Tutorial on Frama-C WP
Sylvain.Boulme@univ-grenoble-alpes.fr
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Frama-C is a static analysis tool for C language developed by Validation-and-verification team of CEA-List and Toccata team of INRIA-Saclay & Université Paris-Sud. It allows to verify that the source code complies with a provided formal functional specification. These specifications are written in a dedicated language, ACSL. The specifications can be partial, concentrating on one aspect of the analyzed program at a time.

Frama-C features several plugins, one of which – called Value – performs static analysis by abstract interpretation using intervals and partitioning. In this tutorial, we focus mainly on WP plugin, that implements a weakest liberal precondition calculus for ACSL annotations through C programs. For each code annotation, this technique generates a bundle of “WP goals” (also called “Verifying Conditions” or “Proof Obligations”). These goals express that the annotations are satisfied by the code as mathematical first-order logic formula that can be verified by a SMT-solver like Alt-Ergo (other provers are also supported through the Why platform).

We will also use RTE plugin, that inserts annotations in the C sources, in order to ensure absence of runtime errors (e.g. undefined behaviors like invalid memory accesses or arithmetic overflows). Hence, typically WP will check assertions generated by RTE thanks to goals discharged by Alt-Ergo.

1 A brief introduction to ACSL, WP and RTE

On the contrary to VALUE that performs a symbolic execution from a main function (which is thus mandatory for this plugin), WP performs a modular check of the code (main function is thus not mandatory) : each function is checked independently of its clients, and inside each function body, each loop is itself verified as a kind of independent local function. Modularity makes verification much easier, but contradicts a bit the claim that “specifications can be partial”. Indeed, WP considers that all functions and loops have their own specifications which must be satisfied independently of the remaining code. When these specifications are not given explicitly in ACSL annotations of the source, WP uses an implicit specification meaning that “anything can happen”. Thus – in practice – in order to check a particular property (e.g. absence of runtime errors) on a function g that invokes an other function f, the user has to provide an independent specification of f that will allow to prove the particular property on g. As a consequence, mastering ACSL annotations is mandatory to use WP plugin (on the contrary to VALUE plugin).

ACSL annotations are given directly in C source as comments starting with symbol @. These annotations often start with a keyword like requires or ensures followed by a logical predicate on the memory locations (i.e. program variables and the implicit heap). The syntax of such predicates is inspired from “Boolean expressions” of C. However, all these expressions must be pure (i.e. without side-effects).

1.1 Verifying functions with ACSL and WP

In ACSL, a function specification describes how the memory is transformed by any call to this function. If all goals associated to the function implementation have been proved, then each function call satisfies the specification (otherwise there is a bug somewhere in the environment : Frama-C, Alt-Ergo, the C compiler, the OS or the computer). Let us detail this idea on the following specification of div function that computes the euclidean division of x by y, and stores the quotient in *q and the remainder in *r.
Such a specification can be interpreted as a pair of \textit{precondition/postcondition}. Keyword \texttt{requires} introduces the precondition: a condition on the memory state at the initial state of the call. The postcondition – the condition on the final state – is given by keywords \texttt{assigns} (which is followed by a set of memory locations) and \texttt{ensures}. This specification expresses that each call to \texttt{div} satisfies the following property

*Given the respective actual values $x_a$, $y_a$, $q_a$, $r_a$ of variables $x$, $y$, $q$, $r$ at runtime,*

- if \texttt{div} terminates without running into an undefined behavior (e.g. an invalid memory access) or an integer overflow,
- and, if $0 \leq x_a$ and $0 < y_a$ (clause requires)

\textit{then, after the call},

\texttt{assigns} the value of any memory location distinct of $q_a$ and $r_a$ pointers is unchanged w.r.t to its value before the call;

\texttt{ensures} the respective values $q_v$ and $r_v$ at locations $q_a$ and $r_a$ satisfy

$$x_a = q_v \times y_a + r_v \land 0 \leq r_v < y_v$$

Note that locations $q_a$ and $r_a$ may have been assigned by the call, but they also may not. All we know on the values stored at $q_a$ and $r_a$ is expressed by clause \texttt{ensures}. Actually, \texttt{assigns} clause expresses a postcondition (on the global memory state) about memory locations that may be unknown at this point of the source code. For instance, let us consider the following code (inside an other function):

```c
int a = 10, q, r;
div(2*a, a-7, &q, &r);
```

If \texttt{div} is \textit{safely} terminates (i.e. without running into an undefined behavior or an integer overflow), we know that, since $2 \times 10 = 20 \geq 0$ and $10 - 7 = 3 > 0$, the values of variables after the call satisfy:

- $a == 10$ (it is unchanged);
- $20 == q \times 3 + r$ and $0 \leq r < 3$. In other words, $q == 6$ and $r == 2$.

