

Lecture 6: Proving and Testing Program Properties

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Levels of Correctness Assurance (1/2)



- 1. Manual testing while developing.
 - As the software evolves, things that worked earlier might break.
- 2. **Unit testing with hard-coded test cases.** The classic way of testing software.
 - If a software system has many unit tests, it is likely to catch unexpected consequences of new changes to the code base.
 - Recall the Polynomials project. Given a function diff :: Poly a → Poly a (differentiate a polynomial) we could write the unit tests
 - *diff* [] = []
 - $diff[1] \equiv []$
 - $diff [1,2,3] \equiv [2,6]$
 - ..

Purely functional programming is great for testing

- Every function is a "mathematical function" (no side-effects)
 - Testing is just a matter of constructing some input to a function, and seeing if the output is as expected
- In non-pure languages, the behaviour of methods depend both on input, but also on *external state* of the system.
 - You generally need "set up" and "tear down" methods, to build up the context a test should run within.

Levels of Correctness Assurance (2/2)



- 3. Property-based unit-testing with randomly generated test-cases.
 - The system will generate test cases the programmer might not have thought about.
 - The intention of the tests is clearer to the reader, since they are specified in terms of properties, instead of test cases:

```
• \lambda p \rightarrow deg \ (diff \ p) \equiv deg \ p-1
```

- $\lambda p \to (diff \circ int) \ p \equiv p$
- $\lambda p \ q \rightarrow diff \ (p \ 'compose' \ q) \equiv ((diff \ p) \ 'compose' \ q) \ 'mul' \ (diff \ q)$
- ...
- 4. **Formal proofs of properties** the program is correct for *any* input!
 - Proofs can be implemented in a "proof management system", and verification can be run whenever the programmer wants, just like unit testing
 - It is a **lot** of work to formally prove correctness. Usually only used by compiler writers etc.



Proving that Android's, Java's and Python's sorting algorithm is broken (and showing how to fix it)

Tim Peters developed the Timsort hybrid sorting algorithm in 2002. It is a clever combination of ideas from merge sort and insertion sort, and designed to perform well on real world data. TimSort was first developed for Python, but later ported to Java (where it appears as java.util.Collections.sort and java.util.Arrays.sort) by Joshua Bloch (the designer of Java Collections who also pointed out that most binary search algorithms were broken). TimSort is today used as the default sorting algorithm for Android SDK, Sun's JDK and OpenJDK. Given the popularity of these platforms this means that the number of computers, cloud services and mobile phones that use TimSort for sorting is well into the billions.



OpenJDK's java.utils.Collection.sort() is broken: The good, the bad and the worst case*

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Abstract. We investigate the correctness of TimSort, which is the main sorting algorithm provided by the Java standard library. The goal is functional verification with mechanical proofs. During our verification attempt we discovered a bug which causes the implementation to crash. We characterize the conditions under which the bug occurs, and from this we derive a bug-free version that does not compromise the performance. We formally specify the new version and mechanically verify the absence of this bug with KeY, a state-of-the-art verification tool for Java.

How to formally prove program properties?



Even though it is a lot of work to formally prove correctness of bigger systems, the basic principles are quite simple. This is the topic of today.

Consider the boolean function

$$(\land)$$
 :: $Bool \rightarrow Bool \rightarrow Bool$
 $True \land x = x$
 $False \land x = False$

How do we prove the following?

- $(x \wedge y) \wedge z = x \wedge (y \wedge z)$
- $x \wedge y \equiv y \wedge x$

Proving properties involving Algebraic Data Types

We saw that properties involving

are proved by splitting up in cases, corresponding to each of the definitions of the function.

What about properties involving recursive data types?

data
$$List\ a = Nil \mid Cons\ (List\ a)$$

These are also proved by cases - namely the base case and inductive case (we will use proof by *induction*).

First example



Recall the *map* function for the list data type [*a*]:

$$map f [] = []$$

 $map f (x : xs) = f x : map f xs$

It should hold that

- for any list xs, map id xs = xs
- for any list xs, $map (f \circ g) xs = map f (map g xs)$

Let's prove the first law:

• Base case: We want to show

$$map \ id \ [] = []$$

• **Inductive case:** Assume that *map id* xs = xs. Then we want to show

map id
$$(x:xs) = (x:xs)$$

The second law



- **Base step:** Prove map $(f \circ g)$ [] = map f (map g [])
- **Induction hypothesis:** Assume $map (f \circ g) xs = map f (map g xs)$
- Induction step: Prove $map (f \circ g) (x : xs) = map f (map g (x : xs))$

Base step: Left hand side (LHS) and right hand side (RHS) match:

$$map (f \circ g) [] = []$$

 $map f (map g []) = map f [] = []$

The second law



- **Base step:** Prove map $(f \circ g)$ [] = map f (map g [])
- Induction hypothesis: Assume $map (f \circ g) xs = map f (map g xs)$
- Inductive step: Prove $map (f \circ g) (x : xs) = map f (map g (x : xs))$

