## Software Testing and Validation

Corso di Laurea in Informatica

#### Kriepke Structures and Murphi Verification Algorithm(s)

Igor Melatti

Università degli Studi dell'Aquila

Dipartimento di Ingegneria e Scienze dell'Informazione e Matematica





#### Kripke Structures

- Let AP be a set of "atomic propositions"
  - in the sense of first-order logic: each atomic proposition is either true or false
  - tipically identified with lower case letters  $p, q, \ldots$
- A Kripke Structure (KS) over AP is a 4-tuple  $\langle S, I, R, L \rangle$ 
  - S is a finite set, its elements are called states
  - $I \subseteq S$  is a set of *initial states*
  - $R \subseteq S \times S$  is a transition relation
  - $L: S \to 2^{AP}$  is a labeling function





#### Labeled Transition Systems

- A Labeled Transition System (LTS) is a 4-tuple  $\langle S, I, \Lambda, \delta \rangle$ 
  - S is a finite set of states as before
  - $I \subseteq S$  is a set of initial states as before (not always included)
  - Λ is a finite set of labels
  - $\delta \subseteq S \times \Lambda \times S$  is a labeled transition relation



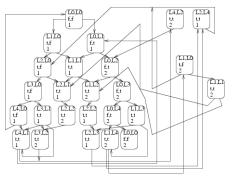
#### Peterson's Mutual Exclusion as a Kripke Structure

- $S = \{(p_1, p_2, q_1, q_2, t) \mid p_1, p_2 \in \{L0, L1, L2, L3, L4\}, q_1, q_2 \in \{0, 1\}, t \in \{1, 2\}\} = \{L0, L1, L2, L3, L4\}^2 \times \{0, 1\}^2 \times \{1, 2\}$
- $I = \{L0\}^2 \times \{0\}^2 \times \{1, 2\}$
- R: see next slide
- $AP = \{(P_1 = v) \mid v \in \{L0, L1, L2, L3, L4\}\} \cup \{(P_2 = v) \mid v \in \{L0, L1, L2, L3, L4\}\} \cup \{(Q_1 = v) \mid v \in \{0, 1\}\} \cup \{(Q_2 = v) \mid v \in \{0, 1\}\} \cup \{(turn = v) \mid v \in \{1, 2\}\}$ 
  - e.g.:  $L((L0, L0, 0, 0, 1)) = \{(P_1 = L0), (P_2 = L0), (Q_1 = 0), (Q_2 = 0), (turn = 1)\}$





#### Peterson's Mutual Exclusion as a Kripke Structure



E.g.:  $((L0, L0, 0, 0, 1), (L1, L0, 1, 0, 1)) \in R$ , whilst  $((L0, L0, 0, 0, 1), (L2, L0, 0, 0, 1)) \notin R$ 

Transitions in R corresponds to arrows in the figure above

## Kripke Structure vs Labeled Transition Systems

- KSs have atomic propositions on states, LTSs have labels on transitions
- In model checking, atomic propositions are mandatory
  - to specify the formula to be verified, as we will see
  - a first example was the invariant in Murphi
- Instead, it is not required to have a label on transitions
  - Murphi allows to do so, but it is optional
  - may be easily added automatically, if needed
- Labels are typically needed when:
  - we deal with macrostates, as in UML state diagrams
  - when we are describing a complex system by specifying its sub-components, so labels are used for synchronization



#### **Total Transition Relation**

- In many cases, the transition relation R is required to be total
- $\forall s \in S. \exists s' \in S : (s, s') \in R$ 
  - this of course allows also s = s' (self loop)
- In the Peterson's example, the relation is actually total
  - Murphi allows also non-total relations, by using option -ndl
  - note however that not giving option -ndl is stronger:  $\forall s \in S.\exists s' \in S: s \neq s' \land (s,s') \in R$
  - otherwise, if s is s.t.  $\forall s'. \ s = s' \lor (s, s') \notin R$ , Murphi calls s a deadlock state
  - ullet that is, you cannot go anywhere, except possibly self looping on s
- By deleting any rule, we will obtain a non-total transition relation



#### Non-Determinism

- The transition relation is, as the name suggests, a relation
- Thus, starting from a given state, it is possible to go to many different states
  - in a deterministic system,  $\forall s_1, s_2, s_3 \in S. \ (s_1, s_2) \in R \land (s_1, s_3) \in R \rightarrow s_2 = s_3$
  - this does not hold for KSs
- This means that, starting from state  $s_1$ , the system may non-deterministically go either to  $s_2$  or to  $s_3$ 
  - or many other states
- Motivations for non-determinism: modeling choices!
  - underspecified subsystems
  - unpredictable interleaving
  - interactions with an uncontrollable environment
  - ...



#### Some Useful Notation

- Given a KS  $S = \langle S, I, R, L \rangle$ , we can define:
  - the *predecessor* function  $Pre_S: S \to 2^S$ 
    - defined as  $\operatorname{Pre}_{\mathcal{S}}(s) = \{ s' \in \mathcal{S} \mid (s', s) \in R \}$
    - ullet we will write simply  $\operatorname{Pre}(s)$  when  $\mathcal S$  is understood
  - the *successor* function Post :  $S \rightarrow 2^S$ 
    - defined as  $\operatorname{Post}(s) = \{s' \in S \mid (s, s') \in R\}$
- Note that, if S is deterministic,  $\forall s \in S$ .  $|\operatorname{Post}(s)| \leq 1$
- Note that, if S is total,  $\forall s \in S$ .  $|\operatorname{Post}(s)| \geq 1$





#### Paths in KSs

- A path (or *execution*) on a KS  $S = \langle S, I, R, L \rangle$  is a sequence  $\pi = s_0 s_1 s_2 \dots$  such that:
  - $\forall i \geq 0$ .  $s_i \in S$  (it is composed by states)
  - $\forall i \geq 0$ .  $(s_i, s_{i+1}) \in R$  (it only uses valid transitions)
- We will denote *i*-th state of a path as  $\pi(i) = s_i$
- Note that paths in LTSs also have actions:  $\pi = s_0 a_0 s_1 a_1 \dots$  s.t.  $(s_i, a_i, s_{i+1} \in \delta)$



