

Deductive Program Verification with Why3

Jean-Christophe Filliâtre
CNRS

joint work with
Andrei Paskevich, Claude Marché, and François Bobot

ProVal team, Orsay, France

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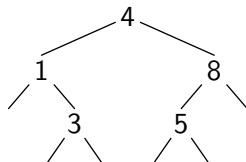
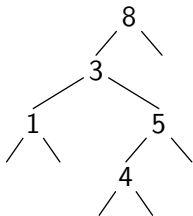
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chapter 1

A Tale of Two Programs

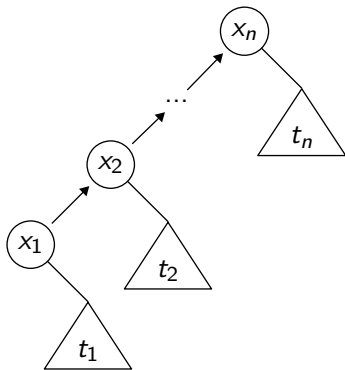
Program 1: Same Fringe

given two binary trees,
do they contain the same elements when traversed in order?



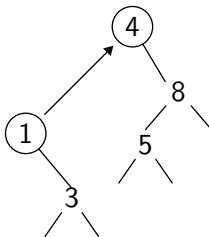
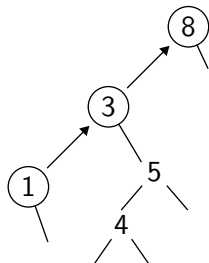
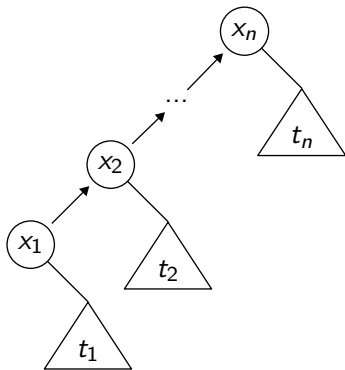
Same Fringe: A Solution

build the left spine as a bottom-up list



Same Fringe: A Solution

build the left spine as a bottom-up list



Same Fringe

a program is contained in a module

```
module SameFringe
```

we introduce an abstract type for elements

```
type elt
```

and an algebraic type for trees

```
type tree =  
  | Empty  
  | Node tree elt tree
```

Same Fringe

the list of elements traversed in order is

```
function elements (t: tree) : list elt = match t with
  | Empty → Nil
  | Node l x r → elements l ++ Cons x (elements r)
end
```

so the specification is as simple as

```
let same_fringe t1 t2 =
  { }
  ...
  { result=True ↔ elements t1 = elements t2 }
```

Same Fringe

a datatype for the left spine of a tree, as a bottom-up list

```
type enum =  
  | Done  
  | Next elt tree enum
```

and the list of its elements

```
function enum_elements (e: enum) : list elt = match e with  
  | Done → Nil  
  | Next x r e → Cons x (elements r ++ enum_elements e)  
end
```

Same Fringe

the left spine of a given tree

```
let rec enum t e =  
  { }  
  match t with  
  | Empty → e  
  | Node l x r → enum l (Next x r e)  
end  
{ enum_elements result = elements t ++ enum_elements e }
```

Same Fringe

idea: comparing enums is easier

```
let rec eq_enum e1 e2 =  
  { }  
  match e1, e2 with  
  | Done, Done →  
    True  
  | Next x1 r1 e1, Next x2 r2 e2 →  
    x1 = x2 && eq_enum (enum r1 e1) (enum r2 e2)  
  | _ →  
    False  
end  
{ result=True ↔ enum_elements e1 = enum_elements e2 }
```

Same Fringe

and it degenerates into a solution for the same fringe

```
let same_fringe t1 t2 =  
  { }  
  eq_enum (enum t1 Done) (enum t2 Done)  
  { result=True  $\leftrightarrow$  elements t1 = elements t2 }
```

all VCs are proved automatically

Same Fringe: Termination

additionally, we can prove termination of functions `enum` and `eq_enum`, by providing **variants**

unless specified otherwise,
a variant is a non-negative, strictly decreasing integer quantity

```
let rec enum t e variant { length (elements t) } =  
  ...
```

```
let rec eq_enum e1 e2 variant { length (enum_elements e1) }  
  ...
```

