# CSE 331 Software Design & Implementation

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Summer 2019
Scoping About Code With Logic

Lecture 2 – Reasoning About Code With Logic

## Administrivia

- Gradescope accounts created now. If you're not set up yet, send email to cse331-staff[at]cs with needed info (name, id#, uw email)
- Guest CSE computer & lab accounts created Tuesday for all registered students without regular Allen School accounts. Send mail if problems.
- Office hours: initial schedule 3:30-4:30 M-F in Gates 110 lab (we'll try this, but are open to changes if different times/locations would be better – let us know)
  - Using office hours: get help/ideas to get unstuck, but not intended to be a "study hall"
- Section tomorrow: primarily project setup & hw3. Bring laptop with adoptopenjdk Java 11 or 12 and IntelliJ Ultimate installed
  - You will get email from gitlab this afternoon when your repo is created. Feel free to ignore until section tomorrow.
  - HW3 posted later today/tonight. Worth reading before section.

## Overview

- Next few lectures: two presentations linked to course calendar on the web:
  - Lecture notes primary source
  - Powerpoint slides summary & supplement; lecture today and reference for following couple of lectures

They are complementary and you should understand both of them

 HW1 out by tomorrow. Programming logic with no loops. Due Monday night, 11 pm.

## Reasoning about code

Determine what facts are true as a program executes

Under what assumptions

#### **Examples:**

- If x starts positive, then y is 0 when the loop finishes
- Contents of the array that arr refers to are sorted
- Except at one code point, x + y == z
- Notation: In logic we often use ∧ for "and" and ∨ for "or".
   Concise and convenient, but we're not dogmatic about it

# Why do this?

- Essential complement to testing, which we will also study
  - Testing: Actual results for some actual inputs
  - Logical reasoning: Reason about whole classes of inputs/states at once ("If x > 0, ...")
    - Prove a program correct (or find bugs trying), or (even better) develop program and proof together to get a program that is correct by construction
    - Understand why code is correct
- Stating assumptions is the essence of specification
  - "Callers must not pass null as an argument"
  - "Method will always return an unaliased object"

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## Our approach

- Hoare Logic: a classic approach to logical reasoning about code
  - For now, consider just variables, assignments, if-statements, while-loops
    - So no objects or methods for now
- This lecture: The idea, without loops, in 3 passes
  - 1. High-level intuition of forward and backward reasoning
  - 2. Precise definition of logical assertions, preconditions, etc.
  - 3. Definition of weaker/stronger and weakest-precondition
- Next lecture: Loops

# Why?

- Programmers rarely "use Hoare logic" in this much detail
  - For simple snippets of code, it's overkill
  - Gets very complicated with objects and aliasing
  - But can be very useful to develop and reason about loops and data with subtle *invariants*
    - Examples: Homework 0, Homework 2
- Also it's an ideal setting for the right logical foundations
  - How can logic "talk about" program states?
  - How does code execution "change what is true"?
  - What do "weaker" and "stronger" mean?

This is all essential for *specifying library-interfaces*, which *does* happen All the Time in The Real World® (coming lectures)

## Example

#### Forward reasoning:

Then we know various things after, including z > 59

## Example

#### Backward reasoning:

Suppose we want z to be negative at the end

```
// w + 17 + 42 < 0
x = 17;
// w + x + 42 < 0
y = 42;
// w + x + y < 0
z = w + x + y;
// z < 0
```

- Then we know initially we need to know/assume w < −59</li>
  - Necessary and sufficient

## Forward vs. Backward, Part 1

- Forward reasoning:
  - Determine what follows from initial assumptions
  - Most useful for maintaining an invariant
- Backward reasoning
  - Determine sufficient conditions for a certain result
    - If result desired, the assumptions suffice for correctness
    - If result undesired, the assumptions suffice to trigger bug

