A Formal and Foundational Approach to Program Verification for Safety and Security

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These slides: https://cs.au.dk/~timany/talks/leuvenss22



Introduction

It is important to make sure that critical software systems are safe and secure

Our approach: formal proof of safety and security properties of programs and PL's

We use mathematical tools:

- Define the semantics (meaning) of programs, e.g., operational semantics
- State theorems about programs and PL's in terms of their semantics, e.g., safety, functional correctness, type safety, etc.
- Prove these properties using different tools and techniques

This is very similar to what other engineers do

- They build a mathematical model of the building/structure they are planning
- Analyze the model to make sure it is resilient against, e.g., earthquakes

Introduction

Program logics are important tools

- Based on mathematical logic
- Provide a formal framework for stating and proving properties of programs
- In this course: an overview of the Iris program logic and its applications

Programs' semantics

In order to determine whether a program is correct/safe/secure we need to understand its meaning (semantics).¹

We use small-step operational semantics:

- A mathematical relation \rightarrow describing individual steps of computation.
- We write →* for zero or more steps of computation

Formally, this is the reflexive transitive closure of
$$\rightarrow$$

Example:

$$2+3 \rightarrow 5$$

(2+3+7) * 2 \rightarrow* 24; in details: (2+3+7) * 2 \rightarrow (5+7) * 2 \rightarrow 12 * 2 \rightarrow 24

¹What we present here is slightly simplified. Semantics needs to also take into account the state of the machine, *e.g.*, contents of memory.

Programs' semantics

We distinguish a class of expressions called values:

- These are *values* we expect as the end result of computations
- Examples: numerals (2, 3, *etc.*), booleans, memory locations (references/pointers), functions, *etc.*
- Non-examples: 2 + 3, "a" 3, 4 "a", $\ell[10]$, ! ℓ etc.

In this formalism we characterize errors (program crashing) as stuck programs:

- These are programs that are neither values nor can they take any step of computation
- $-\,$ Examples: "a" 3 (treating a string as a number), 4 "a" (treating a number as a function), etc.
- How about $\ell[10]$ and ! ℓ ? Are these programs stuck?

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It depends on the contents of the memory. These programs could result in memory violations.

Some Interesting Properties

Safety: program does not crash

$$Safe(e) \triangleq \forall e'. \ e \rightarrow^* e' \Rightarrow Val(e') \lor \exists e''. \ e' \rightarrow e''$$

- Example: Safe(letrec f x = f xin f 4)
- Counterexample: $\neg Safe(if "a" then 2 else 3)$

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Functional Correctness: safe, and upon termination postcondition holds

$$\mathsf{Correct}_{\phi}(e) \triangleq \mathsf{Safe}(e) \land \forall \nu. \ \mathit{Val}(\nu) \land e \to^* \nu \Rightarrow \phi(\nu)$$

- Example: Correct $_{isEven}(3+5)$

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Type safety: well-typed programs are safe

Is safety interesting?

Does safety, i.e., programs not crashing, have security implications?

Yes, many security vulnerabilities arise as safety (memory) violations, *e.g.*, the infamous Heardbleed bug.

An aside: there are other interesting properties that our methodology supports but are not covered in this course, e.g., non-interference.

A bug in OpenSSL's implementation of the heartbeat feature:

- One side sends a heartbeat request message m together with a number l
- The other side sends the first l characters of m back to signal that it is alive



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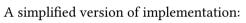
A simplified version of implementation:

```
void answer_heartbeat(SSL *req, unsigned int l){
  send_reply(l, req->data);
}
```



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```
void answer_heartbeat(SSL *req, unsigned int l){
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}
```

What happens if l > length(m)?





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A simplified version of implementation:

```
woid answer_heartbeat(SSL *req, unsigned int l){
    send_reply(l, req->data);
}

This is a memory violation and would have been
    caught had the program been verified.

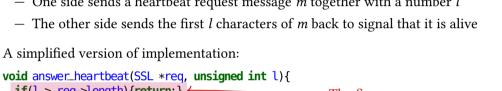
Memory:

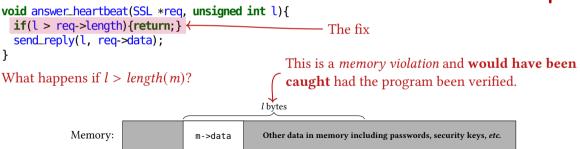
Memory:

Other data in memory including passwords, security keys, etc.
```

A bug in OpenSSL's implementation of the heartbeat feature:

One side sends a heartbeat request message m together with a number l





Challenges

We defined safety as a desirable property to prove about programs.

Question: How do we reason about safety of large programs based on a detailed operational semantics?

- There are many details, especially when we consider concurrent and distributed systems

A foundational approach, i.e., based on first principles, in a proof assistant (Coq)

The Proof Assistant Coq

A proof assistant based on the Calculus of Inductive Constructions

- Coq is itself a programming language:
 - Curry-Howard correspondence (types are theorems, programs are proofs)
 - It has an interesting meta-theory called type theory
- Proofs written and checked against foundational mathematical principles:
 - Coq only understands functions and the concept of induction

An example:

- Commutativity of addition for natural numbers
- Proof automation can help but still this demonstrates the level of formality

```
Theorem add_com nm : n + m = m + n.

