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A Modular Model Checking Algorithm for Cyclic Feature Compositions

by

Xiaoning Wang

A Thesis

Submitted to the Faculty

of the

WORCESTER POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE

In partial fulfillment of the requirements for the

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by

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Abstract

Feature-oriented software architecture is a way of organizing code around the features that the program provides instead of the program's objects and components. In the development of a feature-oriented software system, the developers, supplied with a set of features, select and organize features to construct the desired system. This approach, by better aligning the implementation of a system with the external view of users, is believed to have many potential benefits such as feature reuse and easy maintenance. However, there are challenges in the formal verification of feature-oriented systems: first, the product may grow very large and complicated. As a result, it's intractable to apply the traditional formal verification techniques such as model checking on such systems directly; second, since the number of feature-oriented products the developers can build is exponential in the number of features available, there may be redundant verification work if doing verification on each product. For example, developers may have shared specifications on different products built from the same set of features and hence doing verification on these features many times is really unnecessary. All these drive the need for modular verifications for feature-oriented architectures.

Assume-guarantee reasoning as a modular verification technique is believed to be an effective solution. In this thesis, I compare two verification methods of this category on feature-oriented systems and analyze the results. Based on their pros and cons, I propose

a new modular model checking method to accomplish verification for sequential feature compositions with cyclic connections between the features. This method first builds an abstract finite state machine, which summarizes the information related to checking the property/specification from the concrete feature design, and then applies a revised CTL model checker to decide whether the system design can preserve the property or not. Proofs of the soundness of my method are also given in this thesis.

Keywords: verification, model checking, assume-guarantee reasoning, feature-oriented software development, modular verification.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

In recent years, there is growing research for software products built from features [8][10][11][12]. Features are functional units that implement some customer requirements. For instance, *encryption*, *auto-reply*, *forwarding* are all features in an email system and they all implement some customer requirements of the system. The size of a feature can be arbitrary: it can be as small as a single class that's sufficient for the implementation of a requirement and can be as large as thousands of lines of programs across distributed systems.

In contrast to the traditional object-oriented and component-based software development, in the feature-oriented approach, developers implement the system core infrastructure into a special component called *the base*. Each feature is implemented as a separate module. Then the developers build up the composed system called *a product* in a product line manner by plugging features chosen from the series of features available into the base [9]. Figure 1 shows an example of feature-oriented email system development. This email product is composed of the base and two features, *compose* and *encryption*.

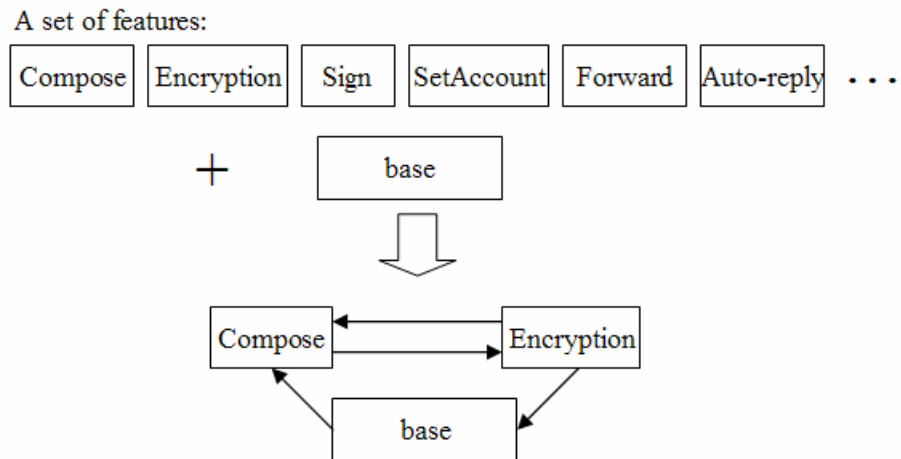


Figure 1: A feature-oriented system design example

The base implements the basic functionality of starting the system and mailing an email out.

Since features are extracted from the customers' side, the feature-oriented software architecture really aligns the software implementation with the external view of customers instead of the traditional designs about objects and components from programmers. Feature-oriented methodology is believed to have many potential benefits such as feature reuse and easy maintenance [9]. For example, the *encryption* feature in Figure 1 may be frequently used in the development of many systems such as Intrusion Detection Systems, Web-based systems, and Network Management systems, etc. Maintaining feature-oriented software by adding and removing features from a product is also relatively easy.

1.1 A formal model of features

In this section, I will define a formal model of the feature-oriented architecture for my thesis.

Although the design and the implementation of a feature could be arbitrary, I assume that all features can be described by Finite State Machines (FSM). Such FSM can either be given by the designers [15] or be extracted from code [16]. There are also other restrictions on the structures of the FSM in this thesis.

Definition 1: A *feature* is a finite state machine that satisfies the following structural conditions:

1. Each FSM has a unique initial state to start up the system
2. No terminal state in the FSM has a successor.
3. Each state in the FSM can reach some terminal state by some number of steps.

Figure 2 shows a legal FSM of a feature in my thesis:

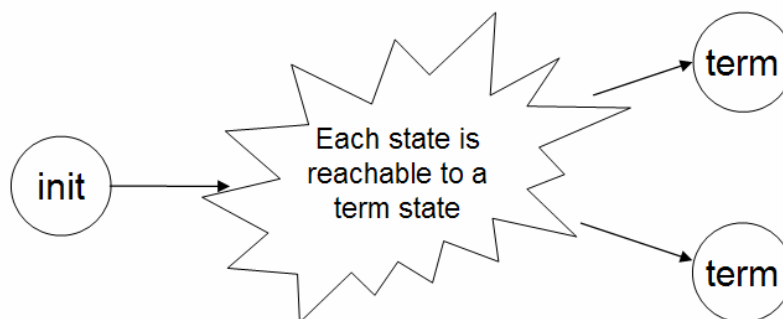


Figure 2: feature example

The base is a special element in constructing a feature-oriented system that implements the core functionalities (the basic email sending functionality in an email system for example) of a system. The specialty of the base in my research comes from its structure.

Definition 2: *The base* is a finite state machine that satisfies the following structural conditions:

1. All structural requirements of the FSM of a feature
2. The initial state *init* is not reachable from any distinguished state *init'* (to which other features will have transitions), as shown in figure 3.

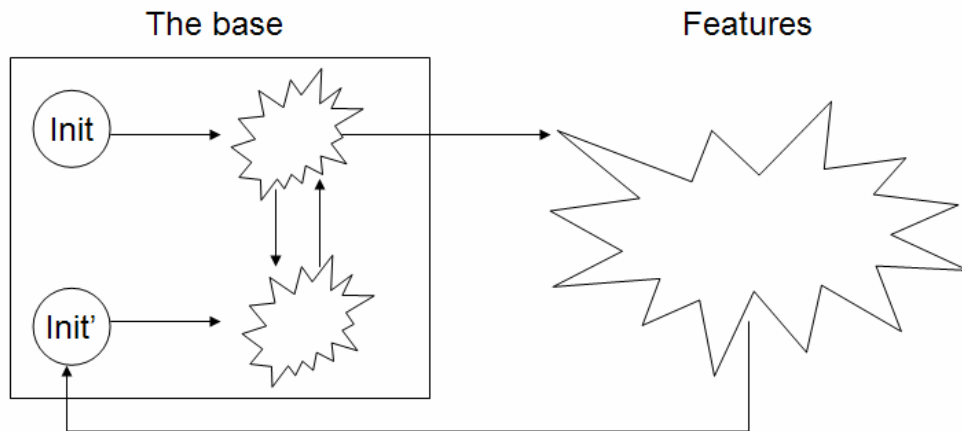


Figure 3: the base structure and its connection with other features

The purpose of the structural requirement in (2) is to avoid data leakage across multiple runs of system, which will be discussed in Section 2.1.

The state variables in the FSM of both features and the base are propositions capturing either *data* or *control*. A *data proposition* represents some attribute of an object that can persist in multiple system states and a *control proposition* refers to an external user input or decision that drives the feature. For example, in an email system, the truth of a data proposition *encrypted* describes the state of an email after it gets encrypted; at some point of the email system execution, the system may wait for the user decision to choose the next path to be executed, the proposition used to represent the user decision is a control proposition.

Given a set of features and the base, they are combined into a product. Since both features and the base can be expressed by FSM, from the architectural level, a product is built by adding edges between some states of these FSM. How the features and the base are connected is defined as follows:

Definition 3: *Feature connections* are the connection relationships between features and the base where

- 1) There may be connections from the terminal state of any F_i to the initial state of any F_j ;
- 2) There may be connections from some state s_1 in the base to the initial state of any feature and from the terminal state of any feature to some state s_2 in the base, but the initial state of the base is not reachable from s_2 .

Note that this definition allows all kinds of connections between features such as linear chain, branches and cycles. More restrictively, this thesis requires that the features and the base are hooked up by adding edges between the terminal states of a feature and the initial states of its successors.

Definition 4: A *product* can be defined inductively as follows:

1. The base is a product
2. Connecting new features into the current product according to the rules in Definition 3 also constructs a product.

Figure 4 gives an intuitive picture about how a product is constructed. The base is the starting place and a set of features F1, F2...F5 are inserted into the product. F4, F5 and the base are organized into a linear chain. F1 has two branches with one flowing into F2 and the other into F4. Circular connections are also possible, as reflected by the edges between F2 and F4.

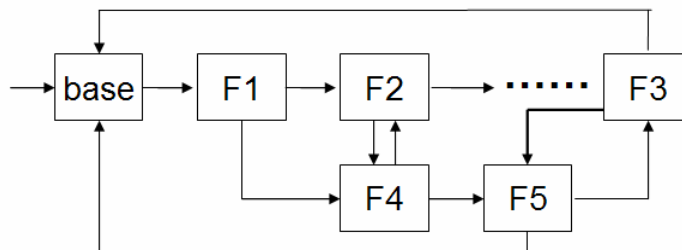


Figure 4: how to build a product from features and the base

1.2 Challenges for feature-oriented software verification

Formal verification, which establishes properties of system designs using formal logic, rather than just incomplete testing, is believed to be a good approach to prove the software systems are free of certain defects and behave as expected. Unfortunately the traditional verification algorithms cannot be applied into feature-oriented software development directly for two reasons: first, the product may grow very large and have such a huge amount of states to be checked that makes the verification work intractable; second, verifying each product individually may cause redundant verification work. Remember that there may be an exponential number of products built in the number of features [3]. As a result, it's highly possible for users to share specifications on different products built from the same set of features and hence doing verification on these features many times is really unnecessary.

In order to solve these problems, we want a verification technique that [3][4]

1. analyzes individual features in isolation
2. does minimum checks on the whole product at the composition time
3. requires little user interactions

This goal and the problem context suggest a modular model checking method to conquer the verification problems for feature-oriented architectures. While there is a

preliminary approach that satisfies these goals [3], it doesn't support as rich a set of feature-oriented designs as I would like.

1.2.1 Model checking

Model checking, as an efficient and practical verification method, has been used widely [1]. This method can consume a finite state machine model and a temporal logic formula and decide whether the formula is satisfied in the model. The temporal formula is typically expressed in the logics CTL [1] or LTL [2].

The most popular model checker is based on CTL. In the CTL model checking method, the system model is an FSM, in which each state s is originally labeled with a state variable set to hold all propositions that are true at s . The property is written as a CTL formula, which is the combination of atomic propositions, logical connectives and temporal operators. The logical connectives refer to *and*, *or* and *negation* and the temporal operators include AGf , AXf , AFf , $A[f U f']$, EGf , EXf , EFf , $E[f U f']$ where f and f' are both CTL formulas. The operators have the informal meanings described below; the formal semantics appears in [1].

1. AGf means f should be true globally in all paths from the current state.
2. AXf means f should be true at all next states of the current state.
3. AFf means f should be true finally in all paths from the current state.
4. $A[f U f']$ means f should be true until f' is true in all paths from the current state.

-
5. EGf means f should be true globally in one of the paths from the current state.
 6. EXf means f should be true at one of the next states of the current state.
 7. EFf means f should be true finally in one of the paths from the current state.
 8. $E[f U f']$ means f should be true until f' is true in one of the paths from the current state.

Here, the true and false value of a formula f , both atomic and non-atomic, describes some state of system executions. For example, a formula $AG (composed \rightarrow AF encrypted \wedge EF sent)$ states that whenever an email gets composed, it should always be finally encrypted for data protection and there exists a path in the system to send the email out.

Figure 5 outlines how a CTL model checker works. It first calls a function, denoted here as $TMC(FSM, f)$, to label the FSM with each sub-formula f' of the property f . This process actually calls another function, denoted as $TMC_help(s, f')$, to label each state s at which f' is true with $(f', true)$. These pairs $(f', true)$ are kept in a state label set and all missing sub-formulas of f are then false at s . A CTL model checker processes the sub-formulas from smallest to largest based on the semantics of the logical and temporal operators, so that all pieces of a sub-formula are labeled before the states are labeled with the sub-formula. Eventually CTL model checker can determine whether f is true at this FSM by checking if f is labeled at the initial state. Note that a formula holds on the FSM if it labels the initial state.

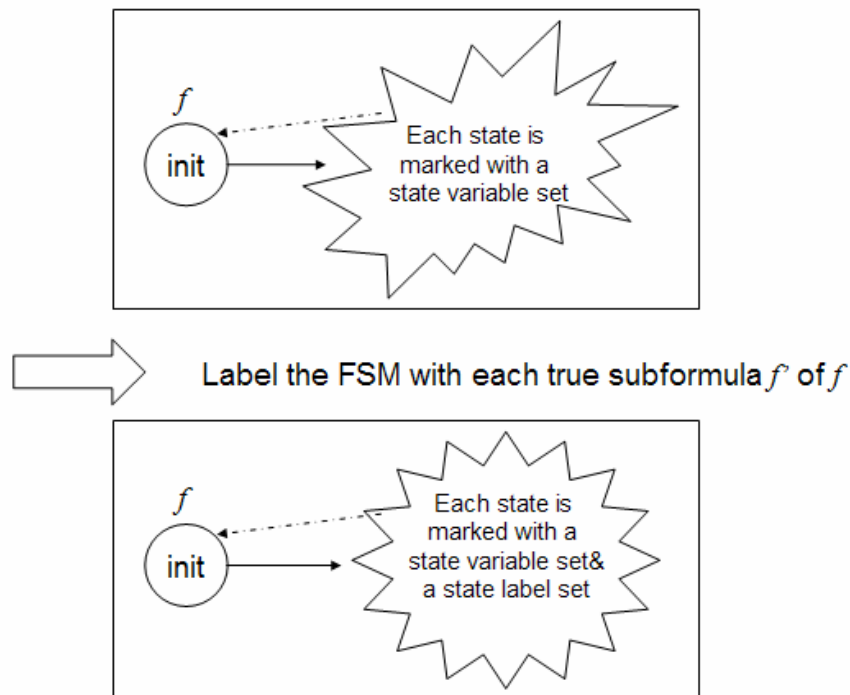


Figure 5: How does CTL model checker work?

