# Contracts

# **A Mystery Function**

# The Story

Your first task at your new job is to debug this code written by your predecessor, who was fired for being a poor programmer.

```
int f(int x, int y) {
  int r = 1;
  while (y > 1) {
    if (y % 2 == 1) {
      r = x * r;
    }
    x = x * x;
    y = y / 2;
  }
  return r * x;
}
```

This is all you are given

How do you go about this "friendly" challenge?

# The Language

- This code is written in C0
  - The language we will use for most of this course
- This is also valid C code
  - For the most part, C0 programs are valid C programs
  - We will use C0 as a gentler language to
    - > learn to write complex code that is correct
    - > learn to write code in C itself
- But what does this function do?

```
int f(int x, int y) {
  int r = 1;
  while (y > 1) {
    if (y % 2 == 1) {
      r = x * r;
    }
    x = x * x;
    y = y / 2;
  }
  return r * x;
}
```

# The Programmer

- Is this good code?
  - there are no comments
  - the names are non-descript
    - > the function is called f
    - > the variables are called x, y, r

No! X



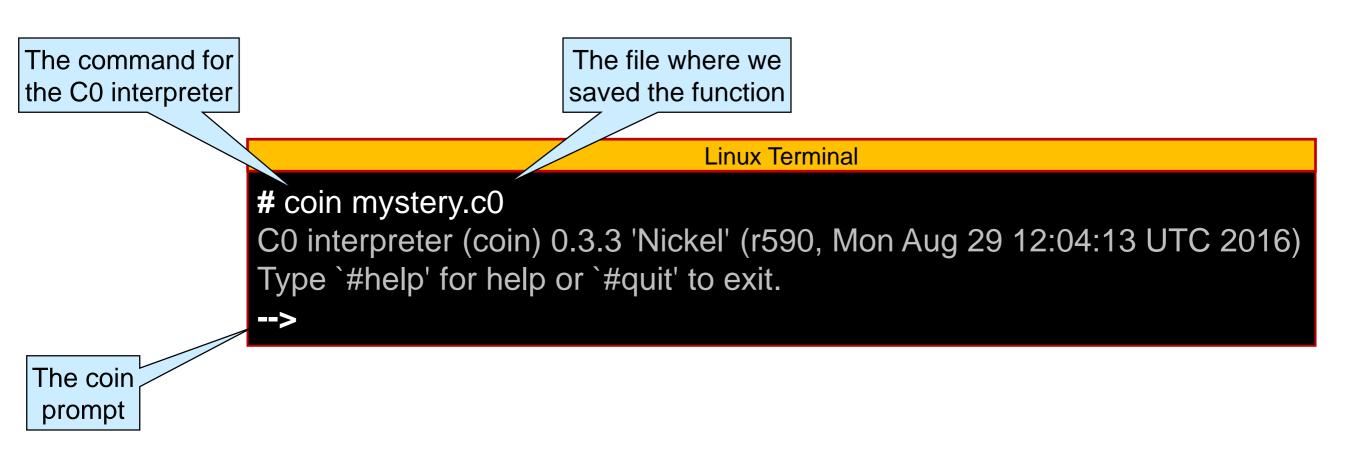
 No wonder your predecessor was fired as a bad programmer!

```
int f(int x, int y) {
 int r = 1;
 while (y > 1) {
   if (y \% 2 == 1) {
    r = x * r;
  X = X * X;
   y = y / 2;
 return r * x;
```

But what does this function do?

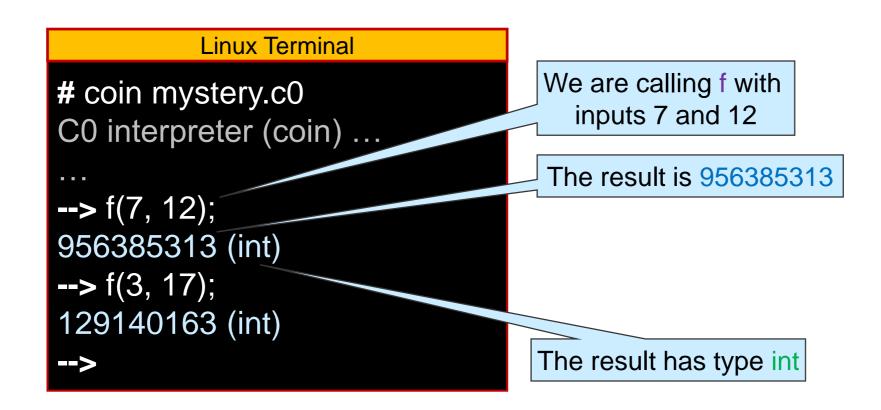
#### The Function

- But what does this function do?
- We can run *experiments*call f with various inputs and observe the outputs
- We do so by loading it in the C0 interpreter coin



# Running Experiments

Call f with various inputs and observe the outputs



These are not very good experiments
 they don't help us understand what f does

# Running Experiments

- Call f with various inputs and observe the outputs
  - we are better off calling f with small inputs
  - o and vary them by just a little bit so we can spot a pattern

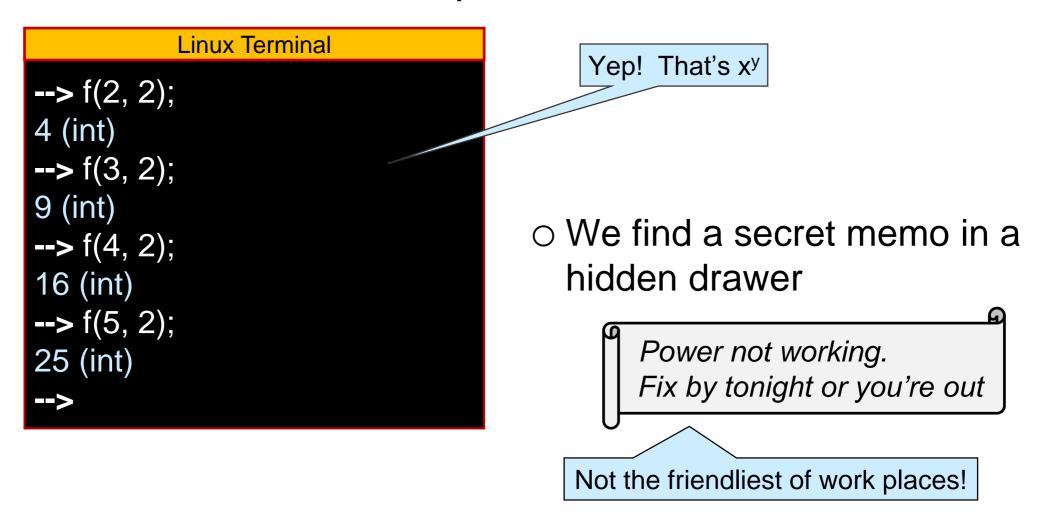
```
--> f(2, 3);
8 (int)
--> f(2, 4);
16 (int)
--> f(2, 5);
32 (int)
--> f(2, 6);
64 (int)
```



- $\circ$  It looks like f(x, y) computes  $x^y$
- Let's confirm with more experiments

# Confirming the Hypothesis

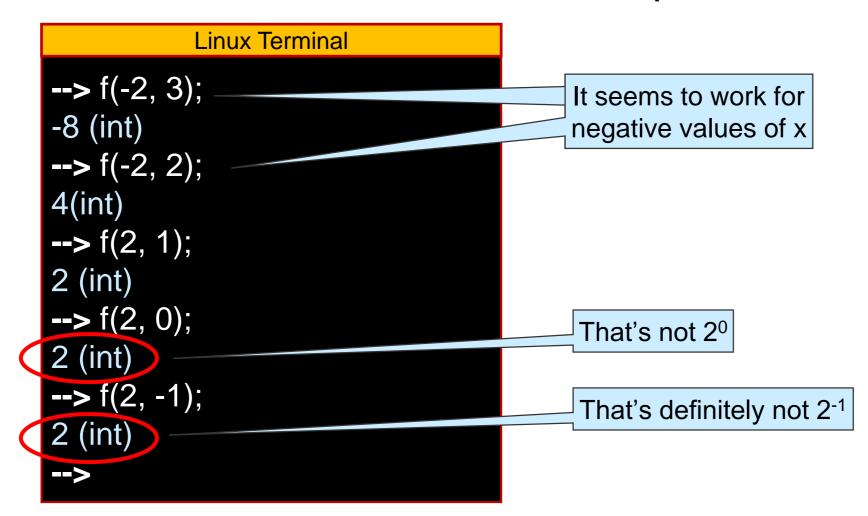
- It looks like f(x, y) computes  $x^y$
- Let's confirm with more experiments



Let's run a few more experiments to identify the problem

# Discovering the Bug

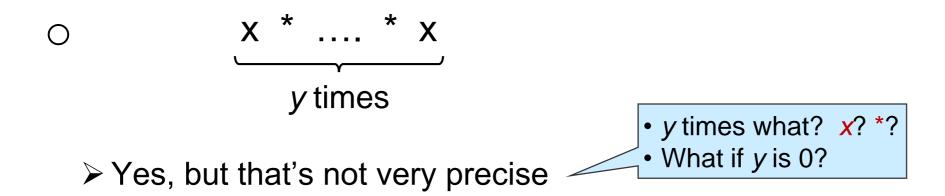
- f(x, y) is meant to computes x<sup>y</sup>
  - but it doesn't
- Let's find where it fails with more experiments



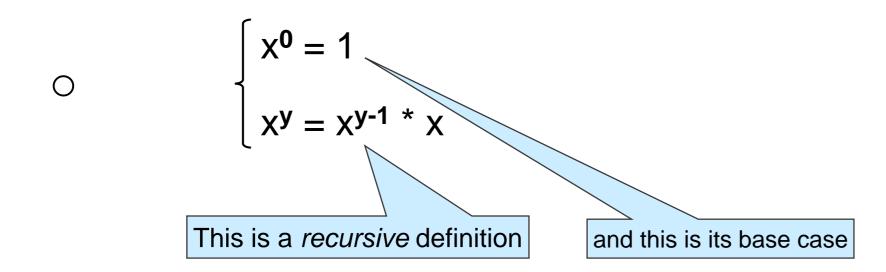
Now we have something to chew on

## **Preconditions**

• What does it mean to be the power function x<sup>y</sup>?