Proof.

Proof.

Induction n as [|n IHn].

- intros m.

simpl.

induction m as [|m IHm].

+ simpl. revrite <- IHm.

+ simpl. revrite <- IHm.

- intros m.

induction m as [|m IHm].

+ simpl.

- simpl. IHm. simpl. reflexivity.

- revrite IHm.

simpl.

revrite IHm.

simpl.

revrite IHm.

revrite IHm.
```

Proof assistants are the highest standard of rigor for mathematical proofs

The Proof Assistant Coq

We use Coq to reason about state-of-the-art programs and programming languages:

- We define the precise mathematical model (operational semantics) of program execution
- The level of details in these models necessitates the use of proof assistants and program logics
- We define program logics (*the Iris framework*) for these programs
- Use these to prove correctness of programs

Challenges

Question: How do we reason about safety of a large programs based on a detailed operational semantics at this level of detail in Coq?

- Coq solves the problem of mathematical rigor
- Still, proofs in Coq are not easier than those on paper; they are in fact more detailed and longer ...
- How do we manage the complexity of proofs?

Abstraction and Modularity

Abstraction and Modularity

Abstraction and modularity are important related concepts whereby we mean:

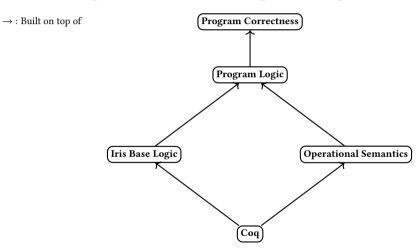
- Abstract reasoning: hiding details not relevant to the core of the problem at hand, e.g.
 - individual steps of computation
 - scheduler (in case of concurrency)
 - the contents of the (entire) memory
 - networking layer (in case of distributed systems)
- Modular reasoning: composing of proofs of separate modules to prove correctness of composed modules, e.g.
 - modular specs for libraries, e.g., abstract specs for ADT's like stacks
 - reasoning about different threads in isolation
 - only considering a module's memory footprint, *i.e.*, parts the module might touch
 - reasoning about different nodes in the network in isolation

Modularity is also important for robust safety as we will see.

Abstraction and modularity are things that a program logic gives us.

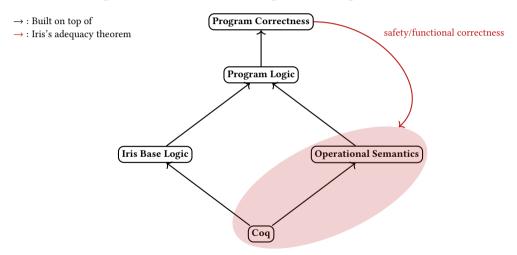
What is Iris?

A Framework for Higher-order Concurrent Separation Logics



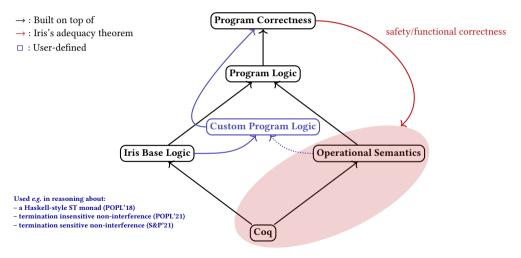
What is Iris?

A Framework for Higher-order Concurrent Separation Logics



What is Iris?

A Framework for Higher-order Concurrent Separation Logics



Versatility of Iris

Iris has been used in many projects:

- Reasoning about session types
- Reasoning about capability machines (hardware language)
- Reasoning about non-interference (a security property)
- Reasoning about distributed systems
- Proving properties of gradual typing systems
- Reasoning about algebraic effect handlers
- Reasoning principles for weak memory
- Proving properties of DOT (core of Scala)
- Proving properties of the Rust programming language
- *− etc.*

This versatility is due to Iris's expressivity.

Iris Base Logic

A logic with features designed for defining program logics:

```
P ::= \mathsf{True} \mid \mathsf{False} \mid P \vee P \mid P \wedge P \mid P \to P \mid \forall x. \ P \mid \exists x. \ P \mid \qquad \qquad \text{(higher-order logic)} P * P \mid \qquad \qquad \text{(separation logic)} \boxed{a}^{Y} \mid \Longrightarrow P \mid \qquad \qquad \text{(user-defined resources)} \triangleright P \mid \mu r. P \mid \qquad \qquad \text{(step indexing)} \boxed{P} \qquad \qquad \text{(invariants)}
```

Base logic inference rules:



Program Logic

A Hoare-style logic:

program binder for return value $\{P\}$ e $\{x$. $Q\}$ postcondition

Examples:

 $\{n \ge 0\} fact \ n \{x. \ x = n!\}$

 $\{True\}\ letrec f x = f x in f 4 \{x. False\}$

Program Logic

A Hoare-style logic:

program binder for return value
$$\{P\}$$
 e $\{x$. $Q\}$ postcondition

$$\{n \ge 0\} \ fact \ n \{x. \ x = n!\}$$

 $\{n \ge 0\}$ fact $n\{x. x = n!\}$ $\{\text{True}\}\ \text{letrec}\ f x = f x \text{in}\ f \ 4\{x. \text{False}\}$

Theorem (Adequacy)

If we prove

$$\vdash$$
 {*True*} e { x . $\phi(x)$ }

in Iris for a suitable ϕ , then Correct_{ϕ}(e)

Program Logic

program binder for return value
$$\{P\}$$
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Theorem (Adequacy)

If we prove

$$\vdash \{\mathit{True}\}\ e\{x.\ \phi(x)\}$$

in Iris for a suitable ϕ , then Correct_{ϕ}(e)

Proof rules for reasoning about programs:

Hoare-Frame $\{P\}$ e $\{x.$ $Q\}$	Hoare-Bind $\{P\} \ e \{x. \ Q\}$ $\forall v. \{Q[v/x]\} \ K[v] \{x. \ R\}$		Hoare-Consequence $\{P\} e \{x. Q\}$ $P' \vdash P$ $\forall v. Q[v/x] \vdash Q'[v/x]$		Hoare-rec $\triangleright \{P\} e[(rec f x = e)/f][v/x]$		Hoare-if-true $\{P\}$ e_1 $\{x.$ $Q\}$		Hoare-if-false $\{P\}$ e_2 $\{x.$ $Q\}$	
$\{P * R\} e \{x. Q * R\}$	R e $\{x. Q * R\}$ $\{P\} K[e] \{x. R\}$		$\{P'\}\ e\ \{x.\ Q'\}$		$\{P\}$ (rec $f x = e$) $v\{x. Q$	(P) if	$\{P\}$ if true then e_1 else e_2 $\{x.$ $Q\}$		$\{P\}$ if false then e_1 else e_2 $\{x.$ $Q\}$	
Hoare-alloc $\{\text{True}\}\ \text{ref}(v)\{x.\ \exists \ell.\ x = \ell*\ell \mapsto v\}$		Hoare-load $\{\ell \mapsto \nu\} \ ! \ \ell \ \{x, x = \nu * \ell \mapsto \ell\} $	Hoare-store $\{\ell \mapsto \nu\} \ \ell \leftarrow w \{x\}$		ARE-FAA $\mapsto n$ } fas $\ell m \{x, \ell \mapsto (n + m)\}$	Hoare-par $\{P_i$	Hoare-par $\{P_1\} e_1 \{x. Q_1\}$ $\{P_2\} e_2 \{x. Q_2\}$		Hoare-inv-alloc $\{P * \mathbb{R}\} e \{x. Q\}$	
(indefrei(v) (x. at.	X = 1 + 1 V)	11 → v _f : 1 (x. x = v + 1 →	and treatments	x = () ∘ t → w} {t·	$\rightarrow n_f \cap aa + m \{x. + \rightarrow (n + m)\}$	${P_1 * P_2} e_1 e_2 {x}$	$\{P_1 * P_2\} e_1 \ e_2 \{x. \exists v_1, v_2. x = (v_1, v_2) * Q_1 [v_1/x] \}$		$\{P * R\} e\{x. Q\}$	

Expressivity: Higher-Order Logic

Specifying abstract data types:²

