Construction and Verification of Software

2022 - 2023

MIEI - Integrated Master in Computer Science and Informatics

Consolidation block

Lecture 2 - Specification and Verification
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based on previous editions by João Seco and Luís Caires



Important Dates

All already on CLIP:

- Project 1 Deadline 15/04 (Out 28 March)
- Project 2 Deadline 12/05 (Out 25 April)
- **Test 1** 13/05
- Project 3 Deadline 02/06 (Out 16 May)
- **Test 2** 14/06

Part I Software Correctness

Software Correctness: What and How

- Key engineering concern:
 - Make sure that the software developed and constructed is "correct".
- What does this mean?
 - Is it crash-free? ("runtime safety")
 - Gives the right results? ("functional correctness")
 - Does it operate effectively? ("resource conformance")
 - Does it violate user privacy? ("security conformance")
 - •
- several process and methodological approaches to ensure and validate correctness exist (software engineering course)
- In this course, we cover some techniques to rigorously ensure and validate correctness during software construction

Correctness against a specification

on CA

- Then what does "correct software" mean?
 - Always relative to some given (our) specification
- Correct means that software meets our specification
 - There is no such thing as the absolute "right specification"
 - But the spec must not be wrong!
 - Crafting good / checkable specifications can be challenging.
- It should be "easy" to check what the specification states
 - The spec must be simple, much simpler than the code
 - The spec should be focused
 - e.g., buffers are not being overrun
 - e.g., never transfer money without logging the source

Checking Specs: Dynamic Verification

- By "dynamic verification" we mean that verification is done at runtime, while the program executes
- Some successful approaches:
 - unit testing
 - coverage testing
 - regression testing
 - test generation
 - runtime monitoring
- use runtime monitors to (continuously) check that code do not violate correctness properties
- violations causes exceptional behaviour or halt, so errors are detected after something wrong already occurred (think of a car crash, or a security leak)

Checking Specs: Static Verification

- "Static verification" means verification at compile time
- Algorithmic reasoning about what programs do, by analyzing the source code, not by running the code
- Can ensure absence of all errors of a certain well-defined kind (e.g., "no null dereferences")
- Can also address many complex correctness properties (e.g., functionality, absence of races, security, etc.)
- Does not introduce performance overhead at runtime
- Successful techniques:
 - **type checking**, as performed by the compiler
 - extended checking, static checking of assertions
 - abstract interpretation, simulates execution on a simpler decidable abstract model of runtime data

Checking Specs: Static vs. Dynamic

- Dynamic Verification
 - Unsound
 - Performed at runtime
 - No false positives (usually)
 - Execution overhead

- Static Verification
 - Sound
 - Compile time
 - Conservative (may have false positives)
 - Erasure of verification (no overhead)
 - Each analysis targets a specific of property
 - Complex to design and use

Checking Specs: Static Verification

- Specifications are the essential tool for abstraction and decomposition.
- For each program we need to know
 - in what conditions it can be used (requires/pre-conditions)
 - what are its effects (effects/ensures/post-conditions)
- If our reasoning is sound, the post condition can be assumed after the program's execution, provided that the pre-conditions were met at the beginning.
- We can only know as much as what is stated in the postcondition.

Part II Specification and Verification

Contract-based Verification

- Axiomatic approaches based on Hoare Logic (Pre- and post-conditions)
- If pre-condition holds and the program terminates then the post-condition holds.
- If all components are verified then all contracts are fulfilled in all cases.
- If a component does not fulfill a contract then no guaranties are given about the system's behavior.

What may specs look like?

- A classical example is the use of "assertions"
 - You may have used assertions before (POO, AED)?
- A simple and fine-grained spec is the "Hoare triple":

```
{ A } P { B }
```

- A and B are assertions (conditions on the program state)
- P is the piece of code we want to talk about
- The Hoare triple says:
 - If program P starts in a state satisfying A, then, if it terminates, the resulting state satisfies B.
 - A is called the "pre-condition".
 - B is called the "post-condition".

Interface contracts in ADT specs

 ADT specifications (we will detail this later) involve method contracts, expressed as assertions

```
method P(... parameters ...)
requires PRE
ensures POST
modifies MOD
{
    method code
}
```

• The method call P(...), whenever started in a state that satisfies PRE, if it terminates, always ends in a state that satisfies POST, and only has effects on MOD

Invariants in ADT specs

 ADT specifications (we will detail this later) may involve representation invariants and abstraction mappings also expressed as assertions

```
class C {
  var v : T
  invariant REPINV
  invariant ABSMAP
```

```
... methods...
```

 ADT C's implementation relies on a representation type T that satisfies the representation invariant REPINV and maps into the abstract type as specified by ABSMAP

Stack Example: A glimpse of Dafny code

```
class Stack {
  var elements:array<int>;
  var count: int;
  var MAX: int;
  predicate StackInv()
  reads this
    0 < MAX && 0 <= count <= MAX && elements.Length == MAX
  constructor()
    ensures StackInv()
    MAX := 10;
    elements := new int[10];
    count := 0;
  }
```

Stack Example: A glimpse of Dafny code

```
class Stack {
 method push(x:int)
    requires StackInv() && notFull()
    ensures StackInv() && notEmpty()
   modifies elements, `count
    elements[count] := x;
    count := count + 1;
  }
 method pop() returns (x:int)
    requires StackInv() && notEmpty()
    ensures StackInv() && notFull()
   modifies elements, `count
    count := count - 1;
    x := elements[count];
  }
```

```
predicate notFull()
reads `count, `MAX
{ count < MAX }

predicate notEmpty()
reads `count, `MAX
{ count > 0 }
```

Specifications and Program Logics

- Written in a logic used to prove properties of programs
- What kinds of properties are we interested in?
 - Safety properties (partial correctness):
 - If the program terminates (delivers an outcome), then the final state satisfies some property.
 - Liveness properties (total correctness)
 - The program terminates (at least under certain conditions)
- Hoare logic is the "mother of all program logics": It provides a foundation for most program logics for imperative programming languages.
- Reason of HL success: compositional verification at the level of the programming language constructs.

