Translucid contracts: Expressive specification and modular verification of aspect oriented interfaces

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Translucid contracts:
Expressive specification and modular verification of aspect oriented interfaces

by

Mehdi Bagherzadeh

A thesis submitted to the graduate faculty
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF SCIENCE

Major: Computer Science

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Ames, Iowa
2011

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DEDICATION

To my parents, Javad and Akram.
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

**LIST OF FIGURES** .................................................. v

**ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS** ............................................. vii

**CHAPTER 1. Introduction** ....................................... 1

1.1 Density of Join Point Shadows .................................................. 1

1.2 Reasoning about Control Effects ............................................... 3

1.3 Contributions .......................................................... 6

**CHAPTER 2. Translucid Contracts** ................................. 7

2.1 Program Syntax ....................................................... 7

2.2 Declarations .......................................................... 7

2.3 Expressions ........................................................... 8

2.4 Specification Features ................................................... 9

**CHAPTER 3. Verification of Programs with Translucid Contracts** ........................................ 11

3.1 Overview of Key Ideas in Verification ....................................... 12

3.2 Checking Handler Refinement ............................................... 13

3.3 Example Handler Refinement .............................................. 14

3.4 Verifying Ptolemy Programs ............................................... 16

3.4.1 Verification of Regular Methods ....................................... 16

3.4.2 Verification of Handler Methods ..................................... 18

3.4.3 Translation Function ................................................ 18

3.4.4 Illustration of the Verification Algorithms ........................... 19

3.4.5 Runtime Assertion Checking (RAC) ................................... 20
CHAPTER 4. Analysis of Expressiveness ................................................. 22
  4.1 Direct Interference: Augmentation .................................................. 22
  4.2 Direct Interference: Narrowing ...................................................... 23
  4.3 Direct Interference: Replacement ................................................... 25
  4.4 Direct Interference: Combination .................................................. 26
  4.5 More Expressive Control Flow Properties ....................................... 27

CHAPTER 5. Applicability to Other AO Interfaces ............................. 30
  5.1 Translucid Contracts for XPIs and AAI s .......................................... 30
  5.2 Translucid Contracts for Open Modules .......................................... 33

CHAPTER 6. Related Ideas ................................................................. 35
  6.1 Contracts for Aspects ................................................................. 35
  6.2 Modular Reasoning ................................................................. 36
  6.3 Grey Box Specification and Verification ......................................... 37

CHAPTER 7. Soundness of Reasoning .............................................. 38
  7.1 Substitution Algorithm ............................................................ 40
  7.2 Proof of Soundness ............................................................... 43

CHAPTER 8. Conclusion and Future Work ........................................ 47

BIBLIOGRAPHY ................................................................. 48
# LIST OF FIGURES

<p>| Figure 1.1 | A behavioral contract for aspect interfaces using Ptolemy [19] as the implementation language. See Section 2.1 for syntax. | 2 |
| Figure 1.2 | A translucid contract for event type Changed | 5 |
| Figure 2.1 | Ptolemy’s syntax [19], with <strong>refining</strong> expressions and contracts | 8 |
| Figure 2.2 | Syntax for writing translucid contracts | 9 |
| Figure 3.1 | Rules for checking structural refinement | 14 |
| Figure 3.2 | Structural refinement relation ((\sqsubseteq)) | 15 |
| Figure 3.3 | Handler refinement | 15 |
| Figure 3.4 | Translation algorithm. The algorithm for converting program expressions into specification expressions that simulate running of handlers. | 17 |
| Figure 3.5 | Translation of method setX | 20 |
| Figure 3.6 | Unrolling translation function | 20 |
| Figure 3.7 | Runtime assertion checking (RAC). Gray lines show pseudo code corresponding to generated code by the compiler. | 21 |
| Figure 4.1 | Specifying augmentation with a translucid contract | 22 |
| Figure 4.2 | After-augmentation handler | 23 |
| Figure 4.3 | Specifying narrowing with a translucid contract | 24 |
| Figure 4.4 | Narrowing handler | 24 |
| Figure 4.5 | Specifying replacement with a translucid contract | 25 |
| Figure 4.6 | Replacement handler | 25 |
| Figure 4.7 | Combination contract and handler | 27 |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Figure</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Figure 4.8</td>
<td>Expressive control flow properties beyond [24]</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 5.1</td>
<td>Applying translucid contract to an XPI</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 5.2</td>
<td>Narrowing advice for XPI</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 5.3</td>
<td>Applying translucid contract to an AAI</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 5.4</td>
<td>Applying translucid contract to Open Modules</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 5.5</td>
<td>Narrowing handler for Open Module</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 7.1</td>
<td>Alternative operational semantics of Ptolemy[20]</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 7.2</td>
<td>Classes to simulate list of active objects</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 7.3</td>
<td>Substitution algorithm</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 7.4</td>
<td>Auxiliary functions of substitution algorithm</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 7.5</td>
<td>Structural similarity of translation and substitution of announce and invoke</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>expressions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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CHAPTER 1. Introduction

Reasoning about aspect-oriented (AO) programs that use pointcuts and dynamic advice, as found in AspectJ programs, often seems difficult, due to two fundamental problems:

1. Join point shadows, i.e., places in the code where advice may apply, occur very frequently. And at each join point shadow, reasoning must take into account the effects of all applicable advice.

2. The control effects of advice must be understood in order to reason about a program’s control flow and how advice might interfere with the execution of other advice.

1.1 Density of Join Point Shadows

As an example of the first problem, consider the straight-line code in below. In this listing, assuming that $x$ and $y$ are fields, there are at least 8 join point shadows, including the 5 method calls, the writes of $x$ and $y$, and the read of $x$.

\[
\begin{align*}
1 & \ x = o1.m1(a.e1(), b.e2()); \\
2 & \ y = o2.m2(c.e3(), x);
\end{align*}
\]

Knowing what advice applies where is amenable to tool support. An example is the Eclipse AspectJ Development Tools (AJDT). The idea of aspect-aware interfaces [13], is equivalent to such tool support. However, the number of reasoning tasks grows with the number of join points and the amount of applicable advice.

One way of avoiding this problem of frequent occurrence of join point shadows, is to limit where advice may apply, for example, by using some form of explicit base-advice interface (AO interface), e.g. crosscutting interfaces (XPIs), open modules, etc, [1, 6, 19, 27, 28]. This is the approach we adopt.

\footnote{For example, a join point shadow occurs at each method or constructor call, and each field read and write.}
in this thesis by using the language Ptolemy [19]. Ptolemy introduces the notion of event types and limits the join points to explicit event announcements.

To illustrate, consider the Ptolemy code in Figure 1.1 from the canonical drawing editor example with functionalities to draw points, lines and update the display. In Ptolemy, events are explicitly announced, which mitigates the first problem, as reasoning about events only needs to happen at program points where events are explicitly announced (such as lines 5–7). Ptolemy programs declare event types, which are abstractions over concrete events in the program. Lines 10–18 declare an event type that is an abstraction over program events that cause change in a figure. An event type declaration may declare variables that make some context available. For example, on line 11, the changing figure, named \( fe \), is made available. Concrete events of this type are explicitly and declaratively created using \texttt{announce} expressions as shown on lines 5–7. Like Eos [21, 22], Ptolemy doesn’t distinguish between aspects and classes. On lines 19–28 is the Ptolemy’s equivalent of an AspectJ-like advice, which advices calls to the method \texttt{setX}. The \texttt{Update} class has a binding declaration on line 27 that says to run the handler method \texttt{update} whenever events of type \texttt{Changed} are signaled. In Ptolemy’s terminology advice are called \texttt{handlers}. Ptolemy also provides dynamic registration using \texttt{register}, line 20, which activates the current instance of the \texttt{Update} class as an observer for the event \texttt{Changed}.
1.2 Reasoning about Control Effects

As an example of the second problem, understanding control effects of the advice, consider the Logging handler in the listing below that advises the same set of events advised by Update handler in Figure 1.1. To understand the control flow at these events matched by these handlers a developer must understand the control flow of both handlers. Furthermore, to understand the behavior at such events one must also understand the control flow of all other handlers that may advise the same events.

```java
29 class Logging{
30  ...
31  Fig log( thunk Fig rest, Fig fe){
32    invoke(rest);
33    Log.logChanges(fe); fe
34  }
35  when Changed do log;
36 }
```

Design by contract (DBC) methodologies for aspect-oriented software development (AOSD) have been explored before [12, 28, 31], however, existing work relies on black box behavioral contracts. Such behavioral contracts specify, for each of the aspect’s advice methods, the relationships between its inputs and outputs, and treat the implementation of the aspect as a black box, hiding all the aspect’s internal states. As shown in Figure 1.1, event type Changed declares a black box contract on lines 12–17. Phrases “behavioral” and “black box” contract are used interchangeably throughout the thesis.

However, the black box contract on lines 12–17 does not specify the control effects of the handler. For example, with just the black box contract of the event type Changed given, one cannot determine whether a call such as `p.setX(3)` will proceed to execute the body of `setX`, and thus whether such a call will always set the current x coordinate of `p` to its argument (3). If the expression `invoke` in the handler method `update` is forgotten inadvertently, the execution of the body of method `setX` will be skipped. This is equivalent to missing the call to `proceed` in an advice in AspectJ. Such assertions are important for reasoning, which depends on understanding the effect of composing the handler modules with the base code [24, 28]. That is, the contract does not specify if the handler must always proceed.

Ideas from Zhao and Rinard’s Pipa language [31], if applied to AO interfaces help to some extent. But, as discussed in Chapter 6, Pipa’s expressiveness beyond simple control flow properties is limited.

---

2This limitation of black box behavioral specifications was discussed in a preliminary version of this work [2].
Even if programmers don’t use formal techniques to reason about their programs, contracts for AO interfaces can serve as the programming guidelines for imposing design rules [28]. But black box contracts for AO interfaces yield insufficiently specified design rules that leave too much room for interpretation, which may differ significantly from programmer to programmer. This may cause inadvertent inconsistencies in AO program designs and implementations, leading to hard to find errors.

Another problem with such black box contracts is that they do not help with effectively reasoning about the effects of aspects on each other. Consider another example concern, say Logging, which writes a log file at the events specified by Changed. For this concern different orders of composition with the Update concern in Figure 1.1 could lead to different results. (In AspectJ declare precedence can be used to enforce an ordering on aspects and the application of their advice.) Suppose line 22 of Figure 1.1 was omitted; that is, suppose that Update handler did not proceed. In that case, if Update were to run first, followed by Logging, then the evaluation of Logging would be skipped. Conversely, Logging would work (i.e., it would write the log file) if the handlers were composed in the opposite order. A handler developer cannot, by just looking at the black box contract of the event type, reason about the composition of such handlers. Rather a developer must be aware of the control effects of the code in all composed handlers. Furthermore, if any of these handlers changes (i.e., if their control effects change), one must reason about every other handler that applies at the same events.

