. Given a container sort and a binary operator, $\circ$, on elements, it defines a new binary operator, $\odot$, on containers. The result of applying $\odot$ to a pair of containers is a container whose elements are the results of applying $\circ$ to corresponding pairs of their elements. The `exempting` clause indicates that, although the result of applying $\odot$ to containers of unequal size is not specified, this is not an oversight.

The trait `PairwiseSum` specializes `PairwiseExtension` by binding $\circ$ to an operator, +, whose definition is to be taken from the trait `Integer` (page 163). The validity of the implications that $\oplus$ is associative and commutative stems from the replacement of $\circ$ by +, whose axioms in the trait `Integer` imply its associativity and commutativity. These implications can be proved by induction over `empty` and `insert`.

Chapter 7

Using LP to Debug LSL Specifications

In earlier chapters, we have attempted to show how Larch can be used to write precise specifications. However, it is not sufficient for specifications to be precise; they should also accurately reflect the specifier's intentions. Mistakes from many sources will crop up in specifications. Any practical methodology that relies on specifications must provide means for detecting and correcting their flaws, in short, for debugging them.

Parsing and type-checking are useful and easy to do, but don't go far enough. Unfortunately, we cannot *prove* the "correctness" of a specification, because there is no absolute standard against which to judge correctness. So we seek methods and tools that will be helpful in detecting and localizing the kinds of errors that we commonly observe.

Since the Larch style of specification emphasizes brevity and clarity rather than executability, it is usually not possible to evaluate Larch specifications by testing. Instead, LSL allows specifiers to state precise claims about specifications. If these claims are true, they can be verified statically. Such a verification won't guarantee that a specification meets a specifier's intent, but it is a powerful debugging technique. Once the flaws verification reveals are removed, there should be fewer doubts about the specification's accuracy.

The claims allowed in LSL specifications are undecidable in the general case. Hence we can't hope to build a tool that will automatically certify an arbitrary specification. However, tools can assist specifiers in checking claims during debugging.

This chapter describes how two such tools fit into our work on LSL. Our principal debugging tool is LP [30], the Larch proof assistant.[1] LP's design and development have been motivated primarily by our work on LSL, but it also has other uses (cf. Appendix E). Because of these other uses, and because we also intend to use LP to analyze Larch interface specifications, we have tried not to make LP too LSL-specific. Instead, we have chosen to build and use a second tool, the LSL Checker, as a front-end to LP. The LSL Checker checks the syntax and type consistency of LSL

[1]The version of LP described in this book is that released in November, 1991. A version with increased logical power is currently under development.

specifications, then generates LP proof obligations from their claims.

Sections 7.1 and 7.2 describe the checkable claims that can be made in LSL specifications. Sections 7.3 through 7.6 describe how LP is used to check these claims. Section 7.7 contains an extended example.

7.1 Semantic checks in LSL

We begin by reviewing the kinds of semantic claims that can be made in LSL. As mentioned in Chapter 4, semantic claims about LSL traits fall into three categories:

- consistency (that a specification does not contradict itself),
- theory containment (that a specification has intended consequences), and
- relative completeness (that a set of operators is adequately defined).

Consistency is an assertion about what is not in the theory of trait, and is therefore not expressible in LSL. Instead, it is implicitly required of all traits: no legal LSL trait's theory contains the inconsistent equation `true == false`. Claims in the other two categories are stated explicitly using the LSL constructs `implies` and `assumes`.

CHECKING IMPLICATIONS

An implies clause adds nothing to the theory of a trait. Instead, it makes a claim about theory containment. It enables specifiers to include information they believe to be redundant, either as a check on their understanding or to call attention to something that a reader might otherwise miss. The redundant information is of two kinds: statements like those in asserts clauses, which are claimed to be in the theory of the trait, and converts clauses, which describe the extent to which a specification is claimed to be complete.

The initial design of LSL incorporated a built-in notion of completeness. We quickly concluded, however, that requirements of completeness are better left to the specifier's discretion. It useful to check certain aspects of completeness long before a specification is finished. Furthermore, most finished specifications are left intentionally incomplete in places. LSL allows specifiers to make checkable claims about how complete they

```
LinearContainer(E, C): trait
  introduces
    empty: → C
    insert: E, C → C
    head: C → E
    tail: C → C
    isEmpty: C → Bool
    __ ∈ __: E, C → Bool
  asserts
    C generated by empty, insert
    C partitioned by head, tail, isEmpty
    ∀ c: C, e, e1: E
      head(insert(e, empty)) == e;
      tail(insert(e, empty)) == empty;
      isEmpty(empty);
      ¬isEmpty(insert(e, c));
      ¬(e ∈ empty);
      e ∈ insert(e1, c) == e = e1 ∨ e ∈ c
  implies
    ∀ c: C, e: E
      isEmpty(c) ⇒ ¬(e ∈ c)
    converts ∈, isEmpty
```

FIGURE 7.1. Sample LSL specification

intend specifications to be. These claims are usually most valuable during specification maintenance. Specifiers don't usually make erroneous claims about completeness when first writing a specification. On the other hand, when editing a specification, they often delete or change something without realizing its impact on completeness.

The first part of the implies clause of the trait `LinearContainer`,[2] Figure 7.1, asserts that if `isEmpty` of a container is true, no element is in that container. By checking that this assertion follows from the axioms of the trait, we can gain confidence that the axioms describing `isEmpty` and $\in$ are appropriate.

[2]This trait is similar to the trait `Container` that appears in Figure 4.13 and in Appendix A: its theory is contained in that of `Container`. Many of the traits in this chapter are adapted from traits appearing in Appendix A. However, in order to better illustrate how traits are checked, we have changed them in small ways. In particular, we have often added implications and suppressed details that do not affect the points we wish to make.

```
PQ(E, Q): trait
  assumes TotOrd(E)
  includes LinearContainer(E, Q)
  asserts ∀ q: Q, e: E
    head(insert(e, q)) ==
      if isEmpty(q) then e
      else if e < head(q) then e
      else head(q);
    tail(insert(e, q)) ==
      if isEmpty(q) then empty
      else if e < head(q) then q
      else insert(e, tail(q))
  implies
    ∀ q: Q, e: E
      e ∈ q ⇒ ¬(e < head(q))
    converts isEmpty, head, tail, ∈
      exempting head(empty), tail(empty)
```

FIGURE 7.2. LSL specification for a priority queue

The converts clause in `LinearContainer` claims that the trait contains enough axioms to define ∈ and `isEmpty`; that is, given any fixed interpretations for the other operators, all interpretations of ∈ and `isEmpty` that satisfy the trait's axioms are the same.

The converts clause in `PQ`, Figure 7.2, involves more subtle checking. The exempting clause indicates that the lack of equations for `head(empty)` and `tail(empty)` is intentional: the operators `head` and `tail` are only claimed to be defined uniquely relative to interpretations for the terms `head(empty)` and `tail(empty)`. Section 7.5 describes the checking entailed by the converts clause in more detail.

CHECKING ASSUMPTIONS

There are two mechanisms for combining LSL specifications. Both are defined as operations on the texts of specifications. For both, the theory of a combined specification is axiomatized by the union of the axiomatizations for the individual specifications; each operator is constrained by the axioms of all traits in which it appears. Trait inclusion and trait assumption differ only in the checking they entail.

The trait `PQ`, Figure 7.2, which includes `LinearContainer`, further constrains the interpretations of `head`, `tail`, and `insert`. The assumes

```
TotOrd(E): trait
  introduces
    __ < __: E, E → Bool
    __ > __: E, E → Bool
  asserts forall x, y, z: E
    ¬( x < x );
    (x < y ∧ y < z) ⇒ x < z;
    x < y ∨ x = y ∨ y < x;
    x > y == y < x
  implies
    TotOrd(E, > for <, < for >)
    ∀ x, y: E
      ¬(x < y ∧ y < x)
```

FIGURE 7.3. LSL specification for total orders

clause of `PQ` indicates that `PQ`'s theory also contains the theory of the trait `TotOrd`, Figure 7.3.

The use of `assumes` rather than `includes` entails additional checking. The assumption must be discharged whenever `PQ` is incorporated into another trait. For example, checking the trait

```
NumericPQ: trait
  includes PQ(N, NumericQ), Numeric
```

involves checking that the assertions in the trait `TotOrd(N)` are implied by those in the traits `PQ`, `LinearContainer`, and `Numeric` taken together. Sometimes these assumptions can be syntactically discharged for example, if `Numeric` explicitly includes `TotOrd(N)`.

Figure 7.4 summarizes the checking that LSL requires for the sample traits introduced in this section.

7.2 Proof obligations for LSL specifications

An LSL specification generally consists of a hierarchy of traits, some of which include, assume, or imply others. We use the LSL Checker to syntax-check and type-check the traits, to extract the proof obligations required to check the semantic claims in the traits, and to discharge some of these proof obligations. This section describes how the LSL Checker extracts the proof obligations. The next several sections describe how we use LP to

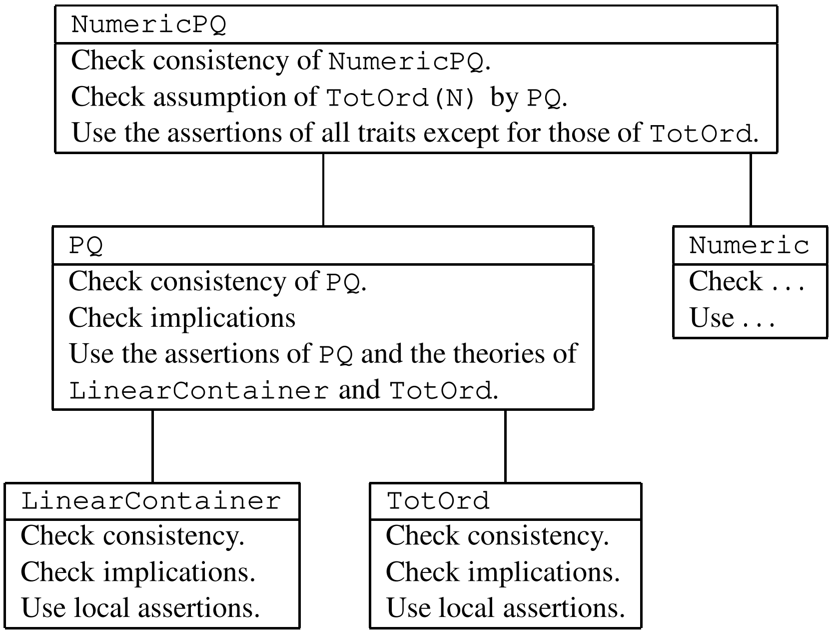

FIGURE 7.4. Summary of required checking

discharge those proof obligations that the LSL Checker cannot discharge syntactically.

To extract proof obligations, the LSL Checker computes the following sets of propositions (equations, generated by clauses, and partitioned by clauses) for each trait `T` in a trait hierarchy.

- The *assertions* of `T` consist of the propositions in the asserts clauses of `T` and of all traits (transitively) included in `T`.
- The *assumptions* of `T` consist of the assertions of all traits (transitively) assumed by `T`.
- The *axioms* of `T` consist of its assertions and its assumptions.
- The *immediate consequences* of `T` consist of the propositions in `T`'s implies clause and the axioms of all traits that `T` explicitly implies.

The LSL Checker places the axioms for each trait `T` in a file named `T_Axioms.lp`. It also generates a file named `T_Checks.lp`, which contains the proof obligations associated with showing that `T`'s axioms entail its immediate consequences, its converts clauses, and the assumptions of each trait explicitly included in or assumed by `T`. The LSL Checker does not generate an explicit proof obligation for showing that `T`'s axioms are consistent. In fact, such a proof obligation is not expressible in LP. Like LSL, LP contains no mechanisms for making statements about what is not in a theory.

The LSL Checker can discharge some proof obligations syntactically, for example, because a proposition to be proved occurs textually among the axioms available for use in the proof. When it cannot do this, it places commands in `T_Checks.lp` that initiate a proof of the proposition. Sometimes LP will be able to carry out the required proof automatically; sometimes it will require user assistance.

Consider the trait `NumericPQ`, which includes both `PQ` and `Numeric`. Because `PQ` assumes `TotOrd`, it is necessary to check that the axioms of `NumericPQ` imply those of `TotOrd`. If `Numeric` explicitly includes or implies `TotOrd`, or if the assertions of `TotOrd` are among the axioms of `Numeric`, then the LSL Checker can discharge the assumption required for including `PQ` in `NumericPQ`. On the other hand, if `Numeric` simply asserts some properties of the binary relations $<$ and $>$, the LSL Checker will formulate LP commands that initiate a proof of the conjecture that these properties imply the assertions of `TotOrd`.

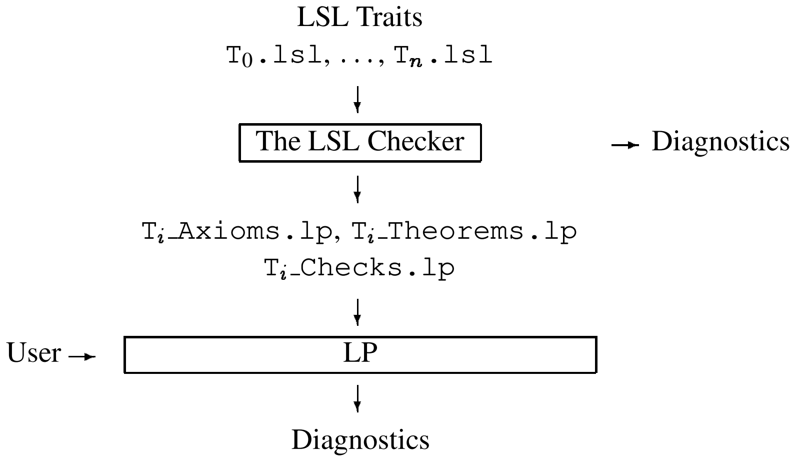

FIGURE 7.5. Using the LSL checker and LP to check LSL traits

LEMMAS FOR PROOF OBLIGATIONS

When checking the semantic claims in a hierarchy of traits, it is generally desirable to use lemmas that have been (or can be) shown separately to follow from the axioms of those traits. The *theorems* of a trait `T` consist of its axioms supplemented by all appropriately renamed propositions (transitively) implied by `T` or by some trait below `T` in the inclusion/assumption hierarchy.[3] The LSL Checker places the theorems for each trait `T` in a file named `T_Theorems.lp`, and refers to this file instead of `T_Axioms.lp` in `T_Checks.lp` when it is sound to do so. In general, soundness is guaranteed as long as there is a partial order for checking proof obligations in which each theorem is (or can be) checked before it is used as a lemma to discharge another proof obligation.

By providing a small set of axioms for a trait `T`, a specifier can make it easier to check traits that imply `T` or that include a trait that assumes `T`. By providing a large set of implications for `T`, a specifier can make it easier to reason about `T` and, in particular, to check traits that include or assume `T`, without at the same time making it harder to check traits that imply `T` or that include a trait that assumes `T`.

Figure 7.5 shows how the LSL Checker and LP are used together to check LSL traits.

---

[3]Some generated by and partitioned by clauses will not qualify as theorems of `T` when a renaming identifies the generated or partitioned sort with some other sort.

```
declare sorts
  C, E
  ..
declare operators
  head: C → E
  insert: E, C → C
  isEmpty: C → Bool
  tail: C → C
  empty: → C
  ∈: E, C → Bool
  ..
declare variables
  e: E
  c: C
  e1: E
  ..
```

FIGURE 7.6. LP declarations produced from `LinearContainer`

7.3 Translating LSL traits into LP

LP is a proof assistant for a subset of multisorted first-order logic with equality. The basis for proofs in LP is called a *logical system*. This section contains an overview of the components of a logical system in LP and discusses their relation to the components of an LSL trait. The following sections discuss how these components are used by LP to discharge proof obligations associated with LSL traits.

A logical system in LP consists of a signature (given by declarations) plus equations, rewrite rules, operator theories, induction rules, and deduction rules. Logical systems are closely related to LSL theories, but are handled somewhat differently. Axioms in LP have operational as well as semantic content, and they can be presented to LP incrementally, rather than all at once.

DECLARATIONS

Sorts, operators, and variables play the same roles in LP as they do in LSL. As in LSL, operators and variables must be declared, and operators can be overloaded. There are a few minor differences: sorts must be declared in LP, and LP doesn't provide scoping for variables.

The LSL Checker produces the declarations in Figure 7.6 from the introduces and ∀ clauses in the trait `LinearContainer`.

