

Axiomatic semantics

Semantics and Application to Program Verification

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Operational semantics

Models precisely program execution as low-level transitions between internal states

(transition systems, execution traces, big-step semantics)

Denotational semantics

Maps programs into objects in a mathematical domain

(higher level, compositional, domain oriented)

Axiomatic semantics (today)

Prove properties about programs

- programs are annotated with logical assertions
- a rule-system defines the validity of assertions (logical proofs)
- clearly separates programs from specifications
(specification \simeq user-provided abstraction of the behavior, it is not unique)
- enables the use of logic tools (partial automation, increased confidence)

- Specifications (informal examples)
- Floyd–Hoare logic
- Dijkstra's predicate transformers
(weakest precondition, strongest postcondition)
- Verification conditions
(partially automated program verification)
- Advanced topics
 - Total correctness (termination)

Specifications

Example: function specification

example in C + ACSL

```
int mod(int A, int B) {  
    int Q = 0;  
    int R = A;  
    while (R >= B) {  
        R = R - B;  
        Q = Q + 1;  
    }  
    return R;  
}
```

Example: function specification

example in C + ACSL

```
/*@ ensures \result == A mod B;
int mod(int A, int B) {
    int Q = 0;
    int R = A;
    while (R >= B) {
        R = R - B;
        Q = Q + 1;
    }
    return R;
}
```

- express the intended behavior of the function (returned value)

Example: function specification

example in C + ACSL

```

/*@ requires A>=0 && B>=0;
   @ ensures \result == A mod B;
int mod(int A, int B) {
    int Q = 0;
    int R = A;
    while (R >= B) {
        R = R - B;
        Q = Q + 1;
    }
    return R;
}

```

- express the intended behavior of the function (returned value)
- add requirements for the function to actually behave as intended (a requires/ensures pair is a **function contract**)

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    }
    return R;
}

```

- express the intended behavior of the function (returned value)
- add requirements for the function to actually behave as intended (a requires/ensures pair is a **function contract**)
- strengthen the requirements to ensure termination

Example: program annotations

example with full assertions

```

/*@ requires A>=0 && B>0;
   @ ensures \result == A mod B;
int mod(int A, int B) {
    int Q = 0;
    int R = A;
    @ assert A>=0 && B>0 && Q=0 && R==A;
    while (R >= B) {
        @ assert A>=0 && B>0 && R>=B && A==Q*B+R;
        R = R - B;
        Q = Q + 1;
    }
    @ assert A>=0 && B>0 && R>=0 && R<B && A==Q*B+R;
    return R;
}

```

Assertions give detail about the internal computations
why and how contracts are fulfilled

(Note: $r = a \bmod b$ means $\exists q: a = qb + r \wedge 0 \leq r < b$)

Example: ghost variables

example with ghost variables

```
/*@ requires A>=0 && B>0;
   *@ ensures \result == A mod B;
int mod(int A, int B) {

    int R = A;

    while (R >= B) {

        R = R - B;

    }
    //  $\exists Q: A = QB + R$  and  $0 \leq R < B$ 
    return R;
}
```

The annotations can be more complex than the program itself

Example: ghost variables

example with ghost variables

```

/*@ requires A>=0 && B>0;
   *@ ensures \result == A mod B;
int mod(int A, int B) {
    /*@ ghost int q = 0;
    int R = A;
    /*@ assert A>=0 && B>0 && q=0 && R==A;
    while (R >= B) {
        /*@ assert A>=0 && B>0 && R>=B && A==q*B+R;
        R = R - B;
        /*@ ghost q = q + 1;
    }
    /*@ assert A>=0 && B>0 && R>=0 && R<B && A==q*B+R;
    return R;
}

```

The annotations can be more complex than the program itself and require reasoning on enriched states (ghost variables)

Example: class invariants

example in ESC/Java

