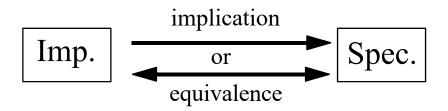
4. Verification by Theorem Proving

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Introduction

Theorem Proving

Prove that an implementation satisfies a specification by mathematical reasoning



Implementation and specification expressed as *formulas* in *a formal logic*

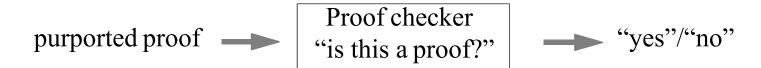
Required relationship (logical equivalence/logical implication) described as *a theorem* to be proven within the context of a proof calculus

A proof system:

A set of axioms and inference rules (simplification, rewriting, induction, etc.)

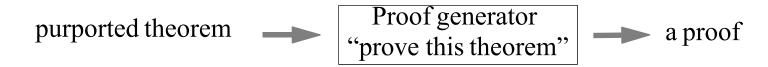
Introduction (cont'd)

Proof checking



• It is a purely *syntactic* matter to decide whether each theorem is an axiom or follows from previous theorems (axioms) by a rule of inference

Proof generation



- Complete automation generally impossible: theoretical undecidability limitations
- However, a great deal can be automated (decidable subsets, specific classes of applications and specification styles)

First-Order Logic

- *Propositional logic*: reasoning about complete sentences.
- First-order logic: also reasoning about individual objects and relationships between them.

Syntax

Objects (in FOL) are denoted by expressions called *terms*:
 Constants a, b, c,...; *Variables* u, v, w,...;
 f(t₁, t₂,..., t_n) where t₁, t₂,..., t_n are terms and f a *function symbol* of n arguments

• Predicates:

true (T) and *false* (F) $p(t_1, t_2,..., t_n)$ where $t_1, t_2,..., t_n$ are *terms* and p a *predicate symbol* of n arguments

• Formulas:

Predicates

P and Q formulas, then $\neg P, P \land Q, P \lor Q, P \rightarrow Q, P \leftrightarrow Q$ are formulas x a variable, P a formula, then $\forall x.P, \exists x.Q$ are formulas (x is not free in P, Q)

First-Order Logic (cont'd)

Semantics of a first-order logic formulae G: interpretation for function, constant and predicate symbols in G and assigning values to free variables

First-Order Interpretations (Structures) M: M = (D, I)

- D is a non-empty domain of the structure
- I is an interpretation function, assigns function, constant and predicate symbols:
 - (1) For every function symbol f of rank n>0, I(f): $D^n \rightarrow D$ is an n-ary function.
 - (2) For every constant c, I(c) is an element of D.
 - (3) For every predicate symbol P of rank $n \ge 0$, $I(P): D^n \rightarrow \{F, T\}$ is an n-ary predicate.

Evaluation

- For every M, a formula can be evaluated to T or F according to the following rules:
 (1) Evaluate truth values of formulas P and Q, and then the truth values of ¬P, P∧Q, P∨Q, P→Q, P↔Q using propositional logic
 - (2) $\forall x$. P evaluates to T if truth value of G is T for every $d \in D$; otherwise, it is F
 - (3) $\exists x.P$ evaluates to T if truth value of G is T for at least one $d \in D$; otherwise, it is F

First-Order Logic (cont'd)

Example: G = $\forall x. (P(x) \rightarrow Q(f(x), a))$, with M=(D, I), D={1,2}, and I as:

Assignment for a	Assignment for f	Assignment for P and Q
a	f(1) f(2)	P(1) P(2) Q(1,1) Q(1,2) Q(2,1) Q(2,2)
1	2 1	FT TTFT

- $x=1: P(x) \rightarrow Q(f(x), a) = P(1) \rightarrow Q(f(1), a) = P(1) \rightarrow Q(2, 1) = F \rightarrow F = T;$
- $x=2: P(x) \rightarrow Q(f(x), a) = P(2) \rightarrow Q(f(2), a) = P(2) \rightarrow Q(1, 1) = T \rightarrow T = T.$
- Since $P(x) \rightarrow Q(f(x), a)$ is true for all $x \in D$, $\forall x. (P(x) \rightarrow Q(f(x), a))$ is true under M
- M is a model of $G(M \models G)$

(we can also prove that $\exists x. (P(x) \rightarrow Q(f(x), a))$ is true under M)

First-Order Logic (cont'd)

The Validity Problem of FOL

- To decide the validity for formulas of FOL, the truth table method does not work!
- *Reason*: must deal with structures not just truth assignments.
- Structures need not be finite ...

Semi-decidable (partially solvable)

• There is an algorithm which starts with an input, and

1) if the input is valid then it terminates after a finite number of steps, and outputs the correct value (Yes or No)

2) if the input is not valid then it reaches a reject halt or loops forever

Theorem (Church-Turing, 1936)

The validity problem for formulas of FOL is undecidable, but semi-decidable.

• Some subsets of FOL are decidable.

Higher-Order Logic

- *First-order logic*: only domain variables can be quantified.
- Second-order logic: quantification over subsets of variables (i.e., over predicates).
- *Higher-order logics*: quantification over arbitrary predicates and functions.

Higher-Order Logic

- Variables can be functions and predicates,
- Functions and predicates can take functions as arguments and return functions as values,
- Quantification over functions and predicates.

Since arguments and results of predicates and functions can themselves be predicates or functions, this imparts a **first-class status** to functions, and allows them to be manipulated just like *ordinary values*

Example 1: (mathematical induction)

 $\forall P. [P(0) \land (\forall n. P(n) \rightarrow P(n+1))] \rightarrow \forall n. P(n) \qquad (Impossible to express it in FOL)$

Example 2: Function Rise defined as Rise (c, t) = $\neg c(t) \land c(t+1)$

Rise expresses the notion that a signal *c* rises at time *t*.