Let's write a mathematical definition



What does it mean to be the power function x<sup>y</sup>?

$$\begin{cases} x^0 = 1 \\ x^y = x^{y-1} * x \end{cases}$$

- O What happens if y is negative?
  - > we never reach the base case ...
- The power function  $x^y$  on integers is **undefined** if y < 0

$$\begin{cases} x^0 = 1 \\ x^y = x^{y-1} * x & \text{if } y > 0 \end{cases}$$
 This defines  $x^y$  for  $y \ge 0$  only

• What does it mean to be the power function  $x^y$ ?

$$\begin{cases} x^0 = 1 \\ x^y = x^{y-1} * x & \text{if } y > 0 \end{cases}$$

int f(int x, int y) {
 int r = 1;
 while (y > 1) {
 if (y % 2 == 1) {
 r = x \* r;
 }
 x = x \* x;
 y = y / 2;
 }
 return r \* x;
}

- To implement the power function, f must disallow negative exponents
  - It can raise an error
  - It can tell the caller that the exponent should be ≥ 0

Better! no need to test y

This would slow f down a bit.

#### Preconditions

- Disallow negative exponents
  - by telling the caller that the exponent should be ≥ 0

 A restriction on the admissible inputs to a function is called a precondition

- We need to impose a precondition on f
- In most languages, we are limited to writing a comment
  - and hope the caller reads it

```
This is how we would write a precondition in C
```

```
// y must be greater than or equal to 0
int f(int x, int y) {
  int r = 1;
  while (y > 1) {
    if (y % 2 == 1) {
       r = x * r;
    }
    x = x * x;
    y = y / 2;
    }
  return r * x;
}
```

#### Preconditions in C0

- We need to impose a precondition on f
  - $\circ$  to tell the caller that y should be ≥ 0
- In C0 we can write an executable contract directive

```
//@ requires y >= 0;
Co keyword to specify a precondition
• written between the function header and the body
• before the first "{"
```

- We check contracts by invoking coin with the -d flag
  - ➤ "dynamic checking"
    - □ but everybody understands it as debug mode
- without the -d flag, contracts are treated as comments

```
int f(int x, int y)
//@ requires y >= 0;
int r = 1;
 while (y > 1) {
   if (y \% 2 == 1) {
    r = x * r;
  X = X * X;
   y = y / 2;
return r * x;
```

# **Using Contract**

#### Running with contracts disabled

# # coin mystery.c0 C0 interpreter (coin) ... --> f(2, 3); 8 (int) --> f(2, -1); 2 (int) -->

Contracts are treated as comments

cc0, the C0 compiler, works the same way

#### Running with contracts enabled

```
Linux Terminal
 # coin ( -d ) mystery.c0
  C0 interpreter (coin) ...
  --> f(2, 3);
 8 (int)
  --> f(2, -1):
mystery.c0:2.4-2.20: @requires annotation failed
 Last position: myster, c0:2.4-2.20
            f from <stdio>:1.1.1.9
                                                   Line number
                                               where contract failed
            Contracts are executed
                                             File where
      • if true, execution proceeds normally
                                           contract failed
      • if false, execution aborts
```

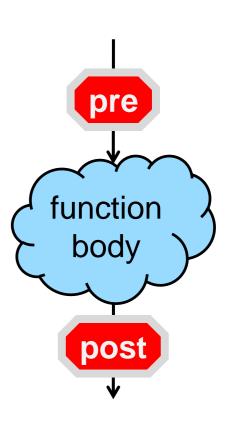
# Safety

- If we call f(x,y) with a negative y
  - with -d, execution aborts
  - without -d, f can return an arbitrary result
    - > there is **no** right value it could return
- Calling a function with inputs that cause a precondition to fail is unsafe
  - execution will never do the right thing
    - > either abort
    - > or compute a wrong result
- The caller must make sure that the call is safe
  - $\triangleright$  that y ≥ 0

## **Postconditions**

#### Contracts about Function Outcomes

- Preconditions are checked before the function starts executing
- A contract that is checked after it is done executing could tell us if the function did the right thing
  - > check that the output is what we expect
  - This is a postcondition



#### Postconditions in C0

In C0, the contract directive

```
//@ensures <some_condition>;
```

C0 keyword to specify a postcondition

- written between the function header and the body
  after the preconditions (by convention)
- before the first "{"

#### allows us to write a postcondition

- <some\_condition> can mention the contract-only variable \result
  - > what the function returns
  - > can only be used with //@ensures

```
int f(int x, int y)
//@ requires y >= 0;
//@ensures ...;
 int r = 1;
 while (y > 1) {
   if (y \% 2 == 1) {
    r = x * r;
  X = X * X;
  y = y / 2;
 return r * x;
```

# Writing a Postcondition

The postcondition we want to write is

//@ensures \result ==  $x^{**}y$ ;

○ but x\*\*y is not defined in C0
 ➤ C0 has no primitive power function!

That's how we write x<sup>y</sup> in Python

- What do we do?
  - transcribe the mathematical definition into a C0 function

$$\begin{cases} x^{0} = 1 \\ x^{y} = x^{y-1} * x & \text{if } y > 0 \end{cases}$$
 int POW(int x, int y)
//@requires y >= 0;
{
 if (y == 0) return 1;
 return POW(x, y-1) \* x;
}

# Writing a Postcondition

Then our postcondition is

```
//@ensures \ | == POW(x, y);
```

right? ... almost

```
# coin -d mystery.c0
mystery.c0:18.5-18.6:error:cannot assign to
variable 'x' used in @ensures annotation
x = x * x;
~
Unable to load files, exiting...
```

- The function modifies x (and y)
  - ➤ Which values of x and y should C0 evaluate the postcondition with?
    - ☐ We want the initial values, but it is checked when returning ...
- To avoid confusion, C0 disallows modified variables in postconditions

```
int POW(int x, int y)
 //@ requires y >= 0;
  if (y == 0) return 1;
  return POW(x, y-1) * x;
 int f(int x, int y)
 //@ requires v >= 0:
\pi/2 ensures \result == POW(x,y);
 int r = 1;
  while (y > 1) {
   if (y \% 2 == 1) {
     r = x * r;
   X = X * X;
   y = y / 2;
 return r * y;
```

# Writing a Postcondition

- C0 disallows modified variables in postconditions
  - Make copies x and y and modify those

```
Linux Terminal
  # coin -d mystery.c0
  C0 interpreter (coin) ...
  --> f(2, 3);
  8 (int)
  --> f(2, 0):
 mystery.c0:11.4-11.33: @ensures annotation failed>
  Last position: mystery.c0:11.4-11.33
            f fron < stdio > :1.1-1.8
We're good
                     Line number
                   where contract failed
```

```
int POW(int x, int y)
//@ requires y >= 0;
 if (y == 0) return 1;
 return POW(x, y-1) * x;
int f(int x, int y)
//@ requires y >= 0;
//@ensures \result == POW(x,y);
int b = x;
int e = y;
int r = 1;
 while (e > 1) {
  if (e % 2 == 1) {
    r = b * r:
  b = b * b;
  e = e / 2;
return r * b;
```

# Recall Safety

In the postcondition of f, we are making a call to POW

This should always

- Is it safe?
  - $\Box$  We need to show that  $y \ge 0$
  - ➤ The precondition tells us that y >= 0
- The body of POW makes a call to POW
  - Is it safe?
    - $\Box$  We need to show that y-1 >= 0
    - $\Box$  i.e., y >= 1
    - $\rightarrow$  The precondition tells us that y >= 0
    - $\triangleright$  Since we don't return on the if, y  $\neq$  0
    - > So y >= 1 by math

```
int POW(int x, int y)
//@ requires y >= 0;
 if (y == 0) return 1;
 returr(POW(x, y-1)
int f(int x, int y)
//@ requires y >= 0;
//@ensures \result == POW(x,
 int b = x:
 int e = y;
 int r = 1;
 while (e > 1) {
  if (e \% 2 == 1) {
    r = b * r;
  b = b * b;
  e = e / 2;
 return r * b;
```

- These are examples of point-to reasoning
  - We justify something by pointing to lines of code that supports it

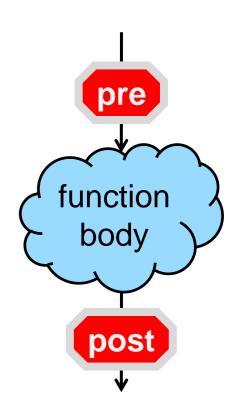
be on our mind

- But wait!
  - of was meant to implement the power function
  - o ... but POW is the power function!
- Let's use it!
  - There may be benefits to fixing f instead
     ➤ it may be more efficient than POW
  - Keep reading ...

```
int POW(int x, int y)
//@ requires y >= 0;
 if (y == 0) return 1;
 return POW(x, y-1) * x;
int f(int x, int y)
//@ requires y >= 0;
//@ensures \result == POW(x,y);
 int b = x;
 int e = y;
 int r = 1;
 while (e > 1) {
  if (e \% 2 == 1) {
    r = b * r;
  b = b * b;
  e = e / 2;
 return r * b;
```

#### Correctness

- If a call violates a function's postconditions
   (assuming its preconditions were met so it actually ran)
   the function is doing something wrong
   the function has a bug
- The function is incorrect
  - Our mystery function f is incorrect



- When writing a function, we must make sure that it is correct
  - o i.e., that its postconditions will be satisfied for any safe input

#### Blame

- If a function preconditions fail, there is a <u>bug in the caller's</u> code
  - > the caller passed invalid inputs
  - o the call is unsafe
- If its postconditions fail, there is a <u>bug in the function code</u>
  - > the function does the wrong thing
  - o the function is incorrect

We will develop methods to make sure that the code we write is **safe** and **correct** 

#### How to Use Contracts

- Contract-checking helps us write code that works as expected
  - Use -d while writing our code
  - At this stage, this is development code
    - bugs are likely
- Once we are confident our code works, compile it without -d
  - The code can be used in its intended application
  - At this stage, this is production code
    - > there should be no bugs
- Why not use -d always?
  - o it slows down execution