```
public class OrderedArray {
    int a[];
    int nb;
    //@invariant nb >= 0 && nb <= 20
    //@invariant (\forall int i; (i >= 0 && i < nb-1) ==> a[i] <= a[i+1])

    public OrderedArray() { a = new int[20]; nb = 0; }

    public void add(int v) {
        if (nb >= 20) return;
        int i; for (i=nb; i > 0 && a[i-1] > v; i--) a[i] = a[i-1];
        a[i] = v; nb++;
    }
}
```

class invariant: property of the fields true outside all methods

it can be temporarily broken within a method

but it must be restored before exiting the method

Language support

Contracts (and class invariants):

- built in few languages (Eiffel)
- available as a library / external tool (C, Java, C#, etc.)

Contracts can be:

- checked dynamically
- **checked statically** (Frama-C, Why, ESC/Java)
- inferred statically (CodeContracts)

[In this course:](#)

deductive methods (logic) to check (prove) statically (at compile-time)
partially automatically (with user help) that contracts hold

Floyd–Hoare logic

Hoare triples

Hoare triple: $\{P\} \text{ prog } \{Q\}$

- prog is a program fragment
- P and Q are **logical assertions** over program variables
(e.g. $P \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (X \geq 0 \wedge Y \geq 0) \vee (X < 0 \wedge Y < 0)$)

A triple means:

- if P holds before prog is executed
- then Q holds after the execution of prog
- unless prog does not terminate or encounters an error

P is the **precondition**, Q is the **postcondition**

$\{P\} \text{ prog } \{Q\}$ expresses **partial correctness**

(does not rule out errors and non-termination)

Hoare triples serve as **judgements** in a proof system

(introduced in [Hoare69])

Language

$stat ::= X \leftarrow expr$	(assignment)
skip	(do nothing)
fail	(error)
$stat; stat$	(sequence)
if $expr$ then $stat$ else $stat$	(conditional)
while $expr$ do $stat$	(loop)

- $X \in \mathbb{V}$: integer-valued variables
- $expr$: integer arithmetic expressions

we assume that:

- expressions are deterministic (for now)
- expression evaluation does not cause error

for instance, to avoid division by zero, we can:
 either define $1/0$ to be a valid value, such as 0
 or systematically guard divisions
 (e.g.: **if** $X = 0$ **then fail else** $\dots / X \dots$)

Hoare rules: axioms

Axioms:

$$\overline{\{P\} \text{ skip } \{P\}}$$

$$\overline{\{P\} \text{ fail } \{Q\}}$$

- any property true before **skip** is true afterwards
- any property is true after **fail**

Hoare rules: axioms

Assignment axiom:

$$\frac{}{\{P[e/X]\} X \leftarrow e \{P\}}$$

for P over X to be true after $X \leftarrow e$

P must be true over e before the assignment

$P[e/X]$ is P where free occurrences of X are replaced with e

e must be **deterministic**

the rule is “**backwards**”

(P appears as a postcondition)

examples: $\{\text{true}\} X \leftarrow 5 \{X = 5\}$

$\{Y = 5\} X \leftarrow Y \{X = 5\}$

$\{X + 1 \geq 0\} X \leftarrow X + 1 \{X \geq 0\}$

$\{\text{false}\} X \leftarrow Y + 3 \{Y = 0 \wedge X = 12\}$

$\{Y \in [0, 10]\} X \leftarrow Y + 3 \{X = Y + 3 \wedge Y \in [0, 10]\}$

Hoare rules: consequence

Rule of consequence:

$$\frac{P \Rightarrow P' \quad Q' \Rightarrow Q \quad \{P'\} c \{Q'\}}{\{P\} c \{Q\}}$$

we can weaken a Hoare triple by:

weakening its **postcondition** $Q \Leftarrow Q'$

strengthening its **precondition** $P \Rightarrow P'$

we assume a logic system to be available to prove formulas on assertions, such as $P \Rightarrow P'$ (e.g., arithmetic, set theory, etc.)

examples:

- the axiom for **fail** can be replaced with $\frac{}{\{\text{true}\} \text{fail} \{\text{false}\}}$
(as $P \Rightarrow \text{true}$ and $\text{false} \Rightarrow Q$ always hold)
- $\{X = 99 \wedge Y \in [1, 10]\} X \leftarrow Y + 10 \{X = Y + 10 \wedge Y \in [1, 10]\}$
(as $\{Y \in [1, 10]\} X \leftarrow Y + 10 \{X = Y + 10 \wedge Y \in [1, 10]\}$ and $X = 99 \wedge Y \in [1, 10] \Rightarrow Y \in [1, 10]$)