Signal is modeled by a function c: $N \rightarrow \{F, T\}$, passed as argument to Rise.

Result of applying Rise to c is a function: $N \rightarrow \{F, T\}$.

Higher-Order Logic (cont'd)

Advantage: high expressive power!

Disadvantages:

- Incompleteness of a sound proof system for most higher-order logics
- **Theorem** (Gödel, 1931) *There is no complete deduction system for the second-order logic.*
- Reasoning more difficult than in FOL, need ingenious inference rules and heuristics.
- Inconsistencies can arise in higher-order systems if semantics not carefully defined

"Russell Paradox":

Let P be defined by $P(Q) = \neg Q(Q)$. By substituting P for Q, leads to $P(P) = \neg P(P)$, (P: bool \rightarrow bool, Q: bool \rightarrow bool) contradiction!

- Introduction of "types" (syntactical mechanism) is effective against certain inconsistencies.
- Use *controlled form of logic and inferences* to minimize the risk of inconsistencies, while gaining the benefits of powerful representation mechanism.
- Higher-order logic increasingly popular for hardware verification!

Theorem Proving Systems

- Automated deduction systems (e.g. Prolog)
 - full automatic, but only for a decidable subset of FOL
 - speed emphasized over versatility
 - often implemented by ad hoc decision procedures
 - often developed in the context of AI research
- Interactive theorem proving systems
 - semi-automatic, but not restricted to a decidable subset
 - versatility emphasized over speed
 - in principle, a complete proof can be generated for every theorem

Some theorem proving systems:

Boyer-Moore (first-order logic) HOL (higher-order logic) PVS (higher-order logic) Lambda (higher-order logic)

Boyer-Moore (Nqthm)

- Developed at University of Texas and later CLI
- Quantifier-free first-order logic.
- Powerful built-in heuristics; user must find a sequence of lemmas that permits to prove the desired theorem with available heuristics
- Collection of LISP programs that permit the user to axiomatize inductively constructed data types, define recursive functions, and (inductively) prove theorems about them
- Process of proof generation is not fully automatic; user assistance for setting up intermediate lemmas and definitions
- A number of verification application including microprocessors
- Tool does not exist anymore!

ACL2

- Developed at CLI
- ACL2 is a mathematical logic together with a mechanical theorem prover to help reason in the logic
- The logic is just a subset of applicative Common Lisp
- The theorem prover is an "industrial strength" version of the Boyer-Moore theorem prover, Nqthm
- Models of all kinds of computing systems can be built in ACL2, just as in Nqthm, even though the formal logic is Lisp
- Once built, an ACL2 model of a system can be *executed* in Common Lisp
- ACL2 can also be used to prove theorems about the model
- For more information: http://www.cs.utexas.edu/users/moore/acl2/

PVS

- PVS (Prototype Verification System) developed at SRI
- The specification language of PVS is based on classical, typed higher-order logic
- The primitive inferences include propositional and quantifier rules, induction, rewriting, and *decision procedures* for linear arithmetic
- The implementations of these primitive inferences are optimized for large proofs: E.g., propositional simplification uses BDDs, and auto-rewrites are cached for efficiency
- User-defined procedures can combine these primitive inferences to yield higher-level proof strategies
- PVS includes a *BDD-based decision procedure* for relational Mu-calculus: experimental integration of theorem proving and CTL model checking
- Proofs are developed interactively by combining high-level inference procedures:
- For more information: <u>http://pvs.csl.sri.com/</u>

Lambda

- Commercial tool by Abstract Hardware Ltd. (UK)
- Verification and synthesis tool based on high-order logic theorem proving
- Specification in predicate logic and expressed in the L2 language (based on SML, Standard Meta Language)
- Specification can be executed using the "Animator" tool
- Interactive correct-by-construction synthesis using
 - transformations by applying rewriting rules
 - partitioning
 - instantiating and interconnecting components
 - scheduling operations, and allocating resources (even for pipelined designs)
- Backtracking to a preceding design and exploration of alternatives
- Reasoning over a mix of timing scales, e.g., clock ticks, frame periods, pipeline insertion
- Output current state of the design (subset of L2) in VHDL and produce control microcode
- Complex properties can be stated and proven as formulas to be satisfied by the design
- Tool does not exist anymore!

HOL

- HOL (Higher-Order Logic) developed at University of Cambridge
- Interactive environment (in ML, Meta Language) for machine assisted theorem proving in higher-order logic (a proof assistant)
- Steps of a proof are implemented by applying inference rules chosen by the user; HOL checks that the steps are safe
- All inferences rules are built on top of eight primitive inference rules
- Mechanism to carry out backward proofs by applying built-in ML functions called *tactics* and *tacticals*
- By building complex tactics, the user can customize proof strategies
- Numerous applications in software and hardware verification
- Large user community
- For more information: <u>https://hol-theorem-prover.org/</u>

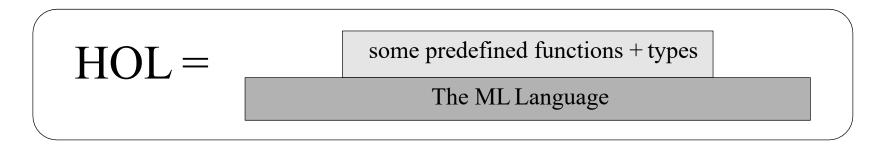
<u>Note</u>: we will now focus on HOL!

