An Informal Introduction to *Formal Methods*

by
C. Michael Holloway
Paul S. Miner
Ricky W. Butler
Assessment Technology Branch

Structure

- Definitions & Introduction to Basics of Logic
  -- 30 minutes
  -- Michael Holloway
- Application of Logic to Digital System Design
  -- 30 minutes
  -- Paul Miner
- *Break for 30 minutes*
- Detailed Example
  -- 1 hour
  -- Ricky Butler

Purposes

- The five main purposes of these presentations are to
  -- Provide a high-level overview of some of the foundations of formal methods
  -- Demonstrate the variety of formal techniques that are available
  -- Illustrate ways in which formal methods may be applied in various domains
  -- Set the context for the remaining presentations at this workshop
  -- Motivate future in-depth study of formal methods

Non-Purposes

- These presentations are <u>not</u> intended to
  -- Enable you to carry on a meaningful conversation with mathematical logicians
  -- Present a balanced view of the relative capabilities of existing formal methods tools and techniques
  -- Discuss all of the domains in which formal methods may be applied
  -- Tell you all you need to know to become a formal methods expert
  -- Put you to sleep

What Does “Formal” Mean?

When many people think of the word “formal”, they think of something like this:

What Does “Formal” Mean?
(continued)

- Others think “formal” means one or more of the following things:

  -- boring, uninteresting

  -- difficult to understand, complicated

  -- filled with many odd symbols and foreign letters

  $\forall \ \exists \ \supset \ \lambda \ \varnothing \ \wedge \ \vee \ \aleph \ \in \ \equiv \ \psi \ \varphi$

- One of the goals of this workshop is to convince you that none of these perceptions is necessarily true

What Does “Formal” Mean?
(continued)

- Webster’s dictionary gives the following as one of the definitions of “formal”:

  relating to, concerned with, or constituting the outward form of something as distinguished from its content

- A method is formal if its rules for manipulation are based on form (syntax) and not on content (semantics)

- Simple arithmetic is an example of such a method:

  -- 2 cats + 2 cats = 4 cats

  -- 2 mice + 2 mice = 4 mice

  -- 2x + 2x = 4x

Validity of addition rests on its form alone --- as long as like objects are added, it doesn’t matter what those objects are.

2 cats + 2 mice = ????

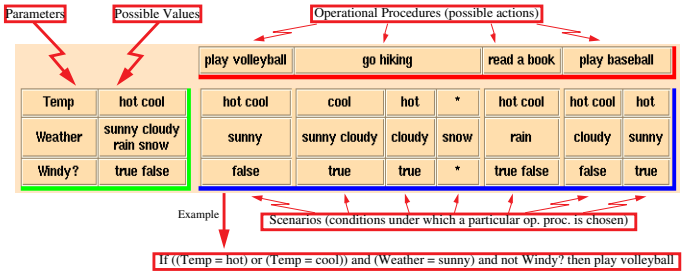
What Does “Formal” Mean?
(continued)

		play volleyball	go hiking			read a book	play baseball	
Temp	hot cool	hot cool	cool	hot	*	hot cool	hot cool	hot
Weather	sunny cloudy rain snow	sunny	sunny cloudy	cloudy	snow	rain	cloudy	sunny
Windy?	true false	false	true	true	*	true false	false	true

Is this table “formal” ?

What Does "Formal" Mean?

(continued)



Yes, it is.

Symbolic Logic

- The majority of existing formal techniques are based on some flavor of symbolic logic
- Remainder of my talk will provide brief informal introduction to each of the following:
  - -- Propositional Logic
  - -- Predicate Logic
  - -- Other Logics
- Along the way, we'll also discuss some of the difficulties in translating natural language into a logic

Propositional Logic

- A *proposition* is a statement that is either true or false
  - -- Today is Wednesday
  - -- I have a son named David
  - -- 2 + 2 = 5
  - -- Fermat's last theorem is true
  - -- This workshop is the most valuable workshop I've ever attended
- The possibility of assigning a truth value is all that is required; actual determination of the truth value is not required
- Questions, commands, etc., are not propositions

Propositional Logic

(connectives)

- Propositions may be combined using the following *connectives*:
  - -- **and** ($\wedge$): P $\wedge$ Q is true when both P and Q are true
  - -- **or** ($\vee$): P $\vee$ Q is true when either P or Q is true
  - -- **not** ($\neg$): $\neg$P is true when P is false
  - -- **if-then** ($\Rightarrow$, $\supset$): P $\supset$ Q is true except when P is true and Q is false
  - -- **if-and-only-if** ($\equiv$): P $\equiv$ Q is true when P and Q have the same truth value

Propositional Logic
(connectives vs. natural language)

- Please note that each connective has a precisely defined meaning
- This meaning does not always correspond to the natural language meaning
- The definition of **if-then** especially tends to confuse many people, because it does not require cause and effect

