Specification and Verification II

- Topic of course is the Specification and Verification of Hardware
- Assumes familiarity with Specification and Verification I (which concerns software, particularly using Hoare logic)
- The two courses are really a single course

The notes contain general and background material for the course. Some of the material in them may not be covered in the lectures. Some details and examples are only presented in the lectures. The examinable material is what is actually covered in the lectures

Starting today

- Hardware oriented Hoare logic examples
 - \bullet apply Specification and Verification I ideas to hardware
- Modelling data
 - words as numbers or as bit arrays
- Programs as hardware
 - synthesis to state machines
- Compare program behaviour with hardware behaviour
 - intermediate states visible
- Motivate temporal logic
 - need to specify more than relationship between input and final result

Hoare Logic, Higher Order Logic and Temporal Logic

- Hoare logic can be used to verify programs in HDLs
- Hoare logic can be embedded in higher order logic
 - see last part of Specification and Verification I
- Higher order logic will be used to represent hardware structures
- Temporal logic (see later):
 - is used to specify properties
 - can be embedded in higher order logic
- Hoare Logic is for data reasoning, temporal logic for time (control)
- Need to chose appropriate logic all live inside higher order logic
- Goal: software and hardware modelled in same language
 - programming languages get hardware features:SystemC
 - hardware description languages get programming features: ...SystemVerilog

Hardware Oriented Programs

- Hoare logic can be used to verify hardware algorithms
 - can reason about programs to develop hardware
 - not yet 'Industry Standard' practice
 - interesting research direction: applications to hardware/software co-design?
- Hoare logic *ideas* appear in some industrial methods
 - Intel's Symbolic Trajectory Evaluation (STE) {stimulus} <hardware model> {response}
 - Assertion Based Verification (ABV) for hardware annotates HDL source with assertions

Hoare Logic applied to hardware algorithms

- Examples: addition and multiplication
- Initially natural numbers will represent words
 - leads to messy details
 - later a type of words is introduced
- We will multiply natural numbers a and b
 assume they can be represented with n bits
- Write ab to abbreviate $a \times b$
- a_i is *i*-th bit of the binary representation of a (a_0 being the least significant bit)

 $a = 2^{n-1}a_{n-1} + 2^{n-2}a_{n-2} + \dots + 2^0a_0$

hence

 $\begin{array}{rcl} ab &=& (2^{n-1}a_{n-1}+2^{n-2}a_{n-2}+\dots+2^0a_0)b\\ &=& 2^{n-1}a_{n-1}b+2^{n-2}a_{n-2}b+\dots+2^0a_0b\\ &=& a_{n-1}2^{n-1}b+a_{n-2}2^{n-2}b+\dots+a_02^0b \end{array}$

Binary multiplication algorithm

- Multiplying by 2 corresponds to:
 shifting one place to the left
 adding a 0 as the least significant bit
- Denote this operation by $b \mapsto b = 0$, then:

$$2^{0}b = b$$

 $2^{1}b = b^{-}0$
 $2^{2}b = b^{-}00$
:
 $2^{n}b = b^{-}\underbrace{0\cdots0}_{n\ 0s}$

- Recall: $ab = a_{n-1}2^{n-1}b + a_{n-2}2^{n-2}b + \dots + a_02^0b$
- Thus product of a and b is given by the sum:

$$\begin{array}{rrrr} & & & a_0 b \\ + & & a_1 b - 0 \\ + & & a_2 b - 0 0 \\ + & & a_3 b - 0 0 0 \\ & & & \vdots \\ + & & a_{n-1} b - 0 \cdots 0 \end{array}$$

- the *i*th row is either all zeros (if *a_i* is 0)
 or *b* shifted *i* places to the left (if *a_i* is 1)
- $a, b \text{ need } n\text{-bits} \Rightarrow \text{product needs } 2n \text{ bits}$

Extracting bits and subwords

- Let A[n] denote the *n*-th bit of the binary representation of A
- A[n] is a number 1 or 0
- A[0] is the least significant bit
- Thus:

 $\mathtt{A[n]} = (\mathtt{A} \ \mathtt{div} \ 2^n) \ \mathtt{mod} \ 2$

• Define A[m:n] to be the numerical value of the word comprising bits n upto to m of A:

 $2^{m-n} \mathbf{A}[m] + 2^{m-n-1} \mathbf{A}[m-1] + \cdots + 2^{0} \mathbf{A}[n]$ if m > n $\mathbf{A}[n]$ if m = n0 if m < n

• Later we'll represent words as bit-strings instead of as numbers

Hoare logic verification of a multiplier

• Add-shift multiplication program:

I := 0; PROD := 0; WHILE I < N DO BEGIN PROD := PROD + A[I] × $(2^{I} \times B)$; I := I + 1; END

• Annotated Hoare specification:

```
 \begin{split} & \{ \textbf{A} = a ~ \land ~ \textbf{B} = b ~ \land ~ a < 2^{\textbf{N}} ~ \land ~ b < 2^{\textbf{N}} ~ \land ~ \textbf{N} > 0 \} \\ & \textbf{I} := \textbf{0}; ~ \textbf{PROD} := \textbf{0}; \\ & \textbf{WHILE I < N DO } \{ \textbf{I} \leq \textbf{N} ~ \land ~ 2^{\textbf{I}} \textbf{A} [\textbf{N} - \textbf{1} : \textbf{I}] \textbf{B} + \textbf{PROD} = ab \} \\ & \textbf{BEGIN PROD} := \textbf{PROD} + \textbf{A} [\textbf{I}] ~ \times ~ (2^{\textbf{I}} \times ~ \textbf{B}); \\ & \textbf{I} := \textbf{I} + \textbf{1}; \\ & \textbf{END} \\ & \{ \textbf{PROD} = a \times b \} \end{split}
```

• Routine (not trivial) to verify using Hoare Logic

• reasoning about div and mod is *horrible*

Using FOR-commands instead of $\tt WHILE$

```
 \vdash \{\mathbf{A} = a \land \mathbf{B} = b \land a < 2^{\mathbf{N}} \land b < 2^{\mathbf{N}} \land \mathbf{N} > 0\} 
PROD := 0;

FOR I := 0 UNTIL N-1 DO

BEGIN PROD := PROD + A[I] × B;

B := 2×B;

END

{PROD = a × b}
```

- Program corresponds directly to hardware (i.e. more like HDL)
 - three registers A, B and PROD
 - initially PROD is set to 0
 - A and B contain numbers to be multiplied
- I-th step of the multiplication:
 - adding $A[I] \times B$ to PROD
 - then shifting B one bit to the left (i.e. multiplying it by 2)

Textbook multiplier

• Simple textbook add-shift multiplier:



- Optimised version of naive algorithm
- Can apply Hoare logic methods to verify correctness
 - see notes for (horrible) details of Hoare-style proof

Words as bit-strings (see notes for full details)

- Distinguish words from numbers different type
 Advantages: corresponds more to intuition words have a size
 - Disadvantage: can't use off-the-shelf theory of arithmetic
- Size of a word is denoted by |w|
- *n*th bit of *w* denoted by *w*[*n*]
- w[m:n] denotes bits m to n of w
- The word corresponding to a bit b is $\mathtt{Bw}(b)$
- Bv(b) is the number represented by bit b
- V(w) is the natural number represented by word w
- $\forall n \text{ maps number } m \text{ to the } n\text{-bit word representing it}$
- Concatenation of w_1 with w_2 denoted by w_1 - w_2
- w{n→b} denotes a word such that w[n] = b and is identical to w at all other bit positions (pad w with 0s at left if n ≥ |w|)
- The addition $w_1 \uplus w_2$ of w_1 and w_2 is defined by: $w_1 \uplus w_2 = \texttt{W} (\max(|w_1|, |w_2|) + 1) (\texttt{V}(w_1) + \texttt{V}(w_2))$
- b.w equals w if b = T and equals W |w| 0 if b = F

Words vs bits

- w[n:n] is the 1-bit word consisting of w[n]
- w[n] : bool
- w[n:n]: word
- Bits and 1-bit words are different types
- The word corresponding to a bit b is $\mathtt{Bw}(b)$
- Thus: Bw(b)[0] = b

Representing Numbers

- Natural number: $b_{n-1} \cdots b_0$ represents $2^{n-1} \times b_{n-1} + 2^{n-2} \times b_{n-2} + \cdots + 2^0 \times b_0$
- Integer: $b_{n-1} \cdots b_0$ represents

 $-2^{n-1} \times b_{n-1} + 2^{n-2} \times b_{n-2} + \dots + 2^0 \times b_0$

• this is the two's complement representation

- V(w) is the natural number represented by a w $V(b_{n-1}\cdots b_0) = 2^{n-1} \times b_{n-1} + 2^{n-2} \times b_{n-2} + \cdots + 2^0 \times b_0$
- Words can represent other values
 e.g. floating point numbers; opcodes
- Bv(b) is the number represented by b

Bv(T) = 1 and Bv(F) = 0

Arithmetic on bits and words

- The sum of bits a and b and a carry-in bit \boldsymbol{c}
 - is computed by $a \oplus b \oplus c$ (where \oplus is 'exclusive or')
 - and the carry-out by $(a \wedge b) \vee (c \wedge (a \oplus b))$

• This is verified by:

 $\begin{array}{lll} & \mathtt{Bv}(a \oplus b \oplus c) &=& (\mathtt{Bv}(a) + \mathtt{Bv}(b) + \mathtt{Bv}(c)) \bmod 2 \\ & \\ & \mathtt{Bv}((a \wedge b) \vee (c \wedge (a \oplus b))) &=& (\mathtt{Bv}(a) + \mathtt{Bv}(b) + \mathtt{Bv}(c)) \ \mathtt{div} \ 2 \end{array}$

1	Verification by enumeration								
•	Sum:								
	$a \ b$	c	$\mathtt{Bv}(a\oplus b\oplus c)$	$(\mathtt{Bv}(a)+\mathtt{Bv}$	$(b) + \operatorname{Bv}(c)) \mod 2$				
	1 1	1	1		1				
	1 1	0	0		0				
	$1 \ 0$	1	0		0				
	1 0	0	1		1				
	0 1	1	0		0				
	$0 \ 1$	0	1		1				
	0 0	1	1		1				
	0 0	0	0		0				
•	Car	ry	:						
	$a \ b$	c	$\mathrm{Bv}((a \wedge b) \vee (a \wedge b)) = (a \wedge b) \vee (a \vee b) \vee (a \wedge b)$	$c \wedge (a \oplus b)))$	$(\mathtt{Bv}(a)+\mathtt{Bv}(b)+\mathtt{E}$	$v(c)) \operatorname{div} 2$			
	1 1	1	1		1				
	1 1	0	1		1				
	$1 \ 0$	1	1		1				
	$1 \ 0$	0	0		0				
	0 1	1	1		1				
	0 1	0	0		0				
	0 0	1	0		0				
	0 0	0	0		0				

Verification of a ripple-carry adder of any size

• Let R be: $2^{I}Bv(CARRY) + V(SUM[I-1:0]) = V(A[I-1:0]) + V(B[I-1:0]) \land A = w_1 \land B = w_2$

• Consider the following annotated specification:

```
 \begin{split} & \{ \mathbf{A} = w_1 \ \land \ \mathbf{B} = w_2 \ \land \ \mathsf{SUM} = \mathsf{W} \ \mathsf{N} \ 0 \ \land \ \mathsf{CARRY} = \mathsf{F} \ \land \\ & \|w_1\| \leq \mathsf{N} \ \land \ \|w_2\| \leq \mathsf{N} \ \land \ \mathsf{N} > \mathsf{0} \} \\ & \mathsf{FOR} \ \mathsf{I} \ := \mathsf{0} \ \mathsf{UNTIL} \ \mathsf{N} - \mathsf{1} \ \mathsf{DO} \ \{ R \} \\ & \mathsf{BEGIN} \\ & \mathsf{SUM}[\mathsf{I}] := \mathsf{A} \ [\mathsf{I}] \oplus \mathsf{B} \ [\mathsf{I}] \oplus \mathsf{CARRY}; \\ & \mathsf{CARRY} := (\mathsf{A} \ [\mathsf{I}] \land \mathsf{B} \ [\mathsf{I}]) \lor (\mathsf{CARRY} \land (\mathsf{A} \ [\mathsf{I}] \oplus \mathsf{B} \ [\mathsf{I}])); \\ & \mathsf{END} \\ & \{ 2^{\mathsf{N}} \mathsf{Bv}(\mathsf{CARRY}) + \mathsf{V}(\mathsf{SUM}[\mathsf{N} - \mathsf{1} : \mathsf{0}]) \ = \ \mathsf{V}(\mathsf{A} \ [\mathsf{N} - \mathsf{1} : \mathsf{0}]) + \mathsf{V}(\mathsf{B} \ [\mathsf{N} - \mathsf{1} : \mathsf{0}]) \\ & \mathsf{A} = w_1 \ \land \ \mathsf{B} = w_2 \} \end{split}
```

- A, B are N-bit words, SUM, CARRY are truthvalues, I is an integer
- Proof horrible (omitted)

CA

Word multiplication program

- Simple add-shift multiplication
- Annotated correctness specification:

```
 \begin{cases} \mathsf{V}(\mathsf{A}) = a \land \mathsf{V}(\mathsf{B}) = b \land \mathsf{PROD} = \mathsf{W}(2\mathsf{N})0 \land \\ |\mathsf{A}| \leq \mathsf{N} \land |\mathsf{B}| \leq \mathsf{N} \land \mathsf{N} > 0 \\ \texttt{FOR I:=0 UNTIL N-1 DO} \\ \{2^{\mathsf{I}}\mathsf{V}(\mathsf{A}[\mathsf{N}-1:\mathsf{I}])b + \mathsf{V}(\mathsf{PROD}) = ab \land \mathsf{V}(\mathsf{B}) = 2^{\mathsf{I}}b \\ \texttt{BEGIN} \\ \texttt{PROD} := \mathsf{PROD} \uplus \mathsf{A}[\mathsf{I}].\mathsf{B}; \\ \mathsf{B} := \mathsf{B} \cdot \mathsf{O} \\ \texttt{END} \\ \{\mathsf{V}(\mathsf{PROD}) = ab \} \end{cases}
```

• Can generate VCs and prove them (horrible – omitted)

Topic shift: From programs to hardware (i.e. synthesis)

• Consider a ripple-carry adder

```
FOR I := 0 UNTIL N-1 D0
BEGIN
SUM[I]:=A[I]⊕B[I]⊕CARRY;
CARRY:=(A[I]∧B[I])∨(CARRY∧(A[I]⊕B[I]));
END
```

- If a particular value of ${\tt N}$ is fixed, then the program can be unrolled into the normal circuit for an adder.
- For example take N = 3 to get:
 FOR I := 0 UNTIL 2 D0
 BEGIN
 SUM[I]:=A[I]⊕B[I]⊕CARRY;
 CARRY:=(A[I]∧B[I])∨(CARRY∧(A[I]⊕B[I]));
 END

N=3 adder

```
3-bit adder:
      FOR I := 0 UNTIL 2 DO
       BEGIN
        SUM[I]:=A[I] + B[I] + CARRY;
        CARRY:=(A[I] \land B[I]) \lor (CARRY \land (A[I] \oplus B[I]));
       END
  Assuming initially CARRY = F; FOR-command unrolls to:
         SUM[0] := A[0] \oplus B[0] \oplus F;
         CARRY:=(A[0] \land B[0]) \lor (F \land (A[0] \oplus B[0]));
         SUM[1] := A[1] \oplus B[1] \oplus CARRY;
         CARRY := (A[1] \land B[1]) \lor (CARRY \land (A[1] \oplus B[1]));
         SUM[2] := A[2] \oplus B[2] \oplus CARRY;
         CARRY := (A[2] \land B[2]) \lor (CARRY \land (A[2] \oplus B[2]));
• Symbolically executing yields logic equations:
         SUM[0] := A[0] \oplus B[0];
         SUM[1] := A[1] \oplus B[1] \oplus (A[0] \land B[0]);
         \texttt{SUM[2]:=A[2]} \oplus \texttt{B[2]} \oplus
                        ((A[1] \land B[1]) \lor ((A[0] \land B[0]) \land (A[1] \oplus B[1])));
         CARRY :=(A[2]\landB[2])\lor
                     (((A[1] \land B[1]) \lor ((A[0] \land B[0]) \land (A[1] \oplus B[1]))) \land
                      (A[2] \oplus B[2]));
```

Combinational logic

- These are independent assignments
 boolean expressions for computing the values of SUM and CARRY directly in terms of the A[0], A[1], A[2], B[0], B[1] and B[2]
- This process yields logic for adders of arbitrary (fixed) bit-widths
- Hoare Logic verifies any adder generated this way

What about non-combinational logic?