Induction step:

$$map (f \circ g) (x : xs) = (f \circ g) x : map (f \circ g) xs$$

$$= f (g x) : map (f \circ g) xs$$

$$= f (g x) : map f (map g xs)$$

$$= map f (g x : map g xs)$$

$$= map f (map g (x : xs))$$

Another example: reverse



```
(++) :: [a] \rightarrow [a] \rightarrow [a]
[] ++ys = ys
(x:xs) ++ys = x:(xs ++ ys)
rev :: [a] \rightarrow [a]
rev [] = []
rev (x:xs) = rev xs ++ [x]
```

(just above is the (inefficient) definition of *reverse* (here: shortened to *rev*). We want to show the following properties:

$$(xs + ys) + zs \equiv xs + (ys + zs)$$

 $xs + [] \equiv xs$
 $rev (xs + ys) = rev ys + rev xs$
 $rev (rev xs) = xs$

We proceed by induction.

Recall that there are two versions of reverse

•
$$rev1 = foldr (\lambda x \ rxs \rightarrow rxs + [x]) []$$

These are equal due to the **Second Duality Theorem**, stated here:

Suppose \oplus , \otimes and e are such that for all x, y, and z we have

$$x \oplus (y \otimes z) = (x \oplus y) \otimes z$$

 $x \oplus e = e \otimes x$

In other words, \oplus and \otimes associate with each other, and e on the right of \oplus is equivalent to e on the left of \otimes . Then

$$foldr (\oplus) e xs = foldl (\otimes) e xs$$

for all finite lists xs.

Let

$$(\oplus) = (\lambda x \ rxs \rightarrow rxs + [x])$$
$$(\otimes) = (flip \ (:))$$
$$e = []$$

Show that \oplus , \otimes and e are such that for all x, y, and z we have

$$\begin{array}{l}
 x \oplus (y \otimes z) = (x \oplus y) \otimes z \\
 x \oplus e &= e \otimes x
 \end{array}$$

- LHS1: $x \oplus (y \otimes z) = (y \otimes z) + [x] = (z : y) + x$
- RHS1: $(x \oplus y) \otimes z = z : (x \oplus y) = z : (y + x) = (z : y) + x$
- LHS2: $x \oplus e = [] + [x] = [x]$
- RHS2: $e \otimes x = x$: [] = [x]

Showing the theorem itself...



Recall

```
 foldr f z [] = z 
 foldr f z (x : xs) = f x (foldr f z xs) 
 foldl f z [] = z 
 foldl f z (x : xs) = foldl f (f z x) xs
```

Theorem. Assume \oplus and \otimes associate with each other, and e on the right of \oplus is equivalent to e on the left of \otimes . Then

$$foldr \ (\oplus) \ e \ xs = foldl \ (\otimes) \ e \ xs$$

for all finite lists xs.

We need an auxillary lemma:

$$x \oplus foldl \ (\otimes) \ z \ xs = foldl \ (\otimes) \ (x \oplus z) \ xs$$

The First Duality Theorem



The Second Duality Theorem is a special case of "the first duality theorem":

Suppose \oplus is associative with unit e. Then

$$foldr (\oplus) e xs = foldl (\oplus) e xs$$

for all finite lists *xs*.

Monoids



A type t is a Monoid, if there exists an operation (\oplus) :: $t \to t \to t$ and an identity element e :: t , s.t.

- for all $x :: t, x \oplus e = x = e \oplus x$
- for all $x, y, z :: t, x \oplus (y \oplus z) = (x \oplus y) \oplus z$

In Haskell, there is the type class **Data.Monoid**. Here,

- the operation is called mappend,
- the identity element is called mempty
- the fold is called *mconcat*

Can you come up with examples of Monoids?

A few monoids



```
instance Monoid [a] where
  mempty = []
  mappend = (++)
[1,2,3] 'mappend' [4,5,6] = [1,2,3,4,5,6]
```

```
instance (Monoid a, Monoid b) \Rightarrow Monoid (a, b) where mempty = (mempty, mempty)
(a1, b1) 'mappend' (a2, b2) =
(a1 'mappend' a2, b1 'mappend' b2)
([1,3], "le") 'mappend' ([3,7], "et") = ([1,3,3,7], "leet")
```

A few monoids



```
-- lexicographical ordering instance Monoid Ordering where
```

mempty = EQ LT 'mappend' $_ = LT$

EQ 'mappend' y = y

GT 'mappend' $_=GT$

compare 1 1 'mappend' compare 2 2 'mappend' compare 1 3 = LT

What about infinite lists?



To summarize the proof structure we have seen so far: To show that a property P holds for every finite list xs, we need to show

- 1. P([])
- 2. For any finite list xs, $P(xs) \Rightarrow P(x:xs)$

We would now like to extend this to infinite lists.

What about infinite lists?



