Correctness

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Program Correctness

- Notions of correctness
 - Proof
 - Testing
- Proofs cover all the cases.
- Testcases are inherently incomplete.
 - except when the number of inputs is finite.
 - In general, testing can prove presence of bugs, and not their absence.
- Proofs are guided by computation properties.

Example

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main() {
     int var = 3;
     int flag = 0;
     int *ptr = &var;
     if (flag == 0) ptr = NULL;
     if (*ptr < 5) printf("if\n");
     else printf("else\n");
     return 0;
```

```
$ gcc bug.c
$ a.out
Segmentation fault (core dumped)
$
```

Example

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <assert.h>
int main() {
     int var = 3;
     int flag = 0;
     int *ptr = &var;
     if (flag == 0) ptr = NULL;
     assert(ptr != NULL);
     if (*ptr < 5) printf("if\n");
     else printf("else\n");
     return 0;
```

```
$ gcc bug.c

Error: Undefined reference to assert

$ gcc bug.c

$ a.out

a.out: bug.c:12: main: Assertion `ptr!

= NULL' failed.

Aborted (core dumped)

$
```

With this knowledge, now the error can be traced backwards.

Example

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <assert.h>
int main() {
    int var = 3;
    int flag = 0;
    int *ptr = &var;
     assert(ptr != NULL);
    if (flag == 0) ptr = NULL;
    if (*ptr < 5) printf("if\n");
     else printf("else\n");
    return 0;
```

```
$ gcc bug.c
$ a.out
Segmentation fault (core dumped)
$
```

With this knowledge, now the error can be traced forward.

Pre and Post-conditions

- Define constraints that must be satisfied at a program point.
- Constraints are simple boolean expressions.
 - We will use C-style conditions.
- Pre-condition (post-condition) identifies constraints <u>prior to</u> (<u>after</u>) a statement.
- Ideally, we want the most precise conditions.
- Types of statements:
 - assignments, conditionals, loops.

Assignments

```
{x > 0}

x++;

{??}
```

Assignments

```
{x > 0}

x++;

{x > 1}
```

Assumptions:

- Values do not overflow (no wrap-around).
- Type information is available.

```
 \{x > 0\} 
 x = 2 * x; 
 \{???\} 
 x = x + y; 
 \{???\} 
 x = x - y; 
 \{???\}
```

Notes

- If x > 0 and it is an int, x is at least 1. Hence, 2 * x > 1. Additionally, x % 2 == 0.
- If y is unknown, x + y can be any value.
- If type of y is known to be unsigned, then x + y would also be above 1.
- If the effect of two statements can be gauged together, we can regain the information that x > 1. Otherwise, we lose track of x's value.

```
 \{x > 0\} 
if (x > 5) {
 \{x > 5\} 
 x = 4;
 \{x == 4\} 
}
 \{?? \}
```

After an if (C) S

- either the effect of S is visible;
- or the effect of the statements prior to this if statement falls through. In this case, the condition C is guaranteed to be false.

```
\{x > 0\}
if (x > 5) {
   \{x > 5\}
   x = 4;
  \{x == 4\}
} else {
   x = 10;
```

```
\{x > 0\}
if (x > 5) {
   \{x > 5\}
   x = 4;
   \{x == 4\}
} else {
  \{x <= 5\}
   x -= 10;
```

```
{x > 0}
if (x > 5) {
   {x > 5}
   x = 4;
   \{x == 4\}
} else {
   \{x \le 5 \&\& x > 0\}
   x -= 10;
   \{x <= -5 \&\& x > -10\}
```