Program 2: Sparse Arrays

from VACID-0

Verification of Ample Correctness of Invariants of Data-structures

Rustan Leino and Michał Moskal (2010)

sparse arrays

array data structure with create, get and set in $O(1)$ time

difficulty

create N d allocates an array of size N with a default value d
but you can't afford $O(N)$ to make the initialization

Sparse Arrays: A Solution

use 3 arrays and keep track of meaningful values

		<i>b</i>		<i>a</i>		<i>c</i>	
values		<i>y</i>		<i>x</i>		<i>z</i>	

idx		1		0		2	
-----	--	---	--	---	--	---	--

	0	1	2	
back	<i>a</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>c</i>	

$n = 3$

Sparse Arrays

we use arrays from the standard library

```
use import module array.Array as A
```

and implement a sparse array as a record

```
type sparse_array  $\alpha$  = { | values : array  $\alpha$ ;  
                           idx   : array int;  
                           back  : array int;  
                           mutable card : int;  
                           default :  $\alpha$ ; | }
```

note that

- ▶ field card is mutable
- ▶ fields values, idx, and back contain mutable arrays
- ▶ field default is immutable

Sparse Arrays

the validity of an index:

```
predicate is_elt (a: sparse_array  $\alpha$ ) (i: int) =  
   $0 \leq a.idx[i] < a.card \wedge a.back[a.idx[i]] = i$ 
```

the model of a sparse array is a function from integer to values

```
function value (a: sparse_array  $\alpha$ ) (i: int) :  $\alpha$  =  
  if is_elt a i then a.values[i] else a.default
```

Sparse Arrays

it is convenient to introduce the length of a sparse array

```
function length (a: sparse_array  $\alpha$ ) : int = A.length a.vals
```

the data structure **invariant**:

```
predicate sa_invariant (a: sparse_array  $\alpha$ ) =  
   $0 \leq \text{a.card} \leq \text{length } a \leq \text{maxlen} \wedge$   
   $\text{A.length } \text{a.values} = \text{A.length } \text{a.idx} = \text{A.length } \text{a.back} \wedge$   
   $\forall i: \text{int.}$   
     $0 \leq i < \text{a.card} \rightarrow$   
     $0 \leq \text{a.back}[i] < \text{length } a \wedge \text{a.idx}[\text{a.back}[i]] = i$ 
```

Sparse Arrays

creation assumes we can allocate memory

```
parameter malloc:
  n:int → { } array  $\alpha$  { A.length result = n }

let create (sz: int) (d:  $\alpha$ ) =
  { 0 ≤ sz ≤ maxlen }
  { | values = malloc sz;
    idx = malloc sz;
    back = malloc sz;
    card = 0;
    default = d | }
  { sa_invariant result ∧ result.card = 0 ∧
    result.default = d ∧ length result = sz }
```

Sparse Arrays

we can test the validity of an index

```
let test (a: sparse_array  $\alpha$ ) i =  
  {  $0 \leq i < \text{length } a \wedge \text{sa\_invariant } a$  }  
   $0 \leq \text{a.idx}[i] \ \&\& \ \text{a.idx}[i] < \text{a.card} \ \&\& \ \text{a.back}[\text{a.idx}[i]]$   
  { result=True  $\leftrightarrow$  is_elt a i }
```

(different from is_elt: it does array bounds checking)

accessing an element

```
let get (a: sparse_array  $\alpha$ ) i =  
  {  $0 \leq i < \text{length } a \wedge \text{sa\_invariant } a$  }  
  if test a i then  
    a.values[i]  
  else  
    a.default  
  { result = value a i }
```

Sparse Arrays

assignment

```
let set (a: sparse_array  $\alpha$ ) (i: int) (v:  $\alpha$ ) =  
  {  $0 \leq i < \text{length } a \wedge \text{sa\_invariant } a$  }  
  a.values[i]  $\leftarrow$  v;  
  if not (test a i) then begin  
    assert { a.card < length a };  
    a.idx[i]  $\leftarrow$  a.card;  
    a.back[a.card]  $\leftarrow$  i;  
    a.card  $\leftarrow$  a.card + 1  
  end  
  { sa_invariant a  $\wedge$   
    value a i = v  $\wedge$   
     $\forall j:\text{int}. j \neq i \rightarrow \text{value } a j = \text{value (old } a) j$  }
```

