

# Incorrectness Logic

COL731 Course Presentation

Based on Peter W. O'Hearn's Paper & Talk @ POPL '20

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## Section 1

# Introduction

# Motivation

- Disconnect between Industrial Tools and Academic Theory
  - Sound program logics for reasoning about **correctness**. But code is seldom correct!
  - Industrial automated reasoning tools often **find bugs**
- Q: *Can reasoning about the presence of bugs be underpinned by sound techniques in a principled logical system?*
  - “Reimagine” static-analysis tools
  - Provide symbolic bug-catchers a principled basis
- A: *Underapproximate Reasoning!* (What is that?)

## Underapproximation

- Hoare Logic Specification:

$$\text{post-condition} \supseteq \text{strongest-post}_{\text{code}}(\text{pre-condition})$$

- Incorrectness Logic Specification:

$$\text{[presumption] code [result]}$$

$$\text{result} \subseteq \text{strongest-post}_{\text{code}}(\text{presumption})$$

- Have separate post-assertions for errors, normal termination
  - Assertions describe erroneous states that *can be* reached by actual program executions

## Underapproximation (but picture)

- We obtain a logic which can be used to prove *the presence of bugs, but not their absence*.

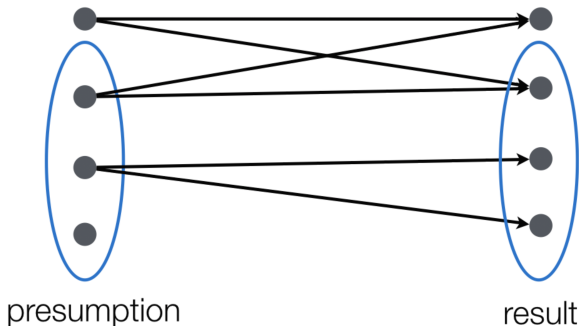


Figure 1: Source: [Incorrectness Logic Paper](#)

*'Hoare triples speak the whole truth, where the under-approximate triples speak nothing but the truth.'*



# Category-Theoretic Notion

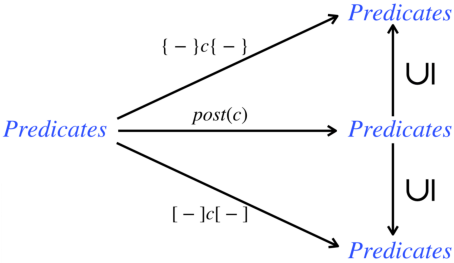


Figure 2: Commuting Diagram (Source : [Incorrectness Logic Paper](#))

- *Predicates*  $\approx 2^{\text{Program States}}$ , arrows  $\approx$  binary relations on *Predicates*
- $post(c)$  is a function, the other two are non-functional
- $[-]c[-] = post(c); \supseteq$  and  $\{-\}c\{-\} = post(c); \subseteq$
- $post(c)p = \text{strongest post of } p = \text{weakest under-approximating post of } p$



# Reasoning Principles - I

$$\begin{aligned}
 \wedge \vee \text{ Symmetry: } & [p]c[q_1] \wedge [p]c[q_2] \iff [p]c[q_1 \vee q_2] \\
 & \{p\}c\{q_1\} \wedge \{p\}c\{q_2\} \iff \{p\}c\{q_1 \wedge q_2\} \\
 \Uparrow \Downarrow \text{ Symmetry: } & p' \Leftarrow p \wedge [p]c[q] \wedge q \Leftarrow q' \implies [p']c[q'] \\
 & p' \Rightarrow p \wedge \{p\}c\{q\} \wedge q \Rightarrow q' \implies \{p'\}c\{q'\}
 \end{aligned}$$

Figure 3: Correctness & Incorrectness Principles (Source : [Incorrectness Logic Paper](#))

- $[p]c[q \vee r] \implies [p]c[q]$  allows you to *drop paths* going forward.
  - Not possible in overapproximate logics - but can *forget information* along each path
- Rules of consequence allow specifications to be adapted to broader contexts

## Reasoning Principles - II

*Principle of Agreement:*  $[u]c[u'] \wedge u \Rightarrow o \wedge \{o\}c\{o'\} \implies u' \Rightarrow o'$

