

Programs as Relations

COMP SCI 2LC3

Ryszard Janicki

Department of Computing and Software, McMaster University, Hamilton,
Ontario, Canada

Programs as Relations

Consider the well-known procedure factorial, written in a small subset of Maple:

```
factorial := proc(n::posint)
local i, fac
    i:=1;
    fac:=1;
    while i < n do
    begin
        i:=i+1
        fac:=fac*i;
    end;
end proc;
```

Since n does not change its value in the above program we may consider it as a constant, so we may assume the above program has two integer variables i and fac .

Programs as Relations

- Define $D = \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$, where \mathbb{Z} is the set of integers, and denote the elements of D as (i, fac) . Each assignment statement can be modeled by a function $F_i : D \rightarrow D$, $i = 1, 2, 4, 5$, in the following manner:

" $i:=1$ " corresponds to $F_1(i, fac) = (1, fac)$,

" $fac:=1$ " corresponds to $F_2(i, fac) = (i, 1)$,

" $i:=i+1$ " corresponds to $F_4(i, fac) = (i+1, fac)$, and

" $fac:=fac*i$ " maps to $F_5(i, fac) = (i, fac \cdot i)$.

- The test " $i < n$ " can be modeled by two partial identity functions, $l_3, \bar{l}_3 : D \rightsquigarrow D$, where l_3 models " $i < n$ ", and \bar{l}_3 models its complement, i.e. " $i \geq n$ ". More precisely,

" $i < n$ " corresponds to $l_3(i, fac)$, and

" $i \geq n$ " corresponds to $\bar{l}_3(i, fac)$, where (\perp denotes *undefined*)

$$l_3(i, fac) = \begin{cases} (i, fac) & \text{if } i < n \\ \perp & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad \bar{l}_3(i, fac) = \begin{cases} (i, fac) & \text{if } i \geq n \\ \perp & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- Let R, R_1, R_2 be relations (each function is a relation!) that model the program statements $S, S1, S2$, respectively.
- Let T be a test modeled by partial identities I_T and \bar{I}_T , and
- let the symbols “ \circ ” and “ $*$ ” denote the composition of relations, and transitive and reflexive closure of relations (Kleene star), respectively.

Formally, if $R, R_1, R_2 \subseteq X \times X$, then

- $x(R_1 \circ R_2)y \iff \exists(z|z \in X : xR_1z \wedge zR_2y)$
- $R^* = \bigcup_{i=0}^{\infty} R^i = \bigcup(i|i = 0, \dots, \infty : R^i)$, where $R^0 = Identity$
- Alternative definition of R^* :
$$xR^*y \iff \exists(i|0 \leq i < \infty : xR^i y)$$

Programs as Relations

We can now model the basic programming constructs as follows

- "S1;S2" is modeled by $R_1 \circ R_2$,
- "if T then S1 else S2" is modeled by $(I_T \circ R_1) \cup (\bar{I}_T \circ R_2)$, and
- "while T do S" is modeled by $(I_T \circ R)^* \circ \bar{I}_T$.

Using this scheme one can easily model the above program by writing the following (symbolic) relational expression:

$$F = F_1 \circ F_2 \circ (I_3 \circ F_4 \circ F_5)^* \circ \bar{I}_3,$$

or

$$F = \underbrace{F_1}_{i:=1} \circ \underbrace{F_2}_{fac:=1} \circ \underbrace{\left(\underbrace{I_3}_{i < n} \circ \underbrace{F_4}_{i:=i+1} \circ \underbrace{F_5}_{fac:=fac*i} \right)^* \circ \underbrace{\bar{I}_3}_{i \geq n}}_{\text{while } i < n \text{ do } i:=i+1; fac:=fac*i \text{ od}}$$

