

1st Asian-Pacific Summer School on Formal Methods

Course 11: Hoare Logic with Pointers

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CEA List

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Summary

Functional Arrays

Aliasing

Memory models

Conclusion



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Conclusion

```
(long n)
{ for (i = 0; i < n; i++)
  C[i] = i;
  tmp2 = ...
  // ...
}
```

```
tmp2[i] = (i < (N-1) ? tmp1[i] : 0); // Then the second pass looks like the first one:
tmp1[i] = 0; k = 0; k++ tmp1[i][k] = mc2[i][k] * tmp2[k]; // The [i][k] coefficient of the matrix product MC2*TMP2, that is, *MC2*(TMP1) = MC2*(MC1*M1) = MC2*M1*(MC1 * M1) = 1 * tmp1[i][0] >= 1. // Final rounding: tmp2[i][0] is now represented on 9 bits. *if (tmp1[i][0] < -256) m2[i][0] = -256; else if (tmp1[i][0] > 255) m2[i][0] = 255; else m2[i][0] = tmp1[i][0];
```



- ▶ Hoare triples $\{P\}s\{Q\}$, meaning “*If we enter statement s in a state verifying P , the state after executing s will verify Q* ”.
- ▶ Function contracts, pre- and post-conditions.
- ▶ Weakest pre-condition calculus and program verification.
- ▶ The *Why* language.



Memory update

- ▶ in “classical” Hoare logic, variables are manipulated directly
- ▶ What happens if we add pointers, arrays,

$(i + 1 == 0 \Rightarrow$
 $(i + 1 == 0 \wedge x_1 == 1)) \wedge$
 $(i + 1 == 1 \Rightarrow$
 $(x_0 == 0 \wedge i + 1 == 1))$

Example

```
int x[2];
```

```
/*@ ensures x[0]==0 &&  
           x[1] == 1;*/
```

```
int main () {  
    int i = 0;  
    x[i] = i;  
    i=i+1;  
    x[i] = i;  
}
```



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  C[i] = i;
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```
tmp2[i] = (i < (N-1) ? tmp1[i] : 0); // Then the second pass looks like the first one:
tmp1[i] = 0; k = 0; k++ tmp1[i][k] = mc2[i][k] * tmp2[k]; // The [i][k] coefficient of the matrix product MC2*TMP2, that is, *MC2*(TMP1) = MC2*(MC1*M1) = MC2*M1*(MC1
i = 1; tmp1[i][0] >= 1; // Final rounding: tmp2[i][0] is now represented on 9 bits. *if (tmp1[i][0] < -256) m2[i][0] = -256; else if (tmp1[i][0] > 255) m2[i][0] = 255; else m2[i][0] = tm
```



Operations

```
type 'a farray
logic select: 'a farray, int -> 'a
logic store: 'a farray, int, 'a -> 'a farray
```

Axioms

```
axiom select_store_eq:
forall a: 'a farray. forall i: int. forall v: 'a.
  select(store(a,i,v),i) = v
axiom select_store_neq:
forall a: 'a farray. forall i,j: int. forall v: 'a.
  i <> j ->
    select(store(a,i,v),j) = select(a,j)
```



Correspondence

- ▶ array assignment is represented with store
- ▶ array access is represented with select

Example

```
int x[2];

/*@ ensures x[0]==0 &&
    x[1] == 1;*/

int main () {
    int i = 0;
    x[i] = i;
    i=i+1;
    x[i] = i;
}
```



Up to now our arrays are infinite: we can access or update any cell.

- ▶ Each array has a length
- ▶ select and store have to be guarded
- ▶ Use imperative arrays, *i.e.* references to functional arrays

Length

```
logic length: 'a farray -> int
axiom length_pos: forall a: 'a farray. length(a) >= 0
axiom store_length:
forall a: 'a farray. forall i: int. forall v: 'a.
length(store(a,i,v)) = length(a)
```



Guarded accesses

parameter select_:

```
a: 'a farray ref -> i: int ->
{ 0 <= i < length(a) }
'a reads a
{ result = select(a,i) }
```

parameter store_:

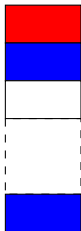
```
a: 'a farray ref -> i: int -> v: 'a ->
{ 0 <= i < length(a) }
unit writes a
{ a = store(a@,i,v) }
```



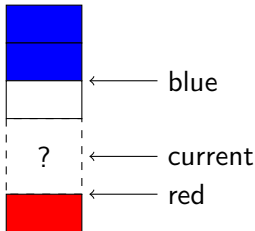
Description

Let x be an array whose elements are either BLUE, WHITE, or RED. We want to sort x 's elements, so that all BLUE are at the beginning, WHITE in the middle, and RED at the end.

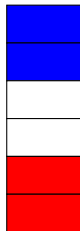
initial state



processing



final state



