

Incorrectness Logic

COL731 Course Presentation

Based on Peter W. O'Hearn's Paper & Talk @ POPL '20

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October 2023

- 1** Introduction
- 2** A Unified Picture (Of Correctness and Incorrectness)
- 3** Build Your Muscle
- 4** Proof System
- 5** Reasoning with the Logic
- 6** Appendix

Motivation

- Disconnect between Industrial Tools and Academic Theory
 - Sound program logics for reasoning about **correctness**. But code is seldom correct!
 - Industrial automated reasoning tools often **find bugs**
- Q: *Can reasoning about the presence of bugs be underpinned by sound techniques in a principled logical system?*
 - “Reimagine” static-analysis tools
 - Provide symbolic bug-catchers a principled basis
- A: *Underapproximate Reasoning!* (What is that?)

Underapproximation

- Hoare Logic Specification:

`{pre-condition} code {post-condition}`
 $\text{post-condition} \supseteq \text{strongest-post}_{\text{code}}(\text{pre-condition})$

- Incorrectness Logic Specification:

`[presumption] code [result]`
 $\text{result} \subseteq \text{strongest-post}_{\text{code}}(\text{presumption})$

- Have separate post-assertions for errors, normal termination
 - Assertions describe erroneous states that *can be* reached by actual program executions

Underapproximation (but picture)

- We obtain a logic which can be used to prove *the presence of bugs, but not their absence.*

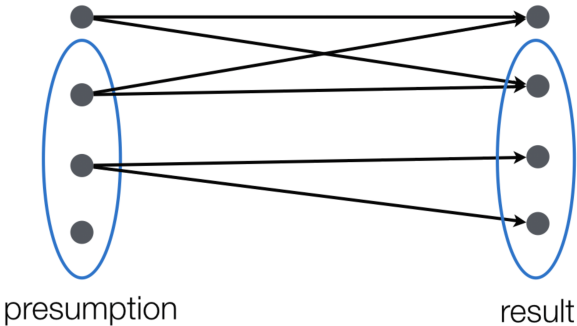


Figure 1: Source: [Incorrectness Logic Paper](#)

'Hoare triples speak the whole truth, where the under-approximate triples speak nothing but the truth.'

Section 2

A Unified Picture (Of Correctness and Incorrectness)

Category-Theoretic Notion

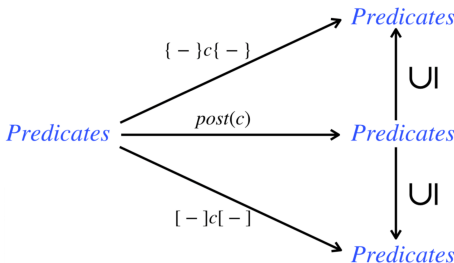


Figure 2: Commuting Diagram (Source : [Incorrectness Logic Paper](#))

- *Predicates* $\approx 2^{\text{Program States}}$, arrows \approx binary relations on *Predicates*
- $post(c)$ is a function, the other two are non-functional
- $[-]c[-]$ $= post(c); \supseteq$ and $\{-\}c\{-\}$ $= post(c); \subseteq$
- $post(c)p =$ strongest post of $p =$ weakest under-approximating post of p

Reasoning Principles - I

$$\begin{array}{l}
 \wedge \vee \text{ Symmetry: } [p]c[q_1] \wedge [p]c[q_2] \iff [p]c[q_1 \vee q_2] \\
 \{p\}c\{q_1\} \wedge \{p\}c\{q_2\} \iff \{p\}c\{q_1 \wedge q_2\} \\
 \\
 \uparrow\downarrow \text{ Symmetry: } p' \Leftarrow p \wedge [p]c[q] \wedge q \Leftarrow q' \implies [p']c[q'] \\
 p' \Rightarrow p \wedge \{p\}c\{q\} \wedge q \Rightarrow q' \implies \{p'\}c\{q'\}
 \end{array}$$

Figure 3: Correctness & Incorrectness Principles (Source : [Incorrectness Logic Paper](#))

- $[p]c[q \vee r] \implies [p]c[q]$ allows you to *drop paths* going forward.
 - Not possible in overapproximate logics - but can *forget information* along each path
- Rules of consequence allow specifications to be adapted to broader contexts

Reasoning Principles - II

Principle of Agreement: $[u]c[u'] \wedge u \Rightarrow o \wedge \{o\}c\{o'\} \implies u' \Rightarrow o'$

Principle of Denial: $[u]c[u'] \wedge u \Rightarrow o \wedge \neg(u' \Rightarrow o') \implies \neg(\{o\}c\{o'\})$

Figure 4: Correctness & Incorrectness Principles (Source : [Incorrectness Logic Paper](#))

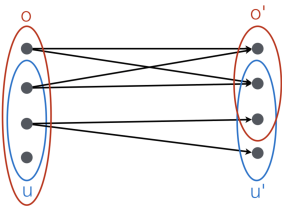


Figure 5: Analogy with Testing (Source : [Incorrectness Logic Paper](#))

- Program testing works on the principle of denial (traditionally, $|u| = |u'| = 1$, a test run)

Isn't Incorrectness Just Not Correctness?

