

Lecture Notes on Diamonds

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1 Introduction

So far in our study of dynamic logic we have focused on $[\alpha]P$, meaning that P is true after every possible run of α . In the world of deterministic programs we call this *partial correctness*: the final state satisfies P , but only if α terminates. We also sometimes talk about a *safety property*: no matter what happens, if we terminate at least P will be true.

The other modality is $\langle\alpha\rangle P$ which means that there is a run of α such that P is true. For deterministic programs (that is, programs that have at most one final state), we call this *total correctness*: α will reach a final state, and it satisfies P . We also sometimes talk about a *liveness property*: something good (that is a final state that satisfied P) will eventually happen.

In this lecture we recall the semantics of $\langle\alpha\rangle P$ more formally and then examine how to break down programs for this particular modal operator by using axioms. This will be straightforward until we encounter α^* , which requires an axiom of *convergence* as a counterpart to the axiom of *induction*.

Learning goals. After this lecture, you should be able to:

- Express liveness properties in dynamic logic;
- Be familiar with the axiom of convergence;
- Reason with interacting $[-]$ and $\langle-\rangle$ modalities.

*Adapted and extended from notes written by Frank Pfenning in Spring 2021

- Extend the Why3 formalization of Dynamic Logic with new temporal operators.

2 Box vs. Diamond

Recall that we defined

$$\begin{aligned}\omega \models [\alpha]Q & \text{ iff for every } \nu, \omega \llbracket \alpha \rrbracket \nu \text{ implies } \nu \models P \\ \omega \models \langle \alpha \rangle Q & \text{ iff there exists a } \nu \text{ such that } \omega \llbracket \alpha \rrbracket \nu \text{ and } \nu \models P\end{aligned}$$

Both of these are with respect to the same semantics $\omega \llbracket \alpha \rrbracket \nu$. In the first case, if ν is reachable then P must be true; in the second case some such ν must be reachable.

Recall the definitions

$$\begin{aligned}\text{skip} & \triangleq ?\text{true} \\ \text{abort} & \triangleq ?\text{false}\end{aligned}$$

From this definition we can deduce the following properties. You should make sure you understand each line.

$$\begin{aligned}[\text{skip}]P & \text{ iff } P \\ \langle \text{skip} \rangle P & \text{ iff } P \\ [\text{abort}]P & \text{ always} \\ \langle \text{abort} \rangle P & \text{ never} \\ [\alpha^*]\text{true} & \text{ always} \\ \langle \alpha^* \rangle \text{true} & \text{ always} \\ [\alpha^*]\text{false} & \text{ never} \\ \langle \alpha^* \rangle \text{false} & \text{ never}\end{aligned}$$

3 Axioms for Diamonds

We would like to break down the programs in $\langle \alpha \rangle Q$ in order to generate a verification condition in pure arithmetic. In some cases this works just as for $[\alpha]Q$, in other cases it is very different.

We start with assignment. This will always terminate in one step, so a property of all runs is the same as a property of one run.

$$\langle x \leftarrow e \rangle Q(x) \leftrightarrow \forall x'. x' = e \rightarrow Q(x') \quad (x' \text{ not in } e, Q(x))$$

Sequential composition also does not change matters in any essential way, although the reasoning is more subtle.

$$\langle \alpha ; \beta \rangle Q \leftrightarrow \langle \alpha \rangle (\langle \beta \rangle Q)$$

We argue as follows: there is a run of $\alpha ; \beta$ if there is a run of α to some intermediate state, and a run of β from there after which Q is true. And that's the same of running α to a state from which β can reach a state in which Q is true.

For nondeterministic choice $\alpha \cup \beta$, we can reach a final state either by choosing α or choosing β .

$$\langle \alpha \cup \beta \rangle Q \leftrightarrow \langle \alpha \rangle Q \vee \langle \beta \rangle Q$$

This is somehow dual to the axiom for $[\alpha \cup \beta]$:

$$[\alpha \cup \beta]Q \leftrightarrow [\alpha]Q \wedge [\beta]Q$$

Here we reasoned: to show that Q is true after every run of $\alpha \cup \beta$ it must be true after every possible run of α and also after every possible run of β .