Hoare rules: tests

Tests:

$$\frac{\{P \wedge e\} s \{Q\} \quad \{P \wedge \neg e\} t \{Q\}}{\{P\} \text{ if } e \text{ then } s \text{ else } t \{Q\}}$$

to prove that Q holds after the test

we prove that it holds after each branch (s , t)

under the assumption that it is executed (e , $\neg e$)

example:

$$\frac{\frac{\{X < 0\} X \leftarrow -X \{X > 0\}}{\{(X \neq 0) \wedge (X < 0)\} X \leftarrow -X \{X > 0\}} \quad \frac{\{X > 0\} \text{ skip } \{X > 0\}}{\{(X \neq 0) \wedge (X \geq 0)\} \text{ skip } \{X > 0\}}}{\{X \neq 0\} \text{ if } X < 0 \text{ then } X \leftarrow -X \text{ else skip } \{X > 0\}}$$

Hoare rules: sequences

Sequences:

$$\frac{\{P\} s \{R\} \quad \{R\} t \{Q\}}{\{P\} s; t \{Q\}}$$

to prove a sequence $s; t$

we must **invent** an **intermediate assertion R**
 implied by P after s , and implying Q after t

(often denoted $\{P\} s \{R\} t \{Q\}$)

example:

$$\{X = 1 \wedge Y = 1\} X \leftarrow X + 1 \{X = 2 \wedge Y = 1\} Y \leftarrow Y - 1 \{X = 2 \wedge Y = 0\}$$

Hoare rules: loops

Loops:

$$\frac{\{P \wedge e\} s \{P\}}{\{P\} \text{ while } e \text{ do } s \{P \wedge \neg e\}}$$

P is a **loop invariant**

P holds before each loop iteration, before even testing e

Practical use:

actually, we would rather prove the triple: $\{P\} \text{ while } e \text{ do } s \{Q\}$

it is sufficient to **invent an assertion I** that:

holds when the loop start: $P \Rightarrow I$

is invariant by the body s : $\{I \wedge e\} s \{I\}$

implies the assertion when the loop stops: $(I \wedge \neg e) \Rightarrow Q$

$$\frac{P \Rightarrow I \quad I \wedge \neg e \Rightarrow Q \quad \frac{\{I \wedge e\} s \{I\}}{\{I\} \text{ while } e \text{ do } s \{I \wedge \neg e\}}}{\{P\} \text{ while } e \text{ do } s \{Q\}}$$

we can derive the rule:

Hoare rules: logical part

Hoare logic is **parameterized** by the choice of logical theory of assertions
the logical theory is used to:

- **prove** properties of the form $P \Rightarrow Q$ (rule of consequence)
- **simplify** formulas
(replace a formula with a simpler one, equivalent in a logical sense: \Leftrightarrow)

Examples: (generally first order theories)

- booleans ($\mathbb{B}, \neg, \wedge, \vee$)
- bit-vectors ($\mathbb{B}^n, \neg, \wedge, \vee$)
- Presburger arithmetic ($\mathbb{N}, +$)
- Peano arithmetic ($\mathbb{N}, +, \times$)
- linear arithmetic on \mathbb{R}
- Zermelo-Fraenkel set theory ($\in, \{\}$)
- theory of arrays (lookup, update)

theories have different expressiveness, decidability and complexity results
this is an important factor when trying to automate program verification

Hoare rules: summary

$$\overline{\{P\} \text{ skip } \{P\}}$$

$$\overline{\{\text{true}\} \text{ fail } \{\text{false}\}}$$

$$\overline{\{P[e/X]\} X \leftarrow e \{P\}}$$

$$\frac{\{P\} s \{R\} \quad \{R\} t \{Q\}}{\{P\} s; t \{Q\}}$$

$$\frac{\{P \wedge e\} s \{Q\} \quad \{P \wedge \neg e\} t \{Q\}}{\{P\} \text{ if } e \text{ then } s \text{ else } t \{Q\}}$$

$$\frac{\{P \wedge e\} s \{P\}}{\{P\} \text{ while } e \text{ do } s \{P \wedge \neg e\}}$$

$$\frac{P \Rightarrow P' \quad Q' \Rightarrow Q \quad \{P'\} c \{Q'\}}{\{P\} c \{Q\}}$$

Proof tree example

$$s \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \text{while } l < N \text{ do } (X \leftarrow 2X; l \leftarrow l + 1)$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
 C \quad \frac{\overline{\{P_3\} X \leftarrow 2X \{P_2\}} \quad \overline{\{P_2\} l \leftarrow l + 1 \{P_1\}}}{\overline{\{P_1 \wedge l < N\} X \leftarrow 2X; l \leftarrow l + 1 \{P_1\}}} \\
 A \quad B \quad \frac{\overline{\{P_1\} s \{P_1 \wedge l \geq N\}}}{\overline{\{X = 1 \wedge l = 0 \wedge N \geq 0\} s \{X = 2^N \wedge N = l \wedge N \geq 0\}}}
 \end{array}$$

$$P_1 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} X = 2^l \wedge l \leq N \wedge N \geq 0$$