Studies of denotational semantics shows that infinite lists can be regarded as the limit of an infinite sequence of partial lists

```
\perp
x0: \perp
x0: x1: \perp
x0: x1: x2: \perp
x0: x1: x2: x3: \perp
x0: x1: x2: x3: x4: \perp
```

Proving properties for infinite lists



To show that a property *P* holds for every infinite list *xs*, we need to show

- 1. $P(\perp)$
- 2. For any partial list xs, $P(xs) \Rightarrow P(x : xs)$

If P is a chain complete property, then this suffices to show that the property also hold for any infinite list xs.

We can now show that

$$xs + ys = xs$$

for any infinite list *xs*.

Proving properties for both finite and infinite lists

To show that a property *P* holds for every finite or infinite list *xs*, we need to show

- 1. $P(\perp)$
- 2. *P* ([])
- 3. For any partial or finite list xs, $P(xs) \Rightarrow P(x:xs)$

Where do we run into trouble when trying to prove

$$rev(rev xs) = xs$$

for infinite lists also?





iterate
$$f(x) = x$$
: iterate $f(f(x))$
iterate' $f(x) = x$: map $f(x)$

How do we approach the proof of:

$$iterate f x = iterate' f x$$

for any f, x?

A more practical example



What about more advanced functions - like insertion sort...?

How to we describe that a list is *sorted*? I.e. a function

$$sorted :: Ord \ a \Rightarrow [a] \rightarrow Bool$$

which returns *True* if and only if a list is sorted. Any ideas?

- sorted $xs = and (zipWith (\leq) xs (tail xs))$
 - Turns out to be cumbersome to use in proofs
- Instead, we stick with the following definition

sorted :: Ord
$$a \Rightarrow [a] \rightarrow Bool$$

sorted $[] = True$
sorted $(x:xs) = lower \ x \ xs \land sorted \ xs$
 $lower :: Ord \ a \rightarrow a \rightarrow [a] \rightarrow Bool$
 $lower \ n \ [] = True$
 $lower \ n \ (x:xs) = n \le x \land lower \ n \ xs$

The structure of the proof



We want to prove

To help us, we proceed in 4 different induction proofs:

- 1. $n \le m \Rightarrow (lower \ m \ xs \Rightarrow lower \ n \ xs)$
- 2. lower y (insert x as) = $(y \le x \land lower y$ as)
- 3. $sorted\ ys = sorted\ (insert\ x\ ys)$
- **4**. *sorted* (*isort xs*)



DEMO: Isabelle Proof Assistant Show the Insertion sort proof Demonstrate the Sledgehammer Mention limitations (restricted to total functions)

Are we done?



We now know that

for any list *xs*. Is this property enough to know that *isort* is correct?

What if I come up with the function

$$isort _ = []$$

Are we done?



We need to specify the fact that the sorted list is a permutation of the original list, i.e. a predicate

$$perm :: Eq \ a \Rightarrow [a] \rightarrow [a] \rightarrow Bool$$

should be defined, such that perm xs ys = True iff ys is a permutation of xs.

```
perm [] [] = True
perm [] _ = False
perm (x:xs) ys = elem x ys \land perm xs (delete x ys)
```

There is another way...

So, induction proofs takes a lot of work. But we can still get great testing only by write down the *properties* of our program, i.e. predicates

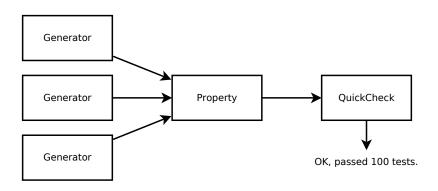
- $sorted :: Ord \ a \Rightarrow [a] \rightarrow Bool$
- $perm :: Eq \ a \Rightarrow [a] \rightarrow [a] \rightarrow Bool$

QuickCheck, an automated testing library/tool for Haskell

Features:

- Describe properties as Haskell programs using an embedded domain-specific language (EDSL).
- Automatic datatype-driven random test case generation.
- Extensible, e.g. test case generators can be adapted.

Overview



History

- Developed in 2000 by Koen Claessen and John Hughes.
- Copied to other programming languages: Common Lisp, Scheme, Erlang, Python, Ruby, SML, Clean, Java, Scala, F#
- Erlang version is sold by a company, QuviQ, founded by the authors of QuickCheck.

```
{-# LANGUAGE TemplateHaskell #-}
import Data.List
import Test. QuickCheck
import Test.QuickCheck.All (quickCheckAll)
  -- (... definitions of isort etc ...)
prop\_lowerle\ n\ m\ xs = n \leqslant m ==> (lower\ m\ xs ==> lower\ n\ xs)
prop_lowerinsert x y as = lower y (insert x as) \equiv (y \leqslant x \land lower y as
prop\_sortedinsert x ys = sorted ys \equiv sorted (insert x ys)
prop\_sortedisort xs = sorted (isort xs)
prop\_permisort \ xs = perm \ xs \ (isort \ xs)
return []
main = $quickCheckAll
```

DEMO: QuickCheck for PolyList project

Summary

QuickCheck is a great tool:

- A domain-specific language for writing properties.
- Test data is generated automatically and randomly.
- Another domain-specific language to write custom generators.
- You should use it.

However, keep in mind that writing good tests still requires training, and that tests can have bugs, too.