Separation logic style reasoning in a refinement based language*

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Abstract

Separation logic is an extension of classical logic to reason about programs that use pointers and dynamic memory management. It is known that separation logic can be expressed in classical logic, so its power lies in its reasoning style.

Refinement based programming starts with the formal description of the requirements concerning the program. This specification is then refined in several steps towards an implementation, which is correct by construction.

In this paper we show how to build proofs in a refinement based language using the style of separation logic. We transform special elements of separation logic back into classical logic in order to be able to handle them in the selected system. We also discuss our implementation of a well-known proof of separation logic.

1. Motivation

Formal methods in software development become more and more important, because the hidden errors in programs costs a lot: testing and bugfixing is a significant part of software projects’ life cycle. It is quite promising that by developing verified programs most of these programming errors can be eliminated, but systems implementing formal methods are to be improved a lot to become widely used in industrial software development.

Both separation logic [14] and refinement based software development [12, 11] are techniques that can help. Separation logic is an elegant approach to reason about data structures dynamically created and modified. It is enough to consider the most popular object oriented languages that use objects created in run time, to understand the relevancy of this research area. Refinement based software development has certain advantages among formal methods: it can be highly integrated

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into the development process and it helps to detect (and prevent) design errors in
an early stage of the development process [10].

In this paper we inspect how to use a refinement based language to implement
proofs in the style of separation logic. In Section 2 we give a short presentation
of separation logic from our point of view. Section 3 presents the selected proof
language and system, while in Section 4 we integrate separation logic into this
system. Some conclusions of a realistic example is presented in Section 5.

2. Separation logic

In classical weakest precondition calculus and Hoare logic [8] we exploit the hid-
den property of the underlying models that there is a one-to-one mapping between
variable names and memory locations where the values are stored. For example
to prove that from the precondition $y = z$ the instruction $x := 0$ results in the
postcondition $x = 0 \land y = z$, we can compute the weakest precondition

$$wp(x := 0, x = 0 \land y = z) = (x = 0 \land y = z)[x/0] = (0 = 0 \land y = z) = (y = z),$$

or, if we want to use forward reasoning, we can use the axiom

$$\{\text{True}\}x := 0\{x = 0\}$$

and the frame axiom

$$\frac{\{Q\}x := 0\{R\}}{\{P \land Q\}x := 0\{P \land R\}}, \text{ if } P \text{ does not contain } x.$$  

Each of these methods relies on the fact that the variable $x$ can be syntactically
distinguished from other variables, like $y$ and $z$. Unfortunately these approaches
fail if we use pointers in the program. Although the axiom

$$\{p \text{ points to a valid location}\}[p] := 0\{[p] = 0\}$$

remains true (if we can express somehow what a valid location is), both

$$\frac{\{Q\}[p] := 0\{R\}}{\{P \land Q\}[p] := 0\{P \land R\}}, \text{ if } P \text{ does not contain } [p]$$

and

$$wp([p] := 0, [p] = 0 \land [q] = z) = ([q] = z)$$

fail, because it is possible that the pointers $p$ and $q$ are pointing to the same
location. Somehow we have to express that the pointers are referencing different
parts of the heap memory, and separation logic shows an elegant way to do that.

Separation logic introduces the following predicates and connectives to describe
the current state of the heap:

- $\text{emp}$ means that the heap is empty,
• \( p \rightarrow v \) means that the heap contains the only value \( v \) pointed by the pointer \( p \),

• \( P \ast Q \) (separating conjunction) means that the heap can be split into two disjoint sub-heaps \( h_1 \) and \( h_2 \) such that \( P \) describes \( h_1 \) and \( Q \) describes \( h_2 \),

• \( P \rightarrowast Q \) (separating implication) means that if we extend the current heap with a disjoint part which satisfies \( P \), then the extended heap satisfies \( Q \).

Using these extensions of logic we can state that

\[
\{ \exists v. p \rightarrow v \}[p] := 0\{ p \rightarrow 0 \},
\]

and, for example, by \( (\exists v. p \rightarrow v) \ast (q \rightarrow z) \) we can express that \( p \) and \( q \) are pointing to different locations.

The frame rule of separation logic is the following:

\[
\frac{\{Q\} s \{R\}}{\{P \ast Q\} s \{P \ast R\}}
\]

It expresses that if a program operates in a part of the heap, it preserves the state of other heap parts. Using these rules, we can solve our previous problem and prove the following:

\[
\{ (\exists v. p \rightarrow v) \ast q \rightarrow z \}[p] := 0\{ p \rightarrow 0 \ast q \rightarrow z \}.
\]

3. The refinement based language LaCert

In this paper we mention only the language features required to understand Section 4, which explains the embedding of separation logic into LaCert. For more details the reader is referred to [6] and [1].

With LaCert one can produce verified program code. Unlike testing or extended static checking [5] a program accepted by LaCert’s compiler satisfies all the requirements of its specification. (Of course, just like in case of all other formal methods, the axioms describing mathematical functions and the temporal axioms of the target language instructions must be sound.)

