

Software Analysis Topic 3

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Today's menu

Software analysis concepts

Soundness and completeness

Expressiveness and automation

Trade-offs

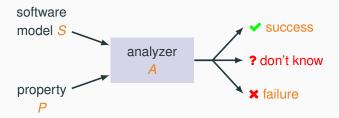
A simple imperative language

Operational semantics

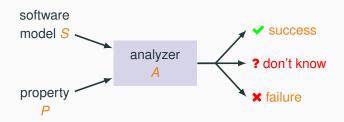
Software analysis concepts

"Software analysis" denotes techniques, methods, and tools useful to establish that some software behaves according to some properties.

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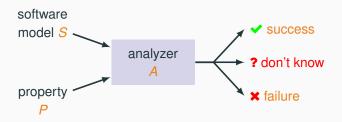
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Software model *S* (often called implementation):

- <u>source code</u>, byte code, binaries, automaton model, logic formula, ...
- possibly <u>auxiliary annotations</u> (loop invariants, proof scripts, type annotations, ...)

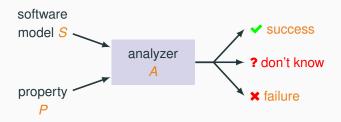
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Property *P* (often called specification):

• <u>logic formula</u>, automaton model, reference implementation, implicit property, sampled expected outputs (oracle), ...

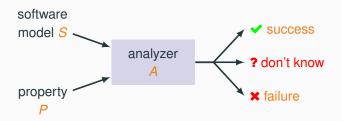
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Analyzer A (verifier, verification tool, analysis tool):

· automated tool, interactive system, human, ...

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Outcome A(S, P) (verification output):

✓ success: S has property P

★ failure: S does not have property P

? don't know: inconclusive analysis: doesn't terminate, timeout, out of memory, crash, forced termination, . . .

Software analysis concepts

Soundness and completeness

Soundness

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$$A(S, P) = \checkmark$$
 implies $S \models P$

With a sound verifier: we can trust the analysis when it is successful.

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Example of sound analyzer: the typechecker of a strongly typed programming language:

system *S*: program (with type declarations)

property P: (implicit) the program has no type mismatch errors

When typechecking is successful, there will be no type errors at runtime (for any input).

```
static void typecheck_OK(int n, LinkedList<String> list) {
   long m = n; // OK: widening
    List<String> l = list; // OK: covariant
$ javac Sound.java
# [no errors]
  static void typecheck_KO(long m, List<String> list) {
    int n = m;
                                 // NO: possibly lossy
    LinkedList<String> l = list; // NO: contravariant
```

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     int n = m:
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     LinkedList<String> l = list; // NO: contravariant
$ iavac Sound.iava
Sound.java:12: error: incompatible types: possible lossy conversion from long to int
    int n = m:
                   // NO: possibly lossy
Sound.java:13: error: incompatible types: List<String> cannot be converted to LinkedList<String>
    LinkedList<String> l = list; // NO: contravariant
```

Loopholes in Java typechecking

The Java type system is mostly sound, provided we do not use certain loophole features that typechecking effectively ignores.

```
static void loopholes(LinkedList<String> list) {
    // raw type List
    List l = list;
    // add integer to list of strings!
    l.add(10);
    l.add("hello");
}
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```
static void loopholes(LinkedList<String> list) {
        // raw type List
      list 1 = list:
       // add integer to list of strings!
      l.add(10);
      l.add("hello"):
$ javac Sound.java
# [no errors]
Note: Sound.java uses unchecked or unsafe operations.
Note: Recompile with -Xlint:unchecked for details.
$ javac -Xlint:unchecked Sound.java
Sound.java:9: warning: [unchecked] unchecked call to add(E) as a member of the raw type List
    l.add("hello");
 where E is a type-variable: E extends Object declared in interface List
Sound.java:11: warning: [unchecked] unchecked call to add(E) as a member of the raw type List
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Annotation @SuppressWarnings("unchecked") suppresses the warning.

It has been recently discovered that the Java type system is (non-deliberately) unsound when we use some features of constrained genericity.

