

Roberto Giacobazzi (Ed.)

LNCS 3148

Static Analysis

11th International Symposium, SAS 2004
Vernona, Italy, August 2004
Proceedings

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11th International Symposium, SAS 2004
Verona, Italy, August 26-28, 2004
Proceedings



Springer

Volume Editor

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Library of Congress Control Number: 2004109776

CR Subject Classification (1998): D.3.2-3, F.3.1-2, D.2.8, F.4.2, D.1

ISSN 0302-9743

ISBN 3-540-22791-1 Springer Berlin Heidelberg New York

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Printed in Germany

Typesetting: Camera-ready by author, data conversion by Olgun Computergrafik

Printed on acid-free paper SPIN: 11310426 06/3142 5 4 3 2 1 0

Commenced Publication in 1973

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Preface

Static analysis is a research area aimed at developing principles and tools for verification, certification, semantics-based manipulation, and high-performance implementation of programming languages and systems. The series of Static Analysis symposia has served as the primary venue for presentation and discussion of theoretical, practical, and application advances in the area.

This volume contains the papers accepted for presentation at the 11th International Static Analysis Symposium (SAS 2004), which was held August 26–28 in Verona, Italy. In response to the call for papers, 63 contributions were submitted from 20 different countries. Following on-line discussions, the Program Committee met in Verona on May 06, and selected 23 papers, basing this choice on their scientific quality, originality, and relevance to the symposium. Each paper was reviewed by at least 3 PC members or external referees. In addition to the contributed papers, this volume includes contributions by outstanding invited speakers: a full invited paper by Thomas Henzinger (University of California at Berkeley), and abstracts of the talks given by the other invited speakers, Sheila McIlraith (University of Toronto), Ehud Shapiro (Weizmann Institute) and Yannis Smaragdakis (Georgia Institute of Technology).

On the behalf of the Program Committee, the Program Chair would like to thank all the authors who submitted papers and all external referees for their careful work in the reviewing process. The Program Chair would like to thank in particular Samir Genaim, who did an invaluable, excellent job in organizing the Program Committee meeting and the structure of this volume. We would like to express our gratitude to the *Dipartimento di Informatica* and to the *Università degli Studi di Verona*, in particular to Prof. Elio Mosele (president of the university), who handled the logistical arrangements and provided financial support for organizing this event.

SAS 2004 was held concurrently with *LOPSTR 2004, International Symposium on Logic-Based Program Synthesis and Transformation*; *PEPM 2004, ACM SIGPLAN Symposium on Partial Evaluation and Program Manipulation*; and *PPDP 2004, ACM SIGPLAN International Conference on Principles and Practice of Declarative Programming*. There were also several workshops in the area of programming languages. We would like to thank Sandro Etalle (LOPSTR PC Chair), Nevin Heintze and Peter Sestoft (PEPM PC Chairs), Eugenio Moggi (PPDP General Chair), Fausto Spoto (Organizing Chair), and David Warren (PPDP PC Chair) for their help in the organization aspects. Special thanks to all the members of the Organizing Committee who worked with enthusiasm in order to make this event possible and to ENDES, specifically to Anna Chiara Caputo, for the great job she did in the local organization.

Verona, June 2004

Roberto Giacobazzi

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Injecting Life with Computers

Ehud Shapiro

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Abstract. Although electronic computers are the only “computer species” we are accustomed to, the mathematical notion of a programmable computer has nothing to do with wires and logic gates. In fact, Alan Turing’s notional computer, which marked in 1936 the birth of modern computer science and still stands at its heart, has greater similarity to natural biomolecular machines such as the ribosome and polymerases than to electronic computers. Recently, a new “computer species” made of biological molecules has emerged. These simple molecular computers inspired by the Turing machine, of which a trillion can fit into a microliter, do not compete with electronic computers in solving complex computational problems; their potential lies elsewhere. Their molecular scale and their ability to interact directly with the biochemical environment in which they operate suggest that in the future they may be the basis of a new kind of “smart drugs”: molecular devices equipped with the medical knowledge to perform disease diagnosis and therapy inside the living body. They would detect and diagnose molecular disease symptoms and, when necessary, administer the requisite drug molecules to the cell, tissue or organ in which they operate. In the talk we review this new research direction and report on preliminary steps carried out in our lab towards realizing its vision.