## Forward vs. Backward, Part 2

- Forward reasoning:
  - Simulates the code (for many "inputs" "at once")
  - Often more intuitive
  - But introduces [many] facts irrelevant to a goal
- Backward reasoning
  - Often more useful: Understand what each part of the code contributes toward the goal
  - "Thinking backwards" takes practice but gives you a powerful new way to reason about programs and to write correct code

## Conditionals

```
// initial assumptions
if(...) {
    ... // also know test evaluated to true
} else {
    ... // also know test evaluated to false
}
// either branch could have executed
```

#### Two key ideas:

- The precondition for each branch includes information about the result of the test-expression
- 2. The overall postcondition is the disjunction ("or") of the postcondition of the branches

# Example (Forward)

```
Assume initially x >= 0
  // x >= 0
  z = 0;
  // x >= 0 \land z == 0
  if(x != 0) {
    // x >= 0 \land z == 0 \land x != 0 (so x > 0)
     z = x;
    // ... \wedge z > 0
  } else {
     // x >= 0 \land z == 0 \land !(x!=0) (so x == 0)
     z = x + 1;
    // ... \wedge z == 1
  // ( ... \wedge z > 0) V (... \wedge z == 1) (so z > 0)
```

## Our approach

- Hoare Logic, a classic approach to logical reasoning about code
  - [Named after its inventor, Tony Hoare]
  - Considering just variables, assignments, if-statements, while-loops
    - So no objects or methods
- This lecture: The idea, without loops, in 3 passes
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- Next lecture: Loops

## Some notation and terminology

- The "assumption" before some code is the precondition
- The "what holds after (given assumption)" is the postcondition
- Instead of writing pre/postconditions after //, write them in {...}
  - This is not Java
  - How Hoare logic has been written "on paper" for 40ish years

```
\{ w < -59 \}

x = 17;

\{ w + x < -42 \}
```

- In pre/postconditions, = is equality, not assignment
  - Math's "=", which for numbers is Java's ==

```
{ w > 0 \land x = 17 }

y = 42;

{ w > 0 \land x = 17 \land y = 42 }
```

#### What an assertion means

- An assertion (including pre/postconditions) is a logical formula that can refer to program state (e.g., contents of variables)
- A program state is something that "given" a variable can "tell you" its contents
  - Or any expression that has no side-effects
  - (informally, this is just the current values of all variables)
- An assertion holds for a program state, if evaluating using the program state produces true
  - Evaluating a program variable produces its contents in the state
  - Can think of an assertion as representing the set of (exactly the) states for which it holds

## A Hoare Triple

A Hoare triple is two assertions and one piece of code:

$$\{P\}$$
  $S$   $\{Q\}$ 

- P the precondition
- S the code (statement)
- Q the postcondition
- A Hoare triple {P} S {Q} is (by definition) valid if:
  - For all states for which P holds, executing S always produces a state for which Q holds
  - Less formally: If P is true before S, then Q must be true after
  - Else the Hoare triple is invalid

## Examples

#### Valid or invalid?

(Assume all variables are integers without overflow)

```
{x != 0} y = x*x; {y > 0} valid
{z != 1} y = z*z; {y != z} invalid
{x >= 0} y = 2*x; {y > x} invalid
{true} (if(x > 7) {y=4;} else {y=3;}) {y < 5} valid</li>
{true} (x = y; z = x;) {y=z} valid
{x=7 \lambda y=5}
(tmp=x; x=tmp; y=x;) invalid
{y=7 \lambda x=5}
```

## Aside: assert statement in Java

• An Java assert is a statement with a Java expression, e.g.,

assert 
$$x > 0 \&\& y < x$$
;

- Similar to our assertions
  - Evaluate using a program state to get true or false
  - Uses Java syntax
- In Java, this is a run-time thing: Run the code and raise an exception if assertion is violated
  - Unless assertion-checking is disabled
  - Later course topic but really useful to detect bugs early
- This week: we are reasoning about the code, not running it on some input

## The general rules

- So far: Decided if a Hoare triple was valid by using our understanding of programming constructs
- Now: For each kind of construct there is a general rule
  - A rule for assignment statements
  - A rule for two statements in sequence
  - A rule for conditionals
  - [next lecture:] A rule for loops

