A Mechanical Analysis of Program Verification Strategies

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Program Verification

Program verification entails proving the following theorem.

Correctness Theorem: If the program is initiated in a machine at a state satisfying a certain **precondition**, then the state reached on **termination** of the program satisfies a desired **postcondition**.

Program verification is one of the earliest and most fertile application areas of formal reasoning, and mechanical theorem proving.

Summary

We formally analyze three verification strategies for deterministic sequential programs modeled with operational semantics.

- Stepwise Invariants
- Clock functions
- Inductive Assertions

We show that each strategy is both sound and complete.

Completeness means that if there is *any* correctness proof of the program then there is one using any of the strategies.

• The completeness result has been surprising (at least to me and others I have shown it).

But the proofs are not mathematically deep!

• A careful formalization of the questions essentially leads to the answers.

Talk Outline

- Operational Semantics and Correctness Theorems
- Proof Strategies
- Analysis of Strategies
- Discussion and Conclusion

Operational Semantics

"The meaning of a program is defined by its effect on the state vector." – John McCarthy, 1962.

- Model states of the machine executing the program as objects (*n*-tuples) in a logic.
 - Two special state components are the *pc* and the *program* being executed.
- A program is an object, e.g., a list of instructions.
 - The semantics of a program is given by defining a **language interpreter**, which is a function on states.



Correctness Statement

There are two formal notions of correctness, Partial and Total.

Partial Correctness:

For any state p satisfying the *pre* condition, if an *exit* state q is reachable from p, then the *post* condition holds for the first such *exit* state.

```
 \forall s, n : pre(s) \land natp(n) \land exit(run(s, n)) \\ \land (\forall m : natp(m) \land (m < n) \Rightarrow \neg exit(run(s, m))) \\ \Rightarrow post(run(s, n))
```

Total Correctness: Total Correctness = Partial correctness + Termination

Termination:

 $\forall s : pre(s) \Rightarrow (\exists n : natp(n) \land exit(run(s, n)))$

Each of the formulas can be expressed in the ACL2 logic.

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A Running Example

- 1: X:=0
- 2: Y:=10
- 3: if (Y \leq 0) goto 7
- 4: X:=X+1
- 5: Y:=Y-1
- 6: goto 3
- 7:
- $pre(s) \triangleq prog-loaded(s) \land (pc(s) = 1)$
- $post(s) \triangleq (X(s) = 10)$
- $exit(s) \triangleq (pc(s) = 7)$

Stepwise Invariants

[Origin somewhat unknown, but work of **Goldstein and von Neumann** (1961), and **Turing (1949)** can be viewed as instances of this approach.]

Partial Correctness:

Construct a predicate *inv* such that the following are theorems:

 $I1 : \forall s : pre(s) \Rightarrow inv(s)$ $I2 : \forall s : inv(s) \land \neg exit(s) \Rightarrow inv(step(s))$ $I3 : \forall s : inv(s) \land exit(s) \Rightarrow post(s)$

Total Correctness:

Additionally define m such that the following are theorems:

 $I_{4} : \forall s : inv(s) \Rightarrow o-p(m(s))$ I5 : $\forall s : inv(s) \land \neg exit(s) \Rightarrow m(step(s)) \prec m(s)$

Conditions I_2 and I_5 require that *inv* and *m* explicitly characterize each reachable state.

Stepwise Invariants

The predicate *inv* must characterize every *pc* value.

{ T }	1:	X:=0
{ (X=0) }	2:	Y:=10
{ <i>natp</i> (Y) ∧(X+Y=10) }	3:	if (Y \leq 0) goto 7
{ <i>natp</i> (Y) \lapha(Y \ge >0) \lapha(X+Y=10)}	4:	X:=X+1
{ <i>natp</i> (Y) ∧ (Y >0) ∧ (X+Y=11)}	5:	Y:=Y-1
{ <i>natp</i> (Y) ∧ (X+Y=10)}	6:	goto 3
{ (X=10) }	7:	

A similar comment can be made about m in case of total correctness proof.

Clock Functions

[Widely used in Boyer-Moore community, usually for total correctness.]

