

# IA159 Formal Verification Methods

## Deductive Software Verification

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## Outline

- first formal approach to verification of algorithms and computer programs
- partial and total correctness
- formal system for verification of flowcharts by Floyd (1967)
- axiomatic program verification by Hoare (1969)

## Sources

- Chapter 7 of  
*D. A. Peled: Software Reliability Methods, Springer, 2001.*

# Assumptions and basic terminology

- for simplicity we consider only **deterministic** programs where the initial values of the program are stored in **input variables**  $x_0, x_1, \dots$  and these variables do not change their values during any execution of the program
- a **state** of a program is an assignment to the program variables
- given a program  $P$  and its states  $a, b$ , by  $P(a, b)$  we denote the fact that the execution of  $P$  starting from the state  $a$  terminates with the state  $b$
- $a \models \varphi$  denotes that the state  $a$  satisfies the formula  $\varphi$

A **specification** (or a desired property) of program  $P$  is given by two first order formulae:

- **initial condition**  $\varphi$  is a formula with all its free variables among input variables of  $P$
- **final assertion**  $\psi$

# Two notions of correctness

The program  $P$  is

**partially correct** with respect to  $\varphi$  and  $\psi$ , written  $\{\varphi\}P\{\psi\}$ , iff for all states  $a, b$  it holds

$$P(a, b) \wedge a \models \varphi \implies b \models \psi.$$

If the program starts with a state satisfying  $\varphi$  and then terminates, then the terminal state satisfies  $\psi$ .

**totally correct** with respect to  $\varphi$  and  $\psi$ , written  $\langle\varphi\rangle P\langle\psi\rangle$ , iff  $\{\varphi\}P\{\psi\}$  and for every state  $a$  satisfying  $\varphi$  the program terminates.

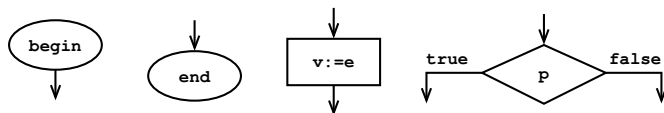
If the program starts with a state satisfying  $\varphi$ , then it terminates and the terminal state satisfies  $\psi$ .



by **Robert W Floyd** (1936–2001)

- 1965: associate professor at Carnegie–Mellon University
- 1968: full professor at Stanford University, without Ph.D.
- Floyd–Warshall algorithm: shortest paths in a graph
- Floyd–Steinberg dithering: rendering images
- program verification, parsing, sorting

# Flowcharts: node types



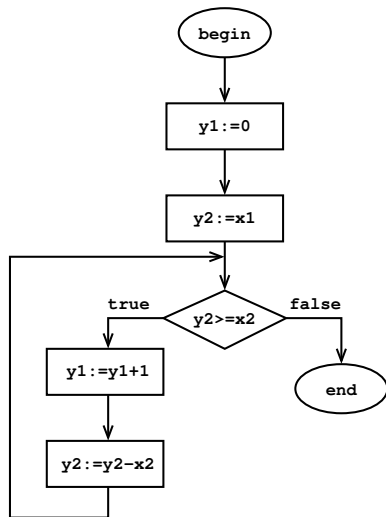
**begin** one outgoing edge, no incoming edges

**end** one incoming edge, no outgoing edges

**assignment**  $v := e$ , where  $v$  is a variable,  $e$  is a first order term;  
one or more incoming edges, one outgoing edge

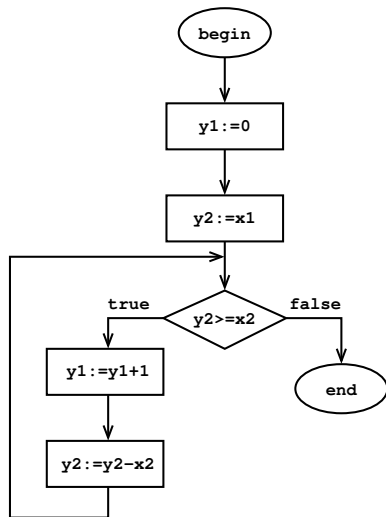
**decision** predicate  $p$  is an unquantified first order formula;  
one or more incoming edges, two outgoing edges  
marked with **true** and **false**

