NECESSARY LIBERAL PRECONDITIONS:
A PROOF SYSTEM

Master's Thesis in Informatics

ANRAN WANG
School of Computation, Information and Technology - Informatics
Technical University of Munich

Anran Wang: *Necessary Liberal Preconditions:*
A Proof System

NECESSARY LIBERAL PRECONDITIONS: A PROOF SYSTEM
NOTWENDIGE LIBERALE VORBEDINGUNGEN: EIN BEWEISSYSTEM

Master's Thesis in Informatics

ANRAN WANG, B.SC.
School of Computation, Information and Technology - Informatics
Technical University of Munich

Examiner:	Prof. Jan Křetínský
Supervisors:	Prof. Benjamin Lucien Kaminski
	Lena Verscht, M.Sc.
Submission date:	

Anran Wang: *Necessary Liberal Preconditions:*
A Proof System

DECLARATION

Ich versichere, dass ich diese Masterarbeit selbstständig verfasst und nur die angegebenen Quellen und Hilfsmittel verwendet habe.

I confirm that this master's thesis is my own work and I have documented all sources and material used.

Munich,

Anran Wang

For my parents Shizhu Wang and Derun Yuan, who love me patiently.

For Christian Schuler, who loves me funnily.

For my friends, who like me.

For me, who?

ABSTRACT

This thesis investigates the necessary liberal precondition, an overapproximation of Dijkstra's weakest liberal precondition (wlp) transformer. A discussion of the semantics of wlp and its relatives hints at a scenario where the necessary liberal precondition is useful: When the entirety of undesirable postconditions is unknown, by further relaxing wlp, the programmer ends up with a precondition that is likely to lead the program to known or unknown undesired final states upon termination.

ZUSAMMENFASSUNG

Diese Arbeit untersucht die notwendige liberale Vorbedingung, eine Überannäherung an Dijkstras schwächsten liberalen Vorbedingungstransformator (wlp). Eine Diskussion der Semantik von wlp und seinen Verwandten deutet auf ein Szenario hin, in dem die notwendige liberale Vorbedingung nützlich ist: Wenn die Gesamtheit der unerwünschten Nachbedingungen unbekannt ist, erhält der Programmierer durch weitere Lockerung von wlp eine Vorbedingung, die das Programm bei Beendigung wahrscheinlich in bekannte oder unbekannte unerwünschte Endzustände führt.

摘要

本论文研究了必要自由前提条件，即 Dijkstra 的最弱自由前提条件 (wlp) 的涵盖近似。 首先讨论 wlp 及其近似方法的语义，这暗示了一个必要自由前提条件有用的场景： 当我们不知道所有不好的后置条件时，程序员可以通过进一步放松wlp来找到一个前提条件，这个条件很可能会导致程序在终止时进入不好的最终状态，不论这些状态是已知或未知的。

CONTENTS

Part I

HOARE TRIPLES AND DIJKSTRA'S PREDICATE TRANSFORMERS

In this part, I explain the definition for the formalism used in this thesis, discuss some of the definitions, and demonstrate the semantics of the predicate transformers using graphs and operational semantics.

1 BACKGROUND

In 1739, the Scottish philosopher David Hume questioned why we know that the sun will rise tomorrow, "*tho' 'tis plain we have no further assurance of these facts, than what experience affords us*" [11]. Hume's question about causality is daunting, yet most of us are not in crisis because we doubt if the sun rises tomorrow. The reason is probably that we believe in physics, astrology, and the rules and formulas that assure us the universe works in a certain way, hence the sun rises tomorrow. It is exactly the rules and formulas this thesis attempts to investigate, in the realm of computer programs, with which we are certain that the equivalent version of the sun in a program will rise tomorrow.

Computer programs are ubiquitous in almost every aspect of human life. We want them to solve our problem efficiently, and correctly. Fortunately, brilliant scientists and engineers have taken the matter into their hands. A recent example is seL4 [14], the first formally proven operating system kernel against overflows, memory leaks, nontermination, etc. using the interactive theorem prover Isabelle/HOL [20]. Its verification brings great potential to safety-critical fields like aircrafts and autonomous cars, the latter of which is to be in mass production in 2024.[1]

Imagine soon being driven by an autonomous car carrying seL4. It is desirable that it delivers us to the correct destination, and never get stuck driving around the same block without making progress. Delivering the correct result and stopping eventually is called total correctness.

To know "for sure", we could verify programs using formal methods. One famous method is Hoare triples [9]. A Hoare triple contains three parts: a precondition, a program, and a postcondition. They are written as such: $G\ \{C\}\ F$. It states that if the system starts in a state that satisfies the precondition, then the state after the execution of the program will satisfy the postcondition, provided that the program terminates. Hoare triples are elegant in that once we have appropriate preconditions, we can follow their reference rules on sequential programs with ease. But with Hoare triples in their original form, we know the program is correct, but we are not sure of its termination. This is called partial correctness.

To prove a program totally correct, Dijkstra presented the weakest precondition transformer [3] (wp): starting with a postcondition, it works backwards and calculates what the weakest precondition is that guarantees both correctness and termination. In Hoare triples, the precondition is a sufficient condition for the program to be correct in that the final state will satisfy the desired postcondition, while with wp we obtain a necessary and sufficient precondition. Relaxing the commitment for termination, Dijkstra also proposed the weakest liberal precon-

1 https://sel4.systems/news/2023#nio-skyos, accessed 10.03.2024.

dition transformer [5] (wlp) which delivers preconditions so that the program either terminates correctly or never terminates, proving partial correctness.

Since then, a plethora of research projects blossomed and yielded fruitful results. Not only did Hoare Logic receive numerous copious attention during the first decade of its proposal [1], it has become the basis for program verification now [7]. Hoare triple is applied in low-level programming languages [18], quantum programs [25], distributed real-time systems [10], and so on.

Likewise, Dijkstra's wp transformer also spawned various scientific work on probabilistic programs [13], quantum programs [15], continuous programs [2], and so much more. Especially interesting for this thesis is the work by O'Hearn in 2020 named incorrectness logic [21]. It studies an underapproximation (subset) of the strongest postcondition transformer [5] (sp) by Dijkstra, focusing on reachability of final states to prove the existence of bugs. He proposed the incorrectness triple starting from the implication

$$F \implies sp.C.G$$

(F is an underapproximation of the strongest postcondition of precondition G w.r.t. program C), whereas in this thesis, I attempt to study the implication

$$wlp.C.F \implies G$$

(G is an overapproximation of the strongest liberal precondition of postcondition F w.r.t program C). Despite limited experience and capability, I benefit from standing on the shoulders of giants and investigate the above implication.

I first introduce Hoare triple, the wp transformer, the wlp transformer, and the sp transformer using the Guarded Command Language [3] to present programs in Chapter 2. I also explain their connections and differences.

Then I proceed to Chapter 3, analyzing various cases of $wlp.C.F \implies G$, first focusing on a special case where G is equivalent to wlp with angelic non-determinism, before proceeding to G in general. Finally, I summarize our conclusions in Chapter 4 and propose possible future work.

2

PRELIMINARIES

2.1 NOTATIONS

Before proceeding, I clarify the notations used in this thesis, which are not uncommon in materials of computer science and mathematics. Readers are encouraged to skip this section and refer back to it if needed. The notations and their meaning are listed in Table 2.1.

Notation	**Meaning**
$\mathcal{X}$	set of program variables
$\mathcal{V}$	set of values
$\sigma : \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{V}$	program state
Σ	set of program states
$\mathcal{C}$	set of programs
$\mathcal{P}$	set of predicates
$F : \Sigma \to \{true, false\}$	predicate
$F := \{\sigma \in \Sigma \mid F(\sigma)\}$ (*)	the set described by a predicate $F \in \mathcal{P}$
$F(\sigma)$ (**) $F(\sigma) = true$ (**) $\sigma \vDash F$ $\sigma \in F$	state s satisfies predicate F; F is true when system is in state σ
$\sigma \xrightarrow{c} \tau$	from initial state σ, an execution of program c terminates at final state τ
$\exists x.P : F$ $\forall x.P : F$	syntactic sugar for $\exists x.(P \wedge F)$ $\forall x.(P \wedge F)$

Table 2.1: Symbols and Notations

It is worth noting that I regard program states as total functions - I assume that we can assign some default values to variables in case they are undefined. I also simplify matters by assuming that there is only one interpretation as a total function from predicates to truth values. As a result, we can regard predicates as (total) functions from program states to truth values. I also overload the symbols for predicates and use them to identify the sets they describe as shown in Line (*).

By default, I take $F(\sigma)$ to mean the same as $F(\sigma) = true$ for convenience's sake as shown in Lines (**). I use the equation symbol $=$ to denote equivalences, and the symbols $:=$ for assignments and definitions.

The operators in descending binding power: $\neg, \in, \wedge, \vee, \implies, Q\_.\_ : \_$ where Q is a quantifier: $Q \in \{\exists, \forall\}$. Implication binds to the left: $A \implies B \implies C$ is equivalent to $(A \implies B) \implies C$. Now we can proceed to discuss proof rules and systems that are relevant for this thesis.

2.2 HOARE LOGIC

Since the beginning of the 1960s, scholars have been researching the establishment of mathematics in computation [6, 17] to have a formal understanding and reasoning of programs. One of the most known methods is Hoare logic.