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# Basic rule: Assignment

```
\{P\} x = e; \{Q\}
```

- Let Q' be the same as Q except replace every x with e
- Triple is valid if: For all program states, if P holds, then Q' holds
   (i.e., if P guarantees that Q' is true, then execution of x=e; will
   guarantee that Q is true)
- Example: {z > 34} y=z+1; {y > 1}
   Q' is {z+1 > 1}

# Combining rule: Sequence

- Triple is valid if and only if there is an assertion R such that
  - {P}S1{R} is valid, and
  - {R}S2{Q} is valid
- Example:  $\{z \ge 1\}$  y=z+1; w=y\*y;  $\{w > y\}$  (integers)
  - Let R be {y > 1} (this particular R picked because "it works")
  - Show  $\{z >= 1\}$   $y=z+1; \{y > 1\}$ 
    - Use rule for assignments: z >= 1 implies z+1 > 1
  - Show  $\{y > 1\}$  w=y\*y;  $\{w > y\}$ 
    - Use rule for assignments: y > 1 implies y\*y > y

## Combining rule: Conditional

```
{P} if(b) S1 else S2 {Q}
```

- Triple is valid if and only if there are assertions Q1,Q2 such that
  - {P \( \bar{b}\) \( \sigma\) is valid, and
  - {P ∧ !b}S2{Q2} is valid, and
  - Q1 V Q2 implies Q
- Example:  $\{true\}\ (if(x > 7) y=x; else y=20;) \{y > 5\}$ 
  - Let Q1 be  $\{y > 7\}$  (other choices work too)
  - Let Q2 be  $\{y = 20\}$  (other choices work too)
  - Use assignment rule to show {true  $\land x > 7$ }y=x; {y>7}
  - Use assignment rule to show {true  $\Lambda \times <= 7$ }y=20; {y=20}
  - Indicate y>7 V y=20 implies y>5

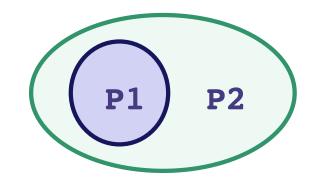
## Our approach

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# Weaker vs. Stronger

If P1 implies P2 (written P1 => P2), then:

- P1 is stronger than P2
- P2 is weaker than P1



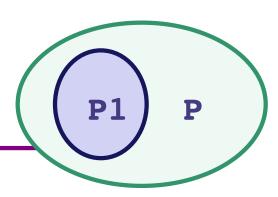
- Whenever P1 holds, P2 also holds
- So it is more (or at least as) "difficult" to satisfy P1
  - The program states where P1 holds are a subset of the program states where P2 holds
- So P1 puts more constraints on program states
- So it's a stronger set of obligations/requirements

## Examples

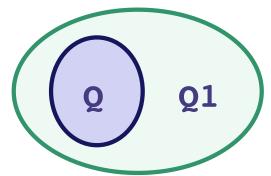
- x = 17 is stronger than x > 0
- x is prime is neither stronger nor weaker than x is odd
- x is prime and x > 2 is stronger than
   x is odd and x > 2

•

## Why this matters to us



- Suppose:
  - {P}S{Q}, and
  - P is weaker than some P1, and
  - Q is stronger than some Q1



- Then: {P1}S{Q} and {P}S{Q1} and {P1}S{Q1}
- Example:

$$- P is x >= 0$$

- P1 is 
$$x > 0$$

$$- s is y = x+1$$

$$-Q$$
 is  $y > 0$ 

$$-$$
 Q1 is  $y >= 0$ 

## So...

- For backward reasoning, if we want {P}S{Q}, we could instead:
  - Show {P1}S{Q}, and
  - Show P => P1
- Better, we could just show {P2}S{Q} where P2 is the weakest precondition of Q for S
  - Weakest means the most lenient assumptions such that Q
     will hold after executing S
  - Any precondition P such that {P}S{Q} is valid will be stronger than P2, i.e., P => P2
- Amazing (?): Without loops/methods, for any S and Q, there
  exists a unique weakest precondition, written wp(S,Q)
  - Like our general rules with backward reasoning

