

Predicate Abstraction and Canonical Abstraction for Singly-Linked Lists

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Abstract. Predicate abstraction and canonical abstraction are two finitary abstractions used to prove properties of programs. We study the relationship between these two abstractions by considering a very limited case: abstraction of (potentially cyclic) singly-linked lists.

We provide a new and rather precise family of abstractions for potentially cyclic singly-linked lists. The main observation behind this family of abstractions is that the number of shared nodes in linked lists can be statically bounded. Therefore, the number of possible “heap shapes” is also bounded. We present the new abstraction in both predicate abstraction form as well as in canonical abstraction form.

As we illustrate in the paper, given any canonical abstraction, it is possible to define a predicate abstraction that is equivalent to the canonical abstraction. However, with this straightforward simulation, the number of predicates used for the predicate abstraction is exponential in the number of predicates used by the canonical abstraction.

An important feature of the family of abstractions we present in this paper is that the predicate abstraction representation we define is far more practical as it uses a number of predicates that is quadratic in the number of predicates used by the corresponding canonical abstraction representation. In particular, for the most abstract abstraction in this family, the number of predicates used by the canonical abstraction is linear in the number of program variables, while the number of predicates used by the predicate abstraction is quadratic in the number of program variables.

We have encoded this particular predicate abstraction and corresponding transformers in TVLA, and used this implementation to successfully verify safety properties of several list manipulating programs, including programs that were not previously verified using predicate abstraction or canonical abstraction.

1 Introduction

Abstraction and abstract interpretation [7] are essential techniques for automatically proving properties of programs. The main challenge in abstract interpretation is to develop abstractions that are precise enough to prove the required property and efficient enough to be applicable to realistic applications.

Predicate abstraction [11] abstracts the program into a Boolean program which conservatively simulates all potential executions. Every safety property which holds for the Boolean program is guaranteed to hold for the original program. Furthermore, abstraction refinement [6, 2] can be used to refine the abstraction when the analysis produces a “false alarm”. When the process terminates, it yields a concrete error trace in which the property is violated, or successfully verifies the property. In principle, the whole process can be fully mechanized given a sufficiently powerful theorem prover. This process was successfully used in SLAM [19] and BLAST [12] to prove safety properties of device drivers.

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Canonical abstraction [23] is a finitary abstraction that was specially developed to model properties of unbounded memory locations (inspired by [16]). This abstraction has been implemented in TVLA [17], and successfully used to prove various properties of heap-manipulating programs (e.g., [21, 25, 24]).

1.1 Main Results

In this paper, we study the utility of predicate abstraction to prove properties of programs operating on singly-linked lists. We also compare the expressive power of predicate abstraction and canonical abstraction.

The results in this paper can be summarized as follows:

- We show that current state-of-the-art iterative refinement techniques fail to prove interesting properties of singly-linked lists such as pointer equalities and absence of null dereferences in a fully automatic manner. This means that on many simple programs the process of refinement will diverge when the program is correct. This result is inline with the experience of Blanchet et al. [4].
- We show that predicate abstraction can simulate arbitrary finitary abstractions and, in particular, canonical abstraction. This trivial result is not immediately useful because of the number of predicates used. The number of predicates required to simulate canonical abstraction is, in the worst case, exponential in the number of predicates used by the canonical abstraction (usually, this means exponential in the number of program variables).
- We develop a new family of abstractions for heaps containing (potentially cyclic) singly-linked lists. The main idea is to summarize list elements on unshared list segments not pointed-to by local variables. For programs manipulating singly-linked lists, this abstraction is finitary since the number of shared list elements reachable from program variables is bounded. Abstractions in this family vary in their level of precision, which is controlled by the level of sharing-relationships recorded.
- We show that the abstraction recording only one-level sharing relationships (i.e., the least precise member of the family that records sharing) is sufficient for successfully verifying all our example programs, including programs that were not verified earlier using predicate abstraction or canonical abstraction.
- We show how to code the one-level-sharing abstraction using both canonical abstraction (with a linear number of unary predicates) and predicate abstraction (with a quadratic number of nullary predicates).

1.2 Motivating Examples

```
    //head points to the first element of an acyclic list
    //tail points to the last element of the same list
1   curr = head;
2   while (curr != tail) {
3       assert (curr != null);
4       curr = curr.n;
5   }
```

Fig. 1. A simple program on which counterexample-guided refinement diverges

Fig. 1 shows a program that traverses a singly-linked list with a head-pointer `head` and a tail-pointer `tail`. This is a trivial program since it only uses an acyclic linked list,

and does not contain destructive pointer updates. When counterexample-guided iterative refinement is applied to this program to assure that the assertion at line 3 is never violated, it will diverge. At the i -th iteration it will generate an assertion of the form $\text{curr}(\cdot.n)^i \neq \text{null}$. However, no finite value of i will suffice. Indeed, the problem of proving the absence of null-dereferences is undecidable even in programs manipulating singly-linked lists and even under the (non-realistic) assumption that all control flow paths are executable [5].

In contrast, the TVLA abstract interpreter [17] proves the absence of null dereferences in this program in 2 seconds, consuming 0.6MB of memory. TVLA uses canonical abstraction which generalizes predicate abstraction by allowing first-order predicates (relation symbols) that can have arguments. Thus, nullary (0-arity) predicates correspond to predicates in the program and in predicate abstractions. Unary predicates (1-arity) are used to denote sets of unbounded locations and binary (2-arity) predicates are used to denote relationships between unbounded locations.