LaCert aims to help in the development of imperative programs. Although functional programming is a promising field for formal methods, there are specifically imperative problems (like I/O management) that require special reasoning techniques [9]. The popularity of imperative languages is another argument for this design decision.

Unlike verification systems, where one writes program code first and then uses automatic tools or a semi-automatic theorem prover [3, 13, 15] to prove (or disprove) certain properties of the code, in LaCert one starts the development by the specification and reaches the implementation via its refinenets. This strategy has advantages, like correctness by construction and early recovery of errors. It is
also used for example in the *B-method* [2], which is one of the few formal methods also applied in industry.

While in most refinement based systems one writes program code in the final refinement steps, in *LaCert* this is done automatically by a separate code generator module. Another point is the advanced *metaprogramming features* of this language. Often used proof parts can be parameterised and encapsulated in *templates*. These templates can later be called to use the proof fragment inside. Different kinds of templates exist to express axioms, temporal axioms, tactics and to help induction.

Specifications and their refinements consist of temporal properties, namely *progress* - and *safety properties*. These are built up by first order predicate logic formulas, whose variables are program variables and parameters. Safety properties are enclosed in $[ \ ]$ brackets, while the pre- and postconditions of a progress property is connected by the $\gg$ operator.

\[
[y = z]; \\
ip = K \gg ip = L & x = 0;
\]

These properties state that whenever the program execution reaches the label $K$, it has to reach $L$ and then the variable $x$ must be zero. The safety property ensures that during this progress the validity of $y = z$ is preserved.

Note the explicit usage of the *ip* (instruction pointer) variable and labels in the specification language. This makes our progress properties more expressive compared to classical *Hoare logic*. (It is possible for example to specify non-terminating programs in this way.)

A progress property can be refined by two basic constructs: *sequence* and *case distinction*. The first one introduces intermediate steps, while the second one breaks a disjunction in the precondition into cases. The refining statements are to be refined further unless they are temporal axioms of instructions of the target language.

These axioms are defined in special templates. The calls of these templates (and the arguments of the calls) are collected by the compiler. The code generator (which is apart from the compiler) transforms these calls into the syntax of the target programming language. For example, in case of *C++* as the target language, the above specification would result in the following code fragment.

\[
K: \quad x = 0; \\
L:
\]

### 4. Integration of separation logic into *LaCert*

In this section we present how to write specifications and proofs in the style of separation logic. As a result we can specify and implement verified programs that involve dynamic memory management.

As we wanted to integrate separation logic without modifying the compiler, we had to transform its extensions to the logic supported by *LaCert*. 
4.1. Back to classical logic

The problem of representing separation logic in classical logic is a field currently under research. Approaches like [4] represent restricted versions of separation logic with the goal of obtaining formulas that can be managed efficiently by well-known automatic reasoning methods of classical logic. Our goal is different: we need easily readable and compact representation some features of separation logic. As we want to construct forward reasoning style proofs, we drop separating implication (which is mainly used to express the weakest precondition of memory allocation). As a second restriction, we will not merge the special connectives with classical logic ones. That is, we deal with formulas built of \( \text{emp}, \mapsto \) and \( * \) only. We will refer to these restricted formulas as conjunctive heap formulas.

In order to represent these formulas, we use the semantics of separation logic [16]: we let the heap appearing in the specification explicitly as a variable. To define the type \( \text{Heap} \) and to declare the variable, we write the following in the syntax of \( \text{LaCert} \):

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{type( Heap );} \\
\text{variable( heap, Heap );}
\end{align*}
\]

We implement the empty heap as a function without arguments returning a heap:

\[
\text{function( "empty", Heap );}
\]

The singleton heap consisting of a value of type \( \#T \) and pointed by a pointer is represented by the \( \text{at} : \text{Pointer} \times \#T \rightarrow \text{Heap} \) function. In the following generic declaration \( \#T \) is a type parameter.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{function( "at", Heap, Pointer, \#T );}
\end{align*}
\]

The key is the representation of the separating conjunction. Its semantics is usually given using a binary operator that combines two heaps and which is defined only if the combined heaps are disjoint. We overload the \( + \) operator of \( \text{LaCert} \) with the following declaration:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{function( "+", Heap, Heap, Heap );}
\end{align*}
\]

Using the following representation we map each conjunctive heap formula to a \( \text{LaCert} \) expression of type \( \text{Heap} \):

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Rep}(\text{emp}) &= \text{empty}() \\
\text{Rep}(p \mapsto v) &= at(p, v) \\
\text{Rep}(P \ast Q) &= \text{Rep}(P) + \text{Rep}(Q)
\end{align*}
\]

Using this representation, the \( \text{LaCert} \) formula modelling the conjunctive heap formula \( P \) is

\[
\text{heap} = \text{Rep}(P).
\]

For example, the formula \( (\exists v. p \mapsto v) \ast (q \mapsto z) \) from section 2 is transformed first to \( \exists v.((p \mapsto v) \ast (q \mapsto z)) \) using a rule of separation logic and then written in \( \text{LaCert} \) as follows:
exists(Integer qv, heap = at(p,qv) + at(q,z))

4.2. Specification of instructions related to the heap

Using the techniques presented in the previous sections we can give the specifications of the instructions related to the heap. Instructions are needed to allocate memory, to set and to get the value of a variable on the heap, and to dispose the variable.

