Proving the Shalls: Requirement Analysis and Verification

CSCE 740 - Lecture 10 - 09/28/2017

How do we know that the software will work? (AKA: How do we know that our specification is correct?) (Also... free of contradictions and complete)

The Power of Argument

- Once the software is complete, we perform verification (does the software meet the requirements?).
 - We **argue** that the software is correct.
 - We **argue** that the software meets the users' needs.
- Before we build the software, we want to know that the specifications are complete, correct, and not contradictory.
- How can we analyze the specification without code?

Abstraction Holds the Key

- Abstraction simplifying a problem by identifying important aspects, focusing on those, and pretending other details don't exist.
- The key to solving **many** computing problems.
 - Solve a simpler version, then apply to the big problem.
- Don't have code? A design? Hardware? Ignore those and focus on the core behavior.

What About a Model?

- Models can be used to "tame" the complexity of the program.
 - Models are simpler than the real program.
 - By abstracting away unnecessary details, we can learn important insights.
- Perhaps models can be used to verify the full programs!

Behavior Modeling

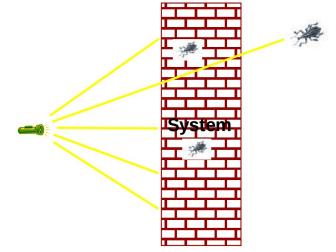
- Requirements analysis can be performed by modeling behavior as **state machines**.
 - Input causes the system to change state (transition).
 - Use the requirements to develop a model of how the system responds to different types of input when performing a function.
- Not as complex as the real code (states summarize *types of responses*).
- Can be "executed".

So, You Want to Perform Verification...

- You have a property that you want your program to obey (i.e., a requirement).
- Great! Let's write some tests!
- Does testing guarantee that the requirement is met?
 - Not quite...
 - Testing can make a statistical argument in favor of verification, but usually cannot guarantee that the requirement holds in *all* situations.

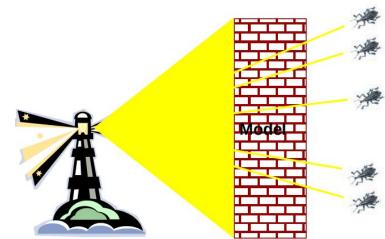
Testing

- Any real system has a near-infinite number of possible inputs.
 - Models are simplified, but still may have trillions of inputs.
- Some faults trigger failures extremely rarely, or under conditions that are hard to control and recreate through testing.
- How can we *prove* that our system meets the property?

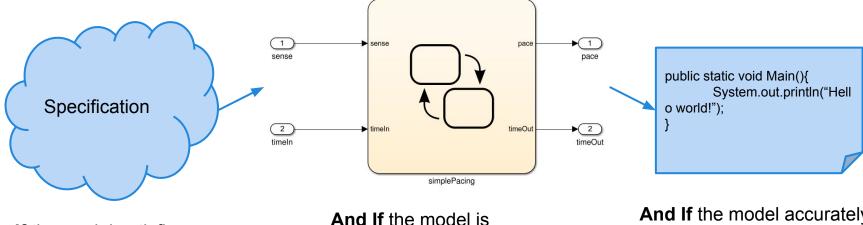


Finite-State Verification

- Express specification as a set of logical properties, written as Boolean formulae.
- Exhaustively search the state space of the model for violations of those properties.
- If the property holds proof that the model is correct.
- Contrast with testing no violation might just mean bad tests.



What Can We Do With This Model?



If the model satisfies the specification...

And If the model is well-formed, consistent, and complete.

And If the model accurately represents the program.

If we can show that the model satisfies the requirement, then the program should as well.

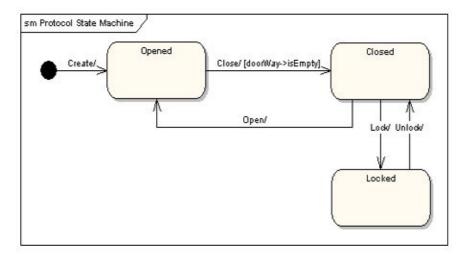
Today's Goals

- Building behavioral models.
- Formulating specification statements as formal logical expressions.
 - Introduction to temporal logic.
- Performing finite-state verification over the model.
 - Exhaustive search algorithms.

State Machine Models

Finite State Machines

- A common method of modeling behavior of a system.
- A directed graph: nodes represent states, edges represent transitions.
- Not a substitute for a program, but a way to explore functionality.
 - Typically build a model for each major feature.