HOL Theorem Prover

- Logic is strongly typed (type inference, abstract data types, polymorphic types, etc.)
- It is sufficient for expressing most ordinary mathematical theories (the power of this logic is similar to set theory)
- HOL provides considerable built-in theorem-proving infrastructure:
 - a powerful *rewriting* subsystems
 - *library* facility containing useful theories and tools for general use
 - *Decision procedures* for tautologies and semi-decision procedure for linear arithmetic provided as libraries
- The primary interface to HOL is the functional programming language ML
- Theorem proving tools are functions in ML (users of HOL build their own applicationspecific theorem proving infrastructure by writing programs in ML)
- Many versions of HOL:
 - HOL88: Classic ML (from LCF);
 - HOL90: Standard ML
 - HOL98: Moscow ML
 - HOL4: Standard ML

HOL Theorem Prover (cont'd)

• HOL and ML



- The HOL systems can be used in two main ways:
 - for directly proving theorems: when higher-order logic is a suitable specification language (e.g., for hardware verification and classical mathematics)
 - as embedded theorem proving support for application-specific verification systems when specification in specific formalisms needed to be supported using customized tools.
- The approach to mechanizing formal proof used in HOL is due to Robin Milner.
 He designed a system, called LCF: Logic for Computable Functions. (The HOL system is a direct descendant of LCF.)

HOL Theorem Prover (cont'd)

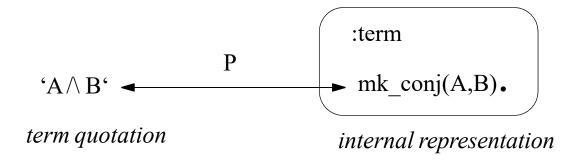
• How the logic is embedded in ML:

logic	terms	types	theorems
ML data type	:term	:hol_type	:thm

• Terms are represented by values of the ML abstract data type: term

- P 'T /\ F ==> T'; val it = 'T/\ F ==> T' : term

• The quotation parser and pretyyprinter:

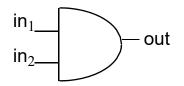


• Functional description:

express output signal as function of input signals, e.g.:

AND gate:

out = **and** $(in_1, in_2) = (in_1 \land in_2)$



• Relational (predicate) description:

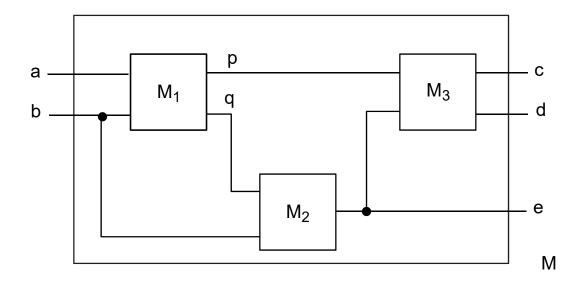
gives relationship between inputs and outputs in the form of a predicate (a Boolean function returning "true" of "false"), e.g.:

AND gate: **AND** ((in₁, in₂),(out)):= out =(in₁ \land in₂)

Notes:

- functional descriptions allow recursive functions to be described. They cannot describe bi-directional signal behavior or functions with multiple feed-back signals, though
- relational descriptions make no difference between inputs and outputs
- Specification in HOL will be a combination of predicates, functions and abstract types

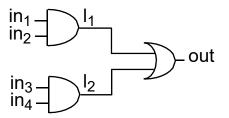
Network of modules



- conjunction "∧" of implementation module predicates M (a, b, c, d, e):= M₁ (a, b, p, q) ∧ M₂ (q, b, e) ∧ M₃ (e, p, c, d)
- hide internal lines (p,q) using existential quantification

$$\begin{array}{rl} M \ (a, \, b, \, c, \, d, \, e) \!\!\!\!:= & \exists \ p \ q. \\ & & M_1 \ (a, \, b, \, p, \, q) \wedge M_2 \ (q, \, b, \, e) \wedge M_3 \ (e, \, p, \, c, \, d) \end{array}$$

Combinational circuits



SPEC (in₁, in₂, in₃, in₄, out):= out = (in₁ \land in₂) \lor (in₃ \land in₄)

IMPL (in₁, in₂, in₃, in₄, out):= $\exists l_1 l_2$. **AND** (in₁, in₂, l_1) \land **AND** (in₃, in₄, l_2) \land **OR** (l_1 , l_2 , out) where **AND** (a, b, c):= (c = a \land b) **OR** (a, b, c):= (c = a \lor b)

Note: a functional description would be:

```
IMPL (in<sub>1</sub>, in<sub>2</sub>, in<sub>3</sub>, in<sub>4</sub>, out):=

out = (or (and (in<sub>1</sub>, in<sub>2</sub>), and (in<sub>3</sub>, in<sub>4</sub>))

where and (in<sub>1</sub>, in<sub>2</sub>) = (in<sub>1</sub> \land in<sub>2</sub>)

or (in<sub>1</sub>, in<sub>2</sub>) = (in<sub>1</sub> \lor in<sub>2</sub>)
```

Sequential circuits

- Explicit expression of time (discrete time modeled as natural numbers).
- Signals defined as functions over time, e.g. type: $(nat \rightarrow bool)$ or $(nat \rightarrow bitvec)$
- Example: D-flip-flop (latch):
 DFF (in, out):= (out (0) = F) ∧ (∀ t. out (t+1) = in (t)) *in* and *out* are functions of time *t* to boolean values: type (nat → bool)
- Notion of time can be added to combinational circuits, e.g., AND gate AND (in₁, in₂, out):= \forall t. out (t) = (in₁(t) \land in₂(t))
- Temporal operators can be defines as predicates, e.g.: EVENTUAL sig $t_1 = \exists t_2$. $(t_2 > t_1) \land sig t_2$

meaning that signal "sig" will eventually be true at time $t_2 > t_1$.