*Principle of Denial:*  $[u]c[u'] \wedge u \Rightarrow o \wedge \neg(u' \Rightarrow o') \implies \neg(\{o\}c\{o'\})$

Figure 4: Correctness & Incorrectness Principles (Source : [Incorrectness Logic Paper](#))

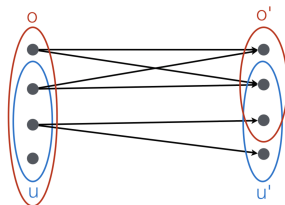


Figure 5: Analogy with Testing (Source : [Incorrectness Logic Paper](#))

- Program testing works on the principle of denial (traditionally,  $|u| = |u'| = 1$ , a test run)

# Isn't Incorrectness Just Not Correctness?

- Yes, but we aren't powerful enough to precisely compute either!
- *'The inability to prove an over-approximate spec (whether found by a tool or specified by a human) does not imply an error in a program, and neither does not having found a bug imply that there are none: thus, the need for dedicated techniques for each.'*

## Section 3

## Build Your Muscle

## Under-Approximating Triples - I

$$[z = 11]$$

```
if (x is even) {
    if (y is odd) {
        z = 42;
    }
}
```

 $[z = 42]$

# Under-Approximating Triples - I

$[z = 11]$

```
if (x is even) {  
  if (y is odd) {  
    z = 42;  
  }  
}
```

$[z = 42]$

This triple *does not hold*! The state  $[z : 42, x : 1, y : 3]$  has no predecessor!

## Under-Approximating Triples - II

*[true]*

```
if (x is even) {
    if (y is odd) {
        z = 42;
    }
}
```

 $[z = 42]$

# Under-Approximating Triples - II

$[true]$

```
if (x is even) {  
  if (y is odd) {  
    z = 42;  
  }  
}
```

$[z = 42]$

This triple *holds*!



# Under-Approximating Triples - III

$[z = 11]$

```
if (x is even) {  
  if (y is odd) {  
    z = 42;  
  }  
}
```

$[z = 42 \wedge (x \text{ is even}) \wedge (y \text{ is odd})]$

# Under-Approximating Triples - III

$[z = 11]$

```
if (x is even) {  
    if (y is odd) {  
        z = 42;  
    }  
}
```

$[z = 42 \wedge (x \text{ is even}) \wedge (y \text{ is odd})]$

This triple *holds*!

# Under-Approximating Triples - IV

[true]

```
if (x is even) {  
  if (y is odd) {  
    z = 42;  
  }  
}
```

$[z = 42 \wedge (x \text{ is even}) \wedge (y \text{ is odd})]$

## Under-Approximating Triples - IV

[true]

```
if (x is even) {
    if (y is odd) {
        z = 42;
    }
}
```

$$[z = 42 \wedge (x \text{ is even} ) \wedge (y \text{ is odd} )]$$

This triple *holds*!

## Specifying Incorrectness

- Reasoning about errors?

## Specifying Incorrectness

- Reasoning about errors?
- Have separate result-assertion forms for normal and (erroneous or abnormal) termination.

```
void foo(char * str)
/* presumes: [ *str[]==s ]
   achieves: [ er: *str[]==s && length(s) > 16 ] */
{
    char buf[16];
    strcpy(buf, str);
}

int main(int argc, char *argv[])
{ foo(argv[1]); }
```

- Spec: if the length of the input string is greater than 16 then we can get an error (in this case a buffer overflow).

## Under-approximate Success

- Why not over-approximate for successful and under-approximate for erroneous termination?
  - Under-approximate result assertions describing successful computations can help us **soundly discover bugs that come after a procedure is called**.

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```
void mkeven()  
/* presumes: [true], wrong achieves: [ok: x==2 || x==4] */  
{ x=2; }  
  
