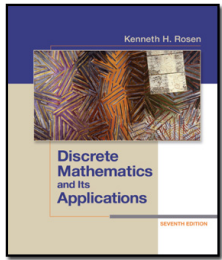


# Program Verification (Rosen, Sections 5.5)

---

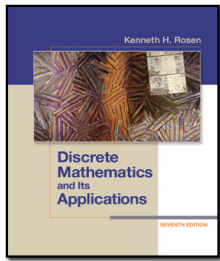
## TOPICS

- Program Correctness
- Preconditions & Postconditions
- Program Verification
  - Assignments
  - Composition
  - Conditionals
  - Loops



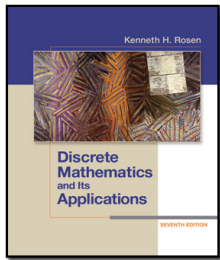
# Proofs about Programs

- Why study logic?
- Why do proofs?
- Because we want to prove properties of *programs*
  - In particular, we want to prove properties of variables at specific points in a program



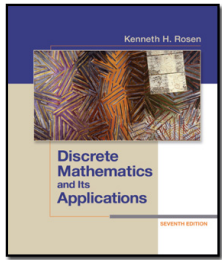
# Isn't testing enough?

- Assuming the program compiles, we perform some amount of testing.
- Testing shows that for specific examples the program seems to be running as intended.
- Testing can only show existence of some bugs but cannot, in general, exhaustively identify all of them.
- Verification can be used to prove the correctness of the program with any input.



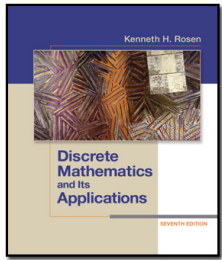
# Program Verification

- We consider a program to be *correct* if it produces the expected output **for all possible (combinations of) inputs.**
- Domain of input values can be very large, how many possible values of an integer?  
$$-2^{31} - 2^{31} - 1$$
- Domain of doubles even larger!
- Instead we can formally specify program behavior, then use techniques for inferring correctness.



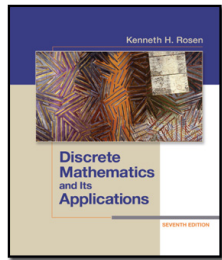
# Program Correctness Proofs

- Two parts:
  - Correct answer when the program terminates (called *partial correctness*)
  - The program does terminate
- We will only do part 1
  - Prove that a method is correct if it terminates
- Part 2 has been shown to be impossible in general! (Halting problem.)



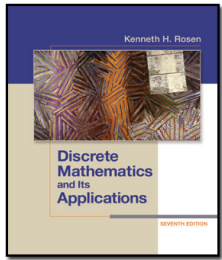
# Predicate Logic and Programs

- Variables in programs are like variables in predicate logic:
  - They have a domain of discourse (data type)
  - They have values (drawn from the data type)
- Variables in programs are different from variables in predicate logic:
  - Their values change over time