```
\begin{split} \exists isStack: Val &\rightarrow list(Val \rightarrow \text{Prop}) \rightarrow \text{Prop}. \\ &\{\text{True}\} \text{ mk\_stack}() \left\{s.isStack(s,[])\right\} \land \\ &\forall s. \forall \Phi. \forall \Phis. \{isStack(s,\Phi s) * \Phi(x)\} \text{ push}(x,s) \left\{v.v = () \land isStack(s,\Phi :: \Phi s)\right\} \land \\ &\forall s. \forall \Phi. \forall \Phis. \{isStack(s,\Phi :: \Phi s)\} \text{ pop}(s) \left\{v.\Phi(v) * isStack(s,\Phi s)\right\} \end{split}
```

Note the higher-order quantification of a predicate that takes a list of predicates

²Taken verbatim from Iris lecture notes.

Expressivity: Separation Logic

Separating conjunction:

separating conjunction
$$P * Q$$

P * Q holds if P and Q hold for *disjoint* resources

Example: exclusive ownership of a memory location (points-to proposition)

$$\ell \mapsto \nu * \ell' \mapsto \nu' \vdash \ell \neq \ell'$$

HOARE-ALLOC {True} ref(
$$v$$
) { x . $\exists \ell$. $x = \ell * \ell \mapsto v$ }

HOARE-LOAD
$$\{\ell \mapsto \nu\} \ ! \ \ell \{x, x = \nu * \ell \mapsto \nu\}$$

Hoare-store
$$\{\ell \mapsto \nu\} \ell \leftarrow w \{x. \ x = () * \ell \mapsto w\}$$

Expressivity: Separation Logic

In separation logic a Hoare triple specifies footprint of the program.

Hence the *frame* and *par* rules:

$$\begin{array}{lll} \text{Hoare-Frame} & \text{Hoare-par} \\ & \{P\} \ e \ \{x. \ Q\} \\ \hline \{P*R\} \ e \ \{x. \ Q*R\} & \hline \\ & \{P_1\} \ e_1 \ \{x. \ Q_1\} & \{P_2\} \ e_2 \ \{x. \ Q_2\} \\ \hline & \{P_1*P_2\} \ e_1 \| e_2 \ \{x. \ \exists v_1, v_2. \ x = (v_1, v_2) * Q_1 [v_1/x] * Q_2 [v_2/x]\} \\ \end{array}$$

Important for modular verification:

Verify modules working on separate parts of memory in isolation and combine proofs

What if two modules share memory?

We use invariants (and resources) to specify sharing protocols

Expressivity: User-Defined Resources

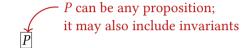
Users can introduce resources as partial commutative monoids (PCM's)



Idea: for verifying stateful programs we need a stateful logic

Expressivity: Step-Indexing and Invariants

Iris invariants are impredicative:



Step-indexing is necessary for impredicative invariants to avoid self-referential paradoxes

These features are necessary for defining logical relations models for programming languages with advanced features

Expressivity: Step-Indexing and Invariants (Logical Relations)

Goal: we want to prove type safety (well-typed programs do not crash)

Using logical relations:

We prove by induction on typing derivation:

$$e: \tau \Rightarrow LR_{\tau}(e)$$

where

$$LR_{\tau}(e) \Rightarrow Safe(e)$$

However, we cannot take $LR_{\tau}(e)$ to be Safe(e):

$$Safe(e_1) \wedge Safe(e_2) \not\Rightarrow Safe(e_1 - e_2)$$

Counter example: Safe(true) and Safe(3) but $\neg Safe(true - 3)$

Expressivity: Step-Indexing and Invariants (Logical Relations)

We should take LR_{τ} to be:

$$LR_{\tau}(e) \triangleq Correct_{\llbracket \tau \rrbracket}(e)$$

where $[\![\tau]\!]$ (ν) means that ν is a value of type τ .

Ideally, we should define this by induction on types:

Expressivity: Step-Indexing and Invariants (Logical Relations)

We use Iris and define

$$LR_{\tau}(e) \triangleq \{\text{True}\} e \{x. \llbracket \tau \rrbracket (x) \}$$

We define $\llbracket \tau \rrbracket$ (ν) inductively as follows:

Expressivity: Step-Indexing and Invariants (Logical Relations)

```
\begin{split} & \left[ \Xi + \alpha \right]_{A}(v,v') \triangleq \Delta(\alpha)(v,v') \\ & \left[ \Xi + N \right]_{A}(v,v') \triangleq v \neq v \in \mathbb{N} \\ & \left[ \Xi + \Gamma_{1} \times \tau_{2} \right]_{A}(v,v') \triangleq v \neq v \in \mathbb{N} \\ & \left[ \Xi + \Gamma_{1} \times \tau_{2} \right]_{A}(v,v') \triangleq \exists v_{1}, v_{2}, v_{1}, v_{2} = (v_{1}, v_{2}), \wedge v' = (v'_{1}, v'_{2}), \wedge v' \in [v'_{1}, v'_{2}), \wedge v'_{2} = v'_{2}, \partial_{1}(v,v') \triangleq V_{0}, \partial_{1}(v,v') \wedge \left[ \Xi + \tau_{2} \right]_{A}(v,v') \triangleq V_{0}, \partial_{1}(v,v') \wedge v'_{1} + \left[ \Sigma + \tau_{2} \right]_{A}(v,v') \triangleq V_{0}, \partial_{1}(v',v') \wedge v'_{1} + \left[ \Sigma + \sigma_{1} \right]_{A}(v',v') \wedge v'_{1} + \left[ \Sigma +
```





This approach to type safety is called semantic type safety

It has been used for reasoning about correctness of the Rust type system.

See Derek Dreyer's POPL'18 keynote for more details.

Example: Shared Memory Concurrency

Consider the following concurrent program where threads share memory:

```
let c = ref(0) in

(faa c1 \parallel faa c2); atomic fetch and add operation

! c
```

Example: Shared Memory Concurrency

Consider the following concurrent program where threads share memory:

```
{True}  \begin{aligned} & \text{let } c = \text{ref}(0) \text{ in} \\ & \text{(faa } c \, 1 \| \text{faa } c \, 2); \\ & \text{! } c \\ & \{x. \, x \geq 0\} \end{aligned}
```

Example: Shared Memory Concurrency

Consider the following concurrent program where threads share memory:

```
{True}
       let c = ref(0) in
       \{c \mapsto 0\}
        \{\exists n. \ n \geq 0 * c \mapsto n\}
        \begin{pmatrix} \{ \exists n. \ n \geq 0 * c \mapsto n \} \\ \{ \exists n. \ n \geq 0 * c \mapsto n \} \\ \text{faa } c \ 1 \\ \{ x. \ \exists n. \ n \geq 0 * c \mapsto n \} \end{pmatrix} \begin{cases} \{ \exists n. \ n \geq 0 * c \mapsto n \} \\ \{ \exists n. \ n \geq 0 * c \mapsto n \} \\ \text{faa } c \ 2 \\ \{ x. \ \exists n. \ n \geq 0 * c \mapsto n \} \end{pmatrix}; 
        \{ \exists n. \ n \geq 0 * c \mapsto n \}
         ! c
\{x, x \ge 0\}
```

Example: Shared Memory Concurrency (Stronger Postcondition)

Can we also prove the following stronger specs for our code?

```
{True}

let c = ref(0) in

(faa c1 || faa c2);

! c

{x. x = 3}
```

Example: Shared Memory Concurrency (Stronger Postcondition)

Can we also prove the following stronger specs for our code?

With which invariant should we proceed?

$$\exists n. \ n \ge 0 * c \mapsto n$$
 $c \mapsto 3$

Neither works. We need to be able to refer to the value outside the invariant!

Frample Shared Mamary Concurrency (Stronger Dectaondition)

We use user-defined resources to define the following:



CONTR-SUM
$$\vdash \bowtie \exists \gamma. \ \mathsf{Sum}^{\gamma}(0) * \mathsf{Left}^{\gamma}(0) * \mathsf{Right}^{\gamma}(0) \qquad \mathsf{Sum}^{\gamma}(n) * \mathsf{Left}^{\gamma}(m) * \mathsf{Right}^{\gamma}(k) \vdash n = m + k$$

$$\mathsf{Contr-incr-left} \qquad \mathsf{Sum}^{\gamma}(n) * \mathsf{Left}^{\gamma}(m) \vdash \bowtie \mathsf{Sum}^{\gamma}(n+k) * \mathsf{Left}^{\gamma}(m+k)$$

$$\mathsf{Contr-incr-right} \qquad \mathsf{Contr-incr-right} \qquad \mathsf{Sum}^{\gamma}(n) * \mathsf{Right}^{\gamma}(m) \vdash \bowtie \mathsf{Sum}^{\gamma}(n+k) * \mathsf{Right}^{\gamma}(m+k)$$

Example: Shared Memory Concurrency (Stronger Postcondition)

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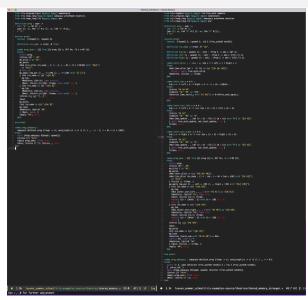
Example: Shared Memory Concurrency (Stronger Postcondition)

Can we also prove the following stronger specs for our code?

