

Declarative specification and calculation in view of software evolution⁰

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Overview

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1. **Functionals for transformation** (induction: collecting the tools)
2. **Making the functionals generic** (design: generalizing the tools)
3. **Functional predicate calculus** (deduction: applying the new tools)
4. **Conclusion**

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0 Motivation

- **Software evolution**
 - a. Software systems
 - b. Design media (languages, software engineering tools)
 - c. Intellectual means (paradigms, models)
 - d. ...
- **Evolution-insensitive methods and means**
 - Support for **(abstract) specification** and **symbolic reasoning**
for a, b, c, d ...
 - Program-like formalisms too **detailed, implementation-oriented**
and **unsuitable for human discourse and reasoning**
 - Declarative formalisms meet the needs, provided they meet their own ideals
 - * Functional and logic programming formalisms are still algorithmicOnly “genuine” declarativity can meet the objectives
 - * Mathematics as the proven formalism in other branches of engineering

- **Observation** (Reynolds):

In designing a programming language, the central problem is to organize a variety of concepts in a way which exhibits uniformity and generality. Substantial leverage can be gained in attacking this problem if the concepts can be defined concisely within a framework which has already proven its ability to impose uniformity and generality upon a wide variety of mathematics

- **Problem with the existing formalisms of mathematics**

- Intended for informal and semi-formal (human) discourse
- Heterogeneous mixture of very well-designed parts and very ad hoc designs
 - * Well-designed parts in algebra and analysis (due to Descartes and Leibniz)
 - * Ad hoc designs in discrete mathematics, logic and computer science (with exceptions)
- In software engineering, the highest standards of formality and precision are imposed by the discrete nature of the subject

1 Functionals for transformation

1.0 Functional Mathematics

- **Principle:** (re)defining mathematical objects, whenever feasible, as functions.
- **Advantages**
 - Conceptual: uniformity in treatment while respecting (only) essential differences
 - Practical: sharing general-purpose operators over functions
- **Example:** sequences (tuples, lists, ...)
 - Motivation for this choice: “interface” between discrete and continuous mathematics
 - Wide ramifications:
 - * Removal of all conventions having poor calculational properties
Worst kind of violation: against Leibniz’s principle
(equals replaceable by equals, no exceptions)
Example: ellipsis $a_0 + a_1 + \dots + a_7$
Letting $a_i = i^2$ yields $0 + 1 + \dots + 49$
 - * Replacement by well-defined operators and algebraic calculation rules
 - Importance: mathematical software, OpenMath etc.

- **Sequences as functions**

- Principle: $(a, b, c) 0 = a$ and $(a, b, c) 1 = b$ and $(a, b, c) 2 = c$
- Intuitively trivial, yet:
 - * in the literature handled often as entirely or subtly distinct from functions,
 - * in the few exceptions, functional properties left unexploited.
- Examples of functional properties of sequences
 - * Inverses: $(a, b, c, d)^{-1} c = 2$
 - * Composition: $(0, 3, 5, 7) \circ (2, 3, 1) = 5, 7, 3$ and $f \circ (x, y) = f x, f y$
 - * Transposition: $(f, g)^T x = f x, g x$

Seemingly secondary, but very useful once discovered

- Not obtainable by the usual formal treatments of lists, e.g.,
 - * recursive definition: $[]$ is a list and, if x is a list, so is $\text{cons } a x$
 - * index function separate: $\text{ind } (\text{cons } a x) 0 = a$ and $\text{ind } (\text{cons } a x) (n + 1) = \text{ind } x n$
e.g., in Haskell: $\text{ind } [a:x] 0 = a$ and $\text{ind } [a:x] (n + 1) = x n$

• **Function(al)s for sequences**

- Domain specification: “block” \square

$$\square n = \{k : \mathbb{N} \mid k < n\} \text{ for } n : \mathbb{N} \text{ or } n := \infty$$

- Length: $\#$

$$\# x = n \equiv \mathcal{D} x = \square n, \text{ equivalently: } \mathcal{D} x = \square (\# x), \text{ even } \# x = \square^- (\mathcal{D} x)$$

- Prefix: \succ

$$\begin{aligned} \# (a \succ x) &= \# x + 1 \text{ and} \\ i \in \mathcal{D} (a \succ x) &\Rightarrow (i = 0) ? a \dagger x (i - 1) \end{aligned}$$

Observe use of the conditional: $c ? b \dagger a = (a, b)c$.