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The BLAST Query Language for Software Verification^{*}

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Abstract. BLAST is an automatic verification tool for checking temporal safety properties of C programs. BLAST is based on lazy predicate abstraction driven by interpolation-based predicate discovery. In this paper, we present the BLAST specification language. The language specifies program properties at two levels of precision. At the lower level, monitor automata are used to specify temporal safety properties of program executions (traces). At the higher level, relational reachability queries over program locations are used to combine lower-level trace properties. The two-level specification language can be used to break down a verification task into several independent calls of the model-checking engine. In this way, each call to the model checker may have to analyze only part of the program, or part of the specification, and may thus succeed in a reduction of the number of predicates needed for the analysis. In addition, the two-level specification language provides a means for structuring and maintaining specifications.

1 Introduction

BLAST, the Berkeley Lazy Abstraction Software verification Tool, is a fully automatic engine for software model checking [11]. BLAST uses counterexample-guided predicate abstraction refinement to verify temporal safety properties of C programs. The tool incrementally constructs an abstract reachability tree (ART) whose nodes are labeled with program locations and truth values of predicates. If a path that violates the desired safety property is found in the ART, but is not a feasible path of the program, then new predicate information is added to the ART in order to rule out the spurious error path. The new predicate information is added on-demand and locally, following the twin paradigms of *lazy abstraction* [11] and *interpolation-based predicate discovery* [8]. The procedure stops when either a genuine error path is found, or the current ART represents a proof of program correctness [9].

In this paper we present the BLAST input language for specifying program-verification tasks. The BLAST specification language consists of two levels. On

^{*} This research was supported in part by the NSF grants CCR-0085949, CCR-0234690, and ITR-0326577.

the lower level, *observer automata* are defined to monitor the program execution and decide whether a safety property is violated. Observer automata can be infinite-state and can track the program state, including the values of program variables and type-state information associated with individual data objects. On the higher level, *relational queries* over program locations are defined which may specify both structural program properties (e.g., the existence of a syntactic path between two locations) and semantic program properties (e.g., the existence of a feasible path between two locations). The evaluation of a semantic property invokes the BLAST model-checking engine. A semantic property may also refer to an observer automaton, thus combining the two levels of specification.

Consider the following example. If we change the definition of a variable in a program, we have to review all subsequent read accesses to that variable. Using static analysis we can find all statements that use the variable, but the resulting set is often imprecise (e.g., it may include dead code) because of the path-insensitive nature of the analysis. Model checking can avoid this imprecision. In addition, using an observer automaton, we can ensure that we compute only those statements subsequent to the variable definition which (1) use the variable and (2) are not preceded by a redefinition of the variable. The two specification levels allow the natural expression of such a query: on the higher level, we specify the location-based reachability property between definition and use locations, and at the lower level, we specify the desired temporal property by a monitor automaton that watches out for redefinitions of the variable. The resulting query asks the model checker for the set of definition-use pairs of program locations that are connected by feasible paths along which no redefinitions occur.

The BLAST specification language provides a convenient user interface: it keeps specifications separate from the program code and makes the model checker easier to use for non-experts, as no manual program annotations with specification code (such as assertions) are required. On one hand it is useful to orthogonalize concerns by separating program properties from the source code, and keeping them separated during development, in order to make it easier to understand and maintain both the program and the specification [13]. On the other hand it is preferable for the programmer to specify program properties in a language that is similar to the programming language. We therefore use as much as possible C-like syntax in the specification language. The states of observer automata are defined using C type and variable declarations, and the automaton transitions are defined using C code. The query language is an imperative scripting language whose expressions specify first-order relational constraints on program locations.

The two-level specification structure provides two further benefits. First, such structured specifications are easy to read, compose, and revise. The relational query language allows the programmer to treat the program as a database of facts, which can be queried by the analysis engine. Moreover, individual parts of a composite query can be checked incrementally when the program changes, as in regression testing [10]. Second, the high-level query language can be used to break down a verification task into several independent model-checking prob-

lems, each checking a low-level trace property. Since the number of predicates in the ART is the main source of complexity for the model-checking procedure, the decomposition of a verification task into several independent subtasks, each involving only a part of the program and/or a part of the specification, can greatly contribute to the scalability of the verification process [14, 17]. A simple instance of this occurs if a specification consists of a conjunction of several properties that can be model checked independently. The relational query engine allows the compact definition of such proof-decomposition strategies.