The solid line means "there exists such an edge" while the dashed line means "there may or may not exist such an edge"

1.2.2 Modular verification & assume-guarantee reasoning

Modular verification divides the software systems into small modules, proves properties of each module then infers properties of the whole system from properties of the modules. Depending on the interaction between the components, the traditional model checking algorithm might not support modular verification. First, one module may not contain sufficient information to reach an authoritative conclusion. For example, suppose we want to verify a property "Whenever f_1 is true, f_2 is always true finally" (or $AG (f_1 \rightarrow AF f_2)$ in CTL) on a module labeled with f_1 but not f_2 , we can't conclude this property is

true until we find " f_2 is always true finally" (or $AF f_2$ in CTL) is satisfied in the other modules. Second, even if one individual module can satisfy the properties, the whole system after composition may still have the chance to violate them because modules may share variables. A straightforward example is " f should always be globally true" (or $AG f$) on a module where f is globally true and this module is composed with another module where f is globally false. Hence, verifying individual modules against properties is inconclusive. We therefore need to develop methodologies for verifying properties on modules that are *open* (contain only partial information) and reaching a system-wide conclusion without costly composition.

Since the modules are open due to the lack of complete information to verify the properties, instead of solidly returning true or false, it's natural to partially analyze the properties on them and push all remaining inconclusive tasks to other modules. In other words, we want to annotate modules with constraints or assumptions that can guarantee the property holds on one module, and then push those constraints to other modules for further checking. If these constraints or assumptions can be satisfied by some other modules that'll be composed with the current one, the property holds on this module.

Here's a standard formula expression of such assume-guarantee reasoning:

$$\frac{Env \models f' \quad Sys, f' \models f}{Sys \parallel Env \models f}$$

The notation $\text{Env} \models f$ (read "Env satisfies f ") means that the property f is true of the environment Env (such as determined by the model checker). Any property on the left side of \models (as in $\text{Sys}, f' \models f$) is taken as an assumption during the verification. The symbol \parallel means parallel composition. Briefly, this formula says if the environment can satisfy a formula f' , and the system can satisfy f under the assumption of f' , then the parallel composition of the system and its environment can satisfy f . Put in the feature-oriented context, the system would refer to the single feature under analysis, the environment is made up of all other features in a product and the formula is the property to be verified. Unfortunately, this formula doesn't quite work for features because they are composed sequentially.

The soundness of this formula has been proven [14] under parallel composition and the key issue is *how to find a proper f'* . The problem of determining an f' also exists in a feature-based context. The majority of the current methods [5] [6] [7] expect the users to supply an f' and only a few [3][4] derive the assumptions automatically. The drawback of relying on users for assumptions is fairly obvious: it's hard for users to find such an f' by manual analysis and users are error-prone.

My thesis starts from investigating the current advances in modular verification methods that generate assumptions automatically. Among the various methods available, we are particularly interested in the constraint-based open system verification method developed by Blundell, etc. [3] and the assumption generation method for software

component verification by Giannakopoulou, etc. [4] because they are the main two that derive the assumptions automatically. The former is targeted at verifying sequentially composed features, while the latter aims at verifying components that are composed in parallel. Blundell's method is based on model checking algorithm on state-based automata, while Giannakopoulou's method adopts the composition of Labeled Transition Systems (LTS) automata, an action-based model. Both approaches have automated process to derive assumptions on components/features for assume-guarantee reasoning. I will also investigate these two methods for their suitability for verifying realistic feature-oriented systems.

After that, I will analyze the pros and cons of both methods and develop a method that handles a richer set of feature-oriented designs than current approaches, while drawing on the strengths of each of these techniques. Besides, I will outline the proof of the soundness of my method.

Therefore, this thesis is organized as follows: Chapter 2 presents my comparison and analysis of the two methods; Chapter 3 presents my own methods with examples; Chapter 4 presents the soundness proof of my method; Chapter 5 summarizes my thesis results and points out the future work.

Chapter 2

Comparison and analysis of two existing methods

In this chapter, I will run case studies to compare Blundell's and Giannakopoulou's methods for generating assumptions on components that preserve specific properties and the two methods work on totally different domains with Blundell's method for sequential compositions and Giannakopoulou's for concurrent world. The comparison is meaningful because "sequential" can be viewed as a special case of "concurrent".

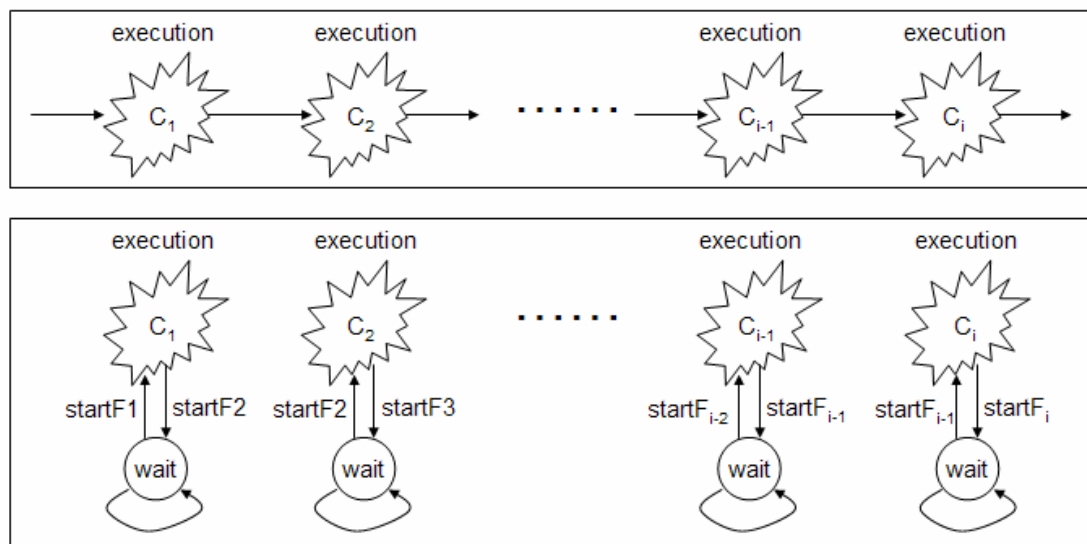


Figure 6: Sequential composition VS. concurrent composition

Let's consider the special case shown in Figure 6. Suppose we have a bunch of components $C_1 \dots C_i$. They run in the following ways: C_1 runs first and after termination, it releases a signal to trigger C_2 for execution. After that, C_1 just waits for other components to trigger it. So does $C_2 \dots C_{i-1}$. In this example, the sequentially composed components run in a way that has the basic characteristic of concurrency.

Since "sequential" is a special case for "concurrent", I am interested in whether Giannakopoulou's method gives us more functionalities than Blundell's and whether I can uncover some new issues for verifying sequential systems from trying to reuse algorithms from verifying parallel systems. Finding answers to them and proposing new ideas to improve techniques for sequential cases motivate the case studies and analysis in this chapter.

2.1 Constraint-Based Open System Verification for Product Line

Blundell's method is designed specifically for feature-oriented software architectures. His work in particular addresses the problem of reasoning about features when some of the propositions needed for reasoning are defined in other features (this is the open system issue referred to earlier).

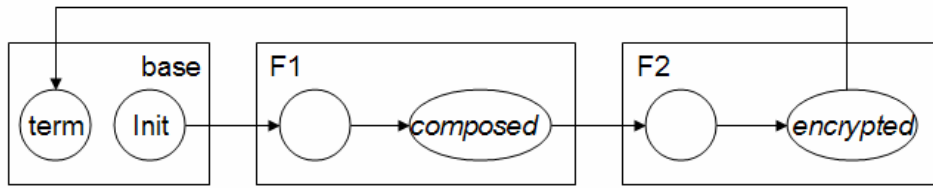


Figure 7: An example system in Blundell's method
 property : $AG \phi = AG (composed \rightarrow AF encrypted)$

The simple system in Figure 7 is such an example: after the email system starts up at the base, an email gets composed in the second state of F1, then encrypted in the second state of F2 and finally mailed out in the base and the system then halts. Obviously, F1 is open in terms of the property (denoted as *pty* in later discussion), because *encrypted* is unknown to it.

Blundell's method also defines the feature connections. The difference between his definition and my definition 3 is that his doesn't allow cyclic feature connections but mine does. His method also defines another term *data environment* that indicates the up-to-date values of data propositions that occur inside a feature. A data environment is constructed for each terminal state of a feature.

Blundell's method aims at analyzing individual features and then composing all partial information to get results on the product. The first phase of his method analyzes individual features to build up data environments and generates sufficient constraints for property preservation based on such data environments. These constraints, including both propositions for the preceding features and temporal formula for the following features,

are parameterized over the information, i.e., those unknown propositions, that make features open.

The data environment for the terminal state, denoted as st , of F1 in the Figure 7 is $\{composed, true\}$ and the constraints for the F1 again pty is $(pty_{st} \wedge (encrypted \vee (!encrypted \wedge (AF \text{ encrypted})_{st})))$. The first part of the constraints comes from the requirement that pty is expected to hold system-wide. The second part includes two pieces: 1) $encrypted$ and 2) $!encrypted \wedge AF \text{ encrypted}$. This comes from the fact that $encrypted$ is unknown to F1, so all of its possible valuations, together with corresponding temporal formulas, are listed in the constraints. Here, the value of $encrypted$ is the propositional constraint for the preceding features and $AF \text{ encrypted}$, when $encrypted$ is *false*, is the temporal constraint for the following features. The data environment for the terminal state, denoted as st' , of F2 is $\{encrypted, true\}$ and the constraint is $(pty_{st'})$, because $(AF \text{ encrypted})$ is true at st' regardless the value of $composed$.

The second phase of Blundell's method discharges the constraints upon composition of features into a product to establish system-wide properties. At this phase, the set of features and the order in which they are composed have been fixed. Then the values of both kinds of constraints can be decided in this phase.

In order to discharge the propositional constraints, Blundell's method first propagates the data environments, in which a data environment of a feature will be integrated with those data environments from the preceding features. If the current feature is not the first

one in the composition, it will take over the data environment from the feature(s) right before it; otherwise, it will inherit a data environment with all data propositions set to be false as initial values. This is because data propositions are used to describe attributes of objects, their default values should be false. For example, the proposition *encrypted* should be false by default unless the email gets explicitly encrypted.

The propagation of data environment could be very complicated when there are multiple paths. Figure 8 lists five possible cases for composing data environment under multiple paths. For simplicity, the examples in this figure only have two paths.

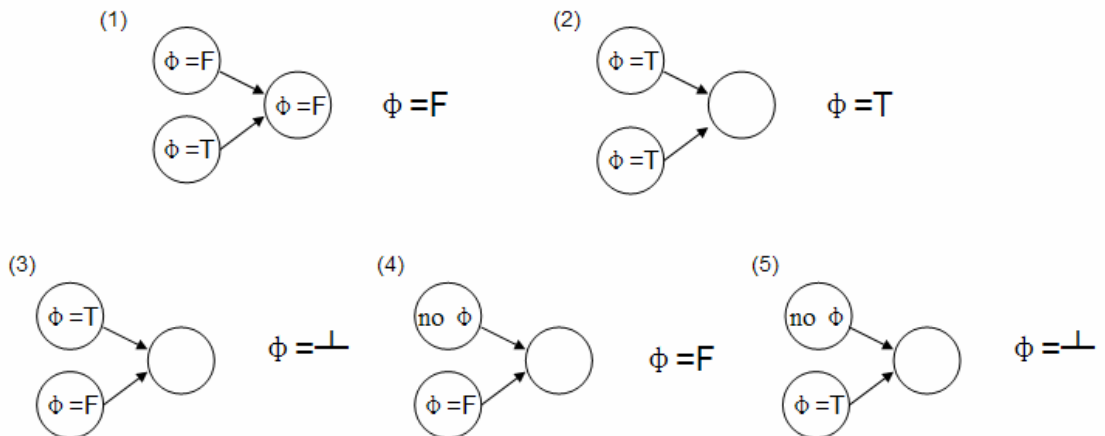


Figure 8: data environment under multiple paths

Let's denote the state where multiple paths converge as s . In case (1), since s assigns false to ϕ , then ϕ should be false at s because it's the up-to-date value; in case (2), both paths pass the same value true of ϕ to s , hence no matter which path gets executed, ϕ is always true at s ; in case (3), the two paths pass different values of ϕ to s , so the value of ϕ at s depends on which path will be executed and I use a special symbol \perp to

mean this value could be either true or false; in case (4) and (5), there exists a path in which ϕ is not assigned any value. Hence, ϕ is regarded as false in that path.

Remember that although Figure 8 only talks about propagating propositions across states, the same rules also work for propagation of data environment among features.

Assume we set F1 to be the first feature and F2 the second and the last in the composition. Following these rules, the updated data environment for F1 is $\{(composed, true), (encrypted, false)\}$ and that for F2 is $\{(composed, true), (encrypted, true)\}$. At the base, both *composed* and *encrypted* are also known to be true. As a result of propagating data environments, all of the propositions that were unknown when the individual features were analyzed now have known values. Thus the only remaining unknown ones are temporal. The constraint for *st* in F1 becomes $(pty_st \wedge (AF\ encrypted)_st)$ and the constraint for *st'* in F2 remains unchanged.

Note that in Chapter 1, the definition of the base requires that its states where there are edges coming from the features cannot transit to the initial state of the base. If this is violated, then the data propositions that describe the attributes of the current object would be propagated to the next run of the system to describe another object. That's how data leakage across multiple system runs happens. For example, if this problem happens and the proposition *encrypted* is propagated to the initial state of the base, then when the email system starts up again, an email would become *encrypted* before it actually gets

encrypted, which is obviously a mistake.

For the temporal constraints, since all information about the product is available, Blundell's method is able to completely discharge these constraints to reach a system-wide conclusion. The constraint (pty_st') for F2 becomes true since F2 is the last feature in composition and it preserves the property. As a result, the constraint ($pty_st \wedge (AF \text{ encrypted})_st$) for F1 will be discharged by the values of pty_st and ($AF \text{ encrypted})_st$ from the initial state of F2.

A major shortcoming of this method is that it can't handle circular feature compositions. For example, in Figure 9, pty is a property in the form of AGf that expects f to hold globally on all paths from the initial state of F1. Obviously, the value of pty can't be decided by F1 individually and F1 expects to get the value of pty from F2, the remaining feature of the product. But in order to decide the value of pty , F2 must also look at F1. As a result, neither F1 nor F2 are able to get the desired value of pty to make conclusion. That's why Blundell's method avoids this situation by not allowing cycles.

$$CS_{r_1}\{AF \text{ encrypted} \wedge pty\} \text{ and } CS_{r_2}\{pty\}$$

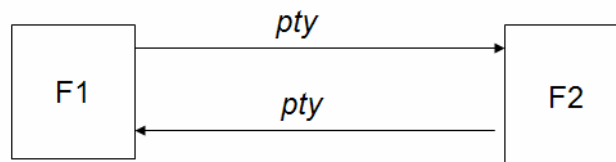


Figure 9: Blundell's method can't handle circular feature composition

2.2 Assumption Generation for Software Component Verification

Giannakopoulou's work is targeted at analyzing the behavioral properties of complex systems at the architectural level. In this context, the software architecture of a system is described by a set of components, the structure that interconnects these components and the connectors that describe how components interact [4]. At the architectural level, the components interact with one another via message communications and service invocations. These messages and invocations are modeled as actions or events, and component behavior, as well as the properties, is modeled in terms of these actions and events.

