

The Why/Krakatoa/Caduceus Platform for Deductive Program Verification

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Provers based on HOL are suitable tools to verify **purely functional** programs (see other lectures)

But how to verify an **imperative program** with your favorite prover?

for instance this one

```
t(a,b,c){int d=0,e=a&~b&~c,f=1;if(a)for(f=0;d=(e-=d)&~e;f+=t(a-d,(b+d)*2,(c+d)/2));return f;}main(q){scanf("%d",&q);printf("%d\n",t(~(~0<<q),0,0));}
```

Usual methods

- Floyd-Hoare logic
- Dijkstra's weakest preconditions

- could be formalized in the prover (deep embedding)
- could be applied by a tactic (shallow embedding)

⇒ would be **specific to this prover**

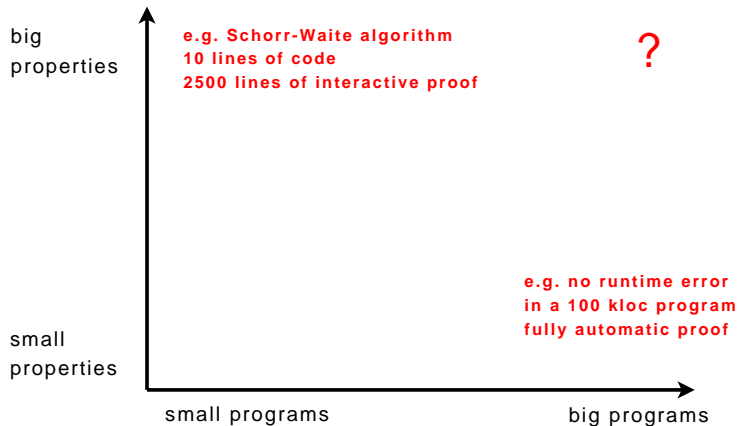
Which programming language?

a realistic existing programming language such as C or Java?

- many constructs \Rightarrow many rules
- would be **specific to this language**

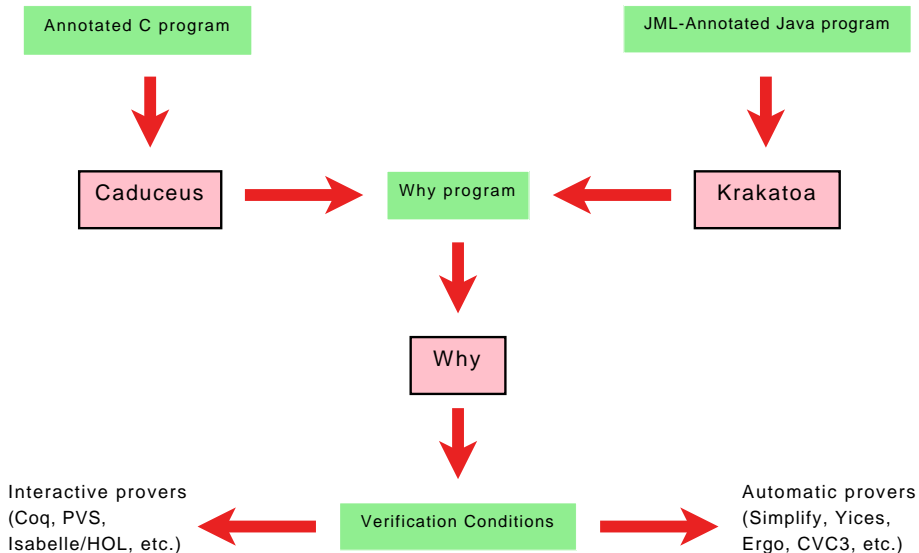
- general **goal**: prove behavioral properties of **pointer programs**
- pointer program = program manipulating data structures with **in-place mutable fields**
- we currently focus on **C** and **Java** programs

What kind of properties



- specification as **annotations** at the source code level
 - JML (Java Modeling Language) for Java
 - our own language for C (mostly JML-inspired)
- generation of **verification conditions** (VCs)
 - using Hoare logic / weakest preconditions
 - other similar approaches: static verification (ESC/Java, SPEC#), B method, etc.
- **multi-prover** approach
 - off-the-shelf provers, as many as possible
 - automatic provers (Simplify, Yices, Ergo, etc.)
 - proof assistants (Coq, PVS, Isabelle/HOL, etc.)

Platform Overview



- ① An intermediate language for program verification
 - ① syntax, typing, semantics, proof rules
 - ② the Why tool
 - ③ multi-prover approach
- ② Verifying C and Java programs
 - ① specification languages
 - ② models of program execution
- ③ A challenging case study

part I

An Intermediate Language for Program Verification

makes program verification

- prover-independent but prover-aware
- language-independent

so that we can use it to verify C, Java, etc. programs with HOL provers
but also with FO decision procedures

The essence of Hoare logic: assignment rule

$$\{ P[x \leftarrow E] \} x := E \{ P \}$$

- 1 absence of aliasing
- 2 side-effects free E **shared** between program and logic

Any purely applicative data type from the logic can be used in programs

Example: a data type `int` for integers with constants 0, 1, etc. and operations `+`, `*`, etc.

The pure expression `1+2` belongs to both programs and logic

A single data structure: the **reference** (mutable variable) containing **only pure values**, with no possible alias between two different references

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ML syntax

No distinction between expressions and statements

⇒ less constructs

⇒ less rules

dereference $!x$

assignment $x := e$

local variable $\text{let } x = e_1 \text{ in } e_2$

local reference $\text{let } x = \text{ref } e_1 \text{ in } e_2$

conditional $\text{if } e_1 \text{ then } e_2 \text{ else } e_3$

loop $\text{while } e_1 \text{ do } e_2 \text{ done}$

sequence $e_1; e_2 \equiv \text{let } _ = e_1 \text{ in } e_2$

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Annotations

- `assert {p}; e`
- `e {p}`

Examples:

- `assert {x > 0}; 1/x`
- `x := 0 {!x = 0}`
- `if !x > !y then !x else !y {result ≥ !x ∧ result ≥ !y}`
- `x := !x + 1 {!x > old(!x)}`

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Annotations (cont'd)

Loop invariant and variant

- `while e_1 do {invariant p variant t } e_2 done`

Example:

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while !x < N do
  { invariant !x ≤ N variant N - !x }
  x := !x + 1
done
```

Annotations (cont'd)

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Auxiliary variables

Used to denote the **intermediate** values of variables

Example: ... $\{!x = X\}$... $\{!x > X\}$...

We will use **labels** instead

- new construct $L : e$
- new annotation $\text{at}(t, L)$

Example:

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L : while ... do { invariant  $!x \geq \text{at}(!x, L)$  ... }  
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A function declaration introduces a **precondition**

- `fun (x : τ) \rightarrow { p } e`
- `rec f (x1 : τ_1) ... (xn : τ_n) : β {variant t } = { p } e`

Example:

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fun (x : int ref)  $\rightarrow$  {!x > 0} x := !x - 1 {!x  $\geq$  0}
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Modularity

A function declaration extends the ML function type with a **precondition**, an **effect** and a **postcondition**

$$f : x : \tau_1 \rightarrow \{p\} \tau_2 \text{ reads } x_1, \dots, x_n \text{ writes } y_1, \dots, y_m \{q\}$$

Example:

$$\text{swap} : x : \text{int ref} \rightarrow y : \text{int ref} \rightarrow \\ \{\} \text{unit writes } x, y \{!x = \text{old}(!y) \wedge !y = \text{old}(!x)\}$$

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Exceptions

Finally, we introduce **exceptions** in our language

- a more realistic ML fragment
- to interpret abrupt statements like `return`, `break` or `continue`

new constructs

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The notion of postcondition is extended

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if  $x < 0$  then raise Negative else sqrt  $x$   
{  $result \geq 0 \mid \text{Negative} \Rightarrow x < 0$  }
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So is the notion of effect

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Loops and exceptions

We can replace the `while` loop by an **infinite loop**

- `loop e {invariant p variant t }`

and simulate the `while` loop using an exception

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while  $e_1$  do {invariant  $p$  variant  $t$ }  $e_2$  done  $\equiv$   
  try  
    loop if  $e_1$  then  $e_2$  else raise Exit  
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simpler constructs \Rightarrow simpler typing and proof rules

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Summary

Types

$$\begin{aligned}\tau & ::= \beta \mid \beta \text{ ref} \mid (x : \tau) \rightarrow \kappa \\ \kappa & ::= \{p\} \tau \in \{q\} \\ q & ::= p; E \Rightarrow p; \dots; E \Rightarrow p \\ \epsilon & ::= \text{reads } x, \dots, x \text{ writes } x, \dots, x \text{ raises } E, \dots, E\end{aligned}$$

Annotations

$$\begin{aligned}t & ::= c \mid x \mid !x \mid \phi(t, \dots, t) \mid \text{old}(t) \mid \text{at}(t, L) \\ p & ::= \text{True} \mid \text{False} \mid P(t, \dots, t) \\ & \mid p \Rightarrow p \mid p \wedge p \mid p \vee p \mid \neg p \mid \forall x : \beta. p \mid \exists x : \beta. p\end{aligned}$$

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Programs

```
 $u$  ::=  $c \mid x \mid !x \mid \phi(u, \dots, u)$   
 $e$  ::=  $u$   
    |  $x := e$   
    |  $\text{let } x = e \text{ in } e$   
    |  $\text{let } x = \text{ref } e \text{ in } e$   
    |  $\text{if } e \text{ then } e \text{ else } e$   
    |  $\text{loop } e \{ \text{invariant } p \text{ variant } t \}$   
    |  $L:e$   
    |  $\text{raise } (E e) : \tau$   
    |  $\text{try } e \text{ with } E x \rightarrow e \text{ end}$   
    |  $\text{assert } \{p\}; e$   
    |  $e \{q\}$   
    |  $\text{fun } (x : \tau) \rightarrow \{p\} e$   
    |  $\text{rec } x (x : \tau) \dots (x : \tau) : \beta \{ \text{variant } t \} = \{p\} e$   
    |  $e e$ 
```

A typing judgment

$$\Gamma \vdash e : (\tau, \epsilon)$$

Rules given in the notes (page 24)

The main purpose is to **exclude aliases**
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Call-by-value semantics, with left to right evaluation

Big-step operational semantics given in the notes (page 26)

Proof Rules: Weakest Preconditions

We define the predicate $wp(e, q)$, called the weakest precondition for program e and postcondition q

Property: If $wp(e, q)$ holds, then e terminates and q holds at the end of execution (and all inner annotations are verified)

The converse holds for the fragment without loops and functions

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Definition of $wp(e, q)$

We actually define $wp(e, q; r)$ where

- q is the “normal” postcondition
- $r \equiv E_1 \Rightarrow q_1; \dots; E_n \Rightarrow q_n$ is the set of “exceptional” post.

$$wp(u, q; r) = q[result \leftarrow u]$$

$$wp(x := e, q; r) = wp(e, q[result \leftarrow void; !x \leftarrow result]; r)$$

$$wp(\text{let } x = e_1 \text{ in } e_2, q; r) = wp(e_1, wp(e_2, q; r)[x \leftarrow result]; r)$$

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$$wp(L: e, q; r) = wp(e, q; r)[\text{at}(t, L) \leftarrow t]$$

Assignment of a side-effects free expression

$$wp(x := u, q) = q[!x \leftarrow u]$$

Exception-free sequence

$$wp(e_1 ; e_2, q) = wp(e_1, wp(e_2, q))$$

Assignment of a side-effects free expression

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Exception-free sequence

$$wp(e_1 ; e_2, q) = wp(e_1, wp(e_2, q))$$

$$wp(\text{raise } (E \ e) : \tau, q; r) = wp(e, r_E; r)$$

$$wp(\text{try } e_1 \text{ with } E \ x \rightarrow e_2 \text{ end}, q; r) = \\ wp(e_1, q; E \Rightarrow wp(e_2, q; r)[x \leftarrow \text{result}]; r)$$

$$wp(\text{raise } (E \ e) : \tau, q; r) = wp(e, r_E; r)$$

$$wp(\text{try } e_1 \text{ with } E \ x \rightarrow e_2 \text{ end}, q; r) = \\ wp(e_1, q; E \Rightarrow wp(e_2, q; r)[x \leftarrow \text{result}]; r)$$

$$wp(\text{assert } \{p\}; e, q; r) = p \wedge wp(e, q; r)$$

$$wp(e \{q'; r'\}, q; r) = wp(e, q' \wedge q; r' \wedge r)$$

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$$\begin{aligned} wp(\text{loop } e \{ \text{invariant } p \text{ variant } t \}, q; r) = \\ p \wedge \forall \omega. p \Rightarrow wp(L:e, p \wedge t < \text{at}(t, L); r) \end{aligned}$$

where ω = the variables (possibly) modified by e

Usual while loop

$$\begin{aligned} wp(\text{while } e_1 \text{ do } \{ \text{invariant } p \text{ variant } t \} e_2 \text{ done}, q; r) \\ = p \wedge \forall \omega. p \Rightarrow \\ wp(L:\text{if } e_1 \text{ then } e_2 \text{ else raise } E, p \wedge t < \text{at}(t, L), E \Rightarrow q; r) \\ = p \wedge \forall \omega. p \Rightarrow \\ wp(e_1, \text{if } \text{result} \text{ then } wp(e_2, p \wedge t < \text{at}(t, L)) \text{ else } q, r)[\text{at}(x, L) \leftarrow x] \end{aligned}$$

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where $\omega =$ the variables (possibly) modified by e

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where ω = the variables (possibly) modified by e

Usual while loop

$$\begin{aligned} wp(\text{while } e_1 \text{ do } \{ \text{invariant } p \text{ variant } t \} e_2 \text{ done}, q; r) \\ = p \wedge \forall \omega. p \Rightarrow \\ wp(L:\text{if } e_1 \text{ then } e_2 \text{ else raise } E, p \wedge t < \text{at}(t, L), E \Rightarrow q; r) \\ = p \wedge \forall \omega. p \Rightarrow \\ wp(e_1, \text{if } \text{result} \text{ then } wp(e_2, p \wedge t < \text{at}(t, L)) \text{ else } q, r)[\text{at}(x, L) \leftarrow x] \end{aligned}$$

$$wp(\text{fun } (x : \tau) \rightarrow \{p\} e, q; r) = q \wedge \forall x. \forall \rho. p \Rightarrow wp(e, \text{True})$$

$$wp(\text{rec } f (x_1 : \tau_1) \dots (x_n : \tau_n) : \tau \{ \text{variant } t \} = \{p\} e, q; r) \\ = q \wedge \forall x_1 \dots \forall x_n. \forall \rho. p \Rightarrow wp(L:e, \text{True})$$

when computing $wp(L:e, \text{True})$, f is assumed to have type

$$(x_1 : \tau_1) \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow (x_n : \tau_n) \rightarrow \{p \wedge t < \text{at}(t, L)\} \tau \in \{q\}$$

$$wp(\text{fun } (x : \tau) \rightarrow \{p\} e, q; r) = q \wedge \forall x. \forall \rho. p \Rightarrow wp(e, \text{True})$$

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when computing $wp(L:e, \text{True})$, f is assumed to have type

$$(x_1 : \tau_1) \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow (x_n : \tau_n) \rightarrow \{p \wedge t < \text{at}(t, L)\} \tau \in \{q\}$$

Function call

Simplified using

$$e_1 e_2 \equiv \text{let } x_1 = e_1 \text{ in let } x_2 = e_2 \text{ in } x_1 x_2$$

Assuming

$$x_1 : (x : \tau) \rightarrow \{p'\} \tau' \in \{q'\}$$

we define

$$wp(x_1 x_2, q) = p'[x \leftarrow x_2] \wedge \forall \omega. \forall \text{result}. (q'[x \leftarrow x_2] \Rightarrow q)[\text{old}(t) \leftarrow t]$$

Function call

Simplified using

$$e_1 e_2 \equiv \text{let } x_1 = e_1 \text{ in let } x_2 = e_2 \text{ in } x_1 x_2$$

Assuming

$$x_1 : (x : \tau) \rightarrow \{p'\} \tau' \in \{q'\}$$

we define

$$wp(x_1 x_2, q) = p'[x \leftarrow x_2] \wedge \forall \omega. \forall \text{result}. (q'[x \leftarrow x_2] \Rightarrow q)[\text{old}(t) \leftarrow t]$$

- ① An intermediate language for program verification
 - ① syntax, typing, semantics, proof rules
 - ② **the Why tool**
 - ③ multi-prover approach
- ② Verifying C and Java programs
 - ① specification languages
 - ② models of program execution
- ③ A challenging case study

The Why Tool

This intermediate language is implemented in the Why tool

input = polymorphic first-order logic declarations + programs

output = logical declarations + goals, in the syntax of the selected prover

Logical Declarations