Dafny

"Dafny is an imperative objectbased language with built-in specification constructs. The Dafny static program verifier can be used to verify the functional correctness of programs. The specifications include pre- and postconditions, frame specifications (read and write sets), and termination metrics" Leino, Koenig, 2010

Dafny: An Automatic Program Verifier for Functional Correctness

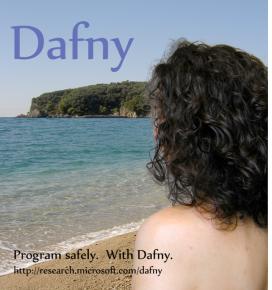
K. Rustan M. Leino Microsoft Research leino@microsoft.com

Abstract

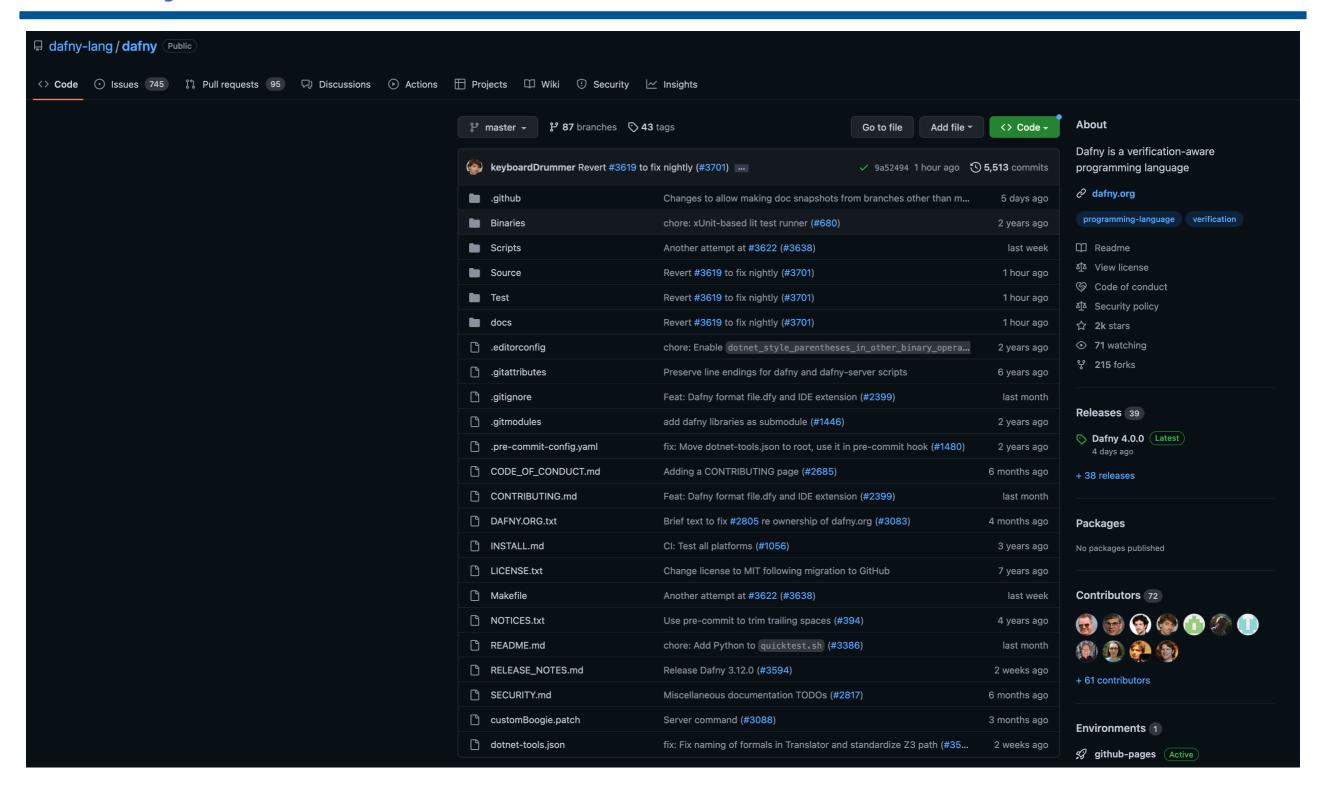
Traditionally, the full verification of a program's functional correctness has been obtained with pen and paper or with interactive proof assistants, whereas only reduced verification tasks, such as extended static checking, have enjoyed the automation offered by satisfiability-modulo-theories (SMT) solvers. More recently, powerful SMT solvers and well-designed program verifiers are starting to break that tradition, thus reducing the effort involved in doing full verification.

This paper gives a tour of the language and verifier Dafny, which has been used to verify the functional correctness of a number of challenging pointer-based programs. The paper describes the features incorporated in Dafny, illustrating their use by small examples and giving a taste of how they are coded for an SMT solver. As a larger case study, the paper shows the full functional specification of the Schorr-Waite algorithm in Dafny.

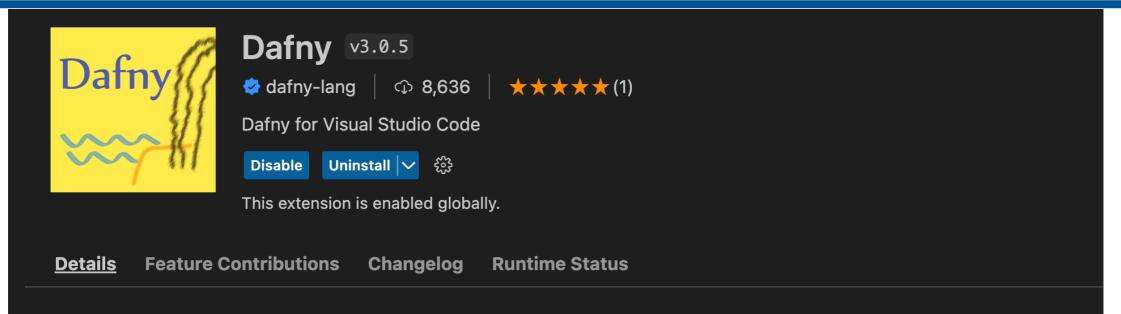




Dafny on GitHub



Dafny in VS Code



Dafny for Visual Studio Code

This extension adds *Dafny 3* support to Visual Studio Code. If you require *Dafny 2* support, consider using the legacy extension. This VSCode plugin requires the Dafny language server (shipped with the Dafny release since v3.1.0). The plugin will install it automatically upon first use.