Giannakopoulou's method chooses Labeled Transition Systems (LTS) [4] to be the description language for interactive components and the desired properties in a concurrent system. The differences between LTS automata and Finite State Machines come from the special characteristics of the former. In LTS automata:

1. Transitions occur on events (actions) and not on every step
2. Machines synchronize on common events
3. Each state in it is accepting

The actions in Giannakopoulou's world are divided into external actions and internal actions. External actions are those expected to drive the component from outside, such as

user inputs and the signals/messages from other components; internal actions are actions that the component itself takes and they may or may not be observable by other components. Giannakopoulou's method allows users to specify external actions and internal actions by a special hiding operator “\”.

Basically, Giannakopoulou's method first builds an automaton in LTS semantics for the property and traps all missing transitions into an error state, which means any unspecified event trace violates this property. Then she synchronizes the behaviors of the component automaton and the property automaton according to the pre-defined transitions based on the automata alphabet. She then eliminates the internal actions and minimizes the resulting automaton to generate an assumption automaton, if there's any, which describes exactly those environments in which the component satisfies its required property. The final assumption automaton is also a property with both desired and undesired traces defined for the environment to follow.

Figures 10-12 are an example to show how this method works. Basically, in this email system (figure 10), users can start composing an email, input the address where the email will be sent and then set the subject of the email. *Compose1*, *inputAddr* and *setSubject* are actions to denote these three steps. (Note that *Compose1* is used to avoid conflict with *Compose*, a reserved keyword in LTSA.)

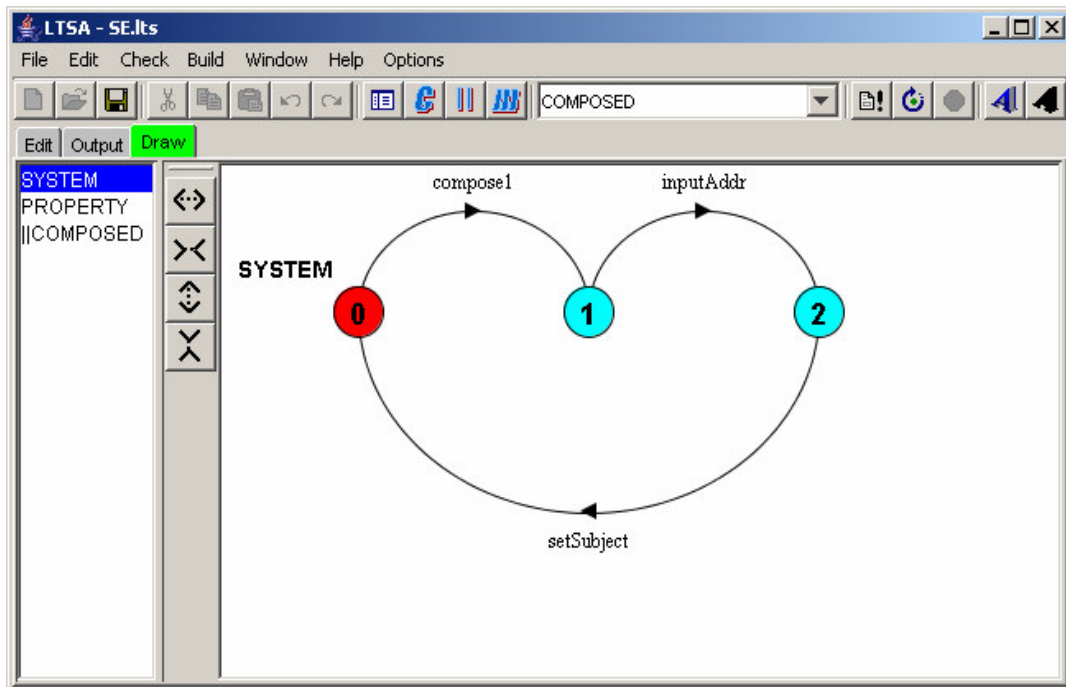


Figure 10: a system in Giannakopoulou's method where *compose* and *setSubject* are internal and *inputAddr* external.

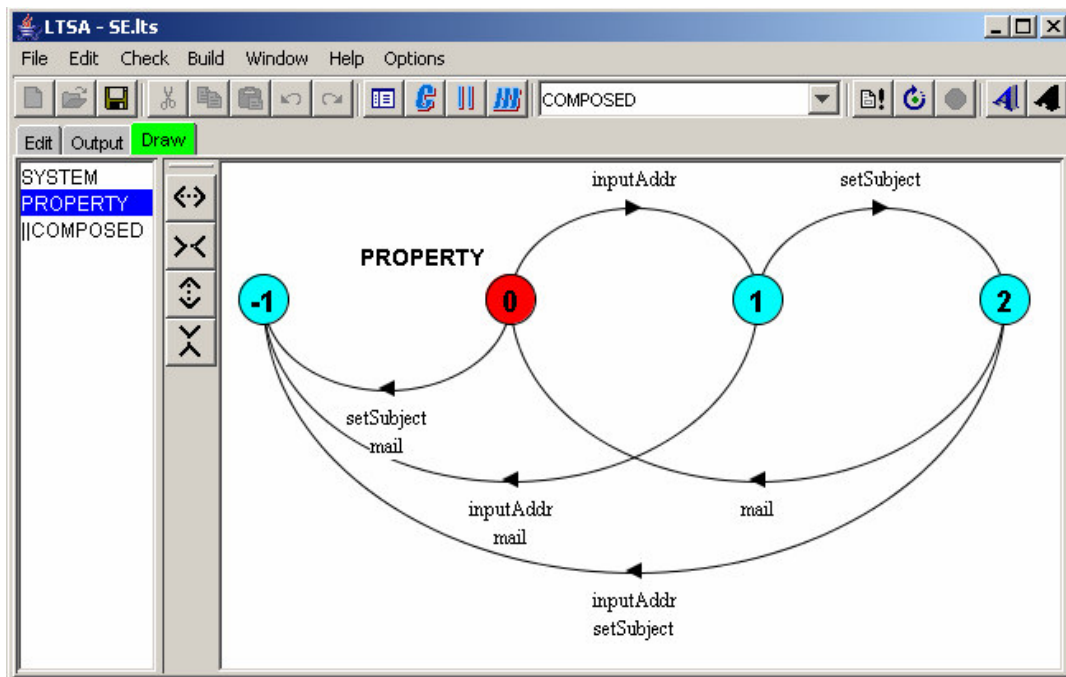


Figure 11: a property in Giannakopoulou's method where *setSubject* is internal and *inputAddr* and *mail* external.

This property automaton in Figure 11 requires the composed email system to follow the action trace *inputAddr* -> *setSubject* -> *mail*. According to that, the environment finishes the *inputAddr* action, then the system asks users for an email subject to accomplish the *setSubject* action, and finally the environment mails out the email. Any trace other than this one will be regarded as violation of the desired property.

Figure 12 shows the final assumption automata generated for this example.

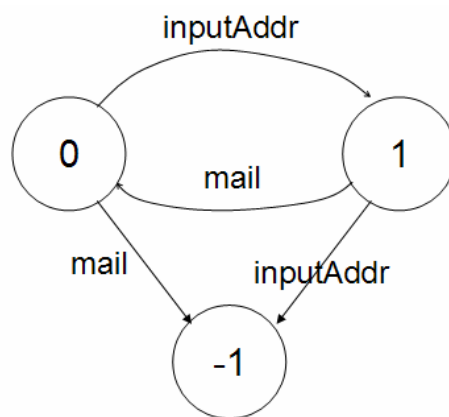


Figure 12: the generated assumption automata for Giannakopoulou's method

- All external actions will be preserved in the composed automaton
- all internal actions are finally eliminated

In Figure 12, all internal actions are already eliminated and there are only external actions left in the generated assumption automata, because Giannakopoulou's method only generates assumptions for the external environment. As Figure 12 shows, this method eventually defines the cycle *inputAddr*->*mail*-> *inputAddr* as the legal traces for the environment to follow, which means the environment has to produce the two actions

with *inputAddr* before *mail* infinitely often to make the property hold on the composed system. It's worthwhile pointing out that this method, due to the use of automaton determinization algorithm [2] in generating final assumption automata, has the potential bottleneck of exponentially increasing complexity. Hence, this method may suffer from the notorious "state explosion" problem.

2.3 Analysis of the fundamental elements of the two methods

Software verification is simply applying verification methods to check systems against properties. There are three elements involved: systems, properties to be verified and the methodologies adopted. We analyze and compare Blundell's and Giannakopoulou's methods from these three aspects to build up the foundation for comparison.

2.3.1 System models

Giannakopoulou's system models are concurrent event-based automata (called Labeled Transition Systems) while Blundell's are sequentially composed FSM.

2.3.1.1 Different definition of "open" systems

Giannakopoulou's definition is based on the alphabet of external and internal actions from the system and the property. Users can specify a series of internal actions that will

be hidden and eliminated finally and every action that's not specified is an external one.

Specifically, the external action set includes:

- 1) Each action in the system that doesn't get hidden.
- 2) Each action in the property that the system doesn't know about (it's assumed that all internal actions in the property should occur in the system).

The standard of deciding the "openness" of a system is if the external action set is not empty. For a system with an empty set of external actions, the system is closed and her method produces nothing for the environment.

As a comparison, Blundell's definition is based on those propositions in the property that are unknown to the system and the existence of future features. His method will take the system as an 'open' one as long as at least one of the following holds:

- 1) There exists some proposition in the property that doesn't show up in the current feature.
- 2) The verification on the composed system is not finished and there are more features to be checked after the current one. (Blundell's method assumes the system is composed of a series of features sequentially).

In Blundell's method, users can specify whether the current feature is the last one in the composed system. If it's not, then it assumes there are other features to be composed and hence Blundell's method still takes the system as 'open', a different view with Giannakopoulou's.

2.3.1.2 State variables: support for persistence

In state-based automata like Blundell's, each state is labeled with a set of variables or propositions. Given an arbitrary proposition, Blundell's method allows users to specify whether it's a control proposition or a data proposition. The values of data propositions persist until they get assigned new values again but the values of control propositions do not persist (they are true only in states that explicitly designate them as true). Blundell's method maintains an external control list for each feature and sets every element in the list false because of the sequential composition: since at any time instance, only one feature can be in its execution phase and as a result, all controls for other features must be false.

In contrast, Giannakopoulou's method uses actions/events to characterize information about system transitions and whenever an action is set true, all other actions become false automatically. So, no action is persistent in her method.

2.3.1.3 Drawbacks of the two models

I have stated some structural requirements of features and the base in their definitions in Chapter 1. In addition, Blundell's method also restricts the connections between features to form a directed acyclic graph (DAG) of features (i.e. no cycles), but such a restriction is outside the scope of Giannakopoulou's model.

There's also a drawback in Giannakopoulou's system model. Her method assumes

that an action can be released by either the system internally or the environment externally but not both. Those actions that get specified as internal will be eventually eliminated and those external actions will be left in the final assumption automaton, if there's any. However, this assumption is not practical and causes two problems.

First, in real software systems, both the system and its environment can release actions based on their need for executions and they may be free to perform the same actions. For example, if we want to verify the property $(G (F \textit{mail}))$ on a system with two branches, one of which has *mail* action in it, but the other not. In this case, we have to specify *mail* action as internal and it won't show up in the assumption automaton or we may even get FALSE from Giannakopoulou's tool. This is not correct. If the environment after that branch without *mail* performs this action, the property still holds on the composed system, but this cannot be captured by her method.

Second, since both the system and the environment can release actions based on their executions, there may be conflicts arising: in the composed system, which action, from the component or the environment, should the system accept and transit? Here's an example:

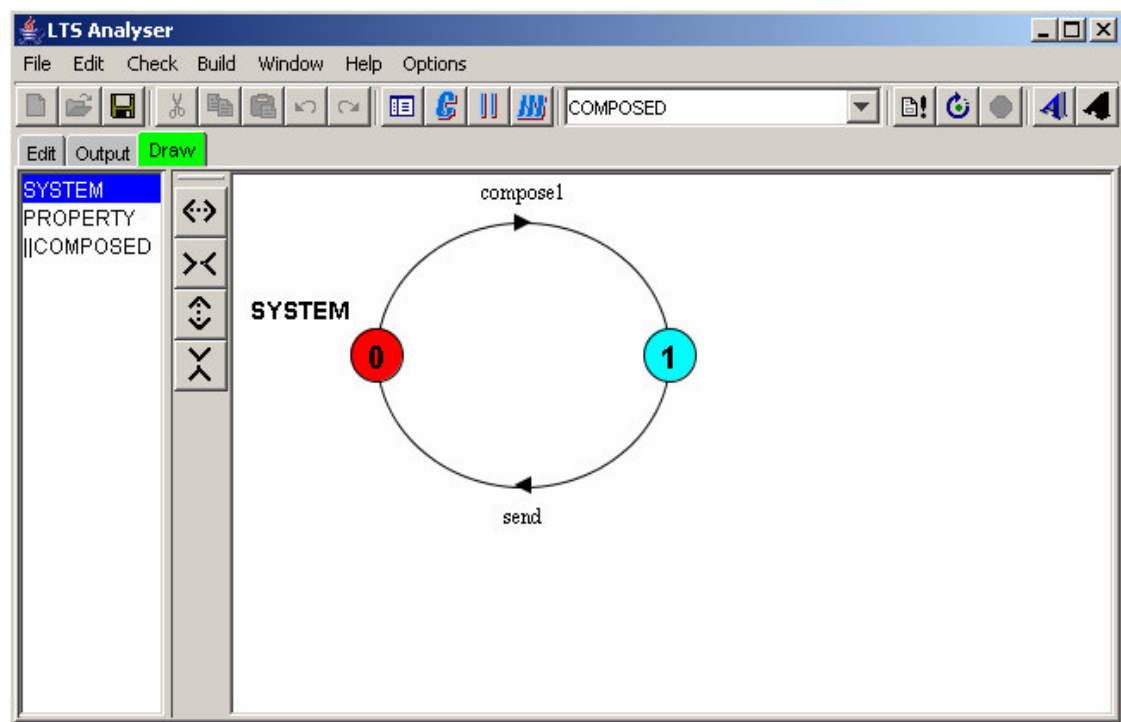


Figure 13: A system to show the action priority problem. The actions here are both internal.

The email system in Figure 13 only performs two simple tasks, represented by two actions *compose1* and *send* as the transition guards, that allow the users to compose an email first and then send it out.

