

CS 565

Programming Languages (graduate) Spring 2026

Week 14

Course Review

Week 1

Functional Programming

Functional Programming

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- We'll start our investigation by considering a small functional language
- These languages tend to have a small core set of features
 - Datatypes, functions, and their application
 - Written in Gallina, the specification and programming language for Coq

```
Definition double (n : nat) : nat := n + n.
```

Functions

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- Functional languages tend to have a small core
- Standard libraries tend to have the usual suspects
- Functions are **applied** to arguments
- Functions are **pure**: consume values, produce values

```
Definition double (n : nat) : nat := n + n.
```

```
Eval compute in (double 1). (* = 2 *)
```

Compound ADTs

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- Can build new ADTs from existing ones:
 - A color is either black, white, or a primary color
 - Need to apply primary to something of type rgb
- ADTs are **algebraic** because they are built from a small set of operators (sums of product).

Inductive rgb : Type := | red | green | blue.

Inductive color := | black | white
| primary (p : rgb).

Eval compute in (primary red). (* = primary red *)

Lambda Calculus

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- ★ Lambda calculus was developed by Alonzo Church in the 30s
 - A core language in which *everything* is a function

- ★ Syntax of Lambda terms:

$t ::= x$

| $\lambda x. t$

| $t t$

Variable

Lambda
abstraction

Application



Week 2

Inductive Datatypes, Induction

Nat Induction

Mathematical Induction for Natural Numbers:

For any predicate P on natural numbers, **if:**

1. $P(0)$
2. $P(n)$ implies $P(n+1)$

Then:

for all n , $P(n)$ holds.

Tree Induction

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Works for trees too:

For any number n , and tree t
element $(\text{insert } t \ n) \ n = \text{true}$.

Proof: By induction on t .

Induction Hypothesis

Next, suppose $t = \text{node } n' \ \text{lt} \ \text{rt}$, where

element $(\text{insert } \text{lt} \ n) \ n = \text{true}$ and element $(\text{insert } \text{rt} \ n) \ n = \text{true}$.

We must show: element $(\text{insert } (\text{node } n' \ \text{lt} \ \text{rt}) \ n) \ n = \text{true}$.

By definition, this is equivalent to:

element **if** $(\text{cmp } n \ n')$ **then** node n' $(\text{insert } \text{cmp} \ \text{lt} \ n)$ rt
else node y lt $(\text{insert } \text{cmp} \ \text{rt} \ n)$

★ Consider the case when $\text{cmp } n \ n' = \text{true}$.

We must show: element $(\text{node } n' \ (\text{insert } \text{cmp} \ \text{lt} \ n) \ \text{rt}) \ n = \text{true}$.

This follows from the IH.

★ Consider the case when $\text{cmp } n \ n' = \text{false}$.

We must show: element $(\text{node } n' \ \text{lt} \ (\text{insert } \text{cmp} \ \text{rt} \ n)) \ n = \text{true}$.

This follows from the IH.

Least Fixpoints (μ)

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- ▶ Smallest solution to $X = F(X)$
- ▶ Constructed by finite iteration from the bottom
- ▶ Corresponds to inductive data types
- ▶ Examples: Nat, lists, finite trees
- ▶ Induction reasons about μ -fixpoints

```
Nat =  $\mu X.$  { 0 }  $\cup$  { S x | x  $\in$  X }
```

```
Inductive nat : Type :=  
| 0 : nat  
| S : nat -> nat.
```

Least Fixpoints

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```
List X =  $\mu Y.$  { nil }  $\cup$  { cons x y | x  $\in$  X, y  $\in$  Y }
```

```
Inductive list (A : Type) : Type :=  
| Nil : list A  
| Cons : A -> list A -> list A.
```

```
Tree =  $\mu X.$  { leaf }  $\cup$  { node n l r | l, r  $\in$  X }
```

```
Inductive tree : Type :=  
| Leaf : tree  
| Node : nat -> tree -> tree -> tree.
```

Week 3

Polymorphism

Total Maps

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Standard operations: higher-order functions:

Definition `map` : Type := string -> nat.

Definition `lookup` (m : map) (x : string) : nat := m x.

Definition `empty` : map := fun x => 0.

Definition `update` (m : map) (x : string) (v : nat) : map :=
fun y => if (eqb_string x y) then v else m y.

Definition `example` : map := update (update empty "x" 1) "y" 2.

What is the behavior of m?

Definition `m` : map :=

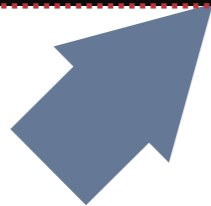
update (update (fun y => 42) "x" 7) "z" 10.

Generic Lists

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Coq supports **type abstraction** in data type declarations via **type parameters**:

```
Inductive list (X : Type) : Type :=  
  | nil  
  | cons (x : X) (l : list X).
```



list is a function from types to types:

```
Check list. (* : Type -> Type *)
```

Week 4

Logic, Inductive Propositions

Propositions

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A **proposition** is a factual claim.

Have seen a couple of propositions (in Coq) so far:

equalities: $0 + n = n$

implications: $P \rightarrow Q$

universally quantified propositions: for all x , P

A **proof** is some evidence for the truth of a proposition

A **proof system** is a formalization of particular kinds of evidence.

Propositions

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Can have polymorphic predicates:

Definition `injective {A B} (f : A -> B) : Prop :=`

`forall x y : A, f x = f y -> x = y.`

Theorem `plus1_inj : injective (plus 1).`

Proof.

`... (* unfold injective *)`

Equality is a polymorphic binary predicate:

Check `@eq. (* : ∀ A : Type, A → A → Prop *)`

Judgement

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A **judgement** is a claim of a proof system

The judgement $\Gamma \vdash A$ is read as:
“assuming the propositions in Γ are true, A is true”.

We’ll see other judgements over the course of the semester:

Inference Rules

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Proof systems construct evidence of judgements via inference rules:

Axioms

$$\overline{\Gamma \vdash \top}$$

$$\frac{A \in \Gamma}{\Gamma \vdash A}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma, A \vdash B}{\Gamma \vdash A \rightarrow B} \text{I} \rightarrow$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash A \rightarrow B \quad \Gamma \vdash A}{\Gamma \vdash B} \text{E} \rightarrow$$

Inference Rules

Inductively Defined Propositions

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- Goal:
N-ary relation on natural numbers
Form of evidence of membership in that relation
- Step 0: Name the ~~relation~~ type:
- Step 1: Give the ~~relation~~ type a ~~signature~~ type:
- Step 2: Enumerate ~~evidence~~ constructors:

```
Inductive even : nat -> Prop :=  
  | ev_0 : even 0  
  | even_2 : forall n : nat, even n -> even (S (S n)).
```

Week 5

Proof Objects

Observation

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Two ways of thinking about \rightarrow :

- As a type constructor:
 $f: A \rightarrow B$ denotes the type of a function that transforms elements of A into elements of B
- As a logical implication:
 $A \rightarrow B$ establishes the validity of proposition B given the validity of proposition A

How are these notions related?

Observation

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They are exactly the same!

Logical implication models the type of functions that transforms evidence (aka proofs):

$A \rightarrow B$ represents the type of all functions that given evidence for the validity of A , returns a proof (aka evidence) for the validity of B

AS A RELATION

Key Idea: Define evaluation as a Inductive Relation

$\text{aevalR}: \text{total_map} \rightarrow A \rightarrow \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \text{Proposition}$

- ★ Ternary relation on states, expressions and values
- ★ Read ' $\sigma, a \Downarrow n$ ' as 'a evaluates to n in state σ '
- ★ Relation precisely spells out what values program can evaluate to
- ★ Put another way, rules define an 'abstract machine' for executing expression

Propositions

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```
Inductive ev : nat → Prop :=  
| ev_0 : ev 0  
| ev_SS (n : nat) (H : ev n) : ev (S (S n))
```

Read “:” to mean “proof of”

The type of `ev_SS` is:

$$\forall n. \text{ ev } n \rightarrow \text{ ev } (S (S n))$$

What is an element that inhabits `ev 4`?

It is the proof object (proof tree):

```
ev_SS 2 (ev_SS 0 ev_0)
```

This object is built via the following proof script:

```
apply ev_SS.  
apply ev_SS.  
apply ev_0.
```

Observation

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- Quantification allows us to refer to the value of an argument in the type of another:

$$\forall n, \text{ ev } n \rightarrow \text{ ev } (4 + n)$$

- Implication is essentially a degenerate form of quantification:

$$\begin{aligned} & \forall (x: \text{ nat}), \text{ nat} \\ & \forall (_: \text{ nat}), \text{ nat} \\ & \text{ nat} \rightarrow \text{ nat} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} & \forall (_ : P), Q \text{ is the same as} \\ & P \rightarrow Q \end{aligned}$$

Week 6

Big-Step Semantics and IMP

Semantics

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$\text{cevalR}: (\text{Id} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}) \rightarrow \text{C} \rightarrow (\text{Id} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}) \rightarrow \text{Proposition}$

- ★ Ternary relation on initial states, commands and final state
- ★ Read ' $\sigma, c \Downarrow \sigma'$ ' as 'when run in initial state σ , c produces (i.e. evaluates to) final state σ' '

Semantics

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Inference Rules for \Downarrow (commands)

EWHILET

$$\frac{\sigma_1, b \Downarrow \text{true} \quad \sigma_1, c \Downarrow \sigma_2 \quad \sigma_2, \text{while } b \text{ do } c \text{ end} \Downarrow \sigma_3}{\sigma_1, \text{while } b \text{ do } c \text{ end} \Downarrow \sigma_3}$$

EWHILEF

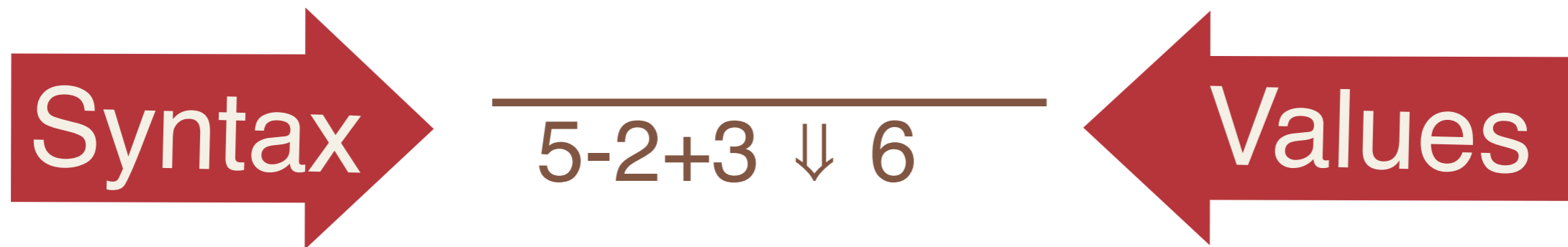
$$\frac{\sigma, b \Downarrow \text{false}}{\sigma, \text{while } b \text{ do } c \text{ end} \Downarrow \sigma}$$

Why is this a better formulation than the definition of `ceval`?

Big-Step Semantics

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- Binary relation on pairs of syntax and values
- Read ' \Downarrow ' as 'evaluates to'
- Specifies what values program can map to



- Good for whole program reasoning
 - Compiler Correctness; program equivalence;
- Bad for talking about intermediate states
 - Concurrent programs; errors

Week 7

Smallstep Operational Semantics

Step Size

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Big Step Semantics

$$\frac{\begin{array}{c} e_n \Downarrow n \quad e_m \Downarrow m \\ e_n +_E e_m \Downarrow n + m \\ \hline C n \Downarrow n \end{array}}{\quad}$$

Big-Step reduction relation is from syntax, to **values**.