- Unrolling commands to combinational logic is sensible for the adder
- Less so for multipliers
 - straightforward to unroll a multiplier into combinational logic
 - but resulting Boolean expressions will be huge
 - evaluating in one clock cycle likely to make the cycle time too slow
- Usually multipliers are sequential machines
 - compute the product over a number of cycles
 - might do the add and shift in a single cycle which would take ${\tt N}$ cycles
 - might do add and shift on separate cycles, taking $2\mathbb{N}$ shorter cycles
- Decision of whether to implement a particular function as combinational or sequential logic, and if sequential, how much to do each cycle, is a decision which depends on engineering issues

Specifying cycles

- Abstract view of multiplier:
 - computes a single state change
 - from initial values of the registers
 - to final values
- Adequate for functional correctness
 - i.e. it does multiplication
- Less abstract views needed for timing analysis

HDLs and events

- HDLs allow operations to be scheduled to clock cycles
- Statements can be prefixed by e
 the symbol e introduces an event control
- Multiplier that takes N cycles: FOR I := 0 UNTIL N-1 D0

 ●R := (R[0].B ⊎ R[2N-1:N]) - R[N-1:1]
- Multiplier that takes 2N cycles: FOR I := 0 UNTIL N-1 DO BEGIN

eSUM := R[0].B ⊎ R[2N-1:N]; eR := SUM-R[N-1:1] END



R = CARRY-P-A

In Verilog, event controls can be more detailed
 @(posedge clk) or @(negedge clk)

Need more than Hoare Logic

- Programs with added event controls can still be reasoned about using Floyd Hoare logic
 - relation between initial and final state unchanged
 - @'s just determine intermediate states at clock ticks
 - Consider this silly program: FOR I := 0 UNTIL N-1 D0 BEGIN •SUM := R[0].B \uplus R[2N-1:N]; B := \neg B; •R := SUM.R[N-1:1]; B := \neg B; END
- Same initial-final relation, but B oscillates
- Hoare specifications only deal with initial-final relation, not intermediate states
- Temporal logic enables properties of intermediate states to be specified
 e.g. B stable (false for silly program above)

Division program from Specification and Verification I

- Division program:
 - R:=X; Q:=O; WHILE Y≤R DO BEGIN R:=R-Y; Q:=Q+1 END
- Implemented as a machine
 - registers X, Y, Q and R
 - a subtracter and incrementer
 - \bullet on each cycle: subtract Y from R; add 1 to ${\tt Q}$
- Specification and Verification I:
 - program executes once and stops (maybe)
- Specification and Verification II:
 - program executes continuously
 - body of loop executed as combinational logic

Our toy language becomes an HDL

- To emphasize the continuously-running nature of hardware, recast division program as (where FOREVER is WHILE T DO): FOREVER IF Load=1 THEN X:=In1; Y:=In2; DONE:=0; R:=X; Q:=0 ELSE IF Y≤R THEN R:=R-Y; Q:=Q+1
 - ELSE DONE:=1
 - In1, In2 and Load are inputs whose value is determined by the environment (e.g. the user)
 - X, Y, Q, R and DONE are registers whose value is set by the program
- Environment sets the input Load to 1 to initialise registers
- To perform a division:
 - Load is set to 0
 - and held at this value until DONE=1
 - so the environment must ensure that DONE=0 \Rightarrow Load=0

FOREVER C

- Each iteration step consists of
 - \bullet Circuit C computes new values of registers from current values and inputs \bullet then updating the registers



Programs as temporal statements

• Would like a generalised Hoare Logic specification:

```
+ {If environment ensures always that: DONE=0 ⇒ Load=0
    and if Load is set to 1 when: In1 = x ∧ In2 = y}
FOREVER
    IF Load=1
    THEN X:=In1; Y:=In2; DONE:=0; R:=X; Q:=0
    ELSE IF Y≤R THEN R:=R-Y; Q:=Q+1
        ELSE DONE:=1
    {Then x and y will be stored into X and Y
    and on the next cycle DONE will be set to 0
    and sometime later DONE will be be set to 1
    and X and Y won't change until DONE is set to 1
    and when DONE goes to 1 we have: x = R + y×Q}
```

• Stuff in red needs Temporal Logic

Brief history of temporal logic

- 1950s: philosophers invent temporal logic (A.N. Prior of Oxford)
- 1970s: Burstall, Pnueli, Lamport use temporal logic for programs
- 1980s: Emerson, Clarke and other introduce model checking
- 1980s: hardware verification examples studied
- 1990s: model checking catches on: Intel hires many logicians for P7 verification. Uses STE. Currently developing higher order logic tools (*reFL*^{ed}).
- 1997: Amir Pnueli gets the Turing Award in recognition of his contribution to the applications of temporal logic
- 2004: temporal notation for properties debated and standardised
 semantics: CTL versus LTL
 syntax: PSL and SVA 'aligned'
- 2005 onwards: Assertion Based Verification (ABV) grows
 dynamic checking of properties by simulation (e.g. used at ARM)
 static checking by model checking
- 2008: Clarke, Emerson & Sifakis get Turing prize for model checking
- 2008: Clarke gets 2008 CADE Herbrand Award
- Note: work on formal methods leads to high prestige awards!

Rest of the course

- First look at 'raw' higher order logic for specification and verification
 - temporal logic is a notation for specifying properties of traces
 - first look at reasoning directly about traces in higher order logic
- Towards the end of the course we return to temporal logic
 - look at its constructs
 - semantics via a shallow embedding in higher order logic
 - look at the 'Industry Standard' logic PSL
 - overview some key ideas for model checking temporal logic properties

Limitations of the Method

- Formal proof can't guarantee actual chips will work:
 - design models are not always accurate
 - there may be fabrication defects
- Specifications may not capture requirements:
 - large specifications may be unreadable
 - some input conditions may be ignored

Modelling Hardware in Higher Order Logic

Original slides by Tom Melham and Michael Norrish (edited by Mike Gordon)

Modelling Hardware: TFM/MN/MJCG - p.3/32

Why Formal Specification?





This can be specified informally by

The input line *datain* accepts a stream of bits, and the output line *dataout* emits the same stream delayed by four cycles. The bus *out* is four bits wide. If the input *sample* is false then the 4-bit word at *out* is the last four bits input at *datain*. Otherwise, the output word is all zeros.

Hardware Verification Method

- Classical method of hardware verification:
 - 1. write a specification of intended behaviour Spec
 - 2. write specifications of the design components Part-1, ... Part-n
 - 3. define a formal model of the design \vdash Design = Part-1 + \cdots + Part-*n*
 - 4. formulate and prove correctness ⊢ Design satisfies Spec
- This general verification approach
 - underlies various specific formal methods
 - requires mechanized support for large designs
 - is usually applied hierarchically



Modelling Hardware: TFM/MN/MJCG - p.1/32

Specification Examples

• Simple combinational behaviour:



- $\vdash Xor(i_1, i_2, o) = (o = \neg(i_1 = i_2))$
- Bidirectional wires:



$$\vdash \mathsf{Ntran}(g, s, d) = (g \Rightarrow (d = s))$$

Why Formal Specification?

The informal specification is

- vague: does 'the last four bits input' include the current bit?
- incomplete: what is the value at *dataout* during the first three cycles?
- unusable: a natural language specification can't be simulated or compiled!

Modelling Hardware: TFM/MN/MJCG - p.5/32

Specification Examples





 $\vdash \mathsf{Dtype}(ck, d, q) = \forall t. q(t+1) = (\mathsf{if} \operatorname{\mathsf{Rise}} ck \ t \ \mathsf{then} \ d \ t \ \mathsf{else} \ q \ t)$ $\vdash \operatorname{\mathsf{Rise}} ck \ t = \neg ck(t) \land ck(t+1)$

Formal Specification in HOL

• Consider the following device:



This is specified by a boolean term S[a, b, c, d] with free variables a, b, c, and d.

• The idea is that

• S

• *a*, *b*, *c*, *d* model externally-observable values

$$[a, b, c, d] = \begin{cases} \mathsf{T} & \text{if } a, b, c, \text{ and } d \text{ could occur} \\ & \text{simultaneously on the} \\ & \text{corresponding external wires of the} \\ & \text{device Dev} \\ \mathsf{F} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Modelling Hardware: TFM/MN/MJCG – p.8/32

Modelling Hardware: TFM/MN/MJCG - p.7/32

Composing Behaviours

• Consider the following two devices:



• Logical conjunction (∧) models the effect of connecting components together:



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Specification of the Sampler

• We can specify the sampler formally by

 $\forall t$:time.

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Hiding Internal Structure

• Consider the composite device



• Existential quantification (∃) models the effect of making wires internal to the design:



• Existential quantification is called a *hiding* operator—it 'hides' internal wires.

Specification of the Sampler

• We can specify the sampler formally by

 $\forall t$:time.

- The formal specification is
 - precise: 'last four bits input' doesn't include current bit
 - complete: can infer that *dataout* equals *datain*(0) during the first three cycles.
 - usable: logic notation can be processed by machine

Hiererchical Verification

The hierarchical verification method:



Hierarchical Design—Advantages

- Each type of module verified only once
 - the statement of its correctness will be reused many times
- Controls complexity through abstraction
 - each verification is done at the appropriate level of complexity

Shallow embedding of Verilog

• Some typical structural Verilog

module COMP (p1, ... ,pm);
wire w1, ..., wn;

COMP1 M1 (...); COMP2 M2 (...);

endmodule

- Assume formulas for COMP1, COMP2 already defined
- Logical representation:

 $\mathtt{COMP}(\mathtt{p1},...,\mathtt{pm}) = \exists \mathtt{w1} \ ... \ \mathtt{wn.} \ \mathtt{COMP1}(...) \ \land \ \mathtt{COMP2}(...)$

Modelling Hardware: TFM/MN/MJCG – p.12/32

Formulating Correctness

- A key part of formal hardware verification is formalizing what 'correctness' *means*.
- The strongest formulation is *equivalence*:

 $\vdash \forall v_1 \dots v_n. \mathbf{M}[v_1, \dots, v_n] = \mathbf{S}[v_1, \dots, v_n]$

• For *partial* specifications, use *implication*:

$$\vdash \forall v_1 \dots v_n. \ \mathbf{M}[v_1, \dots, v_n] \Rightarrow \mathbf{S}[v_1, \dots, v_n]$$

• In general, the satisfaction relationship

$$\vdash \mathbf{M}[v_1, \dots, v_n] \quad \mathbf{sat}_{abs} \quad \mathbf{S}[abs(v_1), \dots, abs(v_n)]$$

must be one of *abstraction*. The specification will be an abstraction of the design model. Various kinds of abstractions on signals (*abs*) will be discussed later.

Design Model and Correctness

- We define the design model using composition and hiding, as follows:
 - $\vdash \operatorname{Inv}(i, o) =$
 - $\exists g p. \text{Pwr } p \land \text{Gnd } g \land$ Ntran $(i, g, o) \land \text{Ptran}(i, p, o)$



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• Correctness is formulated by the equivalence:

$$\vdash \forall i o. \operatorname{Inv}(i, o) = (o = \neg i)$$

This follows by purely logical inference...

A Simple Correctness Proof

- Here is the design of a CMOS inverter:
- Suppose we wish to verify that $o = \neg i$.
- There are three steps:
 - define a model of the circuit in logic
 - formulate the correctness of the circuit
 - prove the correctness of the circuit

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The Correctness Proof

• Definition of Inv:

$$\begin{aligned} -\operatorname{Inv}(i,o) &= \\ \exists g \, p. \; \operatorname{\mathsf{Pwr}} \, p \wedge \operatorname{\mathsf{Gnd}} \, g \wedge \\ &\operatorname{\mathsf{Ntran}}(i,g,o) \wedge \operatorname{\mathsf{Ptran}}(i,p,o) \end{aligned}$$

• Expanding with definitions:

$$\begin{aligned} \exists g \ p. \ (p = \mathsf{T}) \land (g = \mathsf{F}) \land \\ (i \Rightarrow (o = g)) \land (\neg i \Rightarrow (o = p)) \end{aligned}$$

• By simple logical reasoning:

$$\vdash \mathsf{Inv}(i, o) = (i \Rightarrow (o = \mathsf{F})) \land (\neg i \Rightarrow (o = \mathsf{T}))$$

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CMOS Primitives

• Formal specifications of primitives:

$$g \rightarrow d \qquad \vdash \mathsf{Ptran}(g, s, d) = (\neg g \Rightarrow (d = s))$$

$$g \rightarrow d \qquad \vdash \mathsf{Ntran}(g, s, d) = (g \Rightarrow (d = s))$$

$$g \rightarrow d \qquad \vdash \mathsf{Rnd} \ g = (g = \mathsf{F})$$

$$g \rightarrow \mathsf{Pwr} \ p = (p = \mathsf{T})$$
• This is the so-called *switch model* of CMOS.

