

Introduction to Model Checking

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Introduction to Model Checking



Overview

• Basic concepts

- Probabilistic Model Checking
- Markov decision processes (MDPs)
- Adversaries
- PCTL
- PCTL model checking
- Costs and rewards



Design and Validation

A design is a process of getting a (more detailed) realization from a given specification.



and Validation

An implementation can be viewed as the most detailed realization. <u>https://web.eecs.umich.edu/~movaghar/Taxanomy-Dependable-Computing-2004.pdf</u>

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Design

- Design is a process of getting a (more detailed) realization from a given (higher-level) specification.
- The design of a complex system may happen on many levels.
- The implementation may be viewed as the lowest level of the design.

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Validation

- Validation is a process of ensuring that a realization satisfies its specification.
- Validation is a process of ensuring that a design is correct.
- Validation is mainly used in system design and development.

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Validation Methods

Validation has three main methods:

- Verification
- Evaluation
- Testing

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Verification

Verification is a formal mathematical method to prove that a realization satisfies its specification.

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Evaluation

Evaluation is a method for finding how well a system behaves.

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Testing is a method of proving that a realization does not satisfy its specification.

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Integrated Validation Methods

Testing, Verification, and Evaluation are usually complementary.

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Methods for Evaluation

Measurement

Analytical Modeling
 Simulation Modeling
 Hybrid Modeling



Testing only shows the presence of bugs, not their absence!

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Methods for Testing

- Unit Testing: Validates that individual components or units of the software work correctly.
- Integration Testing: Ensures that different modules or services used by your application work well together.
- Functional Testing: Checks the software against the functional requirements/specifications.
- System Testing: Verifies that the complete and integrated software system meets the specified requirements.

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Methods for Testing (Cont'd)

- Stress Testing: Determines the robustness of software by testing beyond the limits of normal operation.
- Performance Testing: Checks if the software performs well under their expected workload.
- Usability Testing: Evaluate the user-friendliness and ease of use of the software.
- Security Testing: Identifies vulnerabilities within the software and ensures that the data and resources are protected.

Methods for Testing (Cont'd)

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- Acceptance Testing: Confirms that the software is ready for delivery by validating it against business requirements.
- Regression Testing: Ensures that new code changes do not adversely affect existing functionalities.
- Mutation testing: This helps ensure that the test cases are effective at finding potential bugs and that they cover the necessary aspects of the software's functionality.

What are formal methods?

- Techniques for analyzing systems, based on some mathematics.
- This does not mean that the user must be a mathematician.
- Some of the work is done informally, due to complexity.

Formal Methods

- Mathematically-based techniques for describing properties of systems
- Provide framework for
 - Specifying systems (and thus the notion of correctness)
 - Developing systems
 - Verifying correctness
 - Of implementation w.r.t. the specification
 - Equivalence of different implementations
- Reasoning is based on logic
 - Amenable to machine analysis and manipulation
 - In principle, can verify everything is true in the system!

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• Given enough time, skill, and patience

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Formal Verification

Formal verification seeks to establish a mathematical proof that a system works correctly.

Formal Verification (Cont'd)

A formal approach provides:

- A system model (language) to describe the system,
- A specification model (language) to describe the correctness requirement,
- An analysis technique to verify that the system meets its specifications.

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Formal Methods "Light"

- Partial application of formal methods
 - only parts of systems are specified
- Emphasis on analysis of some properties
 - security, fairness, deadlock freedom, rather than complete verification
- Debugging rather than assurance
- Automation Most succes

Most successful lightweight technique: Model-Checking

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Methods of Verification

There are two major methods for verification:

- Deductive Method
- Model Checking

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Deductive Method

 In the deductive method, the problem is formulated as proving a theorem in a mathematical proof system.

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Model Checking

 In the method of model checking, the behavior of the system is checked algorithmically through an exhaustive search of all reachable states.

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Reactive Systems

- A reactive system is a system whose role is to maintain an ongoing interaction with its environment.
- The family of reactive systems includes most of the classes of systems whose correct and dependable construction is to be considered to be particularly challenging, including concurrent and real-time systems, embedded and process control systems, and operating systems.