Some Terminology

- **Event -** Something that happens at a point in time.
 - Operator presses a self-test button on the device.
 - The alarm goes off.
- **Condition** Describes a property that can be true or false and has duration.
 - The fuel level is high.
 - The alarm is on.
- **State** An abstract description of the current value of an entity's attributes.
 - The controller is in the "self-test" state after the self-test button has been pressed, and leaves it when the rest button has been pressed.
 - The tank is in the "too-low" state when the fuel level is below the set threshold for N seconds.

States, Transitions, and Guards

- **State** An abstract description of the current value of an entity's attributes.
- States change in response to events.
 A state change is called a transition.
- When multiple responses to an event (transitions triggered by that event) are possible, the choice is guided by the current conditions.
 - These conditions are also called the guards on a transition.

State Transitions

Transitions are labeled in the form:

event [guard] / activity

- event: The event that triggered the transition.
- guard: Conditions that must be true to choose this transition.
- activity: Behavior exhibited by the object when this transition is taken.
- All three are optional.
 - Missing Activity: No output from this transition.
 - Missing Guard: Always take this transition if the event occurs.
 - Missing Event: Take this transition immediately.

State Transition Examples

Transitions are labeled in the form:

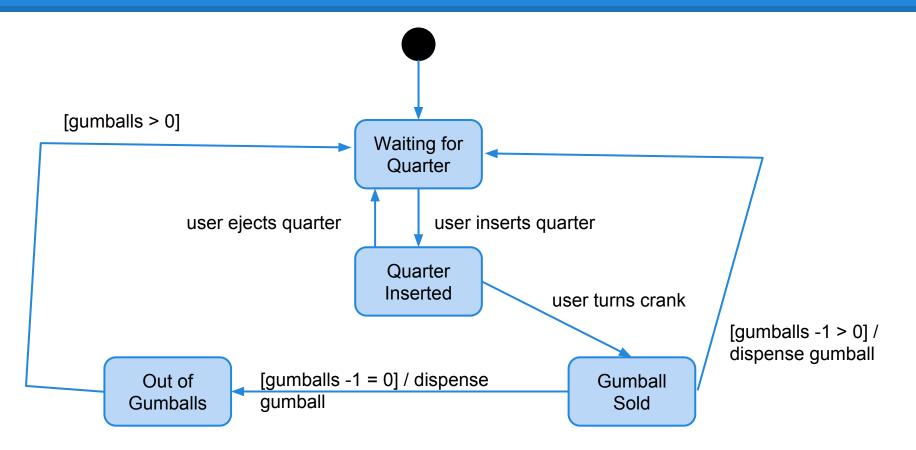
event [guard] / activity

• The controller is in the "self-test" state after the self-test button has been pressed, and leaves it when the rest button has been pressed.

• Pressing self-test button is an event.

- The tank is in the "too-low" state when the fuel level is below the set threshold for N seconds.
 - Fuel level below threshold for N seconds is a guard.

Example: Gumball Machine



Expressing Specification Statements as Provable Properties

Expressing Properties

- Properties expressed in a formal logic.
 - Temporal logic ensures that properties hold over execution paths, not just at a single point in time.

Safety Properties

- System never reaches bad state.
- Always in some good state.
- Liveness Properties
 - Eventually useful things happen.
 - Fairness criteria.

Temporal Logic

- Sets of rules and symbolism for representing propositions qualified over time.
- Linear Time Logic (LTL)
 - Reason about events over a timeline.
- Computation Tree Logic (CTL)
 - Branching logic that can reason about multiple timelines.
- We need both forms of logic each can express properties that the other cannot.

Linear Time Logic Formulae

Formulae written with propositional variables (boolean properties), logical operators (and, or, not, implication), and a set of modal operators:

X (next)	X hunger	In the next state, I will be hungry.
G (globally)	G hunger	In all future states, I will be hungry.
F (finally)	F hunger	Eventually, there will be a state where I am hungry.
U (until)	hunger U burger	I will be hungry until I start to eat a burger.
R (release)	hunger R burger	I will cease to be hungry after I eat a burger.