#### Paths in KSs

- ullet The *length* of a path  $\pi$  is the number of states in  $\pi$ 
  - paths can be either finite  $\pi = s_0 s_1 \dots s_n$ , in which case  $|\pi| = n + 1$
  - or infinite  $\pi = s_0 s_1 \dots$ , in which case  $|\pi| = \infty$
- We will denote the prefix of a path up to i as  $\pi|_i = s_0 \dots s_i$ 
  - a prefix of a path is always a finite path
- A path  $\pi$  is maximal iff one of the following holds
  - $\bullet$   $|\pi|=\infty$
  - $|\pi| = n + 1$  and  $|\text{Post}(\pi(n))| = 0$ 
    - that is,  $\forall s \in S$ .  $(\pi(n), s) \notin R$
    - i.e., the last state of the path has no successors
    - often called terminal state
- If R is total, maximal paths are always infinite
  - o for many model checking algorithms, this is irrection





#### Reachability

- The set of paths of S starting from  $s \in S$  is denoted by  $Path(S, s) = \{\pi \mid \pi \text{ is a path in } S \land \pi(0) = s\}$
- The set of paths of S is denoted by  $\operatorname{Path}(S) = \bigcup_{s \in I} \operatorname{Path}(S, s)$ 
  - that is, they must start from an initial state
- A state  $s \in S$  is reachable iff  $\exists \pi \in \text{Path}(S), k < |\pi| : \pi(k) = s$ 
  - i.e., there exists a path from an initial state leading to s through valid transitions
- The set of reachable states is defined by  $\operatorname{Reach}(S) = \{\pi(i) \mid \pi \in \operatorname{Path}(S), i < |\pi|\}$







# Safety Property Verification

- Verification of invariants: nothing bad happens
- The property is a formula  $\varphi: \mathcal{S} \to \{0,1\}$ 
  - built using boolean combinations of atomic propositions in  $p \in AP$
  - i.e., the syntax is

$$\Phi ::= (\Phi) \mid \Phi \wedge \Phi \mid \Phi \vee \Phi \mid \neg \Phi \mid \rho$$

- ullet The KS  ${\cal S}$  satisfies  ${arphi}$  iff  ${arphi}$  holds on all reachable states
  - $\forall s \in \text{Reach}(S). \ \varphi(s) = 1$
- Note that it may happen that  $\varphi(s) = 0$  for some  $s \in S$ : never mind, if  $s \notin \operatorname{Reach}(S)$





- ullet First, we mathematically define a Murphi description  ${\cal M}$
- $V = \langle v_1, \dots, v_n \rangle$  is the set of global variables of  $\mathcal{M}$ , with domains  $\langle D_1, \dots, D_n \rangle$ 
  - all variables are unfolded to the Murphi simple types
    - integer subranges
    - enumerations
    - the special "undefined" value should be added to all simple types
  - that is, if a variable is an array with q elements, then it is actually to be considered as q different variables
  - the same for records (and any nesting of arrays and records)
  - as an example: var a : array [1..n] of record beginb : 1..m; c: 1..k; endrecord
  - then there will be 2n variables as follows:  $a1b, \ldots, anb, a1c, \ldots, anc$
  - the first *n* with type 1..m, the other with type



- ullet  $\mathcal{I} = \{\emph{I}_1, \ldots, \emph{I}_k\}$  is the set of startstate sections in  $\mathcal{M}$ 
  - startstates may be defined inside rulesets; again, all rulesets are unfolded
  - ullet thus, if a startstate  $\mathcal I$  is inside m nested rulesets  $\mathcal R_1,\dots,\mathcal R_m...$
  - and each ruleset  $\mathcal{R}_i$  is defined on an index  $j_i$  spanning on a domain  $\mathcal{D}_i$  (note that  $\mathcal{D}_i$  must be a simple type)...
  - then there actually are  $\prod_{l=1}^m |\mathcal{D}_l|$  startstates to be considered, instead of just one
  - of course, in each of these startstates definitions, the tuple  $j_1, \ldots, j_m$  takes all possible values of  $\mathcal{R}_1 \times \ldots \times \mathcal{R}_m$
- $T = \{T_1, \ldots, T_p\}$  is the set of rule sections in  $\mathcal{M}$ 
  - again, if rulesets are present, they are unfolded







- The Kriepke structure  $S = \langle S, I, R, L \rangle$  described by  $\mathcal{M}$  is such that:
  - $S = D_1 \times \ldots \times D_n$
  - $s \in I$  iff there is a startstate  $I_i \in \mathcal{I}$  s.t. s may be obtained by applying the body of  $I_i$
  - $(s,t) \in R$  iff there is a rule  $T_i \in T$  s.t.  $T_i$  guard is true in s and  $T_i$  body changes s to t
  - $AP = \{(v = d) \mid v = v_i \in V \land d \in D_i\}$
  - $(v = d) \in L(s)$  iff variable v has value d in s





- We also assume to have a function defining the semantics of Murphi (sequence of) statements
  - those in bodies of rules and startstates
- ullet Let  ${\mathcal P}$  be the set of all possible (syntactically legal) Murphi statements
  - including while, if, for, assignments...
- Thus, let  $\eta: \mathcal{P} \times D_1 \times \ldots \times D_n \to D_1 \times \ldots \times D_n$  be our evaluation function
  - ullet it takes a Murphi statement  $P \in \mathcal{P}$  and the state s preceding such statement
  - it returns the new state s' obtained by executing P on s
  - e.g.,  $\eta(a := a + 1; b := b 1, (1, 2, 3)) = (2, 1, 3)$
  - $oldsymbol{\eta}$  may be defined, e.g., using operational semantics