<u>Note</u>: This kind of specification using existential quantified time variables is useful to describe asynchronous behavior

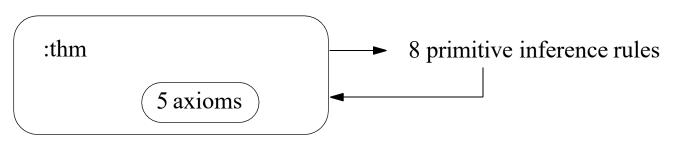
HOL Proof Mechanism

- A formal proof is a sequence, each of whose elements is
 - either an *axiom*
 - or follows from earlier members of the sequence by a *rule of inference*
- A *theorem* is the last element of a proof
- A sequent is written: $\Gamma \vdash P$, where Γ is a set of assumptions and P is the conclusion
- In HOL, this consists in applying ML functions representing rules of inference to axioms or previously generated theorems
- The sequence of such applications directly correspond to a proof
- A value of *type* thm can be obtained either
 - directly (as an axiom)
 - by computation (using the built-in functions that represent the inference rules)
- ML typechecking ensures these are the only ways to generate a thm:

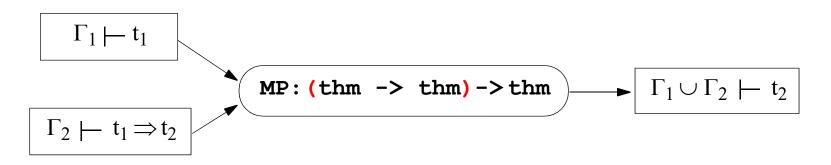
All theorems must be proved!

HOL Proof System

• In the core of HOL:



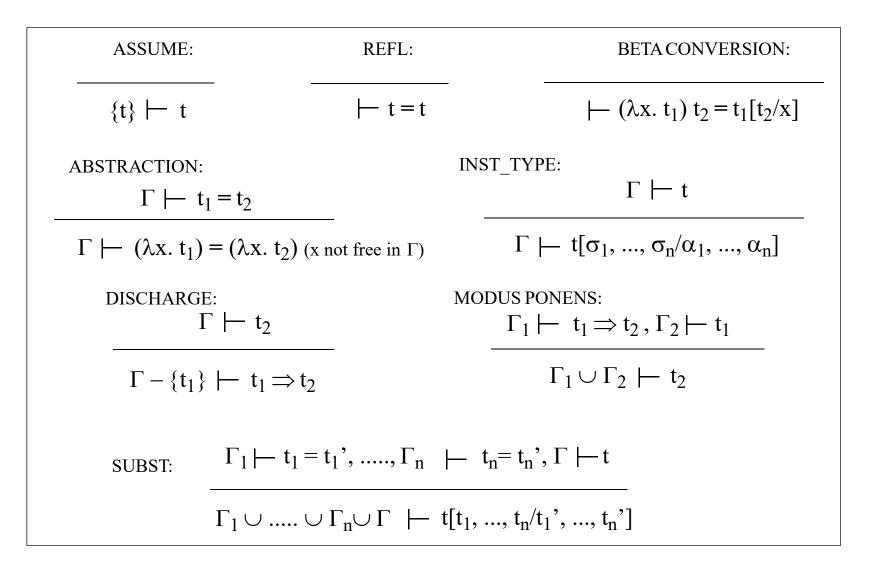
- An *inference rule*: as an ML function that returns a theorem as a result
- Example: modus ponens in HOL,



• The function returns only objects of type thm that logically follow by the inference rule

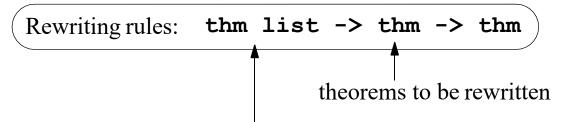
Primitive Rules

• All theorems in HOL are ultimately proved using only the primitive inference rule:



Basic Rewriting Rules

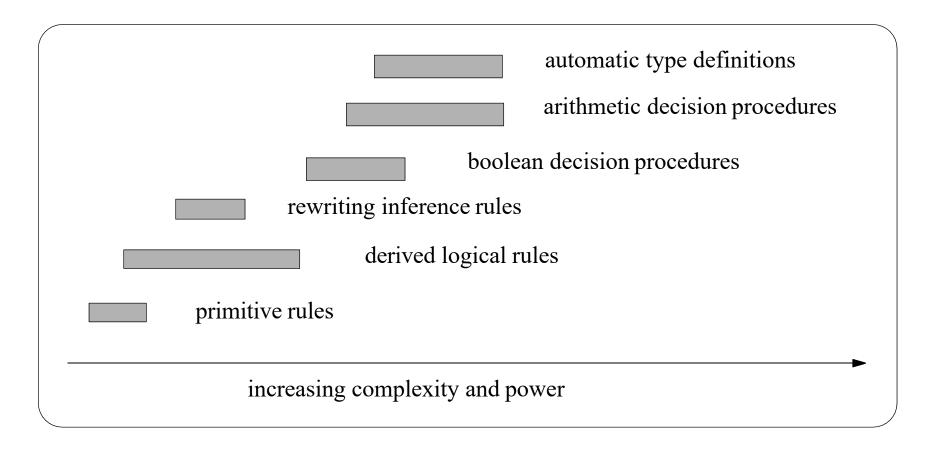
- Rewriting is done:
 - with all the supplied equations
 - on all subterms of the theorem to be rewritten
 - repeatedly, until no rewrite rule applies
- Rewriting rules:



list of equational theorems to be used as left-to-right rewrite rules

Built-in Derived Rules

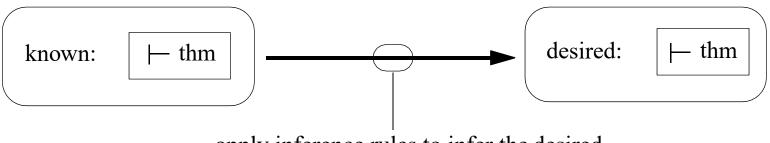
• There is a wide range of derived inference rules built into the system:



• To become an expert HOL user, one should continuously learn new rules and proof techniques

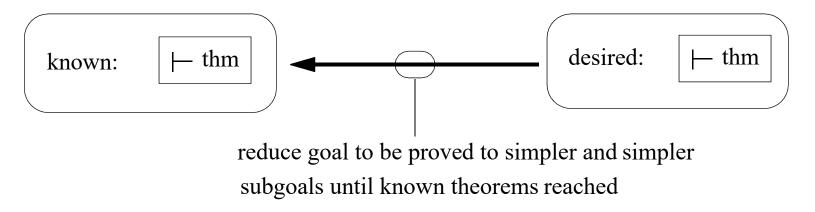
Proof Styles in HOL

• Forward proof style:

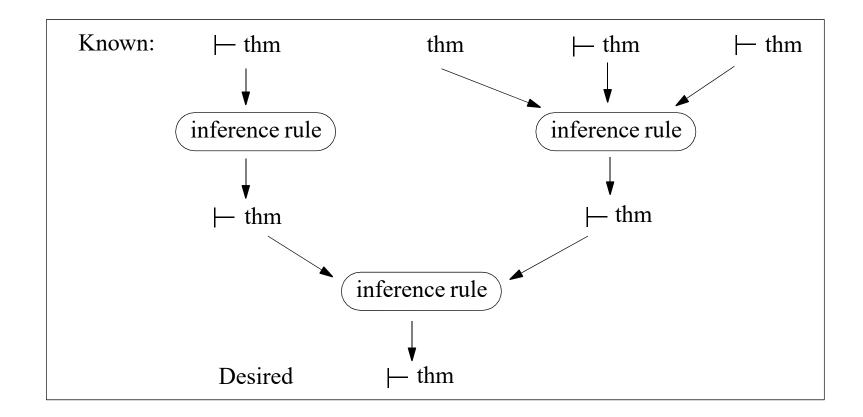


apply inference rules to infer the desired theorem from already proved theorems

• Goal-directed (or **Backward**) proof style:



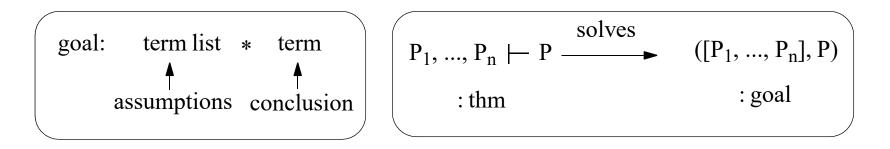
Forward Proof in HOL



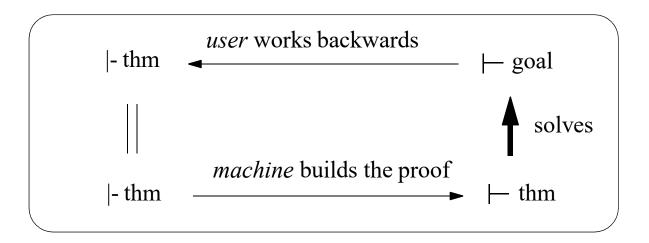
- can be millions of (primitive) inferences long
- usually not natural for "one-off" proofs
- but essential for tool building

Backward Proof in HOL

• Goals are represented by values of ML type

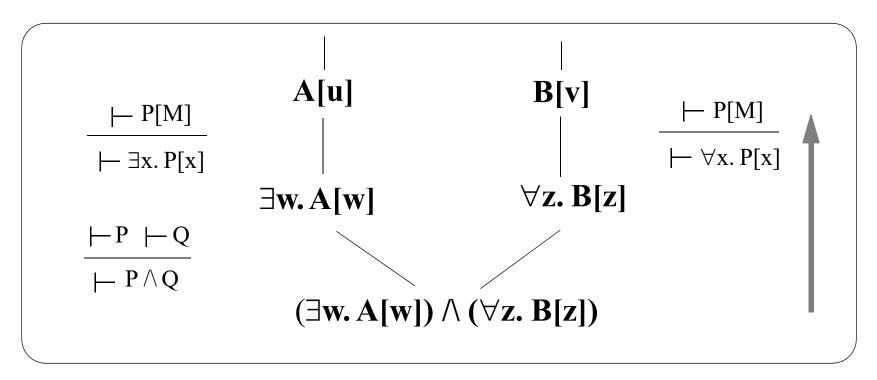


• Goal-directed proof in HOL:



Backward Proof

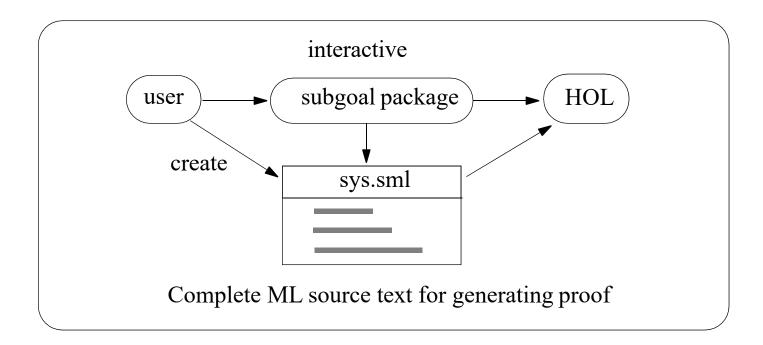
• Example:



• Reduction of a goal to *subgoals* is justified by an inference in the "opposite direction".