void usemkeven()  
{ mkeven(); if (x==4) {error();} }
```

- We don't want false positives!



## Section 4

# Proof System

## Setup

- Simple imperative language. `error()` halts execution and raises an error signal, `er`.
- Abnormal control flows impact reasoning about sequential composition
  - Solution: associate assertions with a set of exit conditions  $\epsilon$
  - $\epsilon$  includes (at least) `ok` for normal termination and `er` causes by `error()`
- $[p]C[\epsilon : q] = q$  under-approximates the states when  $C$  exits via  $\epsilon$  starting from states in  $p$ .
- $x$  is **not** free in  $p$  iff  $\sigma \in p \iff (\forall v. (\sigma|x \mapsto v) \in p)$ . **[BUG]**
- Treat  $p, q$  semantically (i.e., any  $\subseteq \Sigma$ , the set of program states) – don't fix a language.
  - By treating assertions semantically, we are essentially appealing to mathematics (or set theory) as an oracle in our proof theory when we use  $\implies$  in proof rules.
- $[p]C[\text{ok} : q][\text{er} : r]$  as shorthand for  $[p]C[\text{ok} : q]$  and  $[p]C[\text{er} : r]$ .

## Generic Proof Rules - I

<i>Empty under-approximates</i>	<i>Consequence</i>	<i>Disjunction</i>
$\frac{[p]C[\epsilon: false]}{[p]C[\epsilon: false]}$	$\frac{p' \Leftarrow p \quad [p]C[\epsilon: q] \quad q \Leftarrow q'}{[p']C[\epsilon: q']}$	$\frac{[p_1]C[\epsilon: q_1] \quad [p_2]C[\epsilon: q_2]}{[p_1 \vee p_2]C[\epsilon: q_1 \vee q_2]}$
<i>Unit</i>	<i>Sequencing (short-circuit)</i>	<i>Sequencing (normal)</i>
$[p]skip[ok: p][er: false]$	$\frac{[p]C_1[er: r]}{[p]C_1; C_2[er: r]}$	$\frac{[p]C_1[ok: q] \quad [q]C_2[\epsilon: r]}{[p]C_1; C_2[\epsilon: r]}$
<i>Iterate zero</i>	<i>Iterate non-zero</i>	<i>Backwards Variant (where <math>n</math> fresh)</i>
$[p]C^\star[ok: p]$	$\frac{[p]C^\star; C[\epsilon: q]}{[p]C^\star[\epsilon: q]}$	$\frac{[p(n) \wedge nat(n)]C[ok: p(n+1) \wedge nat(n)]}{[p(0)]C^\star[ok: \exists n. p(n) \wedge nat(n)]}$
<i>Choice (where <math>i = 1</math> or <math>2</math>)</i>	<i>Error</i>	<i>Assume</i>
$\frac{[p]C_i[\epsilon: q]}{[p]C_1 + C_2[\epsilon: q]}$	$[p]error()[ok: false][er: p]$	$[p]assume B[ok: p \wedge B][er: false]$
$\text{while } B \text{ do } C \quad =_{def} \quad (\text{assume}(B); C)^\star; \text{assume}(\neg B)$ $\text{if } B \text{ then } C \text{ else } C' \quad =_{def} \quad (\text{assume}(B); C) + (\text{assume}(\neg B); C')$ $\text{assert}(B) \quad =_{def} \quad \text{assume}(B) + (\text{assume}(\neg B); error())$		

Figure 6: Generic Proof Rules of Incorrectness Logic (Source: [Incorrectness Logic Paper](#))

# Generic Proof Rules - Axioms

- Valid across different models of states and commands
  - Usual: States = Variables  $\rightarrow$  Values and Commands = Binary Relations on States
  - Others based on traces, separation logic etc.

Assume  $\frac{}{[p]\text{assume } B[\text{ok} : p \wedge B][\text{er} : \text{false}]}$       Skip  $\frac{}{[p]\text{skip}[\text{ok} : p][\text{er} : \text{false}]}$

Empty under-approximates  $\frac{}{[p]C[\epsilon : \text{false}]}$

- `assume(B)` statement : B is a Boolean expression, can be from an otherwise-unspecified first-order logic signature.
- Axioms for `assume` and `skip` : give the expected assertions for normal termination, but specify `false` (the empty set of states) for abnormal.

# Generic Proof Rules - Consequence, Disjunction & Choice

$$\text{Consequence} \frac{p' \Leftarrow p \quad [p]C[\epsilon : q] \quad q \Leftarrow q'}{[p']C[\epsilon : q']}$$

$$\text{Disjunction} \frac{[p_1]C[\epsilon : q_1] \quad [p_2]C[\epsilon : q_2]}{[p_1 \vee p_2]C[\epsilon : q_1 \vee q_2]}$$

$$\text{Choice (where } i = 1, 2) \frac{[p]C_i[\epsilon : q]}{[p]C_1 + C_2[\epsilon : q]}$$

