

# Spy Game – Verifying a Local Generic Solver in Iris

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# When is a function constant?

Consider a program “f” that behaves *extensionally*.

Is it possible to *dynamically* detect that “f” is a *constant function*?

```
f: int -> int
```

# When is a function constant?

Consider a program “f” that behaves *extensionally*.

Is it possible to *dynamically* detect that “f” is a *constant function*? No.

What if “f” is defined on *lazy integers* instead?

```
type lazy_int = unit -> int
```

```
f: lazy_int -> int
```

**Idea:** “If  $f$  does *not* use its argument, then it must be *constant*.”

```
type lazy_int = unit -> int
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```
let is_constant (f: lazy_int -> int) =  
  let r = ref true in  
  let spy: lazy_int =  
    fun () -> r := false; 0  
  in  
  let _ = f spy in  
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```

- We refer to this programming technique as *spying*.
- Can we verify the correctness of `is_constant`?

## Why is this a relevant question?

- Spying has never been *verified* in separation logic.
- Spying is used in real-world *fixed point computation* algorithms.

## In the rest of this talk

- Explain and verify spying using *Iris* – an expressive separation logic.
- By the end, we will have the *key ideas* to verify `is_constant`!
- These same ideas allow verifying fixed point computation algorithms.

# Specification of `is_constant`

```
let is_constant (f: lazy_int -> int) =  
  let r = ref true in  
  let spy () = r := false; 0 in  
  let _ = f spy in !r
```

The specification is a Hoare triple:

$$\{f \text{ implements } \phi\}$$
$$\text{is\_constant } f$$
$$\{b. b = \text{true} \Rightarrow \exists c. \forall m. \phi(m) = c\}$$

“`x computes m`” is sugar for  $\{\text{true}\} \ x \ () \ \{y. y = m\}$

“`f implements  $\phi$` ” is sugar for

$$\forall x, m. \{x \text{ computes } m\} \ f \ x \ \{y. y = \phi(m)\}$$

```
let is_constant (f: lazy_int -> int) =  
  (* Assumption: f implements  $\phi$  *)  
  let r = ref true in  
  let spy () =  
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```

At a first glimpse, the code suggests an intuitive idea:

*“If  $r$  contains true, then  $\phi$  is a constant function.”*

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The assertion becomes true only *after* “f spy”. It is *not* an invariant.

```

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  (* Assumption: f implements  $\phi$  *)
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```

A better candidate invariant mentions how many times  $f$  calls `spy`:

$\#(\text{calls}) = \#(\text{past calls}) + \#(\text{future calls})$   
 and  
*if  $r$  contains true then  $\#(\text{past calls}) = 0$ .*

To name the number of `future` calls, we need *prophecy counters*.

They are *ghost* code; they do not exist at runtime.

Implemented using Iris's prophecy variables (Jung et al. 2020).

$$\begin{array}{l} \{true\} \\ \text{prophCounter}() \\ \{p. \exists n. p \rightsquigarrow n\} \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{l} \{p \rightsquigarrow n\} \\ \text{prophDecr } p \\ \{(). 0 < n * p \rightsquigarrow (n - 1)\} \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{l} \{p \rightsquigarrow n\} \\ \text{prophZero } p \\ \{(). n = 0\} \end{array}$$

## Intuition

- “The counter predicts how many times it *will* be decremented.”

```

let is_constant f =
  let r = ref true in
  let p = prophCounter () in
  let spy () =
    prophDecr p;
    r := false; 0
  in
  let _ = f spy in
  prophZero p;
  !r

```

The operation `prophCounter ()` yields a natural number  $n$ .

Because we use `prophDecr` inside `spy` and `prophZero` at the end,  $n$  is the number of times `spy` *will* be called!

$$n = \#(\text{calls})$$

```

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  let _ = f spy in
  prophZero p;
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```

**Informal:**

$\#(\text{calls}) = \#(\text{past calls}) + \#(\text{future calls})$   
 and  
 if  $r$  contains true then  $\#(\text{past calls}) = 0$ .

**Formal:**

$$\text{Inv}(r, p, n) = \exists (k : \text{nat}) (l : \text{nat}) (b : \text{bool}).$$

$$p \rightsquigarrow l * n = k + l *$$

$$r \mapsto b * (b = \text{true} \Rightarrow k = 0)$$

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```

At the end, by exploiting the invariant, we obtain:

$$r \mapsto b * (b = \text{true} \Rightarrow n = 0)$$

*"If r contains true, then spy has never been called."*

```

let is_constant f =
  let r = ref true in
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At the end, by exploiting the invariant, we obtain:

$$r \mapsto b * (b = \text{true} \Rightarrow n = 0)$$

*"If r contains true, then spy has never been called."*

But how to prove that  $\phi$  is constant from there?

## Insight 2 – The link between $n$ and $\phi$

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let is_constant f =  
  let r = ref true in  
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```

*“If spy is never called, it can pretend to compute an arbitrary integer.”*

$$n = 0 \implies \forall m. \{true\} \text{ spy } () \{y. y = m\}$$

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*“If spy is never called, it can pretend to compute an arbitrary integer.”*

$$n = 0 \implies \forall m. \text{spy } \mathbf{computes} \ m$$

Therefore

$$n = 0 \implies \forall m. \left( \begin{array}{l} \{f \ \mathbf{implements} \ \phi\} \\ f \ \text{spy} \\ \{c. \quad c = \phi(m)\} \end{array} \right)$$

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$$n = 0 \implies \left( \begin{array}{l} \{f \ \mathbf{implements} \ \phi\} \\ f \ \text{spy} \\ \{c. \forall m. c = \phi(m)\} \end{array} \right)$$

Moving the quantifier is justified by a *restricted conjunction rule*:

$$\frac{\forall x. \{P\} e \{y. Q(x, y)\} \quad Q \text{ is pure}}{\{P\} e' \{y. \forall x. Q(x, y)\}}$$

where  $e'$  is a copy of  $e$  instrumented with *prophecy variables*.

The proof in Iris is novel and is yet another use case of prophecies.

## Combining the previous steps