## Weakest preconditions

- wp(x = e; Q) is Q with each x replaced by e
  - Example: wp(x = y\*y; x > 4) = y\*y > 4, i.e., |y| > 2
- wp(S1;S2,Q) is wp(S1,wp(S2,Q))
  - i.e., let R be wp(S2,Q) and overall wp is wp(S1,R)
  - Example: wp((y=x+1; z=y+1;), z > 2) = (x + 1)+1 > 2, i.e., x > 0
- wp(if b S1 else S2, Q) is this logic formula:
   (b Λ wp(S1,Q)) V (!b Λ wp(S2,Q))
  - (In any state, b will evaluate to either true or false...)
  - You can sometimes then simplify the result)

## Simple examples

= x = 12

```
If S is x = y*y and Q is x > 4, then wp(S,Q) is y*y > 4, i.e., |y| > 2
If S is y = x + 1; z = y - 3; and Q is z = 10, then wp(S,Q) ...

= wp(y = x + 1; z = y - 3;, z = 10)

= wp(y = x + 1;, wp(z = y - 3;, z = 10))

= wp(y = x + 1;, y-3 = 10)

= wp(y = x + 1;, y = 13)

= x+1 = 13
```

## Bigger example

```
S is if (x < 5) {
              x = x*x;
            } else {
              x = x+1;
    Q is x >= 9
wp(S, x >= 9)
    = (x < 5 \land wp(x = x*x;, x >= 9))
       \lor (\mathbf{x} >= 5 \land \mathsf{wp}(\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x+1};, \mathbf{x} >= 9))
    = (x < 5 \land x*x >= 9)
        \lor (x >= 5 \land x+1 >= 9)
    = (x <= -3) \lor (x >= 3 \land x < 5)
       \lor (x >= 8)
                                 -4-3-2-1 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
```

## If-statements review

#### Forward reasoning

```
{P}
if B
{P ∧ B}
s1
{Q1}
else
{P ∧ !B}
s2
{Q2}
{Q1 ∨ Q2}
```

#### Backward reasoning

```
\{ (B \land wp(S1, Q)) \lor \}
  (!B \land wp(S2, Q)) 
if B
  \{wp(S1, Q)\}
   S1
  {Q}
else
  \{wp(S2, Q)\}
   S2
   {Q}
{Q}
```

## "Correct"

- If wp(S,Q) is true, then executing S will always produce a state where Q holds
  - true holds for every program state

#### One more issue

- With forward reasoning, there is a problem with assignment:
  - Changing a variable can affect other assumptions
- Example:

```
{true}
w=x+y;
{w = x + y;}
x=4;
{w = x + y \lambda x = 4}
y=3;
{w = x + y \lambda x = 4 \lambda y = 3}
But clearly we do not know w=7!
```

## The fix

- When you assign to a variable, you need to replace all other uses of the variable in the post-condition with a different variable
  - So you refer to the "old contents"
    - But only do this if you actually use the "old contents" from that variable later in the proof – omit otherwise
- Corrected example:

```
{true}
w=x+y;
{w = x + y;}
x=4;
{w = x1 + y \lambda x = 4}
y=3;
{w = x1 + y1 \lambda x = 4 \lambda y = 3}
```

## Useful example: swap

- Swap contents
  - Give a name to initial contents so we can refer to them in the post-condition
  - Just in the formulas: these "names" are not in the program
  - Use these extra variables to avoid "forgetting" "connections"

```
{x = x_pre \( \lambda \) y = y_pre}

tmp = x;

{x = x_pre \( \lambda \) y = y_pre \( \lambda \) tmp=x}

x = y;

{x = y \( \lambda \) y = y_pre \( \lambda \) tmp=x_pre}

y = tmp;

{x = y pre \( \lambda \) y = tmp \( \lambda \) tmp=x pre}
```