

Software Engineering 2

Alloy Part 1:

Introduction

First example: the address book

Second example: the family tree



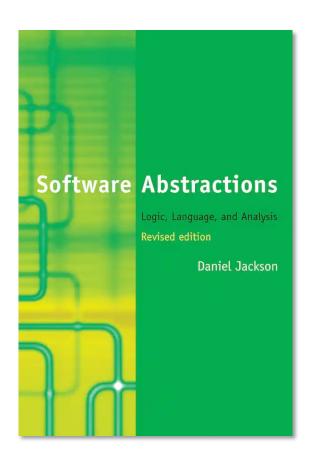
Alloy part 1

Introduction



Alloy Resources

- The book is the main resource
 - New, work-in-progress book freely available at: https://haslab.github.io/formal-software-design/
- Other material: https://alloytools.org
 - Tool
 - Documentation
 - Examples
 - Tutorial



"Some slides are adapted from Greg Dennis and Rob Seater Software Design Group, MIT"





- Alloy is a formal notation for specifying models of systems and software
 - Looks like a declarative OO language
 - But also has a strong mathematical foundation
- Alloy comes with a supporting tool to
 - Simulate specifications and
 - Perform formal verification of properties = (bounded) model checking
- Note (for former students)
 - This year we are referring to version 6 (last version) of the Alloy language and tool
 - Some small, but important, modifications w.r.t. version 5
 - Some additional concepts, which will be illustrated at the end of this part



Alloy — Declarative Modeling

- Alloy is used for abstractions and conceptual modeling in a declarative manner
- Declarative approach to programming and modeling:
 - "declarative programming is a programming paradigm that expresses the logic of a computation without describing its control flow"
 - "describing what the program should accomplish, rather than describing how to go about accomplishing it"



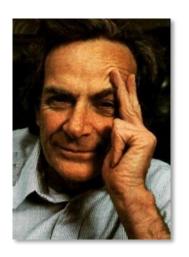


- In RE Alloy can be used to formally describe
 - the **domain** and its **properties**, or
 - operations that the machine must provide
- In software design to formally model components and their interactions





- Any real-life system has a set of properties and constraints
- Automated formal verification of specifications can help check whether or not the properties will be satisfied by the system and the constraints will never be violated



"The first principle is that you must not fool yourself, and you are the easiest person to fool."

~ Richard P. Feynman



Formal verification — successful stories

 Intel has been using model checking to verify correctness of operations implemented by CPUs

 NASA has been using model checking techniques to verify executable source code used in their space missions



Fifteen Years of Formal Property Verification in Intel

Limor Fix

Intel Research Pittsburgh Limor.fix@intel.com

Abstract. Model checking technologies have been applied to hardware verification in the last 15 years. Pioneering work has been conducted in Intel since 1990 using model checking technologies to build industrial hardware verification systems. This paper reviews the evolution and the success of these systems in Intel and in particular it summarizes the many challenges and learning that have resulted from changing how hardware validation is performed in Intel to include formal property verification. The paper ends with a discussion on how the learning from hardware verification can be used to accelerate the industrial deployment of model-checking technologies for software verification.

Keywords: Model checking, formal specification, formal property verification.

Model Checking Programs with Java PathFinder

Willem Visser¹ and Peter Mehlitz²

Research Institute for Advanced Computer Science (RIACS)
Computer Sciences Corporation (CSC),
NASA Ames Research Center, Moffett Field, CA 94035, USA {wvisser, pcmellitz}@email.arc.nasa.gov

In recent years there has been an increasing move towards analyzing software programs with the aid of model checking. In this tutorial we will focus on one of the first model checkers developed specifically for analyzing programs - Java PathFinder (JPF). JPF was awarded the 2003 Engineering Innovation award from NASA's Office of Aerospace Technology. JPF is freely available and the development became an open-source project in April 2005. JPF has been used on numerous NASA applications, including, Mars Rover control, Deep-Space 1 fault protection, and Shuttle ground control software as well as on software from companies such as Fuiltsu.



What is Alloy?

- First order predicate logic + relational calculus
- Carefully chosen subset of relational algebra
 - uniform model for individuals, sets and relations
 - no higher-order relations
- Almost no arithmetic
- Modules and hierarchies
- New in Alloy 6: mutable sets and relations
- Suitable for small, exploratory specifications
- Powerful and fast analysis tool
 - is this specification satisfiable? is this predicate true?



