

Nondeterministic Program (Continue)

(Denotational Semantics of Nondeterministic Program)

- Because of the nature of nondeterminism, we can end up with more than one state when we finish the execution of a nondeterministic program.
 - We use Σ to denote the set of all (well-formed) states. We denote $\Sigma_{\perp} = \Sigma \cup \{\perp\} = \Sigma \cup \{\perp_d, \perp_e\}$.
 - The denotational semantics of a deterministic program is a “single (possibly pseudo) state”: $M(S, \sigma) = \{\tau\}$ where $\langle S, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow^* \langle E, \tau \rangle$ and $\tau \in \Sigma_{\perp}$.
 - The denotational semantics of a nondeterministic program is a set of (possibly pseudo) states: $M(S, \sigma) = \{\tau \in \Sigma_{\perp} \mid \langle S, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow^* \langle E, \tau \rangle\}$.
- 1. Calculate denotational semantics for each of the following nondeterministic statements and states.
 - a. $S \equiv \text{if } T \rightarrow x := 0 \square T \rightarrow x := 1 \text{ fi}, \sigma = \emptyset$
 Since it is possible to have $\langle S, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow^* \langle E, \{x = 0\} \rangle$ and $\langle S, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow^* \langle E, \{x = 1\} \rangle$, thus $M(S, \sigma) = \{\{x = 0\}, \{x = 1\}\}$.
 - b. $S \equiv \text{if } F \rightarrow x := 0 \square F \rightarrow x := 1 \square T \rightarrow \text{skip fi}, \sigma = \emptyset$
 There is only one true guard, so $\langle S, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow \langle \text{skip}, \sigma \rangle \rightarrow \langle E, \emptyset \rangle$, thus $M(S, \sigma) = \{\emptyset\}$.
 Remind that, we cannot omit the “{ }” when there is only \emptyset , “ $M(S, \sigma) = \emptyset$ ” looks like we are saying S doesn’t have denotational semantics.
 - c. $S \equiv \text{if } x \geq y \rightarrow \text{max} := x \square x \leq y \rightarrow \text{max} := y \text{ fi}, \sigma = \{x = 1, y = 1\}$
 No matter which arm, we have max gets bind with value 1. Thus $M(S, \sigma) = \{\{x = 1, y = 1, \text{max} = 1\}\}$.
 - d. $S \equiv \text{do } x + y = 2 \rightarrow x := y/x \square x + y = 2 \rightarrow x := x + 1 \square x + y = 4 \rightarrow y := x \square x + y = 4 \rightarrow x := x - 1; y := y - 1 \text{ od}, \text{ and } \sigma = \{x = 1, y = 3\}$
 - After the first iteration of the **do – od** loop, we can have these states: $\{x = 1, y = 1\}, \{x = 0, y = 2\}$.
 - After the second iteration of the **do – od** loop, we can have these states: $\{x = 1, y = 1\}, \{x = 2, y = 1\}, \perp_e$ and $\{x = 1, y = 2\}$. We noticed that state $\{x = 1, y = 1\}$ appears again, and it is the only state that can pass some guard in the next iteration; if we keep evaluating S with $\{x = 1, y = 1\}$ the program will diverge.
 - Thus, $M(S, \sigma) = \{\{x = 2, y = 1\}, \{x = 1, y = 2\}, \perp_e, \perp_d\}$.
- From the above examples, we can see that:
 - The denotational semantics of a nondeterministic program can be only one state. Thus, we can say that “if $M(S, \sigma)$ is a set with more than one state, then S is nondeterministic” but its converse is not true.
 - For a nondeterministic program S , $M(S, \sigma)$ might contain pseudo states, and possibly more than one type of pseudo states.
 - We can say $\tau \in M(S, \sigma)$, it means that τ is one of the possible (pseudo) state after evaluating S in σ ; there might be other states. Similarly, we can also say $\{\tau_1, \tau_2\} \subseteq M(S, \sigma)$, it means that τ_1, τ_2 are two of the possible (pseudo) states after evaluating S in σ .

2. Given three sorted (into non-decreasing order) *size* — n arrays b_0, b_1 and b_2 , are there valid indices k_0, k_1 and k_2 such that $b_0[k_0] = b_1[k_1] = b_2[k_2]$? Create a program in our language that can find a set of such k_0, k_1 and k_2 if they exist.