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Java and Scala's Type Systems are Unsound*

The Existential Crisis of Null Pointers

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It has been recently discovered that the Java type system is (non-deliberately) unsound when we use some features of constrained genericity.

```
class Unsound {
  static class Constrain<A. B extends A> { }
  static class Bind<A> {
      <B extends A> A upcast(Constrain<A,B> constrain, B b)
       { return b: }
                                                            $ iavac Unsound.iava # no errors
                                                            $ iava Unsound
                                                            Exception in thread "main"
  static<T,U> U coerce(T t) {
                                                              java.lang.ClassCastException:
      Constrain<U,? super T> constrain = null;
                                                                java.base/java.lang.Integer
      Bind<U> bind = new Bind<U>():
                                                                  cannot be cast to
      return bind.upcast(constrain. t):
                                                                java.base/java.lang.String
  public static void main(String[] args) {
      String zero = Unsound.<Integer,String>coerce(0);
```

The typechecker outputs ✓ but the program has a type error!

Soundness in practice

An analyzer A is sound if
$$A(S, P) = \checkmark$$
 implies $S \models P$

Software analysis is mostly interested in techniques that are sound.

However, soundness is typically traded-off against other properties:

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Unsoundness on some input language features is acceptable (even desirable) as long as it enables achieving other properties (completeness, scalability, etc.).

Soundiness

VIEWPOINT

In Defense of Soundiness: A Manifesto

By Benjamin Livshits, Manu Sridharan, Yannis Smaragdakis, Ondřej Lhoták, J. Nelson Amaral, Bor-Yuh Evan Chang, Samuel Z. Guyer, Uday P. Khedker, Anders Møller, Dimitrios Vardoulakis Communications of the ACM, February 2015, Vol. 58 No. 2, Pages 44-46 10.1145/2644905

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Completeness

$$A(S, P) \neq \checkmark$$
 implies $S \nearrow P$

With a complete verifier: when the analysis is unsuccessful there are real errors (violations of the property).

also: precise

Completeness

$$A(S, P) = \times \text{ or } A(S, P) = ?$$

An analyzer A is complete if:

 $A(S, P) \neq \checkmark \text{ implies } S \nmid P$

With a complete verifier: when the analysis is unsuccessful there are real errors (violations of the property).

also: precise

Completeness

$$A(S, P) = \times \text{ or } A(S, P) = ?$$

An analyzer A is complete if:

 $A(S, P) \neq \checkmark$ implies $S \not\models P$

With a complete verifier: when the analysis is unsuccessful there are real errors (violations of the property).

also: precise

Example of complete analyzer: a test-case generator:

system S: program

property P: oracle defining the expected behavior (e.g. assertions)

When a generated test triggers an assertion violation, we found an input that leads to error.

Completeness of testing

Generated test:

Completeness of testing

Generated test:

```
@Test
   public void testMySort() {
      String[] input = {"c", "a", "b"};
                                                        // input
      String[] output = mySort(input);
                                                        // run test
      assertEquals(sorted(input)[0], output[0]); // compare oracle
                                                        // and output
$ java -cp /usr/share/java/junit4.jar:. org.junit.runner.JUnitCore MySortTest
There was 1 failure:

    testMySort(MySortTest)

org.junit.ComparisonFailure: expected:<[a]> but was:<[c]>
```

Completeness of testing

Generated test:

```
@Test
   public void testMySort() {
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                                                        // input
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There was 1 failure:

    testMySort(MySortTest)

org.junit.ComparisonFailure: expected:<[a]> but was:<[c]>
```

This output conclusively indicates that mySort does not work correctly on input {"c", "a", "b"}.

Soundness of testing

Testing is complete: a <u>failing test</u> conclusively indicates that there is an <u>error</u> – that is $S \not\models P$.

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JUnit version 4.12 OK (1000000 tests)
```

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Testing is unsound: even if <u>all tests pass</u> there may still be <u>other inputs</u> that trigger an error.

Soundness of testing

Testing is complete: a failing test conclusively indicates that there is an error – that is $S \not\models P$.

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JUnit version 4.12 OK (1000000 tests)
```

Testing is unsound: even if <u>all tests pass</u> there may still be <u>other inputs</u> that trigger an error.