Sparse Arrays

one lemma proved with Coq

`lemma` permutation:

```
  ∀ a: sparse_array α. sa_invariant a →  
    a.card = a.length →  
    ∀ i: int. 0 ≤ i < a.length →  
      0 ≤ a.idx[i] < a.length && a.back[a.idx[i]] = i
```

then all VCs are proved automatically

chapter 2

Big Picture

Where Programs Meet Provers

model a program behavior in a pure logical setting (Hoare logic)

use ATP (SMT+TPTP) whenever possible, recur to ITP otherwise

between the language of programs and that of provers lies a gap

rich type system

data structures:

algebraic types, records, arrays

modules and functions

higher-order

sorts

built-in types:

integers, reals, booleans, arrays

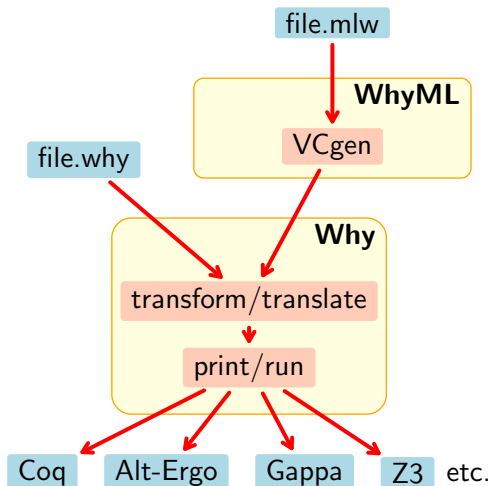
flat lists of premises

first-order

logical language as rich as possible without hindering proof search

Why3 Overview

started Feb 2010 / authors: JCF, A. Paskevich, C. Marché,
F. Bobot



chapter 3

Logical Language

Logical Language

first-order logic with polymorphic types

- ▶ ((mutually) recursive) algebraic types
- ▶ ((mutually) recursive) functions and predicates
- ▶ (mutually) inductive predicates
- ▶ let-in, match-with, if-then-else expressions
- ▶ axioms / lemmas / goals

organized in “theories”

- ▶ a theory may **use** another theory (sharing)
- ▶ a theory may **clone** another theory (copy + substitution)

Modular Specification with Theories

1. keep contexts **small** when using provers
 - ⇒ split specifications into small libraries
 - ⇒ we call them **theories**
2. they must be **reusable** pieces of specification
 - ⇒ they must be parameterized
 - ⇒ we generalize the idea with the notion of **theory cloning**

Theory

a theory groups declarations together

declarations introduce

- ▶ types
- ▶ symbols
- ▶ axioms
- ▶ goals

Example

```
theory List

  type list  $\alpha$  = Nil | Cons  $\alpha$  (list  $\alpha$ )

  logic mem (x:  $\alpha$ ) (l: list  $\alpha$ ) = match l with
    | Nil  $\rightarrow$  false
    | Cons y r  $\rightarrow$  x = y  $\vee$  mem x r
  end

  goal G1: mem 2 (Cons 1 (Cons 2 (Cons 3 Nil)))

end
```

Using a Theory

a theory T_2 can **use** another theory T_1

- ▶ the symbols of T_1 are **shared**
- ▶ axioms from T_1 remain axioms
- ▶ lemmas from T_1 become axioms
- ▶ goals from T_1 are ignored

Example

```
theory Length
```

```
  use import List
```

```
  use import int.Int
```

```
  logic length (l: list  $\alpha$ ) : int = match l with
```

```
    | Nil  $\rightarrow$  0
```

```
    | Cons _ r  $\rightarrow$  1 + length r
```

```
end
```

```
goal G2: length (Cons 1 (Cons 2 (Cons 3 Nil))) = 3
```

```
lemma length nonnegative:  $\forall l:\text{list } \alpha. \text{length}(l) \geq 0$ 
```

```
end
```

Theory Cloning

a theory T_2 can **clone** another theory T_1

this makes a **copy** of T_1 with a possible **instantiation**
of some of its abstract symbols: types, functions, predicates

$\Rightarrow$ any theory is parameterized w.r.t. its abstract symbols

(similar to PVS's *theory interpretation*)