# Specification Functions

- POW is used only in contracts
  - It is not executed when contract-checking is disabled
    - > without -d
- Functions used only in contracts are called specification functions
  - They help us state what the code should do
  - They are critical to writing good code

```
int POW(int x, int y)
//@ requires y >= 0;
 if (y == 0) return 1;
 return POW(x, y-1) * x;
int f(int x, int y)
//@ requires y >= 0;
//@ensures \result == POW(x,y)
 int b = x;
 int e = y;
 int r = 1;
 while (e > 1) {
  if (e \% 2 == 1) {
    r = b * r;
  b = b * b;
  e = e / 2;
 return r * b;
```

### **Function Contracts**

#### Where are we?

- We have learned a lot about f
  - the preconditions describe what valid inputs are
  - the postconditions describe what it is supposed to do
    - > on valid inputs
- We have a fully documented function
- We have not looked at all at its body
  - > but we know there is a bug in there
  - > it is incorrect

```
int f(int x, int y)
//@ requires y >= 0;
//@ensures \result == POW(x,y);
 int e = y;
 int r = 1;
 while (e > 1) {
  if (e \% 2 == 1) {
    r = b * r;
  b = b * b;
   e = e / 2;
```

# The Caller's Perspective

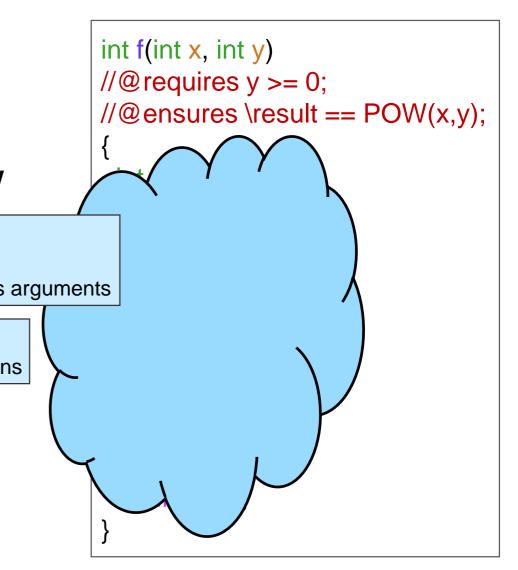
Preconditions describe valid inputs Postconditions describe what it does

That's what the caller needs to know to use the function

```
    int f(int x, int y)
    //@requires y >= 0;
    //@ensures \result == POW(x,y);
    Contracts:
    pre- and post-conditions
```

 The caller should be able to use it without knowing anything about how it is implemented

The implementation details are abstracted away



#### Abstraction

Split a complex system into small chunks that can be understood independently

Bother with as few details as possible at any time

Computer science is all about abstraction

# The Function's Perspective

Preconditions describe valid inputs
Postconditions describe what it does

- That's what the implementation is to do
  - guidelines to write the body of the function
- How to write good code
  - First write the contracts
  - and then the body
    - in this way, you always know what you are aiming for

```
int f(int x, int y)
//@ requires y >= 0;
//@ensures \result == POW(x,y);
 int e = y;
 int r = 1;
 while (e > 1) {
  if (e \% 2 == 1) {
    r = b * r;
  b = b * b;
   e = e / 2;
```

Now, we need to look at the body of f to find the bug

# **Loop Invariants**

### Diving In

- We need to look at the body of f
  - The complicated part is the loop
    - ➤ the values of the variables change at each iteration
    - > it's unclear how many iterations there are
  - If we understand the loop, we understand the function
- How to go about that?

```
int f(int x, int y)
//@ requires y >= 0;
//@ensures \result == POW(x,y);
 int b = x;
 int e = y;
 int r = 1;
 while (e > 1) {
  if (e \% 2 == 1) {
    r = b * r;
  b = b * b;
  e = e / 2;
 return r * b;
```

### Abstraction

- If we understand the loop,
   we understand the function
- How to go about that?
  - Contracts summarize what a function does so we don't need to bother with the details of its implementation
    - > An abstraction over functions
  - Come up with a summary of the loop so we don't need to bother with the details of its implementation
    - > An abstraction over loops!

```
int f(int x, int y)
//@ requires y >= 0;
//@ensures \result == POW(x,y);
 int b = x;
 int e = y;
 int r = 1;
 return r * b;
```

### Loop Invariants

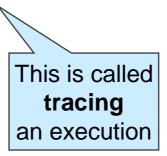
The values of the variables change at each iteration

- One valuable abstraction is what does not change
  - This is called a loop invariant
    - ➤ a quantity that remains constant at each iteration of the loop
      - □ a quantity may be an expression, not just a variable

```
We will see what makes some loop invariants really valuable shortly
```

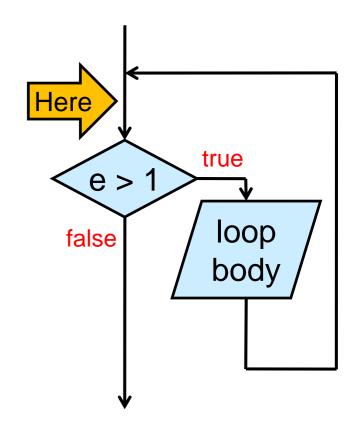
```
int f(int x, int y)
//@ requires y >= 0;
//@ensures \result == POW(x,y);
 int b = x;
 int e = y;
 int r = 1;
 while (e > 1) {
  if (e \% 2 == 1) {
    r = b * r;
  b = b * b;
  e = e / 2;
 return r * b;
```

- How to find a loop invariant?
  - ➤ a quantity that remains constant at each iteration of the loop
- Run the function on sample inputs
- Track the value of the variables that change
  - > b, e, r
    - no need to bother with x and y since they don't change
  - just before the loop guard is tested
    - ➤ That's e > 1



Look for patterns

```
int f(int x, int y)
//@ requires y >= 0;
//@ensures \result == POW(x,y);
 int b = x;
 int e = y;
 int r = 1;
 while (e > 1) {
   if (e % 2 \Rightarrow 1) {
    r = b * r;
   b = b * b;
                      Loop guard
  e = e / 2;
 return r * b;
```

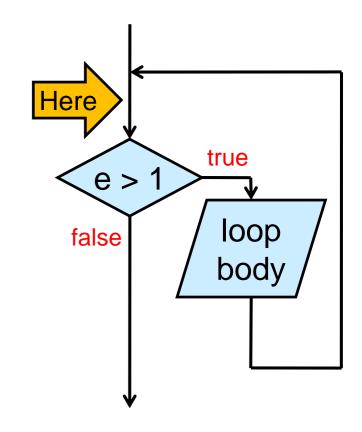


- Run the function on sample inputs and track the value of the variables
  - Let's try with f(2,8)

b	е	r	
2	8	1	
4	4	1	
16	2	1 At t	his point (it the loop
256	1	1 we ex	kit the loop

Ocan we spot a quantity that doesn't change?

```
int f(int x, int y)
//@ requires y >= 0;
//@ensures \result == POW(x,y);
 int b = x;
 int e = y;
 int r = 1;
 while (e > 1) {
  if (e % 2 == 1) {
    r = b * r;
                     This checks
  b = b * b;
                      if e is odd
  e = e / 2;
 return r * b;
```



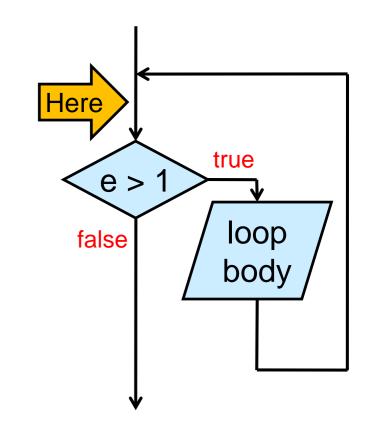
- Trying with f(2,8)
  - Can we spot a quantity that doesn't change?
  - be is always 256

þe	r	е	b
256	1	8	2
256	1	4	4
256	1	2	16
256	1	1	256

#### This is a candidate loop invariant

- > **b**<sup>e</sup> is constant on one set of inputs
- > a loop invariant must stay constant on all inputs

```
int f(int x, int y)
//@ requires y >= 0;
//@ensures \ | == POW(x,y);
 int b = x;
 int e = y;
 int r = 1;
 while (e > 1) {
  if (e \% 2 == 1) {
    r = b * r;
  b = b * b;
  e = e / 2;
 return r * b;
```

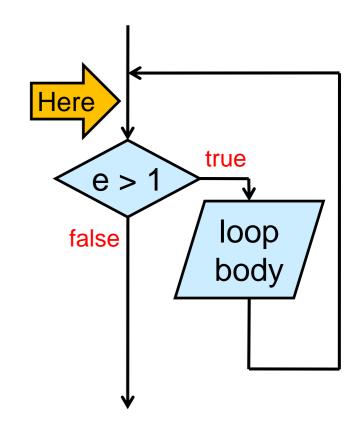


• **b**<sup>e</sup> is a *candidate* loop invariant

1,0 tm.	th f	(2 7)		
et's try	WILLI I	$(\mathbf{Z}, \mathbf{I})$		Not constant
				on these
b	е	r	p <sub>e</sub>	inputs
2	7	1	128	
4	3	2	64	
16	1	8	16	

- be is not invariant on these inputs!
  - ➤ It was a candidate that didn't pan out
- Can we spot another quantity that doesn't change?

```
int f(int x, int y)
//@ requires y >= 0;
//@ensures \ | == POW(x,y);
 int b = x;
 int e = y;
 int r = 1;
 while (e > 1) {
  if (e \% 2 == 1) {
    r = b * r;
  b = b * b;
  e = e / 2;
 return r * b;
```



- Trying with f(2,7)
  - Can we spot a quantity that doesn't change?
  - **b**<sup>e</sup> \* **r** is always 128

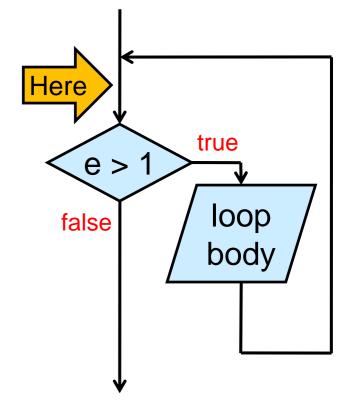
b	е	r	Pe	be * r
2	7	1	128	128
4	3	2	64	128
16	1	8	16	128