However, if you narrowly define the property P you're testing for as limited to the inputs being tested, then testing becomes sound and complete — except possibly in case of non termination of the program under test.

```
@Test
public void testMySort() {
   String[] input = {"c", "a", "b"};
   String[] output = mySort(input);
   assertEquals("a", output[0]);
}

P:
mySort({"c", "a", "b"})[0] == "a"
```

An analyzer A is complete if $A(S, P) \neq \checkmark$ implies $S \not\models P$

Any analyzer that tackles an undecidable problem cannot be both sound and complete.

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- trivially sound, incomplete analyzer: always return x
- trivially complete, unsound analyzer: always return

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Thus, sound analyzers are generally incomplete: a verification failure just means "don't know" (not "there is an error").

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Thus, sound analyzers are generally incomplete: a verification failure just means "don't know" (not "there is an error").

Some incompleteness is inevitable and is a manifestation of the impossibility of automatically solving complex analysis problems (undecidability).

Degrees of soundness and completeness

It is useful to think of soundness and completeness not as binary properties but as on a spectrum.

- Typechecking is sound on programs that do not use unsafe operations.
- (Bounded) model checking is sound up to a fixed memory bound.
- Data-flow analysis is normally complete on program fragments without branching.

Positives and negatives

The analyzer checks for errors (property violations) and its output is the outcome of the check:

- ✓ is a negative outcome (no errors found, no warning)
- is a positive outcome (errors found, warning)

A(S, P)	$\mathcal{S} \models \mathcal{P}$	$\mathcal{S}\not\models P$
•	true negative	false negative
×	false positive	true positive

Positives and negatives

The analyzer checks for errors (property violations) and its output is the outcome of the check:

- ✓ is a negative outcome (no errors found, no warning)
- is a positive outcome (errors found, warning)

$$A(S,P)$$
 $S \models P$ $S \not\models P$ \checkmark true negative
false positivefalse negative
true positive

- · A sound analyzer never issues false negatives
- A complete analyzer never issues <u>false positives</u>

Software analysis concepts

Expressiveness and automation

Expressiveness

also: flexibility

The expressiveness of an analyzer A is a measure of the variety and extensiveness of the properties P it can analyze.

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The expressiveness of an analyzer *A* is a measure of the variety and extensiveness of the properties *P* it can analyze.

Main kinds of properties:

```
full-fledged logic: first-order logic, higher-order logic, . . .
```

specialized language: temporal logic, reachability, ...

fixed/implicit: null safety, type safety, termination, ...

Automation

The level of automation of an analyzer A is a measure of how much human effort it needs beyond providing system model S and property P.

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The level of automation of an analyzer A is a measure of how much human effort it needs beyond providing system model S and property P.

Main levels of automation:

automatic (push-button): the analyzer works completely

automatically

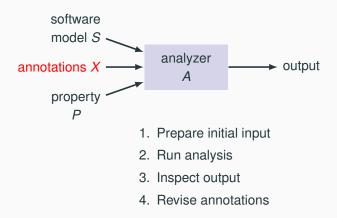
auto-active: the user interacts with the analyzer

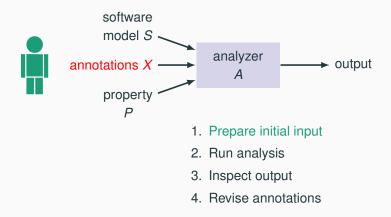
indirectly in a series of iteration by

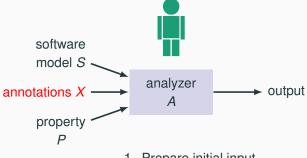
providing additional annotations to guide the analysis – which is itself automatic

interactive: the user guides the analyzer interactively

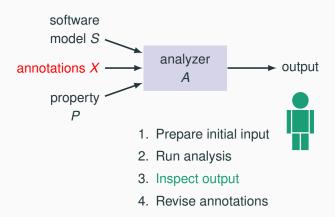
at crucial steps

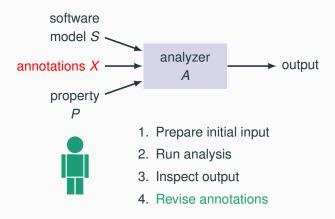






- 1. Prepare initial input
- 2. Run analysis
- 3. Inspect output
- 4. Revise annotations





Software analysis concepts

Trade-offs

Trade-offs

We have already seen that there is a trade-off between <u>soundness</u> and <u>completeness</u>.