The Subgoal Package

- HOL has a subgoal package for finding tactic proofs interactively
- The subgoal package:
 - maintains a *stack* of subgoals to be proved
 - provides functions that operate on these subgoals
- The subgoal package is for finding the schema of the proof:

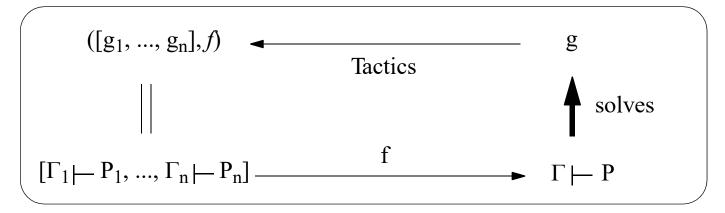


HOL Tactics

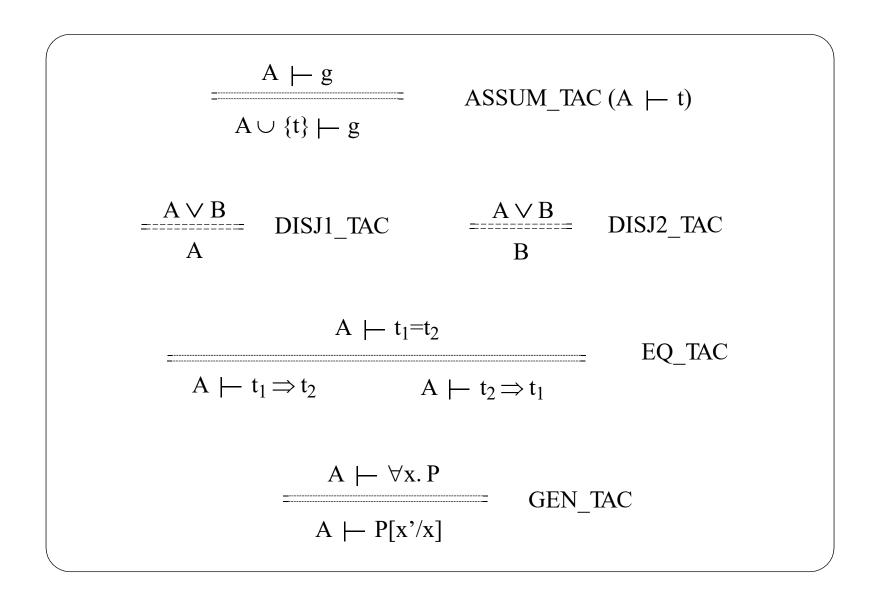
• Tactic is a function:

T: goal ->	goal list	(thm list -> t	:hm)
	subgoals	justification	

- Suppose that for a given goal g: $T(g) = ([g_1, ..., g_n], f)$
- If the theorems $\Gamma_1 \vdash P_1, ..., \Gamma_n \vdash P_n$ solve the goals $g_1, ..., g_n$, then $f([\Gamma_1 \vdash P_1, ..., \Gamma_n \vdash P_n])$ should solve the original goal g.
- In a picture:



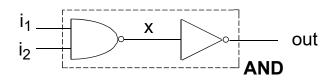
HOL Tactics (Examples)



Verification Methodology in HOL

- 1. Establish a formal specification (predicate) of the intended behavior (SPEC)
- 2. Establish a formal description (predicate) of the implementation (IMP), including:
 - behavioral specification of all sub-modules
 - structural description of the network of sub-modules
- 3. Formulation of a **proof goal**, either
 - IMP \Rightarrow SPEC (proof of implication), or
 - IMP \Leftrightarrow SPEC (proof of equivalence)
- 4. Formal verification of above goal using a set of inference rules

Example 1: Logic AND

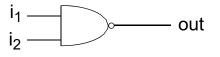


AND Specification:

AND_SPEC (i_1 , i_2 ,out) := out = $i_1 \land i_2$

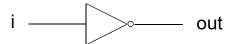
NAND specification:

NAND
$$(i_1, i_2, out) := out = \neg(i_1 \land i_2)$$



NOT specification:

NOT (i, out) := out = \neg i



AND Implementation:

AND_IMPL (i_1 , i_2 ,out) := $\exists x$. NAND (i_1 , i_2 ,x) \land NOT (x,out)

Logic AND (cont'd)

Proof Goal:

 $\forall i_1, i_2, \text{out. AND_IMPL}(i_1, i_2, \text{out}) \Rightarrow \text{AND_SPEC}(i_1, i_2, \text{out})$

Proof (forward)

AND_IMP (i_1 , i_2 ,out) {from above circuit diagram}

- $\vdash \exists x. \text{NAND} (i_1, i_2, x) \land \text{NOT} (x, \text{out}) \{\text{by def. of AND_IMP}\}\$
- \vdash NAND (i_1, i_2, x) \land NOT(x, out) {strip off " $\exists x$."}
- \vdash NAND (i₁,i₂,x) {left conjunct of line 3} x
- $\vdash x = \neg(i_1 \land i_2) \text{ {by def. of NAND}}$
- \vdash NOT (*x*,out) {right conjunct of line 3}
- \vdash out = $\neg x \{ by def. of NOT \}$
- \vdash out = $\neg(\neg(i_1 \land i_2)$ {substitution, line 5 into 7}
- $\vdash \text{ out} = (i_1 \land i_2) \text{ {simplify}, } \neg \neg t = t \text{ }$
- $\vdash \text{AND} (i_1, i_2, \text{out}) \text{ {by def. of AND spec }}$
- \vdash AND_IMPL (i₁,i₂,out) \Rightarrow AND_SPEC (i₁,i₂,out)

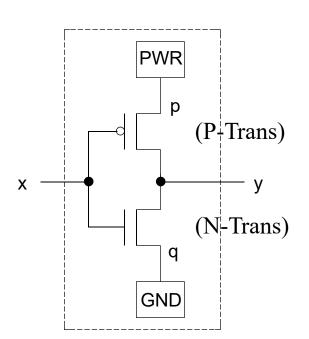
Q.E.D.