A curious reader may ask herself: *Are there program properties that can be verified with canonical abstractions but not with predicate abstractions?*

It is not hard to see that the answer is negative, since any finitary abstraction can be simulated by a suitable predicate abstraction. For example, consider an abstraction mapping $\alpha : C \rightarrow A$, from a concrete domain C to a finite abstract domain of indexed elements $A = \{1, \dots, n\}$. Define the predicate $\text{BIT}[j]$ to hold for the set of concrete states $\{c \mid \text{the } j\text{th bit of } \alpha(c), \text{ in its binary representation, is } 1\}$. Now, the set of predicates $\{\text{BIT}[j]\}_{j=1}^{\lceil \log n \rceil}$ yields a predicate abstraction that simulates A . This simulation is usually not realistic, since it contains too many predicates. The number of predicates required by predicate abstraction to simulate canonical abstraction can be exponential in the number of predicates used by the canonical abstraction.

Fortunately, the only nullary predicate crucial to prove the absence of null dereferences in this program is the fact that `tail` is reachable from `curr` by a path of `n` selectors (of some length). Similar observations were suggested independently in [15, 3, 14]. In this paper, we define a quadratic set of nullary predicates that captures the invariants in many programs manipulating (potentially cyclic) singly-linked lists.

```

// x points to a cyclic singly-linked list
// low and high are two integer values, low < high
1  t = null;
2  y = x;
3  while (t != x && y.data < low) {
4      t = y.n; y = t;
5  }
6  z = y;
7  while (z != x && z.data < high) {
8      t = z.n; z = t;
9  }
10 t = null;
11 if (y != z) {
12     y.n = null;
13     y.n = z;
14 }

```

Fig. 2. A simple program that removes the segment between low and high from a linked list

Fig. 2 shows a simple program removing a contiguous segment from a cyclic singly-linked list pointed-to by `x`. For this example program, we would like to verify that the

resulting structure pointed-to by x remains a cyclic singly-linked list. Unfortunately, using TVLA’s canonical abstraction with the standard set of predicates turns out to be insufficient. The problem stems from the fact that canonical abstraction with the standard set of predicates loses the ordering between the 3 reference variables that point to that cyclic singly-linked list (this is further explained in the next section).

In this paper, we provide two abstractions — a predicate abstraction, and a canonical abstraction — that are able to correctly determine that the result of this program is indeed a cyclic singly-linked list.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows: Sec. 2 provides background on the basic concrete semantics we are using, canonical abstraction, and predicate abstraction. Sec. 3 presents an instrumented concrete semantics that records list interruptions. Sec. 4 shows a quite precise predicate abstraction for singly-linked lists. Sec. 5 shows a quite precise canonical abstraction of singly-linked lists. In Sec. 6, we show that the predicate abstraction of Sec. 4 and the canonical abstraction of Sec. 5 are equivalent. Sec. 7 describes our experimental results.

Proofs of claims and additional technical details can be found in [18].

2 Background

In this section, we provide basic definitions that we will use throughout the paper. In particular, we define canonical abstraction and predicate abstraction.

2.1 Concrete Program States

We represent the state of a program using a first-order logical structure in which each individual corresponds to a heap-allocated object and predicates of the structure correspond to properties of heap-allocated objects.

Definition 1. A 2-valued logical structure over a vocabulary (set of predicates) \mathcal{P} is a pair $S = \langle U, \iota \rangle$ where U is the universe of the 2-valued structure, and ι is the interpretation function mapping predicates to their truth-value in the structure: for every predicate $p \in \mathcal{P}$ of arity k , $\iota(p) : U^k \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$.

We denote the set of all 2-valued logical structures over a set of predicates \mathcal{P} by $2\text{-STRUCT}_{\mathcal{P}}$. In the sequel, we assume that the vocabulary \mathcal{P} is fixed, and abbreviate $2\text{-STRUCT}_{\mathcal{P}}$ to 2-STRUCT .

Table 1. Predicates used for representing concrete program states

Predicates	Intended Meaning
$eq(v_1, v_2)$	v_1 is equal to v_2
$\{x(v) : x \in PVar\}$	reference variable x points to the object v
$n(v_1, v_2)$	next field of the object v_1 points to the object v_2

Table 1 shows the predicates we use to record properties of individuals. A unary predicate $x(v)$ holds when the object v is pointed-to by the reference variable x . We assume that the set of predicates includes a unary predicate for every reference variable in a program. We use $PVar$ to denote the set of all reference variables in a program. A binary predicate $n(v_1, v_2)$ records the value of the reference field n .

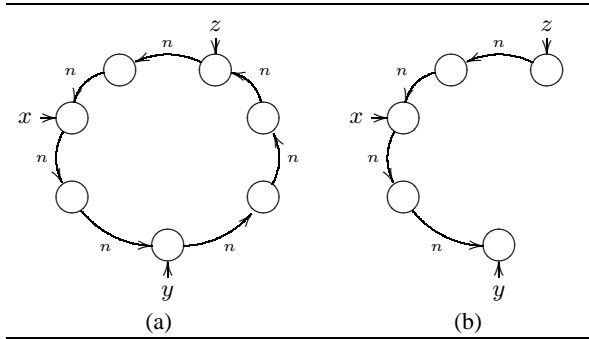


Fig. 3. The effect of the statement $y.n = \text{null}$ in the concrete semantics. (a) a possible state of the program of Fig. 2 at line 12; (b) the result of applying $y.n = \text{null}$ to (a)

Concrete Semantics Program statements are modelled by *actions* that specify how statements transform an incoming logical structure into an outgoing logical structure. This is done primarily by defining the values of the predicates in the outgoing structure using formulae of first-order logic with transitive closure over the incoming structure [23]. The update formulae for heap-manipulating statements are shown in Table 2. For brevity, we omit the treatment of the allocation statement $\text{new } T()$, the interested reader may find the details in [23].