```
typedef enum { BLUE, WHITE, RED } color;

void dutch(color a[], int length) {
    int blue = 0, current = 0, red = length - 1;
    while (current < red) {
        switch (a[current]) {
            case BLUE : a[current]=a[blue]; a[blue]=BLUE;
                        white++; current++; break;
            case WHITE: current++; break;
            case RED   : red--; a[current]=a[red];
                        a[red]=RED; break;
        }
    }
}
```



```

type color
logic BLUE,WHITE,RED: color

axiom is_color: forall c: color.
    c = BLUE or c = WHITE or c = RED

parameter eq_color: c1:color -> c2:color ->
  {} bool { if result then c1 = c2 else c1 <> c2 }
  
```



logic monochrome:

color farray, **int**, **int**, color \rightarrow **prop**

axiom monochrome_def_1:

forall a: color farray. **forall** low,high: **int**.

forall c: color.

monochrome(a,low,high,c) \rightarrow

forall i:**int**. low \leq i<high \rightarrow select(a,i) = c

axiom monochrome_def_2:

forall a: color farray. **forall** low,high: **int**.

forall c: color.

(**forall** i:**int**. low \leq i<high \rightarrow select(a,i) = c) \rightarrow

monochrome(a,low,high,c)



```
let flag = fun (t: color farray ref) ->
begin
  let blue = ref 0 in
  let current = ref 0 in
  let red = ref (length !t) in
  while !current < !red do
    let c = select_ t !current in
    if (eq_color c BLUE) then begin
      store_ t !current (select_ t !blue);
      store_ t !blue BLUE;
      blue:=!blue+1;
      current:=!current + 1
    end
```



...

```

else if (eq_color c WHITE) then
  current:=!current + 1
else begin
  red:=!red-1;
  store_ t !current (select_ t !red);
  store_ t !red RED
end
done
end

```



No pre-condition

Post-condition:

```
{ exists blue: int. exists red: int.
    monochrome(t,0,blue,BLUE) and
    monochrome(t,blue,red,WHITE) and
    monochrome(t,red,length(t),RED)
}
```



Don't forget the loop invariant

```
{ invariant
  0<=blue and blue <= current and
  current <= red and red <= length(t) and
  monochrome(t,0,blue,BLUE) and
  monochrome(t,blue,current,WHITE) and
  monochrome(t,red,length(t),RED)
}
```



Is the program correct?

All proof obligations are discharged by alt-ergo:
gwhy dutch.why

Further specification

Currently, we have only proved that at the end we have a dutch flag. Other points remain:

- Do we have the same number of blue (resp. white and red) cells than at the start of the function?



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```
(long no
[ for ii = 0
C1); if (0)
tmp2 =
st of the
```

```
tmp2[0] = (t <= 0 ? (N-1) - t) : t; else if (tmp1[0] >= 0) { t <= (N-1) - t; tmp2[0] = (t <= (N-1) - t) ? t : (N-1) - t; } else tmp2[0] = tmp1[0]; /* Then the second pass looks like the first one: */ for (k = 0; k < 8; k++) tmp1[0][k] += mc2[0][k] * tmp2[k][0]; /* The [i][j] coefficient of the matrix product MC2*TMP2, that is, *MC2*[i](TMP1) = MC2*[i](MC1*M1) = MC2*M1[i](MC1 - 1) = 1 - tmp1[0][i] >= 1. */ Final rounding: tmp2[0][0] is now represented on 9 bits. *if (tmp1[0][0] < -256) m2[0][0] = -256; else if (tmp1[0][0] > 255) m2[0][0] = 255; else m2[0][0] = tmp1[0][0];
```



Assignment Rule

Arrays are not the only objects which reflects poorly in the logic.
The assignment rule in Hoare logic:

$$\{P[x \leftarrow e]\} x = e \{P\}$$

contains implicit assumptions:

- ▶ Expressions e are shared between the original language and the logic
- ▶ We can always find a unique location x which is modified (no alias)

Examples of Problematic Constructions

- ▶ Pointers
- ▶ Structures
- ▶ Casts



- ▶ Pointer \sim base address + index
- ▶ Must take care of variables whose address is taken

Example

```
int x;
/*@ ensures
 *p == \old(*p) + 1; */
void incr (int* p)
{ (*p)++ }
```

```
parameter x: int farray ref
let incr =
fun (p: int farray ref) ->
{ length(p) >= 1 }
  store_ p 0
    ((select_ p 0)+1)
{ select(p,0) =
  select(p@,0) + 1
  and length(p)=length(p@)
}
```



```
/*@ ensures x == 1; */
int main ()
{incr(&x);
 return x}
```

```
let main = fun (_:unit) ->
{ length(x) = 1 and
  select(x,0) = 0 }
begin
  incr x;
  select_ x 0
end
{ length(x) = 1 and
  select(x,0) = 1 }
```

Demo



Position of the Problem

In the previous example, we only had one pointer. In practice, programs use usually more than that. **this is true only if p and q refer to the same location?**