- Here we use the most naïve idea: use k_0, k_1 and k_2 as pointers and scan three arrays until we find a solution or one of them reaches n .
- If we use a deterministic program, I can expect that there will be many different cases in each iteration: we are looking at three values: $b_0[k_0]$, $b_1[k_1]$ and $b_2[k_2]$, each two of them can be $=, < \text{ or } >$.
- It will be much easier if we only have two arrays, for example let's look at only $b_0[k_0]$ and $b_1[k_1]$:
 - If $b_0[k_0] = b_1[k_1]$, we are done.
 - If $b_0[k_0] < b_1[k_1]$, since arrays are sorted, increasing k_1 can only get a larger number in b_1 , so we should increase k_0 .
 - If $b_0[k_0] > b_1[k_1]$, like the previous case, we should increase k_1 .
- Thus, if we ignore b_2 and ignore the array size, we can come up with a partial solution to this question using a nondeterministic **do — od** statement immediately:

$$\mathbf{do\ } b_0[k_0] < b_1[k_1] \rightarrow k_0 := k_0 + 1 \ \square \ b_0[k_0] > b_1[k_1] \rightarrow k_1 := k_1 + 1 \ \mathbf{od}$$

- Similarly, for the other combinations of values, we can come up with some other partial solutions:

$$\mathbf{do\ } b_0[k_0] < b_2[k_2] \rightarrow k_0 := k_0 + 1 \ \square \ b_0[k_0] > b_2[k_2] \rightarrow k_2 := k_2 + 1 \ \mathbf{od}$$

$$\mathbf{do\ } b_1[k_1] < b_2[k_2] \rightarrow k_1 := k_1 + 1 \ \square \ b_1[k_1] > b_2[k_2] \rightarrow k_2 := k_2 + 1 \ \mathbf{od}$$

- Then, we can see the beauty of using a nondeterministic program: we don't need to worry about the overlapping cases, and it is very easy to combine partial solutions. We can come up with the following program:

$KKK \equiv$

$$k_0 := 0; k_1 := 0; k_2 := 0;$$

$$\mathbf{do\ } b_0[k_0] < b_1[k_1] \rightarrow k_0 := k_0 + 1$$

$$\square \ b_0[k_0] > b_1[k_1] \rightarrow k_1 := k_1 + 1$$

$$\square \ b_0[k_0] < b_2[k_2] \rightarrow k_0 := k_0 + 1$$

$$\square \ b_0[k_0] > b_2[k_2] \rightarrow k_2 := k_2 + 1$$

$$\square \ b_1[k_1] < b_2[k_2] \rightarrow k_1 := k_1 + 1$$

$$\square \ b_1[k_1] > b_2[k_2] \rightarrow k_2 := k_2 + 1 \ \mathbf{od}$$

- Before discussing the possible outcomes, let's modify KKK . First, let's merge some arms, since each $k_i := k_i + 1$ appears twice. And we have:

$KKK_1 \equiv$

$$k_0 := 0; k_1 := 0; k_2 := 0;$$

$$\mathbf{do\ } b_0[k_0] < b_1[k_1] \vee b_0[k_0] < b_2[k_2] \rightarrow k_0 := k_0 + 1$$

$$\square \ b_0[k_0] > b_1[k_1] \vee b_1[k_1] < b_2[k_2] \rightarrow k_1 := k_1 + 1$$

$$\square \ b_0[k_0] > b_2[k_2] \vee b_1[k_1] > b_2[k_2] \rightarrow k_2 := k_2 + 1 \ \mathbf{od}$$

- KKK_1 is already pretty good, but we can still simplify each guard. For example, in the first arm, we only need $b_0[k_0]$ less than something to increase k_0 , so we can come up with:

$KKK_2 \equiv$

$$k_0 := 0; k_1 := 0; k_2 := 0;$$

$$\mathbf{do\ } b_0[k_0] < b_1[k_1] \rightarrow k_0 := k_0 + 1$$

$$\square \ b_1[k_1] < b_2[k_2] \rightarrow k_1 := k_1 + 1$$

$$\square \ b_2[k_2] < b_0[k_0] \rightarrow k_2 := k_2 + 1 \ \mathbf{od}$$

If all three guards are False, then we have $b_0[k_0] \geq b_1[k_1] \geq b_2[k_2] \geq b_0[k_0]$ which implies an equality among all three values.

- Does $\perp_e \in M(KKK_2, \sigma)$?

It is possible. We can increase the value some k_i from $n - 1$ to n and have runtime error in the next iteration.

- Now, let's take care of \perp_e . We can simply add some bounds checks in each guard, then:

$KKK_3 \equiv$

$k_0 := 0; k_1 := 0; k_2 := 0;$

do $k_0 < n \wedge k_1 < n \wedge b_0[k_0] < b_1[k_1] \rightarrow k_0 := k_0 + 1$

$\square k_1 < n \wedge k_2 < n \wedge b_1[k_1] < b_2[k_2] \rightarrow k_1 := k_1 + 1$

$\square k_2 < n \wedge k_0 < n \wedge b_2[k_2] < b_0[k_0] \rightarrow k_2 := k_2 + 1$ **od**

- What can we get if we calculate $M(KKK_3, \sigma)$, where b_0, b_1 and b_2 are already bind in the state σ ?

- If there is at least one set of k_0, k_1 and k_2 that satisfies the requirements, why is there a $\tau \in M(KKK_3, \sigma)$ with $\tau(b_0[k_0]) = \tau(b_1[k_1]) = \tau(b_2[k_2])$?