The property automaton in Figure 14 requires that the two actions *send* and *mail* must be performed as an infinite sequence *send->mail->send.....*

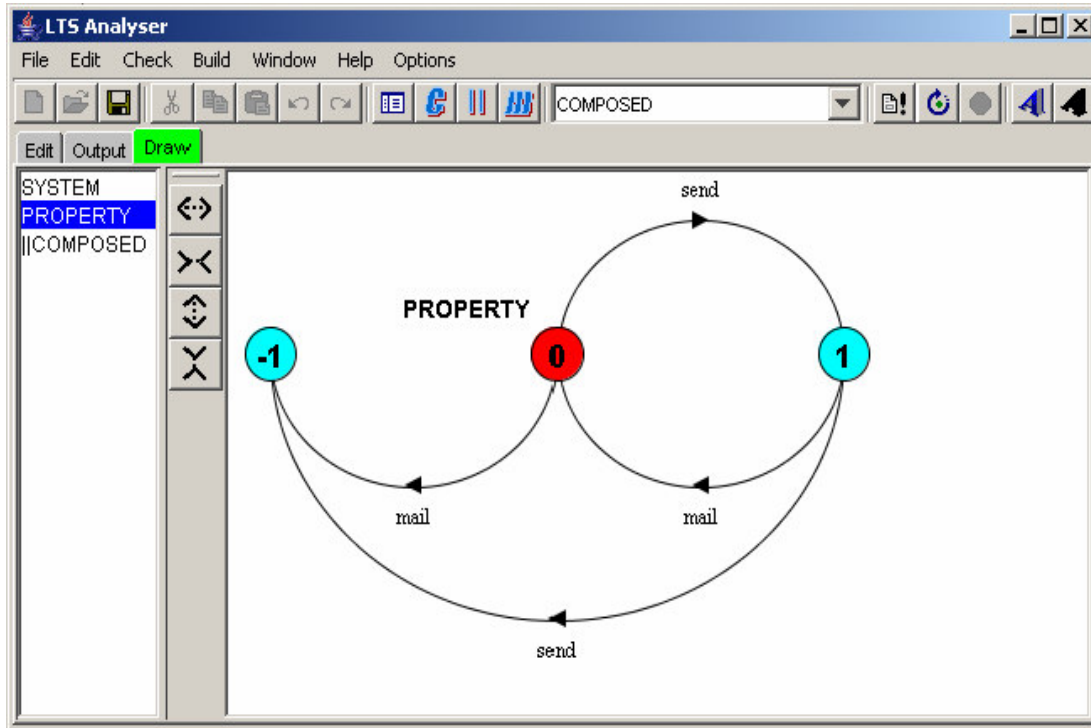


Figure 14: property automaton to show the action priority problem. Here, *send* is internal and *mail* external.

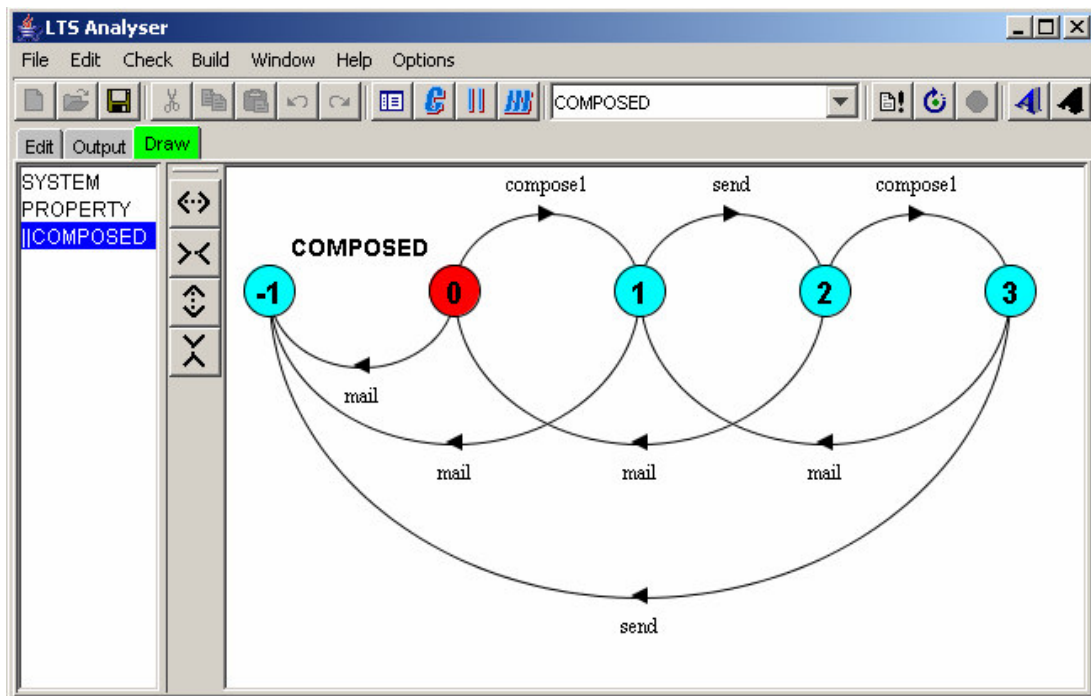


Figure 15: composed automaton to show the action priority problem.

The automaton in Figure 15 is the composition of the system and the property without eliminating the internal actions *compose1* and *send*. It defines both legal and illegal traces.

In the next step, in order to remove the traces that can't be prevented by the environment from transitioning to the error state (the state labeled with -1), Giannakopoulou's method will propagate the error state to the state 3 in Figure 14 and that's where the conflicts happen. If we follow Giannakopoulou's method faithfully, we have to identify state 2 and state 3 as the error state and finally, we get nothing as assumptions. But as a matter of fact, the environment can make the property true on the system by performing the action *mail* after seeing *send* from the system. The problem here is at these two states, both the component and the environment release some actions, and then which one should the composed automaton take? We need some priority for them. This is a nontrivial problem, especially for concurrent systems.

2.3.2 Properties

There's huge difference between the properties that can be handled by the two methods respectively. In general, Giannakopoulou's method can process any property that has a corresponding error LTS automaton, while Blundell's method handles full CTL; the two are incomparable.

One major underlying assumption of Giannakopoulou's method is that there exists an error LTS automaton for the properties to be verified because her method relies on the transitions to the error state. However, it is not always possible to do that for *liveness* properties that require something expected must finally happen. A straightforward example is $(AG (AF f))$ in CTL or $(G (F f))$ in LTL. There's no way to build an error LTS for it. This assumption limits Giannakopoulou's method to handle mainly safety properties and bounded *liveness* ones.

Secondly, all actions in Giannakopoulou's method are exclusively true, i.e., only one action can be true at any time instance and whenever an action is true, all others are set false automatically. Since the properties in her method are expressed in terms of these non-persistent actions, they are different with the common concept of properties from other logics such as CTL, LTL, and CTL*. The differences we observed include:

- 1) *Negation*. There's confusion arising if the property has negation of some action f in it. The problem is when building the error LTS automaton, how to handle the negation? One direct option is $(!f = \Sigma - f)$ where Σ is the alphabet of the property automaton, since the truth of any other action means the falsity of f . However there may be some other actions from the system that are not in Σ . They can also make f false, but are not known by the property automaton until composition. There's no way to take them into consideration in the error LTS automaton construction.
- 2) *And*. Obviously, the exclusive characteristic of actions doesn't allow the truth of

more than one action simultaneously. As a result, we can't express properties like $(action1 \wedge action2)$. This difference is important in that it dramatically narrows the scope of properties that can be handled by Giannakopoulou's method.

Giannakopoulou and Magee admit this non-persistent issue makes the task of expressing properties often unmanageable and proposed an elegant and uniform solution [1]. However, they haven't integrated this solution into their assumption generation research yet and that's why I can't analyze and evaluate it in my thesis.

Giannakopoulou's method suffers from non-persistent actions, but a persistent world like Blundell's also suffer from another problem, that's his persistent world can't express repetition. In a real system or protocol, it's practical to expect something could happen several times. For example, we may expect an email to be encrypted twice. This can be easily expressed by the number of occurrence of some action in Giannakopoulou's method, but impossible by Blundell's persistent world unless the proposition is explicitly checked for false in between repetitions. Persistence, in Blundell's world, comes from data proposition. Obviously, as long as an email is encrypted, this attribute persists to be true, even after it's encrypted again, but there's no way to express that something persistent repeats in CTL.

2.4 Unifying the inputs & outputs of the two methods

In order to make a rigorous comparison, it's ideal if we can

- 1) build equivalent systems
- 2) specify equivalent properties on the two systems
- 3) run the two methods

However, this is extremely hard, if possible. We can't eliminate so many problems as stated above especially in expressing properties. This is also partially because of the current progress of Giannakopoulou's method: she doesn't have the solution to some problems; for others, despite that she has some new progress, she hasn't integrated them yet. So, we can only do comparable case studies to learn these differences in the outputs of the two methods. By "comparable", I mean though we can't ensure equivalent inputs for the two methods, we can still build similar ones to discover the problems. But we must make some important changes first.

2.4.1 Unifying inputs of the two methods

From previous sections, we know that Giannakopoulou's and Blundell's methods adopt totally different automata to describe the input systems/features. Although the two kinds of automata can be converted into each other, due to many subtleties such as the characteristics of exclusive actions, finite and infinite executions and property expressions as discussed before, we can't use one model for both of them directly.

As a result, the first step for my comparison is to unify their input formats to eliminate the gaps. Since "sequential" can be viewed as a special case of "concurrent" as

discussed at the beginning of this chapter, I tried to map Blundell's inputs into Giannakopoulou's input format without affecting the actual executions.

Definition 4: *FSM Input Conversion* algorithm

Given a feature F1 expressed by a Moore Machine M that's consumed by Blundell's method and another feature F2 to be executed after F1, we take the following steps:

- 1) Convert M into a Mealy Machine M' [17], which is closer to the event-style machine in Giannakopoulou's method
- 2) Create a new state *dummy*
- 3) Add a transition from *dummy* to the starting state of M' with *startF1* as the guard
- 4) Add a transition from each terminal state of M' to *dummy* with *startF2* as the guard (terminal states refer to those states without any transitions going out.)

Figure 16 summarizes the input-unifying process:

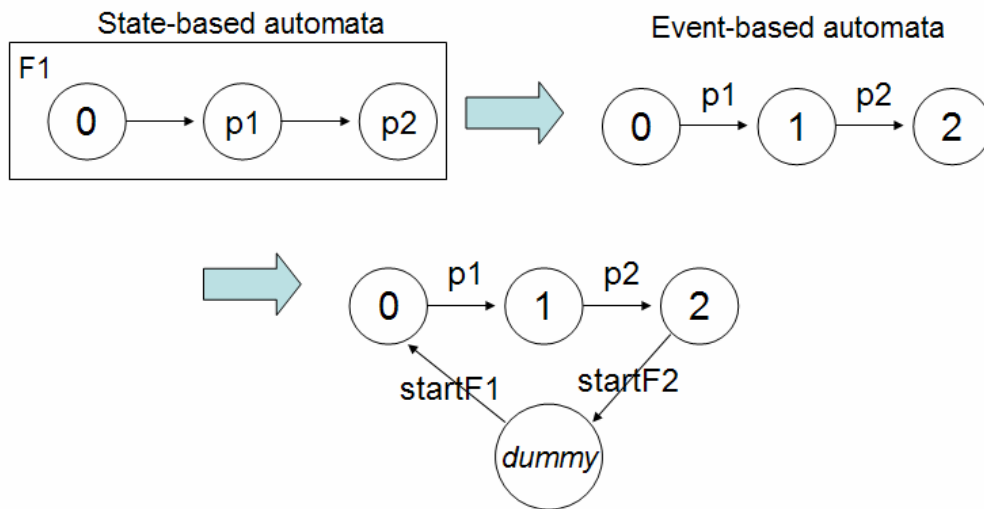


Figure 16: Unify the inputs of the two methods:

Convert the input of Blundell's method into the input format of Giannakopoulou's method

Now we have an infinitely running system M' to input into Giannakopoulou's method for comparison. $startF1$ and $startF2$ are indicators to start and terminate the execution of M' . They don't interfere with the actual execution of the automaton and serve to make sure that at one time instance, no more than one feature is in its execution phase. Besides, since they don't provide useful information, they will be removed from the final assumption automaton by being hidden as internal. $startF1$ and $startF2$ can also have functionality: As we discussed in previous section about the drawbacks of actions, Giannakopoulou's method doesn't work on a component if it has only internal actions. The introduction of $startF1$ and $startF2$ can make her method handle more cases since the two actions can serve as what the system uses for communication with the environment.

2.4.2 Unifying outputs

Theoretically, Giannakopoulou's method has the benefit of rendering us with constraints for all possible cases, i.e., from components that run before, after and concurrently with the current one, while Blundell's temporal constraints are only for the future features. Our experiments also support this. Figure 17-19 is such an example.

The system in Figure 17 fulfills three actions: *getUserReq* that gets user request, *compose1* that allows users to compose an email and *inputAddr* that asks users for mailing address.

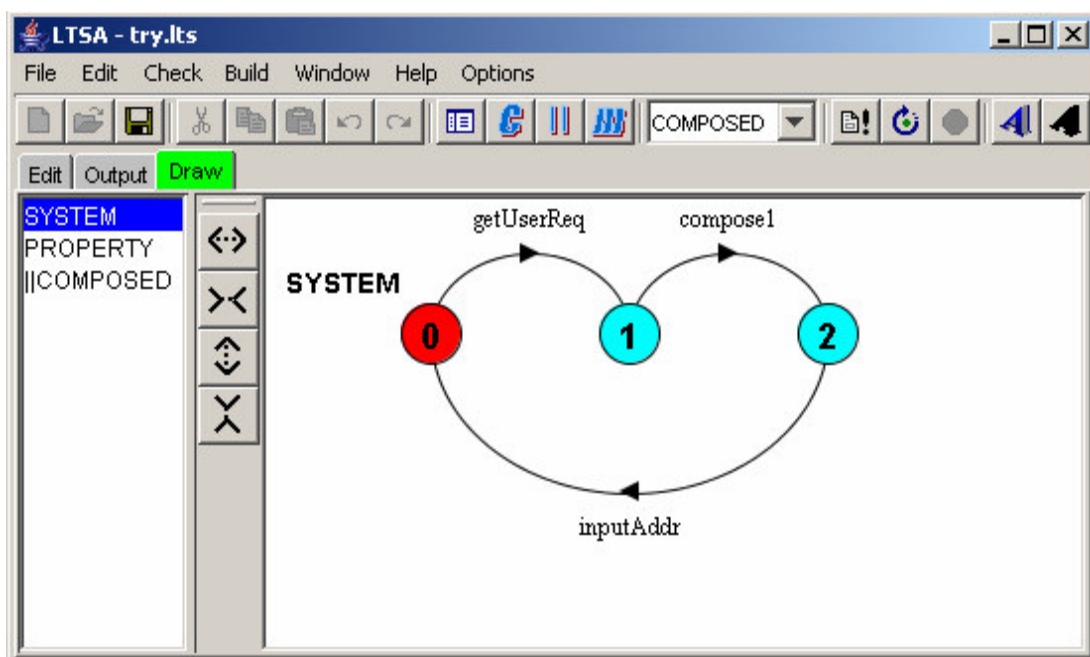


Figure 17: An email system where *getUserReq* is external and all others internal

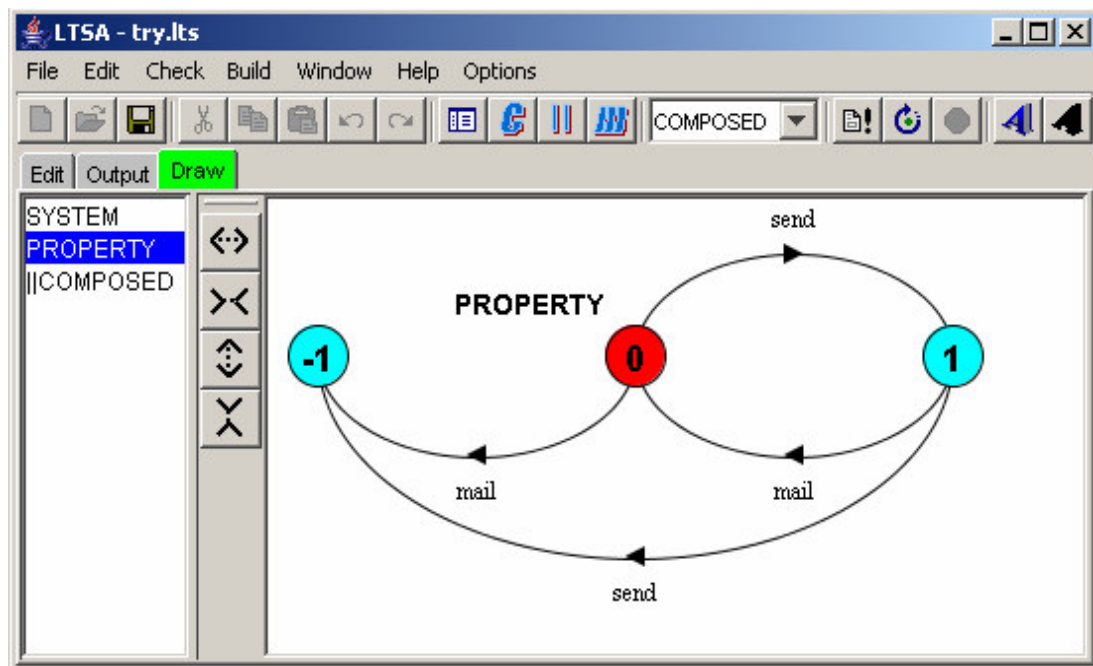


Figure 18: a property where all actions are external

This property in Figure 18 requires the environment to finish *send* and *mail* actions in a *send->mail->send* order. Here, *send* is the user decision to send an email out and *mail* is the actual mailing function.

