

Formal Specification Techniques

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References for study:

- D. Basin, *Formal Methods for Security*, CyBOK 1.1, 2021, Chapter 2

Formal Methods

- **Formal specification**

- Build a formal (mathematical) model (abstraction) of a system
- Can be used at different development stages
 - Requirements specification, structural and behavioral specifications at different abstraction levels (at different design stages)

- **Formal verification**

- Check the self-consistency of formal models
- Check that a formal behavioral model satisfies its formal requirements specification
- Check the cross-consistency of two formal behavioral models (at different abstraction levels)

Formal Specifications

- Characteristics of a formal specification
 - **Unambiguous** (no multiple interpretations)
 - **Consistent** (no internal contradictions)
 - **Complete** (all **relevant** information represented)
- Examples
 - Combinational circuit -> boolean function
 - Sequential circuit -> Finite State Machine
 - Less immediate for software and systems

Formal Specification Styles (behavioral models)

Especially used for system
design/impl. models

- Operational (imperative)
 - description of the system actions (e.g. state machine)

Especially used for system
requirements models

- Descriptive (declarative)
 - description of the system properties (e.g. square function with input x , output y : $y = x^2$)

System Behavior Classification

- **Computational (or transformational) systems**
 - Their task is to receive some input X and produce a corresponding output Y . After having finished this task, they terminate.
 - Operationally, they can be described by an algorithm (compute Y from X)
 - Descriptively, they can be described by the mathematical function or relationship that binds Y to X

System Behavior Classification

- **Reactive systems**
 - Their task is to interact in a predefined way with their environment (respecting some temporal constraints). They may not terminate.
 - Their specification must describe how they interact with the environment (the possible sequences of interactions)
 - Operationally, they can be described by a state machine (state-transition model)
 - Descriptively, they can be described by (temporal) logic formulas (more on this later on)

Discussion

- This classification has nothing to do with the distinction between concurrent and sequential systems.
- Reactive systems are a superclass of computational systems
 - = > Specification techniques for reactive systems are themselves a superclass of specification techniques for computational systems

State-Transition Models

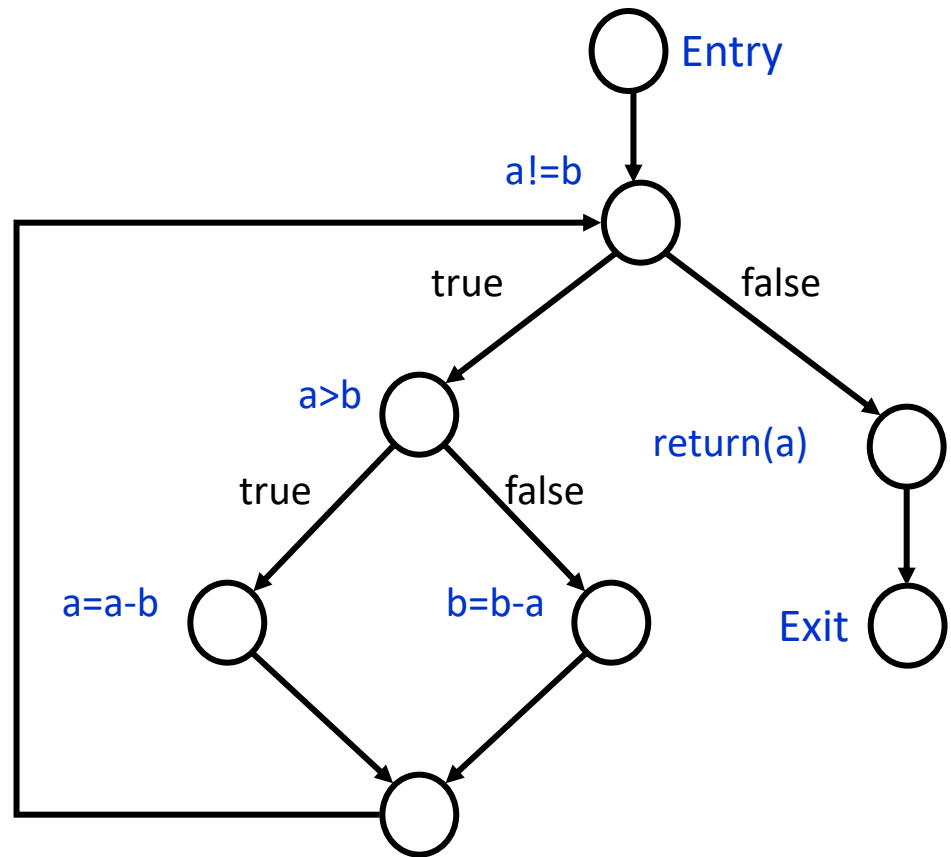
- **Transition System (TS):** (S, init, ρ)
 - **S**: set of states
 - **init**: initial state ($\text{init} \in S$)
 - ρ : transition relation ($\rho \subseteq S \times S$)
- **Labelled Transition System (LTS):** $(S, \text{init}, L, \rho)$
 - **S**: set of states
 - **init**: initial state ($\text{init} \in S$)
 - **L**: set of labels (events)
 - ρ : transition relation ($\rho \subseteq S \times L \times S$)

Example: State-Transition model of a sequential program execution

- The control flow of a sequential program can be described by a **Control Flow Graph (CFG)**
 - a directed graph including entry, exit, assignment and test vertices).

Example of Control Flow Graph

```
int f(int a, int b)
{
  while (a!=b) {
    if (a>b)
      a = a-b;
    else
      b = b-a;
  }
  return(a);
}
```