Example

```
theory OrderedUnitaryCommutativeRing
  clone export UnitaryCommutativeRing
  predicate ( $\leq$ ) t t
  predicate ( $\geq$ ) (x y : t) = y  $\leq$  x
  clone export relations.TotalOrder with
    type t = t, predicate rel = ( $\leq$ )
  axiom CompatAdd :  $\forall$  x y z : t. x  $\leq$  y  $\rightarrow$  x + z  $\leq$  y + z
  axiom CompatMult :
     $\forall$  x y z : t. x  $\leq$  y  $\rightarrow$  zero  $\leq$  z  $\rightarrow$  x * z  $\leq$  y * z
end

theory Int
  function zero : int = 0
  function one : int = 1
  predicate (<) int int
  predicate (>) (x y : int) = y < x
  predicate ( $\leq$ ) (x y : int) = x < y  $\vee$  x = y
  clone export algebra.OrderedUnitaryCommutativeRing with
    type t = int, function zero = zero,
    function one = one, predicate ( $\leq$ ) = ( $\leq$ )
end
```

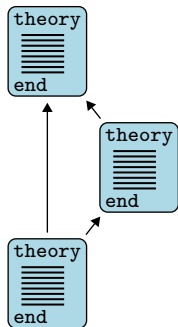
Theory Cloning

a theory T_2 can **clone** another theory T_1

- ▶ axioms from T_1 remain axioms or become lemmas/goals
- ▶ lemmas from T_1 become axioms
- ▶ goals from T_1 are ignored

a cloned axiom becomes a lemma/goal when we **implement** an abstract symbol and want to verify our implementation

From Theories to Provers

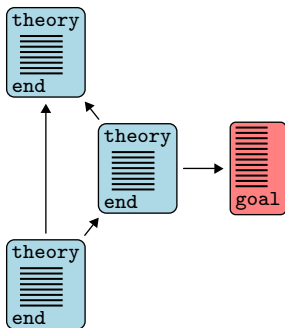


Alt-Ergo

Z3

Vampire

From Theories to Provers

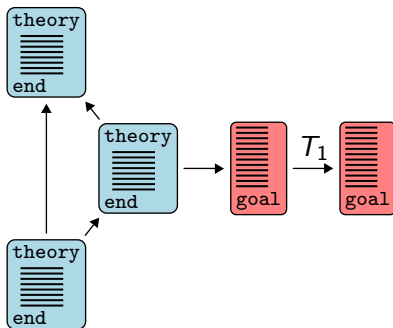


Alt-Ergo

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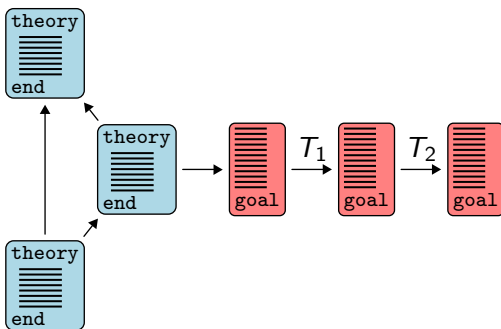


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From Theories to Provers

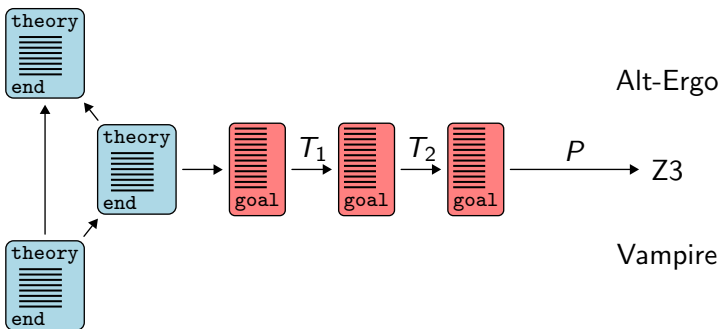


Alt-Ergo

Z3

Vampire

From Theories to Provers



Prover Drivers

- ▶ transformations to apply
- ▶ output format
 - ▶ pretty-printer
 - ▶ built-in symbols
 - ▶ built-in axioms
- ▶ prover's diagnostic messages

