Iteratively Composing Statically Verified Traits

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Static verification relying on an automated theorem prover can be very slow and brittle: since static verification is undecidable, correct code may not pass a particular static verifier. In this work we use metaprogramming to generate code that is correct by construction. A theorem prover is used only to verify initial "traits": units of code that can be used to compose bigger programs.

In our work, meta-programming is done by trait composition, which starting from correct code, is guaranteed to produce correct code. We do this be extending conventional traits with methods pre and post conditions; we also extend the traditional trait composition (+) operator to check the compatibility of contracts. In this way, there is no need to re-verify the produced code.

We show how our approach can be applied to the standard "power" function example, where metaprogramming generates optimised, and correct, versions when the exponent is known in advance.

1 Introduction

With this short paper we contribute to research on safe metaprogramming, showing how combining pre/post conditions, trait composition and metaprogramming it is possible to create metaprograms that generat code which is correct by construction. That is: only the original source code itself needs to be verified (for example by a theorem prover), and not the code produced by metaprogramming. This is important since the original code is often orders of magnitude smaller then the generated code. We start by providing some background on those three research areas:

Pre-post conditions: object oriented languages supporting static verification usually extend the syntax for method declarations to support *contracts* in the form of pre and post-conditions [5]. Correctness is defined only for code annotated with such contracts.

We say that a method is *correct*, if whenever its precondition holds on entry, the precondition of every directly invoked method holds, and the postcondition of the method holds when the method returns. Automated static verification typically works by asking an automated theorem prover to verify that each method is correct individually, by assuming the correctness of every other method [1]. This process can be very slow and can produce unexpected results: since static verification is undecidable, correct code may not pass a particular static verifier. Many static verification approaches are not resilient to standard refactoring techniques like method inlining. Sometimes static verification even times out, making the behaviour even more sensitive to such refactoring techniques.

Traits: originally introduced in smalltalk by Scharli [8], traits are units of code reuse. They where created as a simpler way of performing multiple inheritance without the usual complexity. Traits are just a set of method declarations. Such methods can be abstract and mutually recursive by using the implicit this parameter. Traits are different from Java-style abstract classes as they are only for reuse: trait names do *not* define types. Trait composition is seen as a form of flattening: after the composition, the resulting code contains copies of the adapted methods from the original traits, but do not reference

the original traits directly. Since there is no trace of the point of origin of the code, super calls are not directly available and need to be somehow emulated. Traits can be combined using many different composition operators, not just *extends*. In this work we will rely on the traditional composition operators +(plus), rename and hide.

The + operator is the main way to compose traits [8, 2]. The result of + will contain all the methods from both operands. Crucially, it is possible to sum traits where a method is declared in both operands; in this case at least one of the two competing methods needs to be abstract, and the signatures of the two competing methods need to be *compatible*. In this way, + have an expressive power similar to multiple inheritance.

Rename and hide adapt a single trait by renaming a method or by making a method private. Many works in literature allow adapting traits by renaming or hiding methods[9, 7, 3]. Hiding a method may also trigger inlining if the method body is simple enough or used only once.

Consider the following example code, where we use those 3 operators:

```
1 Trait a=class{Int hello(){return 1;}}
2 Trait b=class{
3   abstract Int hello();
4   String world(){return "["+this.hello()+"]";}}
5 Trait c=(a+b)[hide hello()][rename world()->hello()]
```

After flattening we would get the following result; where c now contains a single method called world(), with the body of the method originally called hello() declared in trait b. This body contains the inlined version of method a.world() that has been hidden. Note how the order of operations is important.

```
6 Trait a=/*as before*/
7 Trait b=/*as before*/
8 Trait c=class {String world(){return "["+1+"]";}}
```

Metaprogramming is often used to programmatically generate faster specialised code when some parameters are known in advance, this is particularly useful where the specialisation mechanism is too complicated for a generic compiler to automatically derive [6]. A metaprogram is a program, method or function that produces code. Depending on the kind of metaprogramming, such code can be directly executable or can be just an abstract representation of behaviour. Metaprogramming is called metacircular when the language used to write the metaprogram is the same language of the generate code. Metaprogramming can happen at run time, or at compile time. In the latter case, the produced code can be needed to typecheck and compile the rest of the code in the program. In this paper we will rely on Iterative Composition: a metacircular metaprogramming technique relying on compile-time execution (a form of execution also used by [10]). This disciplined form of metaprogramming introduced by Servetto and Zucca [9], is based on the trait composition operators described before, but lifted at the expression level. This means that arbitrary expressions can be used as the right hand side of trait and class declarations; during compilation such expressions will be evaluated to produce a Trait, which provides the body of the class. In this way metaprograms can be represented as otherwise normal functions/methods that return a Trait, without requiring the use of any additional 'metalanguage'.

2 Combining metaprogramming and static verification

A naïve way to combine metaprogramming and static verification could be to use metaprogramming to generate code together with contracts, and then once the metaprogramming has been run, statically ver-

ify the resulting code. However, the resulting code could be much larger than the input to the metaprogramming, and so it could take a long time to statically verify. Moreover, one of the many goals of metaprogramming is to make it easier to generate many specialised versions of the same code. The aim of our work is to statically verify only the original source code itself, and not the code produced by metaprogramming. Instead, we ensure that the result of metaprogramming is correct by construction.