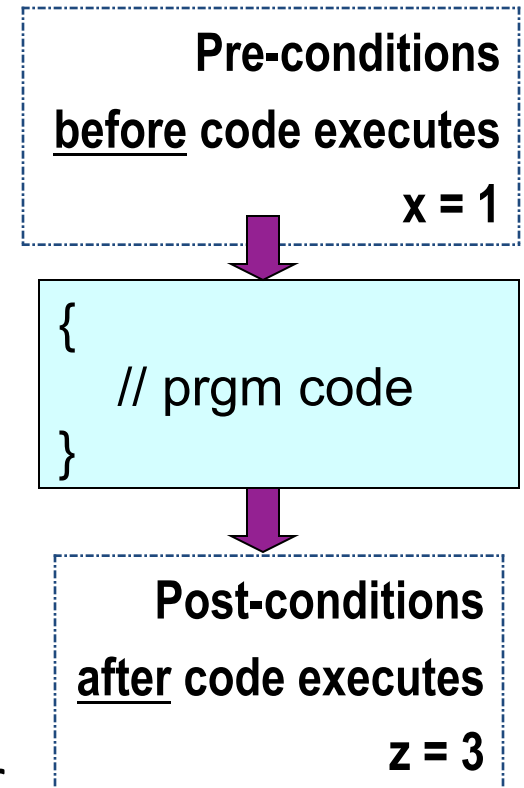
# Assertions

- Two parts:
  - **Initial Assertion**: a statement of what must be true about the input values or values of variables at the beginning of the program segment
    - E.g Method that determines the sqrt of a number, requires the input (parameters) to be  $\geq 0$
  - **Final Assertion**: a statement of what must be true about the output values or values of variables at the end of the program segment
    - E.g. What is the final result after a call to the method?

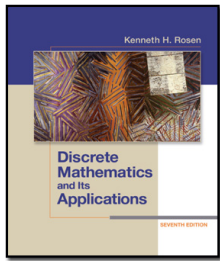


# Preconditions and PostConditions

- ***Initial Assertion***: called the precondition
- ***Final Assertion***: called the postcondition
- **Note**: these assertions can be represented as propositions or predicates, OR as asserts in your program!

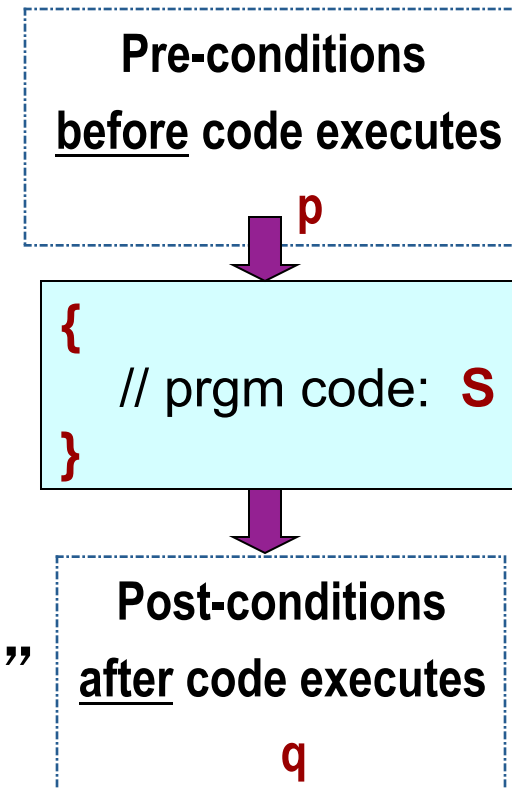


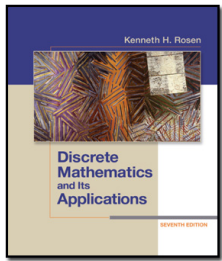




# Hoare Triple

- “A program, or program segment, **S**, is said to be **partially correct** with respect to the initial assertion (precondition) **p** and the final assertion (postcondition) **q** if, whenever **p** is true for the input values of **S** **and S terminates**, then **q** is true for the output values of **S**.”
- Notation: **p{S}q**