Only captures **control flow** of a **single sequential** program

Modeling Variables

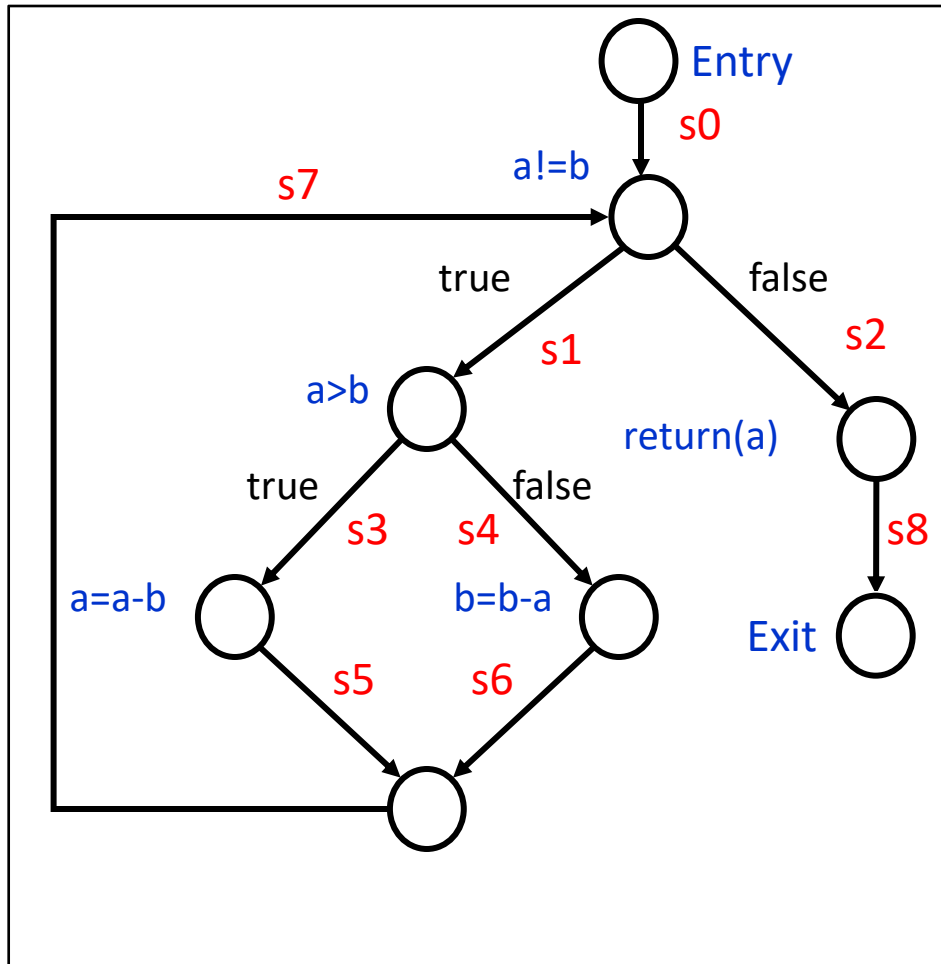
- The possible contents of variables can be modeled as elements of sets
- Examples:
 - a single int variable \Rightarrow modeled by the set of integers \mathbb{N}
 - two int variables a and $b \Rightarrow$ modeled by the cartesian product $\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$
- In general, V : set of all possible contents of variables

Putting all together

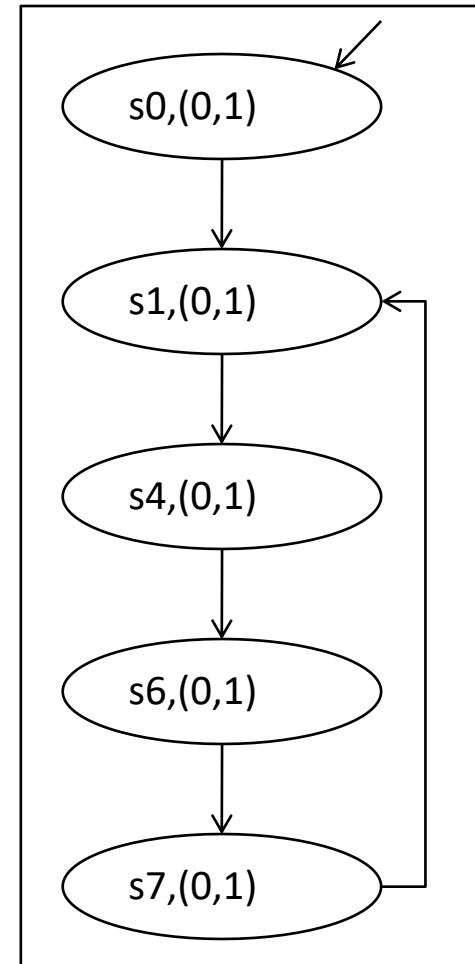
- The full model of the program is a TS: (S, init, ρ) , where:
 - States (S) : set of pairs $\langle s, v \rangle$ where
 - s : control state (an edge of the CFG)
 - v : contents of variables (an element of V)
 - initial state (init): $\langle s_0, v_{0i} \rangle$ where
 - s_0 : the edge outgoing from the entry vertex
 - v_{0i} : an element of V (e.g. the element of V corresponding to “all variables not initialized”)
 - state transitions (ρ) : determined by the semantics of program statements