Small Step Semantics

$$\frac{e_n \longrightarrow e_n'}{e_n +_E e_m \longrightarrow e_n' +_E e_m}$$
$$\frac{e_m \longrightarrow e_m'}{C n +_E e_m \longrightarrow C n +_E e_m'}$$
$$\frac{}{C n +_E C m \longrightarrow C (n + m)}$$

Small-Step reduction relation is from syntax, to **syntax**.

Small-Step Termination

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- How to tell when we're 'done' evaluating?
- Define a class of syntactic values:

value Cn

Now we can talk about making progress

Theorem [STRONG PROGRESS]:

For any term t , either t is a value or there exists a term t' such that $t \rightarrow t'$.

Normal Form

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A term e that isn't reducible is in **normal form**.

$$\neg \exists e'. e \rightarrow e'$$

How is this different from a **value**?

Syntactic versus **semantic**.

Do not need to coincide!

Semantics Recap

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- We've considered several flavors of Operational Semantics:
 - Abstract machine specifies *how* an expression is executed:
- $\sigma, c \Downarrow \sigma'$ reads as 'when run in initial state σ , c produces (i.e. evaluates to) final state σ' '
- $e_1 \rightarrow e_2$ reads as 'e₁ reduces to e₂ in a single step'
- $e_1 \rightarrow^* e_2$ reads as 'e₁ reduces to e₂ in zero or more steps'

Week 8

Type Systems and Simply-Typed Lambda Calculus

Static Semantics

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A recipe for defining a language:

1. Syntax:

- What are the valid expressions?

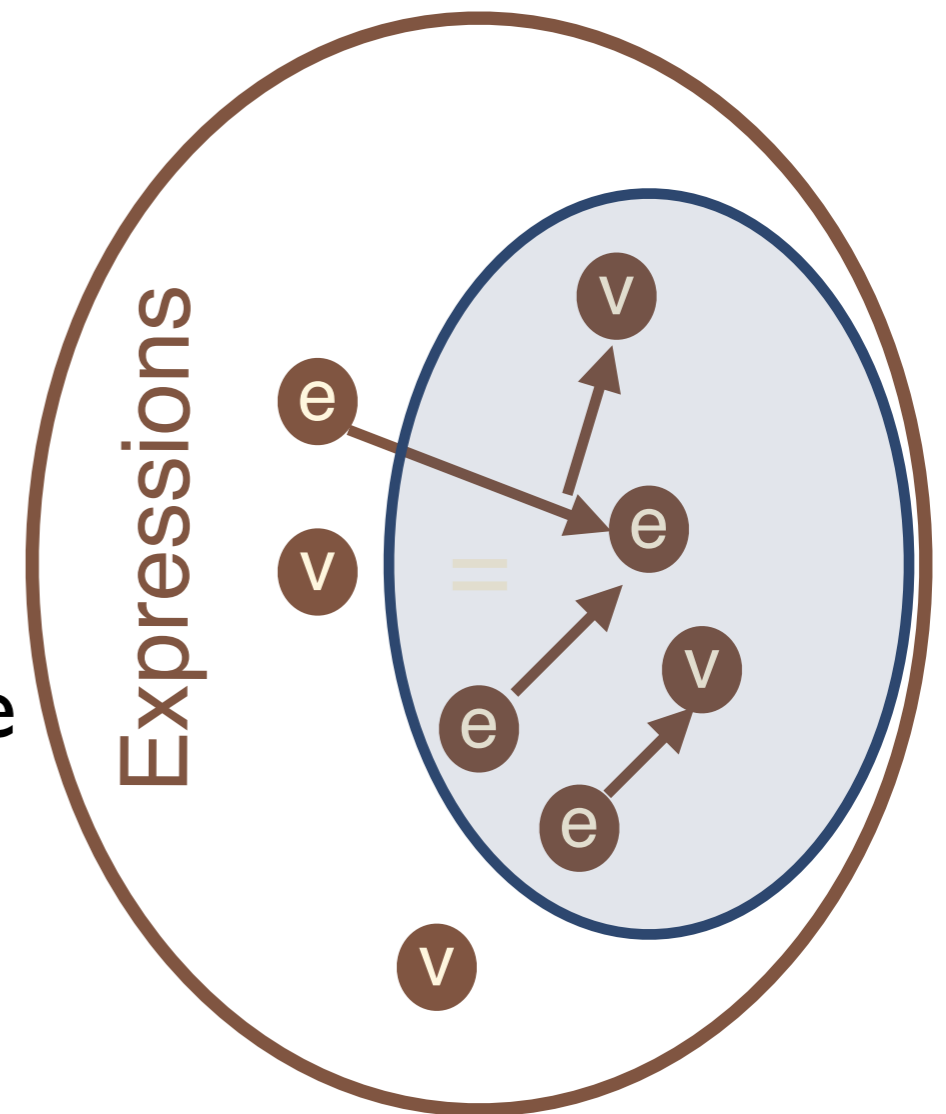
2. Semantics (Dynamic Semantics):

- How do I evaluate valid expressions?

3. Sanity Checks (Static Semantics):

- What expressions are “good”, i.e have meaningful evaluations?