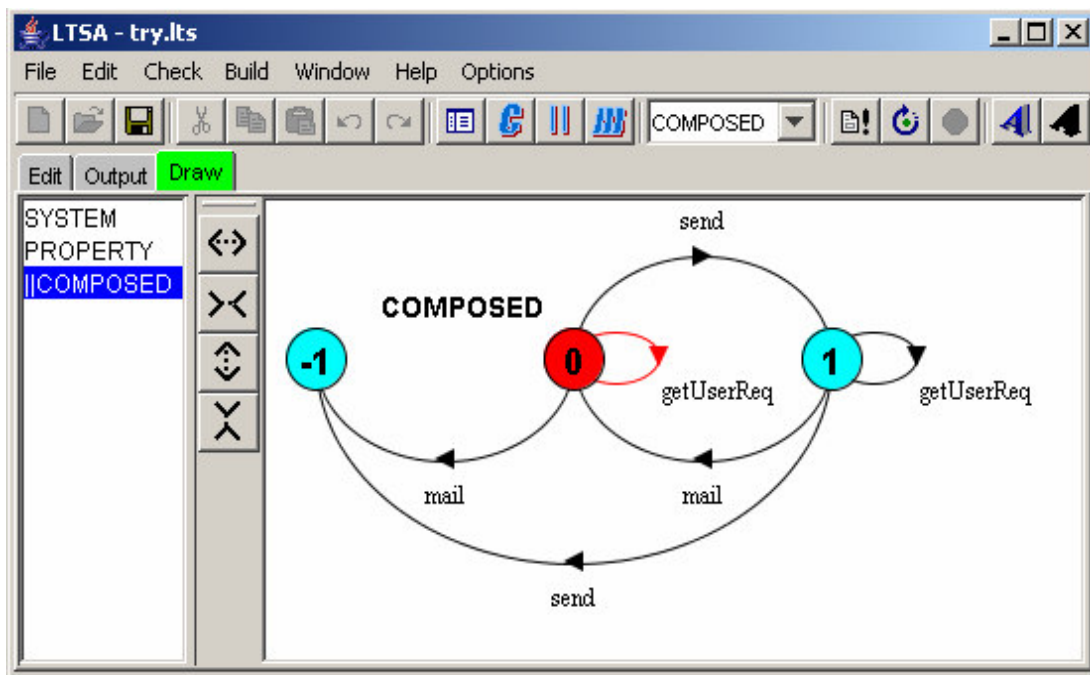


Figure 19: composed automaton with all internal actions hidden. This automaton only has external actions from the environment.

We can observe the following traces from the composed automaton in Figure 19:

- 1) *getUserReq -> send -> mail, which means the current feature runs before the features providing send and mail;*
- 2) *send -> getUserReq -> mail, which means the current feature runs in parallel with the features providing send and mail;*
- 3) *send -> mail -> getUserReq, which means the current feature runs after the features providing send and mail.*

For comparison purpose, we must get only the assumption in (1) from the outputs of Giannakopoulou’s method because that’s the only result comparable with Blundell’s. This is achieved by adding into the system a new component named future FILTER, which is

basically an error LTS automaton.

Definition 5: A future FILTER for a property is constructed as follows:

- 1) Given a property automaton, we can hide and eliminate all internal actions to get an automaton P' as Giannakopoulou's method does
- 2) Create an automaton T with two states s_1 and s_2 where s_1 transits to s_2 on *startf1*
- 3) Compose the two automata, P' and T , into a new one F in this way: first, add a transition from s_2 to the starting state of P' with *startf2* as the guard; second, originally each terminal state of P' has one or more transitions to the starting state, but now change s_1 to be the destination of all these transitions.
- 4) Make F complete by adding all missing transitions to a special error state.

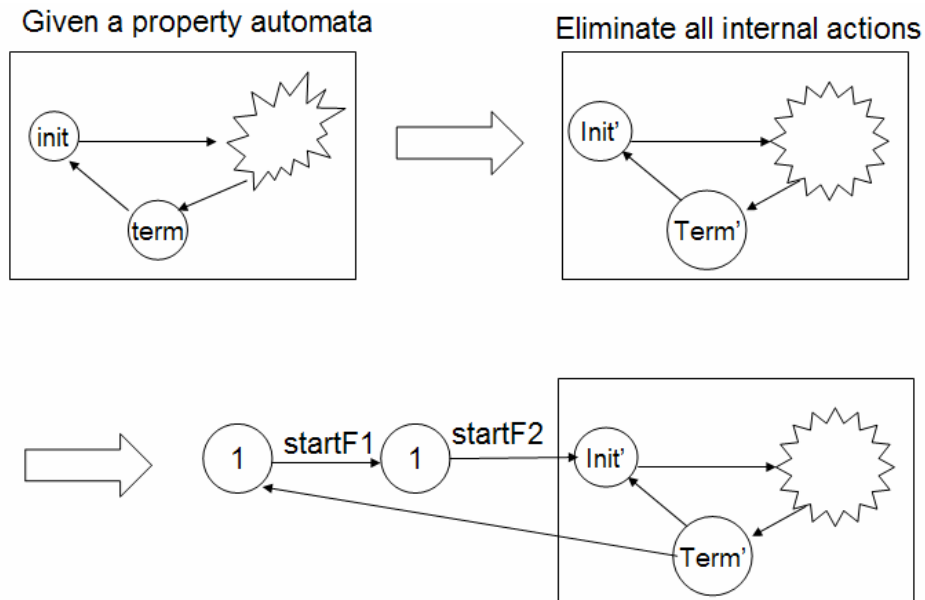


Figure 20: Construction of a future FILTER

Figure 20 is the graphical flow of constructing a future FILTER. Note that the special error state is not shown here for simplicity.

We can also use *startF1* and *startF2* as delimiters. Any action that happens before *startF1* is supposed to be from the previous features and any action that happens after *startF2* is supposed to be from the future features. Since a future FILTER places all other external actions after *startf2* and *startf2* and takes all other possible orders of external actions as violations, composing a future FILTER with the system and the property automaton in Giannakopoulou's method will get the assumptions for the future features out.

Note that though so far it's not clear how to build a minimal future FILTER, I believe the solutions are not necessary at all. This is because the intention here is trying to do the comparison, the performance issue of the comparison algorithm is not important.

2.5 Summary of case studies

A number of examples that cover all possible FSM structures (including branches & cycles) and 14 possible property structures (different positions for internal and external actions) have been done to compare and analyze the two methods. The outputs and the detailed analysis are in the appendix. In this section, a table summarizes the major points of the case studies and the expectation of my own method:

<i>Generating interfaces for components</i>	<i>Giannakopoulou's method</i>	<i>Blundell's method</i>	<i>Expectation for my new method</i>	<i>My reasons</i>
<i>Interfaces for what purpose?</i>	Verify property for concurrent systems	Verify property for sequential systems	Verify property for sequential systems	Our motivation
<i>How are the interfaces used?</i>	LTS automata composition (Env Assumption)	Discharging by data environment	Doesn't matter	
<i>What's the problem domain?</i>	Component -based SE (CBSE)	Feature-Oriented SE	Doesn't matter, but it should also be a modular method	
<i>What's the input?</i>	LTS automata	Propositional & CTL constraints	Propositional & CTL constraints	Automata determination may cause state explosions
<i>What's the output?</i>	LTS automata	Propositional & CTL constraints	Propositional & CTL constraints	Be uniform with the input, if no other benefits
<i>What's the composition assumption?</i>	Concurrent	Sequential	Sequential	My thesis motivation
<i>What is the architecture assumption?</i>	The system model is basically a cycle.	A terminal state has no direct descendent inside a feature and no cycles in feature composition.	Allow circular confections.	Obvious
<i>What is the system model assumption?</i>	State transitions are described by actions that are non-persistent, and only one of the system and the environment can release an action	Variables/propositions at each state.	Variables/propositions at each state.	They're persistent. Each module is free to use a proposition that's also used by others modules. They provide a better system model.
<i>What is the property assumption?</i>	Must has a corresponding error LTS automata	Can be expressed by CTL.	Can be expressed by CTL.	CTL matches well with the system model with state variables.

The fourth column describes briefly how my method looks like from a high perspective and the fifth column gives justifications for my decision. Obviously, this table indicates that I should choose Blundell's method as the foundation of mine.

Chapter 3

An abstraction-based modular verification method

The basic idea of my method is to build abstract states for each feature and the base, compose them into an abstract FSM based on the original state/feature connections, and then apply a variant of the traditional CTL model checker on this abstract FSM to verify the property.

3.1 Formal models of the abstract Finite State Machines (FSM)

Before showing the details of the abstraction-based modular model checking method, I give the formal definitions of the fundamental elements in this method.

My method also works for feature-oriented sequential systems and I reuse some of Blundell's work. My definitions of features, the base, the product and the data environment given in Chapter 1 are the same as Blundell's, but I have a different definition for feature connection relationships (refer to Definition 3 in Chapter 1) because my method allows cyclic feature compositions. In addition, I also define the following new terms.

Definition 6: A *Label Set (LS)* is a set of CTL formulas including both atomic

propositions and non-atomic formulas in the form of $(fmla, val)$ where val is the value of the formula $fmla$ that may be one of the following three forms:

1. Boolean value
2. \perp that means either true or false
3. Non-atomic formula

Obviously, the major difference between my LS and the label set in the traditional FSM comes from the possible value of $fmla$.

There will be one LS per abstract state, generated based on both the feature and the property using the first phase of Blundell's method that analyzes the property pty against each feature by traversing from the starting state to each terminal state of a feature separately. In this process, some sub-formula $fmla$ of pty may be **fully analyzed**, i.e., their values can be decided without information from neighboring features, while other sub-formulas may be **partially analyzed**, i.e., only the value of some sub-formula f' of f , but not f itself, can be decided. For example, given $f = (f' \rightarrow EFsth)$ where f' is true but sth unknown in a path inside a feature, we get $f' = EFsth$ as the partially analyzed result of f on this path.

Definition 7: An **Abstract State** is a state annotated with a Label Set (LS).

Note that similar as the LS, abstract states are also built one per terminal state of the feature. Abstract state and LS form corresponding pairs.

As a matter of fact, the only difference between an abstract state and a state in traditional FSM comes from the state labels: the former uses the LS while the latter uses propositions and fully analyzed formulas.

Definition 8: An *Abstract Finite State Machine (FSM)* is a finite state machine constructed by connecting abstract states via directed edges.

An abstract FSM is almost the same as the traditional FSM expect the different state labels at their states.

In Chapter 1, I defined the feature and the base separately as different concepts, but in my verification method, their difference is irrelevant and I treat the base just as a feature with special structures. Thus I define the splitting algorithm to split the base into two features so that my method can process the base and the features in a uniform way.

Definition 9: The *splitting algorithm* works as follows:

Let s_0 be the initial state of the base, s_{bt} be the state where there are edges coming from other features into the base and s_b be the state where there are edges coming from the base into other features. Although actually there may be more than one s_b , I assume it's unique for simple discussion. Let's also assume the base is connected with a series of $F_0 \dots F_i$ via (s_{bt}, s_b) . The base is then split into the following two features (FSM):

-
- 1) F0: starting from s_0 to s_{bb} , put all reachable states, as well as their transitions, into an FSM
 - 2) F_{i+1} : starting from s_b , put all reachable states, as well as their transitions, into an FSM

3.2 An abstraction-based model checker

In this section, I will introduce my new model checking method on the abstract FSM by going through an email system example. Figure 21 shows the system that I will use as an example. The property to be verified is also indicated in this figure.