- We also assume to have a function defining the semantics of Murphi boolean expression
  - those in guards of rules
  - and in invariants!
- Let  $\mathcal Q$  be the set of all possible (syntactically legal) Murphi boolean expressions
  - including forall, exists, equality checks...
- Thus, let  $\zeta: \mathcal{Q} \times D_1 \times \ldots \times D_n \to \{0,1\}$  be our evaluation function
  - ullet it takes a Murphi boolean expression  $Q\in\mathcal{Q}$  and the state s to be evaluated
  - $\bullet$  it returns 1 iff Q is true in s
  - e.g.,  $\zeta((a=3|b=4),(1,4,3))=1$
  - $\zeta$  may be defined using atomic propositions below see below  $\zeta$



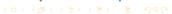
- Let  $Q \in \mathcal{Q}$  be a Murphi boolean expression
- Flatten Q w.r.t. Forall and Exists
  - Forall is replaced by ANDs, Exists by ORs
  - e.g., from Exists i1: pid Do Exists i2: pid Do (i1 != i2 & P[i1] = L3 & P[i2] = L3) End End ...
  - ... to (1 != 1 & P[1] = L3 & P[1] = L3) | (2 != 1 & P[2] = L3 & P[1] = L3) | (1 != 2 & P[1] = L3 & P[1] = P[1] & P[1] = P[1] & P[1]P[2] = L3) | (2 != 2 & P[2] = L3 & P[2] = L3)
- If we replace each variable  $v_i \in V$  occurring in Q with a value  $w_{i_i} \in D_i$ , we obtain a boolean value (true or false)
  - e.g., the former evaluates to true by setting P[1] = L3 and P[2] = L3
- Thus,  $\zeta(Q,s) = 1$  iff  $Q(w_{i_1}, \ldots, w_{i_n}) = 1$ 
  - where each  $w_{i_i}$  is such that  $(v_i = w_{i_i}) \in L(s)$
  - $Q(w_{j_1}, \ldots, w_{j_n})$  is the result of replacing variable with value pish  $W_{i}$



- $(s, t) \in R$  iff there is a rule  $T_i \in T$  s.t.  $T_i$  guard is true in s and  $T_i$  body changes s to t
- By using  $\eta$  and  $\zeta$ , we can be more precise:
  - " $T_i$  guard is true" means  $\zeta(G(T_i), s) = 1$ , being  $G(T_i)$  the Murphi expression used as guard of rule  $T_i$
  - " $T_i$  body changes s to t" means  $\eta(B(T_i), s) = t$ , being  $B(T_i)$  the Murphi statement used as body of rule  $T_i$
- $s \in I$  iff there is a startstate  $I_i \in \mathcal{I}$  s.t. s may be obtained by applying the body of  $I_i$ 
  - "s may be obtained by applying the body of  $I_i$ " means  $\eta(B(I_i), (\bot, ..., \bot)) = s$ , being  $B(T_i)$  the Murphi statement used as body of startstate  $I_i$







- $(s, t) \in R$  iff there is a rule  $T_i \in T$  s.t.  $T_i$  guard is true in s and  $T_i$  body changes s to t:
  - that is: in the body of  $T_i$ , variables starting values are those of s
  - note that there may be two or more rules defining the same transition from s to t; no problem with this
  - simply, the same transition is described by multiple rules
- A state s is a deadlock state for two possible reasons:
  - (s, t)  $\notin R$  for all  $t \in S$ , i.e., the values for the variables in s do not satisfy any ruleset guard
  - $(s,t) \in R \to t = s$ , i.e., there is some ruleset guard which is satisfied by s, but its body do not change any of the global variables (e.g., the body is empty)

## How to Verify a Murphi Description ${\mathcal M}$

- ullet Theoretically, extract KS  ${\mathcal S}$  and property  ${arphi}$  from  ${\mathcal M}$  as described above
  - for a given invariant I in  $\mathcal{M}$ ,  $\varphi(s) = \zeta(I, s)$  for all  $s \in S$
- ullet Then, KS  ${\cal S}$  satisfies  ${arphi}$  iff  ${arphi}$  holds on all reachable states
  - $\forall s \in \text{Reach}(S). \ \varphi(s) = 1$
- Thus, consider KS as a graph and perform a visit
  - states are nodes, transitions are edges
- If a state e s.t.  $\varphi(e) = 0$  is found, then we have an error
- Otherwise, all is ok





## How to Verify a Murphi Description ${\mathcal M}$

- From a practical point of view, many optimization may be done, but let us stick to the previous scheme
- The worst case time complexity for a DFS or a BFS is O(|V| + |E|) (and same for space complexity)
- For KSs, this means O(|S| + |R|), thus it is linear in the size of the KS
- Is this good? NO! Because of the state space explosion problem
- Assuming that B bits are needed to encode each state
  - i.e.,  $B = \sum_{i=1}^{n} b_i$ , being  $b_i$  the number of bits to encode domain  $D_i$
- We have that  $|S| = O(2^B)$







#### State Space Explosion

- The "practical" input dimension is B, rather than |S| or |R|
- Typically, for a system with N components, we have O(N) variables, thus O(B) encoding bits
- It is very common to verify a system with N components, and then (if N is ok) also for N+1 components
  - verifying a system with a generic number *N* of components is a proof checker task...
- This entails an exponential increase in the size of |S|
- Thus we need "clever" versions of BFS/DFS





## Standard BFS: No Good for Model Checking

- Assumes that all graph nodes are in RAM
- For KSs, graph nodes are states, and we know there are too many
  - state space explosion
- You also need a full representation of the graph, thus also edges must be in RAM
  - using adjacency matrices or lists does not change much
  - for real-world systems, you may easily need TB of RAM
- Even if you have all the needed RAM, there is a huge preprocessing time needed to build the graph from the Murphi specification
- Then, also BFS itself may take a long time





- We need a definition inbetween the model and the KS: NFSS (Nondeterministic Finite State System)
- $\mathcal{N} = \langle S, I, \text{Post} \rangle$ , plus the invariant  $\varphi$ 
  - S is the set of states,  $I \subseteq S$  the set of initial states
  - Post :  $S \to 2^S$  is the successor function as defined before
    - ullet given a state s, it returns T s.t.  $t\in T o (s,t)\in R$
  - ullet no labeling, we already have arphi