Let us now consider this weird alternative code:

```c
int a = 10;
div(2*a, a-7, &a, &a);
```

Here, the value of $a$ after the call satisfies $20 == a \times 3 + a$ with $0 \leq a < 3$. This is unsatisfiable (because the equality implies $a == 5$). Hence, there is \textit{no safely terminating} implementation of \texttt{div} that satisfies the above specification!

This last example illustrates that aliasing of memory locations (here between parameter $q$ and $r$) makes reasoning on programs tricky! Fixing by yourself this specification (for a provided safely terminating implementation) is one of your goal during this tutorial. Let us thus consider a simpler example that illustrates other important concepts of ACSL:

```c
/*@ assigns *x;
    @ ensures \result == \old(*x) && *x == \result+1; */
int incr(int* x) {
    return (*x)++;
}
```
Here, absence of requires means that precondition is trivially true. In ensures clause, result is a special variable representing any result returned by the function (through return keyword of C). And, an expression like \old(e) evaluates e in the initial state of the call. Hence, \old is a way to express a relation between the initial state and the final state in ensures clause. In other words, if *x is initially an integer n then incr(x) returns n and *x is finally n + 1.

WP plugin checks that the provided implementation of incr satisfies the specification. Let us consider the following main function :

```c
#define MAXINT 2147483647

int main() {
    int x = MAXINT;
    int r = incr(&x);
    /*@ assert x > r; */
    if (x <= r) return 1/(r+1-x);
    return x;
}
```

The assert clause expresses a condition that must be satisfied at this control point (in any safely terminating execution). Below, we run WP with the following command on the whole program (containing incr & main) :

```bash
frama-c -wp incr0.c
```

we get the following answer :

```
[wp] 4 goals scheduled
[wp] Proved goals: 4 / 4
Qed: 4 (4ms)
```

This means that WP has generated 4 goals to check assertions of this program which have all been proved by Qed solver (an intern solver of WP dedicated to trivial goals). However, at runtime, we observe that a division-by-zero happens at line 7! Actually, assertion at line 6 is also not satisfied. This is because incr runs into an overflow of a signed integer. We are not in a safely terminating execution : it “terminates” but not “safely”.

The purpose of RTE is precisely to avoid such issues. RTE generates assert annotations inside the source ensuring that any terminating execution is safe. Typically, we make WP works with RTE using -wp-rte option.

```bash
frama-c-gui -wp -wp-rte incr0.c &
```

In this case, this ensures that for proved programs and for all terminating executions, all assertions are satisfied! Command frama-c-gui opens a window where we can inspect RTE annotations and status of ACSL annotations (“proved” in case of green bullet, “unproved” in case of orange bullet, “proved with assuming unproved goals” in case of bi-color bullet). A frame on the left of the window allows to navigate inside the sources. If we click on “incr” function, we get the transformed ACSL/C code on which WP has computed goals :
Let us remark Frama-C has “simplified” the C code in order to remove the side-effects from the return instruction. It has also inserted RTE annotations checking that memory accesses (read with valid_read or read+write with valid) to pointer x are valid and that addition of operation ++ does not overflow. Assertions at lines 7, 9, 10 are in orange : they are unproved. Assertion at line 11 is bi-color because it is a consequence of assertion at line 7.

In order to have a “incr” function that satisfies its specification together with the RTE assertions, we restrict the specification as follows:

```c
/*@ requires \valid(x) && \valid_read(x); */
/*@ requires \valid(x) \&\& \valid_read(x); */
```

Now, WP (with RTE) proves this, but in the main function, line 5 has now an orange bullet, because the precondition of incr is unproved. This is expected, because this precondition is not satisfied (and the whole execution is unsafe).

At last, let us consider an alternative main function, relying on an external any function:

```c
/* returns an integer from standard input */
extern int any();

int main() {
    int x = any();
    int r;
    if (x == MAXINT) return -1;
    r = incr(&x);
    /*@ assert x > r; */
    if (x <= r) {
        /*@ assert 0==1; */
        return 1/(r+1-x);
    }
    return x;
}
```

Here, running frama-c -wp -wp-rte incr1.c outputs:

```
[wp] 14 goals scheduled
[wp] Proved goals: 14 / 14
    Qed: 12 (4ms-8ms)
    Alt-Ergo: 2 (16ms-20ms) (12)
```

In particular, unsatisfiable assertion at line 11 is proved because it is on a unreachable control point (i.e. in dead code).