Features

- Compile and Run .dfy files.
- Verification as one types.
- Syntax highlighting thanks to sublime-dafny. See file LICENSE_sublime-dafny.rst for license.
- Display **counterexample** for failing proof.
- IntelliSense to suggest symbols.
- Go to definition to quickly navigate.
- Hover Information for symbols.

You can find examples below.

^

Dafny in VS Code

```
48
               method max(a:array<int>) returns (m:int)
                   requires a.Length > 0
         49
                   ensures forall i :: 0 <= i < a.Length ==> m >= a[i]
         50
         51
         52
                   m := a[0];
                   var i := 0;
         53
                   while i < a.Length
         54
                       invariant 0 <= i <= a.Length</pre>
         55
                       invariant forall j :: 0 <= j < i ==> m >= a[j]
         56
         57
                       if a[i] > m {
         58
         59
                           m := a[i];
         60
                       i := i+1;
         61
         62
         63
                   return m;
         64
(2)
⊗ 0 ⚠ 0

∠ Verification Succeeded
```

Construction and Ver

Dafny Documentation

This site contains links to Dafny documentation.

Project site for releases, issues, installation instructions, and source code

- · Quick start material:
 - Dafny Quick Reference
 - Getting started tutorial, focusing mostly on simple imperative programs
 - Cheatsheet: basic Dafny syntax on two pages
- Detailed documents for programmers
 - Dafny Reference Manual
 - Language reference for the Dafny type system, which also describes available expressions for each type
 - Style Guide for Dafny programs
- · Dafny Tutorials
 - Introduction to Dafny
 - Value Types
 - Sets
 - Sequences
 - Lemmas and Induction
 - Modules
 - Termination

Part IV A bit of History

Some bits of history ... (extra)

Kick off:

- "Checking a large routine"

Turing

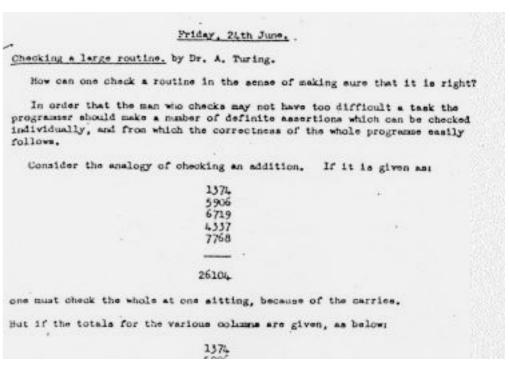
Kick off:

- "Checking a large routine"

"How can one check a routine in the sense of making sure that it is right? In order that the man who checks may not have too difficult a task the programmer should make a number of definite assertions which can be checked individually, and from which the correctness of the whole programme easily follows."

Alan Turing, 24th June 1949





Assertions

Second boost:

Floyd's Assertion Method

Robert Floyd's, "Assigning Meanings to Programs," opened the field of program verification. His basic idea was to attach so-called "tags" in the form of logical assertions to individual program statements or branches that would define the effects of the program based on a formal semantic definition of the programming language.

R. Floyd, MFCS, June 1967



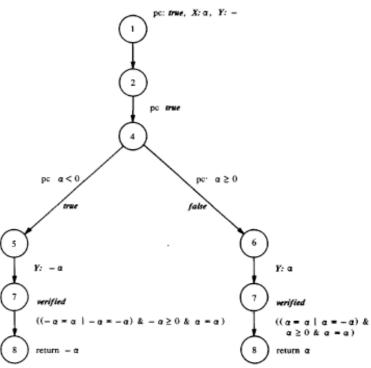


Figure 3. Symbolic execution tree for procedure ABSOLUTE.

Assertions

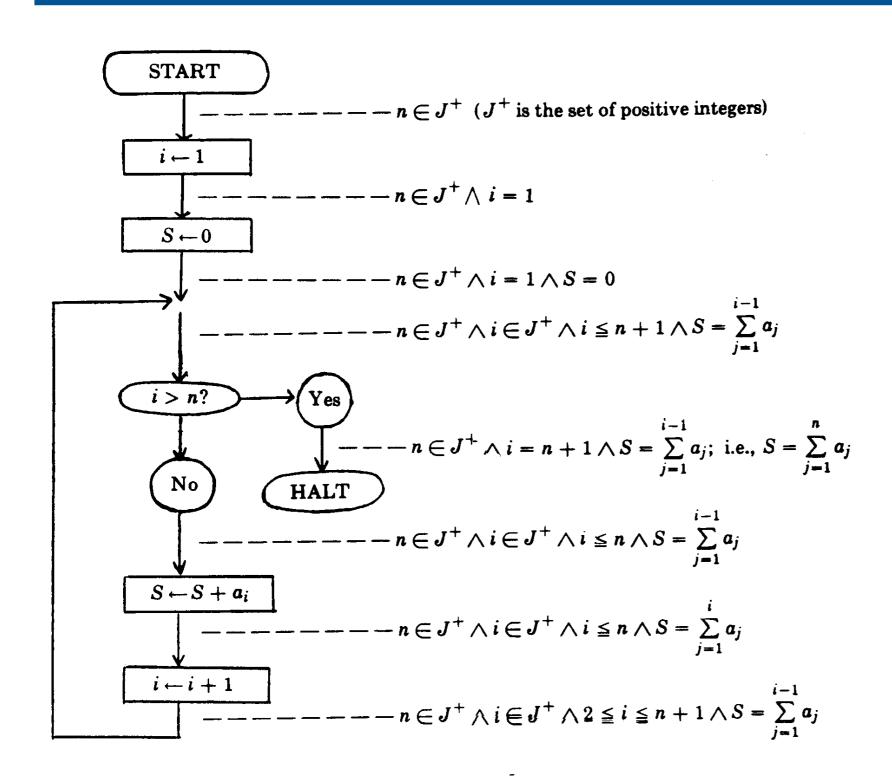




FIGURE 1. Flowchart of program to compute $S = \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_j (n \ge 0)$

Language Based Program Specs

Lift Off:

Hoare Logic

"Computer Programming is an exact science in that all the properties of a program and all consequences of executing it in any given environment can, in principle, be found out from the text of the program itself by means of purely deductive reasoning."