```
\{x > 0\}
if (x > 5) {
   \{x > 5\}
   x = 4;
   \{x == 4\}
} else {
   \{x \le 5 \&\& x > 0\}
   x = 10;
   \{x \le -5 \&\& x > -10\}
\{x == 4 \mid | x \in (-10..-5] \}
```

After an if (C) S1 else S2

- On entering a conditional, the conditions get ANDed (at S1, C gets ANDed; at S2, NOT C gets ANDed).
- On exiting a conditional, the conditions get ORed (at the end of if-else).
- Relative updates retain+modify existing conditions (e.g., x -= 10).
- Absolute updates generate new conditions (e.g., x = 4).

Note that the effect of the conditions prior to if-else may not reach end of if-else (unlike in if-without-else)

Getting back to the segfault

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main() {
     int var = 3;
     int flag = 0;
     int *ptr = &var;
     if (flag == 0) ptr = NULL;
     if (*ptr < 5) printf("if\n");
     else printf("else\n");
     return 0;
```

Write pre- and post-conditions for this program.

Compare your inference with what happens at program execution time.

```
\{x > 0\}
if (...) {
   \{x > 5\}
  \{x == 4\}
} else {
   \{x \le 5 \&\& x > 0\}
    \{x \le -5 \&\& x > -10\}
\{x == 4 \mid | x \in (-10..-5] \}
```

Thought exercise: Given a set of pre and post-conditions, can we automatically generate a program?

Tony Hoare

- Inventor of quicksort
- Known for Hoare logic
- Turing Award in 1980

"fundamental contributions to the definition and design of programming languages"



```
while (x >= y) \{
x -= y;
```

```
 \begin{cases} x >= 0 & & y >= 0 \\ while & (x >= y) \end{cases} 
 x -= y;
```

We want to check if \mathbf{x} becomes negative at the end of the loop.

```
 \{x >= 0 \&\& y >= 0\} 
while (x >= y) \{
 \{x >= y\} 
 x -= y;
```

```
 \{x >= 0 \&\& y >= 0\} 
while (x >= y) \{
 \{x >= y \&\& y >= 0\} 
 x -= y;
 \{x >= 0 \&\& y >= 0\} 
 \}
```

```
 \{x >= 0 \&\& y >= 0\} 
while (x >= y) \{
 \{x >= y \&\& y >= 0\} 
 x -= y;
 \{x >= 0 \&\& y >= 0\} 
 \{x < y \&\& y >= 0\}
```

For while (C) S

- On entering the loop for the first time, the conditions get ANDed.
- On reaching C in further iterations, the conditions again get ANDed with C, but the iterative conditions get ORed.
- On exiting a loop, NOT C must be true.
- Similar to if, conditions from within the loop and those from outside would get ORed.

```
 \{x >= 0 \&\& y >= 0\} 
while (x >= y) \{
 \{x >= y \&\& y >= 0\} 
 x -= y;
 \{x >= 0 \&\& y >= 0\} 
 \}
 \{x < y \&\& y >= 0\}
```

Post-condition indicates that \boldsymbol{x} may be negative at the end of the loop.

```
 \{x >= 0 \&\& y >= 0\} 
while (x >= y) \{
 \{x >= y \&\& y >= 0\} 
 x -= y;
 \{x >= 0 \&\& y >= 0\} 
 \}
 \{x < y \&\& y >= 0\}
```

Post-condition indicates that \mathbf{x} may be negative at the end of the loop; but the program doesn't say so.

```
\{\mathbf{x} > = \mathbf{0} \&\& y > = 0\}
while (\mathbf{x} > = \mathbf{y}) \{
\{\mathbf{x} > = \mathbf{y} \&\& y > = 0\}
\mathbf{x} - = \mathbf{y};
\{\mathbf{x} > = \mathbf{0} \&\& y > = 0\}
\{\mathbf{x} < \mathbf{y} \&\& y > = 0 \&\& \mathbf{x} > = \mathbf{0}\}
```

 \mathbf{x} cannot be negative at the end of the loop.