- This is another candidate loop invariant  $\circ$  Let's test it on f(3,5)

be * r	r	е	b
243	1	5	3
243	3	2	9
243	3	1	81

This seems to work

```
int f(int x, int y)
//@ requires y >= 0;
//@ensures \result == POW(x,y);
 int b = x;
 int e = y;
 int r = 1;
 while (e > 1) {
  if (e % 2 == 1) {
    r = b * r;
  b = b * b;
  e = e / 2;
 return r * b;
```



### A Candidate Loop Invariant

- be \* r is a promising candidate loop invariant
  - Olt works on three inputs!
- How do we know it works in general?
  - We can't test it on all inputs
  - We need to provide a proof

But first, let's add it to our code

```
int f(int x, int y)
//@ requires y >= 0;
//@ensures \result == POW(x,y);
 int b = x;
 int e = y;
 int r = 1;
 while (e > 1) {
  if (e \% 2 == 1) {
    r = b * r;
  b = b * b:
  e = e / 2;
 return r * b;
```

### Loop Invariants in C0

In C0, we use the directive

//@loop\_invariant

to specify a loop invariant

C0 keyword to specify a loop invariant
• written between the loop guard and the loop body

• Then, simply write

```
//@loop_invariant POW(b, e) * r;
```

- O ... this won't work
  - ➤ C0 would need to keep track of the values of this expression across all iterations of the loop
  - ➤ also, what if the loop runs 0 times?

```
int f(int x, int y)
//@ requires y >= 0;
//@ensures \result == POW(x,y);
 int b = x:
 int e = y;
 int r = 1;
 while (e > 1)
 //@loop_invariant ...;
  if (e % 2 == 1) {
    r = b * r;
  b = b * b;
  e = e / 2;
 return r * b;
```

- In C0, loop invariants must be boolean expressions
  - o true means it was satisfied in the current iteration
  - o false means it wasn't

### Loop Invariants in C0

- They are boolean expressions
  - true means satisfied
- What can we use?

b <sup>e</sup> * r	r	е	b
128	1	7	2
128	2	3	4
128	8	1	16

As we enter the loop,b is x and e is y

 $\triangleright$  so  $\mathbf{x}^{\mathbf{y}}$  is 128 too

 $\triangleright$  thus, **b**<sup>e</sup> \* **r** = **x**<sup>y</sup>

```
int f(int x, int y)
//@ requires y >= 0;
//@ensures \result == POW(x,y);
 int b = x:
 int e = y;
 int r = 1;
 while (e > 1)
 1/00 loop_invariant POW(b,e) * r == POW(x,y);
  if (e % 2 == 1) {
   r = b * r;
  b = b * b;
  e = e / 2;
 return r * b;
                              Execution will abort
                               when ran with -d
                               if LI is ever false
```

Then, we can write

 $//@loop_invariant POW(b, e) * r == POW(x, y);$ 

### Safety

We have two new calls to POW

- Are they safe?
- POW(x, y)
  - $\geq$  To show: y >= 0
  - $\circ$  y >= 0 by line 2 (precondition of f)



- POW(b, e)
  - **>** To show: e >= 0
  - o "e is initially equal to y which is >= 0 and it is halved at each iteration of the loop so e is always >= 0"
  - This is an example of operational reasoning
    - ➤ The justification relies on what is happening in all the iterations of the loop
      □ This is error-prone

1. int f(int x, int y)

int b = x;

int e = y;

int r = 1;

10.

11.

12.

13.

18.

while (e > 1)

r = b \* r;

b = b \* b;

e = e / 2;

17. return r \* b;

if (e % 2 == 1) {

 $_2$ . //@requires y >= 0; —

3. //@ensures \result == POW(x,y):

 $//@loop_invarian(POW(b,e)*r == POW(x,e)*$ 

> We will disallow safety proofs based on operational reasoning on loops



# Safety

### POW(b, e)

- **>** To show: e >= 0
- We can sort of do it with operational reasoning
  - ➤ error prone!
- but we really want to prove it using point-to reasoning
- We do believe that e >= 0 at every iteration of the loop
  - Turn it into a candidate loop invariant!

```
//@loop_invariant e >= 0;
```

- > We will need to prove later that it is valid
- Then we prove that POW(b, e) is safe by pointing to line 9

```
1. int f(int x, int y)
_{2.} //@requires y >= 0; -
3. //@ensures \result == POW(x,y);
   int b = x;
    int e = y;
    int r = 1;
    while (e > 1)
9. \sqrt{//}@loop_invariant e >= 0;
   //@loop_invariant POW(b,e) < r == POW(x,y);
11.
     if (e % 2 == 1) {
12.
      r = b * r;
13.
     b = b * b;
     e = e / 2;
17.
18. return r * b;
19.
```

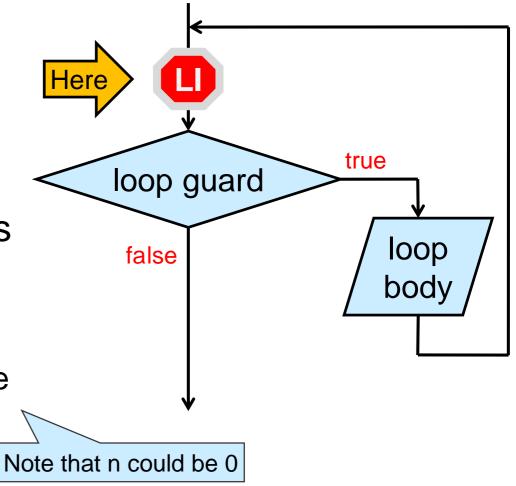
An operational hunch is often a good candidate loop invariant



### How Loop Invariants Work

Important!

- Loop invariants are checked just
   before the loop guard is tested
- If the loop body runs n times,
  - the loop invariant is checked n+1 times
    - > must be true all n+1 times
  - the loop guard is tested n+1 times too
    - > true the first n times and false the last time
- When we exit the loop
  - the loop invariant is true
  - the loop guard false



### **Validating Loop Invariants**

### Where are we?

- We have learned even more about f
  - The contracts tell us what it is meant to do
  - The loop invariants give us useful information about how the loop works
    - ➤ but these are **candidate** loop invariants
    - > we need to prove that they are valid

```
1. int f(int x, int y)
_2. //@requires y >= 0;
3. //@ensures \result == POW(x,y);
   int b = x;
   int e = y;
   int r = 1;
   while (e > 1)
   //@loop invariant e \ge 0;
   //@loop invariant POW(b,e) * r == POW(x,y):
11.
     if (e % 2 == 1) {
      r = b * r;
13.
     b = b * b;
     e = e / 2;
17.
18. return r * b;
19.
```

- We have started learning about proving things about code
  - > just safety so far
  - point-to reasoning: good
  - operational reasoning: error prone

### Proving a Loop Invariant Valid

- We cannot show a loop invariant is valid by running it on all possible inputs
  - We need to supply a proof
    - using point-to reasoning
- Two steps

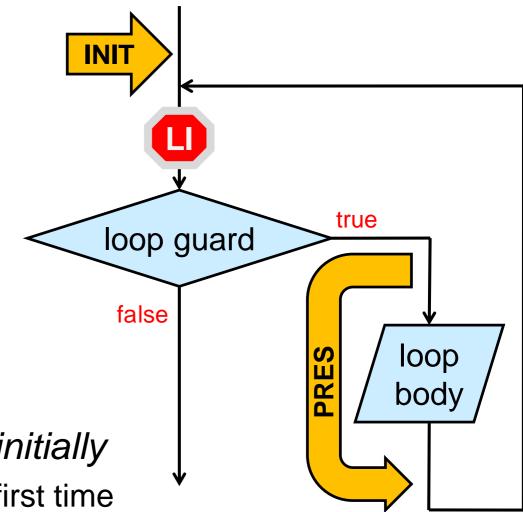
**INIT:** show that the loop invariant is true *initially* 

> just before we test the loop guard the very first time

PRES: show that the loop invariant is preserved by the loop

- > if it is true at the beginning of an arbitrary iteration of the loop,
- > then it is also true at the end of this iteration

But it may become false temporarily in the middle of the loop body



# We use math notation for brevity Validity of $e \ge 0$

#### **INIT:**

> To show: e ≥ 0 initially

A.  $y \ge 0$  by line 2

B. e = y by line 6

C.  $e \ge 0$  by math on A and B

This is a typical proof format in this course



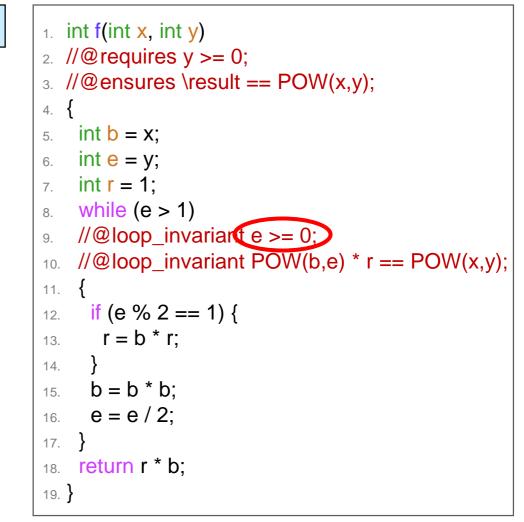
### PRES:

 $\triangleright$  To show: if  $e \ge 0$ , then  $e \ge 0$ 

LI at **start** of LI at end of current iteration current iteration

But isn't this trivially true?