Type systems identify a subset of good expressions



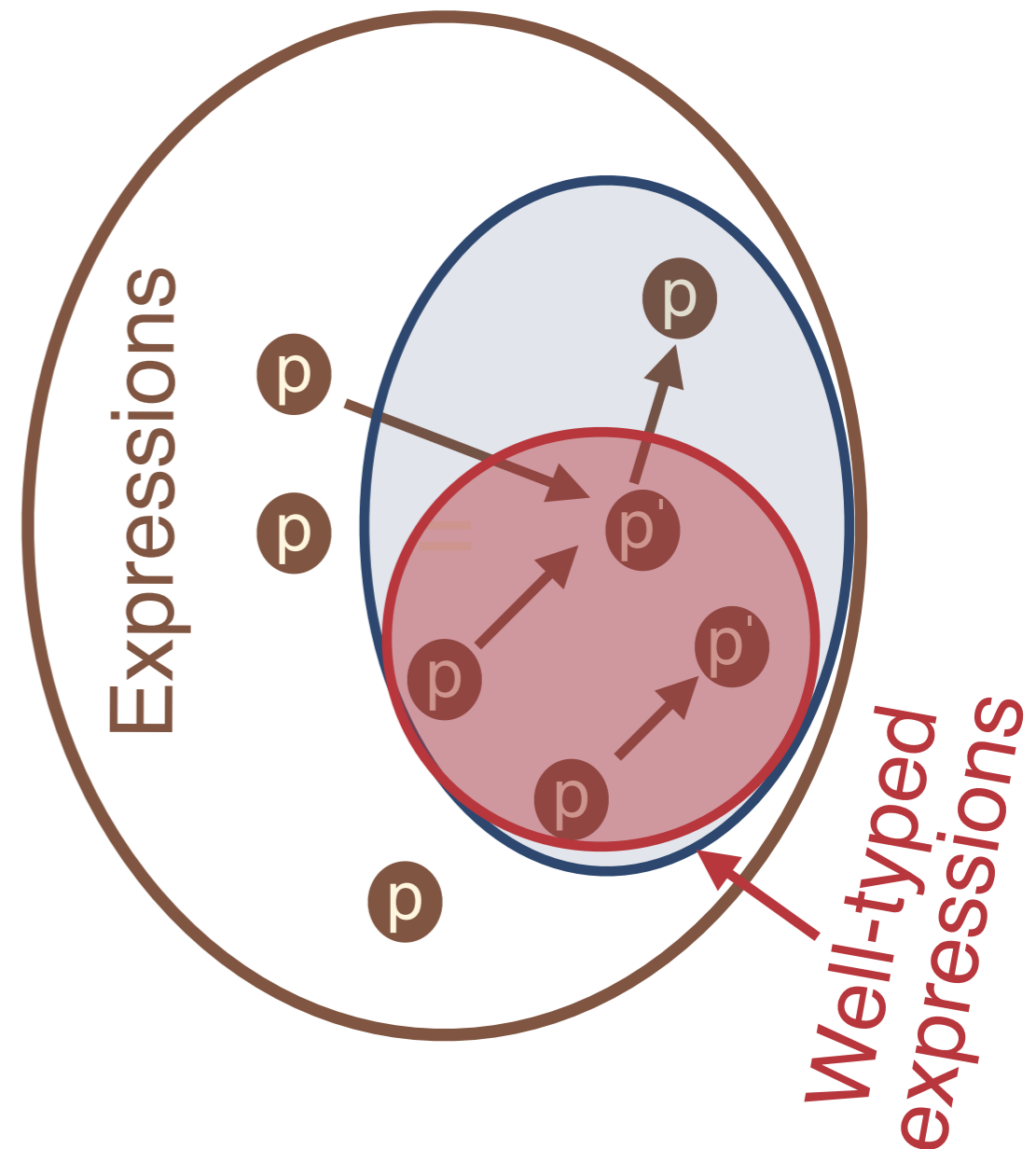
Type Safety

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- When is a type system correct?
 - ★ Need to show this classification is sound. i.e. no false positives:

$\vdash e : T \rightarrow \sim e \text{ is bad!}$

- If the a language's type system is sound, it is said to be type-safe.
- Soundness relates provable claims to semantic property

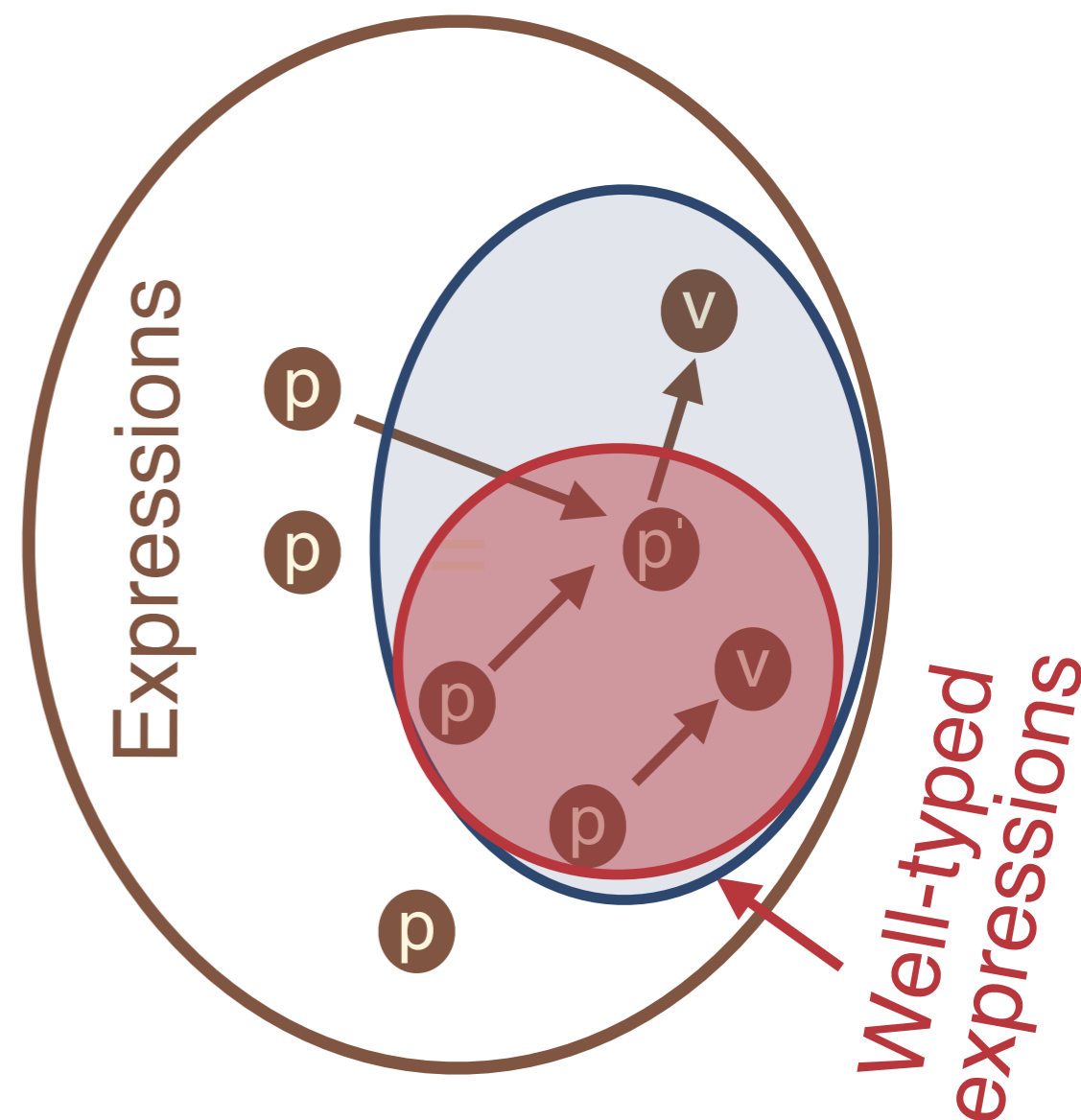
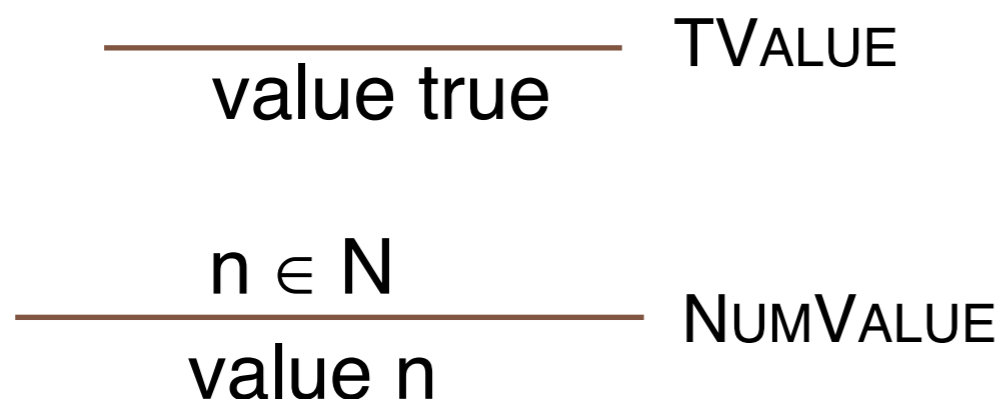