To simplify update formulae, we assume that every assignment to the n field of an object is preceded by first assigning null to it. Therefore, the statement at line 12 of the example program of Fig. 2 assigns null to $y.n$ before the next statement assigns it the new value z .

Statement	Update formulae
$x = \text{null}$	$x'(v) = 0$
$x = t$	$x'(v) = t(v)$
$x = t.n$	$x'(v) = \exists v_1 : t(v_1) \wedge n(v_1, v)$
$x.n = \text{null}$	$n'(v_1, v_2) = n(v_1, v_2) \wedge \neg x(v_1)$
$x.n = t$ (assuming $x.n = \text{null}$)	$n'(v_1, v_2) = n(v_1, v_2) \vee (x(v_1) \wedge t(v_2))$

Table 2. Predicate-update formulae that define the semantics of heap-manipulating statements

Example 1. Applying the action $y.n = \text{null}$ to the concrete structure of Fig. 3(a), results with the concrete structure of Fig. 3(b). Throughout this paper we assume that all heaps are garbage-free, i.e., every element is reachable from some program variable, and that the concrete program semantics reclaims garbage elements immediately after executing program statements. Thus, the two objects between y and z are collected when $y.n$ is set to null, as they become unreachable.

2.2 Canonical Abstraction

The goal of an abstraction is to create a finite representation of a potentially unbounded set of 2-valued structures (representing heaps) of potentially unbounded size. The abstractions we use are based on 3-valued logic [23], which extends boolean logic by introducing a third value $1/2$ denoting values that may be 0 or 1.

We represent an abstract state of a program using a 3-valued first-order structure.

Definition 2. A 3-valued logical structure over a set of predicates \mathcal{P} is a pair $S = \langle U, \iota \rangle$ where U is the universe of the 3-valued structure (an individual in U may represent multiple heap-allocated objects), and ι is the interpretation function mapping predicates to their truth-value in the structure: for every predicate $p \in \mathcal{P}$ of arity k , $\iota(p) : U^k \rightarrow \{0, 1, 1/2\}$.

An abstract state may include summary nodes, i.e., an individual which corresponds to one or more individuals in a concrete state represented by that abstract state. A summary node u has $eq(u, u) = 1/2$, indicating that it may represent more than a single individual.

Embedding We now formally define how states are represented using abstract states. The idea is that each individual from the (concrete) state is mapped into an individual in the abstract state. More generally, it is possible to map individuals from an abstract state into an individual in another, less precise, abstract state.

Formally, let $S = \langle U, \iota \rangle$ and $S' = \langle U', \iota' \rangle$ be abstract states. A function $f : U \rightarrow U'$ such that f is surjective is said to *embed* S into S' if for each predicate p of arity k , and for each $u_1, \dots, u_k \in U$, one of the following holds:

$$\iota(p(u_1, \dots, u_k)) = \iota'(p(f(u_1), \dots, f(u_k))) \quad \text{or} \quad \iota'(p(f(u_1), \dots, f(u_k))) = 1/2$$

We say that S' *represents* S when there exists such an embedding f .

One way of creating an embedding function f is by using *canonical abstraction*. Canonical abstraction maps concrete individuals to an abstract individual based on the values of the individuals' unary predicates. All individuals having the same values for unary predicate symbols are mapped by f to the same abstract individual.

Table 3. Predicates used for the canonical abstraction in Fig. 4, and their meaning

Predicates	Intended Meaning	Defining formulae
$\{x(v) : x \in PVar\}$	reference variable x points to v	
$n(u, v)$	next field of u points to v	
$\{r_x(v) : x \in PVar\}$	v is reachable from x by dereferencing n fields	$\exists v_x. x(v_x) \wedge n^*(v_x, v)$
$c_n(v)$	v resides on a cycle of n fields	$n^+(v, v)$
$is(v)$	v is heap-shared	$\exists v_1, v_2. n(v_1, v) \wedge n(v_2, v) \wedge (v_1 \neq v_2)$

Table 3 presents the set of predicates used in [23] to abstract singly-linked lists. The predicates $r_x(v)$, $c_n(v)$, and $is(v)$, referred to in [23] as *instrumentation predicates*, record derived information and are used to refine the abstraction.

This set of predicates has been used for successfully verifying many programs manipulating singly-linked lists, but is insufficient for verifying that the output of the example program of Fig. 2 is a cyclic singly-linked list pointed-to by x .

Example 2. Fig. 4(b) shows the canonical abstraction of the concrete state of Fig. 4(a), using the predicates of Table 3. The node with double-line boundaries is a *summary node*, possibly representing more than a single concrete node. The dashed edges are 1/2 edges, a dashed edge exists between v_1 and v_2 when $n(v_1, v_2) = 1/2$. The abstract state of Fig. 4(b) records the fact that x, y , and z point to a cyclic list (using the $c_n(v)$ predicate), and that all list elements are reachable from all 3 reference variables (using

