Specifying Contracts for Methods

Module III Lecture 4

Assume-quarantee specifications as program annotations

Recall some definitions

- Formal Specification using mathematical notation to give a precise description of what a program should do
- Formal Verification using precise rules to mathematically prove that a program satisfies a formal specification
- Formal Development (Refinement) developing programs in a way that ensures mathematically they meet their formal specifications

Introduction to Hoare style specifications

- Verification of programs is based on formal specifications and on related verification method.
 We will use <u>Floyd-Hoare logic</u> (FHL)
- Proof systems of the FHL style depend on particular programming language with its syntax and semantics
- In this lecture
 - we study the specification of deterministic sequential while-programs
 - and extend this to JML specifications of OO programs, namely, to method contracts.

Programs as state transition systems

- Programs are <u>structured specifications</u> of state transition systems.
- Programming language defines constructs for specifying single transitions and transition compositions.
- State components specified using datatypes are referred in conditions of command constructs like *if-*, *while-*, *for-*, *case-*command etc.

Some notations

- Imperative programs are built out of *commands* like assignment, *if*-, *while-*, *for-*, *case*, etc
- Formally, the terms 'program' and 'command' are synonymous.
- 'Program' will only be used for commands representing <u>complete</u> <u>algorithm</u>.
- The 'assertion' is used for conditions on program variables that occur in correctness specifications.

Imperative programs - state

• Executing an imperative program has the effect of changing the *state* i.e. the values of program variables,

but

they may have states consisting of other things than the values of variables (e.g. I/O ports).

Imperative programs - execution

- To use an imperative program (or method)
 - first establish a state,
 i.e. set some variables to have values of interest
 - then execute the program,
 (to transform the initial state into a final one)
 - inspect the values of variables in the final state to get the result.

Simple while-language

```
% Expressions
• E ::= N |V| E1 + E2 |E1 - E2| E1 \times E2 | ...
                                                      % Arithmetic
• B ::= T | F | E1 = E2 | E1 \le E2 | ...
                                                      % Logic
                                                      %Commands:
• C ::=
          SKIP
                                                      % empty command (place holder)
                                                      % assignment
           V(E1) := E2
                                                      % array assignment
           C1 ; C2
                                                      % sequential execution
               B THEN C1 ELSE C2
                                                      % conditional execution
           BEGIN VAR V1;...; VAR Vn; C END
                                                      % block command (var. scoping)
           WHILE B DO
                                                      % while - loop
           FOR V := E1 UNTIL E2
                                        DO C
                                                      % for - loop
```

Terminology and notations

```
    Variable
```

```
• V1, V2, ..., Vn
```

- Program state valuation of program (and control) variables
- Command gives a rule how the program state changes

```
• C1, C2, ..., Cn
```

- Program command that includes all the commands in the algorithm
 - C
- Expression
 - Arithmetic expression gives a value: E1, E2, ..., En
 - Boolean expression gives a *truth*-value: B1, B2, ..., Bn
- Assertion logical expression on program variables in the pre- and postconditions of the specification, also in invariants
 - S1, S2, ..., Sn

Formal specification

- Describes the intended behaviour of the program
- Specifies *what* the program must do
- Has well-defined synax and semantics that helps avoiding ambiguous and controversial specifications
- Can be used to prove the correctness of the program
- Can be used to generate *tests* and *counterexamples*

We will use formalism that is based on FHL and predicate calculus

Hoare's notation





• C.A.R. Hoare introduced the following notation called a partial correctness specification for specifying what a program does:

$$\{P\} \ C \ \{Q\}$$

where:

- C is a program from the programming language whose programs are being specified
- ullet P and Q are conditions on the program variables used in C

Partial Correctness

- An expression $\{P\}$ C $\{Q\}$ is called a partial correctness specification
 - P is called its precondition
 - Q its postcondition
- $\{P\}$ C $\{Q\}$ is true if
 - \bullet whenever C is executed in a state satisfying P
 - and if the execution of C terminates
 - ullet then the state in which C's execution terminates satisfies Q

Examples

- ${X = 1} Y := X {Y = 1}$
 - This says that if the command Y:=X is executed in a state satisfying the condition X=1
 - i.e. a state in which the value of X is 1
 - then, if the execution terminates (which it does)
 - then the condition Y = 1 will hold
 - Clearly this specification is true

Examples

- $\{X = 1\} Y := X \{Y = 2\}$
 - This says that if the execution of Y:=X terminates when started in a state satisfying X=1
 - then Y = 2 will hold
 - This is clearly false
- $\{X = 1\}$ WHILE T DO SKIP $\{Y = 2\}$
 - This specification is true!