Progress

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Theorem [PROGRESS]: Suppose e is a well-typed expression ($\vdash e:T$). Then either e is a value or there exists some e' such that e evaluates to e' ($\sigma, e \rightarrow e'$).

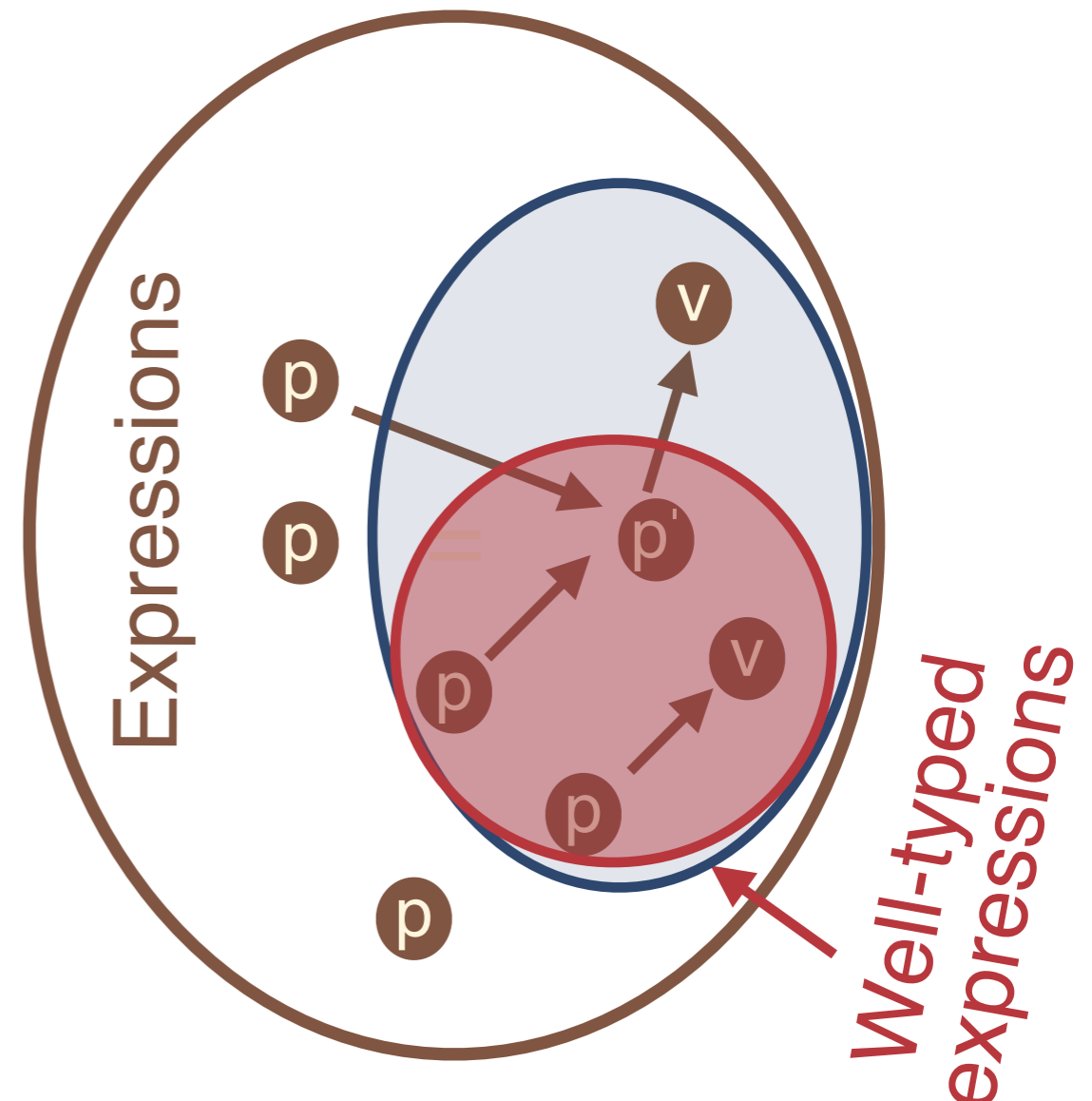
Values:



Preservation

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- ★ **Theorem [PRESERVATION]:** Suppose e is a well-typed term ($\vdash e : T$). Then, if e evaluates to e' , e' is also a well-typed term under the empty context, with the same type as e ($\vdash e' : T$).



Type Soundness

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Theorem [Type Soundness]: If an expression e has type T , and e reduces to e' in zero or more steps, then e' is not a stuck term.

Proof.

By induction on σ , $e \longrightarrow^* e' \dots$

Qed.

- ★ Corollary [Normalization]: If an expression e has type T , e reduces to a value in zero or more steps.

Typing STLC

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$$\Gamma \vdash t : T$$

Γ maps bound variables to their types

★ Here are the typing rules:

$$\frac{\Gamma[x \mapsto T_1] \vdash t : T_2}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda x:T_1.t : T_1 \rightarrow T_2} \text{ T}_{\text{ABS}}$$

$$\frac{}{\Gamma \vdash n : \text{nat}} \text{ T}_{\text{NUM}}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t : \text{nat}}{\Gamma \vdash t+1 : \text{nat}} \text{ T}_{\text{INC}}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 : T_1 \rightarrow T_2 \quad \Gamma \vdash t_2 : T_1}{\Gamma \vdash t_1 t_2 : T_2} \text{ T}_{\text{APP}}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma(x) = T}{\Gamma \vdash x : T} \text{ T}_{\text{VAR}}$$

Normalization

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- ★ **Theorem [NORMALIZATION]**: If an expression e has type T in the empty context, e reduces to a value in zero or more steps.

Why is STLC normalizing but not IMP?

STLC+Fix

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★ Updated Syntax:

$t ::= \dots \mid \text{fix } t$

★ Updated Semantics:

$$\frac{t_1 \longrightarrow t_1'}{\text{fix } t_1 \longrightarrow \text{fix } t_1'}$$
$$\frac{}{\text{fix } (\lambda x:T.t_1) \longrightarrow [x:=\text{fix } (\lambda x:T.t_1)]t_1}$$

Week 9

Subtyping

Subsumption

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Would like this to typecheck:

`Dist <x=2, y=2, R=0, G=140, B=255>`

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 : T_1 \quad T_1 <: T_2}{\Gamma \vdash t_1 : T_2} \text{TSUB}$$

How to define `T1 <: T2`?

Substitutability: If `T1 <: T2`, then any value of type `T1` must be usable in every way a `T2` is.

The difficulty is ensuring this is safe (i.e. doesn't break type safety)!

Variance

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Variance is a property on the arguments of type constructors like function types $(A \rightarrow B)$, tuples $(A \times B)$, and record types

$F(A)$ is **covariant** over A if $A <: A'$ implies that $F(A) <: F(A')$

$F(B)$ is **contravariant** over B if $B' <: B$ implies that $F(B) <: F(B')$

$F(T)$ is **invariant** over T otherwise

$$\frac{S_1 <: T_1 \quad S_2 <: T_2}{S_1 \times S_2 <: T_1 \times T_2} \quad \text{SB-TUPLE}$$

$$\frac{T_1 <: S_1 \quad S_2 <: T_2}{S_1 \rightarrow S_2 <: T_1 \rightarrow T_2} \quad \text{SB-ARROW}$$

Week 10

Axiomatic Semantics and Hoare Logic

Hoare Triple

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- Step 1B: Define a judgement for claims about programs involving assertions
- Partial Correctness Triple:

$$\{P\} c \{Q\}$$

If we start in a state satisfying P

And c terminates in a state,

then that final state satisfies Q

Validity

We can now precisely define what a partial Hoare Triple is valid:

$$\{P\} c \{Q\} \equiv \forall \sigma. \sigma \models P \rightarrow \exists \sigma'. \sigma, c \Downarrow \sigma'$$

$$\sigma' \models Q$$

If we start in a state satisfying P

$$\sigma \models P$$

VALIDITY

The rule admits the possibility that there is no such σ'

then that final state satisfies Q

And c terminates in a state.

Hoare While!

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I is a *loop invariant*:

- Holds before loop
- Holds after each loop iteration
- Holds when the loop exits

$$\vdash \{I \wedge b\} c \{I\}$$

$$\vdash \{I\} \text{ while } b \text{ do } c \text{ end } \{I \wedge \neg b\}$$

HLWHILE

Rule Review

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$$\frac{}{\vdash \{Q[X:=a]\} X:=a \{Q\}} \text{HLASSIGN} \qquad \frac{}{\vdash \{Q\} \text{ skip } \{Q\}} \text{HLSKIP}$$

$$\frac{\vdash \{P\} c_1 \{R\} \qquad \vdash \{R\} c_2 \{Q\}}{\vdash \{P\} c_1; c_2 \{Q\}} \text{HLSEQ}$$

$$\frac{\vdash \{P \wedge b\} c_1 \{Q\} \qquad \vdash \{P \wedge \neg b\} c_2 \{Q\}}{\vdash \{P\} \text{ if } b \text{ then } c_1 \text{ else } c_2 \{Q\}} \text{HLIF}$$

$$\frac{\vdash \{I \wedge b\} c \{I\}}{\vdash \{I\} \text{ while } b \text{ do } c \text{ end } \{I \wedge \neg b\}} \text{HLWHILE}$$

