Introduction

Semantics and applications to verification

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Program of this first lecture

Introduction to the course:

- a study of some examples of software errors
 - what are the causes ? what kind of properties do we want to verify ?
- a panel of the main verification methods with a fundamental limitation: indecidability
 - many techniques allow to compute semantic properties
 - each comes with advantages and drawbacks
- an introduction to the theory of ordered sets
 - order relations are pervasive in semantics and verification
 - fixpoints of operators are also very common

Outline



Case studies

- Ariane 5, Flight 501 (1996)
- Lufthansa Flight 2904, Warsaw (1993)
- Patriot missile (anti-missile system), Dahran (1991)
- General remarks

3 Approaches to verification

Orderings, lattices, fixpoints

Ariane 5 – Flight 501

- Ariane 5:
 - a satellite launcher
 - replacement of Ariane 4, a lot more powerful
 - first flight, June, 4th, 1996: failure!
- Flight story:
 - nominal take-off, normal flight for 36 seconds
 - T + 36.7 s : angle of attack change, trajectory lost
 - T + 39 s : disintegration of the launcher
- Consequences:
 - loss of satellites : more than \$ 370 000 000...
 - launcher unusable for more than a year (delay !)
 - impact on reputation (Ariane 4 was very reliable)
- Full report available online:

http://esamultimedia.esa.int/docs/esa-x-1819eng.pdf Jacques-Louis Lions, Gilles Kahn

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Trajectory control system design overview

- Sensors: gyroscopes, inertial reference systems...
- Calculators (hardware + software) :
 - "Inertial Reference System" (SRI) : integrates data about the trajectory (read on sensors)
 - "On Board Computer" (OBC) : computes the engine actuations that are required to follow the pre-determined theoretical trajectory
- Actuators: engines of the launcher follow orders from the OBC
- Redundant systems (failure tolerant system):
 - **keep running** even in the presence of one or several system failures
 - traditional solution in embedded systems: duplication of systems aircraft flight system: 2 or 3 hydraulic circuits launcher like Ariane 5 : 2 SRI units (SRI 1 and SRI 2)
 - there is also a control monitor

The root cause: an unhandled arithmetic error

Processor registers

Each register has a size of 16, 32, 64 bits:

- 64-bits floating point: values in range $[-3.6 \cdot 10^{308}, 3.6 \cdot 10^{308}]$
- 16-bits signed integers: values in range [-32768, 32767]
- upon copy of data: conversions are performed such as rounding
- when the values are too large:
 - interruption: run error handling code if any, otherwise crash
 - or unexpected behavior: modulo arithmetic or other

Ariane 5:

- the SRI hardware runs in interruption mode
- it has no error handling code for arithmetic interruptions
- the root cause is an unhandled arithmetic conversion overflow

From the root cause to the failure

A not so trivial sequence of events:

- **Q** a conversion from 64-bits float to 16-bits signed int overflows
- an interruption is raised
- **3** due to the lack of error handling code, the SRI crashes
- the crash causes an error return (negative integer value) value be sent to the OBC (On-Board Computer)
- the OBC interprets this illegal value as flight data
- this causes the computation of an absurd trajectory
- I hence the loss of control of the launcher

Addressing the software error

Several solutions would have prevented this misshappening:

O Deactivate interruptions on overflows:

- then, an overflow may happen, and cause wrong values be manipulated in the SRI
- but, these wrong values will not cause the computation to stop! and most likely, the flight will not be impacted too much
- **②** Fix the SRI code, so that no overflow can happen:
 - all conversions must be guarded against overflows:

```
\begin{array}{ll} \mbox{double } x = \dots; \\ \mbox{short } i = \dots; \\ \mbox{if}(-32768. \leq x \, \&\& \, x \leq 32767.) & i = (\mbox{short}) x; \\ \mbox{else} & i = \dots; \end{array}
```

this may be costly (many tests), but redundant tests can be removed

Image: Handle conversion errors (not trivial):

- > the handling code should identify the problem and fix it at run-time
- the OBC should identify illegal input values

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A crash due to a useless task

Piece of code that generated the error:

- part of a gyroscope re-calibration process
- very useful to quickly restart the launch process after a short delay
- can only be done before lift-off...
- ... but not after!

Re-calibration task shut down:

- normally planned 50 seconds after lift-off...
- no chance of a need for such a re-calibration after T_0 + 3 seconds
- the crash occurred at 36 seconds

A crash due to legacy software

Software history:

- already used in Ariane 4 (previous launcher, before Ariane 5)
- the software was tested and ran in real conditions many times yet never failed
- but Ariane 4 was a much less powerful launcher

Software optimization:

- many conversions were initially protected by a safety guard
- but these tests were considered expensive (a test and a branching take processor cycles, interact with the pipeline...)
- thus, conversions were ultimately removed for the sake of performance

Yet, Ariane 5 violates the assumptions that were valid with Ariane 4

- higher values of horizontal bias were generated
- those were never seen in Ariane 4, hence the failure

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A crash not prevented by redundant systems

Principle of redundant systems: survive the failure of a component by the use of redundant systems

System redundancy in Ariane 5:

- one OBC unit
- two SRI units... yet running the same software

Obviously, physical redundancy does not address software issues

System redundancy in Airbus FBW software:

- two independent set of controls
- three computing units per set of controls
- each computing unit comprises two computers
 - distinct softwares
 - design and implementation is also performed in distinct teams

Ariane 501, a summary of the issues

A long series of design errors, all related to a lack of understanding of what the software does:

- On-guarded conversion raising an interruption due to overflow
- 2 Removal of pre-existing guards, too high confidence in the software
- Non revised assumptions on the inputs when moving from Ariane 4 to Ariane 5
- Redundant systems running the same software
- **O** Useless task **not shutdown** at the right time

Current status: such issues can be found by static analysis tools

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High-speed runway overshoot at landing

Landing at Warsaw airport, Lufthansa A320:

- bad weather conditions: rain, high side wind
- wet runway
- landing (300 km/h) followed by aqua-planing, and delayed braking
- runway overrun at 132 km/h
- impact against a hillside at about 100 km/h

Consequences:

- 2 fatalities, 56 injured (among 70 passengers + crew)
- aircraft completely destroyed (impact + fire)

Full report available online:

http://www.rvs.uni-bielefeld.de/publications/Incidents/ DOCS/ComAndRep/Warsaw/warsaw-report.html

Causes of the accident

Root cause:

- bad weather conditions not well assessed by the crew
- side wind exceeding aircraft certification specification
- wrong action from the crew:
 - a "Go Around" (missed landing, acceleration + climb) should have been done

Ontributing factor: delayed action of the brake system

time (seconds)	distance (meters)	events
	from runway threshold	
T ₀	770 m	main landing gear landed
$T_0 + 3 s$	1030 m	nose landing gear landed
		brake command activated
T ₀ + 12 s	1680 m	spoilers activated
$T_0 + 14 \mathrm{s}$	1800 m	thrust reversers activated
$T_0 + 31 \text{ s}$	2700 m	end of runway

Protection of aircraft brake systems

• Braking systems inhibition: Prevent in-flight activation !

- spoilers: increase in aerodynamic load (drag)
- thrust reversers: could destroy the plane if activated in-flight ! (ex : crash of a B 767-300 ER Lauda Air, 1991, 223 fatalities; thrust reversers in-flight activation, electronic circuit issue)

• Braking software specification:

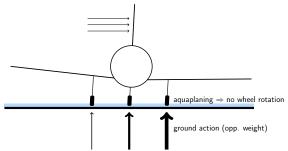
DO NOT activate spoilers and thrust reverse unless the following condition is met:

- thrust lever should be set to minimum by the flight crew
- AND either of the following conditions:
 - * weight on the main gear should be at least 12 T
 - i.e., $\mathbf{6} \mathbf{T}$ for each side
 - * OR wheels should be spinning, with a speed of at least 130 km/h

[Minimum Thrust] AND ([Weight] OR [Wheels spinning])

Understanding the braking delay

• Landing configuration:



• Braking systems: inhibited

- thrust command properly set to minimum
- no weight on the left landing gear due to the wind
- no speed on wheels due to aquaplanning

[Minimum Thrust] AND ([Weight] OR [Wheels spinning])

Flight 2904, a summary of the issues

Main factor is human (landing in weather conditions the airplane is not certified for), but the specification of the software is a contributing factor:

• Old condition that failed to be satisfied:

 $(P_{
m left} > 6T)$ AND $(P_{
m right} > 6T)$

• Fixed condition (used in the new version of the software):

$$(P_{\mathrm{left}} + P_{\mathrm{right}}) > 12T$$

- The fix can be understood only with knowledge of the environment
 - conditions which the airplane will be used in
 - behavior of the sensors

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The anti-missile "Patriot" system

- Purpose: destroy foe missiles before they reach their target
- Use in wars:
 - first Gulf war (1991)

protection of towns and military facilities in Israël and Saudi Arabia (against "Scud" missiles launched by Irak)

- success rate:
 - $\star\,$ around 50 % of the "Scud" missiles are successfully destroyed
 - ★ almost all launched Patriot missiles destroy their target
 - * failures are due to failure to launch a Patriot missile

• Constraints on the system:

hit very quickly moving targets:

"Scud" missiles fly at around 1700 m/s ; travel about 1000 km in 10 minutes

- not to destroy a friendly target (it happened at least twice!)
- very high cost: about \$1 000 000 per launch

System components

Detection / trajectory identification:

- detection using radar systems
- trajectory confirmation (to make sure a foe missile is tracked):
 - **1** trajectory identification using a sequence of points at various instants
 - 2 trajectory confirmation
 - computation of a predictive window (from position and speed vector)
 - + confirmation of the predicted trajectory
 - identification of the target (friend / foe)

Guidance system:

- interception trajectory computation
- launch of a Missile, and control until it hits its target high precision required (both missiles travel at more than 1500 m/s)

Very short process: about ten minutes

Dahran failure (1991)

Launch of a "Scud" missile

- Oetection by the radars of the Patriot system but failure to confirm the trajectory:
 - imprecision in the computation of the clock of the detection system
 - computation of a wrong confirmation window
 - the "Scud" cannot be found in the predicted window failure to confirm the trajectory
 - the detection computer concludes it is a false alert
- The "Scud" missile hits its target:
 28 fatalities and around 100 people injured

Fixed precision arithmetic

- Fixed precision numbers are of the form $\epsilon N 2^{-p}$ where:
 - p is fixed
 - ▶ $\epsilon \in \{-1,1\}$ is the sign
 - $N \in [-2^n, 2^n 1]_{\mathbb{Z}}$ is an integer (n > p)
- In 32 bits fixed precision, with one sign bit, n = 31; thus we may let p = 20

• A few examples:

decimal value	sign	truncated value	fractional portion
2	0	0000000010	000000000000000000000000000000000000000
-5	1	0000000101	000000000000000000000000000000000000000
0.5	0	00000000000	100000000000000000000000000000000000000
-9.125	1	0000001001	001000000000000000000000000000000000000

