HOARE LOGIC

Parts of the slides are taken from the lecture notes of Carl Leonadsson, Yih-Kuen Tsai, and Michael Gordon

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Outline

Prove Program Correctness

- WHILE program
- Hoare Triple
- Axioms and Rules
 - Assignment Axiom
 - Composition Rule
 - Conditional Rule
 - Iteration Rule

Hoare Logic

- Hoare Logic An axiomatic basis for computer programming (1969, C.A.R. Hoare)
 - Describes a deductive system for proving program correctness.
 - A set of axioms and inference rules about asserted programs.
 - Development to the logic is still active
 - E.g., separation logic (reasoning about pointers)

WHILE Program

Assume that we have an underlying logic L, e.g. Integer Arithmetic

Define inductively

E.g. X+5, 4-Y*Z

- For all integer variable X and term E, X:=E is a program.
- If S₁ and S₂ are programs, B is a Boolean expression, then the following are programs
 - □ S₁;S₂
 - If B then S₁ else S₂ fi
 - while B do S₁ od

```
A sample program:

SUM:=0;

I:=1;

while I<100 do

if I%2=0 then

SUM:=SUM+I ; I:=I+1

else

I:=I+1

fi

od
```

Program States and Transitions

A state is a valuation of all program variables.



A program statement defines transitions between program states.



Predicates

□ A **predicate** characterizes a set of program states



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**}**S**{**Q**}

- Here S is a program,
- P is a predicate describes the precondition of S
- **Q** is a predicate describes the postcondition of **S**
- Note: Hoare's original notation was P{S}Q instead of {P}S{Q}, but the latter form is now more widely used

Meaning of Hoare's Notation

{P}S{Q} means

- Whenever S is executed in a state satisfying P
- and if the execution of S terminates
- Then the state in which S terminates satisfies Q.
- Example: {X = 1} X:= X+1 {X = 2}
 - P: the value of X is 1
 - Q: the value of X is 2
 - S: an assignment X:= X + 1
 - X becomes X + 1

{X = 1} X := X + 1 {X = 2} is false

Some practices

(1) Is the following formula valid? $\label{eq:X} \{X < 1\} \ X := X + 1 \ ; \ X := X + 1 \ \{X < 3\}$

(2) Is the following formula valid?{X < 100} while true do X:=X+1 od {X < 0}

(3) Is the following formula valid? {X < 100} if X=1 then S₁ else S₂ {X < 200} S₁ \equiv while true do X:=X+1 od S₂ \equiv X:=X+2

Formal versus Informal Proof

Informal Proof:

Like what we used in the previous slides

- Formal verification uses formal proof
 - The rules used are described and followed very precisely
- □ An example: proof of $(X+1)^2 = X^2 + 2 \times X + 1$

1.	$(X + 1)^2$	$= (X + 1) \times (X + 1)$	Definition of $()^2$.
2.	$(X+1) \times (X+1)$	$= (X+1) \times X + (X+1) \times 1$	Left distributive law of \times over +.
3.	$(X + 1)^2$	$= (X + 1) \times X + (X + 1) \times 1$	Substituting line 2 into line 1.
4.	$(X + 1) \times 1$	= X + 1	Identity law for 1.
5.	$(X + 1) \times X$	$= X \times X + 1 \times X$	Right distributive law of \times over +.
6.	$(X + 1)^2$	$= X \times X + 1 \times X + X + 1$	Substituting lines 4 and 5 into line 3.
7.	$1 \times X$	= X	Identity law for 1.
8.	$(X + 1)^2$	$= X \times X + X + X + 1$	Substituting line 7 into line 6.
9.	$X \times X$	$= X^2$	Definition of $()^2$.
10.	X + X	$= 2 \times X$	2=1+1, distributive law.
11.	$(X + 1)^2$	$= X^2 + 2 \times X + 1$	Substituting lines 9 and 10 into line 8.