Loop Invariants

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Hoare Logic is a structural model-theoretic proof system

- Rules characterize a set of states consistent with the requirements imposed by the pre- and post-conditions
- Highly mechanical: intermediate states can almost always be automatically constructed
- One major exception:

$$\frac{\vdash \{I \wedge b\} c \{I\}}{\vdash \{I\} \mathbf{while\ } b \mathbf{ do\ } c \mathbf{ end\ } \{I \wedge \neg b\}} \text{HLWHILE}$$

The invariant must:

- be weak enough to be implied by the precondition
- hold across each iteration
- be strong enough to imply the postcondition

Loops

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```
{ { True } } ->
  { { min a b = min a b } }
X := a;
  { { min X b = min a b } }
Y := b;
  { { min X Y = min a b } }
Z := 0;
  { { Inv } }
while X <> 0 && Y <> 0 do
  { { Inv /\ (X <> 0) /\ Y <> 0) } } ->
  { { Z + 1 + min (X - 1) (Y - 1) = min a b } }
X := X - 1;
  { { Z + 1 + min X (Y - 1) = min a b } }
Y := Y - 1;
  { { Z + 1 + min X Y = min a b } }
Z := Z + 1;
  { { Inv } }
end
{ { ~(X <> 0 /\ Y <> 0) /\ Inv) } } ->
{ { Z = min a b } }
```

This style of proof construction is known as weakest precondition inference

Identify a precondition that satisfies the largest set of states that still enable verification of the postcondition

Can automate this inference once we know the loop invariant

Week 11

Hoare Logic Metatheory

Two Views of Hoare Logic

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Model-Theoretic (Semantic / \models)

Validity is defined directly from the operational semantics.

$\{P\} c \{Q\}$ is VALID (written $\models \{P\} c \{Q\}$) if:

for all σ , if $\sigma \models P$ and $\sigma, c \Downarrow \sigma'$ then $\sigma' \models Q$

Proof-Theoretic (Syntactic / \vdash)

A Hoare triple is DERIVABLE (written $\vdash \{P\} c \{Q\}$) if there exists a finite derivation tree built from the proof rules:

HLSKIP, HLASSIGN, HLSEQ, HLIF,
HLWHILE, HLCONSEQ



wp: Weakest Precondition

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wp(c, Q) is the weakest P such that $\models [P] c [Q]$ (total correctness)

If $\sigma \models wp(c, Q)$ then c terminates from σ and the final state satisfies Q

Command c	wp(c, Q) — for total correctness
skip	Q
X := a	Q [X ↦ a]
c ₁ ; c ₂	wp(c ₁ , wp(c ₂ , Q))
if b then c ₁ else c ₂	(b → wp(c ₁ , Q)) ∧ (¬b → wp(c ₂ , Q))
while b do c end	∃n. Φ(n) ← requires termination witness

Phi(n, sig) = 'terminates in n steps and establishes Q' -- next slide: wlp avoids this!

wlp: Weakest Liberal Precondition

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wp(c, Q) — Total correctness

c terminates AND Q holds

vs

wlp(c, Q) — Partial correctness

IF c terminates THEN Q holds

Command c	wp(c, Q)	wlp(c, Q)
skip	Q	Q
X := a	Q [X ↦ a]	Q [X ↦ a]
c ₁ ; c ₂	wp(c ₁ , wp(c ₂ , Q))	wlp(c ₁ , wlp(c ₂ , Q))
if b then c ₁ else c ₂	(b → wp(c ₁ , Q)) ∧ (¬b → wp(c ₂ , Q))	(b → wlp(c ₁ , Q)) ∧ (¬b → wlp(c ₂ , Q))
while b do c end	∃n. Φ(n)	$\forall I. (I \wedge b \rightarrow wlp(c, I)) \wedge (I \wedge \neg b \rightarrow Q) \wedge I$

The while case — wlp does NOT require a termination witness:

$$wlp(\text{while } b \text{ do } c \text{ end}, Q) = \forall I. (I \wedge b \rightarrow wlp(c, I)) \wedge (I \wedge \neg b \rightarrow Q) \wedge I$$

'Liberal' = we allow the loop to diverge; if it terminates, Q must hold. No existential n (budget) needed.

Partial vs Total: Summary

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	Partial Correctness	Total Correctness
Triple notation	$\{P\} c \{Q\}$	$[P] c [Q]$
Semantics	$\forall \sigma, \sigma'. P(\sigma) \wedge c \downarrow \sigma' \rightarrow Q(\sigma')$	$\forall \sigma. P(\sigma) \rightarrow \exists \sigma'. c \downarrow \sigma' \wedge Q(\sigma')$
New rule vs partial	—	While uses variant $V : \text{state} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$
Soundness proof key step	Induction on evaluation	Well-founded induction on $V(\sigma)$
Completeness key step	wp expressed in assertions	Same + V constructed from $\Phi(n)$
Termination guarantee	No	Yes
Relative to assertion lang?	Yes (Cook 1978)	Yes (same reason)

Week 12

Separation Logic

Motivation

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- Hoare Logic is defined in terms of assertions on states:
 - ▶ states are maps from variables to their values
 - ▶ most programming languages also support the notion of a heap:
 - variables map to addresses
 - the contents at a given address can be shared and aliased
 - ▶ Embedding notions of sharing and mutation into the logic is problematic
- Separation Logic enables local reasoning about memory
 - ▶ It is a *substructural* logic that controls how memory (heaps) are constructed and used
 - ▶ In classical logical systems (e.g., Hoare logic) can:
 - add (weaken) or contract (duplicate) assumptions. Here, think of assumptions as claims we can make about resources (aka states or memory)
 - Substructural logics restrict how assumptions can be introduced:
 - can't invent extra memory to satisfy predicates
 - can't duplicate memory

Separation Logic

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Rather than trying to explicitly reason about heap structure and aliasing within Hoare Logic, introduce new logical operators to reason about how heaps (aka resources) are used

- emp: empty heap
- $x \mapsto v$: heap has a cell at x with value v
- $P * Q$: separating conjunction (disjoint parts of the heap)
- $P - * Q$: separating implication (hypothetical heap extension)

Assertions now describe heap and variable conditions

- Conjunction ($*$), implication ($-*$)
- Emp and points-to relation

Example: $h \models P * Q$ means: the heap can be divided into disjoint parts, one which satisfies P ($h \models P$) and the other which satisfies Q ($h \models Q$)

Points-to

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What does $x \mapsto v$ mean?

$$(h, \gamma) \models x \mapsto v \equiv h(x) = v \wedge \text{dom}(h) = \{x\}$$

That is, the assertion holds in a singleton heap that only contains the resource at location x

$$\{ \text{emp} \} \quad x = \text{new}(3) \quad \{ x \mapsto 3 \}$$

$$\{ x \mapsto v \} \quad \text{free } x \quad \{ \text{emp} \}$$

Frame Rule

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Note that in the rule:

$$\{x \mapsto v_1 * y \mapsto v_2\} [x] := v_3 \{x \mapsto v_3 * y \mapsto v_2\}$$

the assertion on y is unused and provides no meaningful information relevant to the proof

$$\frac{\{ \psi \} \quad c \quad \{ \phi \}}{\{ \psi * F \} \quad c \quad \{ \phi * F \}}$$

Importantly, the following is not valid:

$$\frac{\{ \psi \} \quad c \quad \{ \phi \}}{\{ \psi \wedge F \} \quad c \quad \{ \phi \wedge F \}}$$

More Formally ...

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Formal Semantics of Separating Conjunction

The satisfaction relation $(h, \gamma) \models P * Q$ is defined as:

$$\exists h1, h2. h = h1 \uplus h2 \wedge (h1, \gamma) \models P \wedge (h2, \gamma) \models Q$$

where $h1 \uplus h2$ means disjoint union: $\text{dom}(h1) \cap \text{dom}(h2) = \emptyset$

γ is the local store that is shared unchanged between both parts – only the heap is split."

Key consequences

- ▶ $P * Q \Rightarrow P$ is NOT valid in general: the right part of the heap is discarded
- ▶ $P \Rightarrow P * P$ is NOT valid: would require duplicating heap cells
- ▶ $(x \mapsto v) * (x \mapsto w)$ is UNSATISFIABLE: x cannot appear in both disjoint parts

emp semantics

- ▶ $(h, \gamma) \models \text{emp}$ iff $\text{dom}(h) = \emptyset$ (the heap is empty)
- ▶ $P * \text{emp} \Leftrightarrow P$ (emp is the unit of separating conjunction)

Magic Wand (Separating Implication)

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$$P \text{ ---}^* Q$$

reads:

Extending a heap h with another (disjoint) heap that satisfies P , results in a new heap that satisfies Q

$$\frac{\forall h'. h' \perp h, h' \models P \rightarrow h \oplus h' \models Q}{\langle h, \gamma \rangle \models P \text{ ---}^* Q}$$

$$\frac{\langle h, \gamma \rangle \models P * (P \text{ ---}^* Q)}{\langle h, \gamma \rangle \models Q}$$

Week 13

Dafny

- Applies Hoare reasoning to programs
- User provides specifications in the form of pre- and postconditions, along with other assertions
- Dafny verifies that the program meets the specification
 - ▶ When successful, Dafny guarantees (total) functional correctness of the program

Correctness:

- Reflects base-level semantic properties (no runtime errors (e.g., divide-by-zero, null pointer dereferences, etc.))
- But, also justifies higher-level application-specific properties (e.g., correctness of distributed systems, ...)

Specifications

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- Specifications are meant to capture salient behavior of an application, eliding issues of efficiency and low-level representation.

forall k:int :: 0 <= k < a.Length ==> 0 < a[k]

- Specifications in Dafny can be arbitrarily sophisticated.
- We can think of Dafny as being two smaller languages rolled into one:
 - An imperative core that has methods, loops, arrays, if statements... and other features found in realistic programming languages. This core can be compiled and executed.
 - A pure (functional) specification language that supports functions, sets, predicates, algebraic datatypes, etc. This language is used by the prover but is not compiled.

Lemmas

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Sometimes, the property we wish to prove cannot be automatically verified. To help Dafny, we can provide *lemmas*, theorems that exist in service of proving some other property.