Total correctness

- A stronger kind of specification is a *total correct*ness specification
 - There is no standard notation for such specifications
 - We shall use [P] C [Q]
- ullet A total correctness specification [P] C [Q] is true if and only if
 - Whenever C is executed in a state satisfying P, then the execution of C terminates
 - \bullet After C terminates Q holds

Example

- [X = 1] Y := X; WHILE T DO SKIP [Y = 1]
 - This says that the execution of Y:=X; WHILE T DO SKIP terminates when started in a state satisfying X=1
 - after which Y = 1 will hold
 - This is clearly false

Total correctness

• Informally:

```
Total\ correctness =
Termination + Partial\ correctness
```

- Total correctness is the ultimate goal
 - usually easier to show partial correctness and termination separately

Total correctness

• Termination is usually straightforward to show, but there are examples where it is not: no one knows whether the program below terminates for all values of X

```
WHILE X>1 DO

IF ODD(X) THEN X := (3\times X)+1 ELSE X := X DIV 2
```

- The expression X DIV 2 evaluates to the result of rounding down X/2 to a whole number
- Exercise: Write a specification which is true if and only if the program above terminates

Examples

- $\bullet \quad \{\mathtt{T}\} \ C \ \{Q\}$
 - This says that whenever C halts, Q holds
- $\bullet \quad \{P\} \ C \ \{\mathtt{T}\}$
 - \bullet This specification is true for every condition P and every command C
 - Because T is always true

Examples

- [P] C [T]
 - This says that C terminates if initially P holds
 - It says nothing about the final state
- \bullet [T] C [P]
 - This says that C always terminates and ends in a state where P holds

A more complicated example

```
 \begin{cases} \{T\} \\ \text{BEGIN} \\ \text{R}:=X; \\ \text{Q}:=0; \\ \text{WHILE Y} \leq \text{R DO} \\ \text{BEGIN R}:=\text{R}-Y; \text{Q}:=\text{Q}+1 \text{ END} \\ \text{END} \\ \{\text{R} < \text{Y} \ \land \ \text{X} = \text{R} + (\text{Y} \times \text{Q})\} \end{cases}
```

- This is $\{T\}$ C $\{R < Y \land X = R + (Y \times Q)\}$
 - where C is the command indicated by the braces above
 - The specification is true if whenever the execution of C halts, then $\mathbb Q$ is quotient and $\mathbb R$ is the remainder resulting from dividing $\mathbb Y$ into $\mathbb X$
 - It is true (even if X is initially negative!)
 - In this example a program variable \mathbb{Q} is used. This should not be confused with the Q used in previous examples to range over postconditions

Annotate First

- It is helpful to think up these statements, before you start the proof and annotate the program with them
 - The information is then available when you need it in the proof
 - This can help avoid you being bogged down in details
 - The annotation should be true whenever control reaches that point in program!

Annotation example

• Example, the following program could be annotated at the points indicated.

```
 \begin{array}{l} \{T\} \\ \text{BEGIN} \\ \text{R:=X;} \\ \text{Q:=0;} \ \{\text{R=X} \ \land \ \text{Q=0}\} \longleftrightarrow \text{P}_1 \\ \text{WHILE Y \le R DO } \{\text{X = R+Y \times Q}\} \longleftrightarrow \text{P}_2 \\ \text{BEGIN R:=R-Y;} \ \text{Q:=Q+1 END} \\ \text{END} \\ \{\text{X = R+Y \times Q} \ \land \ \text{R<Y}\} \end{array}
```

