# Programming Languages: Imperative Program Construction 11. Separation Logic I

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## **Separation Matters**

- Our reasoning so far is based on an important assumption: variables, having different names, are independent from each other.
- With  ${\bf var}\ a,b,$  for example, mutating a does not change the value of b.
- · Otherwise most of our reasoning would fail.

#### **Remark: Procedure Calls**

• Problem with procedures with call-by-reference variables.

**proc** 
$$swap (ref x, y : Int) = x := x - y; y := x + y; x := y - x$$

- swap (a, b) should swap the values of a and b we have proved so before, haven't we?
- However, swap(a, a) sets a to 0.
- Extra care is needed to handle function/procedure calls, which we unfortunately won't cover in this course.

Most materials of this lecture are adapted from Reynold's course in CMU [Rey11].

Other suggested reading materials: [Rey02] [O'H19], [O'H12].

# 1 Dynamic Memory Management

- Another source of possible violation is the heap memory model.
- Recall: variables declared are supposed to be located in *stacks*. (Also called a *store*).

- In the heap model, programmers can allocate blocks of memories in *heaps*.
- We can store addresses of heap cells in variables, lookup the content of a heap given the address, or deallocate a cell.

#### **Pointer Manipulation**

- A pointer is a variable that stores a memory address.
- In our setting we let Addr=Int, and let  ${\bf nil}$  be a unique address.
- p := cons (1,2) allocate two consecutive heap cells, set their values to 1 and 2, and store the address of the first cell in p.
  - One has no control what the address will be, other than that it won't be nil.
- x := \*e look up the value stored in the cell with address e, and copy the value to variable x.
- \*e := f let the value stored in cell with address e be updated to f.
- free e free the cell having address
- In the last three cases the address e must have been allocated.

#### Example

program	store and heap
	$s: x = 3 \land y = 4; h: \mathbf{emp}$
$x := \mathbf{cons}\ (1,2)$	$s: x = 34 \land y = 4$
	$h:34\mapsto 1,35\mapsto 2$
$y := {}^*x$	$s: x = 34 \land y = 1$
	$h:34\mapsto 1,35\mapsto 2$
*(x+1) := 3	$s: x = 34 \land y = 1$
	$h:34\mapsto 1,35\mapsto 3$
free (x+1)	$s: x = 34 \land y = 1$
	$h:34\mapsto 1$

#### Notes:

- Apart from that **cons** does not return **nil**, the program cannot predict what address (e.g. 34) **cons** would return.
- Reading from, writing to, or deallocating an address that is not yet allocated aborts the program.
- We do not have an operator that gives you the address of variables in store (like & in C).

#### **Linked Lists**

- We abbreviate  $i \mapsto 1$  and  $i + 1 \mapsto 2$  to  $i \mapsto 1, 2$ .
- Assume that we represent lists in heap by linked lists.
- E.g [1,2,3] is represented in the following heap, starting from address 34:

$$\begin{array}{c} 34 \mapsto 1,92 \\ 60 \mapsto 3, \mathbf{nil} \\ 92 \mapsto 2,60 \end{array}.$$

• (We will present a more formal definition later.)

#### **In-Place List Reversal**

 If the address i represents a list XS, after executing the following program, i points to nil and j represents the reverse of XS.

• That is, the program reverts a linked list without using additional space.

- Can we prove that it is correct?
- Not that easy..! The loop only works if i and j do not share any nodes. The loop invariant would be something like:

```
i represents xs \land j represents ys \land ... i and j share only \mathbf{nil}.
```

 Furthermore, we want to ensure that other data structure in the heap should remain unchanged. Assume that we have another linked-list k, we will need in the invariant:

```
i represents xs \land j represents ys \land ...
i and j share only \mathbf{nil} \land k and (i \text{ union } j) share only \mathbf{nil}.
```

We need to mention every pointer in the invariant.
 This does not scale well.

# 2 Separation Logic Basics

- Separation logic: a logic for describing and reasoning about heaps, in which sections of heaps are separated by default.
- Developed by people including Reynolds and O'Hearn in early 2000's.
- Widely adopted by industry in around 2010's [O'H19].
- Recall: assertions in Hoare logic are predicates on state space (values of variables in the store).
- Assertion in separation logic are predicates on the store and the heap.
- We will start with an informal description and give a more formal definition later.

#### Store and Heap

- A store is a (partial) function from variable names to values:  $Store = Var \rightarrow Val$ , where  $Val = Int \cup Bool \cup ...$
- A heap is a (partial) function from addresses to integers:  $Heap = Int \rightarrow Int$  an address is also a Int.