- Shift: σ (for nonempty x)

$$\begin{aligned} \# (\sigma x) &= \# x - 1 \text{ and} \\ i \in \mathcal{D} (\sigma x) &\Rightarrow \sigma x i = x (i + 1) \end{aligned}$$

- The usual induction principle is a *theorem* (not an axiom)

$$\forall (x : A^* . P x) \equiv P \varepsilon \wedge \forall (x : A^* . P x \Rightarrow \forall a : A . P (a \succ x))$$

1.1 Towards point-free formulations

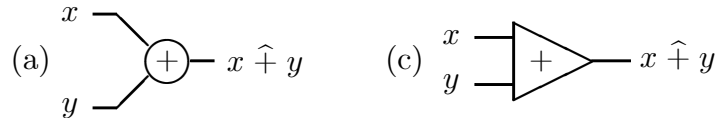
- **Signal flow systems** are assemblies of interconnected components whose dynamical behavior is modelled by functionals mapping input signals to output signals.

- **Basic building blocks**

- Memoryless devices realizing arithmetic operations

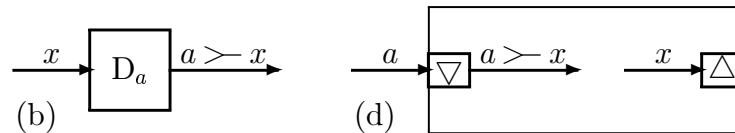
- * Sum (product, ...) of two signals x and y modelled as $(x \hat{+} y) t = x t + y t$

- * Explicit *direct extension* operator $\hat{\leftarrow}$ (in engineering often left implicit)



- Memory devices: latches (discrete case), integrators (continuous case)

$D_a x n = (n = 0) ? a \dagger x (n - 1)$ or, without the time variable, $D_a x = a \succ x$



- **Time is not structural**, hence transformational design = eliminating the time variable

1.2 A transformation example

- **From specification to realization**

- Recursive specification, given: set A and $a : A$ and $g : A \rightarrow A$

$$\mathbf{def} \ f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow A \ \mathbf{with} \ f \ n = (n = 0) ? a \dagger g (f (n - 1)) \tag{0}$$

- Calculational transformation

$$\begin{aligned} f \ n &= \langle \text{Def. } f \rangle \ (n = 0) ? a \dagger g (f (n - 1)) \\ &= \langle \text{Def. } \circ \rangle \ (n = 0) ? a \dagger (g \circ f) (n - 1) \\ &= \langle \text{Def. } D \rangle \ D_a (g \circ f) \ n \\ &= \langle \text{Def. } \overline{=} \rangle \ D_a (\overline{g} \ f) \ n \\ &= \langle \text{Def. } \circ \rangle \ (D_a \circ \overline{g}) \ f \ n, \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

hence $f = (D_a \circ \overline{g}) \ f$ by function extensionality.

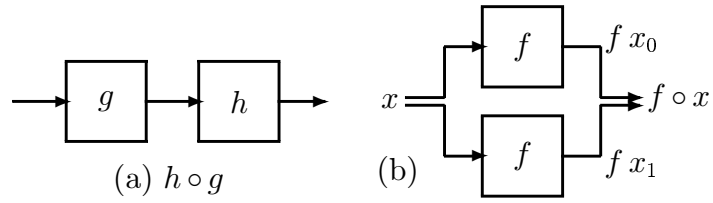
- **Functionals introduced** (ignoring types for the time being)

- Function composition: \circ , defined by $(f \circ g) \ x = f (g \ x)$

- Direct extension (1 argument): $\overline{=}$, defined by $\overline{g} \ x = g \circ x$

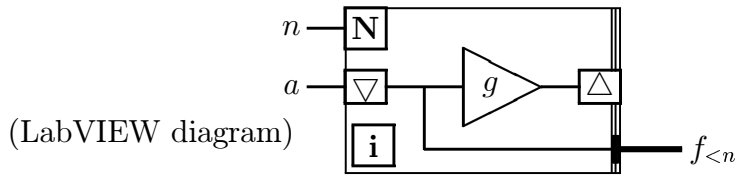
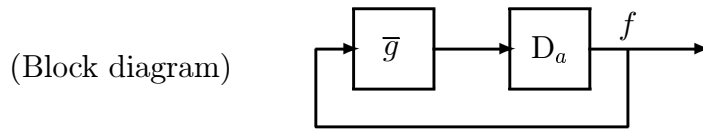
• **Structural interpretations**