There is also a trade-off between <u>soundness</u>, <u>expressiveness</u>, and automation:

- · many software analysis problems are undecidable
- a usable analyzer can only implement tractable algorithms

Soundness, expressiveness, and automation: something has to give

Trade-offs in practice

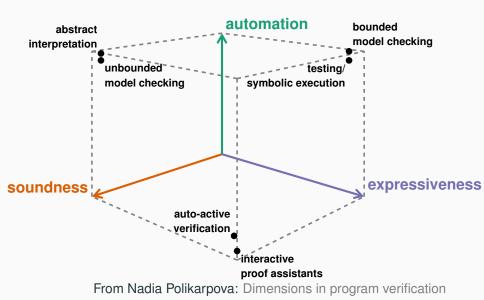
tractable problems: restrict the analysis to systems *S* and properties *P* that can be analyzed exhaustively – losing expressiveness

under-approximation: analyze a (typically finite) subset of all possible behaviors of system S – losing soundness

over-approximation: analyze an abstract superset of all possible behaviors of system *S*

- manual abstraction: precise losing automation
- automated abstraction: imprecise and working only with fixed properties P – losing expressiveness

Dimensions in program verification



A simple imperative language

The Helium language

We will use a series of simple imperative languages to write the programs we will analyze.

The smallest language is called Helium and does not have any modular constructs (procedures or functions).

He ::= Statement*

Statement ::= Declaration | Active

Declaration ::= VariableDeclaration

Active ::= Skip | Assignment | Conditional | Loop

Helium: declarations and expressions

Helium variables only use scalar types: integers, booleans, and generic types (whose values can be copied and compared for equality).

Integers have <u>infinite precision</u> (also called: mathematical integers), and hence overflows cannot happen.

```
Variable Declaration ::= var v_1, \dots, v_n : Type
Type ::= Integer \mid Boolean \mid TypeId
Expression ::= (Expression) \mid v \in Variables
\mid Boolean Expression \mid Arithmetic Expression
Boolean Expression ::= true \mid false \mid Relational Expression
\mid Expression \wedge Expression \mid \cdots
Relational Expression ::= Expression \leq Expression \mid \cdots
Arithmetic Expression ::= -1 \mid 0 \mid 1 \mid \cdots \mid Expression + Expression \mid \cdots
```

Helium: active statements

The only unusual feature of active statements is that assignments can involve multiple variables in parallel.

```
Skip ::= skip
Assignment ::= v_1, \dots, v_n := Expression_1, \dots, Expression_n
Conditional ::= if Expression Statement^+ [else Statement^+]
Loop ::= while Expression Statement^+
```

Maximum of two integers

Helium programs leave input and output implicit.

```
var x, y, max: Integer
// inputs: x, y
if x > y
  max := x
else
  max := y
// output: max
```

Integer power

Helium uses indentation to group statements.

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Alternatively, we can group multiple statements with braces and separate them with semicolons:

```
while (n > 0) { pow := pow * x; n := n - 1 }
```

To present the semantics of Helium in a familiar way we sketch a translation \mathcal{T} of Helium programs into Java.

```
\mathcal{T}(\text{var } v_1, \ldots, v_n : T) = \mathcal{T}(T) v_1, \ldots, v_n;
                 \mathcal{T}(Boolean) = boolean
                 \mathcal{T}(Integer) = BigInteger
                   \mathcal{T}(\mathsf{TypeId}) = \mathsf{TypeIdClass} which implements equality
                 \mathcal{T}(E_1 + E_2) = \mathcal{T}(E_1) \cdot \operatorname{add}(\mathcal{T}(E_2)) and similar for -, *, *, mod
                 \mathcal{T}(E_1 \wedge E_2) = \mathcal{T}(E_1) \&\& \mathcal{T}(E_2) and similar for \lor, \Longrightarrow, \ldots
                 \mathcal{T}(E_1 \leq E_2) = \mathcal{T}(E_1).\mathsf{compareTo}(\mathcal{T}(E_2)) \iff 0
                                            and similar for <, =, . . .
class TypeIdClass {
```

```
public TypeIdClass() { }
int compareTo(TypeIdClass other) { return (this == other) ? 0 : 1; }
```

