

Sistemi Concorrenti e di Rete LS

Il Facoltà di Ingegneria - Cesena

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[module 2.2]

**VERIFICATION OF CONCURRENT
PROGRAMS - BASICS**

FORMAL METHODS

- Errors in concurrent programming and concurrent systems cannot be discovered by debugging and corrections cannot be checked by testing
 - > need of formal methods to specify and the verify rigorously the concurrent programs (systems)
- Two principal (class of) formal techniques:
 - **model checking**
 - where verification is done by generating one by one all the states of the systems and by checking the properties state by state
 - can be automated by model checkers tools
 - **inductive proofs of invariants**
 - invariant properties are proved by induction over the states of the system
 - can be automated by tools called deductive systems
- Both techniques rely on some kind of *formal language / calculus to specify correctness properties*

CORRECTNESS PROPERTIES IN PROPOSITION CALCULUS

- With propositional calculus, correctness properties are expressed as *logic formulae* that must be true in order to verify the property in some state of the system
 - formulae are assertions obtained by composing propositions through logic connectors
 - and, or, not, implications, equivalence
- In our case propositions are about *the values of the variables* and of *the control pointers* during an execution of a concurrent programming
 - e.g. given the boolean variable $want_p$, an atomic proposition (assertion) $want_p$ is true in a certain state if and only if the value of the variable $want_p$ is true in that state
- Each label of a statement of a process will be used as an atomic proposition whose interpretation is "the control pointer of that process is currently at that label"
 - e.g. $p1$ proposition asserts that the control pointer of the process p is at the label $p1$.

AN EXAMPLE: MUTUAL EXCLUSION

| Third attempt | |
|---|---|
| boolean wantp \leftarrow false boolean wantq \leftarrow false | |
| p | q |
| loop forever p1: <i>non-critical section</i> p2: wantp \leftarrow true p3: await !wantq p4: <i>critical section</i> p5: wantp \leftarrow false | loop forever q1: <i>non-critical section</i> q2: wantq \leftarrow true q3: await !wantp q4: <i>critical section</i> q5: wantq \leftarrow false |

- Formula $p_4 \wedge q_4$
 - is true if both control pointers of the processes are in the critical section
- if it exists some state in which this formula is true, then it means that *the mutual exclusion property is **not** satisfied*
- > dually, a program *satisfies the mutual exclusion property* if the formula $\neg(p_4 \wedge q_4)$ is true for *every possible state of every scenario*

TEMPORAL LOGIC

- Processes and systems change their state over the time, and then also the interpretation of formulae about their state can change over the time.
 - > we need a formal language/calculus that would take this aspect into the account
 - > *temporal logic* is one of the most basic and popular one
- The **temporal logic** is a formal logic obtained by adding temporal operators to propositional or predicate logic
 - **Linear Temporal Logic (LTL)**
 - to express properties that must be true (at a state) for *every possible scenario*
 - linear / discrete model of time
 - Branching temporal logics
 - to express properties that must be true in some or all scenarios starting from a state
 - an example: CTL (computational tree logic)

LTL: TEMPORAL OPERATORS

- LTL is based on two basic temporal operators: *always* and *eventually*
 - **box** or **always** temporal operator: $\Box A$
 - the formula $\Box A$ is true in a state s_i of a computation if and only if the formula A is true in *all* states s_j with $j \geq i$
 - synonym: $\Box p = G p$ (Globally p)
 - the always operator can be used then to specify *safety properties*, because it specifies what must be always be true
 - **diamond** or **eventually** temporal operator: $\Diamond A$
 - the formula $\Diamond A$ is true in a state s_i of a computation if and only if the formula A is true in *some* states s_j with $j \geq i$
 - synonym: $\Diamond p = F p$ (Finally p)
 - the eventually operator is used to specify *liveness properties*, because it specifies something that eventually be true

BASIC PROPERTIES

- Reflexivity: $\Box A \rightarrow A$
 $A \rightarrow \Diamond A$
- Duality: $\neg \Box A = \Diamond \neg A$
 $\neg \Diamond A = \Box \neg A$
- Sequences of operators: $\Diamond \Box A$
 $\Box \Diamond A$

DEDUCTION WITH TEMPORAL LOGICS

- Temporal logic is a formal system of deductive logic with its own axioms and rules of inference
 - it can be used to formalize the semantics of concurrent programs and used to rigorously prove correctness properties of programs
- An example of a theorems in TL:

$(\diamond \square A1 \wedge \diamond \square A2) \rightarrow \diamond \square (A1 \wedge A2)$ is true.

