

# Formally Verified Endgame Tables

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# Talk Plan

- 1 Endgame Tables
- 2 Software Errors
- 3 Formal Verification
- 4 Verified Endgame Tables
- 5 Summary

# Endgame Tables

- Hardy (1940) estimated the number of possible **games of chess** to be  $\approx 10^{10^{50}}$ .
- Shannon (1950) estimated the number of possible **chess positions** to be  $\approx 10^{43}$ .
- But the number of possible chess positions with  $n$  **fixed pieces** is  $< 2 \times 16 \times 64^n$ .
- Endgame tables (EGTs) **solve chess** for small values of  $n$ .

# Categorize and Conquer

- Divide all possible chess positions into **classes** (e.g., KQKR).
  - **Warning:** It should never be possible for a chess game to leave a class and enter it again later.
- For each class  $C$  of positions define an **enumeration**  $f : C \rightarrow [0..N]$ .
  - Can often reduce  $N$  by using symmetry and eliminating illegal positions (e.g., touching kings).
- Compute an array  $\text{DTM}[N]$  of **depth-to-mate** values.
  - $\text{DTM}[f(p)] = n$  means that starting from position  $p$  White can checkmate Black within  $n$  moves.
  - Use **symmetry** to find Black's depth-to-mate and draws.

# Computing DTM Endgame Tables

## Code (Initialize DTM)

```
initialize() {  
  for each (p in C) {  
    if Black to move and checkmated then  
      DTM[f(p)] := 0  
    else  
      DTM[f(p)] :=  $+\infty$   
  }  
}
```

# Computing DTM Endgame Tables (II)

## Code (Propagate DTM values)

```
iterate() {  
  for each (p in C) {  
    Q := the set of possible next positions from p  
    if White to move then  
      DTM[f(p)] := 1 + minimum DTM of positions in Q  
    else if not in checkmate then  
      DTM[f(p)] := maximum DTM of positions in Q  
  }  
}
```

**Note:**  $Q$  might include positions outside  $C$

# Computing DTM Endgame Tables (III)

## Code (Converge to a fixed point)

```
compute() {  
  DTM := new Integer[N]  
  initialize()  
  while (DTM changes) {  
    iterate()  
  }  
}
```

What could possibly go wrong?

# The First Actual Computer Bug

- On 9 September 1945 the Harvard Mark II Machine broke down because **a moth got caught** between the points of Relay #70 in Panel F.
- At 3:45pm Grace Murray Hopper extracted it and taped it into the log book.
- In fact the term *bug* to mean a snag or defect was used by Edison as early as 1878.



The Harvard Mark II Machine, an early computer boasting magnetic drum storage.

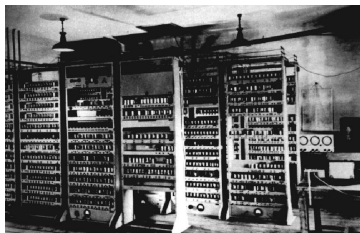


"First actual case of bug being found"

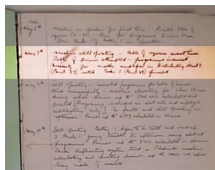


# The First Software Bug

- The EDSAC I became operational on 6 May 1949, printing a table of square numbers.
- The **very next day** the log entry reports a software error.
- Maurice Wilkes recalls the experience of debugging a program in June 1949:  
*"[T]he realization came over me with full force that a good part of the remainder of my life was going to be spent in finding errors in my own programs."*



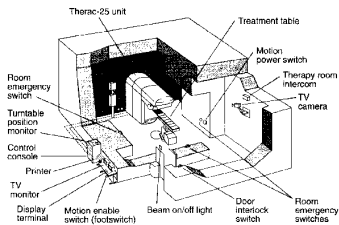
The EDSAC I, the first stored program computer.



