Model Checking Java Programs
Using Java PathFinder

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Abstract. This paper describes a translator called JAVA PATHFINDER (JPF), from JAVA to PROMELA, the modeling language of the SPIN model checker. JPF translates a given JAVA program into a PROMELA model, which then can be model checked using SPIN. The JAVA program may contain assertions, which are translated to similar assertions in the PROMELA model. The SPIN model checker will then look for deadlocks and violations of any stated assertions. JPF generates a PROMELA model with the same state space characteristics as the JAVA program. Hence, the JAVA program must have a finite and tractable state space. This work should be seen in a broader attempt to make formal methods applicable within NASA's areas such as space, aviation, and robotics. The work is a continuation of an effort to formally analyze, using SPIN, a multi-threaded operating system for the Deep-Space 1 space craft, and of previous work in applying existing model checkers and theorem provers to real applications.

Key words: Program verification – JAVA – model checking – SPIN – concurrent programming – assertions – deadlocks.
1 Introduction

In this paper we describe JAVA PATHFINDER (JPF), a translator from a subset of the JAVA programming language to PROMELA, the modeling language of the SPIN model checker. JAVA [6,1] is a general purpose object oriented programming language with built in mechanisms for multi-threaded programming. SPIN [13] is a verification system that supports the design and verification of finite state asynchronous process systems. Models are formulated in the PROMELA language, which is quite similar to an ordinary programming language, except for certain non-deterministic specification oriented constructs. Processes communicate either via shared variables or via message passing through buffered channels. Properties to be verified are stated as assertions in the code, or as formulae in the linear temporal logic LTL. The SPIN model checker can automatically determine whether a program satisfies a property, and, in case the property does not hold, generate an error trace. SPIN also finds deadlocks.

JPF translates a given JAVA program into a PROMELA model, which then can be model checked using SPIN. The JAVA program may contain assertions, which are translated to similar assertions in the PROMELA model. The SPIN model checker will then look for deadlocks and violations of any stated assertions. JPF does not apply any analysis to reduce the size of the generated model. Hence, the JAVA program must have a finite and tractable state space. JPF has been applied to programs having up to 2000 lines of code.

The work should be seen in a broader attempt to make formal methods applicable “in the loop” of programming within NASA’s areas such as space, aviation, and robotics. Our main long term goal is to create an automated formal methods workbench for JAVA programming so that programmers themselves can apply them in their daily work (in the loop) without the need for specialists to manually reformulate a program in a different notation in order to analyze it. The tool we are developing is named after the rover operating on Mars in 1997 called the “Mars PathFinder”. Although this mission was generally regarded as a big success, the rover did in fact contain a number of software bugs (causing repeated rebootings and panic at NASA headquarters) that could potentially have been found beforehand using proper verification tools. The JAVA PATHFINDER name is a play on words: it finds the paths of a JAVA program that lead to errors.

In an earlier effort we formally verified, using SPIN, a multi-threaded operating system for spacecraft [9]. The operating system is one component of NASA’s New Millennium Remote Agent (RA) [14], an artificial intelligence based spacecraft control system architecture launched October 24, 1998, as part of the Deep–Space 1 mission to an asteroid to validate the potential of artificial intelligence, ion propulsion, and other technologies for future space crafts. The operating system is implemented in a multi-threaded version of COMMON LISP. The verification effort consisted of hand translating parts of the LISP code into the PROMELA language of SPIN. A total of 5 errors were identified, a very successful result. In addition, as described in [9], one of these errors appeared in a different part of the system not examined using SPIN, and caused a deadlock during flight in space, resulting in thrusting not to be turned off when requested to. This was regarded as a clear demonstration of the potential of a system like SPIN.

It is often stated that model checkers of today cannot handle real sized programs, and consequently cannot handle real sized JAVA programs. This is certainly true. However, there are three aspects that make our effort worthwhile anyway. First, by providing an abstraction workbench we will make it possible to cut down the state space of a JAVA program. Second, one can imagine model checking being applied for unit testing, where one focuses on a single class (or a few classes) and puts this (these) in parallel with an aggressive environment represented by a number of threads. Finally, JAVA can be used as a design language, just as PROMELA.

Few attempts have been made to automatically verify programs written in real programming languages. The most recent attempt we can mention is the one reported in [4], which also translates JAVA programs into PROMELA, however not handling exceptions or polymorphism as we do. The work in [2] defines a translator from a concurrent extension of a limited subset of C++ to PROMELA. A disadvantage of this solution is that the concurrency extensions are not broadly used by C++ programmers. In [5] is described what is called extended static checking, a technique for detecting, at compile-time, common programming errors. This technique uses program verification technology, but feels to a programmer like a type checker. By using an underlying automatic theorem prover, the technique is more semantically thorough than decidable static analysis techniques. At the same time, by only trying to detect certain kinds of errors, not prove the program’s correctness, the technique is more automatic than program verification. Finally, [3] describes a theory of translating JAVA programs into transition models, making use of static pointer analysis to aid virtual coarsening, which reduces the size of the models. That is, a sequence of transitions in an obtained model can be collapsed into an atomic transition if they only access variables that are either local to a thread or protected by a lock owned by the thread. This work can be seen as complementing our work in the sense that JPF produces a transition model (in PROMELA) while [3] describes how to reduce the size of such a model.

A significant subset of JAVA version 1.0 is supported by JPF: dynamic creation of objects with data and methods, class inheritance, threads and synchronization primitives for modeling monitors (synchronized statements,
and the `wait` and `notify` methods), exceptions, thread interrupts, and most of the standard programming language constructs such as assignment statements, conditional statements and loops. However, the translator is still a prototype and misses some features, such as packages, overloading, method overriding, recursion (since method calls are translated by inlining the method bodies), strings, floating point numbers, some thread operations like `synchronized` and `resume`, and some control constructs, such as the `continue` statement. In addition, arrays are not objects as they are in JAVA, but are modeled using PROMELA’s own arrays to obtain efficient verification. Finally, we do not translate the predefined class `java.util.ArrayDeque`. The tool is currently being improved to cover more of JAVA. Despite the omissions, we expect the current version of JPF to be useful on a large class of software. A front-end to the translator checks that the program is in the allowed subset and prints out error messages when not. As a general observation, JPF translates a bigger subset of JAVA than any similar existing tool of our knowledge.