• Range of values that can be represented:

$$\pm 2^{12}(1-2^{-32})$$

Rounding errors in fixed precision computations

- Not all real numbers in the right range can be represented rounding is unavoidable may happen both for basic operations and for program constants...
- Example: fraction 1/10
 - ▶ 1/10 cannot be represented exactly in fixed precision arithmetic
 - let us decompose 1/10 as a sum of terms of the form $\frac{1}{2^i}$:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \frac{1}{10} & = & \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{5} \\ \frac{1}{5} & = & \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{16} + \frac{1}{16} \cdot \frac{1}{5} = \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{16} + \frac{1}{16} \cdot \left(\frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{16} + \frac{1}{16} \cdot \frac{1}{5}\right) = \dots \end{array}$$

infinite binary representation: 0.00011001100110011001100...

• Floating precision numbers (more commonly used today) have the same limitation

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The root cause: a clock drift

Trajectory confirmation algorithm (summary):

- hardware clock T_d ticks every tenth of a second
- time T_c is computed in seconds: $T_c = \frac{1}{10} \times T_d$
- in binary: $T_c = 0.00011001100110011001b \times_b T_d$!
- relative error is 10^{-6}
- after the computer has been running for 100 h :
 - the absolute error is 0.34 s
 - as a "Scud" travels at 1700 m/s : the predicted window is about 580 m from where it should be this explains the trajectory confirmation failure!

Remarks:

- the issue was discovered by israeli users, who noticed the clock drift their solution: frequently restart the control computer... (daily)
- this was not done in Dahran... the system had been running for 4 days

Patriot missile failure, a summary of the issues

Precision issues in the fixed precision arithmetic:

- A scalar constant used in the code was invalid i.e., bound to be rounded to an approximate value, incurring a significant approximation the designers were unaware of
- There was no adequate study of the precision achieved by the system, although precision is clearly critical here !

Current status: such issues can be found by static analysis tools

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Common issues causing software problems

The examples given so far **are not isolated cases** See for instance:

```
www.cs.tau.ac.il/~nachumd/horror.html
```

(not up-to-date)

Typical reasons:

- Improper specification or understanding of the environment, conditions of execution...
- Incorrect implementation of a specification
 - e.g., the code should be free of runtime errors
 - e.g., the software should produce a result that meets some property
- Incorrect understanding of the execution model
 - e.g., generation of too imprecise results

New challenges to ensure embedded systems do not fail

Complex software architecture: e.g. parallel softwares

- single processor multi-threaded, distributed (several computers)
- more and more common: multi-core architectures
- very hard to reason about
 - other kinds of issues: dead-locks, races...
 - very complex execution model: interleavings, memory models

Complex properties to ensure: e.g., security

- the system should resist even in the presence of an attacker (agent with malicious intentions)
- attackers may try to access sensitive data, to corrupt critical data...
- security properties are often even hard to express

Techniques to ensure software safety

Software development techniques:

- **software engineering**, with a focus on specification, and software quality (may be more or less formal...)
- programming rules for specific areas (e.g., DO 178 c in avionics)
- usually do not guarantee any strong property, but make softwares "cleaner"

Formal methods:

- should have sound mathematical foundations
- should allow to guarantee softwares meet some complex properties
- should be trustable (is a paper proof ok ???)
- increasingly used in real life applications, but still a lot of open problems

What is to be verified ?

What do the C programs below do ?

```
P_0
        int x = 0;
        int f_0(int y){
           return y \star x;
        int f_1(int y){
           \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y};
           return 0;
        void main(){
           z = f_0(10) + f_1(100);
```

P_1

```
void main(){
    int i;
    int t[100] = {0, 1, 2, ..., 99};
    while(i < 100){
        t[i] + +;
        i + +;
    }
}</pre>
```

P_2

```
void main(){
    float f = 0;;
    for(int i = 0; i < 1 000 000; i + +){
        f = f + 0.1;
    }
}</pre>
```

Semantic subtleties...

P_0 int x = 0; int $f_0($ int y){ return y * x; int $f_1(int y)$ { $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y};$ return 0; void main(){ $z = f_0(10) + f_1(100);$

Execution order:

- not specified in C
- specified in Java
- \bullet if left to right, $\mathbf{z}=\mathbf{0}$
- $\bullet\,$ if right to left, z=1000

Semantic subtleties...

P_1

```
void main(){
    int i;
    int t[100] = {0,1,2,...,99};
    while(i < 100){
        t[i] ++;
        i ++;
    }
}</pre>
```

P_2

```
void main(){
    float f = 0.;
    for(int i = 0; i < 1 000 000; i + +){
        f = f + 0.1;
    }
}</pre>
```

Initialization:

- runtime error in Java
- read of a random value in C (the value that was stored before)

Floating point semantics:

• 0.1 is not representable exactly what is it rounded to by the compiler ?

• rounding errors what is the rounding mode at runtime ?

The two main parts of this course

Semantics

- allow to describe precisely the behavior of programs should account for execution order, initialization, scope...
- allow to express the properties to verify several important families of properties: safety, liveness, security...
- also important to transform and compile programs

Verification

- aim at proving semantic properties of programs
- a very strong limitation: indecidability
- several approaches, that make various compromises around indecidability

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- Indecidability and fundamental limitations
- Approaches to verification

Orderings, lattices, fixpoints

The termination problem

Termination

Program *P* **terminates on input** *X* if and only if

any execution of P, with input X eventually reaches a final state

- Final state: final point in the program (i.e., not error)
- We may want to ensure termination:
 - processing of a task, such as, e.g., printing a document
 - computation of a mathematical function
- We may want to ensure *non*-termination:
 - operating system
 - device drivers

The termination problem

Can we find a program P_t that takes as argument a program P and data X and that returns "TRUE" if P terminates on X and "FALSE" otherwise ?