- The value of e changes in the body of the loop
- We need a way to distinguish the value at the start and end of the current iteration
  - value of e at the **start** of the current iteration
  - value of e at the **end** of the current iteration **>** e'



### Validity of $e \ge 0$

**INIT:** e ≥ 0 initially



PRES:

LI at **start** of current iteration

LI at **end** of current iteration

> To show: if  $e \ge 0$ , then  $e' \ge 0$ 

A. e' = e/2 by line 16

B.  $e \ge 0$  by assumption

C.  $e/2 \ge 0$  by math on B

D.  $e' \ge 0$  by A and C



Both INIT and PRES were proved by point-to reasoning

```
1. int f(int x, int y)
2. //@requires y >= 0;
3. //@ ensures \result == POW(x,y);
   int b = x;
   int e = v;
   int r = 1;
   while (e > 1)
   //@loop_invariant e >= 0;
   //@loop invariant POW(b,e) * r == POW(x,y);
11.
     if (e % 2 == 1) {
      r = b * r;
     b = b * b;
     e = e / 2;
17.
18. return r * b;
19.
```

# Validity of $b^e r = x^y$

#### **INIT:**

 $\triangleright$  To show:  $b^e r = x^y$  initially

A. b = x by line 5

B. e = y by line 6

C. r = 1 by line 7

D.  $b^e r = x^y$  by math on A, B, C



```
1. int f(int x, int y)
_2. //@requires y >= 0;
3. //@ ensures \result == POW(x,y);
   int b = x;
   int e = v;
   int r = 1;
   while (e > 1)
   //@loop invariant e \ge 0;
  //@loop invariant POW(b,e) * r == POW(x,y);
     if (e % 2 == 1) {
      r = b * r;
     b = b * b;
     e = e / 2;
17.
18. return r * b;
19.
```

#### PRES:

LI at **start** of current iteration

LI at **end** of current iteration

 $\triangleright$  To show: if  $b^e r = x^y$ , then  $b'^{e'} r' = x^y$ 

x and y don't change in the loop

We need to distinguish 2 cases based on the test e % 2 == 1

➤ e % 2 == 1 is true — e is odd

**> e % 2 == 1** is **false** — *e is even* 

# Validity of $b^e r = x^y$

#### PRES:

- ightharpoonup To show: if be  $r = x^y$ , then b'e'  $r' = x^y$
- ➤ Case **e** is odd (e % 2 == 1)
  - $\Box$  Then e = 2n+1 for some n

A. 
$$b' = b*b$$

by line 15

B. 
$$e' = e/2$$

by line 16

$$C_{\cdot} = n$$

by case assumption and math

D. 
$$r' = b * r$$

by line 13

E. 
$$b'^{e'}$$
  $r' = (b*b)^n b*r$ 

by A, B, C, D

 $F. = b(b^2)^n r$ 

by math

G. =  $b^{2n+1} r$ 

by math

Н.

= be r

by case assumption

 $= x^y$ 

by assumption

```
1. int f(int x, int y)
_2. //@requires y >= 0;
3. //@ensures \result == POW(x,y);
   int b = x;
   int e = v;
   int r = 1;
  while (e > 1)
  //@loop invariant e \geq = 0;
10. //@loop_invariant POW(b,e) * r == POW(x,y);
    if (e % 2 == 1) {
      r = b * r;
     b = b * b;
     e = e / 2;
17.
18. return r * b;
19.
```

This is one of the most complex proofs in this course

This proves the first case

# Validity of $b^e r = x^y$

#### PRES:

- ightharpoonup To show: if be  $r = x^y$ , then b'e'  $r' = x^y$
- ➤ Case **e is even** (e % 2 == 0)
  - $\Box$  Then e = 2n for some n

A. 
$$b' = b*b$$

by line 15

B. e' = 
$$e/2$$

by line 16

$$C. = n$$

by case assumption and math

$$D. r' = r$$

since r is unchanged

E. 
$$b'^{e'} r' = (b^*b)^n r$$
 by A, B, C, D

F. 
$$= (b^2)^n$$
 r by math

G. 
$$= b^{2n} r$$
 by math

H. 
$$= b^e r$$
 by case assumption

$$1. = x^y \qquad \text{by assumption}$$

**PRES** holds

1. int f(int x, int y)

int b = x; int e = v; int r = 1;

while (e > 1)

 $_2$ . //@requires y >= 0;

3. //@ ensures \result == POW(x,y);

//@loop invariant e  $\geq = 0$ ;

if (e % 2 == 1) {

r = b \* r;

b = b \* b; e = e / 2;

18. **return r \* b**;

17.

19.

10. //@loop\_invariant POW(b,e) \* r == POW(x,y);

for  $b^e r = x^y$ 



This proves the second case too

### Loop Invariants

•  $e \ge 0$  is valid



- o it holds **INIT**ially
- it is **PRES**erved by an arbitrary iteration of the loop
  - $\succ$  if  $e \ge 0$ , then  $e' \ge 0$
- $b^e r = x^y$  is valid



- o it holds **INIT**ially
- it is PREServed by an arbitrary iteration of the loop

```
\rightarrow if be r = x^y, then b'e' r' = x^y
```

- This shows that both are genuine loop invariants
  - not just candidates
  - we can forget about the body of the loop when reasoning about this function

```
1. int f(int x, int y)
_2. //@requires y >= 0;
3. //@ensures \result == POW(x,y);
   int b = x;
   int e = y;
   int r = 1;
    //@loop invariant e >= 0;
    //@loop_invariant POW(b,e) * r == POW(x,y)
     if (e % 2 == 1) {
      r = b * r;
     b = b * b;
     e = e / 2;
17.
18. return r * b;
19.
```

### **Proof-directed Debugging**

### Where are we?

- The contracts tell us what the function is meant to do
  - > but we know there is a bug in there
- The loop invariants abstract away the details of the loop

But what to do with them is still a bit mysterious

Let's find the bug!

```
1. int f(int x, int y)
2. //@requires y >= 0;
3. //@ ensures \result == POW(x,y);
   int b = x;
   int e = y;
   int r = 1;
   while (e > 1)
   //@loop invariant e >= 0;
   //@loop_invariant POW(b,e) * r == POW(x,y);
18. return r * b;
19.
```

### After the Loop

- What do we know when execution exits the loop?
  - the loop guard is false

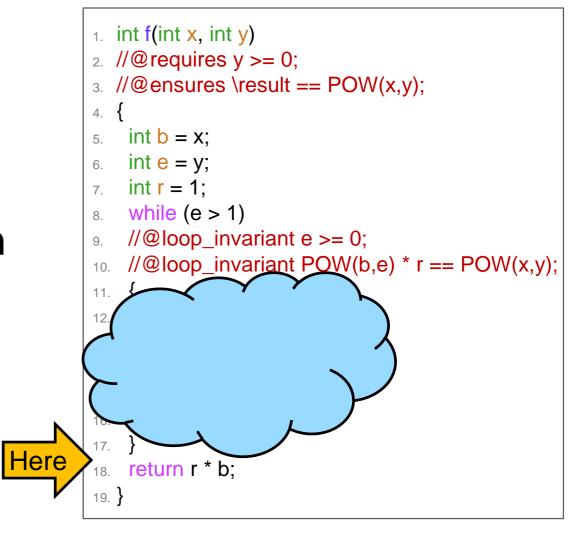
```
> e ≤ 1
```

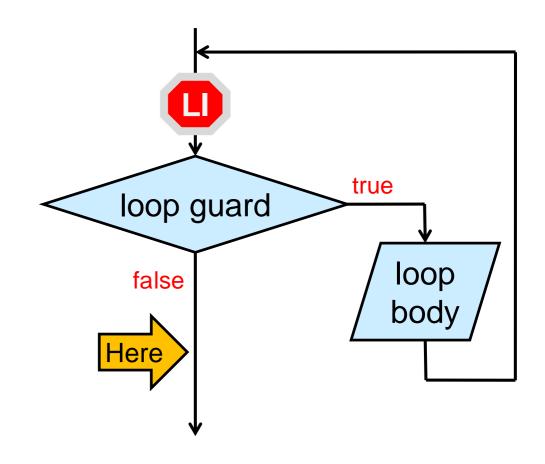
the loop invariants are true

```
\Rightarrow e \ge 0
\Rightarrow be r = x^y
```

- Knowing this will
  - enable us to prove correctness
  - or expose a bug

Since f is incorrect, this should happen





### After the Loop

- What do we know when execution exits the loop?
  - the loop guard is false

```
\geq e \leq 1
```

o the loop invariants are true

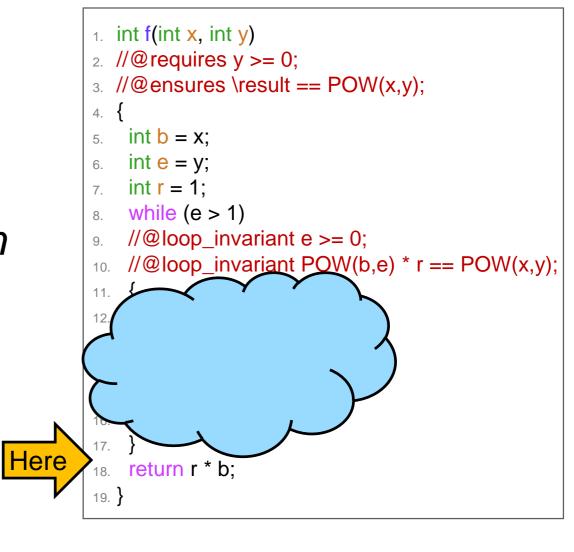
```
\Rightarrow e \ge 0
\Rightarrow b^e r = x^y
```

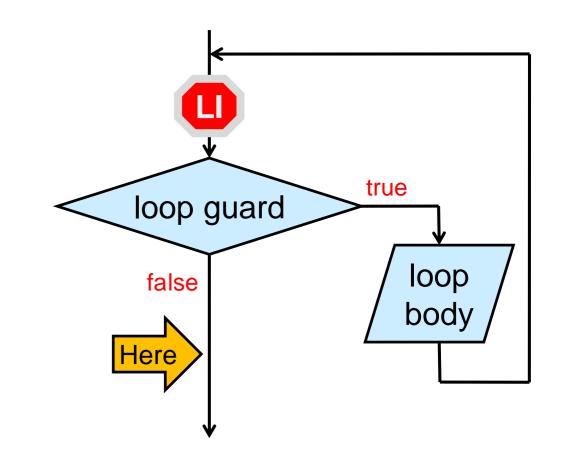
- From e ≤ 1 and e ≥ 0,
   we have that
  - $\circ$  either e = 0

```
\circ or e = 1
```

as we exit the loop

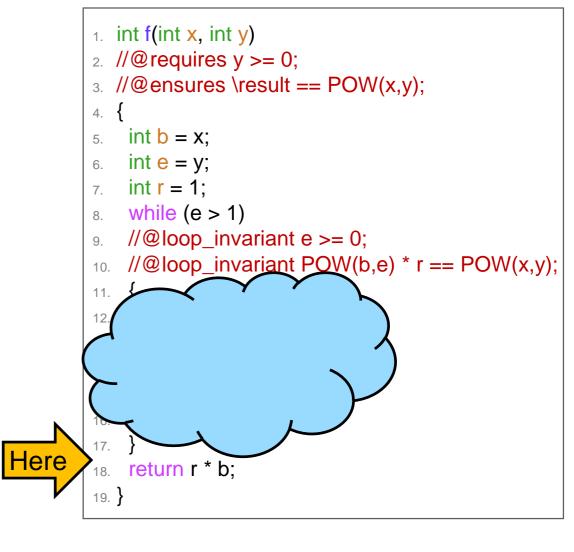
Recall that e has type int





### After the Loop

- $\bullet$  Either e = 0 or e = 1
  - Let's plug these values in the other loop invariant, be r = xy



- $\rightarrow$  If e = 1, then  $x^y = b^e r = b^1 r = r b$ 
  - $\circ$  Thus,  $x^y = r b$  in this case

 $\rightarrow$  if e = 0, then  $x^y = b^e r = b^0 r = r$ 

This is exactly what f returns.



