

# Why

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## an intermediate language for deductive program verification

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how to do **deductive program verification** on realistic programs?

- deductive verification means that we want to prove safety but also behavioral correctness, with arbitrary proof complexity
- realistic programs means pointers, aliases, dynamic allocation, arbitrary data structures, etc.

since **Hoare logic** (1968), we know how to turn a program correctness into logical formulas, the so-called verification conditions

we could

- design Hoare logic rules for a real programming language
- choose an interactive theorem prover

**the Why approach:** don't do that!

instead,

- design a **small** language dedicated to program verification and compile complex programs into it
- use as **many theorem provers** as possible (interactive or automatic)

there is another such tool: the **Boogie** tool developed at Microsoft Research, initially in the context of the SPEC# project (Barnett, Leino, Schulte)

there are differences but the main idea is the same: verification conditions should be computed on a small, dedicated language

- 1 the WHY language  
and its application to the verification of algorithms
- 2 WHY as an intermediate language for program verification  
complete example with a C program

# The essence of Hoare logic

the essence of Hoare logic fits in the rule for assignment

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

two key ideas

- there is **no alias**, since only variable  $x$  is substituted
- the **pure** expression  $E$  belongs to both **logic and program**

# The essence of Hoare logic

WHY captures these ideas

- programs can manipulate pure values (i.e. logical terms) arbitrarily
- the sole data structures are mutable variables containing pure values
- any program that would create an alias is rejected



# Structure of a WHY File

a WHY file contains

- logical declarations

```
logic a : int
logic f : int, int -> int
axiom A : forall x:int. ...
type set
```

- variable/program declarations

```
parameter x : int ref
parameter p1 : a:int -> ...
```

- program implementations

```
let p2 (x:int) (y:int) = ...
```

a few types and symbols are predefined

- a type `int` of arbitrary precision integers, with usual infix syntax
- a type `real` of real numbers
- a type `bool` of booleans
- a singleton type `unit`

one nice idea taken from functional programming:  
no distinction between expressions and statements

- ⇒ less constructs, thus less rules
- ⇒ side-effects in expressions for free

but WHY is not at all a functional language

# A First Example

let us check that  $n$  is even with the following (rather stupid) code

```
while  $n \geq 2$   
   $n \leftarrow n - 2$   
return  $n = 0$ 
```

# A First Example

we first introduce the predicate `even`, as an uninterpreted predicate with two axioms

```
logic even : int -> prop
```

```
axiom even0 :  
  even(0)
```

```
axiom even2 :  
  forall n:int.  n >= 0 -> even(n) -> even(n+2)
```

# A First Example

the program `is_even` is a function with `n` as argument

its body is a Hoare triple

```
let is_even (n: int) =  
  { n >= 0 }  
  ...  
  { result=true -> even(n) }
```

in the postcondition, `result` is the returned value, i.e. the value of the function body (which is an expression)

# A First Example

we introduce a local mutable variable `x` initialized to `n`

```
let is_even (n: int) =  
  { n >= 0 }  
  let x = ref n in  
  ...  
  { result=true -> even(n) }
```

# A First Example

finally, we add the while loop and its invariant

```
let is_even (n: int) =  
  { n >= 0 }  
  let x = ref n in  
  while !x >= 2 do  
    { invariant even(x) -> even(n) }  
    x := !x - 2  
  done;  
  !x = 0  
  { result=true -> even(n) }
```



# A First Example

we are ready for program verification

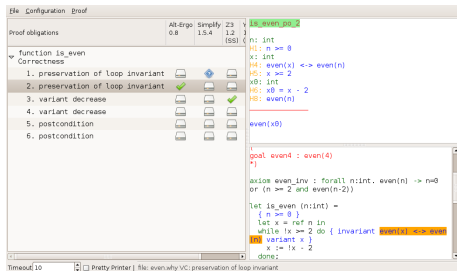
two options

- command line tool

why --smtlib even.why

why --pvs even.why

- GUI to display verification conditions and launch provers



The screenshot shows the Isabelle GUI. On the left, a tree view shows the proof obligations for the function `is_even`. The obligations are:

1. preservation of loop invariant
2. preservation of loop invariant (checked with a green checkmark)
3. variant decrease
4. variant decrease
5. postcondition
6. postcondition