A block of Helium statements is translated into a sequential block of Java statements:

$$\mathcal{T}\Big(S_1 \ S_2\Big) \ = \mathcal{T}(S_1); \mathcal{T}(S_2)$$

$$\mathcal{T}\Big(\mathbf{skip}\Big) \; = \; ;$$

$$\mathcal{T}\Big(\mathsf{v}_1\,,\,\ldots\,,\,\,\mathsf{v}_n\!:= E_1\,,\,\ldots\,,E_n\Big) \; = \; \{T_1\;t_1\; = \; \mathsf{t}_1\,.\mathsf{clone}(\,)\,;\,\ldots\,$$

$$T_m\;t_m\; = \; \mathsf{t}_m\,.\mathsf{clone}(\,)\,;$$

$$\mathsf{v}_1 = \mathcal{T}(E_1)[\mathsf{t}_1 \mapsto t_1,\,\ldots\,,\mathsf{t}_m \mapsto t_m]\,;$$

$$\ldots$$

$$\mathsf{v}_n = \mathcal{T}(E_n)[\mathsf{t}_1 \mapsto t_1,\,\ldots\,,\mathsf{t}_m \mapsto t_m]\,;\; \}$$

where $\{t_1, \ldots, t_m\} = \mathcal{V}(E_1, \ldots, E_n)$ are all variables appearing in any E_1, \ldots, E_m (of types T_1, \ldots, T_m) whose values are copied into fresh local variables t_1, \ldots, t_m before being used, so as to correctly express the semantics of parallel assignment.

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$$\ldots$$

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```
BigInteger x, y;
var x, y: Integer
x, y := y, x // swap x and y

BigInteger x, y;
{ BigInteger _x = x.clone();
BigInteger _y = y.clone();
x = _y; // BigInteger is immutable
y = _x; }
```

$$\mathcal{T}\Big(\text{if } C \ T \ \text{else} \ E\Big) \ = \text{if} \ (\mathcal{T}(C)) \ \{\mathcal{T}(T)\} \ \text{else} \ \{\mathcal{T}(E)\}$$

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Helium: semantics in Java

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$$\mathcal{T}ig(\mathsf{while} \ C \ B ig) \ = \mathsf{while} \ (\mathcal{T}(C)) \ \{\mathcal{T}(B)\}$$

```
var x, y, power, n: Integer
n, power := y, 1

while n > 0

pow := pow * x

n := n - 1

while (n.compareTo(new BigInteger("0")) > 0)

pow = pow.multiply(x);