**Summary of function verification by WP.** The specification of a given function f in ACSL defines some precondition P (clause requires) and some postcondition Q (clauses assigns & ensures) on the memory state. When using WP together with RTE, the meaning of such a specification is “if the initial state satisfies P and if the function terminates then Q is satisfied on the final state and the function has no runtime errors.” After running RTE to insert runtime error annotations, WP performs the following computations:
**postcondition propagation** for each call to \( f \), propagate the instance of \( Q \) on the final state of the call as an assumption for checking the code following this call;

**postcondition checking** propagate \( P \) as an assumption for checking the body of \( f \); check assertions in the body of \( f \) (under propagated assumptions); check that any final state of \( f \) satisfies \( Q \) (under propagated assumptions);

**precondition checking** for each call to \( f \), check that the initial state at the call satisfies \( P \) (under propagated assumptions).

Let us remark that postcondition propagations and precondition checks also apply to recursive calls (even in mutually recursive functions). We illustrate this point in the next section.

### 1.2 Specifying loops for WP with ACSL

Verification of loops with WP is very similar to verification of (recursive) functions. Actually, any loop

\[
\text{while } (E) \{ S \}
\]

is verified like if the following local function (accessing to all variables inside \( E \) and \( S \)) were defined

```c
void while_simu () {
    if (E) {
        S
        while_simu();
    }
}
```

and like if the loop itself were replaced by the call

```
while_simu();
```

Hence, the user is assumed to provide a specification of the loop like

```c
/*@ loop invariant I; @ loop assigns A; */
while (E) { S }
```

which can be understood using the code transformation below (in this explanation, \( E \) is assumed to be without side-effects for keeping things simple) :

```c
/*@ requires I @ assigns A; @ ensures I && !E; */
void while_simu() {
    if (E) {
        S
        while_simu();
    }
}
```

In other words, invariant \( I \) is a predicate on memory states and computations made by WP with this predicate are the following :

**final invariant propagation** the code following the loop is checked for any final state satisfying \( I \) and leading \( E \) to be false (propagation of \( \text{while_simu} \) postcondition after the initial call);

**invariant preservation** for any “intermediate” state satisfying \( I \) and leading \( E \) to be true, then

- check assertions of \( S \);
- check \( I \) after execution of \( S \) (instance of \( \text{while_simu} \) precondition in the recursive call);
- check that any location not in \( A \) is unchanged after execution of \( S \) (partial verification of \( \text{while_simu} \) postcondition);
**Invariant Initialization** check \( I \) is in the initial state of the loop (instance of `while_simu` precondition at the initial call).

Here, let us remark that the above verifications suffices to establish the postcondition of `while_simu` for both branches of the `if`. When \( E \) is false, this is immediate from the precondition. When \( E \) is true, it trivially derives from the postcondition propagation of the inner recursive call. This illustrates that WP verifications on a recursive function correspond to an inductive proof.

For example, WP (with RTE) succeeds to prove all goals for the code below. In particular, the invariant is sufficient to prove the final assertion.

```c
int x = any();
if (x >= 20) { x=0; }
/*@ loop invariant x <= 20;
@ loop assigns x;
while (x <= 19) {
    x++;
}
/*@ assert x==20; */
```

Of course, on such a simple code, VALUE is able to prove the assertion without any loop invariant annotations and we can instruct WP to accept this proof from VALUE (such a proof from VALUE is however relative to a main function as discussed in introduction).

Let us remark that `\old` is syntactically forbidden inside loop invariants. Actually, ACSL introduces a more general construct “`\at(e,L)`” where \( L \) is a C label or a predefined label of ACSL like `Pre` (a label corresponding to the initial state of the surrounding function). Hence, in `ensures` clause, `\old(e)` is only a macro for `\at(e,Pre)`. At this point, we reach the limit of the “`while_simu`” explanation, since “`\at(e,Pre)`” is authorized in clause `loop invariant` and it would not have the same meaning in `ensures` clause of `while_simu` function. This construct allows the following simple proof for WP (with RTE)

```c
/*@ assigns \nothing;
@ ensures \result >= x; */
int max20 (int x) {
   /*@ loop invariant \at(x,Pre) <= x;
    @ loop assigns x;
    while (x <= 19) {
        x++;
    }
    return x;
}
```

Here, note that this function does actually no observable assignment, because assignments on parameter \( x \) are not observable after the call (C semantics of parameter passing).

At last, ACSL provides a “`variant V`” annotation on loops to ensure their termination (under the hypothesis that all function calls inside loop bodies themselves terminate). Such a \( V \) must be a pure integer expression that strictly decreases at each iteration but remains non-negative. For example, in above `max20` function, the termination of the loop is ensured by setting variant \( V \) to “19-x”. Then, WP checks a code

```c
/*@ loop invariant I;
    @ loop assigns A;
    @ loop variant V;
while (E) { S }
```

by inserting an assertion like the one below (using a fresh label \( L \)):
/*@ loop invariant I; @ loop assigns A; */
while (E) {
  L: S;
 /*@ assert 0 <= V < \at(V, L); */
}

Hence, if execution enters in the loop, then the value of \at(V, L) at the first iteration bounds the total number of iterations. Let us remark that if E is initially false (there is no iteration), V may be negative.