- KSs and NFSSs differ on having Post instead of R
- Post may easily be defined from the Murphi specification
- Such definition is implicit, as programming code, thus avoiding to store adjacency matrices or lists
  - $t \in \text{Post}(s)$  iff there is a rule  $T_i \in T$  s.t.  $T_i$  guard is true in s and  $T_i$  body changes s to t
    - ullet see above for using  $\eta$  and  $\zeta$
  - Essentially, if the current state is s, it is sufficient to inspect all (flattened) rules in the Murphi specification  $\mathcal{M}$ 
    - for all guards which are enabled in s, execute the body so as to obtain t, and add t to next(s)
  - This is done "on the fly", only for those states s which must be explored

#### Simple Simulation

```
void Make_a_run(NFSS \mathcal{N}, invariant \varphi)
 let \mathcal{N} = \langle S, I, \text{Post} \rangle;
 s_curr = pick_a_state(I);
 if (!\varphi(s_curr))
  return with error message;
 while (1) { /* loop forever */
  s_next = pick_a_state(Post(s_curr));
  if (!\varphi(s_next))
   return with error message;
  s_curr = s_next;
```



# Simple Simulation with Deadlock

```
void Make_a_run(NFSS \mathcal{N}, invariant \varphi)
 let \mathcal{N} = \langle S, I, \text{Post} \rangle;
 s_curr = pick_a_state(I);
 if (!\varphi(s\_curr))
  return with error message;
 while (1) { /* loop forever */
  if (Post(s_curr) = \emptyset)
   return with deadlock message;
  s_next = pick_a_state(Post(s_curr));
  if (!\varphi(s_next))
   return with error message;
  s_curr = s_next;
```



#### Murphi Simulation

```
\mathbf{void} Make_a_run(NFSS \mathcal{N}, invariant \varphi)
 let \mathcal{N} = \langle S, I, \text{Post} \rangle;
 s_curr = pick_a_state(I);
 if (!\varphi(s\_curr))
  return with error message;
  while (1) { /* loop forever */
  if (Post(s_curr) = \emptyset \lor Post(s_curr) = \{s_curr\})
    return with deadlock message;
  s_next = pick_a_state(Post(s_curr));
  if (!\varphi(s_next))
    return with error message;
  s_curr = s_next;
```

## Murphi Simulation

- Similar to testing
- If an error is found, the system is bugged
  - or the model is not faithful
  - actually, Murphi simulation is used to understand if the model itself contains errors
- If an error is not found, we cannot conclude anything
- The error state may lurk somewhere, out of reach for the random choice in pick\_a\_state





# Standard BFS (Cormen-Leiserson-Rivest)

```
BFS(G, s)
        for ogni vertice u \in V[G] - \{s\}
             do color[u] \leftarrow WHITE
                   d[u] \leftarrow \infty
  4
                    \pi[u] \leftarrow NIL
        color[s] \leftarrow GRAY
        d[s] \leftarrow 0
        \pi[s] \leftarrow NIL
        Q \leftarrow \{s\}
         while Q≠Ø
10
              do u \leftarrow head[O]
11
                    for ogni v \in Adj[u]
12
                            do if color[v] = WHITE
13
                                    then color[v] \leftarrow GRAY
14
                                            d[v] \leftarrow d[u] + 1
                                             \pi[v] \leftarrow u
 15
                                             ENQUEUE(Q, r)
 16
 17
                    DEQUEUE(Q)
 18
                    color[u] \leftarrow BLACK
```





```
FIFO_Queue Q;
HashTable T;
bool BFS (NFSS \mathcal{N}, AP \varphi)
 let \mathcal{N} = (S, I, Post);
 foreach s in / {
  if (!\varphi(s))
    return false;
 foreach s in /
  Enqueue(Q, s);
 foreach s in /
  HashInsert (T, s);
```





```
while (Q ≠ ∅) {
   s = Dequeue(Q);
   foreach s_next in Post(s) {
     if (!\varphi(s_next))
      return false;
     if (s_next is not in T) {
        Enqueue(Q, s_next);
        HashInsert(T, s_next);
     } /* if */ } /* foreach */ } /* while */
   return true;
}
```

- Edges are never stored in memory
  - states are "created" when expanding the current state
  - rules are used to modify the current state so as to obtain the new one
  - at the start, you have an empty state which is modified by startstates
- (Reachable) states are stored in memory only at the end of the visit
  - inside hashtable T
- This is called on-the-fly verification
- States are marked as visited by putting them inside an hashtable
  - rather than coloring them as gray or black
  - which needs the graph to be already in men





## State Space Explosion

- State space explosion hits in the FIFO queue Q and in the hashtable T
  - and of course in running time...
- However, Q is not really a problem
  - it is accessed sequentially
  - always in the front for extraction, always in the rear for insertion
  - can be efficiently stored using disk, much more capable of RAM
- T is the real problem
  - random access, not suitable for a file
  - what to do?
  - before answering, let's have a look at Murphicode



## Murphi Usage

- As for all explicit model checker, a Murphi verification has the following steps:
  - O compile Murphi source code and write a Murphi model model.m
  - invoke Murphi compiler on model.m: this generates a file model.cpp
    - mu options model.m
    - see mu -h for available options
  - invoke C++ compiler on model.cpp: this generates an executable file
    - g++ -Ipath\_to\_include model.cpp -o model
    - path\_to\_include is the include directory inside Murphi distribution
  - invoke the executable file
    - ./model options
    - see ./model -h for available options







## Murphi compiler

- Executable mu is in src directory of Murphi distribution
- Obtained by compiling the 25 source files in src
  - of course, a Makefile is provided for this
- Standard compiler implementation, with Flex lexical analyzer (mu.1) and Yacc parser (mu.y)
- The main function which builds model.cpp is program::generate\_code in cpp\_code.cpp (called by main, in mu.cpp)
- program::generate\_code uses the parse tree generated by Yacc to "implement" in C++ the guards and the bodies of the rules
- The result goes in model.cpp: model-specificated