```
method FindZero(a: array<int>) returns (index: int)
  requires forall i :: 0 <= i < a.Length ==> 0 <= a[i]
  requires forall i :: 0 < i < a.Length ==> a[i-1]-1 <= a[i]
  {
  }
```

Precondition restricts input array such that all elements are greater than or equal to zero and each successive element in the array can decrease by at most one from the previous element.

We can take advantage of this observation in searching for the first zero in the array, by skipping elements. E.g., if $a[j] = 7$, then index of next possible zero cannot be before $a[j + a[j]]$, i.e., if $j = 3$, then first possible zero can only be at $a[10]$

Lemmas and Induction

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Express this inductive property:

```
assert count(a + b) == count([a[0]]) + count(a[1..] + b);
```

using recursion

```
lemma DistributiveLemma(a: seq<bool>, b: seq<bool>)
  ensures count(a + b) == count(a) + count(b)
{
  if a == [] {
    assert a + b == b;
  } else {
    DistributiveLemma(a[1..], b);
    assert a + b == [a[0]] + (a[1..] + b);
  }
}
function count(a: seq<bool>): nat
{
  if |a| == 0 then 0 else
    (if a[0] then 1 else 0) + count(a[1..])
}
```

Proofs by Contradiction

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General shape:

$$\frac{!Q \rightarrow (R \wedge !R)}{Q}$$

```
lemma Lem(args)
  requires P(x)
  ensures Q(x)
{
  if !Q(x) // property is false
  {
    assert !P(x) // contradiction: precondition is
    assert false // true and false
  }
  assert Q(x)
}
```