NOVA SCHOOL OF SCIENCE & TECHNOLOGY

DEPARTAMENT OF COMPUTER SCIENCE

TIAGO SILVA MEIRIM

BSc in Computer Science and Engineering

FROM OCAML TO CAKEML, AND BACK

A PIPELINE FOR VERIFIED CODE BY CONSTRUCTION

Dissertation Plan
MASTER IN COMPUTER SCIENCE AND ENGINEERING

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Draft: *June 29, 2025*

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Abstract

Regardless of the language in which the dissertation is written, usually there are at least two abstracts: one abstract in the same language as the main text, and another abstract in some other language.

The abstracts' order varies with the school. If your school has specific regulations concerning the abstracts' order, the NOVAthesis LaTeX (novathesis) (LaTeX) template will respect them. Otherwise, the default rule in the novathesis template is to have in first place the abstract in *the same language as main text*, and then the abstract in *the other language*. For example, if the dissertation is written in Portuguese, the abstracts' order will be first Portuguese and then English, followed by the main text in Portuguese. If the dissertation is written in English, the abstracts' order will be first English and then Portuguese, followed by the main text in English. However, this order can be customized by adding one of the following to the file `5_packages.tex`.

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Concerning its contents, the abstracts should not exceed one page and may answer the following questions (it is essential to adapt to the usual practices of your scientific area):

1. What is the problem?
2. Why is this problem interesting/challenging?
3. What is the proposed approach/solution/contribution?
4. What results (implications/consequences) from the solution?

Keywords: One keyword, Another keyword, Yet another keyword, One keyword more, The last keyword

Resumo

Independentemente da língua em que a dissertação está escrita, geralmente esta contém pelo menos dois resumos: um resumo na mesma língua do texto principal e outro resumo numa outra língua.

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Relativamente ao seu conteúdo, os resumos não devem ultrapassar uma página e frequentemente tentam responder às seguintes questões (é imprescindível a adaptação às práticas habituais da sua área científica):

1. Qual é o problema?
2. Porque é que é um problema interessante/desafiante?
3. Qual é a proposta de abordagem/solução?
4. Quais são as consequências/resultados da solução proposta?

Palavras-chave: Primeira palavra-chave, Outra palavra-chave, Mais uma palavra-chave, A última palavra-chave

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Glossary

GOSPEL A specification language for the OCaml language, intended to be used in various purposes. The acronym stands for Generic OCaml SPEcification Language. *(p. 7)*

OCaml A Pragmatic functional programming language with roots in academia and growing commercial use. It supports highly complex features, such as generational garbage collection, type inference, parametric polymorphism, an efficient compiler, among many others. *(pp. 5–7)*

Acronyms

novathesis NOVAthesis LaTeX *(pp. i, ii)*

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Introduction

1.1 Motivation

Progress in deductive software verification has been steadily advancing, particularly for formal languages. However, the foundational groundwork was laid as early as 1936 by Alan Turing in his seminal paper "On Computable Numbers," which introduced key concepts of computation and formal proof. Other notable papers where mathematical propositions were established purely through theoretical reasoning include Alan Turing's Systems of Logic Based on Ordinals, Alonzo Church's An Unsolvable Problem of Elementary Number Theory and Kurt Gödel's Incompleteness Theorems. These works laid important foundations in logic, computation, and formal reasoning without relying on physical implementation or empirical methods. Our research draws on several key papers that directly influenced deductive software verification and the technologies we will use. These include Robin Milner's foundational work on type polymorphism (shaped the ML language) Gordon and Melham's Introduction to HOL (formalized higher-order logic for verification) and Xavier Leroy's CompCert (a landmark in formally verified compilation).

Developments in relation to verified code have become increasingly crucial to achieve correctness and provide safety, the way we define correctness has more than one definition, it can be specified informally or written in formal language [**<empty citation>**]. The weight of functional languages for deductive software verification has been quite low despite having good candidates for verification, like OCaml. Ever since 2018 with the introduction of GOSPEL, with providing fomal language specification tightly integrated with OCaml, verification has become easier with a modular specification that doesn't need much changes to OCaml code. This wasn't the first time formal logic and proof has been merged with functional programming, previous and more foundational systems like COQ, Agda, F*(F star), Liquid Haskell and WhyML have paved the way. Now that we have a behavioural specification language for OCaml we can expand this verification for other funtional languages, that was already done in 2021 with the addition of Cameleer, an automated deductive verification tool that translates a formally-specified program, like GOSPEL, into the corresping code in WhyML. This innovation in translation of verified

code to other languages gave a new view onto how other functional languages could have their code verified while being written in a more expressive language just like OCaml. A clear applicant was CakeML, a language based on a substantial subset of Standard ML, having a core goal of creating an end-to-end verified compiler.

Why are verified compilers such an important target for formal verification? If a verified program is compiled by a faulty compiler, the resulting executable may not preserve its intended behavior, invalidating the higher-level correctness so compilers like CompCert and CakeML address this issue by providing formally verified compilation pipelines, thereby eliminating a major source of uncertainty and ensuring that correctness is preserved from source code to machine code.