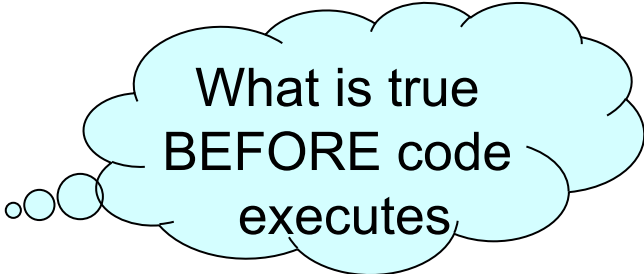
# Program Verification

## Example #1: Assignment Statements

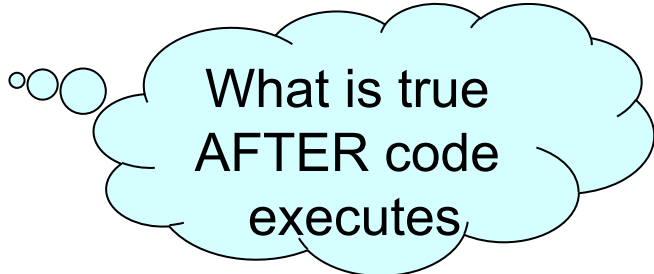
- Assume that our proof system already includes rules of arithmetic...
- Consider the following code:

```
y = 2;  
z = x + y;
```

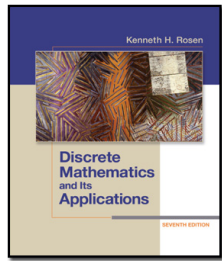
- Precondition:  **$p(x), x = 1$**
- Postcondition:  **$q(z), z = 3$**



What is true  
BEFORE code  
executes



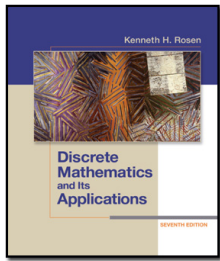
What is true  
AFTER code  
executes



# Program Verification

## Example #1: Assignment Statements

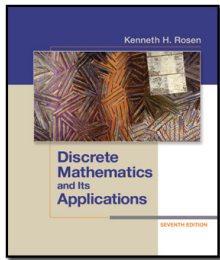
- Prove that the program segment:  
 $y = 2;$   
 $z = x + y;$
- Is correct with respect to  
precondition:  $x = 1$   
postcondition:  $z = 3$
- Suppose  $x = 1$  is true as program begins
  - Then  $y$  is assigned the value of 2
  - Then  $z$  is assigned the value of 3 ( $x + y = 1 + 2$ )
  - Thus, the program segment is correct with regards to the precondition  $x = 1$  and postcondition  $z = 3$