Tony Hoare, CACM 1969





AXIOM 1: ASSIGNMENT AXIOM

$$\{p[t/x]\}\ x := t\{p\}.$$

Rule 2: Composition Rule

$$\frac{\{p\}\ S_1\ \{r\},\ \{r\}\ S_2\ \{q\}}{\{p\}\ S_1;\ S_2\ \{q\}}.$$

Rule 3: if-then-else Rule

$$\frac{\{p \land e\} \ S_1 \ \{q\}, \{p \land \neg e\} \ S_2 \ \{q\}}{\{p\} \ \text{if} \ e \ \text{then} \ S_1 \ \text{else} \ S_2 \ \text{fi} \ \{q\}}$$

RULE 4: while RULE

$$\frac{\{p \land e\} \ S \ \{p\}}{\{p\} \ \mathbf{while} \ e \ \mathbf{do} \ S \ \mathbf{od} \ \{p \land \neg e\}}$$

The Weakest Precondition

Programming Languages T.A. Standish

Editor

Guarded Commands, Nondeterminacy and Formal Derivation of Programs

Edsger W. Dijkstra Burroughs Corporation

So-called "guarded commands" are introduced as a building block for alternative and repetitive constructs that allow nondeterministic program components for which at least the activity evoked, but possibly even the final state, is not necessarily uniquely determined by the initial state. For the formal derivation of programs expressed in terms of these constructs, a calculus will be be shown.

Key Words and Phrases: programming languages, sequencing primitives, program semantics, programming language semantics, nondeterminacy, case-construction, repetition, termination, correctness proof, derivation of programs, programming methodology

CR Categories: 4.20, 4.22

1. Introduction

In Section 2, two statements, an alternative construct and a repetitive construct, are introduced, together with an intuitive (mechanistic) definition of their semantics. The basic building block for both of them is the so-called "guarded command," a statement list prefixed by a boolean expression: only when this boolean expression is initially true, is the statement list eligible for execution. The potential nondeterminacy allows us to map otherwise (trivially) different programs on the same program text, a circumstance that seems largely responsible for the fact that programs can now be derived in a manner more systematic than before.

In Section 3, after a prelude defining the notation, a formal definition of the semantics of the two constructs is given, together with two theorems for each of the constructs (without proof).

In Section 4, it is shown how, based upon the above, a formal calculus for the derivation of programs can be founded. We would like to stress that we do not present "an algorithm" for the derivation of programs: we have used the term "a calculus" for a formal discipline—a set of rules—such that, if applied successfully:

(1) it will have derived a correct program; and (2) it will tell us that we have reached such a goal. (We use the term as in "integral calculus.")

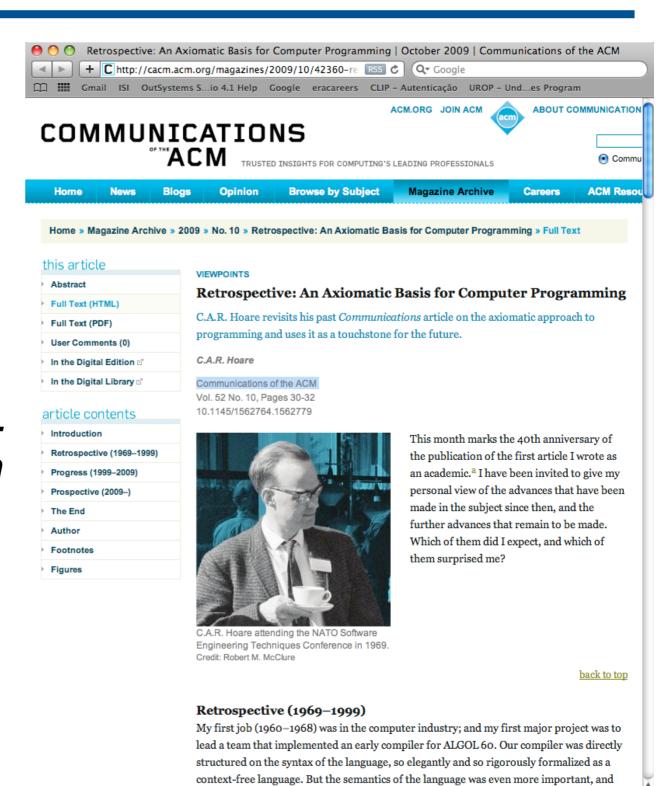
Closer to the present

Still relevant

Hoare Logic

"The axiomatic method gives an objective criterion of the quality of a programming language, and the ease with which programmers could use it. The latest response comes from hardware designers, who are using axioms in anger to define the properties of modern multicore chips with weak memory consistency."

Tony Hoare, CACM 2009



that was left informal in the language definition. It occurred to me that an elegant

Extended Static Checking

Spec#

Spec# is an extension of the object-oriented language C#. It extends the type system to include non-null types and checked exceptions. It provides method contracts in the form of pre- and postconditions as well as object invariants.

Barnett, Leino, Schulte, 2004

The Spec# Programming System: An Overview

Mike Barnett, K. Rustan M. Leino, and Wolfram Schulte

Microsoft Research, Redmond, WA, USA {mbarnett,leino,schulte}@microsoft.com

Manuscript KRML 136, 12 October 2004. To appear in CASSIS 2004 proceedings.

Abstract. The Spec# programming system is a new attempt at a more cost effective way to develop and maintain high-quality software. This paper describes the goals and architecture of the Spec# programming system, consisting of the object-oriented Spec# programming language, the Spec# compiler, and the Boogie static program verifier. The language includes constructs for writing specifications that capture programmer intentions about how methods and data are to be used, the compiler emits run-time checks to enforce these specifications, and the verifier can check the consistency between a program and its specifications.