- Each Murphi variable v (local or global) corresponds to a C++ instance mu\_v of the class mu\_int (possibly through class generalizations)
- Class mu\_\_int is used to handle variables with max value 254 (255 is used for the undefined value)
- For integer subranges with greater values, class mu\_long is used; also mu\_byte (equal to mu\_int...) and mu\_boolean exist
- If v is a local variable, mu\_v directly contains the value (attribute cvalue, in\_world is false)
- Otherwise, if v is global, mu\_v retrieves the value from a fixed-address structure containing the current state value (workingstate; in\_world is true)





```
public:
/* constructor, sets all attributes (the
    variable is supposed to be local by
    default, with an undefined value);
    byteOffset is computed by generate_code
 */
 mu__int(int lb, int ub, int size, char *n,
         int byteOffset);
 /* other useful functions */
 int operator= (int val) {
  if (val <= ub && val >= lb) value(val);
  else boundary_error(val);
  return val;
 }
```

```
operator int() const {
  if (isundefined()) return undef_error();
  return value();
}:
 const int value() const {return *valptr;};
 int value(int val) {
  *valptr = val; return val; };
 void to_state(state *thestate) {
  /* used to make the variable global */
  in_world = TRUE;
  valptr = (unsigned char *)&(workingstate->
  bits[byteOffset]);
};
};
```

- As for the byteOffset computation, program::generate\_code simply computes the one for a variable mu\_v mapping a Murphi variable v in the following way
  - Let  $M_1, \ldots, M_n$  be the upper bounds of the n variables preceding the declaration of v
  - Let  $b(x) = \lfloor \log_2(x+1) \rfloor + 1$  be the number of bits required to represent the maximum value x (plus the undefined value)
  - Let B(x) = 1 if  $b(x) \le 8$ , 4 otherwise (i.e. only 1-byte or 4-bytes integers may be used)
  - Then, byteOffset(mu\_v) =  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} B(M_i)$





## Organization of model.cpp: workingstate

- Structure containing the current global state, is an instance of class state
- Essentially, it consists of an array of unsigned characters, named bits
  - so that any value of any global variable may be casted inside it
  - at a precise location, pointed to by valptr from mu\_int
- Note that workingstate has a fixed length, that is BLOCKS\_IN\_WORLD =  $\sum_{i=1}^{N} B(M_i)$ 
  - being N the number of all global variables
  - namely, bits has BLOCKS\_IN\_WORLD unsigned chars





#### Translation of Murphi Model Statements

- Straightforward for ifs, whiles and so on: the "difficult" part is assignments (and expressions evaluation)
- Essentially, a := b; in model.m becomes mu\_a = (mu\_b); in model.cpp
- The operator () is redefined so that mu\_b retrieves the value for b, either from itself (attribute cvalue) or from workingstate (thanks to valptr)
- Then, the redefined operator = is called, so that mu\_a updates the value for a to be equal to that of b, either from itself (attribute cvalue) or from workingstate
- If the right side of the assignment has a generic expression, it is evaluated in a similar way (the operator () solves the Murphi variable references, the other values will be integer constants or function calls...)
- BTW, functions are mapped as C++ methods...

#### Translation of Murphi Rules

- For each rule i (starting from 0 at the end of model.m!) there
  is a class named RuleBasei
- Such class has Code method for the body and Condition method for the guard
- Startstates are similar, but they only have the body
- A suitable C++ code flattens rulesets, if present



## Translation of Murphi Rules: From This...

```
Const VAL_LIM: 5;
Type val_t : 0..VAL_LIM;
Var v : val_t;
Rule "incBy1"
 v <= VAL_LIM - 1 ==>
 Var useless : val_t;
 Begin
 useless := 1;
  v := v + useless;
 End;
```





## Translation of Murphi Rules: ... To This

```
class RuleBase1 {
public:
 bool Condition(unsigned r) { /* quard */
 return (mu_v) \ll (4);
void Code(unsigned r) {  /* body */
 mu_1_val_t mu_useless("useless", 0);
 mu_useless = 1;
 mu_v = (mu_v) + (mu_useless);
};
```

## Translation of Murphi Rules: From This...

```
ruleset i: l<sub>1</sub>..u<sub>1</sub> do
ruleset j: l<sub>2</sub>..u<sub>2</sub> do
Rule "incBy1"
   i < j ==>
   Begin v := v + i - j; End;
Endruleset; Endruleset;
```



## Translation of Murphi Rules: ... To This

```
class RuleBase0 {
public:
 bool Condition (unsigned r) {
  /* called (u_1 - l_1 + 1)(u_2 - l_2 + 1) with r ranging
     from 0 to (u_1 - l_1 + 1)(u_2 - l_2 + 1) - 1 */
  static mu_subrange_7 mu_j;
  mu_j.value((r \% (u_2 - l_2 + 1)) + l_2);
  r = r / (u_2 - l_2 + 1);
  static mu_subrange_6 mu_i;
  mu_i.value((r % (u_1 - l_1 + 1)) + l_1);
  /* useless, but it is automatically
      generated ... */
  r = r / (u_1 - l_1 + 1);
  return (mu_i) < (mu_j);
```

## Translation of Murphi Rules: ... To This

```
void Code(unsigned r) {
  static mu_subrange_7 mu_j;
  mu_j.value((r % (u_2 - l_2 + 1)) + l_2);
  r = r / (u_2 - l_2 + 1);
  static mu_subrange_6 mu_i;
  mu_i.value((r % (u_1 - l_1 + 1)) + l_1);
  r = r / (u_1 - l_1 + 1);
  mu_v = ((mu_v) + (mu_i)) - (mu_j);
 };
};
```