The translator is developed in COMMON LISP, having a JAVA parser written in MOSCOWML as front end. Gerard Holzmann supported our efforts by changing the semantics for the PROMELA `unless` construct in order to simplify the translation of exceptions.

The paper is organized around an example JAVA program that has been translated automatically by JAVA PATHFINDER and verified automatically by SPIN. In Section 2 we describe this program, a bounded buffer. In Section 3 we describe what the resulting PROMELA code looks like. In Section 4 we present an experiment where we seeded 21 errors into the example program, and ran the SPIN model checker on the code generated by JPF. Section 5 ends with conclusions and suggestions for future work.

2 The Bounded Buffer Program

The translation scheme will be illustrated by translation of a complete, small, but non-trivial JAVA program that covers many of the features of JAVA that we can translate. After translation by JPF, SPIN can be applied to prove or disprove that the program satisfies given properties stated as assertions in the program, and that it is deadlock free.

2.1 The Buffer Class

The JAVA program that we are interested in verifying properties about is a bounded buffer, represented by a single class. An object of this class can store objects of any kind (objects of subclasses of the general top level class `Object`). Figure 1 shows the declared interface of this class. It contains a `put` method, a `get` method and a `halt` method. Typically there will be one or more `producer` threads that call the `put` method and one or more `consumer` threads that call the `get` method. The `halt` method can be invoked by a `producer` to inform consumers that it will no longer produce values to the buffer. Consumers are allowed to empty the buffer safely after a halt, but if a consumer calls the `get` method after the `halt` method has been called, and the buffer is empty, an exception object of class `HaltException` will be thrown. A class is an exception class if it is a subclass of the class `java.lang.Throwable`. In particular, class `Exception` is a subclass of `Throwable`.

Figure 2 contains the `Buffer` class annotated with line numbers for later reference. A JAVA class is generally speaking described by a name, a set of data variables, zero or more constructor methods (with different argument types if more than one) with the same name as the class, and a collection of methods. One of the constructors is executed when an object is created with the `new` construct. Note that the `Buffer` class has no such user-defined constructors. The class declares an array of length 3 to hold the objects in the buffer. In addition to the array, a couple of pointers are declared, one pointing to the next free location, and one pointing to the next object to be returned by the `get` method. The variable `usedSlots` keeps track of the current number of elements in the buffer. Finally, the variable `halted` will become true when the `halt` method is called.

The three methods of the class are all synchronized (note the `synchronized` keyword). Hence, each of these methods will have exclusive access to the object when executed. That is, when one of these methods is called on the buffer object by a thread, the buffer gets `locked` to serve that thread, and it is unlocked again at the end of the method call. The `put` method takes as parameter the object to be stored in the buffer and has no return value (void). It enters a loop testing whether the buffer is full (i.e. having 3 elements) in which case it calls the built-in `wait` method. Calling the `wait` method within a synchronized method suspends the current thread and allows other threads to execute synchronized methods on the object. Such another thread can then call the `notify` method which will wake up an arbitrarily chosen waiting thread to continue past its `wait()` call. The `notifyAll` method wakes up all such waiting threads.

```java
class HaltException extends Exception{}

interface BufferInterface {
    public void put(Object x);
    public Object get() throws HaltException;
    public void halt();
}
```

Fig. 1. The JAVA Buffer interface
0. class Buffer implements BufferInterface {
1. protected static final int SIZE = 3;
2. protected Object[] array = new Object[SIZE];
3. protected int putPtr = 0;
4. protected int getPtr = 0;
5. protected int usedSlots = 0;
6. protected boolean halted;
7. public synchronized void put(Object x) {
8. while (usedSlots == SIZE)
9. try (wait());
10. catch(InterruptedException ex) {};
11. array[putPtr] = x;
12. putPtr = (putPtr + 1) % SIZE;
13. if (usedSlots == 0) notifyAll();
14. usedSlots++;
15. }
16. }
17. public synchronized Object get() {
18. throws HaltException{
19. while (usedSlots == 0 & !halted)
20. try (wait());
21. catch(InterruptedException ex) {};
22. if (usedSlots == 0) {
23. throw(new HaltException());
24. }
25. }
26. Object x = array[getPtr];
27. array[getPtr] = null;
28. getPtr = (getPtr + 1) % SIZE;
29. if (usedSlots == SIZE) notifyAll();
30. usedSlots--;
31. return x;
32. }
33. }
34. public synchronized void halt(){
35. halted = true;
36. notifyAll();
37. }
38. }

Fig. 2. The Java Buffer class

The call of wait is put inside a try construct, which is Java’s exception handling construct. A general try
construct has the form:

```
try T
  catch(E1 e1) C1
  ...
  catch(E2 en) Cn
finally F
```

where each T,C1, ..., Cn,F is a block (a statement or a sequence of statements enclosed by {...}) and each Ei
is an exception type (class). The body T of the try state-
ment is executed until either an exception is thrown or it
finishes successfully. If an exception is thrown, the catch
classes are examined from top to bottom in order to find
one where the thrown exception is of the corresponding
class Ei or of a subclass thereof. If such a catch is found,
the corresponding block Ci is executed. If no appropri-
ate catch is found, the exception “flows out” of the try
statement into an outer try that might handle it. There
may be any number of catch clauses in a try including
none. If no catch clause in the method catches the ex-
ception, the exception is thrown to the code that invoked
this method. If a finally clause is present in a try, its
code is executed after all other processing in the try is
complete. This happens no matter how the completion
was achieved, whether normally, through an exception,
or through a control flow statement like return.