```
type t
```

```
logic zero : t
```

```
logic succ : t -> t
```

```
logic le : t, t -> prop
```

```
axiom a : forall x:t. le(zero,x)
```

```
goal g : le(zero, succ(zero))
```

Programs

```
parameter x : int ref
```

```
parameter g :
```

```
  b:t -> { x>=0 } t writes x { result=succ(b) and x=x@+1 }
```

```
let h (a:int) (b:t) =
```

```
  { x>=0 }
```

```
    if !x = a then x := 0;
```

```
    g (succ b)
```

```
  { result=succ(succ(b)) }
```

```
exception E
```

```
exception F of int
```

it is a compiler:

- `why --coq f.why` to produce a re-editable Coq file `f_why.v`
- `why --simplify f.why` to produce a Simplify script `f_why.sx`
- etc.

the following provers/formats are supported:

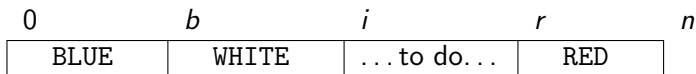
- Coq, PVS, Isabelle/HOL, HOL-light, HOL4, Mizar
- Simplify, Ergo, SMT (Yices, CVC3, etc.), CVC-Lite, haRVey, Zenon

there is a graphical user interface, `gwhy`

Example: Dijkstra's Dutch national flag

Goal: to sort an array where elements only have three different values (blue, white and red)

Algorithm



$flag(t, n) \equiv$

$b \leftarrow 0$

$i \leftarrow 0$

$r \leftarrow n$

while $i < r$

 case $t[i]$

 BLUE : *swap* $t[b]$ and $t[i]$; $b \leftarrow b + 1$; $i \leftarrow i + 1$

 WHITE : $i \leftarrow i + 1$

 RED : $r \leftarrow r - 1$; *swap* $t[r]$ and $t[i]$

we want to prove

- **termination**
- **absence of runtime error** = no array access out of bounds
- **behavioral correctness** = the final array is sorted **and** contains the same elements as the initial array

We model

- colors using an **abstract datatype**
- arrays using references containing **functional arrays**

An abstract type for colors

```
type color
```

```
logic blue : color
```

```
logic white : color
```

```
logic red : color
```

```
predicate is_color(c:color) = c=blue or c=white or c=red
```

```
parameter eq_color :
```

```
  c1:color -> c2:color ->
```

```
    {} bool { if result then c1=c2 else c1<>c2 }
```


Functional arrays

```
type color_array
```

```
logic acc : color_array, int -> color
```

```
logic upd : color_array, int, color -> color_array
```

```
axiom acc_upd_eq :
```

```
  forall a:color_array. forall i:int. forall c:color.  
    acc(upd(a,i,c),i) = c
```

```
axiom acc_upd_neq :
```

```
  forall a:color_array. forall i,j:int. forall c:color.  
    i <> j -> acc(upd(a,j,c),i) = acc(a,i)
```

Array bounds

```
logic length : color_array -> int
```

```
axiom length_update :  
  forall a:color_array. forall i:int. forall c:color.  
    length(upd(a,i,c)) = length(a)
```