Total Correctness:

Construct a function *clock* such that the following are theorems:

 $C1: \forall s: pre(s) \Rightarrow natp(clock(s))$ $C2: \forall s, n: pre(s) \land natp(n) \land exit(run(s, n)) \Rightarrow clock(s) \leq n$ $C3: \forall s: pre(s) \Rightarrow exit(run(s, clock(s)))$ $C4: \forall s: pre(s) \Rightarrow post(run(s, clock(s)))$

Partial Correctness:

Weaken C1, C3 and C4 to add exit(run(s, n)) in the hypotheses. $C1': \forall s, n : pre(s) \land exit(run(s, n)) \Rightarrow natp(clock(s))$ $C3': \forall s, n : pre(s) \land exit(run(s, n)) \Rightarrow exit(run(s, clock(s)))$ $C4': \forall s, n : pre(s) \land exit(run(s, n)) \Rightarrow post(run(s, clock(s)))$

Clock functions characterize the number of steps from initiation to exit.

• But this is a characterization of time complexity!

Clock Functions

- 1: X:=0
- 2: Y:=10
- 3: if (Y \leq 0) goto 7
- 4: X:=X+1
- 5: Y:=Y-1
- 6: goto 3
- 7:

We define the clock function by looking at the control structure of the program.

Inductive Assertions

This is the most commonly advocated approach to program verification.

[Based on early observations by **Goldstein and von Neumann (1961)**, and **Turing (1949)**, later refined and generalized by classic works of **Floyd (1967)**, **Hoare (1969)**, **Manna (1969)**, and **Dijkstra (1975)**.]

- Annotate program with assertions at certain cutpoints.
- A VCG derives from these a set of Verification Conditions (VCs).
- The VCs are proven by a theorem prover.

Key Features:

- Requires annotations only at cutpoints.
- Requires both a VCG and a theorem prover.

(Aside) King (1969) wrote the first mechanized VCG.

Inductive Assertions

Recall the stepwise invariant proof.

{ T }	1:	X:=0
{ (X=0) }	2:	Y:=10
{ <i>natp</i> (Y) ∧(X+Y=10) }	3:	if (Y \leq 0) goto 7
{ <i>natp</i> (Y) \lapha(Y \ge >0) \lapha(X+Y=10)}	4:	X:=X+1
{ <i>natp</i> (Y) \lapha(Y \ge >0) \lapha(X+Y=11)}	5:	Y:=Y-1
{ <i>natp</i> (Y) ∧ (X+Y=10)}	6:	goto 3
{ (X=10) }	7:	

Inductive Assertions

In inductive assertions, we only require annotations at the cutpoints, namely loop tests and program entry and exit.

{ T }	1:	X:=0
	2:	Y:=10
{ <i>natp</i> (Y) ∧(X+Y=10) }	3:	if (Y \leq 0) goto 7
	4:	X:=X+1
	5:	Y:=Y-1
	6:	goto 3
{ (X=10) }	7:	

A VCG explores the paths in the annotated program to generate the VCs.

• Language semantics encoded in VCG implementation as formula transformation.

For the path $1 \rightarrow 2 \rightarrow 3$ the obligation is $T \Rightarrow natp(10) \land (0 + 10) = 10$.

• The obligations are discharged by a theorem prover.

Inductive Assertions in Operational Semantics

The inductive assertions method can be used with operational semantics, without a VCG.

• It is possible to emulate VCGs by symbolic simulation on operational models.

Possibility first suggested by a cute method due to **Moore (2003)**, which could handle partial correctness.

- Consolidated by Matthews, Moore, Ray, Vroon (2006) to handle total correctness.
- Further consolidated by independent efforts of **MMRV** and **Hardin, Smith, Young** (2006) to allow compositionality, effective reasoning about recursive procedures, etc.
- Recently significantly automated for crypto proofs about by Smith and Dill (2007).

How to do all this is not part of this talk, but we'll use the **MMRV** formalization of inductive assertions.

• HSY and SD use a variant with trivial difference.

Formalizing Inductive Assertions

Suppose we are given predicates *cut* and *assert* specifying the cutpoints and corresponding assertions.

Define:

$$csteps(s,i) \triangleq \begin{cases} i & \text{if } cut(s) \\ csteps(step(s),i+1) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Crucial Observation:

- Definition of *csteps* is tail-recursive
- Manolios and Moore (2003) show that any tail-recursive equation can be admitted in ACL2 by encapsulation.

(Aside) The admissibility of tail-recursive equations was also used in Moore's initial formulation.

Formalizing Inductive Assertions

Suppose we are given predicates *cut* and *assert* specifying the cutpoints and corresponding assertions.