Programs as Relations

- If R_1 and R_2 are (possibly partial) functions, calculating $R = R_1 \circ R_2$ is easy: $R(x_1, \dots, x_n) = R_2(R_1(x_1, \dots, x_n))$.
- If at least one of R_1 , R_2 is not a function, in general, we have to use the rule:
$$(x_1, \dots, x_n)R_1 \circ R_2(z_1, \dots, z_n) \iff \exists(y_1, \dots, y_n) : (x_1, \dots, x_n)R_1(y_1, \dots, y_n) \wedge (y_1, \dots, y_n)R_2(z_1, \dots, z_n).$$
- Nevertheless, it might happen that $R_1 \circ R_2$ is a function even if both R_1 and R_2 are not.
- In general $R_1 \cup R_2$ is not a function, even if both R_1 and R_2 are functions.
- Similarly, $R^* = \bigcup_{i=0}^{\infty} R^i = \bigcup(i|0 \leq i < \infty : R^i)$ is almost never a function, even if R is a function, since if R is a function, then
$$(x_1, \dots, x_n)R^*(y_1, \dots, y_n) \iff \exists(i|i \geq 0 : (y_1, \dots, y_n) = R^i(x_1, \dots, x_n)),$$

and this may happen for many, even infinite number of i 's.

Lemma (1)

- 1 For any test T , if R_1 and R_2 are functions then $(I_T \circ R_1) \cup (\bar{I}_T \circ R_2)$ is always a function.
- 2 For any test T , if R is a function, then $(I_T \circ R)^* \circ \bar{I}_T$ is either a function or the empty relation.
- 3 For any test T , if R is a function and $(I_T \circ R)^* \circ \bar{I}_T \neq \emptyset$, then

$$((I_T \circ R)^* \circ \bar{I}_T)(x) = R^{k(x)}(x)$$

where $k(x)$ is the smallest j such that $\bar{I}_T(R^j(x_1, \dots, x_n))(x) \neq \perp$.

- Recall $F = \underbrace{F_1}_{i:=1} \circ \underbrace{F_2}_{fac:=1} \circ \underbrace{\left(\underbrace{l_3}_{i < n} \circ \underbrace{F_4}_{i:=i+1} \circ \underbrace{F_5}_{fac:=fac*i} \right)^* \circ \underbrace{\bar{l}_3}_{i \geq n}}_{\text{while } i < n \text{ do } i:=i+1; fac:=fac*i \text{ od}}$

- Define $G = l_3 \circ F_4 \circ F_5$ and $H = G^* \circ \bar{l}_3$, so $F = F_1 \circ F_2 \circ H$. First note that $(F_1 \circ F_2)(i, fac) = F_2(F_1(i, fac)) = (1, 1)$, so

$$F(i, fac) = H(F_2(F_1(i, fac))) = H(1, 1).$$

- For the function G we have:

$$G(i, fac) = (l_3 \circ F_4 \circ F_5)(i, fac) = F_5(F_4(l_3(i, fac))) = \begin{cases} (i+1, fac \cdot (i+1)) & \text{if } i < n \\ \perp & \text{if } i \geq n \end{cases}$$

Similarly :

$$G^2(i, fac) = G(G(i, fac)) = \begin{cases} (i+2, fac \cdot (i+1) \cdot (i+2)) & \text{if } i+1 < n \\ \perp & \text{if } i+1 \geq n \end{cases}$$

Hence :

$$G^j(i, fac) = \begin{cases} (i+j, fac \cdot (i+1) \cdot (i+2) \cdot \dots \cdot (i+j)) & \text{if } i+j-1 < n \\ \perp & \text{if } i+j-1 \geq n \end{cases}$$

- Recall $F = \underbrace{F_1}_{i:=1} \circ \underbrace{F_2}_{fac:=1} \circ \underbrace{\left(\underbrace{l_3}_{i < n} \circ \underbrace{F_4}_{i:=i+1} \circ \underbrace{F_5}_{fac:=fac*i} \right)^* \circ \underbrace{\bar{l}_3}_{i \geq n}}_{\text{while } i < n \text{ do } i:=i+1; fac:=fac*i \text{ od}}$