LTL Examples

- X (next) This operator provides a constraint on the next moment in time.
 - (sad && !rich) -> X(sad)
 - ((x==0) && (add3)) -> X(x == 3)
- F (finally) At some point in the future, this property will be true.
 - (funny && ownCamera) -> F(famous)
 - sad -> F(happy)
 - o send -> F(receive)

LTL Examples

- G (globally) This property must always be true.
 - winLottery -> G(rich)
- U (until) One property must be true until the second becomes true.
 - startLecture -> (talk U endLecture)
 - born -> (alive U dead)
 - request -> (!reply U acknowledgement)

More LTL Examples

- G (requested -> F (received))
- G (received -> X (processed))
- G (processed -> F (G (done)))
- If the above are true, can this be true?
 G (requested) && G (!done)

Computation Tree Logic Formulae

Combines quantifiers over all paths and path-specific quantifiers:

A (all)	A hunger	Starting from the current state, I must be hungry on all paths.
E (exists)	E hunger	There must be some path, starting from the current state, where I am hungry.

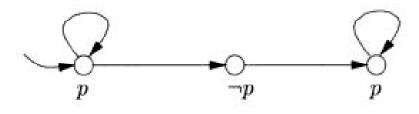
X (next)	X hunger	In the next state on this path, I will be hungry.
G (globally)	G hunger	In all future states on this path, I will be hungry.
F (finally)	F hunger	Eventually on this path, there will be a state where I am hungry.
U (until)	hunger U burger	On this path, I will be hungry until I start to eat a burger. (I must eventually eat a burger)
W (weak until)	hunger W burger	On this path, I will be hungry until I start to eat a burger. (There is no guarantee that I eat a burger)

CTL Examples

- chocolate = "I like chocolate."
- warm = "It is warm outside."
- AG chocolate
- EF chocolate
- AF (EG chocolate)
- EG (AF chocolate)
- AG (chocolate U warm)
- EF ((EX chocolate) U (AG warm))

Examples

- It is always possible to reach a state where we can reset.
 - AG (EF reset)
 - Is the LTL formula **G** (**F** reset) the same expression?
- Eventually, the system will reach a good state and remain there.
 - F (G good)
 - Is the CTL formula **AF (AG good)** the same?



Proving Properties Over Models

Proving Properties

- To perform verification, we take properties and exhaustively search the state space of the model for violations.
- Violations give us counter-examples
 - A path that demonstrates how the property has been violated.

Implications:

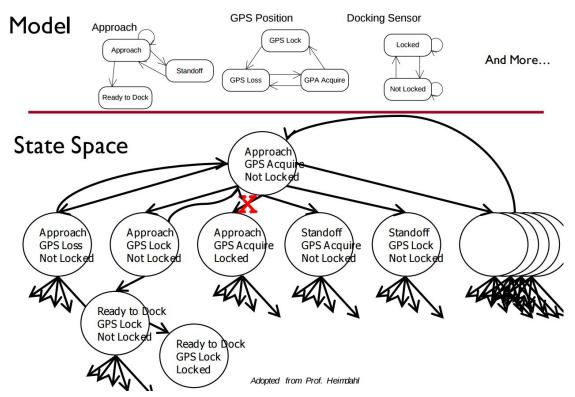
- Property is incorrect.
- Model does not reflect expected behavior.
- Real issue found in the system being designed.

Test Generation from FS Verification

- We can also take properties and **negate** them.
 - Called a "trap property" we assert that a property can never be met.
- The counter-example shows one way the property can be met.
- This can be used as a test for the real system - to demonstrate that the final system meets its specification.

Exhaustive Search

- Algorithms exhaustively comb through the possible execution paths through the model.
- Major limitation state space explosion.



Exhaustive Search - Dining Philosophers

- Problem X philosophers sit at a table with Y forks between them. Philosophers may think or eat. When they eat, they need two forks.
- Goal is to avoid deadlock a state where no progress is possible.
 - 5 philosophers/forks deadlock after exploring 145 states
 - 10 philosophers/forks deadlock after exploring 18,313 states
 - 15 philosophers/forks deadlock after exploring 148,897 states
 - 9 philosophers/10 forks deadlock found after exploring 404,796 states

Search Based on SAT

- Express properties as conjunctive normal form expressions:
 - o f = (!x2 || x5) && (x1 || !x3 || x4) &&
 (x4 || ! x5) && (x1|| x2)
- Examine reachable states and choose a transition based on how it affects the CNF expression.
 - If we want x2 to be false, choose a transition that imposes that change.
- Continue until CNF expression is satisfied.

Branch & Bound Algorithm

- Set a variable to a particular value (true/false).
- Apply that value to the CNF expression.
- See whether that value satisfies all of the clauses that it appears in.
 - If so, assign a value to the next variable.
 - If not, backtrack (bound) and apply the other value.
- Prune branches of the boolean decision tree as values are applies.