Alloy part 1

The AddressBook example:

Atoms

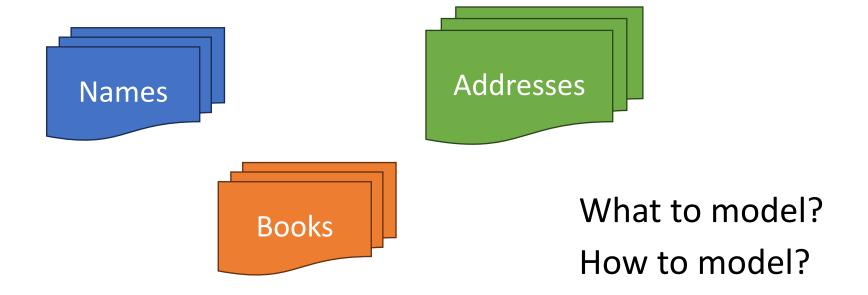
Relations

Predicates and Assertions





- Suppose we are asked to model very simple address books
- Books contain a bunch of addresses linked to the corresponding names





AddressBook in Alloy

```
sig Name, Addr {}
sig Book {
   addr: Name -> lone Addr
}
```

```
set any number
one exactly one
lone zero or one
some one or more
```

- Name and Addr are two types of entities
- Book is another type of entity
- addr links Name to Addr within the context of Book
 - It is a ternary relation b -> n -> a
- keyword lone: each Name can correspond to at most one Addr



Logic: relations of atoms

- Atoms are Alloy's primitive entities
 - indivisible, immutable, uninterpreted

- Relations associate atoms with one another
 - set of tuples, tuples are sequences of atoms





- Relation = set of ordered n-tuples of atoms
 - n is called the arity of the relation
- Relations in Alloy are typed
 - Determined by the declaration of the relation
 - Example: a relation with type Person -> String

only contains pairs

- whose first component is a Person
- and whose second component is a String



Logic: Everything is a Relation

Sets are unary (1 column) relations

```
Name = \{(N0), Addr = \{(A0), Book = \{(B0), (N1), (N2)\}

(N2)
```

Scalars are singleton sets

```
myName = { (N1) }
yourName = { (N2) }
myBook = { (B0) }
```

Ternary relation

```
addr = { (B0, N0, A0), (B0, N1, A1), (B1, N1, A2), (B1, N2, A2)}
```

what is myName. (Book.addr)?



myName. (Book.addr)

```
Book = { addr = { Book.addr = { (B0), N0, A0), (N0, A0), (N1, A1), (N1, A1), (N1, A2), (N1, A2), (N1, A2), (N1, A2), (N2, A2)}
```

```
myName = { Book.addr = { myName.(Book.addr) = { (N1), (N1, A1), (A2), (N2, A2)}
```



Static Analysis

- Let's open the Alloy tool and play a bit!
- We add an empty predicate show by using keyword pred to find the instances of the entities involved in the modeling
- In this case, the state exploration is limited to 3 for each entity except Book that is set to 1

```
pred show {}

run show for 3 but 1 Book
```



Static Analysis (cont.)

 Adding a constraint on the number of (Name, Address) relations in a given book

```
pred show [b: Book] {
    #b.addr > 1 }
```

Constraining the number of different addresses that appear in the book

```
pred show [b: Book] {
    #b.addr > 1
    #Name.(b.addr) > 1 }
```

Can we fulfil the constraint below?

```
pred show [b: Book] {
    #b.addr > 1
    some n: Name | #n.(b.addr) > 1 }
```

Dynamic Analysis



(old style, but compatible with Alloy 6)

- Let's model some operations...
 - A predicate that adds an address and name to a book

```
Cartesian product (a pair in this case)
```

```
pred add [b, bpost: Book, n: Name, a: Addr] {
   bpost.addr = b.addr + n -> a }
```

- b and bpost model two versions of the book, respectively before and after the operation
- Operations can be invoked

```
pred showAdd [b, bpost: Book, n: Name, a: Addr] {
   add[b, bpost, n, a]
   #Name.(bpost.addr) > 1 }
```

run showAdd



Dynamic Analysis (cont.)