EQUATIONS AND REWRITE RULES

Equations play a prominent role in LP. Some of LP's inference mechanisms work directly with equations. Most, however, require that equations be oriented into *rewrite rules*, which LP uses to reduce terms to normal forms. It is usually essential that the rewriting relation be *terminating*, that is, no term can be rewritten infinitely many times. LP provides several mechanisms that automatically orient many sets of equations into terminating rewriting systems. For example, in response to the commands

```
set name group
declare sort G
declare variables x, y, z: G
declare operators e: → G, i: G → G, *: G, G → G
assert
  (x*y)*z == x*(y*z)
  e == i(x)*x
  e*x == x
  ..
```

which enter the usual axioms for groups, LP produces the rewrite rules

```
group.1: (x * y) * z → x * (y * z)
group.2: i(x) * x → e
group.3: e * x → x
```

LP automatically reverses the second equation to prevent nonterminating rewriting sequences such as

```
e → i(e) * e → i(e) * i(e) * e → ...
```

A system's *rewriting theory* consists of the propositions that can be proved by reduction to normal form. This theory is always a subset of its *equational theory*, which consists of the propositions that can be proved from its equations and from its rewrite rules considered as equations. A system's rewriting theory does not usually include all of its equational theory. The proof mechanisms discussed in Section 7.4 help to compensate for this incompleteness. In the case of group theory, for example, the equation `e == i(e)` follows logically from the axioms, but is not in the rewriting theory of the three rewrite rules: it is irreducible, but not an identity.

LP provides built-in rewrite rules to simplify predicates involving the connectives ¬, ∧, ∨, ⇒, and ⇔, the equality operator =, and the conditional operator `if`. These rewrite rules are sufficient to prove many identities involving these operators, but not all. Unfortunately, the sets of rewrite rules that are known to be complete for propositional calculus require exponential time and space. Furthermore, they tend to expand, rather than simplify, propositions that do not reduce to identities. These are serious drawbacks when we are debugging specifications, because we often attempt to prove conjectures that are not true. So none of the complete sets of rewrite rules is built into LP. Instead, LP provides proof mechanisms that can be used to overcome incompleteness in a rewriting system. It also allows users to add any of the complete sets they choose to use.

LP treats the equations `true == false` and `x = t == false`, where `t` is a term not containing the variable `x`, as inconsistent. (The second equation rules out empty sorts.) Inconsistencies can be used to establish subgoals in proofs by cases and contradiction. If they arise in other situations, they indicate that the axioms in the logical system are inconsistent.

OPERATOR THEORIES

LP provides special mechanisms for handling some equations that cannot be oriented into terminating rewrite rules. LP recognizes two operator theories: the commutative theory and the associative-commutative (ac) theory. For example, the command `assert ac +` says that `+` is associative and commutative. Logically, this assertion is an abbreviation for two equations:

```
x + (y + z) == (x + y) + z
x + y == y + x
```

Operationally, it causes LP to match and unify terms modulo associativity and commutativity. This increases the number of theories that LP can reason about. It also reduces the number of axioms required to describe various theories, the number of reductions necessary to derive identities, and the need for certain kinds of user interaction, such as case analysis. Its main drawback is that it can be much slower than ordinary rewriting.[4]

[4] A secondary drawback is that ordering equations that contain commutative and ac operators into terminating sets of rewrite rules is, in principle, more difficult. In practice, however, this is not a problem.

INDUCTION RULES

LP uses induction rules to generate subgoals in proofs by induction. The syntax for induction rules is the same in LP as in LSL.[5]

Users can specify multiple induction rules for a single sort and can use the appropriate rule when attempting to prove an equation by induction. For example, assuming appropriate declarations, the LP commands

```
set name setInduction1
assert S generated by empty, insert
set name setInduction2
assert S generated by empty, singleton, ∪
```

allow

```
prove x ⊆ x by induction using setInduction2
```

In LSL, the axioms of a trait typically have only one generated by for a sort. It is often useful, however, to put others in the trait's implications.

DEDUCTION RULES

LP subsumes the logical power of the partitioned by construct of LSL in deduction rules, which LP uses to deduce equations from other equations and rewrite rules. Like other formulas in LP, deduction rules may be asserted as axioms or proved as theorems. While the partitioned by clause in the trait `LinearContainer` can be expressed by an equation, in general a partitioned by clause is equivalent to a universal-existential axiom, which can only be expressed as a deduction rule in LP. For example, the LP commands

```
assert S partitioned by ∈
assert
  when (∀ e) e ∈ x == e ∈ y
  yield x == y
```

are equivalent and define a deduction rule equivalent to the axiom of set extensionality

$$(\forall x, y : S)\,[(\forall e : E)(e \in x \Leftrightarrow e \in y) \Rightarrow x = y]$$

This deduction rule enables LP to deduce equations such as `x == x ∪ x` automatically from equations such as `e ∈ x == e ∈ (x ∪ x)`.

[5]The semantics of induction is somewhat stronger in LSL than in LP, since arbitrary first-order formulas cannot be written in this version of LP.

Deduction rules can have multiple hypotheses and/or multiple conclusions. For example, the transitivity of $<$ can be formulated as a deduction rule with two hypotheses:

```
when i < j, j < k yield i < k
```

The built-in $\wedge$-splitting law is a deduction rule with two conclusions:

```
when p ∧ q yield p, q
```

Such deduction rules serve to improve the performance of LP and to reduce the need for user interaction.

LP automatically applies deduction rules to equations and rewrite rules whenever they are normalized. The sample proof in Section 7.5 illustrates the logical power of deduction rules, as well as the benefits of applying them automatically to the case and induction hypotheses in a proof.

7.4 Proof mechanisms in LP

This section provides a brief overview of the proof mechanisms in LP. The next two sections discuss how they are used to check LSL semantic claims.

LP provides mechanisms for proving theorems using both forward and backward inference. Forward inferences produce consequences from a logical system; backward inferences produce subgoals whose proof will suffice to establish a conjecture. There are four methods of forward inference in LP.

1. Automatic *normalization* produces new consequences when a rewrite rule is added to a system. LP keeps rewrite rules, equations, and deduction rules in normal form.

   If an equation or rewrite rule normalizes to an identity, it is discarded, because it is logically and operationally superfluous. If all hypotheses of a deduction rule normalize to identities, the deduction rule is replaced by the equations in its conclusions. If all conclusions of a deduction rule normalize to identities, the deduction rule is discarded.

   Users can "immunize" equations, rewrite rules, and deduction rules to protect them from automatic normalization, both to enhance the performance of LP and to preserve a particular form for use in a proof. Users can also "deactivate" rewrite rules and deduction rules to prevent them from being applied automatically.

2. Automatic *application of deduction rules* produces new consequences after equations and rewrite rules in a system are normalized. Deduction rules can also be applied by explicit command, for example, to immune equations.

3. The computation of *critical-pair equations* and the Knuth-Bendix *completion procedure* [58, 72] produce equational consequences (such as `i(e) == e`) from incomplete rewriting systems (such as the three rewrite rules for groups, page 130). We often compute critical-pair equations from selected sets of rewrite rules. Sometimes we run the completion procedure to find the last few consequences to finish off a proof or, as discussed in Section 7.7, to look for inconsistencies. However, we rarely complete our rewriting systems, because a complete set of rewrite rules with a given equational theory may not exist, may be too expensive to obtain, or may lead to normal forms that are hard to read [28].

4. Explicit *instantiation* of variables in equations, rewrite rules, and deduction rules also produces consequences. For example, in a system that contains the deduction rule

   ```
   when (∀ e) e ∈ x == e ∈ y yield x == y
   ```

   and the rewrite rule `e ∈ (x ∪ y) → e ∈ x ∨ e ∈ y`, we can instantiate `y` in the deduction rule by `x ∪ x` to produce the conclusion `x == x ∪ x`.

There are seven methods of backward inference for proving theorems in LP. These methods are invoked by the `prove` and `resume` commands. In each method, LP generates a set of subgoals to be proved, that is, lemmas that together are sufficient to imply the conjecture. For some methods, LP generates additional hypotheses that may be used to prove particular subgoals.

1. *Normalization* rewrites conjectures. If a conjecture normalizes to an identity, it is a theorem. Otherwise the normalized conjecture becomes the subgoal to be proved.

2. *Proofs by cases* can further normalize a conjecture. The command `prove e by cases` $t_1, \ldots, t_n$, where $t_1, \ldots, t_n$ are predicates, directs LP to prove an equation `e` by division into cases

$t_1, \ldots, t_n$ (or into two cases, t_1 and $\neg t_1$, if $n = 1$). When $n > 1$, one subgoal is to prove that the cases are exhaustive, i.e., $t_1 \lor \ldots \lor t_n$. In addition, for each case t_i, LP substitutes new constants for the variables of t_i in both t_i and `e` to form t_i' and e_i', which it uses to creates the subgoal e_i' with the additional hypothesis $t_i' \to$ `true`. If an inconsistency results from adding the case hypothesis t_i', that case is impossible, and e_i' is vacuously true. Otherwise, the subgoal e_i' must be shown to follow from the axioms supplemented by the case hypothesis.

Case analysis has two primary uses. If the conjecture is a theorem, a proof by cases may circumvent a lack of completeness in the rewrite rules. If the conjecture is not a theorem, an attempted proof by cases may simplify the conjecture and make it easier to understand why the proof is not succeeding.

3. *Proofs by induction* are based on the induction rules described in Section 7.3. For example, a proof by induction of

```
isEmpty(c) ⇒ ¬(e ∈ c)
```

from the axioms of `LinearContainer` involves two steps. The *basis step* involves showing that

```
isEmpty(empty) ⇒ ¬(e ∈ empty)
```

This follows from the axioms by normalization. The *induction step* involves picking a new constant `cc`, assuming

```
isEmpty(cc) ⇒ ¬(e ∈ cc)
```

as an *induction hypothesis*, and showing that

```
isEmpty(insert(e1, cc)) ⇒
    ¬(e ∈ insert(e1, cc))
```

This follows by normalization from the axioms supplemented by this induction hypothesis.

4. *Proofs by contradiction* provide an indirect method of proof. If an inconsistency follows from adding the negation of the conjecture to LP's logical system, then the conjecture is a theorem.

5. *Proofs of implications* can be carried out using a simplified form of proof by cases. The command `prove` $t_1 \Rightarrow t_2$ `by` $\Rightarrow$ directs LP to prove the subgoal t_2' using the hypothesis $t_1' \rightarrow$ `true`, where t_1' and t_2' are obtained as in a proof by cases. This suffices because the implication is vacuously true when t_1' is false.

6. *Proofs of conditionals* can also be carried out using a simplified form of proof by cases. The command

   `prove if(`t_1`, `t_2`, `t_3`) == `t_4` by if`

   directs LP to prove the subgoal t_2' == t_4' using the hypothesis t_1', and to prove the subgoal t_3' == t_4' using the hypothesis $\neg t_1'$, where $t_1', \ldots, t_4'$ are obtained as in a proof by cases.

7. *Proofs of conjunctions* provide a way to reduce the expense of rewriting modulo the associativity and commutativity of $\wedge$. The command `prove` $t_1 \wedge \ldots \wedge t_n$ `by` $\wedge$ directs LP to prove each of $t_1, \ldots, t_n$ as a separate subgoal.

LP allows users to specify which methods of backward inference are applied automatically and in what order. This is done by using the `set proof-methods` command. For example, the LP command

```
set proof-methods if, ⇒, normalization
```

tells LP that whenever it is given a conjecture to prove, it should automatically try to apply these three methods, in the given order.

LP also provides automatic methods of backward inference for proving induction and deduction rules. In each method, LP generates a set of subgoals to be proved, as well as additional hypotheses that may be used to prove particular subgoals. (See the next section for examples.)

Proofs of interesting conjectures hardly ever succeed on the first try. Sometimes the conjecture is wrong. Sometimes the formalization is incorrect or incomplete. Sometimes the proof strategy is flawed or not detailed enough. When an attempted proof fails, we use a variety of LP facilities (e.g., case analysis) to try to understand the problem. Because many proof attempts fail, LP is designed to fail relatively quickly and to provide useful information when it does. It is not designed to find difficult proofs automatically. Unlike the Boyer-Moore prover [8], it does not perform heuristic searches for a proof. Unlike LCF [71], it does not allow users to define complicated search tactics. Strategic decisions, such as when to try induction, must be supplied as explicit LP commands.

```
declare sorts
  E
  ..
declare operators
  <: E, E → Bool
  >: E, E → Bool
  ..
declare variables
  x: E
  y: E
  z: E
  ..
set name TotOrd
assert
  ¬(x < x)
  (x < y ∧ y < z) ⇒ x < z
  x < y ∨ x = y ∨ y < x
  x > y == y < x
  ..
```

FIGURE 7.7. `TotOrd_Axioms.lp`

On the other hand, LP is more than a "proof checker," since it does not require proofs to be described in minute detail. In many respects, LP is best described as a "proof debugger."

7.5 Checking theory containment

The proof obligations triggered by implies and assumes clauses in an LSL trait require us to check theory containment, that is to check that claims follow from axioms. This section discusses how the LSL Checker formulates the proof obligations for theory containment for LP, as well as how we use LP to discharge these obligations. The next section discusses checking consistency.

PROVING AN EQUATION

The proof obligation for an equation is easy to formulate. Consider, for example, the proof obligations that must be discharged to check the trait `TotOrd` shown in Figure 7.3. Figure 7.7 displays the LP commands that the LSL Checker extracts from this trait in order to axiomatize

```
execute TotOrd_Axioms
set name TotOrdTheorem
% Prove implication of TotOrd(E, > for <, < for >)
prove ¬(x > x)
  qed
prove (x > y ∧ y > z) ⇒ x > z
  qed
prove x > y ∨ x = y ∨ y > x
  qed
prove x < y == y > x
  qed
% Prove implied equation
prove ¬(x < y ∧ y < x)
  qed
```

FIGURE 7.8. TotOrd_Checks.lp

its theory, and Figure 7.8 displays the LP commands that the LSL Checker extracts from this trait in order to discharge its proof obligations. The `execute` command obtains the axioms for `TotOrd` from the file `TotOrd_Axioms.lp`. The `prove` commands initiate proofs of the five immediate consequences of `TotOrd`.

LP can discharge all proof obligations except the first without user assistance. The user is alerted to the need to supply assistance in this proof by a diagnostic ("Proof suspended") printed in response to the `qed` command. At this point, the user can complete the proof by entering the `complete` command or the command

```
critical-pairs TotOrd with TotOrd
```

Proofs of equations require varying amounts of assistance. For example, when checking that `LinearContainer` implies

```
isEmpty(c) ⇒ ¬(e ∈ c)
```

the single LP command `resume by induction` suffices to finish the proof.

When checking that `PQ`, Figure 7.2, implies

```
e ∈ q ⇒ ¬(e < head(q))
```

more guidance is required. This proof proceeds by induction on `q`. LP proves the basis subgoal without assistance. For the induction subgoal, LP introduces a new constant `qc` to take the place of the universally-quantified variable `q`, adds

```
e ∈ qc ⇒ ¬(e < head(qc))
```

as the induction hypothesis, and attempts to prove

```
e ∈ insert(e1, qc) ⇒
    ¬(e < head(insert(e1, qc)))
```

which normalizes to

```
(e1 = e ∨ e ∈ qc) ⇒
  ¬(e < (if isEmpty(qc) then e1
         else if e1 < head(qc) then e1
         else head(qc)))
```

LP now automatically applies the ⇒ proof method, i.e., it assumes the hypothesis of the implication, introducing new constants `ec` and `e1c` to take the place of the variables `e` and `e1`, and attempts to prove the conclusion of the implication from this hypothesis. At this point, further guidance is required. The command

```
resume by case isEmpty(qc)
```

directs LP to divide the proof into two cases based on the predicate in the first `if`. In the first case, `isEmpty(qc)`, the desired conclusion normalizes to `¬(ec < e1c)`. The `complete` command leads LP to deduce `¬(e ∈ qc)`, using the implied equation in the trait `LinearContainer`, which is available for use in the proof because `LinearContainer` precedes `PQ` in the trait hierarchy. With this fact, LP is able to finish the proof in the first case automatically. The second case, `¬isEmpty(qc)`, requires more user assistance.