# Example: what is this program good for?





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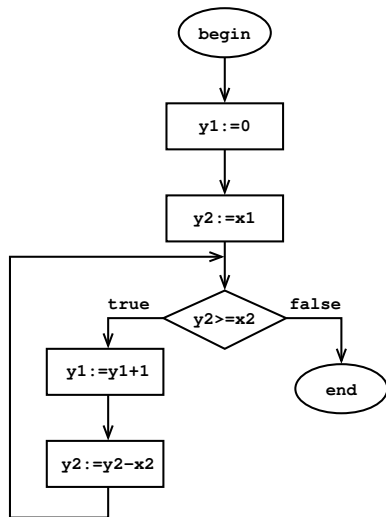
initial condition

$$\varphi \equiv x1 \geq 0 \wedge x2 > 0$$

final assertion

$$\psi \equiv (x1 = y1 * x2 + y2) \wedge \\ \wedge y2 \geq 0 \wedge y2 < x2$$

# Example: what is this program good for?



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It computes an integer division.

Proving partial correctness

# Proving partial correctness

A **location** of a flowchart program is an edge connecting two flowchart nodes.

To verify that a program  $P$  is partially correct with respect to an initial condition  $\varphi$  and a final assertion  $\psi$ , it is sufficient to perform the following **two steps**.

# Proving partial correctness: step 1

## Step 1

- to each location of the flowchart we attach a first order formula called **assertion** or **invariant**
- to the location exiting from **begin** we attach  $\varphi$
- to the location entering **end** we attach  $\psi$

## Idea

These assertions should be satisfied by every state reachable in the corresponding location by an execution starting in a state satisfying  $\varphi$ .

## Proving partial correctness: step 2

Given an assignment or decision node  $c$ , every assumption on

- an **incoming edge** is called **precondition**, written  $pre(c)$
- an **outgoing edge** is called **postcondition**, written  $post(c)$

### Idea of step 2

We have to prove that whenever the control of the program is just before a node  $c$  in a state satisfying  $pre(c)$  and execution of  $c$  moves the control to the location annotated with  $post(c)$ , then the state after the move satisfies  $post(c)$ .

## Step 2

For each triple  $pre(c), c, post(c)$  we do the following:

- 1  $c$  is a **decision node** with a predicate  $p$  and  $post(c)$  is associated to the outgoing edge marked with **true**.

Then we need to prove:

$$pre(c) \wedge p \implies post(c)$$

- 2  $c$  is a **decision node** with a predicate  $p$  and  $post(c)$  is associated to the outgoing edge marked with **false**.

Then we need to prove:

$$pre(c) \wedge \neg p \implies post(c)$$

- 3  $c$  is an **assignment** of the form  $v := e$ , where  $v$  is a variable and  $e$  an expression.

The states before and after the assignment are different (i.e.  $pre(c)$  and  $post(c)$  reason about different states). Therefore, we **relativize** the postcondition to assert about the states before the assignment.

Hence, we have to prove

$$pre(c) \implies post(c)[e/v]$$

where  $post(c)[e/v]$  is the assertion  $post(c)$  where all occurrences of  $v$  are replaced with  $e$ .

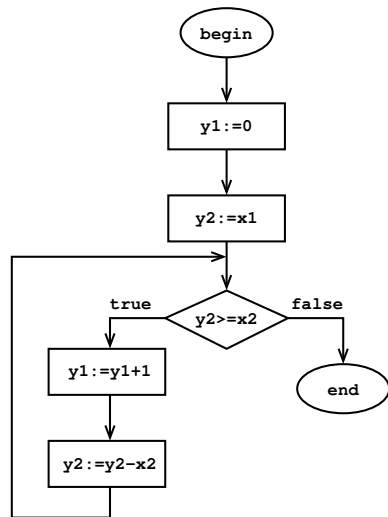


# Proving partial correctness

- proving the consistency between each precondition and postcondition of all nodes guarantees that  $\{\varphi\}P\{\psi\}$
- in fact, it guarantees even a stronger property:

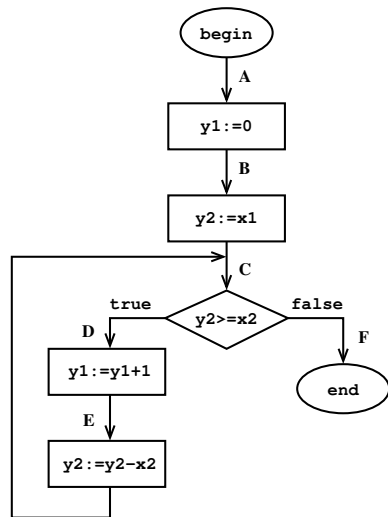
In each execution that starts with a state satisfying the initial condition of the program, when the control of the program is at some location, the assumption attached to that location holds.

# Example: partial correctness



$$\varphi \equiv x1 \geq 0 \wedge x2 > 0$$
$$\psi \equiv (x1 = y1 * x2 + y2) \wedge$$
$$\wedge y2 \geq 0 \wedge y2 < x2$$

# Example: partial correctness



$$\varphi \equiv x1 \geq 0 \wedge x2 > 0$$

$$\psi \equiv (x1 = y1 * x2 + y2) \wedge \\ \wedge y2 \geq 0 \wedge y2 < x2$$

$$\varphi_A \equiv \varphi$$

$$\varphi_B \equiv x1 \geq 0 \wedge x2 > 0 \wedge y1 = 0$$

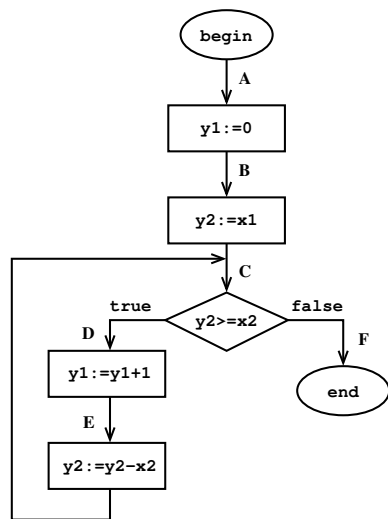
$$\varphi_C \equiv (x1 = y1 * x2 + y2) \wedge \\ \wedge y2 \geq 0$$

$$\varphi_D \equiv (x1 = y1 * x2 + y2) \wedge \\ \wedge y2 \geq x2$$

$$\varphi_E \equiv (x1 = y1 * x2 + y2 - x2) \wedge \\ \wedge y2 - x2 \geq 0$$

$$\varphi_F \equiv \psi$$

# Example: partial correctness



$$\varphi \equiv x1 \geq 0 \wedge x2 > 0$$

$$\psi \equiv (x1 = y1 * x2 + y2) \wedge \\ \wedge y2 \geq 0 \wedge y2 < x2$$

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$$\varphi_E \equiv (x1 = y1 * x2 + y2 - x2) \wedge \\ \wedge y2 - x2 \geq 0$$

$$\varphi_F \equiv \psi$$

Step 2: check the consistency

- finding assertions for the proof may be a difficult task
- there are some heuristics and tools suggesting invariants
- there cannot be a fully automatic way of finding them (the problem is undecidable)
- in some programming languages, assertions can be inserted into the code as additional runtime checks so that the program will terminate with a warning message whenever an invariant is violated

## Example

- precondition  $pre(c) \equiv x[1] = 1 \wedge x[2] = 3$
- assignment  $x[x[1]] := 2$
- postcondition  $post(c) \equiv x[x[1]] = 2$

## Example

- precondition  $pre(c) \equiv x[1] = 1 \wedge x[2] = 3$
- assignment  $x[x[1]] := 2$
- postcondition  $post(c) \equiv x[x[1]] = 2$
- it is easy to prove

$$pre(c) \implies post(c)[2/x[x[1]]]$$

as  $post(c)[2/x[x[1]]]$  is in fact  $2 = 2$

# Programs with array variables: a problem

## Example

- precondition  $pre(c) \equiv x[1] = 1 \wedge x[2] = 3$
- assignment  $x[x[1]] := 2$
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- it is easy to prove

$$pre(c) \implies post(c)[2/x[x[1]]]$$

as  $post(c)[2/x[x[1]]]$  is in fact  $2 = 2$

- but if  $pre(c)$  holds and the assignment is performed, then  $x[1] = 2$  and  $x[x[1]] = 3$  and  $post(c)$  does not hold

To handle programs with array variables, the method has to be modified in one point: relativization of postconditions of assignment nodes.