```
parameter get :  
  t:color_array ref -> i:int ->  
    { 0<=i<length(t) } color reads t { result=acc(t,i) }
```

```
parameter set :  
  t:color_array ref -> i:int -> c:color ->  
    { 0<=i<length(t) } unit writes t { t=upd(t@,i,c) }
```

Array bounds

```
logic length : color_array -> int
```

```
axiom length_update :  
  forall a:color_array. forall i:int. forall c:color.  
    length(upd(a,i,c)) = length(a)
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```
parameter set :  
  t:color_array ref -> i:int -> c:color ->  
    { 0<=i<length(t) } unit writes t { t=upd(t@,i,c) }
```

The swap function

```
let swap (t:color_array ref) (i:int) (j:int) =  
  { 0 <= i < length(t) and 0 <= j < length(t) }  
  let u = get t i in  
  set t i (get t j);  
  set t j u  
  { t = upd(upd(t@,i,acc(t@,j)), j, acc(t@,i)) }
```

5 proofs obligations

- 3 automatically discharged by Why
- 2 left to the user (and automatically discharged by Simplify)

The swap function

```
let swap (t:color_array ref) (i:int) (j:int) =  
  { 0 <= i < length(t) and 0 <= j < length(t) }  
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  set t i (get t j);  
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  { t = upd(upd(t@,i,acc(t@,j)), j, acc(t@,i)) }
```

5 proofs obligations

- 3 automatically discharged by Why
- 2 left to the user (and automatically discharged by Simplify)

Function code

```
let dutch_flag (t:color_array ref) (n:int) =  
  let b = ref 0 in  
  let i = ref 0 in  
  let r = ref n in  
  while !i < !r do  
    if eq_color (get t !i) blue then begin  
      swap t !b !i;  
      b := !b + 1;  
      i := !i + 1  
    end else if eq_color (get t !i) white then  
      i := !i + 1  
    else begin  
      r := !r - 1;  
      swap t !r !i  
    end  
  end  
done
```

Function specification

```
let dutch_flag (t:color_array ref) (n:int) =  
  { 0 <= n and length(t) = n and  
    forall k:int. 0 <= k < n -> is_color(acc(t,k)) }  
  :  
  { (exists b:int. exists r:int.  
    monochrome(t,0,b,blue) and  
    monochrome(t,b,r,white) and  
    monochrome(t,r,n,red))  
    and permutation(t,t@,0,n-1) }
```

The monochrome property

```
predicate monochrome(t:color_array,i:int,j:int,c:color) =  
  forall k:int. i<=k<j -> acc(t,k)=c
```


The permutation property

```
logic permutation : color_array, color_array, int, int -> prop
```

```
axiom permut_refl : forall t:color_array. forall l,r:int.  
  permutation(t,t,l,r)
```

```
axiom permut_sym : forall t1,t2:color_array. forall l,r:int.  
  permutation(t1,t2,l,r) -> permutation(t2,t1,l,r)
```

```
axiom permut_trans : forall t1,t2,t3:color_array. forall l,r:i  
  permutation(t1,t2,l,r) -> permutation(t2,t3,l,r) ->  
  permutation(t1,t3,l,r)
```

```
axiom permut_swap : forall t:color_array. forall l,r,i,j:int.  
  l <= i <= r -> l <= j <= r ->  
  permutation(t, upd(upd(t,i,acc(t,j)), j, acc(t,i)), l, r)
```

The permutation property

logic permutation : color_array, color_array, int, int -> prop

axiom permut_refl : forall t:color_array. forall l,r:int.
permutation(t,t,l,r)

axiom permut_sym : forall t1,t2:color_array. forall l,r:int.
permutation(t1,t2,l,r) -> permutation(t2,t1,l,r)

axiom permut_trans : forall t1,t2,t3:color_array. forall l,r:i
permutation(t1,t2,l,r) -> permutation(t2,t3,l,r) ->
permutation(t1,t3,l,r)

axiom permut_swap : forall t:color_array. forall l,r,i,j:int.
l <= i <= r -> l <= j <= r ->
permutation(t, upd(upd(t,i,acc(t,j)), j, acc(t,i)), l, r)

Loop invariant