Dafny

Dafny

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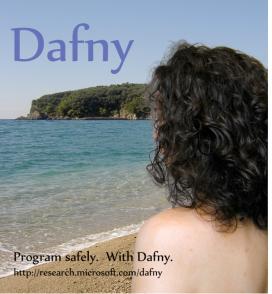
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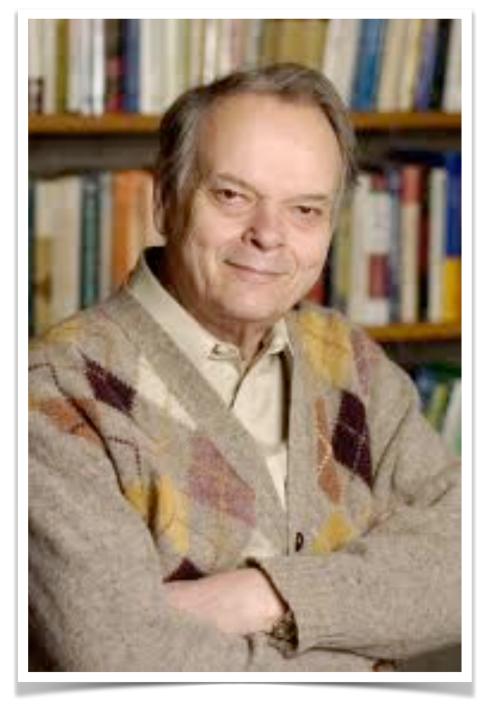
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Separation Logic



John C. Reynolds



$$\frac{s,h \models P*(P \multimap Q)}{s,h \models Q} \quad \frac{\{P\} \ C \ \{Q\}}{\{P*R\} \ C \ \{Q*R\}} \ \mathsf{mod}(C) \cap \mathsf{fv}(R) = \emptyset$$

Peter O'Hearn

Verifast

Verifast

VeriFast is a verifier for single-threaded and multithreaded C and Java programs annotated with preconditions and postconditions written in separation logic.

Jacobs, Smans, Piessens, 2010

NB: separation logic is a spec language for talking about programs that allocate memory and use references

```
public void broadcast message(String message) throws IOException
    //@ requires room(this) &*& message != null;
   //@ ensures room(this);
   //@ open room(this);
   //@ assert foreach(?members0, _);
   List membersList = this.members;
   Iterator iter = membersList.iterator();
   boolean hasNext = iter.hasNext();
   //@ length nonnegative(members0);
   while (hasNext)
        /*@
            foreach<Member>(?members, @member) &*& iter(iter, membersList, members, ?i)
            &*& hasNext == (i < length(members)) &*& 0 <= i &*& i <= length(members);
        Object o = iter.next();
       Member member = (Member)o;
       //@ mem_nth(i, members);
       //@ foreach remove<Member>(member, members);
        //@ open member(member);
        Writer writer = member.writer;
       writer.write(message);
       writer.write("\r\n");
       writer.flush();
        //@ close member(member);
       //@ foreach unremove<Member>(member, members);
       hasNext = iter.hasNext();
    //@ iter dispose(iter);
    //@ close room(this);
```







Part V Hoare Logic

Basic Program Specs (Hoare Logic)





C.A. R. HOARE United Kingdom – **1980**

For his fundamental contributions to the definition and design of programming languages.

Hoare Logic (1969)

An Axiomatic Basis for Computer Programming

C. A. R. Hoare
The Queen's University of Belfast,* Northern Ireland

In this paper an attempt is made to explore the logical foundations of computer programming by use of techniques which were first applied in the study of geometry and have later been extended to other branches of mathematics. This involves the elucidation of sets of axioms and rules of inference which can be used in proofs of the properties of computer programs. Examples are given of such axioms and rules, and a formal proof of a simple theorem is displayed. Finally, it is argued that important advantages, both theoretical and practical, may follow from a pursuance of these topics.

KEY WORDS AND PHRASES: axiomatic method, theory of programming proofs of programs, formal language definition, programming language design, machine-independent programming, program documentation CR CATEGORY: 4.0, 4.21, 4.22, 5.20, 5.21, 5.23, 5.24

of axioms it is possible to deduce such simple theorems as:

$$x = x + y \times 0$$

$$y \leqslant r \supset r + y \times q = (r - y) + y \times (1 + q)$$

The proof of the second of these is:

A5
$$(r - y) + y \times (1 + q)$$

= $(r - y) + (y \times 1 + y \times q)$
A9 = $(r - y) + (y + y \times q)$
= $((r - y) + (y + y \times q))$

 $= r + y \times$

The axioms A1 to A9 are, of cour tional infinite set of integers in mathey are also true of the finite sets of manipulated by computers provided fined to *nonnegative* numbers. Their of the size of the set; furthermore, it is of the choice of technique applied in flow"; for example:

A6

(1) Strict interpretation: the rest operation does not exist; when overfloing program never completes its operation case, the equalities of A1 to A9 & that both sides exist or fail to exist

Simple Programming Language

```
E ::= Expressions
                                    Integer
         num
                                    Variable
         \mathcal{X}
         E + E \mid \dots
                                    Integer operators
         E < E \mid \dots
                                    Relational operators
         E and E...
                                    Boolean operators
                                    Programs
                                    No op
         skip
         x := E
                                    Assignment
         P; P
                                    Sequential Composition
         if E then P else P Conditional
         while E do P
                                    Iteration
```

States and State Transformers

- An imperative program is a state transformer.
 It transforms an initial state into a target state.
- What is a program state? An assignment of values to state variables:

$$\sigma = \{x \mapsto 1, y \mapsto 2, z \mapsto 3\}$$

An imperative program transforms states into states

$$P \triangleq x := y + x; z := z - x$$

• If P is executed in state σ it yields state σ ' where

$$\sigma' = \{x \mapsto 3, y \mapsto 2, z \mapsto 0\}$$

- We may say that P transforms σ into σ'
- P is only defined on states σ where vars(P) \subseteq dom(σ)

States and Assertions

- A (safety) property is a set of (safe) states
- Essentially an assertion is a boolean expression that only depends on observing program (state) variables
- An assertion is just a pure observation, it is either true or false, its evaluation does not change the state.
- In general, one may use all the expressiveness of (first order) logic in assertions (e.g. quantifiers, etc...).
- The assertion language is part of the specification language, separate from the programming language.
- In some cases, assertions may be expressed using the programming language itself (e.g. a subset of Dafny).