The main contribution of this work is the notion of translucid contracts for AO interfaces, which is based on grey box specification [5]. A translucid contract for an AO interface can be thought of as an abstract algorithm describing the behavior of aspects that apply to that AO interface. The algorithm is abstract in the sense that it may suppress many actual implementation details, only specifying their effects using specification expressions. This allows the specifier to decide to hide some details, while revealing others. As in the refinement calculus, code satisfies an abstract algorithm specification if the code refines the specification [15], but we use a restricted form of refinement that requires structural similarity, to allow specification of control effects.
We have added an example translucid contract to the AO interface, event type \texttt{Changed}, on lines 12–17 of Figure 1.2. Unlike a black box behavioral contract, internal states of the handler methods (which correspond to advice) that run when the event \texttt{Changed} is announced (this corresponds to a join point occurrence) are exposed in the translucid contract. In particular, any occurrence of the \texttt{invoke} expression (which is like AspectJ’s proceed) in the handler method must be made explicit in the translucid contract, line 14.\footnote{\texttt{next} is a specification placeholder for the event closure passed to the handlers.} This in turn allows the developer of the class \texttt{Point} that announces the event \texttt{Changed} to understand the control effects of the handler methods by just inspecting the specification of \texttt{Changed}. For example, from line 14 one may conclude that, irrespective of the concrete handler methods, the body for the method \texttt{setX} on line 6 of Figure 1.1 will always be run. Such conclusions allow a client of the \texttt{setX} to make more expressive assertions about its control flow without considering every handler method that may potentially run when the event \texttt{Changed} is announced. Expression \texttt{next} is a specification placeholder for the event closure passed to the handlers.

Requiring the \texttt{invoke} expression to be made explicit also benefits other handlers that may run when the event \texttt{Changed} is announced. For example, consider the logging concern discussed earlier. Since the contract of \texttt{Changed} describes the control flow effects of the handlers, reasoning about the composition of the handler method for logging and other handlers becomes possible without knowing

![Figure 1.2 A translucid contract for event type Changed](image-url)
about all explicit handlers that may run when Changed is announced. In this thesis we explicitly focus on the use of translucid contracts for describing and reasoning about control flow effects.

To soundly reap these benefits, the translucid contract for the event type Changed must be refined by each conforming handler method [15]. We borrow the idea of structural refinement from JML’s model programs [25] and enhance it to support AO interfaces, which requires several adaptations that we discuss in Chapter 3. Briefly the handler method update on lines 22–25 in Figure 1.2 refines the contract on lines 12–17 because line 22 matches line 14 and lines 23–25 claim to refine the specification expression on line 15. The pre- and postconditions of update are considered the same as the pre- and postconditions of event type specification on lines 12 and 17, respectively.

1.3 Contributions

In summary, this work makes the following contributions:

- A specification and verification technique for writing contracts for AO interfaces and a proof of the soundness of the presented specification, verification and reasoning approach;

- An implementation of the proposed specification and verification technique in the Ptolemy’s compiler [18];

- An analysis of the effectiveness of our contracts using Rinard et al.’s work [24] on aspect classification which shows our technique works well for specifying all classes of aspects (as well as others that Rinard et al. do not classify);

- A demonstration that besides the AO interface proposal by the previous work of Rajan and Leavens [19], our technique works quite well for crosscutting interfaces [28] Aldrich’s open modules [1], and Kiczales and Mezini’s aspect-aware interface [13]. We also discuss the applicability of our technique to other languages that similarly solve the first reasoning problem by having explicit announcement, including Steimann et al.’s join point types [27], Hoffman and Eugster’s explicit join points [9]; and

- A comparison and contrast of our specification and verification approach with related ideas for AO contracts.
CHAPTER 2. Translucid Contracts

In this chapter, we describe our notion of translucid contracts and present a syntax to state these contracts. We use our previous work on the Ptolemy language [19] for this discussion. However, as we show in Chapter 5 our basic ideas are applicable to other aspect-oriented programming models. We first present Ptolemy’s programming features and then describe its specification features.

2.1 Program Syntax

Ptolemy is an object-oriented (OO) language with support for declaring, announcing, and registering with events much like implicit-invocation (II) languages. The registration in Ptolemy is, however, much more powerful compared to II languages as it allows developers to quantify over all subjects that announce an event without actually naming them. This is similar to “quantification” in aspect-oriented languages such as AspectJ. The formally defined OO subset of Ptolemy has classes, objects, inheritance, and subtyping, but it does not have super, interfaces, exception handling, built-in value types, privacy modifiers, or abstract methods.

The syntax of Ptolemy executable programs is shown in Figure 2.1 and explained below. A Ptolemy program consists of zero or more declarations, and a “main” expression (see Figure 1.1 and Figure 1.2). Declarations are either class declarations or event type declarations.

2.2 Declarations

We do not allow nesting of decls. A class has a name (c) and names its superclass (d), and may declare fields (Field) and methods (meth). Field declarations are written with a class name, giving

\[ c \rightarrow Field + meth \]

1Descriptions of Ptolemy’s syntax and semantics are adapted from our previous work [19].
\[
\text{prog} ::= \text{decl} \\
\text{decl} ::= \text{class} \ c \ \text{extends} \ d \ ( \ \text{field} \ meth \ binding \ ) \\
\text{field} ::= \text{t} \ ( \ \text{form} \ ) \ ( \ e \ ) \ | \ \text{t} \ \text{m} \ ( \ \text{form} \ ) \ | \ \text{t} \ \text{m} \ ( \ \text{thunk} \ \text{t} \ \text{var} \ \text{form} \ ) \ ( \ e \ ) \\
\text{meth} ::= \text{t} \ \text{m} \ ( \ \text{form} \ ) \\
\text{form} ::= \text{t} \ \text{var}, \ \text{where} \ var \ not \ \text{this} \ \text{and} \ \text{var} \ not \ \text{next} \\
\text{binding} ::= \text{when} \ p \ \text{do} \ m \\
\text{e} ::= \text{n} \ | \ \text{var} \ | \ \text{null} \ | \ \text{new} \ c() \ | \ \text{e.m}(\text{π}) \ | \ \text{e.f} \ | \ \text{e.f} = \text{e} \ | \ \text{form} = \text{e} \ | \ \text{e} \\
| \ \text{if} \ (\text{ep}) \ (\text{e}) \ | \ \text{else} \ (\text{e}) \ | \ \text{while} \ (\text{ep}) \ (\text{e}) \ | \ \text{cast} \ \text{c} \ \text{e} \ | \ \text{e} \\
| \ \text{register} \ (\text{e}) \ | \ \text{invoke} \ (\text{e}) \ | \ \text{announce} \ p \ (\ \text{π} \ ) \ (\ \text{e} \ ) \ | \ \text{refining} \ \text{spec} \ (\ \text{e} \ ) \\
\text{ep} ::= \text{n} \ | \ \text{var} \ | \ \text{ep.f} \ | \ \text{ep} \ != \ \text{null} \ | \ \text{ep} < \text{n} \ | \ \text{! ep} \ | \ \text{ep} \ \& \ \& \ \text{ep}
\]

where
\[
\text{n} \in \mathcal{N}, \ \text{the set of numeric, integer literals} \\
\text{c}, \ \text{d} \in \mathcal{C}, \ \text{a set of class names} \\
\text{t} \in \mathcal{C} \cup \{\text{int}\}, \ \text{a set of types} \\
p \in \mathcal{P}, \ \text{a set of event type names} \\
f \in \mathcal{F}, \ \text{a set of field names} \\
m \in \mathcal{M}, \ \text{a set of method names} \\
\text{var} \in \{\text{this.next}\} \cup \mathcal{V}, \ \mathcal{V} \text{ is a set of variable names}
\]

Figure 2.1 Ptolemy’s syntax [19], with \textit{refining} expressions and contracts

the field’s type, followed by a field name. Method headers have a C++ or Java-like syntax, although their body is an expression. A binding declaration associates a set of events, described by an event type \(p\), to a method \(m\) [19]. An example is shown in Figure 1.2, which contains a binding on line 27. This binding declaration tells Ptolemy to run method \textit{update} when events of type \textit{Changed} are announced. II terminology calls such methods \textit{handler methods}.

An event type \textit{(event)} declaration has a return type \(t\), a name \(p\), zero or more context variable declarations \(\text{form}\), and a translucid contract \(\text{contract}\). These context declarations specify the types and names of reflective information exposed by conforming events [19]. An example is given in Figure 1.2 on lines 10–18. In writing examples of event types, as in Figure 1.2, we show each formal parameter declaration \(\text{form}\) as terminated by a semicolon ;. In examples showing the declarations of methods and bindings, we use commas to separate each \text{form}.

### 2.3 Expressions

The formal definition of Ptolemy is given as an expression language [19]. It includes several standard object-oriented (OO) expressions and also some expressions that are specific to announcing events and registering handlers. The standard OO expressions include object construction \(\text{new} \ c()\), variable dereference \textit{(var, including this)}, field dereference \(e.f\), \texttt{null}, cast \(\text{cast} \ t \ e\), assignment to a field \(e_1.f = e_2\), a definition block \(t \ \text{var} = e_1; \ e_2\), and sequencing \(e_1; \ e_2\). Their semantics and typing is fairly standard [6, 19] and we encourage the reader to consult [19].
There are also three expressions pertinent to events: `register`, `announce`, and `invoke`. The expression `register(e)` evaluates `e` to an object `o`, registers `o` by putting it into the list of active objects, and returns `o`. Only active objects in this list are capable of advising events. For example line 20 of Figure 1.2 is a method that, when called, will register the method’s receiver (`this`). The expression `announce p (e) { e }` declares the expression `e` as an event of type `p` and runs any handler methods of registered objects (i.e., those in the list of active objects) that are applicable to `p` [19]. The expression `invoke(e)` is similar to AspectJ’s `proceed`. It evaluates `e`, which must denote an event closure, and runs that event closure. This results in running the next handler method in the chain of applicable handlers in the event closure. If there are no remaining handler methods, it runs the original expression from the event. The type `thunk t` ensures that the value of the corresponding actual parameter is an event closure with return type `t`, and hence `t` is the type returned by `invoke(e)`.

When called in an event, or by `invoke`, each handler method is called with a registered object as its receiver. The call passes an event closure as the first actual argument to the handler (`rest` in Figure 1.2 line 21). Event closures are never stored; they are only constructed by the semantics and passed to the handler methods.

There is one additional program expression: refining. A refining expression, of the form `refining spec { e }`, is used to implement Ptolemy’s translucid contracts (see below). It executes the expression `e`, which is supposed to satisfy the contract `spec`.

### 2.4 Specification Features

The syntax for writing an event type’s contract in Ptolemy is shown in Figure 2.2. In this figure, all non-terminals that are used but not defined are the same as in Figure 2.1.

```
contract ::= requires sp assumes { se } ensures sp
spec ::= requires sp ensures sp
sp ::= n | var | sp.f | sp != null | sp == n | sp < n | ! sp
     | sp == old(sp) | sp !& sp
se ::= sp | spec | null | new c() | se.m(π) | se.f | se.f = se | form = se; se
     | if (sp) { se } else { se } | while (sp) { se } | cast c se | se; se
     | register(se) | invoke(se) | announce p (π) { se } | refining spec { se } | next | either { se } or { se }
```

Figure 2.2 Syntax for writing translucid contracts
A contract is of the form \textbf{requires } sp_1 \textbf{ assumes } \{ se \} \textbf{ ensures } sp_2. Here, \( sp_1 \) and \( sp_2 \) are specification predicates as defined in Figure 2.2 and the body of the contract \( se \) is an expression that allows some extra specification-only constructs (such as the choice construct \textbf{either } \textit{se} \text{\_T} \textbf{ or } \textit{se} \text{\_F}). In an event specification, the predicate \( sp_1 \) is the precondition for event announcement, and \( sp_2 \) is the postcondition of the event announcement. The specification expression \( se \) is the abstract algorithm describing conforming handler methods. The \textbf{invoke} expressions must be revealed in \( se \) and the variables that could be named in \( se \) are only context variables. If a method runs when an event of type \( p \) is announced, then its implementation must refine the contract \( se \) of the event type \( p \). For example, in Figure 1.2, method \textit{update}, lines 21–26 must refine the contract of the event \textit{Changed}, lines 12–17.