```
⋮
init:
while !i < !r do
  { invariant
    0 <= b <= i and i <= r <= n and
    monochrome(t,0,b,blue) and
    monochrome(t,b,i,white) and
    monochrome(t,r,n,red) and
    length(t) = n and
    (forall k:int. 0 <= k < n -> is_color(acc(t,k))) and
    permutation(t,t@init,0,n-1)
  variant
    r - i }
⋮
done
```

11 proof obligations

- loop invariant holds initially
- loop invariant is preserved and variant decreases (3 cases)
- `swap` precondition (twice)
- array access within bounds (twice)
- postcondition holds at the end of function execution

All automatically discharged by Simplify!

- ① An intermediate language for program verification
 - ① syntax, typing, semantics, proof rules
 - ② the Why tool
 - ③ **multi-prover approach**
- ② Verifying C and Java programs
 - ① specification languages
 - ② models of program execution
- ③ A challenging case study

Discharging the Verification Conditions

we want to use **off-the-shelf provers**, as many as possible

requirements

- first-order logic
- equality and arithmetic
- quantifiers (memory model, user algebraic models)

Provers Currently Supported

automatic decision procedures

- provers *a la* Nelson-Oppen
 - Simplify, Yices, Ergo
 - CVC Lite, CVC3
- resolution-based provers
 - haRVey, rv-sat
- tableaux-based provers
 - Zenon

interactive proof assistants

- Coq, PVS, Isabelle/HOL, HOL4, HOL-light, Mizar

verification conditions are expressed in polymorphic first-order logic

need to be **translated** to logics with various type systems:

- unsorted logic (Simplify, Zenon)
- simply sorted logic (SMT provers)
- parametric polymorphism (CVC Lite, PVS)
- polymorphic logic (Ergo, Coq, Isabelle/HOL)

Typing Issues

erasing types is unsound

`type` color

`logic` white,black : color

`axiom` color: forall c:color. c=white or c=black

$\forall c, c = \text{white} \vee c = \text{black} \vdash \perp$

several type encodings are used

- monomorphization
 - each polymorphic symbol is replaced by several monomorphic types
 - may loop
- usual encoding “types-as-predicates”
 - $\forall x, \text{nat}(x) \Rightarrow P(x)$
 - does not combine nicely with most provers
- new encoding with **type-decorated terms**
Handling Polymorphism in Automated Deduction (CADE 21)

Trust in Prover Results

- some provers apply the de Bruijn principle and thus are **safe**
 - Coq, HOL family
- most provers **have to be trusted**
 - Simplify, Yices
 - PVS, Mizar
- some provers output **proof traces**
 - Ergo, CVC family, Zenon

most of the time, we run the various provers **in parallel**, expecting at least one of them to discharge the VC

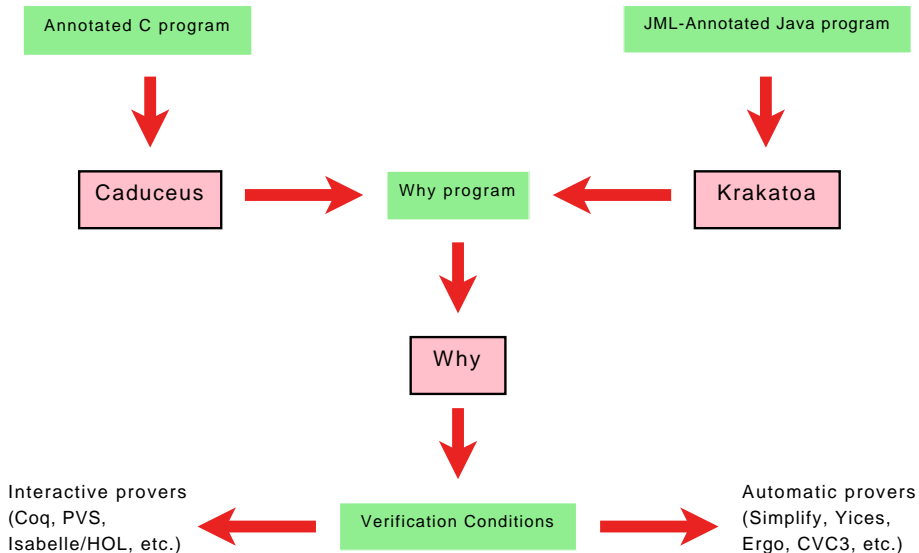
if not, we turn to interactive theorem provers

- no real collaboration between automatic provers
- from Coq or Isabelle, one can call automatic theorem provers
 - proofs are checked when available
 - results are trusted otherwise

part II

Verifying C and Java Programs

Platform Overview



- 1 An intermediate language for program verification
 - 1 syntax, typing, semantics, proof rules
 - 2 the Why tool
 - 3 multi-prover approach
- 2 Verifying C and Java programs
 - 1 **specification languages**
 - how to formally specify behaviors
 - 2 models of program execution
- 3 A challenging case study

Which language to specify behaviors?

Java already has a specification language: **JML** (Java Modeling Language) used in runtime assertion checking tools, ESC/Java, JACK, LOOP, CHASE

JML allows to specify

- precondition, postcondition and side-effects for methods
- invariant and variant for loops
- class invariants
- model fields (\sim ghost code)

Which language to specify behaviors?

we designed a similar language for **C programs**, largely inspired by JML

additional features:

- pointer arithmetic
- algebraic models
 - any axiomatized theory can be used in specifications
 - no runtime assertion checking
- floating-point arithmetic
 - round errors can be specified

A First Example: Binary Search

binary search: search a sorted array of integers for a given value

famous example; see J. Bentley's *Programming Pearls*:

most programmers are wrong on their first attempt to write binary search

Binary Search (code)

```
int binary_search(int* t, int n, int v) {
    int l = 0, u = n-1, p = -1;
    while (l <= u) {
        int m = (l + u) / 2;
        if (t[m] < v)
            l = m + 1;
        else if (t[m] > v)
            u = m - 1;
        else {
            p = m; break;
        }
    }
    return p;
}
```

Binary Search (spec)

we want to prove:

- ① absence of runtime error
- ② termination
- ③ behavioral correctness

Binary Search (spec)

```
/*@ requires
   @   n >= 0 &&
   @   \valid_range(t,0,n-1) &&
   @   \forall int k1, int k2;
   @     0 <= k1 <= k2 <= n-1 => t[k1] <= t[k2]
   @*/
int binary_search(int* t, int n, int v) {
    ...
}
```

Binary Search (spec)

```
/*@ requires
  @   n >= 0 &&
  @   \valid_range(t,0,n-1) &&
  @   \forall int k1, int k2;
  @     0 <= k1 <= k2 <= n-1 => t[k1] <= t[k2]
  @ ensures
  @   (\result >= 0 && t[\result] == v) ||
  @   (\result == -1 && \forall int k;
  @     0 <= k < n => t[k] != v)
  @*/
int binary_search(int* t, int n, int v) {
  ...
}
```

Binary Search (spec)

```
/*@ requires ...
   @ ensures ...
   @*/
int binary_search(int* t, int n, int v) {
    int l = 0, u = n-1, p = -1;
    /*@ variant u-l
       @*/
    while (l <= u ) {
        ...
    }
}
```

Binary Search (spec)

```
/*@ requires ...
   @ ensures ...
   @*/
int binary_search(int* t, int n, int v) {
    int l = 0, u = n-1, p = -1;
    /*@ invariant
       @ 0 <= l && u <= n-1 && p == -1 &&
       @ \forall int k;
       @ 0 <= k < n => t[k] == v => l <= k <= u
       @ variant u-l
       @*/
    while (l <= u ) {
        ...
    }
}
```


DEMO

in JML, annotations are written using **pure Java code**
this is mandatory to perform **runtime assertion checking**

but it is often convenient to introduce **axiomatized theories** in order to
annotate programs, that is

- abstract types
- function symbols, w or w/o definitions
- predicates, w or w/o definitions
- axioms

Example: Priority Queues

static data structure for a **priority queue** containing integers

```
void clear();           // empties the queue
void push(int x);      // inserts a new element
int max();             // returns the maximal element
int pop();             // removes and returns the maximal element
```

Bags

```
//@ type bag

//@ logic bag empty_bag()

//@ logic bag singleton_bag(int x)

//@ logic bag union_bag(bag b1, bag b2)

/*@ logic bag add_bag(int x, bag b)
    @ { union_bag(b, singleton_bag(x)) } */

//@ logic int occ_bag(int x, bag b)

/*@ predicate is_max_bag(bag b, int m) {
    @ occ_bag(m, b) >= 1 &&
    @ \forall int x; occ_bag(x,b) >= 1 => x <= m
    @ } */
```

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    @ \forall int x; occ_bag(x,b) >= 1 => x <= m
    @ } */
```

Bags

```
//@ type bag

//@ logic bag empty_bag()

//@ logic bag singleton_bag(int x)

//@ logic bag union_bag(bag b1, bag b2)

/*@ logic bag add_bag(int x, bag b)
    @ { union_bag(b, singleton_bag(x)) } */

//@ logic int occ_bag(int x, bag b)

/*@ predicate is_max_bag(bag b, int m) {
    @ occ_bag(m, b) >= 1 &&
    @ \forall int x; occ_bag(x,b) >= 1 => x <= m
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    @ occ_bag(m, b) >= 1 &&
    @ \forall int x; occ_bag(x,b) >= 1 => x <= m
    @ } */
```