Normally an exception is thrown explicitly within a
thread using the throw(e) statement, where e is an ex-
ception object (a normal object of an exception class
which may include data and methods). However, one
thread S may throw an exception in another thread T by
executing T.interrupt(), which throws an
InterruptedException, or T.stop(), which throws a
ThreadDeath exception. The try construct around the
wait call is supposed to catch interrupts from other
threads. As we see, nothing is done in this case (lines
11 and 22), but the try statement is necessary in or-
der for the Java type checker to accept the program.
We shall later see a real use of exceptions. One of the
main results in this paper is that we can in fact prove
properties of programs that throw exceptions.

When finally the put method gets past the while
loop, it is known that the buffer has free space, and the
insertion of the new object can be completed. In case
the buffer was in fact empty, all waiting consumers are
notified.

The get method is a little bit more complicated be-
cause it also takes into account whether the buffer has
been halted. Basically, it will wait until there is some-
thing in the buffer, and return this element, unless the
buffer is empty and at the same time has been halted.
In this case, a HaltException is thrown. Otherwise, the
next buffer element is returned, and producers are noti-
ified if the buffer beforehand was full, in which case they
may be waiting.

2.2 Setting up an Environment

In order to verify properties about this class, without
looking at a complete application within which it oc-
curs, we can create a small application using the buffer.
We say that we set up an environment consisting of a
number of threads accessing the buffer, and then we
prove properties about this small system. This can be
regarded as unit testing the buffer. Concretely, we shall
define two thread classes: a Producer and a Consumer
class, and then start the whole system as shown in the
main method in Figure 3.

First, in order to illustrate the translator’s capabili-
ties to translate inheritance, we define the objects that
are to be stored in the buffer, see Figure 4. A class
Attribute is defined, which contains one integer vari-
able. The constructor method with the same name as
class Main {
    public static void main(String[] args) {
        Buffer b = new Buffer();
        Producer p = new Producer(b);
        Consumer c = new Consumer(b);
    }
}

Fig. 3. The Java main program

class Attribute{
    public int attr;
    public Attribute(int attr){
        this.attr = attr;
    }
}

class AttrData extends Attribute{
    public int data;
    public AttrData(int attr, int data){
        super(attr);
        this.data = data;
    }
}

Fig. 4. The Java Attribute and AttrData classes

the class takes a parameter and stores it in this variable. The class AttrData extends this class with another field, and defines a constructor, which takes two parameters, and then calls the super class constructor with the first parameter.

The producer and consumer threads that are actually going to use the buffer are defined in Figure 5. The Producer class extends the Thread class, which means that it must have a run method, which is then executed when an object of this class is started with the start method. As can be seen, the constructor of the class in fact calls this start method in addition to storing locally the buffer for which elements will be produced. The run method adds 6 AttrData objects to the buffer, with attributes 0...5 (in that order) and squares as data, and then calls the halt method on the buffer.

The Consumer class also extends the Thread class. The run method stores all received objects in the received array (or at most 10 of them). Note how the receiving loop is written inside a try construct, which catches and prevents a HaltException from going further.

2.3 Property Specifications

JPF allows a programmer to annotate his Java program with assertions and verify them using the SPIN model checker. In addition, deadlocks can be identified. An assert statement is expressed as a call to the static method assert in the Verify class shown in Figure 6. The fact that it is static means that we can call this method directly using the class name Verify as prefix, without making an object instance first. The body of this method is of no real importance for the verification since only the call of this method (and not its definition) will be translated into a corresponding PROMELA assert statement. A meaningful body, like printing an error message as in this example, can be useful during normal testing though, but it will not be translated into PROMELA.

The first assertion in Figure 5 states that the consumer receives exactly 6 elements from the buffer. The second assertion within the for loop states that the received elements are the correct ones (at least wrt. the attr value).
class Verify{
    public static void assert(boolean b){
        if (!b)
            System.out.println("assertion broken");
    }
}

Fig. 6. The Java Verify class

One can consider other kinds of Verify methods, in general methods corresponding to the operators in LTL, the linear temporal logic of SPIN. Since these methods can be called whenever statements can occur, this kind of logic represents what could be called an embedded temporal logic. As an example, one could consider a statement of the form: Verify.eventually(count == 6) inserted as the second statement of the consumer run method. The major advantage of this approach is that we do not need to change the Java language, or parse special “specification comments”. Java itself is used as the specification language. Note, however, that at this point, only the assert method is supported.

3 Translation

3.1 Classes, Inheritance and Object Creation

The general principle behind the translation is the following. A Java class basically consists of data variables and methods. For each new creation of an object, a new set of data variables, a data area, is allocated, and the methods of that object will then work on this newly allocated area. Hence, at any point in time a set of data areas will have been allocated, one for each object not garbage collected. We shall model the set of data areas of a class by an array of records (typedef’s in SPIN terminology), one record for each data area. An index variable will point to the next free record in the array, initially having the value 0 (first record in the array). Method definitions are mapped into macro definitions, and method calls are mapped into applications of macros. Note that the translated code shown is the unedited PROMELA code generated by the translator (except for a couple of omissions).

For illustration, we start with the translation of the simplest classes, namely Attribute and AttrData, which have no methods, but which show inheritance. Figure 7 shows the data areas for the two classes. For each class C an array named C_Obj is defined of size MAX_OBJECT and of type C_Class. In addition, a pointer C_Index to the next free data area (object) is declared. Because the AttrData class inherits from the Attribute class, it includes the attr variable in addition to the data variable.

Note that this translation puts a limit (MAX_OBJECT) on the number of objects that can be created of a class. A particular object is now referenced by an object reference containing information about which class it concerns (and thereby which array) and which instance (index in the array) it concerns. Because PROMELA’s record concept (typedefs) is not flexible enough for our needs (e.g., field access cannot be applied to a conditional expression) we have decided to represent an object reference (c, i) as the integer c * 100 + i. The operations (macros) for dealing with these calculations are shown in Figure 8. Each class is given a unique identification which is a number, for example class Attribute is given number 6.