Another Example

• An (n+1)-bit ripple-carry adder:



• We wish to prove that:

$$(2^{n+1} \times cout) + s = a + b + cir$$

- There are, as usual, three steps:
 - define a model of the circuit in logic
 - formulate the correctness of the circuit
 - prove the correctness of the circuit

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The Correctness Proof continued

• Simplifying gives:

$$\vdash \mathsf{Inv}(i,o) = (i \Rightarrow \neg o) \land (\neg i \Rightarrow o)$$

• By the law of the contrapositive:

$$\vdash \mathsf{Inv}(i,o) = (o \Rightarrow \neg i) \land (\neg i \Rightarrow o)$$

• By the definition of boolean equality:

 $\vdash \mathsf{Inv}(i, o) = (o = \neg i)$

• Generalizing the free variables gives:

$$\vdash \forall i \, o. \, \mathsf{Inv}(i, o) = (o = \neg i)$$

Modelling Hardware: TFM/MN/MJCG – p.20/32

Defining the Model: types

- Specification uses numbers, i.e. values of type *num*
- Implementation uses words values of type word
 - n^{th} bit of w denoted by w[n]
 - w [m:n] denotes bits m to n of w
 - Bv(b) is the number represented by bit b
 - V(w) is the natural number represented by word w
- Abstraction from words to numbers (data abstraction):

$$\vdash \mathsf{Bv} \ b = \mathsf{if} \ b \ \mathsf{then} \ 1 \ \mathsf{else} \ 0$$

$$\vdash \mathsf{V} \ w[0:0] = \mathsf{Bv} \ w[0]$$

$$\vdash \mathsf{V} \ w[n+1:0] = 2^{n+1} (\mathsf{Bv} \ w[n+1]) \ + \ \mathsf{V} \ w[n:0]$$

$$\mathsf{Modelling Hardware: TEM/MNMJCG - p.23/32}$$

Scope of the Method

- The inverter example is, of course, trivial!
- But the same method has been applied to
 - a commercial CMOS cell library
 - several complete microprocessors (e.g. ARM)
 - floating point algorithms and hardware
- Features of the approach:
 - the specification language is just logic * logic can mimic HDL constructs
 - the rules of reasoning are also pure logic
 * special-purpose derived rules are possible
 - big formal proofs require machine assistance

Defining the Model

• Recursive view of an n+1-bit adder:



Defining the Model: recursive definition

• If n > 0 an (n+1)-bit adder is built from an *n*-bit adder



Formulation of Correctness

• Logical formulation of correctness:

Spec
$$n(a, b, cin, s, cout) = ((2^{n+1} cout) + s = a + b + cin)$$

 $\forall n \ a \ b \ cin \ s \ cout.$ AdderImp n (a, b, cin, s, cout) Spec n (V a[n:0], V b[n:0], Bv cin, V s[n:0], Bv cout)

- Note the data abstraction (*abs* in an earlier slide)
- This is easy to prove (done later in the course)

Defining the Model: Add1

• Diagram of a 1-bit full adder:



- Lines a, b, cin, sum and cout carry boolean values
- Specification (note data abstraction from *bool* to *num*):

Add1(a, b, cin, sum, cout) = $(2 \times Bv(cout) + Bv(sum) = Bv(a) + Bv(b) + Bv(cin))$

Formulating Correctness

• Then correctness is stated by:

$$\vdash \forall ck. \operatorname{Inf}(\operatorname{Rise} ck) \Rightarrow \\ \forall d q. \operatorname{Dtype}(ck, d, q) \Rightarrow \\ \operatorname{Del}(d \text{ when } (\operatorname{Rise} ck), q \text{ when } (\operatorname{Rise} ck))$$

• Note the formal *validity condition*:

$$\vdash \inf P = \forall t. \exists t'. t' > t \land P t$$

Temporal Abstraction



- Notions of time involved:
 - coarse grain of time— unit time = 1 clock cycle
 - fine grain of time—unit time ≈ 1 gate delay

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Industry use of theorem proving

- Intel
 - floating point algorithms (uses HOL Light system)
 - hardware (uses internal tools Forte/reFL^{ect})
- AMD
 - floating point (uses ACL2 prover)
- Sun
 - high level architecture verification (PVS)
- Rockwell Collins
 - low level code verification (ACL2)

- Use of model checking widespread
 - discussed in latter part of the course

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Formulating Correctness

• A mapping between time-scales:



• Define the temporal abstraction functions:

 \vdash Timeof P $n = the time on t_c such that P true for nth time$

 $\vdash signal \text{ when } P = signal \circ (\mathsf{Timeof } P)$ where $(f \circ g)x = f(g x)$ [\circ is function composition]

Summary

- Specifying behaviour:
 - predicates—S[a, b, c, d]
- Specifying structure:
 - composition— $S_1[a, x] \land S_2[x, b]$
 - hiding— $\exists x. S_1[a, x] \land S_2[x, b]$
- Formulating correctness:
 - $\vdash \forall v_1 \ldots v_n$. $\mathbf{M}[v_1, \ldots, v_n] = \mathbf{S}[v_1, \ldots, v_n]$
 - $\vdash \forall v_1 \ldots v_n$. $\mathbf{M}[v_1, \ldots, v_n] \Rightarrow \mathbf{S}[v_1, \ldots, v_n]$

•
$$\vdash \forall v_1 \ldots v_n$$
. $\mathbf{M}[v_1, \ldots, v_n] \Rightarrow \mathbf{S}[abs \ v_1, \ldots, abs \ v_n]$

- Abstraction
 - data: $w \mapsto V(w)$
 - temporal: $sig \mapsto sig$ when (Rise clk)

Modelling Hardware: TFM/MN/MJCG – p.32/32

A 1-bit CMOS full adder

• Here is a diagram of a 1-bit full adder:



• Lines a, b, cin, sum and cout carry the boolean values T or F.

• Specification of the adder:

 $Add1(a, b, cin, sum, cout) \equiv$ $(2 \times \mathsf{Bv}(cout) + \mathsf{Bv}(sum) = \mathsf{Bv}(a) + \mathsf{Bv}(b) + \mathsf{Bv}(cin))$

• A correct implementation has:

- lines a, b, cin, sum and cout
- constrains a, b, cin, sum and, cout so Add1(a, b, cin, sum, cout)

Implementation

- A CMOS implementation of the adder:
 - lines with the same name are connected
 - \bullet lines p0, \ldots , p11 are internal
 - horizontal transistors are bidirectional





• Verify by Boolean algebra (tedious) or exhaustive enumeration

An *n*-bit adder

- $\bullet\,$ $\mathit{n}\mbox{-bit}$ adder computes an $\mathit{n}\mbox{-bit}$ sum and 1-bit carry-out from two *n*-bit inputs and a 1-bit carry-in
- Diagram:

- cin and cout carry single bits, i.e. Booleans •
- a, b and sum carry *n*-bit words •
- Adder *n* specifies an *n*+1-bit adder !!!
- Example: Adder(3) specifies a 4-bit adder

Specification

• The definition of Adder is:

 $\begin{array}{l} \operatorname{Adder}(n)(a,b,cin,sum,cout) \\ \end{array} \\ \left(2^{n+1} \times \operatorname{Bv}(cout) + \operatorname{V}(sum\left[n:0\right]\right) = \\ \operatorname{V}(a\left[n:0\right]) + \operatorname{V}(b\left[n:0\right]) + \operatorname{Bv}(cin)) \end{array}$

• Diagram of implementation:



• By primitive recursion:

 $\begin{array}{l} \texttt{Adder_Imp}(n+1)(a,b,cin,sum,cout) \; \equiv \\ \exists c. \; \texttt{Adder_Imp}(n)(a,b,cin,sum,c) \; \land \\ \; \texttt{Add1}(a[n+1],b[n+1],c,sum[n+1],cout) \end{array}$

Verification:

• Prove by induction on n that for all n: Adder_Imp(n)(a, b, cin, sum, cout) \Rightarrow Adder(n)(a, b, cin, sum, cout)

• Basis:

```
\begin{array}{l} \texttt{Adder\_Imp}(0)(a,b,cin,sum,cout) \\ \Rightarrow \\ \texttt{Adder}(0)(a,b,cin,sum,cout) \end{array}
```

- Expanding definitions of Adder_Imp and Adder: $\begin{array}{l} \operatorname{Add1}(a[0], b[0], cin, sum[0], cout) \\ \overrightarrow{o} \\ (2^{0+1} \times \operatorname{Bv}(cout) + \operatorname{V}(sum[0:0]) = \operatorname{V}(a[0:0]) + \operatorname{V}(b[0:0]) + \operatorname{Bv}(cin)) \end{array}$
- Expanding definition of Add1 and simplifying: $\begin{array}{l} (2 \times \mathtt{Bv}(cout) + \mathtt{Bv}(sum[0]) = \mathtt{Bv}(a[0]) + \mathtt{Bv}(b[0]) + \mathtt{Bv}(cin)) \\ \Rightarrow \\ (2 \times \mathtt{Bv}(cout) + \mathtt{V}(sum[0:0]) = \mathtt{V}(a[0:0]) + \mathtt{V}(b[0:0]) + \mathtt{Bv}(cin)) \end{array}$
- Follows by V(w[0:0]) = Bv(w[0])

Induction step

• Step:

 $\begin{array}{l} (\texttt{Adder}_\texttt{Imp}(n)(a,b,cin,sum,cout) \Rightarrow \\ \texttt{Adder}(n)(a,b,cin,sum,cout)) \\ \Rightarrow \end{array}$

 $\begin{array}{l} (\texttt{Adder_Imp}(n+1)(a,b,cin,sum,cout)) \Rightarrow \\ \texttt{Adder}(n+1)(a,b,cin,sum,cout)) \end{array}$

• Assume:

 $\begin{array}{l} (\texttt{Adder_Imp}(n)(a,b,cin,sum,cout)) \Rightarrow \\ \texttt{Adder}(n)(a,b,cin,sum,cout)) \end{array}$

• Then show:

- $\texttt{Adder_Imp}(n{+}1)(a,b,cin,sum,cout)$
- = $\exists c. \text{Adder_Imp}(n)(a, b, cin, sum, c) \land$
- $$\begin{split} & \texttt{Add1}(a \texttt{[}n+\texttt{1]}, b \texttt{[}n+\texttt{1]}, c, sum \texttt{[}n+\texttt{1]}, cout) \\ \Rightarrow \ \exists c. \ \texttt{Adder}(n)(a, b, cin, sum, c) \ \land \end{split}$$

Add1(a[n+1], b[n+1], c, sum[n+1], cout)

 $= \begin{array}{l} \exists c. \ (2^{n+1} \mathsf{Bv}(c) + \mathtt{V}(sum \llbracket n:0 \rrbracket) = \mathtt{V}(a \llbracket n:0 \rrbracket) + \mathtt{V}(b \llbracket n:0 \rrbracket) + \mathtt{Bv}(cin)) \\ \land \end{array}$

 $(2\mathtt{Bv}(cout)+\mathtt{Bv}(sum\,\texttt{[}n+\mathtt{1]}\,)=\mathtt{Bv}(a\,\texttt{[}n+\mathtt{1]}\,)+\mathtt{Bv}(b\,\texttt{[}n+\mathtt{1]}\,)+\mathtt{Bv}(c))$

Step continued

If: $(A = B) \land (C = D)$ then it follows that (\Rightarrow) $(A + 2^{n+1}C) = (B + 2^{n+1}D)$ hence:

 $\exists c. \ \overbrace{(2^{n+1}\mathsf{Bv}(c) + \mathsf{V}(sum[n:0])}^{\mathcal{A}} = \overbrace{\mathsf{V}(a[n:0]) + \mathsf{V}(b[n:0]) + \mathsf{Bv}(cin)}^{\mathcal{B}}$

 $\underbrace{(2\mathtt{Bv}(cout)+\mathtt{Bv}(sum\,[n+1])}_{}=\mathtt{Bv}(a\,[n+1])+\mathtt{Bv}(b\,[n+1])+\mathtt{Bv}(c)$

$$\Rightarrow \exists c. \ 2^{n+1} \mathbb{B} \mathbf{v}(c) + \overline{\mathbf{V}(sum[n:0])} + 2^{n+1} 2\mathbb{B} \mathbf{v}(cout) + 2^{n+1} \mathbb{B} \mathbf{v}(sum[n+1]) \\ = \overline{\mathbf{V}(a[n:0]) + \mathbf{V}(b[n:0]) + \mathbb{B} \mathbf{v}(cin)} \\ + 2^{n+1} \mathbb{B} \mathbf{v}(a[n+1]) + 2^{n+1} \mathbb{B} \mathbf{v}(b[n+1]) + 2^{n+1} \mathbb{B} \mathbf{v}(c) \\ 2^{n+1} D \end{bmatrix}$$

 $= \exists c. (V(sum[n+1:0]) + 2^{n+2}Bv(cout) = V(a[n+1:0]) + V(b[n+1:0]) + Bv(cin))$

 $= (\mathsf{V}(sum[n+1:0]) + 2^{n+2}\mathsf{Bv}(cout) = \mathsf{V}(a[n+1:0]) + \mathsf{V}(b[n+1:0]) + \mathsf{Bv}(cin))$

 $= \ \texttt{Adder}(n{+}1)(a,b,cin,sum,cout))$

Sequential Devices

• Pure combinational adder:

 $\begin{array}{l} \operatorname{Adder}(n)(a,b,cin,sum,cout) \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{l} (2^{n+1} \times \operatorname{Bv}(cout) + \operatorname{V}(sum\left[n:0\right]) = \\ \\ \operatorname{V}(a\left[n:0\right]) + \operatorname{V}(b\left[n:0\right]) + \operatorname{Bv}(cin)) \end{array}$

- a, b and sum range over words
- cin and cout range over bits (Booleans)
- Zero-delay adder: Combinational_Adder(n)(a, b, cin, sum, cout) = $\forall t. \ \text{Adder}(n)(a(t), b(t), cin(t), sum(t), cout(t))$
- a, b and sum range over functions from time to words
- cin and cout range over functions from time to bits

• Unit-delay adder:

Textbook add-shift multiplier

• A standard add-shift multiplier:



- This can be verified directly
- Verification can be done directly in HOL or using Hoare Logic
- HOL proof by induction on word size
 - essence the of proofs (the invariant) are the same
 - compare sections 1.8 and 2.7 of notes (only if you enjoy messy details)

An edge-triggered Dtype

- Register-transfer (RT) level:
 - abstract level in which devices are viewed as sequential machines
 - registers are modelled as unit-delay elements without explicit clock lines
 - used for previous multipliers
- Trace level (N.B. not standard terminology):
 - closer to HDL simulation timescale
- clocks explicit, edges modelled used for various degress of 'temporal granularity'
- Dtype a fine grain trace level example



g

Specification of Dtype

- the clock ck has a rising edge at time t_1 , and
- the next rising edge of ck is at t_2 , and
- \bullet the value at ${\tt d}$ is stable for ${\tt c}_1$ units of time before t_1 $(c_1 \text{ is the setup time})$, and
- \bullet there are at least c_2 units of time between t_1 and t_2
- $(c_2 \text{ constrains the minimum clock period})$

then

- the value at **q** will be stable from c_3 units of time after t_1 (c_3 is the *start time*) until c_4 units of time after t_2 (c_4 is the *finish time*), and
- \bullet the value at q between the start and finish times will equal the value held stable at d during the setup time.



Rising edges

Notes are confused!

- Page 43:
- $\texttt{Rise}_1(f)(t) ~\equiv~ (f(t{-}1) = \texttt{F}) ~\wedge~ (f(t) = \texttt{T})$
- Page 65:

 $\texttt{Rise}_2(f)(t) = \neg f(t) \wedge f(t{+}1)$

- However: $\forall f \ t. \ t > 0 \Rightarrow \ (\texttt{Rise}_1(f)(t) = \texttt{Rise}_2(f)(t-1))$ $\forall f \ t. \ t \ge 0 \Rightarrow \ (\texttt{Rise}_2(f)(t) = \texttt{Rise}_1(f)(t+1))$
- In Accellera standard language PSL function $Rise_1$ is called Rose

3

Some temporal operators in Higher Order Logic

• Define:

 $\texttt{Next}(t_1,t_2)(f) ~\equiv~ t_1 < t_2 ~~\wedge~~ f(t_2) ~~\wedge~~ \forall t.~t_1 < t ~~\wedge~~ t < t_2 \Rightarrow \neg f(t)$

4

• Define:

 $\mathtt{Stable}(t_1, t_2)(f) \equiv \forall t. \ t_1 \leq t \land t < t_2 \Rightarrow (f(t) = f(t_1))$

• These are raw higher order logic not temporal logic various temporal logics are described later



Notation for writing proofs & how proof assistants work

- Write formula to be proved (the goal) above a dotted line ٠
- Write assumptions (numbered) below the line
- For example, initially we start with no assumptions
 - ∀inp out. (out 0 = T) \wedge $(\forall t. out(t+1) = if inp(t+1) then \neg(out t) else out t) \Rightarrow$ $(\forall t. out t = PARITY inp t)$
- First step is to consider arbitrary inp and out and then to assume the antecedents of the implication and try to prove the conclusion
 - $\forall t. out t = PARITY inp t$ 0. out 0 = T $\forall t. \mbox{ out } (t{+}1) \mbox{ = if inp } (t{+}1) \mbox{ then } \neg(\mbox{ out } t) \mbox{ else out } t$ 1.
- Proof assistants let users perform proof steps on proof states
- The proofs here are derived from the HOL4 system, but other tools like ProofPower, Isabelle and PVS are based on related ideas
 - details of proof state and proof steps differ
 - in HOL and ProofPower proof steps are performed via ML functions
 - Isabelle has a declarative interface, Isar, inspired by Mizar
 - in Acl2 and PVS proof steps are performed via Lisp functions

A Proof by induction

• Start with the following proof state

```
∀inp out.
    , out 0 = T) \land (\forall t. \ out(t+1) = if \ inp(t+1) \ then \ \neg(out \ t) \ else \ out \ t) \Rightarrow
    (∀t. out t = PARITY inp t)
```

• As on previous slide, consider arbitrary inp and out and then to assume the antecedents of the implication

∀t. out t = PARITY inp t 0. out 0 = T

 $\forall t. \mbox{ out (t+1)}$ = if inp(t+1) then $\neg(\mbox{ out } t)$ else out t 1.