n = n.subtract(new BigInteger("1"));
}
```

A simple imperative language

Operational semantics

Using Java to define semantics is:

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Pros (Yay! **★**):

easy to <u>understand</u>

Cons (Nay! ♥):

- unsuitable for <u>mathematical</u> analysis
- not <u>abstract</u>: using a more complex language (Java) to describe a much simpler one (Helium)

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A better alternative is an operational semantics.

An operational semantics defines the behavior of programs in terms of how executing each statement modifies an abstract program state.

An operational semantics consists of reduction (or evaluation) rules that define transitions between states.

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The program state (sometimes called store, stack, or environment)

s: Variables → Values

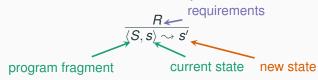
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assigns a value (of suitable type) to every program variable.

Transitions between states are defined by reduction rules:

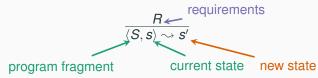


An operational semantics consists of reduction (or evaluation) rules that define transitions between states.

The program state (sometimes called store, stack, or environment)

assigns a value (of suitable type) to every program variable.

Transitions between states are defined by reduction rules:



When R holds, executing S in state s leads to state s'.

Blocks of statements lead to a sequence of transitions:

$$\frac{\langle \textit{S}_{1}, \textit{s} \rangle \leadsto \textit{s}' \quad \langle \textit{S}_{2}, \textit{s}' \rangle \leadsto \textit{s}''}{\langle \textit{S}_{1} \; ; \; \textit{S}_{2}, \textit{s} \rangle \leadsto \textit{s}''}$$

Declaring variables extends the state with the declared variables mapping to undefined values? Redeclaring a previously declared variable is undefined.

$$\frac{\forall 1 \leq k \leq n \bullet \mathsf{v}_k \not\in \mathit{domain}(s)}{\langle \mathsf{var} \ \mathsf{v}_1, \dots, \ \mathsf{v}_n \colon \mathsf{T}, s \rangle \leadsto s \cup \bigcup_{k=1,\dots,n} \{\mathsf{v}_k \to ?\}}$$

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Evaluating an expression does not change the state but depends on the state:

$$\llbracket E
rbracket_s$$

denotes the value of expression E in state s. We omit the evaluation rules for expressions, which should be straightforward.

Executing **skip** does **not change** the program state:

$$\overline{\langle \mathtt{skip}, \mathcal{S}
angle \leadsto \mathcal{S}}$$

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Parallel assignment is only defined if the assigned variables are all different:

$$\frac{\mathsf{v}_1,\ldots,\mathsf{v}_n \text{ all different } \llbracket E_1 \rrbracket_s = e_1 \cdots \llbracket E_n \rrbracket_s = e_n}{\langle \mathsf{v}_1,\ldots,\mathsf{v}_n := E_1,\ldots,E_n, s \rangle \leadsto s[\mathsf{v}_1 \mapsto e_1,\ldots,\mathsf{v}_n \mapsto e_n]}$$

Conditional statements have two rules according to whether the condition is true or false:

The case of no else branch is just a shorthand for an empty else branch:

$$\frac{\langle \text{if } C \ T \ \text{else skip}, s \rangle \leadsto s'}{\langle \text{if } C \ T, s \rangle \leadsto s'}$$

Loop statements have two rules according to whether the exit condition is true or false:

$$\frac{[\![C]\!]_s = \top \quad \langle B, s \rangle \leadsto s' \quad \langle \text{while } C \ B, s' \rangle \leadsto s''}{\langle \text{while } C \ B, s \rangle \leadsto s''} \quad \frac{[\![C]\!]_s = \bot}{\langle \text{while } C \ B, s \rangle \leadsto s}$$

Operational semantics: big-step vs. small-step

The style of operational semantics we have used is called big-step (also: natural semantics) because it defines the overall semantics (how the state changes) of each programming construct.

Operational semantics: big-step vs. small-step

The style of operational semantics we have used is called big-step (also: natural semantics) because it defines the overall semantics (how the state changes) of each programming construct.

A different style is called small-step because it defines the individual rewriting steps which, combined, lead to the overall semantics.

Examples of small-step semantics rules:

RECURSIVE CASES	BASE CASES
$\underbrace{\hspace{1cm} \langle \mathcal{S}_1,s\rangle \longrightarrow \langle \mathcal{S}'_1,s'\rangle}_{}$	$\langle S_1,s \rangle \longrightarrow s'$
$\langle S_1 S_2, s \rangle \longrightarrow \langle S_1' S_2, s' \rangle$	$\langle S_1 \ S_2, s \rangle \longrightarrow \langle S_2, s' \rangle$
$\frac{\langle E, s \rangle \longrightarrow \langle E', s \rangle}{}$	$\langle x,s\rangle \longrightarrow x$
$\langle v := E, s \rangle \longrightarrow \langle v := E', s \rangle$	$\langle v := X, S \rangle \longrightarrow S[V \mapsto X]$
$\frac{\langle C, s \rangle \longrightarrow \langle C', s \rangle}{\langle C, s \rangle}$	/1.5 T T - T - /T - /
$\langle \mathtt{if}\ C\ T\ \mathtt{else}\ E,s \rangle \longrightarrow \langle \mathtt{if}\ C'\ T\ \mathtt{else}\ E,s \rangle$	$\langle \mathtt{if} \; \top \; T \; \mathtt{else} \; E, s angle \longrightarrow \langle T, s angle$

Summary

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Since in software analysis we are mainly interested in sound analyses, we have to give up some completeness whenever we deal with undecidable problems.

Expressiveness and automation are two other important dimensions to characterize the capabilities of a software analyzer.

As a first step towards doing formal software analysis we have defined a simple imperative language (Helium) and its formal operational semantics.

References

This class's title is after Fetzer's paper Program verification: the very idea, Communications of the ACM, 1988.

The term auto-active was coined by Leino and Moskal in Usable auto-active verification, 2010.

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