Example with initial values 0,1

CFG



TS

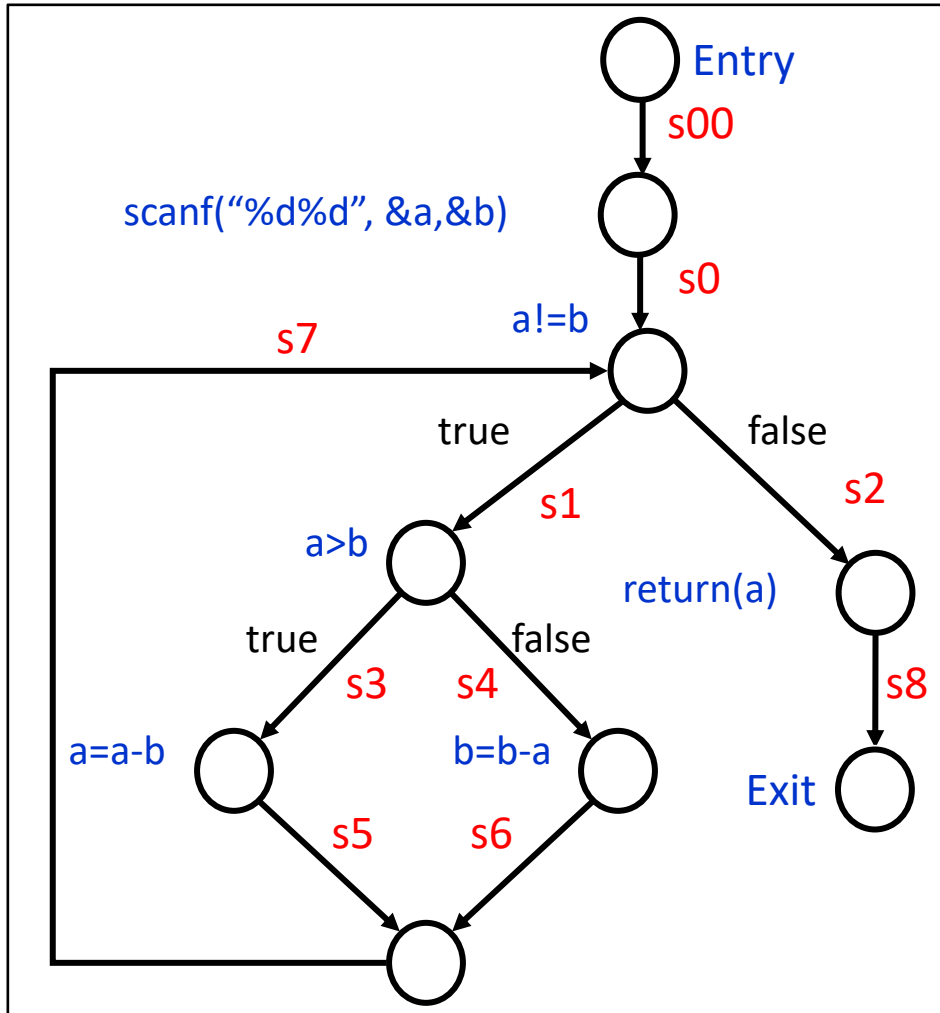


Non-determinism

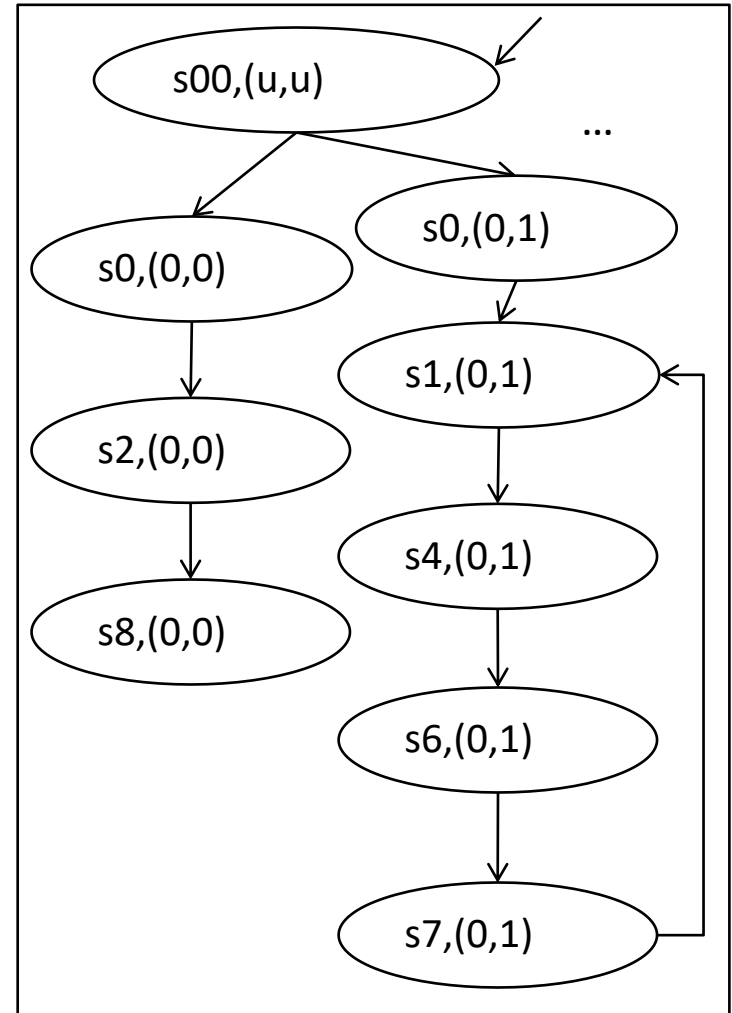
- Abstract models use non-determinism for representing execution aspects that are not known a-priori
 - The inputs of a program
 - how concurrent processes are scheduled by the operating system
- Non-determinism is also used to represent different possible implementation choices