- The domain of a function f is denoted dom f.
- We denote  $dom \ h_0 \cap dom \ h_1 = \emptyset$  by  $h_0 \perp h_1$ .
- Given functions  $h_0$  and  $h_1$  where  $h_0 \perp h_1$ , define

$$(h_0 \cdot h_1) x = h_0 x \text{ if } x \in dom \ h_0,$$
  
=  $h_1 x \text{ if } x \in dom \ h_1.$ 

#### **Some Primitives**

Given a heap h,

- **emp** h holds if  $dom h = \emptyset$ .
  - emp says that nothing is allocated in the heap.
- $e \mapsto e'$  holds of h if  $dom h = \{e\}$  and h e = e'.
  - h is a singleton heap containing only e' in address e.
  - Note that both e and e' are expressions!
- P \* Q holds of h if  $h = h_0 \cdot h_1$  and  $P h_0$  and  $Q h_1$ .
  - That  $h_0 \cdot h_1$  being defined implies that  $h_0 \perp h_1$ .
  - h can be decomposed into two *disjoint* heap  $h_0$  and  $h_1$  such that p holds of  $h_0$  and q holds of  $h_1$ .
- True holds of any h, while False holds of no h.
- $e \mapsto e_0, e_1, \dots e_n \equiv (e \mapsto e_0) * (e+1 \mapsto e_1) * \dots (e+n \mapsto e_n).$
- $e \mapsto \bot \equiv \langle \exists v :: e \mapsto v \rangle$ .
- $e \hookrightarrow e' \equiv (e \mapsto e') * True$ .
- *separting implication*  $p \rightarrow q$  will be introduced later.

# The True Story

- The presentation above was very simplified.
- In fact, all the predicates introduced above are predicate on *store and heap*, because we need the store to evaluate an expression.
- We will keep it simple for now. For a more precise account, see Reynolds [Rey02, Rey11].
- Keep in mind, for example, that  $x \mapsto 3$ , where x is a variable, actually means x is mapped to some a in the store, and a is mapped to 3 in the heap.
  - The predicate can be invalidated if either the value of x or the value stored in the heap changes.

### **Examples**

- $x \mapsto 3, y$ .
- $(x \mapsto 3, y) * (y \mapsto 3, x)$ .
- $(x \mapsto 3, y) \land (y \mapsto 3, x)$ .
- $(x \hookrightarrow 3, y) \land (y \hookrightarrow 3, x)$ .

# **Separating Implication**

• Separating implication is defined by:

$$(P \twoheadrightarrow Q) h = \langle \forall h_0 : h_0 \perp h \land P h_0 : Q (h_0 \cdot h) \rangle .$$

• That is, P \* Q holds of h if, given any  $h_0$  that is disjoint from h and satisfies P, we have  $h_0 \cdot h$  satisfies Q.

# Example

• Suppose P asserts various things, including  $x\mapsto 3,4$ . Thus P holds of

$$s: x = a$$
  
 $h: a \mapsto 3, a + 1 \mapsto 4$ , rest of heap

•  $(x \mapsto 3,4)$   $\twoheadrightarrow$  P holds of the following store and heap:

$$s: x = a$$
  
 $h: rest of heap$ 

•  $(x \mapsto 1, 2) * ((x \mapsto 3, 4) \twoheadrightarrow P)$  holds of the following store and heap:

$$s: x = a$$
  
 $h: a \mapsto 1, a + 1 \mapsto 2$ , rest of heap

#### **Heap Mutation - Motivation**

• From the example above we notice that

$$\{(x \mapsto 1) * ((x \mapsto 3) - P)\}$$
  
\* $x := 3$   
{ $P$ }

· To be slightly more general,

$$\begin{cases} (x \mapsto \_) * ((x \mapsto 3) - P) \\ *x := 3 \\ P \end{cases}$$

· We will see a more general rule later.

# 3 Commands and Rules

# **Rule of Constancy**

In logic systems, the following notation denotes "Q can be established by establishing P":

$$\frac{P}{Q}$$

 In Hoare logic, the following "rule of constancy" holds:

$$\frac{\{P\}\,S\,\{Q\}}{\{P\wedge R\}\,S\,\{Q\wedge R\}}$$

- It allows us to reason about programs in a more modular way.
- However, rule of constancy does not hold for programs allowing dynamic memory management.
   The following does not hold, for example.

$$\frac{\{x \mapsto \_\} *x := 4 \{x \mapsto 4\}}{\{x \mapsto \_ \land y \mapsto 3\} *x := 4 \{x \mapsto 4 \land y \mapsto 3\}}$$

(What if x and y evaluate to the same address?)

