### CS 5/6110, Software Correctness Analysis, Spring 2021

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# 18

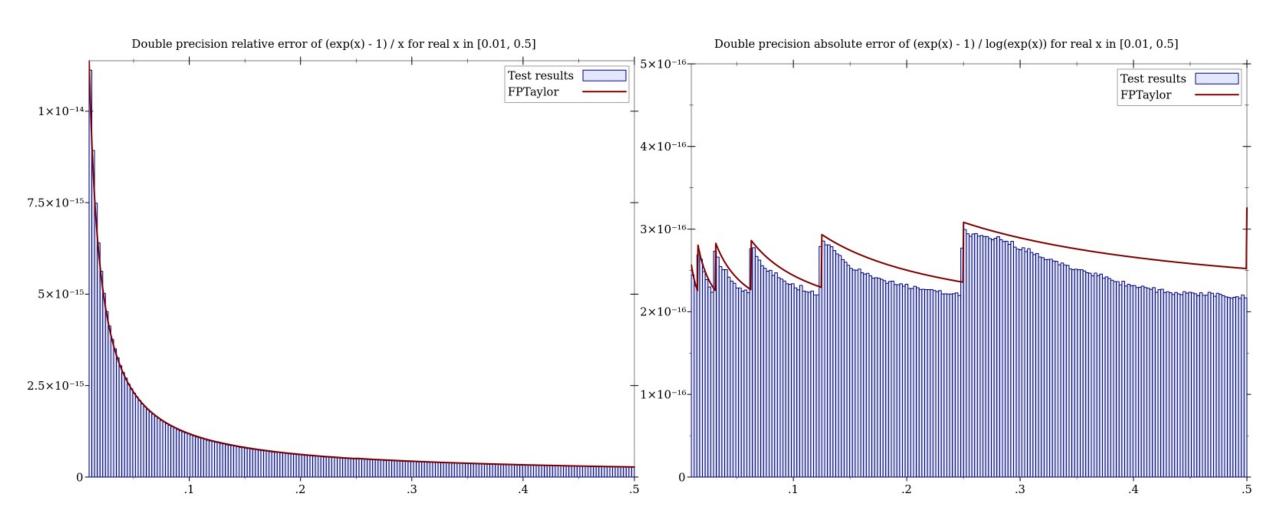
Least Fixpoint of Functionals
Fixpoint Theory to Explain Context-Free Grammars
Fixpoint Theory for Computational Tree Logic

# Where we are

M 3/29	Fixpoint Theory in 1) Context-Free Grammar Defn 2) Computational Tree Logic (CTL) Model Checking	Quiz12
W 3/31	Required Updates Office Hours	
M 4/5	+Cal	Quiz14
W 4/7	Required Meetings	
M 4/12	Required Meetings SPIN: Distributed Termination	Quiz16
W 4/14	Required Meetings	
M 4/19	Required Meetings Dist. Termination	
W 4/21	Presentations	
M 4/26	Presentations	

# Example of non-monotonicity (FP example)

This example was discussed last class - here are the plots



Recap: This pertains to the quiz ... ask if I should show you how to get "Tau"...

### Now consider the recursive definition:

$$F(x,y) = if \ x = y \ then \ y + 1 \ else \ F(x,F(x-1,y+1)).$$
 $f_1 = \lambda(x,y) \cdot if \ x = y \ then \ y + 1 \ else \ x + 1$ 
 $f_2 = \lambda(x,y) \cdot if \ x \ge y \ then \ x + 1 \ else \ y - 1$ 
 $f_3 = \lambda(x,y) \cdot if \ x \ge y \ and \ x - y \ is \ even \ then \ x + 1 \ else \ \bot$ 

Function f3 corresponds to lim\_i { Tau^i [ Bottom\_fn ] }

Where Tau for "F" above is: ...fill this... and is called the "functional underlying the recursive definition (in Manna's book)

In Chapter 18 of Book-3, it is called the "pre" function (e.g. PreFact etc) on which the Y combinator is applied.

Applying the Y combinator gives the same effect as computing the limit of this chain of functions

What does Tau^1[Bottom] correspond to? What about Tau^2? Tau^3? ...fill this...