In order to access the variables in these arrays, macros are defined as shown in Figure 9. These macros are prefixed with the name of the class that defines the variable, which is statically decidable in Java at the point where the variable is accessed (in contrast to method calls). However, because Java supports polymorphism where an object may belong to a subclass of the statically declared class (for example if it is a parameter to a method) we need to define these variable accessors so that they access the right array. For example, the macro Attribute.getattr for reading the attr variable defined in the Attribute class is defined as a conditional expression over the subclasses.

Both classes have constructors which will be executed when creating new objects. For example, the Java expression “new AttrData(2,4)” will cause a call of the

#define Index byte
#define MAX_OBJECT 7

typedef Attribute_Class{
    int attr;
};

Attribute_Class Attribute_Obj[MAX_OBJECT];
Index Attribute_Next = 0;

typedef AttrData_Class{
    int attr;
    int data;
};

AttrData_Class AttrData_Obj[MAX_OBJECT];
Index AttrData_Next = 0;

Fig. 7. Object arrays for the Attribute and AttrData classes

... #define Attribute 6
#define AttrData 7 ...

#define create_object(c,i)
    (c*100 + i)

#define get_class(x)
    (x/100)

#define get_index(x)
    (x - ((x/100)*100))

Fig. 8. General object reference operations
typedef Buffer_Class{
    int LOCK;
    byte WAITING;
    chan WAIT = [0] of {bit};
    ObjRef array[3];
    int putPtr;
    int getPtr;
    int usedSlots;
    bit halted;
};

Fig. 12. Object type for the Buffer class

3.2 Synchronization on Objects

The Buffer class is more complicated because it contains methods, and because these in addition are synchronized, which means that they must have exclusive access to the object when executing. That is, only one thread at a time may execute any synchronized method on the same object. Therefore, the translation must provide a locking mechanism with which one can lock an object to serve a particular thread that calls a synchronized method on the object. For that purpose some extra variables are inserted into the data area of each object, as shown in Figure 12. In addition to the variables declared in the class (note that JAVA arrays are modeled directly as PROMELA arrays), it contains the three variables LOCK, WAITING and WAIT used for managing object locking and release. The LOCK variable will at any time either be null (a negative integer) or it will be the thread id of the thread that currently is executing a synchronized method on the object (actually a non-negative PROMELA process id). Hence, once this field is set to a proper thread id by a thread that calls a synchronized method, only the thread with this thread id is allowed to operate on the object. When the call of the synchronized method terminates, the lock is released by setting it to null again. Note that a synchronized method must be allowed to call other synchronized methods on the same object without causing blocking.

The variables WAITING and WAIT are used to manage threads that call the wait, notify, and notifyAll methods on the object. A thread that calls wait() will first unlock the object, and then try to read a value on the zero place channel WAIT. A zero place channel in PROMELA is used to model rendezvous communication, hence some other thread must send a value on this channel in order for the calling thread to be released. At any time, all threads that are waiting to get access to the object are waiting on this channel. Each time a thread calls the wait() method on the object, the WAITING variable is additionally incremented, and conversely decremented when released. Hence, the value of this variable will always be the number of threads waiting on the object. The variable is used when notifyAll is called by a thread, and all waiting threads have to be released: we

constructor, which in turn will call the constructor of the super class: "Attribute(2)". Constructors are modeled as macros as shown in Figure 10 (slightly simplified for presentation purposes; the real translation also takes into account variable initializations occurring together with variable declarations). The parameter obj will be an object reference denoting the object being constructed.

The construction of a new object such as for example the JAVA statement "x = new AttrData(2,4)" is mapped into the sequence of PROMELA statements shown in Figure 11 (slightly simplified here with respect to the treatment of the variable x): one can see how the x is bound to a reference, the next-pointer is incremented, and the constructor is applied to the reference now stored in x.
#define Buffer_any_WAITING(obj)
  Buffer_Obj[get_index(obj)].WAITING > 0

#define Buffer_incr_WAITING(obj)
  Buffer_Obj[get_index(obj)].WAITING++

#define Buffer_decr_WAITING(obj)
  Buffer_Obj[get_index(obj)].WAITING--

#define this _pid
#define Buffer_lock(obj)
  atomic{
    Buffer_get_LOCK(obj) == null ->
    Buffer_set_LOCK(obj,this)}

#define Buffer_unlock(obj)
  Buffer_set_LOCK(obj,null)

Fig. 13. Operations on WAITING

Fig. 14. Operations for locking and unlocking objects

need to know how many times the WAIT channel must be signaled. The operations on the WAITING variable are shown in Figure 13.

Locking and unlocking an object is implemented by the operations shown in Figure 14. Locking an object is done when a thread calls a synchronized method on an object which the thread has not already locked. First the thread waits until the lock becomes free (no other thread has locked it), which is the case when the LOCK field becomes null. Note that in PROMELA, an equality is a statement that is executable only when the equality holds, and hence blocks until this is the case. Then, in an atomic move, the lock gets the lock by assigning the value of “this” to the LOCK field, where “this” denotes the thread id of the current thread (“this” is defined as _pid, which in PROMELA refers to the process id of the currently executing process). Unlocking an object just corresponds to setting the LOCK field to null.

Finally, the macros modeling the wait, notify and notifyAll methods are shown in Figure 15. The Buffer_wait macro models the wait method. Ignore for a moment the unless constructs. When called, it first unlocks the object, because other threads should now have access to perhaps later call notify. Then the WAITING field is increased, and finally the thread starts waiting for a signal (the value 0) on the WAIT channel. When the thread is awakened by a notify or notifyAll, it locks the object again (first occurring call of Buffer_lock(obj)) in order to continue with exclusive access to the object (note that wait can only be called within a synchronized context in JAVA).

The Buffer_notify macro signals the WAIT channel in case there are threads waiting for a signal. The Buffer_notifyAll macro does this as long as there are threads waiting. Note that this happens atomically so that no new threads can join the waiting threads during the notification.