Figure 7.9 shows the entire proof, as recorded and annotated by LP in a *script file*. In addition to recording user input, LP has indented the script to reveal the structure of the proof, and it has annotated the proof by adding lines (beginning with <>) to indicate when it introduced subgoals and lines (beginning with `[]`) to indicate when each of these subgoals and the theorem itself were proved. Such an annotated proof provides the user with a means of regression testing after changing the axioms for a trait. On request, when LP executes the annotated proof (using the new set of axioms), it will halt execution and print an error message if the annotations do not match the execution. These checks help pinpoint the source of a problem when changes in the axioms cause some step in the proof to succeed with less user guidance than expected or to require more guidance. Without the check, LP might, for example, apply a tactic intended for a

```
set proof-methods ⇒, normalization
prove e ∈ q ⇒ ¬(e < head(q)) by induction
  <> 2 subgoals for proof by induction on ‘q’
    <> 1 subgoal for proof of ⇒
      [] ⇒ subgoal
    [] basis subgoal
    <> 1 subgoal for proof of ⇒
      resume by case isEmpty(qc)
      <> 2 subgoals for proof by cases
        % Handle case isEmpty(qc)
        complete
        [] case isEmpty(qc)
        % Handle case ¬isEmpty(qc)
        resume by case e1c < head(qc)
        <> 2 subgoals for proof by cases
          % Handle case e1c < head(qc)
          resume by contradiction
          <> 1 subgoal for proof by contradiction
            complete
            [] contradiction subgoal
          [] case e1c < head(qc)
          % Handle case ¬(e1c < head(qc))
          resume by contradiction
          <> 1 subgoal for proof by contradiction
            complete
            [] contradiction subgoal
          [] case ¬(e1c < head(qc))
        [] case ¬(isEmpty(qc))
      [] ⇒ subgoal
    [] induction subgoal
  [] conjecture
qed
```

FIGURE 7.9. LP-annotated proof of `PQ` implication

```
FinSet: trait
  introduces
    empty: → S
    insert: S, E → S
    singleton: E → S
    __ ∪ __: S, S → S
    __ ∈ __: E, S → Bool
    __ ⊆ __: S, S → Bool
  asserts
    S generated by empty, insert
    S partitioned by ∈
    forall s, s1: S, e, e1: E
      singleton(e) == insert(empty, e);
      s ∪ empty == s;
      s ∪ insert(s1, e) == insert(s ∪ s1, e);
      ¬(e ∈ empty);
      e ∈ insert(s, e1) == e ∈ s ∨ e = e1;
      empty ⊆ s;
      insert(s, e) ⊆ s1 == s ⊆ s1 ∧ e ∈ s1
  implies
    S partitioned by ⊆
    S generated by empty, singleton, ∪
```

FIGURE 7.10. An LSL trait for finite sets

particular case in a proof to the wrong case, thereby causing the proof to fail in mysterious ways. This checking helps prevent proofs from getting "out of sync" with their author's conception of how they should proceed.

PROVING A "PARTITIONED BY"

Proving a partitioned by clause amounts to proving the validity of the associated deduction rule in LP. For example, the LSL Checker formulates the proof obligations associated with the partitioned by in the implies clause of Figure 7.10 using the LP commands

```
execute FinSet_Axioms
prove S partitioned by ⊆
```

and LP translates the partitioned by into the deduction rule

```
when (∀ s3) s1 ⊆ s3 == s2 ⊆ s3,
            s3 ⊆ s1 == s3 ⊆ s2
yield s1 == s2
```

LP initiates a proof of this deduction rule by introducing two new constants, `s1c` and `s2c` of sort `S`, assuming `s1c ⊆ s3 == s2c ⊆ s3` and `s3 ⊆ s1c == s3 ⊆ s2c` as additional hypotheses, and attempting to prove the subgoal `s1c == s2c`. LP cannot prove `s1c == s2c` directly, because the equation is irreducible. The user can guide LP by typing `complete`, which yields the lemma `e ∈ s1c == e ∈ s2c`, after which LP automatically finishes the proof by applying the deduction rule associated with the assertion `S partitioned by ∈`.

PROVING A "GENERATED BY"

Proving a generated by clause involves proving that the set of elements generated by the given operators contains all elements of the sort. For example, the LSL Checker formulates the proof obligation associated with the generated by in the implies clause of Figure 7.10 as

```
execute FinSet_Axioms
prove S generated by empty, singleton, ∪
```

LP then introduces a new operator `isGenerated:S→Bool`, adds the hypotheses

```
isGenerated(empty)
isGenerated(singleton(e))
(isGenerated(s1) ∧ isGenerated(s))
    ⇒ isGenerated(s1 ∪ s)
```

and attempts to prove the subgoal `isGenerated(s)`. User guidance is required to complete the proof, for example, by entering the commands

```
resume by induction
complete
```

directing LP to use the induction scheme obtained from the assertion

```
S generated by empty, insert
```

and then to run the completion procedure to draw the necessary inferences from the additional hypotheses.

PROVING A "CONVERTS"

Proving that a trait converts a set of operators involves showing that the axioms of the trait define the operators in the set relative to the other operators in the trait. For example, to show that `LinearContainer`

```
execute LinearContainer_Theorems
declare operators
  isEmpty′: C → Bool
  ∈′: E, C → Bool
  ..
assert C partitioned by head, tail, isEmpty′
assert
  isEmpty′(empty)
  ¬(isEmpty′(insert(e, c)))
  ¬(e ∈′ empty)
  e ∈′ insert(e1, c) == e = e1 ∨ e ∈′ c
  isEmpty′(c) ⇒ ¬(e ∈′ c)
  ..
set name conversionChecks
prove e ∈ c == e ∈′ c
  qed
prove isEmpty(c) == isEmpty′(c)
  qed
```

FIGURE 7.11. Proof obligations for `converts` in `LinearContainer`

converts `isEmpty` and ∈, one must show that, given any interpretations for `empty` and `insert`, there are unique interpretations for `isEmpty` and ∈ that satisfy the axioms of `LinearContainer`. Equivalently, we must show that the theories of `LinearContainer` and `LinearContainer(isEmpty′ for isEmpty, ∈′ for ∈)` together imply the two equations `isEmpty(c) == isEmpty′(c)` and `e ∈ c == e ∈′ c`.

The LSL Checker formulates these proof obligations with the LP commands in Figure 7.11.[6] The only user guidance required to discharge these proof obligations is a command to proceed by induction.

The proof obligation for the converts clause in `PQ` is similar. Here we must show that given any interpretations for `empty` and `insert`, as well as for the exempted terms `head(empty)` and `tail(empty)`, there are unique interpretations for `head`, `tail`, `isEmpty`, and ∈ that satisfy the theory of `PQ`. The proof obligations for this are shown in Figure 7.12. Again, the only user guidance needed to complete the proofs are commands to proceed by induction.

[6]The figure's last assertion comes from the implies clause in `LinearContainer`.

```
execute PQ_Theorems
% Declarations, axioms, and theorems for
%   head’, tail’, isEmpty’, ∈’ occur here
set name exemptions
assert
  head(empty) == head’(empty)
  tail(empty) == tail’(empty)
  ..
set name conversionChecks
prove isEmpty(q) == isEmpty’(q)
  qed
prove head(q) == head’(q)
  qed
prove tail(q) == tail’(q)
  qed
prove e ∈ q == e ∈’ q
  qed
```

FIGURE 7.12. Proof obligations for `converts` in `PQ`

7.6 Checking consistency

Checks for theory containment fall into the typical pattern of use of a theorem prover. The check for consistency is harder to formulate because it involves nonconsequence rather than consequence. Techniques for detecting when this check fails are more useful than techniques for certifying that it succeeds.

A standard approach in logic to proving consistency involves interpreting the theory being checked in another theory whose consistency is assumed (e.g., Peano arithmetic) or has been established previously [77]. In this approach, user assistance is required to define the interpretation. The proof that the interpretation satisfies the axioms of the trait being checked then becomes a problem of showing theory containment, for which LP is well suited. This approach is cumbersome and unattractive in practice. More promising approaches are based on metatheorems in first-order logic that can be used for restricted classes of specifications. For example, any extension by definitions (see [77]) of a consistent theory is consistent.

For equational traits (i.e., traits with purely equational axiomatizations, of which there are relatively few), questions about consistency can be translated into questions about critical pairs. In some cases, we can use LP to answer these questions by running the completion procedure or by computing critical pairs. If these actions generate an inconsistency, the axioms are inconsistent; if they complete the axioms without generating the equation `true == false`, then the trait is consistent. This proof strategy will not usually succeed in proving consistency, because many equational theories cannot be completed at all, or cannot be completed in an acceptable amount of time and space. However, it has proved useful in finding inconsistencies among equations.

We can use all of LP's forward inference mechanisms to search for inconsistencies in a specification. The completion procedure searches for inconsistencies automatically, and we can instantiate axioms by "focus objects" (in the sense of McAllester [64]) to provide the completion procedure with a basis for its search. Even though unsuccessful searches do not certify that a specification is consistent, they increase our confidence in a specification, just as testing increases our confidence in a program.

```
Coordinate: trait
  introduces
    origin: → Coord
    __ - __: Coord, Coord → Coord
  asserts ∀ cd: Coord
    cd - cd == origin

Region(R): trait
  assumes Coordinate
  introduces
    __ ∈ __: Coord, R → Bool
    % cd ∈ r is true if point cd is in region r
    % Nothing is assumed about the contiguity
    %   or shape of regions

Displayable(T): trait
  assumes Coordinate
  includes Region(T)
  introduces
    __[__]: T, Coord → Color
    % t[cd] represents appearance of object t
    % at point cd
```

FIGURE 7.13. Prototype traits for windowing abstraction

7.7 Extended example

To illustrate our approach to checking specifications in a slightly more realistic setting, we show how one might construct and check some traits to be used in the specification of a simple windowing system [43]. These are preliminary versions of traits that would likely be expanded as the specifications (including the interface parts) were developed.

The first three traits, Figure 7.13, declare the signatures of some basic operators.

The proof obligations associated with these traits are easily discharged. When LP's completion procedure is run on `Coordinate`, it terminates without generating any critical pairs. Since `Coordinate` has no generated by or partitioned by clauses, this is sufficient to guarantee that it is consistent. When checking the inclusion of `Region` by `Displayable`, `Region`'s assumption of `Coordinate` is discharged syntactically, using `Displayable`'s assumption of the same trait.

```
Window(W): trait
  assumes Coordinate
  includes Region, Displayable(W)
  W tuple of cont, clip: R, fore, back: Color, id: WId
  asserts ∀ w: W, cd: Coord
    cd ∈ w == cd ∈ w.clip;
    w[cd] == if cd ∈ w.cont then w.fore else w.back
  implies converts __[__], ∈:Coord,W→Bool
```

FIGURE 7.14. `Window.lsl`

The `Window` trait, Figure 7.14, defines a window as an object composed of content and clipping regions, foreground and background colors, and a window identifier. The operator ∈ is qualified by a signature in the last line of the trait because it is overloaded, and it is necessary to say which ∈ is converted.

There are three proof obligations associated with this trait. The assumptions of `Coordinate` in `Region` and `Displayable` are syntactically discharged using `Window`'s assumption. The converts clause is discharged by LP without user assistance. The other proof obligation is consistency. As discussed in the previous section, we use the completion procedure to search for inconsistencies. Running it for a short time neither uncovers an inconsistency nor proves consistency.

The `View` trait, Figure 7.15, defines a view as an object composed of windows at locations. There are several proof obligations associated with this trait. Once again, the assumptions of `Window` and `Displayable` are discharged syntactically by the assumption in `View`. Once again, using the completion procedure to search for inconsistencies uncovers no problems. However, checking the converts clause does turn up a problem. The conversion of `inW` and both ∈'s is easily proved by induction over objects of sort `V`. However, the inductive base case for __[__] does not reduce at all, because `emptyV[cd]` is not defined. This problem can be solved either by defining `emptyV[cd]` or by adding

```
exempting ∀ cd: Coord emptyV[cd]
```

to the converts clause. We choose the latter because there is no obvious definition for `emptyV[cd]`. With the added exemption, the inductive proof of the conversion of __[__] goes through without further interaction.

When we attempt to prove the first of the explicit equations in the implies clause of `View`, we run into difficulty. After automatically applying its

```
View: trait
  assumes Coordinate
  includes Window, Displayable(V)
  introduces
    emptyV: → V
    addW: V, Coord, W → V
    __ ∈ __: W, V → Bool
    inW: V, WId, Coord → Bool
  asserts
    V generated by emptyV, addW
    ∀ cd, cd1: Coord, v: V, w, w1: W, wid: WId
      ¬(cd ∈ emptyV);
      cd ∈ addW(v, cd1, w) ==
        (cd - cd1) ∈ w ∨ cd ∈ v;
      ¬(w ∈ emptyV);
      w ∈ addW(v, cd1, w1) == w.id = w1.id ∨ w ∈ v;
      addW(v, cd1, w)[cd] ==
        if (cd - cd1) ∈ w
          then w[cd - cd1] else v[cd];
      % In view only if in a window, offset by origin
      ¬inW(emptyV, wid, cd);
      inW(addW(v, cd, w), wid, cd1) ==
          (w.id = wid ∧ (cd - cd1) ∈ w)
          ∨ inW(v, wid, cd1)
  implies
    ∀ cd, cd1: Coord, v,v1: V, w: W
      % New window does not affect the appearance
      % of parts of the view lying outside the window
      ¬inW(addW(v, cd, w), w.id, cd1)
        ⇒ addW(v, cd, w)[cd1] = v[cd1];
      % Appearance within newly added window is
      % independent of the view to which it is added
      inW(addW(v, cd1, w), w.id, cd)
        ⇒ addW(v, cd1, w)[cd] = addW(v1, cd1, w)[cd]
    converts inW, ∈:Coord,V→Bool, ∈:W,V→Bool,
             __[__]:V,Coord→Color
```

FIGURE 7.15. Preliminary version of `View.lsl`

proof method for implications, LP reduces the conjecture to

```
if (cd1c - cdc) ∈ wc.clip
   then if (cd1c - cdc) ∈ wc.cont
        then wc.fore else wc.back
   else vc[cd1c]
== vc[cd1c]
```

and reduces the assumed hypothesis of the implication to

```
¬((cdc - cd1c) ∈ wc.clip)
```

At this point, we ask ourselves why the hypothesis is not sufficient to reduce the conjecture to an identity. The problem seems to be the order of the operands of −. This leads us to look carefully at the second equation for `inW` in trait `View`. There we discover that we have written `cd - cd1` when we should have written `cd1 - cd`, or, to be consistent with the form of the other equations, reversed the role of `cd` and `cd1` in the left side of the equation. After changing this axiom to

```
inW(addW(v, cd1, w), wid, cd) ==
  (w.id = wid ∧ (cd - cd1) ∈ w)
    ∨ inW(v, wid, cd)
```

the proof of the first implication goes through without interaction.

The second conjecture, after LP applies its proof method for implications, reduces to

```
if (cdc - cd1c) ∈ wc.clip
   then if (cdc - cd1c) ∈ wc.cont
        then wc.fore else wc.back
   else vc[cdc]
==
if (cd - cd1c) ∈ wc.clip
   then if (cdc - cd1c) ∈ wc.cont
        then wc.fore else wc.back
   else v'[cdc]
```

We resume the proof by dividing it into two cases based on the predicate in the outermost `if`'s. When this predicate is true, the conjecture reduces to `true`; when it is false, the conjecture reduces to

```
vc[cdc] == v'[cdc]
```

Since `v'` is a variable and `vc` a new constant, we know that we are not going to be able to reduce this to `true`. This does not necessarily mean that the proof will fail, since we could be in an impossible case (i.e., the current hypotheses could lead to a contradiction). However, examining the current hypotheses,

```
inW(vc, wc.id, cdc)          % Hypothesis of ⇒
¬((cdc - cd1c) ∈ wc.clip)     % Case hypothesis
```

gives us no obvious reason to believe that a contradiction exists.

This leads us to wonder about the validity of the conjecture we are trying to prove, and to ask ourselves why we thought it was true when we added it to the trait. Our informal reasoning had been:

1. The hypothesis `inW(addW(v, cd1, w), w.id, cd)` of the conjecture guarantees that coordinate `cd` is in window `w` in the view `addW(v, cd1, w)`.
2. If `w` is added at the same place in `v'` as in `v`, `cd` must also be in `addW(v', cd1, w)`.
3. Furthermore `cd - cd1` will be the same relative coordinate in `w` in both `addW(v, cd1, w)` and `addW(v', cd1, w)`.
4. Therefore the equation

   ```
   addW(v, cd1, w)[cd] ==
     if (cd - cd1) ∈ w
       then w[cd -cd1] else v[cd]
   ```

   in trait `View` should guarantee the conclusion.