Deleting a name from the address book

```
pred del [b, bpost: Book, n: Name] {
    bpost.addr = b.addr - n->Addr
}
```



Assertions and counterexamples

What happens if we run a delete after an add predicate?
 Will this take us to the initial state?

```
assert delUndoesAdd {
   all b, bpost, bppost: Book, n: Name, a: Addr |
      add[b, bpost, n, a] and del[bpost, bppost, n]
      implies b.addr = bppost.addr }

check delUndoesAdd for 3
```

- Counterexample is a scenario in which the assertion is violated
- While checking an assertion, Alloy searches for counterexamples
- Do we find a counterexample in this case?



Resolving the Counterexample

- ... Yes! When add tries to add a name that already exists and delete will delete the name and the corresponding address
- Here is how we can solve the problem:

```
assert delUndoesAdd {
   all b, bpost, bppost: Book, n: Name, a: Addr |
      no n.(b.addr) and
      add[b, bpost, n, a] and del[bpost, bppost, n]
          implies
      b.addr = bppost.addr
}
```

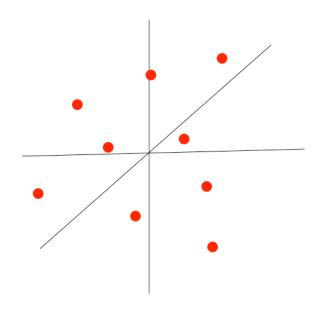


Counterexamples in Alloy

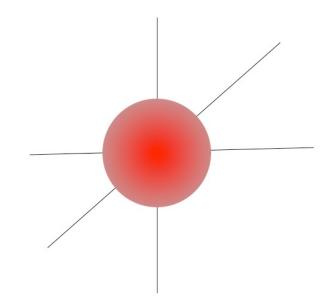
- The analysis by Alloy is always bounded to a defined scope
 - Alloy performs bounded verification
- This means that there is NO guarantee that the assertions always hold if no counterexample is found in a certain scope!







testing: a few cases of arbitrary size



bounded verification: all cases within a certain bound



Functions: An Example

 Can we get the addresses in the book corresponding to a certain name?

```
fun lookup [b: Book, n: Name] : set Addr {
    n.(b.addr) }
```

• Example of usage of lookup

```
assert addLocal {
   all b, bpost: Book, n1, n2: Name, a: Addr |
      add[b, bpost, n1, a] and n1 != n2
      implies
      lookup[b, n2] = lookup[bpost, n2] }
```

check addLocal for 3 but 2 Book



Summary of Alloy Characteristics (1)

- An Alloy document is a "source code" unit
- It may contain:
 - Signatures: define types and relationships
 - **Facts**: properties of models (constraints!)
 - **Predicates/functions**: reusable expressions
 - Assertions: properties we want to check
 - Commands: instruct the Alloy Analyzer which assertions to check, and how
 - A predicate is run to find a world that satisfies it
 - An assertion is checked to find a counterexample



Summary of Alloy Characteristics (2)

- Signatures, predicates, facts and functions tell how correct worlds (models) are made
 - When the Alloy analyzer tries to build a model, it must comply with them
- Assertions and commands tell which kind of checks must be performed over these worlds
 - E.g., "find, among all the models, one that violates this assertion"
- Of course, the Analyzer cannot check all the (usually infinite) models of a specification
 - You must also tell the Analyzer how to limit the search



Alloy part 1

The family tree example:

Hierarchies

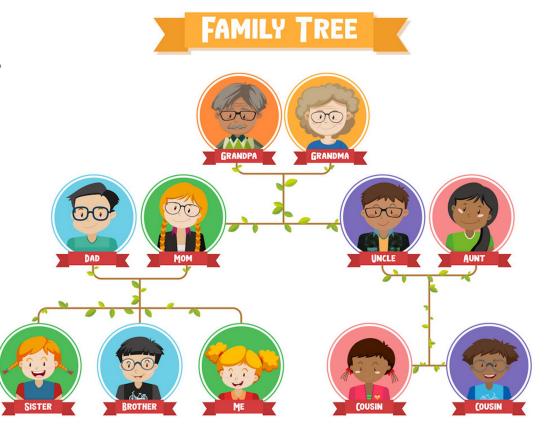
Facts vs predicates

Other operators (transitive closure, transpose)