The Structure of Proofs

- A proof consists of a sequence of lines
- Each line is an instance of an atom
 E.g., the definition of ()²
- or follows from previous lines by a rule of inference
 E,g, the substitution of equivalent objects
- The statement on the last line of the proof is the statement proved by it
 - Thus $(X+1)^2 = X^2 + 2 \times X + 1$ is proved by the proof on the previous slides
- □ These are "Hibert style" formal proofs
 - can use a tree structure rather than a linear one
 - the choice is a matter of convenience

Formal proof is syntactic "symbol pushing"

Formal system reduce verification and proof to symbol pushing.

- The rule say...
 - If you have a string of characters of this form
 - You can obtain a new string of characters of this other form

Even if you don't know what the strings are intended to mean, provided the rules are designed properly and you apply them correctly, you will get correct results.

Though not necessary the desired result

Hoare Logic

 Hoare Logic is a deductive proof system for Hoare triple {P} S {Q}

- Can be used to verify programs
 - Original proposal by Hoare
 - Tedious and error prone
- Exists tools to help its automation

Partial Correctness Specification

- □ An expression {P} S {Q} is called a partial correctness specification
 - P is called its precondition
 - **Q** is called its *postcondition*
- P} S {Q} means
 - Whenever S is executed in a state satisfying P
 - and if the execution of S terminates
 - Then the state in which the execution of S terminates satisfies Q
- It is partial because for {P} S {Q} to be true, it is not necessary for the execution of S to terminate when stated in a state satisfying P

□ {X = 1} while **T** do **X** := **X** + 1 od {X = -3 } – 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
 - Here we use [P] S [Q]
- [P] S [Q] means
 - Whenever S is executed in a state satisfying, the execution of S terminates
 - After S terminates Q holds
- [X = 1] while T do X := X + 1 od [X = -3]
 - This says the execution of the program terminates when stated in a state satisfying X = 1
 - After which Y = 1 will hold

Clearly false

Total Correctness

Informally

Total Correctness = Termination + 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 exists examples where it is not.

Example		
while X > 1 do if X%2==1		conjecture: if the program es with X = 1 for all values of X
then X := (3*X)+1		
else X := X/2		
fi		
od		

Auxiliary Variables

- $\Box \{X=x \land Y=y\} R:=X; X:=Y; Y:=R \{X=y \land Y=x\}$
 - If the program terminates, then the values of X and Y are swapped
- The variables x and y, which do not occur in the program 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 variables are upper case
 - Auxiliary variables are lower case

More examples

- □ {X = x \land Y = y} X:=Y ; Y:=X {X = y \land Y = x}
 - It says the program can swap the values of X and Y, which is not true
- □ {T} S {Q}
 - Whenever S halts, Q holds
- □ {P} S {T}
 - This specification is true for all P and S
 - Because T is always true
- [P] S [T]
 - S terminates if initially P holds
- □ [T] S [Q]

S always terminates and ends in a state where Q holds

A More Complicated Example

{T} R:=X;Q=0; while Y \leq R do R:=R-Y; Q:=Q+1 od { R< Y \land X = R + (Y \times Q)}

- The specification is true if the execution of the program terminates, then Q is the quotient and R is the reminder resulting from dividing Y into X
- □ This is true even if X is initially negative

Some Easy Exercises

When is [T] S [T] true?

- Write a partial correctness specification which is true iff the program S has the effect of multiplying the values of X and Y and storing the results in X
- Write a specification which is true if the execution of S always terminates when the execution is stated in a state satisfying P

Specification can be Tricky

- "The program must set Y to the maximum of X and Y"
 [T] S [Y=max(X,Y)]
- A suitable program
 - if $X \ge Y$ then Y:=X else X := X fi
- Another?
 If X ≥ Y then X:=Y else X := X fi
- Or evenY:=X
- □ Later we will be able to prove that all the programs are "correct"
- The postcondition [Y=max(X,Y)] is the maximum of X and Y in the final state