- The rule of consequence lets us *enlarge (weaken) the pre* and *shrink (strengthen) the post-assertion*.
  - Allows us to *drop disjuncts in the post* and *drop conjuncts in the pre*.
- ‘Enlarging the pre was used in the Abductor tool ([[Calcagno et al. 2011](#)], which led to Facebook Infer), when guessing pre-conditions in programs with loops.’
  - Was unsound in the over-approximating logic used there, required a re-execution step which filtered out unsound pre-conditions

# Generic Proof Rules - Sequencing and Iteration

*Sequencing(short-circuit)*

$$\frac{[p] \ C_1 \ [\text{er} : r]}{[p] \ C_1; C_2 \ [\text{er} : r]}$$

*Iterate zero*

$$\frac{}{[p] \ C^* \ [\text{ok} : p]}$$

*Sequencing(normal)*

$$\frac{[p] \ C_1 \ [\text{ok} : q] \ [q] \ C_2 \ [\epsilon : r]}{[p] \ C_1; C_2 \ [\epsilon : r]}$$

*Iterate non-zero*

$$\frac{[p] \ C^*; C \ [\epsilon : q]}{[p] \ C^* \ [\epsilon : q]}$$

- The *Iterate zero* rule shows that **any assertion is a valid under-approximate invariant for Kleene iteration**.
  - Loop invariants don't play a central role in under-approximate reasoning. Notion of *subvariants* mentioned in [POPL'23 tutorial](#).
- The *Iterate non-zero* rule uses  $C^*; C$  rather than  $C; C^*$  to help reasoning about cases where an error is thrown inside an iteration. Will see an example later.

# Generic Proof Rules - Derived Choice and Iteration, Backwards Variant

*Derived Unrolling Rule*

$$\frac{[p] C^i [\epsilon : q_i], \text{ all } i \leq \text{bound}}{[p] C^* [\epsilon : \bigvee_{i \leq \text{bound}} q_i]}$$

*Derived Rule of Choice*

$$\frac{[p] C_1 [\epsilon : q_1] \quad [p] C_2 [\epsilon : q_2]}{[p] C_1 + C_2 [\epsilon : q_1 \vee q_2]}$$

- One of the things that iteration can do is execute its body  $i$  times.
- The *Unrolling* rule gives a similar capability symbolic bounded model checking (but we need the *Backwards Variant* rule too in general).

Backwards Variant (where  $n$  fresh) 
$$\frac{[p(n) \wedge \text{nat}(n)] C [\epsilon : p(n+1) \wedge \text{nat}(n)]}{[p(0)] C^* [\epsilon : \exists n. p(n) \wedge \text{nat}(n)]}$$

- $p(\cdot)$  = a parameterized predicate (a function from expressions to predicates).

## Backwards Variant relation with Program Termination

- $[\text{presumption}] \sqsubset [\epsilon : \text{result}]$  expresses a reachability property that involves termination.
  - *Every state in the result is reachable from some state in the presumption.*
- But this does not imply that a loop must terminate on all executions!
  - Enough paths terminate to cover all the states in result, while other paths may diverge.
- *Backward variant* rule is similar to proof rules for proving program termination (typically use a “variant” that decreases on each loop iteration)
  - But reflects the *backward* nature of this property.  $p$  goes down when executing backwards.
- What about the forward variant?  $[\exists n. p(n) \wedge \text{nat}(n)] \sqsubset^* [\text{ok} : p(0)]$ .



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  - But reflects the *backward* nature of this property.  $p$  goes down when executing backwards.
- What about the forward variant?  $[\exists n. p(n) \wedge \text{nat}(n)] \ C^* \ [\text{ok} : p(0)]$ .
- It is always true :)





# Specific Proof Rules - Variables and Mutation

*Assignment*

$$[p]x = e[ok: \exists x'. p[x'/x] \wedge x = e[x'/x]][er: false]$$

*Constancy*

$$\frac{[p]C[\epsilon: q]}{[p \wedge f]C[\epsilon: q \wedge f]} \text{Mod}(C) \cap \text{Free}(f) = \emptyset$$

*Substitution I*

$$\frac{[p]C[\epsilon: q]}{([p]C[\epsilon: q])(e/x)} (\text{Free}(e) \cup \{x\}) \cap \text{Free}(C) = \emptyset$$