- For the function G we have:

$$G(i, fac) = (l_3 \circ F_4 \circ F_5)(i, fac) = F_5(F_4(l_3(i, fac))) = \begin{cases} (i+1, fac \cdot (i+1)) & \text{if } i < n \\ \perp & \text{if } i \geq n \end{cases}$$

Similarly :

$$G^2(i, fac) = G(G(i, fac)) = \begin{cases} (i+2, fac \cdot (i+1) \cdot (i+2)) & \text{if } i+1 < n \\ \perp & \text{if } i+1 \geq n \end{cases}$$

Hence :

$$G^j(i, fac) = \begin{cases} (i+j, fac \cdot (i+1) \cdot (i+2) \cdot \dots \cdot (i+j)) & \text{if } i+j-1 < n \\ \perp & \text{if } i+j-1 \geq n \end{cases}$$

Notice that this last step requires a small amount of human ingenuity to “see” the pattern (although it can be automated in *some* cases).

- Recall: $H = G^* \circ \bar{l}_3$, $F(i, fac) = H(1, 1)$ and

$$G^j(i, fac) = \begin{cases} (i+j, fac \cdot (i+1) \cdot (i+2) \cdot \dots \cdot (i+j)) & \text{if } i+j-1 < n \\ \perp & \text{if } i+j-1 \geq n \end{cases}$$

- From Lemma 1(3) it follows $H(i, fac) = G^k(i, fac)$ where $k = k(i, fac)$ is the smallest j such that $\bar{l}_3(G^j(i, fac)) \neq \perp$.
- In this case we can easily show that there is only one such k and that $k(i, fac) = n - i$.
- Denote $fac' = fac \cdot (i+1) \cdot (i+2) \cdot \dots \cdot (i+j)$.
- First note that $\bar{l}_3(G^j(i, fac)) \neq \perp$ implies $G^j(i, fac) \neq \perp$, i.e. $G^j(i, fac) = (i+j, fac')$ and $i+j-1 < n$.
- Furthermore $\bar{l}_3(i+j, fac') \neq \perp$ implies $i+j \geq n$.
- From $i+j-1 < n$ and $i+j \geq n$ we immediately get $i+j = n$, or $j = n - i$.
- Hence $k(i, fac) = n - i$, i.e.

$$H(i, fac) = G^{n-i}(i, fac) = (n, fac \cdot (i+1) \cdot (i+2) \cdot \dots \cdot n).$$

- We have proved that $k(i, fac) = n - i$, i.e.

$$H(i, fac) = G^{n-i}(i, fac) = (n, fac \cdot (i + 1) \cdot (i + 2) \cdot \dots \cdot n).$$

- This means

$$F(i, fac) = H(1, 1) = (n, n!),$$

so

$$\forall (n | n \in \mathbb{N} : \text{factorial}(n) = n!).$$

- So we are done. In many cases, but not all, the entire calculation can be mechanized, which is a big advantage!

$\{P\}$

do $B \longrightarrow S$ od or **while** B **do** S **od**

$\{R\}$

Checklist for proving loop correct

- (a) P is **true** before execution of the loop
- (b) P is a loop invariant: $\{P \wedge B\} S \{P\}$
- (c) Execution of the loop terminates
- (d) R holds upon termination: $P \wedge \neg B \implies R$

$\{P\}$

do $B \longrightarrow S$ od or **while** B **do** S **od**

$\{R\}$

Checklist for proving loop correct

- (a) P is **true** before execution of the loop
- (b) P is a loop invariant: $\{P \wedge B\} S \{P\}$
- (c) Execution of the loop terminates
- (d) R holds upon termination: $P \wedge \neg B \implies R$

Example (Factorial)

Consider the following program

```
Pr:   i := 1; factorial := 1;  
      while i < n do  
      begin i := i + 1; factorial := factorial * i end  
      od.
```

- Consider the Hoare triple $\{P\}Pr\{R\}$.
- The obvious choice for P and R is $P = (n > 0)$ and $R = (factorial = n!)$.
- Consider $\{n > 0\} i := 1; factorial := 1; \{P'\}$.
- Clearly $P' = (i = 1 \wedge factorial = 1 \wedge n > 0)$ and P' is *true* before execution of the loop.
- Hence (a) of the checklist is satisfied.