"Machine still operating - table of squares several times. Table of primes attempted - programme incorrect"

# Serious Software Bugs

- 1985–1987:** A particular combination of operator key presses on the Therac 25 radiation treatment machine blasted the patient with X-rays at 125 times the recommended dose, resulting in the **death of 3 people**.
- 4 June 1996:** The \$2B Ariane 5 rocket **exploded on its maiden flight** because an assignment of a 64 bit number to a 16 bit buffer overflowed. The Inertial Reference System crashed and output a test pattern. The rocket controller interpreted this as real flight data, changed direction, disintegrated and self-destructed.



The Therac 25 radiation treatment machine.



The launch of the Ariane 5 rocket.

# Endgame Table Software Bugs

Endgame tables have occasionally been found to contain errors:

- **1986:** Thompson's KQPKQ EGT was caveated as correct only in the absence of underpromotion.
- **1987:** Van Den Herik's KRP(a2)KbBP(a3) EGT replaced unavailable subgame EGTs with faulty chessic logic.
- **1999:** RetroEngine's EGTs assumed that the loser would never make a capture.
- **2002:** FEG's KNNK EGT assumed that White could never win, and in other EGTs sliding pieces could jump over pawns.

# What About Testing?

- Testing is an effective technique for finding software bugs that **appear frequently**.
- **Example:** If you have a bug in your software that crashes the computer every 1,000,000 hours on average, then:
  - you need 1,000,000 hours of testing to spot the bug;
  - but every day it will crash one of your 50,000 users.
- **Problem:** How do you know when to stop testing?
  - *“Program testing can be used to show the presence of bugs, but never to show their absence!”* [Dijkstra]

# Formal Verification

- **Formal verification** refers to a body of verification techniques that work by building a **mathematical model** of an artifact and **proving properties** about it.
- Formal verification is complementary to testing.
  - In general, testing techniques generate weak evidence about the real artifact. [**Worry**: Have I tested enough?]
  - In general, formal verification techniques generate strong evidence about a model of the artifact. [**Worry**: Is the model faithful enough?]
- The field of formal verification has been actively researched for over 60 years.<sup>1</sup>

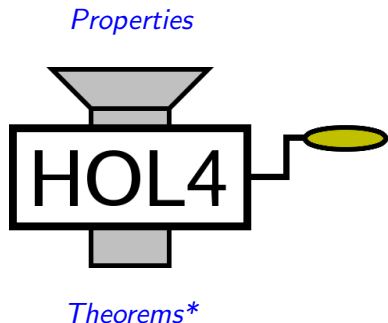
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<sup>1</sup>Alan M. Turing. Checking a large routine. In *Report of a Conference on High Speed Automatic Calculating Machines*, pages 67–69, Cambridge, England, June 1949. University Mathematical Laboratory.

# Formal Verification Successes

- **Type checkers** prove **data integrity** properties of arbitrary programs during compilation.
- **Abstract interpretation tools** find memory safety errors such as **buffer overflows** or **dangling pointers** in open source codes.
- **The TERMINATOR tool** developed by Microsoft Research checks there are no **infinite loops** in Windows device drivers that would cause the OS to hang.
- **The CompCert project** used the Coq theorem prover to verify an **optimizing compiler** for a large subset of C.
- **The Isabelle/HOL theorem prover** was used to carry out a 20 man-year verification of the **seL4 operating system kernel**.

# Interactive Theorem Proving



- Interactive theorem proving is a formal verification technique.
- The user makes logical definitions and guides the tool to prove formal properties of them.
- Automatic tactics generate pieces of proof as a by-product of breaking down properties.

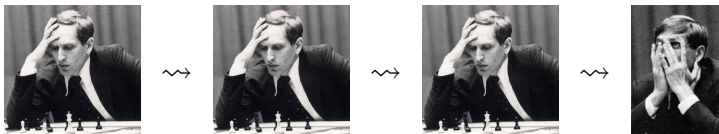
\*Made with mechanically extracted proof.