- Note that the first part of Condition and Code is meant to translate an integer from 0 to  $(u_1 l_1 + 1)(u_2 l_2 + 1) 1$  in 2 values for the rulesets indeces
- The interface class for the verification algorithm is NextStateGenerator
- Suppose there are R rules  $r_0, \ldots, r_{R-1}$ , and that each  $r_i$  is contained in  $N_i$  nested rulesets having upper bound  $u_{ij}$  and lower bound  $l_{ij}$ , for  $j=1,\ldots,N_i$
- Note that Condition simply calls its homonymous method of the RuleBase class corresponding the current r...





```
Let P(k) = \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} (\prod_{j=1}^{N_i} (u_{ij} - l_{jj} + 1)) + 1 be the number
of flattened rules preceding the rule r_k;
class NextStateGenerator {
 RuleBaseO RO:
 RuleBase(R-1) R(R-1);
public:
 void SetNextEnabledRule(unsigned &
  what_rule);
```





```
bool Condition (unsigned r) { /* r will
range from 0 to P(R) */
 category = CONDITION;
 if (what_rule < P(1))
  return RO.Condition(r - 0);
 if (what_rule >= P(1) && what_rule < P(2))
  return R1.Condition(r - P(1));
 if (what_rule \Rightarrow= P(R-1) && what_rule <
 P(R)
  return R(R-1). Condition (r - P(R-1));
return Error;
```

```
void Code(unsigned r) {
  if (what_rule < P(1)) {
   RO.Code(r - 0); return;
  if (what_rule >= P(1) && what_rule < P(2)) {
   R1.Code(r - P(1)); return;
  if (what_rule >= P(R-1) && what_rule <
  P(R)) {
  R(R-1). Code (r - P(R-1)); return;
};
const unsigned numrules = P(R);
```

## Step 2: What Is Actually Compiled by $\mathsf{C}{++}$ Compiler

Concatenation	of	include/*.h
model.cpp		
Concatenation	of	include/*.C



## Murphi BFS

```
FIFO_Queue Q;
HashTable T;
bool BFS (NFSS \mathcal{N}, AP \varphi)
 let \mathcal{N} = (S, I, Post);
 foreach s in / {
  if (!\varphi(s))
    return false;
 foreach s in /
  Enqueue(Q, s);
 foreach s in /
  HashInsert (T, s);
```





# Murphi BFS



## BFS in Murphi

- Post(s) is computed using class NextStateGenerator
- It is equivalent to a for loop on all flattened rules
- For each flattened rule index r, Condition(r) tells if the current state workingstate enables the guard of r
- If so, the next state is obtained via Code(r), by directly modifying workingstate



## Hashtable in Murphi

- Open addressing ...
  - insert: repeatedly call e = h(s, i) (for i = 1, 2, ..., m) till  $T[e] = \emptyset$ , then insert s in T[e]
  - search: repeatedly call e = h(s, i) (for i = 1, 2, ..., m) till either:
    - $T[e] = \varnothing \rightarrow s$  is not present
    - $T[e] = s \rightarrow s$  is present
- ... with double hashing
  - there are two hash functions  $h_1, h_2$
  - $h(s, i) = (h_1(s) + ih_2(s)) \mod m$
  - m is the size of T, and is a prime number
  - $h(s, i_1) = h(s, i_2) \rightarrow i_1 = i_2$







## Reducing Hashtable in Murphi

- States must be stored in T
- For efficiency reasons, T is a fixed-length array, each entry is an instance of state class
  - if T becomes full, the verification is terminated and you have to run it again with more memory
  - option -m of model executable
- Thus, T stores workingstates
- Two possible ways (also together):
  - use less memory for each state
    - store less states





## Hash Compaction

- Enabled by compiling the Murphi model with -c
- When dealing with hash table insertions and searches, state "signatures" are used instead of the whole states
- The idea is that it is unlikely to happen that two different states have the same signature
- If this happens, some states may be never reached, even if they are indeed reachable
- Thus, there may be "false positives": the verification terminates with an OK messages, while the system was buggy instead
- However, this is very unlikely to happen, and in every case it is much better than testing, which may miss whole classes of bugs

## Hash Compaction

- At the beginning of the verification, a vector hashmatrix of 24\*BLOCKS\_IN\_WORLD longs (4 byte per each long) is created and initialized with random values (hashmatrix will never be modified)
- Then, given a state s to be sought/inserted, 3 longs 10, 11 and 12 are computed from hashmatrix
- Namely, 1i, for i = 0, 1, 2, is the bit-to-bit xor of the longs in the set H(i) = {hashmatrix[3k + i] | the k-th bit of the uncompressed state s is 1};
- That is to say, every bit of s is used to determine if a given element of hashmatrix has or hasn't to be used in the signature computation

## Hash Compaction

- This is accomplished in the functions of file include/mu\_hash.cpp, where to avoid to compute 8\*BLOCKS\_IN\_WORLD bit-to-bit xor operations, some xor properties allow to use the preceeding computed signature and save some xor computation (oldvec variable)
- Then, 10 is used as a hash value (index in the hash table)
- The concatenation of 11 and 12 (truncated to a given number of bits by option -b) gives the signature (the value to be sought/inserted in T)
- It should be obvious, now, that a signature cannot be used to generate states, so that's why Q entries do not point to hash table entries any more
- Thus, if current workingstate state is found to be new, and so its signature is put inside the hash table, a new memory block is allocated to be assigned to the current from of the queue, and workingstate is copied into that

## Bit Compression

- To save some (not much...) space, the Murphi compiler option -b may be used to compress states (bit compression in SPIN's parlance)
- Whilst hashcompaction is a lossy compression, this is lossless
- But very less efficient
- In this way, workingstate contents are not forced to be aligned to byte boundaries, so it occupies less space
- Moreover, effective subranges size is used (remember we store the lower bound...)
- Of course, a more complex handling than the valptr and byteOffset one has to be used

## Murphi BFS

```
Var
  x : 255..261;
  y : 30..53;

StartState
  x := 256;
  y := 53;
End;
```



## Bit Compression

 y

 0x0
 0x1
 0x0
 0x35
 workingstate->bits without -b

x y

0xc 0x2 workingstate->bits with -b





# Symmetry and Multiset Reductions

- Differently from SPIN's partial order reduction, these techniques are not transparent to the user
- In fact, symmetry reduction are applicable only if some types have been declared using the scalarset keyword (for multiset reduction, the keyword is multiset)
- Not all systems are symmetric
- However, when it is possible to apply symmetry reduction, only a subset of the state space is (correctly) explored
- To be more precise, symmetry reduction induces a partition of the state space in equivalence classes
- A functions chain (implemented in the model-dependent part in model.cpp) is able to return the representative of the equivalence class of a given state

