M2. Program Correctness

Instructor: Manikandan Narayanan

Weeks 1-2

CS2700 (PDS) Moodle: https://courses.iitm.ac.in/course/view.php?id=4892

Acknowledgment of Sources

- Slides based on content from related
 - Courses:
 - IITM Profs. **Rupesh**/Krishna(S)/Prashanth/Kartik's PDS (Thy/Lab) offerings (slides, quizzes, notes, lab assignments, etc. for instance from Rupesh's Jul 2019 offering www.cse.iitm.ac.in/~rupesh/teaching/pds/jul19/)
 - Most slides are based on Rupesh Nasre's slides we thank him and acknowledge by marking [RN] in the bottom right of these slides.
 - Program correctness slides in turn based on IITB Prof. Supratik Chakraborti's slides: https://www.cse.iitb.ac.in/~supratik/courses/cs615/msri_ss08.pdf

Books:

- Main textbook: "Data Structures and Algorithm Analysis in C++" by Weiss (content, figures, slides, exercises/questions, etc.). – cited as [WeissBook]
- Additional/optional book: "Practice of Programming" by Kernighan and Pike (style of programming, programming exercises/questions, etc.) – cited as [KPBook]

Outline for Module M2

- M2 Program Correctness
 - M2.1 Introduction and Example
 - M2.2 Pre/Post-Conditions (of assignments and conditionals)
 - M2.3 Loop invariants (and pre/post-conditions of loops)
 - M2.4 Hoare Logic/Triples (for formal proofs)

Program Correctness

- Notions of correctness
 - Proof
 - Testing
- Proofs cover all the cases.
- Testcases are inherently incomplete.
 - except when the number of inputs is finite.
 - In general, testing can prove presence of bugs, and not their absence.
- Proofs are guided by computation properties.

Example

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main() {
    int var = 3;
    int flag = 0;
    int *ptr = &var;
    if (flag == 0) ptr = NULL;
    if (*ptr < 5) printf("if\n");
    else printf("else\n");
    return 0;
```

```
$ gcc bug.c
$ a.out
Segmentation fault (core dumped)
$
```

Example

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <assert.h>
int main() {
    int var = 3;
    int flag = 0;
    int *ptr = &var;
    if (flag == 0) ptr = NULL;
          assert(ptr != NULL);
    if (*ptr < 5) printf("if\n");
    else printf("else\n");
    return 0;
}
```

```
$ gcc bug.c

Error: Undefined reference to assert

$ gcc bug.c

$ a.out

a.out: bug.c:12: main: Assertion `ptr != NULL' failed.

Aborted (core dumped)

$
```

With this knowledge, now the error can be traced backwards. [RN]

Example

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <assert.h>
int main() {
    int var = 3;
    int flag = 0;
    int *ptr = &var;
          assert(ptr != NULL);
    if (flag == 0) ptr = NULL;
    if (*ptr < 5) printf("if\n");
    else printf("else\n");
    return 0;
```

```
$ gcc bug.c
$ a.out
Segmentation fault (core dumped)
$
```

With this knowledge, now the error can be traced forward.

Outline for Module M2

- M2 Program Correctness
 - M2.1 Introduction and Example
 - M2.2 Pre/Post-Conditions (of assignments and conditionals)
 - M2.3 Loop invariants (and pre/post-conditions of loops)
 - M2.4 Hoare Logic/Triples (for formal proofs)

Pre and Post-conditions

- Define constraints that must be satisfied at a program point.
- Constraints are simple boolean expressions.
 - We will use C-style conditions.
- Pre-condition (post-condition) identifies constraints <u>prior to</u> (<u>after</u>) a statement.
- Ideally, we want the most precise conditions.
- Types of statements:
 - assignments, conditionals, loops.

Assignments

```
{x > 0}
x++;
{??}
```

Assignments

```
{x > 0}
x++;
{x > 1}
```

Assumptions:

- Values do not overflow (no wrap-around).
- Type information is available.