- Note: the time variable is gone in $f = (D_a \circ \bar{g}) f$
- Structural interpretations of composition: (a) cascading; (b) replication



Property: $\overline{h \circ g} = \bar{h} \circ \bar{g}$ (proof: exercise)

- Immediate structural solution for the fixpoint equation $f = (D_a \circ \bar{g}) f$



- **A third operator: transposition** (already seen: composition, direct extension)

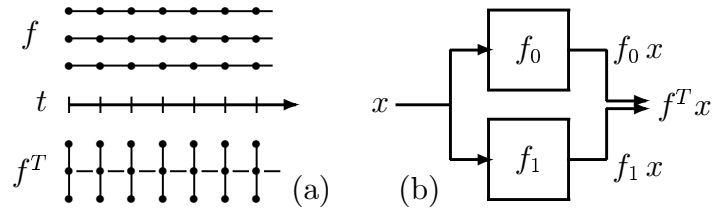
- Purpose: swapping the arguments of a higher-order function

$$f^T y x = f x y$$

- Nomenclature borrowed from matrix theory

- Structural interpretations:

- (a) from a family of signals to a tuple-valued signal,
- (b) signal fanout



- Subsumes the `zip` operator from functional programming

$$\text{zip}[[a,b,c],[a',b',c']] = [[a,a'],[b,b'],[c,c']]$$

assuming lists taken as functions.

- **Calculating with transposition, composition and direct extension**

- Duality between composition and transposition: provided x is not free in M ,

$$M \circ (\lambda x.N) = \lambda x.MN \quad \text{and} \quad (\lambda x.N)^T M = \lambda x.NM.$$

- Generalizing direct extension to an arbitrary number of arguments:

$$\begin{aligned} (f \hat{\star} f') x &= f x \star f' x \\ &= (\star) (f x, f' x) \\ &= (\star) ((f, f')^T x) \\ &= ((\star) \circ (f, f'))^T x \end{aligned}$$

(hints added orally) hence $f \hat{\star} f' = (\star) \circ (f, f')^T$.

We define the generalized direct extension operator $\hat{\leq}$ by

$$\hat{\leq} h = g \circ h^T \tag{2}$$

for any function g whose argument is a function and any family h of functions.

2 Making the functionals generic

2.0 Conventions for functions

- **Function** = *domain* ($\mathcal{D} f$) and *mapping* (unique $f x$ for every x in $\mathcal{D} f$).

- **Function equality** = equality of the domains and the mappings

– Leibniz’s principle:

$$f = g \Rightarrow \mathcal{D} f = \mathcal{D} g \wedge (x \in \mathcal{D} f \cap \mathcal{D} g \Rightarrow f x = g x) \quad (3)$$

– function extensionality: using a fresh dummy x ,

$$\frac{q \Rightarrow \mathcal{D} f = \mathcal{D} g \wedge (x \in \mathcal{D} f \cap \mathcal{D} g \Rightarrow f x = g x)}{q \Rightarrow f = g}. \quad (4)$$

- **Style of definition** (awaiting quantifiers)

– a *domain axiom* of the form $x \in \mathcal{D} f \equiv x \in X \wedge p_x$

– a *mapping axiom* of the form $x \in \mathcal{D} f \Rightarrow q_{f,x}$

(x a variable, X a set, p_x and $q_{f,x}$ propositions, subscripts specify free occurrences).

Example: the *constant function specifier* \bullet : for any set X and any e ,

$$\mathcal{D}(X \bullet e) = X \quad \text{and} \quad x \in X \Rightarrow (X \bullet e) x = e. \quad (5)$$

- **Denoting functions by abstractions**

- Principle: recall the style of definition

- * a *domain axiom* of the form $x \in \mathcal{D} f \equiv x \in X \wedge p_x$

- * a *mapping axiom* of the form $x \in \mathcal{D} f \Rightarrow q_{f,x}$

If $q_{f,x}$ has the explicit form $f x = e_x$,

then we denote the function by $x : X \wedge p . e$ ($\wedge p$ optional)

- Axioms (a typed lambda calculus)

$$\begin{aligned} d \in \mathcal{D}(x : X \wedge p . e) &\equiv d \in X \wedge p_d^x \\ d \in \mathcal{D}(x : X \wedge p . e) &\Rightarrow (x : X \wedge p . e) d = e_d^x \end{aligned} \tag{6}$$

- Examples

- * $X \bullet e = x : X . e$ (choosing x not free in e)

- * $n : \mathbb{Z} . 2 \cdot n$ doubles every natural number

2.1 Design criteria and method for generic functionals

- **Reason for making functionals generic:**

in functional mathematics, they become shared by many more kinds of objects than usual.