There are four new expression forms that only appear in contracts: specification expressions, \textbf{next} expressions, abstract \textbf{invoke} expressions, and choice expressions. A specification expression (\textit{spec}) hides implementation details (i.e., algorithms) and thus abstracts from a piece of code in a conforming implementation [23, 25]. The most general form of specification expression is \textbf{requires } \textit{sp}_1 \textbf{ ensures } \textit{sp}_2, where \( sp_1 \) is a precondition expression and \( sp_2 \) is a postcondition. Such a specification expression hides program details by specifying that a correct implementation contains a \textbf{refining} expression whose body expression, when started in a state that satisfies \( sp_1 \), will terminate in a state that satisfies \( sp_2 \) [23, 25]. In examples we use the following syntactic sugars: \textbf{preserves } \textit{sp} for \textbf{requires } \textit{sp} \textbf{ ensures } \textit{sp}, and \textbf{establishes } \textit{sp} for \textbf{requires } 1 \textbf{ ensures } \textit{sp} [23]. Ptolemy uses 0 for “false” and non-zero numbers, such as 1, for “true” in conditionals.

The \textbf{next} expression, the \textbf{invoke} expression and the choice expression (\textbf{either } \text{or} ) are placeholders in the specification that express the event closure passed to a handler, the call of an event handler using \textbf{invoke}, and a conditional expression in a conforming handler method, respectively. The choice expression hides the implementation details and thus abstracts from the concrete condition check in the handler method. For a choice expression \textbf{either } \{ se_1 \} \textbf{ or } \{ se_2 \} a conforming handler may contain an expression \( e_1 \) that refines \( se_1 \), or an expression \( e_2 \) that refines \( se_2 \), or an expression \textbf{if } \{ e_0 \} \{ e_1 \} \textbf{ else } \{ e_2 \}, where \( e_0 \) is a side-effect free expression, \( e_1 \) refines \( se_1 \), and \( e_2 \) refines \( se_2 \). Choice expression allows variability in handlers’ behaviors and enables their abstraction.
CHAPTER 3. Verification of Programs with Translucid Contracts

Verifying Ptolemy programs is different from standard object-oriented (OO) programs in two ways. First, a method in the program under verification may announce events that can cause a set of handlers to run. (In AspectJ, this is equivalent to invoking a set of advice at a join point.) Second, if the method is a handler it may call invoke that can also cause a set of handlers to run. (In AspectJ, this is equivalent to an advice calling proceed that can cause other advice to run.)

Therefore, verifying a Ptolemy program with translucid contracts poses two novel technical problems, compared to verifying standard OO programs: (1) verifying that each handler method correctly refines the contract of each event type it handles, and (2) verifying code containing announce and invoke expressions.

A handler method is a method that is statically declared in a binding form in its class to handle events of a given event type. When a binding of the form when p do m appears in a class declaration, then m is a handler method for event type p; an example handler method is update in Figure 1.2.

The main novelty of translucid contracts is that both of these verification steps can be carried out modularly. By “modularly” we mean that each task can be done using only the code in question, the specifications of static types mentioned in the code, and the specifications of the relevant event types. For a handler, the relevant event types are all the event types that the method is a handler for (as determined by the binding declarations in the class where the handler is declared). For an announce expression, the relevant event type is the one that is being announced. For an invoke expression, which must occur inside a handler method body, it is each event type that the method is a handler for.
3.1 Overview of Key Ideas in Verification

Informally, to verify that each handler method correctly refines the contract of each event type that it handles, we first statically check whether the structure of the handler method body matches the structure of the `assumes` block of the event type. Note that `invoke` expressions that can override the underlying event body’s execution (join point in AO terms) can only appear inside the handler method. So this check ensures that the control effects of the handler method matches the control effects specified in the translucid contract. At the same time, in our current implementation, we insert runtime assertions that check that the pre- and postconditions required by each event type’s contract are satisfied by the handler method. These two checks ensure that starting with a state that satisfies the event type’s precondition, if a correct handler method is run, it can only terminate in a state that satisfies the event type’s postcondition, while ensuring that it produces no more control effects than those mentioned in the event type’s `assumes` block.

Recall that an `announce` expression may cause a statically unknown number of handler methods to run, potentially followed by the event body. (In AspectJ terms, this is equivalent to running unknown number of pieces of advice, potentially followed by the original join point code.) An `invoke` expression (`proceed`) works similarly. To verify the code containing an `announce` expression, we take advantage of the fact that each correct handler method refines the event type’s contract. So the event type’s contract can be taken as a sound specification of the behavior of each handler. What is interesting and novel about our proposal is that the `assumes` block for an event type’s translucid contract gives a sound specification of the behavior of an arbitrary number of handlers for that event.

Ignoring concrete details, imagine we need a sound specification of the behavior of the two handlers `Update` and `Logging` for the event type `Changed` in Figure 1.2. This can be constructed by taking the `assumes` block of this event type’s contract and replacing occurrences of all `invoke` expressions inside it by the same `assumes` block (we will discuss how to do this shortly). This essentially achieves the effect of inlining the `invoke` expression (and is similar to unrolling a loop or inlining a recursive call [7]). Notice that construction of this specification only requires access to the event type. Also note that the resulting specification may contain some `invoke` expressions (as a result of inlining the `assumes` block). Let us call the constructed specification $S$. 
Given the specification $S$ of the behavior of the two handlers, we can now (1) reason about the code containing an `announce` expression as well as (2) the code containing an `invoke` expression. Again, ignoring concrete details, in the code containing the `announce` expression we do have access to the event body. So we replace all `invoke` expressions in $S$ with this event body. As a result, we now have a pure OO specification expression that is a sound specification of this announcement of the event `Changed`, $S_{ann}$. This specification expression can be used to reason about the code that contains `announce` expression. An important property of this step is that we only used the event type’s contract and the code that was announcing events.

To reason about code that contains `invoke` expression, once again we start with a specification constructed from event type’s contract, e.g., $S$. Note that the event body must refine the event type pre- and postcondition (to avoid surprising handler methods). So we replace all `invoke` expression in $S$ with the pre- and postcondition of the event type’s contract. This gives us a pure and sound OO specification of running two handlers and a correct event body, $S_{inv}$. Similarly, in this step as well, we only used the event type’s contract and the code that contains `invoke` expression.

In the rest of this chapter, we describe these verification steps starting with the handler refinement.

### 3.2 Checking Handler Refinement

For sound modular reasoning, all handlers must be correct. A correct handler method in Ptolemy must refine the translucid contract of each event type that the method handles. Checking refinement of such a method is done in a two-step process. First, we statically verify whether the handler method’s body, which is an expression ($e$) is a structural refinement of the translucid contract of the event type, which is a specification expression ($se$). This step is performed as part of type-checking phase in Ptolemy’s compiler. Second, we verify that handler method satisfies the pre- and postconditions of the event type specification. This is currently checked at runtime (Section 3.4.5), however, a static approach, such as extended static checking [7], could also be applied.

Figure 3.1 shows the structural refinement process where refinement is checked for each handler method binding. $CT$ is a fixed list of program’s declarations. Rule (CLASS TABLE REF) in Figure 3.1 checks structural refinement for each handler binding in the program. Rule (CHECK BINDING REF)
creates the typing contexts \((\pi, \Pi)\) for the specification expression that is the body of the translucid contract and the program expression that is the body of the handler method and uses refinement rules in Figure 3.2 to check their structural refinement. In structural refinement, specification expressions in the contract are refined by program expressions in an implementation; however, program expression in the contract are refined by textually identical program expressions in the refining implementation.

\[
\forall c \in \text{dom}(CT), \forall \text{binding} \in CT(c) \quad CT \vdash \text{binding in } c
\]

Figure 3.1 Rules for checking structural refinement

A specification expression is refined by a program expression if its subexpressions are refined by corresponding subexpressions of the concrete program expression. Figure 3.2 shows key rules for checking that. There is no rule for register as it is not allowed in an event type specification. Judgement \((\pi, \Pi) \vdash se \sqsubseteq e\) states that specification expression \(se\) is refined by program expression \(e\) in the specification typing environment \(\pi\) and program expression typing environment \(\Pi\), which in turn are constructed in the (CHECK BINDING REF) rule.

3.3 Example Handler Refinement

To illustrate the refinement rules in Figure 3.2, consider checking whether the handler method update on lines 22–25 in Figure 1.2 refines the translucid contract’s body on lines 14–15.

As illustrated in Figure 3.3 and according to the rule for \(se_1; se_2\) in Figure 3.2, this refinement holds if (a) \(\text{invoke(next)}\) is refined by \(\text{invoke(rest)}\) and (b) \(\text{establishes} \quad \text{fe==old(fe)}\) is refined by \(\text{refining establishes} \quad \text{fe==old(fe)}\) \{Display.update(fe); fe\}.
For specification expression $se$, program expression $e$, specification and program typing contexts $\pi$ and $\Pi$, $se$ is refined by $e$, $\langle \pi, \Pi \rangle \rhd se \subseteq e$, as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cases of Spec. Exp. (se)</th>
<th>Replaced By (e)</th>
<th>Side Conditions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$var$</td>
<td>$var'$</td>
<td>if $\pi(var) = \Pi(var')$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$sp \cdot f$</td>
<td>$sp' \cdot f$</td>
<td>if $\langle \pi, \Pi \rangle \rhd sp \subseteq sp'$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$sp = null$</td>
<td>$sp' = null$</td>
<td>if $\langle \pi, \Pi \rangle \rhd sp \subseteq sp'$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$sp$</td>
<td>$sp'$</td>
<td>if $\langle \pi, \Pi \rangle \rhd sp \subseteq sp'$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$sp_1 &amp; sp_2$</td>
<td>$sp_1' &amp; sp_2'$</td>
<td>if $\langle \pi, \Pi \rangle \rhd sp_1 \subseteq sp_1'$, $\langle \pi, \Pi \rangle \rhd sp_2 \subseteq sp_2'$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$sp &lt; n$</td>
<td>$sp' = n$</td>
<td>if $\langle \pi, \Pi \rangle \rhd sp \subseteq sp'$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$se_1; se_2$</td>
<td>$e_1; e_2$</td>
<td>if $\langle \pi, \Pi \rangle \rhd se_2 \subseteq e_2$, $\langle \pi, \Pi \rangle \rhd se_2 \subseteq e_2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>if($sp$)({$se$}) else($se$)</td>
<td>if($ep$)({$et$}) else($ef$)</td>
<td>if $\langle \pi, \Pi \rangle \rhd sp \subseteq ep$, $\langle \pi, \Pi \rangle \rhd se \subseteq ef$, $\langle \pi, \Pi \rangle \rhd se \subseteq ef$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>while($sp$)($se$)</td>
<td>while($ep$)($e$)</td>
<td>if $\langle \pi, \Pi \rangle \rhd sp \subseteq ep$, $\langle \pi, \Pi \rangle \rhd se \subseteq e$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$t \enspace var = se_1; se_2$</td>
<td>$t \enspace var = e_1; e_2$</td>
<td>if $\langle \pi, \Pi \rangle \rhd se_1 \subseteq e_1$, $\pi' = \pi \cup {\mathtt{var} : (t,l)}$, $\Pi' = \Pi \cup {\mathtt{var} : (t,l)}$, $\langle \pi', \Pi' \rangle \rhd se_2 \subseteq e_2$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 3.2 Structural refinement relation ($\rhd$)

Figure 3.3 Handler refinement

For proving condition (a), we must check whether the subexpression $\mathtt{next}$ is refined by the subexpression $\mathtt{rest}$. This can be done by the rule for $\mathtt{var}$, which states that both variables $\mathtt{next}$ and $\mathtt{rest}$ must be given the same type by their respective typing contexts ($\pi$ and $\Pi$). The specification typing
context $\pi$ in this case, gives type thunk Fig 2 to next, which is the same as the type for rest given by the program typing context $\Pi$. By applying the rule for spec in Figure 3.2, we can prove (b) because specification predicates refining establishes $fe = \text{old}(fe)$ are the same in both specification expression and the program expression. Thus, the handler method update correctly refines the translucid contract for the event type Changed.