Family Relationships

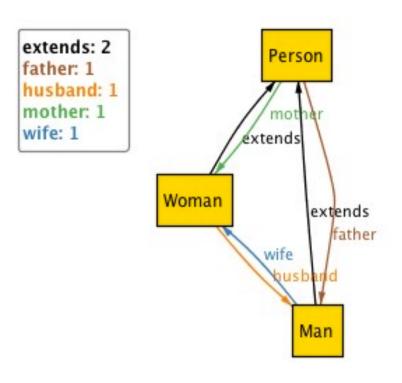
- There are notions like *Person*
- There are relationships like *father*, *mother*, *wife*, ...







```
abstract sig Person {
     father: lone Man,
     mother: lone Woman
sig Man extends Person {
     wife: lone Woman
sig Woman extends Person {
     husband: lone Man
```



Meta-model



Signatures and Fields

- Signatures (declared through keyword sig) represent sets of atoms
- The **fields** of a signature are relations whose domain is a subset of the signature
- The extends keyword is used to declare a subset of a signature
- An abstract signature has no elements except those belonging to the signatures that extend it
- m sig A { }: m (e.g., one, some, etc.) declares the multiplicity,
 the number of elements of A





• Relations are declared as fields of signatures:

```
• sig A {f : e}
```

- A is the domain
- e is the range
- You can specify the multiplicity when defining a relation
 - sig A {f : m e}
 - The default multiplicity is one



Can you be your own Grandpa?

- Biologically not, but terminologically... let's check this out:
 - I'm my own Grandpa!

http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=eYIJH81dSiw
(with family tree)

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=gkiOm-vmpcY&list=RDgkiOm-vmpcY
(with muppets)



Adding Predicates and Functions

• The function grandpas returns the grandfathers of a given person p

```
fun grandpas [p: Person] : set Person {
    p. (mother+father).father
}

pred ownGrandpa [p: Person] {
    p in p.grandpas
}

This can be written
}
```

This can be written also as p in grandpas[p]



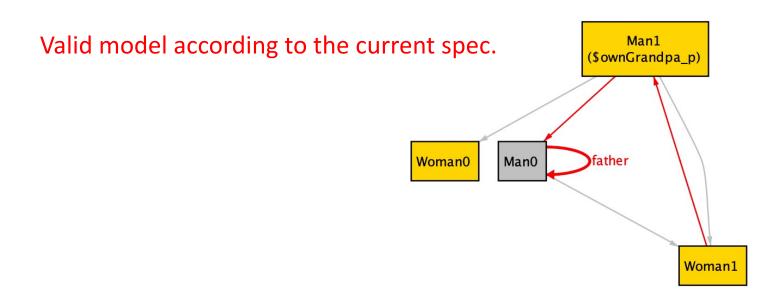


• The model is executed by trying to see if a predicate is valid for a set of instances of the meta-model

run ownGrandpa for 4 Person



Fixing some problems in the spec (1)



- Issue: Man0 is father of himself
- More in general "No one can be his/her own ancestor"



Fixing some problems in the spec (1)

• "No one can be his/her own ancestor"

... we need a **transitive closure** operator



POLITECNICO
MILANO 1863

- ^ transitive closure
- * reflexive transitive closure

apply only to binary relations

```
vnion

^r = r + r.r + r.r.r + ...
*r = iden + ^r

the identity relation
```

```
sig Node{
  next : lone Node
}
```

```
first = { (N0) }
rest = { (N1), (N2), (N3) }

first.^next = rest
first.*next = Node
```



Fixing some problems in the spec (2)

"No one can be his/her own ancestor"

```
fact {
    no p: Person | p in p.^(mother+father)
}
```



Fixing some problems in the spec (3)

"If X is husband of Y, then Y is wife of X"

```
fact {
    all m: Man, w: Woman |
        m.wife = w iff w.husband = m
}
```

 We can express an equivalent constraint through the transpose operator (~)



Transpose operator (~)

Consider the following example

```
Node = \{(N0), (N1), (N2), (N3)\}

next = \{(N0, N1), (N1, N2), (N2, N3)\}

~next = \{(N1, N0), (N2, N1), (N3, N2)\}
```

- The transpose operator applies only to binary relations
- "If X is husband of Y, then Y is wife of X"

```
fact {
    wife = ~husband
}
```



More on facts

A fact can contain multiple constraints

```
fact {
    no p: Person | p in p.^(mother+father)
    wife = ~husband
}
```

The two constraints in the fact are to be considered in and



Are facts different from predicates?