In 1969, C.A.R. Hoare wrote *An Axiomatic Basis for Computer Programming* [9] to explore the logic of computer programs using axioms and inference rules to prove the properties of programs. He introduced sufficient preconditions that guarantee correct results but do not rule out non-termination. A selection of the axioms and rules are shown in Table 2.2. [1]

$\{F[x/e]\}$ is obtained by substituting occurrences of x by e.

Axiom of Assignment	$F[x/e]\ \{x := e\}\ F$
Rules of Consequence	If $G\ \{C\}\ F$ and $F \Rightarrow P$ then $G\ \{C\}\ P$
	If $G\ \{C\}\ F$ and $P \Rightarrow G$ then $P\ \{C\}\ F$
Rule of Composition	If $G\ \{C_1\}\ F_1$ and $F_1\ \{C_2\}\ F$ then $G\ \{C_1; C_2\}\ F$
Rule of Iteration	If $(F \wedge B)\ \{C\}\ F$ then $F\ \{\text{while } B \text{ do } C\}\ \neg B \wedge F$

Table 2.2: Inference Rules for Valid Hoare Triple [2]

Semantically, a Hoare triple $G\ \{C\}\ F$ is said to be valid for (partial) correctness, if the execution of the program C with an initial state satisfying the precondition G leads to a final state that satisfies the postcondition F, provided that the program terminates. The definitions in Table 2.2 indeed correspond to this intended semantics. Formal soundness proofs can be found in Krzysztof R. Apt's survey [1] in 1981. As an example, consider the rule of composition: if the execution of program C_1 changes the state from G to F_1, and C_2 changes the state from F_1 to F, then executing them consecutively should bring the program state from G to F, with the intermediate state F_1.

The missing guarantee of termination can be seen in the rule of iteration: consider the triple $x \leqslant 2\ \{\text{while } x \leqslant 1 \text{ do } x := x * 2\}\ 1 < x \leqslant 2$, it is provable in Hoare

1 Non-determinism was not considered in the original paper, so I treat the programs here as deterministic. With deterministic programs, one initial state corresponds to one final state. In case of non-termination, there is simply no final state.

2 I omit the symbol $\vdash$ in front of a Hoare triple, which denotes "valid/provable", for better readability.

logic with the following proof tree. However, this while-loop will not terminate in case $x \leqslant 0$ in the initial state.

$$\dfrac{\dfrac{}{x \leqslant 1\ \{x := x * 2\}\ x \leqslant 2}\ \textbf{Axiom of Assignment}}{x \leqslant 2\ \{\text{while } x \leqslant 1 \text{ do } x := x * 2\}\ 1 < x \leqslant 2}\ \textbf{Rule of Iteration}$$

Using style taken from Kaminski's dissertation [12], Figure 2.1 illustrates a valid Hoare triple: Σ represents the set of all states, the section denoted with G includes the states that satisfy the predicate G. The arrows from left to right denote the executions of program C. The dashed arrows denote non-terminating executions.

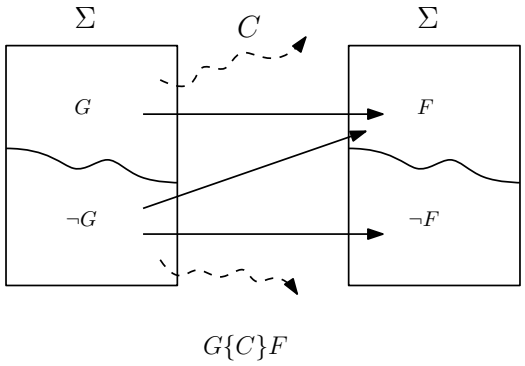


Figure 2.1: Valid Hoare Triple (Deterministic)

A sensible advancement of Hoare logic would be to also prove termination, i.e. to eliminate the arrows from G to the abyss. Supplementing Hoare logic with a termination proof is done by Zohar Manna and Amir Pnueli in 1974 [16], where they introduced what is called a loop variant, a value that decreases with each iteration. The name is in contrast to loop invariant, concretely the F in **Rule of Iteration** in Table 2.2, which is constant before and after the loop.

Another advancement would be to find the necessary and sufficient preconditions that grant us the post-properties, i.e. to eliminate the arrows from ¬G to F in Figure 2.1, which is what Edsger W. Dijkstra accomplished with his weakest precondition transformer in 1975 [3], among other things.

2.3 GUARDED COMMAND LANGUAGE

From now on I use Dijkstra's (non-deterministic) guarded command language (GCL) [3] to represent programs and to include non-determinism (starting from Section 2.4.3). For better readability, I use an equivalent[3] form of GCL that is similar to modern pseudo-code as shown in Table 2.3.

The assignment, sequential composition, conditional choice, while-loop commands conform to their usual meaning. The non-deterministic choice $\{C_1\}\square\{C_2\}$

3 Specifically, $\texttt{if}\ (\varphi)\ \{C_1\}\ \texttt{else}\ \{C_2\}$ is equivalent to $\texttt{if}\ \varphi \to C_1\ []\ \neg\varphi \to C_2\ \texttt{fi}$ in Dijkstra's original style [3]; $\{C_1\}\square\{C_2\}$ is equivalent to $\texttt{if}\ \texttt{true} \to C_1\ []\ \texttt{true} \to C_2\ \texttt{fi}$.

C ::=	$x := e$	$\mid C; C$	$\mid \{C\}\square\{C\}$
	assignment	sequential composition	non-deterministic choice
	$\mid \texttt{if}\ (\varphi)\ \{C\}\ \texttt{else}\ \{C\}$	$\mid \texttt{while}\ (\varphi)\ \{C\}$	$\mid \texttt{skip} \quad \mid \texttt{diverge}$
	conditional choice	while-loop	

Table 2.3: Guarded Command Language

chooses from two programs non-deterministically. It is however not probabilistic, meaning we do not know the probabilistic distribution of the outcome of the choice.

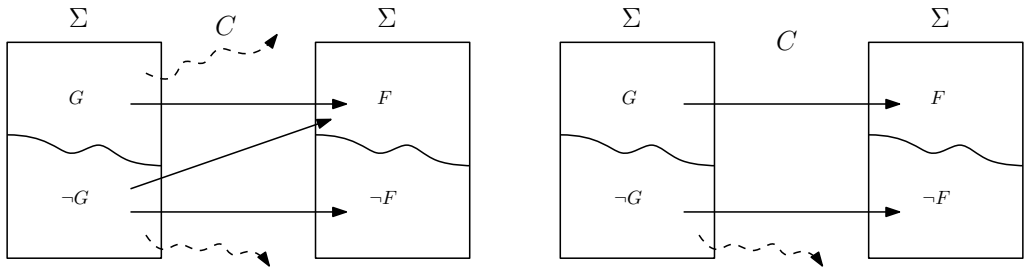
When skip is executed, the program state does not change and the consecutive part is executed. When diverge is executed, the execution never stops and the program can not reach a final state.

In our representation of GCL, non-determinism is explicitly constructed via the infix operator $\square$, whereas in its original definition, non-determinism occurs when the guards within the if and while commands are not mutually exclusive [5]. Additionally, the if statement in Dijkstra's GCL is equivalent to divergence in case non of its guards are true, but in our version this can no longer happen because of the Law of Excluded Middle: the predicate φ must be either true or false, so either the "then" branch or the "else" branch is activated. Consequently, non-termination can only originate from either the diverge or the while command.

2.4 WEAKEST PRECONDITIONS

2.4.1 *The Deterministic Case*

To better relate Hoare triples and Dijkstra's weakest precondition transformer, I first focus on deterministic programs. The goal is to find the necessary and sufficient precondition such that the program is guaranteed to terminate in a state that satisfies the postcondition. Figure 2.2 shows it graphically alongside the figure for valid Hoare triples. We can see that in Figure 2.2.2, the arrows from G to non-termination and from $\neg$G to F are absent.



$G\{C\}F$ (1) Valid Hoare Triple

$G = wp.C.F$ (2) Weakest precondition

Figure 2.2: Valid Hoare Triple vs. Weakest Precondition (Deterministic)

The definition of the weakest precondition transformer is inductively over the program structure in lambda-calculus style[4] as in Table 2.4:

C	**wp.C.F**
skip	F
diverge	false
$x := e$	$F[x/e]$
$C_1; C_2$	$wp.C_1.(wp.C_2.F)$
if (φ) $\{C_1\}$ else $\{C_2\}$	$(\varphi \wedge wp.C_1.F) \vee (\neg\varphi \wedge wp.C_2.F)$
while (φ) $\{C'\}$	$\mathrm{lfp}\ X.(\neg\varphi \wedge F) \vee (\varphi \wedge wp.C'.X)$

Table 2.4: The Weakest Precondition Transformer for Deterministic Programs [12]

$F[x/e]$ is F where every occurrence of x is syntactically replaced by e.
$\mathrm{lfp}\ X.f$ is the least fixed point of function f with variable X.
Let

$$\Phi(X) := (\neg\varphi \wedge F) \vee (\varphi \wedge wp.C'.X)$$

be the characteristic function, then wp for while-loop can be defined as:

$$wp.(\mathrm{while}(\varphi)\{C'\}).F = \mathrm{lfp}\ X.\Phi(X)$$

Most of the definitions in Table 2.4 are intuitive and correspond to their counterparts in Hoare logic, while those for diverge and while deserve special attention. Since wp aims for total correctness, a program starting in an initial state satisfying the precondition $wp.\mathrm{diverge}.F$ should terminate in a final state satisfying the postcondition F. Because diverge does not terminate, there is no such precondition and wp for diverge should be false.