The refinement rule for the case spec deserves further explanation. It states that a specification expression $spec$ is refined by an expression refining $spec \{ e \}$, which claims to refine the same specification $spec$. The claim that $e$ satisfies $spec$ is discharged using runtime assertion checking as discussed in Section 3.4.5. The rules in Ptolemy’s operational semantics which discharge this condition are shown in Figure 7.1, rule (Refining).

3.4 Verifying Ptolemy Programs

The main difficulty in verifying Ptolemy programs is that announce and invoke expressions could cause a statically unknown set of handlers (advice) to run. This set is not known statically unless a whole program analysis is performed. Thus such knowledge is not part of modular verification. Despite this, translucid contracts make modular verification possible. The challenge is to verify the code containing announce and invoke expressions. The basic idea is to use the translucid contract of the event type in place of each handler as discussed in Section 3.1. There are two types of methods to verify, regular methods which might announce event and handler method which handle the events.

3.4.1 Verification of Regular Methods

To statically verify a non-handler method $tm\{e\}$ we must replace any occurrence of announce expression in its body $e$ with a simulating expression for verification. The translation function $Tr$ given in Figure 3.4 shows how to do that. Basically, a translation function $Tr(se, be, p)$ inlines event type specification/event body in place of announce/invoke expressions in $se$, as informally discussed in Section 3.1, to compute a simulating specification expression, modeling event announcement. Event $p$ is the announced event, if any, and $be$ is the event body. Function $Tr$ is discussed in greater detail in Section 3.4.3.
For specification expressions $se$, expressions $b_e$, event types $p$, where $p$ has contract $\text{requires } sp_p$ $\text{assumes } \{sep\}$ $\text{ensures } sp'_p$ and context variables $\overline{var}$, the result of $Tr(se, b_e, p)$ is given by:

$$Tr(se, b_e, p) =$$

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cases of $se$</th>
<th>Result</th>
<th>Side Conditions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$h, \text{var, null, new } c()$</td>
<td>$se$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\text{old } se_1$</td>
<td>$\text{old } se_2$</td>
<td>$se_2 = Tr(se_1, b_e, p)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$se_1.f$</td>
<td>$se_2.f$</td>
<td>$se_2 = Tr(se_1, b_e, p)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\text{either } {se_0 } \text{ or } {se_1}$</td>
<td>$\text{either } {se'_0 } \text{ or } {se'_1}$</td>
<td>$se'_0 = Tr(se_0, b_e, p)$, $se'_1 = Tr(se_1, b_e, p)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$se.m(\overline{var})$</td>
<td>$se'.m(\overline{var'})$</td>
<td>$se' = Tr(se, b_e, p)$, $se' = Tr(\overline{var}, b_e, p)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$se_0.f = se_1$</td>
<td>$se_0'.f = se_1'$</td>
<td>$se_0 = Tr(se_0, b_e, p)$, $se_1 = Tr(se_1, b_e, p)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\text{if } (ep) {se_0} \quad \text{else } {se_1}$</td>
<td>$\text{if } (ep') {se'_0} \quad \text{else } {se'_1}$</td>
<td>$ep' = Tr(ep, b_e, p)$, $se'_0 = Tr(se_0, b_e, p)$, $se'_1 = Tr(se_1, b_e, p)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\text{while } (ep) {se}$</td>
<td>$\text{while } (ep') {se'_0}$</td>
<td>$ep' = Tr(ep, b_e, p)$, $se'_0 = Tr(se, b_e, p)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\text{cast } c \ se$</td>
<td>$\text{cast } c \ se'$</td>
<td>$se' = Tr(se, b_e, p)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\text{invoke } (se_1)$</td>
<td>$\text{refining } spec {se_1}$</td>
<td>$se_2 = Tr(se_1, b_e, p)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\text{register } (se_1)$</td>
<td>$\text{refining } spec {se_1}$</td>
<td>$se_2 = Tr(se_1, b_e, p)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\text{announce } p' (\overline{var}) {se_1}$</td>
<td>$\text{refining } spec {se_1}$</td>
<td>$p'$ has contract $\text{requires } sp_{p'}$, $\text{assumes } {sep'}$ $\text{ensures } sp'<em>{p'}$ and context variables $\overline{var'}$, $se' = Tr(\overline{var}, b_e, p)$, $se'<em>1 = Tr(se_1, b_e, p')$, $se' = Tr(se</em>{p'}, se</em>{1'}, p')$, $spec = \text{requires } sp'<em>{p'}$ $\text{ensures } sp'</em>{p'}$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 3.4 Translation algorithm. The algorithm for converting program expressions into specification expressions that simulate running of handlers.

For the method $m$ above with the body of $e$, we compute $Tr(e, \text{skip}, \bot)$. The arguments $\text{skip}$ and $\bot$ specify that this method does not handle any events ($\bot$) and thus there is no event body ($\text{skip}$) which basically means the method is a non-handler. These parameters are included in this case simply to facilitate uniform application of the $Tr$ function for both regular (non-handler) and handler methods.

The result of $Tr(e, \text{skip}, \bot)$ is a specification expression with no Ptolemy-specific features, but may have extra expressions which simulate event announcement and running of handlers. This expression can then be used to perform standard weakest precondition based verification for OO programs.
### 3.4.2 Verification of Handler Methods

To statically verify a handler method \( h \) of the form \( t h (\text{thunk } t_0 v a r_0, t v a r) \{ e \} \), for each event type \( p \) with a binding \( \text{when } p \text{ do } h \), one does the following. Let the contract for \( p \) be \( \text{requires } sp_p \text{ assumes } \{ s e_p \} \text{ ensures } sp'_p \), then compute \( T r(e, \text{requires } sp_p \text{ ensures } sp'_p, p) \) and use the result to verify the handler \( h \). The second argument to \( T r \) is a specification statement consisting of the event’s pre- and postconditions; this is used in the place of the announced event’s body, since the event body is not available during static verification of the handler, and since this specification statement must be refined by all event bodies. The result of \( T r(e, \text{requires } sp_p \text{ ensures } sp'_p, p) \) is a pure OO specification expression.

### 3.4.3 Translation Function

As illustrated in Section 3.1, the translation function \( T r(se, b_e, p) \), with \( p \) as the announced event and \( b_e \) as the body of \( p \), inlines event type specification or event body in the place of announce and invoke expressions in \( se \), and computes a simulating specification of the event announcement. Announce and invoke expressions are replaced by the event type’s contract if there are more applicable handlers and are replaced by the event body otherwise. As existence or non-existence of more applicable handlers is not decidable statically, the translation algorithm considers occurrence of both of these situations simultaneously using an \( \text{either } – \text{ or } \) choice expression, as shown in Figure 3.4.

Most cases in the translation function \( T r \) are straightforward as they just recursively apply \( T r \) to their subexpressions and compose the results. Translations of refining, announce and invoke expressions are of more interest, though. Translation of \( \text{refining } spec \{ e \} \) is \( spec \) as the runtime assertion checking ensures that \( e \) refines the \( spec \). The cases for invoke and announce expressions are central as they model event announcement by simulating running of the handlers and the event body.

Translations of invoke and announce expressions, both produce an \( \text{either } – \text{ or } \) choice expression guarded by a \( \text{refining} \) expression. The either-branch simulates the situation when there is no applicable handler whereas the or-branch is handles the situation when there exist more handlers to run.

In the translation of \( \text{invoke} (se_1) \), the either-branch contains a sequence of two expressions: translation of the argument \( se_1 \) and the event body \( b_e \), which means no more handler to run. The or-
branch contains a sequence of two expressions too: translation of argument $se_1$ and translation of the translucid contract $se_p$. The guarding refining expression assures that specification $spec$ is satisfied by the choice expression inside. $spec$ contains pre- and postcondition of the contract $se_p$.

Translation of announce expression is similar to the invoke. In case of $\text{announce } p'(\overline{\text{e}})\{se_1\}$, the either-branch contains a sequence of two expressions: translation of the argument $\overline{\text{e}}$ and the translation of event body $se_1$. In or-branch the first expression is the translation of the arguments and their assignment them to context variables $\overline{\text{var}}$. The second expression is the translation of the translucid contract of event $p'$, i.e. $se_{p'}$, assuming that the event body is $se'_1$, the translation of $se_1$. The translation of $se_{p'}$ simulates running of handlers for event $p'$ with a concrete event body and event type’s translucid contract as an abstraction for handlers.

The translation function $Tr(e, b_e, p)$ treats $e$ as a subset of $se \cup \{spec\}$. Since the syntactic set $se \cup \{spec\}$ is a strict superset of syntactic set $e$, for every expression $e$ there is an equivalent expression in the set $se \cup \{spec\}$.

The translation function assumes an acyclic event announce/handle relation. Circular relations could simply be detected statically.

### 3.4.4 Illustration of the Verification Algorithms

To illustrate, consider verifying the method $\text{setX}$ in Figure 1.1 with the translucid contract in Figure 1.2. The body of this method is the announce expression $\text{announce } \text{Changed}(\text{this})\{\text{this}.x = x; \text{this}\}$. To verify this method, we first apply the translation function $Tr(se, \text{skip}, \bot)$ with $se = \text{announce } \text{Changed}(\text{this})\{\text{this}.x = x; \text{this}\}$ as this method is a non-handler regular method. The case for announce expression in Figure 3.4 is applicable, which results in the specification expression shown in Figure 3.5.

Notice the use of the translation function $Tr$ on lines 4–5. To verify this expression both the either-branch and the or-branch must be verified. During the verification, upon reaching the translation function, it is unrolled one more time resulting in the specification expression shown in Figure 3.6.

During this application, the cases for sequence, $spec$ and invoke expressions are used, which again results in an embedded translation function $Tr$ on lines 6–7. The astute readers may have observed
that we have essentially reduced problem of verifying `announce` and `invoke` expressions to a problem similar to reasoning about loops. Thus, standard techniques for reasoning about loops, such as proof rules that rely on user-supplied invariants, could be applied here. Heuristics like the one used in ESC/Java [7] to unroll the loops are also applicable here. When the verifier decides to terminate recursive unrolling, based on any of the above-mentioned approaches, the translation function in the result expression is just ignored. Verification of the method `update` is similar.

### 3.4.5 Runtime Assertion Checking (RAC)

As previously mentioned, some of the verification obligations encountered during the verification are discharged by relying on runtime assertions. Runtime checking discharges the following obligations, verifying that: (1) each handler method satisfies the specification of the event types it handles (2) each event body satisfies the pre- and postconditions of its event type specification, (3) each `refining` expression body refines the specification it claims to refine, and (4) each event announce-
Figure 3.7 Runtime assertion checking (RAC). Gray lines show pseudo code corresponding to generated code by the compiler.

Figurement and consequent execution of all of its handler methods combined behavior, satisfies pre- and postconditions of the event type, regardless of the number of the handlers and their order of execution. Alternatively, a static checker like ESC/Java [7] could discharge these assumptions.

