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Kriepke Structures and Murphi Verification Algorithm(s)

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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
 - $L: S \rightarrow 2^{AP}$ 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

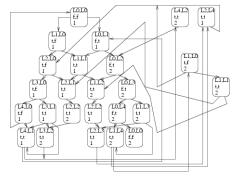
• $S = \{(p_1, p_2, q_1, q_2, t) \mid p_1, p_2 \in \{L0, L1, L2, L3, L4\}, q_1, q_2 \in \{0, 1\}, t \in \{1, 2\}\} = \{L0, L1, L2, L3, L4\}^2 \times \{0, 1\}^2 \times \{1, 2\}$

•
$$I = {L0}^2 \times {0}^2 \times {1,2}$$

- 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



- 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. ∀s'. s = s' ∨ (s, s') ∉ R, Murphi calls s a deadlock state
 - 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 s₁, the system may *non-deterministically* go either to s₂ or to s₃
 - or many other states
- Motivations for non-determinism: modeling choices!
 - underspecified subsystems
 - unpredictable interleaving
 - interactions with an uncontrollable environment

• ...

• Given a KS $S = \langle S, I, R, L \rangle$, we can define:

• the *predecessor* function $\operatorname{Pre}_{\mathcal{S}}: S \to 2^S$

- defined as $\operatorname{Pre}_{\mathcal{S}}(s) = \{s' \in S \mid (s', s) \in R\}$
- we will write simply $\operatorname{Pre}(s)$ when \mathcal{S} is understood
- the successor function $\operatorname{Post}: \mathcal{S} \to 2^{\mathcal{S}}$
 - defined as $\operatorname{Post}(s) = \{s' \in S \mid (s, s') \in R\}$
- Note that, if S is deterministic, $\forall s \in S$. $|Post(s)| \le 1$



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: π = s₀a₀s₁a₁...
 s.t. (s_i, a_i, s_{i+1} ∈ δ)



Paths in KSs

- The length of a path π is the number of states in π
 - 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 π is maximal iff one of the following holds

•
$$|\pi| = \infty$$

•
$$|\pi| = n + 1$$
 and $|Post(\pi(n))| = 0$

- 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
 - for many model checking algorithms, this is required in the second s



Reachability

- The set of paths of S starting from s ∈ S is denoted by Path(S, s) = {π | π is a path in S ∧ π(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 $\exists \pi \in \operatorname{Path}(S), k < |\pi| : \pi(k) = s$
 - i.e., there exists a path from an initial state leading to *s* through valid transitions
- The set of reachable states is defined by Reach(S) = {π(i) | π ∈ Path(S), i < |π|}



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

$$\Phi ::= (\Phi) \mid \Phi \land \Phi \mid \Phi \lor \Phi \mid \neg \Phi \mid p$$

- The KS S satisfies φ iff φ holds on all reachable states
 ∀s ∈ Reach(S). φ(s) = 1
- Note that it may happen that φ(s) = 0 for some s ∈ S: never mind, if s ∉ Reach(S)



- $\bullet\,$ 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 begin
 b : 1..m; c: 1..k; endrecord

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- then there will be 2*n* variables as follows: *a*1*b*,...,*anb*,*a*1*c*,...,*anc*
- the first n with type 1..m, the other with type

- $\mathcal{I} = \{I_1, \ldots, I_k\}$ is the set of startstate sections in \mathcal{M}
 - startstates may be defined inside rulesets; again, all rulesets are *unfolded*
 - thus, if a startstate \mathcal{I} is inside *m* nested rulesets $\mathcal{R}_1, \ldots, \mathcal{R}_m$...
 - and each ruleset *R_i* is defined on an index *j_i* spanning on a domain *D_i* (note that *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 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) ∈ R iff there is a rule T_i ∈ 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
- 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
 - 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., $\eta(a := a + 1; b := b 1, (1, 2, 3)) = (2, 1, 3)$
 - η 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
 - it takes a Murphi boolean expression $Q \in \mathcal{Q}$ and the state s to be evaluated
 - it returns 1 iff Q is true in s
 - e.g., $\zeta((a = 3|b = 4), (1, 4, 3)) = 1$
 - ζ may be defined using atomic propositions \mathbb{R}