For any $\tau \in M(KKK_3, \sigma)$, where none of $\tau(k_i) = n$; we must have $\tau(b_0[k_0]) = \tau(b_1[k_1]) = \tau(b_2[k_2])$, otherwise at least one of the guards is true.

- If there are multiple solutions, does the program find all of them?

No. For each k_i , its value can increase by at most 1 after each iteration, so to reach the set of “larger” solutions we must go through the set of “smaller” solutions. This is true for all i , so every k_i will reach the smaller solution first, and when they reach the smaller solution, the loop terminates.

- Does $\perp_e \in M(KKK_3, \sigma)$?

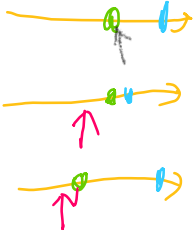
No.

- For any $\tau \in M(KKK_3, \sigma)$, is it possible that $\exists 0 \leq i \leq 2. \tau(k_i) > n$?

None of k_0, k_1 and k_2 can be bind with a value $> n$; because the value of some k_i can only increases after it passes the guard, and if the evaluation of $k_i \geq n$, then evaluating a guard will return \perp_e .

- Does $M(KKK_3, \sigma)$ contain more than one state?

If there is at least one solution, then $M(KKK_3, \sigma) = \{\tau\}$ is only one state, and it contains the smallest solution. If there is no solution, then $M(KKK_3, \sigma)$ will be a set of states, where each state in the set contains one k_i binds with n .



Correctness Triples

- A **correctness triple** (a.k.a. “Hoare triple,” after C.A.R. Hoare; or usually simplified to “triple”), written as $\{p\} S \{q\}$ is a program S plus its specification predicates p and q . Note that, $\{p\}$ and $\{q\}$ are not states, they are predicates wrapped in “ $\{\}$ ”.
 - The **precondition** p (not “ $\{p\}$ ”) describes what we’re assuming is true about the state before the program begins.
 - The **postcondition** q (not “ $\{q\}$ ”) describes what should be true about the state after the program terminates.
 - Informally, a triple $\{p\} S \{q\}$ means “if program S runs in a state that satisfies p , then we can expect the execution of S satisfies q ”.

3. Here are some correctness triple examples.

- a. $\{x = 2\} x := x + 3 \{x < 6\}$
- b. $\{y = 2\} x := 2; x := 2 + x \{x = 4\}$
- c. $\{x \geq 0\} S \{y^2 \leq x < (y + 1)^2\}$

(Satisfaction and Validity)

- Informally, a state σ **satisfies** a triple $\{p\} S \{q\}$, written as $\sigma \models \{p\} S \{q\}$, it means “if σ satisfies p , then after running S in σ we can get a state τ who satisfies q ”.
 - If $\sigma \not\models p$, we don't claim anything about the execution of S in σ . For example, if have state $\{x = -5\}$ and triple $\{x \geq 0\} S \{y^2 \leq x < (y + 1)^2\}$. Running S with $\{x = -5\}$ might give a runtime error or diverge or give a state that doesn't satisfy the postcondition, but here we don't consider any of those situations since $\{x = -5\}$ doesn't satisfy the precondition $x \geq 0$, so $\{x = -5\} \models \{x \geq 0\} S \{y^2 \leq x < (y + 1)^2\}$.
 - From the above example, we can see that “ $\sigma \models \{p\} S \{q\}$ ” might not give us much information about executing S in σ . But on the other hand, “ $\sigma \not\models \{p\} S \{q\}$ ” shows that $\sigma \models p$ and the execution of S in σ doesn't give us a state satisfies q .
- If triple $\{p\} S \{q\}$ is satisfied by all states, then we say $\{p\} S \{q\}$ is **valid**, written as $\models \{p\} S \{q\}$.
- To sum up, we have:
 - $\sigma \models \{p\} S \{q\}$ means σ satisfies the triple.
 - $\sigma \not\models \{p\} S \{q\}$ means σ does not satisfy the triple.
 - $\models \{p\} S \{q\}$ means the triple is valid: $\forall \sigma. \sigma \models \{p\} S \{q\}$.
 - $\not\models \{p\} S \{q\}$ means the triple is invalid: $\exists \sigma. \sigma \not\models \{p\} S \{q\}$.
- 4. True or False
 - a. $\{x = -5\} \models \{x > 0\} x := x + 1 \{x > 0\}$ True
 - b. $\models \{x > 0\} x := x + 1 \{x > 0\}$ True
 - c. $\{x = -5\} \models \{x > 0\} x := x - 1 \{x > 0\}$ True
 - d. $\models \{x > 0\} x := x - 1 \{x > 0\}$ False, we can find $\{x = 1\} \not\models \{x > 0\} x := x - 1 \{x > 0\}$