They are both used to express constraints

- Facts must hold globally for any atom and relation in the model
- Predicates have to be invoked



Adding Assertions

- Check if there is no man who is also his father
- Assertions are used to find counterexamples which are the instances of a model

```
assert NoSelfFather {
    no m: Man | m = m.father
}
check NoSelfFather
```



Adding more facts to the model

• Social convention: it is not possible that someone has a wife or husband who is also one of his/her ancestors

```
facts can be named for readability purposes

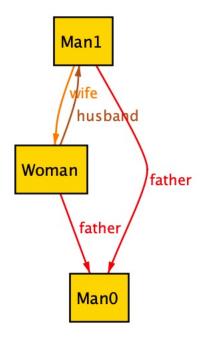
fact SocialConvention {
    no ((wife+husband) & ^(mother+father))
}

intersection
```



Adding more facts to the model

• Other issues: Still, wife and husband can have common ancestors!



How to avoid that wives and husbands have common ancestors?



- Does this solve the common ancestor problem?
- To which fact is this equivalent?
 - Answer: SocialConvention



Another solution

```
fun ancestors [p: Person]: set Person {
      p.^(mother+father)
                               Cartesian product
                               (a pair in this case)
                                                          empty set
fact noCommonAncestors
  all p1: Man,
      p2: Woman | p1->p2 in wife
                         implies
                     ancestors[p1] & ancestors[p2] = none
```

Check yourself if it works



Other solution (?)

• noCommonAncestors is stronger than SocialConvention3

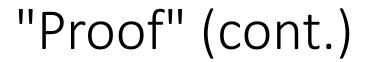




```
pred noCommonAncestors {
   all p1: Man, p2: Woman |
      p1-p2 in wife implies ancestors[p1] & ancestors[p2] = none
}

Notice the declaration

pred SocialConvention3 {
   no ((wife+husband) & (mother+father).~(mother+father))
}
```





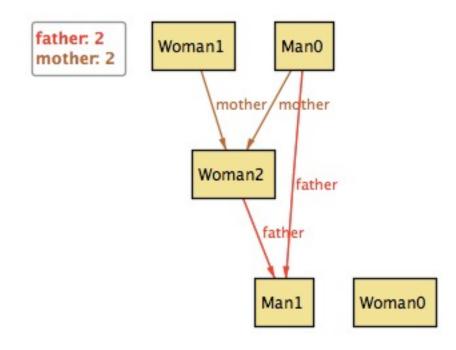
```
assert Stronger {
  noCommonAncestors implies SocialConvention3
}
check Stronger for 8

assert NotStronger {
  SocialConvention3 implies noCommonAncestors
}
check NotStronger for 8
```



Still, we can have this case

Man1 is father and, at the same time, grandpa of Man0.





Does this address the problem?

```
fact SocialConvention4 {
    all p1: Person, p2: Person |
        p1 in p2.(mother+father)
        implies
    p1.(mother+father) & p2.(mother+father) = none
}
```



Software Engineering 2

Alloy Part 2:

New features: mutable relations and sets



From unmutable relations...

Let's go back to the address book example:

```
sig Name, Addr {}
sig Book {
   addr: Name -> lone Addr
}
```

 Describing the evolution of the address book following additions and deletions required to explicitly represent the address book before and after the operation, because it was unmutable:

```
pred add [b, bpost: Book, n: Name, a: Addr] {
   bpost.addr = b.addr + n -> a }
```



... to mutable ones

What if we can say that relation addr changes over time?

```
sig Name, Addr {}
sig Book {
    var addr: Name -> lone Addr
}
new keyword, it means the relation is mutable
```

 Now, we can have that an address book initially (first instant) is empty, then, after that (i.e., in the second instant) it has 1 address, the, after that (i.e., in the third instant) it has 2 addresses