### Uniqueness of Least Fixpoints

- Least fixpoints exist and are unique when Tau is
  - Monotonic
  - Continuous
- For infinite lattices
  - Continuity implies Monotonicity
- For finite lattices
  - Monotonicity implies Continuity

- Context-free Grammars re-interpreted as recursive equations
  - S -> aSbS | bSaS | SS | epsilon
    - Versus
  - S -> aSbS | bSaS | epsilon

- Then discuss the system
  - S -> epsilon | ( W S
  - W -> ( W W | )

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  - S -> aSbS | bSaS | epsilon
  - Solve the recursive language equation

- Context-free Grammars re-interpreted as recursive equations
  - S -> aSbS | bSaS | epsilon
  - Solve the recursive language equation
- L\_S = {a} L\_S {b} L\_S U {b} L\_S {a} L\_S U {e}
- What do we get when we iterate from L\_S = {} "upwards"?

- Context-free Grammars re-interpreted as recursive equations
  - S -> aSbS | bSaS | SS | epsilon

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 Are there 2 fixpoints? Which is found using iteration using {} as the bottom (going up)?

- Then discuss the system
  - S -> epsilon | ( W S
  - W -> ( W W | )
- Solve
- (L\_S, L\_W) = ( {e} U {(} L\_W L\_S , {(} L\_W L\_W U {)} )

- Then discuss the system
  - S -> epsilon | ( W S
  - W -> ( W W | )
- Solve
- (L\_S, L\_W) = ( {e} U {(} L\_W L\_S , {(} L\_W L\_W U {)} )

- What fixpoint obtained by iterating up from ({} , {}) ?
- What is the lattice ordering?

### CTL Model Checking

- Least fixpoints exist and are unique when Tau is
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  - Continuous
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### State-Space Travel via BDDs

- We will use BDDs to represent Kripke Structure
- We will model Transition Relations using BDDs
- Use Boolean operations to obtain the set of reachable states

# State Transition Systems via BDDs



Fig. 11.4. Simple state transition system (example SimpleTR)

The values of b and b' for which this relation is satisfied represent the present and next states in our example. In other words,

- a move where b is false now and true in the next state is represented by  $\neg bb'$ .
- a move where b is true in the present and next states is represented by bb'.
- finally, a move where b is true in the present state and false in the next state is represented by  $b\neg b'$ .

### The set of reachable states defined by "P"

In other words, we can introduce a predicate P such that a state x is in P if and only if it is reachable from the initial state I through a finite number of steps, as dictated by the transition relation T. The above recursive recipe is encoded as

$$P(s) = (I(s) \lor \exists x. (P(x) \land T(x,s))).$$

### This can be computed via fixpoint iteration

Rewriting again, we have

$$P = (\lambda G.(\lambda s.(I(s) \vee \exists x.(G(x) \wedge T(x,s))))) P.$$

In other words, P is a fixed-point of

$$\lambda G.(\lambda s.(I(s) \vee \exists x.(G(x) \wedge T(x,s)))).$$

Let us call this Lambda expression H:

$$H = \lambda G.(\lambda s.(I(s) \vee \exists x.(G(x) \wedge T(x,s)))).$$

$$P_1 = \lambda G.(\lambda s.(I(s) \vee \exists x.(G(x) \wedge T(x,s))))P_0$$
 Etc...

### This can be computed via fixpoint iteration

- $I = \lambda b. \neg b.$
- $T = \lambda(b, b'). (b + b').$
- $P_0 = \lambda s. false$ , which encodes the fact that "we've reached nowhere yet!"
- $P_1 = \lambda G.(\lambda s.(I(s) \vee \exists x.(G(x) \wedge T(x,s))))P_0.$ This simplifies to  $P_1 = I$ , which is, in effect, an assertion that we've "just reached" the initial state, starting from  $P_0$ .
- Let's see the derivation of  $P_1$  in detail. Expanding T and  $P_0$ , we have

$$P_1 = \lambda G.(\lambda s.(I(s) \vee \exists x.(G(x) \wedge (x+s)))) (\lambda x.false).$$

### This can be computed via fixpoint iteration

- The above simplifies to  $\neg b$ .
- By this token, we are expecting  $P_2$  to be all states that are zero or one step away from the start state. Let's see whether we obtain this result.
- $P_2 = \lambda G.(\lambda s.(I(s) \vee \exists x.(G(x) \wedge T(x,s))))P_1.$ =  $\lambda s.(\neg s \vee \exists x.(\neg x \wedge (x+s))).$ =  $\lambda s.1.$