```
{x > 0}
x = 2 * x;
{??}
x = x + y;
{??}
x = x - y;
{??}
```

Notes

- If x > 0 and it is an int, x is at least 1. Hence,
 2 * x > 1. Additionally, x % 2 == 0.
- If y is unknown, x + y can be any value.
- If type of y is known to be unsigned, then
 x + y would also be above 1.
- If the effect of two statements can be gauged together, we can regain the information that x > 1. Otherwise, we lose track of x's value.

```
{x > 0}
if (x > 5) {
  x = 4;
}
```

```
{x > 0}
if (x > 5) {
    {x > 5}
    x = 4;
    {x == 4}
}
{ ?? }
```

```
{x > 0}
if (x > 5) {
  {x > 5}
  x = 4;
  {x == 4}
}

{x > 0 && x <= 5 | |
  x == 4}
```

After an if (C) S

- either the effect of S is visible;
- or the effect of the statements prior to this if statement falls through. In this case, the condition C is guaranteed to be false.

```
{x > 0}
if (x > 5) {
  {x > 5}
  x = 4;
  {x == 4}
}
{x > 0 && x <= 5}
```

```
{x > 0}
if (x > 5) {
  {x > 5}
  x = 4;
  \{x == 4\}
} else {
  x -= 10;
```

```
{x > 0}
if (x > 5) {
  {x > 5}
  x = 4;
  \{x == 4\}
} else {
  {x <= 5}
  x -= 10;
```

```
{x > 0}
if (x > 5) {
  {x > 5}
  x = 4;
  \{x == 4\}
} else {
  {x \le 5 \&\& x > 0}
  x -= 10;
  {x <= -5 \&\& x > -10}
```

```
{x > 0}
if (x > 5) {
  {x > 5}
  x = 4;
  \{x == 4\}
} else {
  {x \le 5 \&\& x > 0}
  x = 10;
  \{x \le -5 \&\& x > -10\}
\{x == 4 \mid | x \in (-10..-5]\}
```

After an if (C) S1 else S2

- On entering a conditional, the conditions get ANDed (at S1, C gets ANDed; at S2, NOT C gets ANDed).
- On exiting a conditional, the conditions get ORed (at the end of if-else).
- Relative updates retain+modify existing conditions (e.g., x -= 10).
- Absolute updates generate new conditions (e.g., x = 4).

Note that the effect of the conditions prior to if-else may not reach end of if-else (unlike in if-without-else)

ĮRN'

Getting back to the segfault

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main() {
     int var = 3;
    int flag = 0;
    int *ptr = &var;
    if (flag == 0) ptr = NULL;
    if (*ptr < 5) printf("if\n");</pre>
    else printf("else\n");
    return 0;
```

Write pre- and post-conditions for this program.

Compare your inference with what happens at program execution time.

```
{x > 0}
if (...) {
   {x > 5}
  \{x == 4\}
} else {
  {x \le 5 \&\& x > 0}
  \{x <= -5 \&\& x > -10\}
\{x == 4 \mid | x \in (-10..-5]\}
```

Thought exercise: Given a set of pre and post-conditions, can we automatically generate a program?

Outline for Module M2

- M2 Program Correctness
 - M2.1 Introduction and Example
 - M2.2 Pre/Post-Conditions (of assignments and conditionals)
 - M2.3 Loop invariants (and pre/post-conditions of loops)
 - M2.4 Hoare Logic/Triples (for formal proofs)

Tony Hoare

- Inventor of quicksort
- Known for Hoare logic
- Turing Award in 1980
- "fundamental contributions to the definition and design of programming languages"



```
while (x >= y) {
    x -= y;
}
```

```
{x >= 0 && y >= 0}
while (x >= y) {
x -= y;
}
```

We want to check if x becomes negative at the end of the loop.

```
{x >= 0 && y >= 0}
while (x >= y) {
  {x >= y}
  x -= y;
}
```

```
{x >= 0 && y >= 0}
while (x >= y) {
  {x >= y && y >= 0}
  x -= y;
}
```

```
{x >= 0 && y >= 0}
while (x >= y) {
  {x >= y && y >= 0}
  x -= y;
  {x >= 0 && y >= 0}
}
```

```
{x >= 0 && y >= 0}
while (x >= y) {
  {x >= y && y >= 0}
  x -= y;
  {x >= 0 && y >= 0}
}
{x < y && x >= 0 && y >= 0}
```