Evolution of an address book

We show an address book whose size increases in the first 3 instants:

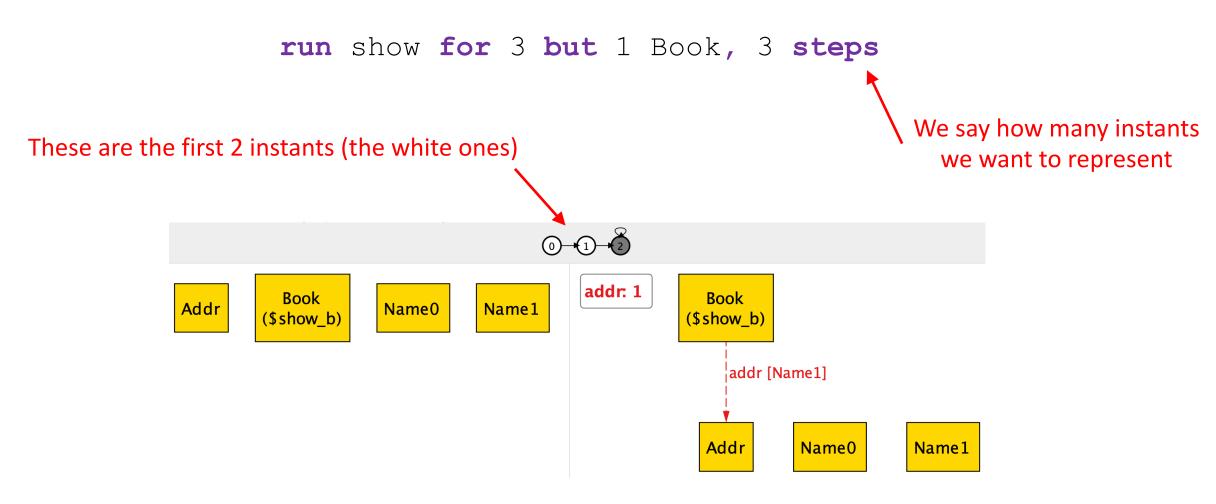
```
pred show [b: Book] {
    #b.addr = 0
    after ( #b.addr = 1
    and
    after #b.addr = 2 )
}
```

• It can be also written, more succintly, with the "sequence" operator (;)

```
pred show [b: Book] {
    #b.addr = 0 ; #b.addr = 1 ; #b.addr = 2 )
}
```



Let us run the predicate





New add and delete

```
pred add [b: Book, n: Name, a: Addr] {
    b.addr' = b.addr + n -> a
}

It means "the next value of b.addr"

pred del [b: Book, n: Name] {
    b.addr' = b.addr - n->Addr
}
```



New assertion

```
assert delUndoesAdd {
    all b: Book, n: Name, a: Addr |
        no n.(b.addr) and add[b, n, a] and after del[b, n]
        implies
        b.addr = b.addr''
}
This means "b.addr after 2 instants"
check delUndoesAdd for 5 steps
```

• This assertion means "if in the first instant n does not belong to b, and n is added to b, and then, at the next instant (i.e., the second) n is removed from b, then address book b after 2 instants is the same as the initial one"





- What if we want to say that "at all time instants, if n does not belong to b and n is added..."?
- We can say "always, if ...":

```
assert alwDelUndoesAdd {
    all b: Book, n: Name, a: Addr |
        always ( no n.(b.addr) and add[b, n, a] and
        after del[b, n]
        implies
    new operator b.addr = b.addr'')
}
```





(h/t L. Padalino, F. P. Panaccione, F. Santambrogio: github.com/lucapada/ResearchProjectAlloy6)

Consider the following signature

```
sig Device {
    var status: DevStatus
}
enum DevStatus { Working, Broken }
```

Useful abbreviation to avoid declaring the abstract signatures



Some temporal constraints

• Once broken, a device can never be repaired



eventually operator

• If a device is working, it will eventually break



"Past" operators: historically

• If a device is working, it has been working since the beginning



"Past" operators: before

• This is equivalent to NowWorkingPreviouslyWorking

It means "the previous instant"

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Let us introduce a predicate

```
pred break[ d: Device ] {
    d.status = Working
    d.status' = Broken
}
```