Example: Z3 driver (excerpt)

```
printer "smtv2"
valid "^unsat"
invalid "^sat"

transformation "inline_trivial"
transformation "eliminate_builtin"
transformation "eliminate_definition"
transformation "eliminate_inductive"
transformation "eliminate_algebraic_smt"
transformation "simplify_formula"
transformation "discriminate"
transformation "encoding_smt"

prelude "(set-logic AUFNIRA)"

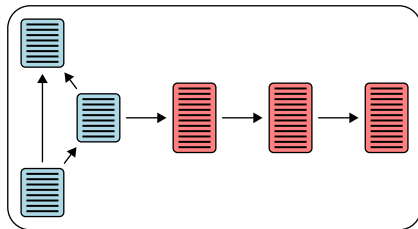
theory BuiltIn
  syntax type int "Int"
  syntax type real "Real"
  syntax predicate (=) "(= %1 %2)"

  meta "encoding : kept" type int
end
```

Architecture: API and Plug-ins

Your code

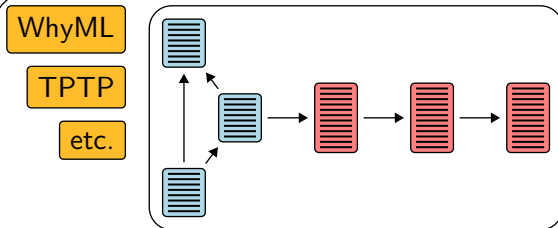
Why3 API



Architecture: API and Plug-ins

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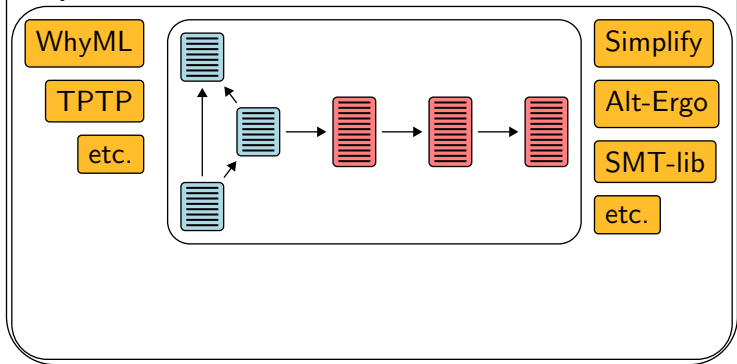
Why3 API



Architecture: API and Plug-ins

Your code

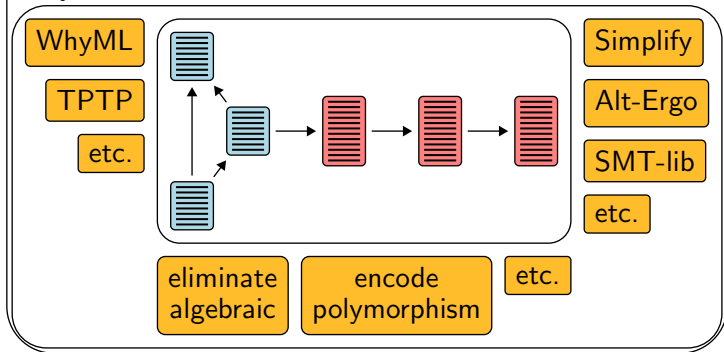
Why3 API



Architecture: API and Plug-ins

Your code

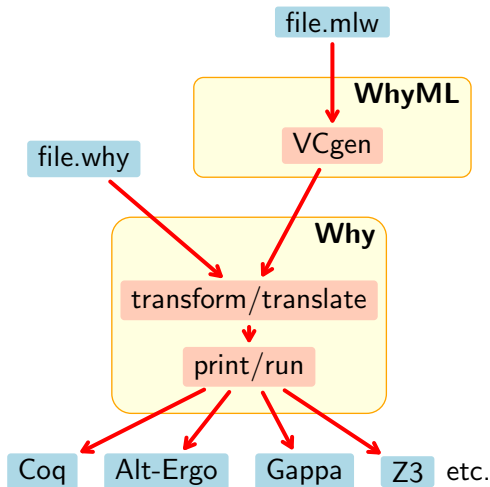
Why3 API



chapter 4

A Programming Language: WhyML

Why3 Overview



A Programming Language: WhyML

- ▶ ML-inspired (syntax, polymorphism, algebraic data types, local functions), yet first-order
- ▶ effects: mutable data structures, exceptions, non-termination
- ▶ annotations (pre/post/assert/loop invariants)
- ▶ a notion of modules, analogous to theories
- ▶ encapsulation

```
type int32 model int
```

```
type array  $\alpha$  model { | length : int;  
                      mutable elts : map int  $\alpha$  | }
```