Program Proofs in Hoare Logic

- A program proof in Hoare logic adds assertions between program statements, making sure that all Hoare triples are satisfied/valid.
- For example, consider the code snippet

```
if (x > y) {
    z := x
} else {
    z := y
}
```

Program Proofs in Hoare Logic

A Hoare Logic "proof" may look like

```
{ true }
if (x > y) {
      \{ (x > y) \}
     z := x;
      \{ (x > y) \&\& (z == x) \}
else {
     \{ (x \le y) \}
     z := y;
      \{ (x \le y) \&\& (z == y) \}
\{ (x>y) \&\& (z == x) | | (x<=y) \&\& (z == y) \}
\{ z == max(x,y) \}
```

In Dafny

```
function max(x:int, y:int):int { if x > y then x else y }
method maxImp(x:int, y:int) returns (z:int)
  ensures z == max(x,y)
  assert true;
  if (x>y) {
    assert x > y;
    z := x;
    assert z > y \&\& z == x;
    assert z \ge y \&\& z == x;
  } else {
    assert x <= y;</pre>
    z := y;
    assert z >= x \&\& z == y;
  }
  assert (z >= y \&\& z == x) | | (z >= x \&\& z == y);
  assert z == max(x,y);
}
```

Interlude Verification of Functions

Functions as Specifications

- We will often use functions in the specification of (imperative) methods.
- Functions must be pure (i.e, no state).
- Functions must provably terminate (aka total).
- Pure total functions \cong Mathematical functions.

```
function max(x:int, y:int):int { if x > y then x else y }
method maxImp(x:int, y:int) returns (z:int)
  ensures z == max(x,y)
{...}
```

- Dafny proves, for all x and y, z is equal to max(x,y)
- What is the relationship between max and "math" max?

Functions as Specifications

- We can prove that max is actually equivalent to mathematical max (adequacy).
- Since Dafny functions are both pure and total, we can reason about them using relatively simple techniques:
 - Calculation by evaluation (e.g. $max(2,3) \hookrightarrow 3$)
 - Mathematical induction
 - Structural induction
- Reasoning about functions without totality is much harder (and out of scope of this course).
- Reasoning about functions that manipulate state is as hard as reasoning about imperative code.

Function Evaluation

- Identify function calls with their definitions, substituting args for formal parameters (referential transparency).
- Same as how it works in mathematics:
 - If $f(x) = x^2 x$ then f(5) is definitionally the same as 20.
 - max(2,3) is definitionally the same as 3.
- In a general purpose lang., functions might not terminate and so we distinguish:
 - Evaluation $(e \hookrightarrow v) e$ evaluates to value v (no "calculation" left).
 - Reduction $(e \Longrightarrow e') e$ computes to expr. e' (some "calculation" may remain).
- In our setting we need not make this distinction.

- Assume that values (e.g., numbers, booleans) and ops. (e.g., +,-,*, ...) map directly onto their mathematical counterparts.
- For non-recursive functions, proceed by calculation.
- For all n, m integers, max(n,m) = n if n > m; max(n,m) = m otherwise.
- Calculation: max(n,m) = if n > m then n else m
- Case #1: $n>m \hookrightarrow true$, $max(n,m) = n \bigcirc$
- Case #2: $n>m \hookrightarrow false, max(n,m) = m \bigcirc$

- For recursive functions, we use induction.
- Functions on natural numbers mathematical induction:
 - Proof technique for statements of the form $\forall n . P(n)$.
 - Prove base case P(0)
 - Prove inductive case $\forall k . P(k) \longrightarrow P(k+1)$
 - We can construct an argument for any *n* by "iterating" the inductive case up from the base case.
- Many equivalent variations exist:
 - Base case as P(k) for some specific $k (\forall n \geq k . P(n))$
 - Strong induction, inductive case as $\forall k. (\forall n \leq k. P(n)) \longrightarrow P(k+1)$
 - ...

```
function slowAdd(a:nat, b:int) : int {
  if (a==0) then b else 1+slowAdd(a-1,b)
}
```

- $\forall n, m$. slowAdd(n, m) = n + m
- By induction on n

```
function slowAdd(a:nat, b:int) : int {
  if (a==0) then b else 1+slowAdd(a-1,b)
}
```

- $\forall n, m$. slowAdd(n, m) = n + m
- By induction on n
 - Base case: $slowAdd(0,m) \hookrightarrow m$



```
function slowAdd(a:nat, b:int) : int {
  if (a==0) then b else 1+slowAdd(a-1,b)
}
```

- $\forall n, m$. slowAdd(n, m) = n + m
- By induction on n
 - Base case: $slowAdd(0,m) \hookrightarrow m$



- Inductive case:
 - Assume $\forall m$.slowAdd(k, m) $\hookrightarrow k + m$, for some k.
 - Prove slowAdd(k+1,m) $\hookrightarrow k+1+m$

```
function slowAdd(a:nat, b:int) : int {
  if (a==0) then b else 1+slowAdd(a-1,b)
}
```

- $\forall n, m$. slowAdd(n, m) = n + m
- By induction on n
 - Base case: $slowAdd(0,m) \hookrightarrow m$



- Inductive case:
 - Assume $\forall m$.slowAdd(k, m) $\hookrightarrow k + m$, for some k.
 - Prove slowAdd(k+1,m) $\hookrightarrow k+1+m$
 - slowAdd(k + 1,m) = 1 + slowAdd(k,m)

```
function slowAdd(a:nat, b:int) : int {
  if (a==0) then b else 1+slowAdd(a-1,b)
}
```

- $\forall n, m$. slowAdd(n, m) = n + m
- By induction on n
 - Base case: $slowAdd(0,m) \hookrightarrow m$



- Inductive case:
 - Assume $\forall m. slowAdd(k, m) \hookrightarrow k + m$, for some k.
 - Prove $\forall m'$.slowAdd(k+1,m') $\hookrightarrow k+1+m'$
 - slowAdd(k + 1,m') = 1 + slowAdd(k,m')
 - By i.h. = 1 + k + m' = k + 1 + m'

Generalizing the inductive hypothesis

Sometimes the "obvious" statement is not general enough:

```
function factAcc(n:nat, a:int) : int {
  if (n==0) then a else factAcc(n-1,n*a)
}
```

- $\forall n$. factAcc(n,1) = n!
- By induction on n
 - Base case: $factAcc(0,1) \hookrightarrow 1$



- Inductive case:
 - Assume factAcc(k,1) $\hookrightarrow k!$, for some k.
 - Prove factAcc(k + 1,1) $\hookrightarrow (k + 1)!$
 - factAcc(k + 1,1) = factAcc(k, k + 1)
 - We are stuck…