Branch & Bound Algorithm

f = (!x2 || x5) && (x1 || !x3 || x4) && (x4 || !x5) && (x1|| x2)

1. Set x1 to false.

f = (!x2 || x5) && (0 || !x3 || x4) && (x4 || !x5) && (0 || x2)

2. Set x2 to false.

f = (1 || x5) && (0 || !x3 || x4) && (x4) || !x5) && (0 || 0)

3. Backtrack and set x1 to true.

f = (0 | | x5) && (0 | | !x3 | | x4) && (x4) | !x5) && (0 | | 1)

DPLL Algorithm

- Set a variable to a particular value (true/false).
- Apply that value to the CNF expression.
- If the value satisfies a clause, that clause is removed from the formula.
- If the variable is negated, but does not satisfy a clause, then the variable is removed from that clause.
- Repeat until a solution is found.

DPLL Algorithm

f = (!x2 || x5) && (x1 || !x3 || x4) && (x4 || !x5) && (x1|| x2)

- 1. Set x2 to false.
 - f = (1 || x5) && (x1 || !x3 || x4) && (x4 || !x5) && (x1|| 0)
 - f = (x1 || !x3 || x4) && (x4 || !x5) && (x1)
- 2. Set x1 to true.
 - f = (1 || !x3 || x4) && (x4 || !x5) && (1)f = (x4 || !x5)
- 3. Set x4 to false, then x5 to false.

Model Properties

To be useful, a model must be:

• Compact

- Models must be simplified enough to be analyzed.
- Depends on how it will be used.

• Predictive

- Represent the real system well enough to distinguish between good and bad outcomes of analyses.
- No single model usually represents all characteristics of the system well enough.

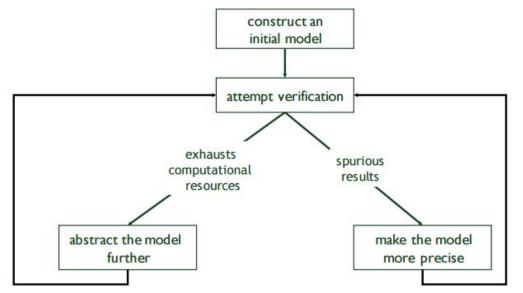
Model Properties

To be useful, a model must be:

- Meaningful
 - Must provide more information than success and failure.
- General
 - Models must be practical for use in the domain of interest.
 - An analysis of C programs is not useful if it only works for programs without pointers.

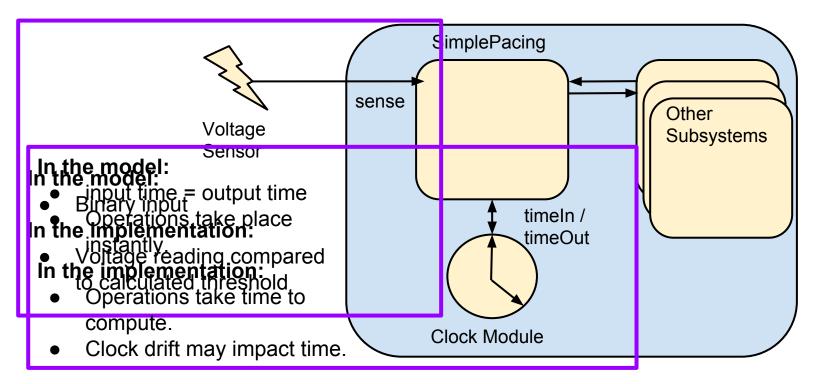
Model Refinement

- Models have to balance precision with efficiency.
- Abstractions that are too simple may introduce spurious failure paths that may not be in the real system.
- Models that are too complex may render model checking infeasible due to resource exhaustion.



Challenge - Does the Model Match the Program?

Models require abstraction. Useful for requirements analysis, but may not reflect operating conditions.



We Have Learned

- We can analyze our specifications by creating simplified models of the system and proving that properties hold over the model.
- To do so, we must express specifications as sets of logical formulae written in a temporal logic.
- Finite state verification exhaustively searches the state space for violations of properties.

We Have Learned

- By performing this process, we can gain confidence that the specifications are correct (or fix them if they are not).
- We can also generate test cases from the model to demonstrate that properties still hold over the final system.

Next Time

- Design Fundamentals
- Readings:
 - Sommerville, chapter 6
- Homework 2:
 - Up on Moodle
 - You will get feedback on HW1 soon!
 - Revised requirements and tests due 10/10.
 - Any questions?