Specification can be Tricky

- The intended specification was not properly captured by
 [T] S [Y=max(X,Y)]
- The correct one should be

$$[X=x \land Y=y] S [Y=max(x,y)]$$

- The lesson
 - It is easy to write the wrong specification
 - A proof system will not help since the incorrect program can be proved "correct"
 - Testing could be helpful in this case

Outline

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- Hoare Triple

Axioms and Rules

- Assignment Axiom
- Composition Rule
- Conditional Rule
- Iteration Rule

Formal Proof

(1) Is the following formula valid? $\label{eq:X} \{X < 1\} \ X := X + 1 \ ; \ X := X + 1 \ \{X < 3\}$

(2) Is the following formula valid?{X < 100} while true do X:=X+1 od {X < 0}

(3) Is the following formula valid? {X < 100} if X=1 then S₁ else S₂ {X < 200} S₁ \equiv while true do X:=X+1 od S₂ \equiv X:=X+2

How can we formally prove the previous examples?

We begin with Foyld's version of the assignment axiom
 {P} X := E {?}

The term E might contain X, e.g. E \equiv X+1

An example: X := X + 1

The value of X **after** executing the statement The value of X **before** executing the statement

We need to differentiate these two values!

We begin with Foyld's version of the assignment axiom
 {P} X := E {?}

$\exists V.(X=E[V/X] \land P[V/X])$

Intuition: we use new variable V to denote the old value of X



Foyld's Assignment Axiom

Example

$$\{Y + X = 42\} X := X + 5 \{\exists V. X = V + 5 \land Y + V = 42\}$$

Example

 ${Y = 5 } X := X/Y + X {?}$

We do not want to have quantifiers in the reasoning path!

Backward reasoning

Hoare's Assignment Axiom

{Q[E/X]} X:=E {Q}

Expressions with Side-effect

- 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 change the value of Y to 1
- If the assignment axiom applied to block expressions, then it could be used to deduce the following, which is false
 - {Y=0} X:= BEGIN Y:=1; 2 END {Y=0}
 - Notice that (Y=0)[E/X] = (Y=0)

Backward reasoning

Hoare's Assignment Axiom {Q[E/X]} X:=E {Q}

Below is an informal proof of the soundness of this axiom:

Let s be the state before X := E and s' the state after. So, s' = s[X \rightarrow E] (assuming E has no side-effect).

Q[E/X] holds in s if and only if Q holds in s', because (1) Every variable, except X, has the same value in s and s', and (2) Q[E/X] has every X in Q replaced by E, (3) Q has every X evaluated to E in s (s' = s[X \rightarrow E]).

Backward reasoning

Hoare's Assignment Axiom {Q[E/X]} X:=E {Q}

Example

 ${X + Y + 5 > 5} X := X + Y + 5 {X > 5}$

	Example
Try it!	{?} X := X + 1 {X<10}

Composition Rule

Composition Rule



Composition Rule

Example

P: {true} X:=2 ; Y:=X {X >0 \lapha Y=2}

(1) $2>0 \land 2 = 2 \Leftrightarrow$ true (Integer arithmetic) (2) $\{2>0 \land 2 = 2\} X:=2 \{X>0 \land X = 2\}$ (assignment axiom) (3) $\{X>0 \land X = 2\} Y:=X \{X>0 \land Y = 2\}$ (assignment axiom) (4) $\{\text{true}\} X:=2 \{X>0 \land X = 2\}$ (by (1), we can replace $2>0 \land 2 = 2$ in (3) with true) (5) $\{\text{true}\} X:=2 ; Y:=X \{X>0 \land Y=2\}$ (by (3), (4), and composition rule)

Composition Rule

Example

 $\mathsf{P:} \{ \mathsf{X=x} \land \mathsf{Y=y} \} \mathsf{R:=X} ; \mathsf{X:=Y} ; \mathsf{Y:=R} \{ \mathsf{Y=x} \land \mathsf{X=y} \}$

(1) {X= $x \land Y=y$ } R:=X {R = $x \land Y=y$ } (assignment axiom)