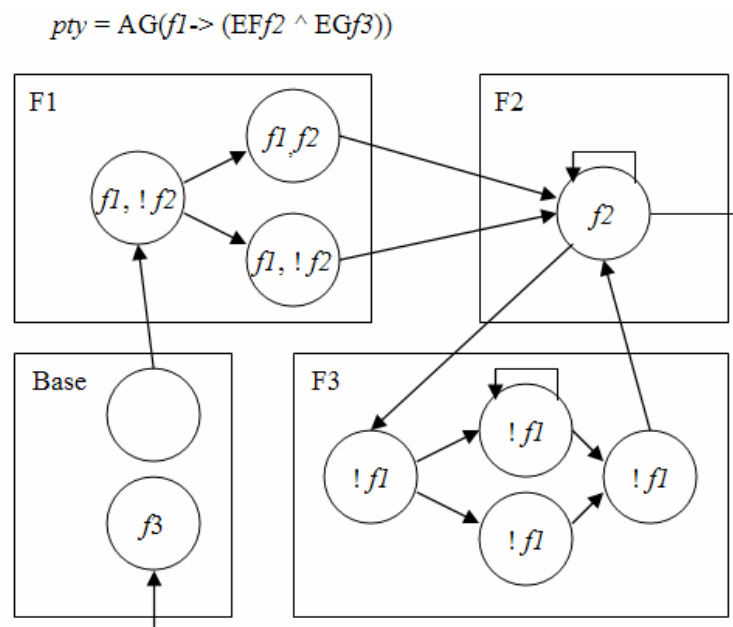


Figure 21: example of my new method: system and property

Phase 1: Partially analyze the property on each feature to construct the Label Sets

The first phase of my method is almost the same as the first phase in Blundell's, which does a partial analysis on each feature and labels each terminal state of a feature with constraints and a data environment (DE). Let's denote this process as *Gen-Cons*(F, *pty*) where F is a feature and *pty* the property. In Figure 21, the data environments are $\{(f_1, \text{true}), (f_2, \text{true})\}$ and $\{(f_1, \text{true}), (f_2, \text{false})\}$ for the two terminal states of F1 respectively, $\{(f_2, \text{true})\}$ for the terminal state of F2 and $\{(f_1, \text{false})\}$ for that of F3. The constraints for f_i are what the adjacent features must guarantee for the property to hold on f_i . The results of Blundell's constraint generation, denoted as the Constraint Sets (CS), for the three features are:

- 1) $(EGf_3 \wedge \text{pty})$ for the terminal state of F1 where both f_1 and f_2 are true and $(EFf_2 \wedge EGf_3 \wedge \text{pty})$ for the other terminal state of F1 where f_1 is true and f_2 false
- 2) $((f_1 \wedge EGf_3) \vee (!f_1)) \wedge \text{pty}$ for the terminal state of F2 where f_2 is true
- 3) pty for the terminal state of F3 where f_1 is false

My method also applies the splitting algorithm to divide the base into two features F0 and F4 and generates constraints for them:

- 4) $((f_1 \wedge f_2 \wedge EFf_3) \vee (f_1 \wedge !f_2 \wedge EFf_2 \wedge EFf_3) \vee (!f_1)) \wedge \text{pty}$ for the state that is directly connected with F2 in the base.
- 5) $((f_1 \wedge (f_2 \vee (!f_2 \wedge EFf_2))) \vee (!f_1)) \wedge \text{pty}$ for the state, denoted as s_b , that is directly connected with F2 in the base.

The constraints in CS have both propositional parts for the preceding features, such as f_1 in the constraints for F2 and temporal parts like $(EGf_3 \wedge pty)$ for the subsequent features. My method put the pairs composed of the sub-formulas and their corresponding constraints into the LS:

- 1) $\{(pty, (((f_1 \wedge f_2 \wedge EFf_3) \vee (f_1 \wedge !f_2 \wedge EFf_2 \wedge EFf_3) \vee (!f_1)) \wedge pty))\}$ for the terminal state in F0
- 2) $\{(pty, EGf_3 \wedge pty), (EFf_2, true), (EGf_3, EGf_3)\}$ and $\{(pty, EFf_2 \wedge EGf_3 \wedge pty), (EFf_2, EFf_2), (EGf_3, EGf_3)\}$ for the two terminal states of F1 respectively
- 3) $\{(pty, (f_1 \wedge (EGf_3 \wedge pty)) \vee (!f_1 \wedge pty)), (EFf_2, true)\}$ for the terminal state of F2
- 4) $\{(pty, pty)\}$ for the terminal state of F3
- 5) $\{(pty, ((f_1 \wedge (f_2 \vee (!f_2 \wedge EFf_2)) \vee (!f_1)) \wedge pty)), (EGf_3, true)\}$ for s_b of F4

Note that I only list some temporal sub-formulas here for simplicity. The non-atomic sub-formulas with logical connectives as the outmost operators can be constructed from these temporal ones fairly easily.

Phase 2: Propagating the data environment (DE) & removing the propositional constraints in CS

The data propositions are expected to persist over multiple states but the above FSM can't reflect that. So we need to propagate the data propositions from the DE of a

predecessor feature to the DE of all its successor features starting from F1. The following defines how to do that:

- 1) It's possible for a feature or the base to have multiple DE coming from its predecessor features. In that case, I combine all these DE first to get a new DE'. If different DE set a proposition to be different values, I store $(prop, \perp)$ into DE', which mean $prop$ may be either true or false at different time instances depending on the specific program executions. At the end there's only one predecessor DE' for each feature to use. For the starting feature F0, we also count a special DE, where all data propositions are initiated to be false, as a predecessor DE to capture the fact that all data propositions are initially false and remain false unless assigned true explicitly.
- 2) Update the DE at each feature and the base. Specifically, for any data proposition occurring in the DE' but not the DE of the current feature, put a copy of this proposition and its value into the DE; for those occurring in the DE, keep their up-to-date values. Finally, delete DE'.

Example:

Following the above rules, we have $DE_{01}\{(f1, false), (f2, false), (f3, false)\}$, $DE_{11}\{(f1, true), (f2, true), (f3, false)\}$, $DE_{12}\{(f1, true), (f2, false), (f3, false)\}$, $DE_{21}\{(f1, \perp), (f2, true), (f3, false)\}$, $DE_{31}\{(f1, false), (f2, true), (f3, false)\}$ and $DE_{41}\{(f1, \perp), (f2, true), (f3, true)\}$. Now, all data propositions are known at every feature, despite their values may

not be solid true or false. The fact that the value of a known proposition may be \perp indicates that the value of such a data proposition at a state may be different if the system is executed along different paths.

Remember that we generate temporal constraints based on the possible values of those unknown propositions. Since in this propagation phase, the actual values of some unknown propositions become known, we can also further analyze the constraints in the LS according to what the actual values of the propositions are. Such constraints based on true/false propositional assumptions after that has only temporal parts. For example, if we have a constraint $(f, (f \wedge f') \vee (!f \wedge f))$ and the propagated DE shows f is true, then the constraint can be further analyzed as (f, f') .

In phase1, I listed the constraints for all features and keep them in the LS. At this phase, they are updated as follows:

- 1) $\{(pty, pty)\}$ for the terminal state in F0
- 2) $\{(pty, EGf_3 \wedge pty), (EFf_2, true), (EGf_3, EGf_3)\}$ and $\{(pty, EFf_2 \wedge EGf_3 \wedge pty), (EFf_2, EFf_2), (EGf_3, EGf_3)\}$ for the two terminal states of F1 respectively
- 3) $\{(pty, (f_1 \wedge (EGf_3 \wedge pty)) \vee (!f_1 \wedge pty)), (EFf_2, true)\}$ for the terminal state of F2
- 4) $\{(pty, pty)\}$ for the terminal state of F3
- 5) $\{(pty, pty), (EGf_3, true)\}$ for s_b of F4

Phase 3: An abstract system model

The abstract system model is built as follows:

-
- 1) Create a graph with one node per terminal state of each feature.
 - 2) Add edges between nodes capturing transitions between these terminal states within a feature.
 - 3) For any two features f_i and f_j that are directly connected by some transitions, add edges between their corresponding nodes capturing these transitions.
 - 4) Name each node as s_{ij} , where i refers to a feature and j refers to a terminal state of the feature.
 - 5) Set the LS of each s_{ij} to be the one of the terminal state correspondent to s_{ij} .
 - 6) Insert all data propositions and their values in the starting state of f_i into the LS of each s_{ij} . Note that the value of such a data proposition may be \perp , which means it may be either true or false depending on the actual program executions.

Example:

Figure 22 is the diagram of the abstract FSM of my example after this phase:

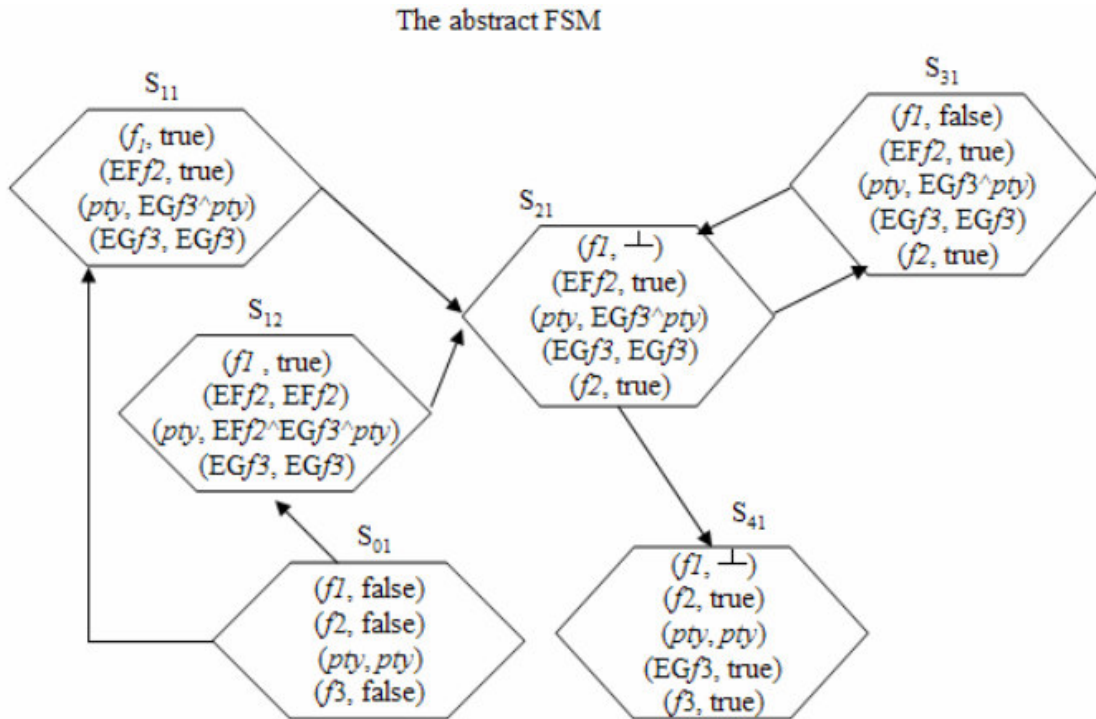


Figure 22: an example of the constructed abstract FSM

Phase 4: Model checking

The resulting system model is different with that for the traditional model checker. As a result, I must define a new model-checking algorithm for my system model.

Let s_{0j} be one of those abstract states for the starting feature F0. As can be seen from the pseudo code defined below, my model checker starts from discharging (pty , constraints) in the LS of s_{0j} . Whenever the value of a previously undetermined formula gets determined at some state, my model checker will update its value in the LS of that state. When the entries for pty in all s_{0j} get determined, we conclude that the composed system can preserve pty only if pty is true in the LS of all s_{0j} . In this example, the product violates the property.

The major differences between my Abstraction-based Model Checker (AMC) and the Traditional Model Checker (TMC) include:

1. TMC uses Boolean logic, but since AMC have the \perp value, I must have a three-valued logic [18][19] and all evaluation of propositional formulas must be able to handle \perp , as shown in the Truth Table for AMC below.
2. If the LS has a value for a formula, AMC does not check its sub-formula, unlike TMC which checks all sub-formulas.
3. Instead of checking the state propositions and labels as TMC does, AMC checks the LS at each abstract state.

Note that AMC uses the same logic and resembles TMC greatly in the processing of the logical connectives and temporal operators, as shown in the pseudo code.

The rest of this section presents the truth tables that underlie three valued model checking and present the pseudo code for the model checker.

Truth table for AMC:

OR	True	False	\perp	F'
True	True	True	True	True
False	True	False	\perp	$Val(f')$
\perp	True	\perp	\perp	\perp OR $Val(f')$
f^*	True	$Val(f)^*$	$Val(f)$ OR \perp	$Val(f)$ OR $Val(f')$

**f* means a non-atomic formula and $Val(f)$ means the value of f after being fully analyzed.

AND	True	False	\perp	F'
True	True	False	\perp	$Val(f')$
False	False	False	False	False
\perp	\perp	False	\perp	\perp AND $Val(f')$
f^*	$Val(f)$	False	$Val(f)$ AND \perp	$Val(f)$ AND $Val(f')$

	NOT
True	False
False	True
\perp	\perp
f^*	NOT($Val(f)$)

Pseudo Code for AMC

```

;; consume a state  $s$  and a formula/proposition  $f$  to return the value of  $f$  in the LS of  $s$ .
;; if the formula/proposition has an entry in the LS,
;;   the return value maybe true, false,  $\perp$  or some constraint;
;; else, the formula doesn't have an entry in the LS and the function returns N/A

```

function **get-val**(s, f)

```
{ return the value of  $f$  in the LS of  $s$ ; }
```

```

;; consume a state and a formula, label this state with the value of the formula

```

function **AMC_help**(s, f)

```
{
```

```
  if get-val( $s, f$ ) returns a value  $val$ , return  $val$ ;
```

```
  else {for each immediate sub-formula  $f'$  of  $f$ , AMC( $sm, f'$ );}
```

```

  if the outmost operator of  $f$  is EX, EU, use the original TMC_help function to decide
  the value of  $f$  based on the labels in the LS;

```

```

  if the outmost operator of  $f$  is EG, for all desc-state- $s$ , the descendent states of  $s$ , check
  TMC_help(desc-state- $s, EGf$ ),  $f$  is true at  $s$  only if at least one of these
  TMC_help(desc-state- $s, EGf$ ) functional calls returns true;

```

```

  else if the outmost operator of  $f$  is  $\wedge$ ,  $\vee$ , or  $!$ , use the Truth table for abs_TMC as defined
  later;

```

```
  update the value of  $f$  in the LS; }
```

```

;; consume a finite state machine and a formula, label the formula

```

```
;;   in the states of the FSM
```

function **AMC**(sm, f)

```
{ for each  $s \in sm$ , AMC_help( $s, f$ ) }
```

```

;; consume a state  $s$  and a formula in the LS of  $s$  to fully analyze it

```

function **dischargeFmla**(*s, f*)

```
{  
  temp = get-val(s, f);  
  if temp is true or false or  $\perp$ , return temp;  
  else // f is a formula(or constraint)  
    AMC(s, temp);}
```

;; consume an abstract FSM in which each state is labeled with an LS,
;; fully discharge the LS of the abstract states of the starting feature.

function **MC_FSM** (*aFSM*)

```
{  
  for each state sli  
  {  
    val = dischargeFmla(sli, pty);  
    if val == false, return false;  
    else if val ==  $\perp$ , return  $\perp$ ;}  
  return true;}
```

Chapter 4

Soundness Proof

In this section, outline of the proof about the soundness of my model checker is given.

First of all, I give definitions of some terms used in this chapter.

The outline depends on a machine called the propagated product P_{pg} that is a version of product P with data proposition values propagated.

Definition 10: Given a product and a formula to be verified, let A_{pg} be the *abstract FSM* built in the third step of my method.

Note that A_{pg} is built based on not only the product but also the property. In other words, if the property is changed, A_{pg} should also be changed correspondingly.

My goal is to prove the following Core Theorem, in which I use the traditional model checker as the standard to show the soundness of my method.

Core Theorem:

Let the traditional model checker be $TMC(P_{pg}, pty)$ where P_{pg} is a propagated

product and pty a formula. Then

- 1) $TMC(Ppg, pty)$ returns true if $MC_FSM(BuildAbsFSM(Ppg, pty))$ returns true
- 2) $TMC(Ppg, pty)$ returns false if $MC_FSM(BuildAbsFSM(Ppg, pty))$ returns false.

Here, function MC_FSM refers to my abstraction-based model checker and the function $BuildAbsFSM$ denotes the process of building an abstract FSM for a product according to the desired property.