- 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[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 $w_{j_i} \in D_i$, 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 $Q(w_{j_1},\ldots,w_{j_n})=1$
 - where each w_{j_i} is such that $(v_i = w_{j_i}) \in L(s)$
 - $Q(w_{j_1}, \ldots, w_{j_n})$ is the result of replacing variable with value $M_{j_1}^{\text{DSM}}$

- (s, t) ∈ R iff there is a rule T_i ∈ T s.t. T_i guard is true in s and T_i body changes s to t
- By using η and ζ , we can be more precise:
 - "*T_i* guard is true" means ζ(*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 η(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) ∉ R for all $t \in S$, i.e., the values for the variables in s do not satisfy any ruleset guard
 - (s, t) ∈ R → 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)



 \bullet Theoretically, extract KS ${\mathcal S}$ and property φ from ${\mathcal M}$ as described above

• for a given invariant I in \mathcal{M} , $arphi(s)=\zeta(I,s)$ for all $s\in S$

- Then, KS S satisfies φ iff φ holds on all reachable states
 ∀s ∈ Reach(S). φ(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 $\ensuremath{\mathcal{M}}$

- 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 $|S| = O(2^B)$



- 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 esponential increase in the size of $\left|S\right|$
- 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



Murphi BFS

- 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 φ
 - S is the set of states, $I \subseteq S$ the set of initial states
 - $\operatorname{Post}: S \to 2^S$ is the successor function as defined before
 - given a state s, it returns T s.t. $t \in T \rightarrow (s, t) \in R$
 - $\, \bullet \,$ no labeling, we already have φ



Murphi BFS

- 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 ∈ Post(s) iff there is a rule T_i ∈ T s.t. T_i guard is true in s and T_i body changes s to t
 - $\, \bullet \,$ see above for using η and ζ
 - Essentially, if the current state is s, it is sufficient to inspect all (flattened) rules in the Murphi specification 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



```
void Make_a_run(NFSS \mathcal{N}, invariant \varphi)
ſ
 let \mathcal{N} = \langle S, I, \text{Post} \rangle;
 s_curr = pick_a_state(1);
 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;
```



```
void Make_a_run(NFSS \mathcal{N}, invariant \varphi)
ſ
 let \mathcal{N} = \langle S, I, \text{Post} \rangle;
 s_curr = pick_a_state(1);
 if (!\varphi(s_curr))
  return with error message;
 while (1) { /* loop forever */
  if (Post(s_curr) = Ø)
   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\}
  1
  2
              do color[u] \leftarrow WHITE
  3
                    d[u] \leftarrow \infty
  4
                    \pi[u] \leftarrow \text{NiL}
  5
        color[s] \leftarrow GRAY
  6
        d[s] \leftarrow 0
  7
        \pi[s] \leftarrow \text{NIL}
  8
        Q \leftarrow \{s\}
         while Q ≠ Ø
  9
10
               do u \leftarrow head[Q]
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, v)
 16
 17
                     DEQUEUE(O)
 18
                     color[u] \leftarrow BLACK
```



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



Murphi BFS

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



Murphi BFS

- Edges are never stored in memory
- (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 memory



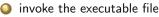
State Space Explosion

- $\bullet\,$ 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 Murphi code



Murphi Usage

- As for all *explicit* model checker, a Murphi verification has the following steps:
 - compile Murph 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
 - o g++ -Ipath_to_include model.cpp -o model
 - path_to_include is the include directory inside Murphi distribution



- ./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.l) 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-specificited



- 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)

```
class mu__int {
enum {undef_value=0xff};
int lb, ub; /* bounds */
int byteOffset;  /* in bytes */
/* points to workingstate->bits[byteOffset]
   for global variables, to cvalue for
    local
*/
unsigned char *valptr;
unsigned char cvalue;
```



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 preceeding the declaration of v
 - Let b(x) = ⌊log₂(x + 1)⌋ + 1 be the number of bits required to represent the maximum value x (plus the undefined value)
 - Let B(x) = 1 if b(x) ≤ 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...