# Higher Order Logic

- Higher order logic is an **expressive logic**, allowing natural formalizations of most mathematical theories.
- **Example:** *Using \$3 and \$5 coins you can make every dollar amount greater than \$7:*

$$\forall x. x > 7 \implies \exists y, z. x = 3 * y + 5 * z$$

- This expressive power enables the construction of **faithful mathematical models** of systems in higher order logic.
- The main challenge in verifying properties of these systems using interactive theorem provers is **proof automation**:





# Theorem Provers in the LCF Design

- A theorem  $\Gamma \vdash \phi$  states “if all of the hypotheses  $\Gamma$  are true, then so is the conclusion  $\phi$ ”.
- The novelty of Milner’s **Edinburgh LCF** theorem prover was to make theorem an abstract ML type.
- Values of type `theorem` can only be created by a small **logical kernel** which implements the primitive inference rules of the logic.
- **Soundness** of the whole ML theorem prover thus reduces to soundness of the logical kernel.

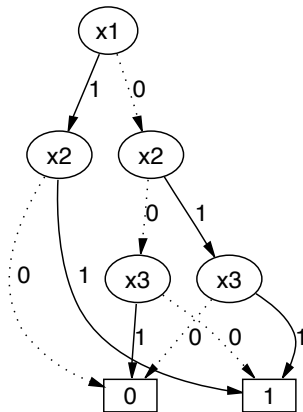


HOL4 theorem prover  $\sim$  the elephant  
logical kernel  $\sim$  the ball

# Binary Decision Diagrams

- Binary decision diagrams (BDDs) are a representation of **propositional logic formulas**.
- Every path from root to leaf respects a variable ordering, and there is maximal sharing of subterms.
- Gordon created a set of inference rules relating **higher order logic formulas** and **BDDs**:

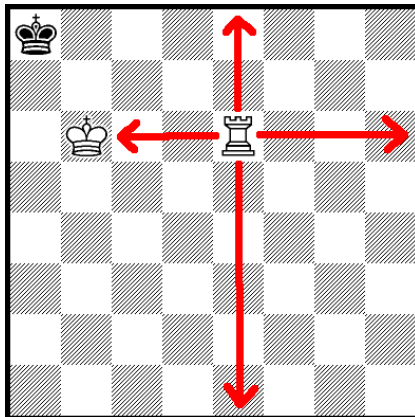
$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 = t_2 \quad \Delta \vdash t_1 \mapsto B}{\Gamma \cup \Delta \vdash t_2 \mapsto B}$$



A binary decision diagram representation of  $(x_1 \wedge x_2) \vee (\neg x_1 \wedge (x_2 \equiv x_3))$ .

# Formalizing the Laws of Chess

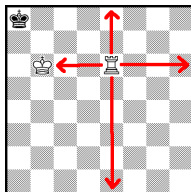
**Example:** Define the [set of squares](#) that a rook attacks.



# Formalizing the Laws of Chess (II)

- Define the required **types**:

- square  $\equiv \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$
- position  $\equiv$   
side  $\times$  (square  $\rightarrow$  (side  $\times$  piece) option)



- Define the **logical relation**:

rookAttacks : position  $\rightarrow$  square  $\rightarrow$  square  $\rightarrow$  bool

rookAttacks  $p a b \equiv$

$a \neq b \wedge (\text{file } a = \text{file } b \vee \text{rank } a = \text{rank } b) \wedge$

$\forall c. \text{betweenSquare } a c b \implies \text{emptySquare } p c$

- Continue in this way to formalize a logical definition of  
**DTM** :  $\mathbb{N} \rightarrow$  position set

# Computing Verified Endgame Tables

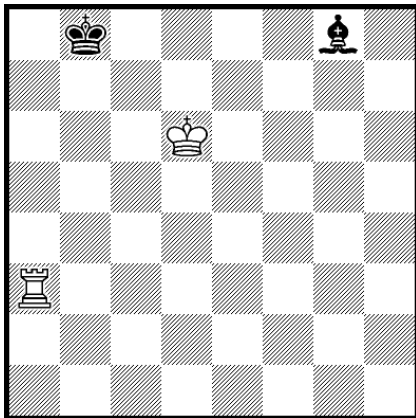
We build our verified endgame database in the usual way by working backwards from checkmates, but **symbolically using BDDs**.