# Modification for array variables

- let  $x$  be an array variable and  $e1, e2, e3$  terms
- the syntax of terms is extended with a new construct  $(x; e1:e2)[e3]$ , where  $(x; e1:e2)$  represents the array  $x$  where the element with index  $e1$  has been set to  $e2$
- to check the consistency of an assignment  $x[e1] := e2$  with a precondition  $pre(c)$  and postcondition  $post(c)$ , we have to prove

$$pre(c) \implies post(c)[(x; e1:e2)/x]$$

- the added construct does not increase the expressiveness of the logic: a formula  $\rho$  containing  $(x; e1:e2)[e3]$  can be translated into an equivalent formula

$$\begin{aligned} & (e1 = e3 \wedge \rho[e2/(x; e1:e2)[e3]]) \vee \\ & \vee (e1 \neq e3 \wedge \rho[x[e3]/(x; e1:e2)[e3]]) \end{aligned}$$

Proving termination

# Proving termination: terminology

- a **partially ordered domain** is a pair  $(W, \prec)$  where  $W$  is a set and  $\prec$  is a strict partial order relation over  $W$  (i.e. irreflexive, asymmetric, and transitive)
- $u \succ v$  has the same meaning as  $v \prec u$
- we denote  $u \succeq v$  when  $u \succ v$  or  $u = v$
- a **well founded domain** is a partially ordered domain containing no infinite sequence of the form

$$w_0 \succ w_1 \succ w_2 \succ w_3 \succ \dots$$

(i.e. no infinite decreasing sequence)

# Proving termination

To prove the termination with respect to the initial condition  $\varphi$ , we need to do the following steps.

- 1 We select a well founded domain  $(W, \prec)$  such that  $W$  is a subset of the domain of program variables and  $\prec$  is expressible using the signature of the program.
- 2 To each location in the flowchart we attach an invariant and an expression. To the location exiting from **begin** we attach  $\varphi$ .
- 3 We show the consistency for each triple  $pre(c), c, post(c)$ , as in the partial correctness proof.

- 4 We show that whenever an execution starting in a state satisfying  $\varphi$  reaches some location, the value of the expression associated to this location is within  $W$ .

Formally, we prove that for each location with the associated invariant  $\rho$  and expression  $e$  it holds:

$$\rho \implies (e \in W)$$

Note that  $e \in W$  is not, in general, a first order logic formula. However, it can often be translated into a first order formula.

# Proving termination

- 5 We show that in each execution of the program, when proceeding from a location to its successor location, the value of the associated expressions does not increase.

Formally, for every node  $c$ , an incoming edge with the associated invariant  $pre(c)$  and expression  $e1$ , and an outgoing edge with the associated expression  $e2$

- if  $c$  is a decision node with a predicate  $p$  and  $e2$  is associated with the **true** edge, then we prove:

$$pre(c) \wedge p \implies e1 \succeq e2$$

- if  $c$  is a decision node with a predicate  $p$  and  $e2$  is associated with the **false** edge, then we prove:

$$pre(c) \wedge \neg p \implies e1 \succeq e2$$

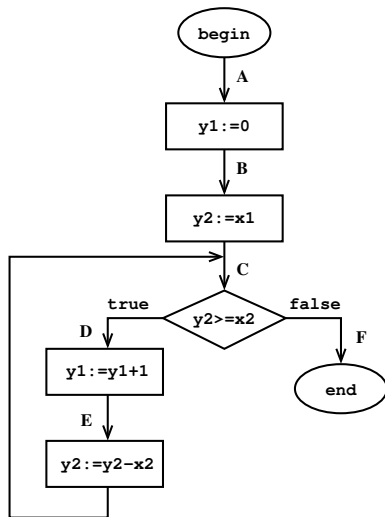
- if  $c$  is an assignment  $v := e$ , then we prove:

$$pre(c) \implies e1 \succeq e2[e/v]$$

- 6 In each execution of the program, during a traversal of a cycle (a loop) in the flowchart there is some point where a decrease occurs in the value of the associated expressions from one location to its successor.