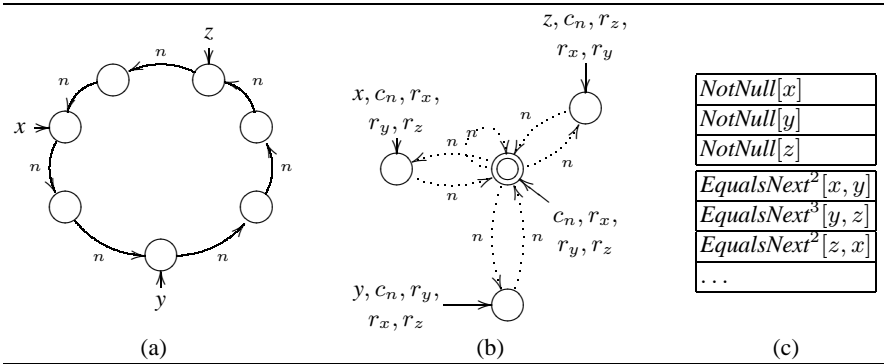


Fig. 4. (a) a concrete possible state of the program of Fig. 2 at line 12, (b) its canonical abstraction in TVLA, (c) its predicate abstraction with the set of predicates in Table 4

the $r_x(v), r_y(v)$, and $r_z(v)$ predicates). This abstract state, however, does not record the order between the reference variables. In particular, it does not record that x does not reside between y and z (the segment that is about to be removed by the program statement at line 12). As a result, applying the abstract effect of $y.n=z$ to this abstract state results with a possible abstract state in which the cyclic list is broken.

2.3 Predicate Abstraction

Predicate abstraction abstracts a concrete state into a truth-assignment for a finite set of propositional (nullary) predicates.

A predicate abstraction is defined by a vocabulary $P^A = \{P_1, \dots, P_m\}$, where each P_i is associated with a defining formula φ_i that can be evaluated over concrete states. An abstract state is a truth assignment to the predicates in P^A . Given an abstract state A , we denote the value of P_i in A by A_i .

A concrete state S over a vocabulary P^C , is mapped to an abstract state A by an abstraction mapping $\beta: 2\text{-STRUCT}[P^C] \rightarrow 2\text{-STRUCT}[P^A]$. The abstraction mapping evaluates the defining formulae of the predicates in P^A over S and sets the appropriate values to the respective predicates in A . Formally, for every $1 \leq i \leq m$, $A_i = \llbracket \varphi_i \rrbracket_2^S$.

Table 4. Predicates used for the predicate abstraction in Fig. 4, and their meaning. Note that the maximal tracked length K is fixed a priori

Predicates	Intended meaning	Defining formulae
$\{NotNull[x] : x \in PVar\}$	x is not null	$\exists v_x.x(v_x)$
$\{EqualsNext^k[x, y] : x, y \in PVar, 0 \leq k \leq K\}$	the node pointed-to by y is reachable by k n fields from the node pointed-to by x	$\exists v_0, \dots, v_k.x(v_0) \wedge y(v_k) \wedge \bigwedge_{0 \leq i < k} n(v_i, v_{i+1})$

Table 4 shows an example set of predicates similar to the ones used in [1, 8].

Example 3. Fig. 4(c) shows the predicate abstraction of the concrete state shown in Fig. 4(a) using the predicates of Table 4. A predicate of the form $NotNull[x]$ records the fact that x is not null. In Fig. 4(c), all three variables x, y , and z are not null. A predicate of the form $EqualsNext^k[x, y]$ records that the node pointed-to by y is reachable by k steps over the n fields from the node pointed-to by x (Note that K , the maximal tracked

length, is fixed a priori). For example, in Fig. 4(c), the list element pointed-to by y is reachable from the list element pointed-to by x in 2 steps over the n field, and therefore $EqualsNext^2[x, y]$ holds.

3 Recording List Interruptions

In this section, we instrument the concrete semantics to record a designated set of nodes, called *interruptions*, in singly-linked lists. The instrumented concrete semantics presented in this section serves as the basis for the predicate abstraction and the canonical abstraction presented in the following sections.

3.1 The Intuition

The intuition behind our instrumented concrete is that a garbage-free heap, containing only singly-linked lists, is characterized by two factors: (i) the “shape” of the heap, i.e., the connectivity relations between a set of designated nodes (interruptions); and (ii) the length of “simple” list segments connecting interruptions, but not containing interruptions themselves. This intuition is similar to proofs of small model properties (e.g., [22]).

Considering this characterization, we observe that the number of shapes that are equivalent, up to lengths of simple list segments, is bounded. We therefore instrument our concrete semantics to record interruptions, which are an essential ingredient of the sharing patterns.

The abstractions presented in the next sections, abstract the lengths of simple list segments into a fixed set of abstract lengths (thereby obtaining a finite representation). These abstractions retain the general shape of the heap but lose any correlations between the actual lengths of different simple list segments. Our experience indicates that the correctness of program properties usually depends on the shape of heap, rather than on the lengths of simple list segments.

In the rest of this section, we formally define the notions of interruptions and simple list segments, and formally define the information recorded by our instrumented concrete semantics.

3.2 Basic Definitions

We say that a list node v is an *interrupting node*, or simply an *interruption*, if it is pointed-to by a program variable or it is heap-shared. Fig. 5 shows a heap with 4 interruptions: (i) the node pointed-to by x , (ii) the node pointed-to by y , (iii) the node pointed-to by $x_{s,1}$ and $y_{s,1}$, and (iv) the node pointed-to by $x_{s,2}$ and $y_{s,2}$.

Definition 3 (Uninterrupted Lists). *We say that there is an uninterrupted list between list node u and list node v , denoted by $UList(u, v)$, when there is a non-empty path between them, such that, every node on the path between them (i.e., not including u and v) is non-interrupting.*

We also say that there is an uninterrupted list between list node v and null, denoted by $UListNULL(v)$, when there is a non-empty path from v to null, such that, every node on the path, except possibly v , is non-interrupting.

Table 5 formulates $UList(u, v)$ and $UListNULL(v)$ as formulae in FO^{TC} .

Given a heap, we are actually interested in a subset of its uninterrupted lists. We say that an uninterrupted list is *maximal* when it is not contained in a longer uninterrupted list.