In order to prove the Core Theorem, I have to use the following two theorems from Blundell.

Blundell's Theorem 1:

Let $F1$ and $F2$ be features, s be a state in $F1$, and φ a CTL formula. Let V be a data environment coming into $F1$ and $F1_V$ be $F1$ augmented with V . Let c be the result of $CONSTRAIN(F1, f, s)$, the constraint generation function call. Let Cr be c with every annotated formula f_{st} replaced with the value of $\varphi(\text{true}, \text{false}, \perp)$ in the initial state of $F2$ with which st connects. Let o be the feature connection relationship that is sequential and doesn't permit cycles between features. Then

- 1) $F1_V o F2, s \models f$ if V satisfies Cr
- 2) $F1_V o F2, s \models !f$ if V doesn't satisfy Cr

This theorem states that if the constraints can be satisfied by the incoming data

environment and the formulas from the following features, then f , the desired property, holds in the system composed by $F1$, $F2$ and V .

Blundell's theorem 2*(Soundness):

Let P be the product, and P' be P augmented with the empty data environment (all data propositions of the product set to false). Let $SUBS$ be the function from initial states and sub-formulas of f to the set $\{\text{true}, \text{false}, \perp\}$ that stores the results of checking each constraint under the composed data environments and the verified subsequent features. Let f be the property to be verified and fI be a sub-formula of f . Let F_i be a feature in P , and s_0 an initial state of F_i . Let \circ be the feature connection relationship that is sequential and doesn't contain cycles. Then:

1) $F_i \circ F_{i+1} \circ \dots \circ B, s_0 \models fI$ in the data environment of $B \circ F_1 \circ \dots \circ F_{i-1}$

if $SUBS[s_0, fI] = \text{True}$

2) $F_i \circ F_{i+1} \circ \dots \circ B, s_0 \models \neg fI$ in the data environment of $B \circ F_1 \circ \dots \circ F_{i-1}$

if $SUBS[s_0, fI] = \text{False}$

*: this theorem has been simplified here by removing some irrelevant terms

Basically, this theorem states that whenever $SUBS$ returns true/false in checking a sub-formula fI of f (the property to be verified), $TMC(fI, s_0)$ on P_{pg} also returns true/false.

Since my method builds the abstract states with LS in isolation and connects these states into a FSM, I must show that the values stored in the LS are still valid once features are composed into a product.

Key Lemma:

If f is a fully analyzable formula in the LS of an abstract state, then its value at the corresponding terminal state is still accurate after the features are composed into a product.

Proof:

Let's analyze all possible forms of such a fully analyzable formula f :

- 1) f is a Boolean proposition. In this case, obviously, the value of a proposition won't change after state composition.
- 2) f is a non-atomic formula with EX, EU or EG as the outmost operator. In this case, since composing abstract states together doesn't remove any existing edge, the value of f won't change.
- 3) f is a non-atomic formula with AX, AU or AG as the outmost operator. We know that the architectural assumption of my method is all non-terminal states can transit to a terminal state, denoted as st , by one or more steps and each terminal state is the last state to be visited in all feature execution paths. This means f doesn't need the values of any non-atomic formulas at st , which doesn't have any

descendent states inside a feature. So, if f doesn't need st to be fully analyzed, composing states together won't change its value; otherwise, ϕ needs the Boolean propositions at st to be fully analyzed and composing states together by adding edges won't change the values of propositions at st .

Therefore, Key Lemma holds.

In the following, I provide sketches of the proofs for the Core Theorem. My proof outline starts with proving Theorem 1 first.

Theorem 1:

Core theorem holds when the product is composed of a set of features, denoted as $F_1 \dots F_{i-1}$, and the base, which is split into F_0 and F_i , the first and the last feature to be executed in Ppg respectively, as defined in the construction of abstract FSM, and these features are connected sequentially without any cycle in it.

Proof sketch:

Sequential connection means only one feature can be in its execution phase at any time instance and a feature F_j starts execution only after its preceding feature F_i terminates executions. According to this, a terminal state of F_i may be connected with more than one initial state of other features and after the execution of F_i is done, one of

these next features will be activated based on the execution of F_i . Hence there may exist branches in feature connections.

I assume given a pty to be checked, its value in the LS of s_0' , an abstract state of F0 in Afsm, is f . The argument is by induction on the structure of the formula.

Remember that from Key Lemma, we know that LS still accurately reflects the values of fully analyzed formulas.

Bases cases:

- 1) If f is an atomic proposition, the TMC will check the state variables at the starting state s_0 of F0 and my MC_FSM will check the atomic propositions in the LS of all starting states s_0' of Afsm. Theorem1 holds since the atomic proposition set in each starting state of Afsm is exactly the same as that in all the starting state of F1 by construction.
- 2) If f is a non-atomic formula and is fully analyzed at some starting state s_0' of Afsm, then MC_FSM will fetch its value directly out of the LS of s_0' . The true/false value of each formula in s_0' is generated from F0 by Blundell's $Gen-cons(F0, pty)$ method. Since this function just records the details within a feature, whether there exists a cycle in feature connections is irrelevant to the values of formulas it generates. There's no distinction between the fully analyzed formulas in Blundell's method and the corresponding LS in mine. Based on

Blundell's theorem2, Theorem 1 holds.

Induction step: Assume this theorem holds for all f' , those immediate sub-formulas of f . Let's analyze the possible forms of such a formula f :

The basic idea of my proof here is:

- 1) Prove that if MC_TMC assigns a value to f at s_0' , then f is assigned the same value at s_t , the terminal state of F0 that corresponds to s_0' in Ppg.
- 2) In MC_TMC, the value of pty is f in the LS of s_0' . So, MC_TMC concludes pty holds in Ppg if f is true at s_0' and pty is falsified otherwise.
- 3) According to Blundell's Theorem1, if f true, pty holds; otherwise, pty doesn't hold on Ppg.
- 4) According to Blundell's Theorem2 (Soundness), if pty holds, TMC also decides that pty holds in Ppg; otherwise, TMC decides Ppg violates pty .

This means when MC_TMC decides pty is true in Ppg, TMC gets the same result and therefore Theorem 1 holds.

Now, I must prove (1), which is defined as the following theorem.

Subsidiary Theorem:

Let s_0' be an abstract state of F0 in Afsm and f be the value of pty in the LS of s_0' . If

MC_TMC assigns true/false to f at s_0' , then f is true/false at s_t , the terminal state of F0 that corresponds to s_0' in Ppg.

Proof sketch:

1) f is **EX** f' .

In this case, if MC_TMC assigns true to f , f' must be true at some next state s_i' . By construction of Afsm, the transition from s_0' to s_i' mimics a transition between st and si , the starting state of Fi.

- If f' is an atomic proposition, then f' is a state variable at si that has the same value as at s_i' by construction;
- If f' is a fully-analyzed formula when the Afsm was constructed, it's a state label at si that has the same value as at s_i' by construction;
- Otherwise, f' was not fully analyzed at the construction time and MC_TMC updates its value. Since we assume this theorem holds for f' , TMC would also take f' as a state label for si with the same value as MC_TMC assigns.

Hence, f must be true at st in Ppg in all these cases. Therefore, Subsidiary Theorem holds in this case.

2) f is **EG** f' .

In this case, if MC_TMC assigns true to f , f' must be true in all states in a path from s_0' to s_i' . Obviously, s_i' is either a state visited more than once (i.e. loops) or an abstract state of the base where the product terminates. By construction of Afsm, the transitions

from s_0' to s_i' compose a series of features into a linear chain. We know that f summarizes details inside features into abstract states, so if f is true at s_j' , then f' is globally true at all states in some path inside F_j . (Refer to the pseudo codes about how to processing EG.) Since f is true in all s_j' in this linear chain, there must exist a path in Ppg that passes through all these features and makes f' globally true. So, f must be true at st in Ppg . Therefore, Subsidiary Theorem holds in this case.

3) **f is $E[f1' \cup f2']$.**

In this case, if MC_TMC assigns true to f , there must exist a path from s_0' to s_i' in $Afsm$ in which $f1'$ is always true from s_0' until $f2'$ is true at s_i' . I must show that in Ppg , f must be true at st . This is done by contradiction. From the construction of $Afsm$, we know that in Ppg there exists a path of concrete states from st for $s_0' \dots s_i'$. Let's assume the corresponding path violated f and starting from st , the first violating state in this path is s_j in F_j . Since s_j falsifies both $f1'$ and $f2'$ false, this implies that f is false at the starting state of F_j and MC_TMC would conclude f is false when reaching this starting state. This contradicts with the assumption that f is undetermined at F_j (and s_i') and a further checking of following features (states) is necessary. So, f must be true at st in Ppg . Therefore, Subsidiary Theorem holds in this case.

4) **f is $!EXf'$, $!EGf'$ or $!E[f1' \cup f2']$.**

Due to the architectural assumptions, Key Lemma tells us that the values of the fully analyzable formulas won't change after abstract state compositions and we can only add new edges/transitions by connecting a terminal state of the current feature with the

starting states of next features. Consequently, the proofs of these cases are similar with the first three cases respectively. The difference is when deciding the value of f , both TMC and MC_TMC check if the expected sub-formulas occur in ALL paths from st or s_0' . Subsidiary Theorem still holds in this case.

5) f is $(f1' \wedge f2')$ or $(f1' \vee f2')$.

In these propositional cases, since we assume Theorem 1 holds for both $f1'$ and $f2'$, it's straightforward that Subsidiary Theorem holds in this case.

Therefore, Subsidiary Theorem and Theorem 1 hold.

Next, I outline the proof of the Theorem 2.

Theorem 2:

Core theorem holds when the product is composed of a set of features and the base, which is split into F_0 and F_{i+1} , the first and the last feature to be executed in P_{pg} respectively, as defined in the construction of abstract FSM, and these features are organized sequentially, denoted as $F_1 \dots F_i$, with cycles in it.

Proof sketch:

There can be only one type of cycles in the feature compositions: cycles that flow from F_i to F_j where F_i is different with F_j . (Self-loop on a feature should be regarded as

internal details instead of external connections.)

The proof is also done by induction on the structure of the formula:

Base cases: the base cases are the same as those in Theorem1, because in such cases, pty can be fully analyzed on a single feature F_0 . They both just deal with the details inside a feature and are irrelevant to the external feature connections.

Inductive step: The core part is still to prove Subsidiary Theorem. I only analyze how the cycle may impact the process of deciding the value of f here for simplicity and all other parts of the proof are identical with those in the Inductive step in proving Theorem1. The following are proofs for the Subsidiary Theorem for this theorem:

1) f is EXf' .

In this case, the circular connections pose no impact. Cycles only matter with paths, so EX shouldn't get affected. Hence, Subsidiary Theorem holds in this case.

2) f is EGf' or $E[fI' U f2']$.

In this case, the path that has a cycle in Afsm mimics a concrete path in Ppg that has a cycle going from a feature F_j back to a previous visited feature F_i . MC_TMC halts on this path when hitting the visited state again and decides the value of f in the same way (refer to function $abs_TMC_help(s, f)$ in the pseudo codes in previous sections) as TMC handles the concrete path in Ppg. So, the two corresponding paths in two methods still

guarantee the same true/false results. Hence, Subsidiary Theorem holds in this case.

3) f is $\neg EXf'$, $\neg EGf'$ or $\neg E[f1' \cup f2']$.

These cases are also based on the first three cases respectively. Due to the architecture assumptions, based on Key Lemma, the only difference is still when deciding the value of f , both TMC and MC_TMC check if the expected sub-formulas occur in ALL path from st or s_0' . Subsidiary Theorem still holds in this case.

4) f is $f1' \wedge f2'$ or $f1' \vee f2'$.

The circular feature connections are irrelevant to this case, because both methods only look at the current state (either an abstract state or a concrete one). By construction of the LS, it's straightforward that Subsidiary Theorem holds in this case

.

Therefore, both Subsidiary Theorem and Theorem 2 hold.

Finally, I prove Core Theorem based on Theorem 1 and Theorem 2.

The proof is immediate, since I have analyzed all possible forms of feature connections and all possible structures of formulas. Core Theorem holds.

Chapter 5

Summary and Future work

In previous section, I give a table to summarize the main points I get from examples and analysis of the two methods and describe the expectation of my model checking method. The table below is a summary about whether these expectations are accomplished in my methods:

<i>Generating interfaces for components</i>	<i>Expectation for my new method</i>	<i>Goal achieved?</i>
<i>Interfaces for what purpose?</i>	Verify property for sequential systems	Yes
<i>How are the interfaces used?</i>	Doesn't matter	Yes
<i>What's the problem domain?</i>	Doesn't matter, but it should also be a modular method	Yes
<i>What's the input?</i>	Propositional & CTL constraints	Yes
<i>What's the output?</i>	Propositional & CTL constraints	Yes
<i>What's the composition assumption?</i>	Sequential	Yes
<i>What is the architecture assumption?</i>	Allow circular connections.	Yes
<i>What is the system model assumption?</i>	Variables/propositions at each state.	Yes
<i>What is the property assumption?</i>	Can be expressed by CTL.	Yes

As can be observed from the above table, my model checker meets all expectations.

In this thesis, my contribution mainly includes

1. Did case studies on two software verification techniques that can automatically generate constraints to compared and analyzed their power

-
2. Developed a new modular model checking method for cyclically composed open features
 3. Proved the soundness of my method

My method still assumes that a terminal state has no direct descendent state except itself inside a feature. This inherits the assumption in Blundell's constraint generation method, which takes terminal states as terminating points for constraint generation and hence his method doesn't check states after the terminal ones. Both methods also assume all non-terminal states can transit to a terminal state by one or more steps.

The performance of my abstraction-based approach relies on the costs both in applying the first phase of Blundell's method to partially analyze individual features and in applying the revised abstraction-based model checker on the abstract FSM. The former is a light weight process and so is the latter because the number of states in the abstract FSM is not supposed to be large. Hence, my method is expected to be generally efficient.

Despite of not having validated my method in real software system designs, I have done examples on small designs and property structures and I have confidence in my method. Our future work includes

1. The implementation of my method.
2. Doing more case studies of my method using telecommunication feature designs

and systems [13].

3. Extend Blundell's first phase to handle more system structures. This is the major factor that limits the power of my method to handle more cases.

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Appendix A: Case study & Problems found

In Section 2.4, I have done considerable amount of work to figure out how to make preparations for comparison. This appendix is devoted to running examples of Blundell's and Giannakopoulou's method to support my analysis. I documented the examples, results and problems found here. Please refer to the output comparison table for details about the examples and their outputs from the two methods.

Part 1: Example selection

I can't guarantee the equivalence of the inputs to the two methods, for the problems discussed in Section 2.3. I can only define properties of the same structure and look at how the outputs differ. But the questions are

1. *What kind of systems I should select as examples and*
2. *What kinds of properties I should select as examples.*

It's pretty easy to find answers to question 1. My examples cover all possible system structures including linear chain, branches and cycles.

The answer to question 2 is based on the interleaving of system actions and environment actions in the property. Let's use S to denote actions from the system and E to denote actions from its environment. Giannakopoulou's method uses S and E to describe the properties and the system. My selection of property examples is then based on the positions of the actions from S and E in the property.