Now we explain the unless constructs in the Buffer_wait macro. This extra complication is caused by the fact that another thread can either interrupt or stop a thread that is waiting. Recall that such an interrupt or stop is like an exception being thrown inside the (perhaps waiting) thread being interrupted or stopped. We shall later explain exceptions in more detail, but here it suffices to say that in case such an exception is thrown, the waiting thread must be released immediately; this occurs because the conditions of the two unless constructs become true. The PROMELA construct “P unless Q” executes P to its end unless Q becomes executable before the termination of P, in which case P is aborted, and execution continues with Q.

Suppose that the waiting thread is blocked in the “Buffer_get_WAIT(obj)? continue” statement, and that such an interrupt occurs. Then (due to a new semantics of the PROMELA unless construct, see Section 3.5)
the inner unless construct will be triggered since, as we shall see, this implies that `get this EXN` becomes bigger than zero. This causes the `WAITING` variable to be decremented, which is necessary because the `Buffer_notify` and `Buffer_notifyAll` macros normally do this (and now have not had the chance to do it). Next, because the waiting thread may have code in `finally` constructs that must be executed before termination (not shown here), it is necessary to lock the object again before stopping such that this `finally` code can be executed with exclusive access to the object. This is done by the outermost `unless` construct. It was necessary to introduce two `unless` constructs since the interrupt may also arrive after the thread has been notified, but while it is waiting for the lock to be released; that is, it is waiting in the first occurring `Buffer_lock(obj)` statement.

### 3.3 Methods

In order to illustrate how methods are modeled, we illustrate the simplest one, namely the `halt` method. A synchronized method `M` in a class `C` is defined in two parts: a `C.M` macro dealing with object locking, and a `C.M_code` macro containing the actual code of the method. For non-synchronized methods there is no such distinction. This is shown for the synchronized `halt` method in Figure 16. In general, a method call is translated into a call of the `C.M` macro with parameters corresponding to the method parameters. In the case of `halt`, the method is parameterless, hence only the object reference of the object upon which the method is called is given as parameter. The macro tests whether the object is already locked by the calling thread, in which case the actual code, `C.M_code`, is executed. This models the situation where this method is called by another synchronized method, hence the object is already locked. In case the object is not locked by the calling thread, an attempt is made to lock it (`Buffer_lock(obj)`), and after successful locking, the code is executed. The `try` macro models the `try` construct of Java and models the fact that the object must always be unlocked (`Buffer_unlock(obj)`) when leaving the method, also in the case where an exception is raised during execution of the code.

### 3.4 Threads

It remains to explain how things are put together by translating the main method and the threads that it starts. First, we describe how the thread classes `Producer` and `Consumer` are translated. We focus on the `Producer`. Thread classes are translated in a similar manner to other classes, with the addition that the `run` method is translated into a `PROMELA` process type (proctype), that can then be started using the `PROMELA` `run` statement, whenever a corresponding Java thread is started with the `JAVA start` method. Figure 17 shows the translation of the `run` method of the `Producer` class of Figure 5.

The process takes as parameter its own object reference. Notice how local variables in `called` methods are declared as global variables in the process. For example, the variable `ex` in the `put` method that binds the caught exception in the `try` statement (Figure 2) is declared at this point. This is necessary because PROMELA does not support local variables (nor does it in the new inline procedures that PROMELA got recently). This solution of course prevents the translation of recursive methods, but it is efficient with respect to verification time since we don’t need to maintain a call stack (and represents what one normally would do in a hand translation). Another possibility is to translate methods into `proctype`s, as suggested in [13], but experiences during earlier work
suggested that this would be inefficient, see [9]. The while loop is translated into PROMELA’s do ... od construct in a very straightforward way.

Note in Figure 17 how the object reference to the buffer in the buffer variable declared inside the Producer class is accessed and passed as argument to the put and halt methods. This models the dot-notation in JAVA for accessing methods in an object. Surrounding the producer thread code is an unless construct, which is supposed to catch any exceptions thrown and not caught by the user program. This will be explained in the next section. Finally, Figure 18 shows the translation of the Producer object constructor. It shows how the buffer variable is initialized with the argument, and how the process is started, corresponding to the “this.start()” call.

3.5 Exceptions

JAVA exceptions are complicated when considering all the situations that may arise, such as method returns in the middle of try constructs, the finally construct, interrupts (which are exceptions thrown from one thread to another) of threads that have called the wait method, and the fact that objects have to be unlocked when an exception is thrown out of a synchronized method. We shall try to illustrate our solution.

PROMELA’s unless construct seems very closely related to an exception construct, except for the fact that it works “outside in” instead of “inside out”, the latter being the case for exceptions. As an example consider the JAVA statement (assuming some variable x):

```java
try{
    try{throw(new Exception());}
    catch(Exception e){x = 1;}
} catch(Exception e){x = 2;}
```

The result of executing this statement should be that x is assigned to 1, hence (only) the inner catch is invoked when the exception is thrown. In contrast, consider a related PROMELA statement, where now an EXN variable (initially 0) has been introduced. When this variable becomes positive it is regarded as if an exception has been thrown:

```java
{EXN = 1}
  unless {EXN > 0 -> x = 1}
} unless {EXN > 0 -> x = 2}
```

typedef Consumer_Class{
    ObjRef EXN;
    ObjRef buffer;
};

Fig. 18. The Producer constructor

The effect of this statement will be that x is assigned to 2. Hence, the outermost unless construct is invoked when EXN becomes positive. Gerard Holzmann has been very helpful to us by implementing a -J option (J for JAVA) in the verifier that changes the semantics of PROMELA in such a way that unless constructs are interpreted “inside out”. This still leaves a second issue; that as soon as the inner unless is chosen (executing the inner EXN > 0), then the outer is invoked (since EXN > 0 is still true) and x gets the value 2 anyway. Hence, we have to prevent that kind of behavior. Note that the above PROMELA code needs some modifications to actually “work” because if it is the last statement in “P” within the statement “P unless Q” that makes “Q” executable, then “Q” will actually not get executed.