The termination problem is not computable

- Proof by reductio ad absurdum, using a *diagonal argument* We assume there exists a program P_a such that:
 - P_a always terminates
 - $P_a(P, X) = 1$ if P terminates on input X
 - $P_a(P,X) = 0$ if P does not terminate on input X

• We consider the following program:

```
void P_0(P){
    if(P_a(P, P) == 1){
        while(TRUE){} //loop forever
    }else{
        return; //do nothing...
    }}
```

• What is the return value of $P_a(P_0, P_0)$? i.e., P_0 does it terminate on input P_0 ?

The termination problem is not computable

• What is the return value of $P_a(P_0, P_0)$?

We know P_a always terminates and returns either 0 or 1 (assumption). Therefore, we need to consider only two cases:

- if P_a(P₀, P₀) returns 1, then P₀(P₀) loops forever, thus P_a(P₀, P₀) should return 0, so we have reached a contradiction
- if P_a(P₀, P₀) returns 0, then P₀(P₀) terminates, thus P_a(P₀, P₀) should 1, so we have reached a contradiction
- In both cases, we reach a contradiction
- Therefore we conclude no such a P_a exists

The termination problem is not decidable There exists no program P_t that always terminates and always recognizes whether a program P terminates on input X

Absence of runtime errors

- Can we find a program P_c that takes a program P and input X as arguments, always terminates and returns
 - ▶ 1 if and only *P* runs safely on input *X*, i.e., without a runtime error
 - 0 if P crashes on input X
- Answer: No, the same diagonal argument applies
 - if $P_c(P, X)$ decides whether P will run safely on X, consider

```
void P_1(P){

if(P_c(P, P)){

crash(); //fail (unsafe)

}else{

return; //do nothing (safe)...

}}
```

Non-computability result

The absence of runtime errors is not computable

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Rice theorem

- Semantic specification: set of correct program executions
- "Trivial" semantic specifications:
 - empty set
 - set of all possible executions
 - \Rightarrow intuitively, the non interesting verification problems...

Rice theorem (1953)

Considering a Turing complete language, any non trivial semantic specification is not computable

- Intuition: there is no algorithm to decide non trivial specifications, starting with only the program code
- Therefore all interesting properties are not computable :
 - termination,
 - absence of runtime errors,
 - absence of arithmetic errors, etc...

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- Indecidability and fundamental limitations
- Approaches to verification

Orderings, lattices, fixpoints

Towards partial solutions

- The initial verification problem is not computable
- Solution: solve a weaker problem
- Several compromises can be made:
 - simulation / testing: observe only finitely many finite executions infinite system, but only finite exploration (no proof beyond that)
 - assisted theorem proving: we give up on automation (no proof inference algorithm in general)
 - model checking: we consider only finite systems (with finitely many states)
 - bug-finding: search for "patterns" indicating "likely errors" (may miss real program errors, and report non existing issues)
 - static analysis with abstraction: attempt at automatic correctness proofs

(yet, may fail to verify some correct programs)

Safety verification method characteristics

Safety verification problem

- Semantics [P] of program P: set of behaviors of P (e.g., states)
- Property to verify S: set of admissible behaviors (e.g., safe states)
- Automation: existence of an algorithm
- Scalability: should allow to handle large softwares
- Soundness: identify any wrong program
- Completeness: accept all correct programs
- Apply to program source code, i.e., not require a modelling phase

1. Testing by simulation

Principle

Run the program on finitely many finite inputs

- maximize coverage
- inspect erroneous traces to fix bugs
- Very widely used:
 - unit testing: each function is tested separately
 - integration testing: with all surrounding systems, hardware e.g., iron bird in avionics
- Automated
- Complete: will never raise a false alarm
- Unsound unless exhaustive: may miss program defects
- Costly: needs to be re-done when software gets updated

2. Machine assisted proof

Principle

Have a machine checked proof, that is partly human written

- tactics / solvers may help in the inference
- the hardest invariants have to be user-supplied

Applications

- software industry (rare): Line 14 in Paris Subway
- hardware: ACL 2
- academia: CompCert compiler, SEL4 verified micro-kernel
- Not fully automated

often turns out costly as complex proof arguments have to be found

Sound and complete

3. Model-Checking

Principle

Consider finite systems only, using algorithms for

- exhaustive exploration,
- symmetry reduction...
- Applications:
 - hardware verification
 - driver protocols verification (Microsoft)
- Applies on a model: a model extraction phase is needed
 - for infinite systems, this is necessarily approximate
 - not always automated
- Automated, sound, complete with respect to the model

4. "Bug finding"

Principle

Identify "likely" issues, i.e., patterns known to often indicate an error

- use bounded symbolic execution, model exploration...
- rank "defect" reports using heuristics
- Example: Coverity
- Automated
- Not complete: may report false alarms
- Not sound: may accept false programs thus inadequate for safety-critical systems

5. Static analysis with abstraction (1/4)

Principle

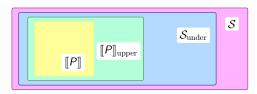
Use some approximation, but always in a conservative manner