We have implemented runtime assertion checking in the Ptolemy compiler [18]. Figure 3.7 illustrates insertion of runtime probes by the Ptolemy compiler in the generated code. An abstraction function matches up context variable fe to its corresponding variables in the scopes of subject Point and handler Update.

To meet obligation (1) pre- and postcondition probes are inserted at the beginning and end of handler method body, before line 21 and after line 26. Runtime probes right before and after line 6 guarantee obligation (2). To verify that the refining expression on lines 23-25 refines the specification it claims to refine, obligation (3), runtime assertions are inserted before line 23 and after line 25. Finally to assure obligation (4) that event announcement and execution of handler methods does not violate the event type pre- and postconditions, runtime checks are enforced before and after announce and invoke expressions in the code. Runtime probes before line 5 and after line 7 guarantee the obligation for announce whereas probes right before and after line 22 meet the obligations for invoke.
CHAPTER 4. Analysis of Expressiveness

To analyze the expressiveness of translucid contracts, in this section we illustrate their application to specify base-aspect interaction patterns discussed by Rinard et al. [24]. Rinard et al. classify base-advice interaction patterns into: direct and indirect interference. Direct interference is concerned about control flow interactions whereas indirect interference refers to data flow interactions. Direct interference is concerned about calls to \texttt{invoke}, which is the Ptolemy’s equivalent of AspectJ’s \texttt{proceed}. Direct interference is further categorized into 4 classes of: augmentation, narrowing, replacement and combination advice which call \texttt{invoke} exactly once, at most once, zero and any number of times, respectively. An example, built upon the drawing editor example in Chapter 1, is shown for each category of the direct interference.

4.1 Direct Interference: Augmentation

Informally an augmentation handler evaluates \texttt{invoke} expression exactly once. An augmentation handler can be a before or after handler. After-augmentation handler is executed after the event body whereas in the before augmentation the order is opposite.

```
1 Fig event Changed{
2  Fig fe;
3  requires fe != null
4  assumes{
5    invoke(next);
6    establishes fe==old(fe)
7  }
8  ensures fe != null
9 }
```

Figure 4.1 Specifying augmentation with a translucid contract
To illustrate consider the translucid contract in Figure 4.1 on lines 3–8. Translucid contracts are required to reveal all appearances of the invoke expression, thus it is assured that all refining handlers will evaluate invoke expression exactly once.

Furthermore, **invoke** is called at the beginning of the contract, requiring event handlers to run after the event body which means not only the refining handlers are augmentation handlers, but also that they run after the event body, after-augmentation handlers.

Method `log` in class `Logging` in Figure 4.2 is an example of a conforming after-augmentation handler. The requirement for this method is “to log the changes when figures are changed”. The handler `log` causes the event body to be run first by calling `invoke` on line 12 and then logs the changes in the figure on line 14. The classes `Point` and `Fig` are the same as in Figure 1.1.

```
10 class Logging{
11   Fig log(thunk Fig rest, Fig fe){
12     invoke(rest);
13     refining establishes fe==old(fe){
14       Log.logChanges(fe); fe
15     }
16   }
17   when Changed do log;
18 }
```

Figure 4.2  After-augmentation handler

Structural similarity requires the handler implementation to evaluate **invoke** exactly once and at its very beginning which in turn ensures that the handlers is an “after-augmentation” handler. The handler refines the contract because line 12 matches line 5 and the refining expression on lines 13–15 refines the same specification as on line 6.

### 4.2 Direct Interference: Narrowing

A narrowing handler evaluates **invoke** at most once, which implies existence of a conditional statement guarding **invoke**.

To illustrate consider the translucid contract in Figure 4.3 on lines 5–8 which specifies narrowing handlers. The contract reveals appearances of **invoke** expression and the **if** expression guarding that which in turn ensures that invoke expression is evaluated at most once. It does not, however, reveal
Figure 4.3  Specifying narrowing with a translucid contract

the actual code that must refine the specification on line 8. All the refining handlers will have the same structure in their implementation with regard to invoke and if expressions, which makes them narrowing handlers.

Figure 4.4 illustrates a narrowing handler refining the contract shown in Figure 4.3. The handler implements an additional requirement for the figure editor example that “some figures are fixed and thus they may not be changed or moved”. To implement the constraint the field fixed is added to the class Fig, line 23. For fixed figures the value of this field is 1 and 0 otherwise. The class Point is the same as in Figure 1.1. To implement the constraint the handler check skips invoking the base code whenever the figure is fixed (checked by accessing the field fixed).

Figure 4.4  Narrowing handler

For the handler check to refine the contract in the event type Changed, its implementation must structurally match the contract. The true block of the if expression on line 14–15 refines the true block
of the if on lines 5–6 as they textually match. The false block of the if on line 16–19 refines the false block of the if on lines 7–8 because lines 17–19 claim to refine the specification on line 8. This claim is discharged by runtime assertions.

4.3 Direct Interference: Replacement

A replacement handler omits the execution of the original event body and runs the handler body instead. In Ptolemy this can be achieved by omitting the invoke expression in the handler.

```java
class Scale{
  int s;
  Fig scaleit(thunk Fig rest, Point p, int d){
    refining preserves p!=null && p.y==old(p.y){
      p.x += s*d; p
    }
    when Moved do scaleit;
  }
}
class Point extends Fig{
  int x, int y;
  Fig moveX(int d){
    announce Moved(this, d){
      this.x += d; this
    }
  }
}
```

Figure 4.6 Replacement handler

Figure 4.5 shows the contract in event type Moved specifying replacement handlers by not evaluating any invoke expression in the contract, line 6. Notice that (non) existence of an invoke expression in the contract requires the handler implementation to (not) evaluate the invoke in its body.

```java
10 Fig event Moved{
  2 Point p;
  3 int d;
  4 requires p != null && d > 0
  5 assumes:
  6 preserves p != null && p.y == old(p.y)
  7 }
  8 ensures p != null
}
```

Figure 4.5 Specifying replacement with a translucid contract
Figure 4.6 shows a replacement handler refining the contract in Figure 4.5. The example uses several standard sugars such as \(+=\) and \(>\). In this example, the method `moveX` causes a point to move along the x-axis by amount \(d\). The handler `scaleit` implements the requirement that the “amount of movement should be scaled by a scaling factor \(s\), defined in class `Scale`”.

If an contract has no `invoke` expression, none of the refining handlers are allowed to have an `invoke` in their implementation. Otherwise the structural similarity criterion of the refinement is violated. The handler `scaleit` refines `Moved`'s contract because its body on lines 13–15 matches the specification on line 6.

### 4.4 Direct Interference: Combination

A Combination handler, typically useful for fault tolerance, can functionalities, can evaluate `invoke` expression any number of times. (In AspectJ, this would be equivalent to one or more calls to `proceed` in an around advice, guarded by some condition or in a loop.) Figure 4.7 illustrates a combination contract and a handler. The translucid contract in the event type specification on lines 5–11 allows an `invoke` expression to be evaluated zero or more number of times. This is achieved by guarding the `invoke` expression by `while`. Based on the contract specially looking at the while loop surrounding `invoke`, the base code developer can conclude that handler methods for event `ClChange` may run the original event body multiple times. The developer, however, is not aware of the concrete details of handlers, thus those details remain hidden.

A combination handler is illustrated in Figure 4.7 lines 15–34. In this example, colors are added to the figures elements by adding a field `color` to the class `Fig` and by providing a method `setColor` for picking the color of the figure, lines 35–43. The class `Color` which provides a method `nextCol` to get the next available color is not shown.

To implement the requirement that “each figure should have a unique color”, event type `ClChange` is declared as an abstraction of events representing colors changes. The method `setColor` changes colors so it announces the event `ClChange` on lines 39–41. The body of the announce expression contains the code to obtain the next color on line 40. The handler `Unique` on lines 15–34 implements this requirement by storing already-used colors in a hash table (`colors`). The field `colFix` is added
to class \( \text{Fig} \) to show that a unique color has been chosen and fixed for the figure. When the handler method \( \text{check} \) is run it checks \( \text{colFix} \) to see if a color has been chosen yet or not. If not then it invokes the event body generating the next candidate color. If the color is already used, checked by looking it up in the hash table, event body is invoked again to generate the next candidate color. Otherwise, the current color is inserted into the hash table and \( \text{colFix} \) is set to 1, lines 21–26.

The specification for \( \text{ClChange} \) on lines 4–12 says that a combination handler will be run when this event is announced. The specification makes use of the choice feature, on line 7–10. To correctly refine the specification, based on the refinement rules in Figure 3.2, a handler can either have a refining \( \text{if} \) expression at the corresponding place in its body or it can have an unconditional expression refining the either-block or the or-branch in the specification. Refinement between specification and implementation blocks is illustrated in the figure.

### 4.5 More Expressive Control Flow Properties

Rinard et al.’s control flow properties are only concerned about calls to \( \text{invoke} \). Their proposed technique decides which class of interference and category of control effects each isolated advice belongs to [24]. However, it can not be used to analyze the possibility of two or more control flow paths
each of which being, e.g. an augmentation, if each path maintains a different invariant. Figure 4.8 illustrates such a scenario with an example adapted from [12].

In this example the requirement is “a point should be visibly distinguished from the origin” [12]. If the point is close enough to the origin, its coordinates will be scaled up by a scaling factor $s$ added to **Point** on line 29, initially set to 1, line 32. The scaling factor $s$ has only two values: 1 and 10. The requirement is implemented in the handler method `scaleit` which runs whenever event `Moved` is announced and sets up the scaling factor to 10 if the point is close enough to the origin (vicinity condition). The vicinity condition is true if the point’s $x$ and $y$ coordinates are both less than 5. The class **Fig** is the same as in Figure 1.1.

The assertions to be validated here are as follows: (i) all of the handlers are after-augmentation ones, (ii) the scaling factor $s$ is either 1 or 10, and (iii) $s$ is set to 10 if and only if the vicinity condition holds. Rinard et al.’s proposal could only be used to verify (i) and a behavioral contract could specify (ii) but none of them could specify (iii). However translucid contracts can. On lines 6–9 there is a specification that conveys to the developer of the class **Point** that a conforming handler method will satisfy all three of the above-mentioned assertions.

**Figure 4.8** Expressive control flow properties beyond [24]
In summary, we showed how translucid contracts enable specification and automatic verification, via structural refinement, of control flow interference between a subject and its observers. Translucid contracts are expressive enough to specify and enforce Rinard et al.’s [24] control interference even ones which could not be specified by previous works on the design by contract for aspects.
CHAPTER 5. Applicability to Other AO Interfaces

We now discuss the applicability of our technique to other approaches for AO interfaces. As discussed previously, there are several competing and often complementary proposals for AO interfaces. For example, Kiczales and Mezini’s aspect-aware interfaces (AAI) [13], Sullivan et al.’s crosscutting interfaces (XPIs) [28], Aldrich’s Open Modules [1], and Steimann et al.’s join point types [27]. We have tried out several of these ideas and our approach works beautifully. Since Steimann et al.’s join point types [27] and Hoffman and Eugster’s explicit join points (EJP) are similar in spirit to Ptolemy, which we have already discussed in previous chapters, we do not present the straightforward adaptation of our ideas to their work here. Rather we focus on the AspectJ implementation of the XPI approach [28], Kiczales and Mezini’s AAIs [13], and Aldrich’s Open Modules [1] that are substantially distinct from event types [19, Fig. 10].