• Now do induction on t – this creates a proof state with two subgoals

out 0 = PARITY inp 0

- [the basis of the induction] 0. out 0 = T 1. ∀t. out(t+1) = if inp(t+1) then ¬(out t) else out t

out(t+1) = PARITY inp (t+1)

- 0. out 0 = T $\forall t. out(t+1) = if inp(t+1) then \neg(out t) else out t$ 1.
- out t = PARITY inp t [induction hypothesis added to assumptions] 2.

10

[the step of the induction]

Next step: unfold definition of PARITY

Recall definition of PARITY

```
|- (\forall f. PARITY f 0 = T)
```

 $\forall n$ f. PARITY f (n+1) = if f(n+1) then \neg PARITY f n else PARITY f n • Unfolding (rewriting with) the definition of PARITY in

```
out 0 = PARITY inp 0
```

[the basis of the induction] 0. out 0 = T

 $\forall t. out(t+1) = if inp(t+1) then \neg(out t) else out t$ 1.

out(t+1) = PARITY inp (t+1)

- ----- [the step of the induction] 0. out 0 = T
- $\forall t. out(t+1) = if inp(t+1) then \neg(out t) else out t out t = PARITY inp t$
- 2.

Yields •

- out 0 = T

 - 0. out 0 = T1. $\forall t. out(t+1) = if inp(t+1) then \neg(out t) else out t$
 - out(t+1) = if inp(t+1) then ¬PARITY inp t else PARITY inp t
 - 0. out 0 = T
 - 1.
 - out $\upsilon = 1$ $\forall t. out(t+1) = if inp(t+1) then \neg(out t) else out t$ out t = PARITY inp t 2.

Goal now easily proved

• Proof state from last slide

out 0 = T

- 0. out 0 = T 1. $\forall t. out(t+1) = if inp(t+1) then \neg(out t) else out t$
- out(t+1) = if inp(t+1) then $\neg PARITY$ inp t else PARITY inp t
- 0. out 0 = T $\forall t. out(t+1) = if inp(t+1) then \neg(out t) else out t$ 1. out t = PARITY inp t
- Basis: goal follows from assumption 0
- Step: substitute assumption 2 into assumption 1
- Call theorem just proved UNIQUENESS_LEMMA

UNIQUENESS_LEMMA =

|- ∀inp out. (out 0 = T) ^ ($\forall t. out(t+1)$ = if inp(t+1) then $\neg(out t)$ else out t) \Rightarrow $\forall t. out t = PARITY inp t$



- Assume registers 'power up' storing F
- Thus the output at time 0 cannot be taken directly from a register
 because the output of the parity checker at time 0 is specified to be T



16

Components





Digression on defining Timeof

- How do we define the temporal abstraction function:

 Fimeof P n = the concrete time t_c such that P true for nth time
- What if there is no time such that P true for *n*th time • for example, if *P* is never true
- Need to actually define:

 $\vdash \texttt{Timeof P} \ n = the \ time \ t_c \ such \ that \ \texttt{P} \ true \ for \ nth \ time, \ \textit{if such a time exists}$

25

• But then what is Timeof P n if no such time exists?

Hilbert's epsilon-operator to the rescue

- $\epsilon x. t[x]$ is an epsilon-term
- The meaning of ϵx . t[x] is specified by an axiom:
 - $\forall P. (\exists x. P x) \Rightarrow P(\epsilon x. P x)$
- $\epsilon x. t[x]$ denotes some value, v say, such that t[v], if $\exists t. t[x]$
- $\epsilon x. t[x]$ denotes some arbitrary value if $\forall t. \neg t[x]$
 - of the type of t[x]
 - all types are assumed non-empty
- The ϵ -operator builds the Axiom of Choice into the logic

Definition of Timeof

- Recall the Next operator Next t1 t2 sig = t1<t2 \land sig t2 \land $\forall t.$ t1<t \land t<t2 \Rightarrow $\neg(sig$ t)
- Define IsTimeof n sig t
 to mean "t is when sig is true for the n-th time"
 (IsTimeof 0 sig t = (sig t ∧ ∀t'. t'<t ⇒ ¬(sig t')))
 ∧
 (IsTimeof (n+1) sig t = ∃t'. IsTimeof n sig t' ∧ Next t' t sig)
- Define Timeof using ε-operator and IsTimeof Timeof sig n = εt. IsTimeof n sig t
- IsTimeof and Timeof are higher-order total functions

Temporal abstraction

- Define f@ck to be signal f abstracted on rising edges of ck
- |- f@ck = f when (Rise ck)
- Recall definition of REG
 - |- REG(inp,out) = $\forall t$. out t = if (t=0) then F else inp(t-1)
- It follows easily that
- The properties below also follow (why?)
 - $|\text{- Inf(Rise ck)} \ \Rightarrow \ \texttt{DtypeF(ck,d,q)} \ \Rightarrow \ \texttt{REG(d@ck, q@ck)}$
 - |- MUX(switch, i1, i2, out)
 - MUX(switch@ck, i1@ck, i2@ck, out@ck)
 - |- NOT(inp, out) \Rightarrow NOT(inp@ck, out@ck)
 - |- ONE out \Rightarrow ONE(out@ck)
- $\bullet \quad \mathbf{Hint:} \ \vdash \ \forall f. \ (\forall x. \ P(x)) \ \Rightarrow \ (\forall x. \ P(f(x))) \quad \mathbf{take} \ f = x \mapsto x \mathtt{@ck}$

Cycle and trace versions • Compare |- PARITY_IMP(inp,out) = ∃11 12 13 14 15. NOT(12,11) \land MUX(inp,11,12,13) \land REG(out,12) \land \wedge REG(14,15) ^ MUX(15,13,14,out) ONE 14 |- DtypePARITY_IMP(ck,inp,out) = ∃11 12 13 14 15. NOT(12,11) \land MUX(inp,11,12,13) \land DtypeF(ck,out,12) \land ONE 14 ∧ DtypeF(ck,14,15) ∧ MUX(15,13,14,out) • Hence by implications on previous slide |- Inf(Rise ck) $\texttt{DtypePARITY_IMP(ck,inp,out)} \Rightarrow \texttt{PARITY_IMP(inp@ck, out@ck)}$ • use $(A \Rightarrow B) \land (\cdots \land A \cdots) \Rightarrow (\cdots \land B \cdots)$ • then use $(A \Rightarrow B) \land (\exists l. A) \Rightarrow (\exists l. B)$

• then use $(\exists l. \cdots l \text{ on } ck \cdots) \Rightarrow (\exists l. \cdots l \cdots)$

Trace level verification

• Proved earlier

```
|- \forall \text{inp out. PARITY_IMP(inp,out)} \Rightarrow \forall t. out t = PARITY inp t
```

- Specialising inp to inp@ck and out to out@cl

 - $\forall t. (out@ck) t = PARITY (inp@ck) t$
- From previous slide
 - |- Inf(Rise ck)

 $\texttt{DtypePARITY_IMP(ck,inp,out)} \ \Rightarrow \ \texttt{PARITY_IMP(inp@ck, out@ck)}$

- Hence, by transitivity of \Rightarrow
 - |- Inf(Rise ck)
 - DtypePARITY_IMP(ck, inp, out)
 - $\forall t. (out@ck) t = PARITY (inp@ck) t$
- This is a typical correctness result using temporal abstraction

20

NEW TOPIC: modelling transistors

• Recall simple switch model of CMOS

• This is the so-called *switch model* of CMOS.



















An earlier slide on Hoare logic for hardware

• Would like a generalised Hoare Logic specification:

- ⊢ {If environment ensures always that: DONE=0 ⇒ Load=0
 and if Load is set to 1 when: In1 = x ∧ In2 = y}
 FOREVER
 IF Load=1
 THEN X:=In1; Y:=In2; DONE:=0; R:=X; Q:=0
 ELSE IF Y≤R THEN R:=R-Y; Q:=Q+1
 ELSE DONE:=1
 {Then x and y will be stored into X and Y
 and on the next cycle DONE will be set to 0
 and sometime later DONE will be be set to 1
 and X and Y won't change until DONE is set to 1
 and when DONE goes to 1 we have: x = R + y×Q}
- Stuff in red needs Temporal Logic

Specification and Verification II

DONE SO FAR:

• Higher-order logic used directly for specification and verification

• various abstraction levels from transistors to high-level behaviour

- COMING NEXT:
- Temporal logic
 - various constructs and time models: CTL, LTL
 - the 'Industry Standard' logic PSL
 - semantics via a shallow embedding in higher order logic
 - overview key ideas for model checking temporal logic properties
- Simulation (Verilog, VHDL) compared with formal verification

66

Aside: finding bugs versus providing assurance

65

Formal verification based debugging	Proof of correctness
proof failure \Rightarrow bugs	proof success \Rightarrow assurance
practical for real code	expensive and often impractical
unsound models OK	needs high fidelity models
unsafe implementation methods OK	important to use trustworthy tools

- A bug is a bug no matter how found!
- Assurance mainly supported by certification agencies
- safety and security critical systems
- Companies (Intel, AMD, MS) mostly use FV for debugging

• A current research goal:

adapt bug-finding verification methods for correctness assurance

- validate models used for debugging
- deductive (hence sound) implementations of known verification methods

NEW TOPIC: Model Checking

- Models as state transition systems
- Reachability properties
- Counterexamples (used for debugging)
- Binary Decision Diagrams BDDs
- Symbolic reachability checking
- A general property language: CTL
- Semantics in HOL (shallow embedding)
- Examples of CTL properties
- Overview of model checking (explicit state and symbolic)
- Linear Temporal Logic (LTL)
- Expressibility, CTL*
- Interval Temporal Logic (ITL)
- Accellera Property Specification Language (Sugar/PSL)



Explicit state property checking

- Goal: check some property P holds of all reachable states
 - e.g. P(s) means s has no errors
- Represent sets of states somehow
- Start with $S_0 = \{s \mid \mathcal{B} s\}$
- Iteratively compute with $S_{n+1} = S_n \cup \{s \mid \exists u. u \in S_n \land \mathcal{R}(u, s)\}$
- Note $S_0 \subseteq S_1 \subseteq S_2 \subseteq \cdots$
 - if finite number of states then eventually reach an *n* such that $S_n = S_{n+1}$

73

- so S_n is set of reachable states
- Now check P(s) for every reachable s (i.e. for every $s \in S_n$)

Symbolic approach: representing sets as formulas

- Set $\{b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n\}$ represented by formula $v = b_1 \lor v = b_2 \lor \dots \lor v = b_n$
 - $-b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_n$ are truth-values (i.e. T or F)
 - -v is a boolean variable
 - $b \in \{b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n\}$ if and only if $\vdash (v = b_1 \lor v = b_2 \lor \dots \lor v = b_n) \lfloor b/v \rfloor$
- \bullet A set of states
 - $\{(b_{11},\ldots,b_{1m}),\ldots,(b_{n1},\ldots,b_{nm})\}$
 - is represented by a formula with *m* boolean variables: $(v_1 = b_{11} \land \ldots \land v_m = b_{1m}) \lor \ldots \lor (v_1 = b_{n1} \land \ldots \land v_m = b_{nm})$
 - $(\mathbf{c}_1 \quad \mathbf{c}_{11}, \dots, \mathbf{c}_m \quad \mathbf{c}_{1m}) \quad \cdots \quad \mathbf{c}_1 \quad \mathbf{c}_{n1}, \dots, \mathbf{c}_m \quad \mathbf{c}_{nm})$
- To test if (b_1, \ldots, b_m) is in the set, just evaluate the formula with $v_1 = b_1, \ldots, v_m = b_m$, i.e. evaluate: $((v_1 = b_{11} \land \ldots \land v_m = b_{1m}) \lor \ldots \lor (v_1 = b_{n1} \land \ldots \land v_m = b_{nm})) [(b_1, \ldots, b_m)/(v_1, \ldots, v_m)]$

74

Transition relations as Boolean Formulas

• Part of a handshake circuit (model at cycle level – registers are unit delays)



75

- Primed variables (dreq',q0',dack') represent 'next state'
- Transition relation is:
 - (q0' = dreq) \wedge (dack' = dreq \wedge (q0 \vee (¬q0 \wedge dack)))
- Transition relation equivalent to:
- (q0' = dreq) \wedge (dack' = dreq \wedge (q0 \vee dack))
- Define $\mathcal{R}_{\text{RECEIVER}}$ by:

 $\begin{array}{l} \mathcal{R}_{\underline{\text{RECEIVER}}}((\mathtt{dreq},\mathtt{q0},\mathtt{dack}),(\mathtt{dreq}',\mathtt{q0}',\mathtt{dack}')) = \\ (\mathtt{q0}' \Leftrightarrow \mathtt{dreq}) \land (\mathtt{dack}' \Leftrightarrow \mathtt{dreq} \land (\mathtt{q0} \lor \mathtt{dack})) \end{array}$

• dreq' unconstrained, hence non-determinism

- Symbolic reachability: sets of states are formulas
 Condition for a state s to be reachable in one *R*-step from a state in *B* ∃u. B u ∧ R(u, s)
 Define ReachBy n R B to be set of states reachable in at most n steps:
 ReachBy 0 R B s = B s
 ReachBy n R B s
 ReachBy n R B s
 Ju. ReachBy n R B u ∧ R(u, s)
 Reachable states are states reachable in a finite number of steps:
 Reach R B s = ∃n. ReachBy n R B s
 Key property (equality between predicates represents set equality):
 - $\vdash (\texttt{ReachBy } n \mathcal{R} \mathcal{B} = \texttt{ReachBy } (n+1) \mathcal{R} \mathcal{B})$

76

 $(\vec{\text{Reach}} \mathcal{R} \mathcal{B} = \text{ReachBy} n \mathcal{R} \mathcal{B})$

Represent formulas as Binary Decision Diagrams

• Reduced Ordered Binary Decision Diagrams (ROBDDs or BDDs for short) are a data-structure for representing Boolean formulas

77

- Key features: - canonical (given a variable ordering) - efficient to manipulate
- Variables: v = if v then 1 else 0 and $\neg v = if v$ then 0 else 1
- Example: BDDs of variable v and $\neg v$
- Example: BDDs of v1 \land v2 and v1 \lor v2

More BDD examples



BDD of a transition relation

\bullet BDDs of

- $(\mathtt{v1}' \ = \ (\mathtt{v1} = \mathtt{v2})) \ \land \ (\mathtt{v2}' \ = \ (\mathtt{v1} \oplus \mathtt{v2}))$
- with two different variable orderings



• Exercise: draw BDD of $\mathcal{R}_{\text{RECEIVER}}$

Standard BDD operations

- If formulas f_1 , f_2 represents sets s_1 , s_2 , respectively then $f_1 \wedge f_2$, $f_1 \vee f_2$ represent $s_1 \cap s_2$, $s_1 \cup s_2$ respectively
- Standard algorithms can compute boolean operation on BDDs.

