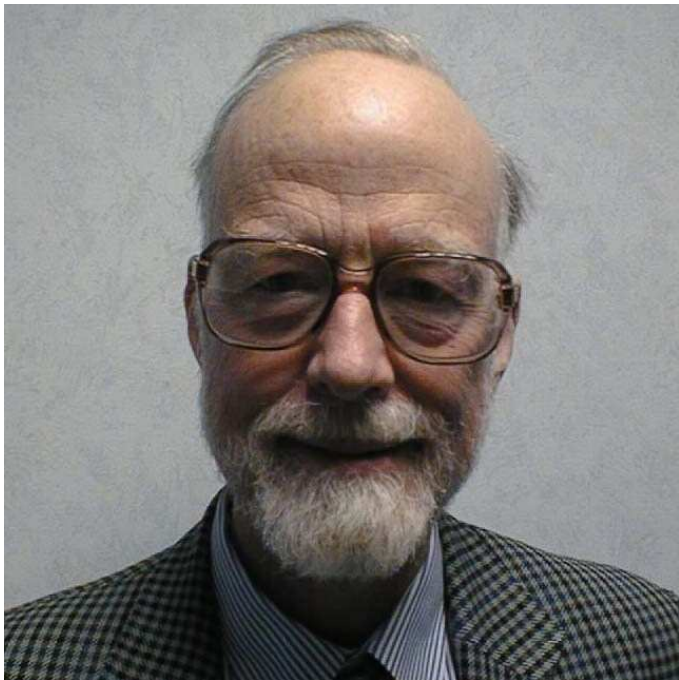


Hoare Logic

<http://www.cl.cam.ac.uk/~mjc/HoareLogic.html>

- Program specification using Hoare notation
- Axioms and rules of Hoare Logic
- Soundness and completeness
- Mechanised program verification
- Pointers, the frame problem and separation logic



A Little Programming Language

Expressions:

$E ::= N \mid V \mid E_1 + E_2 \mid E_1 - E_2 \mid E_1 \times E_2 \mid \dots$

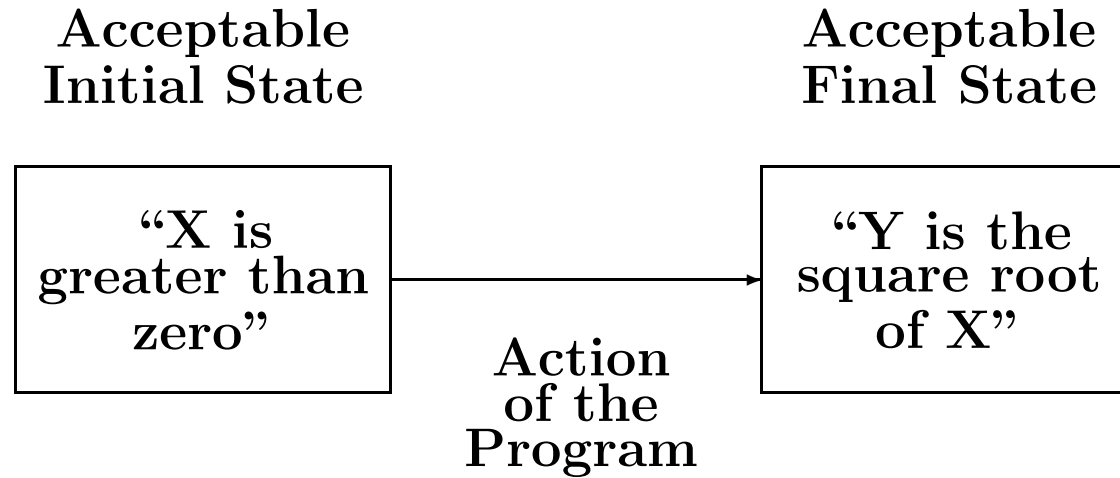
Boolean expressions:

$B ::= T \mid F \mid E_1 = E_2 \mid E_1 \leq E_2 \mid \dots$

Commands:

$C ::= V := E$
| $C_1 ; C_2$
| IF B THEN C_1 ELSE C_2
| WHILE B DO C

Specification of Imperative Programs



Hoare's notation

- C.A.R. Hoare introduced the following notation called a *partial correctness specification* for specifying what a program does:

$$\{P\} C \{Q\}$$

where:

- C is a command
- P and Q are conditions on the program variables used in C
- Conditions on program variables will be written using standard mathematical notations together with *logical operators* like:
 - \wedge ('and'), \vee ('or'), \neg ('not'), \Rightarrow ('implies')
- Hoare's original notation was $P \{C\} Q$ not $\{P\} C \{Q\}$, but the latter form is now more widely used