5.1 Translucid Contracts for XPIs and AAIs

Sullivan et al. [28] proposed a methodology, that they call crosscut programming interface (XPI) for aspect-oriented design based on design rules.

```
1 aspect Changed {
2   pointcut jp(Fig fe): call(void Fig+.set*(..))&& target(fe);
3   requires fe != null
4   assumes{
5       if(fe.fixed == 0)
6           proceed(fe);
7       else
8           establishes fe == old(fe);
9     }
10   ensures fe != null
11 }
```

Figure 5.1 Applying translucid contract to an XPI
The key idea is to establish a design rule interface which serves to decouple the base design and the aspect design. These design rules govern exposure of execution phenomena as join points, how they are exposed through the join point model of the given language, and constraints on behavior across join points (e.g. provides and requires conditions [28]).

XPIs prescribe rules for join point exposure, but do not provide a compliance mechanism. Sullivan et al. have shown that at least some design rules can be enforced automatically using AspectJ’s features[28]. Current proposals for XPIs, however, all use behavioral contracts [28].

As shown previously, use of behavioral contracts, limits the expressiveness of the assertions which could be made using XPI. Behavioral contracts cannot reveal control flow details, which might be needed for reasoning about interference from control effects in cases such as those discussed above.

In this section, we show that translucid contracts can also be applied to enable expressive assertions about aspect-oriented programs that use the XPI approach. We also discuss changes in the refinement rules that are needed to verify such programs. To illustrate, consider the narrowing example from Section 4.2 shown in Figure 5.1 and Figure 5.2, where the constraint on movement of figures is implemented as an XPI and an aspect. Figure 5.1 shows the XPI Changed along with the translucid contract on lines 4–11. An XPI typically also contains a description of scope, which we omit here. In the context of XPIs, the language for expressing translucid contract is slightly adapted to use proceed instead of invoke on line 7. Other than that, our syntax works right out-of-the-box.

```
13 aspect Enforce {
14  Fig around(Fig fe): Changed.jp(fe){
15    if(fe.fixed == 0)
16      proceed(fe);
17    else
18      refining establishes fe==old(fe){
19      return fe;
20    }
21  }
22 }
23 class Fig { int fixed; }
```

Figure 5.2 Narrowing advice for XPI

Unlike translucid contracts for event types in Ptolemy, where the contract is thought of as attached to the type, in the XPI, contracts are thought of as attached to the pointcut declaration, e.g. the contract
on lines 4–11 is attached to the pointcut on lines 2–3. The variables that can be named in the contract are those exposed by the pointcut. For example, the contract can only use \( fe \).

Our proposal for verifying refinement also needs only minor changes. Figure 5.2 shows a refining advice for the translucid contract of Figure 5.1. Unlike Ptolemy, where the event types of interest are specified in the binding declarations, in Sullivan et al.’s version of XPIs, aspects reuse the pointcut declarations from the XPI in the advice declaration (lines 14). Our refinement rules could be added here in the AO type system. So for an advice declaration to be well-formed, its pointcut declaration must be well-formed, the advice body must be well-formed, and the advice body must refine the translucid contract of the pointcut declaration. This strategy works for basic pointcuts, for compound pointcuts constructed using rules such as \((pcd_1 \land \text{pcd}_2 \lor \text{pcd}_1 \land \text{pcd}_2)\), where both \( \text{pcd}_1 \) and \( \text{pcd}_2 \) are reused from different XPIs and thus may have independent contracts; more complex refinement rules will be needed, which we have not explored in this thesis.

```java
1 Point extends Fig {
2  int x, int y;
3  Fig setX(int x): Update -
4   after returning Update.jp(Fig fe)
5    ...     else
10      establishes fe == old(fe);
11    }
12    ensures fe != null
13 /* body of setX */  
14 }
```

Figure 5.3 Applying translucid contract to an AAI

Join point interfaces like XPIs could be computed from the implementation rather than being explicitly specified, given whole-program information. Kiczales and Mezini [13] follow this approach to extract aspect-aware interfaces (AAI). A detailed discussion of the trade-offs of such interfaces is the subject of previous work[28]. However, an important property of AAIs is that advised join points contain the details of the advice. An example based on the narrowing example of Section 4.2 is shown in Figure 5.3. The extracted AAI for the method \textit{setX} is shown on lines 3-4. An adaptation of this extraction to include translucid contracts will be to carry over the contract from the pointcut to the join point shadow as shown on lines 5–12.
Syntax and refinement rules similar to XPIs are applicable here. Like AAI annotations that provide developers of Point with information about potentially advising aspects, added contract would provide developers of Point with richer abstraction over the aspect’s behavior. Similar ideas can also be applied to aspect-oriented development environments such as AJDT, which provide AAI-like information at join point shadows in an AO program.

### 5.2 Translucid Contracts for Open Modules

Aldrich’s proposal on Open Modules [1] is closely related to Ptolemy’s quantified, typed events [19]. Open Modules allows a class developer to explicitly expose pointcuts for behavioral modifications by aspects, which is similar to signaling events using the `announce` expressions of Ptolemy. The implementations of these pointcuts remain hidden from the aspects. As a result, the impact of base code changes on the aspect is reduced. However, quantification in Ptolemy is more expressive compared to Open Modules. In open modules, each explicitly declared pointcut has to be enumerated by the aspect for advising. On the other hand, Ptolemy’s quantified, typed events significantly simplify quantification. Instead of manually enumerating the join points of interest, one can use the name of the event type for implicit non-syntactic selection of join points. This affects applicability of translucid contracts to Open Modules.

```plaintext
module FigModule {
  class Fig;
  expose to Enforce: call(void Fig+.set*(..));
  requires fe != null
  assumes{
    if(fe.fixed == 0)
      proceed(fe);
    else
      establishes fe == old(fe);
  }
  ensures fe != null
}
```

Figure 5.4 Applying translucid contract to Open Modules

To show the applicability of translucid contracts to Open Modules, we revisit the narrowing example from Section 4.2. Figure 5.4 and Figure 5.5 show the implementation of the same scenario using Open Modules. In implementing the example, we use the syntax from the work of Ongkingco et al.
Figure 5.5 Narrowing handler for Open Module

[16] to retain similarity with other examples. In the listing constraints on the movement of figure is encapsulated in the module (aspect) Enforce in Figure 5.5. Open module FigModule in Figure 5.4 exposes a pointcut of class Fig on line 2–3, marked by the keyword expose to. The exposed pointcut is advisable only by the aspect Enforce. The translucid contract on lines 4–11 states the behavior of interaction between specified aspect Enforce as shown in Figure 5.5 and the exposed pointcut through expose to construct. The adaptations in the syntax of contracts are the same as in the case of the XPIs discussed in Section 5.1.

Like contracts in XPIs, contracts in Open Modules are attached to a pointcut declaration, e.g. the contract on lines 4–11 is attached to the exposed pointcut defined on lines 2–3. Variables that can be named in the contract are those exposed by the pointcut, e.g., the contract can only use the variable fe.

The rules proposed for verifying refinement need to be modified slightly as well. In Ptolemy, event type of interest is specified in the binding declaration whereas in AspectJ’s version of Open Modules, aspects could not reuse pointcuts exposed by an Open Module and need to enumerate the pointcut in the advice declaration again (lines 14–15). Our refinement rules could be added here in an AO type system. Well-formedness of basic and compound pointcuts follow the same rules laid out in Section 5.1.

This example illustrates how our approach might be used as a specification and verification technique for Open Modules. The only challenge that we saw in this process was to match an aspect’s pointcut definition with the open module’s pointcut definition to import its contract for checking refinement. Like translucid contracts for Ptolemy, in the case of Open Modules specification serves as a more expressive documentation of the interface between aspects and classes.
CHAPTER 6. Related Ideas

There is a rich and extensive body of ideas that are related to ours. Here, we discuss those that are closely related under three categories: contracts for aspects, proposals for modular reasoning, and verification approaches based on grey box specification.

6.1 Contracts for Aspects

This work is closest in the spirit to the work on crosscutting programming interfaces (XPIs) [28]. XPIs also allow contracts to be written as part of the interfaces as \texttt{provides} and \texttt{requires} clauses. Similar to translucid contracts, the \texttt{provides} clause establishes a contract on the code that announces events, whereas the \texttt{requires} clauses specifies obligations of the code that handles events. However, the contracts specified by these works are mostly informal behavioral contracts and thus are not easily checked automatically. Furthermore, these works do not describe a verification technique and contracts could be bypassed.

Skotiniotis and Lorenz [26] propose contracts for both objects and aspects in their tool \textit{Cona}. Cona’s contracts are black box, and thus do not reveal any information about control flow effects.

Similarly, Pipa is a behavioral specification language for AspectJ [31]. Pipa supports specification inheritance and specification crosscutting. It relies on textual copying of specifications for specification inheritance and syntactical weaving of specification for specification crosscutting. AspectJ program annotated with JML-like Pipa’s specifications could be transformed into JML and Java code. JML-based verification tools could enforce specified behavioral constraints. All of these ideas use black box contracts and thus may not be used to reason about control effects of advice.
6.2 Modular Reasoning

There is a large body of work on modular reasoning about AO programs on language designs [1, 6, 9], design methods [13, 28], and verification techniques [10, 14]. Our work complements ideas in the first and the second categories and can use ideas in the third category for improved expressiveness. Compared to work on reasoning about implicit invocation [3, 8], our approach based on structural refinement is significantly lightweight. Furthermore, it accounts for quantification that these ideas do not account for.

Oliveira et al. [17] introduce a non-oblivious core language with explicit advice points and explicit advice composition requiring effects modeled as monads to be part of the component interfaces. Their statically typed model could enforce control and data flow interference properties. Their work shares commonalities with ours in terms of explicit interfaces having more expressive contracts to state and enforce the behavior of interactions. However, it is difficult to adapt their ideas built upon their non-AO core language, to II, AO, and Ptolemy as they do not support quantification.

Hoffman and Eugster’s explicit join points [9] and Steimann et al.’s join point types [27] share similar spirit with Rajan and Leavan’s event types [19]. Although Steimann et al. proposed informal behavioral specification, their work has no explicit notion of formally expressed and enforced contracts, or stating interaction behavior, nor do any of these other approaches.

The work of Khatchadourian et al. [11] is closely related in that it addresses both specification and modular verification of AO programs. They use a rely-guarantee approach to specification and verification. Black box behavioral specifications are attached to PCDs in pointcut interfaces, in a way similar to our work. The assumes part of a translucid contract plays a role similar to the rely conditions in their specifications, since it specifies the possible state transformations that advice may implement. Structural refinement in our approach plays a role similar to the guarantee part of their specification, since it also limits what the advice (or handler) can do. The main difference is that they use “join point traces” to reason about control effects, which adds an extra burden on the specifier and verifier compared to our grey box approach, which allows more traditional reasoning about control effects in terms of the underlying programming language’s control flow. Their approach is based on black box behavioral specification.
6.3 Grey Box Specification and Verification

This work builds upon previous research on grey box specification and verification [5]. Among others, Barnett and Schulte have used grey box specifications written in AsmL [4] for verifying contracts for .NET, Wasserman and Blum [30] also use a restricted form of grey box specifications for verification, Tyler and Soundarajan [29] and most recently Shaner et al. [25] have used grey box specifications for verification of methods that make mandatory calls to other dynamically-dispatched methods. Rajan et al. have used grey box specification to enable expressive assertions about web-services [23]. Compared to these ideas, our work is the first to consider grey box specification as a mechanism to enable modular reasoning about code that announces events and handles events, which is a common idiom of AO and II languages.
CHAPTER 7. Soundness of Reasoning

To reason about a method’s body \((e)\) containing \texttt{announce} and \texttt{invoke} expressions, we use the translation algorithm shown in Figure 3.4 to generate a simulating specification expression \((se)\) (see Chapter 3). We claim that the method body expression \(e\) is a Hoare logic-based refinement of generated simulating specification expression \(se\) [25]. In other words, if starting with a precondition state \(\phi_p\) the specification expression \(se\) implies the postcondition state \(\phi_q\), then starting with the same precondition state \(\phi_p\) and by running \(e\), we will reach the postcondition state \(\phi_q\). This condition is formalized in the definition below.