## Symmetry and Multiset Reductions

#### Rules for scalarset:

- the values are not used in any comparison operation except equality testing
- the values are not used in any arithmetic operation
- the result from the for loop with the subrange as index does not depend on the order of the iteration
- cannot be directly assigned to some value: either it is used on a forall, exists, for, ruleset, or it is used an assignment with some other scalarset value



# Murphi BFS with Symmetry Reduction

```
FIFO_Queue Q;
HashTable T;
bool BFS (NFSS \mathcal{N}, AP \varphi)
 let \mathcal{N} = (S, I, Post);
 foreach ss in / {
  s = Normalize(ss);
  if (!\varphi(s))
   return false;
 foreach s in /
  Enqueue(Q, s);
 foreach s in /
  HashInsert(T, s);
```





# Murphi BFS with Symmetry Reduction

```
while (Q \neq \emptyset) {
 s = Dequeue(Q);
 foreach ss_next in Post(s) {
  s_next = Normalize(ss_next);
  if (!\varphi(s_next))
   return false;
  if (s_next is not in T) {
   Enqueue(Q, s_next);
   HashInsert(T, s_next);
  } /* if */ } /* foreach */ } /* while */
return true;
```





## Symmetry Reduction

- How is Normalize implemented? Here are the main ideas
- Suppose that variable v is a scalarset(N), and  $v = \tilde{v}$  in a state  $s \in S$
- Then, any permutation of the set {1,..., N} brings to an equivalent state
- Thus, all possible permutations are generated, and the lexicographically smaller state is chosen as the representative
  - apply a permutation means: change the value of v, and reorder any array or ruleset or for which depends on v
- Could be expensive, heuristics are also used to perform faster but potentially not complete normalizations
  - i.e., two symmetric states may be declared different
  - this does not hinder verification correctness its efficiency



#### What About Actual Software States?

- One could think: why not to perform a BFS on a legacy software state space?
  - transition relation: use some debugger to perform one statement at a time
  - e.g., for a C program, gdb may be used
  - if concurrency is important, one machine code statement at a time
- How many states will be there? Let us make an estimate
  - values for all global variables
  - value for the whole current call stack
    - if we have threads, all call stacks...
  - values for allocated memory on heap
  - if some I/O is being used (e.g., open files), also its value must be taken into account



#### What About Actual Software States?

- Actually, the whole computer's memory may be used
  - both RAM and disks!
- Suppose we have 2TB of total memory, i.e., 16Tb
- Thus, the number of possible states is  $2^{2^{44}} \approx 2^{10^{13}} \approx 10^{3 \cdot 10^{12}}$ 
  - number of atoms in the universe: 1080
- That's why Murphi does not consider the content of files and heap, and does not allow uncompleted function call
  - functions are called only to determine the next state
  - the full call stack must be empty at the end of each next state computation
- For full software, only simulation (i.e., testing) can be performed



- Establish mutual authentication between an initiator A and a responder B
  - desired outcome: A knows it is speaking with B and viceversa
- Public key cryptography:
  - ullet each agent lpha has a public key  $K_{lpha}$
  - any other agent  $\beta$  can get  $\mathcal{K}_{\alpha}$  using a dedicated key server
  - each agent  $\alpha$  has a secret key  $K_{\alpha}^{-1}$
- Given a message m, it may be encrypted using some key K, thus obtaining  $\{m\}_K$ 
  - any agent  $\beta$  may encrypt m using  $K_{\alpha}$  for some agent  $\alpha$ , thus obtaining  $\{m\}_{K_{\alpha}}$
  - only agent  $\alpha$  may decrypt  $\{m\}_{K_{\alpha}}$ , thus obtaining m
- ullet A random number  $N_{lpha}$  (nonce) may be generated by any agent

 $\alpha$ 



- We follow the modeling by Lowe, showing an error in the protocol that went undetected for nearly 20 years
- Namely, an agent I (intruder) successfully make an agent B think that I is instead A (impersonation)
- NS protocol for mutual authentication consists on 7 steps, but here we focus on the 3 more important steps
  - in the omitted steps, A and B obtain their public keys, let us assume this is ok
  - assume-guarantee approach: assuming that something works, does the subsequent (dependent) steps work?
  - ubiquously used in verification in its "weakest" form
  - may be formalized, but we skip it





- The three steps are as follows:
  - $A \rightarrow B : \{N_A \cdot A\}_{K_B}$ 
    - stands for concatenation, A is identity of A
  - $\bullet B \to A : \{N_A \cdot N_B\}_{K_A}$
  - $A \rightarrow B : \{N_B\}_{K_B}$
- From here onwards, B should be certain to be talking to A
- The idea is: if only A can decrypt  $\{N_A \cdot N_B\}_{K_A}$ , then only A could have sent  $\{N_B\}_{K_B}$  back to me
  - this is the *B* viewpoint, of course
- A is the initiator and B the responder
  - a bit counter-intuitive, as at the end it is the responder who gets the answer



- Intruder / power:
  - overhear and/or intercept any message between any pair of selected agents
  - reply to any intercepted message
  - know which the (other) intruders are
    - o not in the original paper...
  - plus the fact it is itself an agent, thus:
    - may decrypt messages encrypted with its key  $K_l$
    - may encrypt messages with some other agents key  $K_{\alpha}$
    - may create nonces





- 5 global variables:
  - number of initiators
  - number of responders
  - number of intruders
  - number of messages in the network
  - memory size of the intruder
- To trigger the error, it is sufficient that the first 4 variables are strictly positive
  - the last must be at least 3
- Once the error is corrected, you may select higher values to see if it stays correct
  - of course, same number of initiators and responders