78

- If f(x) represents $\{x \mid \mathcal{B}(x)\}$ and g(s, s') represents $\{(s, s') \mid \mathcal{R}(s, s')\}$ then $\exists u. f(u) \land g(u, s)$ represents $\{s \mid \exists u. \mathcal{R}(u, s)\}$
- Exist algorithm to compute BDD of ∃u. h(u, v) from BDD of h(u, v)
 BDD of ∃u. h(u, v) is BDD of h(T, v) ∨ h(F, v)
- Given a BDD representing formula f with free variables v_1, \ldots, v_n there exists an algorithm to find truth-values b_1, \ldots, b_n such that if $v_1 = b_1, \ldots, v_n = b_n$ then f evaluates to T
 - $-b_1, \ldots, b_n$ is a satisfying assignment (solution to SAT problem)

- $-f[(b_1,\ldots,b_n)/(v_1,\ldots,v_n)]$ evaluates to T
- used for counterexample generation (see later)

Reachable States via BDDs

- Represent $\mathcal{R}(s, s')$ and $\mathcal{B} s$ as BDDs
- Iteratively compute BDDs of $S_0 s$, $S_1 s$, $S_2 s$ etc:

• BDD of $\exists u. S_i u \land \mathcal{R}(u, s)$ computed by:

```
\exists u. \ (\mathcal{S}_i \ s)[u/s] \land \ \mathcal{R}(s,s')[(u,s)/(s,s')]
```

efficient using standard BDD algorithms (renaming, then conjuction, then existential quantification)

• At each iteration check $S_{n+1} s = S_n s$ efficient using BDDs, when $S_{n+1} s = S_n s$ can conclude

81

Reach $\mathcal{R} \ \mathcal{B} \ s = \mathcal{S}_n \ s$

hence have computed BDD of Reach $\mathcal{R} \mathcal{B} s$

Example BDD optimisation: disjunctive partitioning



• Transition relation (asynchronous interleaving semantics): $\mathcal{R}(x, y, z), (x', y', z')) =$

82

 $\begin{array}{lll} (x'=\delta_x(x,y,z) & \wedge & y'=y & \wedge & z'=z) \lor \\ (x'=x & \wedge & y'=\delta_y(x,y,z) & \wedge & z'=z) \lor \\ (x'=x & \wedge & y'=y & \wedge & z'=\delta_z(x,y,z)) \end{array}$

Avoiding building big BDDs

```
• Transition relation for three machines in parallel
```

```
 \begin{array}{l} \mathcal{R}(x,y,z),(x',y',z')) = \\ (x' = \delta_x(x,y,z) \land y' = y \land z' = z) \lor \\ (x' = x \land y' = \delta_y(x,y,z) \land z' = z) \lor \\ (x' = x \land y' = y \land z' = \delta_z(x,y,z)) \end{array}
```

```
• Recall:
```

• With s = (x, y, z) it can be shown (see next slide):

• $\mathcal{R}(u, s)$ not a subterm: 'early quantification', 'disjunctive partitioning'

```
 \begin{array}{l} \textbf{More Details (Exercise: check the logic below)} \\ \textbf{Let } \mathtt{Ry}(\overline{x},\overline{y},\overline{z}) \textbf{ abbreviate } \mathtt{ReachBy} n \mathcal{RB}(\overline{x},\overline{y},\overline{z}) \textbf{ then:} \\ \exists \overline{x} \overline{y} \overline{z}. \mathtt{ReachBy} n \mathcal{RB}(\overline{x},\overline{y},\overline{z}) \land \mathcal{R}((\overline{x},\overline{y},\overline{z}),(x,y,z)) \\ &= \exists \overline{x} \overline{y} \overline{z}. \mathtt{Ry}(\overline{x},\overline{y},\overline{z}) \land \mathcal{R}((\overline{x},\overline{y},\overline{z}),(x,y,z)) \\ &= \exists \overline{x} \overline{y} \overline{z}. \mathtt{Ry}(\overline{x},\overline{y},\overline{z}) \land \mathcal{R}((\overline{x},\overline{y},\overline{z}),(x,y,z)) \\ &= \exists \overline{x} \overline{y} \overline{z}. \mathtt{Ry}(\overline{x},\overline{y},\overline{z}) \land \mathcal{R}((\overline{x},\overline{y},\overline{z}),(x,y,z)) \\ &= \exists \overline{x} \overline{y} \overline{z}. \mathtt{Ry}(\overline{x},\overline{y},\overline{z}) \land \mathcal{R}(\overline{x},\overline{y},\overline{z}) \land y = \overline{y} \land z = \overline{z}) \lor \\ & (x = \overline{x} \land y = \delta_y(\overline{x},\overline{y},\overline{z}) \land z = \overline{z}) \lor \\ & (x = \overline{x} \land y = \overline{y} \land z = \delta_z(\overline{x},\overline{y},\overline{z}))) \\ &= (\exists \overline{x} \overline{y} \overline{z}. \mathtt{Ry}(\overline{x},\overline{y},\overline{z}) \land x = \overline{x} \land y = \overline{y} \land z = \delta_z(\overline{x},\overline{y},\overline{z})) \\ &= (\exists \overline{x} \overline{y} \overline{z}. \mathtt{Ry}(\overline{x},y,z) \land x = \overline{x} \land y = \overline{y} \land z = \delta_z(\overline{x},\overline{y},\overline{z})) \\ &= (\exists \overline{x} \overline{y} \overline{z}. \mathtt{Ry}(x,y,z) \land x = \overline{x} \land y = \overline{y} \land z = \delta_z(x,y,\overline{z})) \\ &= (\exists \overline{x} \overline{y} \overline{z}. \mathtt{Ry}(x,y,z) \land x = \overline{x} \land y = \overline{y} \land z = \delta_z(x,y,\overline{z})) \\ &= ((\exists \overline{x}. \mathtt{Ry}(x,y,z) \land x = \delta_x(\overline{x},y,z)) \land (\exists \overline{y}.\overline{y} = \overline{y}) \land (\exists \overline{z}.\overline{z} = \overline{z})) \lor \\ &= (\exists \overline{x} \mathtt{Ry}(\overline{x},y,z) \land x = \delta_x(\overline{x},y,z)) \land (\exists \overline{y}.\overline{y} = \overline{y}) \land (\exists \overline{z}.\overline{z} = \overline{z})) \lor \end{array}
```

 $\begin{array}{l} = ((\exists x. \mathbf{k}\mathbf{y}(x, y, z) \land x = \boldsymbol{o}_x(x, y, z)) \land (\exists \overline{y}. y = \overline{y}) \land (\exists \overline{z}. z = \overline{z})) \lor \\ ((\exists \overline{x}. x = \overline{x}) \land (\exists \overline{y}. \mathbf{k}\mathbf{y}(x, \overline{y}, z) \land y = \delta_y(x, \overline{y}, z)) \land (\exists \overline{z}. z = \overline{z})) \lor \\ ((\exists \overline{x}. x = \overline{x}) \land (\exists \overline{y}. y = \overline{y}) \land (\exists \overline{z}. \mathbf{k}\mathbf{y}(x, y, \overline{z}) \land z = \delta_z(x, y, \overline{z}))) \end{array}$

84

 $\begin{array}{l} = (\exists \overline{x}.\mathtt{Ry}(\overline{x},y,z) \land x = \delta_x(\overline{x},y,z)) \lor \\ (\exists \overline{y}.\mathtt{Ry}(x,\overline{y},z) \land y = \delta_y(x,\overline{y},z)) \lor \\ (\exists \overline{z}.\mathtt{Ry}(x,y,\overline{z}) \land z = \delta_z(x,y,\overline{z})) \end{array}$

Verification and Counterexamples

- Typical safety question:
 - is *Q* true in all reachable states?
- i.e. is Reach $\mathcal{R} \mathcal{B} s \Rightarrow \mathcal{Q} s$ true?
- Compute BDD of Reach $\mathcal{R} \mathcal{B} s \Rightarrow \mathcal{Q} s$
- Formula is true if BDD is the single node 1 - because T represented by a unique BDD (canonical property)

85

• If BDD is not 1 can get counterexample

Generating Counterexample Traces BDD algorithms can find satisfying assignments (SAT) • Suppose Reach $\mathcal{R} \mathcal{B} s \Rightarrow \mathcal{Q} s$ is not true • Must exist s satisfying Reach $\mathcal{R} \mathcal{B} s \land \neg \mathcal{Q} s$ • Find counterexample algorithm: - iteratively generate BDDs of ReachBy $i \mathcal{R} \mathcal{B} s$ (i = 0, 1, ...)- at each stage check if ReachBy $i \mathcal{R} \mathcal{B} \mathbf{s} \land \neg(Q \mathbf{s})$ satisfiable - hence find first **n** and, using SAT, a state s_n such that (ReachBy n $\mathcal{R} \mathcal{B} s \land \neg(Q s)$) $[\mathbf{s}_n/s]$ i.e. ReachBy n $\mathcal{R} \mathcal{B} \mathbf{s}_n \land \neg (Q \mathbf{s}_n)$ • Then use BDD SAT to get s_{n-1} where $(\text{ReachBy}(n-1)\mathcal{RBs} \wedge \mathcal{R}(s, \mathbf{s}_n)) [\mathbf{s}_{n-1}/s]$ i.e. $\texttt{ReachBy}(n{-}1)\mathcal{RB}\mathbf{s}_{n{-}1} \land \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{s}_{n{-}1}, \mathbf{s}_n)$ • Iteratively trace backwards to get $\mathbf{s}_n, \ldots, \mathbf{s}_0$ where for $0 < i \leq n$: ReachBy $(i-1) \mathcal{RB} \mathbf{s}_{i-1} \wedge \mathcal{R}(\mathbf{s}_{i-1}, \mathbf{s}_i)$ \bullet Can sometimes apply partitioning, so BDD of ${\mathcal R}$ not needed

Example (from an exam)

Consider a 3x3 array of 9 switches



Suppose each switch 1,2,...,9 can either be on or off, and that toggling any switch will automatically toggle all its immediate neighbours. For example, toggling switch 5 will also toggle switches 2, 4, 6 and 8, and toggling switch 6 will also toggle switches 3, 5 and 9.

- (a) Devise a state space [4 marks] and transition relation [6 marks] to represent the behavior of the array of switches
- (b) You are given the problem of getting from an initial state in which even numbered switches are on and odd numbered switches are off, to a final state in which all the switches are off. Write down predicates on your state space that characterises the initial [2 marks] and final [2 marks] states.
- (c) Explain how you might use a model checker to find a sequences of switches to toggle to get from the initial to final state. [6 marks] You are not expected to actually solve the problem, but only to explain how to represent it in terms of model checking.

87

Solution

The state space can consist of the set of vectors

(v0.v1.v2.v3.v4.v5.v6.v7.v8)

where the boolean variable vi represents switch number i+1, and is true if and only if switch i+1 is T.

A transition relation Trans is then defined by:

Trans((v0,v1,v2,v3,v4,v5,v6,v7,v8),(v0',v1',v2',v3',v4',v5',v6',v7',v8')) $\begin{array}{c} (v_{0}^{*}v_{1}^{*}v_{2}^{*}v_{3}^{*}v_{4}^{*}v_{4}^{*}v_{6}^{*}v_{$

- ∨ ((v0'=v0)∧(v1'=-v1)∧(v2'=-v2)∧(v3'=v3)∧(v4'=v4)∧ (v5'=-v5)∧(v6'=v6)∧(v7'=v7)∧(v8'=v8)) (toggle swit ∨ ((v0'=v0)∧(v1'=v1)∧(v2'=v2)∧(v3'=-v3)∧(v4'=-v4)∧ (toggle switch 3)

- $\begin{array}{c} (v0 v0) / (v1 v1) / (v2 v2) / (v3 v3) / (v4 v4) / \\ (v5 v5) / (v6 v6) / (v7 v7) / (v8 v8)) & (toggle switch 4) \\ (v0 v0) / (v1 v1) / (v2 v2) / (v3 v3) / (v4 v4) / \\ (v5 v5) / (v6 v6) / (v7 v7) / (v8 v8)) & (toggle switch 5) \\ ((v0 v0) / (v1 v1) / (v2 v2) / (v3 v3) / (v4 v4) / \\ \end{array}$ $\langle ((uv' - vu)) \land (u1' = v1) \land (v2' = -v2) \land (v3' = v3) \land (v4' = -v4) \land (v5' = -v5) \land (v6' = v6) \land (v7' = v7) \land (v8' = -v8)) (toggle switch 6) \\ \langle (uo' = vu) \land (v1' = v1) \land (v2' = v2) \land (v3' = -v3) \land (v4' = v4) \land (v5' = v5) \land (v6' = -v6) \land (v7' = -v7) \land (v8' = v8)) (toggle switch 7) \\ \langle ((uo' = vu) \land (v1' = v1) \land (v2' = v2) \land (v3' = v3) \land (v4' = -v4) \land (v4' = v4' = v4' = v4') \land (v4' = v4') \land (v4'$

- $\begin{array}{c} (v_{5}^{*} = v_{5}^{*}) \wedge (v_{5}^{*} = -v_{5}^{*}) \wedge (v_{7}^{*} = -v_{7}^{*}) \wedge (v_{8}^{*} = -v_{8}^{*}) & (\text{toggle switch } 8) \\ ((v_{0}^{*} = v_{0}) \wedge (v_{1}^{*} = v_{1}) \wedge (v_{2}^{*} = v_{2}) \wedge (v_{3}^{*} = v_{3}) \wedge (v_{4}^{*} = v_{4}) \wedge \\ (v_{5}^{*} = -v_{5}) \wedge (v_{6}^{*} = v_{6}) \wedge (v_{7}^{*} = -v_{7}) \wedge (v_{8}^{*} = -v_{8})) & (\text{toggle switch } 9) \end{array}$

Predicates Init, Final characterising the initial and final states, respectively, are defined by:

```
\begin{split} & \text{Init(v0,v1,v2,v3,v4,v5,v6,v7,v8)} = \\ & \neg v0 \land v1 \land \neg v2 \land v3 \land \neg v4 \land v5 \land \neg v6 \land v7 \land \neg v8 \end{split}
```

Final(v0,v1,v2,v3,v4,v5,v6,v7,v8) = $\neg v0 \land \neg v1 \land \neg v2 \land \neg v3 \land \neg v4 \land \neg v5 \land \neg v6 \land \neg v7 \land \neg v8$

Model checkers can find counter-examples to properties, and sequences of transitions from an initial state to a counter-example state. Thus we could use a model checker to find a trace to a counter-example to the property that \neg Final(v0,v1,v2,v3,v4,v5,v6,v7,v8).