For while (C) S

- On entering the loop for the first time, the conditions get ANDed.
- On reaching C in further iterations, the conditions again get ANDed with C, but the iterative conditions get ORed.
- On exiting a loop, NOT C must be true.
- Similar to if, conditions from within the loop and those from outside would get ORed.

```
{x >= 0 && y >= 0}

while (x >= y) {

  {x >= y && y >= 0}

  x -= y;

  {x >= 0 && y >= 0}

}

{x < y && x >= 0 && y >= 0}
```

x cannot be negative at the end of the loop.

Classwork

- Write the final post-conditions for the following programs.
 - To find the maximum element in an array
 - To compute the sum of the odd elements in an array
 - To compute the sum of the odd index elements
 - To find an anagram of a string (e.g., structures == trust cures, and data structures == custard stature)
- Find a reasonable anagram of annual grit.

```
{x >= 0 && y >= 0}

while (x >= y) {

{x >= y && y >= 0}

x -= y;

{x >= 0 && y >= 0}

}

{x < y && y >= 0 && x >= 0}
```

x cannot be negative at the end of the loop.

Such a condition is called a loop-invariant.

- It is true prior to entering the loop.
- It is true in every iteration of the loop.
- It is true at the end of the loop.

Loop Invariants

- Properties to be satisfied prior to the loop, after every iteration, and at the end of the loop.
- Abstractly specifies the loop
 - bears potential to hide implementation details
- Similarity with recursion
 - resembles inductive hypothesis
- Often, finding loop invariants is not difficult, but finding useful (elegant) loop invariants is nontrivial.

Loop Invariants

```
i = 0;
while (i < N) {
    sum += i;
    ++i;
}</pre>
```

Trivial loop-invariants:

- $(i == 0 \mid | i == 1 \mid | ... | | i == N 1 | | i == N)$
- (sum == 0 || sum == 1 || sum == 3 || sum == 6 || sum == arbitrary)
- (i == 0 && sum == 0 || i == 1 && sum == 1 || i == 2 && sum == 3 || ... || i == N && sum == arbitrary)

Useful loop-invariant:

• sum == $\sum_{i=1}^{0}$

Now let's check if this invariant is satisfied:

- After every iteration?
- The incremented i is not summed up yet. Hence the invariant doesn't hold.
- So the invariant should be sum == ∑⁰_{i-1}
- At the end of the loop?
- i == N, and the sum contains the summation of 0..N-1.
- Just prior to the loop?
- i == 0, but sum is undefined!
- To satisfy the invariant, we need to add this line: sum = 0;
- Thus, loop invariants can help us identify errors in the program.

Classwork

```
satya = 1;
anand = pm[0];
while (satya < nobel) {
    if (pm[satya] > anand)
        anand =
    pm[satya];
    ++satya;
}
```

- Finding useful / elegant loop invariants need high-level understanding of the code.
- This is not feasible, in general, automatically.
- Even for humans, loop-invariants are often guessed.
- For your own code, you should be able to state those precisely!

```
i = 1;
max = a[0];
while (i < N) {
    if (a[i] > max)
        max = a[i];
    ++i;
}
```

Loop Invariant:

- max contains the maximum value in a[0]..a[i-1].
- This is satisfied just prior to the loop.
- This is satisfied after every iteration.
- This is satisfied at the end of the loop.
- Hence, this program <u>correctly</u> finds maximum element in an array (having at least one element).

