

Formal verification using model checking

Model checking [1, 8] is a formal method for verifying if an abstract representation of a system (i.e. a model) is correct relative to a formal specification describing the desired/expected system behaviour. The general model checking workflow comprises the following steps:

1. **Model construction:** Creating an abstract representation of the system (e.g. a computational model);
2. **Formal specification:** Encoding the formal specification describing the desired/expected system behaviour;
3. **Model checking:** Automatically verifying the correctness of the model relative to the formal specification.

Model construction

Computational models of biological systems are usually encoded using high level modelling formalisms such as (ordinary) differential equations [3, 5], Petri nets [2, 11, 14], process algebras (e.g. Bio-PEPA [7, 13]), software-specific (e.g. BIOCHAM [6], BioNetGen [9, 12]) rule-based modelling languages, or timed automata [4, 18]. However for model checking purposes these computational models are usually translated to a single common low level (probabilistic) labelled state transition (LSTS) [1, Chapters 2 and 10] representation. The main reason for this is that the model checking algorithms can then be defined only once relative to a single rather than multiple modelling formalisms.

Executions or simulations of LSTSs are represented as discrete sequences of states where transitions between states are triggered by events and are executed instantaneously. Relevant system properties are encoded by state variables whose values may change between states. Therefore the behaviour of the system is usually defined by time series data describing how the values of the state variables change over time.

Formal specification

The specifications against which the models are verified comprise statements which describe what is the expected system behaviour, respectively how the state variable values are expected to change over time. One class of formal languages which enable reasoning about system changes over time, and which we consider here, are called temporal logics. Depending on the underlying structure of time the temporal logic can be either linear or branching; here only linear temporal logics are considered.

One of the most commonly employed temporal logics which assumes a linear representation of time is called Linear Temporal Logic (LTL) [10, 19]. Statements written in this language can be decomposed into three types of propositions, namely atomic, Boolean and temporal.

Atomic propositions are Boolean expressions defined over (state) variables (e.g. concentration of a protein $[X]$), constants (e.g. real number 2.3) and predicate symbols (e.g. comparison predicate $>$), which cannot be divided into simpler logic statements.

Conversely a Boolean proposition is a compound statement comprising a Boolean operator and logic propositions (denoted here by ϕ):

- $\sim \phi$ (not): The **negation** of logic proposition ϕ is true i.e. ϕ is false;
- $\phi_1 \wedge \phi_2$ (and): Logic proposition ϕ_1 is true **and** logic proposition ϕ_2 is true;
- $\phi_1 \vee \phi_2$ (or): Logic proposition ϕ_1 is true **or** logic proposition ϕ_2 is true;
- $\phi_1 \Rightarrow \phi_2$ (implication): Logic proposition ϕ_1 is true **implies** logic proposition ϕ_2 is true;
- $\phi_1 \Leftrightarrow \phi_2$ (equivalence): Logic proposition ϕ_1 is true **equivalent to** logic proposition ϕ_2 is true,

where \sim is a unary Boolean operator, respectively \wedge , \vee , \Rightarrow , \Leftrightarrow are binary Boolean operators.

Finally temporal propositions are used to reason about how a system changes over time. They comprise a temporal operator and logic propositions (similarly denoted by ϕ):

- $F\phi$ (**Future**): **Eventually** logic proposition ϕ holds;
- $G\phi$ (**Globally**): Logic proposition ϕ holds **always**;
- $\phi_1 U \phi_2$ (**Until**): Logic proposition ϕ_1 holds **until** logic proposition ϕ_2 holds;
- $X\phi$ (**neXt**): Logic proposition ϕ holds in the **next** time point,

where F , G , X are unary temporal operators, and U is a binary temporal operator.

One of the limitations of LTL is that it does not enable writing logic properties relative to finite sequences of states (e.g. the first 10 states) in a given computation path. Therefore, in case of complex systems whose behaviour yields an infinite sequence of states the evaluation of LTL logic properties could be potentially intractable. In such cases logic properties considering finite subsequences of states, called bounded logic properties, can be employed instead.

To enable writing such bounded logic properties, various extensions of LTL were developed. One of these extensions is called Bounded Linear Temporal Logic (BLTL). As indicated by Jha et al. [17] BLTL augments classic LTL temporal operators F , G and U with an upper bound $t \in \mathbb{Q}_{\geq 0}$:

- $F^t \phi$: Eventually logic proposition ϕ holds within the time interval $[0, t]$;
- $G^t \phi$: Logic proposition ϕ holds always within the time interval $[0, t]$;
- $\phi_1 U^t \phi_2$: Logic proposition ϕ_1 holds until logic proposition ϕ_2 holds within the time interval $[0, t]$.

Moreover as suggested later by Jha and Ramanathan [16] it is possible to additionally augment the temporal operators F , G and U with intervals $[t_1, t_2]$, $t_1, t_2 \in \mathbb{Q}_{\geq 0}$, such that logic propositions are evaluated against bounded time intervals which start at time point $t_1 \neq 0$.

Model checking

Model checking algorithms take a model and a formal specification as input and decide if the model behaviour conforms to the given specification, respectively if the values of the state variables change over time as expected. Such algorithms are usually implemented in software tools called model checkers which automate the entire verification process.

Depending if the model under consideration and corresponding formal specification are probabilistic or not, the employed model checking algorithms can be either exhaustive/approximate probabilistic or exhaustive non-probabilistic.

Exhaustive (non-)probabilistic model checking algorithms explore the entire system state space in order to decide if the model is correct relative to the given specification. The main advantage of such approaches is that they guarantee the (in)correctness of the model because all possible system states are potentially considered. Conversely one of the main disadvantages is that the computational complexity of exhaustive algorithms is proportional to the number of states considered. Therefore they can only be employed for models whose state space can be explored in reasonable time.

In contrast approximate probabilistic model checking algorithms explore the system state space only partially by considering a finite number of finite model simulations. One of the main disadvantages of such approaches is that the result of the model checking procedure is only an approximation and is not guaranteed to be correct. However several approximate probabilistic algorithms (e.g. [15, 20, 21]) enable the user to place an upper bound on the approximation error and thus ensure that the model checking result is provided with a certain degree of confidence (e.g. 95%). Conversely one of the main advantages of such approaches is that their complexity does not depend on the number of possible system states and therefore can be employed for systems with both small and large, potentially infinite, state spaces.

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