Definition 1 (Hoare Logic Refinement) A specification expression \(se\) is said to be Hoare-logic-refined by expression \(e\), expressed as \(se \preceq e\), if and only if for all predicates over program states \(\phi_p\) and \(\phi_q\),
\[
\phi_p\{se\}\phi_q \Rightarrow \phi_p\{e\}\phi_q.
\]

To prove our claim, we rely on Shaner et al.’s work on reasoning about object-oriented programs that contain specification expressions [25]. This work proves that an object-oriented program expression \(e_{oo}\) is a Hoare-logic refinement of an object-oriented specification expression \(se_{oo}\), if \(e_{oo}\)’s structure matches \(se_{oo}\)’s structure and for every specification expression \(spec\) in \(se_{oo}\) there is a corresponding refining expression in \(e_{oo}\) that claims, and is verified to, refine \(spec\) according to Hoare logic. We incorporate their result as the lemma below.

Lemma 1 (Shaner-Leavens-Naumann Soundness) Let \(se_{oo}\) and \(e_{oo}\) be specification and program expressions and let \(se_{oo} \subseteq e_{oo}\), as defined in Figure 3.2, then for all predicates over program states \(\phi_p\) and \(\phi_q\),
\[
\phi_p\{se_{oo}\}\phi_q \Rightarrow \phi_p\{e_{oo}\}\phi_q.
\]

But Shaner et al. only prove their results for object-oriented expressions (meaning the expressions in their paper [25]). To apply these results to reasoning about Ptolemy programs, we must reduce
both Ptolemy-specific specification expressions and program expressions to object-oriented expressions (from [25]). Below we give some sub-results along those lines.

Lemma 2 shows that the translation algorithm (Figure 3.4) produces object-oriented (OO) specification expressions whereas lemma 3 shows that the substitution algorithm, of Figure 7.3, produces OO program expressions. The translation algorithm replaces invoke expressions by event type contract, whereas the substitution algorithm replaces invoke expressions by the body of the next applicable handler in the chain of handlers to simulate event announcement.

**Lemma 2 (Translation Produces Object-Oriented Specification Expressions)** Let $se_{pt}$ be an expression which may contain Ptolemy-specific expressions and let $se_{oo}$ be the result of the application of applying the translation algorithm shown in Figure 3.4 to $se_{pt}$, i.e. $se_{oo} = Tr(se_{pt}, \text{skip}, \bot)$. Then $se_{oo}$ is an object-oriented specification expression.

The proof of this lemma is trivial and is done by cases on the translation algorithm.

In previous work, Rajan and Leavens [20] have developed a semantics of Ptolemy programs where Ptolemy-specific expressions are natively supported. For the purpose of soundness proof here, consider an alternative version of operational semantics as shown in Figure 7.1. In Ptolemy’s alternative semantics, execution of announce and register expressions result in the execution of program expressions which are the result of application of substitution algorithm to announce and register expressions respectively. The substitution algorithm replaces invoke expressions with the body of the next handler in the chain of handlers, thus rules for invoke expressions originally found in Ptolemy’s operational semantics [19] are not needed anymore. Ptolemy’s original semantics uses a list of active objects $A$ to keep track of registered observer objects, in alternative semantics presented here a constant memory location $loc.A$ in the store, which points to an object which stores list of active objects. The (REFINING) rule, along with (EVALBODY) and (EVALPOST), make sure that a refining expression truly refines the implementation it hides and claims to refine. Aside from the changes described here, the rest of the Ptolemy’s operational semantics remains the same as originally proposed in [19].

The alternative operational semantics along with lemma 3 pave the way to conclude that substitution algorithm applied to announce expressions produces a program expression which simulates the
Evaluation relation: \( \rightarrow: \Gamma \rightarrow \Gamma \)

- **REGISTER**
  \[
  e' = \text{Subst}(\text{register}(e), \text{skip}, \bot, \text{null})
  \]
  \(\text{register}(e), J, S \rightarrow \langle e', J, S \rangle\)

- **ANOUNCE**
  \[
  e' = \text{Subst}(\text{announce } p \langle e \rangle, \text{skip}, \bot, \text{null})
  \]
  \(\text{announce } p \langle e \rangle, J, S \rightarrow \langle e', J, S \rangle\)

- **REFINING**
  \[
  e' = \text{Subst}(\text{register}(e), \text{skip}, \bot, \text{null})
  \]
  \(\text{register}(e), J, S \rightarrow \langle e', J, S \rangle\)

- **EVALBODY**
  \[
  n \neq 0
  \]
  \(\text{Subst}(\text{register}(e), \text{skip}, \bot, \text{null})
  \]
  \(\text{register}(e), J, S \rightarrow \langle e', J, S \rangle\)

- **EVALPOST**
  \[
  n \neq 0
  \]
  \(\text{Subst}(\text{register}(e), \text{skip}, \bot, \text{null})
  \]
  \(\text{register}(e), J, S \rightarrow \langle e', J, S \rangle\)

- **UNDER**
  \[
  n \neq 0
  \]
  \(\text{Subst}(\text{register}(e), \text{skip}, \bot, \text{null})
  \]
  \(\text{register}(e), J, S \rightarrow \langle e', J, S \rangle\)

**Figure 7.1** Alternative operational semantics of Ptolemy[20]

behavior of event announcement. Lemma 3 shows that Ptolemy-specific program expressions are reduced to object-oriented expressions using the substitution algorithm.

**Lemma 3** (Substitution Produces Object-Oriented Program Expressions) Let \(\text{loc}_A\) be a constant memory location in store which points to the list of active objects. Let \(e_{pt}\) be a program expression which may contain Ptolemy-specific expressions and let \(e_{oo}\) be the result of the application of the substitution algorithm shown in Figure 7.3 to \(e_{pt}\), i.e. \(e_{oo} = \text{Subst}(e_{pt}, \text{skip}, \bot, \text{null})\). Then expression \(e_{oo}\) is an object-oriented program expression.

Proof of this lemma is again trivial and could easily be carried out by case analysis like lemma 2.

### 7.1 Substitution Algorithm

The substitution and translation algorithms are similar on one hand, in the sense that they both replace announce and invoke expressions, on the other hand, they are different as substitution algorithm produces a program expression by replacing announce and invoke expressions, whereas translation algorithm results in a specification expression. The translation algorithm replaces announce and invoke expressions with either the event type’s contract or the event body, depending on the existence of applicable handlers. The substitution algorithm replaces those expressions with either body of the next handler or event body, again based on the existence of applicable handlers. \(\text{Subst}(e, b_e, p, \text{loc}_h)\) is the application of substitution algorithm to program expression \(e\), with event \(p\) announced and event body
$b_e$. Instead of list of active objects $A$ in Ptolemy’s original semantics, the substitution algorithm uses
a constant memory location loc$_A$. Location loc$_A$ points to an object of class $\text{ActiveList}$, which is
responsible for tracking the list of receiver objects for applicable handlers.

Most cases of substitution algorithm $\text{Subst}$ are straightforward; like those of the translation algo-
thesis, they recursively apply $\text{Subst}$ to each subexpression and compose the results. Figure 7.3 shows
how to do that. For Ptolemy-specific expressions, the rule for $\text{refining spec}\{e\}$ basically applies
the substitution algorithm to the subexpression $e$. The rule for $\text{register}(e)$, first applies the sub-
stitution algorithm to the subexpression $e$ and then adds it to the list of the applicable handlers. The
most interesting cases are those for the invoke and announce expressions. In the substitution of these
expressions specially for invoke expression, the assumption is that the contract for event type $p$ is of the
form $\text{requires } sp_p \text{ assumes } \{se_p\} \text{ ensures } sp'_p$. Consequently in the substitution of announce
expression the contract for event $p'$ will be like $\text{requires } sp_{p'} \text{ assumes } \{se_{p'}\} \text{ ensures } sp'_{p'}$.

In both cases conditional if expressions are produced as the body of a refining expression. The
refining expression claims to refine the black box behavioral specification $\text{spec}$ of the event type $p$. The
refinement of the specification expression by the body of a refining expression is taken care of by run
time assertion checking, as discussed in Section 3.4.5.

$\text{Subst}(\text{invoke}(e), b_e, p, \text{loc}_{h})$ produces a conditional if expression which checks for the number
of applicable handlers. In its true branch, the conditional expression, contains a sequence of two expres-
sions: substitution of parameter expression $e$ and substitution of the event body $b_e$, with the assumption
that there are no more applicable handlers. Likewise, the false branch of the conditional contains a
sequence of two expressions: result of the substitution of parameter expression $e$ and result of the sub-
stitution of the body of the next applicable handler. The assumption of this branch is the existence of
more applicable handlers. Compare this to the translation of invoke expression in Section 3.4.3.

In case of an announce expression $\text{announce } p' (\bar{e}) \{e\}$, the result of substitution is again a condi-
tional if expression checking for the number of applicable handlers. The true branch of the conditional
contains a sequence of two expressions: substitution of parameter expressions $\bar{e}$ and substitution of the
event body $e$. The assumption in this branch is that there are no more applicable handlers. The false
branch of the conditional contains a sequence of two expressions as well: result of the substitution of
parameter expression $\bar{e}$ and result of the substitution of the body of the next applicable handler. Readers are encouraged to compare this to the translation of announce expression in Section 3.4.3.

Figure 7.4 shows auxiliary functions used in the substitution algorithm. Function $suc(loc_h, p)$ returns the body of the next handler of event $p$ using the location $loc_h$ which points to the list of applicable handlers for event $p$. The function gets the location of the first handler of event $p$ by calling method $getFirst()$ and performs a standard $\beta$-reduction on the handler method’s body. $\alpha$-renaming takes care of name clashes, if any. Auxiliary function $findHandler(c, p, CT)$ returns the handler for event $p$ in class $c$ where $CT$ is a list of program declarations. Function $eventsOf(CT, loc)$ returns a list of events that object $loc$ observes.

```
1 class ActiveList {
2  Hashtable hash;
3  LinkedList handlers(Event p){
4   LinkedList hList = null;
5   hList = (LinkedList)hash.get(p); hList
6 } 
7  void add(Object o, Event p){
8   LinkedList hList = null;
9   hList = (LinkedList)hash.get(p);
10  if(hList != null)
11     hList.add(o)
12  else{
13     hList = new LinkedList();
14     hList.add(o);
15     hash.put(p, hList)
16   }
17  }
18  void add(Object o, LinkedList evs){
19   Event p = null;
20   int size = evs.size();
21   for(int i=0 ;i<size; i++){
22     p = (Event)evs.remove(i);
23     add(o,p)
24   }
25 }
26 }
27 class HashTable {…}
28 class LinkedList {…}
29 class Event {…}
```

Figure 7.2 Classes to simulate list of active objects

To implement the substitution algorithm we assume the existence of some pre-defined classes like `ActiveList` as shown in Figure 7.2. `ActiveList` keeps track of the list of active objects per event type. Handlers of each specific event are stored in a `LinkedList`. Constant location $loc_A$ points to an object of type `ActiveList`. Method `add(Object o, LinkedList evs)` in `ActiveList`
adds object \( o \) as the observer for all events in the list \( \text{evs} \). Classes \texttt{Hashtable} and \texttt{LinkedList} are the same as classes \texttt{Hashtable} and \texttt{LinkedList} in Java. Class \texttt{LinkedList} has an extra method \texttt{tail} which returns the tail of the list.