- Under-approximation of the property to verify: $\mathcal{S}_{under} \subseteq \mathcal{S}$
- Over-approximation of the semantics: $[\![P]\!] \subseteq [\![P]\!]_{upper}$
- We let an automatic static analyzer attempt to prove that:

$[\![P]\!]_{\rm upper} \subseteq \mathcal{S}_{\rm under}$

If it succeeds, $\llbracket P \rrbracket \subseteq \mathcal{S}$

 $\bullet~$ In practice, the static analyzer computes $[\![P]\!]_{\rm upper}, \mathcal{S}_{\rm under}$



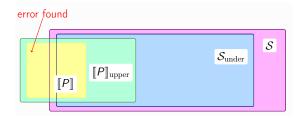


5. Static analysis with abstraction (2/4)

Soundness

The abstraction will catch any incorrect program

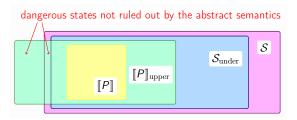
• If
$$\llbracket P \rrbracket \not\subseteq S$$
, then $\llbracket P \rrbracket_{\text{upper}} \not\subseteq S_{\text{under}}$
since $\begin{cases} \mathcal{S}_{\text{under}} \subseteq S \\ \llbracket P \rrbracket \subseteq \llbracket P \rrbracket_{\text{upper}} \end{cases}$



5. Static analysis with abstraction (3/4)

Incompleteness

The abstraction may fail to certify some correct programs



Case of a false alarm:

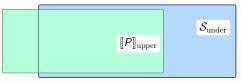
- program P is correct
- bu the static analysis fails

5. Static analysis with abstraction (4/4)

Incompleteness

The abstraction may fail to certify some correct programs

• In the following case, the analysis cannot conclude anything



• One goal of the static analyzer designer is to avoid such cases

Static analysis using abstraction Automatic: [[P]]_{upper}, S_{under} computed automatically Sound: reports any incorrect program Incomplete: may reject correct programs

A summary of common verification techniques

	Automatic	Sound	Complete	Source level	Scalable
Simulation	Yes	No ¹	Yes	Yes	sometimes ²
Assisted proving	No	Yes	Almost	Partially ³	sometimes ⁴
Model-checking	Yes	Yes	Partially	No	sometimes
Bug-finding	Yes	No	No	Yes	sometimes
Static analysis	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	sometimes

- Obviously, no approach checks all characteristics
- Scalability is a challenge for all

¹unless full testing is doable

 $^{^2}$ full testing usually not possible except for small programs with finite state space 3 only with respect to the finite models... but not with respect to infinite semantics 4 quickly requires huge manpower

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Orderings, lattices, fixpoints

- Basic definitions on orderings
- Operators over a poset and fixpoints

Order relations

Very useful in semantics and verification:

- logical ordering, expresses implication of logical facts
- **computational ordering**, useful to establish well-foundedness of fixpoint definitions, and for termination

Definition: partially ordered set (poset)

Let a set S and a binary relation $\sqsubseteq \subseteq S \times S$ over S. Then, \sqsubseteq is an order relation (and (S, \sqsubseteq) is called a **poset**) if and only if it is

- reflexive: $\forall x \in S, x \sqsubseteq x$
- transitive: $\forall x, y, z \in S, x \sqsubseteq y \land y \sqsubseteq z \implies x \sqsubseteq z$
- antisymmetric: $\forall x, y \in S, x \sqsubseteq y \land y \sqsubseteq x \implies x = y$

• notation:
$$x \sqsubset y ::= (x \sqsubseteq y \land x \neq y)$$

Graphical representation

We often use Hasse diagrams to represent posets:

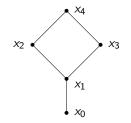
Extensive definition:

•
$$S = \{x_0, x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4\}$$

• \square defined by:



Diagram:



Example: semantics of automata

We consider the classical notion of finite automata and let

- L be a finite set of letters
- Q be a finite set of states
- $q_{\mathrm{i}}, q_{\mathrm{f}} \in Q$ denote the initial state and final state
- $\rightarrow \subseteq Q \times L \times Q$ be a transition relation

Then, the set of words recognized by $\mathcal{A}=(\mathcal{Q}, \mathit{q}_{\mathrm{i}}, \mathit{q}_{\mathrm{f}},
ightarrow)$ is defined by:

$$\mathcal{L}[\mathcal{A}] = \{a_0 a_1 \dots a_n \mid \exists q_0 \dots q_{n-1} \in Q, \ q_i \xrightarrow{a_0} q_0 \xrightarrow{a_1} q_1 \dots q_{n-1} \xrightarrow{a_n} q_f \}$$

Example: automata and semantic properties

A simple automaton:

$$L = \{a, b\} \qquad Q = \{q_0, q_1, q_2\}$$

$$q_i = q_0 \qquad q_f = q_2$$

$$q_0 \xrightarrow{a} q_1 \qquad q_1 \xrightarrow{b} q_2 \qquad q_2 \xrightarrow{a} q_1 \xrightarrow{q_0} q_0 \xrightarrow{a} q_1$$

A few semantic properties:

• \mathcal{P}_1 : no recognized word contains two consecutive b

$$\mathcal{L}[\mathcal{A}] \cap L^* bbL^* = \emptyset$$

• \mathcal{P}_0 : all recognized words contain at least one occurrence of *a*

$$\mathcal{L}[\mathcal{A}] \subseteq L^{\star}aL^{\star}$$

Total ordering

Definition: total order relation

Order relation \sqsubseteq over ${\mathcal S}$ is a total order if and only if

 $\forall x, y \in \mathcal{S}, \ x \sqsubseteq y \lor y \sqsubseteq x$

- (\mathbb{R},\leq) is a total ordering
- if set S has at least two distinct elements x, y then its powerset (P(S), ⊆) is not a total order indeed {x}, {y} cannot be compared
- most of the order relations we will use are *not* be total

Minimum and maximum elements

Definition: extremal elements

- Let $(\mathcal{S}, \sqsubseteq)$ be a poset and $\mathcal{S}' \subseteq \mathcal{S}$. Then x is
 - minimum element of S' if and only if $x \in S' \land \forall y \in S', x \sqsubseteq y$
 - maximum element of S' if and only if $x \in S' \land \forall y \in S', y \sqsubseteq x$
 - maximum and minimum elements may not exist example: {{x}, {y}} in the powerset, where x ≠ y
 - infimum \perp ("bottom"): minimum element of ${\mathcal S}$
 - supremum \top ("top"): maximum element of S

Upper bounds and least upper bound

Definition: bounds Given poset (S, \sqsubseteq) and $S' \subseteq S$, then $x \in S$ is • an **upper bound** of S' if

$$\forall y \in \mathcal{S}', y \sqsubseteq x$$

• the least upper bound (lub) of S' (noted $\sqcup S'$) if $\forall y \in S', \ y \sqsubseteq x \land \forall z \in S, (\forall y \in S', \ y \sqsubseteq z) \implies x \sqsubseteq z$

- if it exists, the least upper bound is unique:
 if x, y are least upper bounds of S, then x ⊑ y and y ⊑ x, thus x = y
 by antisymmetry
- notation: $x \sqcup y ::= \sqcup \{x, y\}$
- upper bounds and least upper bounds may not exist
- dual notions: lower bound, greatest lower bound (glb, noted $\sqcap S'$)

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Introduction

February 11, 2015

Duality principle

So far all definitions admit a symmetric counterpart

- given an order relation \sqsubseteq , \mathcal{R} defined by $x\mathcal{R}y \iff y \sqsubseteq x$ is also an order relation

This is the duality principle:

minimum element infimum lower bound greatest lower bound least upper bound

... more to follow

Complete lattice

Definition: complete lattice

A complete lattice is a tuple $(S, \sqsubseteq, \bot, \top, \sqcup, \sqcap)$ where:

- $(\mathcal{S}, \sqsubseteq)$ is a poset
- \perp is the infimum of ${\mathcal S}$
- op is the supremum of ${\mathcal S}$
- any subset \mathcal{S}' of \mathcal{S} has a lub $\sqcup \mathcal{S}'$ and a glb $\sqcap \mathcal{S}'$

Properties:

- $\bot = \sqcup \emptyset = \sqcap \mathcal{S}$
- $\top = \sqcap \emptyset = \sqcup \mathcal{S}$

Example: the powerset $(\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{S}), \subseteq, \emptyset, \mathcal{S}, \cup, \cap)$ of set \mathcal{S} is a complete lattice

Lattice

The existence of lubs and glbs for all subsets is often a very strong property, that may not be met:

Definition: lattice

- A lattice is a tuple $(S, \sqsubseteq, \bot, \top, \sqcup, \sqcap)$ where:
 - $(\mathcal{S}, \sqsubseteq)$ is a poset
 - \perp is the infimum of ${\cal S}$
 - ullet o o is the supremum of ${\mathcal S}$
 - any pair $\{x, y\}$ of \mathcal{S} has a lub $x \sqcup y$ and a glb $x \sqcap y$
 - let $Q = \{q \in \mathbb{Q} \mid 0 \le q \le 1\}$; then (Q, \le) is a lattice but not a complete lattice indeed, $\{q \in Q \mid q \le \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}\}$ has no lub in Q
 - property: a finite lattice is also a complete lattice

Chains

Definition: increasing chain

```
Let (S, \sqsubseteq) be a poset and C \subseteq S.
It is an increasing chain if and only if
```

- it has an infimum
- poset (C, ⊑) is total (i.e., any two elements can be compared)

Example, in the powerset $(\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N}), \subseteq)$:

$$\mathcal{C} = \{c_i \mid i \in \mathbb{N}\}$$
 where $c_i = \{2^0, 2^2, \dots, 2^i\}$

Definition: increasing chain condition

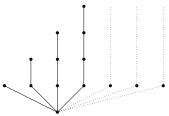
Poset (S, \sqsubseteq) satisfies the increasing chain condition if and only if any increasing chain $C \subseteq S$ is finite.

Complete partial orders

Definition: complete partial order

A complete partial order (cpo) is a poset (S, \sqsubseteq) such that any increasing chain C of S has a least upper bound. A pointed cpo is a cpo with an infimum \bot .