$(\square \diamond A1 \wedge \square \diamond A2) \rightarrow \square \diamond (A1 \wedge A2)$ is false

SPECIFYING SAFETY PROPERTIES

- Box operator can be used to specify safety properties
 - as properties that must be always true
- $\Box P$, where $P = \neg Q$ and Q is the description of a bad state
 - an example: mutual exclusion in CS problem

| First attempt | |
|---|---|
| Integer turn \leftarrow 1 | |
| p | q |
| loop forever p1: <i>non-critical section</i> p2: await turn = 1 p3: <i>critical section</i> p4: turn \leftarrow 2 | loop forever q1: <i>non-critical section</i> q2: await turn = 2 q3: <i>critical section</i> q4: turn \leftarrow 1 |

- mutual exclusion property: $\Box \neg (p_3 \wedge q_3)$

SPECIFYING LIVENESS PROPERTIES

- Diamond operator can be used to specify liveness properties
 - as conditions that eventually will be true
- $\diamond P$, where P is the description of a good case
 - an example: *progress property (no starvation)* in CS problem

| First attempt | |
|---|---|
| Integer turn \leftarrow 1 | |
| p | q |
| loop forever p1: <i>non-critical section</i> p2: await turn = 1 p3: <i>critical section</i> p4: turn \leftarrow 2 | loop forever q1: <i>non-critical section</i> q2: await turn = 2 q3: <i>critical section</i> q4: turn \leftarrow 1 |

- progress property *for one shot* (no loops): $p_2 \rightarrow \diamond p_3$
- progress property *with loops*: $\square(p_2 \rightarrow \diamond p_3)$

BINARY OPERATORS

- Always and eventually are unary operators. An example of useful and frequently used binary operator is until
 - **Until** operator: $A \text{ U } B$
 - $A \text{ U } B$ is true in a state S_i if and only if B is true in some state S_j , $j \geq i$ and A is true in all state S_k , $i \leq k < j$.
 - That is: eventually B becomes true and that A is true until that happens
 - **Weak-Until** operator: $A \text{ W } B$
 - like Until operator, but formula B is not required to become true eventually. If it does not, A must remain true indefinitely
 - $A \text{ W } B$ = as long as A is false, B must be true

OVERTAKING

- Consider the following scenario in the CS problem

`try-p, try-q, CSq, try-q, CSq, . . . , CSq, CSp`
 ^{^ ^}

1000 times

- It's not an example of starvation...
 - it is true that $\diamond CSp$
 - > but it's evident too that freedom from starvation can be a very weak property!
- in some cases we want to ensure that a process would enter its critical section within a reasonable amount of time

K-BOUND OVERTAKING PROPERTY

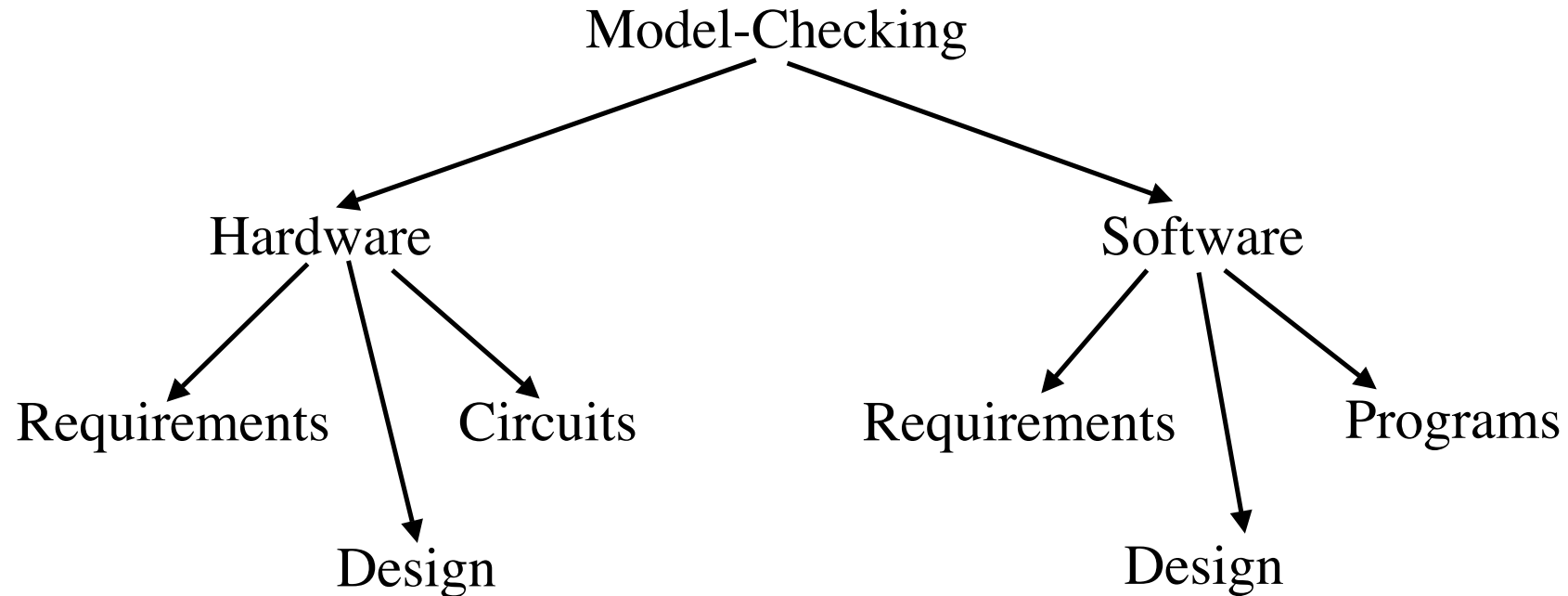
- ***k*-bounded-overtaking property**
 - from the time a process *p* attempts to enter its critical section, another process can enter at most *k* times before *p* does
 - Example: 3-overtaking
 - $try-p, try-q, CSq, try-q, CSq, try-q, CSq, CSp$