- For each rule *i* (starting from 0 at the *end* of model.m!) there is a class named RuleBase*i*
- 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



```
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;
```



```
class RuleBase1 {
public:
 bool Condition(unsigned r) { /* guard */
 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);
};
 :
}
```

```
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;
```



```
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);
 }
```



- 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 r₀,..., 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,..., N_i
- Note that Condition simply calls its homonymous method of the RuleBase class corresponding the current r...



Let $P(k) = \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} (\prod_{j=1}^{N_i} (u_{ij} - l_{ij} + 1)) + 1$ be the number of flattened rules preceding the rule r_k ;

```
class NextStateGenerator {
  RuleBase0 R0;
   .
   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 >= 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)) {
   R0.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 C++ Compiler

model.cpp

Concatenation of include/*.C



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



Murphi BFS

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



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, ...) till $T[e] = \emptyset$, then insert s in T[e]
 - search: repeatedly call e = h(s, i) (for i = 1, 2, ...) till either:
 - $T[e] = \varnothing \rightarrow s$ is not present
 - $T[e] = s \rightarrow s$ is present
- ... with double hasing
 - 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



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
 - Istore 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, li, 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

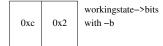
x := 256; y := 53; End;



Bit Compression



x y





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



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



```
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 hinders verification correctness bry vits efficiency

Modeling the Needham-Schroeder Protocol

- 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:
 - each agent α has a public key K_{α}
 - any other agent can get it using a dedicated key server
 - each agent α has a secret key K_{α}^{-1}
- Given a message m, it may be encripted using some key K, thus obtaining $\{m\}_K$
 - any agent β may encrypt m using K_{α} for some agent α , thus obtaining $\{m\}_{K_{\alpha}}$

DISIM

- only agent α may decrypt $\{m\}_{K_{\alpha}}$, thus obtaining m
- A random number N_{lpha} (nonce) may be generated by any agent



Modeling the Needham-Schroeder Protocol

- We follow the modeling by Lowe, showing an error in the protocol went undetected for nearly 20 years
- Namely, an agents *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: assume that something works, does the subsequent (dependent) steps work?
 - ubiquously used in verification in its "weakest" form
 - there are also exist formalization of this, but we skip it



Modeling the Needham-Schroeder Protocol

• The three steps are as follows:

- $A \to B : \{N_A \cdot A\}_{K_B}$
 - \cdot stands for concatenation, A is identity of A
- $B \rightarrow A : \{N_A \cdot N_B\}_{K_A}$
- $A \rightarrow B : \{N_B\}_{K_B}$

• From here onwards, B should be certain to be talking to A

- The idea is: if only A can decrypt {N_A · 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



Modeling the Needham-Schroeder Protocol

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



Modeling the Needham-Schroeder Protocol in Murphi

- 4 global variables:
 - at least one initiator
 - at least one responder
 - at least one intruder
 - the network which can contain at least one message
- It is sufficient to have one for each of the above to obtain the error
- Once the error is corrected, you may selected higher numbers 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 $B \rightarrow A : \{N_A \cdot N_B\}_{K_A}$
- COMMIT: after sending last message $A \rightarrow B : \{N_B\}_{K_B}$

• 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



Modeling the Needham-Schroeder Protocol in Murphi

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 reandom number
 - otherwise, really too many 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



Modeling the Needham-Schroeder Protocol in Murphi

- The network is a (finite-sized) array of messages
- Each message is a record of:
 - source and destination agents
 - key used for encryption
 - 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
 - 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 store but when the 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*
 - ${\scriptstyle \bullet}$ if only one nonce is known, then only $\{N_B\}_{{\cal K}_B}$ 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*



- 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: 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 can be discarded



NS Protocol in Murphi: Conclusions

Orrected procotol:

- $A \rightarrow B : \{N_A \cdot A\}_{K_B}$
- $B \to A : \{N_A \cdot N_B \cdot B\}_{K_A}$
 - 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