Example with nondeterminism

CFG



TS

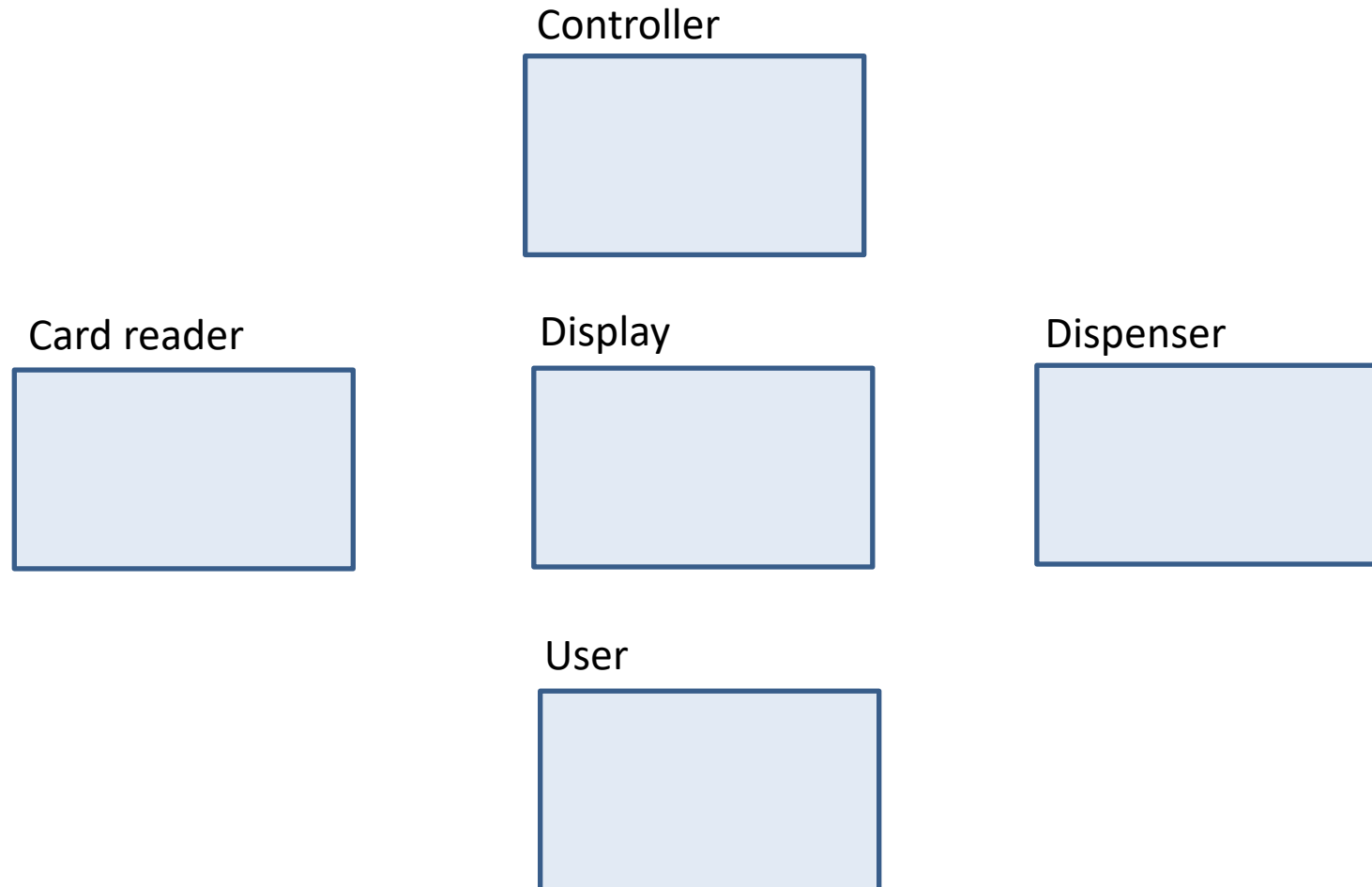


Example: State-transition model of a **concurrent** program execution

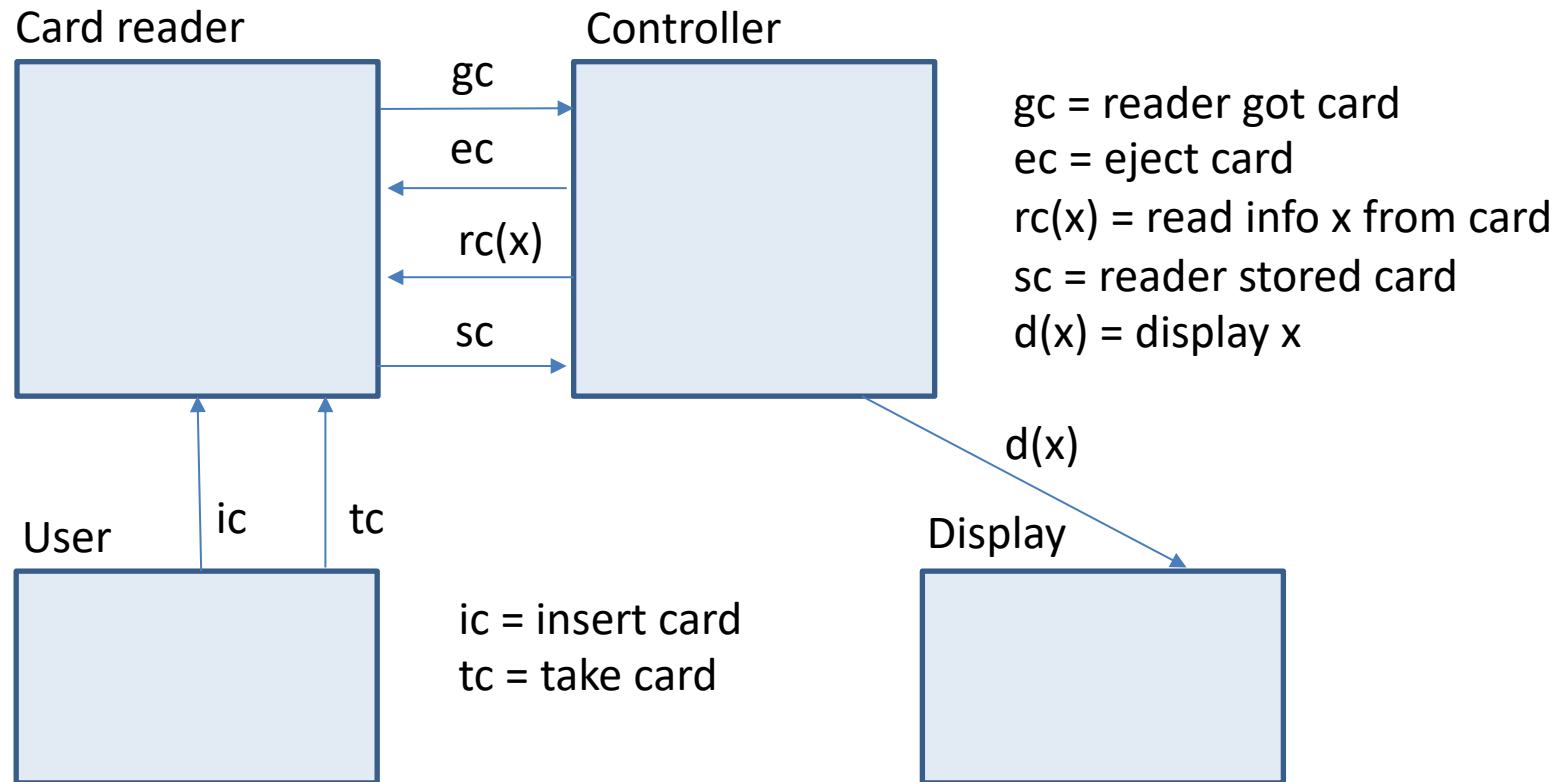
- Each sequential process that is part of a concurrent system can be represented by a TS
- The whole concurrent system can be represented by a product TS:
 - Set of states $S = S_1 \times S_2 \times \dots$
 - Initial state: $\text{init} = \langle \text{init}_1, \text{init}_2, \dots \rangle$
 - Transition relation: $\rho(\langle s_1, s_2, \dots \rangle, \langle s_1', s_2', \dots \rangle)$ iff $\rho_i(s_i, s_i')$ for some i , and $s_i = s_i'$ for the others.

Example:

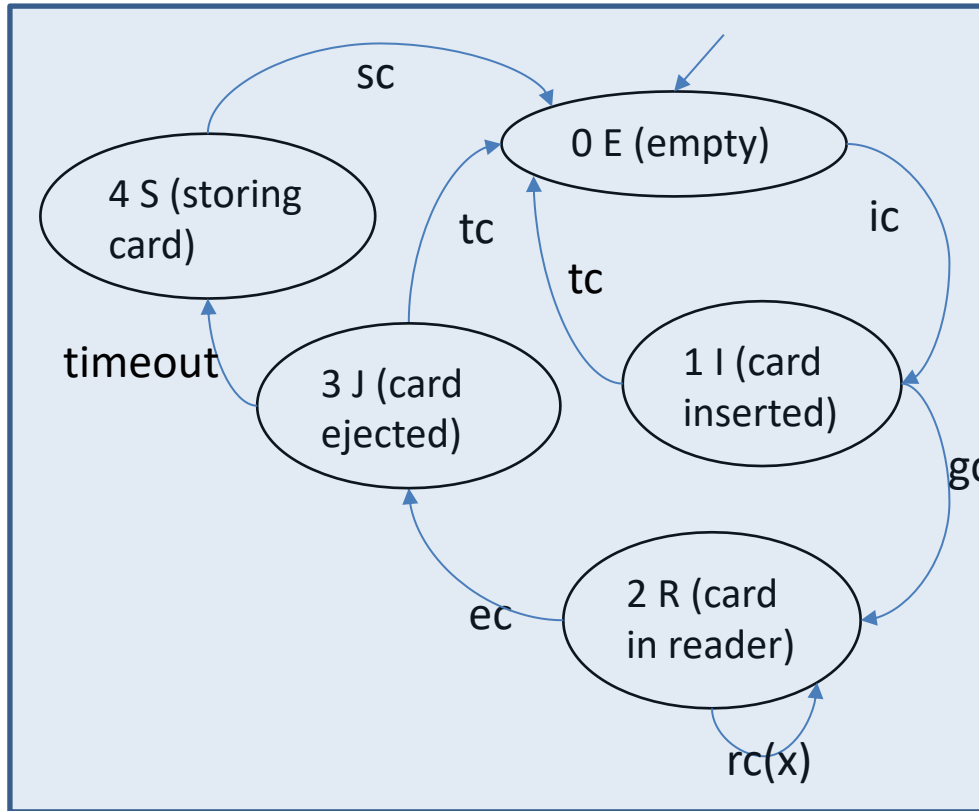
Operational Model of an ATM as LTS



Events of Some Model Processes



Card reader

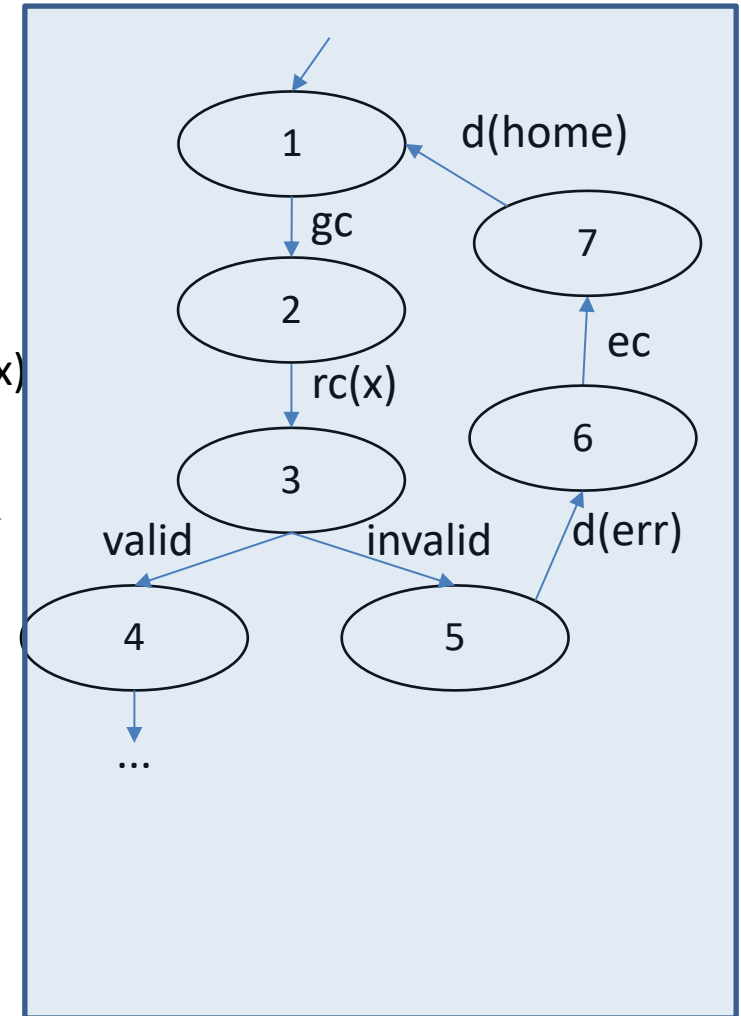


User

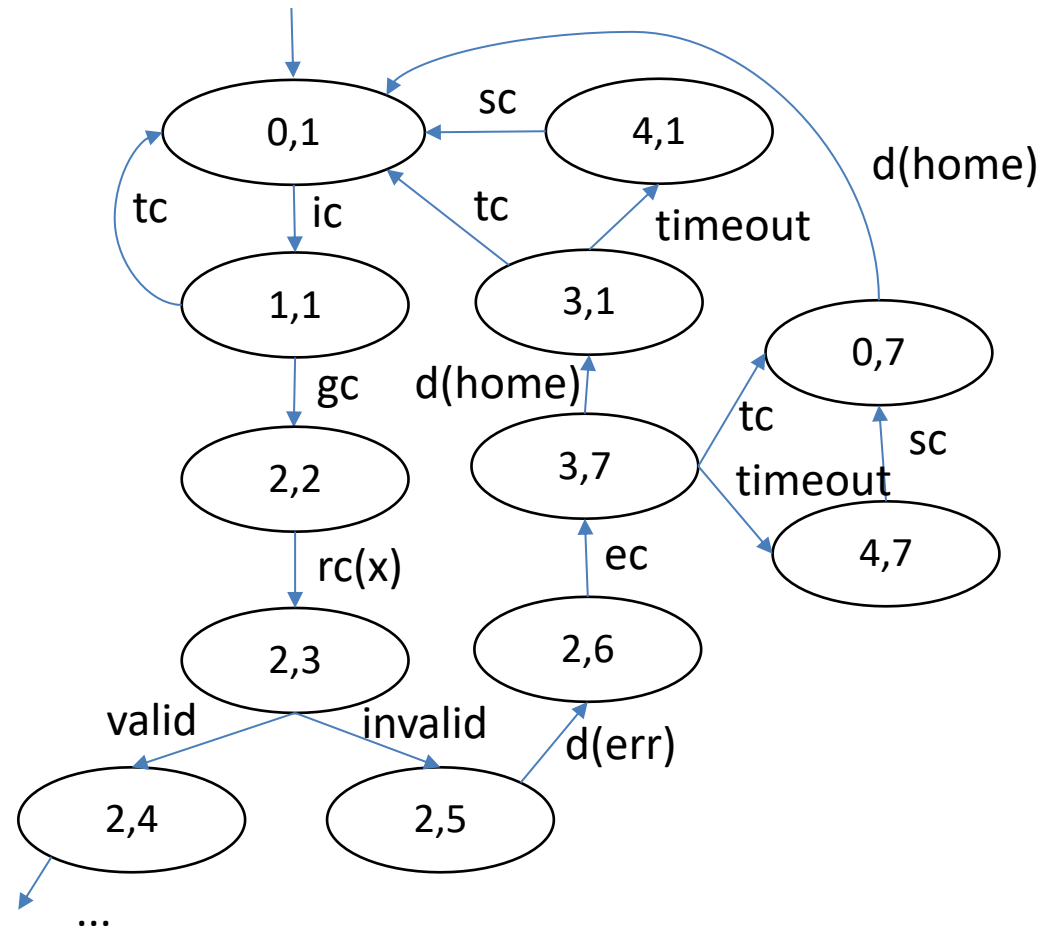
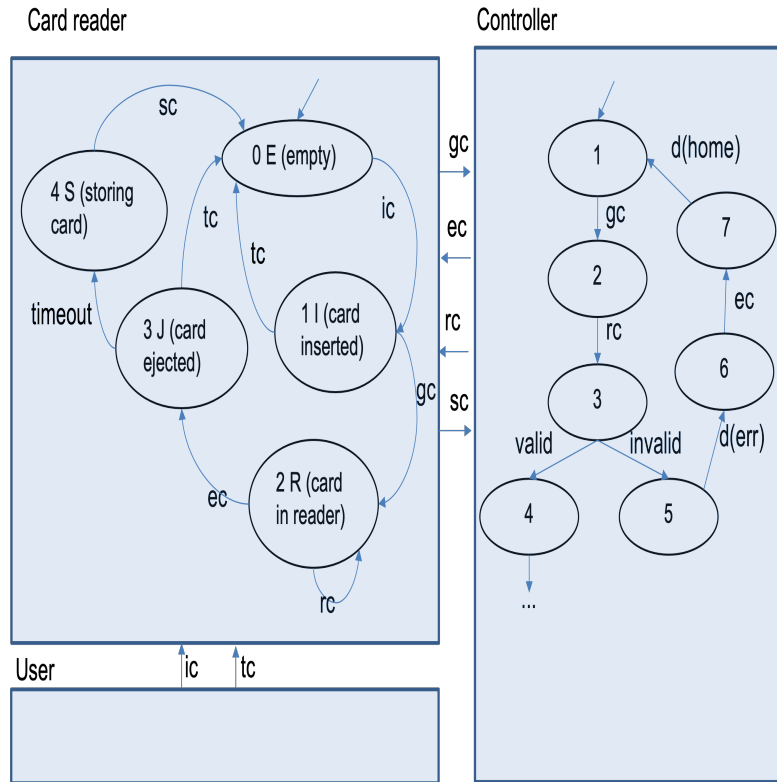
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Controller