- The property can be expressed by the weak until operator *W*
 - example with 1-bounded-overtaking:
 $try_p \rightarrow \neg CS_q \ W \ CS_q \ W \ \neg CS_q \ W \ CS_p$

VERIFICATION TECHNIQUES (1/2): MODEL-CHECKING

- Model checking is the most important and used technique for automatically checking correctness properties of concurrent systems
 - invaluable conceptual and practical tool for software engineers
- Strategy based on exhaustively searching the entire state space of a system and verify if certain properties are satisfied
 - properties as predicates on a system state or states, expressed as a logical specification such as propositional temporal logic formula
 - if the system satisfies the property, the model checker generates a *confirmation* response
 - otherwise, it produces a *trace* (counterexample) => useful also to identify bugs, not only to prove correctness
- SW vs. HW model checking
 - can be applied also to hardware
 - e.g. Intel adopting Model-Checking after the Pentium Bug in 1994
 - used in mission critical software systems
 - e.g. NASA after Mars Polar Lander incident in 1999

MODEL-CHECKING APPLICATIONS



- Program model checking
 - application of the model-checking techniques to software systems
 - in particular to the final implementation
 - discovering software defects

DEALING WITH THE STATE-SPACE EXPLOSION PROBLEM

- The big problem of model-checking technique is the size of the state space
 - how to manage graph of millions of states? Is it feasible ?
- State-of-the art techniques
 - applying rules to reduce the number of states
 - using variables that can be modeled by a limited number of values
 - incremental construction of the whole graph
 - exploring only reachable state of an execution.
 - checking the truth of a correctness specification as the incremental diagram is constructed, stopping the construction is a falsifying state is found
 - *symbolic* model checking
 - working with set of states

SPIN AND PROMELA

- **SPIN** is a widely used model-checker used in both academic research and industrial software development
 - extremely efficient
 - used in modeling and designing concurrent and distributed systems in general
- **PROMELA** is the language that is used in Spin to write concurrent programs modeling language
 - limited number of constructs intended to be used to build models of concurrent systems