This is not what f returns.

This is the bug!



### Tracking the Bug

- The bug is when e = 0 as we exit the loop
- This can happen only if f is called with 0 as y
  - if e = 1, the loop doesn't run and e stays 1
  - if e > 1 at the start of an iteration, then e' ≥ 1 as we end it

```
1. int f(int x, int y)
_2. //@requires y >= 0;
3. //@ ensures \result == POW(x,y);
   int b = x;
    int e = y;
   int r = 1;
    while (e > 1)
    //@loop invariant e >= 0;
    //@loop_invariant POW(b,e) * r == POW(x,y);
     if (e \% 2 == 1) {
      r = b * r;
     b = b * b;
     e = e / 2;
18. return r * b;
19.
```

Here

Idea #1: return 1 if y = 0

- This works but it introduces a special case in the code
- Special cases leads to contrived, unmaintainable code
  - sometimes unavoidable
  - but let's see if we can do better

```
int f(int x, int y)
//@ requires y >= 0;
//@ensures \result == POW(x,y);
if (y == 0) return 1;
 int b = x:
 int e = y;
 int r = 1;
 while (e > 1)
 //@loop_invariant e >= 0;
 //@loop invariant POW(b,e) * r == POW(x,y);
  if (e % 2 == 1) {
   r = b * r:
  b = b * b:
  e = e / 2:
 return r * b;
```

Idea #2: change the precondition to y > 0

- This forces the caller to have special cases in their code!
  - o calls to f need to be guarded

```
int c = f(a, b) int c = 1;
if (b > 0) c = f(a, b);
```

```
int f(int x, int y)
//@requires y > 0;
//@ensures \result == POW(x,y);
{
   int b = x;
   int e = y;
   int r = 1;
   while (e > 1)
   //@loop_invariant e >= 0;
   //@loop_invariant POW(b,e) * r == POW(x,y);
   {
     if (e % 2 == 1) {
        r = b * r;
     }
     b = b * b;
     e = e / 2;
   }
   return r * b;
}
```

- This also means that f is not the power function any more
   undefined when exponent is 0
- Not a great solution



Idea #3: forget about f and use POW instead

Recall the trace of f(2,8)the loop ran 4 times

b	е	r
2	8	1
4	4	1
16	2	1
256	1	1

- Trace POW(2, 8)9 recursive calls
- f is much more efficient

```
x y
2 8
2 7
2 6
2 5
2 4
2 3
2 2
2 1
2 0
```

```
int POW(int x, int y)
//@ requires y >= 0;
 if (y == 0) return 1;
 return POW(x, y-1) * x;
int f(int x, int y)
//@ requires y >= 0;
//@ensures \result == POW(x,y);
 int b = x;
 int e = y;
 int r = 1;
 while (e > 1)
 //@loop_invariant e >= 0;
 //@loop_invariant POW(b,e) * r == POW(x,y);
  if (e % 2 == 1) {
    r = b * r;
  b = b * b;
  e = e / 2:
 return r * b;
```



### Observations: with this body,

- o if e could be 1, then
  - > e/2 == 0
  - r becomes b\*r by line 13

### **Idea #4:** make f return only when e = 0

- change the loop guard to e > 0
  - $\succ$  the loop always end with e = 0
- o return r instead of r \* b
  - $\triangleright$  that's what we had to return when e = 0

```
1. int f(int x, int y)
2. //@requires y >= 0;
3. //@ensures \result == POW(x,y);
4. {
5. int b = x;
6. int e = y;
7. int r = 1;
8. while (e > 0)
9. //@loop_invariant e >= 0;
10. //@loop_invariant POW(b,e) * r == POW(x,y);
11. {
12. if (e % 2 == 1) {
13.     r = b * r;
14. }
15. b = b * b;
16. e = e / 2;
17. }
18     return r;
19. }
```

No special cases!



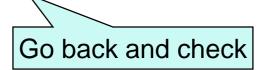
Rather than getting rid of the bad case (e = 0), we make it the good case and do away with the other case (e = 1)

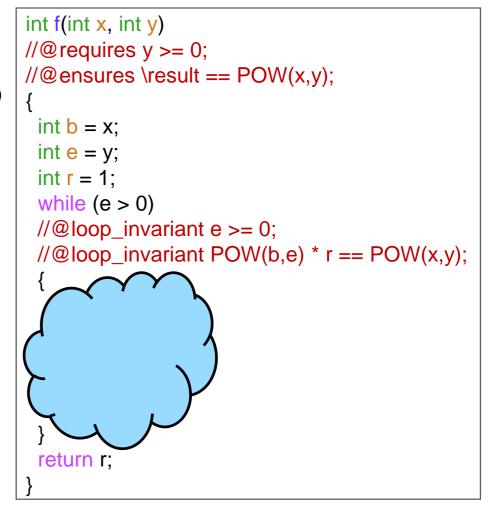
How's this for a movie plot?

### Correctness

# Did we Really Fix the Bug?

- The loop invariants are still valid
  - we didn't change the body of the loop
  - we changed the loop guard
    - > but we didn't use it in the validity proof





- Right after the loop, we know that
  - the loop guard is **false**:  $e \le 0$
  - o the 1<sup>st</sup> loop invariant is true: e ≥ 0
  - $\circ$  the 2<sup>nd</sup> loop invariant is **true**: be  $r = x^y$

> so 
$$x^y = b^e r = b^0 r = r$$

This is what f returns now

so e = 0



### Assertions

Right after the loop, we know that e = 0

- We can note this with the directive
   //@assert e == 0;
  - checked only when running with -d
  - aborts execution if the test is false
- //@assert is a great way to note
  - intermediate steps of reasoning
  - expectations about execution

```
int f(int x, int y)
//@ requires y >= 0;
//@ensures \result == POW(x,y);
 int b = x;
 int e = y;
 int r = 1;
 while (e > 0)
 //@loop_invariant e >= 0;
 //@loop invariant POW(b,e) * r == POW(x,y);
  if (e \% 2 == 1) {
    r = b * r:
  b = b * b;
  e = e / 2:
//@assert e == 0;
return r;
       //@assert can appear
      anywhere a statement
             is expected
```

These are all the run-time directives of C0

//@requires, //@ensures, //@loop\_invariant, //@assert

There are no others

#### Is the Function Correct?

Correctness: for any safe input, the postconditions are true

We just proved that, as we exit the loop, r = xy

> just before return r;

 This tells us that f will never return the wrong result

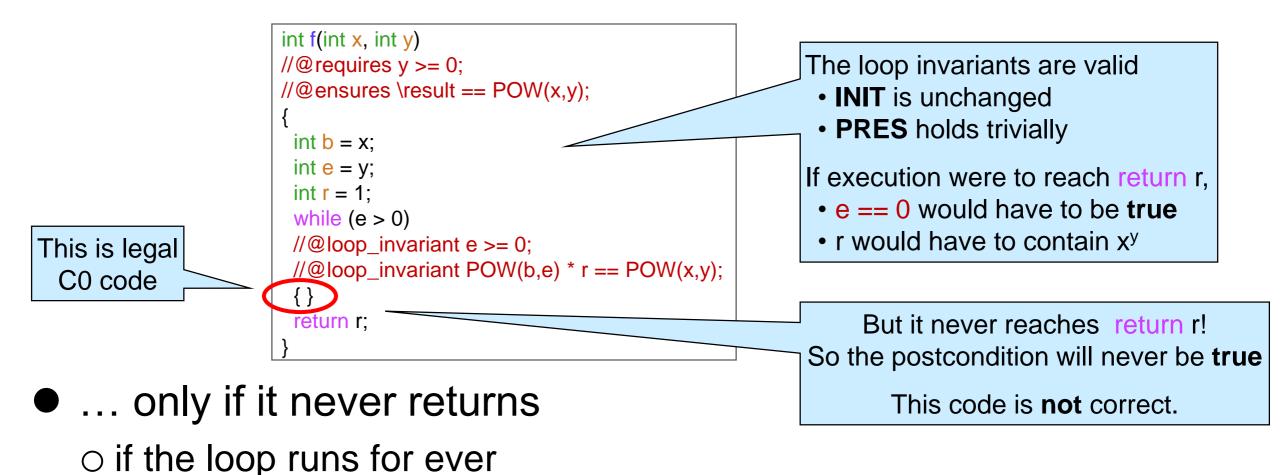
```
int f(int x, int y)
//@ requires y >= 0;
//@ensures \result == POW(x,y);
 int b = x;
 int e = y;
 int r = 1;
 while (e > 0)
 //@loop_invariant e >= 0;
 //@loop_invariant POW(b,e) * r == POW(x,y);
  if (e % 2 == 1) {
    r = b * r:
  b = b * b;
  e = e / 2:
 //@assert e == 0;
 return r;
```

... but will it *always return the right result*?