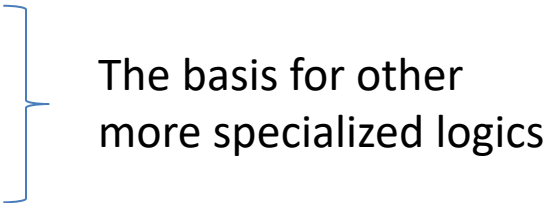
Overall LTS (Product LTS)



State Explosion

- Concurrency tends to make the number of states/transitions explode
 - => strategies are necessary to manage the issue
(more on this later on)

Descriptive Formal Specifications

- A formal model of a system property can be expressed by a **logic formula**
 - Different logics can be used for this purpose
 - Propositional logic
 - Predicate (1 order) logic
 - Temporal logics
 - 1 order logics (specializations of predicate logic)
- 
- The basis for other more specialized logics

Propositional Logic

- A possible minimal definition:

- Syntax:

formula ::= P | Q | R | ... (atomic propositions)
 | \neg *formula*
 | *formula* \vee *formula*
 | (*formula*)

$$f1 \wedge f2 \equiv \neg ((\neg f1) \vee (\neg f2))$$

$$f1 \Rightarrow f2 \equiv (\neg f1) \vee f2$$

$$f1 \Leftrightarrow f2 \equiv (f1 \Rightarrow f2) \wedge (f2 \Rightarrow f1)$$

...

Example:
 $(P \wedge \neg Q) \Rightarrow \neg R$

Propositional Logic

– Semantics (interpretation):

- Interpretation of atomic propositions:
can be formalized as a function $I: AP \rightarrow \{F, T\}$
- Interpretation of operators
can be formalized as boolean functions (truth tables)

f	$\neg f$
F	T
T	F

f1	f2	$f1 \vee f2$
F	F	F
F	T	T
T	F	T
T	T	T

We write $I \models f$ to mean f is true with interpretation I

Abstract Reasoning

The interpretation of operators lets us reason *independently* of the interpretation of AP:

- **Tautology**: formula that is always true (independently of how APs are interpreted)
 - Examples: $Q \Rightarrow (P \Rightarrow Q)$ $P \vee (\neg P)$
- **Contradiction**: formula that is always false (it is the negation of a tautology)
 - Examples: $P \wedge (\neg P)$

Satisfiability and Validity

- A formula is said **satisfiable** if it is true for at least one interpretation of APs
- A formula is said **valid** if it is true for all interpretations of APs (i.e., it is a tautology)
- Duality of validity and satisfiability:

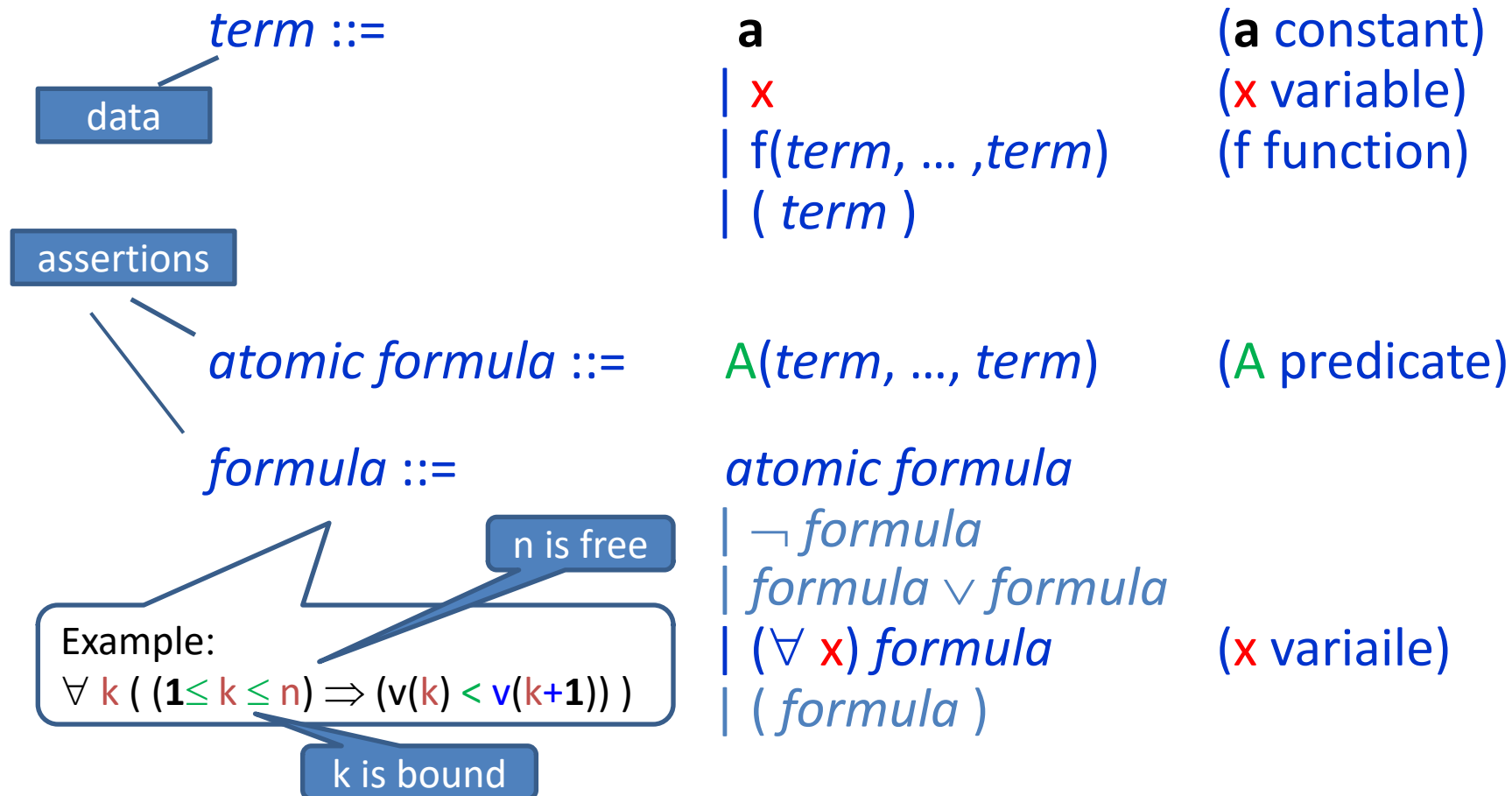
$$f \text{ is valid} \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \neg f \text{ is not satisfiable}$$

Predicate Logic (1 order logic)