Recall that a JAVA exception is an object of one of the exception classes, either one of the built in or a user defined exception class. Hence, an exception may contain data and methods. The throw(e) statement takes an exception object reference e as argument, and in our model we translate that into a store of that object reference in a special variable, EXN, in the data area of the thread (potentially the main program) where it has been thrown. All the unless constructs in the thread will test on this variable to see if it becomes different from null. The data area for the Consumer class is shown in Figure 19. There are corresponding macros for accessing this variable. There are macros get_EXN(obj) and set_EXN(obj, value) for accessing this variable of a thread identified by obj. In addition, the macros get_this_EXN and set_this_EXN will access the EXN variable of this thread.

For each exception class E, there is a predicate exn.E which evaluates to true if the EXN variable contains an exception object of that class or a subclass thereof. For example, Figure 20 shows this predicate for the built in Exception class. Recall that the HaltException was defined as a subclass thereof, as is InterruptedException.

Exception throwing is mainly modeled by the macros shown in Figure 21. The dotted_throw macro throws an exception at a particular object given as parameter. This allows one thread to throw an exception at another thread, causing that other thread’s EXN variable
to be set. The `throw` macro throws an exception to the object identified by the free variable `obj` which is `this` current thread object. Finally, calling “T.stop()” in a Java program corresponds to throwing the predefined `THREAD.DEATH` exception object to the `T` object.

We shall now explain how exceptions are caught. Consider a `try` statement of the form:

```plaintext
try T
  catch(E1 e1) C1
  catch(E2 e2) C2
  ...
  catch(En en) Ch
finally F
```

A Java statement of this form is translated into a Promela statement of the following form using macros defined in Figure 23, and where a prime (') after a block indicates its translated version:

```plaintext
{ try(T')
  unless {
    if
      :: catch(exn_E1, e1, C1')
      :: catch(exn_E2 & !exn_E1, e2, C2')
      ...
      :: catch(exn_En & !exn_E1 & !exn_E2 & ... & !exn_En-1, en, Ch')
    fi
  }
  unless {finally(F')}
}
```

For example, the `try` construct in the `get` method in Figure 2 is translated into the Promela code in Figure 22. The general idea behind this translation is that the inner `unless` construct catches any exceptions which match any one of the exception predicates `exn_E1` ... `exn_En`, and that the outer `unless` construct models the `finally` construct in Java: the block `F` must be executed no matter what as the last thing. For example, in the case where for example `C1'` itself throws a new exception, the `F` still has to be executed before that exception can be thrown further up. Now, let us explain the macros in Figure 23.

The `try(s)` macro executes `s` and then throws the predefined `EXIT` object (`exit_to_final`). The `EXIT` exception is then caught by the `finally` macro (always inserted at the end) as we shall see. The `catch(exn_E, x, s)` macro tests whether the current value of the `EXN` variable satisfies the `exn_E` predicate (`catch cond(exn_E, x)`), in which case that branch is executed.

The `catch cond(exn_E, e)` macro in an atomic move tests the predicate `exn_E` (hence is only executable when it is true, see Figure 20 for one such predicate), and then stores the value of the exception in the local variable `e` to be accessible within the block to be executed. Note also how the `EXN` variable is zeroed to the predefined `NO.EXN` value in order to avoid outer `unless` constructs being triggered, as already discussed earlier on page 10.

The `finally(s)` macro defines when the outer `unless` construct should be triggered, namely when `finally cond` becomes executable. The `finally cond` macro is executable
whenever there is some exception object reference in the EXN variable (it is bigger than 0). Note that we reset this to 0 (NO EXN) whenever an exception is caught at an inner level so that this outer final construct will not get activated. If there is an exception, and this is just a normal EXIT from one of the blocks T, Cl, ..., Cn in the try statement, this is then forgotten (set this EXN (NO EXN)). If on the other hand (else) it concerns an exception that has not been caught, we need to remember it so that it can be re-thrown after the code in the finally construct has been executed. We also need to make sure that it does not activate unless constructs higher up during the execution of the finally code. One way to do this is to negate it since the unless constructs in the translation only react on positive values of EXN. When we then leave the finally construct, we negate it back to its positive value so that it can be “thrown” further up. Some of the macros contain skip statements. These are necessary in order to make it work due to the semantics of the unless construct.

In Figures 15 and 16 the macros a_finally(s) and d_finally(s) are called. These are defined as respectively atomic{finally(s)} and d_step{finally(s)}.

The d_finally(Buffer_unlock(obj)) in Figure 16 unlocks the object in case an exception has been thrown out of a synchronized method. The d_step ensures that the exception is not thrown further up during the unlocking (which is more economic than negating the exception) and the unlocking can be made completely atomic since there are no blocking statements.

The a_finally(Buffer_lock(obj)) in Figure 15 locks an object after a call of wait has been interrupted. This locking must be as atomic as possible, but with the possibility of blocking since another thread may own the lock. Therefore a d_step cannot be used (it does not allow locking).

3.6 Value Returning Methods

A JAVA return statement can have one of two forms. Either it has the form “return” in case the method is not value returning, or the form “return exp” if the method is value returning. In either case, such a return statement has the same effect as throwing an exception that is caught by a “return exception handler” surrounding the body of the value returning method, and by any finally constructs on the “way up” to that. Figure 24 shows how the get method of the Buffer class translates with respect to value return.

We see that the body of the method is surrounded by an unless construct triggered by the return cond predicate. This predicate, defined in Figure 25, becomes executable when the EXN variable in the executing thread (the one that executes the value returning method) gets the value RETURN which is a predefined fixed object reference. This happens for example when the return with

```c
#define Buffer_get_code(obj)
{
    ...
    return_with(Buffer_get_x);
}
```

```c
unless (return_cond)
    Fig. 24. Translation of the value returning get method
```

```c
#define return_with(e)
RES[TOP] = e;
throw(RETURN)
```

```c
#define return_without
    throw(RETURN)
```

```c
#define return_cond
    d_step{
        get_this_EXN == RETURN ->
        set_this_EXN(NO EXN)
    }
```

```c
Fig. 25. Operations for return exceptions
```

The a_finally(Buffer_unlock(obj)) macro is called with an argument denoting the value returned. The return without models the return from a method that does not return a value.