*Nondet Assignment*

$$[p]x = \text{nondet}()[ok: \exists x' p][er: false]$$

*Local Variable*

$$\frac{[p]C(y/x)[\epsilon: q]}{[p]\text{local } x.C[\epsilon: \exists y. q]} y \notin \text{Free}(p, C)$$

*Substitution II*

$$\frac{[p]C[\epsilon: q]}{([p]C[\epsilon: q])(y/x)} y \notin \text{Free}(p, C, q)$$

Figure 8: Rules for Variables and Mutation (Source: [Incorrectness Logic Paper](#))

- Sound when states are functions of type  $\text{Variables} \rightarrow \text{Values}$ .
- $\text{Mod}(C)$  is the set of variables modified by assignment statements in  $C$ , and  $\text{Free}(r)$  is the set of free variables in an assertion  $r$ .
- $e$  and  $\text{nondet}()$  are syntactically distinct.
  - $e$  is an expression built up from a first-order logic signature, can appear within assertions, and is side-effect free.
  - $\text{nondet}()$  does not appear in assertions. **[BUG] in Nondet Assignment rule**

## Specific Proof Rules - Assignment

- Incorrectness logic uses Floyd's forward-running assignment axiom rather than Hoare's backwards-running one.

Assignment  $\frac{}{[p] \ x = e \ [\text{ok} : \exists x' . p[x'/x] \wedge x = e[x'/x]] \ [\text{er} : \text{false}]}$

- Would the below rule be correct?

Assignment'  $\frac{}{[p[e/x]] \quad x = e \quad [\text{ok} : p] \quad [\text{er} : \text{false}]}$

## Specific Proof Rules - Assignment

- Incorrectness logic uses Floyd's forward-running assignment axiom rather than Hoare's backwards-running one.

$$\text{Assignment} \frac{}{[p] \ x = e \ [ok : \exists x'. p[x'/x] \wedge x = e[x'/x]] \ [er : false]}$$

- Would the below rule be correct?

$$\text{Assignment}' \frac{}{[p[e/x]] \ x = e \ [ok : p] \ [er : false]}$$

- No! For example,  $[y == 42] \ x = 42 \ [ok : x == y]$  is not valid (take the post-state  $[x : 3, y : 3]$ ).

# Specific Proof Rules - Substitution, Constancy, & Local Variable Rule

*Substitution I*

$$(\text{Free}(e) \cup \{x\}) \cap \text{Free}(C) = \emptyset$$

$$\frac{[p] \ C \ [\epsilon : q]}{([p] \ C \ [\epsilon : q])(e/x)}$$

*Substitution II*

$$y \notin \text{Free}(p, C, q)$$

$$\frac{[p] \ C \ [\epsilon : q]}{([p] \ C \ [\epsilon : q])(y/x)}$$

*Constancy*

$$\text{Mod}(C) \cap \text{Free}(f) = \emptyset$$

$$\frac{[p] \ C \ [\epsilon : q]}{[p \wedge f] \ C \ [\epsilon : q \wedge f]}$$

*Local Variable*

$$y \notin \text{Free}(p, C)$$

$$\frac{[p] \ C(y/x) \ [\epsilon : q]}{[p] \ \text{local } x. \ C \ [\epsilon : \exists y. q]}$$

- The rules of *Substitution*, *Constancy* & *Consequence* are important for adapting specifications for use in different contexts.

## Exercise: Derive rules for assert

- Recall `assert(B) = assume(B) + (assume(!B) ; error())`

$[p \wedge B]$  assert( $B$ )  $[\text{ok} : (p \wedge B)]$   $[\text{er} : \text{false}]$

$$[p \wedge \neg B] \text{ assert}(B) [\text{ok} : \text{false}] [\text{er} : (p \wedge \neg B)]$$

$[p]$  assert( $B$ )  $[\text{ok} : (p \wedge B)]$   $[\text{er} : (p \wedge \neg B)]$



## Section 5

## Reasoning with the Logic

# Setup

- Examples motivated by existing tools, *but* “we are not claiming at this time that incorrectness logic leads to better practical results than these mature tools”
- ‘*A basic test of a potential foundational formalism is how it expresses a variety of patterns that have arisen naturally.*’
- No formal treatment of procedures. Assume summary-like hypotheses for reasoning.

$$[p] \text{ foo } () \text{ [ok : } q \text{] [er : } r \text{] } \vdash [p'] \text{ C [ok : } q' \text{] [er : } r' \text{]}$$

- *Principle of reuse*: Reason about `foo()`'s body once, don't revisit at call sites (aka summary-based analysis - COL729 throwback)

# loop0 - I