$$P_2 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} X = 2^{l+1} \wedge l+1 \leq N \wedge N \geq 0$$

$$P_3 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} 2X = 2^{l+1} \wedge l+1 \leq N \wedge N \geq 0 \quad \equiv X = 2^l \wedge l < N \wedge N \geq 0$$

$$A: (X = 1 \wedge l = 0 \wedge N \geq 0) \Rightarrow P_1$$

$$B: (P_1 \wedge l \geq N) \Rightarrow (X = 2^N \wedge N = l \wedge N \geq 0)$$

$$C: P_3 \iff (P_1 \wedge l < N)$$

Proof tree example

$$s \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \text{while } l \neq 0 \text{ do } l \leftarrow l - 1$$

$$\frac{\frac{\frac{\text{true}}{\text{true}} \quad l \leftarrow l - 1 \quad \text{true}}{\text{true}} \quad l \neq 0 \quad l \leftarrow l - 1 \quad \text{true}}{\text{true}} \quad \text{while } l \neq 0 \text{ do } l \leftarrow l - 1 \quad \text{true} \wedge \neg(l \neq 0)}}{\text{true}} \quad \text{while } l \neq 0 \text{ do } l \leftarrow l - 1 \quad \{l = 0\}$$

- in some cases, the program does not terminate
(if the program starts with $l < 0$)
- the same proof holds for: $\{\text{true}\} \text{while } l \neq 0 \text{ do } J \leftarrow J - 1 \quad \{l = 0\}$
- anything can be proven of a program that never terminates:

$$\frac{\frac{\frac{\text{true}}{\text{true}} \quad \{l = 1 \wedge l \neq 0\} \quad J \leftarrow J - 1 \quad \{l = 1\}}{\text{true}} \quad \{l = 1\} \quad \text{while } l \neq 0 \text{ do } J \leftarrow J - 1 \quad \{l = 1 \wedge l = 0\}}{\text{true}} \quad \{l = 1\} \quad \text{while } l \neq 0 \text{ do } J \leftarrow J - 1 \quad \{\text{false}\}}$$

Invariants and inductive invariants

Example: we wish to prove:

$$\{X = Y = 0\} \text{ while } X < 10 \text{ do } (X \leftarrow X + 1; Y \leftarrow Y + 1) \{X = Y = 10\}$$

we need to find an invariant assertion P for the **while** rule

Incorrect invariant: $P \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} X, Y \in [0, 10]$

- P indeed holds at each loop iteration (P is an invariant)
- but $\{P \wedge (X < 10)\} X \leftarrow X + 1; Y \leftarrow Y + 1 \{P\}$
does not hold

$P \wedge X < 10$ does not prevent $Y = 10$
after $Y \leftarrow Y + 1$, P does not hold anymore

Invariants and inductive invariants

Example: we wish to prove:

$$\{X = Y = 0\} \text{ while } X < 10 \text{ do } (X \leftarrow X + 1; Y \leftarrow Y + 1) \{X = Y = 10\}$$

we need to find an invariant assertion P for the **while** rule

Correct invariant: $P' \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} X \in [0, 10] \wedge X = Y$

- P' also holds at each loop iteration (P' is an invariant)
- $\{P' \wedge (X < 10)\} X \leftarrow X + 1; Y \leftarrow Y + 1 \{P'\}$ can be proven
- P' is an **inductive invariant**
(passes to the induction, stable by a loop iteration)

\implies

to prove a loop invariant

it is often necessary to find a **stronger** inductive loop invariant

Soundness and completeness

Validity:

$\{P\} c \{Q\}$ is valid $\stackrel{\text{def}}{\iff}$ executions starting in a state satisfying P and terminating end in a state satisfying Q

(it is an **operational notion**)

- **soundness**

a proof tree exists for $\{P\} c \{Q\} \implies \{P\} c \{Q\}$ is valid

- **completeness**

$\{P\} c \{Q\}$ is valid \implies a proof tree exists for $\{P\} c \{Q\}$

(technically, by Gödel's incompleteness theorem, $P \Rightarrow Q$ is not always provable for strong theories; hence, Hoare logic is incomplete; we consider relative completeness by adding all valid properties $P \Rightarrow Q$ on assertions as axioms)

Theorem (Cook 1974)

Hoare logic is sound (and relatively complete)

Completeness no longer holds for more complex languages (Clarke 1976)

Link with denotational semantics

Reminder: $S[\text{stat}] : \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{E}) \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{E})$ where $\mathcal{E} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \mathbb{V} \mapsto \mathbb{I}$