# Program Verification

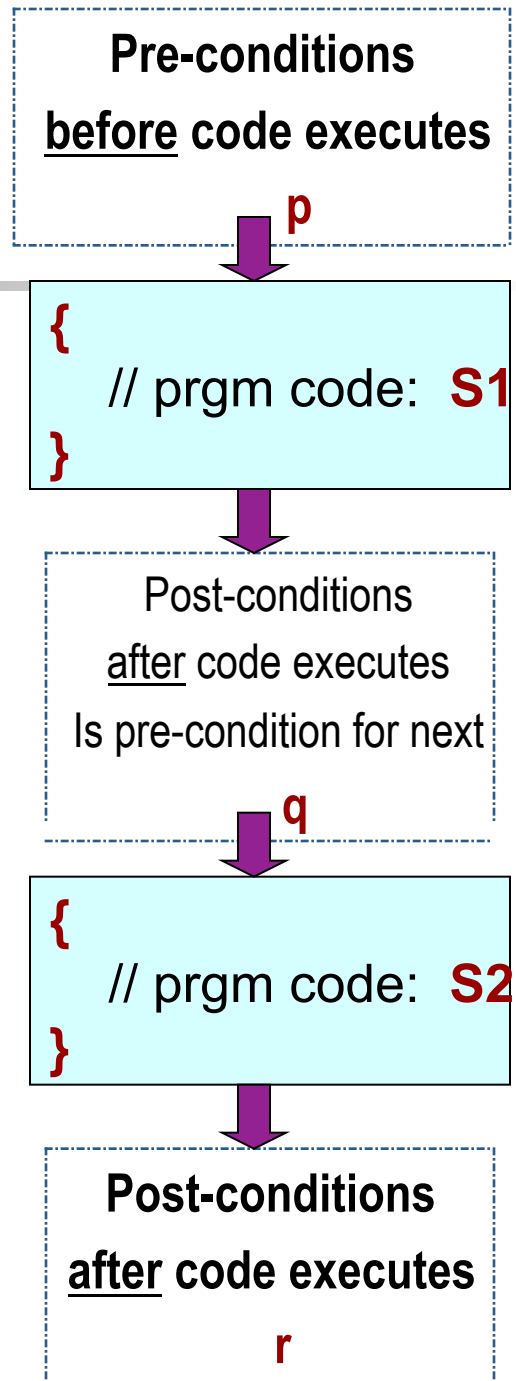
## Example #2: Assignment Statements

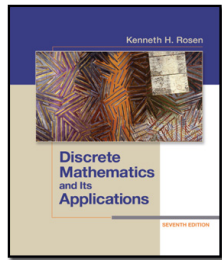
- Prove that the program segment:  
$$x = 2;$$
$$z = x * y;$$
- Is correct with respect to  
precondition:  $y \geq 1$   
postcondition:  $z \geq 2$
- Suppose  $y \geq 1$  is true as program begins
  - Then  $x$  is assigned the value of 2
  - Then  $z$  is assigned the value of  $x * y$  which is  $2 * (y \geq 1)$  which makes  $z \geq 2$
  - Thus, the program segment is correct for precondition  $y \geq 1$  and postcondition  $z \geq 2$



# Rule 1: Composition Rule

- Once we prove correctness of program segments, we can combine the proofs together to prove correctness of an entire program.
- This is like the hypothetical syllogism inference rule, or direct proof in Proof Techniques

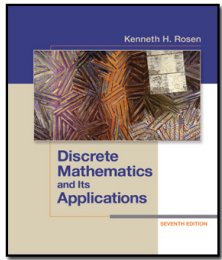




# Program Verification

## Example #1: Composition Rule

- Prove that the program segment (swap):  
     $t = x;$   
     $x = y;$   
     $y = t;$
- Is correct with respect to  
    precondition:  $x = 7, y = 5$   
    postcondition:  $x = 5, y = 7$



# Program Verification

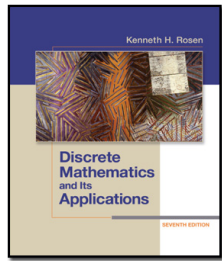
## Example #1 (cont.): Composition Rule

---

Suppose  $x = 7$  and  $y = 5$  is true as program begins

- // Precondition:  $x = 7, y = 5$ 
  - $t = x$
- //  $t = 7, x = 7, y = 5$ 
  - $x = y$
- //  $t = 7, x = 5, y = 5$
- $y = t$
- // Postcondition:  $t = 7, x = 5, y = 7$

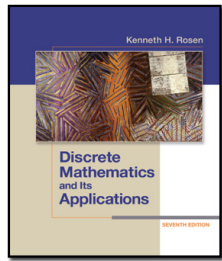
Thus, the program segment is correct with regards to the precondition that  $x = 7$  &  $y = 5$  and postcondition  $x = 5$  and  $y = 7$



# Rule 2: Conditional Statements

- Given  
    **if (*condition*)**  
        ***statement*;**  
    With precondition:  $p$  and postcondition:  $q$
- Must show that
  - Case 1: when  $p$  (*precondition*) is true and *condition* is true then  $q$  (*postcondition*) is true, when  $S$  (*statement*) terminates
  - OR
  - Case 2: when  $p$  is true and *condition* is false, then  $q$  is true ( $S$  does not execute)





# Conditional Rule: Example #1

Verify that the program segment:

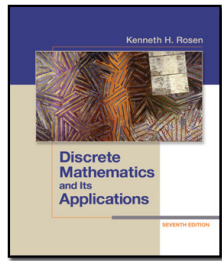
if  $(x > y)$   $y = x$

Is correct with respect to precondition  $T$  and postcondition that  $y \geq x$     Precondition  $T$  (true) is the weakest possible precondition, and nothing can be concluded from it.

Consider the two cases...