Define:

$$csteps(s,i) \triangleq \begin{cases} i & \text{if } cut(s) \\ csteps(step(s), i+1) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$\textit{nextc}(s) \triangleq \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \textit{run}(s,\textit{csteps}(s,0)) & \textit{if }\textit{cut}(\textit{run}(s,\textit{csteps}(s,0))) \\ \textit{d} & \textit{otherwise} \end{array} \right.$$

where $cut(d) \Leftrightarrow (\forall s : cut(s))$

For any state s, nextc(s) returns the closest reachable cutpoint from s (if such a cutpoint exists), otherwise it does not return a cutpoint.

Formalizing Inductive Assertions

Partial Correctness:

Given an operational model and a set of cutpoints specified by *cut* (that include *pre* and *exit* states), define *assert* such that the following are theorems.

$$V1 : \forall s : pre(s) \Rightarrow assert(s)$$

$$V2 : \forall s : assert(s) \Rightarrow cut(s)$$

$$V3 : \forall s : exit(s) \Rightarrow cut(s)$$

$$V4 : \forall s : assert(s) \land exit(s) \Rightarrow post(s)$$

$$V5 : \forall s, n : assert(s) \land \neg exit(s) \land exit(run(s, n)) \Rightarrow assert(nextc(step(s)))$$

Total Correctness:

Additionally define a function rank, weaken V5 to V5', and prove V6 and V7. $V5': \forall s: assert(s) \land \neg exit(s) \Rightarrow assert(nextc(step(s)))$ $V6: \forall s: assert(s) \Rightarrow o-p(rank(s))$ $V7: \forall s: assert(s) \land \neg exit(s) \Rightarrow rank(nextc(step(s))) \prec rank(s)$

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What do We Analyze?

Soundness of a strategy:

The obligations involved logically imply the correctness statements.

Completeness of a strategy:

If a program is partially (totally) correct, then the corresponding proof obligations for each strategy can be met.

• Often called Cook Completeness.

In this talk we just outline the completeness proofs, since they are more surprising!

Completeness: Some elaboration

We need to answer the following questions:

Suppose a program is partially (totally) correct. Then can we **always**

- define a *clock*?
- define the appropriate *inv* and m?
- given a predicate *cut* recognizing the cutpoints, define *assert* and *rank*?

The answer in each case is **Yes**, and in each case the proof is essentially trivial!



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Completeness of Stepwise Invariants

Given: The partial (resp., total) correctness theorem, and the predicate *cut*.

Assume wlog that we have the corresponding clock function proof, with the weird *clock*.

• Define the weird inv.

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Why Care about Formalizing Strategies?

The proofs are really trivial, but only after we carefully formalized the correctness statements and the essence of each strategy.

Without the formalization it is easy to design flawed strategies.

A Flawed Strategy!

The following proof strategy was suggested by **Manolios and Moore** (2003) as a way to prove "partial correctness".

Define:

 $stepw(s) \triangleq \begin{cases} s & if halted(s) \\ stepw(step(s)) & otherwise \end{cases}$

```
where halted(s) \triangleq (step(s) = s).
```

```
Define: (s_0 \hookrightarrow s) \triangleq (stepw(s_0) = stepw(s))
```

Let modify(s) represent the modification of s after executing the program of interest. Then the strategy is to prove:

 $pre(s) \Rightarrow (s \hookrightarrow modify(s))$

Can you see the problem with this strategy?

Random Remarks

The proofs of soundness and completeness are generic.

• Done in ACL2 using encapsulation.

For a specific set of concrete definitions of *step*, *pre*, *post*, etc., we can translate proofs from one strategy to another by functional instantiation.

• I have a macro that can translate between strategies.

The macro can be used to go back and forth between strategies while developing correctness proofs of a large system.

- A component can be verified with that strategy that is best suited for it.
- Potentially useful in developing generic verification frameworks.
- I have occasionally wanted this while doing cutpoint proofs.

However, I have never used the translation in practice yet.

• This work was principally a result of curiosity.

Conclusions

We proved that the three strategies are logically equivalent in spite of differences, and each is in fact complete.

• At least in a logic allowing recursive definitions and quantification.

Perhaps indicates that the complexity in program verification does not arise from the proof strategy used but rather the inherent complexity involved in reasoning about correctness of code.

• Maybe an automation breakthrough will also carry over among strategies?

The immediate takeaway message is perhaps that it is very useful sometimes to reason about and think in terms of quantification, especially when developing generic techniques and strategies.

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