- Write the final post-conditions for the following programs.
 - To find the maximum element in an array
 - To compute the sum of the odd elements in an array
 - To compute the sum of the odd index elements
 - To find an anagram of a string (e.g., structures == trust cures, and data structures == custard stature)
- Find a reasonable anagram of annual grit.

```
 \{\mathbf{x} > = \mathbf{0} \&\& \ y > = 0\} 
while (\mathbf{x} > = \mathbf{y}) \{
 \{\mathbf{x} > = \mathbf{y} \&\& \ y > = 0\} 
 \mathbf{x} - = \mathbf{y};
 \{\mathbf{x} > = \mathbf{0} \&\& \ y > = 0\} 
 \}
 \{\mathbf{x} < \mathbf{y} \&\& \ y > = 0 \&\& \ \mathbf{x} > = \mathbf{0}\}
```

x cannot be negative at the end of the loop.

Such a condition is called a loop-invariant.

- It is true prior to entering the loop.
- It is true in every iteration of the loop.
- It is true at the end of the loop.

Loop Invariants

- Properties to be satisfied prior to the loop, after every iteration, and at the end of the loop.
- Abstractly specifies the loop
 - bears potential to hide implementation details
- Similarity with recursion
 - resembles inductive hypothesis
- Often, finding loop invariants is not difficult, but finding useful (elegant) loop invariants is nontrivial.

Loop Invariants

```
i = 0;
while (i < N) {
    sum += i;
    ++i;
}</pre>
```

Trivial loop-invariants:

- $(i == 0 \mid | i == 1 \mid | \dots | | i == N 1 \mid | i == N)$
- (sum == 0 || sum == 1 || sum == 3 || sum == 6 || sum == arbitrary)
- (i == 0 && sum == 0 || i == 1 && sum == 1 || i == 2 && sum == 3 || ... || i == N && sum == arbitrary)

Useful loop-invariant:

• sum == \sum_{i}^{0}

Now let's check if this invariant is satisfied:

After every iteration?

The incremented i is not summed up yet. Hence the invariant doesn't hold. So the invariant should be sum == $\sum_{i=1}^{0}$

At the end of the loop?

i == N, and the sum contains the summation of 0..N-1.

Just prior to the loop?

i == 0, but sum is undefined!

To satisfy the invariant, we need to add this line: sum = 0;

Thus, loop invariants can help us identify errors in the program.

```
satya = 1;
anand = pm[0];
while (satya < nobel) {
  if (pm[satya] > anand)
      anand = pm[satya];
  ++satya;
}
```

- Finding useful / elegant loop invariants need high-level understanding of the code.
- This is not feasible, in general, automatically.
- Even for humans, loop-invariants are often guessed.
- For your own code, you should be able to state those precisely!

```
i = 1;
max = a[0];
while (i < N) {
    if (a[i] > max)
        max = a[i];
    ++i;
}
```

Loop Invariant:

- max contains the maximum value in a[0]..a[i-1].
- This is satisfied just prior to the loop.
- This is satisfied after every iteration.
- This is satisfied at the end of the loop.
- Hence, this program <u>correctly</u> finds maximum element in an array (having at least one element).

Hoare Logic

- To formally reason about correctness of programs
- Originally seeded by Floyd
- Hence, now called Floyd-Hoare Logic
- Dates back to when neither you nor I was born (1969).
- Works with Hoare Triples
 - {pre-condition} Stmt {post-condition}

Hoare Triples

- Empty statement / no-op
- Assignment
- Rule of composition
- Conditional
- Consequence
- Loop

 Use Hoare Logic, prove that the following code correctly swaps two variables.

 Use Hoare Logic, prove that the following code correctly swaps two variables.

```
\{b == B \land a == A\}
\{b == B \land a + b - b == A\}
\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b};
\{b == B \land a - b == A\}
\{a - (a - b) == B \land a - b == A\}
\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b};
\{a - b == B \land b == A\}
\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b};
\{a == B \land b == A\}
```