The heap in Fig. 5 contains 4 maximal uninterrupted lists: (i) from the node pointed-to by x and the node pointed-to by $x_{s,1}$ and $y_{s,1}$, (ii) from the node pointed-to by y and the node pointed-to by $x_{s,1}$ and $y_{s,1}$, (iii) from the node pointed-to by $x_{s,1}$ and $y_{s,1}$ to the node pointed-to by $x_{s,2}$ and $y_{s,2}$, and (iv) from the node pointed-to by $x_{s,2}$ and $y_{s,2}$ to itself.

Table 5. Shorthand notations used throughout this paper

Shorthand	Meaning	Formula
$HeapShared(v)$	v is heap-shared	$\exists a, b. n(a, v) \wedge n(b, v) \wedge (a \neq b)$
$PtByVar(v)$	v is pointed-to by some variable	$\bigvee_{var \in PVar} var(v)$
$Interruption(v)$	v is an interrupting list node	$HeapShared(v) \vee PtByVar(v)$
$UList_1(u, v)$	there is an uninterrupted list of length 1 from u to v	$n(u, v)$
$UList_2(u, v)$	there is an uninterrupted list of length 2 from u to v	$\exists m. \neg Interruption(m) \wedge n(u, m) \wedge n(m, v)$
$UList_{>2}(u, v)$	there is an uninterrupted list of length > 2 from u to v	$\exists m_1, m_2 : n(u, m_1) \wedge n(m_2, v) \wedge (TC\ a, b : n(a, b) \wedge \neg Interruption(a) \wedge \neg Interruption(b))(m_1, m_2)$
$UList(u, v)$	there is an uninterrupted list of some length from u to v	$UList_1(u, v) \vee UList_2(u, v) \vee UList_{>2}(u, v)$
$UListNULL_1(v)$	there is an uninterrupted list of length 1 from v to null	$\forall w. \neg n(v, w)$
$UListNULL_2(v)$	there is an uninterrupted list of length 2 from v to null	$\exists m. n(v, m) \wedge \neg Interruption(m) \wedge UListNULL_1(m)$
$UListNULL_{>2}(v)$	there is an uninterrupted list of length > 2 from v to null	$\exists m_1, m_2 : n(v, m_1) \wedge UListNULL_1(m_2) \wedge (TC\ a, b : n(a, b) \wedge \neg Interruption(a) \wedge \neg Interruption(b))(m_1, m_2)$
$UListNULL(v)$	there is a list of some length from v to null	$UListNULL_1(v) \vee UListNULL_2(v) \vee UListNULL_{>2}(v)$

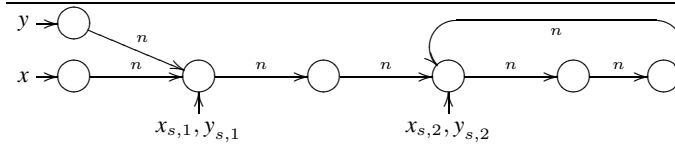


Fig. 5. Two lists sharing the same tail, and their representation in the instrumented concrete semantics

3.3 Statically Naming Heap-Shared Nodes

We now explain how to use a quadratic number of auxiliary variables to statically name all heap-shared nodes. This will allow us to name all maximal uninterrupted lists using nullary predicates for the predicate abstraction, and using unary predicates for the canonical abstraction.

Proposition 1. *A garbage-free heap, consisting of only singly-linked lists with n program variables, contains at most n heap-shared nodes and at most $2n$ interruptions.*

Corollary 1. *In a garbage-free heap, consisting of only singly-linked lists with n program variables, list node v is reachable from list node u if and only if it is reachable by a sequence of $k < n$ uninterrupted lists. Similarly, there is a path from node v to null if and only if there is a path from v to null by a sequence of $k < n$ uninterrupted lists.*

Proof. By Proposition 1, every simple path (from u to v or from v to null) contains at most n interruptions, and, therefore, at most n maximal uninterrupted lists.

For every program variable x , we define a set of auxiliary variables $\{x_{s,k} \mid k = 1 \dots n - 1\}$. Auxiliary variable $x_{s,k}$ points to a heap-shared node u when there exists a simple path consisting of k maximal uninterrupted lists from the node pointed to by x to u , such that all of the interrupting nodes on the path are not pointed-to by program variables (i.e., they are heap-shared). Formally, we define the set of auxiliary variables derived for program variable x by using the following set of formulae in FO^{TC} .

$$\begin{aligned} x_{s,1}(v) &\equiv \exists v_x. x(v_x) \wedge UList(v_x, v) \wedge HeapShared(v) \wedge \neg PtByVar(v), \\ \dots \\ x_{s,k+1}(v) &\equiv \exists v_k. x_{s,k}(v_k) \wedge UList(v_k, v) \wedge HeapShared(v) \wedge \\ &\quad \neg PtByVar(v) \wedge \neg (\bigvee_{m=1 \dots k} x_{s,m}(v)) \ . \end{aligned}$$

We denote the set of auxiliary variables by $AuxVar$ and the set of all (program and auxiliary) variables by $Var = PVar \cup AuxVar$.

Proposition 2. *Every heap-shared node is pointed-to by a variable in Var . Also, $x_{s,k}(v)$ holds for at most one node, for every reference variable x and k .*

3.4 Parameterizing the Concrete Semantics

Let n denote the number of (regular) program variables. Notice that $|AuxVar| = O(n^2)$. In the following sections, we will see that using the full set of auxiliary variables yields a canonical abstraction with a quadratic ($O(n^2)$) number of unary predicates, and a predicate abstraction with a bi-quadratic ($O(n^4)$) number of predicates.