On the right, a code editor shows the following code:

```
is_even_po_2
n: int
n1: n >= 0
x: int
H4: even(x) <-> even(n)
H5: x >= 2
x0: int
H6: x0 = x - 2
H8: even(n)
even(x0)

goal even4 : even(4)
*)

axiom even_inv : forall n:int. even(n) -> n=0
or (n >= 2 and even(n-2))

let is_even (n:int) =
  { n >= 0 }
  let x = ref n in
  while !x >= 2 do { invariant even(x) <-> even
  *)
  variant x }
  x := !x - 2
done;
```

# A First Example

termination can be proved by adding a **variant** to the loop annotation

```
let is_even (n: int) =
  { n >= 0 }
  let x = ref n in
  while !x >= 2 do
    { invariant even(x) -> even(n)
      variant x }
    x := !x - 2
  done;
  !x = 0
  { result=true -> even(n) }
```

# A First Example

to get completeness, we add the axiom

```
axiom even_inv :  
  forall n: int.  even(n) -> n=0 or (n >= 2 and even(n-2))
```

and we turn the postcondition (and the invariant) into an equivalence

```
let is_even (n: int) =  
  { n >= 0 }  
  ...  
  { result=true <-> even(n) }
```

## Previous Values of a Variable

a function argument can be a mutable variable

here, it simplifies the code

```
let is_even2 (n: int ref) =  
  while !n >= 2 do  
    n := !n - 2  
  done;  
  !n = 0
```

but it complicates the specification, since values of `n` at different program steps are now involved

## Previous Values of a Variable

in a postcondition,  $n@$  stands for the value of  $n$  in the pre-state

```
let is_even2 (n: int ref) =  
  { n >= 0 }  
  ...  
  { result=true <-> even(n@) }
```

## Previous Values of a Variable

more generally, a program point can be labelled (like for a goto) and then  $x@L$  stands for the value of  $x$  at point  $L$

here it is used to refer to the value of  $n$  before the loop

```
let is_even2 (n: int ref) =  
  { n >= 0 }  
  L:  
  while !n >= 2 do  
    { invariant even(n) <-> even(n@L) }  
    ...
```

WHY favors the use of **labels** instead of the traditional **auxiliary variables**, since it simplifies the VCs

note that it is yet possible to use auxiliary variables, if desired: simply add extra arguments to functions

WHY supports recursive functions

```
let rec is_even_rec (n: int) : bool {variant n} =  
  { n >= 0 }  
  if n >= 2 then is_even_rec (n-2) else n=0  
  { result=true <-> even(n) }
```



WHY also features

- **polymorphism**, in both logic and programs
- **exceptions** in programs, and corresponding annotations
- **local assertions**
- **modularity**, i.e. verification only depends on specifications

all of these features are illustrated in the following

# A More Complex Example

let us consider a more complex program: Dijkstra's algorithm for single-source shortest path in a weighted graph

we are going to use WHY to verify the **algorithm** i.e. a high-level pseudo-code, e.g. from the Cormen-Leiserson-Rivest, **not an actual implementation** in a given programming language

# Dijkstra's Shortest Path

single-source shortest path in a weighted graph

$S \leftarrow \emptyset$

$Q \leftarrow \{src\};$

$d[src] \leftarrow 0$

while  $Q \setminus S$  not empty do

    extract  $u$  from  $Q \setminus S$  with minimal distance  $d[u]$

$S \leftarrow S \cup \{u\}$

    for each vertex  $v$  such that  $u \xrightarrow{w} v$

$d[v] \leftarrow \min(d[v], d[u] + w)$

$Q \leftarrow Q \cup \{v\}$

# Dijkstra's Shortest Path: Finite Sets

we need **finite sets** for the program and its specification

- set of vertices  $V$
- set of successors of  $u$
- sets  $S$  and  $Q$

all we need is

- the empty set  $\emptyset$
- addition  $\{x\} \cup s$
- subtraction  $s \setminus \{x\}$
- membership predicate  $x \in s$

# Dijkstra's Shortest Path: Finite Sets

let us axiomatize polymorphic sets

```
type 'a set
```

```
logic set_empty : 'a set
```

```
logic set_add : 'a, 'a set -> 'a set
```

```
logic set_rmv : 'a, 'a set -> 'a set
```

```
logic In : 'a, 'a set -> prop
```

```
predicate Is_empty(s : 'a set) =
```

```
  forall x: 'a. not In(x, s)
```

```
predicate Incl(s1 : 'a set, s2 : 'a set) =
```

```
  forall x: 'a. In(x, s1) -> In(x, s2)
```