Meaning of Hoare's Notation

- $\{P\} C \{Q\}$ is true if
 - whenever C is executed in a state satisfying P
 - and *if* the execution of C terminates
 - then the state in which C terminates satisfies Q
- **Example:** $\{X = 1\} X := X + 1 \{X = 2\}$
 - P is the condition that the value of X is 1
 - Q is the condition that the value of X is 2
 - C is the assignment command $X := X + 1$
 - i.e. 'X becomes X+1'
- $\{X = 1\} X := X + 1 \{X = 2\}$ is true
- $\{X = 1\} X := X + 1 \{X = 3\}$ is false

Hoare Logic and Verification Conditions

- Hoare Logic is a deductive proof system for **Hoare triples** $\{P\} C \{Q\}$
- Can use Hoare Logic directly to verify programs
 - original proposal by Hoare
 - tedious and error prone
 - impractical for large programs
- Can ‘compile’ proving $\{P\} C \{Q\}$ to verification conditions
 - more natural
 - basis for computer assisted verification
- Proof of verification conditions equivalent to proof with Hoare Logic
 - Hoare Logic can be used to explain verification conditions

Partial Correctness Specification

- An expression $\{P\} C \{Q\}$ is called a *partial correctness specification*
 - P is called its *precondition*
 - Q its *postcondition*
- $\{P\} C \{Q\}$ is true if
 - whenever C is executed in a state satisfying P
 - and *if* the execution of C terminates
 - then the state in which C 's execution terminates satisfies Q
- These specifications are ‘partial’ because for $\{P\} C \{Q\}$ to be true it is *not* necessary for the execution of C to terminate when started in a state satisfying P
- It is only required that *if* the execution terminates, *then* Q holds
- $\{X = 1\} \text{ WHILE } T \text{ DO } X := X \{Y = 2\}$ – **this specification is true!**

Total Correctness Specification

- A stronger kind of specification is a *total correctness specification*
 - there is no standard notation for such specifications
 - we shall use $[P] C [Q]$
- A total correctness specification $[P] C [Q]$ is true if and only if
 - whenever C is executed in a state satisfying P the **execution of C terminates**
 - after C terminates Q holds
- $[X = 1] Y := X; \text{ WHILE } T \text{ DO } X := X [Y = 1]$
 - this says that the execution of $Y := X; \text{ WHILE } T \text{ DO } X := X$ terminates when started in a state satisfying $X = 1$
 - after which $Y = 1$ will hold
 - this is clearly false

Total Correctness

- Informally:

$$\textit{Total correctness} = \textit{Termination} + \textit{Partial correctness}$$

- Total correctness is the ultimate goal

- usually easier to show partial correctness and termination separately

- Termination is usually straightforward to show, but there are examples where it is not: no one knows whether the program below terminates for all values of X

```
WHILE X>1 DO
  IF ODD(X) THEN X := (3×X)+1 ELSE X := X DIV 2
```

- X DIV 2 evaluates to the result of rounding down X/2 to a whole number
- the **Collatz conjecture** is that this terminates with X=1

- Microsoft's T2 tool proves systems code terminates

Auxiliary Variables

- $\{X=x \wedge Y=y\} R:=X; X:=Y; Y:=R \{X=y \wedge Y=x\}$
 - this says that *if* the execution of
$$R:=X; X:=Y; Y:=R$$
terminates (which it does)
 - *then* the values of X and Y are exchanged
- The variables x and y , which don't occur in the command and are used to name the initial values of program variables X and Y
- They are called *auxiliary* variables or *ghost* variables
- Informal convention:
 - program variable are upper case
 - auxiliary variable are lower case

Floyd-Hoare Logic

- To construct formal proofs of partial correctness specifications, *axioms* and *rules of inference* are needed
- This is what Floyd-Hoare logic provides
 - the formulation of the deductive system is due to Hoare
 - some of the underlying ideas originated with Floyd
- A proof in Floyd-Hoare logic is a sequence of lines, each of which is either an *axiom* of the logic or follows from earlier lines by a *rule of inference* of the logic
 - proofs can also be trees, if you prefer
- A formal proof makes explicit what axioms and rules of inference are used to arrive at a conclusion

Judgements

- Three kinds of things that could be true or false:
 - statements of mathematics, e.g. $(X + 1)^2 = X^2 + 2 \times X + 1$
 - partial correctness specifications $\{P\} C \{Q\}$
 - total correctness specifications $[P] C [Q]$
- These three kinds of things are examples of *judgements*
 - a logical system gives rules for proving judgements
 - Floyd-Hoare logic provides rules for proving partial correctness specifications
 - the laws of arithmetic provide ways of proving statements about integers
- $\vdash S$ means statement S can be proved
 - how to prove predicate calculus statements assumed known
 - this course covers axioms and rules for proving *program correctness statements*

Reminder of our little programming language ✓

- The proof rules that follow constitute an *axiomatic semantics* of our programming language