We use a parameter k to define different subsets of Var as follows: $Var_k = PVar \cup \{x_{s,i}(v) \mid x \in PVar, i \leq k\}$. By varying the ‘‘heap-shared depth’’ parameter k , we are able to distinguish between different sets of heap-shared nodes. We discovered that, in practice, heap-shared nodes with depth > 1 rarely exist (they never appear in our examples), and, therefore, restricting k to 1 is usually enough to capture all maximal uninterrupted lists. Using Var_1 as the set of variables to record, we obtain a canonical abstraction with a linear number of unary predicates ($O(n)$) and a predicate abstraction with a quadratic ($O(n^2)$) number of variables.

Fig. 5 shows a heap containing a heap-shared node of depth 2 (pointed by $x_{s,2}$ and $y_{s,2}$). By setting the heap-shared depth parameter k to 1, we are able to record the following facts about this heap: (i) there is a list of length 1 from the node pointed-to by x to a heap-shared node, (ii) there is a list of length 1 from the node pointed-to by y to a heap-shared node, (iii) the heap-shared node mentioned in (i) and (ii) is the same (we

record aliasing between variables), and (iv) there is a partially cyclic list (i.e., a non-cyclic list connected to a cyclic list) from the heap-shared node mentioned in (iii). We know that the list from the first heap-shared node does not reach null (since we record lists from interruptions to null) and it is not a cycle from the first-heap shared node to itself (otherwise there would be no second heap-shared node and the cycle would be recorded). The information lost, due to the fact that $x_{s,2}$ and $y_{s,2}$ are not recorded, is that the list from the first heap-shared node to second has length 2 and the cycle from the second heap-shared node to itself is also of length 2.

The Instrumented Concrete Semantics The instrumented concrete semantics operates by using the update formulae presented in Table 2 and then using the defining formulae of the auxiliary variables to update their values.

4 A Predicate Abstraction for Singly-Linked Lists

We now describe the abstraction used to create a finite (bounded) representation of a potentially unbounded set of 2-valued structures (representing heaps) of potentially unbounded size.

4.1 The Abstraction

We start by defining a vocabulary P^A of nullary predicates, which we use in our abstraction. The predicates are shown in Table 6.

Table 6. Predicates used for the predicate abstraction and their meaning

Predicates	Defining formulae and intended meaning
$\{Aliased[x, y] : x, y \in Var\}$	$\exists v : x(v) \wedge y(v)$ variables x and y point to the same object
$\{UList_1[x, y] : x, y \in Var\}$	$\exists v_x, v_y : x(v_x) \wedge y(v_y) \wedge n(v_x, v_y)$ the n field of the object pointed-to by x and the variable y point to the same object
$\{UList_2[x, y] : x, y \in Var\}$	$\exists v_x, v_y : x(v_x) \wedge y(v_y) \wedge UList_2(v_x, v_y)$ there is an uninterrupted list of length 2 from the object pointed-to by x to the object pointed-to by y
$\{UList[x, y] : x, y \in Var\}$	$\exists v_x, v_y : x(v_x) \wedge y(v_y) \wedge UList(v_x, v_y)$ there is an uninterrupted list of length 1 or more from the object pointed-to by x to the object pointed-to by y
$\{UList_1[x, null] : x \in Var\}$	$\exists v_x : x(v_x) \wedge UListNULL_1(v_x)$ there n field of the object pointed-to by x points to null
$\{UList_2[x, null] : x \in Var\}$	$\exists v_x.x(v_x) \wedge UListNULL_2(v_x)$ there is an uninterrupted list of length 2 from the object pointed-to by x to null
$\{UList[x, null] : x \in Var\}$	$\exists v_x.x(v_x) \wedge UListNULL(v_x)$ there is an uninterrupted list of length 1 or more from the object pointed-to by x to null

Intuitively, the heap is partitioned into a linear number of uninterrupted list segments and each list segment is delimited by some variables. The predicates in Table 6 abstract the path length of list segments into one of the following abstract lengths: 0 (via the *Aliased* $[x, y]$ predicates), 1 (via the *UList* $_1[x, y]$ predicates), 2 (via the *UList* $_2[x, y]$

predicates), or any length ≥ 1 (via the $UList[x, y]$ predicates), and infinity (i.e., there is no uninterrupted path and thus all of the previously mentioned predicates are 0).

The abstraction function $\beta_{PredAbs} : 2\text{-STRUCT}[P^C] \rightarrow 2\text{-STRUCT}[P^A]$ operates as described Sec. 2.3 where P^A is the set of predicates in Table 6.

$Aliased[x, x], Aliased[y, y], Aliased[z, z]$	$Aliased[x, x], Aliased[y, y], Aliased[z, z]$
$UList_2[x, y], UList_2[z, x]$	$UList_1[y, \text{null}]$
$UList[x, y], UList[y, z], UList[z, x]$	$UList_2[x, y], UList_2[z, x]$
$UList[x, y], UList[y, z], UList[z, x]$	$UList[x, y], UList[z, x], UList[y, \text{null}]$
(a)	(b)

Fig. 6. The abstract effect of $y.n = \text{null}$ under predicate abstraction. (a) predicate abstraction of the state of Fig. 3(a); (b) result of applying the abstract transformer of $y.n = \text{null}$ to (a)

Example 4. Fig. 6(a) shows an abstract state abstracting the concrete state of Fig. 3(a). The predicates $Aliased[x, x], Aliased[y, y], Aliased[z, z]$ represent the fact that the reference variables $x, y,$ and z are not null. The predicate $UList_2[x, y]$ represents the fact that there is an uninterrupted list of length exactly 2 from the object pointed-to by x to the object pointed-to by y . This adds on the information recorded by the predicate $UList[x, y]$, which represents the existence of a list of length 1 or more. Similarly, the predicate $UList_2[z, x]$ records the fact that a list of exactly length 2 exists from z to x . Note that the uninterrupted list between y and z is of length 3, a length that is abstracted away and recorded as a uninterrupted list of an arbitrary length by $UList[y, z]$.