```

void loop0() {
  /* (default presumes is "true" when not specified)
   * achieves: [ok: x>=0 ] */
  int n = nondet();
  x=0;
  while (n > 0) {
    x = x + n;
    n = nondet();
  }

void client0() { /* achieves: [er: x==200000] */
  loop0();
  if (x == 200000) error(); }

```

- Assuming loop0 summary, can prove client0 spec using below followed by sequencing rule.

$$\frac{[\text{true}] \text{ loop0() } [\text{ok} : x \geq 0] \quad x \geq 0 \iff x == 200000}{[\text{true}] \text{ loop0() } [\text{ok} : x == 200000]}$$



# loop0 - II

- How to prove `loop0()` spec?
- Just unroll once! Then apply *Local Variable* rule + *Unrolling* rule + *Rule of Consequence*.

```

[ x==0 ]
  if (n>0) {
    [ x==0 && n>0 ]
    x = x+n; n = nondet(); [ x>0 ]
  } else
  { [ x==0 && n<=0 ] skip;
  }
  [ x>0 || (x==0 && n<=0) ]
    assume (n<=0);
  [ (x>0 && n<=0) || (x==0 && n<=0) ]
[ ok: x>=0 && n<=0 ]
    
```

# loop1 - I

```
void loop1()
/* achieves1: [ok: x==0 || x==1 || x==2]
   achieves2: [ok: x>=0] */
{
  x = 0;
  Kleene-star {
    x = x + 1;
  }
}

void client1()
/* achieves: [er: x==200000] */
{
  loop1();
  if ( x==200000 ) error();
}
```

# loop1 - II

- Infinitely many paths through `loop1()`, and the loop is not guaranteed to terminate.
- *Unrolling* rule: post-conditions for any finite-depth unrollings of the loop. achieves 1==2 unrollings.
- Not enough to trigger the error in `client1()`. (Unroll 200000 times?)
- Need the backwards variant rule!

$$n \text{ fresh} \frac{[x == n \wedge \text{nat}(n)] \ x = x + 1 \ [ok : x == n + 1 \wedge \text{nat}(n)]}{[x == 0] \ (x = x + 1)^* \ [ok : \exists n. x == n \wedge \text{nat}(n)]}$$

loop2 - l

- Error inside iteration: This is why we need  $C^*$ ;  $C$ , not  $C$ ;  $C^*$ !

```
void loop2()  
/* achieves: [er: x==200000] */  
{  
    x = 0;  
    Kleene-star{  
        if (x==200000) error();  
        x = x + 1;  
    }  
}
```

- How can we show this?



# loop2 - II

- Use *Backwards Variant* rule ( $p(n) = 0 \leq x \leq 200000 \wedge x == n$ ).

$[x == 0] (\text{Body})^* [\text{ok} : 0 \leq x \leq 200000]$

$[x == 0] (\text{Body})^* [\text{ok} : x == 200000]$

# loop2 - II

- Use *Backwards Variant* rule ( $p(n) = 0 \leq x \leq 200000 \wedge x == n$ ).

$$[x == 0] (\text{Body})^* [\text{ok} : 0 \leq x \leq 200000]$$

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- *Assume + Error + Sequencing + Short-Circuit* gives us

$$[x == 200000] \text{Body} [\text{er} : x == 200000]$$

# loop2 - II

- Use *Backwards Variant* rule ( $p(n) = 0 \leq x \leq 200000 \wedge x == n$ ).

$$[x == 0] (\text{Body})^* [ok : 0 \leq x \leq 200000]$$

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- *Assume + Error + Sequencing + Short-Circuit* gives us

$$[x == 200000] \text{Body} [er : x == 200000]$$

- *Sequencing*

$$[x == 0] (\text{Body})^*; \text{Body} [er : x == 200000]$$

loop2 - II

- Use *Backwards Variant* rule ( $p(n) = 0 \leq x \leq 200000 \wedge x == n$ ).

$$[x == 0] \text{ (Body)}^* [\text{ok} : 0 \leq x \leq 200000]$$

$$[x == 0] (\text{Body})^* [\text{ok} : x == 200000]$$

- Assume + Error + Sequencing + Short-Circuit gives us

$[x == 200000]$  Body  $[er : x == 200000]$

- *Sequencing*

$$[x == 0] (\text{Body})^*; \text{Body} \text{ [er : } x == 200000]$$

- Iterate non-zero

$[x == 0] \text{ (Body)}^* [\text{er} : x == 200000]$

# loop3

- What if we used  $C; C^*$ ? The proof for `loop2()` spec would have 200000 applications of *Sequencing*.