Expressions

$$E ::= N \mid V \mid E_1 + E_2 \mid E_1 - E_2 \mid E_1 \times E_2 \mid \dots$$

Boolean expressions

$$B ::= T \mid F \mid E_1 = E_2 \mid E_1 \leq E_2 \mid \dots$$

Commands

$$\begin{aligned} C ::= & V := E \\ & \mid C_1 ; C_2 \\ & \mid \text{IF } B \text{ THEN } C_1 \text{ ELSE } C_2 \\ & \mid \text{WHILE } B \text{ DO } C \end{aligned}$$

Assignments

Sequences

Conditionals

WHILE-commands

Substitution Notation

- $Q[E/V]$ is the result of replacing all occurrences of V in Q by E
 - read $Q[E/V]$ as ‘ Q with E for V ’
 - for example: $(X+1 > X)[Y+Z/X] = ((Y+Z)+1 > Y+Z)$
 - ignoring issues with bound variables for now (e.g. variable capture)
- Same notation for substituting into terms, e.g. $E_1[E_2/V]$

- Think of this notation as the ‘cancellation law’

$$V[E/V] = E$$

which is analogous to the cancellation property of fractions

$$v \times (e/v) = e$$

- Note that $Q[x/V]$ doesn’t contain V (if $V \neq x$)

The Assignment Axiom (Hoare)

- Syntax: $V := E$
- Semantics: value of V in final state is value of E in initial state
- Example: $X := X + 1$ (adds one to the value of the variable X)

The Assignment Axiom

$$\vdash \{Q[E/V]\} V := E \{Q\}$$

Where V is any variable, E is any expression, Q is any statement.

- Instances of the assignment axiom are
 - $\vdash \{E = x\} V := E \{V = x\}$
 - $\vdash \{Y = 2\} X := 2 \{Y = X\}$
 - $\vdash \{X + 1 = n + 1\} X := X + 1 \{X = n + 1\}$
 - $\vdash \{E = E\} X := E \{X = E\}$ (if X does not occur in E)

The Backwards Fallacy

- Many people feel the assignment axiom is ‘backwards’
- One common erroneous intuition is that it should be

$$\vdash \{P\} V := E \{P[V/E]\}$$

- where $P[V/E]$ denotes the result of substituting V for E in P
- this has the false consequence $\vdash \{X=0\} X:=1 \{X=0\}$
(since $(X=0)[X/1]$ is equal to $(X=0)$ as 1 doesn't occur in $(X=0)$)
- Another erroneous intuition is that it should be

$$\vdash \{P\} V := E \{P[E/V]\}$$

- this has the false consequence $\vdash \{X=0\} X:=1 \{1=0\}$
(which follows by taking P to be $X=0$, V to be X and E to be 1)

Validity

- Important to establish the validity of axioms and rules
- Later will give a *formal semantics* of our little programming language
 - then *prove* axioms and rules of inference of Floyd-Hoare logic are sound
 - this will only increase our confidence in the axioms and rules to the extent that we believe the correctness of the formal semantics!
- The Assignment Axiom is not valid for ‘real’ programming languages
 - In an early PhD on Hoare Logic G. Ligler showed that the assignment axiom can fail to hold in six different ways for the language Algol 60

Expressions with Side-effects

- The validity of the assignment axiom depends on expressions not having side effects
- Suppose that our language were extended so that it contained the ‘block expression’

BEGIN Y:=1; 2 END

- this expression has value 2, but its evaluation also ‘side effects’ the variable Y by storing 1 in it
- If the assignment axiom applied to block expressions, then it could be used to deduce

$$\vdash \{Y=0\} X := \text{BEGIN } Y:=1; 2 \text{ END } \{Y=0\}$$

- since $(Y=0) [E/X] = (Y=0)$ (because X does not occur in $(Y=0)$)
- this is clearly false; after the assignment Y will have the value 1

A Forwards Assignment Axiom (Floyd)

- This is the original semantics of assignment due to Floyd

$$\vdash \{P\} V := E \{ \exists v. V = E[v/V] \wedge P[v/V] \}$$

- where v is a new variable (i.e. doesn't equal V or occur in P or E)

- Example instance

$$\vdash \{X=1\} X := X+1 \{ \exists v. X = X+1[v/X] \wedge X=1[v/X] \}$$

- Simplifying the postcondition

$$\vdash \{X=1\} X := X+1 \{ \exists v. X = X+1[v/X] \wedge X=1[v/X] \}$$

$$\vdash \{X=1\} X := X+1 \{ \exists v. X = v + 1 \wedge v = 1 \}$$

$$\vdash \{X=1\} X := X+1 \{ \exists v. X = 1 + 1 \wedge v = 1 \}$$

$$\vdash \{X=1\} X := X+1 \{ X = 1 + 1 \wedge \exists v. v = 1 \}$$

$$\vdash \{X=1\} X := X+1 \{ X = 2 \wedge \text{T} \}$$

$$\vdash \{X=1\} X := X+1 \{ X = 2 \}$$

- Forwards Axiom equivalent to standard one but harder to use