```
{True}
       let c = ref(0) in
       \{c \mapsto 0\}
       \{c \mapsto 0 * \operatorname{Sum}^{\gamma}(0) * \operatorname{Left}^{\gamma}(0) * \operatorname{Right}^{\gamma}(0)\}
        \{ \exists n. \ c \mapsto n * \operatorname{Sum}^{\gamma}(n) \} * \operatorname{Left}^{\gamma}(0) * \operatorname{Right}^{\gamma}(0) \}
         \begin{pmatrix} \left\{ \boxed{\exists \textit{n. } c \mapsto \textit{n} * \mathsf{Sum}^{\gamma}(\textit{n})} * \mathsf{Left}^{\gamma}(0) \right\} \\ \text{faa } \textit{c} \, 1 \\ \left\{ \textit{x. } \mathsf{Left}^{\gamma}(1) \right\} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{cases} \left\{ \boxed{\exists \textit{n. } c \mapsto \textit{n} * \mathsf{Sum}^{\gamma}(\textit{n})} * \mathsf{Right}^{\gamma}(0) \right\} \\ \left\{ \textit{x. } \mathsf{Right}^{\gamma}(2) \right\} \end{cases} ;
        \{ \exists n. \ c \mapsto n * \operatorname{Sum}^{\gamma}(n) \} * \operatorname{Left}^{\gamma}(1) * \operatorname{Right}^{\gamma}(2) \}
        ! c
\{x, x = 3\}
```

Proofs and Iris Proof Mode

- I simplified the proofs that I just presented
- However, Iris features a Proof Mode (IPM)
- IPM makes program verification in Coq very close to what I presented
- To the right: screenshot of the proofs we just saw in Iris in Coq using IPM



Robust Safety

Our modular reasoning principles imply that we can combine programs that are proven, e.g. the HOARE-PAR rule.

Question: What can we say about combining a proven correct program with an arbitrary, adversarial program?

Important insight:

- $-\,$ We can express limitations of arbitrary programs in terms Iris propositions and Hoare triples.
- Modular reasoning: we can combine these Hoare triples with those of proven correct programs.
- We obtain proofs about the result of linking a proven correct program with an arbitrary, adversarial program.

Robust Safety

Notice: We consider arbitrary programs which may crash.

Hence, we use a weaker, non-progressive variant of Hoare triples which allow the program to get stuck:

$${P}_{\not z} e {x. Q}$$

Just like ordinary Hoare triples the non-progressive version also enforces invariants and does not allow assertion (we will see) failures.

$$\{P\}\ e\ \{x.\ Q\}\ \vdash\ \{P\}_{\frac{1}{2}}\ e\ \{x.\ Q\}$$

All the modular reasoning principles of ordinary Hoare triples, e.g., Hoare-frame, Hoare-par, etc., also hold for the non-progressive variant.

Robust Safety

Similar to $Correct_{\phi}$ we define $NonProg_{\phi}$ which

- does not guarantee progress (programs may get stuck)
- requires no assertion failures
- if the program terminates to a value v, $\phi(v)$ must hold

Theorem (Non-progressive Adequacy)

If we prove

$$\vdash \{\mathit{True}\}_{\notin} \ e\{x.\ \phi(x)\}$$

in Iris for a suitable ϕ , then NonProg $_{\phi}(e)$

Robust Safety, an Example

The following *even_counter* module returns two functions, one to read the value and one to increment it by two.

```
even\_counter \triangleq \text{let } c = \text{ref}(0) \text{ in}
\text{let } incr\_ = \text{faa } c \text{ 2 in}
\text{let } read\_ = \text{let } x = ! c \text{ in assert}(x \% 2 = 0); x \text{ in}
(incr, read)
```

Question: can we prove $NonProg_{isEven}(prog)$?

```
prog = let (incr, read) = even_counter in adversary; read ()
```

where adversary is a program with no hard-coded locations or assertions.

Robust Safety, an Example

The following *even_counter* module returns two functions, one to read the value and one to increment it by two.

```
even\_counter \triangleq \text{let } c = \text{ref}(0) \text{ in}
\text{let } incr\_ = \text{faa } c \text{ 2 in}
\text{let } read\_ = \text{let } x = ! c \text{ in assert}(x \% 2 = 0); x \text{ in}
(incr, read)
```

Question: can we prove NonProg $_{isEven}(prog)$?

```
prog = let (incr, read) = even_counter in adversary; read ()
```

where adversary is a program with no hard-coded locations or assertions.

Hint: the language does not support pointer arithmetic; the only way to get a pointer is if the program allocates it or if it is passed to it from another part of the program.

Robust Safety, an Example

Question: is our assumption of no pointer arithmetic reasonable?

Yes, this property holds for our high-level programming language. Hence, we can indeed prove $NonProg_{isEven}(prog)$ from the previous slide.

Question: But more realistically, programs can be linked to adversary programs written in more low-level languages, e.g., directly in assembly. Surely, those can perform pointer arithmetic.

Yes, however, some modern hardware architectures (still mostly in research labs) feature so-called *capabilities* which essentially restrict pointer arithmetic which can be used to enable the guarantee that we have assumed about pointers.

See our work on studying the assembly language capability machines in Iris for more details.

How Do We Prove Robust Safety?

Question: how do we prove NonProg_{isEven}(prog)?

where adversary is a program with no hard-coded locations or assertions.

How Do We Prove Robust Safety?

Question: how do we prove NonProg_{isEven}(prog)?

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Modular Reasoning!

How Do We Prove Robust Safety?

We can easily show the following specs for even_counter:

$$\{\mathsf{True}\}_{\frac{\ell}{\ell}}$$

$$even_counter$$

$$\left\{x. \ \exists f, g. \ x = (f, g) \land \\ (\forall v. \ \{\mathsf{True}\}_{\frac{\ell}{\ell}} \ f \ v \{y. \ y = ()\}) \land \\ (\forall v. \ \{\mathsf{True}\}_{\frac{\ell}{\ell}} \ g \ v \{y. \ isEven(y)\})\right\}$$

The proof is very similar to the example before. We simply use an invariant that asserts the location is always even.

If we somehow had a non-progressive Hoare triple for the adversary program, we could just compose it with the spec above; because modularity!

We define a logical relations model for our language:

- We define relations capturing good values and good expressions
- Similar to the logical relations we saw before except relations are not indexed by types
 - Our language has not typed
 - Arbitrary adversarial programs may not be well-typed even if had types
- We show that all adversarial programs (no hard-coded locations or assertions) are good

We define the $good_{val}$ and $good_{exp}$ relations as follows:

```
good_{exp}(e) \triangleq \{\mathsf{True}\}_{\notin} e\{x. \ good_{val}(x)\}
```

where $good_{val}(v)$ is inductively as follows:³

```
\begin{aligned} good_{val}(n) &\triangleq \mathsf{True} \\ good_{val}(b) &\triangleq \mathsf{True} \\ good_{val}(()) &\triangleq \mathsf{True} \\ good_{val}(v_1, v_2) &\triangleq good_{val}(v_1) \land good_{val}(v_2) \\ good_{val}(\mathsf{rec}\,f\,x = e) &\triangleq \forall v. \left\{ good_{val}(v) \right\} \left( \mathsf{rec}\,f\,x = e \right) \, v \left\{ x. \, good_{val}(x) \right\} \\ &\vdots \\ good_{val}(\ell) &\triangleq \boxed{\exists v. \, \ell \mapsto v * good_{val}(v)} \end{aligned}
```

if $n \in \mathbb{Z}$

if $b \in \{\text{true}, \text{false}\}$

³This time by induction on the form of values instead of types.

We define the $good_{val}$ and $good_{exp}$ relations as follows:

```
good_{exp}(e) \triangleq \{True\}_{f} e\{x. good_{val}(x)\}
```

where $good_{val}(v)$ is inductively as follows:³

$$good_{val}(n) \triangleq \mathsf{True}$$

$$good_{val}(b) \triangleq \mathsf{True}$$

 $good_{val}(()) \triangleq True$

$$good_{val}(v_1, v_2) \triangleq good_{val}(v_1) \land good_{val}(v_2)$$

 $good_{vol}(rec f x = e) \triangleq \forall v. \{good_{vol}(v)\} (rec f x = e) v \{x. good_{vol}(x)\}$

$$good_{val}(\ell) \triangleq \boxed{\exists v. \ \ell \mapsto v * good_{val}(v)}$$

Question: why are these relations not trivial?

if $n \in \mathbb{Z}$

if $b \in \{\text{true}, \text{false}\}$

³This time by induction on the form of values instead of types.

Theorem (Fundamental Theorem of Robust Safety (FTRS))

Let e be any expression with no hard-coded locations or assertions. Furthermore, let \overrightarrow{vs} be values which are all good. The following holds:

$$good_{exp}(e[\overrightarrow{vs}/\overrightarrow{xs}])$$

where \overrightarrow{xs} are variables (as many as \overrightarrow{vs}).

Proof.

By induction on *e*.

```
 \begin{cases} \mathsf{True}\}_{\frac{f}{\ell}} \\ & even\_counter \\ \left\{ x. \ \exists f, g. \ x = (f,g) \land \\ (\forall v. \ \{\mathsf{True}\}_{\frac{f}{\ell}} \ f \ v\{y. \ y = ()\}) \land \\ (\forall v. \ \{\mathsf{True}\}_{\frac{f}{\ell}} \ g \ v\{y. \ isEven(y)\}) \right\} \end{cases}
```

```
{True} {
    let (incr, read) = even_counter in
    adversary;
    read ()
{x. isEven(x)}
```

Theorem (Fundamental Theorem of Robust Safety (FTRS))

Let e be any expression with no hard-coded locations or assertions. Furthermore, let \overrightarrow{vs} be values which are all good. The following holds:

$$good_{exp}(e[\overrightarrow{vs}/\overrightarrow{xs}])$$

```
{True} 4
      \begin{cases} (\forall v. \{\mathsf{True}\}_{\ell} f \ v \{y. \ y = ()\}) \land \\ (\forall v. \{\mathsf{True}\}_{\ell} g \ v \{y. \ isEven(y)\}) \end{cases}
          let (incr, read) = (f, g) in
          adversary;
          read()
     \{x. isEven(x)\}
\{x. isEven(x)\}
```