4 For example, wp.C.F can be seen as $wp(C, F)$ in "typical" style, where wp is treated as a function that has two parameters. The advantage of lambda-calculus style is scalability, we can simply extend the aforementioned function to $wp.C.F.\sigma$ where σ means the initial state. Here wp is treated as a function that has three parameters, if we were to write it in the "typical" style. It is then questionable whether we changed the type of wp.

The definition for the while-loop [12] is trickier, but we can verify its correctness by recalling Dijkstra's original definition in the following section.

2.4.2 *Defining Loops*

In Dijkstra's original paper [3], he defined wp for while-loops based on its (intended) semantics, i.e. the precondition that guarantees loop termination with the required postcondition within a certain number of iterations.

Let

$$WHILE = while(\varphi)\{C'\} \qquad \text{and} \qquad IF = \mathtt{if}\ (\varphi)\{C'\}\ \mathtt{else}\ \{diverge\}.$$

[5] Rewriting Dijkstra's definition in a form conforming to our style, he defines

$$H_0(F) = (\neg\varphi \wedge F) \qquad \text{and} \qquad H_k(F) = wp.IF.H_{k-1}(F) \vee H_0(F).$$

IF is defined in such way that $wp.IF.X$ is the weakest precondition that makes sure the guard of IF discharges and C' is executed once, leaving the program in a state satisfying X. As a result, $H_k(F)$ corresponds to the weakest precondition such that the program terminates in a final state satisfying F after at most k iterations.

Then by definition:

$$wp.WHILE.F = (\exists k \geqslant 0 : H_k(F)) = \bigvee_{k \geqslant 0} H_k(F) \tag{2.1}$$

The definition in Table 2.4, however, uses the least fixed point of the characteristic function $\Phi(X)$. We can understand the use of fixed point in two ways.

First, a precondition G being a fixed point of the characteristic function implies that

$$G = \Phi(G) = (\neg\varphi \wedge F) \vee (\varphi \wedge wp.C'.G) \tag{2.2}$$

This means if G is satisfied before the execution of WHILE, then termination is possible (left side of the disjunction) and repeated execution of C' is possible (right side of the disjunction): For WHILE to enter the loop to execute C', ϕ must evaluate to true. Plugging it in Equation 2.2 results in an equation $G = wp.C'.G$, which means that G is invariant before and after the execution of C'. In other words, after one execution of C', G stays satisfied, which makes a further execution of C' possible.

Second, if we were to believe that the semantics of WHILE should be equivalent to the semantics of $\mathtt{if}(\varphi)\{C'; WHILE\}\ else\ \{skip\}$ [6], we can derive the need for fixed point:

$$wp.WHILE.F \stackrel{!}{=} wp.(\mathtt{if}\ (\varphi)\{C'; WHILE\}\ \mathtt{else}\ \{skip\}).F$$

5 TODO: Add why diverge but not skip.

6 The program in the else-branch is skip instead diverge, because in case $\neg\varphi$ is true before the execution of WHILE, the program simply skips it and executes the next component. This corresponds to a skip in the else-branch of IF.

$$\stackrel{!}{=} \varphi \wedge wp.(C'; WHILE).F \ \vee \ \neg\varphi \wedge wp.skip.F$$
$$\stackrel{!}{=} \varphi \wedge wp.C'.(wp.WHILE.F) \ \vee \ \neg\varphi \wedge F$$
$$\stackrel{!}{=} \Phi(wp.WHILE.F)$$

The result $wp.WHILE.F = \Phi(wp.WHILE.F)$ means that $wp.WHILE.F$ should be a fix point of function Φ.

The question then arises: can we define wp with any fixed point? The answer is no and I show it by verifying that the definition in Table 2.4 coincides with Dijkstra's definition at the beginning of this chapter.[7] Thanks to domain theory, we have a heuristic to calculate the least fixed point of Φ.

Theorem 2.1 [12] $\text{lfp } \Phi = \sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \Phi^n(false)$

Coincidentally, $H_k(F)$ is the $(k+1)$−th iteration of the characteristic function Φ from the bottom element, denoted by $\Phi^{k+1}(false)$. For all predicates F and all programs C':

Lemma 2.2 $\forall k \geqslant 0 : H_k(F) = \Phi^{k+1}(false)$

Proof. Proof by induction.

BASE CASE:

$$\begin{aligned}
\Phi(false) &= (\neg\varphi \wedge F) \vee (\varphi \wedge wp.C'.false) \\
&= (\neg\varphi \wedge F) \vee (\varphi \wedge false) && \mid (***) \\
&= \neg\varphi \wedge F && \mid \text{predicate calculus} \\
&= H_0(F)
\end{aligned}$$

Line (***) is supported by the Law of Excluded Miracle [4, p.18]: for all programs C, $wp.C.false = false$. It states that it is impossible for a program to terminate in a state satisfying no postcondition.

STEP CASE:

$$\begin{aligned}
H_{k+1}(F) &= wp.IF.H_k(F) \vee H_0(F) \\
&= wp.(\text{if } (\varphi)\{C'\} \text{ else } \{diverge\}).H_k(F) \vee H_0(F) \\
& && \mid \text{unfold IF} \\
&= (\varphi \wedge wp.C'.H_k(F)) \vee (\neg\varphi \wedge wp.diverge.H_k(F)) \vee H_0(F) \\
& && \mid \text{definition of wp} \\
&= (\varphi \wedge wp.C'.H_k(F)) \vee (\neg\varphi \wedge false) \vee H_0(F) \\
& && \mid \text{definition of wp} \\
&= (\varphi \wedge wp.C'.\Phi^{k+1}(false)) \vee H_0(F)
\end{aligned}$$

7 In fact, Dijkstra and Scholten [5] later also gave definitions for wp and wlp in an equivalent form of least and greatest fixed points, they called it "strongest" and "weakest solution". They also proved that it is necessary to use the extreme solutions.

$$
\begin{aligned}
&\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad \mid \text{induction hypothesis} \\
&= (\varphi \wedge wp.C'.\Phi^{k+1}(false)) \vee (\neg\varphi \wedge F) \\
&= \Phi^{k+2}(false)
\end{aligned}
$$

□

Combining Theorem 2.1 and Equation 2.1, we can arrive at the conclusion that the definitions with the least fixed point and Dijkstra's definition are equivalent. Recall that $H_k(F)$ is the weakest precondition that the program terminates satisfying F after at most k iterations. Add to the fact that $H_k(F) =$

[8] The advantage of using the least fixed point to define wp is that there are heuristics to find it, whereas Equation 2.1 excels at giving intuitions for the preconditions that guarantee loop termination. Essentially, they express the same predicate, i.e. the "weakest" precondition for while-loops which is unique. Consequently, it means that we can not use other fixed points to define $wp.WHILE$, which are weaker than the least fixed point. For the same reason, we will see that greatest fixed point is necessary to define the weakest liberal precondition.

2.4.3 *The Non-deterministic Case: Angelic vs. Demonic*

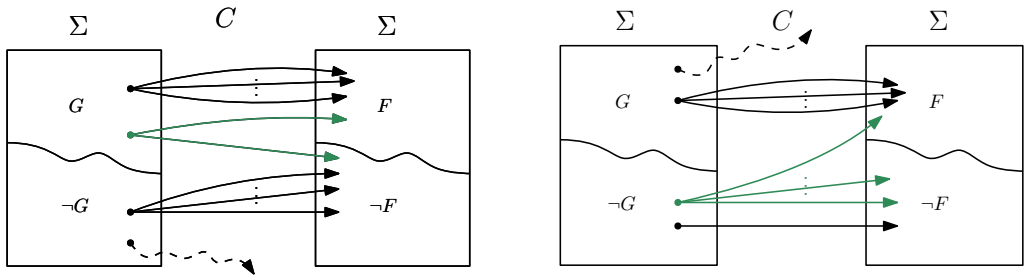
Now I bring the non-deterministic choice back into the picture and add its wp to Table 2.5. Here we assume a setting with angelic non-determinism, where we assume that whenever non-determinism occurs, it will be resolved in our favor. This results in the weakest precondition for our non-deterministic choice being a disjunction of the wp for its subprograms. We are hopeful that a precondition satisfying the wp of one of the subprograms can also lead to termination in our desired postcondition. This is a design choice that is different from Dijkstra's [3], where the wp for non-deterministic choice is a conjunction, hinting at a demonic setting. Both choices are justifiable, I choose to follow Zhang and Kaminski's work, favoring the resulting Galois connection between the weakest (liberal) precondition transformers and the strongest (liberal) postcondition transformers [24].

Figure 2.3.1 shows wp with non-deterministic programs. Each arrow from left to right shows a possible execution of program C. The effects of demonic and angelic non-determinism is highlighted in green. A condition under whose control the required postcondition is reachable but not guaranteed is considered as a valid precondition in an angelic setting (Figure 2.3.1), but not in a demonic setting (Figure 2.3.2).

