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 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.

DYNAMIC MEMORY MANAGEMENT

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 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
	$s: x = 3 \land y = 4; h: emp$
x := 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}{l} 34 \mapsto 1,92 \\ 60 \mapsto 3, \mbox{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.

```
{ i represents XS }

j := nil

do i \neq nil \rightarrow k := *(i + 1)

*(i + 1) := j

j, i := i, k

od

{ j represents reverse XS }
```

- That is, the program reverts a linked list without using additional space.
- · Can we prove that it is correct?

IN-PLACE LIST REVERSAL

 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 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 ∧
    j represents ys ∧ ...
    i and j share only nil ∧
    k and (i union j) share only nil.
```

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

SEPARATION LOGIC BASICS

SEPARATION LOGIC

- 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.

- 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.
- $e \mapsto e_0, e_1, ... e_n \equiv (e \mapsto e_0) * (e + 1 \mapsto e_1) * ... (e + n \mapsto e_n).$
- $e \mapsto \bot \equiv \langle \exists v :: e \mapsto v \rangle$.
- $e \hookrightarrow e' \equiv (e \mapsto e') * True$.
- 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.
- 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:

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

• That is, $P ext{-*} Q$ 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

• $(x \mapsto 3, 4) - P$ 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

$$\{(X \mapsto 1) * ((X \mapsto 3) \twoheadrightarrow P)\}$$

* $X := 3$
{ P }

· To be slightly more general,

$$\{(X \mapsto _) * ((X \mapsto 3) - P)\}$$

* $X := 3$
{ P }

· We will see a more general rule later.



RULE OF CONSTANCY

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

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

$$\frac{\{P\} S \{Q\}}{\{P \land R\} S \{Q \land R\}}$$

 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.

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

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

FRAME RULE

 With the introduction of separating conjunction, we do have:

- 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') \multimap 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.

```
\{(x \mapsto \_) * (y \mapsto \_)\}
if y = x + 1 \rightarrow skip
|x = y + 1 \rightarrow x := y
||x - y| > 1 \rightarrow free x; free y
x := cons (1, 2)
fi
\{x \mapsto \_, \_\}
```

ALLOCATION, GENERAL CASE

Local:

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

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

· Global:

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

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

· Backwards:

$$\{\langle \forall x_1 :: (x_1 \mapsto e) \rightarrow P[x \setminus x_1] \rangle\} x := \operatorname{cons} e\{P\}$$
,

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:

$$X := {}^*e$$

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

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

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

Backwards:

$$\{ \langle \exists v :: (e \mapsto v) * ((e \mapsto v) - * P[x \setminus v]) \rangle \}$$

$$x := *e$$

$$\{P\}$$

· Backwards, in a shorter form:

 $\{ (\exists v \cdots (\rho \hookrightarrow v) \land P[x \backslash v]) \}$