We extend [9] by allowing methods to be annotated with pre/post-conditions. In addition to requiring that all the traits are well-typed before they are used (as in [9]) we also require that traits are correct in terms of their method contracts. Traits directly written in the source code are statically verified, while traits resulting from metaprogramming are ensured correct by only providing trait operations that preserve correctness. In particular, we **only** need to extend the checking performed by the traditional trait composition (+) operator to also check the compatibility of contracts.

Our metaprogramming approach does not allow generating code from scratch, such as by directly generating ASTs, rather the language provides a specific set of primitive composition and adaptation operators which preserve correctness. Thus the result of metaprogramming is guaranteed to be well typed and correct.

Static verification usually handles extends and implements by verifying that every time a method is implemented/overriden, the Liskov substitution principle [4] is satisfied by checking that the contracts of the method in the derived class implies the contract of any corresponding methods in its base classes. In this way, there is no need to re-verify inherited code in the context of the derived class. This concept is easily adapted to handle trait composition, which simply provides another way to implement an abstract method. When traits are composed, it is sufficient to match the contracts of the few composed methods to ensure the whole result is correct.

3 Concrete example

In our example we will use the notation <code>@requires(predicate)</code> to specify a precondition, and <code>@ensures(predicate)</code> to specify a postcondition; where <code>predicate</code> is a boolean expression in terms of the parameters of the method (including this), and for the <code>@ensures</code> case, the <code>result</code> of the method. Suppose we want to implement an efficient exponentiation function, we could use recursion and the common technique of 'repeated squaring':

```
9 @requires(exp > 0)
10 @ensures(result == x**exp)//Here x**y means x to the power of y
11 Int pow(Int x, Int exp) {
12   if (exp == 1) return x;
13   if (exp %2 == 0) return pow(x*x, exp/2); // exp is even
14   return x*pow(x, exp-1); } // exp is odd
```

If the exponent is known at compile time, unfolding the recursion produces even more efficient code:

We now show how *Iterative Composition* (enriched by the contract compatibility check we proposed) can be used to write a metaprogram that given an exponent, produces code like the above.

```
Trait base=class \{//\text{induction base case: pow}(x) == x ** 1
20
     @ensures(result>0) Int exp(){return 1;}
21
     @ensures(result==x**exp()) Int pow(Int x){return x;}
22 }
23 Trait even=class {//if pow(x) = x** exp(), pow(x) = x**(2* exp())}
24
     @ensures(result > 0) Int _exp();
     @ensures(result == 2*_exp()) Int exp(){return 2*_exp();}
25
26
     @ensures(result == x ** _ exp()) Int _pow(Int x);
27
     @ensures(result == x ** exp()) Int pow(Int x) {return _pow(x * x);}
28 }
29 Trait odd=class {//if pow(x)==x**\_exp(), pow(x)==x**(1+\_exp())}
30
     @ensures(result > 0) Int _exp();
31
     @ensures(result == 1 + _exp()) Int exp() { return 1 + _exp(); }
32
     @ensures(result == x ** _ exp()) Int _pow(Int x);
33
     @ensures(result==x**exp()) Int pow(Int x){return x*_pow(x);}
34 }
```

First we will define tree traits: base, even and odd. They are the basic building blocks we will use to compute our result. They will be compiled, typechecked and statically verified before being use in any way. Note that we could use base directly: we could write class Pow1: base; this would generate a class such that new Pow1().pow(x)==x**1. The other two traits have abstract methods; implementations for _pow(x) and _exp() must be provided. However, given the contract of pow(x), and the fact that even and odd have both been statically verified, if we supply method bodies respecting these contracts, we will get *correct* code, without the need for further static verification. Since all occurrences of names are consistently renamed, **renaming and hiding preserve code correctness**. Method names starting with _, like _pow(x) and _exp(), are not special and are not treated in any special way by trait composition. We use the _ naming convention to emulate super when using trait composition: a call to _exp() is used like a super.exp() call in a language with conventional class based inheritence like Java.

```
35 // compose, performs a step of iterative composition
36 Trait compose(Trait current, Trait next){
37
     current = current[rename exp()->_exp(), pow(x)->_pow(x)];
38
     return (current+next)[hide _exp(), _pow(x)];}
   @requires(exp>0)//the entry point for our metaprogramming
   Trait generate(Int exp) {
40
41
     if (exp==1) return base;
42
     if (exp%2==0) return compose(generate(exp/2), even);
43
     return compose(generate(exp-1),odd);
44 };
```

The compose(current, next) method starts by renaming the exp() and pow(x) methods of current so that they satisfy the contracts in next (which will be even or odd).

Then, the operator + is used to compose the code of the parameters. Here we show how we ensure that the traditional + operator also handles contracts: we require that the contract annotations of the two competing methods are *compatible*. In this paper, we just require them to be syntactically identical.

Relaxing this constraint is an important future work. Thanks to this constraint **the sum operator also preserves code correctness**.