┆ decodePosition  
    (Black, [(White, King), (White, Rook),  
            (Black, King), (Black, Bishop)])  
    [x<sub>0</sub>, x<sub>1</sub>, x<sub>2</sub>, x<sub>3</sub>, x<sub>4</sub>, x<sub>5</sub>, x<sub>6</sub>, x<sub>7</sub>, x<sub>8</sub>, x<sub>9</sub>, x<sub>10</sub>, x<sub>11</sub>,  
      x<sub>12</sub>, x<sub>13</sub>, x<sub>14</sub>, x<sub>15</sub>, x<sub>16</sub>, x<sub>17</sub>, x<sub>18</sub>, x<sub>19</sub>, x<sub>20</sub>, x<sub>21</sub>, x<sub>22</sub>, x<sub>23</sub>])  
    ∈ DTM 28  
    ↦ < 29,907 >

Performance is sufficient to cover all **4 piece pawnless endgames**.

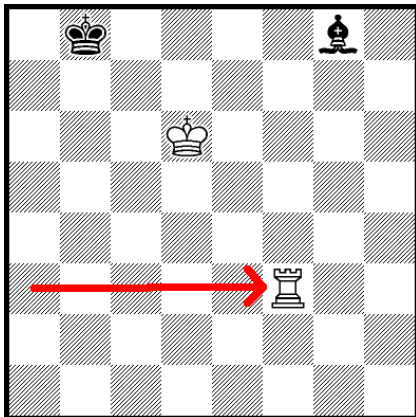
# Querying the Endgame Tables

**Quiz:** Find the only **winning White move**.

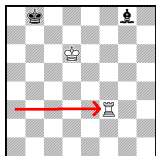


# Querying the Endgame Tables (II)

**Solution:** Rf3 is **checkmate in 29** (all other moves draw).



# Querying the Endgame Tables (III)

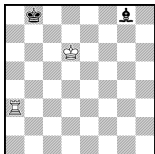


Check the after-position by [proving a theorem](#) using our verified endgame table:

- ⊢ (Black,  
 $\lambda sq.$   
 if  $sq = (3, 5)$  then Some (White, King)  
 else if  $sq = (5, 2)$  then Some (White, Rook)  
 else if  $sq = (1, 7)$  then Some (Black, King)  
 else if  $sq = (6, 7)$  then Some (Black, Bishop)  
 else None)  $\in$  DTM 28



# Querying the Endgame Tables (IV)



In fact, we can prove that checkmate in 29 is the **longest possible win** in the King and Rook versus King and Bishop endgame:

$$\begin{aligned}
 &\vdash \forall p, n. \\
 &\quad \text{toMove } p = \text{White} \wedge \\
 &\quad \text{hasPieces } p \text{ White [King, Rook]} \wedge \\
 &\quad \text{hasPieces } p \text{ Black [King, Bishop]} \wedge \\
 &\quad \text{allPiecesOnBoard } p \wedge \\
 &\quad p \in \text{DTM } n \implies \\
 &\quad p \in \text{DTM } 29
 \end{aligned}$$

# Summary

- The [world's first verified endgame table](#).
- Can prove that [position classification](#) logically follows from the [laws of chess](#).
- Constructed as a [fully automatic algorithm](#) implemented in the HOL4 theorem prover.
- Please [get in touch](#) if you are interested in finding out more:

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<http://gilith.com/chess/endgames>