- (2) {R =x \land Y =y} X:=Y {R =x \land X =y} (assignment axiom)
- (3) {R = $x \land X = y$ } Y:=R {Y = $x \land X = y$ } (assignment axiom)
- (4) $\{X=x \land Y=y\}$ R:=X; X:=Y $\{R=x \land X=y\}$ (by (1), (2), and composition rule)
- (5) {X=x ∧ Y=y} R:=X ; X:=Y ; Y:=R {Y=x∧X=y} (by (4), (3), and composition rule)

Conditional Rule

Conditional Rule

$$\label{eq:particular} \begin{array}{c} \{P \land E\} \; S_1 \{Q\} \; \{P \land \neg E\} \; S_2 \{Q\} \\ \hline \{P\} \; \text{if E then S_1 else $S_2 \{Q\}$} \end{array}$$
Conditional Rule

Conditional Rule

$$\label{eq:product} \frac{\{P \land E\} \ S_1 \{Q\} \ \{P \land \neg E\} \ S_2 \{Q\}}{\{P\} \ \text{if E then S_1 else $S_2 \{Q\}$}}$$

Example

P: {true} if X < 10 then X:=10 else X:=0 fi {X=10 \lor X=0}

We can infer P if we can infer (1) P_1 : {true $\land X < 10$ } X:=10 {X=10 $\lor X=0$ } (2) P_2 : {true $\land X \ge 10$ } X:=0 {X=10 $\lor X=0$ }

Here we need other proof rule to prove (1) and (2)

Consequence Rule



- We can strengthen the precondition, i.e. assume more than we need
- We can weaken the postcondition, i.e. conclude less than we are allowed to

Consequence Rule



Example

 P_1 : {true $\land X < 10$ } X:=10 {X=10 $\lor X=0$ }

(1) {true} X:=10 {X=10 \lor X=0} (by Assignment Rule) (2) true \land X<10 \Rightarrow true (by underlying logic) (3) X = 10 \lor X = 0 \Rightarrow X = 10 \lor X = 0 (by underlying logic) (4) {true \land X < 10} X:=10 {X=10 \lor X=0} (by consequence rule, (2), and (3))

Consequence Rule



Example

P₂: {true \land X \ge 10} X:=0 {X=10 \lor X=0}

Try it yourself!

Another example

Example

{T} if $X \ge Y$ then MAX :=X else MAX := Y fi {MAX = max (X,Y)}

 $\begin{array}{l} (1) \ T \land X \geq Y \Rightarrow X=max(X,Y) \ (by \ Underlying \ Logic) \\ (2) \ T \land \neg(X \geq Y) \Rightarrow Y = max(X,Y) \ (by \ Underlying \ Logic) \\ (3) \ MAX=max(X,Y) \Rightarrow \ MAX=max(X,Y) \ (by \ Underlying \ Logic) \\ (4) \ \{X = max(X,Y) \ MAX:=X \ \{MAX=max(X,Y)\} \ (by \ Assignment \ Axiom) \\ (5) \ \{Y = max(X,Y) \ MAX:=Y \ \{MAX=max(X,Y)\} \ (by \ Assignment \ Axiom) \\ (6) \ \{T \land X \geq Y\} \ MAX:=X \ \{MAX=max(X,Y)\} \ (by \ Consequence \ Rule, \ (1), \ and \ (3)) \\ (7) \ \{T \land \neg(X \geq Y) \ MAX:=Y \ \{MAX=max(X,Y)\} \ (by \ Consequence \ Rule, \ (2), \ and \ (3)) \\ (8) \ \{T\} \ if \ X \geq Y \ then \ MAX :=X \ else \ MAX := Y \ fi \ \{MAX = max \ (X,Y)\} \ (by \ Conditional \ Rule, \ (6), \ and \ (7)) \\ \end{array}$

Iteration Rule

Iteration Rule

Example

{X

 $\{X \le 10\}$ while X < 10 do X := X + 1 od $\{X = 10\}$

Another Example

Example

{T} R:=X;Q=0; while Y \leq R do R:=R-Y; Q:=Q+1 od { R< Y \land X = R + (Y \times Q)}

Another Example

Example

{T} R:=X;Q=0; while Y \leq R do R:=R-Y; Q:=Q+1 od { R< Y \land X = R + (Y \times Q)}



Iteration Rule and Invariants

An invariant at some point of a program is an assertion that holds whenever execution of the program reaches that point.