- **Shortcomings of traditional operators:** the restrictions on the arguments, e.g.,

- $f \circ g$ requires $\mathcal{R}g \subseteq \mathcal{D}f$, in which case $\mathcal{D}(f \circ g) = \mathcal{D}g$

- f^- requires f injective, in which case $\mathcal{D}f^- = \mathcal{R}f$

- **Approach used here;**

- No restrictions on the argument function(s)

- Refine domain of the result function

- Conservative, i.e., if the traditional restriction is satisfied, the generalization yields the “old” case

2.2 Some important generic functionals

- **Filtering** (\downarrow) generalizes $f = x : \mathcal{D} f . f x$ as follows: for any function f and predicate P ,

$$f \downarrow P = x : \mathcal{D} f \cap \mathcal{D} P \wedge P x . f x \quad (7)$$

Shorthand: f_P for $f \downarrow P$. Example: $f_{<n}$.

Also defined for sets: $x \in S_P \equiv x \in S \wedge P x$, yielding convenient abbreviations like $\mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$.

- **Composition** (\circ) generalizes traditional composition: for any functions f and g ,

$$\begin{aligned} x \in \mathcal{D} (f \circ g) &\equiv x \in \mathcal{D} g \wedge g x \in \mathcal{D} f \\ x \in \mathcal{D} (f \circ g) &\Rightarrow (f \circ g) x = f (g x). \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

Conservational: if the traditional requirement $\mathcal{R} g \subseteq \mathcal{D} f$ is satisfied, then $\mathcal{D} (f \circ g) = \mathcal{D} g$.

Illustrations

- Since sequences are functions,

$(0, 3, 5, 7) \circ (2, 3, 1) = 5, 7, 3$ and $(0, 3, 5, 7) \circ (2, 3, 5) = 5, 7$,
but also $(0, 3, 5, 7) \circ (5, 3, 1) = (7, 3) \circ (-1)$ (not a sequence).

- Similarly, since $f \circ (x, y) = f x, f y$ (x and y in $\mathcal{D} f$), \circ subsumes the *map* operator from functional programming, viz., $\mathbf{f} \ @ \ [\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}] = [\mathbf{f} \ \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{f} \ \mathbf{y}]$.

• **Direct extension** ($\hat{=}$)

- Principle: for any (infix) operator \star and any functions f and g , we let the domain of $f \hat{\star} g$ contain exactly those values x for which the expression $f x \star g x$ does not contain any out-of-domain applications
- Resulting definition:

$$\begin{aligned} x \in \mathcal{D}(f \hat{\star} g) &\equiv x \in \mathcal{D}f \cap \mathcal{D}g \wedge (f x, g x) \in \mathcal{D}(\star) \\ x \in \mathcal{D}(f \hat{\star} g) &\Rightarrow (f \hat{\star} g)x = f x \star g x. \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

• **Transposition** ($-^T$) Recall the definition ignoring types: $f^T y x = f x y$

- Simplest argument type: $A \rightarrow (B \rightarrow C)$ (given sets A, B, C).
The image f^T of $f: A \rightarrow (B \rightarrow C)$ has type $B \rightarrow (A \rightarrow C)$ and property $(f^T)^T = f$.
Note: one usually writes $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C$ for $A \rightarrow (B \rightarrow C)$.
- We want the argument of f^T to be *any* function family.
 - * Liberal design: $\mathcal{D} f^T = \bigcup x: \mathcal{D}f . \mathcal{D}(f x)$ or, in point-free style, $\mathcal{D} f^T = \bigcup (\mathcal{D} \circ f)$ (not elaborated here)
 - * Preferred design is with *intersection* in view of $\hat{g} h = g \circ h^T$ to generalize (9)

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{D} f^T &= \bigcap (x: \mathcal{D}f . \mathcal{D}(f x)) \\ y \in \mathcal{D} f^T &\Rightarrow x \in \mathcal{D}f \Rightarrow f^T y x = f x y \end{aligned} \quad (10)$$

or, in compact form, $f^T = y: \bigcap (\mathcal{D} \circ f) . x: \mathcal{D}f . f x y$.