Example 2: CMOS-Inverter

Specification (black-box behavior)

 $SPEC(x,y) := (y = \neg x)$

Implementation



Basic Modules Specs

$$PWR(x):= (x = T)$$

$$GND(x):= (x = F)$$

$$N-Trans(g,x,y):= (g \Rightarrow (x = y))$$

$$P-Trans(g,x,y):= (\neg g \Rightarrow (x = y))$$

Implementation (network structure)

 $IMPL(x,y) := \exists p q.$ $PWR(p) \land$ $GND(q) \land$ $N-Tran(x,y,q) \land$ P-Tran(x,p,y)

Proof goal

 $\forall x y. IMPL(x,y) \Leftrightarrow SEPC(x,y)$

Proof (forward)

$$IMPL(x,y) := \exists p q.$$

$$(p = T) \land$$

$$(q = F) \land$$

$$N-Tran(x,y,q) \land$$

$$P-Tran(x,p,y)$$

(substitution of the definition of PWR and GND)

$$\begin{split} \text{IMPL}(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}) &\coloneqq \exists \ p \ q. \\ & (p = T) \land \\ & (q = F) \land \\ & \text{N-Tran}(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y},F) \land \\ & \text{P-Tran}(\mathbf{x},T,\mathbf{y}) \end{split} \qquad (\text{substitution of } p \ \text{and } q \ \text{in P-Tran and N-Tran}) \end{split}$$

$$IMPL(x,y) := (\exists p. p = T) \land$$

(\expression q = F) \wedge (use Thm: "\expression a. t1 \wedge t2 = (\expression a. t_1) \wedge t_2" if a is free in t_2)
N-Tran(x,y,F) \wedge
P-Tran(x,T,y)

$$IMPL(x,y) := T \land$$

$$T \land \qquad (use Thm: "(\exists a. a=T) = T" and "(\exists a. a=F) = T")$$

$$N-Tran(x,y,F) \land$$

$$P-Tran(x,T,y)$$

IMPL(x,y):= N-Tran(x,y,F) \land (use Thm: " $x \wedge T = x$ ") P-Tran(x,T,q)

IMPL(x,y):= $(x \Rightarrow (y = F)) \land$ $(\neg x \Rightarrow (T = y))$

 $IMPL(x,y) := (\neg x \lor (y = F)) \land$

 $(\mathbf{X} \lor (\mathbf{T} = \mathbf{y}))$

$$(use ``(a \Rightarrow b) = (\neg a \lor b)")$$

Boolean simplifications:

$$\begin{split} IMPL(x,y) &:= (\neg x \land x) \lor (\neg x \land (T = y)) \lor ((y = F) \land x) \lor ((y = F) \land (T = y)) \\ IMPL(x,y) &:= F \lor (\neg x \land (T = y)) \lor ((y = F) \land x) \lor F \\ IMPL(x,y) &:= (\neg x \land (T = y)) \lor ((y = F) \land x) \end{split}$$

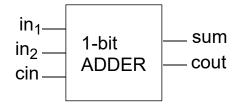
Case analysis x=T/F $x=T: IMPL(T,y):= (F \land (T = y)) \lor ((y = F)\land T)$ $x=F: IMPL(F,y):= (T \land (T = y)) \lor ((y = F)\land F)$ x=T: IMPL(T,y):= (y = F) x=F: IMPL(F,y):= (T = y)Case analysis on SPEC: x=T: SPEC(T,y):= (y=F)x=F: SPEC(F,y):= (y=T)

Conclusion: \vdash SPEC(x,y) \Leftrightarrow IMPL(x,y)

Abstraction Forms

- **Structural abstraction:** only the behavior of the external inputs and outputs of a module is of interest (abstracts away any internal details)
- **Behavioral abstraction:** only a specific part of the total behavior (or behavior under specific environment) is of interest
- **Data abstraction:** behavior described using abstract data types (e.g. natural numbers instead of Boolean vectors)
- **Temporal abstraction:** behavior described using different time granularities (e.g. refinement of instruction cycles to clock cycles)

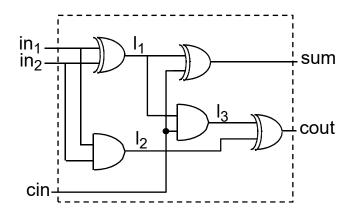
Example 3: 1-bit Adder



Specification:

ADDER_SPEC (in₁:nat, in₂:nat, cin:nat, sum:nat, cout:nat):= in₁+in₂+cin = 2 * cout + sum

Implementation:



<u>Note</u>: Spec is a **behavioral abstraction** of Impl.

1-bit Adder (cont'd)

Implementation:

Define a **data abstraction function (bn: bool** \rightarrow **nat**) needed to relate Spec variable types (nat) to Impl variable types (bool):

$$bn(x) \coloneqq \begin{cases} 1, \text{ if } x = T \\ 0, \text{ if } x = F \end{cases}$$

Proof goal:

∀ in₁, in₂, cin, sum, cout. ADDER_IMPL (in₁, in₂, cin, sum, cout) ⇒ ADDER_SPEC (**bn**(in₁), **bn**(in₂), **bn**(cin), **bn**(sum), **bn**(cout))

Verification of Generic Circuits

- used in datapath design and verification
- idea: verify n-bit circuit then specialize proof for specific value of n, (i.e., once proven for n, a simple instantiation of the theorem for any concrete value, e.g. 32, gets a proven theorem for that instance).
- use of induction proof