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Reactive Systems Properties

Reactive systems have usually the following properties:

- Concurrency
- Timeliness
- High performance, dependability, and security requirements

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System Models

- Transition Systems (Automata)
- Process Algebras and their extensions
- Communicating Sequential Processes (CSP)
- Calculus of Communicating Systems (CCS)
- Actors
- Petri Nets and their extensions
- Deep Neural Networks (DNNs)
- Markov Decision Processes (MDPs)
- Other more recent models

https://web.eecs.umich.edu/~movaghar/pi-calculus.pdf https://web.eecs.umich.edu/~movaghar/cspbook.pdf

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Specification Models

- Temporal Logics and their Extensions
- Linear Temporal Logic (LTL)
- Computational Tree Logic (CTL)
- CTL*
- PCTL
- PCTL*
- CSL
- HyperLTL and HyperCTL*
- Other more recent models

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Popular Tools

NuSMV PRISM SPIN Dafny Many Tools for DNNs

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Motivation for Model Checking

- Safety-critical systems
 - Airplanes
 - Space shuttles
 - Railways
- Expensive mistakes
 - Chip design
 - Critical software
- Want to guarantee safe behavior over
- unbounded time

https://web.eecs.umich.edu/~movaghar/CACM Article-2008.PDF https://web.eecs.umich.edu/~movaghar/CACM Article-2010.PDF





Smart vehicles ³¹

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Toyota Recalls 1.9 Million Prius Hybrids Over Software Flaw

By Jeremy Hsu Posted 12 Feb 2014 | 21:55 GMT

Bugs cost Time, Money, Lives, ...

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<msblast.exe> (the primary executable of the exploit)
I just want to say LOVE YOU SAN!!
billy gates why do you make this possible ? Stop
making money and fix your software!!
windowsupdate.com
start %s
tftp -i %s GET %s
%d.%d.%d
%i.%i.%i

Estimated worst-case worm cost: > \$50 billion



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Toyota Recalls 1.9 Million Prius Hybrids —Over Software Flaw



32

<msblast.exe> (the primary executable of the exploit)
I just want to say LOVE YOU SAN!!
billy gates why do you make this possible ? Stop
making money and fix your software!!
windowsupdate.com
start %s
for com to be completed.



What is Model Checking?

- An approach for verifying the temporal behavior of a system
- Primarily fully-automated ("push-button") techniques
- Model
 - Representation of the system
 - Need to decide the right level of granularity
- Specification
 - High-level desired property of syste
 - Considers infinite sequences
- PSPACE-complete for FSMs





Model Checking

Automated formal verification for finite-state models





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- PCTL
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Why Probability?

- Some systems are inherently probabilistic...
- Randomisation, e.g. in distributed coordination algorithms

 as a symmetry breaker, in gossip routing to reduce flooding
- Examples: real-world protocols featuring randomisation:
 - Randomised back-off schemes
 - CSMA protocol, 802.11 Wireless LAN
 - Random choice of waiting time
 - IEEE1394 Firewire (root contention), Bluetooth (device discovery)
 - Random choice over a set of possible addresses
 - IPv4 Zeroconf dynamic configuration (link-local addressing)
 - Randomised algorithms for anonymity, contract signing, ...



Why Probability? (Cont'd)

- Some systems are inherently probabilistic...
- Randomisation, e.g. in distributed coordination algorithms

 as a symmetry breaker, in gossip routing to reduce flooding
- To model uncertainty and performance

 to quantify rate of failures, express Quality of Service
- Examples:
 - computer networks, embedded systems
 - power management policies
 - nano-scale circuitry: reliability through defect-tolerance



Why Probability? (Cont'd)

- Some systems are inherently probabilistic...
- Randomisation, e.g. in distributed coordination algorithms

 as a symmetry breaker, in gossip routing to reduce flooding
- To model uncertainty and performance

 to quantify rate of failures, express Quality of Service
- To model biological processes
 - reactions occurring between large numbers of molecules are naturally modelled in a stochastic fashion



Verifying Probabilistic Systems

- We are not just interested in correctness
- We want to be able to quantify:
 - security, privacy, trust, anonymity, fairness
 - safety, reliability, performance, dependability
 - resource usage, e.g. battery life
 - and much more...
- Quantitative, as well as qualitative requirements:
 - how reliable is my car's Bluetooth network?
 - how efficient is my phone's power management policy?
 - is my bank's web-service secure?
 - what is the expected long-run percentage of protein X?