- An extension of propositional logic where:
 - Atomic propositions are replaced by *predicates*
 - the new concepts of **constant**, **variable**, **function**, **relation** and the \forall and \exists quantifiers are introduced
- Formula sample:
$$\forall k ((1 \leq k \leq n) \Rightarrow (v(k) < v(k+1)))$$

Predicate Logic (1 order logic)

- Minimal syntax



Predicate Logic (1 order logic)

- **Derived formulas**

$$f1 \wedge f2 \equiv \neg ((\neg f1) \vee (\neg f2))$$

$$f1 \Rightarrow f2 \equiv (\neg f1) \vee f2$$

$$f1 \Leftrightarrow f2 \equiv (f1 \Rightarrow f2) \wedge (f2 \Rightarrow f1)$$

...

$$(\exists x) f \equiv \neg ((\forall x) (\neg f))$$

Predicate Logic (1 order logic)

- **Semantics (Interpretation)**

Domain (set D of the possible values of terms)

Interpretation of constants (function $C \rightarrow D$)

Interpretation of functions (function $F \rightarrow \text{fun}(D)$)

Interpretation of predicates (function $P \rightarrow \text{rel}(D)$)

Interpretation of logical connectives

- same as in propositional logic

Interpretation of $(\forall x) f$

- true iff f is true for any substitution of x in f with any term

Predicate Logic (1 order logic)

- For closed formulas (without free variables)
 - Interpretation maps each formula onto an element of $\{F, T\}$
- For open formulas (with n free variables)
 - Interpretation maps each formula onto a relation on D^n

Another possible formalization of a logic: A Formal System

- A **Formal System (Theory)** is defined by:

- A **formal language**

What
formulas
can I write?

- An alphabet of symbols
- A set of well formed formulas (sequences of symbols belonging to the language)

- A **deductive apparatus** (or deductive system)

How do I give
a truth value
to a formula?

- A set of **axioms** (formulas to which the true value is assigned axiomatically)
- A set of **inference rules** (each one expressing that a certain formula is a *direct consequence* of certain other formulas)

Example: A possible formal system for propositional logic (Lukasiewicz)

- Formal language: propositional logic syntax, with the only two primitive operators \Rightarrow \neg
- Deductive apparatus: Axioms
 - A1) $f1 \Rightarrow (f2 \Rightarrow f1)$
 - A2) $(f1 \Rightarrow (f2 \Rightarrow f3)) \Rightarrow ((f1 \Rightarrow f2) \Rightarrow (f1 \Rightarrow f3))$
 - A3) $(\neg f2 \Rightarrow \neg f1) \Rightarrow (f1 \Rightarrow f2)$
- Deductive apparatus: Inference rules
 - I1)
$$\frac{f1, f1 \Rightarrow f2}{f2} \quad (\text{modus ponens})$$

Theorems and Proofs

- **Proof**

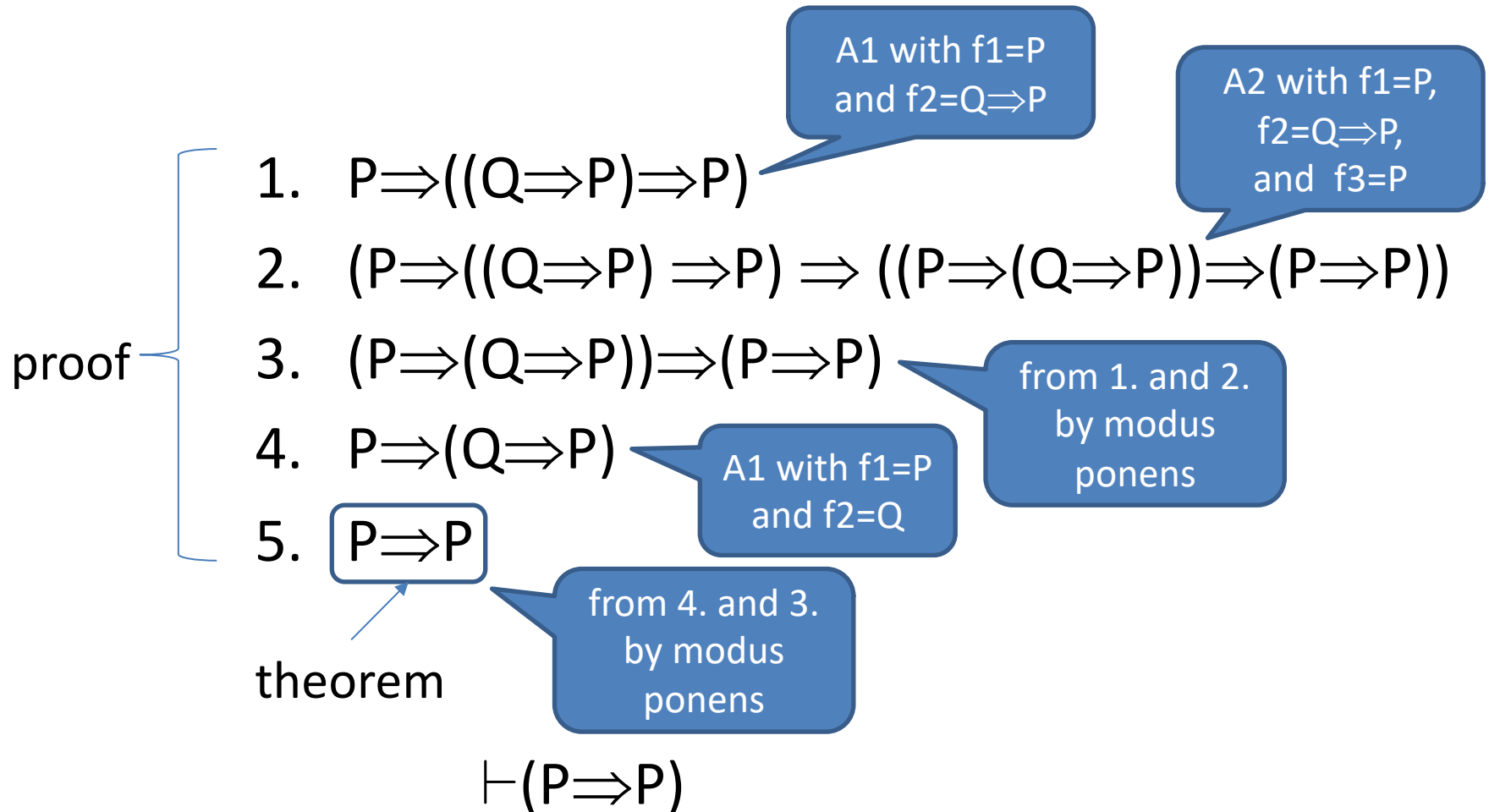
a sequence of wff f_1, \dots, f_n such that, for each i , f_i is an axiom or it is a direct consequence of some of the preceding formulas, according to an inference rule.

- **Theorem**

a wff f such that there exists a proof that terminates with f

We write $\vdash f$ to mean f is a consequence of the Formal System axioms and rules (a theorem)

Example: Theorem and Proof



Temporal properties

- Proposition and predicate logics describe **static facts** (immutable in time)
- Instead, the facts related to a program execution or to a dynamic system are typically **time-varying**
- If we refer to a particular state (e.g. the final state of a program run) static properties are adequate, otherwise temporal properties are necessary.