3 Functional predicate calculus

3.0 Axioms

- **Predicates** are a boolean-valued functions.

Choice *false* / *true* versus 0 / 1 secondary here but, in a wider context, 0 / 1 is advantageous.

- **Quantifiers** \forall and \exists are predicates over predicates.

– Informally:

* $\forall P$ means that P is the constant 1-valued predicate

* $\exists P$ means that P is *not* the constant 0-valued predicate.

– Formal axioms:

$$\forall P \equiv (P = \mathcal{D} P \bullet 1) \text{ and } \exists P \equiv (P \neq \mathcal{D} P \bullet 0). \quad (11)$$

The axioms are conceptually indeed as simple as they seem, but they create a rich algebraic structure (dozens of useful calculation rules)

– Observation: \forall and \exists are typical *elastic operators*.

3.1 Intermezzo: elastic operators and ramifications

- **Principle:** functionals replacing the various kinds of common ad hoc abstractors, e.g.,

$$\forall x : X \quad \sum_{i=m}^n \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow a} .$$

Together with function abstraction (6) they yield readily recognizable expressions, e.g.,

$$\forall x : X . P x \quad \sum i : m .. n . x_i \quad \lim (x : \mathbb{R} . f x) a$$

or, for less casual readers, point-free forms such as

$$\forall P \quad \sum x \quad \lim f a$$

Example: $\forall x : \mathbb{R} . x^2 \geq 0$ obtains familiar form and meaning,
but also a novel decomposition: \forall and $x : \mathbb{R} . x^2 \geq 0$, are both *functions*.

- **General importance:** Same functionals for point-free and point-wise expressions.
- **For predicate calculus:**
 - A calculus of *functions* (familiar to working mathematicians and engineers)
 - Algebraic flavor, laws more calculation-friendly

3.2 Derived calculation rules

- **First batch:** simple rules derived directly from axioms (11) and function equality (3,4).

- $\forall(X \bullet 1) \equiv 1$ and $\exists(X \bullet 0) \equiv 0$
- $\forall \varepsilon \equiv 1$ and $\exists \varepsilon \equiv 0$ (ε is the *empty* function or predicate with $\mathcal{D} \varepsilon = \emptyset$)
- For any non-constant P : $\forall P \equiv 0$ and $\exists P \equiv 1$

Theorems illustrative of the algebraic equational style:

- *Duality:* $\forall(\neg P) \equiv (\neg \exists) P$
- *Meeting:* $\forall P \wedge \forall Q \Rightarrow \forall(P \hat{\wedge} Q)$.
Conditional converse: $\mathcal{D} P = \mathcal{D} Q \Rightarrow \forall(P \hat{\wedge} Q) \Rightarrow \forall P \wedge \forall Q$.

Typical calculational proof for duality

$$\begin{aligned}
 \forall(\neg P) &\equiv \langle \text{Def. } \forall (11), \mathcal{D}(\neg P) = \mathcal{D} P \rangle && \neg P = \mathcal{D} P \bullet 1 \\
 &\equiv \langle \neg P = Q \equiv P = \neg Q \rangle && P = \neg(\mathcal{D} P \bullet 1) \\
 &\equiv \langle e \in \mathcal{D} g \Rightarrow \bar{g}(X \bullet e) = X \bullet (g e) \rangle && P = \mathcal{D} P \bullet (\neg 1) \\
 &\equiv \langle \neg 1 = 0, \text{ def. } \exists (11) \rangle && \neg(\exists P) \\
 &\equiv \langle x \in \mathcal{D}(\bar{g} f) \Rightarrow \bar{g} f x = g(f x) \rangle && \neg \exists P
 \end{aligned}$$

Justifications are given between $\langle \rangle$ (Feyen's convention).

All are properties of generic functionals (exercises).

