

Outline

Definition and Motivation Definition

What is a Proof of Correctness?

Concerns both a requirements specification, including a pre-condition P and post-condition Q, and an algorithm or program S

Specifically, this is a proof that if

- inputs satisfy the pre-condition P, and
- algorithm or program S is executed,

then

• S eventually halts, and its inputs and outputs satisfy the post-condition Q

Generally expected to be a *formal* mathematical proof establishing "correctness" of pseudocode (or code) as defined above.

Definition and Motivation Motivation

Why Prove Correctness?

Testing is not always sufficient:

- testing cannot prove correctness
- testing can detect errors, but is not guaranteed to find them
- when computer time is expensive, proving correctness can be cheaper than testing
- in safety-critical situations, proving correctness may be required

On the other hand: testing is often feasible when a proof of correctness is not, and "errors in proofs" can be missed, too!

Used to prove correctness of algorithms.

One Part of a Proof: Partial Correctness

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- inputs satisfy the precondition *P*, and
- algorithm or program S is executed,

then either

• S halts and outputs satisfy the postcondition Q

or

S does not halt

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Generally written as \{P\} S \{Q\}
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Another Part of a Proof: Termination

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- inputs satisfy the precondition P, and
- algorithm or program S is executed,

then

• S is guaranteed to halt (terminate)

Partial correctness and termination are often (but not always) considered separately because:

- Different independent arguments are used for each
- Sometimes one condition holds, but not the other! Then the algorithm is *not* correct, but something interesting can still be established (eg. testing non-existence conjecture).

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Strategy and Examples Strategy			Strategy and Examples Important Cases			
Strategy			Assignment Statement Initializes a Variable			
 Proving Correctness If partial correctness correctness of S has 	<i>and</i> termination of <i>S</i> has been p been proved too.	proved then	Claim: { <i>x</i> = 1}	$y := x + 1 \{x = 1 \text{ and } y\}$	= 2}	
 Proving Partial Correctness and Termination There are several different <i>kinds of programs:</i> simple statements, including assignment statements 			 General Rule: {x = 1} is the precondition {x = 1 and y = 2} is the postcondition 			
 sequences of subprograms conditional statements 			 simple argument for proof — statement sets y to x + 1 and leaves x unchanged 			

Termination: obvious (remember, we are *not* proving correctness of the runtime environment)

There are different proof strategies for each.

loops

Assignment Changes a Variable's Value

Claim:

 $\{x_{old} = 1\} \ x := x + 1 \ \{x_{new} = 2\}$

General Rule:

- programs are not static variables change value as the program executes
- need subscripts to distinguish between value of x before and after the statement

Termination: obvious

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Strategy and Examples Important Cases

Strategy for Proving Correctness of Sequences

Assume program S is a sequence of statements or blocks S_1, \ldots, S_n

- to prove {*P*} S {*Q*}, create assertions (logical statements involving the program's variables) *A*₁,..., *A*_{n-1} that should hold between each pair of consecutive statements
- prove $\{P\} S_1 \{A_1\}, \{A_1\} S_2 \{A_2\}, \dots, \{A_{n-1}\} S_n \{Q\}$
 - this proves partial correctness
- prove that each of S_1, \ldots, S_n terminates individually
 - this proves termination

If partial correctness and termination are proved, then S is correct.

Program is a Sequence of Subprograms

Claim:

$$\{x = 1\}$$
 $y := x + 1; z := y + 1 \{z = 3\}$

Proof.

Insert the assertion $\{x = 1 \land y = 2\}$ between the two statements

• Prove $\{x = 1\}$ y := x + 1 $\{x = 1 \land y = 2\}$ (follows from a previous claim)

• Prove $\{x = 1 \land y = 2\}$ z := y + 1 $\{x = 1 \land y = 2 \land z = 3\}$ (also follows from a previous claim)

Correctness of the claim follows.

Termination: Obvious (two simple statements

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Strategy and Examples Important Cases

Program is a Conditional Statement

Claim:

{ x is a nonnegative integer }

if even(x) then y := x + 2else y := x + 1end if

{ y is an even integer and either y = x + 1 or y = x + 2 }

... assuming even() decides whether its input is even

Proving Correctness of Conditional Statements

If the program's test is satisfied:

• x is even

• y = x + 2 and y is even (because x is even)

If the program's test is not satisfied:

- x is odd
- y = x + 1 and y is even (because x is odd)

Main idea: prove each case separately

To prove

 $\{P\}$ if T then S_1 else S_2 end if $\{Q\}$

Show that

- { $P \land T$ } S_1 { Q }
- { $P \land \sim T$ } S_2 { Q }

Termination:

• holds if T, S_1 , and S_2 all terminate



Strategy and Examples Important Cases

Useful Properties

To establish the above "Necessary Properties," show that:

- (0) is satisfied before the first execution of the loop!
- If *I*(*j*) is satisfied after the *j*th execution and there is a *j* + 1st execution, then *I*(*j* + 1) is satisfied after the *j* + 1st execution, for each integer *j* ≥ 0.
- Solution If there is a *j*th execution but not a j + 1st execution then I(j) implies the postcondition (again, for each integer $j \ge 0$).

Exercise:

- Show that all three properties hold for the example. Note that I(0) should hold *just before* the first execution of the loop body.
- What *proof technique* (from MATH 271) could be used with these properties to prove the claim?

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Strategy and Examples Important Cases

Other Kinds of Programs

Useful "proof rules" like the above can also be provided for

- other kinds of tests and loops
- calls to nonrecursive methods
- a recursive use of a method

In each case the "proof rule(s)" corresponds to what the statement is supposed to do.

Exercise: Try to think of appropriate proof rules for each of the above kinds of programs.

Proving Termination of a Loop

Loop Variant: An *integer-valued* function *f* of the program's variables such that:

- the value of *f* is *decreased by at least one* every time the loop body is executed,
- loop terminates (immediately!) if *f*'s value is zero or negative after any execution of the loop body.

Loop Variant for the Example Program: f(n, i) = n - i

• number of executions of loop body is at most f(n, 0) = n - 0 = n(*f* evaluated with the loop index set to 0)

Note: "Loop variants" have different names in different references (when they are mentioned, at all).

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References

References

Discrete Mathematics textbooks sometimes include "proofs of correctness" of algorithms as an application of *mathematical induction:*

Recommended References:

- Susanna S. Epp Discrete Mathematics with Applications, Third Edition See Section 4.5
- Kenneth H. Rosen
 Discrete Mathematics and Its Applications, Sixth Edition
 See Section 4.5

Note: Epp's text *does not* define a loop invariant in the same way as these notes do, and partial correctness and termination are not considered separately there.

References

For Further Reading

Textbook, Section 2.7

Each of the following — rather demanding — references is available on reserve in the library:

- Edsger W. Dijkstra A Discipline of Programming
- David Gries The Science of Programming

These may be challenging, especially for students who have not already completed PHIL 279 (or taken another course in mathematical logic)!

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