Probabilistic Models

- Markov Decision Process (MDP)
 - probabilistic and nondeterministic behavior
 - the semantic base for extended models below
- Probabilistic Timed Automata (PTA)
 - extend MDPs with clocks to express timed behavior
- Probabilistic Hybrid Automata (PHA)
 - extend clocks of PTAs to more general continuous variables
 - often described by differential equations
- Stochastic Activity Networks (SAN)
- Hybrid Stochastic Activity Networks (HSAN)



Nondeterminism

- Some aspects of a system may not be probabilistic and should not be modeled probabilistically; for example:
- Concurrency scheduling of parallel components
 - —e.g. randomized distributed algorithms multiple probabilistic processes operating asynchronously
- Underspecification unknown model parameters
 - -e.g. a probabilistic communication protocol designed for message propagation delays of between d_{min} and d_{max}
- Unknown environments
 - -e.g. probabilistic security protocols unknown adversary
- Decision-making and control
 - -e.g. optimal resource management and optimal control



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Markov Decision Processes

- Formally, an MDP M is a tuple (S,s_{init},Steps,L) where:
 - S is a finite set of states ("state space")
 - $\, s_{\text{init}} \in S$ is the initial state
 - Steps : S \rightarrow 2^{Act×Dist(S)} is the transition probability function where Act is a set of actions and Dist(S) is the set of discrete probability distributions over the set S

 $-\,L:\,S\rightarrow\,2^{\text{AP}}$ is a labelling with atomic propositions

- Notes:
 - Steps(s) is always non-empty,i.e. no deadlocks
 - the use of actions to label distributions is optional



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Simple MDP Example

• Simple communication protocol

- after one step, process starts trying to send a message
- then, a nondeterministic choice between: (a) waiting a step because the channel is unready; (b) sending the message
- if the latter, with probability 0.99 send successfully and stop
- and with probability 0.01, message sending fails, restart





Modeling MDPs

- Guarded Commands modeling language
 - simple, textual, state-based language
 - based on Reactive Modules basic components: modules, variables, and commands
- Modules:
 - components of the system being modelled
 - a module represents a single MDP

```
module example
    ...
endmodule
```



Modeling MDPs

- Guarded Commands modeling language
 - simple, textual, state-based language
 - based on Reactive Modules basic components: modules, variables, and commands
- Variables:
 - finite-domain (bounded integer ranges or Booleans)
 - local or global anyone can read, only the owner can modify
 - variable valuation = state of the MDP

```
module example
  s : [0..3] init 0;
  ...
endmodule
```

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Modeling MDPs

- Guarded Commands modeling language
 - simple, textual, state-based language
 - based on Reactive Modules
 - basic components: modules, variables, and commands
- Commands:





Simple MDP Example



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Example - Parallel Composition



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Example - Parallel Composition

Asynchronous parallel composition of two 3-state DTMCs

```
module threestate
```

```
s : [0..2] init 0;
[] s = 0 -> (s' = 1);
[] s = 1 \rightarrow 0.5: (s' = s - 1)
```

```
+ 0.5: (s' = s + 1);
[] s > 1 -> true;
```



endmodule

```
module copy = threestate[s=t] endmodule
```

system

threestate || copy endsystem

Default parallel composition on matching action labels - can be omitted

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Paths and Probabilities

- A (finite or infinite) path through an MDP
 - is a sequence of states and action/distribution pairs
 - $-e.g. s_0(a_0,\mu_0)s_1(a_1,\mu_1)s_2...$
 - such that $(a_i, \mu_i) \in \text{Steps}(s_i)$ and $\mu_i(s_{i+1}) > 0$ for all $i \ge 0$
 - represents an execution (i.e. one possible behaviour) of the system which the MDP is modelling
 - note that a path resolves both types of choices: nondeterministic and probabilistic
- To consider the probability of some behaviour of the MDP
 - first need to resolve the nondeterministic choices
 - ...which results in a Markov chain (DTMC)
 - ...for which we can define a probability measure over paths



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Adversaries

- An adversary resolves nondeterministic choice in an MDP — also known as "schedulers", "strategies" or "policies"
- Formally:
 - an adversary A of an MDP M is a function mapping every finite path $\omega = s_0(a_1,\mu_1)s_1...s_n$ to an element of Steps(s_n)
- For each A can define a probability measure Pr^As over paths
 - constructed through an infinite state Markov chain (DTMC)
 - states of the DTMC are the finite paths of A starting in state s
 - the initial state is s (the path starting in s of length 0)
 - $\mathbf{P}^{A_{s}}(\omega, \omega') = \mu(s)$ if $\omega' = \omega(a, \mu)s$ and $A(\omega) = (a, \mu)$
 - $\mathbf{P}^{A_{s}}(\omega, \omega') = 0$ otherwise