$$S[\text{skip}] R \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} R$$

$$S[\text{fail}] R \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \emptyset$$

$$S[s_1; s_2] \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} S[s_2] \circ S[s_1]$$

$$S[X \leftarrow e] R \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{ \rho[X \mapsto v] \mid \rho \in R, v \in E[e] \rho \}$$

$$S[\text{if } e \text{ then } s_1 \text{ else } s_2] R \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} S[s_1] \{ \rho \in R \mid \text{true} \in E[e] \rho \} \cup \\ S[s_2] \{ \rho \in R \mid \text{false} \in E[e] \rho \}$$

$$S[\text{while } e \text{ do } s] R \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{ \rho \in \text{lfp } F \mid \text{false} \in E[e] \rho \} \\ \text{where } F(X) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} R \cup S[s] \{ \rho \in X \mid \text{true} \in E[e] \rho \}$$

Theorem

$$\{P\} c \{Q\} \stackrel{\text{def}}{\iff} \forall R \subseteq \mathcal{E}: R \models P \implies S[c] R \models Q$$

($A \models P$ means $\forall \rho \in A$, the formula P is true on the variable assignment ρ)

Link with denotational semantics

- Hoare logic reasons on formulas
- denotational semantics reasons on state sets

we can assimilate assertion formulas and state sets
(logical abuse: we assimilate formulas and models)

let $[R]$ be any formula representing the set R , then:

- $\{[R]\} c \{[S[[c]] R]\}$ is always valid
- $\{[R]\} c \{[R']\} \Rightarrow S[[c]] R \subseteq R'$
 $\implies [S[[c]] R]$ provides the **best** valid postcondition

Link with denotational semantics

Loop invariants

- **Hoare:**

to prove $\{P\}$ **while** e **do** s $\{P \wedge \neg e\}$ we must prove $\{P \wedge e\}$ s $\{P\}$
 i.e., P is an inductive invariant

- **Denotational semantics:**

we must find $\text{lfp } F$ where $F(X) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} R \cup S[[s]] \{ \rho \in X \mid \rho \models e \}$

- $\text{lfp } F = \bigcap \{ X \mid F(X) \subseteq X \}$ (Tarski's theorem)
- $F(X) \subseteq X \iff ([R] \Rightarrow [X]) \wedge \{ [X \wedge e] \} s \{ [X] \}$
 $R \subseteq X$ means $[R] \Rightarrow [X]$,
 $S[[s]] \{ \rho \in X \mid \rho \models e \} \subseteq X$ means $\{ [X \wedge e] \} s \{ [X] \}$

As a consequence:

- any X such that $F(X) \subseteq X$ gives an inductive invariant $[X]$
- $\text{lfp } F$ gives the best inductive invariant
- any X such that $\text{lfp } F \subseteq X$ gives an invariant
 (not necessarily inductive)

(see [Cousot02])

Predicate transformers

Dijkstra's weakest liberal preconditions

Principle:

- **calculus** to derive preconditions from postconditions
- order and mechanize the search for intermediate assertions
(easier to go backwards, mainly due to assignments)

Weakest liberal precondition $wlp : (prog \times Prop) \rightarrow Prop$

$wlp(c, P)$ is the weakest, i.e. **most general**, precondition ensuring that $\{wlp(c, P)\} c \{P\}$ is a Hoare triple

(greatest state set that ensures that the computation ends up in P)

formally: $\{P\} c \{Q\} \iff (P \Rightarrow wlp(c, Q))$

“liberal” means that we do not care about termination and errors

Examples:

$wlp(X \leftarrow X + 1, X = 1) =$

$wlp(\mathbf{while} X < 0 X \leftarrow X + 1, X \geq 0) =$

$wlp(\mathbf{while} X \neq 0 X \leftarrow X + 1, X \geq 0) =$

(introduced in [Dijkstra75])

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formally: $\{P\} c \{Q\} \iff (P \Rightarrow wlp(c, Q))$

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Examples:

$$wlp(X \leftarrow X + 1, X = 1) = (X = 0)$$

$$wlp(\text{while } X < 0 \text{ } X \leftarrow X + 1, X \geq 0) = \text{true}$$

$$wlp(\text{while } X \neq 0 \text{ } X \leftarrow X + 1, X \geq 0) = \text{true}$$

(introduced in [Dijkstra75])