Example: N-bit Adder

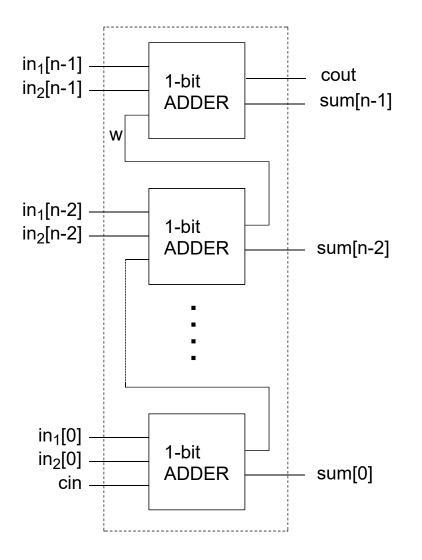
$$\begin{array}{c|c} \text{in}_1[0..n-1] \\ \text{in}_2[0..n-1] \\ \text{cin} \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c|c} n-\text{bit} \\ \text{ADDER} \\ --\text{cout} \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c|c} \text{sum}[0..n-1] \\ --\text{cout} \\ \end{array}$$

Specification

N-ADDER_SPEC (\mathbf{n} , in_1 , in_2 ,cin,sum,cout):= ($in_1 + in_2 + cin = 2^{n+1} * cout + sum$)

Example 4: N-bit Adder

Implementation



N-bit Adder (cont'd)

Implementation

• recursive definition:

N-ADDER_IMP (n,in₁[0..n-1],in₂[0..n-1],cin,sum[0..n-1],cout):= \exists w. N-ADDER_IMP (n-1,in₁[0..n-2],in₂[0..n-2],cin,sum[0..n-2],w) N-ADDER_IMP (1,in₁[n-1],in₂[n-1],w,sum[n-1],cout)

- Note: N-ADDER_IMP (1,in₁[i],in₂[i],cin,sum[i],cout)
 - = ADDER_IMP (in₁[i],in₂[i],cin,sum[i],cout)
- Data abstraction function (vn: bitvec → nat) to relate bit vctors to natural numbers: vn(x[0]):= bn(x[0]) vn(x[0,n]):= 2ⁿ * bn(x[n]) + vn(x[0,n-1])

Proof goal:

 \forall **n**, in₁, in₂, cin, sum, cout.

N-ADDER_IMP ($n,in_1[0..n-1],in_2[0..n-1],cin,sum[0..n-1],cout$)

 $\Rightarrow \text{N-ADDER_SPEC} (n, \textbf{vn}(\text{in}_1[0..n-1]), \textbf{vn}(\text{in}_2[0..n-1]), \textbf{vn}(\text{cin}), \textbf{vn}(\text{sum}[0..n-1]), \textbf{vn}(\text{cout}))$

can be **instantiated** with **n** = 32:

 \forall in₁, in₂, cin, sum, cout.

N-ADDER_IMP (in₁[0..31],in₂[0..31],cin,sum[0..31],cout)

 \Rightarrow N-ADDER_SPEC (vn(in₁[0..31]),vn(in₂[0..31]),vn(cin),vn(sum[0..31]),vn(cout))

N-bit Adder (cont'd)

Proof by induction over n:

• basis step:

N-ADDER_IMP $(0,in_1[0],in_2[0],cin,sum[0],cout)$

 $\Rightarrow \text{N-ADDER_SPEC} (0, \mathbf{vn}(\text{in}_1[0]), \mathbf{vn}(\text{in}_2[0]), \mathbf{vn}(\text{cin}), \mathbf{vn}(\text{sum}[0]), \mathbf{vn}(\text{cout}))$

• induction step:

 $[N-ADDER_IMP (n,in_1[0..n-1],in_2[0..n-1],cin,sum[0..n-1],cout) \Rightarrow$

N-ADDER_SPEC (n,vn(in₁[0..n-1]),vn(in₂[0..n-1]),vn(cin),vn(sum[0..n-1]),vn(cout))] \Rightarrow

 $[N-ADDER_IMP(n+1,in_1[0..n],in_2[0..n],cin,sum[0..n],cout) \Rightarrow$

 $N-ADDER_SPEC(n+1, vn(in_1[0..n]), vn(in_2[0..n]), vn(cin), vn(sum[0..n]), vn(cout))]$

Notes:

• basis step is equivalent to 1-bit adder proof, i.e.

ADDER_IMP (in₁[0],in₂[0],cin,sum[0],cout)

 \Rightarrow ADDER_SPEC (**bn**(in₁[0]),**bn**(in₂[0]),**bn**(cin),**bn**(sum[0]),**bn**(cout))

• induction step needs more creativity and work load!

Practical Issues of Theorem Proving

No fully automatic theorem provers. All require human guidance in indirect form, such as:

- When to delete redundant hypotheses, when to keep a copy of a hypothesis
- Why and how (order) to use lemmas, what lemma to use is an art
- How and when to apply rules and rewrites
- Induction hints (also nested induction)
- Selection of proof strategy, orientation of equations, etc.
- Manipulation of quantifiers (forall, exists)
- Instantiation of specification to a certain time and instantiating time to an expression
- Proving lemmas about (modulus) arithmetic
- Trying to prove a false lemma may be long before abandoning

Conclusions

Advantages of Theorem Proving

- High abstraction and expressive notation
- Powerful logic and reasoning, e.g., induction
- Can exploit hierarchy and regularity, puts user in control
- Can be customized with tactics (programs that build larger proofs steps from basic ones)
- Useful for specifying and verifying parameterized (generic) datapath-dominated designs
- Unrestricted applications (at least theoretically)

Limitations of Theorem Proving:

- Interactive (under user guidance): use many lemmas, large numbers of commands
- Large human investment to prove small theorems
- Usable only by experts: difficult to prove large / hard theorems
- Requires deep understanding of the both the design and HOL (while-box verification)
- must develop proficiency in proving by working on simple but similar problems.
- Automated for narrow classes of designs

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