4.2 Abstract Semantics

Rabin [20] showed that monadic second-order logic of theories with one function symbol is decidable. This immediately implies that first-order logic with transitive closure of singly-linked lists is decidable, and thus the best transformer can be computed as suggested in [22]. Moreover, Rabin also proved that every satisfiable formula has a small model of limited size, which can be employed by the abstraction. For simplicity and efficiency, we directly define the abstractions and the abstract transformer. The reader is referred to [13] which shows that reasonable extensions of this logic become undecidable. We believe that our techniques can be employed even for undecidable logics but the precision may vary. In particular, the transformer we provide here is the *best transformer* and operates in polynomial time.

Example 5. In order to simplify the definition of the transformer for $y.n = \text{null}$, we split it to 5 different cases (shown in [18]) based on classification of the next list interruption. The abstract state of Fig. 6(a) falls into the case in which the next list interruption is a node pointed-to by some regular variable (z in this case) and not heap-shared (case 3). The update formulae for this case are the following:

$$\begin{aligned}
 UList_1[z_1, z_2]' &= UList_1[z_1, z_2] \wedge \neg Aliased[z_1, y] \\
 UList_1[z_1, \text{null}]' &= UList_1[z_1, \text{null}] \vee Aliased[z_1, y] \\
 UList_2[z_1, z_2]' &= UList_2[z_1, z_2] \wedge \neg Aliased[z_1, y] \\
 UList[z_1, z_2]' &= UList[z_1, z_2] \wedge \neg Aliased[z_1, y] \\
 UList[z_1, \text{null}]' &= UList[z_1, \text{null}] \vee Aliased[z_1, y]
 \end{aligned}$$

Applying this update to the abstract state of Fig. 6(a) yields the abstract state of Fig. 6(b).

In [18], we show that these formulae are produced by manual construction of the best transformer.

5 Canonical Abstraction for Singly-Linked Lists

In this section, we show how canonical abstraction, with an appropriate set of predicates, provides a rather precise abstraction for (potentially cyclic) singly-linked lists.

5.1 The Abstraction

As in Sec. 4, the idea is to partition the heap into a linear number of uninterrupted list segments, where each segment is delimited by a pair of variables (possibly including auxiliary variables). The predicates we use for canonical abstraction are shown in Table 7. The predicates of the form $cul[x](v)$, for $x \in Var$, record uninterrupted lists starting from the node pointed-to by x .

Table 7. Predicates used for the canonical abstraction and their meaning. We use the shorthand $UList(u, v)$ as defined in Def. 3

Predicates	Intended Meaning	Defining Formulae
$\{x(v) : x \in Var\}$	object v is pointed-to by x	
$\{cul[x](v) : x \in Var\}$	there exists an uninterrupted list to v , starting from the node pointed-to by x	$\exists v_x : x(v_x) \wedge UList(v_x, v)$

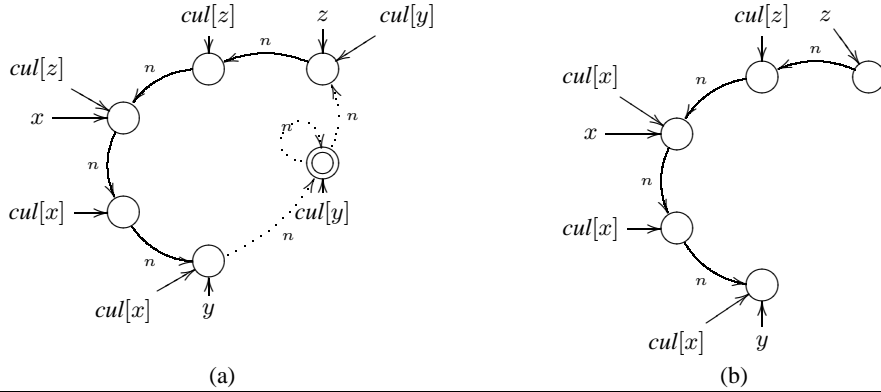


Fig. 7. The abstract effect of $\gamma.n = \text{null}$ under canonical abstraction. (a) canonical abstraction of the state of Fig. 3(a); (b) result of applying the abstract transformer of $\gamma.n = \text{null}$ to (a)

Example 6. Fig. 7(a) shows an abstract state abstracting the concrete state of Fig. 3(a). The predicates $cul[x](v)$, $cul[y](v)$, and $cul[z](v)$ record uninterrupted list segments. Note that, in contrast to the abstract state of Fig. 4(b) (which uses the standard TVLA predicates), the abstract configuration of Fig. 7(a) records the order between the reference variables, and is therefore able to observe that x is not pointing to an object on the list from y to z .

6 Discussion

Equivalence of the Canonical Abstraction and the Predicate Abstraction We first show that the two abstractions — the predicate abstraction of Sec. 4, and the canonical abstraction of Sec. 5 — are equivalent. That is, both observe the same set of distinctions between concrete heaps.

Theorem 1. *The abstractions presented in Section 4 and in Section 5 are equivalent.*

Proof (Sketch). We prove the equivalence of the two abstractions by showing that, for any two concrete heaps C_1 and C_2 (2-valued structures), we have $\beta_{PredAbs}(C_1) = \beta_{PredAbs}(C_2)$ if and only if $\beta_{Canonic}(C_1) = \beta_{Canonic}(C_2)$.