8 TODO: Rewrite

C	wp.C.F	wlp.C.F
skip	F	F
diverge	false	true
$x := e$	$F[x/e]$	$F[x/e]$
$C_1; C_2$	$wp.C_1.(wp.C_2.F)$	$wp.C_1.(wp.C_2.F)$
$\{C_1\}\square\{C_2\}$	$wp.C_1.F \vee wp.C_2.F$	$wlp.C_1.F \wedge wlp.C_2.F$
if (φ) $\{C_1\}$ else $\{C_2\}$	$(\varphi \wedge wp.C_1.F) \vee (\neg\varphi \wedge wp.C_2.F)$	$(\varphi \wedge wp.C_1.F) \vee (\neg\varphi \wedge wp.C_2.F)$
while (φ) $\{C'\}$	lfp X. $(\neg\varphi \wedge F) \vee (\varphi \wedge wp.C'.X)$	gfp X. $(\neg\varphi \wedge F) \vee (\varphi \wedge wlp.C'.X)$

Table 2.5: The Weakest (Liberal) Precondition Transformer for Non-deterministic Programs [12]



$G = wp.C.F$ (1) wp (angelic non-determinism)

$G = wlp.C.F$ (2) wlp (demonic non-determinism)

Figure 2.3: Weakest Precondition (Angelic Non-determinism) and Weakest Liberal Precondition (Demonic Non-determinism)

2.5 WEAKEST LIBERAL PRECONDITIONS

While the wp-transformer excludes non-termination, the wlp-transformer takes a more liberal approach. The weakest precondition delivers a precondition so that the program terminates and a state satisfying the postcondition is reachable. The weakest liberal precondition, however, delivers a precondition so that the program either terminates satisfying the postcondition, or diverges. The postcondition in the wlp setting is guaranteed upon termination, because we regard the non-deterministic choice as demonic, again favoring to establish a Galois connection [24].

The definition of the weakest liberal precondition transformer is in Table 2.5. A graphical representation can be found on Figure 2.3.2.

As preluded earlier, greatest fixed points are used to define wlp for while-loops. It is an easy choice, since wlp is semantically the weakest liberal precondition, and $wlp.WHILE.F$ should be a fixed point of its characteristic function, similar to Section 2.4.2.

Theorem 2.3 [12] $\text{gfp}\ \Phi = \sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \Phi^n(\text{true})$

2.6 STRONGEST POSTCONDITIONS

Following the style to define wp and wlp, Zhang and Kaminski [24] (re-)defined strongest postconditions that capture the characteristics of all reachable states after the execution. In essence, sp.C.G is a postcondition that is satisfied by all states that are reachable from G. The definition of the predicate transformer sp is shown in Table 2.6.

C	**sp.C.G**
skip	G
diverge	false
$x := e$	$\exists a.x = e[x/a] \wedge G[x/a]$
$C_1; C_2$	$sp.C_2.(sp.C_1.G)$
$\{C_1\} \square \{C_2\}$	$sp.C_1.G \vee sp.C_2.G$
if (φ) $\{C_1\}$ else $\{C_2\}$	$sp.C_1.(\varphi \wedge G) \vee sp.C_2.(\neg\varphi \wedge G)$
while (φ) $\{C'\}$	$\neg\varphi \wedge \text{lfp}\ X.G \vee sp.C.(\varphi \wedge X)$

Table 2.6: The Strongest Postcondition Transformer [24]

We can also illustrate the behavior of a program controlled by sp in Figure 2.4. Instead of discussing termination starting from a precondition, sp focuses on reachability of states satisfying postconditions. The dotted arrow points to post-conditions describing unreachable final states after the execution of C. For example, no state would satisfy $x = 2$ after the execution of $x := 1$.

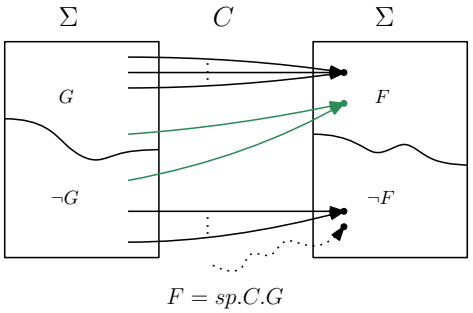


Figure 2.4: Strongest Postcondition (Angelic Non-determinism)

$$\frac{}{\sigma \xrightarrow{skip} \sigma}\,skip \qquad \frac{}{\sigma \xrightarrow{x:=e} \sigma(x := \sigma.e)}\,assign$$

$$\frac{\sigma \xrightarrow{C_1} \mu,\ \mu \xrightarrow{C_2} \tau}{\sigma \xrightarrow{C_1;C_2} \tau}\,seq \qquad \frac{\sigma \xrightarrow{C_i} \tau,\ i \in \{1,2\}}{\sigma \xrightarrow{C_1 \square C_2} \tau}\,par_i$$

$$\frac{\sigma \in \varphi,\ \sigma \xrightarrow{C_1} \tau}{\sigma \xrightarrow{IF} \tau}\,if_1 \qquad \frac{\sigma \notin \varphi,\ \sigma \xrightarrow{C_2} \tau}{\sigma \xrightarrow{IF} \tau}\,if_0$$

$$\frac{\sigma \notin \varphi}{\sigma \xrightarrow{WHILE} \sigma}\,while_0 \qquad \frac{\sigma \in \varphi,\ \sigma \xrightarrow{C} \mu,\ \mu \xrightarrow{WHILE} \tau}{\sigma \xrightarrow{WHILE} \sigma}\,while_n$$

where $IF = if\ (\varphi)\ \{C_1\}\ else\ \{C_2\}$, $\qquad WHILE = while\ (\varphi)\ do\ C$

Table 2.7: Big Step Semantics

2.7 BIG STEP SEMANTICS

To express the meaning of programs, I choose big-step semantics to describe executions of a program. Taking inspiration from Nipkow and Klein's book [19] I define the big-step semantics in Table 2.7.

Note that in rule assign, we have a formula $\sigma(x := \sigma.e)$. Here I overload the symbol for function application $.$ so that it applies to expressions as well, but without specifying the set of expressions hence restricting our programming language. An expression e would be evaluated in a usual way, e.g. $x + y$ at state σ would evaluate to $\sigma.x + \sigma.y$.

I also use symbols $\sigma(x := v)$ to denote a state where the value of variable x is v, and all other variables have the same values as in σ. In our big-step semantics, non-termination of C is equivalent to the nonexistence of state τ such that $\sigma \xrightarrow{C} \tau$. With the definition of big-step semantics, we can precisely express the soundness of our predicate transformers in the following section.

2.8 SOUNDNESS

Theorem 2.4 *[Soundness of wp]* [24]

$$wp.C.F = \{\sigma \in \Sigma \mid \exists \tau \in \Sigma :\ \sigma \xrightarrow{C} \tau \ \wedge\ \tau \vDash F\}$$ [9]

Theorem 2.5 *[Soundness of wlp]* [5]

$$wlp.C.F = \{\sigma \in \Sigma \mid \forall \tau \in \Sigma :\ \sigma \xrightarrow{C} \tau \implies \tau \vDash F\}$$

Theorem 2.6 *[Soundness of sp]* [23, 24]

$$sp.C.G = \{\tau \in \Sigma \mid \exists \sigma \in \Sigma :\ \sigma \xrightarrow{C} \tau \ \wedge\ \sigma \vDash G\}$$

9 $\exists \tau \in \Sigma : P$ is short for $\exists \tau.\tau \in \Sigma : P$

2.9 PROPERTIES OF WP AND WLP

Theorem 2.7 *wp and wlp are each other's conjugate:*

$$\forall C \in \mathcal{C} : \ \forall F \in \mathcal{P} : \ wp.C.F = \neg wlp.C.\neg F$$

Theorem 2.8

$$\forall C \in \mathcal{P} : \ wlp.C.true = true$$

10

10 TODO: add references.

Part II

NECESSARY LIBERAL PRECONDITIONS

In this part, I discuss the possible scenarios of the inspected implication, identify a distinctive case to study before proceeding with the general setting.

3

A PROOF SYSTEM

I am interested in studying the necessary liberal precondition, a weakening of the weakest liberal precondition:

$$wlp.C.F \implies G$$

The weaker G can contain various preconditions: on the one hand, G can be so general that it is satisfied by any program state; on the other hand, a G that is barely weaker than $wlp.C.F$ is also not much different from the latter. Alternatively, G can also contain all kinds of preconditions that starting from it, any postcondition is reachable. One thing we are certain about, though, is that a program with an original state satisfying $\neg G$ will terminate, and the final state can satisfy $\neg F$:

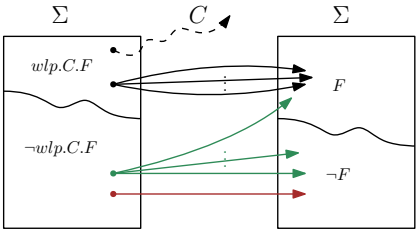
$$\begin{aligned} wlp.C.F \implies G &= \neg G \implies \neg wlp.C.F \\ &= \neg G \implies wp.C.\neg F \end{aligned} \qquad \text{Theorem 2.7}$$

In the upcoming sections, I first discuss various forms that the necessary liberal precondition can take and try to identify a G that is most characteristic. I proceed then to propose a proof system stemming from the necessary liberal precondition and show its usefulness using an example. [1]

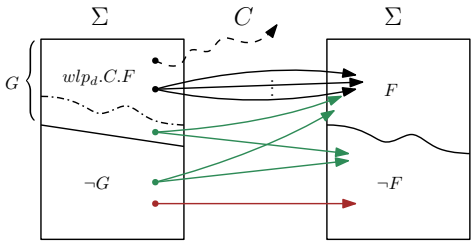
3.1 A PRECONDITION WEAKER THAN THE WEAKEST LIBERAL PRECONDITION

In Section 2.5 I define the weakest liberal precondition and state that it characterizes all the preconditions under whose control the program either diverges or will terminate in a state satisfying F. I am certain to use "will" instead of "can", the non-deterministic choice is viewed as demonic, so the behavior of wlp can be depicted by Figure 3.1.1. We can categorize the executions of the program in four ways:

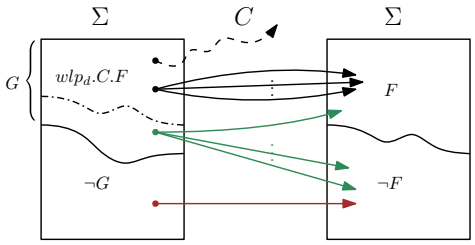
1. the dashed arrow means non-terminating executions;
2. the black arrows are executions starting from an initial state satisfying $wlp.C.F$ and only terminating in final states satisfying F;
3. the green arrows are the executions starting from an initial state satisfying $\neg wlp.C.F$ but can terminate in states either satisfying F or satisfying $\neg F$;
4. the red arrow represents executions starting from an initial state satisfying $\neg wlp.C.F$ and only terminating in final states satisfying $\neg F$.