1.2 Problem Definition

Writing precise specifications can turn out to be very challenging, since having an incomplete specification will eventually make the verification meaningless. PUT SOME RESEARCHES ABOUT SOFTWARE VERIFICATION AND TALK ABOUT HOW THERE ARE NO AUTOMATED VERIFICATION PAPERS. Despite all the papers above mentioned there are not much papers that go deep inside automated deductive verification. And then we have CakeML, a research-driven compiler with the main goal of providing a fully proof-producing code generation tool that given ML-like functions in higher-order logic (HOL) automatically produces equivalent executable machine code. Analyzing syntactic and semantic foundations with OCaml we see that both share very similar features most notably, functional core, strong static typing, pattern matching and higher-order functions. Now we are presented with some questions:

- Now that automated deductive verification has a tool that eases translation, could we expand it for even more languages? - Can CakeML's verified compilation pipeline be generalized to other ML-family languages like WhyML? - What minimal syntactic and semantic guarantees must a language offer to be compatible with CakeML's verified compiler? - Could an OCaml-to-HOL4 transpiler (guided by GOSPEL specs) be created to automate CakeML target generation?

1.3 Goals and Expected Contribution

1.4 Report Structure

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Background

2.1 Hoare logic

Hoare Logic is a formal system for reasoning about the correctness of computer programs. However, computer arithmetic often differs from the standard arithmetic familiar to mathematicians due to issues like finite precision, overflows, and machine-specific behaviors. To account for these differences, C.A.R. Hoare introduced a new logic based on assertions and inference rules for reasoning about the partial correctness of programs. Drawing inspiration from mathematical axioms and formal proof techniques, he proposed a framework where program behavior could be specified and verified using logical formulas. This laid the foundation for systematic program verification and emphasized the need to model computational constraints, such as those arising from the limitations of machine arithmetic, within a formal system.

"The purpose of this study is to provide a logical basis for proofs of the properties of a program"

Assignment Axiom

$$\vdash \{P_0\}x := f\{P\}$$

where

- x is a variable identifier;
- f is an expression;
- P_0 is obtained from P by substituting f for all occurrences of x

The axiom expresses that to prove a postcondition P holds after assigning the expression f to the variable x, it suffices to prove the precondition P_0 before the assignment, where P_0 is obtained by substituting every occurrence of x in P with the expression f.

Rule of Composition

$$\vdash P\{Q_1\}R_1 \quad \text{and} \quad \vdash R_1\{Q_2\}R \quad \text{then} \quad \vdash P\{(Q_1; Q_2)\}R$$

The inference rule for composition states that if the postcondition of the first program segment matches the precondition of the second, then the entire program will produce the intended result—assuming the initial precondition of the first segment holds.

Hoare Logic was significantly strengthened by Cook's seminal work on the soundness and completeness of an axiom system for program verification. In his paper, Cook presented a Hoare-style axiom system tailored to a simple programming language and rigorously established both its soundness and adequacy. He concluded that, under reasonable assumptions, Hoare Logic is not only intuitively effective but also formally complete as a system for reasoning about program correctness.

After setting an elegant axiomatic framework for reasoning about program correctness through the use of Hoare triples $\{P\}C\{Q\}$, its practical application in large-scale or automated verification tasks presents significant challenges. Chief among these is the burden of manually identifying appropriate preconditions and invariants. To address this, Edsger W. Dijkstra introduced the weakest precondition calculus, which reformulates program correctness into a computational problem: given a command C and a desired postcondition Q, the function $wp(C, Q)$ computes the weakest precondition P such that $\{P\}C\{Q\}$ holds.

This transformation from proof obligations to a calculable precondition function represents a critical step toward automating program verification. Unlike Hoare's original formulation, which requires deductive reasoning to derive correctness properties, weakest precondition semantics allow for algorithmic generation of verification conditions, thereby enabling integration with automated theorem provers and SMT solvers.

The influence of weakest preconditions is particularly evident in modern deductive verification tools such as Why3, Boogie, Frama-C, and Dafny.

2.2 OCaml

OCaml is a statically typed functional programming language rooted in the ML family, originally developed to serve as the implementation language for theorem provers such as LCF. It inherits the foundational principles of typed λ-calculus, formal logic, and abstract interpretation, and extends them through practical language design aimed at enabling both expressiveness and efficiency.

First released in the mid-1990s, OCaml is the principal evolution of the Caml dialect of the ML family. The name OCaml, originally short for Objective Caml, reflects the addition of object-oriented features to the Caml language. While Caml stood for Categorical Abstract Machine Language, OCaml moved away from its dependence on the original abstract machine model. The language is primarily developed and maintained by INRIA, which continues to guide its implementation and evolution.

OCaml distinguishes itself from many academically inspired languages through its strong emphasis on performance. Its static type system eliminates the need for runtime

type checking by ensuring type correctness at compile time, thereby avoiding the performance overhead commonly associated with dynamically typed languages. This design enables OCaml to maintain high execution efficiency while preserving strong safety guarantees at runtime. Exceptions to this safety model arise only in specific low-level scenarios, such as when array bounds checking is explicitly disabled or when employing type-unsafe features like runtime serialization.