Outline for Module M2

- M2 Program Correctness
 - M2.1 Introduction and Example
 - M2.2 Pre/Post-Conditions (of assignments and conditionals)
 - M2.3 Loop invariants (and pre/post-conditions of loops)
 - M2.4 Hoare Logic/Triples (for formal proofs)

Tony Hoare

- Inventor of quicksort
- Known for Hoare logic
- Turing Award in 1980
- "fundamental contributions to the definition and design of programming languages"



Hoare Logic

- To formally reason about correctness of programs
- Originally seeded by Floyd
- Hence, now called Floyd-Hoare Logic
- Dates back to when neither you nor I was born (1969).
- Works with Hoare Triples
 - {pre-condition} Stmt {post-condition}

Hoare Triples

- Empty statement / no-op
- Assignment
- Rule of composition
- Conditional
- Consequence
- Loop

```
Try for:

• x = y + 2 \{x > 7\}

• x = x + 1 \{x > 7\}

• x = x + 1 \{x > 7\}

• x = 3 \{x = 3\}

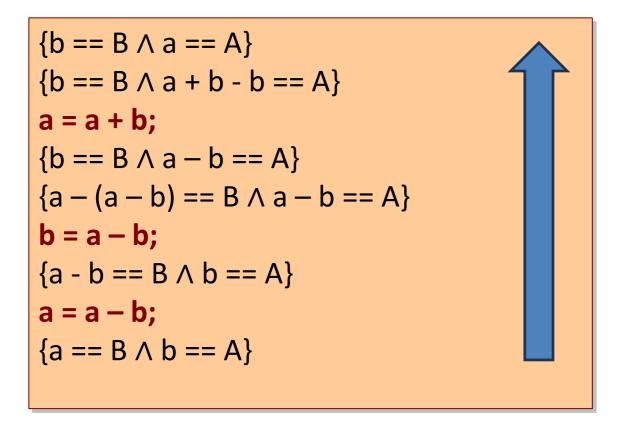
{P} S1 {Q}, {Q} S2 {R}

{P} S1; S2 {R}
```

 Use Hoare Logic, prove that the following code correctly swaps two variables.

```
a = a + b;
b = a - b;
a = a - b;
```

 Use Hoare Logic, prove that the following code correctly swaps two variables.



For assignment statements, always proceed in the REVERSE direction and see if the proof is consistent!

(i.e., start from the desired post-condition, then work your way back by applying the assignment rule, and check if you get the desired pre-condition; this implies that Hoare rules can be applied in the forward direction to start from the desired pre-condition to prove the desired post-condition)

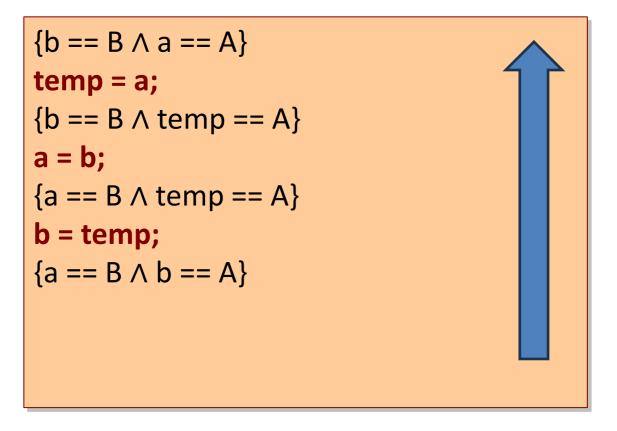
Another Classwork

 Use Hoare Logic, prove that the following code correctly swaps two variables.

```
temp = a;
a = b;
b = temp;
```

Another Classwork

 Use Hoare Logic, prove that the following code correctly swaps two variables.



As mentioned before, for assignment statements, always proceed in the REVERSE direction and see if the proof is consistent!

Hoare Triples

Empty statement / no-op

{P} no-op {P}

- Assignment
- Rule of composition
- Conditional

Loop

```
\{P\} S1; S2 \{R\}
\{P\Lambda C\} S1 \{Q\}, \{P\Lambda \neg C\} S2 \{Q\}
\{P\} \text{ if } (C) S1 \text{ else } S2 \{Q\}
\{P\Lambda C\} S \{Q\}
```

 $\{P[x \rightarrow E]\} x = E \{P\}$

{P} S1 {Q}, {Q} S2 {R}

General form (not useful and incorrect)