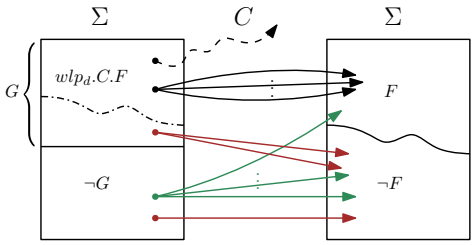
(1) Weakest liberal precondition (demonic non-determinism)



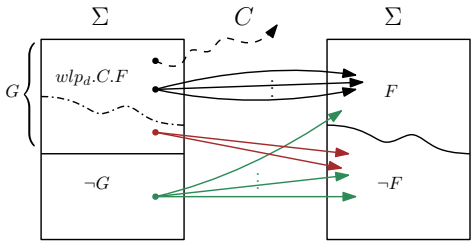
(2) Precondition G with $wlp.C.F \implies G$ and G contains some green arrows



(3) Precondition G with $wlp.C.F \implies G$ and G contains all the green arrows



(4) Precondition G with $wlp.C.F \implies G$ and G contains some red arrows



(5) Precondition G with $wlp.C.F \implies G$ and G contains all the red arrows

Figure 3.1: Case Distinction of Preconditions Weaker Than wlp

If we were to weaken the precondition, it can happen in various ways as shown in Figure 3.1.2-9. However, G spikes our interest when it takes the form as in Figure 3.1.3, because under its control, the program always can reach a final state satisfying F if it terminates, while with an initial state satisfying ¬G, the program is will terminate satisfying ¬F. This behavior is exactly the behavior of wlp, if we were to regard the non-deterministic choice as angelic, as hinted by the similarities between Figure 3.1.3 and Figure 2.3.1. I thus first investigate this special case, before proceeding with G in general.

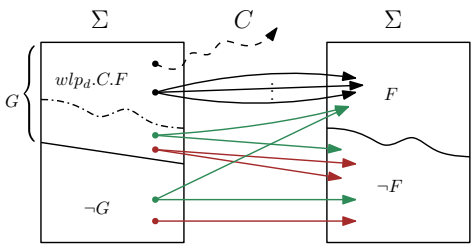
3.1.1 *A Special Case*

Dual to the semantics of wp and wlp as shown in Theorem 2.4 and Theorem 2.5, we can deduce the semantics of wlp with angelic non-determinism (denoted by wlp_a) recalling the representation for non-termination mentioned in Section 2.7:

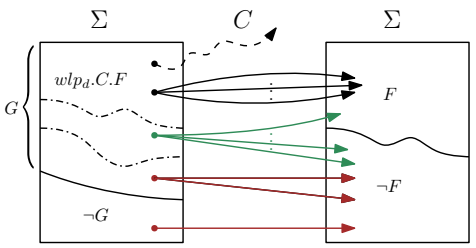
Statement 3.9 *[Semantics of wlp_a]*

$$wlp_a.C.F = \{\sigma \in \Sigma \mid \neg(\exists \tau \in \Sigma : \sigma \xrightarrow{C} \tau) \quad \vee \quad (\exists \tau \in \Sigma : \sigma \xrightarrow{C} \tau \wedge \tau \vDash F)\}$$

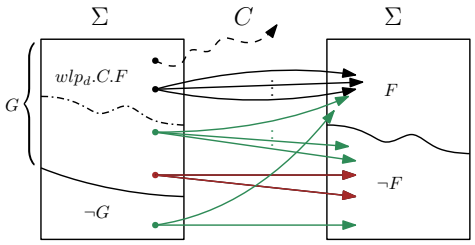
1 TODO: rewrite



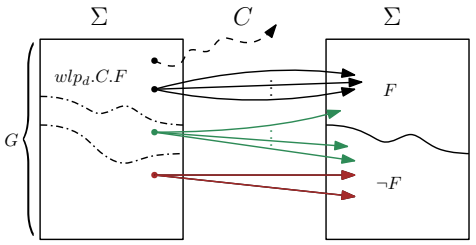
(6) Precondition G with $wlp.C.F \implies G$ and G contains some green arrows and some red arrows



(7) Precondition G with $wlp.C.F \implies G$ and G contains all the green arrows and some red arrows



(8) Precondition G with $wlp.C.F \implies G$ and G contains some green arrows and all the red arrows



(9) Precondition G with $wlp.C.F \implies G$ and G contains all the arrows

Figure 3.1: Case Distinction of Preconditions Weaker Than wlp (Cont.)

Luckily, we can find statements using wlp and sp that captures this specific G, hence giving us a way to express wlp_a without having to define it:

Lemma 3.10 *[Angelic wlp implies G]*

$$\textit{if} \quad (wlp.C.F \implies G) \land (sp.C.\neg G \implies \neg F) \quad \textit{then} \quad wlp_a.C.F \implies G$$

The second prerequisite $sp.C.\neg G \implies \neg F$ states that from $\neg G$ we are only allowed to reach $\neg F$, making sure that all green arrows as in Figure 3.1 are included in G.

Proof. The assumption expresses that for any state $\sigma \in \Sigma$:

$$\begin{aligned} wlp.C.F \implies G &\Leftrightarrow \sigma \in wlp.C.F \implies \sigma \in G \\ &\Leftrightarrow (\forall \tau \in \Sigma : \sigma \xrightarrow{C} \tau \implies \tau \in F) \implies \sigma \in G \\ &\qquad\qquad \text{| Theorem 2.5} \\ &\Leftrightarrow (\forall \tau \in \Sigma : \neg(\sigma \xrightarrow{C} \tau) \lor \tau \in F) \implies \sigma \in G \\ &\Leftrightarrow \neg(\exists \tau \in \Sigma : (\sigma \xrightarrow{C} \tau) \land \neg(\tau \in F)) \implies \sigma \in G \qquad \text{(a)} \end{aligned}$$

Also, for any state $\tau \in \Sigma$:

$$sp.C.\neg G \implies \neg F \Leftrightarrow \tau \in sp.C.\neg G \implies \tau \in \neg F$$

$$\Leftrightarrow (\exists \mu \in \Sigma :\ \mu \xrightarrow{C} \tau \ \wedge\ \mu \in \neg G) \implies \tau \in \neg F$$
$$\text{| Theorem 2.6}$$
$$\Leftrightarrow \neg(\tau \in \neg F) \implies \neg(\exists \mu \in \Sigma :\ \mu \xrightarrow{C} \tau \ \wedge\ \mu \in \neg G)$$
$$\Leftrightarrow \tau \in F \implies \forall \mu \in \Sigma :\ \neg(\mu \xrightarrow{C} \tau \ \wedge\ \mu \in \neg G)$$
$$\Leftrightarrow \tau \in F \implies \forall \mu \in \Sigma :\ \neg(\mu \xrightarrow{C} \tau) \ \vee\ \neg(\mu \in \neg G)$$
$$\Leftrightarrow \tau \in F \implies \forall \mu \in \Sigma :\ \neg(\mu \xrightarrow{C} \tau) \ \vee\ \mu \in G \qquad \text{(b)}$$

Our goal is to prove that for any state $\sigma \in \Sigma$:

$$wlp_a.C.F \implies G \Leftrightarrow \sigma \in wlp_a.C.F \implies \sigma \in G$$
$$\Leftrightarrow \neg(\exists \tau \in \Sigma : \sigma \xrightarrow{C} \tau) \ \vee\ (\exists \tau \in \Sigma : \sigma \xrightarrow{C} \tau \wedge \tau \in F)$$
$$\implies \sigma \in G \qquad \text{| Statement 3.9}$$
$$\Leftrightarrow (\neg(\exists \tau \in \Sigma : \sigma \xrightarrow{C} \tau) \implies \sigma \in G) \qquad \text{(c)}$$
$$\wedge\ ((\exists \tau \in \Sigma : \sigma \xrightarrow{C} \tau \wedge \tau \in F) \implies \sigma \in G) \qquad \text{(d)}$$

We can prove Lemma 3.10 by proving that Line (a) implies Line (c) and that Line (b) implies Line (d). For any state $\sigma \in \Sigma$, I first prove (a) $\implies$ (c):

$$\text{true} \Leftrightarrow (\exists \tau \in \Sigma : (\sigma \xrightarrow{C} \tau) \ \wedge\ \neg(\tau \in F)) \implies (\exists \tau \in \Sigma : \sigma \xrightarrow{C} \tau)$$
$$\Leftrightarrow \neg(\exists \tau \in \Sigma : \sigma \xrightarrow{C} \tau) \implies \neg(\exists \tau \in \Sigma : (\sigma \xrightarrow{C} \tau) \ \wedge\ \neg(\tau \in F))$$
$$\Rightarrow \neg(\exists \tau \in \Sigma : \sigma \xrightarrow{C} \tau) \implies \sigma \in G \qquad \text{| Line (a)}$$

It is also valid that for any state $\sigma \in \Sigma$, (b) $\implies$ (d). Assume there exists $\tau \in \Sigma$ such that for some state $\sigma \in \Sigma$,

$$\sigma \xrightarrow{C} \tau \ \wedge\ \tau \in F \text{ is valid.}$$

Then we conclude from Line (b) that

$$\forall \mu \in \Sigma :\ \neg(\mu \xrightarrow{C} \tau) \ \vee\ \mu \in G$$

Since $\sigma \in \Sigma$, it follows that $\neg(\sigma \xrightarrow{C} \tau) \ \vee\ \sigma \in G$. We already know that $\sigma \xrightarrow{C} \tau$, hence $\sigma \in G$ must be true, therefore proving Line (d). □

Lemma 3.11 *[G implies angelic wlp]*

if $(P \implies G) \implies \neg(sp.C.P \implies \neg F)$ *then* $G \implies wlp_a.C.F$

Here, the prerequisite states that we do not allow executions starting from G that only finish in ¬F, making sure that G does not include the red arrows as in Figure 3.1.