1. Condition  $(x > y)$  is true, then  $y = x$
2. Condition  $(x > y)$  is false, then that means  $x \leq y$

Thus, if the precondition is true, then  $y == x$  or  $x \leq y$  which means that the postcondition that  $y \geq x$  is true



# Conditional Rule: Example #2

Verify that the program segment:

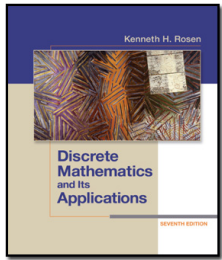
if  $(x \% 2 == 1) \ x = x + 1$

Is correct with respect to precondition T (state of program is correct as enter this program segment) and postcondition that x is even

Consider the two cases...

1. Condition  $(x \% 2 \text{ equals } 1)$  is true, then x is odd. If x is odd, then adding 1 means x is even
2. Condition  $(x \% 2 \text{ equals } 1)$  is false, then x is even.

Thus, if the precondition is true, then x is odd or x is even which means that the postcondition that x is even is true



# Conditional Rule: Example #3 (in code form)

```
int a,b,p;
```

```
...
```

```
// pre: a>0 AND b>0 AND p + a*b == val
```

```
if (a%2==1) p+=b;
```

```
a/=2;
```

```
b*=2;
```

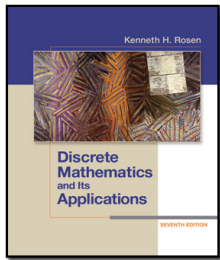
```
// post: p + a*b == val
```

if a is even, post holds, because at pre:  $a*b ==$  at post:  $(a/2) * (b*2)$

if a is odd, when we divide odd a by 2 and multiply b by 2,

at pre:  $a*b ==$  at post:  $a*b - b$ , but then b is added to p

**try it for p=0,a=3, b=2 at pre, try it for p=0,a=2, b=5 at pre**



# Rule 2a: Conditional with Else

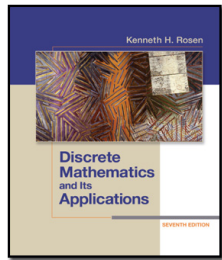
```
if (condition)
```

```
    S1;
```

```
else
```

```
    S2;
```

- Must show that
  - Case 1: when  $p$  (*precondition*) is true and  $condition$  is true then  $q$  (*postcondition*) is true, when  $S1$  (*statement*) terminates
  - OR
  - Case 2: when  $p$  is true and  $condition$  is false, then  $q$  is true, when  $S2$  (*statement*) terminates

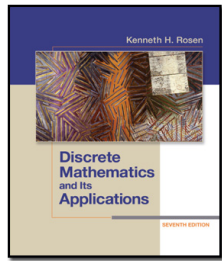


# Conditional Rule: Example #4

Verify the program segment:

```
// pre: T
  if (x < 0) abs = -x;
  else abs = x;
// post: abs = |x|
```

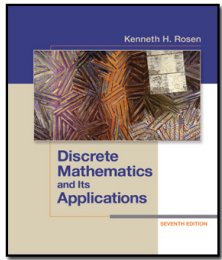
1. Condition  $(x < 0)$  is true, then  $x$  is negative. Assigning  $abs$  the negative of a negative number, means  $abs$  is the absolute value of  $x$
2. Condition  $(x < 0)$  is false, then  $x \geq 0$  which means  $x$  is positive. Assigning  $abs$  a positive number, means  $abs$  is the absolute value of  $x$



# How to we prove loops correct?

General idea: a *loop invariant* allows us to make a static observation (*invariant*) about a dynamic phenomenon (*loop*)

- Find a property that is true before the loop
- Show that it must still be true after every iteration of the loop, so it is true after the loop
- Also, the loop has terminated, so the loop condition is false



# Loop invariants

The **loop condition** and **loop invariant** allows us to reason about the behavior of the loop:

<loop invariant>

```
while(condition){
```

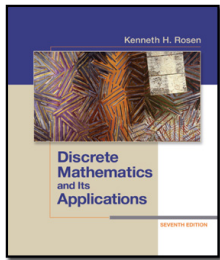
```
    <condition AND loop invariant>
```

```
    S;
```

```
    <loop invariant>
```

```
}
```

< **not condition** AND **loop invariant** >



# In other words...

```
<loop invariant>
while(test){
  <test AND loop
  invariant>
  S;
  <loop invariant>
}
< not test AND
loop invariant>
```

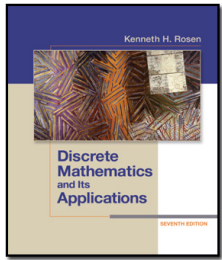
**If we can prove** that

- . the loop invariant holds before the loop and
- . the loop body keeps the loop invariant true  
i.e.  $\langle \text{test AND loop invariant} \rangle S; \langle \text{loop invariant} \rangle$

**then we can infer** that

- . not test AND loop invariant holds after the loop terminates





# Example #1: loop index value after loop

<precondition:  $n > 0$ >

```
int i = 0;
while (i < n){
    i = i+1;
}
```

<post condition:  $i == n$  >

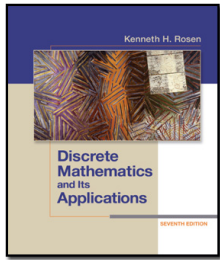
We want to prove:  
 **$i == n$**  right after the loop

What is a good loop invariant?

$i == 0$ ?

$i == n$ ?

$i \leq n$



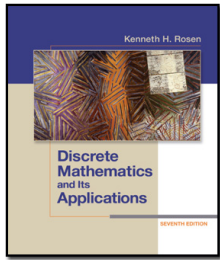
# loop index value after loop

```
// precondition: n>0
int i = 0;
// i<=n loop invariant WHY TRUE?
while (i < n){
    // i < n test passed
    // AND
    // i<=n loop invariant
    i++;
    // i <= n loop invariant
}
// i>=n AND i <= n → i==n
```

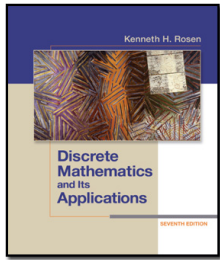
So we can conclude:

**i==n** right after the loop

# Example #2: summing

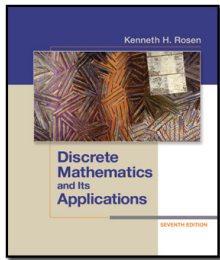


```
int total (int[] elements){
    int sum = 0,i = 0, n = elements.length;
    // invariant?
    while (i < n){
        // i<n and invariant?
        sum += elements [i];
        i++;
        // invariant?
    }
    // i==n (previous example) AND invariant
    // → sum == sum of int[] elements
    return sum;
}
```



# Summing

```
int total (int[] elements){
    // pre elements.length > 0
    int sum = 0,i = 0, n = elements.length;
    // sum == sum of elements from 0 to i-1
    while (i < n){
        // sum == sum of elements 0..i-1
        sum += elements [i];
        i++;
        // sum == sum of elements 0..i-1
    }
    // i==n (previous example) AND
    // sum has sum elements 0..i-1 → sum == sum of elements 0..n-1
    // → sum == sum of int[] elements
```



# Example #3: factorial

Given following program segment, what is the loop invariant for factorial?

```
// precondition:  $n \geq 1$ 
```

```
   $i = 1$ ;
```

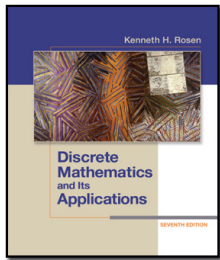
```
  factorial = 1;
```

```
  while ( $i < n$ ) {
```

```
       $i++$ ;
```

```
      factorial *=  $i$ ;
```

```
  }
```