Priority Queues (spec)

```
//@ logic bag model() { ... }

//@ ensures model() == empty_bag()
void clear();

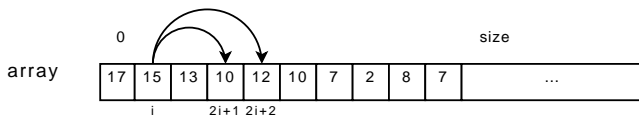
//@ ensures model() == add_bag(x, \old(model()))
void push(int x);

//@ ensures is_max_bag(model(), \result)
int max();

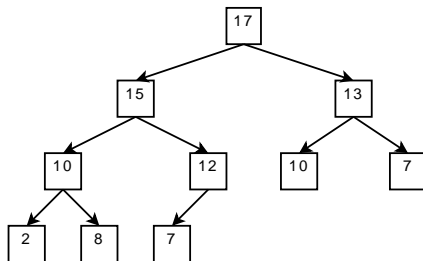
/*@ ensures is_max_bag(\old(model()), \result) &&
    @ \old(model()) == add_bag(\result, model()) */
int pop();
```

Implementing Priority Queues

implementation: heap encoded in an array



tree



bag

{ 2, 7, 7, 8, 10, 10, 12, 13, 15, 17 }

```
//@ type tree
```

```
//@ logic tree Empty()
```

```
//@ logic tree Node(tree l, int x, tree r)
```

Heaps

```
//@ predicate is_heap(tree t)

//@ axiom is_heap_def_1: is_heap(Empty())

/*@ axiom is_heap_def_2:
   @ \forall int x; is_heap(Node(Empty(), x, Empty()))
   @*/

/*@ axiom is_heap_def_3:
   @ \forall tree ll; \forall int lx;
   @ \forall tree lr; \forall int x;
   @ x >= lx => is_heap(Node(ll, lx, lr)) =>
   @ is_heap(Node(Node(ll, lx, lr), x, Empty()))
   @*/
```

...

Trees and Bags

```
//@ logic bag bag_of_tree(tree t)
```

```
/*@ axiom bag_of_tree_def_1:
```

```
  @   bag_of_tree(Empty()) == empty_bag()
```

```
  @*/
```

```
/*@ axiom bag_of_tree_def_2:
```

```
  @   \forall tree l; \forall int x; \forall tree r;
```

```
  @   bag_of_tree(Node(l, x, r)) ==
```

```
  @   add_bag(x, union_bag(bag_of_tree(l), bag_of_tree(r)))
```

```
  @*/
```

Trees and Arrays

```
//@ logic tree tree_of_array(int *t, int root, int bound)

/*@ axiom tree_of_array_def_2:
   @   \forall int *t; \forall int root; \forall int bound;
   @     0 <= root < bound =>
   @     tree_of_array(t, root, bound) ==
   @     Node(tree_of_array(t, 2*root+1, bound),
   @           t[root],
   @           tree_of_array(t, 2*root+2, bound))
   @*/
```

...

Priority Queues (spec)

```
#define MAXSIZE 100

int heap[MAXSIZE];

int size = 0;

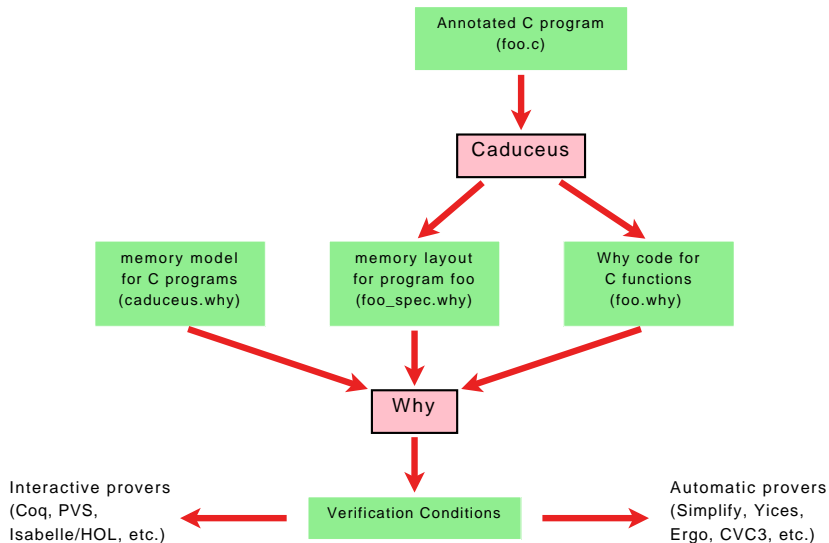
/*@ invariant size_inv : 0 <= size < MAXSIZE

/*@ invariant is_heap: is_heap(tree_of_array(heap, 0, size))

/*@ logic bag model()
    @ { bag_of_tree(tree_of_array(heap, 0, size)) } */
```

- ① An intermediate language for program verification
 - ① syntax, typing, semantics, proof rules
 - ② the Why tool
 - ③ multi-prover approach
- ② Verifying C and Java programs
 - ① specification languages
 - ② **models of program execution**
 - translation of pointer programs to alias-free Why programs
- ③ A challenging case study

Generating the Verification Conditions



To Pointer Programs to Alias-Free Programs

naive idea: model the **memory as a big array**

using the theory of arrays

$\text{acc} : \text{mem}, \text{int} \rightarrow \text{int}$

$\text{upd} : \text{mem}, \text{int}, \text{int} \rightarrow \text{mem}$

$\forall m p v, \text{acc}(\text{upd}(m, p, v), p) = v$

$\forall m p_1 p_2 v, p_1 \neq p_2 \Rightarrow \text{acc}(\text{upd}(m, p_1, v), p_2) = \text{acc}(m, p_2)$

Naive Memory Model

then the C program

```
int x;  
int y;  
x = 0;  
y = 1;  
/*@ assert x == 0
```

becomes

```
m := upd(m, x, 0);  
m := upd(m, y, 1);  
assert acc(m, x) = 0
```

the verification condition is

$$\text{acc}(\text{upd}(\text{upd}(m, x, 0), y, 0), x) = 0$$

Memory Model for Pointer Programs

we use the **component-as-array** model (Burstall-Bornat)

each structure/object field is mapped to a different array

relies on the property **“two different fields cannot be aliased”**

strong consequence: prevents pointer casts and unions (a priori)