Finally, for guards they are opposites in a different way.

$$\begin{aligned} \langle ?P \rangle Q &\leftrightarrow P \wedge Q \\ [?P]Q &\leftrightarrow P \rightarrow Q \end{aligned}$$

Finally, we come to repetition. There is a simple analogue of the axiom to unroll a loop, but turning conjunction into a disjunction. That's because in order to reach a final state it is sufficient to unroll any fixed number of times (including zero).

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \alpha^* \rangle Q &\leftrightarrow Q \vee \langle \alpha \rangle \langle \alpha^* \rangle Q \\ [\alpha^*]Q &\leftrightarrow Q \wedge [\alpha][\alpha^*]Q \end{aligned}$$

As before, this finite unrolling is of limited utility.

4 Convergence

In practice, unrolling a loop a finite number of times is insufficient to prove most programs. Instead, we work with the induction axiom and then invariants when proving $[\alpha^*]Q$. Recall:

$$\begin{aligned} [\alpha^*]Q &\leftrightarrow Q \wedge [\alpha^*](Q \rightarrow [\alpha]Q) \\ &\leftarrow J \wedge \Box(J \rightarrow [\alpha]J) \wedge \Box(J \rightarrow Q) \end{aligned}$$

What is the analogue for $\langle \alpha^* \rangle Q$? Unfortunately, it is not as simple as induction but requires some quantity that reduces each time around the loop. That already might have been predicted from the fact that we use `variant` contracts in Why3.

To capture this logically we assume that a formula V is parameterized by an integer variable n , written as $V(n)$. We prohibit the variable n from appearing in programs; instead we use V to *relate* n to expressions occurring in the program. The axiom of convergence then says

It is possible to reach a poststate with $V(0)$ after some iterations of α
 if (1) initially $V(n)$ for some $n \geq 0$,
 and (2) at each iteration, assuming $V(n)$ for $n > 0$
 implies we can reach a poststate with $V(n - 1)$.

Translating this into an axioms gives us

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \alpha^* \rangle V(0) \leftarrow & (\exists n. n \geq 0 \wedge V(n)) \\ & \wedge [\alpha^*](\forall n. n > 0 \wedge V(n) \rightarrow \langle \alpha \rangle V(n-1)) \\ & (n \text{ not in } \alpha) \end{aligned}$$

It is interesting that this axiom incorporates $[\alpha^*]P$ because we need to make sure that no matter how many iterations we need until we reach 0 the decrease will always take place.

To make this effective we take one more step: we think of $V(n)$ as the *formula variant* of the iteration and use it to prove an arbitrary postcondition Q . As before, this replaces $[\alpha^*]P$ by $\Box P$, and makes sure the variant formula implies the postcondition. This is slightly different than the *variant expression* we use in Why3, which we address in the next section.

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \alpha^* \rangle Q \leftarrow & (\exists n. n \geq 0 \wedge V(n)) \\ & \wedge \Box(\forall n. n > 0 \wedge V(n) \rightarrow \langle \alpha \rangle V(n-1)) \\ & \wedge \Box(V(0) \rightarrow Q) \\ & (n \text{ not in } \alpha \text{ or } Q) \end{aligned}$$

As an example, let's prove

$$x \geq 0 \rightarrow \langle (x \leftarrow x - 1)^* \rangle x = 0$$

In order to apply convergence we have to define the variant formula $V(n)$. In this case, it is easy and we choose

$$V(n) = (x = n)$$

that is, n just tracks the value of x . We proceed:

To prove (init): $x \geq 0 \rightarrow \exists n. n \geq 0 \wedge x = n$ True (pick $n = x$)

To prove (step): $x \geq 0 \rightarrow \Box(\forall n. n > 0 \wedge x = n \rightarrow \langle x \leftarrow x - 1 \rangle x = n - 1)$

True if $\forall n. n > 0 \wedge x = n \rightarrow \forall x'. x' = x - 1 \rightarrow x' = n - 1$

True if $\forall n. n > 0 \wedge x = n \rightarrow x - 1 = n - 1$ By arithmetic

To prove (post): $x \geq 0 \rightarrow \Box(x = 0 \rightarrow x = 0)$

True if $x = 0 \rightarrow x = 0$

To illustrate how we have to think about picking $V(n)$, consider the slightly more complicated example

$$x \geq 0 \rightarrow \langle (x \leftarrow x - 2)^* \rangle 0 \leq x < 2$$

Consider what variant formula $V(n)$ might allow us to do this proof.