# Dijkstra's Shortest Path: Finite Sets

```
axiom set_empty_def :  
  Is_empty(set_empty)
```

```
axiom set_add_def :  
  forall x,y: 'a. forall s: 'a set.  
  In(x, set_add(y,s)) <-> (x = y or In(x, s))
```

```
axiom set_rmv_def :  
  forall x,y: 'a. forall s: 'a set.  
  In(x, set_rmv(y,s)) <-> (x <> y and In(x, s))
```

# Dijkstra's Shortest Path: the Weighted Graph

the graph is introduced as follows

```
type vertex
```

```
logic V : vertex set
```

```
logic g_succ : vertex -> vertex set
```

```
axiom g_succ_sound : forall x:vertex. Incl(g_succ(x), V)
```

```
logic weight : vertex, vertex -> int (* a total function *)
```

```
axiom weight_nonneg : forall x,y:vertex. weight(x,y) >= 0
```

# Dijkstra's Shortest Path: Visited Vertices

the set  $S$  of visited vertices is introduced as a global variable containing a value of type `vertex set`

```
parameter S : vertex set ref
```

to modify  $S$ , we could use assignment (`:=`) directly, but we can equivalently declare a function

```
parameter S_add :  
  x: vertex -> {} unit writes S { S = set_add(x, S@) }
```

which reads as “function `S_add` takes a vertex  $x$ , has no precondition, returns nothing, modifies the contents of  $S$  and has postcondition  $S = \text{set\_add}(x, S@)$ ”



# Dijkstra's Shortest Path: the Priority Queue

we proceed similarly for the priority queue

```
parameter Q : vertex set ref
```

```
parameter Q_is_empty :
```

```
  unit ->
```

```
    { }
```

```
  bool reads Q
```

```
  { if result then Is_empty(Q) else not Is_empty(Q) }
```

```
parameter init :
```

```
  src: vertex -> { } ...
```

```
parameter relax :
```

```
  u: vertex -> v: vertex -> { } ...
```

17 VCs are generated

they are all automatically discharged, with the help of two lemmas

these two lemmas are proved using an interactive proof assistant (they require induction)

**demo**

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## using Why as an intermediate language

# Program Verification in the Large

let us say we want to verify programs written in a language such as C or Java; what do we need?

- to cope with complex **data structures** (arrays, pointers, records, objects, etc.) and possible **aliasing**
- to cope with **new control statements** such as for loops, abrupt return, switch, goto, etc.
- to cope with memory allocation, function pointers, dynamic binding, casts, machine arithmetic, etc.

WHY can be used conveniently to handle most of these aspects

two connected parts

- we design a **memory model**, that is a set of logical types and operations to describe the memory layout
- we design a **compilation** process to translate programs in WHY constructs

# A Simple Example

let us consider the following C code

```
int binary_search(int* t, int n, int v) {
    int l = 0, u = n-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
            return m;
    }
    return -1;
}
```

two (simple) problems with this code

- C pointers (but no pointer arithmetic, i.e. arrays)

```
int binary_search(int* t, int n, int v) { ...
```

- an abrupt return in the while loop

```
while (l <= u) {  
    if ...  
    else  
        return m;  
}
```

# Binary Search: Memory Model

we consider a very simple memory model here

```
type pointer
```

```
type memory
```

```
logic get : memory, pointer, int -> int
```

```
parameter mem : memory ref
```

```
(* the current state of the memory *)
```



some remarks at this point

- we assume the memory to be accessed by words (type `int`); accessing the same portion of memory using a `char*` pointer would require a finer model
- C local variables can be translated into `WHY` local variables, unless their address is taken

# Binary Search: Memory Model

thus the code looks like

```
let binary_search (t: pointer) (n: int) (v: int) =  
  { ... }  
  let l = ref 0 in  
  let u = ref (n-1) in  
  while !l <= !u do  
    let m = (!l + !u) / 2 in  
    if get !mem t m < v then l := m + 1  
    else if get !mem t m > v then u := m - 1  
    else ...  
  done  
  ...
```