# Example #3: factorial

Given following program segment, what is the loop invariant for factorial?

```
// precondition:  $n \geq 1$ 
```

```
i = 1;
```

```
factorial = 1;
```

```
//  $i \leq n$  AND factorial =  $i!$ 
```

```
while (i < n) {
```

```
    //  $i < n$  AND  $i \leq n$  AND factorial ==  $i!$ 
```

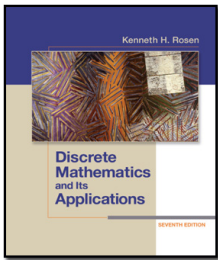
```
    i++;
```

```
    factorial *= i;
```

```
    //  $i \leq n$  AND factorial ==  $i!$ 
```

```
}
```

```
//  $i == n$  (example 1) and factorial ==  $i!$  → factorial ==  $n!$ 
```



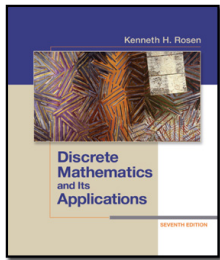
# Example #4: Egyptian multiplication

	A	B	
	19	5	
/2	9	10	*2
/2	4	20	*2
/2	2	40	*2
/2	1	80	*2

throw away all rows with even A:

	A	B
	19	5
	9	10
	1	80
	<hr/>	
add B's		95

--> the product !!

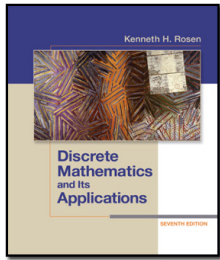


# Try it on $7 * 8$

left	right	p	a	b
7	8	0	7	8
		$+=b: 8$	3	16
		$+=b: 24$	1	32
		$+=b: 56$	0	64

Now try it on  $8*7$





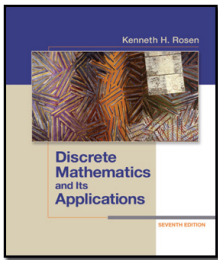
# The code:

```
// pre: left >=0 AND right >=0
int a=left, b=right, p=0; // and and b copies, p accumulating product

while (a!=0){

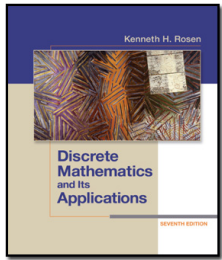
    if (odd(a)) p+=b;
    a/=2;
    b*=2;

}
// post: p == left*right
```



# Can we show it works? Yes, loop invariants!!

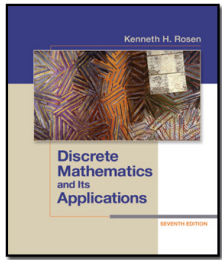
```
// pre: left >=0 AND right >=0
int a=left, b=right, p=0; // and and b copies, p accumulating product
// p+(a*b) == left * right    loop invariant
while (a!=0){
    // a!=0 and p+a*b == left*right  loop condition and loop invariant
    if (odd(a)) p+=b;
    a/=2;
    b*=2;
    // p+(a*b) == left*right (see slide 19 conditional rule, example #3)
}
// a==0 and p+a*b == left*right → p == left*right
```



# int representation $19 * 5$

$$\begin{array}{r} 00101 \\ 10011 \\ \hline 101 \quad 5 \\ 1010 \quad 10 \\ 00000 \\ 000000 \\ 1010000 \quad 80 \\ \hline 1011111 \quad 95 = 64 + 31 \end{array}$$

Try it on  $7 * 8$  and  $8 * 7$



# Summary: Loop Invariant Reasoning

```
// precondition
```

```
// use precondition to show loop invariant true
```

```
while (b){
```

```
    // b AND loop invariant
```

```
        S;
```

```
    // use S to show loop invariant true
```

```
}
```

```
// not b AND loop invariant  $\rightarrow$  conclusion
```

**not b** AND loop invariant: stronger than loop invariant alone.