- Now we have a case:

```

{P' = (i = 1 ∧ factorial = 1 ∧ n > 0)}
while i < n do
begin i := i + 1; factorial := factorial * i end
od
{R = (factorial = n!)}

```

- We will show that $Q = (\text{factorial} = i! \wedge i \leq n)$ is a loop invariant. Assume $B = (i < n)$.
- To show that Q is a loop invariant, we have to prove that

```

{Q ∧ B}
i := i + 1; factorial := factorial * i
{Q},

```

or, in detail,

```

{(factorial = i! ∧ i ≤ n) ∧ i < n}
i := i + 1; factorial := factorial * i
{factorial = i! ∧ i ≤ n}

```

- Let solve:

$$\{Q'\}$$

$$i := i + 1; \text{factorial} := \text{factorial} * i$$

$$\{Q = (\text{factorial} = i! \wedge i \leq n)\}.$$

- From the definition of sequential composition of two assignment statements we have:

$$\{(\text{factorial} = i! \wedge i \leq n)[\text{factorial} := \text{factorial} * i][i := i + 1]\}$$

$$i := i + 1; \text{factorial} := \text{factorial} * i$$

$$\{\text{factorial} = i! \wedge i \leq n\}.$$

- Hence:

$$(\text{factorial} = i! \wedge i \leq n)[\text{factorial} := \text{factorial} * i][i := i + 1]$$

$$\iff (\text{factorial} * i = i! \wedge i \leq n)[i := i + 1] \iff$$

$$\text{factorial} * (i + 1) = (i + 1)! \wedge i + 1 \leq n \iff$$

$$\text{factorial} * (i + 1) = i! * (i + 1) \wedge i < n \iff$$

$$\text{factorial} = i! \wedge i < n \iff (\text{factorial} = i! \wedge i \leq n) \wedge i < n.$$

- Which means $Q' = (\text{factorial} = i! \wedge i \leq n) \wedge i < n = Q \wedge B$.
- Hence (b) holds, so Q is a loop invariant.

- What about termination of

```
while  $i < n$  do  
begin  $i := i + 1$ ;  $factorial := factorial * i$  end  
od?
```

- Initially $i = 1$ and $n > 0$. The loop contains ' $i := i + 1$ ', so after n steps we get $i = n$, which implies $\neg B$, so the loop terminates.
- Hence (c) is also satisfied.
- Upon termination we have $(Q \wedge \neg B) = (factorial = i! \wedge i \leq n) \wedge i \geq n) \Rightarrow (factorial = i!) = R$.
- This means (d) is also satisfied.
- Hence we have proved: $\{n > 0\}Pr\{factorial = n!\}$

Another Example

- Consider the following program that already has been analysed using Hoare Logic:

```
 $q, r := 0, b;$   
 $\text{do } r \geq c \longrightarrow q, r := q + 1, r - c \text{ od}$ 
```

- Define $D = \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$ and denote the elements of D as (q, r) . Each parallel assignment statement can be modelled by a function $F_i : D \rightarrow D$, in the following manner:

“ $q, r := 0, b$ ” corresponds to $F_1(q, r) = (0, b)$, and

“ $q, r := q + 1, r - c$ ” corresponds to $F_2(q, r) = (q + 1, r - c)$.