For a more instructive example, suppose that we wish to check that there is no feasible path from a program location ℓ_0 to a program location ℓ_2 , and that all syntactic paths from ℓ_0 to ℓ_2 go through location ℓ_1 . Then we may decompose the verification task by guessing an intermediate predicate p_1 and checking, independently, the following two simpler properties: (1) there is no feasible path from ℓ_0 to ℓ_1 such that p_1 is false at the end of the path (at ℓ_1), and (2) there is no feasible path from ℓ_1 to ℓ_2 such that p_1 is true at the beginning of the path (at ℓ_1). Both proof obligations (1) and (2) may be much simpler to model check, with fewer predicates needed, than the original verification task. Moreover, each of the two proof obligations can be specified as a reachability query over locations together with an observer automaton that specifies the final (resp. initial) condition p_1 .

The paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, we define the (lower-level) language for specifying trace properties through observer automata. In Section 3, we define the (higher-level) language for specifying location properties through relational queries. In Section 4, we give several sample specifications, and in Section 5, we briefly describe how the query processing is implemented in BLAST.

Related Work. Automata are often used to specify temporal safety properties, because they provide a convenient, succinct notation and are often easier to understand than formulas of temporal logic. For example, SLIC [2] specifications are used in the SLAM project [1] to generate C code for model checking. However, SLIC does not support type-state properties and is limited to the specification of interfaces, because it monitors only function calls and returns. Metal [7] and MOPS [4] allow more general pattern languages, but the (finite) state of the automaton must be explicitly enumerated. Temporal-logic specifications, often enriched with syntactic sugar (“patterns”), are used in Bandera [5] and Feaver [12]. Type-state verification [16] is an important concept for ensuring the reliability of software, but the generally used assumption in this field is to consider all paths of a program as feasible. Relational algebra has been applied to analyze the structure of large programs [3] and in dynamic analysis [6]. Also the decomposition of verification tasks has been recognized as a key issue and strategy-definition languages have been proposed [14, 17]. However, the use of a relational query language to group queries and decompose proof obligations in a model-checking environment seems novel.

2 Trace Properties: Observer Automata

Trace properties are expressed using *observer automata*. These provide a way to specify temporal safety properties of C programs based on syntactic pattern matching of C code. An observer automaton consists of a collection of syntactic patterns that, when matched against the current execution point of the observed program, trigger transitions in the observer. Rather than being limited to a finite number of states, the observer may have global variables of any C type, and it may track type-state information associated with the program variables. The observer transitions are also specified in C syntax; they may read program variables and both read and write observer variables.

2.1 Syntax

The definition of an observer automaton consists of a set of declarations, each defining an observer variable, a type state, an initial condition, a final condition, or an event. Figure 1 gives the grammar for specifying observer automata.

```

Observer:      DeclSeq
DeclSeq:       Declaration | DeclSeq Declaration
Declaration:   'GLOBAL' CVarDef
              | 'SHADOW' CTypeName '{' CFieldSeq '}'
              | 'INITIAL' '{' CExpression '}'
              | 'FINAL' '{' CExpression '}'
              | 'EVENT' '{'
                  Temporal
                  'PATTERN' '{' Pattern '}'
                  Assertion
                  Action
              '}',
Temporal:      'BEFORE' | 'AFTER' | empty
Pattern:       ParamCStmt | ParamCStmt 'AT' LocDesc
Assertion:     'ASSERT' '{' CExpression '}' | empty
Action:        'ACTION' '{' CStatementSeq '}' | empty

```

Fig. 1. The grammar for the observer specification language.

Observer Variables. The control state of an observer automaton consists of a global part and a per-object part. The global part of the observer state is determined by a set of typed, global observer variables. Each observer variable may have any C type, and is declared following the keyword `GLOBAL`, where the nonterminal `CVarDef` stands for any C variable declaration. For example, in the case of a specification that restricts the number of calls to a certain function, an observer variable `numCalls` of type `int` might be used to track the number of calls made: “`GLOBAL int numCalls;`”.