Properties

- Reach $\mathcal{R} \mathcal{B} s \Rightarrow \mathcal{Q} s$ means \mathcal{Q} true in all reachable states
- Might want to verify other properties, e.g:
 - 1. *DeviceEnabled* is always true somewhere along every path starting anywhere (i.e. it holds infinitely often along every path)
 - 2. From any state it is possible to get to a state for which $\displaystyle \underline{\textit{Restart}}$ holds
 - 3. Ack is true on all paths sometime between i units of time later and j units of time later.
- CTL is a logic for expressing such properties
- Exist efficient algorithms for checking them
- Model checking:
 - check property in a model
 - Emerson, Clarke & Sifakis, early 1980s Turing award 2008
 - used in industry (e.g. IBM's RuleBase tool)
- Language wars: CTL vs LTL, PSL vs SVA



Paths and computations



- Properties can asserted about complete computation trees (CTL)
- Properties can be asserted just about paths (LTL)

Paths, branching time and linear time

- Let \mathcal{R} have type $\alpha \times \alpha \rightarrow bool$
 - \mathcal{R} is a transition relation
 - α ranges (intuitively) over states
- An \mathcal{R} -path is a function $\sigma: num \rightarrow \alpha$ such that: $\forall t. \mathcal{R}(\sigma(t), \sigma(t+1))$
- $Path(\mathcal{R}, s)\sigma$ means σ is an \mathcal{R} -path from s
- $Path(\mathcal{R}, s)\sigma = (\sigma(0)=s) \land \forall t. \ \mathcal{R}(\sigma(t), \sigma(t+1))$
-
- CTL is a branching time logic
 - properties may hold along all paths A
 - properties may hold along some paths E
- LTL is a linear time logic
 - only properties along all paths no path quantifiers

93

Computation Tree Logic (CTL)

• Syntax of CTL well-formed formulas:

```
wff ::= \operatorname{Atom}(p)
                                                 (Atomic formula)
                                                 (Negation)
              \neg wff
             \begin{array}{c} wff_1 \wedge wff_2 \\ wff_1 \vee wff_2 \\ wff_1 \Rightarrow wff_2 \end{array}
                                                 (Conjunction)
                                                 (Disjunction)
                                                 (Implication)
              \mathbf{A}\mathbf{X} wff
                                                 (All successors)
              \mathbf{EX} wff
                                                 (Some successors)
              \mathbf{A}[wff_1 \mathbf{U} wff_2]
                                                 (Until - along all paths)
              \mathbf{E}[wff_1 \mathbf{U} wff_2]
                                                 (Until – along some path)
```

- Atomic formulas p are properties of states
 - sometimes just write "p" rather than "Atom(p)"
- General CTL formulas P are properties of models

Semantics of CTL (shallow embedding)

```
A model is a pair (\mathcal{R}, s) — a transition relation and an initial state
Define:
  {\tt Atom}(p)
                         =\lambda(\mathcal{R},s). \ p(s)
   \neg P
                           = \lambda(\mathcal{R}, s). \ \neg(P(\mathcal{R}, s))
  P \land Q
                      =\lambda(\mathcal{R},s). P(\mathcal{R},s) \land Q(\mathcal{R},s)
   P \lor Q = \lambda(\mathcal{R}, s). \ P(\mathcal{R}, s) \lor Q(\mathcal{R}, s)
  P \Rightarrow Q \quad = \lambda(\mathcal{R},s). \ P(\mathcal{R},s) \ \Rightarrow \ Q(\mathcal{R},s)
  \mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}P
                           = \lambda(\mathcal{R},s). \ \forall s'. \ \mathcal{R}(s,s') \ \Rightarrow \ P(\mathcal{R},s')
  \mathbf{EX}P
                           = \lambda(\mathcal{R},s). \ \exists s'. \ \mathcal{R}(s,s') \ \land \ P(\mathcal{R},s')
  \mathbf{A}[P \ \mathbf{U} \ Q] = \lambda(\mathcal{R}, s). \ \forall \sigma. \ \mathtt{Path}(\mathcal{R}, s) \sigma
                                                             \exists i. \ Q(\mathcal{R}, \sigma(i))
                                                                     \stackrel{\wedge}{\forall j. \ j < i} \Rightarrow P(\mathcal{R}, \sigma(j)) 
  \mathbf{E}[P \ \mathbf{U} \ Q] \ = \lambda(\mathcal{R},s). \ \exists \sigma. \ \mathtt{Path}(\mathcal{R},s)\sigma
                                                           \exists i. \ Q(\mathcal{R}, \sigma(i))
                                                                    \forall j. \ j < i \ \Rightarrow \ P(\mathcal{R}, \sigma(j))
```

95

The defined operator AF

- Define AFP = A[T U P]
- AFP is true if P holds somewhere along every R-path P is inevitable
 AFP

96

The defined operator EF

- Define $\mathbf{EF}P = \mathbf{E}[\mathsf{T} \ \mathbf{U} \ P]$
- $\mathbf{EF}P$ is true if P holds somewhere along some $\mathcal{R}\text{-}\mathbf{path}$ - i.e. P potentially holds $\mathbf{EF}P$

```
= \mathbf{E}[\mathbf{T} \mathbf{U} P]
=\lambda(\mathcal{R},s).
          \exists \sigma.
              \mathtt{Path}(\mathcal{R},s)\sigma
               \exists i. \ P(\mathcal{R}, \sigma(i)) \ \land \ \forall j. \ j < i \ \Rightarrow \ \mathsf{T}(\mathcal{R}, \sigma(j))
=\lambda(\mathcal{R},s).
          \exists \sigma.
              \mathtt{Path}(\mathcal{R},s)\sigma
                \exists i. \ P(\mathcal{R}, \sigma(i))
```

97

The defined operator AG

- **Define** $AGP = \neg EF(\neg P)$
- \mathbf{AGP} is true if P holds everywhere along every \mathcal{R} -path

```
\mathbf{AG}P = \neg \mathbf{EF}(\neg P)
                  = \lambda(\mathcal{R}, s). \ (\neg \mathbf{EF}(\neg P))(\mathcal{R}, s)
                  =\lambda(\mathcal{R},s).\ \neg(\exists\sigma.\ \mathtt{Path}(\mathcal{R},s)\sigma\ \land\ \exists i.\ (\neg P)(\mathcal{R},\sigma(i)))
                 = \lambda(\mathcal{R}, s). \neg (\exists \sigma. \mathtt{Path}(\mathcal{R}, s) \sigma \land \exists i. \neg P(\mathcal{R}, \sigma(i)))
                 = \lambda(\mathcal{R},s). \; \forall \sigma. \; \neg (\texttt{Path}(\mathcal{R},s)\sigma \; \land \; \exists i. \; \neg P(\mathcal{R},\sigma(i)))
                  = \lambda(\mathcal{R}, s). \; \forall \sigma. \; \neg \texttt{Path}(\mathcal{R}, s) \sigma \; \lor \; \neg (\exists i. \; \neg P(\mathcal{R}, \sigma(i)))
                  = \lambda(\mathcal{R}, s). \ \forall \sigma. \ \neg \texttt{Path}(\mathcal{R}, s) \sigma \ \lor \ \forall i. \ \neg \neg P(\mathcal{R}, \sigma(i))
                 = \lambda(\mathcal{R}, s). \ \forall \sigma. \ \neg \texttt{Path}(\mathcal{R}, s) \sigma \ \lor \ \forall i. \ P(\mathcal{R}, \sigma(i))
```

- $= \lambda(\mathcal{R}, s). \ \forall \sigma. \ \mathtt{Path}(\mathcal{R}, s)\sigma \Rightarrow \forall i. \ P(\mathcal{R}, \sigma(i))$
- AGP means P true at all reachable states
- $\overline{\mathbf{AG}(\mathtt{Atom}\ p)(\mathcal{R},s)}\ \equiv\ \forall s'.\ \mathtt{Reach}\ \mathcal{R}\ (\lambda x.\ x{=}s)\ s'\ \Rightarrow\ p(s')$

08

The defined operator EG

• EGP is true if P holds everywhere along some \mathcal{R} -path

```
\mathbf{EG}P = \neg \mathbf{AF}(\neg P)
```

```
= \lambda(\mathcal{R}, s). \ (\neg \mathbf{AF}(\neg P))(\mathcal{R}, s)
```

 $=\lambda(\mathcal{R},s). \ \neg(\forall \sigma. \ \mathtt{Path}(\mathcal{R},s)\sigma \ \Rightarrow \ \exists i. \ (\neg P)(\mathcal{R},\sigma(i)))$

```
= \lambda(\mathcal{R}, s). \ \neg(\forall \sigma. \ \mathtt{Path}(\mathcal{R}, s)\sigma \ \Rightarrow \ \exists i. \ \neg P(\mathcal{R}, \sigma(i)))
```

- $=\lambda(\mathcal{R},s). \ \exists \sigma. \ \neg(\texttt{Path}(\mathcal{R},s)\sigma \ \Rightarrow \ \exists i. \ \neg P(\mathcal{R},\sigma(i)))$
- $= \lambda(\mathcal{R}, s). \ \exists \sigma. \ \mathtt{Path}(\mathcal{R}, s) \sigma \ \land \ \neg(\exists i. \ \neg P(\mathcal{R}, \sigma(i)))$
- $=\lambda(\mathcal{R},s). \exists \sigma. \mathtt{Path}(\mathcal{R},s)\sigma \land \forall i. \neg \neg P(\mathcal{R},\sigma(i))$
- $=\lambda(\mathcal{R},s). \exists \sigma. \mathtt{Path}(\mathcal{R},s)\sigma \land \forall i. P(\mathcal{R},\sigma(i))$

- The defined operator A[PWQ]
- A[PWQ] is a 'partial correctness' version of A[PUQ]
- It is true if along a path if
 - P always holds along the path
 - Q holds sometime on the path, and until it does P holds
- Define

 $\mathbf{A}[P\mathbf{W}Q]_{\mathbf{r}(P\wedge\neg Q)\mathbf{U}(\neg P\wedge\neg Q)]}$

$$= \neg \mathbf{E}[(P \land \neg Q) \cup (\neg P \land \neg Q)]$$

- $= \lambda(\mathcal{R}, s). \ (\neg \mathbf{E} \left[(P \land \neg Q) \mathbf{U} (\neg P \land \neg Q) \right])(\mathcal{R}, s)$ $=\lambda(\mathcal{R},s).\ \neg(\mathbf{E}\left[(P\wedge\neg Q)\mathbf{U}(\neg P\wedge\neg Q)\right])(\mathcal{R},s)$
- $=\lambda(\mathcal{R},s).$
 - $\neg(\exists \sigma. \mathtt{Path}(\mathcal{R}, s)\sigma)$

$$\begin{array}{c} \wedge \\ \exists i. \ (\neg P \wedge \neg Q)(\mathcal{R}, \sigma(i)) \\ \wedge \end{array}$$

 $\forall j. \ j < i \ \Rightarrow \ (P \land \neg Q)(\mathcal{R}, \sigma(j)))$

• Exercise: understand the next three slides

A[PWQ] continued (1) A[PWQ] continued (2) • Continuing: Continuing: $\lambda(\mathcal{R},s).$ $\lambda(\mathcal{R}, s).$ $\neg(\exists \sigma. \operatorname{Path}(\mathcal{R}, s)\sigma)$ $\forall \sigma. \operatorname{Path}(\mathcal{R}, s) \sigma$ Λ \Rightarrow $\exists i. \ (\neg P \land \neg Q)(\mathcal{R}, \sigma(i)) \ \land \ \forall j. \ j < i \ \Rightarrow \ (P \land \neg Q)(\mathcal{R}, \sigma(j)))$ $\forall i. \ \neg (\neg P \land \neg Q)(\mathcal{R}, \sigma(i)) \ \lor \ \neg (\forall j. \ j < i \ \Rightarrow \ (P \land \neg Q)(\mathcal{R}, \sigma(j)))$ $=\lambda(\mathcal{R},s).$ $= \lambda(\mathcal{R}, s).$ $\forall \sigma. \ \neg(\texttt{Path}(\mathcal{R},s)\sigma$ $\forall \sigma. \; \texttt{Path}(\mathcal{R},s) \sigma$ \Rightarrow $\exists i. \ (\neg P \land \neg Q)(\mathcal{R}, \sigma(i)) \land \forall j. \ j < i \ \Rightarrow \ (P \land \neg Q)(\mathcal{R}, \sigma(j)))$ $\forall i. \ \neg (\forall j. \ j < i \ \Rightarrow \ (P \land \neg Q)(\mathcal{R}, \sigma(j)))$ $=\lambda(\mathcal{R},s).$ $\forall \sigma. \operatorname{Path}(\mathcal{R}, s) \sigma$ $\neg (\neg P \land \neg Q)(\mathcal{R}, \sigma(i))$ \Rightarrow $=\lambda(\mathcal{R},s).$ $\neg (\exists i. \ (\neg P \land \neg Q)(\mathcal{R}, \sigma(i)) \ \land \ \forall j. \ j < i \ \Rightarrow \ (P \land \neg Q)(\mathcal{R}, \sigma(j)))$ $\forall \sigma. \; \texttt{Path}(\mathcal{R},s) \sigma$ $=\lambda(\mathcal{R},s).$ $\forall \sigma. \operatorname{Path}(\mathcal{R}, s) \sigma$ $\forall i. \ (\forall j. \ j < i \ \Rightarrow \ P(\mathcal{R}, \sigma(j)) \ \land \ \neg Q(\mathcal{R}, \sigma(j)))$ $\forall i. \ \neg (\neg P \land \neg Q)(\mathcal{R}, \sigma(i)) \ \lor \ \neg (\forall j. \ j < i \ \Rightarrow \ (P \land \neg Q)(\mathcal{R}, \sigma(j)))$ $P(\mathcal{R}, \sigma(i)) \vee Q(\mathcal{R}, \sigma(i))$ Exercise: does this correspond to earlier description of A[PWQ]? • • this exercise illustrates the subtlety of writing CTL! 101 102 A[PWF] = AG PFrom last slide: ٠ $\mathbf{A}[P\mathbf{W}Q]$ $=\lambda(\mathcal{R},s).$ $\forall \sigma. \operatorname{Path}(\mathcal{R}, s) \sigma$ $\forall i. \ (\forall j. \ j < i \ \Rightarrow \ P(\mathcal{R}, \sigma(j)) \ \land \ \neg Q(\mathcal{R}, \sigma(j)))$ $\overrightarrow{P}(\mathcal{R}, \sigma(i)) \lor Q(\mathcal{R}, \sigma(i))$ Set Q to be F: A[PWF] $= \lambda(\mathcal{R}, s).$ $\forall \sigma. \operatorname{Path}(\mathcal{R}, s) \sigma$ $\forall i. \ (\forall j. \ j < i \ \Rightarrow \ P(\mathcal{R}, \sigma(j)) \ \land \ \neg \mathbf{F}(\mathcal{R}, \sigma(j)))$ $\overrightarrow{P}(\mathcal{R}, \sigma(i)) \vee \mathbf{F}(\mathcal{R}, \sigma(i))$ Simplify: A[PWF] $=\lambda(\mathcal{R},s). \ \forall \sigma. \ \mathtt{Path}(\mathcal{R},s)\sigma \ \Rightarrow \ \forall i. \ (\forall j. \ j < i \ \Rightarrow \ P(\mathcal{R},\sigma(j))) \ \Rightarrow \ P(\mathcal{R},\sigma(i))$ By induction on *i*: $\mathbf{A}[P\mathbf{WF}] = \lambda(\mathcal{R}, s). \ \forall \sigma. \ \mathtt{Path}(\mathcal{R}, s)\sigma \ \Rightarrow \ \forall i. \ P(\mathcal{R}, \sigma(i))$ Exercise: describe the property specified by A[TWQ]

Example of current research

TCAD Newsletter - March 2010 Issue Placing you one click away from the best new CAD research!

Regular Papers

Zheng, H.; "Compositional Reachability Analysis for Efficient Modular Verification of Asynchronous Designs"

Abstract: Compositional verification is essential to address state explosion in model checking. Traditionally, an over-approximate context is needed for each individual component in a system for sound verification. This may cause state explosion for the intermediate results as well as inefficiency for abstraction refinement. This paper presents an opposite approach, a compositional reachability method, which constructs the state space of each component from an under-approximate context gradually until a counter-example is found or a fixpoint in state space is reached. This method has an additional advantage in that counter-examples, if there are any, can be found much earlier, thus leading to faster verification. Furthermore, this modular verification framework does not require complex compositional reasoning rules. The experimental results indicate that this method is promising.