The assignment “RES[TOP] = e” in the return with macro needs some explanation. The problem we are faced with is that JAVA allows value denoting expressions to contain calls of value returning methods that may have side effects. In PROMELA expressions are of a syntactically different class than statements, and cannot have side effects. Consider for example the following statement in the Consumer class’s run method:

```c
received[count] = (AttrData)buffer.get();
```

Ignoring the casting “(AttrData)...”, the right hand side of this assignment has side effects, whereas the right hand side of a PROMELA assignment does not allow this. Our solution is to execute the method before the assignment, and then store the result value in a result array that is introduced for this purpose. Note that it has to be an array in order to model assignment statements of the form “x = o.m(x) + p.n(y)” where several value returning method calls occur in an expression. Part of the translation of the Consumer class’s run method is shown in Figure 26. The Buffer_get macro will execute and finally store the return value in RES[TOP], where RES is the result array. This value is then “picked up” in the assignment statement. Note that if there are several value returning method calls in a single expression, the TOP variable is incremented for each during their evaluation, and then reset to its previous value before the values are accessed.
#define MAX_RESULT 5

```c
protype Consumer_Thread(ObjRef obj)
{
    ...
    int RES[MAX_RESULT];
    byte TOP;
    ...
    Buffer_get(Consumer_get_buffer(obj));
    Consumer_run_received(Consumer_run_count) = RES[TOP];
    ...
}
```

**Fig. 26. The Consumer thread**

```c
init{
    {ObjRef Main_main_b;
    ObjRef Main_main_p;
    ObjRef Main_main_c;
    atomic{
        ObjRef obj = create_object(Main,Main_Next);
        Main_Next++;
        atomic{
            Main_main_b =
            create_object(Buffer,Buffer_Next);
            Buffer_Next++;
            Buffer_constr(Main_main_b);
            atomic{
                Main_main_p =
                create_object(Producer,Producer_Next);
                Producer_Next++;
                Producer_constr(Main_main_p,Main_main_b);
                atomic{
                    Main_main_c =
                    create_object(Consumer,Consumer_Next);
                    Consumer_Next++;
                    Consumer_constr(Main_main_c,Main_main_b);
                } unless {get_this_EXN > 0}
            }
        }
    }
}
```

**Fig. 27. The main method**

### 3.7 The main Method

The main method of the Main class is translated into the PROMELA `init` section as can be seen in Figure 27. We have already explained the translation of object creation, which is the only activity of this particular main method. Recall that the constructors of the Producer and Consumer classes in this present example start the processes.

### 4 Analyzing the Program

The presented program is correct in the sense that no errors are found by SPIN when applied to the PROMELA code generated by JPF. In order to illustrate the effectiveness of JPF (and SPIN of course) we have seeded 21 errors in the program shown in Figure 2, and for each error analyzed the now incorrect program using JPF. This experiment is described in the following.

#### 4.1 The Result

The results of this experiment are shown in Table 1. For each error we give the line numbers changed, referring to Figure 2, and the new contents of these lines. As an example, error 1 is obtained by changing line 3 to “protected int putPtr = 1;” (initializing to 1 instead of to 0).

The results of applying JPF are shown in the fourth column. That is, the result of applying the SPIN model checker to the PROMELA code generated by JPF. The possible outcomes are deadlock (D) and any of the two assertions being violated (A1 referring to the first occurring “count == 6” and A2 referring to the second “received[i].attr == i”). The point here is that all the errors are caught.

The last two columns show the result of running the modified JAVA program on the host operating system version 5.5.1.

Every program has been run several times (from 30 to 100), and the numbers indicate the percentage of runs that have highlighted the error, either via a deadlock, an assertion violation, or a thrown NullPointerException.

All runs, model checking as well as JVM runs, have been executed on a Sun Ultra Sparc 60 with 512 Mb of main memory, and with the Solaris operating system version 5.5.1.

Running the SPIN model checker on the PROMELA code generated by JPF typically used less than half a second to find an error and explored between 40 and 400 states and a similar number of transitions. In a few cases (error 8 and 10) approximately 10000 states and 18000 transitions were explored in less than 2 seconds. The memory consumption was around 17 Mb. This amount of memory must probably be explained by the modeling of the JAVA Virtual Machine with PROMELA.

“Errors” 11 and 20 are special (marked with a *) in the sense that they are not really errors when using the environment described in Section 2.2. This environment only creates one consumer, and to make the errors manifest themselves, we needed to create two consumers. In addition, with two consumers the assertions make no sense and were deleted. Hence, we were now
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nr.</th>
<th>Line</th>
<th>Modification (changed to)</th>
<th>JPF</th>
<th>JVM 1.1.6</th>
<th>JVM 1.1.3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>protected int putPtr = 1;</td>
<td>A2</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>protected int usedSlots = 1;</td>
<td>A1, A2</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>while (usedSlots != SIZE)</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>while (usedSlots == 2)</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>putPtr = (putPtr + 1) % SIZE; array[putPtr] = x;</td>
<td>A2</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>putPtr = putPtr % SIZE;</td>
<td>A2</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>putPtr = (putPtr + 1) % 2; 28</td>
<td>A2</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>if (usedSlots == SIZE) notifyAll();</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>remove; 14</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>if (usedSlots == 0) notifyAll();</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>usedSlots++; 15</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>if (usedSlots == 0) notifyAll();</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11*</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>if (usedSlots == 0) notify(); 29</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>if (usedSlots == SIZE) notify();</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>while (usedSlots == 0)</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>if (usedSlots != 0) {</td>
<td>A1, D</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>if (halted)</td>
<td>A1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>if (halted)</td>
<td>A1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>if (usedSlots == 0) notifyAll();</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>remove; 29</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(if usedSlots == SIZE) notifyAll();</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>usedSlots--; 30</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>if (usedSlots == SIZE) notifyAll();</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>usedSlots++;</td>
<td>A1, A2</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>remove; 35</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>halted = true;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20*</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>notify();</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>remove; 36</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>notifyAll();</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
just looking for deadlocks. The table rows for these errors show the result of verifying and executing in this changed multi-consumer environment. The verification of error 11 needed as much as 8 minutes and 77 Mb, exploring 2.4 million states and 6 million transitions before the deadlock was found. We verified a down scaled version of this error, with a buffer size of 2 (instead of 3) and the producer only producing 3 values (instead of 6). Also here the deadlock was found by the model checker, but now using 1 minute, 28 Mb, and exploring 423096 states and 1 million transitions.