1.3 Links to get more details

Weakest-precondition calculus has been invented by Dijkstra in the sixties (it is worth reading its seminal paper “Guarded commands, nondeterminacy and formal derivation of programs” of 1975). Actually, the WP plugin implements a \textit{weakest-liberal-precondition} calculus that does not ensure termination of programs, on the contrary to the original calculus of Dijkstra (but C is a much more complex programming language than the one originally addressed by Dijkstra). A naive algorithm computing weakest-preconditions is given in

\texttt{http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Predicate_transformer_semantics}

Frama-C’s official webpage is:

\texttt{http://frama-c.com/index.html}

Some help about ACSL can be found on the official tutorial

\texttt{http://frama-c.com/acsl_tutorial_index.html}

or in WP’s official user manual:


The ACSL specification language is very rich; you may see its definition at

\texttt{http://frama-c.com/download/acsl.pdf}

2 Try it yourself!

The remaining of this tutorial consists in trying to prove some provided examples with Frama-C. This tutorial has been designed to fit in 3 hours (in presence of teachers). The exercises are provable by using only Alt-Ergo (and Qed prover).

This tutorial has been tested with the “Chlorine-20180502” version of Frama-C.\footnote{And also the previous versions “Aluminium-20160501” & “Sulfur-20171101”.

1} If you want to install \texttt{frama-c} on your PC, we advise the opam installation. First, install opam from instructions of \texttt{http://opam.ocaml.org/doc/Install.html}. Then, run:

\begin{verbatim}
opam install depext
opam depext frama-c
opam install frama-c
\end{verbatim}
2.1 How to use the archive provided by teachers

In the archive, the TP directory contains:
— A set of .c files.
— A Makefile.

For each file, prove with FRAMA-C that the program has no RTE, and that all the assertions are true (some indications are given as "TODO" comments inside the files). You’ll have to find the necessary loop invariants.

Before to analyze the files with FRAMA-C, compile them with -Wall, in order to be at least confident in their syntax (just type make all). You can run each of them, and observe the value returned by the main function of any program "mult" using the command line:

./mult; echo $?

Then, to work on file mult.c in FRAMA-C, run the following command where option -wp-split indicates to split WP goals as much as possible which makes debugging easier (and proving more successful):

frama-c-gui -wp -wp-rte -wp-split mult.c &

You may also wish to start without the checks for unsafe executions (-wp-rte) and insert it again later.

2.2 Working with FRAMA-C’s GUI

FRAMA-C’s GUI do not embed a text editor. In order to modify a file:
1. modify and save the file with your favorite editor;
2. in order to retry a single annotation: first, load your modification with menu “File/Reparse”; then, run the prover on the annotation using a right click on the line of the annotation;
3. in order to retry the proof of all annotations, it is simpler to remain on the command-line:

frama-c -wp -wp-rte -wp-split myfile.c

Re-run the GUI only if there is some proof obligations that remains unproved:

frama-c-gui -wp -wp-rte -wp-split myfile.c &

2.3 Understanding colors of FRAMA-C’s GUI

— blue: waiting for the proof;
— green: proved;
— orange: the proof attempt has failed;
— green/orange: proved by assuming an other orange goal.

2.4 View goals given to the SMT-Solver

1. click on menu “WP Goals”;
2. clicking on a goal highlights the sequence of statements involved in the assertion (on -wp-split option); conversely, clicking on an ACSL annotation makes appear the list of goals associated to this annotation (and their status for the provers);
3. double-clicking with left-button on the goal prints its contents for SMT-solvers;
4. exit the preceding window by clicking on “list of goals” button (a button with a finger over a text sheet).

2. except any.c, which is an auxiliary file defining a function returning an integer read on standard input
2.5 Order of the exercises

Prove the files in the following order. Be aware that solving the two last ones (the more interesting ones) takes at least between 1h30 and 2h.

— mult.c: a full simple example to start playing with the GUI. There are some annotations that may look useless. Try to eliminate them in order to understand their purpose.
— arith1.c: your first simple invariant.
— div0.c: invariants + precondition + postcondition + function calls.
— div1.c: close to div0.c but with an introduction to pointers and aliases.
— linear_search.c: linear search in an array.
— min_sort.c: selection sort with a bit of pointer manipulation on array cells (swap)