URL: http://ieeexplore.ieee.org/stamp/stamp.jsp?tp=&arnumber=5419238&isnumber=5419222

Summary of CTL operators (primitive + defined)

• CTL formulas:

$\mathtt{Atom}(p)$	(Atomic formula - $p : states \rightarrow bool$)		
$\neg P$	(Negation)		
$P \land Q$	(Conjunction)		
$P \lor Q$	(Disjunction)		
$P \Rightarrow Q$	(Implication)		
$\mathbf{AX}P$	(All successors)		
$\mathbf{EX}P$	(Some successors)		
$\mathbf{AF}P$	(Somewhere – along all paths)		
$\mathbf{EF}P$	(Somewhere – along some path)		
AGP	(Everywhere – along all paths)		
$\mathbf{EG}P$	(Everywhere – along some path)		
A[P U Q]	(Until – along all paths)		
$\mathbf{E}[P \ \mathbf{U} \ Q]$	(Until – along some path)		
A[P W Q]	(Unless – along all paths)		
$\mathbf{E}[P \mathbf{W} Q]$	(Unless – along some path)		

• Say 'P holds' if $P(\mathcal{R}, s)$ for all initial states s

Example CTL formulas

• **EF**(Started $\land \neg Ready$)

It is possible to get to a state where $\mathit{Started}$ holds but Ready does not hold

• $AG(Req \Rightarrow AFAck)$

If a request Req occurs, then it will eventually be acknowledged by Ack

• **AG**(**AF***DeviceEnabled*)

DeviceEnabled is always true somewhere along every path starting anywhere: i.e. *DeviceEnabled* holds infinitely often along every path

• AG(EF*Restart*)

From any state it is possible to get to a state for which ${\it Restart}$ holds

2

More CTL examples (1)

• $AG(Req \Rightarrow A[Req U Ack])$

If a request Req occurs, then it continues to hold, until it is eventually acknowledged

• $AG(Req \Rightarrow AX(A[\neg Req U Ack]))$

Whenever Req is true either it must become false on the next cycle and remains false until Ack, or Ack must become true on the next cycle

Exercise: is the AX necessary?

• $AG(Req \Rightarrow (\neg Ack \Rightarrow AX(A[Req U Ack])))$

Whenever Req is true and Ack is false then Ack will eventually become true and until it does Req will remain true

4

Exercise: is the AX necessary?

More CTL examples (2)

• AG[Enabled ⇒ AG[Start ⇒ A[¬Waiting U Ack]]]

If Enabled is ever true then if Start is true in any subsequent state then Ack will eventually become true, and until it does Waiting will be false

• $\operatorname{AG}[\neg \operatorname{Req}_1 \land \neg \operatorname{Req}_2]$ \Rightarrow

 $\mathbf{A} [\neg Req_1 \land \neg Req_2 \mathbf{U} (Start \land \neg Req_2)]]$

Whenever Req_1 and Req_2 are false, they remain false until Start becomes true with Req_2 still false

• $AG[Req \Rightarrow AX(Ack \Rightarrow AF \neg Req)]$

If Req is true and Ack becomes true one cycle later, then eventually Req will become false

Some abbreviations

- $\mathbf{AX}_i P \equiv \underbrace{\mathbf{AX}(\mathbf{AX}(\cdots(\mathbf{AX} \ P)\cdots))}_{i \text{ instances of } \mathbf{AX}}$ P is true on all paths i units of time later
- $ABF_{i.j} P \equiv$ $AX_i \underbrace{(P \lor AX(P \lor \cdots AX(P \lor AX P) \cdots))}_{j-i \text{ instances of } AX}$ P is true on all paths sometime between i units of time later

and j units of time later

• $\mathbf{AG}[Req \Rightarrow \mathbf{AX}[Ack_1 \land \mathbf{ABF}_{1..6}(Ack_2 \land \mathbf{A}[Wait \ \mathbf{U} \ Reply])]]$

One cycle after Req, Ack_1 should become true, and then Ack_2 becomes true 1 to 6 cycles later and then eventually Reply becomes true, but until it does Wait holds from the time of Ack_2

• More abbreviations in the 'Industry Standard' language PSL

CTL model checking algorithm

- A model is a relation R
- A property is a CTL formula P
- Model checking: given CTL formula P compute $\{s \mid P(\mathcal{R}, s)\}$
- $P(\mathcal{R}, s_0)$ true if and only if $s_0 \in \{s \mid P(\mathcal{R}, s)\}$
- Assume set of states to be finite (infinite state model checking possible for some models)
- Already seen how to model check reachability $AG(Atom p)(\mathcal{R}, s) \equiv \forall s'$. Reach \mathcal{R} (Eq s) $s' \Rightarrow p(s')$ so can model check AG of atomic properties – compute: $\{s' \mid \text{Reach } \mathcal{R} \text{ (Eq } s) \ s' \Rightarrow p(s')\},\$ e.g. via BDD of

7

 $\bar{} \, \operatorname{Reach} \, \mathcal{R} \, \left(\operatorname{Eq} \, s \right) \, s' \; \Rightarrow \; p(s')$

Checking EF Atom(p)

$\mathbf{EF}(\texttt{Atom}\ p)(\mathcal{R},s)$ if p holds along some path starting at s

- Mark all the states satisfying p
- Repeatedly mark all the states which have at least one marked successor until no change
- $\{s \mid \mathbf{EF}(\mathtt{Atom} \ p)(\mathcal{R}, s)\}$ computed by generating:
 - $\begin{array}{ll} \mathcal{S}_0 & = \{s \mid (\texttt{Atom} \ p)(\mathcal{R},s)\} \\ & = \{s \mid p(s)\} \end{array}$

 $\mathcal{S}_{i+1} = \mathcal{S}_i \ \cup \ \{s \mid \exists s'. \ \mathcal{R}(s,s') \land \ s' \in \mathcal{S}_i\}$

- $\mathbf{EF}(\mathtt{Atom}\ p)$ is true in marked states and false in unmarked states
- Algorithm similar for AF(Atom p): repeatedly mark all the states which have all successors marked

- To check AF EF (Atom p):
 - apply EF algorithm
 - starting with resulting marking apply AF algorithm



Symbolic model checking

- Represent sets of states with BDDs
- Represent Transition relation with a BDD
- If BDDs of $P(\mathcal{R}, s)$, $Q(\mathcal{R}, s)$ are known, then BDDs of $\neg P(\mathcal{R}, s)$ $P(\mathcal{R}, s) \land Q(\mathcal{R}, s)$ $P(\mathcal{R}, s) \lor Q(\mathcal{R}, s)$ $P(\mathcal{R}, s) \Rightarrow Q(\mathcal{R}, s)$
- can be computed using standard BDD algorithms • If BDDs of $P(\mathcal{R}, s)$, $Q(\mathcal{R}, s)$ are known, then BDDs of $\mathbf{AX}P(\mathcal{R}, s)$, $\mathbf{EX}P(\mathcal{R}, s)$, $\mathbf{A}[P \cup Q](\mathcal{R}, s)$, $\mathbf{E}[P \cup Q](\mathcal{R}, s)$ computed using fairly straightforward algorithms (see textbooks)
- Model checking CTL generalises iteration for reachable states (AG)

13

History of Model checking

- CTL model checking invented by Emerson, Clarke and Sifakis
- Use of BDDs to represent and compute sets of states is called *symbolic model checking*
- Independently discovered by several people: Clarke & McMillan Coudert, Berthet & Madre Pixley

http://www.cs.cmu.edu/~modelcheck/smv.html

http://www.kenmcmil.com/smv.html

http://nusmv.irst.itc.it/

• SMV (McMillan) is a popular symbolic model checker

(original)
(Cadence extension by McMillan)
(new implementation)

- Other temporal logics
 - Linear temporal logic (LTL): easier to use, more complicated to check
 - CTL*: combines CTL and LTL (also harder to check)
 - Industrial languages **PSL** and **SVA** designed to be 'engineer friendly'

14

Expressibility of CTL

- Consider the property "on every path there is a point after which **p** is always true on that path"
- Consider



- Property true, but cannot be expressed in CTL
 - would need something like AF P
 - where P is something like "property p true from now on"
 but in CTL P must start with a path quantifier A or E
 - but in CTD 7 must start with a path quantiler A of D
 so cannot talk about current path, only about all or some paths
 - AF AG (Atom p) is false (consider path s0s0s0...)

Linear Temporal Logic (LTL)

• CTL property is a predicate on a state in a tree: $P(\mathcal{R}, s)$

- LTL property is a predicate on a path: $P(\sigma)$
- Syntax of LTL well-formed formulae:
- Note: no path quantifiers A or E

Semantics of LTL (shallow embedding) \mathbf{FG} • FGP is true if there is a point after which P is always true Define Tail m σ = λn. σ(n+m) $\mathbf{FG}P(\sigma)$ • Define: $= \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{G}(P))(\sigma)$ $\texttt{Atom}(p) = \lambda \sigma. \ p(\sigma(0))$ $= \exists m_1. (\mathbf{G}(P))(\text{Tail } m_1 \sigma)$ $\neg P$ $= \lambda \sigma. \neg (P \sigma)$ $= \exists m_1. \ \forall m_2. \ P(\text{Tail} \ m_2 \ (\text{Tail} \ m_1 \ \sigma))$ $P \lor Q = \lambda \sigma. P \sigma \lor Q \sigma$ = $\exists m_1$. $\forall m_2$. $P(\text{Tail } (m_1+m_2) \sigma)$ $= \lambda \sigma. P(\text{Tail } 1 \sigma)$ $\mathbf{X}P$ • Recall: $\mathbf{F}P$ $= \lambda \sigma$. $\exists m. P(\text{Tail } m \sigma)$ $\mathbf{G}P$ $= \lambda \sigma. \ \forall m. \ P(\text{Tail} \ m \ \sigma)$ $[P ~ \mathbf{U} ~ Q] = \lambda \sigma. ~ \exists i. ~ Q(\text{Tail} ~ i ~ \sigma) ~ \land ~ \forall j. ~ j < i ~ \Rightarrow ~ P(\text{Tail} ~ j ~ \sigma)$ • Example: $\mathbf{X}(\texttt{Atom}(p))(\sigma) = \texttt{Atom}(p)(\text{Tail } 1 \sigma) = p(\text{Tail } 1 \sigma 0) = p(\sigma(0+1)) = p(\sigma(1))$ s2· s2 s2 s2 s1 s2 -→ s2 → s2 → s2 ····· • LTL can express things that CTL can't express 17 18 CTL can express things that LTL can't express CTL* Two kinds of formulas: state formulas (swff) & path formulas (pwff) • AG(EF P) says: "from every state it is possible to get to a state for which P holds" • Defined mutually recursively • Can't say this in LTL (proof omitted) swff ::= Atom(p)(Atomic formula) • Consider disjunction: (Negation) $\neg swff$ $swff_1 \lor swff_2$ (Disjunction) "along every path there is a state from which P will hold forever Apwff(All paths) or | Epwff (Some paths) from every state it is possible to get to a state for which P holds" pwff ::= PathForm(swff) (Every state formula is a path formula) • Can't say this in either CTL or LTL! (proof omitted) $\neg pwff$ (Negation) $pwff_1 \lor pwff_2$ • CTL* combines CTL and LTL and can express this property (Disjunction) $\mathbf{X} pw\!f\!f$ (Successor) $\mathbf{F}pwff$ (Sometimes) $\mathbf{G} p w f f$ (Always) $[pwff_1 \mathbf{U} pwff_2]$ (Until) • CTL is CTL* restricted with X, F, G, [-U-] preceded by A or E LTL consists of CTL* formulas of form Apwff, • where the only state formulas in $pw\!f\!f$ are atomic Selection of primitives above arbitrary: $\lor,\,\neg,\,X,\,U,\,E$ enough

CTL* semantics

٠	Combining	state semantics of CTL with path semantics of LTL:	
	${\tt Atom}(p)$	$=\lambda(\mathcal{R},s). \ p(s)$	• L
	$\neg S$	$= \lambda(\mathcal{R},s). \ \neg(S(\mathcal{R},s))$	A
	$S_1 \vee S_2$	$=\lambda(\mathcal{R},s). S_1(\mathcal{R},s) \lor S_2(\mathcal{R},s)$	-
	$\mathbf{A}P$	$= \lambda(\mathcal{R},s). \ \forall \sigma. \ \mathtt{Path}(\mathcal{R},s)\sigma \ \Rightarrow \ P(\mathcal{R},\sigma)$	1
	$\mathbf{E}P$	$= \lambda(\mathcal{R},s). \ \exists \sigma. \ \mathtt{Path}(\mathcal{R},s) \sigma \ \land \ P(\mathcal{R},\sigma)$	1
			1
	$\mathtt{PathForm}(S)$	$= \lambda(\mathcal{R}, \sigma). \ S(\mathcal{R}, \sigma(0))$	
	$\neg P$	$= \lambda(\mathcal{R},\sigma). \ \neg(P(\mathcal{R},\sigma))$	F
	$P_1 \vee P_2$	$= \lambda(\mathcal{R}, \sigma). \ P_1(\mathcal{R}, \sigma) \ \lor \ P_2(\mathcal{R}, \sigma)$	-
	$\mathbf{X}P$	$=\lambda(\mathcal{R},\sigma). P(\mathcal{R}, \text{Tail } 1 \sigma)$	i
	$\mathbf{F}P$	$=\lambda(\mathcal{R},\sigma). \exists m. P(\mathcal{R}, \text{Tail } m \sigma)$	3
	$\mathbf{G}P$	$=\lambda(\mathcal{R},\sigma). \ \forall m. \ P(\mathcal{R}, \text{Tail} \ m \ \sigma)$]
	$[P_1 \mathbf{U} P_2]$	$= \lambda(\mathcal{R}, \sigma). \exists i. P_2(\mathcal{R}, \text{Tail } i \sigma) \land \forall j. j < i \Rightarrow P_1(\mathcal{R}, \text{Tail } j \sigma)$	(

Note semantics of state and path formulas have different types
 λ(R, s) versus λ(R, σ)

21

• Semantics looks simpler if we assume \mathcal{R} fixed

Simplified CTL* semantics (textbook semantics)

• Let Path $s \sigma$ abbreviate Path $(\mathcal{R}, s)\sigma$, then:

$$\begin{split} & \operatorname{PathForm}(S) \ = \lambda \sigma. \ S(p(0)) \\ & \neg P & = \lambda \sigma. \ \neg(P\sigma) \\ & P_1 \lor P_2 & = \lambda \sigma. \ P_1 \ \sigma \lor P_2 \ \sigma \\ & \mathbf{X}P & = \lambda \sigma. \ P(\operatorname{Tail} 1 \ \sigma) \\ & \mathbf{F}P & = \lambda \sigma. \ \exists m. \ P(\operatorname{Tail} m \ \sigma) \\ & \mathbf{G}P & = \lambda \sigma. \ \forall m. \ P(\operatorname{Tail} m \ \sigma) \\ & [P_1 \ \mathbf{U} \ P_2] & = \lambda \sigma. \ \exists i. \ P_2(\operatorname{Tail} i \ \sigma) \ \land \ \forall j. \ j < i \ \Rightarrow \ P_1(\operatorname{Tail} j \ \sigma) \end{split}$$

22

Fairness

- May want to assume a component or the environment is 'fair'
- Example 1: fair arbiter
- the arbiter doesn't ignore one of its requests forever
 - not every request need be grantedwant to exclude infinite number of requests and no grant
- Example 2: reliable channel
- no message continuously transmitted but never received • not every message need be received
- want to exclude an infinite number of sends and no receive
- Want if ${\cal P}$ holds infinitely often along a path then so does Q
- In LTL is expressible as $G(F P) \Rightarrow G(F Q)$
- Can't say this in CTL
 - why not what's wrong with $AG(AF P) \Rightarrow AG(AF Q)$?
 - in CTL* expressible as $A(G(F P) \Rightarrow G(F Q))$
 - fair CTL model checking is implemented in the model checking algorithm
 - fair LTL just needs a fairness assumption like $\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{F}~P)~\Rightarrow~\cdots$
- Fairness is a tricky and subtle subject
 - several notions or fairness: 'weak fairness', 'strong fairness' etc
 - exist whole books on fairness

Propositional modal μ -calculus

- Modal μ -calculus is an even more powerful property language
- Has fixed-point operators
 - both maximal and minimal fixed points
 - model checking consists of calculating fixed points
 - many logics (e.g. CTL*) can be translated into μ -calculus
- Strictly stronger than CTL*
 - expressibility in μ -calculus strictly increases as allowed nesting increases • need fixed point operators nested 2 deep for CTL*

- The µ-calculus is very non-intuitive to use!
 - intermediate code rather than a practical property language
 - nice meta-theory and algorithms, but terrible usability!