Two Ideas from Hoare Logic

1. logical types and terms used in programs
2. alias-free programs, to allow simpler reasoning

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

Logic in Programs

any logic feature is available for free in programs

- ▶ polymorphism
- ▶ algebraic data structures
- ▶ pattern matching
- ▶ predicates as booleans

reason: weakest preconditions are obviously computed

illustrated above on the “same fringe” example

Alias-free Programs

Why2 was using the traditional concept of Hoare logic

one variable = one memory location

- ▶ easy to compute effects, to exclude aliasing
- ▶ easy to compute weakest preconditions

Weakest Preconditions

include quantifications at key places

$$wp(f\ a, q) \equiv pre(f)(a) \wedge \forall \vec{x}. \forall r. post(f)(a)(r) \Rightarrow q$$

$$wp(\text{while } e \text{ do } s \text{ inv } I, q) \equiv I \wedge \forall \vec{x}. I \Rightarrow \begin{array}{l} e \Rightarrow wq(s, I) \\ \wedge \quad \neg e \Rightarrow q \end{array}$$

Limitation

say we want to model **arrays**

any solution will look like

```
type contents  $\alpha$  = { | length: int; elts: map int  $\alpha$  | }  
type array  $\alpha$  = ref (contents  $\alpha$ )  
...
```

the length is needed for array bound checking

to account for the length being immutable, we must resort to
annotations $\Rightarrow$ more complex verification conditions

Regions

Why3 uses **regions** instead

one region = one memory location

regions are introduced by mutable record fields

Examples

```
type array r1  $\alpha$  = { |  
    length: int;  
    mutable<r1> elts: map int  $\alpha$ ;  
| }
```

```
type sparse_array r1 r2 r3 r4  $\alpha$  = { |  
    values : array r1  $\alpha$ ;  
    idx : array r2 int;  
    back : array r3 int;  
    mutable<r4> card : int;  
    default :  $\alpha$ ;  
| }
```

Simplicity

to make it as simple as possible (but no simpler),
regions are **implicit**

the compromise is:

- ▶ regions in arguments are distinct and already allocated
- ▶ regions in results are fresh (newly allocated)

Weakest Preconditions

effects are sets of regions

weakest preconditions quantify over regions,
then **reconstruct** the values of variables involving these regions

Example

```
let f a =  
  while ... do  
    a[i] ← 0  
  done
```

$$\forall a_0 \dots \forall r. \text{let } a_1 = \{\text{length} = a_0.\text{length}; \text{elts} = r\} \Rightarrow \dots$$

Conclusion

Summary

Why3

- ▶ a rich specification logic
- ▶ the whole chain up to provers
- ▶ easy to use and to extend (API, drivers, plug-ins)

Why3: Sheperd Your Herd of Provers (BOOGIE'11)

Expressing Polymorphic Types in a Many-Sorted Language (FroCos'11)

WhyML, a programming language to be used

- ▶ to verify data structures / algorithms
- ▶ as an intermediate language (similar to Boogie/PL)

<http://why3.lri.fr>

Perspectives

- ▶ Why3
 - ▶ better use of TPTP provers
 - ▶ Coq plug-in to call provers ($\text{Coq} \rightarrow \text{Why3} \rightarrow \text{prover}$, and back)
- ▶ WhyML
 - ▶ data type invariants
 - ▶ ghost code
 - ▶ module cloning
 - ▶ code extraction to OCaml

Other Software Verification at ProVal

- ▶ C: collaboration with the Frama-C team (CEA)
- ▶ Java: Krakatoa (C. Marché)
- ▶ probabilistic programs (C. Paulin)
- ▶ floating-point arithmetic (S. Boldo, G. Melquiond)
- ▶ the Alt-Ergo SMT solver (S. Conchon, E. Contejean)