- clearly, any complete lattice is a cpo
- the opposite is not true:



Outline

Introduction

2 Case studies

3 Approaches to verification

Orderings, lattices, fixpoints

- Basic definitions on orderings
- Operators over a poset and fixpoints

Towards a constructive definition of the automata semantics

We now look for a **constructive version of the automaton semantics** as hinted by the following observations

Observation 1: $\mathcal{L}[\mathcal{A}] = \llbracket \mathcal{A} \rrbracket(q_f)$ where

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathcal{A} \end{bmatrix} : Q \longrightarrow \mathcal{P}(L^*) q \longmapsto \{ w \in L^* \mid \exists n, w = a_0 a_1 \dots a_n \exists q_0 \dots q_{n-1} \in Q, q_i \xrightarrow{a_0} q_0 \xrightarrow{a_1} q_1 \dots q_{n-1} \xrightarrow{a_n} q \}$$

Observation 2: $\llbracket \mathcal{A} \rrbracket = \bigcup \llbracket \mathcal{A} \rrbracket_n$ where

$$\begin{split} \llbracket \mathcal{A} \rrbracket : & Q \longrightarrow \mathcal{P}(L^*) \\ & q \longmapsto \{a_0 a_1 \dots a_n \mid \exists q_0 \dots q_{n-1} \in Q, \ q_i \xrightarrow{a_0} q_0 \xrightarrow{a_1} q_1 \dots q_{n-1} \xrightarrow{a_n} q \} \end{split}$$

Observation 3: $[\![A]\!]_{n+1}$ can be computed directly from $[\![A]\!]_n$

$$\llbracket \mathcal{A} \rrbracket_{n+1}(q) = \bigcup_{q' \in Q} \{ wa \mid w \in \llbracket \mathcal{A} \rrbracket_n(q') \land q' \stackrel{a}{\longrightarrow} q \}$$

Operators over a poset

Definition: operators and orderings

Let $(\mathcal{S}, \sqsubseteq)$ be a poset and $\phi : \mathcal{S} \to \mathcal{S}$ be an operator over \mathcal{S} . Then, ϕ is:

- monotone if and only if $\forall x, y \in S, x \sqsubseteq y \Longrightarrow \phi(x) \sqsubseteq \phi(y)$
- continuous if and only if, for any chain S' ⊆ S then: {
 if ⊔ S' exists, so does ⊔ {φ(x) | x ∈ S'}
 and φ(⊔S') = ⊔{φ(x) | x ∈ S'}

 □-preserving if and only if: ∀S' ⊆ S, {
 if ⊔ S' exists, then ⊔ {φ(x) | x ∈ S'}
 and φ(⊔S') = ⊔{φ(x) | x ∈ S'}

Notes:

- "monotone" in English means "croissante" in French ; "décroissante" translates into "anti-monotone" and "monotone" into "isotone"
- the dual of "monotone" is "monotone"

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Operators over a poset

A few interesting properties:

• continuous \Rightarrow monotone:

if ϕ is monotone, and $x, y \in S$ are such that $x \sqsubseteq y$, then $\{x, y\}$ is a chain with lub y, thus $\phi(x) \sqcup \phi(y)$ exists and is equal to $\phi(\sqcup\{x, y\}) = \phi(y)$; therefore $\phi(x) \sqsubseteq \phi(y)$.

□-preserving ⇒ monotone:
 same argument.

Fixpoints

Definition: fixpoints

- Let $(\mathcal{S}, \sqsubseteq)$ be a poset and $f : \mathcal{S} \to \mathcal{S}$ be an operator over \mathcal{S} .
 - a fixpoint of ϕ is an element x such that $\phi(x) = x$
 - a pre-fixpoint of ϕ is an element x such that $x \sqsubseteq \phi(x)$
 - a post-fixpoint of ϕ is an element x such that $\phi(x) \sqsubseteq x$
 - the least fixpoint lfp ϕ of ϕ (if it exists, it is unique) is the smallest fixpoint of ϕ
 - the greatest fixpoint gfp ϕ of ϕ (if it exists, it is unique) is the greatest fixpoint of ϕ

Note: the existence of a least fixpoint, a greatest fixpoint or even a fixpoint is *not guaranteed*; we will see several theorems that establish their existence under specific assumptions...

Tarski's Theorem

Theorem

Let $(S, \sqsubseteq, \bot, \top, \sqcup, \sqcap)$ be a complete lattice and $\phi : S \to S$ be a monotone operator over S. Then:

- ϕ has a least fixpoint **Ifp** ϕ and **Ifp** $\phi = \sqcap \{x \in S \mid \phi(x) \sqsubseteq x\}$.
- **2** ϕ has a greatest fixpoint $\mathbf{gfp}\phi$ and $\mathbf{gfp}\phi = \sqcup \{x \in \mathcal{S} \mid x \sqsubseteq \phi(x)\}.$
- **(**) the set of fixpoints of ϕ is a complete lattice.

Proof of point 1:

We let
$$X = \{x \in S \mid \phi(x) \sqsubseteq x\}$$
 and $x_0 = \Box X$.

Let $y \in X$:

- $x_0 \sqsubseteq y$ by definition of the glb;
- thus, since ϕ is monotone, $\phi(x_0) \sqsubseteq \phi(y)$;
- thus, $\phi(x_0) \sqsubseteq y$ since $\phi(y) \sqsubseteq y$, by definition of X.

Therefore $\phi(x_0) \sqsubseteq x_0$, since $x_0 = \Box X$.

Tarski's Theorem

We proved that $\phi(x_0) \sqsubseteq x_0$. We derive from this that:

- $\phi(\phi(x_0)) \sqsubseteq \phi(x_0)$ since ϕ is monotone;
- $\phi(x_0)$ is a post-fixpoint of ϕ , thus $\phi(x_0) \in X$;
- $x_0 \sqsubseteq \phi(x_0)$ by definition of the greatest lower bound

We have established both inclusions so $\phi(x_0) = x_0$.

Proof of point 2: similar, by duality.