Denote the result of applying the predicate abstraction to the concrete heaps by $A_1^P = \beta_{PredAbs}(C_1)$ and $A_2^P = \beta_{PredAbs}(C_2)$, and the result of applying the canonical abstraction to the concrete heaps by $A_1^C = \beta_{Canonic}(C_1)$ and $A_2^C = \beta_{Canonic}(C_2)$.

When A_1^P and A_2^P have different values for some predicate in P^A , we show that: (i) there exists an individual v_1 in A_1^C that does not exist in A_2^C (i.e., there is no individual in A_2^C with the same values for all unary predicates as v_1 has in A_1^C), or (ii) there exist corresponding pairs of individuals (i.e., with same values for all unary predicates) in A_1^C and A_2^C such that the value of n between them is different for A_1^C and A_2^C . This is done by considering every predicate from P^A in turn.

Finally, when all predicates in P^A have the same values for both A_1^P and A_2^P , we show that there is a bijection between the universe of A_1^C and the universe of A_2^C that preserves the values of all predicates.

The Number of Predicates Used by the Abstractions In general, the number of predicates needed by a predicate abstraction to simulate a given canonical abstraction is exponential in the number of unary predicates used by the canonical abstraction. It is interesting to note that, in this case, we were able to simulate the canonical abstraction using a sub-exponential number of nullary predicates.

We note that there exist predicate abstractions and canonical abstractions that are equivalent to the most precise member of the family of abstractions presented in the previous sections (i.e., with the full set of auxiliary variables) but require less predicates. We give the intuition to the principles underlying those abstractions and refer the reader to [18] for the technical details.

In heaps that do not contain cycles, the predicates in Table 3 are sufficient for keeping different uninterrupted lists from being merged. We can “reduce” general heaps to heaps without cycles by considering only interruptions that occur on cycles:

$$Interruption_c(v) \equiv Interruption(v) \wedge OnCycle(v) \text{ ,}$$

and use these interruptions to break cycles by redefining the formulae for uninterrupted lists to use $Interruption_c$ instead of $Interruption$. Now, a linear number of auxiliary variables can be used to syntactically capture those interruptions. For every reference variable x , we add an auxiliary variable x_c , which is captured by the formula

$$x_c(v) \equiv x(v) \wedge OnCycle(v) \vee \exists v_1, v_2. x(v_1) \wedge n^*(v_1, v_2) \wedge \neg OnCycle(v_2) \wedge n(v_2, v) \text{ .}$$

The set of all variables is defined by $Var' = PVar \cup \{x_c \mid x \in PVar\}$, and the predicates in Table 8 define the new canonical abstraction.

Table 8. Predicates used for the new canonical abstraction with linear number of predicates. The shorthand $UList_c$ denotes an uninterrupted list where interruptions are defined by $Interruption_c$

Predicates	Intended Meaning	Defining Formulae
$\{x(v) : x \in Var'\}$	object v is pointed-to by x	
$\{cul_c[x](v) : x \in Var'\}$	there exists an uninterrupted list to v , starting from the node pointed-to by x	$\exists v_x : x(v_x) \wedge UList_c(v_x, v)$
$is(v)$	u is heap-shared	$HeapShared(v)$

Recording Numerical Relationships We believe that our abstractions can be generalized along the lines suggested by Deutsch in [9], by capturing numerical relationships between list lengths. This will allow us to prove properties of programs which traverse correlated linked lists, while maintaining the ability to conduct strong updates, which could not be handled by Deutsch. Indeed, in [10] numerical and canonical abstractions were combined in order to handle such programs.

7 Experimental Results

We implemented in TVLA the analysis based on the predicates and abstract transformers described in Section 2.3. We applied it to verify various specifications of programs operating on lists, described in Table 9. For all examples, we checked the absence of null dereferences. For the running example and `reverse_cyclic` we also verified that the output list is cyclic and partially cyclic, respectively.

The experiments were conducted using TVLA version 2, running with SUN’s JRE 1.4, on a laptop computer with a 796 MHZ Intel Pentium Processor with 256 MB RAM.

The results of the analysis are shown in Table 9. In all of the examples, the analysis produced no false alarms. In contrast, TVLA, with the abstraction predicates in Table 1, is unable to prove that the output of `reverse_cyclic` is a partially cyclic list and that the output of `removeSegment` is a cyclic list.

The dominating factor in the running times and memory consumption is the loading phase, in which the predicates and update formulae are created (and explicitly represented). For example, the time and space consumed during the chaotic iteration of the `merge` example is 8 seconds and 7.4 MB, respectively.

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Table 9. Time, space and number of errors measurements. Rep. Err. is the number of errors reported by the analysis, and Act. Err. is the number of real errors

Benchmark	Description	Time (sec)	Space (MB)	Rep. Err./Act. Err.
create	Dynamically allocates a new linked list	3	1.8	0/0
delete	Removes an element from a list	7	9.1	0/0
deleteAll	Deallocates a list	3	2.7	0/0
getLast	Retrieves the last element in a list	4	4	0/0
insert	Inserts an element into a sorted list	9	13.5	0/0
merge	Merges two sorted lists into a single list	15	29.6	0/0
removeSegment	The running example	7	8.4	0/0
reverse	Reverses an acyclic list in-place	5	6	0/0
reverse_cyclic	reverse, applied to a partially cyclic list	2	7.1	0/0
rotate	Moves the first element after the last element	6	7.9	0/0
search	Searches for an element with a specified value	3	2.1	0/0
search_nullderef	Erroneous implementation of search that dereferences a null pointer	3	2.4	1/1
swap	Swaps the first two elements in a list	6	8.8	0/0

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