

# Program Synthesis

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In general, we can present the *synthesis* problem in contrast to the verification problem as follows:

- The **verification problem**: given system  $M$  and spec  $\varphi$ , check that  $M \models \varphi$ .
- The **synthesis problem**: given spec  $\varphi$ , find  $M$  such that  $M \models \varphi$ .

## 0.1 Functional Synthesis

The classic, *functional synthesis* problem, is defined with respect to programs that take some input  $x$  and transform it to output  $y$ . In this setting, if we are given a specification  $\varphi$  that prescribes the desired input/output relation, we can construct a program by means of establishing validity of the theorem

$$\forall x \exists y : \varphi(x, y)$$

Note that this is equivalent to the second order formula

$$\exists f, \forall x : \varphi(x, f(x))$$

where  $f$  is a concrete function that takes input  $x$  and returns the correct output  $y$  satisfying specification  $\varphi$  [PR89, WL69]. If we have a constructive way to prove this theorem, then we can construct  $f$ , from which we can construct a program that satisfies  $\varphi$ .

## 0.2 Reactive Synthesis

The above approach is suitable for sequential programs, but if we want to move to concurrent programs, then we need a more expressive specification language to express  $\varphi$ . Temporal logic became the natural choice for this and works of [CE82, MW84] essentially do concurrent program synthesis by showing satisfiability of a particular temporal formula specification  $\varphi$ , and use the model satisfying  $\varphi$  to construct a program implementing  $\varphi$ .

In [PR89], however, they claim that the approach taken in [CE82, MW84] is not quite sufficient, because it assumes that we are trying to synthesize *closed* systems. That is, systems for which we have full control over every component of the system. They claim that if, for example, we are synthesizing a system with two components,  $C_1$  and  $C_2$ , the “hidden assumption” in [CE82] is that we have the power to construct both  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  in a way that will ensure the needed cooperation. But, if we are in a so-called *open system* setting, then  $C_1$ , for example, may represent the *environment* over which the implementor has no control, while  $C_2$  is the body of the system itself (which we may refer to as a *reactive module*). In this case, we instead have to synthesize  $C_2$  in such a way that it will work correctly in response to any possible behaviors of the environment  $C_1$ . For example, if  $C_1$  is a module that can only modify  $x$  (a shared variable for communication), and  $C_2$  can only modify  $y$ , then they claim the synthesis problem should instead be stated as

$$\forall x \exists y : \varphi(x, y)$$

which they refer to as the *reactive synthesis* problem. Note that in the formal statement above, we should now interpret  $x$  and  $y$  as being quantified over behaviors of the computation, since we are now interpreting it over temporal logic. So, the statement is saying that for any possible sequence of values  $x$  (that can be produced by the environment  $C_1$ ), there exists a sequence of values  $y$  (produced by the controllable system  $C_2$ ) such that  $\varphi(x, y)$  holds. They note that the approach of [CE82] can be viewed as a solution to the alternate problem statement  $\exists x \exists y : \varphi(x, y)$ .

## 0.3 Deductive Synthesis

The *deductive approach* [MW80] tries to synthesize an input/output program by extracting it from a realizability proof.

## 0.4 Temporal Synthesis

*Temporal synthesis* considers specifications given in the form of LTL (or CTL), for example. An initial approach was to use satisfiability of a temporal formula as a way to derive  $M$  [CE82]. See also [MW84].

In [CE82] they consider concurrent systems consisting of a finite number of fixed processes  $P_1, \dots, P_m$  running in parallel. They treat parallelism in the usual sense i.e. non-deterministic interleaving of the sequential atomic actions of each process. They use CTL as a specification language, and consider the semantics of CTL with respect to a (Kripke) structure  $M = (S, A_1, \dots, A_k, L)$ , where

- $S$ : countable set of system states
- $A_i \subseteq S \times S$ : transition relation of process  $i$
- $L$ : assignment of atomic propositions to each state

They use a decision procedure for satisfiability of CTL formulae (similar to one described in [BAMP81]) as part of their synthesis procedure. Given a CTL formula  $f_0$ , the decision procedure returns either “Yes,  $f_0$  is satisfiable” or “No,  $f_0$  is unsatisfiable”. If  $f_0$  is satisfiable, then a finite model (structure) is also constructed. Their overall synthesis algorithm consists of the following high level steps:

1. Specify the desired behavior of the concurrent system using a CTL formula  $\varphi$ .
2. Apply the decision procedure to the formula  $\varphi$  to obtain a finite model of the formula.
3. Factor out the synchronization skeletons of the individual processes from the global system flowgraph defined by the model.

They demonstrate this procedure on a simple, 2 process mutual exclusion example. Below is shown the description of the abstract states of each process,  $\{NCS_i, TRY_i, CS_i\}$ :

We illustrate the method by solving a mutual exclusion problem for processes  $P_1$  and  $P_2$ . Each process is always in one of three regions of code:

$NCS_i$	the <u>N</u> on <u>C</u> ritical <u>S</u> ection
$TRY_i$	the <u>T</u> RYing Section
$CS_i$	the <u>C</u> ritical <u>S</u> ection

which it moves through as suggested in Fig. 6.1.