```
 \begin{cases} \mathsf{True}\}_{\frac{f}{2}} \\ & even\_counter \end{cases} \\ \left\{ \begin{aligned} x. & \exists f, g. \ x = (f, g) \land \\ & (\forall \nu. \left\{\mathsf{True}\right\}_{\frac{f}{2}} f \ \nu \left\{y. \ y = ()\right\}\right) \land \\ & (\forall \nu. \left\{\mathsf{True}\right\}_{\frac{f}{2}} g \ \nu \left\{y. \ isEven(y)\right\}\right) \end{aligned} \right\}
```

Theorem (Fundamental Theorem of Robust Safety (FTRS))

Let e be any expression with no hard-coded locations or assertions. Furthermore, let vs be values which are all good. The following holds:

$$good_{exp}(e[\overrightarrow{vs}/\overrightarrow{xs}])$$

```
{True} 4
     \begin{cases} (\forall v. \{\mathsf{True}\}_{i} f \ v\{y. \ y = ()\}) \land \\ (\forall v. \{\mathsf{True}\}_{i} g \ v\{y. \ isEven(y)\}) \end{cases}
          adversarv[f, g/incr, read]:
         g ()
     \{x. isEven(x)\}
\{x. isEven(x)\}
```

```
 \begin{cases} \mathsf{True}\}_{\frac{f}{2}} \\ & even\_counter \end{cases} \\ \left\{ \begin{aligned} x. \ \exists f, g. \ x = (f, g) \land \\ & (\forall v. \ \{\mathsf{True}\}_{\frac{f}{2}} f \ v \{y. \ y = ()\}) \land \\ & (\forall v. \ \{\mathsf{True}\}_{\frac{f}{2}} g \ v \{y. \ isEven(y)\}) \end{aligned} \right\}
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              adversary[f, g/incr, read];
                \begin{cases} (\forall v. \{ \text{True} \}_{\frac{d}{2}} f \ v \{ y. \ y = () \}) \land \\ (\forall v. \{ \text{True} \}_{\frac{d}{2}} g \ v \{ y. \ isEven(y) \}) \end{cases}
        \{x. isEven(x)\}
\{x. isEven(x)\}
```

```
 \begin{cases} \mathsf{True}\}_{\frac{f}{2}} \\ & even\_counter \end{cases} \\ \left\{ \begin{aligned} x. \ \exists f, g. \ x = (f, g) \land \\ (\forall v. \ \{\mathsf{True}\}_{\frac{f}{2}} f \ v \{y. \ y = ()\}) \land \\ (\forall v. \ \{\mathsf{True}\}_{\frac{f}{2}} g \ v \{y. \ isEven(y)\}) \end{aligned} \right\}
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```
{True} 4
       \begin{cases} (\forall v. \{\mathsf{True}\}_{\frac{1}{2}} f \ v\{y. \ y = ()\}) \land \\ (\forall v. \{\mathsf{True}\}_{\frac{1}{2}} g \ v\{y. \ isEven(y)\}) \end{cases}
              adversary[f, g/incr, read];
               \begin{cases} (\forall v. \{ \text{True} \}_{\frac{1}{2}} f \ v \{ y. \ y = () \}) \land \\ (\forall v. \{ \text{True} \}_{\frac{1}{2}} g \ v \{ y. \ isEven(y) \}) \end{cases}
              g ()
        \{x. isEven(x)\}
\{x. isEven(x)\}
```

```
 \begin{cases} \mathsf{True} \}_{\frac{d}{2}} \\ & even\_counter \\ \begin{cases} x. \ \exists f, g. \ x = (f,g) \land \\ & (\forall v. \ \{\mathsf{True}\}_{\frac{d}{2}} \ f \ v \{y. \ y = ()\}) \land \\ & (\forall v. \ \{\mathsf{True}\}_{\frac{d}{2}} \ g \ v \{y. \ isEven(y)\}) \end{cases}
```

Theorem (Fundamental Theorem of Robust Safety (FTRS))

Let e be any expression with no hard-coded locations or assertions. Furthermore, let vs be values which are all good. The following holds:

 $good_{exp}(e[\overrightarrow{vs}/\overrightarrow{xs}])$

where \overrightarrow{xs} are variables (as many as \overrightarrow{vs}).

Hence, by applying the adequacy theorem for non-progressive Hoare triples, we get

 $NonProg_{isEven}(let(incr, read) = even_counterin adversary; read())$

as required.

Online resources

I hope this talk has made you interested in learning more about Iris, separation logic, program verification, *etc*.

See http://iris-project.org

- Iris Tutorial material
- Iris related publications
- PhD theses that include Iris works
- Other manuscripts

See https://cs.au.dk/~timany/talks/leuvenss22/

- These slides
- Links to other resources