Benefits of the Component-As-Array Model

```
struct S { int x; int y; } p;  
...  
p.x = 0;  
p.y = 1;  
/*@ assert p.x == 0
```

becomes

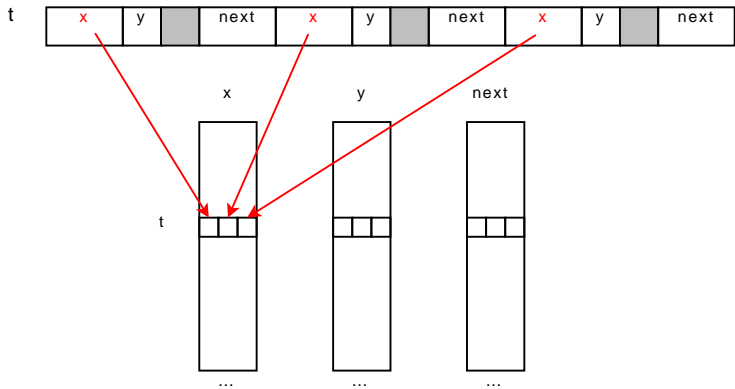
```
x := upd(x, p, 0);  
y := upd(y, p, 1);  
assert acc(x, p) = 0
```

the verification condition is

$$\text{acc}(\text{upd}(x, p, 0), p) = 0$$

Component-As-Array Model and Pointer Arithmetic

```
struct S { int x; short y; struct S *next; } t[3];
```



Separation Analysis

on top of Burstall-Bornat model, we add some **separation analysis**

- each pointer is assigned a **zone**
- zones are **unified** when pointers are assigned / compared
- functions are **polymorphic** wrt zones

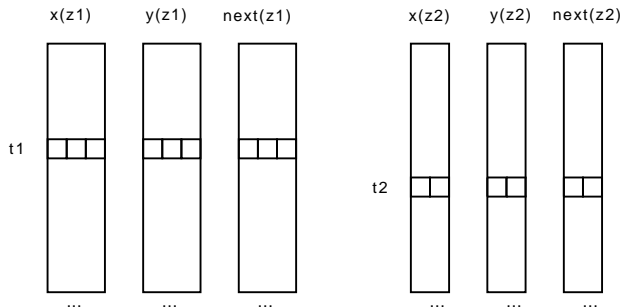
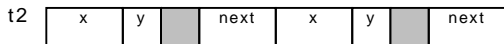
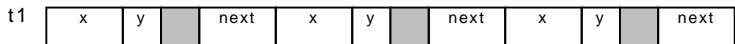
similar to ML-type inference

then the component-as-array model is refined according to zones

Separation Analysis for Deductive Verification (HAV'07)

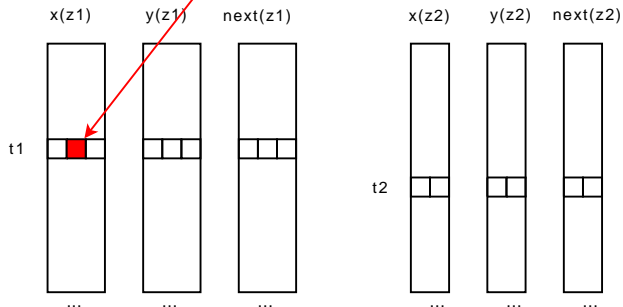
Separation Analysis

```
struct S { int x; short y; struct S *next; } t1[3], t2[2];
```



Separation Analysis

```
struct S { int x; short y; struct S *next; } t1[3], t2[2];
```



Example

little challenge for program verification proposed by P. Müller:

*count the number n of non-zero values in an integer array t ,
then copy these values in a freshly allocated array of size n*

t

2	1	0	4	0	5	3	0
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

count=5

u

2	1	4	5	3
---	---	---	---	---

P. Müller's Example (code)

```
void m(int t[], int length) {
    int count=0, i, *u;

    for (i=0 ; i < length; i++)
        if (t[i] > 0) count++;

    u = (int *)calloc(count, sizeof(int));
    count = 0;

    for (i=0 ; i < length; i++)
        if (t[i] > 0) u[count++] = t[i];
}
```

P. Müller's Example (spec)

```
void m(int t[], int length) {
    int count=0, i, *u;
    //@ invariant count == num_of_pos(0,i-1,t) ...
    for (i=0 ; i < length; i++)
        if (t[i] > 0) count++;
    //@ assert count == num_of_pos(0,length-1,t)
    u = (int *)calloc(count,sizeof(int));
    count = 0;
    //@ invariant count == num_of_pos(0,i-1,t) ...
    for (i=0 ; i < length; i++)
        if (t[i] > 0) u[count++] = t[i];
}
```

P. Müller's Example (proof)

12 verification conditions

- without separation analysis: 10/12 automatically proved
- with separation analysis: 12/12 automatically proved

DEMO

Integer Arithmetic

up to now, we did not consider integer arithmetic

there are basically three ways to model arithmetic

- **exact**: all computations are interpreted using mathematical integers; thus it **assumes** that there is no overflow
- **bounded**: the user have to **prove** that there is no integer overflow
- **modulo**: overflows are possible and modulo arithmetic is used; it is **faithful** to machine arithmetic

Overflows in Binary Search

we proved binary search using exact arithmetic

let us prove that there is no overflow

DEMO

difficulty: we do not want to lose the ability of provers to handle arithmetic

thus we cannot simply axiomatize machine arithmetic using new abstract data types

Bounded Arithmetic

consider signed 32-bit integers

```
type int32
```

```
logic of_int32: int32 -> int
```

```
axiom int32_domain:
```

```
  forall x:int32.
```

```
    -2147483648 <= of_int32(x) <= 2147483647
```

```
parameter int32_of_int:
```

```
  x:int ->
```

```
    { -2147483648 <= x <= 2147483647 }
```

```
  int32
```

```
    { of_int32(result) = x }
```

Bounded Arithmetic

consider the C fragment

```
(x + 1) * y
```

it is translated into

```
int32_of_int
  ((of_int32
    (int32_of_int
      ((of_int32 x) + (of_int32 (int32_of_int 1))))))
  *
  (of_int32 y))
```

Bounded Arithmetic

in practice, most proof obligations are easy to solve

```
int f(int n) {  
    int i = 0;  
    while (i < n) {  
        ...  
        i++;  
    }  
}
```

we do not even need to insert annotations

Modulo Arithmetic

```
type int32
```

```
logic of_int32: int32 -> int
```

```
axiom int32_domain:
```

```
  forall x:int32. -2147483648 <= of_int32(x) <= 2147483647
```

```
logic mod_int32: int -> int
```

```
parameter int32_of_int:
```

```
  x:int -> { } int32 { of_int32(result) = mod_int32(x) }
```

```
axiom mod_int32_id:
```

```
  forall x:int.
```

```
    -2147483648 <= x <= 2147483647 -> mod_int32(x) = x
```

```
...
```