WHILE annotation

• A correctly annotated total correctness specification of a WHILE-command thus has the form

$$[P]$$
 WHILE S DO $\{R\}[E]$ C $[Q]$

where R is the invariant and E the variant

- Note that the variant is intended to be a nonnegative expression that decreases each time around the WHILE loop
- The other annotations, which are enclosed in curly brackets, are meant to be conditions that are true whenever control reaches them

Some exercises

- When is [T] C [T] true?
- Write a partial correctness specification which is true if and only if the command C has the effect of multiplying the values of X and Y and storing the result in X
- Write a specification which is true if the execution of C always halts when execution is started in a state satisfying P

From imperative to OOP specifications

- Imperative part in OOP concerns methods
- Method specifications in JML:

```
method-specification ::= specification | extending-specification
extending-specification ::= also specification
specification ::= spec-case-seq [ redundant-spec ] | redundant-spec
spec-case-seq ::= spec-case [ also spec-case ] . . .
```

- Method-specification can include any number of spec-cases, joined by the keyword also, as well as a redundant-spec
- Each of the spec-cases specifies a behavior that must be satisfied by a correct implementation of the method
- Whenever a call to the specified method or constructor satisfies the *precondition* of one of its speccases, the rest of the clauses in that spec-case must also be satisfied by the implementation

Method specification

• The spec-cases in a method-specification can have several forms:

- heavyweight specification cases, which start with one of the keywords:
 - behavior, normal_behavior or exceptional_behavior
- lightweight specification cases do not contain these behavior keywords

Access Control in specification Cases

• Heavyweight specification cases may be declared with an explicit access modifier:

```
privacy ::= public | protected | private
```

- The access modifier of the case cannot allow more access than the method being specified.
- Example:
 - a public method may have a private behavior specification,
 - but a private method may not have a public specification.
- A heavyweight specification case without an explicit access modifier is considered to have default *package* access.

Lightweight specification cases

- Do not specify an access modifier,
- their access modifier is implicitly the same as that of method being specified.
- For example,
 - a lightweight specification of a public method has public access, implicitly,
 - a lightweight specification of a *private* method has *private* access, implicitly.
- This is a different default than that for heavyweight specifications, where an omitted access modifier always means package access.
- A lightweight specification case can be understood as syntactic sugar for a behavior specification case

Lightweight Specification Cases: Syntax

```
lightweight-spec-case ::= generic-spec-case
generic-spec-case ::= [spec-var-decls] spec-header [generic-spec-body]
      [spec-var-decls] generic-spec-body
generic-spec-body ::= simple-spec-body |{|generic-spec-case-seq |}
generic-spec-case-seq ::= generic-spec-case [also generic-spec-case] ...
spec-header ::= requires-clause [requires-clause] ...
simple-spec-body ::= simple-spec-body-clause [simple-spec-body-clause] ...
simple-spec-body-clause := diverges-clause | assignable-clause
     accessible-clause | captures-clause | callable-clause | when-clause
      working-space-clause | duration-clause | ensures-clause | signals-only-
      clause | signals-clause | measured-clause
```

Example: Lightweight vs Heavyweight Spec. Cases

Lightweight	Corresponding Heavyweight (with explicit defaults)
<pre>package org.jmlspecs.samples.jmlrefman; public abstract class Lightweight { protected boolean P, Q, R; protected int X;</pre>	<pre>package org.jmlspecs.samples.jmlrefman; public abstract class Heavyweight { protected boolean P, Q, R; protected int X;</pre>
/*@ requires P;	/*@ protected behavior @ requires P;
@ assignable X;	<pre>@ diverges false; @ assignable X; @ when \not_specified;</pre>
	<pre>@ working_space \not_specified; @ duration \not_specified;</pre>
@ ensures Q;	<pre>@ ensures Q; @ signals_only Exception;</pre>
<pre>@ signals (Exception) R; @*/</pre>	<pre>@ signals (Exception) R; @*/</pre>
<pre>protected abstract int m() throws Exception; }</pre>	<pre>protected abstract int m() throws Exception; }</pre>

Example explanation:

- the default for an *omitted* clause in a lightweight specification is \not_specified for all clauses, except diverges, which has a default of false, and signals.
- The default for an omitted signals clause is to only permit the exceptions declared in the method's header to be thrown

Heavyweight specification Cases

• There are three kinds of heavyweight specification cases, called behavior, normal behavior, and exceptional behavior specification cases, beginning (after an optional privacy modifier) with the one of the keywords behavior, normal_behavior, or exceptional_behavior, respectively.