For the standard compiler toolchain features, OCaml has both a high-performance native-code compiler (**ocamlopt**) and a bytecode compiler (**ocamlc**). The native-code compiler produces efficient machine code via a sophisticated optimizing backend, while the bytecode compiler offers portability and rapid development. Both compilers are integrated with a runtime system that supports automatic memory management via a garbage collector and provides facilities for exception handling, concurrency, and system interaction.

Verification-Oriented Language Features

ADTs (Algebraic Data Types)

In OCaml, data types fall into three broad categories: atomic predefined types (e.g., `int`, `bool`), type constructors provided by the language (e.g., `list`, `array`, `option`), and user-defined types, which are declared through the general mechanism of algebraic data types, for instance:

OCaml

```
type envir = Empty
  | Regular of int * string list * envir
  | Special of int * string list * envir
  | Weird of string list * envir ;;
```

ADTs support exhaustive pattern matching, which is particularly useful for enabling structural recursion and inductive reasoning. From a verification perspective, this ensures all possible cases are covered, making formal reasoning both precise and complete. Such properties are essential for theorem proving and are readily leveraged by formal tools like GOSPEL, Coq, and Why3.

Immutability by default

Immutability is promotted as a default design principle in this language. Rather than modifying existing values, new ones are created through expression evaluation. This absence of mutable shared state simplifies reasoning about program behavior and eliminates many common sources of verification complexity, such as aliasing and unintended side effects.

OCaml

```
let x = 5
let y = x + 1 (* x is not modified, just referenced *)
```

Since values are not modified in place, program semantics are preserved under substitution, facilitating referential transparency, making symbolic execution and logical reasoning over programs more straightforward in deductive verification.

First-Class and Higher-Order Functions

OCaml treats functions as first-class values: they can be passed as arguments, returned from other functions, and stored in data structures. Combined with lexical scoping and immutable data, this makes OCaml particularly well-suited for working with higher-order abstractions, a feature that aligns naturally with formal systems based on higher-order logic.

OCaml
```
let apply_twice f x = f (f x)

let square x = x * x

let result = apply_twice square 2  (* returns 16 *)
```

In the context of deductive verification, such functional abstractions support elegant formulations of parametric specifications and reasoning principles.

Modules and Functors

Module system supports parametric modularity via modules and functors enabling abstraction, separation of concerns, and scalable specification. This system corresponds closely to abstract data types and interfaces in formal verification.

OCaml
```
module type StackSig = sig
  type 'a t
  val empty : 'a t
  val push : 'a -> 'a t -> 'a t
  val pop : 'a t -> 'a t
end

module Stack : StackSig = struct
  type 'a t = 'a list
  let empty = []
  let push x s = x :: s
  let pop = function [] -> [] | _ :: tl -> tl
end
```

This modular architecture is especially valuable in the context of verification. It promotes separation of concerns by allowing components to be reasoned about independently of their implementations.

Type Abstraction and Encapsulation

One of OCaml's strengths lies in its support for abstract types via module signatures. This allows developers to hide implementation details and expose only essential operations, enabling verification at the level of observable behavior rather than internal representation.

OCaml
```
module Counter : sig
  type t
```

```
  val create : unit -> t
  val incr : t -> t
  val get : t -> int
end = struct
  type t = int
  let create () = 0
  let incr x = x + 1
  let get x = x
end
```

By hiding the concrete type `int`, this interface prevents misuse and allows formal specification to focus solely on observable behavior. In verification tools, this maps cleanly to abstract state machines and promotes reasoning over behavior instead of implementation details.

2.3 Standard ML

Standard ML is a functional programming language that fully embraces the expressiveness of mathematical functions. However, it was also shaped by practical programming needs, leading to the inclusion of imperative features and a robust exception handling system. The language supports modularity through an advanced system of parametric modules, designed to facilitate the structured development of large-scale software systems. Moreover, Standard ML is strongly and statically typed, and it was the first programming language to introduce a form of polymorphic type inference that combines strong type safety with notable flexibility in programming style.

2.4 Why3

2.5 Cameleer

Cameleer [1]

```
let f x = x + 1 (*@ res = f x ensures res = x + 1)
```

GOSPEL + OCaml

3

State Of The Art

3.1 Certified Compilers

3.1.1 CompCert

3.1.2 CakeML

3.2 Pipeline

4

Preliminary Results

5

Work Plan

Bibliography

[1] M. Pereira and A. Ravara. "Cameleer: A Deductive Verification Tool for OCaml". In: *Computer Aided Verification - 33rd International Conference, CAV 2021, Virtual Event, July 20-23, 2021, Proceedings, Part II*. Ed. by A. Silva and K. R. M. Leino. Vol. 12760. Lecture Notes in Computer Science. Springer, 2021, pp. 677–689. DOI: 10.1007/978-3-030-81688-9_31. URL: https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-81688-9%5C_31 (cit. on p. 7).