- Initiator has a "state" and the responder it is talking to
  - "states": actually modalities or statuses, as in the Peterson protocol
  - SLEEPING: before first message  $A \rightarrow B : \{N_A \cdot A\}_{K_B}$
  - WAIT: after first message and before  $B \to A : \{N_A \cdot N_B\}_{K_A}$
  - COMMIT: after sending last message  $A \to B : \{N_B\}_{K_B}$
- Responder has a "state" and the initiator it is talking to
  - SLEEPING: before first message  $A \rightarrow B : \{N_A \cdot A\}_{K_B}$
  - WAIT: after sending  $B \to A : \{N_A \cdot N_B\}_{K_A}$  and before  $A \to B : \{N_B\}_{K_B}$
  - COMMIT: A is authenticated by B





- Intruder has two arrays
  - for each agent a (including itself), the nonce  $N_a$ 
    - modeling choice: it is not important, for this verification purposes, to represent the actual random number
    - otherwise, too many (unnecessary) states
    - instead, only a boolean is stored for each agent: true if the nonce is known, false otherwise
    - to know a nonce, either it is its own or it has been able to intercept and decrypt a message containing it
  - a set of known "full" messages (knowledge)
    - set size is finite: it models the intruder "power" of storing messages





- The network is a (finite-sized) array of messages
- Each message is a record of:
  - source and destination agents
  - key used for encryption
    - o not the actual key: the agent id suffices...
  - the body, which is modeled by its type and single components
  - $N_A \cdot A$ : a nonce and an address
    - both are agent ids...
  - $N_B \cdot N_A$  two nonces
  - $\bullet$   $N_B$  one nonce
- Sending a message means setting up all of its parts and then adding it to the network
- Receiving a message means removing it from the network
  - should also check if you are the intended destination but intruders do not do it.



### NS Protocol in Murphi: Starting States

- All initiators A and responders B are in SLEEP status
- Each intruder only knows its own nonce and has no recorded message
- There are no messages in the network



## NS Protocol in Murphi: Initiators Behaviour

- Ruleset 1: for all sleeping initiators A and for all responders/intruders B
  - send nonce+address  $\{N_A \cdot A\}_{K_B}$ 
    - this means: set up the message and add it to the network
    - thus a further condition is needed: network must not be full
  - initiator A goes to WAIT status
  - also records that its responder is B
- Ruleset 2: for all waiting initiators A,
  - if there is a message m on the network which has been sent to A and was sent by an intruder B...
  - ... receive it: it should be  $m = \{N_A \cdot N_B\}_{K_A}$
  - thus, send  $\{N_B\}_{k_B}$  as a response
  - new status for A is COMMIT







## NS Protocol in Murphi: Responders Behaviour

- Ruleset 1: for all sleeping responders B,
  - if there is a message m on the network which has been sent to B and comes from an intruder A...
  - ... receive it: it should be  $m = \{N_A \cdot A\}_{K_B}$
  - thus, send  $\{N_A \cdot N_B\}_{K_A}$  as a response
  - new status for B is WAIT
  - it also records that its initiator is A
- Ruleset 2: for all waiting responders B,
  - if there is a message *m* on the network which has been sent to *B* and comes from an intruder *A*...
  - ... receive it: it should be  $m = \{N_B\}_{K_B}$
  - new status for B is COMMIT





## NS Protocol in Murphi: Intruders Behaviour

- Ruleset 1: for all intruders I,
  - if there is a message m on the network which has been sent to B, and B is not an intruder...
  - ... receive it: it may be either  $m = \{N_A \cdot A\}_{K_B}$  or  $m = \{N_B\}_{K_B}$  for some B
    - that is, any message coming from an initiator
  - there are two possible cases:
    - B = I, then m may be read and  $N_A$  is now known by I
    - $B \neq I$ , then add m to knowledge of I
    - provided that there is enough space and it is not already present
- Ruleset 2: for all intruders I and for all non-intruders A,
  - if there is a message m on the knowledge of I, send m to A
  - essentially, this means that ruleset 1 is equivalent to: the intruder sees messages going on the network actually receives only those which can be decrypted



### NS Protocol in Murphi: Intruders Behaviour

- Ruleset 3: for all intruders I and for all non-intruders A, for all possible messages m, send m to A
  - "possible messages": all those which may be composed using the nonces known by I
  - if only one nonce is known, then only  $\{N_B\}_{K_B}$  can be sent
  - it two nonces are known, also  $\{N_A \cdot N_B\}_{K_A}$  can be sent
  - if no nonces are known, this ruleset cannot be fired
  - of course, there must also be room in the network for sending m





### NS Protocol in Murphi: Invariants

- All responders are correctly authenticated
  - for all initiators A, if status of A is COMMIT and its responder is a responder B, then initiator of B must be A
  - furthermore, B must not be sleeping
- All initiators are correctly authenticated
  - for all responders B, if status of B is COMMIT and its initiator is an initiator A, then responder of A must be B
  - furthermore, A must be in COMMIT status





# NS Protocol in Murphi: Counterexample

- $\bigcirc$  I reads and stores  $\{N_A \cdot N_B\}_{K_A}$

- $0 I \rightarrow B : \{N_B\}_{K_B}$





## NS Protocol in Murphi: Conclusions

- Modeler must choose a "category" of attack
  - here, the fact that an intruder may be inbetween an initiator and its responder
  - and may send any message to try to breach the protocol
- The model is deadlocked
  - e.g., initiator sends to intruder, which learns the initiator nonce and sends the answer, then initiator sends final message, which is again taken by the intruder and finally the intruder generates a message with learnt nonce to the initiator
  - initiator is in COMMIT, responder does not see anything for him, network is full thus stop
- For the purposes of this verification, deadlocks are "failed" attacks, thus they can be discarded

## NS Protocol in Murphi: Conclusions

- Corrected procotol:
  - $A \rightarrow B : \{N_A \cdot A\}_{K_B}$
  - $B \rightarrow A : \{N_A \cdot N_B \cdot B\}_{K_A}$ 
    - thus, also B identity is sent
  - $A \rightarrow B : \{N_B\}_{K_B}$
- A flag in the Murphi model allows to turn this fix on
- It is possible to (manually) prove that, if a bug is still in the protocol for any number of agents, then it should be in the protocol with 3 agents
  - Murphi shows that no attacks exist for 3 agents