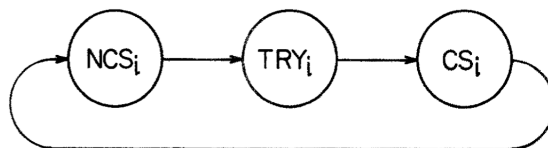


Figure 6.1

and they give the specification of the mutual exclusion problem in CTL as follows:

1. start state  

$$NCS_1 \wedge NCS_2$$
2. mutual exclusion  

$$AG(\sim(CS_1 \wedge CS_2))$$
3. absence of starvation for  $P_i$   

$$AG(TRY_i \rightarrow AF CS_i)$$
4. each process  $P_i$  is always in exactly one of the three code regions  

$$AG(NCS_i \vee TRY_i \vee CS_i)$$

$$AG(NCS_i \rightarrow \sim(TRY_i \vee CS_i))$$

$$AG(TRY_i \rightarrow \sim(NCS_i \vee CS_i))$$

$$AG(CS_i \rightarrow \sim(NCS_i \vee TRY_i))$$
5. it is always possible for  $P_i$  to enter its trying region from its non-critical region  

$$AG(NCS_i \rightarrow EX_i TRY_i)$$
6. it is always the case that any move  $P_i$  makes from its trying region is into the critical region  

$$AG(TRY_i \wedge EX_i True \rightarrow AX_i CS_i)$$
7. it is always possible for  $P_i$  to re-enter its noncritical region from its critical region  

$$AG(CS_i \rightarrow EX_i NCS_i)$$
8. a transition by one process cannot cause a move by the other  

$$AG(NCS_i \rightarrow AX_j NCS_j)$$

$$AG(TRY_i \rightarrow AX_j TRY_j)$$

$$AG(CS_i \rightarrow AX_j CS_j)$$
9. some process can always move  

$$AG(EX \text{ true})$$

From this they then construct a tableau  $T$  using their decision procedure:

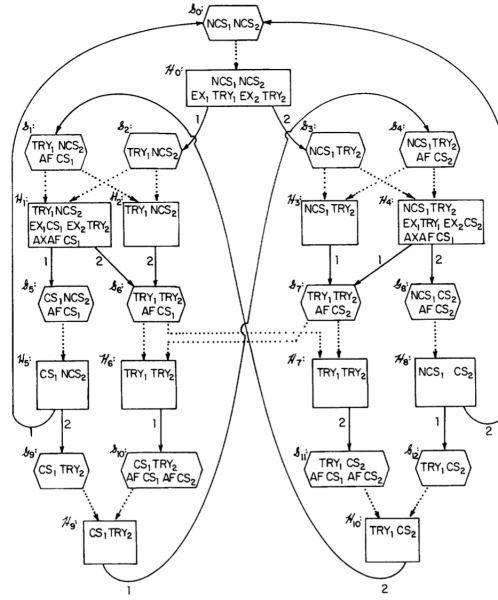


Figure 6.2

and then from  $T$  they extract a finite model of the global program behavior:

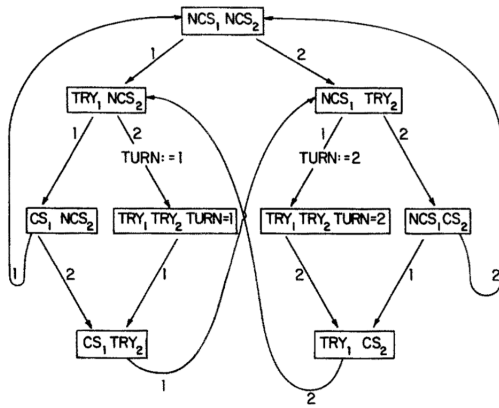


Figure 6.6

Note they manually introduced an auxiliary variable  $TURN$  in order to distinguish states  $H_6$  and  $H_7$  in the tableau, which carries over into the extracted model.

After constructing the model representing the global program behavior, they extract “skeletons” for each individual process, which they seem to describe in a somewhat ad hoc manner i.e. they don’t give a formal algorithmic procedure for this. Note that this is pointed out in [AE01], which appears to give a more formal treatment of this extraction procedure. The final, extracted skeletons for process  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  are shown as follows:

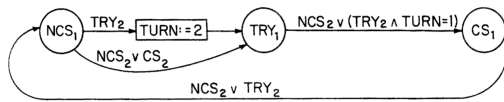


Figure 6.7 (a)

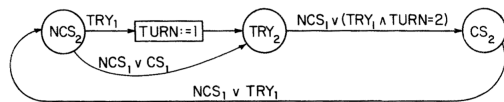


Figure 6.7 (b)

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