Temporal Properties

- Examples:
 - Variable x takes positive value during the whole program execution
 - It is not possible that, during any session of the ATM (i.e. between the time when the card is inserted and the time when the home page is displayed), a user gets money without having inserted the right pin code
 - The time between the start of a purchase operation and the end of the same operation must be less than 30 seconds

Possible solutions

- Use predicate logic with a variable t interpreted as (continuous or discrete) time

Example:

$$\forall t (x(0) > 0 \Rightarrow x(t) > 0)$$

- Use a specialized logic (temporal logic)

Temporal Logics

- Extensions of classical logics that also let the temporal evolution of facts to be described
- Can be defined in various ways
 - Propositional vs 1 order **logic**
 - Discrete vs Continuous, Implicit vs Real, Linear vs Branching **time**
 - Event vs State, Instant vs Interval, Past vs Future **modalities**

LTL (Linear Temporal Logic)

- The main temporal operators of LTL are:

○ **(X) Next**

○ f : f is true in the next state

[] **(G) Always in the future (globally)**

[] f : f is true in all future states

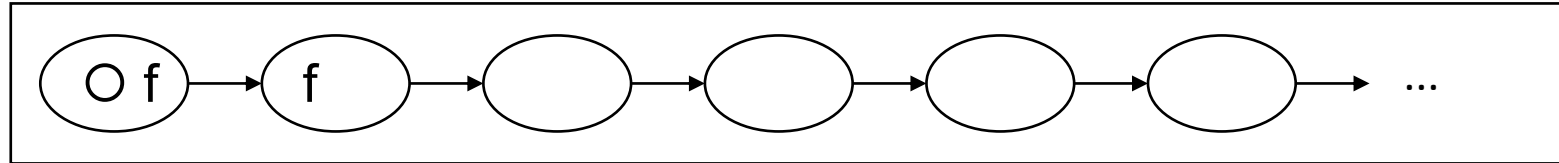
◇ **(F) Eventually in the future**

◇ f : f is true at least in one future state

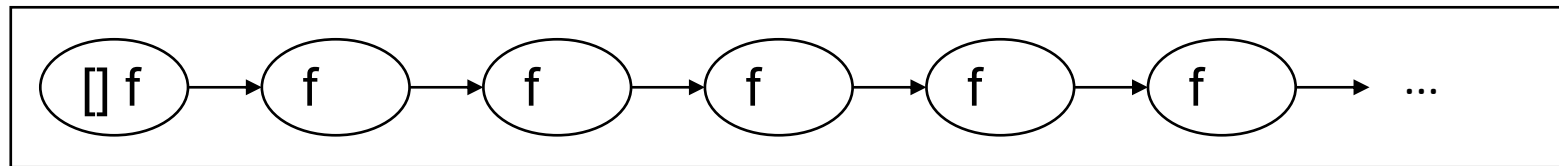
U Until

$f1 \text{ U } f2$: $f1$ keeps true until $f2$ becomes true

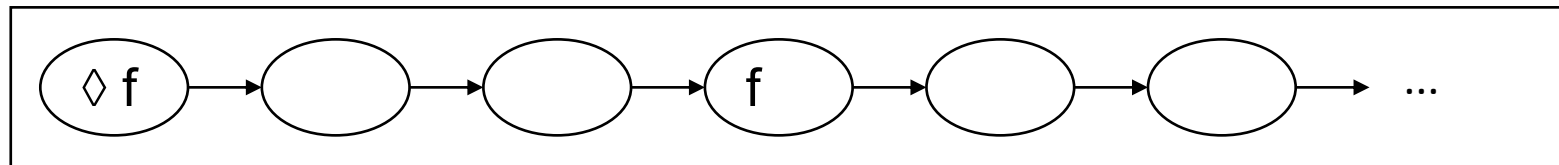
$\bigcirc f$: f is true in next state



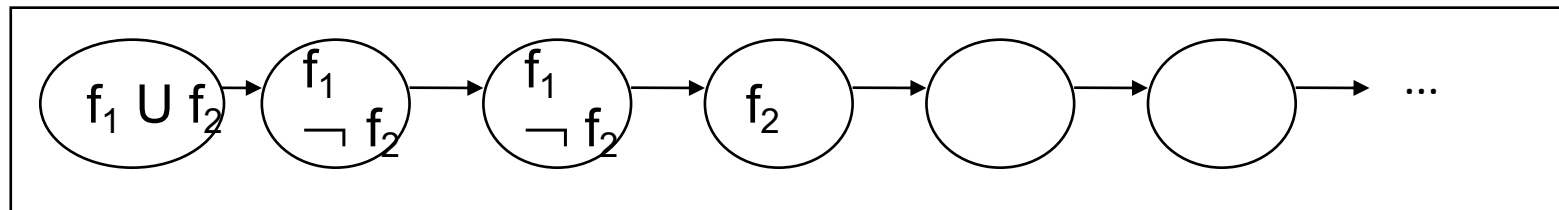
$[] f$: f is true in all future states



$\diamond f$: f is true at least in one future state



$f_1 \text{ U } f_2$: f_1 keeps true until f_2 becomes true



LTL (Linear Temporal Logic)

- Minimal syntax

formula ::= P | Q | R | ... (atomic propositions)
| \neg *formula*
| *formula* \vee *formula*
| \bigcirc *formula*
| \bigvee *formula*
| (*formula*)

$f1 \wedge f2 \equiv \neg ((\neg f1) \vee (\neg f2))$

...

$\Diamond f \equiv \bigvee U f$

$[] f \equiv \neg \Diamond \neg f$

LTL (Linear Temporal Logic)

- Semantics (Interpretation):

- Kripke Structure $K=(S, \text{init}, \rho, I)$

$\underbrace{\quad}_{\text{TS}}$

Interpretation of APs
 $I: S \times \text{AP} \rightarrow \{T, F\}$

- K defines paths: linear sequences of states bound by the transition relation ρ

- Formula f is true for interpretation K iff f is true for each path π of K

$(K \models f) \Leftrightarrow (\pi \models f \text{ for each path } \pi \text{ of } K)$

LTL (Linear Temporal Logic)

– For each path π of $K=(S, \text{init}, \rho, I)$:

$\pi \models P$ iff P is true in **first** state of π according to I

$\pi \models \bigcirc f$ iff f is true in sub-path of π starting at
second state of π

$\pi \models f_1 \cup f_2$ iff f_1 is true for all sub-paths of π starting
at **first k** states of π and
 f_2 is true for all sub-paths of π starting
at states of π **after the first k**

– Boolean operators are interpreted by the usual truth tables

Examples

- Variable x has positive value during the whole program execution

$[] x_positive$

- After a card has been inserted, if the user does not remove the card, the card is stored by the card reader

$[] ((ic \wedge \neg(\Diamond tc)) \Rightarrow (\Diamond sc))$