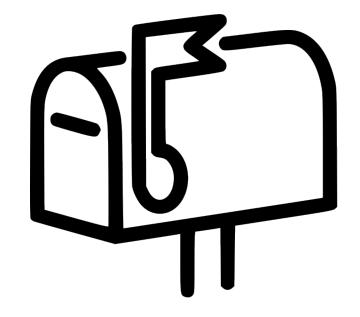
• If a device is broken, it must have broken sometime in the past

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Example: message deletion from mailbox

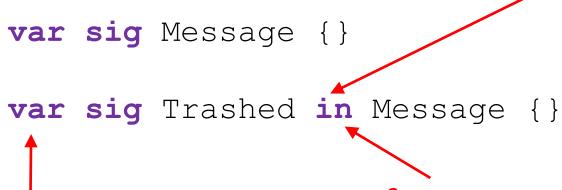
- Model a system handling messages, which can be deleted from a mailbox and later restored
- We introduce the notion of "trash", from which messages can be restored
 - Some messages are in the trash (i.e., they are trashed), others are not





Signatures

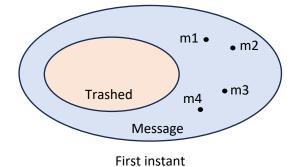
This states that Trashed is a subset (not necessarily a proper one)
of Message, i.e., Trashed ⊆ Message holds

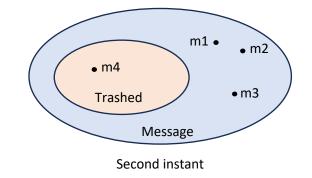


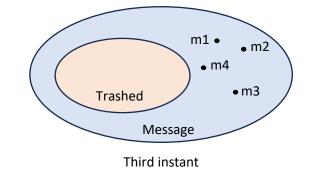
Signatures (i.e., sets of elements) can also be mutable

Some messages are in the Trashed set.

Signatures are mutable, which means that a message can be "regular", then be trashed, then be regular again, etc.









Predicates

- Deletion operation
- The subset with the trashed messages changes, while the total set of messages does not
 - Predicate capturing the condition that a message can be restored
 - Restore operation

```
m not in Trashed
Trashed' = Trashed + m
   Message' = Message
pred restoreEnabled[ m:Message ]
    m in Trashed
pred restore[ m: Message ]
    restoreEnabled[m]
    Trashed' = Trashed - m
    Message' = Message
```

pred delete[m: Message]



Predicates (2)

Change in system state: trash is emptied

 Predicate representing the fact that the state of the system does not change

 Change in system state: new message arrives

```
pred deleteTrashed
{  #Trashed > 0
  after #Trashed = 0
  Message' = Message-Trashed }
```

```
pred doNothing
{    Message' = Message
    Trashed' = Trashed }
```

```
pred receiveMessages
{    #Message' > #Message
    Trashed' = Trashed }
```



Behavior of the system

```
fact systemBehavior {
                                             Initially the trash is empty
  no Trashed
  always
                  some m: Message | delete[m] or restore[m] )
               or
                                          Several things can occur during system execution:
               deleteTrashed
                                            a message could be deleted or restored
               or
                                             the trash could be emptied
               receiveMessages
                                             new messages could arrive
               or
                                             nothing happens in the system (no state change)
               doNothing
```

Assertions (do you think they hold?)

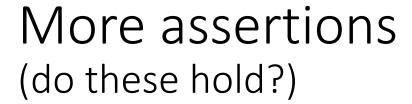


• If a message is restored, sometimes in the past it had to be deleted

```
assert restoreAfterDelete {
   all m: Message |
      always restore[m] implies once delete[m]
}
```

• If at a certain point in time all messages are trashed and the trash is emptied, then, from that point on there will be no more messages

```
assert deleteAll
{    always ( ( Message in Trashed and deleteTrashed )
        implies
        after always no Message) }
```





The set of messages never changes

```
assert messagesNeverChange {
   always (Message' in Message and Message in Message')
}
```

• If no messages are ever deleted, then the trash will never be emptied

```
assert ifMessagesNotDeletedTrashNotEmptied
{    (always all m : Message | not delete[m] )
    implies
    always not deleteTrashed }
```