Proof of point 3:

- if X is a set of fixpoints of φ, we need to consider φ over
 {y ∈ S | y ⊑_S ⊓X} to establish the existence of a glb of X in the poset of fixpoints
- the existence of least upper bounds in the poset of fixpoints follows by duality

Automata example, fixpoint definition

Lattice:

- $\mathcal{S} = Q \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(L^*)$
- $\bullet\,$ the ordering is the pointwise extension $\sqsubseteq\,$ of $\sqsubseteq\,$

Operator:

Proof steps to complete:

- the existence of $\mathbf{lfp}\phi$ follows from Tarski's theorem
- the equality $lfp\phi = [A]$ can be established by induction and double inclusion... but there is a simpler way

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Introduction

Kleene's Theorem

Tarski's theorem guarantees existence of an lfp, but is not constructive.

Theorem

Let (S, \sqsubseteq, \bot) be a pointed cpo and $\phi : S \to S$ be a continuous operator over S. Then ϕ has a least fixpoint, and

$$\mathsf{lfp}\phi = \bigsqcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \phi^n(\bot)$$

First, we prove the existence of the lub:

Since ϕ is continuous, it is also monotone. We can prove by induction over n that $\{\phi^n(\bot) \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ is a chain:

•
$$\phi^0(\bot) = \bot \sqsubseteq \phi(\bot)$$
 by definition of the infimum;

• if
$$\phi^n(\bot) \sqsubseteq \phi^{n+1}(\bot)$$
, then

$$\phi^{n+1}(\bot) = \phi(\phi^n(\bot)) \sqsubseteq \phi(\phi^{n+1}(\bot)) = \phi^{n+2}(\bot)$$

By definition of the cpo structure, the lub exists. We let x_0 denote it.

Kleene's Theorem

Secondly, we prove that it is a fixpoint of ϕ : Since ϕ is continuous, $\{\phi^{n+1}(\bot) \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ has a lub, and

$$\begin{array}{lll} \phi(x_0) &=& \phi(\sqcup\{\phi^n(\bot) \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}) \\ &=& \sqcup\{\phi^{n+1}(\bot) \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\} & \text{by continuity of } \phi \\ &=& \bot \sqcup (\sqcup\{\phi^{n+1}(\bot) \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}) & \text{by definition of } \bot \\ &=& x_0 & \text{by simple rewrite} \end{array}$$

Last, we show that it is the **least** fixpoint:

Let x_1 denote another fixpoint of ϕ . We show by induction over *n* that $\phi^n(\bot) \sqsubseteq x_1$:

•
$$\phi^0(\bot) = \bot \sqsubseteq x_1$$
 by definition of \bot ;

• if $\phi^n(\perp) \sqsubseteq x_1$, then $\phi^{n+1}(\perp) \sqsubseteq \phi(x_1) = x_1$ by monotony, and since x_1 is a fixpoint.

By definition of the lub, $x_0 \sqsubseteq x_1$

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Automata example, constructive

We can now state a **constructive definition** of the automaton semantics. Operator ϕ is defined by

$$\phi(f) = \lambda(q \in Q) \cdot \begin{cases} f(x) \cup \phi_0(f)(q_i) \cup \{\epsilon\} & \text{if } q = q_i \\ f(x) \cup \phi_0(f)(q) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Proof steps:

- ϕ is continuous
- thus, Kleene's theorem applies so $\mathbf{lfp}\phi$ exists and $\mathbf{lfp}\phi = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \phi^n(\bot) \dots$... this actually saves the double inclusion proof to establish that $[\![\mathcal{A}]\!] = \mathbf{lfp}\phi$

Furthermore, $\llbracket \mathcal{A} \rrbracket = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \phi^n(\bot)$.

This fixpoint definition will be very useful to infer or verify semantic properties.

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Duality principle

We can extend the duality notion:

monotonemonotoneanti-monotoneanti-monotonepost-fixpointpre-fixpointleast fixpointgreatest fixpointincreasing chaindecreasing chain

Furthermore both Tarski's theorem and Kleene's theorem have a dual version (Tarski's theorem mostly encloses its own dual, except for the definition of the gfp).

Operators over a poset and fixpoints

On inductive reasoning

Formalizing inductive definitions: Definition based on inference rules:

Same property based on a least-fixpoint:

 $\frac{x \in X}{x_0 \in X} \qquad \frac{x \in X}{f(x) \in X} \qquad \qquad \mathsf{lfp}(X \longmapsto \{x_0\} \cup X \cup \{f(x) \mid x \in X\})$

Proving the inclusion of a fixpoint in a given set:

- Let $\phi : S \longrightarrow S$ be a continuous operator
- Let $\mathcal{I} \in \mathcal{S}$ such that:

$$\forall x \in \mathcal{S}, \ x \sqsubseteq \mathcal{I} \Longrightarrow \phi(x) \sqsubseteq \mathcal{I}$$

- We obviously have $\bot \sqsubseteq \mathcal{I}$
- We can prove that $\mathbf{lfp}\phi \sqsubseteq \mathcal{I}$

In the next lectures...

- Families of semantics, for a general model of programs
- Families of semantic properties of programs
- Verification techniques:
 - abstract interpretation based static analysis
 - machine assisted theorem proving
 - model checking

Next week: transition systems and operational semantics

Practical information about the course

The course will be taught by:

- Sylvain Conchon (LRI, Paris-Orsay)
- Antoine Miné (DIENS)
- Xavier Rival (DIENS)

Practical organization:

- 1h30 Cours + 1h30 TD or TP depending on week
- a webpage will be available soon

Evaluation: $n = \frac{p+e}{2}$

- project p: implementation of a static analyzer
- exam e: 27th of May, 2015