Adversaries - Examples

• Consider the simple MDP below

- note that s_1 is the only state for which |Steps(s)| > 1
- i.e. s₁ is the only state for which an adversary makes a choice
- let μ_b and μ_c denote the probability distributions associated with actions b and c in state s_1
- Adversary A₁

picks action c the first time

- $A_1(s_0s_1)=(c,\mu_c)$
- Adversary A₂
 - picks action b the first time, then c
 - $\begin{array}{c} -A_2(s_0s_1) \!=\! (b,\!\mu_b), A_2(s_0s_1s_1) \!=\! (c,\!\mu_c), \\ A_2(s_0s_1s_0s_1) \!=\! (c,\!\mu_c) \end{array}$



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Memoryless Adversaries

- Memoryless adversaries always pick same choice in a state
 - also known as: positional, Markov, simple
 - formally, for adversary A:
 - $A(s_0(a_1,\mu_1)s_1...s_n)$ depends only on s_n
 - resulting DTMC can be mapped to a |S|-state DTMC

• From previous example:

— adversary A_1 (picks c in s_1) is memoryless, A_2 is not



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PCTL

- Temporal logic for describing properties of MDPs
 PCTL = Probabilistic Computation Tree Logic
- Extension of (non-probabilistic) temporal logic CTL
 - key addition is probabilistic operator P
 - quantitative extension of CTL's A and E operators
- Example
 - send $\rightarrow \mathsf{P}_{\geq 0.95}$ [true U $^{\leq 10}$ deliver]
 - "if a message is sent, then the probability of it being delivered within 10 steps is at least 0.95"





PCTL Semantics for MDPs

- PCTL formulas interpreted over states of an MDP $-s \models \phi$ denotes ϕ is "true in state s" or "satisfied in state s"
- Semantics of (non-probabilistic) state formulas: •
 - for a state s of the MDP (S, S_{init}, P, L):
 - $-s \models a$ $-a \in L(s)$ $-s \vDash \phi_1 \land \phi_2 \qquad - s \vDash \phi_1 \text{ and } s \vDash \phi_2$
 - $-s \models \neg \phi$ $s \models \phi$ is false
- Examples $-s_3 \models tails$
 - $-s_2 \models heads \land \neg init$



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PCTL Semantics for MDPs

• Semantics of path formulas:

- for a path $\omega = s_0 s_1 s_2 \dots$ in the MDP:

- $\begin{array}{lll} -\omega \vDash \bigcirc \phi & & s_1 \vDash \phi \\ -\omega \vDash \phi_1 \ U^{\leq k} \ \phi_2 & & \exists i \leq k \text{ such that } s_i \vDash \phi_2 \text{ and } \forall j < i, \ s_j \vDash \phi_1 \\ -\omega \vDash \phi_1 \ U \ \phi_2 & & \exists k \geq 0 \text{ such that } \omega \vDash \phi_1 \ U^{\leq k} \ \phi_2 \end{array}$
- Some examples of satisfying paths:



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PCTL Semantics for MDPs

- Semantics of the probabilistic operator P
 - can only define probabilities for a specific adversary A
 - $-s \models P_{\sim p} [\psi]$ means "the probability, from state s, that ψ is true for an outgoing path satisfies $\sim p$ for all adversaries A"
 - $$\begin{split} &-\text{ formally } s \vDash P_{\sim p} \left[\ \psi \ \right] \Leftrightarrow \quad \text{Prob}^{A}(s,\psi) \sim p \text{ for all adversaries A} \\ & \text{ where } \text{Prob}^{A}(s,\psi) = \text{Pr}^{A}_{s} \left\{ \omega \in \text{Path}^{A}(s) \mid \omega \vDash \psi \right. \right\} \end{split}$$





Minimum and Maximum Probabilities

- Letting:
 - $-p_{max}(s, \psi) = sup_A \operatorname{Prob}^A(s, \psi)$
 - $-p_{min}(s, \psi) = inf_A \operatorname{Prob}^A(s, \psi)$

• We have:

- $\text{ if } \sim \in \{\geq, >\}, \text{ then } s \models P_{\sim p} \left[\psi \right] \quad \quad p_{\min}(s, \psi) \sim p$
- $\text{ if } \sim \in \{<,\le\}, \text{ then } s \vDash P_{\sim p} \left[\psi \right] \quad \quad p_{\max}(s,\psi) \sim p$
- Model checking $P_{\sim p}[\psi]$ reduces to the computation over all adversaries of either:
 - the minimum probability of $\boldsymbol{\psi}$ holding
 - the maximum probability of ψ holding
- Crucial result for model checking PCTL on MDPs
 - memoryless adversaries suffice, i.e. there are always memoryless adversaries A_{min} and A_{max} for which:
 - $Prob^{Amin}(s, \psi) = p_{min}(s, \psi)$ and $Prob^{Amax}(s, \psi) = p_{max}(s, \psi)$

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PCTL Model Checking

- Algorithm for PCTL model checking
- inputs: MDP M=(S,s_{init},Steps,L), PCTL formula φ
 output: Sat(φ) = {s ∈ S | s ⊨ φ }= set of states satisfying φ
- What does it mean for an MDP D to satisfy a formula φ?

 sometimes, want to check that s ⊨ φ ∀ s ∈ S, i.e. Sat(φ) = S
 sometimes, just want to know if s_{init} ⊨ φ, i.e. if s_{init} ∈ Sat(φ)
- Sometimes, focus on quantitative results
 - e.g. compute the result of Pmax=? [◊ error]
 - e.g. compute result of Pmax=? [$\diamond \leq k$ error] for $0 \leq k \leq 100$



PCTL Model Checking for MDPs

- Basic algorithm proceeds by induction on parse tree of ϕ — example: $\phi = (\neg fail \land try) \rightarrow P_{>0.95} [\neg fail U succ]$
- For the non-probabilistic operators:
 - Sat(true) = S
 - $-\operatorname{Sat}(a) = \{s \in S \mid a \in L(s) \}$
 - $-\operatorname{Sat}(\neg \phi) = S \setminus \operatorname{Sat}(\phi)$
 - $-\operatorname{Sat}(\phi_1 \land \phi_2) = \operatorname{Sat}(\phi_1) \cap \operatorname{Sat}(\phi_2)$
- For the $P_{\sim p}$ [ψ] operator
 - need to compute the probabilities $Prob(s, \psi)$ for all states $s \in S$
 - focus here on the "until" case: $\psi = \phi_1 U \phi_2$



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Quantitative Properties

- For PCTL properties with P as the outermost operator
 - quantitative form (two types): Pmin_=? [ψ] and Pmax_=? [ψ]
 - i.e. "what is the minimum/maximum probability (over all adversaries) that path formula ψ is true?"
 - corresponds to an analysis of best-case or worst-case behaviour of the system
 - model checking is no harder since compute the values of $p_{min}(s,\psi)$ or $p_{max}(s,\psi)$ anyway
 - useful to spot patterns/trends
- Example: CSMA/CD protocol
 - "min/max probability that a message is sent within the deadline"





Some Real PCTL Examples

- Byzantine agreement protocol
 - $Pmin_{=?} [\diamond (agreement \land rounds \le 2)]$
 - "what is the minimum probability that agreement is reached within two rounds?"

• CSMA/CD communication protocol

- Pmax_{=?} [◊ collisions=k]
- "what is the maximum probability of k collisions?"

• Self-stabilisation protocols

- $Pmin_{=?}$ [$\diamond \leq t$ stable]
- "what is the minimum probability of reaching a stable state within k steps?"



PCTL Until for MDPs

- Computation of probabilities $p_{min}(s, \phi_1 \cup \phi_2)$ for all $s \in S$
- First identify all states where the probability is 1 or 0

 "precomputation" algorithms, yielding sets S^{yes}, S^{no}
- Then compute (min) probabilities for remaining states (S?)
 - either: solve linear programming problem
 - or: approximate with an iterative solution method



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PCTL Until - Precomputation

- Identify all states where $p_{min}(s, \phi_1 \cup \phi_2)$ is 1 or 0
 - $S^{\text{yes}} = Sat(P_{\geq 1}[\phi_1 \cup \phi_2]), S^{\text{no}} = Sat(\neg P_{>0}[\phi_1 \cup \phi_2])$
- Two graph-based precomputation algorithms:
 - algorithm Prob1A computes Syes
 - for all adversaries the probability of satisfying $\phi_1 \ U \ \phi_2$ is 1
 - algorithm Prob0E computes S^{no}
 - there exists an adversary for which the probability is 0