Generalizing the inductive hypothesis

```
function factAcc(n:nat, a:int) : int {
  if (n==0) then a else factAcc(n-1,n*a)
}
```

- Instead, prove $\forall n, m$. factAcc $(n, m) = m \times n!$
- By induction on n
 - Base case: $\forall m$. factAcc(0,m) $\hookrightarrow m = m \times 0$!
 - Inductive case:
 - Assume $\forall m$. factAcc $(k, m) \hookrightarrow m \times k!$, for some k.
 - Prove $\forall m'$. factAcc(k+1,m') $\hookrightarrow m' \times (k+1)!$
 - factAcc(k + 1,m') = factAcc($k,m' \times (k + 1)$)
 - by i.h. $(m = m' \times (k + 1))$: = $m' \times (k + 1) \times k! = m' \times (k + 1)!$

Generalizing the inductive hypothesis

- Related to inventing "good" loop invariants (later!).
- Sometimes this isn't enough:

```
function fib(n:nat) : int {
  if n==0 then 0
    else if n==1 then 1
    else fib(n-1)+fib(n-2)
}
```

Use strong induction... (Exercise!)

Structural Induction

• Functions over inductive structures (lists, trees, etc.)

```
datatype List<T> = Nil | Cons(head:T, tail:List<T>)
function length<T>(l:List<T>) : int {
    match l
    case Nil => 0
    case Cons(_,xs) => 1+length<T>(xs)
}
```

- We can prove adequacy also using (a form of) induction.
- Generalization of mathematical induction called structural induction:
 - Show property holds for Nil
 - Assume it holds for some l': List<T>, show property holds for Cons(n,l'), for any n.

Structural Induction

• Functions over inductive structures (lists, trees, etc.)

```
datatype List<T> = Nil | Cons(head:T, tail:List<T>)
function length<T>(l:List<T>) : int {
    match l
    case Nil => 0
    case Cons(_,xs) => 1+length<T>(xs)
}
```

- Show $\forall l. \text{length} < T > (l) = |l| \text{ (where } |l| \text{ is the length of } l).$
- ullet By structural induction on l
- Case l = Nil: length < T > (l) = 0
- Case l = Cons(n, l') (for some n and l')
 - Assume length < T > (l') = |l'| (i.h.)
 - length < T > (Cons(n, l')) = 1 + length < T > (l')
 - by i.h. = 1 + |l'| = |Cons(n, l')|

Part V (redux) Hoare Logic

Program Proofs in Hoare Logic

A Hoare Logic "proof" may look like

```
{ true }
if (x > y) {
      \{ (x > y) \}
     z := x;
      \{ (x > y) \&\& (z == x) \}
else {
      \{ (x \le y) \}
     z := y;
      \{ (x \le y) \&\& (z == y) \}
\{ (x>y) \&\& (z == x) | | (x<=y) \&\& (z == y) \}
\{ z == max(x,y) \}
```

Example: Rule for Sequence

 A sequence defines a dependency on the effects of both program statements.

$$\frac{\{A\}\ P\ \{B\}\ Q\ \{C\}}{\{A\}\ P; Q\ \{C\}}$$

• If $\{A\}$ P $\{B\}$ and $\{B\}$ Q $\{C\}$ then $\{A\}$ P; Q $\{C\}$

Rules of Hoare Logic (general form)

The inference rules of Hoare logic are used to derive (valid)
 Hoare triples given some already derived Hoare triples

$$\frac{\{A_1\}\ P_1\ \{B_1\}\ ...\ \{A_n\}\ P_n\ \{B_n\}}{\{A\}\ C(P1,...,P_n)\ \{B\}}$$

- What is nice here:
 - the program in the conclusion contains the subprograms
 P₁, ..., P_n as components
 - we derive properties of the composite from the properties of its parts (compositionality)
 - pretty much the same as with a type system

"Structural" Proof Rules

Basic logic proof systems operate on assertions, e.g.

$$\frac{A \quad A \Longrightarrow B}{B} \qquad \frac{A \quad B}{A \land B} \qquad \frac{A}{A \lor B} \qquad \frac{B}{A \lor B}$$

• Hoare logic proof system operates on Hoare triples, e.g.

$$\frac{\{A\}\ P\ \{B\}\ Q\ \{C\}}{\{A\}\ P; Q\ \{C\}}$$

One rule for each PL construct

AXIOM 1: ASSIGNMENT AXIOM

$${p[t/x]} x := t {p}.$$

Rule 2: Composition Rule

$$\frac{\{p\}\ S_1\ \{r\},\ \{r\}\ S_2\ \{q\}}{\{p\}\ S_1;\ S_2\ \{q\}}$$
.

Rule 3: if-then-else Rule

$$\frac{\{p \land e\} \ S_1 \ \{q\}, \ \{p \land \neg e\} \ S_2 \ \{q\}}{\{p\} \ \text{if} \ e \ \text{then} \ S_1 \ \text{else} \ S_2 \ \text{fi} \ \{q\}}$$

RULE 4: while RULE

$$\frac{\{p \land e\} \ S \ \{p\}}{\{p\} \text{ while } e \text{ do } S \text{ od } \{p \land \neg e\}}$$



- A cool idea:
 - Programmers can use the rules informally to mentally check their code
 - Tools exist that automate most of the process
 - Lets go through each rule, one by one...



Simple Programming Language

$$E ::= \text{Expressions}$$

$$num \qquad \qquad \text{Integer}$$

$$\mid x \qquad \qquad \text{Variable}$$

$$\mid E+E\mid \dots \qquad \qquad \text{Integer operators}$$

$$\mid E < E\mid \dots \qquad \qquad \text{Relational operators}$$

$$\mid E \text{ and } E \dots \qquad \qquad \text{Boolean operators}$$

$$P$$
 ::= Programs
 skip No op
 $x := E$ Assignment
 $P : P$ Sequential Composition
 if E then P else P Conditional
 while E do P Iteration

Rule for Skip

 $\{A\}$ skip $\{A\}$

Rule for Skip

$$\{A\}$$
 skip $\{A\}$



Rule for Sequence

 A sequence defines a dependency on the effects of both program statements.

$$\frac{\{A\}\ P\ \{B\}\ Q\ \{C\}}{\{A\}\ P;Q\ \{C\}}$$

Rule for Conditional

$$\frac{\{A \wedge E\} \ P \ \{B\} \quad \{A \wedge \neg E\} \ Q \ \{B\}}{\{A\} \ \text{if} \ E \ \text{then} \ P \ \text{else} \ Q \ \{B\}}$$

Rule for Deduction

$$\frac{A' \implies A \quad \{A\} \ P \ \{B\} \quad B \implies B'}{\{A'\} \ P \ \{B'\}}$$

- A ⇒ B means "A logically implies B"
- We prove A ⇒ B using the principles of first order logic, plus basic properties of the domain data types, e.g. properties of integers, arrays, etc.