SPIN used 5.2 seconds to verify that the original program contained no errors. This involved the exploration of 33683 states and 61944 transitions, and a memory consumption of 18.8 Mb.

4.2 Comments on the Result

The example is small since its main purpose has been to illustrate the translation done by JPF. However, the exercise does show that around half (11) of the errors are not guaranteed to be caught when plainly executing the program on the newest version of JVM, while in contrast JPF finds the errors each time if present in the setup (errors 11 and 20 were not present with only one consumer). The difference is most obvious for errors 11, 14 and 20. Errors 3 and 11 were suggested by a reviewer. The chance of catching errors by executing the program gets even smaller when the program size increases.

4.3 Error Traces

When SPIN identifies an error in the translated PROMELA code, be it a deadlock or an assertion violation, it returns with an error trace showing the sequence of executed PROMELA statements leading from the initial state to the state where the error occurs. Our tool does not currently map such PROMELA error traces back to corresponding JAVA traces. As an alternative, we have extended the Verify class with special print methods, which can be called (by the programmer) in selected places in the JAVA code. These calls will then be translated into PROMELA print statements set up to print on a graphical two dimensional message sequence chart. Figure 28 illustrates such a chart illustrating the trace for error number 14.

To obtain this chart, to be explained below, we have added print statements 5 places in the code. For example, in lines 12 and 26 (pushing current lines downwards) we have added the statements:

```java
12 Verify.print("put", putPtr);
26 Verify.print("get", getPtr);
```

Hence, what will be printed out is a text string ("put" or "get"), and the position in the buffer where a value is stored (put), respectively retrieved from (get). Other print statements record other events, such as the producer setting the halted flag, and the consumer getting the corresponding exception. Figure 28 illustrates a situation where the producer (center vertical line) first produces two values, stored in positions 0 and 1. Then the consumer gets the value in position 0, etc. The consumer only gets the first three values. The producer then finishes and sets the halted flag, where after the consumer now gets an exception when trying to get the fourth value (in position 0). Therefore the consumer will miss three values, and the first assertion (count == 6) will be broken. Note that the second assertion is not broken.

Adding these print statements requires thought and work, but the idea may in fact be useful to cut down the enormous amount of information contained in the error traces created by SPIN.

5 Conclusion and Future Work

In this paper we have described the initial prototype of a translator from a non-trivial subset of the general purpose programming language JAVA to the model checking language PROMELA. We have also applied the translator to 21 bugged variations of a small example program, observing that the model checker catches all the bugs, while executing the programs only catch the bugs safely in half of the cases.

We are currently applying the translator to a collection of real programs developed within NASA, and the outcome of these experiments will be published at a later time. As an example, a collaboration with NASA’s Goddard Space Center involves the verification of a satellite file down-link protocol written in JAVA. The translator has in addition been applied to analyze a Chinese Chess game server application written in JAVA. This lead to the confirmation of a suspected deadlock and the identification of a smaller scenario leading to that deadlock. This work is documented in [11].
An essential question is whether the translation is optimal. We still need to evaluate this question. There may be other ways to translate into PROMELA and one may consider making a by-pass, avoiding PROMELA, and translating directly into the C interface to the SPIN model checker. A major point of discussion has been how to model object creation. One early thought was to use PROMELA’s proctype to model classes, and then spawn a process for each object creation. However, this solution turned out to be less attractive since one has no direct access to the variables of a process from outside the process. In [15] is described an extension of SPIN allowing such accesses.

Recently JPF has been modified to translate object synchronizations and exceptions more efficiently by introducing two new special purpose arrays holding locking and exception variables, thus keeping these variables separate from user defined variables. This gave a 50% reduction in the amount of C-code generated by SPIN. We have presented the simpler solution for readability reasons.

We see the current translator as a prototype experiment (involving 9 man months until now). Our plans for the future involves writing a model checker directly for JAVA, What is equally important is our planned efforts to build an abstraction workbench around JAVA, where programs can be reduced in size before model checking is applied. Techniques such as program slicing, abstract interpretation, and partial evaluation will have a great influence.

We believe that the kind of technology presented in this paper, already as is, can be very useful for unit testing where one focuses on a single or a few classes, just as has been demonstrated with the example. This requires setting up an aggressive environment consisting of a collection of threads which will “bombard” the unit with accesses. Finally, we believe that perhaps the technology can be useful for students learning to program in JAVA.

Concerning the specification language, our main approach has been not to extend the JAVA language but to express temporal properties as calls to methods defined in a special temporal logic class (the Verify class), all of whose methods are static (hence one does not need to instantiate the class to objects before calling the methods). In addition to the assert method one can for example imagine an always method, an eventually method, and basically include all of SPIN’s linear temporal logic operators as methods, having boolean return types in addition to boolean argument types, so that they can be composed. Calls of such methods will then generate LTL formulae to be verified, referring to the position where they are called in the code.

Acknowledgements. We thank Gerard Holzmann for changing SPIN to support the translation of exceptions. We thank the members of the Automated Software Engineering team at NASA Ames Research Center for their comments; and in particular Mike Lowry for supporting the project, and John Penix and Willem Visser for proof reading the manuscript. We also thank the reviewers. We have used a JAVA parser reported by Peter Sestoft (the Royal Veterinary and Agicultural University in Denmark) to Moscow ML from a Standard ML version written by Olivier Brunet and Gordon Wood-hull in Alex Aiken’s group (University of California, Berkeley, USA).

References