```
void loop3()
/* achieves: [er: \exists n (x==n /\ n <= 200000)] */
{ y = nondet();
  x = 0;
  Kleene-star {
    if (y == 200000) error();
    x = x + 1;
    y = y + 1;
  } }
```

# loop3

- What if we used  $C; C^*$ ? The proof for `loop2()` spec would have 200000 applications of *Sequencing*.

```
void loop3()
/* achieves: [er: \exists n (x==n /\ n <= 200000)] */
{ y = nondet();
  x = 0;
  Kleene-star {
    if (y == 200000) error();
    x = x + 1;
    y = y + 1;
  } }
```

- We don't know the number of iterations it'll take to get an error, and cannot prove the `er` assertion with finitely many unrollings.

### loop3

- What if we used  $C; C^*$ ? The proof for `loop2()` spec would have 200000 applications of *Sequencing*.

- We don't know the number of iterations it'll take to get an error, and cannot prove the error assertion with finitely many unrollings.
- But we can be cool and use *Backwards Variant* to derive more general under-approximate assertions than unrolling, and use the original *Iterate non-zero* to derive an error from the general assertion (with just one *C* statement).

# Conditionals

- Use of Boolean conditions that are difficult for current theorem provers to deal with causes expressiveness issues.
  - E.g. multiplication goes beyond the decidable subsets of arithmetic encoded in automatic theorem provers.
- How do tools deal with this? And how can Incorrectness Logic deal with this?



# Conditionals - Approach I

```
int difficult(int y)
{
    return (y*y); /* or hash(y) or obfuscated code */
}

void client()
/* achieves1 : [ok: y==49 && x==1] */
{
    int z = nondet();
    if (y == difficult(z))
        x=1;
    else
        x=2;
}
```

- Pragmatic Approach from Dynamic Symbolic Execution: *Concretize symbolic variables*. (replace  $z$  with 7).
- Do this in incorrectness logic by *shrinking the post*. Have  $[y==z*z]$  assume  $(y==difficult(z))$   $[ok: y==z*z]$  and  $y == z * z \Leftarrow y == z * z \wedge z == 7$ .

# Conditionals - Approach II

```
void client()
/* achieves2 : [ok: exists z . (y==difficult(z) && x==1)
  || (y!=difficult(z) && x==2)] */
{
  int z = nondet();
  if (y == difficult(z))
    x=1;
  else
    x=2;
}

void test1()
/* achieves: [er: exists z .
  (y==difficult(z) && x==1)
  || (y != difficult(z) && x==2)] */
{
  client(); if (x==1 || x==2) error();
}
```

- Record information lazily (hoping difficulty won't matter, like in test1()).

## Conditionals - Approach III

```
void client()
/* achieves3 : [ok: x==1 || x==2] */
{
    int z = nondet();
    if (y == difficult(z))
        x=1;
    else
        x=2;
}