Interval Temporal Logic (ITL)

- ITL specifies properties of intervals
- An interval is a sequence of states with a beginning and an end
- Useful for talking about 'transactions'
- ITL specifies properties of finite intervals not infinite traces
- Has an executable subset called *Tempura* suitable for simulation
- Developed by Ben Moszkowski at Stanford then here at Cambridge

25

• Moszkowski is now at De Montford University

ITL (simplified and with expressions omitted)

• Syntax of ITL well-formed formulae:

- Semantics (properties are predicates on intervals):
 - $\operatorname{Atom}(p) = \lambda \langle s_0 \cdots s_n \rangle. \ p(s_0)$
 - **true** $=\lambda \langle s_0 \cdots s_n \rangle$. T
 - $\neg P \qquad = \lambda \langle s_0 \cdots s_n \rangle. \ \neg (P \langle s_0 \cdots s_n \rangle)$
 - $P \lor Q = \lambda \langle s_0 \cdots s_n \rangle. \ P \langle s_0 \cdots s_n \rangle \ \lor \ Q \langle s_0 \cdots s_n \rangle$
 - **skip** $= \lambda \langle s_0 \cdots s_n \rangle. \ n = 1$
 - $P ; Q = \lambda \langle s_0 \cdots s_n \rangle. \exists k. \ k \le n \ \land \ P \langle s_0 \cdots s_k \rangle \ \land \ Q \langle s_k \cdots s_n \rangle$ $P_* = \lambda \langle s_0 \cdots s_n \rangle$
 - $= \lambda \langle s_0 \cdots s_n \rangle.$ $\exists w_1 \cdots w_l, \ \langle s_0 \cdots s_n \rangle = w_1 \cdots w_l \ \land \ P \ w_1 \ \land \ \cdots \ \land \ P \ w_l$

26

Examples of ITL

Abbreviation	Meaning
$P_{1}; P_{2}$	${\cal P}_1$ holds then ${\cal P}_2$ holds (overlapping state)
P_1 ; skip; P_2	P_1 holds then P_2 holds (no overlapping state)
$\mathbf{skip}; P$	${\cal P}$ true on the next state
$\mathbf{true}; P$	${\cal P}$ sometimes true
\neg true; $\neg P$	${\cal P}$ always true

Too many logics: CTL, LTL, CTL*, ITL, ...

- Large variety of separate logics
- Can be viewed as idioms in higher order logic
- Can model complete hardware systems in higher order logic
- Can model programming languages and logics in higher order logic
- Why not dump ad hoc languages and just work in logic?
 - specialized logics support specialized specification and verification methods

28

• compact assertions developed for specific applications

Assertion-based verification (ABV)

• Claimed that assertion based verification:

"is likely to be the next revolution in hardware design verification"

• Basic idea:

- document designs with formal properties
- $\bullet\,$ check properties using both simulation (dynamic) and model checking (static)
- Accellera organisation and IEEE are specifying languages

• Frequently used acronyms

- PSL: Property Specification Language OVL: Open Verification Library (Verilog modules)
 - OVA: Open Vera Language
 - SVA: System Verilog Assertions
 - SVL: System Verilog assertion Library (SVA version of OVL)

• Problem: too many languages

- PSL from Accellera Formal Verification Technical Committee
- • OVA/SVA from Accellera SystemVerilog Assertion Committee

 • OVL
 from Accellera Open Verification Library Technical Commitee
- OVL from Accelera Open vernication Library Technical Commut all Accellera committees + some new IEEE committees!

• PSL and OVA/SVA have been 'aligned'

- OVL is a checker library for dynamic property verification
 currently VHDL, Verilog and PSL versions
 - eventually PSL version golden and others derived maybe

29

IBM's Sugar and Accellera's PSL

- Sugar 1 is the property language of IBM's RuleBase model checker
- Sugar 1 is CTL plus Sugar Extended Regular Expressions (SEREs)
- SEREs are ITL-like constructs

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- Accellera ran a competition to select a 'standard' property language
 - Finalists were IBM's Sugar 2 and Motorola's CBV• Intel/Synopsys ForSpec eliminated earlier
- (apparently industry politics involved)Sugar 2 is based on LTL rather than CTL
 - has CTL constructs called "Optional Branching Extension" (OBE)
 - has clocking constructs for temporal abstraction
- Accellera purged "Sugar" from it property language
 - the word "Sugar" was too associated with IBM
 language renamed to PSL
 - SEREs now Sequential Extended Regular Expressions
- People lobby to make PSL more like ForSpec (align with SVA)

PSL notation		Sequential Extended Regular Expressions (SEREs)
PSL notation Previous notation $P \land Q$ $P \Rightarrow Q$ $\neg P$ XP FP GP $[P \cup Q]$ $[P \cup Q]$ $[P \nabla Q]$ skip R^* R_1 ; R_2 R_1 ; skip; R_2	PSL ASCII notation P & Q P -> Q !P (exclamation mark is negation) next P eventually! P (exclamation mark is not negation) always P P until! Q P until! Q true R[*] R_1 : R_2 R_1 ; R_2	 Sequential Extended Regular Expressions (SEREs) Similar to ITL - but weaker On earlier slide: R[*], R₁:R₂, R₁;R₂ Other SERE operators include R₁ + R₂ either R₁ or R₂ holds R₁ & k R₂ both R₁ and R₂ hold for same number of cycles R₁ & k R₂ both R₁ and R₂ hold, but one may finish before the other Actually & is not primitive (braces { and } used for grouping) {r1} & {r2} = {{r1} & k {r2; true[*]} {{r1; true[*]} ** {r2}} SEREs can be used to improve readability of formulas, compare: always (reqin -> next(ackout -> next(!abortin -> (ackin & next ackin))); with always {reqin; ackout; !abortin} -> {ackin; ackin} where PSL formulas r₁ -> r₂ defined later
	1	2
SERES in HOL Syntax : r ::= Atom(p) (At $ r_1 r_2$ (Di $ r_1 ; r_2$ (Co $ r_1 : r_2$ (Fu $ r_1 & tat r_2$ (Le $ r_1 * $ (Re	tomic formula) isjunction) oncatenation) usion: ITL's chop) ength matching conjunction) epeat)	PSL Foundation Language (FL) • Syntax: $f ::= Atom(p)$ (Atomic formula) $\mid \neg f$ (Negation) $\mid f_i \lor f_2$ (Disjunction) $\mid next f$ (successor) $\mid \{r\}(f)$ (Suffix implication) $\mid \{r_1\} \mid \rightarrow \{r_2\}$ (Suffix next implication) $\mid [f_1 until f_2]$ (Until)
• Semantics: (s ranges over state "head" denotes he Atom(p) = $\lambda w. p$ (head $r_1 \mid r_2 = \lambda w. r_1 w$ $r_1 ; r_2 = \lambda w. \exists w_1 w$ $r_1 : r_2 = \lambda w. \exists w_1 s$ $r_1 \& r_2 = \lambda w. r_1 w$ $r_1 \& r_2 = \lambda w. w = \zeta$	es; w ranges over finite lists of states; ead of a list; infix "." denotes concatenation) ed w) $\forall r_2 w$ $w_2. w = w_1.w_2 \land r_1 w_1 \land r_2 w_2$ $w_2. w = w_1.s.w_2 \land r_1(w_1.s) \land r_2(s.w_2)$ $\land r_2 w$ $\rangle \lor \exists w_1 \cdots w_l. w = w_1.\cdots.w_l \land r w_1 \land \cdots \land r w_l$	• Semantics (simplified – no clocking, weak/strong distinction omitted): Atom(p) = $\lambda \sigma$. $p(\sigma(0))$ $\neg f$ = $\lambda \sigma$. $\eta(\sigma)$ $f_1 \lor f_2$ = $\lambda \sigma$. $f_1 \sigma \lor f_2 \sigma$ next f = $\lambda \sigma$. $f(\text{Tail } 1 (\sigma))$ { r }(f) = $\lambda \sigma$. $\exists w \sigma'. \sigma = w.\sigma' \land r w \land f \sigma'$ { r_1 } $l \rightarrow$ { r_2 } = $\lambda \sigma$. $\exists w_1 \sigma'. \sigma = w_1.\sigma' \land r_1 w_1 \Rightarrow \exists w_2 \sigma''. \sigma' = w_2.\sigma'' \land r_2$ [f_1 until f_2] = $\lambda \sigma$. $\exists i. f_2(\text{Tail } i \sigma) \land \forall j. j < i \Rightarrow f_1(\text{Tail } j \sigma)$ • There is also an Optional Branching Extension (OBE)

Combining SEREs with LTL formulas

- Formula $\{r\}f$ means LTL formula f true after SERE r
- Example

After a sequence in which req is asserted, followed four cycles later by an assertion of grant, followed by a cycle in which abortin is not asserted, we expect to see an assertion of ack some time in the future.

• Can represent by

always {req;[*3];grant;!abortin}(eventually! ack)

- where eventually! is LTL future operator F, so:
 - eventually! f = [T U f] = [true until! f]
- N.B. suffix "!" denotes "strong"
 - strong/weak distinction not covered here important for dynamic checking
 gives semantics when simulator halts before an expected event occurs

SERE examples

• How can we modify

always {reqin;ackout;!abortin} |-> {ackin;ackin} so that the two cycles of ackin start the cycle after !abortin?

• Two ways of doing this

always {reqin;ackout;!abortin} |-> {true;ackin;ackin}

always {reqin;ackout;!abortin} |=> {ackin;ackin}

• |=> is a defined operator

 ${r1} | \Rightarrow {r2} = {r1} | \Rightarrow {true; r2}$

• Note: true and T are synonyms

Examples of defined notations: consecutive repetition

• Define r[+] = {r;r[*]} r[*i] = [^- false[*] if i=0 [_- {r;r;...;r} otherwise (i repetitions of r) r[*i..j] = {r[*i]} | {r[*(i+1)]} | ... | {r[*j]} [+] = true[+] [*] = true[*]

• Example

Whenever we have a sequence of req followed by ack, we should see a full transaction starting the following cycle. A full transaction starts with an assertion of the signal start_trans, followed by one to eight consecutive data transfers, followed by the assertion of signal end_trans. A data transfer is indicated by the assertion of signal data

always {req;ack} |=> {start_trans;data[*1..8];end_trans}

Fixed number of non-consecutive repetitions

• Example

Whenever we have a sequence of req followed by ack, we should see a full transaction starting the following cycle. A full transaction starts with an assertion of the signal start_trans, followed by eight not necessarily consecutive data transfers, followed by the assertion of signal end_trans. A data transfer is indicated by the assertion of signal data

• Can represent by

always {req;ack} |=>
 {start_trans;{{!data[*];data]:*8];!data[*]};end_trans}

• Define

b[= i] = {!b[*];b}[*i];!b[*]

• Then have a nicer representation

always {req;ack} |=> {start_trans;data[= 8];end_trans}

Variable number of non-consecutive repetitions

• Example

Whenever we have a sequence of req followed by ack, we should see a full transaction starting the following cycle. A full transaction starts with an assertion of the signal start_trans, followed by one to eight not necessarily consecutive data transfers, followed by the assertion of signal end_trans. A data transfer is indicated by the assertion of signal data

- Define
 - $b[=i..j] = \{b[=i]\} | \{b[=(i+1)]\} | ... | \{b[=j]\}$
- Then

always{req;ack} |=> {start_trans;data[= 1..8];end_trans}

• These examples are meant to illustrate how PSL/Sugar is much more readable than raw CTL or LTL

Clocking

- Basic idea: b@clk abstracts b on rising edges of clk
- Can clock SEREs (r@clk) and formulas (f@clk)
- Can have several clocks
 - Official semantics messy due to clocking
- Can 'translate away' clocks by pushing @clk inwards
 rules given in PSL manual
 - roughly: $b@clk \longrightarrow \{!clk[*]; clk \& b\}$
- Same idea as temporal abstraction: b at clk

Model checking PSL

- SEREs checked by generating a finite automaton
 recall: regular expressions can be recognised by finite automata
 - these automata are called "satellites"
- FL checked using standard LTL methods
- OBE checked by standard CTL methods
- Can also check formula for runs of a simulator
 - this is dynamic verification
 - semantics handles possibility of finite paths messy!

11

PSL layer structure

- Boolean layer has atomic predicates
- Temporal layer has LTL (FL) and CTL (OBE) properties

10

Verification layer has commands for how to use properties
 e.g. assert, assume

12

assert	always	(!en1 & e	n2))	
1	1	1		
1	1	1		
1	1		- Boolean laye	er
1	1			
1			- temporal lay	ver
1				
			- verification	n layer

• Modelling layer has HDL constructs for specifying inputs and auxiliary hardware

PSL/Sugar summary

- Combines together LTL, ITL and CTL
- Regular expressions SEREs
- LTL Foundation Language formulas
- CTL Optional Branching Extension
- Relatively simple set of primitives + definitional extension

13

- Boolean, temporal, verification, modelling layers
- Semantics for static and dynamic verification (needs strong/weak distinction)

New Topic: Simulation or Event semantics

- HDLs use discrete event simulation
 - changes to variables \Rightarrow threads enabled
 - enabled threads executed non-deterministically • execution of threads \Rightarrow more events
- Combinational thread:
 - always $\mathbb{Q}(v_1 \text{ or } \cdots \text{ or } v_n) v := E$
 - enabled by any change to v_1, \ldots, v_n
- Positive edge triggered sequential threads:
- · i ositive edge triggered sequentiar thread

always @(posedge clk) v := E

- \bullet enabled by clk changing to \mathbbm{T}
- Negative edge triggered sequential threads:
 - always @(negedge clk) v := E
 - \bullet enabled by $\underline{\mathit{clk}}$ changing to F

Simulation

- Given
 - a set of threads
 - initial values for variables read or written by threadsa sequence of input values
 - (inputs are variables not in LHS of assignments)
- simulation algorithm \Rightarrow a sequence of states



• Simulation is non-deterministic

Combinational threads in series



14

• HDL-like specification:

always	@(in)	$l_1 := f(in)$	 thread T1
always	$Q(l_1)$	$l_2 := g(l_1)$	 thread T2
always	$Q(l_2)$	$out := h(l_2)$	 thread T3

- Suppose in changes to v at simulation time t
 - T1 will become enabled and assign f(v) to l_1
 - if l_1 's value changes then T2 will become enabled
 - (still simulation time t) • T2 will assign g(f(v)) to l_2
 - if l₂'s value changes then T will become enabled
 - (still simulation time t)
 - T3 will assign h(g(f(v))) to out
 - simulation quiesces (still simulation time t)
- Steps at same simulation time happen in δ -time (VHDL jargon)