• **First batch (continued)**

- Properties of constant predicates revealing the role of types (uncommon in logic textbooks)

$$\forall(X \bullet 0) \equiv X = \emptyset \quad \text{and} \quad \exists(X \bullet 1) \equiv X \neq \emptyset$$

Combined with the earlier properties,

$$\forall(X \bullet x) \equiv x \vee X = \emptyset \quad \text{and} \quad \exists(X \bullet x) \equiv x \wedge X \neq \emptyset$$

- Fast technique for laws of this kind: *case analysis* (a) and *Shannon expansion* (b, c)

a. $\forall P_0^v \wedge \forall P_1^v \Rightarrow \forall P$

b. $\forall P \equiv (v \wedge \forall P_1^v) \vee (\neg v \wedge \forall P_0^v)$

c. $\forall P \equiv (v \Rightarrow \forall P_1^v) \wedge (\neg v \Rightarrow \forall P_0^v)$

assuming v is a boolean variable in P . Similarly for \exists .

- Important consequences are *semidistributivity rules*:

* $\forall(x \overleftarrow{\wedge} P) \equiv (x \wedge \forall P) \vee \mathcal{D}P = \emptyset$

* $\forall(x \overrightarrow{\Rightarrow} P) \equiv x \Rightarrow \forall P$

* $\forall(P \overleftarrow{\Rightarrow} x) \equiv \exists P \Rightarrow x$

where $\overrightarrow{\quad}$ is the (right) half direct extension operator

$$x \overrightarrow{\star} f = (\mathcal{D}f \bullet x) \widehat{\star} f \tag{12}$$

- **Second batch:** metatheorems whose counterparts are axioms in logical textbooks. Here they are again *consequences* of the axioms (11) and function equality (3,4).

- Instantiation: $\forall P \Rightarrow x \in \mathcal{D}P \Rightarrow Px$
- Generalization: $q \Rightarrow x \in \mathcal{D}P \Rightarrow Px \vdash q \Rightarrow \forall P$

Importance:

- Basis for proving all properties usually appearing in logic textbooks
- Additional important rules for practical applications, e.g., *trading*

$$\forall P_R \equiv \forall(R \Leftrightarrow P) \quad \text{and} \quad \exists P_R \equiv \exists(R \hat{\wedge} P) \quad (13)$$

- **Third batch:** shows correspondence between point-free and conventional formulas.

Convention: P, Q be predicates, $R: X \rightarrow Y \rightarrow \mathbb{B}$ for some X and Y .

<i>Empty rule</i>	$\forall \varepsilon = 1$
<i>1-point rule</i>	$\forall (x \mapsto y) = y$
<i>Merge rule</i>	$P \odot Q \Rightarrow \forall (P \cup Q) = \forall P \wedge \forall Q$
<i>Distribution</i>	$\mathcal{D} P = \mathcal{D} Q \Rightarrow \forall (P \hat{\wedge} Q) = \forall P \wedge \forall Q$
<i>Transposition</i>	$\forall (\forall \circ R) = \forall (\forall \circ R^T)$
<i>Composition</i>	$\forall P \equiv \forall (P \circ f)$ provided $\mathcal{D} P \subseteq \mathcal{R} f$
<i>Trading</i>	$\forall (P \downarrow Q) \equiv \forall (Q \Leftrightarrow P)$

Replacing predicates by abstractions with boolean expressions, under proper conditions:

<i>Empty rule</i>	$\forall (x: \emptyset . p) = 1$
<i>1-point rule</i>	$\forall (x: X . x = y \Rightarrow p) \equiv y \in X \wedge p_y^x$
<i>Domain split</i>	$\forall (x: X \cup Y . p)$
(if compat.)	$\equiv \forall (x: X . p) \wedge \forall (x: Y . p)$
<i>Distribution</i>	$\forall (x: X . p \wedge q)$
	$\equiv \forall (x: X . p) \wedge \forall (x: X . q)$
<i>Dummy swap</i>	$\forall (x: X . \forall y: Y . p)$
	$\equiv \forall (y: Y . \forall x: X . p)$
<i>Dummy chng</i>	$\forall (x: X . p) \equiv \forall (y: Y . p_{f y}^x)$
<i>Trading</i>	$\forall (x: X \wedge p . q) \equiv \forall (x: X . p \Rightarrow q)$

3.3 Example: refined function typing

Predicate calculus applicable in pure and applied mathematics, esp. software engineering.
Here: only one example, wrapping up a few issues about the function range.