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Method 1 - Linear Programming

Probabilities p_{min}(s, φ₁ U φ₂) for remaining states in the set S? = S \ (S^{yes} ∪ S^{no}) can be obtained as the unique solution of the following linear programming (LP) problem:

maximize $\sum_{s \in S^2} x_s$ subject to the constraint s :

- Simple case of a more general problem known as the stochastic shortest path problem
- This can be solved with standard techniques
 e.g. Simplex, ellipsoid method, branch-and-cut





Let $x_i = p_{min}(s_i, \diamond a)$ $S^{yes}: x_2=1, S^{no}: x_3=0$ For $S^? = \{x_0, x_1\}$: Maximise x_0+x_1 subject to constraints: $x_0 \le x_1$ $x_0 \le 0.25 \cdot x_0 + 0.5$

•
$$x_1 \le 0.1 \cdot x_0 + 0.5 \cdot x_1 + 0.4$$





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Let $x_i = p_{min}(s_i, F a) S^{yes}$: $x_2=1, S^{no}: x_3=0$ For $S^? = \{x_0, x_1\}$: Maximise x_0+x_1 subject to constraints: $x_0 \le x_1$ $x_0 \le 2/3$ $x_1 \le 0.2 \cdot x_0 + 0.8$



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Method 2 – Value Iteration

• For probabilities $p_{min}(s, \phi_1 \cup \phi_2)$ it can be shown that:

$$-p_{min}(s, \phi_1 \cup \phi_2) = \lim_{n \to \infty} x_s^{(n)}$$
 where:

$$x_{s}^{(n)} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } s \in S^{\text{yes}} \\ 0 & \text{if } s \in S^{\text{no}} \\ 0 & \text{if } s \in S^{\text{?}} \text{ and } n = 0 \\ \min_{(a,\mu)\in Steps(s)} \left(\sum_{s' \in S} \mu(s' \) \cdot \ x_{s'}^{(n-1)} \right) & \text{if } s \in S^{\text{?}} \text{ and } n > 0 \end{cases}$$

• This forms the basis for an (approximate) iterative solution — iterations terminated when solution converges sufficiently

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Example - PCTL Until (Value Iteration)



Compute: $p_{min}(s_i, \diamond a)$ $S^{yes} = \{x_2\}, S^{no} = \{x_3\}, S^? = \{x_0, x_1\}$ $\begin{bmatrix} x^{(n)}, x^{(n)}, x^{(n)}, x^{(n)}, x^{(n)} \end{bmatrix}$ n=0: [0, 0, 1, 0]

$$n=1 [min(0,0.25\cdot0+0.5),
: 0.1\cdot0+0.5\cdot0+0.4, 1, 0]
= [0, 0.4, 1, 0]
n=2 [min(0.4,0.25\cdot0+0.5),
: 0.1\cdot0+0.5\cdot0.4+0.4, 1, 0]
= [0.4, 0.6, 1, 0]
n=3: ...$$

Example - PCTL Until (Value Iteration



 $[x_0^{(n)}, x_1^{(n)}, x_2^{(n)}, x_3^{(n)}]$ [0.00000, 0.000000, 1, 0] n=0: [0.00000, 0.400000, 1, 0] n=1: n=2: [0.40000, 0.600000, 1, 0] [0.60000, 0.740000, 1, 0] n=3: [0.650000, 0.830000, 1, 0] n=4: [0.662500, 0.880000, 1, 0] n=5: [0.665625, 0.906250, 1, 0] n=6: [0.666406, 0.919688, 1, 0] n=7: n=8: [0.666602, 0.926484, 1, 0] n=9: [0.666650, 0.929902, 1, 0] n=20 [0.666667, 0.933332, 1, 0] n=21 [0.666667, 0.933332, 1, 0] \approx [2/3, 14/15, 1, 0] 80

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Example - Value Iteration + LP