AN EXAMPLE: DEKKER IN PROMELA

```
bool    wantp = false, wantq = false;
byte    turn = 1;

proctype p() {
  do ::
    wantp = true;
    do :: !wantq -> break;
      :: else ->
        if :: (turn == 1)
          :: (turn == 2) ->
            wantp = false;
            (turn == 1);
            wantp = true
        fi
    od;
    printf("LOG: p in CS\n");
    turn = 2;
    wantp = false
  od
}

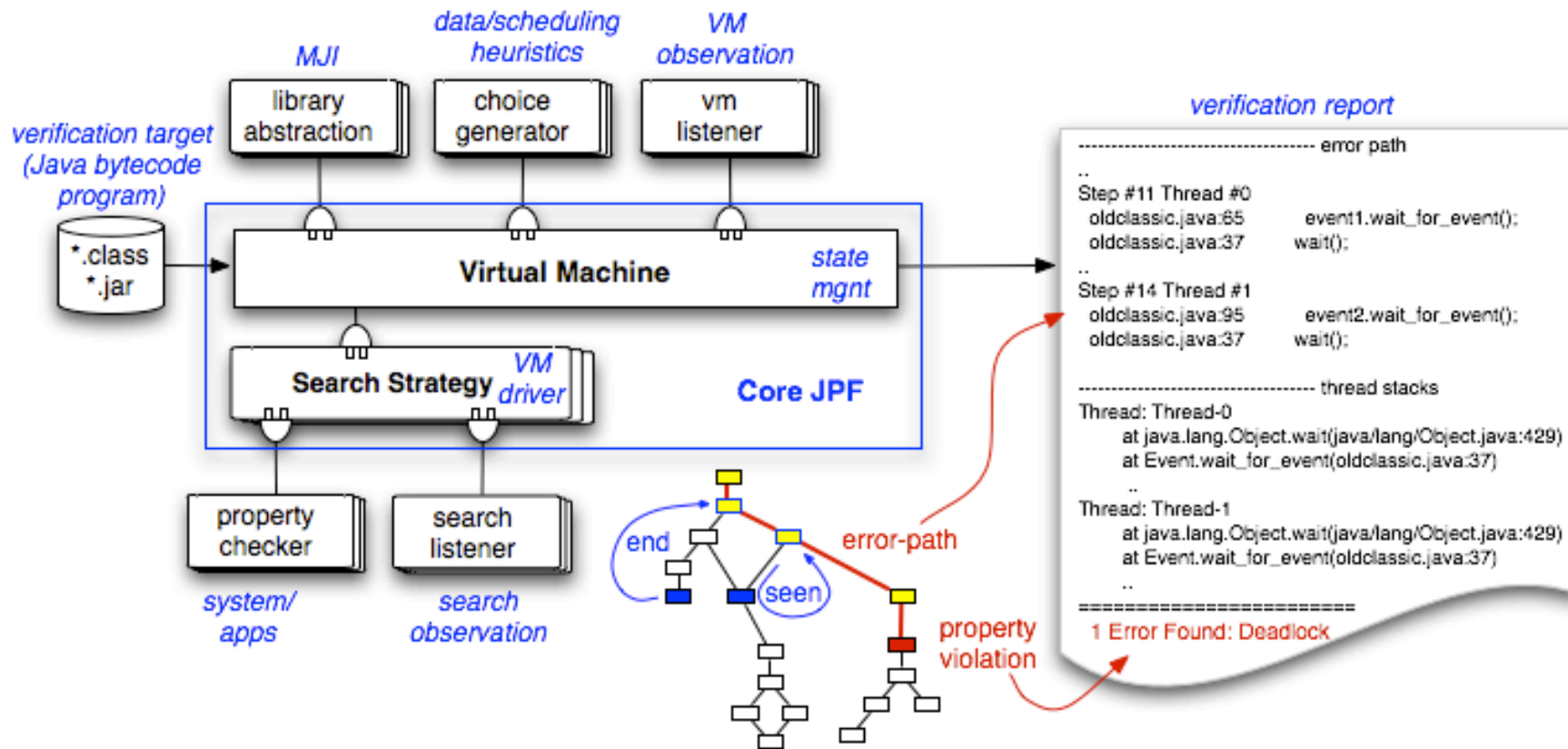
proctype q() { /* similar */}

init {
  atomic {
    run p
    run q
  }
}
```

JAVA PATH FINDER (JPF)

- JPF is a recent model-checker specialized for the verification of programs written in Java
 - developed by NASA, used for critical software
 - open-source project
 - <http://javapathfinder.sourceforge.net/>
- JPF is a special JVM executing programs theoretically along all possible scenarios (execution paths), checking for property violations
 - deadlocks, uncaught exceptions, etc
 - If it finds an error, JPF reports the whole execution that leads to it

JPF MODEL OF OPERATION



VERIFICATION TECHNIQUES (2/2): INDUCTIVE PROOF OF INVARIANTS

- **invariant**
 - a formula that must be invariably true at any point of any computation
 - e.g. $\neg(p_4 \wedge q_4)$
- Invariants can be proved using **induction** over the states of all the computations:
 - to prove that A is an invariant:
 - prove that A is true in the initial state (*the base case*)
 - assume that A is true in a generic state S (*inductive hypothesis*) and prove that A is true in all the possible state next to S (*inductive step*)
- Deductive systems
 - software systems for automated theorem proving

NOTE ABOUT SAFETY AND LIVENESS PROPERTY VERIFICATION

- safety property are easier to verify
 - a safety property must be true at all states
 - it is sufficient to find a state not verifying the property to complete the verification
 - a liveness property claims that a state satisfying a property will inevitably occur
 - it is not sufficient to check states one by one, it is necessary to check all possible scenarios
 - > it requires more complex theory and software techniques