In the following, the examples are expressed by S and E. For example, SS means the property is composed of two actions from the system and ESE means the first and the last actions are from the environment and the action in the middle is from the system. Moreover, SS-c means there exists cycles in the example system and a name without "-c" refers to examples without cycles.

Part 1: When purely S or there exists an S happening before all E in the property

1. SS

PROBLEM FOUND: *different definition of 'open system'*

ANALYSIS & REASON:

In Giannakopoulou’s method, this is really a “HOLD-FOR-ALL” case, which means the property holds on the component no matter what the environment does, and the final assumption is empty after hiding startF1 and startF2. In this example, the external action set is empty, hence the system is closed and her method generates nothing. But from Blundell’s method, we get $(AG f)_{st}$. The difference lies in the different definition of “open system”. *Please refer to section 2.1.1 for more explanation.*

2. SE and SSE

PROBELM FOUND: *no problem found*

However, a further analysis of this example can help improve our understanding of the capability of the two methods in generating constraints for the future.

1. The constraints from Blundell’s method are the combination of the data environment, which keeps all data proposition values of preceding features, and the partially analyzed constraints for the future features.
2. The final assumptions from Giannakopoulou’s method only include the trace for the future component.

ANALYSIS & REASON

Blundell’s method utilizes the data environment to generate the partially analyzed constraints. Since he adopts persistent data propositions, the generation of these partially analyzed constraints is influenced: basically, Blundell’s method looks up the truth table of all the unknown propositions, find those valuations that can possibly make the property hold and generate corresponding temporal constraints. For example, $(f1 \rightarrow AF f2)$ with $f2$ unknown will generate $(\neg f2 \wedge AF f2) \vee f2$ as partially analyzed constraints. The value of $f1$ in previous features, despite not available at the first step, affects the generation of the temporal part.

Giannakopoulou’s method can generate constraints from various environments freely. But for the introduction of FILTER, the final assumptions only include strictly those for the future.

3. SS-c

PROBLEM FOUND: *Giannakopoulou’s method generates wrong outputs*

For the different definitions of ‘open system’, Giannakopoulou’s method should have taken this example as a ‘closed system’ and a “FAIL-FOR-ALL” case, which means no matter what the environment does, the property fails on the component, but Blundell’s

should take this as an ‘open system’.

1. In the ‘closed system’ by Giannakopoulou’s method, we get some assumption trace, which actually is what we need from the environment to drive the running of the branch that can preserve the property. Contradiction occurs here.
2. Blundell’s method succeeds in generating constraints based on what’s in each branches.

ANALYSIS & REASON:

First of all, the final output of Giannakopoulou’s method is correct in terms of the property. But there’s some implicit point about the property. Without violating the truth of the property $AG(S.busy \rightarrow AF S.fwd)$ or $G(S.busy \rightarrow F S.fwd)$ in LTL, we can have as many *busy* actions as possible before the *fwd* action. But in order to construct an error LTS automaton, I assume the *busy* action can be release only once and after that we need to see *fwd* action eventually.

Actually there are three branches totally in the system: one branch can preserve the property, one violates it and the last one vacuously preserves it. For the first branch, since no transitions to the error state happen in it, it will be left as the final assumption; For the second one, since in Giannakopoulou’s method the system is running infinitely, *busy* action will be released repeatedly and hence for the branch with *busy* but without *fwd*, it will definitely be trapped into the error state; The third one never sees *busy* and it can’t be synchronized with the property.

However, I claim even if there was an error LTS automaton that could faithfully express the desired property, Giannakopoulou’s method would still fail. This is because, as stated in section 2.1.3, we have to specify *fwd* as an internal action so that the external environment can’t release it, then for the second branch, Giannakopoulou’s method takes it as violation since *fwd* can never be set true. Therefore, this is really an alphabet problem.

Besides, we also need to remember that Giannakopoulou’s method aims at verifying property on open system, but the system in this example is closed with regards to the property. We are just doing some “extreme” case here.

4. SE-c and SSE-c

PROBLEM FOUND: *no*

However, it’s noteworthy to state that there’s difference between the outputs of SE and SE-c and SSE and SSE-c. Some constraints are missing in the complicated system design, due to the existence of cycles. Despite that these cycles don’t have data propositions in

them, they still can make the system fall into infinite loops and that's why some valuations of the unknown propositions can't serve as constraints.

Part 2: When purely E or there exists an E happening before all S in the property

This part is devoted to the cases when some proposition in the property is expected to happen before the current feature.

When there exists some unknown proposition in the property that's before all system actions, Blundell's method would process all these cases in exactly the same way as processing SE/SSE. The temporal part in the partially analyzed constraints is also generated under assuming the possible valuations of the unknown proposition from preceding features based on their truth table. This is different with Giannakopoulou's processing. Her outputs don't refer to anything happening in the past, because the non-persistent actions don't impact the current component.

There may be questions arising since the constraints for the past have the same form as those for the future. Since the data environment is just a linear list to contain the up-to-date values of the data propositions, we may even suspect if this linear container is sufficient to keep the temporal relationships or not. These questions must be solved in the context of Blundell's method: His method tries to work on individual features first to generate constraints. Whether a proposition in the property is known or unknown depends on which feature the method is working on. When there's some unknown proposition happening in one feature f , this also means there must be some features preceding this one and take the unknown proposition as known. Hence, these preceding features take the responsibility of checking the temporal relationships between the unknown propositions in f and if there's any violation of the property in some preceding feature f' , f' will report false and failure of holding on any feature means the property can't be preserved in the composed system. Therefore, we can safely push only the values of them into the data environment and pass it to the following features.

5. EE

PROBLEMS FOUND: no

ANALYSIS&REASON

A property of EE structure means all propositions in the property are unknown to the current component/feature. So, they are either before or after the current component/feature.

- 1) For Blundell's method. No matter whether both of the two propositions are supposed to be from the past or the future features or not, the constraints are the same. This comes from the persistent characteristic of the data propositions. If

they are from the past, their temporal relationship has been checked in preceding features and their valuations still impact the current feature; if they are from the future, their temporal relationships are also generated, as constraints for the following features, based on their valuation with *false* as default. The right values of the data propositions will be decided in the composition time.

- 2) For Giannakopoulou's method. If we don't use the future filter, the final assumptions have all possible cases, from the preceding, following and concurrent features. Adding a future FILTER will get the assumptions for the future out and similarly adding a past FILTER will get those for the past features out.

Comparing the two outputs, they provide the same information and both of them are correct in their context.

6. ES

PROBLEM FOUND: no

ANALYSIS & REASON:

Compared with EE, this example will synchronize and eliminate the S action. Because of the structure of this property, when the S action happens, checking E action is not needed. Hence the outputs are about shifting the whole property to the following features because this is an AG property and the component is open.

7. ESE

PROBLEM FOUND: no

ANALYSIS & REASON:

The S action gets synchronized with the component and eliminated. The two E actions are preserved in the same way as processing EE.

8. ESS

PROBLEM FOUND: no

ANALYSIS & REASON:

Same as 6, the one for ES.

9. EE-c, ES-c, ESE-c, ESS-c

PROBLEM FOUND: no

ANALYSIS & REASON:

Compared with the examples of EE, ES, ESE and ESS, the FSM of these four have cycles. Cycles have the potential to make the system loop forever and affect the liveness property. We can observe that some possible valuations of the data propositions, together with their corresponding temporal constraints, are missing, compare with the examples without cycles. This is because they, if possible, will be trapped into the infinite loop so that something expected by the property won't happen finally and the liveness can't be satisfied.

Appendix B: The outputs of the 14 examples by the two tools

The following table defines 14 examples. Examples 8-14 are the complicated cases with branches and cycles.

ID	English Description	CTL	LTS	NOTE & problems	CTL output	LTS output	File Name
1.	<p>1) If the system is busy, then the incoming call should be forwarded finally and the busy signal should not come more than once.</p> <p>2) Never forward if not busy.</p> <p>3) Busy is turned on only once.</p>	AG(busy -> AF fwd)	<p>property P_CFBL = P0, P0 = (busy -> forward -> P0). <i>(Implicit: Never forward if not busy && Busy is turned on only once)</i></p>	A 'HOLD-FOR-ALL' case	AG(busy -> AF fwd)_st	Startf1->startf2->startf1	SS.lts
2	<p>1) If an email is sign, then it's finally mailed.</p> <p>2) An email can be signed only once</p> <p>3) An email can't be mailed unless it's signed.</p>	AG(sign -> AF mail)	<p>property P_SIGN = P0, P0 = (sign -> mail ->P0). <i>(Implicit: An email can be signed only once && An email can't be mailed unless it's signed.)</i></p>		(!mail ^ (AF mail))s3 ^ (AG (sign -> (AF mail)))s3 v (mail ^ (AG (sign -> (AF mail)))s3) (depending on previous value of mail)	Startf1->startf2 ->mail->startf1	SE.lts

3	<p>If an email is composed, then finally</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) It's signed and then eventually mailed. 2) An email can be signed only once. 3) An email can be composed only once. 4) Don't sign until composed. 5) Don't mail until signed. 	$AG(S.compose1 \rightarrow AF(S.sign \rightarrow AF(E.mail)))$	<p>property P_SIGN = P0, P0 = (compose \rightarrow sign \rightarrow mail \rightarrow P0). <i>(Implicit: An email can be signed only once and can be composed only once)</i></p>		$(!mail \wedge (AF mail)_{s2} \wedge (AG(compose \rightarrow AF(sign \rightarrow AF mail)))_{s2}) \vee (mail \wedge (AG(compose \rightarrow AF(sign \rightarrow AF mail)))_{s2})$ <i>(Colin's can generate redundancy in the constraints)</i>	$Startf1 \rightarrow startf2$ $\rightarrow mail \rightarrow startf1$	SSE.lts
4	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) If an email is signed or encrypted, it will be mailed finally. 2) An email can be signed/encrypted only once. 3) Never mail unless either encrypted or 	$AG((sign \vee encrypt) \rightarrow AF mail)$	<p>property P_TEST = P0, P0 = ({sign, encrypt} \rightarrow mail \rightarrow P0). <i>(Implicit: An email can be signed/encrypted only once && Never mail unless either</i></p>	<p>1. The construction of the error LTS and the negation of some action(s) bring so many implicit things. 2 EE can be before, after and concurrent with the current feature. I take the 'after' one</p>	$((sign \vee encrypt) \wedge (mail \vee (!mail \wedge (AF mail)_{s2})) \wedge (AG f)_{s2}) \vee (!sign \vee encrypt) \wedge (AG f)_{s2}$	$Startf1 \rightarrow startf2$ $\rightarrow \{sign, encrypt\}$ $\rightarrow mail$	EE.lts

	signed		<i>encrypted or signed</i>				
5	<p>1) If an email is composed, it will be finally mailed.</p> <p>2) Do not mail unless composed.</p> <p>3) An mail is composed only once</p>	AG((compose -> AF mail))	<p>property P_SIGN = P0,</p> <p>P0= (compose ->mail->P0).</p> <p><i>(Implicit: An mail is composed only once && Do not mail unless composed)</i></p>	<p>The same as 1.</p> <p>The difference is the first proposition is from Env</p>	(AG(compose -> AF mail))_st	Compose->startf1->startf2->compose	ES.lts
6	<p>1) If an email is composed, it will finally be signed.</p> <p>2) If 1) happens, the email will finally be mailed.</p> <p>3) Don't sign until composed.</p> <p>4) Don't mail until signed.</p> <p>5) An email can be composed only once.</p> <p>6) An email can be signed</p>	AG((compose -> AF (sign -> AF mail)))	<p>property P_SIGN = P0,</p> <p>P0= (compose -> sign -> mail -> P0).</p> <p><i>(Implicit: 3-6 in the second column)</i></p>	<p><i>The construction of the error LTS and the negation of some action(s) bring so many implicit things.</i></p>	<p>(!compose ^ (AGf)_s7)</p> <p>v (compose ^ ((mail ^ (AFmail)_s7 ^ (AGf)_s7) v (!mail A (AGf)_s7)))</p>	Compose -> startf1 ->startf2 -> mail -> compose	ESE.lts

	only once.						
7	The same as 6	AG(compose -> AF (sign -> AF mail))	The same as 6	The difference is that both 'compose' and 'mail' are from Env.	AG((compose -> AF sign) -> AF mail)_s4	Compose -> startf1 -> startf2	ESS.lts
8	The same as 1	The same as 1	The same as 1	Exception!! Expect "FAIL-For-All", but get assumptions. Will also talk about branches.	((!busy ^ ((!fwd ^ (AF fwd)_s5) v fwd)) v(busy ^ (!fwd ^ (AF fwd)_s6 ^ (AF fwd)_s5) v fwd))) ^ (AG f)_s4 ^ (AG f)_s5 ^ (AG f)_s6)	startf1->startf2->startf1 (FAIL! Since the system is closed to Giannakopoulou's and the property should be false on it.)	SS-c.lts
9	Same	Results	As	2	(sign ^ mail ^ (AG (sign -> AF mail))_s4) v (!sign ^ (mail v (!mail ^ (AF mail)_s4)) ^ (AG (sign -> AF mail))_s4)	Startf1->startf2 ->mail->startf1	SE-c.lts
10	Same	Results	As	3	For the space limitation, I don't write the complete constraints down	Startf1->startf2 ->mail->startf1	SSE-c.lts

					here, but they are still based on all the possible valuations of the three prop, assuming they have values assigned in preceding features.		
11	Same	Results	As	4(subset of 4)	$((\text{sign} \vee \text{encrypt}) \wedge \text{mail} \wedge (\text{AG } f)_{s2}) \vee (\neg(\text{sign} \vee \text{encrypt}) \wedge (\text{AG } f)_{s2})$	$\text{Startf1} \rightarrow \text{startf2}$ $\rightarrow \{\text{sign}, \text{encrypt}\}$ $\rightarrow \text{mail}$	EE-c.lts
12	Same	Results	As	5(subset of 5)	$(\neg \text{compose} \wedge \text{AG}(\text{compose} \rightarrow \text{AF } \text{mail}_{s7}) \vee (\text{compose} \wedge \text{mail} \wedge (\neg(\neg \text{mail})_{s7}) \wedge \text{AG}(\text{compose} \rightarrow \text{AF } \text{mail}_{s7}))$	$\text{Compose} \rightarrow \text{startf1}$ $\rightarrow \text{startf2} \rightarrow \text{compose}$	ES-c.lts
13	Same	Results	As	6(subset)	$(\neg \text{compose} \wedge (\text{AG } f)_{s7}) \vee (\text{compose} \wedge ((\text{mail} \wedge$	$\text{Compose} \rightarrow \text{startf1} \rightarrow \text{startf2} \rightarrow \text{mail}$ $\rightarrow \text{compose}$	ESE-c.lts

					(AFmail) _{s7} ^ (AGf) _{s7})		
14	Same	Results	As	7	(!compose v (compose ^ (!sign v (sign ^ mail)))) ^ (AG((compose -> AF sign) -> AF mail))s8	Compose -> startf1 -> startf2	ESS-c.lts
	Summary						
	Some of these properties are verified on the same feature. This is fine, since the feature provides them with the common case, the branches and the cycles						