 $[x_0^{(n)}, x_1^{(n)}, x_2^{(n)}, x_3^{(n)}]$ n=0: [0.00000, 0.000000, 1, 0]n=1: [0.00000, 0.400000, 1, 0]n=2: [0.400000, 0.600000, 1, 0] n=3: [0.60000, 0.740000, 1, 0] n=4: [0.650000, 0.830000, 1, 0] n=5: [0.662500, 0.880000, 1, 0] n=6: [0.665625, 0.906250, 1, 0] n=7: [0.666406, 0.919688, 1, 0] n=8: [0.666602, 0.926484, 1, 0] n=9: [0.666650, 0.929902, 1, 0] [0.666667, 0.933332, 1, 0] n=20: n=21: [0.666667, 0.933332, 1, 0] ≈ [2/3, 14/15, 1, 0]

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PCTL Model Checking - Summary

- Computation of set Sat(Φ) for MDP M and PCTL formula Φ
 - recursive descent of parse tree
 - combination of graph algorithms, numerical computation
- Probabilistic operator P:
 - $\bigcirc \Phi$: one matrix-vector multiplication, O(|S|²)
 - $-\Phi_1 U^{\leq k} \Phi_2$: k matrix-vector multiplications, O(k|S|²)
 - $-\Phi_1 U \Phi_2$: linear programming problem, polynomial in |S| (assuming use of linear programming)
- Complexity:
 - linear in $|\Phi|$ and polynomial in |S|
 - S is states in MDP, assume |Steps(s)| is constant



Overview

- Basic concepts
- Probabilistic Model Checking
- Markov decision processes (MDPs)
- Adversaries
- PCTL
- PCTL model checking
- Costs and rewards



Costs and Rewards

- We augment DTMCs with rewards (or, conversely, costs)
 - real-valued quantities assigned to states and/or transitions
 - these can have a wide range of possible interpretations

• Some examples:

 elapsed time, power consumption, size of message queue, number of messages successfully delivered, net profit, ...

• Costs? or rewards?

- mathematically, no distinction between rewards and costs
- when interpreted, we assume that it is desirable to minimise costs and to maximise rewards
- we will consistently use the terminology "rewards" regardless



Reward-Based Properties

- Properties of MDPs augmented with rewards
 - allow a wide range of quantitative measures of the system
 - basic notion: expected value of rewards
 - formal property specifications will be in an extension of PCTL
- More precisely, we use two distinct classes of property...

• Instantaneous properties

- the expected value of the reward at some time point
- Cumulative properties
 - the expected cumulated reward over some period



PCTL and Rewards

• Extend PCTL to incorporate reward-based properties — add an R operator, which is similar to the existing P operator



— where $r \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$, $\sim \in \{<,>,\leq,\geq\}$, $k \in \mathbb{N}$

• $R_{\sim r}$ [·] means "the expected value of · satisfies $\sim r''$

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Types of Reward Formulas

• Instantaneous: R_{~r} [I^{=k}]

— "the expected value of the state reward at time-step k is $\sim r''$

- e.g. "the expected queue size after exactly 90 seconds"
- Cumulative: $R_{\sim r} [C^{\leq k}]$
 - "the expected reward cumulated up to time-step k is ${\sim}r''$
 - $-\,{\rm e.g.}$ "the expected power consumption over one hour"
- Reachability: $R_{\sim r} [\Diamond \phi]$
 - "the expected reward cumulated before reaching a state satisfying ϕ is ${\sim}r''$
 - $-\,{\rm e.g.}$ "the expected time for the algorithm to terminate"



Model Checking MDP Reward Formulas

- Instantaneous: R_{~r} [I=k]
 - similar to the computation of bounded until probabilities
 - solution of recursive equations
- Cumulative: $R_{\sim r} [C^{\leq k}]$
 - extension of bounded until computation
 - solution of recursive equations
- Reachability: $R_{\sim r} [\diamond \phi]$
 - similar to the case for P operator and until
 - graph-based precomputation (identify ∞ reward states)
 - then linear programming problem (or value iteration)



Summary

- Basic concepts
 - Design and Validation
 - Formal Verification
 - Model Checking
- Probabilistic Model Checking
- Markov Decision Processes (MDPs)
 - probabilistic as well as nondeterministic behaviors
 - to model concurrency, underspecification, ...
 - easy to model using guarded commands
- Adversaries Resolve Nondeterminism in an MDP
 - induce a probability space over paths
 - consider minimum/maximum probabilities over all adversaries
- Property Specifications
 - probabilistic extensions of temporal logic, e.g. PCTL
 - also: the expected value of costs/rewards
 - quantify overall adversaries
- Model Checking Algorithms
 - covered two basic techniques for MDPs: linear programming or value iteration