• Like lightweight specification cases, normal behavior and exceptional behavior specification cases can be understood as *syntactic sugar for special kinds of behavior specification* cases

Semantics of flat behavior specification cases

- Behavior-spec-case consists of any number of following clauses:
 - requires
 - diverges
 - measured_by
 - assignable
 - accessible
 - callable
 - when
 - ensures
 - duration
 - working_space
 - signals_only
 - signals
- There are defaults that allow any of them to be omitted.

Example: non-helper method m specification case

```
behavior
```

```
forall T1 x1; ... forall Tn xn; % For every possible value of the variables following holds
old U1 y1 = F1; ... old Uk yk = Fk; % In augmented pre-state, the pre-values are made explicit
                                      % Preconditions and all invariants should hold in the pre-state of the call
requires P;
measured_by Mbe if Mbp; % Mbe is variant of recursive call if Mbp, is true in the augmented pre-state
                     % D becomes true if recursive call never terminates, otherwise terminates in post-state s.t.
diverges D;
                                        % executes as long the W holds
when W;
                                        % Locations that are readable from
accessible R;
assignable A;
                                        % Locations which can be assigned to during method execution
callable p1(...), ..., p1(...);
                                        % Methods and constructors called during method execution
                           % param.-s of reference type assigned to fields of some object or to array elements
captures Z;
                                        % guarantee if method terminates normally
ensures Q;
                                       % throwing an exception of type Ea it must be one of E1,...,Eo
signals_only E1,...,Eo;
signals (E e) S; % exceptional cond R must hold in post-state, augmented by a binding from variable e
working_space Wse if Wsp;
                                      % restriction placed on the maximum space the method call may have
duration De if Dp;
                                  % if Dp=true in the pre-state, then the method execution takes De timeunits
```

Method Specification Clauses (1): variable declarations

Specification Variable Declarations clause

- old-var-declarator allows abbreviation within a specification case.
- The names defined in the spec-variable-declarators can be used throughout the spec case for the values of their initializers.
- The expressions are evaluated in the method's pre-state

Method Specification Clauses (2): requires

• A requires clause specifies a precondition of method or constructor

- The predicate in a requires can refer to any visible fields and to the parameters of the method
- Any number of requires clauses can be included a single specification case.
- Multiple requires clauses in a specification case means the same as a single requires clause whose
 precondition predicate is the conjunction of these precondition predicates in the given requires clauses.
- \same stands for the disjunction (with ||) of the preconditions in all spec cases from the current class together with the inherited spec cases defined in its supertypes.

Method Specification Clauses (3): ensures clauses

• Specifies a property that is guaranteed to hold at the end of the method (or constructor) invocation in the case that this method (or constructor) invocation returns without throwing an exception.

```
ensures-clause ::= ensures-keyword pred-or-not ;
ensures-keyword ::= ensures | post | ensures_redundantly | post_redundantly
```

- A predicate in an ensures clause can refer to
 - any visible fields,
 - the parameters of the method,
 - \result if the method is non-void, and
 - may contain expressions of the form $\old(E)$.
- Multiple ensures clauses in a specification case mean the same as a single ensures clause whose
 postcondition predicate is the conjunction of the postcondition predicates in the given ensures clauses.
- The default precondition for a lightweight specification case, is \not_specified.
- The default precondition for a heavyweight specification case is true

Summary

- We have given a notation for specifying
 - partial correctness of programs
 - total correctness of programs
- It is easy to write incorrect specifications
 - and we can prove the correctness of the incorrect programs
- It is recommended to use testing, simulation and formal verification hand in hand.