Proof. The assumption expresses that for any state $\sigma \in \Sigma$:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& P \implies G \implies \neg(sp.C.P \implies \neg F) \\
\Leftrightarrow\ & P \implies G \implies \neg(\forall \tau \in \Sigma : \tau \in sp.C.P \implies \tau \in \neg F) \\
\Leftrightarrow\ & P \implies G \implies \exists \tau \in \Sigma : \neg(\tau \in sp.C.P \implies \tau \in \neg F) \\
\Leftrightarrow\ & P \implies G \implies \exists \tau \in \Sigma : \tau \in sp.C.P \ \wedge\ \neg(\tau \in \neg F) \\
\Leftrightarrow\ & P \implies G \implies \exists \tau \in \Sigma : \tau \in sp.C.P \ \wedge\ \tau \in F \\
\Leftrightarrow\ & P \implies G \implies \exists \tau \in \Sigma : (\exists \mu \in \Sigma :\ \mu \xrightarrow{C} \tau \ \wedge\ \mu \in P) \ \wedge\ \tau \in F \\
& \qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad \text{| Theorem 2.6} \\
\Leftrightarrow\ & \sigma \in P \implies \sigma \in G \implies \exists \tau \in \Sigma : (\exists \mu \in \Sigma :\ \mu \xrightarrow{C} \tau \ \wedge\ \mu \in P) \ \wedge\ \tau \in F \qquad \text{(e)}
\end{aligned}
$$

Our goal is to prove that for any state $\sigma \in \Sigma$:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& G \implies wlp_a.C.F \\
\Leftrightarrow\ & \sigma \in G \implies \sigma \in wlp_a.C.F \\
\Leftrightarrow\ & \sigma \in G \implies \neg(\exists \tau \in \Sigma : \sigma \xrightarrow{C} \tau) \ \vee\ (\exists \tau \in \Sigma : \sigma \xrightarrow{C} \tau \wedge \tau \in F) \\
& \qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad \text{| Statement 3.9}
\end{aligned}
$$

For some state $\sigma \in \Sigma$, assume $\sigma \in G$, then we can construct set $P = \{\sigma\}$ such that the prerequisites in Line (e) holds. Consequently, the postrequisite in holds. Now we can find witnesses μ and τ such that

$$\mu \xrightarrow{C} \tau \ \wedge\ \mu \in P \ \wedge\ \tau \in F$$

Since P is a singleton set, μ can only be σ. Then we have found a witness τ such that $\sigma \xrightarrow{C} \tau$ and $\tau \in F$, satisfying the postrequisite of our goal. □

Corollary 3.12 *[G equivalent to angelic wlp]*
if $wlp.C.F \implies G \ \wedge\ sp.C.\neg G \implies \neg F$ *and* $P \implies G \implies \neg(sp.C.P \implies \neg F)$
then $G = wlp_a.C.F$

3.1.2 *The General Case*

While having restrictions on G yields interesting results, without the restrictions we can still find useful characteristics. As shown in Figure 3.1, G can contain all possible initial states, which can be the starting points of black, green, red, or dashed arrows, representing executions terminating in states satisfying F, F or ¬F, ¬F, or non-terminating, respectively. As a result, we can not make much statements without adding extra restrictions to G. However, we can see from Figure 3.1 that ¬G does not contain any black or dashed arrows in all cases. In other words, if program C starts in any initial state satisfying ¬G, then either G is empty, or

- its executions terminate, and

- there exists an execution that ends up in a final state that satisfies $\neg F$.

This corresponds to the semantics of the wp transformer as shown in Theorem 2.4, hinting that $\neg G \ \{C\} \ \neg F$ is a valid Hoare triple. The question then naturally arises: why do we concern ourselves with G, if we can just prove our specifications using wp or Hoare triples? To demonstrate the answer, I analyze the example written in Listing 3.1.

```
1       ... // leave non-critical section
2       turn := B;
3       while (turn != A) do
4               turn := A □ turn := B
5               // modeling the behavior of other threads
6       critA := true;
7       ... // enter critical section
```

Listing 3.1: Thread A Hoping to Access Critical Section

The pseudocode is modified from Peterson's mutual exclusion algorithm [22], but we are now only concerned with one of possibly many threads. Our thread A is trying to enter some critical section but only have limited knowledge as to what other threads might also want to access the same critical section: A is only aware of thread B that also wants to enter critical section.

To have a fair system, thread A gives B the turn after leaving non-critical section as written in line 2 of Listing 3.1. Otherwise, thread A might never enter the while-loop and directly skip ahead to line 6 to enter the critical section, without giving other threads a chance. Line 4 models the behavior of other threads in the system: while A is waiting for its turn, thread B might also have just left the non-critical section and gave the turn to A; or some other thread than A or B might have given the turn to B. [2]

Mutual exclusion requires that no threads are simultaneously in the critical section. In this case, a state we definitely want to avoid is where the values of critA and critB are both true. In other words, the postcondition

$$F = \{\sigma \in \Sigma \mid \sigma.\mathrm{critB} = \mathrm{true}\}$$

after line 6 in Listing 3.1 is an undesirable postcondition.

Filling in this F after line 6 and calculating the weakest liberal precondition backwards according to Table 2.5, we arrive at the conditions as shown in Listing 3.2. For better readability, I shorten predicates like F to {critB}.

```
1       ... // leave non-critical section
2       {critB}
3       turn := B;
4       {critB}
5       while (turn != A) do
6               turn := A □ turn := B
7               // modeling the behavior of other threads
8       {critB}
```

2 We will see with the calculation for wlp of this while-loop that it makes no difference whether we include more non-deterministic choices like turn := C □ turn := D □ ....

```
9         critA := true;
10        {critB}
11        ... // enter critical section
```

Listing 3.2: Weakest Liberal Precondition w.r.t Postcondition $F = \{\sigma \in \Sigma \mid \sigma.\text{critB} = \text{true}\}$

The only non-obvious step in Listing 3.2 is from line 8 to line 4. Remember from Table 2.5 that the wlp for while-loops is defined with the greatest fixed point operator:

$$wlp.(\text{while } (\varphi)\ \{C'\}).F = \text{gfp } X.\ (\neg\varphi \wedge F) \vee (\varphi \wedge wlp.C'.X)$$

We can simply follow the iteration to find the greatest fixed point of a function until we see a pattern, then prove by natural induction that the solution we found is indeed the greatest fixed point (see Theorem 2.3).

Lemma 3.13 *$wlp.\text{WHILE}.\{\text{critB}\} = \{\text{critB}\}$ where $\text{WHILE} := \text{while } (\varphi) \text{ do } C'$, $\varphi := \{\text{turn}! = A\}$, and $C' := (\text{turn} := A \square \text{turn} := B)$.*

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{Let } \Phi(X) &:= \neg\varphi \wedge F \ \vee\ \varphi \wedge wlp.C'.X \\
&= \{\text{turn} = A\} \wedge \{\text{critB}\} \ \vee\ \{\text{turn}! = A\} \wedge wlp.C'.X \\
\text{Then } \Phi(\text{true}) &= \{\text{turn} = A\} \wedge \{\text{critB}\} \ \vee\ \{\text{turn}! = A\} \wedge wlp.C'.\text{true} \\
&\overset{\text{Theorem 2.8}}{=} \{\text{turn} = A\} \wedge \{\text{critB}\} \ \vee\ \{\text{turn}! = A\} \wedge \text{true} \\
&= \{\text{turn}! = A\} \vee \{\text{critB}\}
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{Also, } wlp.C'.\Phi(\text{True}) &= wlp.(\text{turn} := A \square \text{turn} := B).\Phi(\text{true}) \\
&\overset{\text{Table 2.5}}{=} wlp.(\text{turn} := A).(\{\text{turn}! = A\} \vee \{\text{critB}\}) \\
&\quad \wedge wlp.(\text{turn} := B).(\{\text{turn}! = A\} \vee \{\text{critB}\}) \\
&\overset{\text{Table 2.5}}{=} (\{A! = A\} \vee \{\text{critB}\}) \wedge \{B! = A\} \vee \{\text{critB}\} \\
&= \{\text{critB}\} \wedge \text{true} \\
&= \{\text{critB}\}
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{Hence, } \Phi^2(\text{true}) &= \{\text{turn} := A\} \wedge \{\text{critB}\} \\
&\quad \vee\ \{\text{turn}! = A\} \wedge wlp.C'.\Phi(\text{true}) \\
&= \{\text{turn} := A\} \wedge \{\text{critB}\} \ \vee\ \{\text{turn}! = A\} \wedge \{\text{critB}\} \\
&= \{\text{critB}\} \wedge (\{\text{turn} := A\} \vee \{\text{turn}! = A\}) \\
&= \{\text{critB}\} \\
\text{And } wlp.C'.\Phi^2(\text{True}) &= wlp.(\text{turn} := A \square \text{turn} := B).\Phi^2(\text{true}) \\
&\overset{\text{Table 2.5}}{=} wlp.(\text{turn} := A).\{\text{critB}\} \\
&\quad \wedge wlp.(\text{turn} := B).\{\text{critB}\}
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &\overset{\text{Table 2.5}}{=} \{\text{critB}\} \wedge \{\text{critB}\} \\ &= \{\text{critB}\} \\ &= \Phi(\text{true}) \end{aligned}$$