Hoare Triples

- Empty statement / no-op
- {P} no-op {P}

- Assignment
- Rule of composition
- Conditional
- Loop

```
General form
(not useful and
incorrect)
Loop-invariant form
```

```
\{P[x \rightarrow E]\} x = E \{P\}
{P} S1 {Q}, {Q} S2 {R}
     {P} S1; S2 {R}
\{P \land C\} S1 \{Q\}, \{P \land \neg C\} S2 \{Q\}
     {P} if (C) S1 else S2 {Q}
        {P ∧ C} S {Q}
  \{P\} while (C) S\{Q \land \neg C\}
        {P ∧ C} S {P}
  {P} while (C) S {P ∧ ¬C}
```

```
int power2(int n) {
     int k, j;
     k = 0;
     j = 1;
     while (k != n) {
          k = k + 1;
          j = 2 * j;
     return j;
```

- We want to prove that this function returns 2ⁿ.
 - for n > 0
- Using testing, we can validate for certain inputs.
- Using a proof, we can verify.

```
int power2(int n) {
     int k, j;
     k = 0;
     j = 1;
     while (k != n) {
          k = k + 1;
          j = 2 * j;
     return j;
```

```
\{n > 0\}
k = 0;
j = 1;
while (k != n) \{
k = k + 1;
j = 2 * j;
\{j == 2^n\}
```

Hoare Triple

Hoare Triple

Classwork

```
{n > 0}
k = 0;
\{\phi_1\}
j = 1;
\{\phi_2\}
while (k != n) {
      k = k + 1;
      j = 2 * j;
{j == 2^n}
```

```
\{n > 0\}
k = 0;
j = 1;
while (k != n) \{
k = k + 1;
j = 2 * j;
\{j == 2^n\}
```

```
{n > 0}
k = 0;
\{\phi_1\}
j = 1;
\{\phi_{2}\}
while (k != n) {
      k = k + 1;
      j = 2 * j;
{j == 2^n}
```

How do we prove

Let's use the Hoare rule for loops.
But that requires a loop-invariant!
"Guess" the loop-invariant.

Since proof requires $j == 2^n$, we guess that the invariant is $j == 2^k$.

```
\{P \land C\} S \{P\}
\{P\} \text{ while (C) } S \{P \land \neg C\}
```

To prove the **antecedent**, prove the **precedent**.

How do we prove

```
\{\phi_2\}
while (k != n) \{
k = k + 1;
j = 2 * j;
\}
\{j == 2^n\}
```

Let's use the Hoare rule for loops.
But that requires a loop-invariant!
"Guess" the loop-invariant.

Since proof requires $j == 2^n$, we guess that the invariant is $j == 2^k$.

```
{P ∧ C} S {P}
           \{P\} while (C) S\{P \land \neg C\}
 \{j == 2^k \land k != n\} k = k + 1; j = 2 * j; \{j == 2^k\},
 \{j == 2^k\}
                                      le (k!= n) {
 k = k + 1; j = 2 * j;
 j = 2 * j;
                                while (k != n) {
\{j == 2^k \ \bigwedge \ \neg(k != n)\}^{\bigwedge}
```

```
{j == 2^k}
{2 * j == 2^{k+1}}
k = k + 1;
{2 * j == 2^k}
\{i == 2^k\}
```

To prove the **antecedent**, prove the **precedent**.

We are almost there, except that the precondition is missing k = n. This is where we use implication:

$$(j == 2^k) \wedge (k != n) \Rightarrow (j == 2^k)$$

In general, we can strengthen the precondition, and weaken the post-condition.

So far we have proved:

```
{n > 0}
{n > 0}
                                      // strengthening the precondition
k = 0;
\{\phi_1\}
                                      {1 = 2^0}
                                      k = 0
i = 1;
\{\phi_2: j = 2^k\}
                                      \{\phi_1: 1=2^k\}
while (k != n) {
                                      i = 1
      k = k + 1;
                                      \{\phi_2: j = 2^k\}
      j = 2 * j;
{i == 2^n}
```

Homework

Prove that the function computes n!.

```
int fact(int n) {
     k = 1;
     f = 1;
     while (k < n) {
          k = k + 1;
          f = f * k;
     return f;
```