#### Is the Function Correct?

Correctness: for any safe input, the postconditions are true

- Can a function never return the wrong result and yet not necessarily always return the right result?
  - Let's empty out the loop body in our example



#### **Termination**

- We need to have a reason to believe the loop terminates
  - > it doesn't run for ever
- Here's a proof of termination
  - as the loop runs,
    - > e gets strictly smaller at each iteration
    - > it can never become smaller than 0
    - $\triangleright$  the loop guard is **false** when e = 0
  - so the loop must terminate

```
int f(int x, int y)
//@ requires y >= 0;
//@ensures \result == POW(x,y);
 int b = x;
 int e = y;
 int r = 1;
 while (e > 0)
 //@loop_invariant e >= 0;
 //@loop_invariant POW(b,e) * r == POW(x,y);
  if (e % 2 == 1) {
    r = b * r:
  b = b * b;
  e = e / 2;
//@assert e == 0;
return r;
```

This is an **operational** proof: we are not pointing to anything



#### **Termination**

- Operational proof
  - ➤ as the loop runs, e gets strictly smaller, it can never become smaller than 0, and the loop guard is false when e = 0
  - > so the loop must terminate
- Can we prove it using point-to reasoning?
  - Yes! Here's what we need to show
  - o in an arbitrary iteration of the loop,

```
    if e ≥ 0,
    then e' < e</li>
    and e' ≥ 0
    0 is a lower bound for e
    e is strictly decreasing
    0 stays a lower bound for e
```

```
if e starts >= 0,
it gets strictly smaller and
can never becomes smaller than 0
```

the loop guard is false when e = 0

```
 > 0 > 0  is false
```

```
int f(int x, int y)
//@ requires y >= 0;
//@ensures \result == POW(x,y);
 int b = x:
 int e = y;
 int r = 1;
 while (e > 0)
 //@loop_invariant e >= 0;
 //@loop invariant POW(b,e) * r == POW(x,y);
  if (e % 2 == 1) {
    r = b * r:
   b = b * b;
  e = e / 2:
//@assert e == 0:
return r;
```

#### **Termination**

Point-to proof

 $\triangleright$  To show: if e ≥ 0, then e' < e and e' ≥ 0

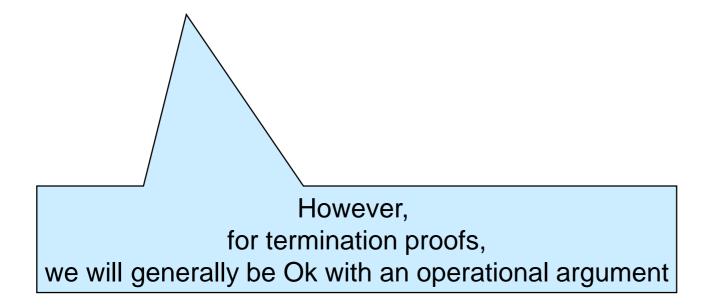
A. e > 0 by line 8 (loop guard)

B. e' = e/2 by line 16

C. e' < e by math

D.  $e' \ge 0$  by math





```
int f(int x, int y)
   //@requires y >= 0;
   //@ensures \result == POW(x,y);
     int b = x;
     int e = y;
     int r = 1;
     while (e > 0)
     //@loop_invariant e >= 0;
     //@loop_invariant POW(b,e) * r == POW(x,y);
11.
      if (e % 2 == 1) {
12.
        r = b * r;
13.
14.
      b = b * b;
15.
      e = e / 2;
16.
17.
    //@assert e == 0;
    return r;
19.
20.
```

### Reasoning about Code

### Reasoning about C0

- C0 programs have a precise behavior
  - we can reason about them mathematically
- We used two types of reasoning
  - Operational reasoning: drawing conclusions about how things change when certain lines of code are executed
  - Point-to reasoning: drawing conclusions about what we <u>know</u> to be true by pointing to specific lines of code that justify them
    - ➤ boolean expressions
    - basic mathematical properties
    - variable assignments \_

This is operational reasoning, but really simple

### Operational Reasoning

#### Examples

- Value of variables right after an assignment
- Things happening in the body of a loop from outside this loop
- Things happening in the body of a function being called
- Previously true statement after variables in it have changed
- Operational reasoning is hard to do right consistently
  - very error prone!
  - We want to stay away from anything beyond simple assignments
    - > except in termination proofs

If a proof about loops uses words like "always", "never", "each", you are doing operational reasoning

But operational intuitions are a good way to form conjectures that we can then prove using point-to reasoning

# Point-to Reasoning

### Examples

<ul> <li>Boolean conditions</li> </ul>	<b>1</b>
> condition of an if statement in the "then" branch	$\checkmark$
> negation of the condition of an if statement in the "else" branch	$\checkmark$
➤ loop guard inside the body of a loop	$\checkmark$
> negation of the loop guard after the loop	$\checkmark$
<ul> <li>Contract annotations</li> </ul>	<b>√</b>
preconditions of the current function	$\checkmark$
postconditions of a function just called	$\checkmark$
➤ loop invariant inside the loop body	$\checkmark$
➤ loop invariant after the loop	$\checkmark$
earlier fully justified assertions	$\checkmark$
<ul> <li>Math</li> </ul>	<b>1</b>
> laws of logic	$\checkmark$
> some laws of arithmetic	$\checkmark$
<ul> <li>Value of variables right after an assignment</li> </ul>	<b>1</b>

### Point-to Reasoning: Tips and Tricks

- When reasoning about an earlier loop,
   pretend the body of the loop is not there
  - Only rely on the loop guard and loop invariants

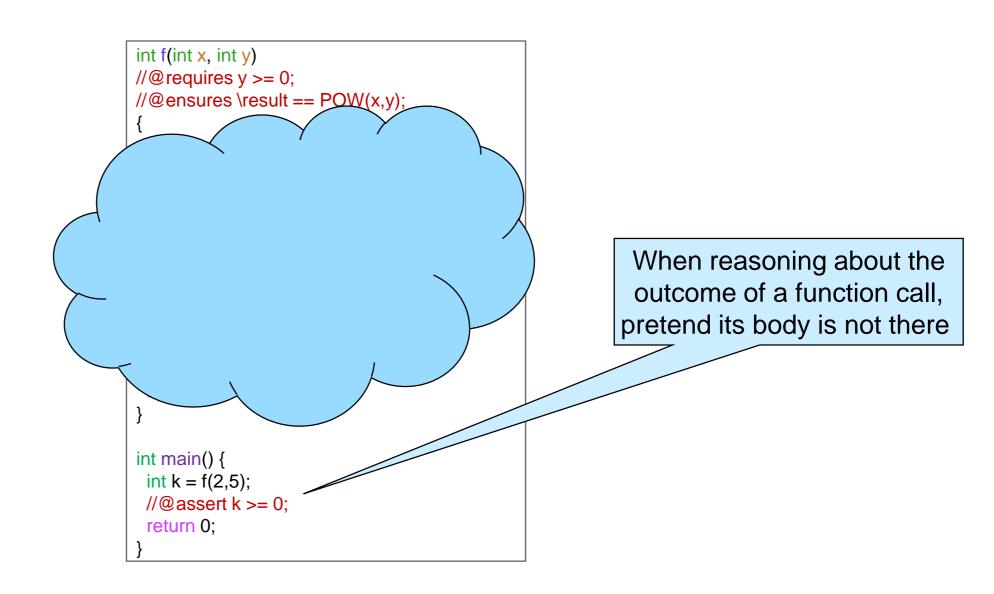
```
int f(int x, int y)
//@requires y >= 0;
//@ensures \result == POW(x,y);
{
  int b = x;
  int e = y;
  int r = 1;
  while (e > 0)
//@loop_invariant POW(b,e) * r == POW(x,y);
{

    When reasoning about an earlier loop,
    pretend its body is not there
}

//@assert r = POW(x,y);
return r;
}
```

### Point-to Reasoning: Tips and Tricks

- When reasoning about a function being called,
   pretend the body of the function is not there
  - > unless it's a specification function
  - Only rely on its contracts



### Safety

- The inputs of a function call satisfy the function's preconditions
  - we will generalize this definition in the future

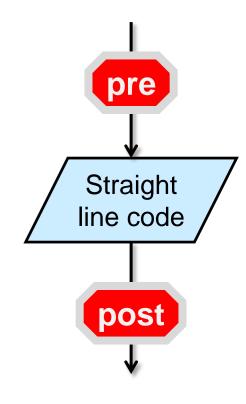
We will exclusively use point-to reasoning to justify safety

#### Correctness

- The postconditions of a function will be true on any call that satisfies the preconditions
  - We will not need to generalize this definition

### Straight Line Functions

A non-recursive function without loops



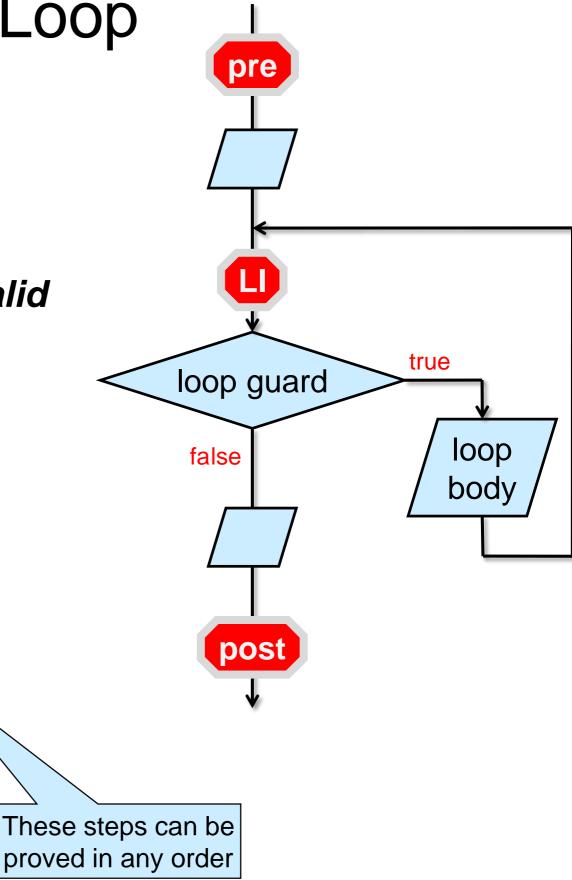
 Proving correctness amounts to combining assignments

```
To show: \result = x
A. b = x
B. r = 1
C. \result = r * b
by line 7
C. \result = r * b
by line 8
D. r * b = x
by math on A, B, C
```

```
1. int f(int x, int y)
2. //@requires y >= 0;
3. //@ensures \result == x;
4. {
5. int b = x;
6. int e = y;
7. int r = 1;
8. return r * b;
9. }
```