```
let is_constant f =  
  let r = ref true in  
  let p = prophCounter () in  
  let spy () =  
    prophDecr p; r := false; 0  
  in let _ = f spy in  
  prophZero p; !r
```

*“If r contains true at the end, then spy is never called.”*

$$r \mapsto b * (b = \text{true} \Rightarrow n = 0)$$

*“If spy is never called, then  $\phi$  is a constant function.”*

$$n = 0 \implies \left( \begin{array}{c} \{f \text{ implements } \phi\} \\ f \text{ spy} \\ \{c. \forall m. c = \phi(m)\} \end{array} \right)$$

**Conclusion:** *“If r contains true at the end, then  $\phi$  is constant.”!*

## What we have seen so far

- `is_constant` – an example of spying.
- Proof sketch for `is_constant`.
- How prophecy variables are used to handle spying.
- A restricted conjunction rule.

## For the rest of the talk

- What is a *local generic solver*.
- Explain the *connection* between spying and local generic solvers.

# What is a Local Generic Solver?

A term coined by Fecht and Seidl (1999).

- A *solver* computes the least function “phi” that satisfies

$$\text{eqs } \text{phi} = \text{phi}$$

where “eqs” is a user-supplied function.

- *Generic* means it is parameterized with a user-defined partial order.
- *Local* means phi is computed on demand and need not be defined everywhere.

```
type valuation = variable -> property
val lfp: (valuation -> valuation) -> valuation
```

A *simple* example is to compute Fibonacci:

```
type valuation = int -> int
let eqs (phi: valuation) (n: int) =
  if n <= 1 then 1 else phi (n - 1) + phi (n - 2)
in
let fib = lfp eqs
```

“fib at  $n$  *depends* on fib at  $n - 1$  and  $n - 2$ .”

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let eqs (phi: valuation) (n: int) =
  if n <= 1 then 1 else phi (n - 1) + phi (n - 2)
in
let fib = lfp eqs
```

- Local generic solvers use dependencies for *efficiency*.
- Dependencies are discovered at *runtime* via spying.

## What is in the paper

- Improvements to Iris's *prophecy variable* API.
- Proof of a *conjunction rule*.
- Use of locks to make our code thread-safe.
- Specification and proof of *modulus*, the general case of spying.
- Specification and proof of a *local generic solver*.

## Limitations

- We only prove *partial correctness*.
- We do not prove *deadlock-freedom*.

Questions?

Spying is subsumed by a single combinator, `modulus`, so named by Longley (1999).

```
let modulus ff f =  
  let xs = ref [] in  
  let spy x =  
    xs := x :: !xs;  
    f x  
  in  
  let c = ff spy in  
  (c, !xs)
```

- `lfp` uses `modulus`.
- `is_constant` can be written in terms of `modulus`.

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```
let is_constant pred =  
  let r = ref true in  
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    0  
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  let _ = pred spy in  
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```

```
let is_constant pred =
  let zero () = 0 in
  match
    modulus pred zero
  with
  | _, []      -> true
  | _, _ :: _ -> false
```

- `lfp` uses `modulus`.
- `is_constant` can be written in terms of `modulus`.

$$\frac{\forall x. \{P\} e () \{y. Q x y\} \quad Q \text{ is pure}}{\{P\} \text{ withProph } e \{y. \forall x. Q x y\}}$$

where `withProph e` is the program `e` instrumented with prophecies:

```
let withProph (e: unit -> 'a) =
  let p = newProph() in
  let y = e () in
  resolveProph p y;
  y
```

## PROPHECY ALLOCATION

$\{true\}$   
 $newProph()$   
 $\{p. \exists zs. p \rightsquigarrow zs\}$

## PROPHECY ASSIGNMENT

$\{p \rightsquigarrow zs\}$   
 $resolveProph\ p\ x$   
 $\{(). \exists zs. zs = x :: zs' * p \rightsquigarrow zs'\}$

## PROPHECY DISPOSAL

$\{p \rightsquigarrow zs\}$   
 $disposeProph\ p$   
 $\{(). zs = []\}$

## Improvements

- The operation *disposeProph* is new.
- The list *zs* can have an user-defined type.

$$\forall \text{eqs } \mathcal{E}. (\mathcal{E} \text{ is monotone}) \Rightarrow \begin{array}{l} \{\text{eqs } \mathbf{implements} \ \mathcal{E}\} \\ \text{lfp eqs} \\ \{\text{phi. phi } \mathbf{implements} \ \bar{\mu}\mathcal{E}\} \end{array}$$

## Remarks

- Partial correctness: termination is *not* guaranteed.
- Possible deadlocks depending on the user implementation of  $\mathcal{E}$ .

Hofmann et al. (2010a) present a Coq proof of a local generic solver:

- they model the solver as a computation in a state monad,
- and they assume the client can be modeled as a *strategy tree*.

Why it is permitted to model the client in this way is the subject of two separate papers (Hofmann et al. 2010b; Bauer et al. 2013).