

Systeme hoher Sicherheit und Qualität Universität Bremen, WS 2017/2018

Lecture 09: **Software Verification** with Floyd-Hoare Logic

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Software Verification in the Development Cycle



i := 0;

x := 0;

while (i < n)

 $x \coloneqq i;$ }

 $i \coloneqq i + 1$:

if $(a[i] \ge a[x])$ {

Formalizing correctness:

 $arrav(a, n) \land n > 0 \Longrightarrow$

 $a[i] \leq max(a, n)$

a[j] = max(a, n)

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a[x] = max(a, n)

 $\forall i. 0 \le i < n \Longrightarrow$

 $\exists j. 0 \leq j < n \Rightarrow$

The Basic Idea

What does this program compute? The index of the maximal element of the array *a* if it is non-empty.



- (1) We need a language in which to formalise such assertions.
- (2) We need a notion of meaning (semantics) for the program. (3) We need to way to deduce valid
- assertions.
- ▶ Floyd-Hoare logic provides us with (1) and (3).

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Where are we?

- 01: Concepts of Quality
- ▶ 02: Legal Requirements: Norms and Standards
- 03: The Software Development Process
- 04: Hazard Analysis
- 05: High-Level Design with SysML
- 06: Formal Modelling with OCL
- 07: Testing
- 08: Static Program Analysis
- 09: Software Verification with Floyd-Hoare Logic
- 10: Correctness and Verification Condition Generation
- 11-12: Model Checking
- 13: Conclusions

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Software Verification

► Software Verification **proves** properties of programs. That is, given the basic problem of program *P* satisyfing a property *p* we want to show that for all possible inputs and runs of P, the property p holds.

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- Software verification is far more powerful than static analysis. For the same reasons, it cannot be fully automatic and thus requires user interaction. Hence, it is complex to use.
- Software verification does not have false negatives, only failed proof attempts. If we can prove a property, it holds.
- Software verification is used in highly critical systems.

Recall our simple programming language ► Arithmetic expressions: $a ::= x | n | a_1[a_2] | a_1 o p_a a_2$ ▶ Arithmetic operators: $op_a \in \{+, -, *, /\}$ Boolean expressions: $b \coloneqq \text{true} \mid \text{false} \mid \text{not} \ b \mid b_1 o p_b \ b_2 \mid a_1 o p_r \ a_2$ ▶ Boolean operators: $op_b \in \{and, or\}$ ▶ Relational operators: $op_r \in \{=, <, \leq, >, \geq, \neq\}$ **Statements**: S ::= x := a | skip | S1; S2 | if (b) S1 else S2 | while (b) SLabels from basic blocks omitted, only used in static analysis to derive cfg.

Note this abstract syntax, operator precedence and grouping statements is not covered.

Semantics in a nutshell

- There are three major ways to denote semantics.
- (1) As a relation between program states, described by an abstract machine (operational semantics).
- (2) As a function between program states, defined for each statement of the programming langauge (denotational semantics).
- (3) As the set of all assertions which hold for a program (axiomatic semantics).
- ▶ Floyd-Hoare logic covers the third aspect, but it is important that all three semantics agree.
 - We will not cover semantics in detail here, but will concentrate on how to use Floyd-Hoare logic to prove correctness. - 8 -

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Floyd-Hoare Rules: Assignment

Assignment rule:

 $\vdash \{P[^{e}/_{\chi}]\} \ x := e \ \{P\}$

- ▶ P[e/x] replaces all occurrences of the program variable x by the arithmetic expression e.
- ► Examples: $F = \{0 < 10\} x := 0 \{x < 10\}$ $F = \{x - 1 < 10\} x := x - 1 \{x < 10\}$ $F = \{x + 1 + x + 1 < 10\} x := x + 1 \{x + x < 10\}$ Systeme hoher Sicherheit und Qualitat, WS 17/18 Systeme hoher Sicherheit und Qualitat, WS 17/18

Rules: Iteration and Skip

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⊢ {P ∧ b} c {P}
⊢ {P} while (b) c {P ∧ ¬ b}
P is called the loop invariant. It has to hold both before and after the loop (but not necessarily in the whole body).
Before the loop, we can assume the loop condition b holds.
After the loop, we know the loop condition b does not hold.
In practice, the loop invariant has to be given- this is the

creative and difficult part of working with the Floyd-Hoare calculus.

 \vdash {*P*} skip {*P*}

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skip has no effect: pre- and postcondition are the same.