We pick $V(n) = 2n \leq x < 2n + 2$. Then $V(0) = 2 \cdot 0 \leq x < 2 \cdot 0 + 2$ and $V(n-1) = 2(n-1) \leq x < 2(n-1) + 2$. We reason:

To prove (init): $x \geq 0 \rightarrow \exists n. n \geq 0 \wedge 2n \leq x < 2n + 2$ True (pick $n = \text{div } x \ 2$)

To prove (step): $x \geq 0 \rightarrow \Box(\forall n. n > 0 \wedge 2n \leq x < 2n + 2 \rightarrow \langle x \leftarrow x - 1 \rangle 2(n-1) \leq x < 2(n-1) + 2)$

True if $\forall n. n > 0 \wedge 2n \leq x < 2n + 2 \rightarrow 2n - 2 \leq x - 2 < 2n$ By arithmetic

To prove (post): $x \geq 0 \rightarrow \Box(2 \cdot 0 \leq x < 2 \cdot 0 + 2 \rightarrow 0 \leq x < 2)$

True if $0 \leq x < 2 \rightarrow 0 \leq x < 2$

5 Interactions Between Box and Diamond

Already, the axiom of convergence mixes $[\alpha]P$ and $\langle \alpha \rangle P$. This interaction is a bit tricky, so we consider a few simpler cases on how these modalities interact.

$$[\alpha](P \rightarrow Q) \rightarrow ([\alpha]P \rightarrow [\alpha]Q) \quad \text{Valid}$$

If P implies Q in every poststate of α , then if P is also true in every poststate, so must Q be.

$$\langle \alpha \rangle(P \rightarrow Q) \rightarrow (\langle \alpha \rangle P \rightarrow \langle \alpha \rangle Q) \quad \text{Not valid}$$

There is a poststate in which P implies Q and also a poststate in which P is true. Since these two poststate may be different, we cannot be certain that there will be a poststate in which Q is true.

$$[\alpha](P \rightarrow Q) \rightarrow (\langle \alpha \rangle P \rightarrow \langle \alpha \rangle Q) \quad \text{Valid}$$

If P implies Q in every poststate of α , then this will also be true in the poststate in which P is true. Therefore, Q will be true in that poststate.

In the next two we explore the consequence of an invariant J

$$[\alpha]J \rightarrow (\langle \alpha \rangle(J \rightarrow Q) \rightarrow \langle \alpha \rangle Q) \quad \text{Valid}$$

If J is true in every poststate of J , and there is a poststate where J implies Q , then Q must be true in that poststate.

$$[\alpha]J \rightarrow (\langle \alpha \rangle Q \rightarrow \langle \alpha \rangle(J \wedge Q)) \quad \text{Valid}$$

If J is true in every poststate of J , and there is a poststate where Q is true, then both J and Q must be true in that poststate.

6 From Variant Formulas to Variant Expressions

We can generalize the axiom of convergence with *variant formulas* to one with *variant expressions* allowing “big steps” where the expressions may decrease by more than 1. In this formulation we explicitly highlight an invariant J together with the variant expression e . Both of these may mention program variables but not the new variable n which tracks the value of the variant in the axiom. This closely approximates what the verification condition generator for Why3 does for while-loops.

We only briefly go over this during the lecture but one of the key ideas here is that the invariant may help us to establish the variant.

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \alpha^* \rangle Q \leftarrow & J \\ & \wedge \Box(J \rightarrow e \geq 0) \\ & \wedge \Box(\forall n. J \wedge e = n \rightarrow \langle \alpha \rangle (J \wedge e < n)) \\ & \wedge \Box(J \rightarrow Q) \\ & (n \text{ not in } J, e, \text{ or } Q) \end{aligned}$$

In the version for while loops, we recall that

$$\text{while } P \alpha \triangleq (?P ; \alpha)^* ; ?\neg P$$

which leads us to

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \text{while } P \alpha \rangle Q \leftarrow & J \\ & \wedge \Box(J \wedge P \rightarrow e \geq 0) \\ & \wedge \Box(\forall n. J \wedge P \wedge e = n \rightarrow \langle \alpha \rangle (J \wedge e < n)) \\ & \wedge \Box(J \wedge \neg P \rightarrow Q) \\ & (n \text{ not in } J, P, e, \text{ or } Q) \end{aligned}$$