A calculus for wlp

wlp is defined by induction on the syntax of programs:

$$wlp(\text{skip}, P) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} P$$

$$wlp(\text{fail}, P) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \text{true}$$

$$wlp(X \leftarrow e, P) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} P[e/X]$$

$$wlp(s; t, P) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} wlp(s, wlp(t, P))$$

$$wlp(\text{if } e \text{ then } s \text{ else } t, P) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (e \Rightarrow wlp(s, P)) \wedge (\neg e \Rightarrow wlp(t, P))$$

$$wlp(\text{while } e \text{ do } s, P) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} I \wedge ((e \wedge I) \Rightarrow wlp(s, I)) \wedge ((\neg e \wedge I) \Rightarrow P)$$

- $e \Rightarrow Q$ is equivalent to $Q \vee \neg e$
weakest property that matches Q when e holds
but says nothing when e does not hold
- **while** loops require **providing an invariant predicate I**
intuitively, wlp checks that I is an inductive invariant implying P
if so, it returns I ; otherwise, it returns false
 wlp is the weakest precondition only if I is well-chosen...

Alternate form for loops

Unrolling of the loop **while** e **do** s :

- $L_0 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \text{fail}$
- $L_{i+1} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \text{if } e \text{ then } (s; L_i) \text{ else skip}$
- L_i runs the loop and fails after i iterations

we have:
$$\begin{cases} wlp(L_0, P) = \text{true} \\ wlp(L_{i+1}, P) = (e \Rightarrow wlp(s, wlp(L_i, P))) \wedge (\neg e \Rightarrow P) \end{cases}$$

Alternate wlp for loops: $wlp(\text{while } e \text{ do } s, P) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=}} \forall i: X_i$

where $X_0 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \text{true}$

$$X_{i+1} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (e \Rightarrow wlp(s, X_i)) \wedge (\neg e \Rightarrow P)$$

$X_i \Leftarrow X_{i+1}$: sequence of assertions of increasing strength
 $(\forall i: X_i)$ is the limit, with an arbitrary number of iterations

$(\forall i: X_i)$ is a closed form guaranteed to be the weakest precondition
 (no need for a user-specified invariant)

$(\forall i: X_i)$ is the fixpoint of a second-order formula
 \Rightarrow very difficult to handle

Wlp computation example

$$\begin{aligned}
 &wlp(\text{if } X < 0 \text{ then } Y \leftarrow -X \text{ else } Y \leftarrow X, Y \geq 10) = \\
 &(X < 0 \Rightarrow wlp(Y \leftarrow -X, Y \geq 10)) \wedge (X \geq 0 \Rightarrow wlp(Y \leftarrow X, Y \geq 10)) \\
 &(X < 0 \Rightarrow -X \geq 10) \wedge (X \geq 0 \Rightarrow X \geq 10) = \\
 &(X \geq 0 \vee -X \geq 10) \wedge (X < 0 \vee X \geq 10) = \\
 &X \geq 10 \vee X \leq -10
 \end{aligned}$$

wlp generates complex formulas

it is important to simplify them from time to time

Properties of wlp

- $wlp(c, \text{false}) \equiv \text{false}$ (excluded miracle)
- $wlp(c, P) \wedge wlp(d, Q) \equiv wlp(c, P \wedge Q)$ (distributivity)
- $wlp(c, P) \vee wlp(d, Q) \equiv wlp(c, P \vee Q)$ (distributivity)
 (\Rightarrow always true, \Leftarrow only true for deterministic, error-free programs)
- if $P \Rightarrow Q$, then $wlp(c, P) \Rightarrow wlp(c, Q)$ (monotonicity)

$A \equiv B$ means that the formulas A and B are equivalent

i.e., $\forall \rho: \rho \models A \iff \rho \models B$

(stronger than syntactic equality)

Strongest liberal postconditions

we can define $slp : (Prop \times prog) \rightarrow Prop$

- $\{P\} c \{slp(P, c)\}$ (postcondition)
- $\{P\} c \{Q\} \iff (slp(P, c) \Rightarrow Q)$ (strongest postcondition)
(corresponds to the smallest state set)
- $slp(P, c)$ does not care about non-termination (liberal)
- allows forward reasoning

we have a **duality**:

$$(P \Rightarrow wlp(c, Q)) \iff (slp(P, c) \Rightarrow Q)$$