Each instruction specification consists of a safety property and a progress property both of which are enclosed in a template. To save space, we will not present the entire templates, nor the safety properties. These can be found in the technical report [7].

4.2.1. Allocation

Allocation of a new variable on the heap extends the current heap with a disjoint part, and the address of the newly allocated value is stored in a pointer. The parameters of the template containing the specification of this instruction are the following: \(\#hVal\) is an expression describing the old value of the heap, \(\#p\) is the pointer, \(\#before\) and \(\#after\) are the labels of this and the next instruction respectively. The progress property of this instruction:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{ip} &= \#before & \text{heap} &= \#hVal \\
& > > \text{ip} = \#after \\
& & \& \text{exists( Integer qv, heap = at(#p,qv) + #hVal )};
\end{align*}
\]

The progress property states that whenever the execution of the program is at the label of the instruction (\(\#before\)) and the heap has the value \(\#hVal\), the program steps to the following label (\(\#after\)) and the heap is extended by a disjoint part consisting of some value (\(qv\)) and pointed by pointer \(#p\).

This instruction modifies only the instruction pointer (\(ip\)), the pointer that we assign the new address to (\(#p\)), and the heap. Any expression independent of these variables is a safety property of the instruction.

4.2.2. Writing the value of a variable on the heap

Modifying the value of a variable pointed by a pointer also modifies the heap, but the pointer remains unchanged. The progress property of this instruction can be written as follows.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{ip} &= \#before \\
& \& \text{exists( Integer qv, heap = at(#p,qv) + #hVal )} \\
& > > \text{ip} = \#after & \text{heap} &= \text{at(#p,#val) + #hVal};
\end{align*}
\]

The structure of the property is similar to the one’s explained in the previous section, so instead of going into the details, let us compare it to the similar axiom
of separation logic:
\[
\{ \exists v. (p \mapsto v) \} \{ p \} := \text{val} \{ p \mapsto \text{val} \}
\]
This axiom is just the so called \textit{footprint} of the instruction, i.e. it only involves the relevant part of the heap. If our heap is larger, we have to use the \textit{frame rule of separation logic} that we mentioned in Section 2. This frame rule appears explicitly in the \textit{LaCert} specification: the unmodified part of the heap is denoted by the \#hVal template parameter.

4.2.3. Reading the value of a variable on the heap

Among our four instructions discussed here, this is the only one which does not modify the heap. That is why it does not appear in the postcondition. The compiler can use the safety property axiom to infer that an assertion describing the state of the heap is preserved by this instruction.

\[
ip = \#\text{before} & \text{heap} = \text{at}(p,\text{#val}) + \#\text{hVal} \\
\text{>> ip = \#after & #var = #val};
\]

4.2.4. Disposing a variable on the heap

Deallocation is the inverse instruction of allocation and this fact is well reflected by the specification: pre- and postconditions are swapped. There is one notable difference: deallocation does not affect the value of the pointer.

\[
ip = \#\text{before} \\
& \exists \text{Integer } @v, \text{heap} = \text{at}(p,@v) + \#\text{hVal} \\
\text{>> ip = \#after & heap = \#hVal};
\]

5. Listreversal example

In-place reversal of a linked list is a classical example of separation logic. At first, we have to express that a pointer points to the beginning of a linked list. In the separation logic solution this is expressed using an inductively defined predicate in terms of the special predicates and connectives. In the spirit of the representation described in Section 4.1, we use the following heap-valued function instead.

\[
\text{list( } p, s \text{ )}
\]
This describes a heap-part containing a linked list with the sequence \( s \) and pointed by the pointer \( p \). Using this function and the \textit{reverse} function defined on sequences, the specification of the listreversal is the following:

\[
ip = \text{ListRevStart} & \text{heap} = \text{list( } p, s \text{ )} \\
\text{>> ip = ListRevStop & heap = list( q, reverse(s) )}
\]
The current version of the refinements are rather long due to the currently limited reasoning capabilities of LaCert. The resulting C++ program consists of 10 instructions, while the depth of the proof tree of the refinements in LaCert is 5 and it involves 74 basic proof steps. Most of these steps are quite simple, therefore we expect that after further development of the system this number will decrease to 16–20, which is more acceptable.

6. Summary

In this paper we pointed out that the reasoning style of separation logic can also be used in systems based on classical logic. For this embedding, we have chosen a refinement based system because it helps also during the development process not only in posterior error-recovery.

We transformed the needed extensions of separation logic back to classical logic based on its semantics. The progress properties of the basic heap management instructions were presented. It was also observed that the so-called frame rule of separation logic is implicitly present in these progress properties.

As the result of this work it is now possible to specify and implement verified programs that use dynamic memory management. Investigating a not completely trivial example we concluded that the automatic reasoning capabilities of the system are to be developed further to be able to decrease the size of the user-written proof.

References