# Binary Search: return Statement

to interpret the return statement we introduce an exception

```
exception Return_int of int
```

the whole function body is put into a try/with statement

```
let binary_search (t: pointer) (n: int) (v: int) =  
  try  
    ...  
  with Return_int r ->  
    r  
end
```

and any return e is translated into

```
raise (Return_int e)
```

# Binary Search: Demo

with suitable annotations for correctness, completeness and termination,  
we get 17 VCs

with the help of the axiom

```
axiom mean_1: forall x,y: int.  x <= y -> x <= (x+y)/2 <= y
```

all VCs are discharged automatically

**demo**

# Binary Search: Array Bound Checking

let us say we want to add **array bound checking**

we need to refine our model with a notion of **block size**

```
logic block_size: memory, pointer -> int
```

it is then convenient to introduce a *function* to access memory

```
parameter get_:
```

```
  p: pointer -> ofs: int ->
```

```
  { 0 <= ofs < block_size(mem, p) }
```

```
  int reads mem
```

```
  { result = get(mem, p, ofs) }
```

so that its precondition introduces the suitable VC

# Binary Search: Array Bound Checking

we get 2 additional VCs, easily proved once we add the suitable requirement

```
let binary_search (t: pointer) (n: int) (v: int) =  
  { n >= 0 and block_size(mem, t) >= n and ... }  
  ...
```

finally, let us model **32 bit integers**,

two possibilities

- to prove that there is no arithmetic overflow
- to model modulo arithmetic faithfully

one requirement:

we do not want to loose the arithmetic capabilities of the provers

we introduce a new type for 32 bit integers

```
type int32
```

the value of an `int32` is given by

```
logic to_int: int32 -> int
```

annotations only use arbitrary precision integers, i.e.

if  $x$  of type `int32` appears in an annotation, it is actually `to_int(x)`



# Binary Search: Machine Arithmetic

we need to set the range of 32 bit integers

when using them...

```
axiom int32_domain:  
  forall x: int32.  -2147483648 <= to_int(x) <= 2147483647
```

... and when building them

```
parameter of_int :  
  x: int ->  
    { -2147483648 <= x <= 2147483647 }  
  int32  
  { to_int(result) = x }
```

and that's it!

let us prove the absence of integer overflow in binary search

**demo**

we found a bug (that is the purpose of verification, after all)

indeed, when computing

```
int m = (1 + u) / 2;
```

the addition  $1+u$  may overflow

(for instance on a 32 bit architecture with arrays of billions of elements)

it can be fixed as follows

```
int m = 1 + (u - 1) / 2;
```

---

## Conclusion

# Things Not Discussed in that Tutorial

regarding WHY itself

- how to exclude aliases
- how to send VCs to all provers (typing systems differ)
- how to compute VCs efficiently

regarding the use of WHY

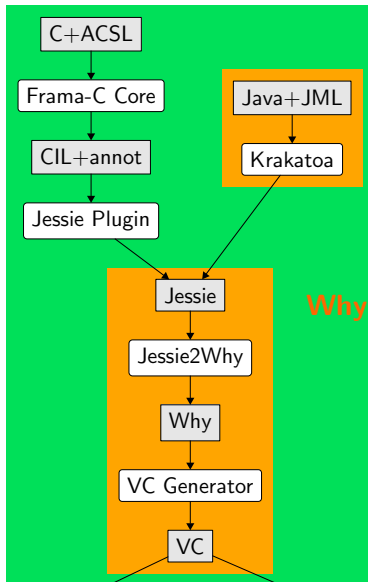
- how to design a high-level specification language
- how to design a more subtle memory model (component-as-array, regions, etc.)
- how to model floating-point arithmetic

in the **ProVal** team, we develop the following softwares

- **Jessie**, another intermediate language on top of `WHY`
- **Krakatoa**, a tool to verify JML-annotated Java programs
- **Alt-Ergo**, an SMT solver with `WHY` syntax as input

we also collaborate to **Frama-C**, a platform to verify C programs (which subsumes the tool Caduceus formerly developed at ProVal)

our tools deal with **floating-point arithmetic**: annotations, models, interactive and automatic proofs



Why The Platform

Automatic Provers :  
Alt-Ergo, CVC3, Simplify, Yices, Z3, etc.

Proof Assistants :  
Coq, HOL, Isabelle/HOL, PVS, etc.

thank you