Consequently, $\Phi^3(\text{true}) = \Phi^2(\text{true}) = \{\text{critB}\}$

From the above results we can form the hypothesis

$$\forall i \in \mathbb{N} \wedge i \geqslant 2 : \Phi^i(\text{true}) = \{\text{critB}\}$$

and prove by natural induction:

1. Base case: $\Phi^2(\text{true}) = \{\text{critB}\}$. ✓
2. Step case: (IH stands for induction hypothesis $\Phi^i(\text{true}) = \{\text{critB}\}$)

$$\begin{aligned} \Phi^{i+1}(\text{true}) &= \{\text{turn} = A\} \wedge \{\text{critB}\} \ \vee \ \{\text{turn}! = A\} \wedge \text{wlp.C}'.\Phi^i(\text{true}) \\ &\overset{\text{IH}}{=} \{\text{turn} = A\} \wedge \{\text{critB}\} \ \vee \ \{\text{turn}! = A\} \wedge \{\text{critB}\} \\ &= \{\text{critB}\} \ ✓ \end{aligned}$$

Combine this proven hypothesis with Theorem 2.3 and the definition of $wlp.\text{WHILE.F}$ in Table 2.5, we can conclude that

$$wlp.\text{WHILE.}\{\text{critB}\} = \text{gfp } \Phi = \sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \Phi^n(\text{true}) = \{\text{critB}\}$$

□

I have proven that {critB} is the weakest liberal precondition of the program in Listing 3.1 w.r.t. postcondition {critB}, meaning that once {critB} is satisfied as a precondition, the program is doomed to either end up in deadlock, or not even terminate, as illustrated in Figure 3.2. Hence, by asserting that {critB} is not satisfied in the precondition, we can avoid that A and B are deadlocked.

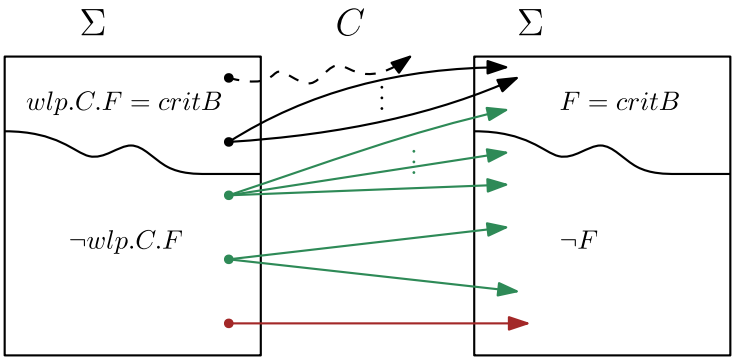


Figure 3.2: wlp.C.F = critB

However, B may not be the only process or thread that wishes to enter the same critical section as A. For example, a seasoned programmer with extra knowledge

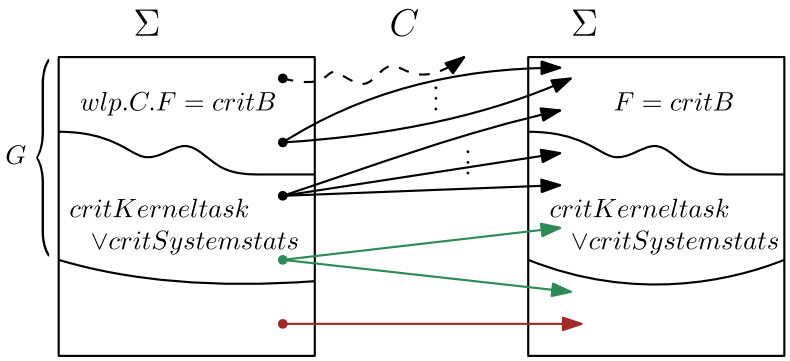


Figure 3.3: Relaxing the precondition with extra knowledge

may guess that processes like kerneltask, systemstats are some of them, and relax the precondition that we should avoid to

$$\mathrm{wlp.C.F} = \{\mathrm{critB}\} \implies \{\mathrm{critB} \vee \mathrm{critKerneltask} \vee \mathrm{critSystemstats}\} = \mathrm{G}$$

as drawn in Figure 3.3. This demonstrates the use of the triple $\mathrm{wlp.C.F} \implies \mathrm{G}$: with insufficient knowledge we have over the system, we first calculate the weakest liberal precondition of the erroneous postcondition that we know of, then relax this precondition by "guessing" similar erroneous postconditions with the extra knowledge from experts over the system.

4

CONCLUSIONS

4.1 CONCLUSIONS

In this thesis, I study the weakest liberal precondition transformer and its over-approximation: G such that $wlp.C.F \implies G$. I first discuss the definitions of while-loops in its original form [3] and a variant using fixed points. I establish an equivalence between the two forms of definitions, validating the prudence of the second version. Subsequently, I investigate the G in question. Coincidentally, supplementing G with extra restraints using the strongest postcondition transformer, G coincides with the weakest liberal precondition transformer with angelic non-determinism:

$$(sp.C.\neg G \implies \neg F) \wedge (P \implies G \implies \neg(sp.C.P \implies \neg F)) \implies G = wlp_a.C.F$$

However, without extra constraints, G can be a precondition where all executions are possible. The only certainty is that $\neg G\ \{C\}\ \neg F$ is a valid Hoare Triple. Regardless, G still finds its usefulness while trying to identify preconditions that lead to erroneous final states, but without sufficient knowledge of all the undesired final states. One first finds the weakest liberal precondition with respect to the known "bad" final states, then over-approximate the found precondition by "guessing" more possible unwanted final states.

4.2 FUTURE WORK

Despite taking inspiration from the incorrectness logic, the methods used in this thesis and the results obtained thereafter are admittedly immature. The intricate distinction between successful and erroneous final states was not mirrored in this thesis. It would be valuable to study the subject of this thesis with a more sophisticated palette to develop more comprehensive proof rules.

Additionally, this thesis is only concerned with binary predicates, i.e. a predicate that evaluates to either `true` or `false`. Albeit classic, it might be more interesting to examine the above results in a quantitative setting, where predicates evaluate to more than `true` or `false`. In a quantitative setting, the notion of angelic or demonic non-determinism might be extreme. Instead of regarding the non-determinism as completely in or against our favor, which are strong assumptions, what are the implications when the non-determinism resolves partially in or against our favor? As the poet Qu Yuan said:

路漫漫其修远兮,
Long, long had been my road and far, far was the journey;
吾将上下而求索。
I would go up and down to seek my heart's desire. [8]