$2 + 2 = 4 \supset 2 \times 2 = 4$
$2 + 2 = 5 \supset 2 \times 2 = 4$
$2 + 2 = 5 \supset 2 \times 2 = 5$
} are all true

$2 + 2 = 4 \supset 2 \times 2 = 5$ is false

Propositional Logic
(properties)

- Some properties (axioms & theorems) of propositional logic
  - -- **commutativity**: $P \wedge Q \equiv Q \wedge P$, $P \vee Q \equiv Q \vee P$
  - -- **associativity**: $(P \wedge Q) \wedge R \equiv P \wedge (Q \wedge R)$, same for $\vee$
  - -- **distributivity:** $P \wedge (Q \vee R) \equiv (P \wedge Q) \vee (P \wedge R)$
    $P \vee (Q \wedge R) \equiv (P \vee Q) \wedge (P \vee R)$
  - -- **De Morgan's laws:** $\neg(P \wedge Q) \equiv \neg P \vee \neg Q$
    $\neg(P \vee Q) \equiv \neg P \wedge \neg Q$
  - -- **double negation**: $\neg\neg P \equiv P$
  - -- **implication definition**: $P \supset Q \equiv \neg P \vee Q$

Propositional Logic
(inference rules)

- *Inference rules* permit reasoning (deducing conclusions based on the truth of certain premises)
- Some inference rules of propositional logic include

modus ponens	*modus tollens*
$P \supset Q$	$P \supset Q$
P	$\neg Q$
$\therefore Q$	$\therefore \neg P$

Propositional Logic
(proofs)

- A **proof** of a given proposition establishes the truth of the proposition based only on axioms, theorems, and inference rules
- For propositional logic, truth tables provide a means of defining truth
- Propositional logic is
  - -- *complete*: everything that is true may be proven
  - -- *consistent (sound)*: nothing that is false may be proven
  - -- *decidable*: there exists a mechanical procedure for deciding whether any proposition is true or false

Propositional Logic
(proof example)

- Show that $P \supset (Q \supset S) \equiv (P \wedge Q) \supset S$
- Proof

$P \supset (Q \supset S)$	$\equiv$	$\neg P \vee (Q \supset S)$	*by implication definition*
	$\equiv$	$\neg P \vee (\neg Q \vee S)$	*by implication definition*
	$\equiv$	$(\neg P \vee \neg Q) \vee S$	*by associativity*
	$\equiv$	$\neg(P \wedge Q) \vee S$	*by De Morgan*
	$\equiv$	$(P \wedge Q) \supset S$	*by implication definition*
			QED

Predicate Logic

- Propositional logic only permits reasoning about (true or false) complete sentences
- There is no way to reason about individual objects
  -- There is a number n where $n \times n = n + n$
  -- All cats have whiskers
- Predicate logic extends the formal language to permit reasoning about objects and the relationships between them
  -- $\exists n: n \times n = n + n$
  -- $\forall a: \text{Cat}(a) \supset \text{Whiskers}(a)$

Predicate Logic
(terms & propositions)

- Objects in predicate logic are denoted by expressions called *terms*:
  -- Constants $a, b, c, \ldots$ are terms
  -- Variables $u, v, w, \ldots$ are terms
  -- If $t_1, t_2, \ldots, t_n$ are terms and f is a symbol that denotes a function of n arguments, then $f(t_1, t_2, \ldots, t_n)$ is a term
- In predicate logic, propositions are defined as follows:
  -- *true* and *false* are propositions
  -- If $t_1, t_2, \ldots, t_n$ are terms and p is a symbol that denotes a predicate of n arguments, then $p(t_1, t_2, \ldots, t_n)$ is a proposition

Predicate Logic
(sentences & connectives)

- Every proposition is also a *sentence* (or *formula*)
- Sentences may also be constructed using the connectives from propositional logic; if S and T are sentences, so are
  $S \wedge T, \quad S \vee T, \quad \neg S, \quad S \supset T, \quad S \equiv T$
  the meaning of each of these is as expected
- If x is a variable and S is a sentence, then the following are also sentences:
  -- $\forall x: S$ true if S is true for all possible values of x
  -- $\exists x: S$ true if S is true for at least one value of x

Predicate Logic
(properties)

- Some properties of predicate logic

$$\neg\forall x\colon S \equiv \exists x\colon \neg S \qquad \neg\exists x\colon S \equiv \forall x\colon \neg S$$

$$\forall x\colon S \equiv \neg\exists x\colon \neg S \qquad \exists x\colon S \equiv \neg\forall x\colon \neg S$$

$$\forall x\colon \forall y\colon S \equiv \forall y\colon \forall x\colon S \qquad \exists x\colon \exists y\colon S \equiv \exists y\colon \exists x\colon S$$

- The following are true if x is not a free variable in S

$$S \vee \forall x\colon T \equiv \forall x\colon (S \vee T) \qquad S \vee \exists x\colon T \equiv \exists x\colon (S \vee T)$$

$$S \wedge \forall x\colon T \equiv \forall x\colon (S \wedge T) \qquad S \wedge \exists x\colon T \equiv \exists x\colon (S \wedge T)$$