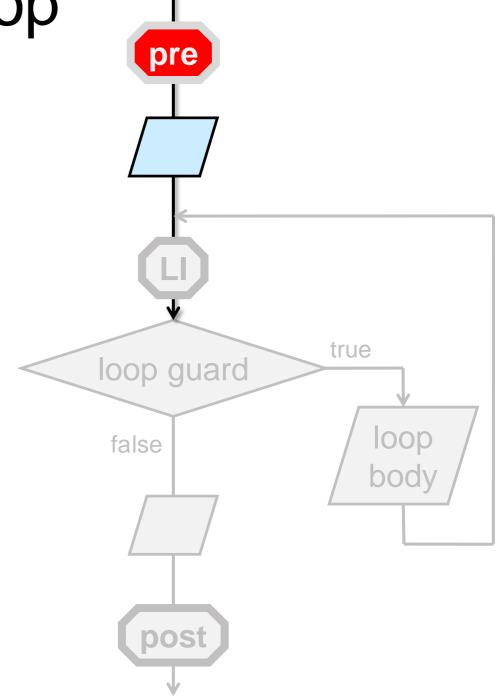
- Proving correctness involves 3 steps
  - Show that the loop invariants are valid
    - > INIT: the LI are true initially
    - ➤ PRES: the LI are preserved by an arbitrary iteration of the loop
  - EXIT: the LI and the negation of the loop guard imply the postcondition
  - TERM: the loop terminates

That's exactly what we did for our mystery function



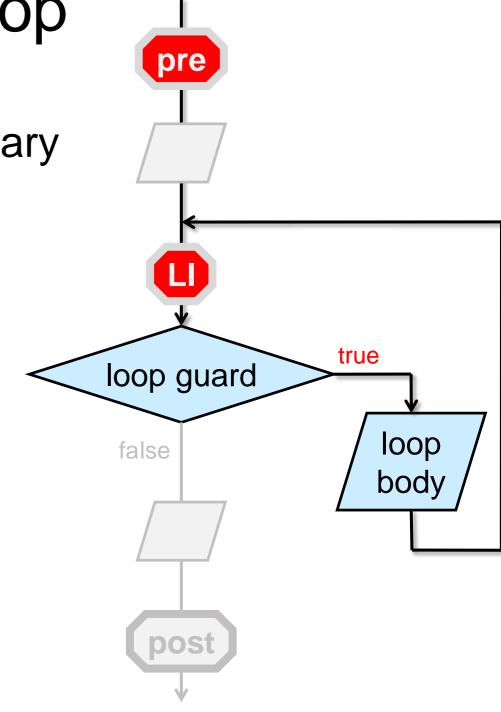
**INIT:** the loop invariant is true initially

- proved by <u>point-to reasoning</u> typically using
  - the preconditions
  - simple assignments before the loop



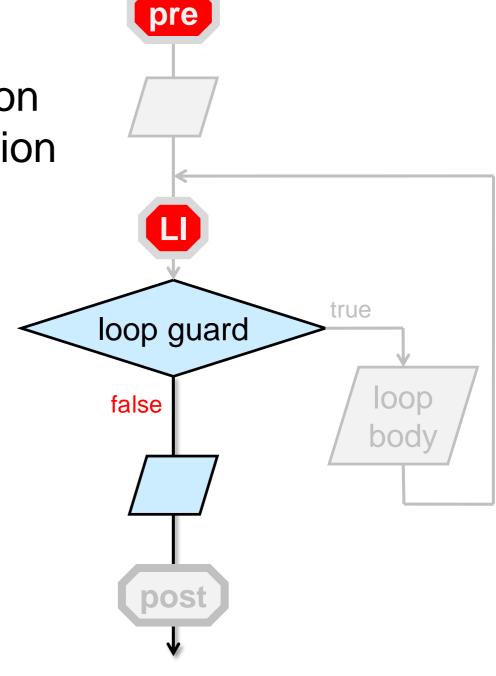
**PRES:** the LI are preserved by an arbitrary iteration of the loop

- proved by <u>point-to reasoning</u> typically using
  - the assumption that the LI is true at the beginning of the iteration
  - the loop guard being true
    - > we are running an iteration
  - simple assignments and conditionals in the loop body
  - the preconditions (sometimes)



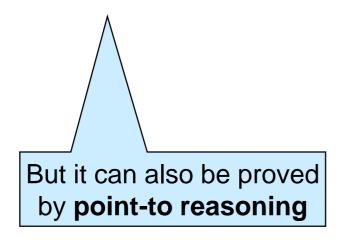
**EXIT:** the loop invariants and the negation of the loop guard imply the postcondition

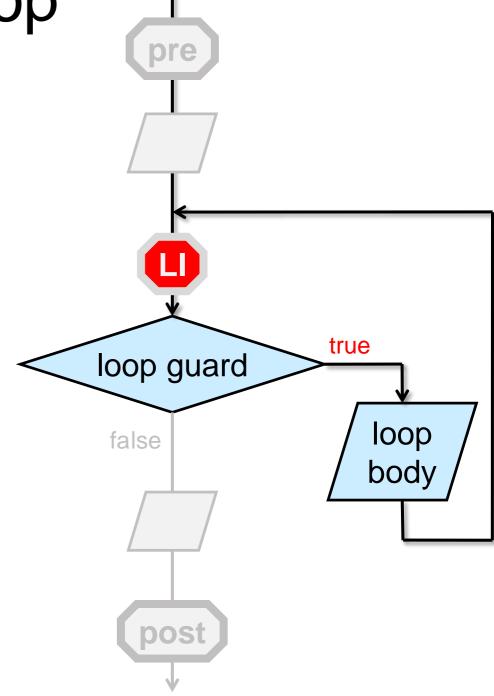
- proved by <u>point-to reasoning</u> typically using
  - the loop invariant
  - the negation of the loop guard
  - simple assignments and conditionals after the loop



**TERM:** the loop terminates

- proved by <u>operational reasoning</u> typically using
  - the assumption that the LI is true at the beginning of the iteration
  - the loop guard
  - simple assignments and conditionals in the loop body





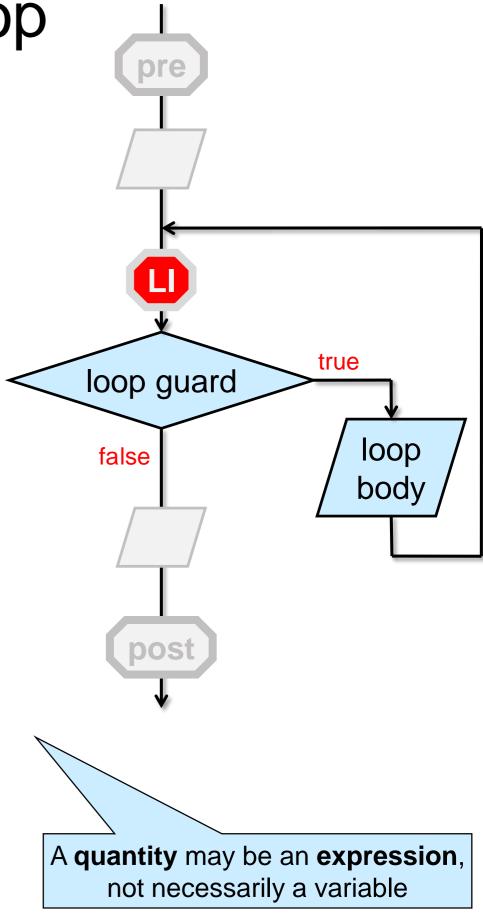
**TERM:** the loop terminates

 Format of a termination proof using <u>operational reasoning</u>

> "on an arbitrary iteration of the loop, the quantity \_\_\_\_\_ gets strictly smaller but it can't ever get smaller than \_\_\_\_" on which the loop guard is false

or

"on an arbitrary iteration of the loop, the quantity \_\_\_\_\_ gets strictly bigger but it can't ever get bigger than \_\_\_\_" on which the loop guard is false



### More Complex Functions

- These techniques can be extended
  - but we will rarely deal with functions with more than one loop
- We can also factor out nested loops and the like into helper functions
  - o and then use the technique we just saw

### Seriously??

- All these proofs and complicated reasoning seem overkill!
  - o the mystery function wasn't all that hard after all
  - we could just spot what was going on
- Yes, but it won't be that easy for more complex functions
  - o the technique we saw is systematic and scalable
  - reasoning about code will pay off
- Point-to reasoning is what we do in our head all the time when programming
  - writing it down as loop invariants and contracts makes it easier not to get confused
  - and the -d flag will catch lingering issues at run time

# **Epilogue**

#### Where are we?

- We fully documented f
  - function contracts
  - loop invariants
  - key assertions
- We fixed the bug
- We gave mathematical proofs that
  - o all the calls it makes are safe
  - o it is correct
- Let's enjoy the fruit of our labor with some more testing!

```
int f(int x, int y)
//@ requires y \ge 0;
//@ensures \result == POW(x,y);
 int b = x;
 int e = y;
 int r = 1;
 while (e > 0)
 //@loop_invariant e >= 0;
 //@loop invariant POW(b,e) * r == POW(x,y);
  if (e % 2 == 1) {
    r = b * r:
  b = b * b;
  e = e / 2:
//@assert e == 0:
return r;
```

## Sanity Checks

Let's do a last round of testing

```
Linux Terminal
# coin -d mystery.c0
C0 interpreter (coin) ...
--> f(2, 0);
1 (int)
                                          Bug fixed!
--> f(2, 1);
2 (int)
--> f(2, 7);
128 (int)
                                           Looking good
--> f(2, 8);
256 (int)
--> f(2, 19);
524288 (int)
                                           Plausible
--> f(2, 31);
-2147483648 (int)
                                           What?
--> f(2, 32);
0 (int)
                                           What?
```

```
int f(int x, int y)
//@ requires y >= 0;
//@ensures \result == POW(x,y);
 int b = x;
 int e = y;
 int r = 1;
 while (e > 0)
 //@loop_invariant e >= 0;
 //@loop_invariant POW(b,e) * r == POW(x,y);
  if (e % 2 == 1) {
    r = b * r:
  b = b * b;
  e = e / 2;
//@assert e == 0:
return r;
```

The story continues ...