Part III

APPENDIX

A

GRAPHICAL ILLUSTRATION OF PREDICATE TRANSFORMERS

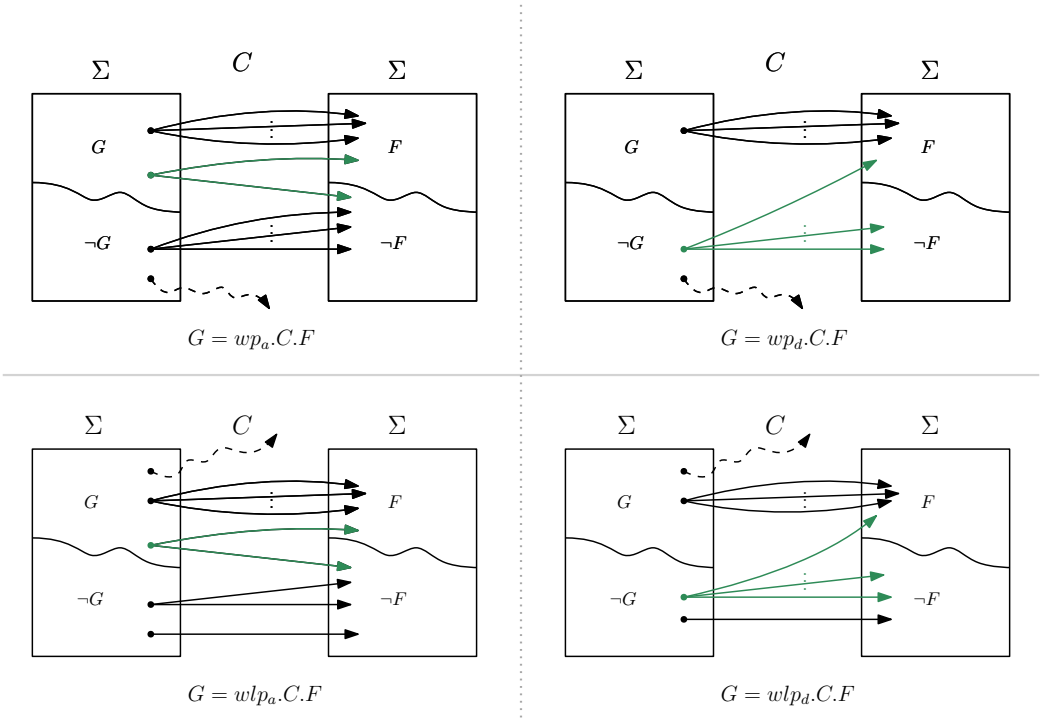


Figure A.1: Angelic and Demonic Nondeterminism

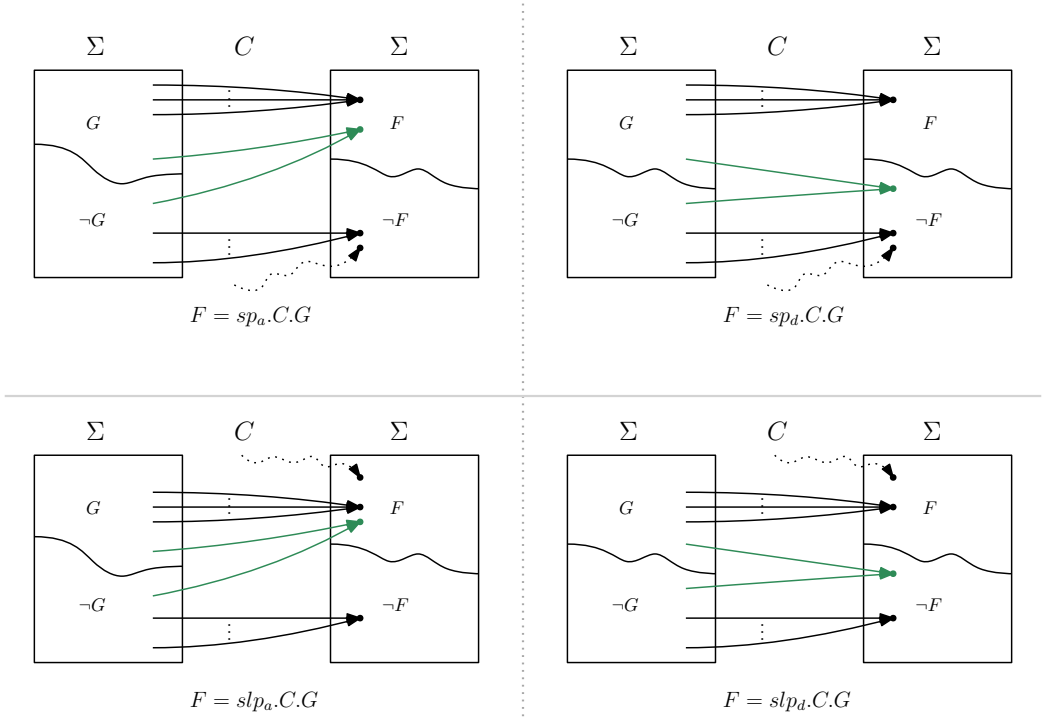


Figure A.2: sp and slp

BIBLIOGRAPHY

[1] Krzysztof R. Apt. "Ten Years of Hoare's Logic: A Survey—Part I." In: *ACM Trans. Program. Lang. Syst.* 3.4 (Oct. 1981), pp. 431–483. ISSN: 0164-0925. DOI: 10.1145/357146.357150. URL: https://doi.org/10.1145/357146.357150.

[2] Michele Boreale. "Complete algorithms for algebraic strongest postconditions and weakest preconditions in polynomial odes." In: *Science of Computer Programming* 193 (2020), p. 102441. ISSN: 0167-6423. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scico.2020.102441. URL: https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0167642320300514.

[3] Edsger W. Dijkstra. "Guarded commands, nondeterminacy and formal derivation of programs." In: *Communications of the ACM* 18.8 (1975), pp. 453–457.

[4] Edsger W. Dijkstra. *A Discipline of Programming*. Prentice-Hall Series in Automatic Computation. Englewood Cliffs, N.J: Prentice-Hall, 1976. ISBN: 978-0-13-215871-8.

[5] Edsger W. Dijkstra and Carel S. Scholten. "On substitution and replacement." In: *Predicate Calculus and Program Semantics*. New York, NY: Springer New York, 1990. ISBN: 978-1-4612-3228-5. URL: https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4612-3228-5_2.

[6] Robert W. Floyd. "Assigning meanings to programs." In: *Program Verification: Fundamental Issues in Computer Science* (1993), pp. 65–81.

[7] Mike Gordon and Hélène Collavizza. "Forward with Hoare." In: *Reflections on the Work of C.A.R. Hoare*. Ed. by A.W. Roscoe, Cliff B. Jones, and Kenneth R. Wood. London: Springer London, 2010, pp. 101–121. ISBN: 978-1-84882-911-4 978-1-84882-912-1. DOI: 10.1007/978-1-84882-912-1_5. (Visited on 03/10/2024).

[8] David Hawkes, Qu Yuan, and Various. *The Songs of the South: An Anthology of Ancient Chinese Poems by Qu Yuan and Other Poets*. Reissue edition. Harmondsworth: Penguin Classics, Jan. 2012. ISBN: 978-0-14-044375-2.

[9] Charles Antony Richard Hoare. "An axiomatic basis for computer programming." In: *Communications of the ACM* 12.10 (1969), pp. 576–580.

[10] Jozef Hooman. "Extending Hoare logic to real-time." In: *Formal Aspects of Computing* 6 (1994), pp. 801–825.

[11] David Hume. *A treatise of human nature*. Clarendon Press, 1896.

[12] Benjamin Lucien Kaminski. "Advanced weakest precondition calculi for probabilistic programs." PhD thesis. RWTH Aachen University, 2019.

[13] Benjamin Lucien Kaminski, Joost-Pieter Katoen, Christoph Matheja, and Federico Olmedo. "Weakest precondition reasoning for expected run–times of probabilistic programs." In: *Programming Languages and Systems: 25th European Symposium on Programming, ESOP 2016, Held as Part of the European Joint Conferences on Theory and Practice of Software, ETAPS 2016, Eindhoven, The Netherlands, April 2–8, 2016, Proceedings 25*. Springer. 2016, pp. 364–389.

[14] Gerwin Klein et al. "seL4: formal verification of an OS kernel." In: *Proceedings of the ACM SIGOPS 22nd Symposium on Operating Systems Principles*. SOSP '09. Big Sky, Montana, USA: Association for Computing Machinery, 2009, pp. 207–220. ISBN: 9781605587523. DOI: 10.1145/1629575.1629596. URL: https://doi.org/10.1145/1629575.1629596.

[15] Junyi Liu, Li Zhou, Gilles Barthe, and Mingsheng Ying. "Quantum Weakest Preconditions for Reasoning about Expected Runtimes of Quantum Programs." In: *Proceedings of the 37th Annual ACM/IEEE Symposium on Logic in Computer Science*. LICS '22. Haifa, Israel: Association for Computing Machinery, 2022. ISBN: 9781450393515. DOI: 10.1145/3531130.3533327. URL: https://doi.org/10.1145/3531130.3533327.

[16] Zohar Manna and Amir Pnueli. "Axiomatic approach to total correctness of programs." In: *Acta Informatica* 3 (1974), pp. 243–263.

[17] John McCarthy. "Towards a mathematical science of computation." In: *Program Verification: Fundamental Issues in Computer Science* (1993), pp. 35–56.

[18] Magnus O. Myreen and Michael J. C. Gordon. "Hoare Logic for Realistically Modelled Machine Code." In: *Tools and Algorithms for the Construction and Analysis of Systems*. Ed. by Orna Grumberg and Michael Huth. Berlin, Heidelberg: Springer Berlin Heidelberg, 2007, pp. 568–582. ISBN: 978-3-540-71209-1.

[19] Tobias Nipkow and Gerwin Klein. *Concrete semantics: with Isabelle/HOL*. Springer, 2014.

[20] Tobias Nipkow, Markus Wenzel, and Lawrence C Paulson. *Isabelle/HOL: a proof assistant for higher-order logic*. Springer, 2002.

[21] Peter W. O'Hearn. "Incorrectness Logic." In: *Proceedings of the ACM on Programming Languages* 4.POPL (Jan. 2020), pp. 1–32. ISSN: 2475-1421. DOI: 10.1145/3371078. (Visited on 03/10/2024).

[22] Gary L. Peterson. "Myths about the mutual exclusion problem." In: *Information Processing Letters* 12 (1981), pp. 115–116.

[23] Edsko de Vries and Vasileios Koutavas. "Reverse hoare logic." In: *International Conference on Software Engineering and Formal Methods*. Springer. 2011, pp. 155–171.

[24] Linpeng Zhang and Benjamin Kaminski. "Quantitative Strongest Post." In: *arXiv preprint arXiv:2202.06765* (2022).

[25] Li Zhou, Nengkun Yu, and Mingsheng Ying. "An applied quantum Hoare logic." In: *Proceedings of the 40th ACM SIGPLAN Conference on Programming Language Design and Implementation*. PLDI 2019. Phoenix, AZ, USA: Association for Computing Machinery, 2019, pp. 1149–1162. ISBN: 9781450367127. DOI: 10.1145/3314221.3314584. URL: https://doi.org/10.1145/3314221.3314584.