proof: $(P \Rightarrow wlp(c, Q)) \iff \{P\} c \{Q\} \iff (slp(P, c) \Rightarrow Q)$

Calculus for slp

$$slp(P, \mathbf{skip}) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} P$$

$$slp(P, \mathbf{fail}) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \text{false}$$

$$slp(P, X \leftarrow e) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \exists v: P[v/X] \wedge X = e[v/X]$$

$$slp(P, s; t) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} slp(sl_p(P, s), t)$$

$$slp(P, \mathbf{if } e \mathbf{ then } s \mathbf{ else } t) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} slp(P \wedge e, s) \vee slp(P \wedge \neg e, t)$$

$$slp(P, \mathbf{while } e \mathbf{ do } s) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (P \Rightarrow I) \wedge (slp(I \wedge e, s) \Rightarrow I) \wedge (\neg e \wedge I)$$

(the rule for $X \leftarrow e$ makes slp much less attractive than wlp)

Verification conditions

Verification condition approach to program verification

How can we automate program verification using logic?

- Hoare logic: deductive system
 - can only automate the checking of proofs
- predicate transformers: *w/p*, *s/p* calculus
 - construct (big) formulas mechanically
 - invention is still needed for loops
- verification condition generation
 - take as input a program with annotations
(at least contracts and loop invariants)
 - generate mechanically logic formulas ensuring the correctness
(reduction to a mathematical problem, no longer any reference to a program)
 - use an automatic SAT/SMT solver to prove (discharge) the formulas
or an interactive theorem prover

(the idea of logic-based automated verification appears as early as [King69])

Language

$$\begin{array}{l}
 stat ::= X \leftarrow expr \\
 \quad | \text{ skip} \\
 \quad | stat; stat \\
 \quad | \text{ if } expr \text{ then } stat \text{ else } stat \\
 \quad | \text{ while } \{Prop\} expr \text{ do } stat \\
 \quad | \text{ assert } expr \\
 \\
 prog ::= \{Prop\} stat \{Prop\}
 \end{array}$$

- loops are annotated with loop invariants
- optional assertions at any point
- programs are annotated with a contract (precondition and postcondition)

Verification condition generation algorithm

by induction on the syntax of statements

$$\underline{vcg_p : prog \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(Prop)}$$

$$vcg_p(\{P\} c \{Q\}) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \text{let } (R, C) = vcg_s(c, Q) \text{ in } C \cup \{P \Rightarrow R\}$$

$$\underline{vcg_s : (stat \times Prop) \rightarrow (Prop \times \mathcal{P}(Prop))}$$

$$vcg_s(\text{skip}, Q) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (Q, \emptyset)$$

$$vcg_s(X \leftarrow e, Q) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (Q[e/X], \emptyset)$$

$$vcg_s(s; t, Q) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \text{let } (R, C) = vcg_s(t, Q) \text{ in let } (P, D) = vcg_s(s, R) \text{ in } (P, C \cup D)$$

$$vcg_s(\text{if } e \text{ then } s \text{ else } t, Q) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \text{let } (S, C) = vcg_s(s, Q) \text{ in let } (T, D) = vcg_s(t, Q) \text{ in } ((e \Rightarrow S) \wedge (\neg e \Rightarrow T), C \cup D)$$

$$vcg_s(\text{while } \{I\} e \text{ do } s, Q) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \text{let } (R, C) = vcg_s(s, I) \text{ in } (I, C \cup \{(I \wedge e) \Rightarrow R, (I \wedge \neg e) \Rightarrow Q\})$$

$$vcg_s(\text{assert } e, Q) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (e \Rightarrow Q, \emptyset)$$

- we use *wlp* to infer assertions automatically when possible
- $vcg_s(c, P) = (P', C)$ propagates postconditions backwards (P into P') and accumulates into C verification conditions (from loops)
- we could do the same using *slp* instead of *wlp* (symbolic execution)

Verification condition generation example

Consider the program:

```

{N ≥ 0}   X ← 1; I ← 0;
          while {X = 2I ∧ 0 ≤ I ≤ N} I < N do
            (X ← 2X; I ← I + 1)
          {X = 2N}
  
```

we get three verification conditions:

$$C_1 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (X = 2^I \wedge 0 \leq I \leq N) \wedge I \geq N \Rightarrow X = 2^N$$

$$C_2 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (X = 2^I \wedge 0 \leq I \leq N) \wedge I < N \Rightarrow 2X = 2^{I+1} \wedge 0 \leq I + 1 \leq N$$

(from $(X = 2^I \wedge 0 \leq I \leq N)[I + 1/I, 2X/X]$)

$$C_3 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} N \geq 0 \Rightarrow 1 = 2^0 \wedge 0 \leq 0 \leq N$$

(from $(X = 2^I \wedge 0 \leq I \leq N)[0/I, 1/X]$)

which can be checked independently

What about real languages?

In a real language such as **C**, the rules are **not so simple**

Example: the assignment rule $\frac{}{\{P[e/X]\} X \leftarrow e \{P\}}$ requires that

- e has no effect (memory write, function calls)
- there is no pointer aliasing
- e has no run-time error

moreover, the operators in the program and in the logic **may not match:**

- integers: logic models \mathbb{Z} , computers use $\mathbb{Z}/2^n\mathbb{Z}$ (wrap-around)
- continuous:
logic models \mathbb{Q} or \mathbb{R} , programs use **floating-point numbers**
(rounding error)
- a logic for pointers and dynamic allocation is also required
(separation logic)

(see for instance the tool **Why**, to see how some problems can be circumvented)

Conclusion

Conclusion

- logic allows us to reason about program correctness
- verification can be reduced to proofs of simple logic statements

Issue: automation

- annotations are required (loop invariants, contracts)
- verification conditions must be proven

to scale up to realistic programs, we need to automate as much as possible

Some solutions:

- automatic logic solvers to discharge proof obligations
SAT / SMT solvers
- abstract interpretation to approximate the semantics
 - fully automatic
 - able to infer invariants

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Extensions

Total correctness

Hoare triple: $[P] \text{ prog } [Q]$

- if P holds before prog is executed
- then prog **always terminates**
- and Q holds after the execution of prog

Rules: we only need to change the rule for **while**

$$\frac{\forall t \in W: [P \wedge e \wedge u = t] s [P \wedge u < t]}{[P] \text{ while } e \text{ do } s [P \wedge \neg e]} \quad ((W, <) \text{ is well-founded})$$

- $(W, <)$ well-founded $\stackrel{\text{def}}{\iff}$ every $V \subseteq W$, $V \neq \emptyset$ has a minimal element for $<$
 ensures that we cannot decrease infinitely by $<$ in W
 generally, we simply use $(\mathbb{N}, <)$
 (also useful: lexicographic orders, ordinals)
- in addition to the loop invariant P
 we invent an **expression u that strictly decreases by s**
 u is called a “ranking function”
 often $\neg e \implies u = 0$: u counts the number of steps until termination

Total correctness

To simplify, we can **decompose** a proof of total correctness into:

- a proof of partial correctness $\{P\} c \{Q\}$
ignoring termination
- a proof of termination $[P] c [\text{true}]$
ignoring the specification
(we must still include the precondition P
as the program may not terminate for all inputs)

indeed, we have:

$$\frac{\{P\} c \{Q\} \quad [P] c [\text{true}]}{[P] c [Q]}$$

Total correctness example

We use a simpler rule for integer ranking functions $((W, \prec) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\mathbb{N}, \leq))$ using an integer expression r over program variables:

$$\frac{\forall n: [P \wedge e \wedge (r = n)] s [P \wedge (r < n)] \quad (P \wedge e) \Rightarrow (r \geq 0)}{[P] \text{ while } e \text{ do } s [P \wedge \neg e]}$$

Example: $p \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \text{while } l < N \text{ do } l \leftarrow l + 1; X \leftarrow 2X \text{ done}$

we use $r \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} N - l$ and $P \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \text{true}$

$$\frac{\forall n: [l < N \wedge N - l = n] l \leftarrow l + 1; X \leftarrow 2X [N - l = n - 1] \quad l < N \Rightarrow N - l \geq 0}{[\text{true}] p [l \geq N]}$$

Weakest precondition

Weakest precondition $wp(prog, Prop) : Prop$

- similar to wp , but also additionally imposes termination
- $[P] c [Q] \iff (P \Rightarrow wp(c, Q))$

As before, only the definition for **while** needs to be modified:

$$wp(\mathbf{while} \ e \ \mathbf{do} \ s, P) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} I \wedge \\ (I \Rightarrow v \geq 0) \wedge \\ \forall n: ((e \wedge I \wedge v = n) \Rightarrow wp(s, I \wedge v < n)) \wedge \\ ((\neg e \wedge I) \Rightarrow P)$$

the **invariant predicate** I is combined with a **variant expression** v

v is positive (this is an invariant: $I \Rightarrow v \geq 0$)

v decreases at each loop iteration

(and similarly for strongest postconditions)