Example

```
/*@ ensures *p == \old(*p + 1) &&
           *q == \old(*q + 1); */
void incr2(int* p, int* q) { (*p)++; (*q)++ }
int x;
/*@ ensures x == 1; */
int main () { incr2(&x,&x); return 0 }
```



An erroneous why translation

```
parameter x: int farray ref
let incr2 = fun (p: int farray ref) ->
fun (q: int farray ref) ->
begin store_ p 0 ((select_ p 0)+1);
  store_ q 0 ((select q 0)+1) end
{ select(p,0) = select(p@,0) + 1 and
  select(q,0) = select(q@,0) + 1}
let main = fun (_:unit) -> { select(x,0) = 0 }
begin let _ = incr2 x x in select_ x 0 end
{ select(x,0) = 1 }
```

error is here

result

Computation of VCs...

File "pointer2.why", line 28, characters 22-23:

Application to x creates an alias



- ▶ Extension of Hoare logic dealing allowing to deal with the heap
- ▶ introduced by O'Hearn and Reynolds in 2001-2002
- ▶ new logic operators:
 - ▶ $l \mapsto v$: the heap contains a single location l with value v
 - ▶ $e_1 * e_2$: the heap is composed of two **distinct** parts, verifying e_1 and e_2 respectively

Example

Pre-condition for `incr2`:

$$\exists n, m : \text{int}. p \mapsto n * q \mapsto m$$



$$\frac{\{P\}s\{Q\}}{\{P * R\}s\{Q * R\}}$$

provided the free variables of R are not modified by s .



- ▶ Separation logic is a very powerful formalism to deal explicitly with memory.
- ▶ Very few tools deal directly with separation logic
- ▶ Some of its concepts are incorporated in memory models



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(long n)
{ for (i = 0; i < n; i++)
  C[i] = 0;
  tmp2 = ...
  // ...
}
```

```
tmp2[0] = 0; for (k = 0; k < n; k++) tmp1[k] += mc2[k][0] * tmp2[k]; /* The [k][0] coefficient of the matrix product MC2*TMP2, that is, *MC2*[0][MC1*M1] = MC2*[M1]*[MC1*M1] = 1 * tmp1[0] >= 1. */ Final rounding: tmp2[0] is now represented on 9 bits. *if (tmp1[0] < -256) m2[0] = -256; else if (tmp1[0] > 255) m2[0] = 255; else m2[0] = tmp1[0];
```



Presentation

In order to deal with pointers, we have to represent somehow the whole memory state of the program in the logic. This is called a **memory model**.

A first attempt

- ▶ See the memory as one big array, with pointers as indices.
- ✓ very close to the concrete execution.
- ✓ allows to represent all program constructions.
- ✗ each store can potentially modify something anywhere
- ✗ in practice formulas quickly become untractable.



In order to overcome the scalability issues of the memory-as-array model, more abstract models can be used.

- ▶ Split the memory in distinct, smaller arrays, for locations which are known not to overlap.
- ▶ For programs with structures, we use an array per field ($x \rightarrow a$ and $y \rightarrow b$ are necessarily distinct).
- ▶ Can be extended to distinguish `int` and `float`, `int` and `struct`
- ✓ gives smaller formulas
- ✗ some low-level operations (casts, pointer arithmetic) are out of the scope of the model.



- ▶ It is possible to go beyond the Burstall-Bornat partition by using some static analysis to identify regions which do not overlap
- ▶ Used by the Jessie tool to refine its model
- ▶ New preconditions (separation of pointers) that need to be checked

example

```
int a[2];

void incr2(int* x, int* y) { ... }

int main() {
    incr2(&a[0], &a[1]);
    return 0;
}
```

pre condition: *separated(x, y)*





- ▶ Dealing with memory can be tricky
- ▶ Functional arrays play a central role
- ▶ Aliases and separation properties
- ▶ Need for memory models
- ▶ How to do that in practice: see tomorrow

(long no
[for 0 < i < n
C1); if (0 < i
tmp2 = m
of the

tmp2[j] = (t <= 0 ? (n-1) - tmp2[j] : tmp2[j]) >= (t <= 0 ? (n-1) - tmp2[j] : tmp2[j]) ? (t <= 0 ? (n-1) - tmp2[j] : tmp2[j]) : (t <= 0 ? (n-1) - tmp2[j] : tmp2[j])
tmp1[0] = 0; k = 0; k++ tmp1[k] = mc2[0][k] * tmp2[k][0] / 7; The [i][j] coefficient of the matrix product MC2*TMP2, that is, *MC2*(TMP1) = MC2*(MC1*M1) = MC2*M1*MC1
l = 1; tmp1[0][l] >= 1; /* Final rounding: tmp2[0][0] is now represented on 9 bits */ if (tmp1[0][0] < -256) tmp2[0][0] = -256; else if (tmp1[0][0] > 255) tmp2[0][0] = 255; else tmp2[0][0] = tmp1[0][0];