#### Frame Rule

 With the introduction of separating conjunction, we do have:

$$\frac{\{P\}\,S\,\{Q\}}{\{P*R\}\,S\,\{Q*R\}}$$

- The rule above is called the "frame rule". With it we can again reason about programs modularly.
- Wanting to have such rule is the very reason why separation logic was developed.

#### Commands

- Now we discuss rules associated with each pointer manipulation command.
- Each command is associated with three types of rule: local, global (forward), and backward rules.

#### Mutation

- Local:  $\{e \mapsto \_\} *e := e' \{e \mapsto e'\}.$
- Global:  $\{(e \mapsto \_) * R\} *e := e' \{(e \mapsto e') * R\}.$
- Backwards:  $\{(e \mapsto \_)*((e \mapsto e') P)\} *e := e' \{P\}.$
- The global rule is often the result of applying frame rule to the local rule.

#### **Deallocation**

- Local:  $\{e \mapsto \bot\}$  free  $e \{emp\}$ .
- Global:  $\{(e \mapsto \_) * R\}$  free  $e \{R\}$ .
- For this case, the global rule is also a backwards rule.

#### Allocation, Non-Overwriting

A simpler, *non-overwriting* case, where x does not occur free in e.

- Local:  $\{emp\} x := cons \ e \{x \mapsto e\},\$
- Global:  $\{R\} x := \mathbf{cons} \ e \{(x \mapsto e) * R\}.$
- Backwards rule and the general case is much more complex — we will discuss them later.
- We have not yet discussed the rule for looking up  $(x := {}^*e)$  which turns out to be surprisingly complex. Discussion postponed.

# Example

The following code fragment tries to glue together adjacent cells, if possible.

$$\begin{split} & \{(x \mapsto \_) * (y \mapsto \_)\} \\ & \textbf{if} \ y = x + 1 \ \rightarrow skip \\ & \mid x = y + 1 \ \rightarrow x := y \\ & \mid \mid |x - y| > 1 \rightarrow free \ x; free \ y \\ & \qquad \qquad x := \textbf{cons} \ (1, 2) \\ & \textbf{fi} \\ & \{x \mapsto \_, \_\} \end{split}$$

# **Allocation, General Case**

· Local:

$$\{x = X \land \mathbf{emp}\}\ x := \mathbf{cons}\ e\ \{x \mapsto e[x \setminus X]\}\ ,$$

where X is distinct from x and does not occur free in e.

· Global:

$$\{R\} x := \mathbf{cons} \ e \{\langle \exists x_0 :: x \mapsto e[x \setminus x_0] \rangle * R[x \setminus x_0] \}$$
,

where  $x_0$  is distinct from x and does not occur free in e and R.

· Backwards:

$$\{\langle \forall x_1 :: (x_1 \mapsto e) \twoheadrightarrow P[x \backslash x_1] \rangle\} x := \mathbf{cons} \ e \{P\}$$
,

where  $x_1$  is distinct from x and does not occur free in e and R.

## Lookup, Non-Overwriting

Provided that x does not occur free in e,

- Local:  $\{e \mapsto v\} x := {}^*e \{x = v \land e \mapsto x\}.$
- · Global:

$$\{\langle \exists v :: (e \mapsto v) * R[x \setminus v] \rangle\} x := {}^*e \{(e \mapsto x) * R\},$$

where v does not occur free in e and R.

# Lookup, General

· Local:

$$\{x=x_0\wedge e\mapsto v\}\,x:={}^*e\,\{x=v\wedge e[x\backslash x_0]\mapsto x\}\ ,$$
 where  $x,x_0,v$  distinct.

· Global:

$$\{ \langle \exists v :: (e \mapsto v) * R[x_0 \backslash x] \rangle \}$$

$$x := *e$$

$$\{ \langle \exists x_0 :: (e[x \backslash x_0] \mapsto x) * R[v \backslash x] \rangle \} ,$$

where  $x, x_0, v$  distinct,  $x_0$  and v not free in e, x not free in R.

· Backwards:

$$\left\{ \left\langle \exists v :: (e \mapsto v) * ((e \mapsto v) \twoheadrightarrow P[x \backslash v]) \right\rangle \right\}$$
 
$$x := {}^*e$$
 
$$\left\{ P \right\}$$

• Backwards, in a shorter form:

$$\left\{ \langle \exists v :: (e \hookrightarrow v) \land P[x \backslash v] \rangle \right\}$$

$$x := *e$$

$$\left\{ P \right\}$$

# References

- [O'H12] P. W. O'Hearn. A primer on separation Logic (and automatic program verification and analysis). In T. Nipkow, O. Grumberg, and B. Hauptmann, editors, *Software Safety and Security: Tools for Analysis and Verification*, volume 33 of *NATO Science for Peace and Security Series*, pages 286–318, 2012.
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