The sum is executed when the method compose runs: if the matched contracts are not identical an exception will be raised. A leaked exception during compile-time metaprogramming would become a compile-time error. Our approach is very similar to [9], and does not guarantee the success of the code generation process, rather it guarantees that if it succeeds, correct code is generated.

Executing compose(base, even) or compose(base, odd) will pass this test: since the contract of base.pow() is the same of even._pow() and even._pow(), and the same for exp().

Finally the pow(x) and exp() method are hidden, so that the structural shape of the result is the same as base's. Note that this structural equality includes the contracts of methods.

As you can see, Traits are first class values and can be manipulated with a set of primitive operators that preserve code correctness and well-typedness. In this way, by inductive reasoning, we can start from the base case and then recursively compose even and odd until we get the desired code. Note how the code of generate(exp) follows the same scheme of the code of pow(x,exp) in line 1.

To understand our example better, imagine executing the code of generate(7) while keeping compose in symbolic form. We would get the following (where c is short for compose):

```
generate(7) == c(generate(6),odd) == ...
== c(c(c(c(base,even),odd),even),odd)
```

As base represents pow1(x); c(base, even) represents pow2(x). Then c(/*pow2(x)*/,odd) represents pow3(x), c(/*pow3(x)*/,even) represents pow6(x), and finally, c(/*pow6(x)*/,odd) represents pow7(x). The code of each pow(x) method is only executed once for each top-level pow(x) call, so the hide operator can inline them. Thus, the result could be identical to the manually optimized code in line 7. We can use our generate (7) as following:

```
47 class Pow7: generate(7) //generate(7) is executed at compile time
48 //the body of class Pow7 is the result of generate(7)
49 /*example usage:*/
50 new Pow7().pow(3)==2187//Compute 3**7
```

4 Future work

Our approach, as presented in this short paper, only guarantees that code resulting from metaprogramming follows its own contracts, it does not statically ensure what those contracts may be. As future work, we are investigating how the resulting contracts can be ensured to have a particular meaning or form. To do so, we need to allow assertions on the contracts of Traits to be used within pre/post conditions. For example we could allow post conditions like

```
@ensures(result.methName.ensures == predicate)
```

to mean that the resulting Trait has a method called *methName*, whose @ensures clause is syntactically identical to *predicate*; whilst

```
@ensures(result.methName.ensures ==> predicate)
```

would use a static verifier to ensure that *methName*'s @ensures clause logically implies *predicate*. With these two features we could annotate the method generate(exp) in line 32 above as:

```
51  @requires(exp>0)
52  @ensures(result.exp().ensures ==> (result==exp))
53  @ensures(result.pow(x).ensures == (result==x**exp()))
```

54 Trait generate(Int exp) {...}

In this way, we could statically verify the generate (exp) method, however we fear such verification will be too complex or impractical. We could instead automatically check the above postconditions after each call to generate (exp). If generate (exp) is used to define a class (such as Pow7 above), we will guarantee that such class has the expected contracts, before it is used. Thus there is no need to ensure the correctness of the metaprogram itself: such runtime checks are sufficient to ensure that after compilation, the code produced by metaprogramming has its expected behaviour.

5 Conclusion

By levering over conventional OO static verification techniques, we have extended the Iterative Composition form of metaprogramming with a simple contract compatibility check, to statically ensure the correctness of code produced by such metaprogramming. In particular, our approach does not require static verification of the result of metaprogramming, but only requires verification of code present directly in source code. Following general terminology in software verification, we say that a trait is *correct* when its methods respect their contracts. Thus our result is that starting from a set of well typed and correct traits, any code resulting from arbitrary many steps of trait composition will also be correct and well typed. In this way, the programmer need only provide correct bulding blocks using traits; code generated by metaprogramming can be integrated with a correct program without needing to use expensive theorem provers or manual verification. Our example is applied to code specialization of a mathematical function, but our experience suggests that Iterative composition can be used to synthesize arbitrary behaviour.

References

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A Changes in Response to Reviewers' Feedback

Thanks to to the helpful reviews from VPT, we have made several changes to the paper since it was first submitted. Here we summarise the changes we have made to each paragraph¹:

Page 1, Paragraph 2:

Our definition of "correctness" is now clearer and more consistent.

Page 1, Pargraphs 2 & 3:

We no longer mention that static verification can be "unpredictable", and expand more on the problems with statically verifying the output of metaprogramming.

Page 1, Paragraph 3:

We cite a paper that shows metaprogramming to generate optimized code for specific use cases can be much faster than relying on a compiler.

Page 1, Paragraph 4 & 5:

We introduce traits in more detail, and explicitly state our differences from prior work.

Page 1, Paragraph 6:

We explain the Liskov Substituition principle, as well as provide a citation for it.

Page 2, Paragraph 4:

We extend our discussion to further explain how iterative trait composition works.

Page 4, Paragraph 2 & 3:

We provide more detail on how contracts on the result of metaprogramming can be checked for correctness.

Page 4, Paragraph 4:

We summarise contributions more clearly.

¹Code examples are *not* counted as a paragraph.