- The test $r \geq c$ can be modelled by two partial identity functions, $l_3, \bar{l}_3 : D \rightsquigarrow D$, where l_3 models $r \geq c$, and \bar{l}_3 models its complement, i.e. $r < c$. More precisely,

“ $r \geq c$ ” corresponds to $l_3(q, r)$, and

“ $r < c$ ” corresponds to $\bar{l}_3(q, r)$, where (\perp denotes *undefined*)

$$l_3(q, r) = \begin{cases} (q, r) & \text{if } r \geq c \\ \perp & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad \bar{l}_3(q, r) = \begin{cases} (q, r) & \text{if } r < c \\ \perp & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Programs as Relations

We can now model the basic programming constructs as follows

- "S1;S2" is modeled by $R_1 \circ R_2$,
- "if T then S1 else S2" is modeled by $(I_T \circ R_1) \cup (\bar{I}_T \circ R_2)$, and
- "while T do S" is modeled by $(I_T \circ R)^* \circ \bar{I}_T$.

Using this scheme one can easily model the above program by writing the following (symbolic) relational expression:

$$F = F_1 \circ (I_3 \circ F_2)^* \circ \bar{I}_3,$$

or

$$F = \underbrace{F_1}_{q,r:=0,b} \circ \underbrace{\left(\underbrace{I_3}_{r \geq c} \circ \underbrace{F_2}_{q,r:=q+1,r-c} \right)^* \circ \underbrace{\bar{I}_3}_{r < c}}_{\text{do } r \geq c \rightarrow q,r:=q+1,r-c \text{ od}}$$

- Recall $F = \underbrace{F_1}_{q,r:=0,b} \circ \underbrace{\left(\overbrace{l_3}^{r \geq c} \circ \overbrace{F_2}^{q,r:=q+1,r-c} \right)^* \circ \overbrace{\bar{l}_3}^{r < c}}_{\text{do } r \geq c \rightarrow q,r:=q+1,r-c \text{ od}}$

- Define $G = l_3 \circ F_2$ and $H = G^* \circ \bar{l}_3$, so $F = F_1 \circ H$. First note that $F_1(q, r) = (0, b)$, so $F(q, r) = H((F_1(q, r))) = H(0, b)$.
- For the function G we have:

$$G(q, r) = (l_3 \circ F_2)(q, r) = F_2(l_3(q, r)) = \begin{cases} (q+1, r-c) & \text{if } r \geq c \\ \perp & \text{if } r < c \end{cases}$$

Similarly :

$$G^2(q, r) = G(G(q, r)) = \begin{cases} (q+2, r-2 \cdot c) & \text{if } r-c \geq c \equiv r \geq 2 \cdot c \\ \perp & \text{if } r-c < c \equiv r < 2 \cdot c \end{cases}$$

Hence :

$$G^i(q, r) = \begin{cases} (q+i, r-i \cdot c) & \text{if } r \geq i \cdot c \\ \perp & \text{if } r < i \cdot c \end{cases}$$

Notice that this last step requires a small amount of human ingenuity to “see” the pattern (although it can be automated in *some* cases).

- Recall: $H = G^* \circ \bar{l}_3$, $F(q, r) = H(0, b)$ and

$$G^i(q, r) = \begin{cases} (q + i, r - i \cdot c) & \text{if } r \geq i \cdot c \\ \perp & \text{if } r < i \cdot c \end{cases}$$

- From Lemma 1(3) it follows $H(q, r) = G^k(q, r)$ where $k = k(q, r)$ is the smallest j such that $\bar{l}_3(G^j(q, r)) \neq \perp$.
- In this case we can easily show that there is only one such k and $k = k(q, r)$ is the biggest i such that $r \geq i \cdot c$.
- Let $(q_F, r_F) = H(0, b) = G^k(0, b)$. Then k is the biggest i such that $b \geq i \cdot c$, $q_F = k$, $r_F = b - k \cdot c$.
- Hence q_F is the quotient of integer division, i.e. $q_F = b \div c$, and r_F is the remainder of $b \div c$, i.e. $r_F = b - q_F \cdot c$.

Problem

Use the checklist to prove that the annotation in this program is correct.