Formally, for each cycle we have to find a node with an incoming and an outgoing edge such that the corresponding implication above holds even if  $\underline{\succ}$  is replaced with  $\succ$ .

# Example: termination

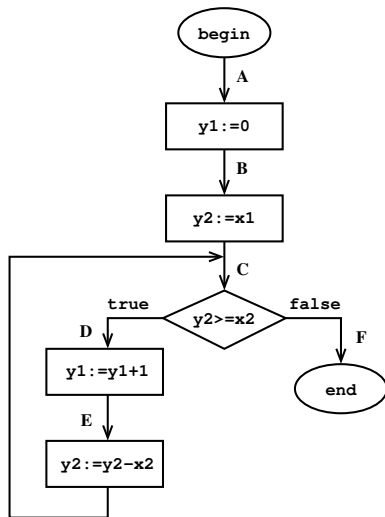


initial condition

$$\varphi \equiv x1 \geq 0 \wedge x2 > 0$$



# Example: termination



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$$\varphi_A \equiv \varphi$$

$$\varphi_B \equiv x1 \geq 0 \wedge x2 > 0$$

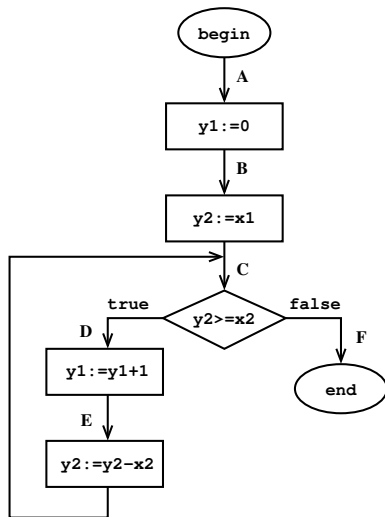
$$\varphi_C \equiv x2 > 0 \wedge y2 \geq 0$$

$$\varphi_D \equiv x2 > 0 \wedge y2 \geq x2$$

$$\varphi_E \equiv x2 > 0 \wedge y2 \geq x2$$

$$\varphi_F \equiv y2 \geq 0$$

# Example: termination



initial condition

$$\varphi \equiv x1 \geq 0 \wedge x2 > 0$$

$$\varphi_A \equiv \varphi$$

$$\varphi_B \equiv x1 \geq 0 \wedge x2 > 0$$

$$\varphi_C \equiv x2 > 0 \wedge y2 \geq 0$$

$$\varphi_D \equiv x2 > 0 \wedge y2 \geq x2$$

$$\varphi_E \equiv x2 > 0 \wedge y2 \geq x2$$

$$\varphi_F \equiv y2 \geq 0$$

$$e_A = x1$$

$$e_B = x1$$

$$e_C = y2$$

$$e_D = y2$$

$$e_E = y2$$

$$e_F = y2$$

- it may be difficult to find the right well founded domain, invariants, and expressions
- termination and partial correctness can be proven simultaneously.



by **sir Charles Antony Richard Hoare** (1934)

- studied in Oxford University and Moscow State University
- Quicksort algorithm (1960)
- Hoare logic: program verification
- Communicating Sequential Processes (CSP)
- now in Microsoft Research

- a proof system that includes both logic and pieces of code
- allows to prove different sequential parts of the program separately (and combine the proofs later)
- constructed on top of some first order deduction system

- contains **Hoare triples** of the form  $\{\varphi\}S\{\psi\}$ , where  $\varphi, \psi$  are first order formulae and  $S$  is (a part of) a program with the syntax:

$$S ::= v := e \mid skip \mid S; S \mid \textit{if } p \textit{ then } S \textit{ else } S \textit{ fi} \mid \\ \textit{while } p \textit{ do } S \textit{ end} \mid \textit{begin } S \textit{ end}$$

where  $v$  is a variable,  $e$  is a first order expression, and  $p$  is an unquantified first order formula