Rule for Assignment

$${A[^{E}/_{x}]} x := E {A}$$

- $A[^E/_x]$ means:
 - Result of replacing all free occurrences of variable x in assertion A by the expression E
- For this rule to be sound, we require E to be an expression without side effects (a pure expression)

$${A[^{E}/_{x}]} x := E {A}$$

- We can think of A as a condition where "x" appears in some places. A is a condition dependent on "x".
- The assignment x := E changes the value of x to E, but leaves everything else unchanged
- So everything that could be said of E in the precondition, can be said of x in the postcondition, since the value of x after the assignment is E
- Example: $\{x + 1 > 0\} x := x + 1 \{x > 0\}$

$${A[^{E}/_{x}]} x := E {A}$$

• Example, let's check $\{x > -1\} x := x + 1 \{x > 0\}$

$$\{(x+1>0)\} x := x+1 \{x>0\}$$
 by the := Rule

that is,
$$\{(x > 0)[x+1/x]\}$$
 $x := (x+1)$ $\{x > 0\}$

$$\{x > -1\} x := x + 1 \{x > 0\}$$
 by deduction

$${A[^{E}/_{x}]} x := E {A}$$

• Trick: if x does not appear in E or A.

We can always write $\{A \&\& E == E\} x := E \{x == E\}$ So, if x does not occur in E, A the triple

$$\{A\} X := E \{A \&\& X == E\}$$

is always valid

$${A[^{E}/_{x}]} x := E {A}$$

- Exercises. Derive:
 - $\{y > 0\} x := y \{x > 0 & y == x\}$
 - $\{x == y\} x := 2*x \{y == x \text{ div } 2\}$
 - { P(y) && Q(z) } (here P and Q are any properties)

$$X := y ; y := Z; Z := X$$

 $\{ P(z) \&\& Q(y) \}$

Example

Consider the program

$$P \triangleq if (x>y) then z := x else z := y$$

We can (mechanically) check the triple

```
{ true } P { z == max(x,y) }
```

Example

Consider the program

```
P \triangleq if (x>y) then z := x else z := y
```

• We can (mechanically) check the triple

```
{ true } P { z == max(x,y) }

{ x == max(x,y) } z := x { z == max(x,y) }

{ x > y } z := x { z == max(x,y) }

{ y == max(x,y) } z := y { z == max(x,y) }

{ y >= x } z := y { z == max(x,y) }
```

```
E ::= Expressions
S ::= Statements
      \begin{array}{ccc} & \cdots & \\ & x := m(E_1, \dots, E_n) \end{array}
                                                                    Call + Assignment
D ::= Declarations
     | method m(x_1,\ldots,x_n) returns (r)
              requires Pre(x_1, \ldots, x_n)
              ensures Post(x_1, \ldots, x_n, r)
              \{S\}
\begin{array}{ccc} P & ::= & \operatorname{Program} \\ & | & \overline{D} \end{array}
```

- Declarations annotated with pre- and post-conditions.
- Method calls built into a form of assignment.
- A program P is a set of method declarations.
- Each method decl. is validated, assuming its pre-condition and establishing its post-condition:

```
\frac{\{Pre(x_1,\ldots,x_n)\} S \{Post(x_1,\ldots,x_n,r)\}}{\text{method } m(x_1,\ldots,x_n) \text{ returns } (r)}
\text{requires } Pre(x_1,\ldots,x_n)
\text{ensures } Post(x_1,\ldots,x_n,r) \{S\}
```

Method calls built into a form of assignment:

method
$$m(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$$
 returns (r)
requires $Pre(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \in P$
ensures $Post(x_1, \ldots, x_n, r)$ $\{S\}$

$$A \Rightarrow Pre(E_1, \ldots, E_n) \quad Post(E_1, \ldots, E_n, r) \Rightarrow B[^r/_x]$$
 $\{A\} \ x := m(E_1, \ldots, E_n) \ \{B\}$

method
$$m(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$$
 returns (r) requires $Pre(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ $\in P$ ensures $Post(x_1, \ldots, x_n, r)$ $\{S\}$

$$A \Rightarrow Pre(E_1, \dots, E_n) \qquad Post(E_1, \dots, E_n, r) \Rightarrow B[^r/_x]$$
$$\{A\} \ x := m(E_1, \dots, E_n) \ \{B\}$$

- Instantiated method pre-condition must follow from A
- Instantiated method post-condition must imply B
- Calls are opaque! We only know what's in the post-condition.
- Verification with method calls is modular.

```
method maxImp(x:int,y:int) returns (r:int)
  ensures r >= x \& r >= y
{
  if x > y { r := x; } else { r := y; }
  return r;
method Main() {
  var \ a := -10;
  var b := 23;
  var c := maxImp(a,b);
  assert (c == b);
                             assertion violation Verifier
```

```
method maxImp(x:int,y:int) returns (r:int)
  ensures r >= x \& r >= y
  if x > y { r := x; } else { r := y; }
  return r;
method Main() {
  var \ a := -10;
  var b := 23;
  var c := maxImp(a,b);
  assert (c >= b);
```

```
method maxImp(x:int,y:int) returns (r:int)
  ensures (x>y ==> r == x) \&\& (x <= y ==> r == y)
  if x > y { r := x; } else { r := y; }
  return r;
method Main() {
  var \ a := -10;
  var b := 23;
  var c := maxImp(a,b);
  assert (c == b);
```

Next Week:

- Hoare Logic (continuation)
- Loops and Loop invariants
- Verification of ADTs