The first step in formalizing this informal argument is to attempt to prove

```
inW(addW(v, cd1, w), w.id, cd) ⇒ (cd - cd1) ∈ w
```

as a lemma. LP reduces the conclusion of this implication to

```
(cdc - cd1c) ∈ wc.clip
```

using the normalized implication hypothesis

```
(cdc - cd1c) ∈ wc.clip ∨ inW(vc, wc.id, cdc)
```

Casing on the first disjunct of the hypothesis reduces the conjecture to `false` under the same implication and case hypotheses as above.

We are thus stuck in the same place as in our attempted proof of the original conjecture. This leads us to question the validity of the first step in our informal proof, and we discover a flaw there: when `v` contains a window with the same `id` as `w`, the implication is not sound. The problem is that we implicitly assumed the invariant that no view would contain two windows with the same `id`, and our specification does not guarantee this.

There are several ways around this problem, among them:

1. Trait `View` could be changed so that `addW` chooses a unique `id` whenever a window is added.
2. Trait `View` could be changed so that `addW` is the identity function when the `id` of the window to be added is already associated with a window in the view.
3. The preservation of the invariant could be left to the interface level.

We choose the third alternative and weaken the second implication of trait `View` to:

```
∀ cd, cd1: Coord, v, v′: V, w: W
  % Appearance within a newly added window is
  % independent of the view to which it is added,
  % provided that the window id is not already
  % present in the view.
  (¬(w ∈ v) ∧ ¬(w ∈ v′)
       ∧ inW(addW(v, cd1, w), w.id, cd))
    ⇒ addW(v, cd1, w)[cd] = addW(v′, cd1, w)[cd]
```

which is proved with a small amount of user interaction after proving the lemma

```
¬(w ∈ v) ⇒ ¬inW(v, w.id, cd)
```

by induction on `v`.

Finally, we introduce a coordinate system.

```
CartesianView: trait
  includes View, Natural
  Coord tuple of x, y: N
  asserts ∀ cd, cd1: Coord
    origin == [0, 0];
    cd - cd1 == [cd.x ⊖ cd1.x, cd.y ⊖ cd1.y]
  implies converts origin, -
```

LP uses the facts of the trait `Natural` (see Appendix A) to automatically discharge the assumption of `Coordinate` that has been carried from level to level. LP requires no assistance to complete the proof that the coordinate operators are indeed converted.

Of course, for expository purposes, we have used an artificially simplified example. We also deliberately seeded some errors for LP to find. However, most of the errors discussed above occurred unintentionally as we wrote the example, and we did not notice them until we actually attempted the mechanical proofs.

7.8 Perspective

The Larch Shared Language includes several facilities for introducing checkable redundancy into specifications. These facilities were chosen to expose common classes of errors. They give specifiers a better chance of receiving diagnostics about specifications with unintended meanings, in much the same way that type systems give programmers a better chance of receiving diagnostics about erroneous programs.

A primary goal of Larch is to provide useful feedback to specifiers when there is something wrong with a specification. Hence we designed LP primarily as a debugging tool. We are not overly troubled that detecting inconsistencies is generally quicker and easier than certifying consistency.

We expect to discover flaws in specifications by having attempted proofs fail. LP does not automatically apply backwards inference techniques, and it requires more user guidance than some other provers. Much of this guidance is highly predictable, e.g, proving the hypotheses of deduction rules as lemmas. Although it is tempting to supply LP with heuristics that would generate such lemmas automatically, we feel that it is better to leave the guidance to the user. At many points in a proof, many different heuristics could apply. In our experience, choosing the next step in a proof (e.g., a case split or proof by induction)—or deciding that the proof attempt should be abandoned—often depends upon knowledge of the application. LP cannot reasonably be expected to possess this knowledge, especially when we are searching for a counterexample to a conjecture, rather than attempting to prove it. However, in some cases, the LSL Checker may be able to use the structure of LSL specifications to generate some of the guidance (e.g., using induction to prove a converts clause) that users must currently provide to LP.

The checkable redundancy that LSL encourages in specifications also supports regression testing as specifications evolve. When we change part of a specification (e.g., to strengthen or weaken the assertions of one trait), it is important to ensure that the change does not have unintended side-effects. LP's facilities for detecting inconsistencies help us discover grossly erroneous changes. Claims about other traits in the specification, which imply or assume the changed trait, can help us discover more subtle problems. If some of these claims have already been checked, LP's facilities for replaying proof scripts make it easy to recheck their proofs after a change—an important activity, but one that is likely to be neglected without mechanical assistance.

Chapter 8

Conclusion

Larch is still very much a "work in progress." New Larch interface languages are being designed, new tools are being built, and the existing languages and tools are in a state of evolution. Most significantly, specifications are being written.

But Larch has reached a divide, what Churchill might have called "the end of the beginning." Until now, most of the work on Larch has been done by the authors of this book and their close associates. We hope that the First International Workshop on Larch [66] and the publication of this book mark the beginning of the period when most Larch research, development, and application will be done by people we do not yet know.

THE ESSENCE OF LARCH

Over the years, we have spent many pages describing Larch languages, tools, and applications. However, the essence of Larch rests in a few principles that have guided our efforts:

- The most important use for specification is as a tool for helping to understand and document interfaces. Therefore, clarity is more important than any other property.

- Specifications should not just describe mathematical abstractions, but real interfaces supplied by programs. They should be written at the level of abstraction at which clients program. This usually means sinking to the level of a programming language.

- Structuring specifications into two tiers, which we have called the interface tier and the LSL tier, makes specifications easier to understand and facilitates reuse of parts of specifications.

  - The interface tier describes the observable behavior of program components. Since what a client can observe is likely to depend in fundamental ways on the client programming language, much can be gained by designing interface specification languages that are optimized for specific programming languages.

Specifications in this tier can be rather simple, provided that the right abstractions are provided in the LSL tier.

– The LSL tier describes mathematical abstractions that are independent of the details of any programming model. These are the principal reusable components of specifications. While we have used only one language (LSL) to write specifications in this tier, there is no fundamental reasons other languages could not be used. Languages used in this tier should have a simple semantics; they need not deal with messy issues such as runtime errors, which are better handled in the interface tier.

- Specification languages should be carefully designed. Having an elegant semantics is not enough. Careful attention to syntax and static semantic checking is crucial.

- Tool support is vital. One of the great virtues of using a formal notation is that tools can be used to help detect and isolate a variety of errors. Whenever we have improved our tools to detect a new class of errors, we have found more errors in existing specifications.

- Tools for checking interface specifications should be integrated with other programming language tools, e.g., preprocessors that enforce programming conventions.

- Specification must not be viewed as an isolated activity. It must be integrated with good programming practice. The goal is not to specify arbitrary programs, but to use specifications to help design, implement, document, and maintain good programs. Specifications can help in structuring these activities.

A CAUTIONARY NOTE

Throughout this book we have stressed ways in which formal specification can be used to help in building high quality software. However, we have tried not lose sight of the fact that formal specification is not a panacea. Good engineering practice is essential. To quote an anonymous referee of an early draft of this book,

> . . . bullishness about formal methods must be strongly tempered by the following important realization: *Formalization should be aimed at achieving conceptual clarity, rather than*

as a mere exercise in encoding pieces of mathematics. No notation or toolset, however fancy and elaborate, can be a substitute for clear thought. At best, formalization can help clarify ideas and concepts by making them more tangible. At worst, poor or faulty formalization can cloud and confuse issues beyond repair.

Appendix A

An LSL Handbook

A.1 Introduction

This handbook supersedes Piece IV of *Larch in Five Easy Pieces* [51] and "A Larch Shared Language Handbook" [46].

READING THE HANDBOOK

This handbook contains a collection of traits written in LSL 2.4 that can be studied to learn more about LSL. Many traits are also suitable for use as specification components. They constitute a library for the LCL and LM3 tools; we hope that they will save others from reinventing wheels—especially polygonal ones. Other traits are more likely to be used as models for the development of similar specialized specification components.

This handbook is representative rather than complete. The LSL tier is open-ended because we believe that no handbook or library will ever include everything that will be needed. Users are encouraged to augment this handbook with additional traits, and to prepare their handbooks for particular applications.

This is not a textbook on discrete mathematics. If you already understand a collection of concepts (e.g., integer arithmetic), their formalization should make sense to you. If you don't, you should still be able to understand precisely what the definitions say (or don't say), but you probably won't get many clues as to why the particular definitions in (say) `Lattice` or `AbelianMonoid` are interesting and useful. Think of this handbook as the "collected formulas" that might appear as an appendix to a mathematics text.

There are many trade-offs in developing this kind of handbook:

- simplicity versus completeness,
- structure (include trait by reference) versus explicitness (copy trait),
- brevity versus explicit indication of consequences,
- concise versus mnemonic names,

- stylistic consistency versus an illustrative range of valid styles,
- standardization (for communication) versus flexibility (for efficiency in particular cases),
- selection among competing notations and definitions for concepts,
- conceptual elegance versus practical utility.

We expect that, in the not-too-distant future, specification handbooks will most often be used in their online forms, with browsing tools that enable readers to make many of these choices dynamically, according to their needs and preferences. Unfortunately, this book is still a hostage to the tyranny of paper, so we've had to make these choices in advance. There are general tendencies in the choices exhibited here, but we haven't applied any of our own guidelines slavishly. Many of the stylistic variations are intentional, but there are probably others that we simply didn't notice.

This handbook does not have to be read front-to-back. There is no "correct" order in which to study the traits. Feel free to browse and skip according to your interests and needs. Early sections tend to deal with specific constructs that occur frequently in program interface specifications, while later sections are somewhat more abstract, providing mathematical building blocks that can be used to define, classify, or generalize such constructs. When there didn't seem to be any natural order for things, we fell back on alphabetical order.

Traits in sections labeled *data types* or *data structures* are quite likely to be used directly in interface specifications. Traits in sections labeled *assumptions and implications* or *operator definitions* are more likely to be used in other traits.

Traits are listed in the index. If you don't know exactly what a referenced trait contains, you can always look it up. However, we have tried to use familiar names for familiar concepts. Particularly on first reading, it is probably better to assume that traits such as `Integer` and `TotalOrder` mean what you expect, than to flip continually from trait to trait and section to section.

An `implies` clause does not contribute to the meaning (i.e., the theory) of a legal trait. It is perfectly acceptable to ignore them, and it is often best to do so on first reading. However, they do offer you a chance to check your understanding, by giving examples of facts that are consequences of the definitions in the trait. They may also include alternative (and perhaps more familiar) definitions, or show connections that may not be obvious from looking at just the definitions in the traits.

Both `includes` and `assumes` clauses add axioms from referenced traits. They both have the same semantics within a trait in which they appear, so it's fine to ignore the distinction on first reading. But `assumes` clauses impose an additional proof obligation whenever the trait containing them is referenced in another trait, so they become very relevant when using traits to compose specifications.

Many abstract types are defined in two traits, one of which defines only the essential operators that characterize the type, while the other includes definitions for a richer set of operators in terms of the essential operators. The former kind of trait tends to be used in `assumes` and `implies` clauses; the latter, in `includes` clauses and in interface specifications. Compare, for example, `SetBasics` and `Set`, or `RelationBasics` and `Relation`.

Many traits include `Integer` and use sort `Int` where it might seem that `Natural` and `Nat` would be more natural choices—and, in some cases, would lead to somewhat simpler specifications. This is a consequence of the decision in the interface languages to base all the whole-number types on `Int`. The trait `IntegerPredicates` defines predicates to test for several commonly-used subsets of the integers. The alternative was a large amount of sort-conversion that would severely distract from the clarity of interface specifications. So we pay a small price in the LSL tier for greater simplicity in the interface tier.

If a definition seems "unnatural" to you, you will find it instructive to try to construct a more natural definition yourself. If you find one, you will have gained some experience in writing LSL specifications; if you don't, you may have gained some insight into the reason for the "unnatural" definition.

The traits in this handbook have passed the scrutiny of the LSL Checker, which parses, expands trait references, resolves overloading, and sort-checks. Most of them have not yet been subjected to additional checking of the kind described in Chapter 7.

The online version of this handbook is still evolving. The authors would appreciate all kinds of feedback from readers and users. Are there errors or sources of confusion? Have we omitted something that would be widely useful? Are there better ways to define some of the concepts?

NAMING AND LEXICAL CONVENTIONS

Sort names:

- Numeric types: `Int` for integers, `P` for positive numbers, `Q` for rationals, `F` for floating point, and `N` otherwise.
- `T` if there is only one "interesting" sort in the trait.
- Container traits: `E` for elements, `C` for containers.

Operator names:

- $\circ$ for a generic infix operator and also for the composition of maps and relations.
- $\diamond$ for a generic relation.

For convenience in manipulating the online form of the handbook, we have chosen a sequence of ISO Latin characters to represent each non-ISO Latin symbol used in the handbook. Some of them are chosen for visual similarity (e.g., $\rightarrow$ is written as `->` and $\leq$ is written as `<=`); others have been modeled on TeX's choices (e.g., $\circ$ is written as `\circ` and $\in$ is written as `\in`). A complete list is given in Section C.

Each Larch interface language defines its own notation for literals, based on the programming language's notation; numerical types will generally include the trait schema `DecimalLiterals`.

Many traits have a `size` or `count` operator whose value is always non-negative. For reasons given in the previous section, except within Section A.15, Number theory, we have given their range as `Int`, from trait `Integer`, rather than as `N`, from trait `Natural`.

A.2 Foundations

DATA TYPE: BOOLEAN

```
Boolean: trait
  % This trait is given for documentation only.
  % It is implicit in LSL.
  introduces
    true, false: → Bool
    ¬__: Bool → Bool
    __∧ __, __∨__, __⇒__: Bool, Bool → Bool
  asserts
    Bool generated by true, false
    ∀ b: Bool
      ¬ true == false;
      ¬ false == true;
      true ∧ b == b;
      false ∧ b == false;
      true ∨ b == true;
      false ∨ b == b;
      true ⇒ b == b;
      false ⇒ b == true
  implies
    AC (∧ , Bool),
    AC (∨, Bool),
    Distributive (∨ for +, ∧ for *, Bool for T),
    Distributive (∧ for +, ∨ for *, Bool for T),
    Involutive (¬__, Bool),
    Transitive (⇒ for ◇, Bool for T)
    ∀ b1, b2, b3: Bool
      ¬(b1 ∧ b2) == ¬b1 ∨ ¬b2;
      ¬(b1 ∨ b2) == ¬b1 ∧ ¬b2;
      b1 ∨ (b1 ∧ b2) == b1;
      b1 ∧ (b1 ∨ b2) == b1;
      b2 ∨ ¬b2;
      (b1 = b2) ∨ (b1 = b3) ∨ (b2 = b3);
      b1 ⇒ b2 == ¬b1 ∨ b2
```

OPERATOR DEFINITION: IF THEN ELSE

```
Conditional (T): trait
  % This trait is given for documentation only.
  % It is implicit in LSL.
  introduces if__then__else__: Bool, T, T → T
  asserts
    ∀ x, y, z: T
      if true then x else y == x;
      if false then x else y == y
  implies ∀ b: Bool, x: T
    if b then x else x == x
```

A.3 Integers

DATA TYPE

```
Integer (Int): trait
  % The usual (unbounded) integers operators
  includes
    DecimalLiterals (Int for N),
    TotalOrder (Int)
  introduces
    0, 1: → Int
    succ, pred, -__, abs: Int → Int
    __+__, __-__, __*__: Int, Int → Int
    div, mod, min, max: Int, Int → Int
  asserts
    Int generated by 0, succ, pred
    ∀ x, y: Int
      succ(pred(x)) == x;
      pred(succ(x)) == x;
      -0 == 0;
      -succ(x) == pred(-x);
      -pred(x) == succ(-x);
      abs(x) == max(-x, x);
      x + 0 == x;
      x + succ(y) == succ(x + y);
      x + pred(y) == pred(x + y);
      x - y == x + (-y);
      x * 0 == 0;
      x*succ(y) == (x*y) + x;
      x*pred(y) == (x*y) - x;
      y > 0 ⇒ mod(x, y) + (div(x, y) * y) = x;
      y > 0 ⇒ mod(x, y) ≥ 0;
      y > 0 ⇒ mod(x, y) < y;
      min(x, y) == if x ≤ y then x else y;
      max(x, y) == if x ≤ y then y else x;
      x < succ(x)
  implies
    AC (+, Int),
    AC (*, Int),
    AC (min, Int),
    AC (max, Int),
    RingWithUnit (Int for T)
    Int generated by 1, +, -__:Int→Int
```

```
    ∀ x, y: Int
      x < y == succ(x) < succ(y);
      x < y == x ≤ succ(y)
    converts
      1, -__:Int→Int, __-__:Int,Int→Int,
      abs, +, *, div, mod, min, max, ≤, ≥, <, >
```