void test2()
{
    client(); if (x==2) error(); }

```

- Record disjuncts for both branches, but discard the difficult bits. **Unsound!** (e.g.  $[x:1, y:3]$  not reachable).
- Used for pragmatic reasons in tools like SMART, Infer.RacerD.
- RacerD: it is *an under-approximation of an over-approximation*, where the over-approximation arises by replacing Booleans it doesn't understand with nondeterministic choice.

## Tool Design Insights

- Infer.RacerD: Tools can make localised unsound decisions, which act as assumptions for further sound steps.
- *'From this perspective, the role of logic is not to produce iron-clad unconditional guarantees, but is to clarify assumptions and their role when making sound inferences.'*
- Infer.Pulse: 20 disjuncts case was  $\sim 2.75\times$  wall clock time faster,  $\sim 3.1\times$  user time faster, and found 97% of the issues that the 50 disjuncts case found.
  - Choice is not binary! E.g., deploy fast one at code review time, slow one later in the process.

# Flaky Tests - I

- “flaky test” : due to nondeterminism, can give different answers on different runs.
- If  $\pi$  is a program path, then
  - $\text{wp}(\pi)q$ : States for which execution of  $\pi$  is guaranteed to terminate and satisfy  $q$ .
  - $\text{wpp}(\pi)q$ : States for which execution of  $\pi$  is possible to terminate and satisfy  $q$ .
- We will use these to obtain pre-assertions, then use forward reasoning to obtain under-approximate post-assertions.
- Why do we need these?
  - Because strongest under-approximate presumptions do not exist in general (see 5.2 in paper).

# Flaky Tests - II

```
void foo()
/* sturdy pre [x is even], ach [er: x is even][ok: false]
   flaky pre [x is odd], ach [er: x is odd][ok: x is odd] */
{
    if (x is even) error();
    else { if (nondet()) skip; else error(); }
}

void flakey_client()
/* flaky achieves: [er: x==3 || x==5] */
{
    x = 3;
    foo();
    x = x+2;
    assert(x==4);
}
```

- Use  $\text{wp}(\text{assume}(x \text{ is even}))$  true for sturdy presumes,  $\text{wpp}(\text{assume}(x \text{ is odd}); b = \text{nondet}(); \text{assume}(b))$  true (where  $b$  is local) for flaky presumes.

# Reasoning about Procedures - I

- For a path without procedure calls - say a sequential composition of assignment, assume and assert statements
  - Can perform strongest post-condition reasoning, which is also under-approximate.
- Can combine together pre/post pairs for a number of paths to get an under-approximate summary for a procedure.
- But then using that summary to reason (*soundly*) about a path containing a procedure call is subtle.
- Even in straight-line code, it is *easy* to get a false positive using strongest post-condition reasoning with Hoare logic.

## Reasoning about Procedures - II





# Context and Conclusions

- ‘*The theory Infer was based on originally . . . does not match its use to find bugs rather than to prove their absence.*’
- Led to RacerD, Pulse program analysers.
- A more general theory of “incorrectness” logic (starting from reverse Hoare logic by de Vries and Koutavas in 2011).
- Related theoretical notions: wlp (weakest liberal precondition), wpp (weakest possible precondition), dynamic logic.
- Each form of reasoning is as fundamental as the other, they just have different principles. Recall:  
*For correctness reasoning, you **get to forget information** as you go along a path, but you **must remember** all the paths. For incorrectness reasoning, you **must remember** information as you go along a path, but you **get to forget** some of the paths.*
- Possible extensions to other models, concurrency. Possible reuse of work from termination proving.

Thank You!

## Section 6

### Appendix

## Backwards Variant - Example I

- For any fixed number of iterations, we can just unfold the *Iterate non-zero* rule and use *Iterate zero*. But no. of iterations may be unknown!

```
x = 0;
y = nondet();
while (y != N) do {
    y = y + 1;
    x = x + 1;
}
```

$$[x = 0] \text{ while } (y \neq N) \text{ do } y = y + 1; x = x + 1 \quad [\text{ok} : \exists n. x == n \wedge \text{na}]$$

## Backwards Variant - Example II

```
void loop3()
/* achieves: [er: x == 200000] */
{ x = nondet();
  Kleene-star {
    if (x == 200000) error();
    x = x + 1;
  } }
```



# Backwards Variant - Example II

```

void loop3()
/* achieves: [er: x == 200000] */
{ x = nondet();
  Kleene-star {
    if (x == 200000) error();
    x = x + 1;
  } }
    
```

- Can guess a value  $k$  returned by `nondet()` and apply *Sequencing*  $200000 - k$  times. Or
- Can be cool and use *Backwards Variant* to derive more general under-approximate assertions than unrolling, and use the original *Iterate non-zero* to derive an error from the general assertion (with just one *C* statement).