Loop-invariant form

```
{P} while (C) S \{Q\Lambda \neg C\}
{P\Lambda C} S \{P\}
{P} while (C) S \{P\Lambda \neg C\}
```

```
int power2(int n) {
     int k, j;
     k = 0;
     j = 1;
     while (k != n) {
          k = k + 1;
          j = 2 * j;
     return j;
```

- We want to prove that this function returns 2ⁿ.
 - for n > 0
- Using testing, we can validate for certain inputs.
- Using a proof, we can verify correctness.

```
int power2(int n) {
     int k, j;
     k = 0;
     j = 1;
     while (k != n) {
          k = k + 1;
         j = 2 * j;
     return j;
```

```
\{n > 0\}
k = 0;
j = 1;

while (k != n) \{
k = k + 1;
j = 2 * j;
\{j == 2^n\}
```

Hoare Triple

Classwork

```
{n > 0}
                                                 {n > 0}
k = 0;
                                            k = 0;
     \{\varphi_1\}
                                            j = 1;
j = 1;
      \{\varphi_2\}
                                            while (k != n) {
while (k != n) {
                                                 k = k + 1;
                                                 j = 2 * j;
      k = k + 1;
     j = 2 * j;
     {j == 2^n}
                                                 {j == 2^n}
```

How do we prove

```
 \{n > 0\} 
 k = 0; 
 \{\varphi_1\} 
 j = 1; 
 \{\varphi_2\} 
 while (k != n) \{ 
 k = k + 1; 
 j = 2 * j; 
 \{j == 2^n\}
```

```
\{\phi_2\}
while (k != n) \{
k = k + 1;
j = 2 * j;
\}
\{j == 2^n\}
```

Let's use the Hoare rule for loops.

But that requires a loop-invariant!

"Guess" the loop-invariant.

Since proof requires $j == 2^n$, we guess that the invariant is $j == 2^k$.

 $\{PAC\} S \{P\}$ $\{P\} \text{ while (C) S } \{PA \neg C\}$

```
\begin{cases} j == 2^{k} \land k != n \} k = k + 1; j = 2 * j; \{j == 2^{k} \} \\ \{j == 2^{k} \land k != n \} \end{cases}
\text{while } (k != n) \{
k = k + 1; j = 2 * j;
\{j == 2^{k} \land \neg (k != n) \}
```

To prove the **consequent**, prove the **precedent**.

How do we prove

```
\{\phi_{2}\}
while (k != n) \{
k = k + 1;
j = 2 * j;
\}
\{j == 2^{n}\}
?
```

Let's use the Hoare rule for loops.

But that requires a loop-invariant!

"Guess" the loop-invariant.

Since proof requires $j == 2^n$, we guess that the invariant is $j == 2^k$.

To Prove:

To prove the **consequent**, prove the **precedent**.

Loop-invariant Hoare rule:

$$\{PAC\} S \{P\}$$
 $\{P\} \text{ while (C) S } \{PA \neg C\}$

Proof:

$${j == 2^{k}}$$

 ${2 * j == 2^{k+1}}$
 $k = k + 1;$
 ${2 * j == 2^{k}}$
 $j = 2 * j;$
 ${j == 2^{k}}$

We are almost there, except that the precondition is missing k != n.
This is where we use implication:

$$(j == 2^k) \wedge (k != n) \Rightarrow (j == 2^k)$$

In general, we can strengthen the precondition, and weaken the post-condition.

So far we have proved:

```
{n > 0}
     {n > 0}
k = 0;
                                          // strengthening the precondition
     \{\varphi_1\}
j = 1;
                                          \{1 == 2^0\}
      \{\phi_2: j == 2^k\}
                                          k = 0
while (k != n) {
     k = k + 1;
                                          \{\phi_1: 1 == 2^k\}
     j = 2 * j;
                                          j = 1
     \{i == 2^n\}
                                          \{\phi_2: j == 2^k\}
```

Homework

Prove that the function computes n!.

```
int fact(int n) {
     k = 1;
     f = 1;
     while (k < n) {
          k = k + 1;
          f = f * k;
     return f;
```