$\{Q : b \geq 0 \wedge c > 0\}$

$q, r := 0, b;$

$\{\text{invariant } P : b = q \cdot c + r \wedge 0 \leq r\}$

do $r \geq c \longrightarrow q, r := q + 1, r - c$ od

$\{R : b = q \cdot c + r \wedge 0 \leq r < c\}$

$\{Q : b \geq 0 \wedge c > 0\}$

$q, r := 0, b;$

$\{\text{invariant } P : b = q \cdot c + r \wedge 0 \leq r\}$

do $r \geq c \longrightarrow q, r := q + 1, r - c$ od

$\{R : b = q \cdot c + r \wedge 0 \leq r < c\}$

(a) We need to prove $Q \Rightarrow P[q, r := 0, b]$.

$P[q, r := 0, b]$

= $\langle \text{Definition of } P; \text{ textual substitution} \rangle$

$b = 0 \cdot c + b \wedge 0 \leq b$

$\Leftarrow \langle \text{Arithmetic; definition of } Q \rangle$

Q

(b) $\{P \wedge B\} S \{P\}$, hence we have to prove $P \wedge B \Rightarrow P[q, r := q + 1, r - c]$.

$P[q, r := q + 1, r - c]$

= $\langle \text{Definition of } P \text{ and textual substitution} \rangle$

$b = (q + 1) \cdot c + (r - c) \wedge 0 \leq r - c$

= $\langle \text{Arithmetic} \rangle$

$b = q \cdot c + r \wedge r \geq c$

$\Leftarrow \langle \text{Definition of } P \text{ and } B \rangle$

$P \wedge B$

(c) Note that each iteration decreases r by c ($c > 0$), so that after a finite number of iterations $r < c$ is achieved.

(d) $P \wedge \neg B \Rightarrow$ is obvious. So we are done.

- The first example (Factorial) is probably easier to mechanize.
- To make this technique feasible for bigger, more realistic programs, we need a tool that would be able to do all those symbolic calculations.
- The reasoning presented above rely heavily on Lemma 1(3) and **is rather typical for human beings**.
- Many steps and observations are **not easy** to mechanize.
- Nevertheless, this technique has most likely better prospects to eventually lead to almost automatic theorem provers (at least for some special kind of programs), than Hoare Logic.
- On the other hand, for human beings skillful in finding loop invariant, Hoare Logic is probably more convenient.

- Consider the program:

factorial-1000

local i, fac

i:=1;

fac:=1;

while i < 1000 **do**

begin

i:=i+1

fac:=fac*i;

end;

end proc;

- It is relatively easy using almost every theorem prover that $\text{factorial-1000} = 1000!$, or in fact that $\text{factorial-}n = n!$ for any *constant* n .

- Consider the following program Pr :

```
 $b, c := 73458, 73;$   
 $q, r := 0, b;$   
 $\text{do } r \geq c \longrightarrow q, r := q + 1, r - c \text{ od}$ 
```

- It is relatively easy using almost every theorem prover that for $b = 73458, c = 73$, the program Pr calculate proper quotient and remainder, i.e. the program ends with $q = 1006$ and $r = 20$. In fact it can be proved for any constants b and c .
- A proving properties of programs software developed using Maple can deal with both Factorial and quotient/remainder cannot prove correctness of some sorting procedures for a variable n , which is the size of the data to be sorted.
- However it can handle all cases when n is fixed, for example $n = 6758$, etc.
- The same is true for other similar software.

- In science, laws of nature are proved by conducting a finite number of experiments.
- We may say that in science we use *finite induction*.
- Would you trust a given sorting procedure that was *proven correct* for several different values n ?
- How does it differ from *testing*?
- *Testing*: You would test several random sequences and verify if they were really sorted correctly. Quite often programs works correctly for most of inputs but not for all.
- *Verifying by Finite Induction*: You have formal proofs that a program is correct for some specific constant parameters. From this you conclude that it works correctly for all values of these parameters.
- I believe that verification by finite induction is more trustworthy than testing.