- **Function range** (\mathcal{R}): for any function F and any y ,

$$y \in \mathcal{R} f \equiv \exists x : \mathcal{D} f . y = f x \quad (14)$$

- **Alternative symbol (same axiom):** $\{ \}$

- Motivation: expressions like $\{a, b, c\}$ and $\{n : \mathbb{Z} . 2 \cdot n\}$ have their usual meaning.
- Abstraction variant: $x : X \mid p$ stands for $x : X \wedge p . x$, as in $\square n = \{k : \mathbb{N} \mid k < n\}$.
- Useful derived rule: $y \in \{x : X \mid p\} \equiv y \in X \wedge p_y^x$ (most often used rule in practice)
- We do not use $\{ \}$ as a singleton set operator (ι instead)

• **Illustration: the function inverse** We define f^- for any f (not only injective f)

- Principle: let $\mathcal{D} f^-$ contain just the points corresponding to unique elements in $\mathcal{D} f$
- Formalization: *bijection domain* and the *bijection range*:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{Bdom} f &= \{x : \mathcal{D} f \mid \forall x' : \mathcal{D} f . f x = f x' \Rightarrow x = x'\} \\ \mathbf{Bran} f &= \{x : \mathbf{Bdom} f . f x\}. \end{aligned} \tag{15}$$

- Generic function inverse functional $-\bar{}$, defined for any function f by

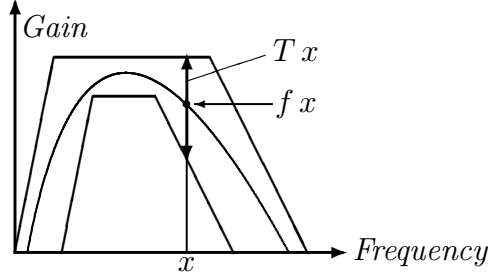
$$\mathcal{D} f^- = \mathbf{Bran} f \wedge \forall x : \mathbf{Bdom} f . f^- (f x) = x. \tag{16}$$

• **The function approximation paradigm for range refinement**

- Purpose: formalizing *tolerances* for *functions*
 - Principle: a *tolerance function* T specifying, for every domain value x the set $T x$ of allowable values. Important: the domain of T serves as the domain specification
- Formalized: a function f meets tolerance T iff

$$\mathcal{D} f = \mathcal{D} T \quad \wedge \quad x \in \mathcal{D} f \cap \mathcal{D} T \Rightarrow f x \in T x.$$

Pictorial representation (example: radio frequency filter characteristic).



- *Generalized Functional Cartesian Product* \times : for any family T of sets,

$$f \in \times T \equiv \mathcal{D} f = \mathcal{D} T \wedge \forall x : \mathcal{D} f \cap \mathcal{D} T . f x \in T x. \quad (17)$$

Properties: (a) If $\times T \neq \emptyset$, then $\times^{-}(\times T) = T$

(b) with function equality ($f = g \equiv \mathcal{D} f = \mathcal{D} g \wedge \forall x : \mathcal{D} f \cap \mathcal{D} g . f x = g x$), we obtain $f = g \equiv f \in \times (i \circ g)$ (exact approximation).

– **Applications in the discrete mathematics**

- * Expressing the common Cartesian product: with $T := A, B$ (a pair of sets),

$$\times(A, B) = A \times B$$

assuming the common Cartesian product is defined (for pairs as functions) by

$$(a, b) \in A \times B \equiv a \in A \wedge b \in B$$

If $A \neq \emptyset$ and $B \neq \emptyset$, then $\times^-(A \times B)0 = A$ and $\times^-(A \times B)1 = B$.

- * Expressing dependent types: letting $T := a : A . B$ with a free in B ,

$$\times(a : A . B) = \{f : A \rightarrow \cup a : A . B \mid \forall a : A . f a \in B\}$$

Convenient shorthand: $A \ni a \rightarrow B_a$ for $\times a : A . B_a$

Example: $A^+ \ni x \rightarrow A^{\#x-1}$ for the type of the σ -operator.

Other use: clearer in chained dependencies, e.g., $A \ni a \rightarrow B_a \ni b \rightarrow C_{a,b}$.

4 Conclusion

- Mathematical concepts and operators arising from a seemingly specialized area of engineering (signal flow realizations) can be made generic and thereby extend their applicability to a much wider area of engineering and mathematics.
- This was illustrated by an algebraic and functional formulation of predicate calculus, providing a convenient formalism for specification and reasoning about software systems of an evolutionary nature.