LITERALS

```
DecimalLiterals (N): trait
  % A built-in trait schema given here
  % for documentation only
  introduces
    0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11 %, ...
      : → N
    succ: N → N
  asserts equations
    1 == succ(0);
    2 == succ(1);
    3 == succ(2);
  % ... as far as needed for any literals
  % of sort N appearing in the including trait
```

OPERATOR DEFINITIONS

```
IntegerPredicates (Int): trait
  % Frequently used subranges of the integers
  assumes Integer
  introduces
    InRange: Int, Int, Int → Bool
    Natural, Positive, Signed, Unsigned: Int → Bool
    maxSigned, maxUnsigned: → Int
  asserts forall n, low, high: Int
    InRange(n, low, high) == low ≤ n ∧ n ≤ high;
    Natural(n) == n ≥ 0;
    Positive(n) == n > 0;
    Signed(n) ==
      InRange(n, -succ(maxSigned), maxSigned);
    Unsigned(n) == InRange(n, 0, maxUnsigned)
  implies ∀ n: Int
    Positive(n) ⇒ Natural(n);
    Unsigned(n) ⇒ Natural(n)
```

A.4 Enumerations

```
Enumeration (T): trait
  % Enumeration, comparison, and ordinal position
  % operators, often used with "enumeration of"
  assumes Integer
  includes DerivedOrders
  introduces
    first, last: → T
    succ, pred: T → T
    ord: T → Int
    val: Int → T
  asserts
    T generated by first, succ
    T generated by last, pred
    ∀ x, y: T
      ord(first) == 0;
      x ≠ last ⇒ ord(succ(x)) = ord(x) + 1;
      x ≠ last ⇒ pred(succ(x)) = x;
      val(ord(x)) == x;
      x ≤ y == ord(x) ≤ ord(y);
      x ≤ last
  implies
    TotalOrder
    T generated by val
    T partitioned by ord
    ∀ x: T
      x ≠ first ⇒ succ(pred(x)) = x;
      x ≠ last ⇒ x < succ(x);
      first ≤ x;
      ord(x) ≥ 0
    converts
      first:→T, succ:T→T, pred:T→T, ord,
        ≤:T,T→Bool, ≥:T,T→Bool,
        <:T,T→Bool, >:T,T→Bool
      exempting succ(last), pred(first)
```

A.5 Containers

Throughout this section we use E for the element sort, and C for the container sort. This simplifies comparisons among data structures and makes it easier to write generic operator definitions that work for several kinds of containers. Since variable names are local to traits, we imposed no such uniformity on them.

UNORDERED DATA STRUCTURES

```
SetBasics (E, C): trait
  % Essential finite-set operators
  introduces
    { }: → C
    insert: E, C → C
    __∈ __: E, C → Bool
  asserts
    C generated by { }, insert
    C partitioned by ∈
    ∀ s: C, e, e1, e2: E
      ¬ (e ∈ { });
      e1 ∈ insert(e2, s) == e1 = e2 ∨ e1 ∈ s
  implies
    InsertGenerated ({ } for empty)
    ∀ e, e1, e2: E, s: C
      insert(e, s) ≠ { };
      insert(e, insert(e, s)) == insert(e, s);
      insert(e1, insert(e2, s)) ==
        insert(e2, insert(e1, s))
    converts ∈
```

```
Set (E, C): trait
  % Common set operators
  includes
    SetBasics,
    Integer,
    DerivedOrders (C, ⊆ for ≤, ⊇ for ≥,
                   ⊂ for <, ⊃ for >)
  introduces
    __∉ __: E, C → Bool
    delete: E, C → C
    {__}: E → C
    __ ∪ __, __ ∩ __, __-__: C, C → C
    size: C → Int
  asserts
    ∀ e, e1, e2: E, s, s1, s2: C
      e ∉ s == ¬(e ∈ s);
      { e } == insert(e, { });
      e1 ∈ delete(e2, s) == e1 ≠ e2 ∧ e1 ∈ s;
      e ∈ (s1 ∪ s2) == e ∈ s1 ∨ e ∈ s2;
      e ∈ (s1 ∩ s2) == e ∈ s1 ∧ e ∈ s2;
      e ∈ (s1 - s2)  == e ∈ s1 ∧ e ∉ s2;
      size({ }) == 0;
      size(insert(e, s)) ==
        if e ∉ s then size(s) + 1 else size(s);
      s1 ⊆ s2 == s1 - s2 = { }
  implies
    AbelianMonoid (∪ for ∘, { } for unit, C for T),
    AC (∩, C),
    JoinOp (∪, { } for empty),
    MemberOp ({ } for empty),
    PartialOrder (C, ⊆ for ≤, ⊇ for ≥,
                  ⊂ for <, ⊃ for >)
    C generated by { }, {__}, ∪
    ∀ e: E, s, s1, s2: C
      s1 ⊆ s2 ⇒ (e ∈ s1 ⇒ e ∈ s2);
      size(s) ≥ 0
    converts
      ∈, ∉, {__}, delete, size, ∪, ∩, -:C,C→C,
      ⊆, ⊇, ⊂, ⊃
```

```
BagBasics (E, C): trait
  % Essential bag operators
  includes Integer
  introduces
    { }: → C
    insert: E, C → C
    count: E, C → Int
  asserts
    C generated by { }, insert
    C partitioned by count
    ∀ b: C, e, e1, e2: E
      count(e, { }) == 0;
      count(e1, insert(e2, b)) ==
        count(e1, b) + (if e1 = e2 then 1 else 0)
  implies
    InsertGenerated ({ } for empty)
    ∀ e: E, b: C
      insert(e, b) ≠ { };
      count(e, b) ≥ 0
    converts count
```

```
Bag (E, C): trait
  % Common bag operators
  includes
    BagBasics,
    DerivedOrders (C, ⊆ for ≤, ⊇ for ≥,
                   ⊂ for <, ⊃ for >)
  introduces
    delete: E, C → C
    {__}: E → C
    __∈ __, __∉ __: E, C → Bool
    size: C → Int
    __∪ __, __-__: C, C → C
  asserts
    ∀ e, e1, e2: E, b, b1, b2: C
      count(e1, delete(e2, b)) ==
        if e1 = e2 then max(0, count(e1, b) - 1)
        else count(e1, b);
      { e } == insert(e, { });
      e ∈ b == count(e, b) > 0;
      e ∉ b == count(e, b) = 0;
      size({ }) == 0;
      size(insert(e, b)) == size(b) + 1;
      count(e, b1 ∪ b2) ==
        count(e, b1) + count(e, b2);
      count(e, b1 - b2) ==
        max(0, count(e, b1) - count(e, b2));
      b1 ⊆ b2 == b1 - b2 = { };
  implies
    AbelianMonoid (∪ for ∘, { } for unit, C for T),
    JoinOp (∪, { } for empty),
    MemberOp ({ } for empty),
    PartialOrder (C, ⊆ for ≤, ⊇ for ≥,
                  ⊂ for <, ⊃ for >)
    ∀ e, e1, e2: E, b, b1, b2: C
      insert(e, b) ≠ { };
      count(e, b) ≥ 0;
      count(e, b) ≤ size(b);
      b1 ⊆ b2 ⇒ count(e, b1) ≤ count(e, b2)
    converts count, ∈, ∉, {__}, ∪, -:C,C→C,
      delete, size, ⊆, ⊇, ⊂, ⊃
```

INSERTION ORDERED DATA STRUCTURES

```
StackBasics (E, C): trait
  % Essential LIFO operators
  includes Integer
  introduces
    empty: → C
    push: E, C → C
    top: C → E
    pop: C → C
  asserts
    C generated by empty, push
    ∀ e: E, stk: C
      top(push(e, stk)) == e;
      pop(push(e, stk)) == stk;
  implies converts top, pop
    exempting top(empty), pop(empty)
```

```
Stack (E, C): trait
  % Common LIFO operators
  includes StackBasics, Integer
  introduces
    count: E, C → Int
    __ ∈ __: E, C → Bool
    size: C → Int
    isEmpty: C → Bool
  asserts
    ∀ e: E, stk: C
      size(empty) == 0;
      size(push(e, stk)) == size(stk) + 1;
      isEmpty(stk) == stk = empty
  implies
    Container (push for insert, top for head,
               pop for tail)
    C partitioned by top, pop, isEmpty
    ∀ stk: C
      size(stk) ≥ 0
    converts top, pop, count, ∈, size, isEmpty
      exempting top(empty), pop(empty)
```

```
Queue (E, C): trait
  % FIFO operators
  includes Integer
  introduces
    empty: → C
    append: E, C → C
    count: E, C → Int
    __ ∈ __: E, C → Bool
    head: C → E
    tail: C → C
    len: C → Int
    isEmpty: C → Bool
  asserts
    C generated by empty, append
    ∀ q: C, e, e1: E
      count(e, empty) == 0;
      count(e, append(e1, q)) ==
        count(e, q) + (if e = e1 then 1 else 0);
      e ∈ q == count(e, q) > 0;
      head(append(e, q)) ==
        if q = empty then e else head(q);
      tail(append(e, q)) ==
        if q = empty then empty
        else append(e, tail(q));
      len(empty) == 0;
      len(append(e, q)) == len(q) + 1;
      isEmpty(q) == q = empty
  implies
    Container (append for insert)
    C partitioned by head, tail, isEmpty
    ∀ q: C
      len(q) ≥ 0
    converts head, tail, len
      exempting head(empty), tail(empty)
```

```
Deque (E, C): trait
  % Double ended queue operators
  includes Integer
  introduces
    empty: → C
    __ ⊣ __: E, C → C
    __ ⊢ __: C, E → C
    count: E, C → Int
    __ ∈ __: E, C → Bool
    head, last: C → E
    tail, init: C → C
    len: C → Int
    isEmpty: C → Bool
  asserts
    C generated by empty, ⊢
    ∀ e, e1, e2: E, d: C
      count(e, empty) == 0;
      count(e, e1 ⊣ d) ==
        count(e, d) + (if e = e1 then 1 else 0);
      e ∈ d == count(e, d) > 0;
      e ⊣ empty == empty ⊢ e;
      (e1 ⊣ d) ⊢ e2 == e1 ⊣ (d ⊢ e2);
      head(e ⊣ d) == e;
      last(d ⊢ e) == e;
      tail(e ⊣ d) == d;
      init(d ⊢ e) == d;
      len(empty) == 0;
      len(d ⊢ e) == len(d) + 1;
      isEmpty(d) == d = empty
  implies
    Stack (head for top, tail for pop,
           ⊣ for push, len for size),
    Queue (⊣ for append, last for head,
           init for tail)
    C generated by empty, ⊣
    C partitioned by len, head, tail
    C partitioned by len, last, init
    ∀ d: C
      d ≠ empty
        ⇒ (head(d) ⊣ tail(d) = d
            ∧ init(d) ⊢ last(d) = d)
    converts head, last, tail, init, len
      exempting head(empty), last(empty),
        tail(empty), init(empty)
```

```
List (E, C): trait
  % Add singleton and concatenation
  includes Deque
  introduces
    {__}: E → C
    __ || __: C, C → C
  asserts ∀ e: E, ls, ls1, ls2: C
    {e} == empty ⊢ e;
    ls || empty == ls;
    ls1 || (ls2 ⊢ e) == (ls1 || ls2) ⊢ e
  implies
    C generated by empty, {__}, ||
    converts head, last, tail, init, len, {__}, ||
      exempting head(empty), last(empty),
        tail(empty), init(empty)

String (E, C): trait
  % Index, substring
  includes List
  introduces
    __[__]: C, Int → E
    prefix: C, Int → C
    removePrefix: C, Int → C
    substring: C, Int, Int → C
  asserts ∀ e: E, s: C, i, n: Int
    tail(empty) == empty;
    init(empty) == empty;
    s[0] == head(s);
    n ≥ 0 ⇒ s[n + 1] = tail(s)[n];
    prefix(empty, n) == empty;
    prefix(s, 0) == empty;
    n ≥ 0
      ⇒ prefix(e ⊣ s, n + 1) = e ⊣ prefix(s, n);
    removePrefix(s, 0) == s;
    n ≥ 0
      ⇒ removePrefix(s, n + 1)
         = removePrefix(tail(s), n);
    substring(s, 0, n) == prefix(s, n);
    i ≥ 0
      ⇒ substring(s, i + 1, n)
         = substring(tail(s), i, n)
  implies
    IndexOp (⊣ for insert)
    C partitioned by len, __[__]
    converts tail, init
```

```
Sequence (E, C): trait
  % Comparison, subsequences
  assumes StrictPartialOrder (>, E)
  includes
    LexicographicOrder,
    String
  introduces
    isPrefix, isSubstring, isSubsequence: C, C → Bool
    find: C, C → Int
  asserts ∀  e, e1, e2: E, s, s1, s2: C
    isPrefix(s1, s2) == s1 = prefix(s2, len(s1));
    isSubstring(s1, s2) ==
      isPrefix(s1, s2) ∨ isSubstring(s1, tail(s2));
    isSubsequence(empty, s);
    ¬isSubsequence(e ⊣ s, empty);
    isSubsequence(e1 ⊣ s1, e2 ⊣ s2) ==
      (e1 = e2 ∧ isSubsequence(s1, s2))
        ∨ isSubsequence(e1 ⊣ s1, s2);
    find(s1, s2) ==
      if isPrefix(s1, s2) then 0
      else find(s1, tail(s2)) + 1
  implies
    IsPO (isPrefix, C),
    IsPO (isSubstring, C),
    IsPO (isSubsequence, C)
    ∀ s, s1, s2: C, i, n: Int
      isPrefix(prefix(s, n), s);
      isSubstring(substring(s, i, n), s);
      isSubstring(s1, s2) ⇒ isSubsequence(s1, s2)
    converts
        isPrefix, isSubstring, isSubsequence, find
      exempting ∀ s: C, e: E  find(e ⊣ s, empty)
```

CONTENT ORDERED DATA STRUCTURES

```
PriorityQueue (>:E,E→Bool, E, C): trait
  % Enumerate by order on elements
  assumes TotalOrder (E for T)
  includes Integer
  introduces
    empty: → C
    add: E, C → C
    count: E, C → Int
    __ ∈ __: E, C → Bool
    head: C → E
    tail: C → C
    len: C → Int
    isEmpty: C → Bool
  asserts
    C generated by empty, add
    C partitioned by head, tail, isEmpty
    ∀ e, e1: E, q: C
      count(e, empty) == 0;
      count(e, add(e1, q)) ==
        count(e, q) + (if e = e1 then 1 else 0);
      e ∈ q == count(e, q) > 0;
      head(add(e, q)) ==
        if q = empty ∨ e > head(q) then e
        else head(q);
      tail(add(e, q)) ==
        if q = empty ∨ e > head(q) then q
        else add(e, tail(q));
      len(empty) == 0;
      len(add(e, q)) == len(q) + 1;
      isEmpty(q) == q = empty
  implies
    Container (add for insert)
    ∀ e, e1, e2: E, q: C
      add(e1, add(e2, q)) = add(e2, add(e1, q));
      len(q) ≥ 0;
      add(e, q) ≠ empty
    converts count, ∈, head, tail, len, isEmpty
      exempting head(empty), tail(empty)
```

```
ChoiceSet (E, C): trait
  % A set with a weakly-specified choose operator
  includes Set
  introduces
    choose: C → E
    rest: C → C
    isEmpty: C → Bool
  asserts ∀ e, e1: E, s: C
    s ≠ { } ⇒ choose(s) ∈ s;
    s ≠ { } ⇒ rest(s) = delete(choose(s), s);
    isEmpty(s) == s = { }
  implies
    C partitioned by choose, rest, isEmpty
    ∀ e: E, s: C
      s ≠ { } ⇒ s = insert(choose(s), rest(s))
```

```
ChoiceBag (E, C): trait
  % A bag with a weakly-specified choose operator
  includes Bag
  introduces
    choose: C → E
    rest: C → C
    isEmpty: C → Bool
  asserts ∀ e, e1: E, b: C
    b ≠ { } ⇒ choose(b) ∈ b;
    b ≠ { } ⇒ rest(b) = delete(choose(b), b);
    isEmpty(b) == b = { }
  implies
    Container (choose for head, rest for tail,
               { } for empty)
    C partitioned by choose, rest, isEmpty
    ∀ e: E, b: C
      b ≠ { } ⇒ b = insert(choose(b), rest(b))
```

ASSUMPTIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

```
InsertGenerated (E, C): trait
  % C's contain finitely many E's
  introduces
    empty: → C
    insert: E, C → C
  asserts
    C generated by empty, insert

Container (E, C): trait
  % head and tail enumerate contents of a C
  includes InsertGenerated, Integer
  introduces
    isEmpty: C → Bool
    count: E, C → Int
    __ ∈ __: E, C → Bool
    head: C → E
    tail: C → C
  asserts
    C partitioned by isEmpty, head, tail
    ∀ e, e1: E, c: C
      isEmpty(empty);
      ¬isEmpty(insert(e, c));
      count(e, empty) == 0;
      count(e, insert(e1, c)) ==
        count(e, c) + (if e = e1 then 1 else 0);
      e ∈ c == count(e, c) > 0;
      ¬isEmpty(c) ⇒
        count(e, insert(head(c), tail(c)))
          = count(e, c)
  implies
    ∀ c: C
      ¬isEmpty(c) ⇒ count(head(c), c) > 0;
    converts isEmpty, count, ∈
```

OPERATOR DEFINITIONS

```
MemberOp: trait
  assumes InsertGenerated
  introduces
    __ ∈ __, __ ∉ __: E, C → Bool
  asserts ∀ e, e1, e2: E, c: C
    e ∉ c == ¬(e ∈ c);
    e ∉ empty;
    e1 ∈ insert(e2, c) == e1 = e2 ∨ e1 ∈ c
  implies converts ∈, ∉

JoinOp (⋈): trait
  % Container combining operator
  % e.g., union, concatenation
  assumes InsertGenerated
  introduces __⋈ __: C, C → C
  asserts ∀ e: E, c, c1, c2: C
    empty ⋈ c == c;
    insert(e, c1) ⋈ c2 == insert(e, c1 ⋈ c2)
  implies
    Associative (⋈, C)
    converts ⋈

ReverseOp: trait
  % An operator on lists commonly used
  % to demonstrate theorem provers.
  assumes List
  introduces reverse: C → C
  asserts ∀ e: E, l, l1, l2: C
    reverse(empty) == empty;
    reverse(e ⊣ l) == reverse(l) ⊢ e
  implies ∀ e: E, l, l1, l2: C
      reverse(reverse(l)) == l;
      l ≠ empty ⇒ head(reverse(l)) = last(l);
      l ≠ empty
        ⇒ tail(reverse(l)) = reverse(init(l));
      len(reverse(l)) == len(l);
      reverse(l1 ‖ l2) == reverse(l2) ‖ reverse(l1)
    converts reverse
```

```
IndexOp: trait
  % Select the i-th  element in the container
  % (in enumeration order).
  assumes Integer, Container
  introduces __[__]: C, Int → E
  asserts ∀ c: C, i: Int
    c[0] == head(c);
    i ≥ 0 ⇒ c[i+1] = tail(c)[i]
```

`CoerceContainer (DC, RC)` defines an operator to convert from a term of one container sort, `DC`, to a term of another container sort, `RC`, with the same elements inserted in the same order. For example, a stack can be mapped to a queue. More interestingly, a list can be mapped to a bag, or a bag to a set; these mappings lose information on order and on multiplicity, respectively, so the inverse mappings would introduce inconsistencies.

```
CoerceContainer (DC, RC): trait
  % Insert each element of DC in a new RC
  assumes
    InsertGenerated (DC for C),
    InsertGenerated (RC for C)
  introduces coerce: DC → RC
  asserts ∀ dc: DC, e: E
    coerce(empty) == empty;
    coerce(insert(e, dc)) == insert(e, coerce(dc))
  implies converts coerce

Permutation (E, C): trait
  % Test for having the same elements
  assumes Container
  includes
    Bag (B for C),
    CoerceContainer (C for DC, B for RC)
  introduces isPermutation: C, C → Bool
  asserts ∀ c1, c2: C
      isPermutation(c1, c2) == coerce(c1) = coerce(c2)
  implies ∀ e: E, c1, c2: C
    isPermutation(c1, c2)
      ⇒ count(e, c1) = count(e, c2)
```

The following traits "promote" various operators on elements to corresponding operators on containers.

```
ElementTest (pass, E, C, T): trait
  % filter collects elements accepted by pass
  assumes InsertGenerated
  introduces
    pass: E, T → Bool
    filter: C, T → C
    allPass: C, T → Bool
    somePass: C, T → Bool
  asserts ∀ c: C, e: E, t: T
    filter(empty, t) == empty;
    filter(insert(e, c), t) ==
       if pass(e, t) then insert(e, filter(c, t))
       else filter(c, t);
    allPass(empty, t);
    allPass(insert(e, c), t) ==
      pass(e, t) ∧ allPass(c, t);
    somePass(c, t) == filter(c, t) ≠ empty
  implies converts filter, somePass, allPass
```

```
PairwiseExtension (∘, ⊙, E, C): trait
  % Induce a binary operator on containers
  % from a binary operator on elements.
  assumes Container (E, C)
  introduces
    __∘ __: E, E → E
    __⊙ __: C, C → C
  asserts ∀ e1, e2: E, c1, c2: C
    empty ⊙ empty == empty;
    (c1 ≠ empty ∧ c2 ≠ empty)
      ⇒ c1 ⊙ c2 = insert(head(c1) ∘ head(c2),
                              tail(c1) ⊙ tail(c2));
  implies converts ⊙
    exempting ∀ e: E, c: C
      empty ⊙ insert(e, c), insert(e, c) ⊙ empty
```

```
PointwiseImage: trait
  % Apply elemOp to each element
  assumes
    InsertGenerated (DE for E, DC for C),
    InsertGenerated (RE for E, RC for C)
  introduces
    elemOp: DE → RE
    containerOp: DC → RC
  asserts ∀ dc: DC, de: DE
    containerOp(empty) == empty;
    containerOp(insert(de, dc)) ==
      insert(elemOp(de), containerOp(dc))
  implies converts containerOp
```

```
ReduceContainer (unit, ∘): trait
  % Insert the operator in enumeration order.
  assumes Container
  introduces
    unit: → E
    __ ∘ __: E, E → E
    reduce: C → E
  asserts ∀ c: C
    reduce(c) ==
      if c = empty then unit
      else head(c) ∘ reduce(tail(c))
  implies converts reduce
```

A.6 Branching structures

DATA STRUCTURES

The following trait defines the operators on a list (of sort `C`), each of whose elements (of sort `E`) is either an atom (of sort `A`) or a list.

```
ListStructure (A, E, C): trait
  % Classical LISP
  includes List
  E union of list: C, atom: A
```

```
BinaryTree (E, T): trait
  % One of the many interesting tree structures
  introduces
    [__]: E → T
    [__, __]: T, T → T
    content: T → E
    first, second: T → T
    isLeaf: T → Bool
  asserts
    T generated by [__], [__, __]
    T partitioned by content, first, second, isLeaf
    ∀ e: E, t1, t2: T
      content([e]) == e;
      first([t1, t2]) == t1;
      second([t1, t2]) == t2;
      isLeaf([e]);
      ¬isLeaf([t1, t2])
  implies converts isLeaf
```

OPERATOR DEFINITIONS

```
ListStructureOps (A, E, C): trait
  % Operators frequently used in
  % theorem proving demonstrations.
  assumes ListStructure
  introduces
    flatten, reverseAll: C → C
    countAtoms: C → Int
  asserts ∀ a: A, l, l1, l2: C
    flatten(empty) == empty;
    flatten(atom(a) ⊣ l) == atom(a) ⊣ flatten(l);
    flatten(list(l1) ⊣ l2) ==
      flatten(l1) ‖ flatten(l2);
    reverseAll(empty) == empty;
    reverseAll(atom(a) ⊣ l) ==
      reverseAll(l) ⊢ atom(a);
    reverseAll(list(l1) ⊣ l2) ==
      reverseAll(l2) ⊢ list(reverseAll(l1));
    countAtoms(l) == len(flatten(l))
  implies
    ∀ l, l1, l2: C
      flatten(l1 ‖ l2) == flatten(l1) ‖ flatten(l2);
      flatten(flatten(l)) == flatten(l);
      reverseAll(l1 ‖ l2) ==
        reverseAll(l2) ‖ reverseAll(l1);
      reverseAll(flatten(l)) ==
        flatten(reverseAll(l));
      reverseAll(reverseAll(l)) == l;
      countAtoms(l1 ‖ l2) ==
        countAtoms(l1) + countAtoms(l2);
      countAtoms(flatten(l)) == countAtoms(l);
      countAtoms(reverseAll(l)) == countAtoms(l)
    converts flatten, reverseAll, countAtoms
```

A.7 Maps

DATA STRUCTURES

Arrays are heavily-used data structures; programming languages often provide a large number of operators. The following definitions are only a sample.

```
Array1 (E, I, A): trait
  % Basic one-dimensional array operators
  introduces
    assign: A, I, E → A
    __[__]: A, I → E
  asserts
    ∀ a: A, i, j: I, e: E
      assign(a, i, e)[j] ==
        if i = j then e else a[j]
```

```
Array2 (E, I1, I2, A): trait
  % Basic two-dimensional array operators
  introduces
    assign: A, I1, I2, E → A
    __[__, __]: A, I1, I2 → E
  asserts
    ∀ a: A, i1, j1: I1, i2, j2: I2, e: E
      assign(a, i1, i2, e)[j1, j2] ==
        if i1 = j1 ∧ i2 = j2 then e else a[j1, j2]
```

```
ArraySlice2 (E, I1, I2, A): trait
  % A two-dimensional array
  % treated as a vector of vectors
  includes
    Array1 (E, I2, A1),
    Array1 (A1, I1, A)
  introduces
    assign: A, I1, I2, E → A
    __[__, __]: A, I1, I2 → E
  asserts
    ∀ a: A, i1: I1, i2: I2, e: E
      a[i1, i2] == (a[i1])[i2];
      assign(a, i1, i2, e) ==
        assign(a, i1, assign(a[i1], i2, e))
```

The maps of the following trait are finitely generated by {} and `update`.

```
FiniteMap (M, D, R): trait
  % An M is a map from D's to R's.
  introduces
    { }: → M
    update: M, D, R → M
    apply: M, D → R
    defined: M, D → Bool
  asserts
    M generated by { }, update
    M partitioned by apply, defined
    ∀ m: M, d, d1, d2: D, r: R
      apply(update(m, d2, r), d1) ==
        if d1 = d2 then r else apply(m, d1);
      ¬defined({ }, d);
      defined(update(m, d2, r), d1) ==
        d1 = d2 ∨ defined(m, d1)
  implies
    Array1 (update for assign, apply for __[__],
            M for A, D for I, R for E)
    converts apply, defined
      exempting ∀ d: D apply({ }, d)
```

OPERATOR DEFINITION

```
ComposeMaps (M1, M2, D, T, R): trait
  % If m1 is a map from D to T
  % and m2 is a map from T to R,
  % m1 ∘ m2 is a map from D to R.
  assumes
    FiniteMap (M1, T, R),
    FiniteMap (M2, D, T)
  includes FiniteMap
  introduces __ ∘ __: M1, M2 → M
  asserts ∀ m1: M1, m2: M2, d: D
    apply(m1 ∘ m2, d) == apply(m1, apply(m2, d));
    defined(m1 ∘ m2, d) ==
      defined(m2, d) ∧ defined(m1, apply(m2, d))
```

A.8 Relations

DATA STRUCTURE

The following traits do not presume that the domain sort, E, is generated by any fixed set of operators. Subsets of E are represented by subrelations of the identity relation.

```
Relation (E, R): trait
  includes
    RelationBasics,
    RelationOps,
    RelationPredicates

RelationBasics (E, R): trait
  % e1 ⟨ r ⟩ e2 means e1 is related to e2 by r.
  introduces
    __ ⟨ __ ⟩ __: E, R, E → Bool
    ⊥, ⊤, I: → R
    [__, __]: E, E → R
    -__, __⁻¹: R → R
    __ ∪ __: R, R → R
  asserts
    R partitioned by __ ⟨ __ ⟩ __
    ∀ e, e1, e2, e3, e4: E, r, r1, r2: R
      ¬(e1 ⟨ ⊥ ⟩ e2);
      e1 ⟨ ⊤ ⟩ e2;
      e1 ⟨ I ⟩ e2 == e1 = e2;
      e1 ⟨ [e2, e3] ⟩ e4 == e1 = e2 ∧ e3 = e4;
      e1 ⟨ -r ⟩ e2 == ¬(e1 ⟨ r ⟩ e2);
      e1 ⟨ r⁻¹ ⟩ e2 == e2 ⟨ r ⟩ e1;
      e1 ⟨ r1 ∪ r2 ⟩ e2 == e1 ⟨ r1 ⟩ e2 ∨ e1 ⟨ r2 ⟩ e2
  implies
    AbelianMonoid (⊥ for unit, ∪ for ∘, R for T),
    Involutive (__⁻¹, R),
    Involutive (-__, R)
    equations
      -⊥ == ⊤;
      -⊤ == ⊥;
      ⊥⁻¹ == ⊥;
      ⊤⁻¹ == ⊤
    converts ∪, -__, __⁻¹
```

OPERATOR DEFINITIONS

The `skolem` operator is introduced solely to get around the absence of existential quantifiers in LSL.

```
RelationOps: trait
  % Useful non-primitive operators on relations.
  assumes RelationBasics
  includes
    DerivedOrders (R, ⊆ for ≤, ⊇ for ≥,
                   ⊂ for <, ⊃ for >)
  introduces
    __ ∈ __, __ ∉ __: E, R → Bool
    set, dom, range, __+, __*: R → R
    __ ∩ __, __ ∘ __, __ - __, __ × __: R, R → R
    domRestrict, rangeRestrict, image: R, R → R
    skolem: E, R, R, E → E
  asserts
    ∀ e, e1, e2, e3: E, r, r1, r2: R
      e ∈ r == e 〈 r 〉 e;
      e ∉ r == ¬(e ∈ r);
      set(r) == r ∩ I;
      dom(r) == set(r ∘ ⊤);
      range(r) == set(⊤ ∘ r);
      e1 〈 r1 ∩ r2 〉 e2 == e1 〈 r1 〉 e2 ∧ e1 〈 r2 〉 e2;
      (e1 〈 r1 〉 e2 ∧ e2 〈 r2 〉 e3)
        ⇒ e1 〈 r1 ∘ r2 〉 e3;
      e1 〈 r1 ∘ r2 〉 e2
        ⇒ (e1 〈 r1 〉 skolem(e1, r1, r2, e2)
          ∧ skolem(e1, r1, r2, e2) 〈 r2 〉 e2);
      r+ == r ∘ (r*);
      r* == I ∪ (r+);
      (r1 = I ∪ r2 ∧ r2 = r ∘ r1) ⇒
        ((r*) ⊆ r1 ∧ (r+) ⊆ r2);
      r1 - r2 == r1 ∩ (-r2);
      r1 × r2 == set(r1) ∘ ⊤ ∘ set(r2);
      r1 ⊆ r2 == r1 - r2 = ⊥;
      domRestrict(r1, r2) == r1 ∩ (r2 ∘ ⊤);
      image(r1, r2) == set(r1) ∘ r2;
      rangeRestrict(r1, r2) == r1 ∩ (⊤ ∘ r2)
```

```
  implies
    AbelianMonoid (⊤ for unit, ∩ for ∘, R for T),
    Distributive (∪ for +, ∩ for *, R for T),
    Distributive (∩ for +, ∪ for *, R for T),
    Idempotent (set, R),
    Monoid (I for unit, R for T),
    Lattice (R for T, ∪ for ⊔, ∩ for ⊓,
      ⊆ for ≤, ⊇ for ≥, ⊂ for <, ⊃ for >),
    PartialOrder (R, ⊆ for ≤, ⊇ for ≥, ⊂ for <,
      ⊃ for >)
    ∀ e: E, r, r1, r2: R
      e ∈ r == e ∈ set(r);
      -(r1 ∪ r2) == (-r1) ∩ (-r2);
      -(r1 ∩ r2) == (-r1) ∪ (-r2);
      (r1 ∘ r2)⁻¹ == (r2⁻¹) ∘ (r1⁻¹)
    converts
      ∈, ∉, set, dom, range, __⁺, __*, __-__, ×,
      ∪, ∩, ∘, -:R→R, ⁻¹, ⊆, ⊇, ⊂, ⊃,
      domRestrict, image, rangeRestrict

SetToRelation: trait
  % Map a (finitely generated) set
  % to the relation that represents it.
  assumes SetBasics, RelationBasics
  introduces
    relation: C → R
  asserts
    ∀ e: E, s: C
      relation({}) == ⊥;
      relation(insert(e, s)) == [e, e] ∪ relation(s)
  implies
    ∀ e: E, s: C
      e ∈ s == e ⟨ relation(s) ⟩ e
    converts relation
```