As an example you may consider the following correctness statement for computing Fibonacci numbers, using simultaneous assignment as a shorthand.

$$x \geq 0 \rightarrow \langle a \leftarrow 0 ; b \leftarrow 1 ; i \leftarrow 0 ; \text{while } (i < x) (a, b \leftarrow b, a + b ; i \leftarrow i + 1) \rangle a = \text{fib } x$$

To conduct this proof we pick

$$\begin{array}{ll} e &= (x - i) && \text{variant expression} \\ J &= (0 \leq i \leq x \wedge a = \text{fib}(i) \wedge b = \text{fib}(i + 1)) && \text{invariant} \end{array}$$

It is then a mechanical exercise to verify the conditions of the axiom for while with invariants and variant expressions.

7 Extending Our Why3 Formalization of Dynamic Logic

We can extend our formalization of dynamic logic by adding $\langle \alpha \rangle Q$ as a new kind of formula and prove the new axioms (not including convergence). The live code (completed after the lecture) can be found in the file [ndl-v3.mlw](#).

Extending our Why3 formalization for new logical operators is simple and can be done with the following steps.

(1) Add missing nondeterministic dynamic logic formulas to our type `ndl`:

```
1  type ndl =
2  | Or ndl ndl (* add Or to ndl *)
3  | Not ndl (* add Not to ndl *)
4  | Dia prog ndl (* add Dia to ndl *)
5  | And ndl ndl
6  | Implies ndl ndl
7  | Forall var ndl
8  | Box prog ndl
9  | Test test
10 | Valid ndl
```

(2) Add the definition of $\omega \models P$ for the different kinds of formulas using axioms:

```
1  (* add the definition of Not and Or *)
2  axiom models_not: forall omega p.
3      models omega (Not p) <-> not (models omega p)
4  axiom models_or: forall omega p q.
5      models omega (Or p q) <-> models omega p /\ models omega q
6
7  (* Definition of the Diamond modality *)
8  axiom models_dia : forall omega alpha q .
9      models omega ( Dia alpha q ) <-> exists nu . run omega alpha nu
10     /\ models nu q
```

(3) Now we can prove that are axioms are valid for the Diamond operator (not including convergence):

```
1  (* <alpha ; beta> q <-> <alpha><beta> q *)
2  lemma dia_seq : forall omega alpha beta q .
3      models omega ( Dia ( Seq alpha beta ) q ) <->
4      models omega ( Dia alpha ( Dia beta q ) )
5
6  (* <alpha U beta> q <-> <alpha>q /\ <beta>q *)
7  lemma dia_union : forall omega alpha beta q .
8      models omega ( Dia ( Union alpha beta ) q ) <->
9      models omega ( Or ( Dia alpha q ) ( Dia beta q ) )
10
11  (* unrolling *)
12  (* <alpha*> q <-> q /\ <alpha><alpha*> q *)
13  lemma dia_star : forall omega alpha q .
14      models omega ( Dia ( Star alpha ) q ) <->
15      models omega ( Or q ( Dia alpha ( Dia ( Star alpha ) q ) ) )
16
17  (* <?t>q <-> t /\ q *)
18  lemma dia_guard : forall omega t q .
19      models omega ( Dia ( Guard t ) q ) <->
20      models omega ( And ( Test t ) q )
```

We can also prove the validity of some formulas that mix Box and Diamond:

```

1  (* [alpha](p -> q) -> ([alpha]p -> [alpha]q) *)
2  (* valid *)
3  lemma vv1: forall omega alpha p q.
4    models omega (Box alpha (Implies p q)) ->
5      models omega (Implies (Box alpha p) (Box alpha q))
6
7  (* not valid ; will not be verified*)
8  (* <alpha>(p -> q) -> (<alpha>p -> <alpha>q) *)
9  lemma vv2: forall omega alpha p q.
10   models omega (Dia alpha (Implies p q)) ->
11     models omega (Implies (Dia alpha p) (Dia alpha q))
12
13  (* valid *)
14  (* \neg [alpha] p <-> <alpha> \neg p *)
15  lemma vv3: forall omega alpha p.
16    not (models omega (Box alpha p)) <->
17      models omega (Dia alpha (Not p))

```

This framework is very flexible and easy to extend to other operators.