Predicate Logic
(translating from English)

- Translating natural language sentences into predicate logic is sometimes fairly simple
- Consider the following sentence:

  All humans are mortal

- Using the predicates human(x) and mortal(x), we have

$$\forall x\colon \text{human}(x) \supset \text{mortal}(x)$$

Predicate Logic
(translating from English incorrectly)

- Translating natural language sentences into predicate logic is sometimes a little tricky
- Consider the following sentence:

  Apples and oranges are delicious and nutritious

- Using the predicates apple(x), orange(x), delicious(x), and nutritious(x), we might try the following:

$$\forall x\colon (\text{apple}(x) \wedge \text{orange}(x)) \supset (\text{delicious}(x) \wedge \text{nutritious}(x))$$

- Is this what we want?

Predicate Logic
(translating from English correctly)

- This sentence does not have the intended meaning: it requires that an object be both an apple and an orange
- The following is what we really want:

$$\forall x\colon (\text{apple}(x) \vee \text{orange}(x)) \supset (\text{delicious}(x) \wedge \text{nutritious}(x))$$

- Here are a few more sentences for you to try at your leisure
  - -- Government workers are not always lazy
  - -- Testing never reveals the absence of errors
  - -- Only early registrants can attend the dinner at Captain George's
  - -- Nothing of importance was said at the workshop
  - -- A company creates good software if and only if it uses formal methods

Predicate Logic
(translating from English: answers)

Government workers are not always lazy

$$\exists x\colon \text{government-worker}(x) \wedge \neg\text{lazy}(x)$$

Testing never reveals the absence of errors

$$\forall x\colon \text{testing}(x) \supset \neg\text{reveal-absence}(x)$$

Only early registrants can attend the dinner at Captain George's

$$\forall x\colon \text{dinner}(x) \supset \text{early-registrant}(x)$$

Nothing of importance was said at the workshop

$$\forall x\colon \text{important}(x) \supset \neg\text{said-at-workshop}(x)$$

A company creates good software if and only if it is uses FM

$$\forall x\colon \text{company}(x) \supset (\text{good-software}(x) \equiv \text{uses-formal-methods}(x))$$

Predicate Logic
(proofs)

- A key concept in developing proofs in predicate logic is *skolemization*
  - -- Provides procedure for reducing a sentence into a propositional sentence that is true if the original sentence is true
  - -- Based on appropriate elimination of quantifiers
- Predicate logic is *complete* and *consistent,* but is only *semidecidable:*
  - -- There is a mechanical procedure that will terminate for all true sentences
  - -- This procedure may not terminate for all false sentences, but it will identify the sentence as false if it does terminate

Predicate Logic
(proof example)

- Consider the sentence

$$\forall x\colon \exists y\colon y = x + 7$$

- We first replace the universally quantified variable x by the arbitrary constant a

$$\exists y\colon y = a + 7$$

- We may now remove the existential quantifier, giving the Skolem form for the sentence

$$y = a + 7$$

- This is easily satisfied by letting $y = a + 7$

$$a + 7 = a + 7$$

QED

Other Logics

- *Many-sorted logic* extends predicate logic by dividing the universe from which variables and constants are chosen into several sorts (e.g., integers, reals, characters)
- *Higher order logic* (or *type theory*) allows functions to take functions as arguments and to return functions as values, and permits quantification over functions and predicates
- *Constructive logic* requires that a proof of existence of an object provides a procedure for constructing the object
- *Programming logics* provide rules for specifying and reasoning about imperative programs and program state
- *Modal logics*, *temporal logics*, *logics for partial functions*

Higher Order Logic
(example)

- Consider the following statement:
  -- There does not exist a list of all the possible functions that take a natural number as an argument and return a natural number as the result

- In a higher order logic, we might express this as follows:

$$\neg\exists(\text{list} : \text{function}[\text{nat} \rightarrow \text{function}[\text{nat} \rightarrow \text{nat}]])$$
$$\forall(g : \text{function}[\text{nat} \rightarrow \text{nat}])$$
$$\exists(i : \text{nat})$$
$$\text{list}(i) = g$$

Higher Order Logic
(example, continued)

- What does

$$\text{list}(i) = g$$

  mean?

- Two functions are defined to be equal if for every possible argument value, they return the same result

- This can be expressed in our notation as

$$\forall(x : \text{nat})$$
$$\text{list}(i)(x) = g(x)$$

Concluding Remarks

- Of the five main purposes mentioned at the beginning, I hope that my presentation has
  -- Provided a high-level overview of some of the foundations of formal methods
  -- Begun to set the context for the remaining presentations at this workshop
  -- Perhaps motivated future in-depth study of formal methods

- The remaining presentations should continue to motivate and to set context, and should also
  -- Demonstrate the variety of formal techniques that are available
  -- Illustrate ways in which formal methods may be applied in various domains