If \( b_e \): event body, \( p \) and \( p' \): event types

\[ \exists \text{var context variables for } p \text{ and } \exists \text{var context variables for } p' \text{ such that } \text{translucid contract for } p' \text{ is: } \begin{array}{c}
\text{requires } sp_p \text{, assumes } (se_p) \text{ ensures } sp'_{p'} \\
\text{loc}_{A'}: \text{Constant location for list of active objects} \\
\text{loc}_b: \text{Location for the list of handlers of event } p
\end{array} \]

Then \( \text{Subst}(e, b_e, p, \text{loc}_b) = \)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cases of ( e )</th>
<th>Result</th>
<th>Side Conditions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( \text{new } c() ), ( \text{var null} )</td>
<td>( e )</td>
<td>( e' = \text{Subst}(e, b_e, p, \text{loc}_b) )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( e.f )</td>
<td>( e'.f )</td>
<td>( e' = \text{Subst}(e, b_e, p, \text{loc}_b) )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( e.m(e) )</td>
<td>( e'.m(e') )</td>
<td>( e' = \text{Subst}(e, b_e, p, \text{loc}_b) )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( e_0.f = e_1 )</td>
<td>( e_0'.f = e_1' )</td>
<td>( e_0' = \text{Subst}(e_0, b_e, p, \text{loc}_b) ), ( e_1' = \text{Subst}(e_1, b_e, p, \text{loc}_b) )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>if( (e){e_0}) else( (e_1))</td>
<td>if( (e'){e_0'}) else( (e_1'))</td>
<td>( e' = \text{Subst}(e, b_e, p, \text{loc}_b) ), ( e_0' = \text{Subst}(e_0, b_e, p, \text{loc}_b) ), ( e_1' = \text{Subst}(e_1, b_e, p, \text{loc}_b) )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>while( (e){e_0})</td>
<td>while( (e'){e_0'})</td>
<td>( e_0' = \text{Subst}(e_0, b_e, p, \text{loc}_b) )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cast ( c \ e )</td>
<td>cast ( c \ e' )</td>
<td>( e' = \text{Subst}(e, b_e, p, \text{loc}_b) )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( e_0 : e_1 )</td>
<td>( e_0'; e_1' )</td>
<td>( e_0' = \text{Subst}(e_0, b_e, p, \text{loc}_b) ), ( e_1' = \text{Subst}(e_1, b_e, p, \text{loc}_b) )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \text{var} = ) ( e_0 ) ( \text{loc}_b )</td>
<td>( \text{var} = e_0'; e_1' )</td>
<td>( e_0' = \text{Subst}(e_0, b_e, p, \text{loc}_b) ), ( e_1' = \text{Subst}(e_1, b_e, p, \text{loc}_b) )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>refining ( \text{spec} { e } )</td>
<td>refining ( \text{spec} { e' } )</td>
<td>( e = \text{Subst}(e, b_e, p, \text{loc}_b) )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \text{register}(e) )</td>
<td>( \text{loc}_A.\text{add}(e', \text{evs}) )</td>
<td>( e' = \text{Subst}(e, b_e, p, \text{loc}_b) ), ( \text{evs} = \text{eventsOf}(\text{CT}, e') )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| invoke\( (e) \) | refining \( \text{spec} \{ \begin{array}{c}
\text{if}(k == 0)\{e'; b_k\} \\
\text{else}\{e''; e''\}
\end{array} \} \) | \( \text{loc}_k = \text{loc}_A.\text{handlers}(p) \), \( k = \text{loc}_k.\text{size}() \), \( \text{spec} = \text{requires } sp_k \text{, assumes } (se_k) \text{ ensures } sp'_{k'} \), \( e' = \text{Subst}(e, b_e, p, \text{loc}_k) \), \( e'' = \text{Subst}(e_2, b_e, p, \text{loc}_{k'}) \), \( \text{loc}_{k'} = \text{loc}_A.\text{tail}() \), \( e''' = \text{Subst}(\text{Suc} (\text{loc}_{k'}), b_e, p, \text{loc}_{\text{tail}}) \) |
| announce \( p'(b) \{ e \} \) | refining \( \text{spec} \{ \begin{array}{c}
\text{if}(k' == 0)\{e'; b_k\} \\
\text{else}\{e''; e''\}
\end{array} \} \) | \( \text{loc}_{k'} = \text{loc}_A.\text{handlers}(p') \), \( k' = \text{loc}_{k'}.\text{size}() \), \( \text{spec} = \text{requires } sp_k \text{, assumes } (se_k) \text{ ensures } sp'_{k'} \), \( e' = \text{Subst}(e, b_e, p, \text{loc}_{k'}) \), \( e'' = \text{Subst}(e, b_e, p', \text{loc}_{k'}) \), \( \text{loc}_{\text{tail}} = \text{loc}_{A'.\text{tail}}() \), \( e''' = \text{Subst}(\text{Suc} (\text{loc}_{k'}), b_e, p', \text{loc}_{\text{tail}}) \) |

Figure 7.3 Substitution algorithm

### 7.2 Proof of Soundness

To prove the soundness of our reasoning approach, we have proved the translation algorithm sound, i.e., that the specification expression produced by translation algorithm used for reasoning is refined by
the program expression produced by substitution algorithm. Theorem 1 formalizes this.

To reason about a method which may announce an event, translation algorithm is applied to the method body, $e_{pt}$, which may include Ptolemy-specific expressions and the result specification expression $se_{oo}$ is used to reason about the method. Lemma 2 assures $se_{oo}$ is an OO specification expression and therefore can be used for reasoning purposes based on Shaner et al.’s approach [25] as stated by lemma 1. This is possible only, if there is a guarantee that $se_{oo}$ is specifying the runtime behavior of the method. The substitution algorithm along with the alternative operational semantics given in Figure 7.1 simulates the original Ptolemy’s operational semantics for event announcement. Lemma 3 makes sure that the result of the application of substitution algorithm to $e_{pt}$ is an OO program expression, $e_{oo}$. Finally theorem 1 guarantees that $se_{oo}$ is stating the behavior of $e_{oo}$, i.e $se_{oo} \preceq e_{oo}$, definition 1.

Theorem 1 (Refinement Theorem) Let program expression $e$ be the body of a method $m$ and $se' = Tr(e, skip, \bot)$ be the translation of $e$. Let $e' = Subst(e, skip, \bot, null)$ be the substitution of $e$. Then: $se' \preceq e'$.

Proof: The proof is by induction on the cases of expression $e$. For each case we prove $se' \subseteq e'$ as defined in Figure 3.2 and then conclude $se' \preceq e'$ based on lemma 1 and definition 1. Proof given here is based on the cases of $e$ where $e$ is a non-specification expression. Thus specification expressions $next, old(se), either \{se\} or \{se\}$, requires $sp$ ensures $sp$ are not considered in the proof.

- $e \in \{n, var, null, new c()\}$, this is vacuously true because $se' = e$ and $e' = e$ and any expression is refined by itself, i.e, $e \subseteq e$. Therefore $se' \subseteq e'$ which in turn implies $se' \preceq e'$ based on lemma 1 and definition 1.
• $e = e.m(\bar{e})$, where $se' = Tr(e.m(\bar{e}),\text{skip},\bot)$ and $e' = \text{Subst}(e.m(\bar{e}),\text{skip},\bot,\text{null})$.

Based on the induction hypothesis a subexpression in $se'$ is refined by its corresponding subexpression in $e'$. And based on the definition of the translation and substitution algorithms it is easy to see that $se'$ and $e'$ are structurally similar. Therefore $se' \sqsubseteq e'$.

• For $e \in \{e.f, e.fe = e, \text{if}(e)\{e\} \text{else}\{e\}, \text{cast} e, e; e, \text{while}(e)\{e\}, t \text{var} = e; e\}$, the proof is similar to the proof for method call case of $e = e.m(\bar{e})$.

• $e = \text{refining} \{e\}$, where $se' = \text{spec}$ and $e' = \text{refining} \{\text{Subst}(e,\text{skip},\bot,\text{null})\}$. Refining expression $e'$ is refining specification expression $\text{spec}$ which is the same as $se'$.

• $e = \text{register}(e)$, based on the induction hypothesis a subexpression in $se'$ is refined by its corresponding subexpression in $e'$. As it can be seen the substitution of register expression is manipulating the list of active objects through $loc_A$. An Unrolling strategy in the specification expression generated by translation algorithm takes care of different number of handlers.

• $e = \text{invoke}(e)$, again induction hypothesis assures a subexpression in $se'$ is refined by its corresponding subexpression in $e'$. Also recall that each handler method refines its event type specification which means refinement of $se_p$ by the body of the next handler $suc(loc_h, p)$. Structural similarity of $se'$ and $e'$ could easily be seen in Figure 7.5. Translation and substitution of invoke and announce expressions is shown in this figure. Refinement rules in Figure 3.2 assure either-or block on translation side for invoke expression in Figure 7.5 is refined by if-else block on substitution side.

• $e = \text{announce} p'(\bar{se})\{se\}$. Based on the induction hypothesis a subexpression in $se'$ is refined by its counterpart subexpression in $e'$. Structural similarity of $se'$ and $e'$ could easily be seen in Figure 7.5.
Figure 7.5 Structural similarity of translation and substitution of announce and invoke expressions

Proving theorem 1 means our proposed reasoning approach is sound. In other words statically computed translation of a Ptolemy expression containing announce and invoke expressions, is an object-oriented specification expression which could be used for reasoning purposes without being dependent on runtime configuration of the system, i.e. number of the handlers and their order of execution.
CHAPTER 8. Conclusion and Future Work

We showed how to modularly specify and verify Ptolemy programs that use dynamically announced events and handlers, which is similar to AspectJ’s pointcuts and dynamic advice.

First, Ptolemy [19] provides a notion of event type declarations. Event announcement names an event type, and so code announcing an event can use the translucid contracts given in the event type declaration. Similarly, handlers are statically bound to event types in binding declarations, and this allows binding verification to also modularly refer to the event type’s translucid contract. As the interface between event announcements and handlers, event type declarations are thus a good place to write translucid contracts. We also demonstrated the applicability of our techniques to other type of AO interfaces [1, 9, 13, 27, 28]. Second, Ptolemy’s explicit announcement solves the problem of frequent join point shadows, since one only has to deal with handlers where events are explicitly announced. Finally, and most importantly, using grey box specifications as part of our translucid contracts, and using structural refinement in verification solves the problem of reasoning about control effects of handlers. In essence, the grey box specification exposes all the interesting control effects of handlers and structural refinement ensures that correct handler implementations are limited to the specified control effects. We argued that black box behavioral contracts are insufficient for reasoning about such control flow effects, but showed how our translucid specifications were adequate to specify a wide variety of such control effects. We have added translucid contracts to a Ptolemy compiler that verifies handler refinement and inserts runtime assertion checking code [18].

Adding translucid contracts to other AO compilers, integrating our ideas with the rich specification features of JML, and working out larger examples to find out more of the practical use cases of translucid contracts are some directions for future work. Another direction is to use translucid contracts to reason about data effects of subject-observer interaction patterns.


[16] N. Ongkingco et al.. Adding Open Modules to AspectJ. In AOSD ’06.