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► Sequence: $\frac{\vdash \{P\} c_1 \{Q\} \vdash \{Q\} c_2 \{R\}}{\vdash \{P\} c_1; c_2 \{R\}}$

Needs an intermediate state predicate Q.

Rules: Sequencing and Conditional

Conditional:

$$\frac{\vdash \{P \land b\} c_1 \{Q\} \vdash \{P \land \neg b\} c_2 \{Q\}}{\vdash \{P\} \text{ if } (b) c_1 \text{ else } c_2 \{Q\}}$$

Two preconditions capture both cases of *b* and \neg *b*.

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• Both branches end in the same postcondition Q.

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Final Rule: Weakening

 Weakening is crucial, because it allows us to change pre- or postconditions by applying rules of logic.

$$\frac{P_2 \Longrightarrow P_1 \qquad \vdash \{P_1\} c \{Q_1\} \qquad Q_1 \Longrightarrow Q_2}{\vdash \{P_2\} c \{Q_2\}}$$

- We can weaken the precondition and strengthen the postcondition:
 - ► ⊨ {P}c{Q} means whenever c starts in a state in which P holds, it ends in a state in which Q holds. So, we can reduce the starting set, and enlarge the target set.



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How to derive and denote proofs

// {P}	▶ The example shows \vdash { <i>P</i> } <i>c</i> { <i>Q</i> }
$// \{P_1\}$	We annotate the program with valid
x:= e;	 assertions: the precondition in the preceding line, the postcondition in the following line. The sequencing rule is applied implicitly. Consecutive assertions imply weaking, which has to be proven separately.
// {P ₂ }	
// {P ₃ }	
while (x< n) {	
$// \{P_3 \land x < n\}$	
// {P ₄ }	
z := a	In the example:
// {P ₃ }	$P \Longrightarrow P_1$,
}	$P_2 \Longrightarrow P_3$,
	$P_3 \wedge x < n \Longrightarrow P_4,$
$// \{P_3 \land \neg (x < n)\}$	$P_3 \land \neg (x < n) \Longrightarrow Q$
// {Q}	
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More Examples P == R ==Q == $p \coloneqq 1;$ $c \coloneqq 1;$ $p \coloneqq 1;$ while $(0 \le n)$ { $r \coloneqq a;$ q := 0;while $(c \le n)$ { $p \coloneqq p * n;$ $n \coloneqq n - 1$ while $(b \le r)$ { $r \coloneqq r - b$; $\mathbf{p} \coloneqq \mathbf{p} * \mathbf{c};$ $c \ \coloneqq c + 1$ $\mathbf{q} \,\coloneqq\, \mathbf{q} + 1$ } } Specification: Specification: Specification: $\vdash \{\, 1 \leq n\}$. $\vdash \{ 1 \le n \land n = N \}$ $\vdash \{ a \ge 0 \land b \ge 0 \}$ P Q R ${{{{\left\{ { p = N! } \right\}}}}$ $a = b * q + r \Lambda$ ${p = n!}$ $0 \leq r \wedge r < b\}$ Invariant: p = (c - 1)! $\begin{array}{l} \text{Invariant:} \\ a = b * q + r \wedge 0 \leq r \end{array}$ Invariant: $\prod_{i=1}^{n} i$ p = Systeme hoher Sicherheit und Qualität, WS 17/18 - 18 DKW

Summary

- ► Floyd-Hoare-Logic allows us to **prove** properties of programs.
- > The proofs cover all possible inputs, all possible runs.
- There is partial and total correctness:
 - Total correctness = partial correctness + termination.
- There is one rule for each construct of the programming language.
- Proofs can in part be constructed automatically, but iteration needs an invariant (which cannot be derived mechanically).
- ▶ Next lecture: correctness and completeness of the rules.

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In this case:

the invariant.

uniformly:

▶ If post-condition is P(n), invariant is $P(i) \land i \leq n$.

 $i \coloneqq i + 1$

▶ Going backwards: try to split/weaken postcondition *Q* into

Many while-loops are in fact for-loops, i.e. they count

 $i \coloneqq 0;$ while (i < n) {

...;

negated loop-condition and "something else" which becomes

▶ If post-condition is $\forall j. 0 \le j < n. P(j)$ (uses indexing, typically with arrays), invariant is $\forall j. j \le 0 < i. i \le n \land P(j)$.

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How to find invariants

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