The predicates in the next trait are closely related to the theories defined in Section A.11, but they define the properties of relations treated as values, whereas Section A.11 defines properties of relations treated as operators. This duplication is a price of not using a higher-order logic in LSL.

```
RelationPredicates: trait
  % Tests for useful properties
  % of individual relations.
  assumes
    RelationBasics,
    RelationOps
  introduces
    antisymmetric, asymmetric, equivalence,
      functional, irreflexive, oneToOne, reflexive,
      symmetric, total, transitive: R → Bool
    into, onto: R, R → Bool
  asserts
    ∀ r, r1, r2: R
      antisymmetric(r) == (r ∩ (r⁻¹)) ⊆ I;
      asymmetric(r) == r ∩ (r⁻¹) = ⊥;
      equivalence(r) ==
        reflexive(r) ∧ symmetric(r) ∧ transitive(r);
      functional(r) == ((r⁻¹) ∘ r) ⊆ I;
      irreflexive(r) == r ∩ I = ⊥;
      oneToOne(r) == r ∘ (r⁻¹) = I;
      reflexive(r) == I ⊆ r;
      symmetric(r) == r = r⁻¹;
      total(r) == dom(r) = I;
      transitive(r) == r = r⁺;
      into(r1, r2) == range(r1) ⊆ set(r2);
      onto(r1, r2) == set(r2) ⊆ range(r1);
  implies converts
    antisymmetric, asymmetric, equivalence,
    functional, irreflexive, oneToOne, reflexive,
    symmetric, total, transitive, into, onto
```

A.9 Graph theory

```
Graph (N, G): trait
  % n1 ⟨ g ⟩ n2 means that there is
  % an edge from n1 to n2 in g
  includes Relation (N for E, G for R)
  introduces
    nodes, undirected: G → G
    isPath: N, N, G → Bool
    stronglyConnected, weaklyConnected: G → Bool
  asserts ∀ n1, n2: N, g: G
    undirected(g) == g ∪ (g⁻¹);
    nodes(g) == dom(g) ∪ range(g);
    isPath(n1, n2, g) == n1 ⟨ g* ⟩ n2;
    stronglyConnected(g) == g* = nodes(g) × nodes(g);
    weaklyConnected(g) ==
      stronglyConnected(undirected(g))
  implies
    ∀ n1, n2: N, g: G
      (stronglyConnected(g) ∧ n1 ∈ nodes(g)
          ∧ n2 ∈ nodes(g))
        ⇒ isPath(n1, n2, g)
```

A.10 Properties of single operators

```
Associative (∘, T): trait
  introduces __ ∘ __: T, T → T
  asserts ∀ x, y, z: T
    (x ∘ y) ∘ z == x ∘ (y ∘ z)

Commutative (∘, T, Range): trait
  introduces __ ∘ __: T, T → Range
  asserts ∀ x, y: T
    x ∘ y == y ∘ x

AC (∘, T): trait
  introduces __ ∘ __: T, T → T
  asserts ∀ x, y, z: T
    (x ∘ y) ∘ z == x ∘ (y ∘ z);
    x ∘ y == y ∘ x
  implies
    Associative,
    Commutative (T for Range)

Idempotent (op, T): trait
  introduces op: T → T
  asserts ∀ x: T
    op(op(x)) == op(x)

Involutive (op, T): trait
  introduces op: T → T
  asserts ∀ x: T
    op(op(x)) == x
```

A.11 Properties of relational operators

Compare with `RelationPredicates`, page 189

```
Antisymmetric (◇): trait
  introduces __ ◇ __: T, T → Bool
  asserts ∀ x, y: T
    (x ◇ y ∧ y ◇ x) ⇒ x = y

Asymmetric (◇): trait
  introduces __ ◇ __: T, T → Bool
  asserts ∀ x, y: T
    x ◇ y ⇒ ¬(y ◇ x)

Functional (◇): trait
  introduces __ ◇ __: T, T → Bool
  asserts ∀ x, y, z: T
    (x ◇ y ∧ x ◇ z) ⇒ y = z;

Irreflexive (◇): trait
  introduces __ ◇ __: T, T → Bool
  asserts ∀ x: T
    ¬(x ◇ x)

OneToOne (◇): trait
  introduces __ ◇ __: T, T → Bool
  asserts ∀ x, y, z: T
    (x ◇ y ∧ x ◇ z) ⇒ y = z;
    (x ◇ z ∧ y ◇ z) ⇒ x = y;

Reflexive (◇): trait
  introduces __ ◇ __: T, T → Bool
  asserts ∀ x: T
    x ◇ x

Symmetric (◇): trait
  introduces __ ◇ __: T, T → Bool
  asserts ∀ x, y: T
    x ◇ y == y ◇ x
  implies Commutative (◇ for ∘, Bool for Range)
```

```
Transitive (◇): trait
  introduces __ ◇ __: T, T → Bool
  asserts ∀ x, y, z: T
    (x ◇ y ∧ y ◇ z) ⇒ x ◇ z

Equivalence: trait
  includes
    (Reflexive, Symmetric, Transitive)(≡ for ◇)

Equality (T): trait
  % This trait is given for documentation only.
  % It is implicit in LSL.
  introduces __ = __, __ ≠ __: T, T → Bool
  asserts
    T partitioned by =
    ∀ x, y, z: T
      x = x;
      x = y == y = x;
      (x = y ∧ y = z) ⇒ x = z;
      x ≠ y == ¬(x = y)
  implies Equivalence (= for ≡)
```

A.12 Orderings

PARTIAL AND TOTAL ORDERS

```
IsPO (≤, T): trait
  % ≤ is a partial order on T
  introduces __≤__: T, T → Bool
  asserts ∀ x, y, z: T
    x ≤ x;
    (x ≤ y ∧ y ≤ z) ⇒ x ≤ z;
    x ≤ y ∧ y ≤ x == x = y
  implies
    Antisymmetric (≤),
    PreOrder,
    Reflexive (≤),
    Transitive (≤)
    T partitioned by ≤

PartialOrder (T): trait
  includes IsPO, DerivedOrders
  implies
    PartialOrder (> for <, < for >,
                  ≥ for ≤, ≤ for ≥),
    StrictPartialOrder (<, T)

IsTO (≤, T): trait
  % ≤ is a total order on T
  introduces __≤__: T, T → Bool
  asserts ∀ x, y, z: T
    x ≤ x;
    (x ≤ y ∧ y ≤ z) ⇒ x ≤ z;
    x ≤ y ∧ y ≤ x == x = y;
    x ≤ y ∨ y ≤ x
  implies IsPO, TotalPreOrder

TotalOrder (T): trait
  includes IsTO, DerivedOrders
  implies
    PartialOrder,
    StrictTotalOrder (<, T),
    TotalOrder (≥ for ≤, ≤ for ≥,
                > for <, < for >)
    T partitioned by <
```

ASSUMPTIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

```
PreOrder (≤, T): trait
  includes Reflexive (≤), Transitive (≤)
  implies ∀ x, y, z: T
    x ≤ x;
    (x ≤ y ∧ y ≤ z) ⇒ x ≤ z
```

```
TotalPreOrder (≤, T): trait
  includes PreOrder
  asserts ∀ x, y: T
    x ≤ y ∨ y ≤ x
```

```
StrictPartialOrder (<, T): trait
  includes Irreflexive (<), Transitive (<)
  implies
    Asymmetric (<)
    ∀ x, y, z: T
      ¬(x < x);
      (x < y ∧ y < z) ⇒ x < z
```

```
StrictTotalOrder (<, T): trait
  includes StrictPartialOrder
  asserts ∀ x, y: T
    x < y ∨ y < x ∨ x = y
```

OPERATOR DEFINITIONS

```
DerivedOrders (T): trait
  % Define any three of the comparison operators,
  % given the fourth
  introduces
    __≤__, __≥__, __<__, __>__: T, T → Bool
  asserts ∀ x, y: T
    x ≤ y == x < y ∨ x = y;
    x < y == x ≤ y ∧ ¬(x = y);
    x ≥ y == y ≤ x;
    x > y == y < x
  implies
    converts ≥, <, >
    converts ≤, <, >
    converts ≤, ≥, >
    converts ≤, ≥, <
```

```
MinMax (T): trait
  assumes TotalOrder
  introduces
    min, max: T, T → T
  asserts ∀ x, y: T
    min(x, y) == if x ≤ y then x else y;
    max(x, y) == if x ≥ y then x else y
  implies
    AC (min, T),
    AC (max, T)
    converts min, max
```

```
LexicographicOrder (E, C): trait
  % "Dictionary" order on C
  assumes
    Container,
    StrictTotalOrder (<, E)
  includes DerivedOrders (C)
  asserts ∀ c1, c2: C
    c1 < c2 ==
        c2 ≠ empty
          ∧ (c1 = empty
              ∨ (if head(c1) = head(c2)
                  then tail(c1) < tail(c2)
                  else head(c1) < head(c2)))
  implies
    TotalOrder (C)
    converts ≤:C,C→Bool, ≥:C,C→Bool,
      <:C,C→Bool, >:C,C→Bool
```

A.13 Lattice theory

```
GreatestLowerBound (T): trait
  introduces
    __ ≤ __: T, T → Bool
    __ ⊓ __: T, T → T
  asserts ∀ x, y, z: T
    (x ⊓ y) ≤ x;
    (x ⊓ y) ≤ y;
    (z ≤ x ∧ z ≤ y) ⇒ z ≤ (x ⊓ y)

Semilattice (T): trait
  assumes PartialOrder
  includes GreatestLowerBound
  introduces
    ⊥: → T
    __⊔ __: T, T → T
  asserts ∀ x, y, z: T
    ⊥ ≤ x;
    x ⊔ y == y ⊔ x;
    x ⊓ y == y ⊓ x;
    x ≤ (x ⊔ y);
    (x ≤ z ∧ y ≤ z) ⇒ (x ⊔ y) ≤ z
  implies
    AbelianMonoid (⊔ for ∘, ⊥ for unit),
    AbelianSemigroup (⊓ for ∘)

Lattice (T): trait
  assumes PartialOrder
  includes Semilattice
  introduces ⊤: → T
  asserts ∀ x: T
    x ≤ ⊤
  implies
    Lattice (⊔ for ⊓, ⊓ for ⊔, ⊤ for ⊥, ⊥ for ⊤,
             ≤ for ≥, ≥ for ≤, < for >, > for <)
```

A.14 Group theory

```
Semigroup: trait
  introduces __∘ __: T, T → T
  asserts ∀ x, y, z: T
    (x ∘ y) ∘ z == x ∘ (y ∘ z)
  implies Associative

LeftIdentity: trait
  introduces
    __ ∘ __: T, T → T
    unit: → T
  asserts ∀ x: T
    unit ∘ x == x

RightIdentity: trait
  introduces
    __ ∘ __: T, T → T
    unit: → T
  asserts ∀ x: T
    x ∘ unit == x

Identity: trait
  includes LeftIdentity, RightIdentity

Monoid: trait
  introduces
     __∘ __: T, T → T
    unit: → T
  asserts ∀ x, y, z: T
    (x ∘ y) ∘ z == x ∘ (y ∘ z);
    unit ∘ x == x;
    x ∘ unit == x
  implies Semigroup, Identity

LeftInverse: trait
  assumes LeftIdentity
  introduces __⁻¹: T → T
  asserts ∀ x: T
    (x⁻¹) ∘ x == unit
```

```
RightInverse: trait
  assumes RightIdentity
  introduces __⁻¹: T → T
  asserts ∀ x: T
    x ∘ (x⁻¹) == unit

Inverse: trait
  assumes Identity, Semigroup
  includes LeftInverse, RightInverse
  implies
    Involutive (__⁻¹ for op)
    ∀ x, y: T
      unit⁻¹ == unit;
      (x ∘ y)⁻¹ == (y⁻¹) ∘ (x⁻¹)

Group: trait
  introduces
    __∘ __: T, T → T
    unit: → T
    __⁻¹: T → T
  asserts ∀ x, y, z: T
    (x ∘ y) ∘ z == x ∘ (y ∘ z);
    unit ∘ x == x;
    (x⁻¹) ∘ x == unit;
  implies Monoid, Inverse

Abelian: trait
  introduces __ ∘ __: T, T → T
  asserts ∀ x, y: T
    x ∘ y == y ∘ x
  implies Commutative (T for Range)

AbelianSemigroup: trait
  includes Abelian, Semigroup
  implies AC

AbelianMonoid: trait
  includes Abelian, Monoid

AbelianGroup: trait
  includes Abelian, Group
```

```
LeftDistributive (+, *, T): trait
  introduces
    __+__, __*__: T, T → T
  asserts ∀ x, y, z: T
    x * (y + z) == (x * y) + (x * z)

RightDistributive (+, *, T): trait
  introduces
    __+__, __*__: T, T → T
  asserts ∀ x, y, z: T
    (y + z) * x == (y * x) + (z * x)

Distributive (+, *, T): trait
  includes LeftDistributive, RightDistributive

Ring: trait
  includes
    AbelianGroup (+ for ∘, 0 for unit, -__ for ⁻¹),
    Semigroup (* for ∘),
    Distributive (+, *, T)

RingWithUnit: trait
  includes Ring, Monoid (* for ∘, 1 for unit)

Field: trait
  includes
    RingWithUnit,
    Abelian (* for ∘)
  introduces __⁻¹: T → T
  asserts ∀ x: T
    x ≠ 0 ⇒ x * (x⁻¹) = 1
```

A.15 Number theory

This section presents a series of traits dealing with operators on whole numbers. The following section deals with operators on rational and floating point numbers.