Assertion P in the iteration rule for a while loop is called a loop invariant of the while loop.

How Does One Find an Invariant?



- Look at the facts
 - Invariant P must hold initially
 - With negated test \neg B the invariant must establish the result
 - When the test B holds, the body must leave the invariant P unchanged
- □ Think about how the loop works the invariant should say that:
 - What has been done so far together with what remains to be done
 - Holds at each iteration of the loop
 - Gives the desired result when the loop terminates

Example

Example

Look at the facts

- Initially X=n and Y=1
- Finally X=0 and Y=n!
- On each loop Y is increased and X is decreased

Think how the loop works

- Y holds the results so far
- X! is what remains to be computed
- n! is the desired results
- The invariant here is $X! \times Y = n!$
 - Stuff to be done" × "result so far" = "desired result"
 - Decrease in X combines with increase in Y to make invariant
- Try to prove the specification using the given invariant.

{X=n \land Y=1} while X \neq 0 do Y:=Y \times X; X:=X-1 od {X=0 \land Y=n!}

Example

Example

```
 \begin{array}{l} \{X=0 ~\land~ Y=1\} \\ \text{while } X < N ~ \text{do } X:=X+1; ~ Y:=Y \times X ~ \text{od} \\ \{Y=N!\} \end{array}
```

Look at the facts

- Initially X=0 and Y=1
- Finally X=N and Y=N!

On each loop both X and Y are increased: X by 1 and Y by X

- An invariant should be Y = X!
- Try to prove the specification using the given invariant

Example

Example

 $X=0 \land Y=1$

Look at the facts while X < N do X:=X+1; Y:=Y \times X od $\{Y=N\}$

- Initially X=0 and Y=1
- Finally X=N and Y=N!
- On each loop both X and Y are increased: X by 1 and Y by X
- An invariant is Y = X!, but not sufficient to prove the results
- At the end need Y = N!, but the Iteration rule only gives \neg (X<N)
- □ The invariant needed is $Y = X! \land X \le N$
- □ At the end, $X \le N \land \neg (X \le N) \Rightarrow X=N$
- Often need to strengthen invariants to get them to work.
 - Typical to add thing to "carry along" such as $X \le N$

Conjunction/Disjunction Rule





Some Quick Review

Which of the following is correct?

Hoare's Assignment Axiom

{P[E/X]} X:=E {P}

Hoare's Assignment Axiom

{P} X:=E {P[E/X]}

Some Quick Review

Composition Rule

{P}S ₁	{R}	{R}	S_2	[Q}
{P	}S ₁ ;	$S_2{$	Q}	

Iteration Rule

Conditional Rule

 $\label{eq:particular} \frac{\{P \land E\} \ S_1 \{Q\} \ \{P \land \neg E\} \ S_2 \{Q\}}{\{P\} \ if \ E \ then \ S_1 \ else \ S_2 \{Q\}}$

Consequence Rule

$$\frac{\mathsf{P} \Rightarrow \mathsf{P}' \{\mathsf{P}'\} \, \mathsf{S} \{\mathsf{Q}'\} \, \mathsf{Q}' \Rightarrow \mathsf{Q}}{\{\mathsf{P}\} \, \mathsf{S} \{\mathsf{Q}\}}$$

Further Studies

- Soundness and completeness proof for the axioms and inference rules.
- Richer program constructs: pointers, procedure call, arrays, code block
- Automation. E.g., finding loop invariants