- a Hoare triple  $\{\varphi\}S\{\psi\}$  means that if an execution of  $S$  starts with a state satisfying  $\varphi$  and  $S$  terminates from that state, then a state satisfying  $\psi$  is reached
- if  $S$  is the entire program, then  $\{\varphi\}S\{\psi\}$  claims that  $S$  is partially correct with respect to initial condition  $\varphi$  and final assertion  $\psi$

# Axioms and proof rules

## Assignment axiom

$$\{\varphi[e/v]\} v := e \{\varphi\}$$

## Skip axiom

$$\{\varphi\} \mathit{skip} \{\varphi\}$$

## Left strengthening rule

$$\frac{\varphi \implies \var' \quad \{\var'\} \mathbf{S}\{\psi\}}{\{\varphi\} \mathbf{S}\{\psi\}}$$

## Right weakening rule

$$\frac{\{\varphi\} \mathbf{S}\{\psi'\} \quad \psi' \implies \psi}{\{\varphi\} \mathbf{S}\{\psi\}}$$

# Axioms and proof rules

## Sequential composition rule

$$\frac{\{\varphi\}S_1\{\eta\} \quad \{\eta\}S_2\{\psi\}}{\{\varphi\}S_1; S_2\{\psi\}}$$

## If-then-else rule

$$\frac{\{\varphi \wedge p\}S_1\{\psi\} \quad \{\varphi \wedge \neg p\}S_2\{\psi\}}{\{\varphi\}\text{if } p \text{ then } S_1 \text{ else } S_2 \text{ fi}\{\psi\}}$$

## While rule

$$\frac{\{\varphi \wedge p\}S\{\varphi\}}{\{\varphi\}\text{while } p \text{ do } S \text{ end}\{\varphi \wedge \neg p\}}$$

## Begin-end rule

$$\frac{\{\varphi\}S\{\psi\}}{\{\varphi\}\text{begin } S \text{ end}\{\psi\}}$$



## Assignment axiom + left strengthening rule

$$\frac{\varphi \implies \psi[e/v] \quad \{\psi[e/v]\} v := e \{\psi\} \text{ (axiom)}}{\{\varphi\} v := e \{\psi\}}$$

## Sequential composition + right weakening rule

$$\frac{\{\psi\} S_1 \{\eta_1\} \quad \eta_1 \implies \eta_2 \quad \{\eta_2\} S_2 \{\psi\}}{\{\varphi\} S_1; S_2 \{\psi\}}$$

The proof trees are constructed as usual...

Extensions of the Hoare proof system for verifying concurrent programs provide axioms for

- dealing with shared variables
- synchronous and asynchronous communication
- procedure calls

They are usually tailored for a particular programming language, e.g. **Pascal** or **CSP**.

# Soundness and completeness

- Hoare's proof system is sound.
- It is not complete thanks to incompleteness of first order logic with natural numbers and basic arithmetic operations over them (Gödel's incompleteness theorem).
- It is **relatively complete**, i.e. any correct assertion can be proved under the following two (sometimes unrealistic) conditions:
  - Every correct (first order) logic assertion that is needed in the proof is already included as an axiom in the proof system. (Alternatively: there is an **oracle** (e.g. a human) deciding whether such an assertion is correct or not.)
  - Every invariant and intermediate assertion that we need for the proof can be expressed using the underlying (first order) logic.
- The relative completeness implies that the system is complete for first order logic with natural numbers with addition and subtraction as the only operators.

## Deductive verification

- is not limited to finite state systems.
- can handle programs of various domains and datastructures (and even parameterized programs).
- can be applied directly to the code (in principle).
- can verify that the program is correct (but a bug can occur in compiler, in hardware, due to a wrong initial condition or difference between an assumed semantics of code and the real one, etc.).
- is not scalable.

In practice, deductive verification

- needs a great mental effort as it is mostly manual (the result depends strongly on the ingenuity of the people performing verification).
- is significantly slower than the typical speed of effective programming.
- is not performed frequently on the actual code.
- can be performed on basic algorithms or on abstractions of the code. The faithfulness of the translation of a program into an abstracted one can sometimes also be formally verified.

## Theorem prover ACL2

<http://www.cs.utexas.edu/users/moore/acl2/>

- How it works?
- What is it good for?
- Including a **live show!**