Forward
Reahability via the
BDD tool called
"BED"

```
% Declare b and b'
   var b bp
   let I = !b
                           % Declare init state
   let t1 = !b and bp
                           % 0 --> 1
   upall t1
                           % Build BDD for it
   view t1
                           % View it
   let t2 = b and bp
                           % 1 --> 1
                           % 1 --> 0
   let t3 = b and !bp
   let T = t1 or t2 or t3 % All three edges
   upall T
                           % Build and view the BDD
   view T
   let PO = false
   upall PO
   view PO
        P1 = I or ((exists b. (P0 and T))[bp:=b])
   upall P1
   view P1
        P2 = I or ((exists b. (P0 and T))[bp:=b])
   upall P2
   view P2
                         P1: a
      P0: b
                            P0: b
   0
                                 0
                                         P2, the least fixed-point
                    P1
P0
```

Fig. 11.5. BED commands for reachability analysis on SimpleTR, and the fixed-point iteration leading up to the least fixed-point that denotes the set of reachable states starting from I

Forward Reahability via the BDD tool called "BED": another example

```
var a ap b bp
   let T = (a and b and ap and bp) or /* SO -> SO */
           (!a and b and !ap and bp) or /* S1 -> S1 */
           (a and !b and ap and !bp) or /* S2 -> S2 */
           (!a and !b and !ap and !bp) or /* S3 -> S3 */
           (!a and b and ap and !bp) or /* S1 -> S2 */
           (a and !b and !ap and bp) or /* S2 -> S1 */
           (!a and b and ap and bp) or /* S1 -> S0 */
           (a and !b and ap and bp)
                                         /* S2 -> S0 */
   upall T
   view T
                       /* Produces BDD for TREL 'T' */
   let I = a and b
   let P0 = b
   let P1 = I or ((exists a. (exists b. (P0 and T)))[ap:=a][bp:=b])
   upall P1
   view P1
                                                       P1: a
     v s0
                s1
               {b}
   ({a,b})-
                                     P0: b
                                                          P0: b
    {a}
                                  0
                                                               0
               s3
                                                   P1
                              P0
Transition System MultiFP
```

**Fig. 11.6.** Example where multiple fixed-points exist. This figure shows attainment of a fixed-point  $a \lor b$  which is between the least fixed-point of  $a \land b$  and the greatest fixed-point of 1. The figure shows the initial approximant P0 and the next approximant P1

### CTL formulas are Kripke structure classifiers

Given a CTL formula  $\varphi$ , all possible computation trees fall into two bins—models and non-models.<sup>5</sup> The computation trees in the model ('good') bin are those that satisfy  $\varphi$  while those in the non-model ('bad') bin obviously falsify  $\varphi$ .

Consider the CTL formula AG (EF (EG a)) as an example. Here,

- 'A' is a path quantifier and stands for all paths at a state
- 'G' is a state quantifier and stands for everywhere along the path
- 'E' is a path quantifier and stands for exists a path
- 'F' is a state quantifier and stands for find (or future) along a path
- 'X' is a state quantifier and stands for next along a path

The truth of the formula AG (EF (EG a)) can be calculated as follows:

- In all paths, everywhere along those paths, EF (EG a) is true
- The truth of EF (EG a) can be calculated as follows:
  - There exists a path where we will find that EG a is true.
  - The truth of EG a can be calculated as follows:
    - \* There exists a path where a is globally true.

CTL formulas  $\gamma$  are inductively defined as follows:

$\gamma \to x$	a propositional variable		
$\mid \neg \gamma$	negation of $\gamma$		
$  (\gamma)$	parenthesization of $\gamma$		
$  \gamma_1 \vee \gamma_2  $	disjunction		
$\mid$ AG $\gamma$	on all paths,	everywhere along each path	
$\mid$ AF $\gamma$	on all paths,	somewhere on each path	
$\mid$ AX $\gamma$	on all paths,	next time on each path	
$\mid \text{EG } \gamma$	on some path,	everywhere on that path	
$\mid  ext{EF } \gamma$	on some path,	somewhere on that path	
$\mid \text{EX } \gamma$	on some path,	next time on that path	
$\mid \text{ A}[\gamma_1 \text{ U } \gamma_2]$	on all paths,	$\gamma_1  ext{ until } \gamma_2$	
$\mid E[\gamma_1 \cup \gamma_2]$	on some path,	$\gamma_1$ until $\gamma_2$	
$A[\gamma_1 \ W \ \gamma_2]$		$\gamma_1$ weak-until $\gamma_2$	
$\mid \mathrm{E}[\gamma_1 \ \mathrm{W} \ \gamma_2]$	on some path,	$\gamma_1$ weak-until $\gamma_2$	
[ -[/1 · · /2]		11	

```
EG p = p \land (EX (EG p))

bed> var a a1 b b1

var a a1 b b1

bed> let TREL =
        (not(a) and b and a1 and not(b1)) or (a and not(a1) and b1) or
        (a and not(b) and b1) or (a and not(b) and a1)

bed> upall TREL

Upall( TREL ) -> 53

bed> view TREL ... (displays the BDD)
```

$$EG p = p \wedge (EX (EG p))$$

• In the BED syntax,  $a \oplus b$  is written a != b. Now we perform the fixed-point iteration assisted by BED. We construct variable names that mnemonically capture what we are achieving at each step:

This simplifies to (a != b), as (EX true) is true.

Now, in order to determine EG\_a\_xor\_b\_2, we continue the fixed-point iteration process, and write

$$EG_a\_xor_b\_2 = (a != b)$$
 and  $EX (a != b)$ 

At this juncture, we realize that we need to calculate EX (a != b). This can be calculated using BED as follows:

```
bed> let EX_a_xor_b = exists a1. exists b1. (TREL and (a1 != b1))
bed> upall EX_a_xor_b
bed> view EX_a_xor_b
```

$$EG p = p \wedge (EX (EG p))$$

### Calculating AX

If we have to calculate AX p, we would employ duality and write it as

This approach will be used in the rest of this book.

```
A[pUq] = q \lor (p \land AX (A[pUq]))
```

```
bed> upall TREL
Upall( TREL ) -> 67
bed> view TREL
bed> let A_p_U_q_0 = false
bed> let AX_A_p_U_q_0 = false
bed> let A_p_U_q_1 = (q or (p and AX_A_p_U_q_0))
```

$$A[pUq] = q \lor (p \land AX (A[pUq]))$$

```
bed> upall A_p_U_q_1
Upall(A_p_U_q_1) -> 3
bed> view A_p_U_q_1
bed> let EX_not_q = exists p1. exists q1. (TREL and !q1)
bed> upall EX_not_q
Upall( EX_not_q ) -> 80
bed> view EX_not_q
bed> let AX_q = !EX_not_q
bed> upall AX_q
Upall( AX_q ) -> 82
bed> view AX_q
bed> let A_p_U_q_2 = (q \text{ or } (p \text{ and } AX_q))
bed> upall A_p_U_q_2
Upall(A_p_U_q_2) -> 3
bed> view A_p_U_q_2 --> gives ''q'', hence denotes {S1,S2} -- LFP
```

$$A[pUq] = q \lor (p \land AX (A[pUq]))$$

### 23.2.5 GFP for Until

```
bed> let A_p_U_q_0 = true
bed> let AX_A_p_U_q_0 = true
bed> let A_p_U_q_1 = (q \text{ or } (p \text{ and } AX_A_p_U_q_0))
bed> upall A_p_U_q_1
Upall( A_p_U_q_1 ) -> 72
view A_p_U_q_1
bed> let EX_not_p_or_q = exists p1. exists q1. (TREL and !(p1 or q1))
bed> upall EX_not_p_or_q
Upall( EX_not_p_or_q ) -> 0
bed> let AX_p_or_q = !EX_not_p_or_q
bed> upall AX_p_or_q
Upall( AX_p_or_q ) -> 1
bed> view A_p_U_q_1
bed> let A_pU_q2 = (q or (p and AX_por_q)) --> reached
     Fixed-point (q or p) which denotes {S0,S1,S2,S3}
```

### Summary

- Fixpoint theory is everywhere in CS
  - Static analysis
  - Recursive program analysis
  - CFG explanation
  - CTL model-checking
- Finding lattices and monotonic + continuous functionals is key
- Once set up this way, we usually go after the least fixpoint
- Greatest fixpoints also "make sense"
  - But sometimes they are useless
  - as in the CFG example S -> aSbS | bSaS | SS | epsilon

# Summary