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- ③ **A challenging case study**

A challenging case study

challenge for **the verified program of the month**:

```
t(a,b,c){int d=0,e=a&~b&~c,f=1;if(a)for(f=0;d=(e-=d)&-e;f+=t(a-d,(b+d)*2,(c+d)/2));return f;}main(q){scanf("%d",&q);printf("%d\n",t(~(~0<<q),0,0));}
```

appears on a web page collecting C signature programs

due to Marcel van Kervinck (author of MSCP, a chess program)

Unobfuscating...

```
int t(int a, int b, int c) {
    int d, e=a&~b&~c, f=1;
    if (a)
        for (f=0; d=e&-e; e-=d)
            f += t(a-d, (b+d)*2, (c+d)/2);
    return f;
}

int main(int q) {
    scanf("%d", &q);
    printf("%d\n", t(~(~0<<q), 0, 0));
}
```

this program reads an integer n




and prints the number of solutions to the n -queens problem

How does it work?















- backtracking algorithm (no better way to solve the n -queens)
- integers used as **sets** (bit vectors)

integers	sets
0	\emptyset
$a \& b$	$a \cap b$
$a + b$	$a \cup b$, when $a \cap b = \emptyset$
$a - b$	$a \setminus b$, when $b \subseteq a$
$\sim a$	$\complement a$
$a \& -a$	$\text{min_elt}(a)$, when $a \neq \emptyset$
$\sim(\sim 0 << n)$	$\{0, 1, \dots, n - 1\}$
$a * 2$	$\{i + 1 \mid i \in a\}$, written $S(a)$
$a / 2$	$\{i - 1 \mid i \in a \wedge i \neq 0\}$, written $P(a)$

What a , b and c mean

							
							
							
?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?

What a , b and c mean









$a = \text{columns to be filled} = 11100101_2$

What a , b and c mean

				♔			
			♔			♔	
		♔	♔		♔		
	♔	♔		♔			

$b =$ positions to avoid because of left diagonals $= 01101000_2$

What a , b and c mean

$c =$ positions to avoid because of right diagonals $= 00001001_2$

What a , b and c mean

				♠			
			♠	♠	♠	♠	
		♠	♠	♠	♠	♠	♠
♠	♠	♠	♠	♠	♠	♠	♠

$a \& \sim b \& \sim c = \text{positions to try} = 10000100_2$

Now it is clear

```
int t(int a, int b, int c) {  
    int d, e=a&~b&~c, f=1;  
    if (a)  
        for (f=0; d=e&-e; e-=d)  
            f += t(a-d, (b+d)*2, (c+d)/2);  
    return f;  
}
```

```
int queens(int n) {  
    return t(~(~0<<n), 0, 0);  
}
```

Abstract finite sets

```
//@ type iset

//@ predicate in_(int x, iset s)

/*@ predicate included(iset a, iset b)
    @ { \forall int i; in_(i,a) => in_(i,b) } */

//@ logic iset empty()

//@ axiom empty_def : \forall int i; !in_(i,empty())

...
```

total: **66 lines** of functions, predicates and axioms

C ints as abstract sets

```
/*@ logic iset iset(int x)

/*@ axiom iset_c_zero : \forall int x;
   @   iset(x)==empty() <=> x==0 */

/*@ axiom iset_c_min_elt :
   @   \forall int x; x != 0 =>
   @     iset(x&-x) == singleton(min_elt(iset(x))) */

/*@ axiom iset_c_diff : \forall int a, int b;
   @   iset(a&~b) == diff(iset(a), iset(b)) */
```

...

total: **27 lines**

Termination

```
int t(int a, int b, int c){
  int d, e=a&~b&~c, f=1;
  if (a)
    //@ variant card(iset(e-d))
    for (f=0; d=e&-e; e-=d) {
      f += t(a-d, (b+d)*2, (c+d)/2);
    }
  return f;
}
```

3 verification conditions, all proved automatically

similarly for the termination of the recursive function:

7 verification conditions, all proved automatically

how to express that we compute the right number,
since the program is not storing anything,
not even the current solution?

answer: by introducing **ghost code** to perform the missing operations

ghost code can be regarded as regular code, as soon as

- ghost code does not modify program data
- program code does not access ghost data

ghost data is purely logical \Rightarrow no need to check the validity of pointers

Program instrumented with ghost code

```
/*@ int** sol;
   *@ int s;
   *@ int* col;
   *@ int k;

int t(int a, int b, int c) {
    int d, e=a&~b&~c, f=1;
    if (a)
        for (f=0; d=e&-e; e-=d) {
            /*@ col[k] = min_elt(d);
               *@ k++;
            f += t3(a-d, (b+d)*2, (c+d)/2);
            /*@ k--;
        }
    /*@ else
    /*@   store_solution();
    return f;
}
```

Program instrumented with ghost code (cont'd)

```
/*@ requires solution(col)
   @ assigns  s, sol[s][0..N()-1]
   @ ensures s==\old(s)+1 && eq_sol(sol[\old(s)], col)
   @*/
void store_solution();

/*@ requires
   @  n == N() && s == 0 && k == 0
   @ ensures
   @  \result == s &&
   @  sorted(sol, 0, s) &&
   @  \forall int* t; solution(t) <=>
   @    (\exists int i; 0<=i<\result && eq_sol(t,sol[i]))
   @*/
int queens(int n) { return t(~(~0<<n), 0, 0); }
```


256 lines of code and specification

regarding VCs:

- main function queens: **15** verification conditions
 - **all** proved automatically (Simplify, Ergo or Yices)
- recursive function t: **51** verification conditions
 - **42** proved automatically: 41 by Simplify, 37 by Ergo and 35 by Yices
 - **9** proved manually using Coq (and Simplify)

Conclusion

Summary

the Why/Krakatoa/Caduceus platform features

- behavioral specification languages for C and Java programs, at source code level
- deductive program verification using original memory models
- multi-provers backend (interactive and automatic)

free software under GPL license; see <http://why.lri.fr/>

successfully applied on both

- academic case studies (Schorr-Waite, N-queens, list reversal, etc.)
- industrial case studies (Gemalto, Dassault Aviation, France Telecom)

other features not covered in this lecture

- **floating point arithmetic**
 - allows to specify rounding and method errors
 - *Formal Verification of Floating-Point Programs* (ARITH 18)
- **pruning strategies** to help decision procedures on large VCs
 - *A Graph-based Strategy for the Selection of Hypotheses* (FTP 2007)

Ongoing Work & Future Work

ongoing work

- ownership: when class/type invariants must hold?
- C unions & pointer casts

future work

- verification of ML programs