DATA TYPES

```
Natural (N): trait
  % The usual operators on the natural numbers,
  % starting from 0.
  includes
    ArithOps (N),
    DecimalLiterals,
    Exponentiation (N),
    MinMax (N),
    TotalOrder (N)
  introduces
    __ ⊖ __: N, N → N
  asserts
    N generated by 0, succ
    ∀ x, y: N
      succ(x) ≠ 0;
      succ(x) = succ(y) == x = y;
      x < succ(x);
      0 ⊖ x == 0;
      x ⊖ 0 == x;
      succ(x) ⊖ succ(y) == x ⊖ y
  implies
    NaturalOrder
    N generated by 0, 1, +
    ∀ x, y: N
      x ⊖ x == 0;
      x ≤ y == x ⊖ y = 0
    converts 1:→N, +, ⊖, *, div, mod,
        **, min, max, ≤, ≥, <, >
      exempting ∀ x: N
        div(x, 0), mod(x, 0)
```

```
Positive (P): trait
  % Basic operators on natural numbers,
  % starting from 1
  includes DecimalLiterals (P for N), TotalOrder (P)
  introduces
    1: → P
    succ: P → P
    __+__, __*__: P, P → P
  asserts
    P generated by 1, succ
    ∀ x, y: P
      x + 1 == succ(x);
      x + succ(y) == succ(x + y);
      x*1 == x;
      x*succ(y) == x + (x*y);
      x < succ(x)
  implies
    NaturalOrder (P for N, 1 for 0)
    P generated by 1, +
    converts +, *, ≤, ≥, <, >
```

```
IntCycle (first, last, N): trait
  % A finite subrange of the integers that includes 0,
  % and wraps at succ(last)
  includes
    ArithOps (N),
    DecimalLiterals,
    MinMax (N),
    TotalOrder (N)
  introduces
    first, last: → N
    pred, -__, abs: N → N
    __-__: N, N → N
  asserts
    N generated by 0, succ
    ∀ x, y: N
      succ(last) == first;
      pred(succ(x)) == x;
      succ(pred(x)) == x;
      -0 == 0;
      -succ(x) == pred(-x);
      abs(x) == if x < 0 then -x else x;
      x - y == x + (-y);
      x ≠ last ⇒ x < succ(x)
  implies
    Distributive (+, *, N),
    RingWithUnit (N for T)
    N generated by 0, pred
    ∀ x: N
      pred(first) == last;
      first ≤ x;
      x ≤ last;
      -(-x) == x
    converts
      pred, -__:N→N, abs, __-__:N,N→N,
      1:→N, +, *, max, min, ≤, ≥, <, >

SignedInt (maxSigned, N): trait
  % Typical machine arithmetic, signed complement.
  includes IntCycle (minSigned, maxSigned, N)
  asserts equations
    succ(minSigned) == -maxSigned
  implies equations
    minSigned + maxSigned == -1;
    abs(minSigned) == minSigned
```

```
UnsignedInt (maxUnsigned, N): trait
  % Typical machine arithmetic, unsigned.
  includes IntCycle (0, maxUnsigned, N)
```

ASSUMPTIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

`Enumerable` requires only that each value of sort `N` must be reachable by applying `succ` to `0` a finite number of times. `Infinite` requires that the values yielded by `succ` are all distinct. The inclusion of `TotalOrder` in `NaturalOrder` ensures that `succ(x)` is always greater than `x`, and hence that there are infinitely many distinct values of sort `N`.

```
Enumerable (N): trait
  introduces
    0: → N
    succ: N → N
  asserts
    N generated by 0, succ

Infinite (N): trait
  introduces
    0: → N
    succ: N → N
  asserts ∀ x, y: N
    succ(x) ≠ 0;
    succ(x) = succ(y) == x = y

NaturalOrder (N): trait
  % The natural numbers with an ordering
  includes
    Enumerable (N),
    TotalOrder (N)
  asserts ∀ x: N
    x < succ(x)
  implies
    Infinite (N)
    ∀ x, y: N
      0 ≤ x;
      x < succ(y) == x ≤ y;
      succ(x) < succ(y) == x < y
    converts ≤, ≥, <, >
```

OPERATOR DEFINITIONS

```
Addition (N): trait
  % Define the operator + in terms of 0 and succ
  includes AbelianMonoid(+ for ∘, 0 for unit, N for T)
  introduces
    0: → N
    succ: N → N
    __+__: N, N → N
  asserts ∀ x, y: N
    x + 0 == x;
    x + succ(y) == succ(x + y)

Multiplication (N): trait
  % Define the operator * in terms of 0, succ, and +
  includes
    AbelianMonoid (* for ∘, 1 for unit, N for T),
    Addition (N)
  introduces
    1: → N
    __*__: N, N → N
  asserts ∀ x, y: N
    1 == succ(0);
    x * 0 == 0;
    x * succ(y) == x + (x * y)

ArithOps (N): trait
  % Defines operators div and mod relative to + and *
  % for positive denominators
  assumes TotalOrder (N)
  includes Multiplication (N)
  introduces
    div, mod: N, N → N
  asserts ∀ x, y: N
    y > 0
      ⇒ (0 ≤ mod(x, y)
          ∧ mod(x, y) < y
          ∧ (mod(x, y) + (div(x, y) * y)) = x)
```

```
Exponentiation (T): trait
  % Repeatedly apply an infix * operator
  assumes
    Enumerable (N),
    Monoid (* for ∘, 1 for unit)
  introduces __**__: T, N → T
  asserts ∀ x: T, y: N
    x**0 == 1;
    x**succ(y) == x * (x**y)
  implies ∀ x: T
    x**succ(0) == x

IntegerAndNatural (Int, N): trait
  % Conversions between Int’s and N’s
  includes
    Integer (Int),
    Natural (N)
  introduces
    int: N → Int
    nat: Int → N
  asserts ∀ n: N
    int(0) == 0;
    int(succ(n)) == succ(int(n));
    nat(int(n)) == n

IntegerAndPositive (Int, P): trait
  % Conversions between Int’s and P’s
  includes
    Integer (Int),
    Positive (P)
  introduces
    int: P → Int
    pos: Int → P
  asserts ∀ p: P
    int(1) == 1;
    int(succ(p)) == succ(int(p));
    pos(int(p)) == p
```

A.16 Floating point arithmetic

The trait `Rational` provides enough of a theory of rational arithmetic to specify the properties of floating point arithmetic.

```
Rational: trait
  % For use in the trait FloatingPoint.
  includes
    Exponentiation (Q for T, P for N),
    IntegerAndPositive (Int, P),
    MinMax (Q),
    TotalOrder (Q)
  introduces
    __/__: Int, P → Q
    0, 1: → Q
    -__, __⁻¹, abs: Q → Q
    __+__, __*__, __-__, __/__: Q, Q → Q
  asserts
    Q generated by __/__:Int,P→Q
    ∀ i, i1, i2: Int, p, p1, p2, p3: P, q, q1, q2: Q
      0/p == 0;
      int(p)/p == 1;
      i1/p1 = i2/p2 == i1 * int(p2) = i2 * int(p1);
      -(i/p) == (-i)/p;
      (int(p1)/p2)⁻¹ == int(p2)/p1;
      (-q)⁻¹ == -(q⁻¹);
      abs(i/p) == abs(i)/p;
      (i1/p) + (i2/p) == (i1 + i2)/p;
      (i1/p1) * (i2/p2) == (i1 * i2)/(p1 * p2);
      q1 - q2 == q1 + (-q2);
      q1/q2 == q1 * (q2⁻¹);
      (i1/p) < (i2/p) == i1 < i2
  implies
    AC (+, Q),
    AC (*, Q),
    Field (Q for T)
    ∀ i, i1, i2: Int, p, p1, p2, p3: P, q: Q
      q + 0 == q;
      -q == 0 - q;
      (i1/p) - (i2/p) == (i1 - i2)/p;
      q * 0 == 0;
      q * 1 == q;
      q⁻¹ == 1/q;
      (i/p1)/(int(p2)/p3) == (i * int(p3))/(p1 * p2)
```

```
converts
    0:→Q, 1:→Q, -:Q →Q, ⁻¹, abs:Q →Q,
    +:Q,Q→Q, -:Q,Q→Q, *:Q,Q→Q, /:Q,Q→Q,
    **:Q,P→Q, min:Q,Q→Q, max:Q,Q→Q,
    <:Q,Q→Bool, >:Q,Q→Bool,
    ≤:Q,Q→Bool, ≥:Q,Q→Bool
  exempting 0⁻¹
```

The following traits define a theory of floating point arithmetic that is weak enough to be satisfied by many floating point implementations, yet strong enough to allow reasoning about floating point arithmetic. Careful analysis of any particular floating point system should lead to tighter bounds on the errors due to inexact arithmetic, and might even lead to some useful identities, such as $(f_1 + f_2) + f_3 = f_1 + (f_2 + f_3)$.

The basic idea is this: Every floating point number exactly represents some rational number, returned by the operator `rational`. Each floating point operator approximates a corresponding rational operator, but cannot always be be exact. The exact answer may not even be representable. Furthermore, floating point arithmetic does not generally guarantee to produce even the closest representable value. So each floating point operator may introduce an error that depends on:

- the magnitude of the operand(s),
- the magnitude of the exact and approximate results,
- properties of the floating point representation used.

Three parameters characterize the representation: `smallest` and `largest` denote the least and the greatest representable positive values, respectively, and `gap`, the largest relative difference between any pair of consecutive representable positive values. `FPAssumptions` specifies relations that must hold among these parameters and the operator `rational` (which converts floating point numbers to their exact rational values) in order for `FloatingPoint` to characterize a valid floating point number system.

```
FPAssumptions (smallest, largest,
               gap, rational): trait
  includes Rational
  introduces
    smallest, largest, gap: → Q
    rational: F → Q
    float: Q → F
    0, 1: → F
  asserts ∀ f: F
    smallest > 0;
    largest > smallest;
    rational(0) == 0;
    rational(1) == 1;
    rational(f) ≠ 0 ⇒ abs(rational(f)) ≥ smallest;
    rational(f) ≤ largest;
    gap > 0;
    float(rational(f)) == f;
```

The predicate `approx(f, q, t)` compares the result `f` of a floating point operation to the exact rational value `q` of that operation; the predicate is true if the result is "close enough" to the exact value (i.e., within a tolerance `t`), or if the exact value is too big to be represented.

We have not axiomatized the properties of the IEEE standard's non-numeric floating point values (NaN's). We leave that as an exercise for numerical analysts, in the expectation that an accurate characterization is separable from the numerical properties. It might be more complex than anything we have specified in this handbook.

```
FloatingPoint (smallest, largest,
               gap, rational): trait
  assumes FPAssumptions
  includes
    Rational,
    TotalOrder (F)
  introduces
    mag: F → Q
    approx: F, Q, Q → Bool
    -__, abs, __⁻¹: F → F
    __+__, __*__, __-__, __/__: F, F → F
  asserts
    F generated by float
    ∀ f, f1, f2: F, q, t: Q
      f1 ≤ f2 == rational(f1) ≤ rational(f2);
      mag(f) == abs(rational(f));
      approx(f, q, t) ==
        abs(q) ≤ largest
          ⇒ abs(rational(f) - q)
              ≤ (smallest +
                   (gap*(mag(f) + abs(q) + t)));
      approx(-f, -rational(f), 0);
      f ≠ 0 ⇒ approx(f⁻¹, rational(f)⁻¹, 0);
      approx(abs(f), mag(f), 0);
      approx(f1 + f2, rational(f1) + rational(f2),
              mag(f1) + mag(f2));
      approx(f1 * f2, rational(f1) * rational(f2), 0);
      approx(f1 - f2, rational(f1) - rational(f2),
              mag(f1) + mag(f2));
      f2 ≠ 0
        ⇒ approx(f1/f2, rational(f1)/rational(f2), 0)
```

Appendix C

Lexical Forms and Initialization Files

The Larch languages were designed for use with an open-ended collection of programming languages, support tools, and input/output facilities, each of which may have its own lexical conventions and capabilities. To conform to local conventions and to exploit locally available capabilities, character and token classes are extensible and can be tailored for particular purposes by *initialization files*.

In this appendix we give the LSL and LCL initialization files used for the examples in this book. We also give the ISO Latin codes used for typing the special symbols appearing in specifications in this book.

The book was produced using LaTeX with a Larch style file. That allowed us to type specifications using the ISO Latin codes given here, and have them appear in the text as special symbols.

LCL init file

```
commentSym //

opChar       ~!#$&?@|

selectSym    .

synonym      \and         /\
synonym      \or          \/
synonym      \implies     =>
synonym      \marker      __
synonym      \eq          ==
synonym      \neq         !=
synonym      \not         !
synonym      \not         not
synonym      \not         ~
synonym      \pre         ^
synonym      \post        '
synonym      \arrow       ->
synonym      \arrow       \ra
```

LSL init file

```
commentSym  %

idChar      '
opChar      ~!#$&?@|
singleChar  ;

openSym     [ { \< \langle
closeSym    ] } \> \rangle
selectSym   .

simpleId    \bot \top

synonym     \and        /\
synonym     \and        &
synonym     \or         \/
synonym     \or         |
synonym     \implies    =>
synonym     \not        !
synonym     \not        not
synonym     \not        ~
synonym     \eq         =
synonym     \neq        !=
synonym     \neq        ~=
synonym     \arrow      ->
synonym     \marker     __
synonym     \equals     ==
synonym     \forall     forall
synonym     \eqsep      ;

% Following used for checking LCL

synonym     Bool        bool
synonym     Int         int
synonym     Int         signed_char
synonym     Int         unsigned_char
synonym     Int         short_int
synonym     Int         long_int
synonym     Int         unsigned_short_int
synonym     Int         unsigned_int
synonym     Int         unsigned_long_int
synonym     double      float
synonym     double      long_double
```

ISO Latin codes for special characters

$\rightarrow$ is written as `->`

$\leq$ is written as `<=`

$\geq$ is written as `>=`

$\neq$ is written as `~=`

$\neg$ is written as `~`

$\vee$ is written as `\/`

$\wedge$ is written as `/\`

$\Rightarrow$ is written as `=>`

$\forall$ is written as `\forall`

$\exists$ is written as `\exists`

$\bullet$ is written as `\any`

* is written as `\*`

$^+$ is written as `\+`

$^{-1}$ is written as `\inv`

$\langle$ is written as `\<`

$\rangle$ is written as `\>`

$\in$ is written as `\in`

$\notin$ is written as `\notin`

$\cap$ is written as `\I`

$\cup$ is written as `\U`

$\subset$ is written as `\subset`

$\subseteq$ is written as `\subseteq`

$\supset$ is written as `\supset`

$\supseteq$ is written as `\supseteq`

$\dashv$ is written as `-|`

$\vdash$ is written as `|-`

$\|$ is written as `||`

$\cdot$ is written as `\cdot`

$\circ$ is written as `\circ`

$\dashv$ is written as `\precat`

$\vdash$ is written as `\postcat`

$\perp$ is written as `\bot`

$\top$ is written as `\top`

$\sqcap$ is written as `\glb`

$\sqcup$ is written as `\lub`

$\ominus$ is written as `\ominus`

$\diamond$ is written as `\rel`

$\times$ is written as `\times`

Appendix D

Further Information and Tools

This appendix contains a list of currently available Larch tools.

Readers interested in keeping up with new developments should subscribe to the electronic mailing list `larch-interest@src.dec.com`. This list is used for announcements and queries of general interest. Requests to be added to (or deleted from) this list, as well as more specialized queries, should be sent to `larch-interest-request@src.dec.com`.

All information in this section is current as of October 1992. An updated version will be kept online on the internet host `gatekeeper.dec.com`. It will be available for anonymous ftp as

```
/pub/DEC/Larch/Information.tex
```

1. **lsl**. Larch Shared Language Checker. Syntax and sort checks LSL specifications. Translates LSL into **lp** input. Contact: Stephen Garland, MIT.

2. **lcl**. Syntax and type checker for LCL. Interfaces with **lsl**. Contact: Stephen Garland, MIT.

3. **lm3**. Syntax and type checker for Modula-3 interface specifications written in LM3. Interfaces with **lsl**. Contact: Kevin Jones, DEC.

4. **lp**. Larch Prover. Proof checker for fragment of first-order logic with equality. Contact: Stephen Garland, MIT.

5. **gcil**. Generic Concurrent Interface Language (GCIL) Checker. Syntax and type checks GCIL specifications. Interfaces with **lsl**. Contact: Jeannette Wing, CMU.

6. **Penelope**. Verification tool for Larch/Ada specifications and Ada programs. Contact: M. Stillman, ORA.

7. **Larch/Smalltalk Browser**. Syntax and sort/type checker and browser for Larch/Smalltalk and LSL specifications. Contact: Gary Leavens, ISU.

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Appendix E

Classified Bibliography

This bibliography was started by Jeannette Wing and augmented by Yang Meng Tan. It is available by anonymous `ftp` from Internet node `larch.lcs.mit.edu` as `/pub/larch-bib/larch-bib.tex`. Suggested additions for the online version should be sent to `ymtan@lcs.mit.edu`. Full citations for all references are given in the next section.

Papers about Larch

CURRENT WORK

Reports about the current status of several Larch-related projects are contained in [66].

LARCH LANGUAGES

Larch Interface Languages: generic [16, 53, 61, 88]; Ada [37]; C [26, 80]; C++ [60]; CLU [86]; ML [93]; Modula-3 [55, 56, 57]; Smalltalk [17].
Larch and other methods: [95].

LARCH TOOLS

LP, the Larch proof assistant: [30]; a beginner's strategy guide [81]; an extension [83]; [5, 11, 18, 19, 76, 84].
For LSL [7, 59]; for LCL [26]; for LM3 [57].

Example specifications

Apple MAC Toolbox: [13].
Avalon built-in classes, examples (queue, directory, counter): [92], [89], and [61].
Display: [43].
Finite element analysis library: [3, 1].
Garbage collection: [22].

IOStreams: [55].
Larch/Ada: [15, 37].
Library: [87].
Miro languages and editor: [94, 99].
Thread synchronization primitives: [6, 69].
Using specifications to search software libraries: [73].

Proofs using LP

Ada programs: [38]
Avalon queue example: [92, 35, 91].
Circuit examples: [18, 32, 78, 75, 79].
Mathematical Theorems: [65].
Temporal Logic of Actions: [25].

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