- Yes, but we aren't powerful enough to precisely compute either!
- *'The inability to prove an over-approximate spec (whether found by a tool or specified by a human) does not imply an error in a program, and neither does not having found a bug imply that there are none: thus, the need for dedicated techniques for each.'*

Section 3

Build Your Muscle

Under-Approximating Triples - I

[z = 11]

```
if (x is even) {  
  if (y is odd) {  
    z = 42;  
  }  
}
```

[z = 42]

Under-Approximating Triples - I

[z = 11]

```
if (x is even) {  
  if (y is odd) {  
    z = 42;  
  }  
}
```

[z = 42]

This triple *does not hold!* The state [z : 42, x : 1, y : 3] has no predecessor!

Under-Approximating Triples - II

[true]

```
if (x is even) {
  if (y is odd) {
    z = 42;
  }
}
```

[z = 42]

Under-Approximating Triples - II

[true]

```
if (x is even) {  
  if (y is odd) {  
    z = 42;  
  }  
}
```

[z = 42]

This triple *holds!*

Under-Approximating Triples - III

$[z = 11]$

```
if (x is even) {  
  if (y is odd) {  
    z = 42;  
  }  
}
```

$[z = 42 \wedge (x \text{ is even}) \wedge (y \text{ is odd})]$

Under-Approximating Triples - III

$[z = 11]$

```
if (x is even) {  
  if (y is odd) {  
    z = 42;  
  }  
}
```

$[z = 42 \wedge (x \text{ is even }) \wedge (y \text{ is odd })]$

This triple *holds!*

Under-Approximating Triples - IV

[true]

```
if (x is even) {  
  if (y is odd) {  
    z = 42;  
  }  
}
```

$[z = 42 \wedge (x \text{ is even}) \wedge (y \text{ is odd})]$

Under-Approximating Triples - IV

[true]

```
if (x is even) {  
  if (y is odd) {  
    z = 42;  
  }  
}
```

$$[z = 42 \wedge (x \text{ is even}) \wedge (y \text{ is odd})]$$

This triple *holds!*

Specifying Incorrectness

- Reasoning about errors?

Specifying Incorrectness

- Reasoning about errors?
- Have separate result-assertion forms for normal and (erroneous or abnormal) termination.

```
void foo(char * str)
/* presumes: [ *str[]==s ]
   achieves: [ er: *str[]==s && length(s) > 16 ] */
{
    char buf[16];
    strcpy(buf, str);
}

int main(int argc, char *argv[])
{ foo(argv[1]); }
```

- Spec: if the length of the input string is greater than 16 then we can get an error (in this case a buffer overflow).

Under-approximate Success

- Why not over-approximate for successful and under-approximate for erroneous termination?
 - Under-approximate result assertions describing successful computations can help us **soundly discover bugs that come after a procedure is called**.

Under-approximate Success

- Why not over-approximate for successful and under-approximate for erroneous termination?
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```

void mkeven()
/* presumes: [true], wrong achieves: [ok: x==2 || x==4] */
{ x=2; }

void usemkeven()
{ mkeven(); if (x==4) {error();} }
  
```

- We don't want false positives!

Setup

- Simple imperative language. `error()` halts execution and raises an error signal, `er`.
- Abnormal control flows impact reasoning about sequential composition
 - Solution: associate assertions with a set of exit conditions ϵ
 - ϵ includes (at least) `ok` for normal termination and `er` caused by `error()`
- $[p]C[\epsilon : q] = q$ under-approximates the states when C exits via ϵ starting from states in p .
- x is **not** free in p iff $\sigma \in p \iff (\forall v. (\sigma|x \mapsto v) \in p)$. **[BUG]**
- Treat p, q semantically (i.e., any $\subseteq \Sigma$, the set of program states) – don't fix a language.
 - By treating assertions semantically, we are essentially appealing to mathematics (or set theory) as an oracle in our proof theory when we use \implies in proof rules.
- $[p]C[\text{ok} : q][\text{er} : r]$ as shorthand for $[p]C[\text{ok} : q]$ and $[p]C[\text{er} : r]$.

Generic Proof Rules - I

Empty under-approximates

$$[p]C[\epsilon: false]$$

Unit

$$[p]skip[ok:p][er:false]$$

Iterate zero

$$[p]C^*[ok:p]$$

Choice (where $i = 1$ or 2)

$$\frac{[p]C_i[\epsilon: q]}{[p]C_1 + C_2[\epsilon: q]}$$

Consequence

$$\frac{p' \Leftarrow p \quad [p]C[\epsilon: q] \quad q \Leftarrow q'}{[p']C[\epsilon: q']}$$

Sequencing (short-circuit)

$$\frac{[p]C_1[er:r]}{[p]C_1; C_2[er:r]}$$

Iterate non-zero

$$\frac{[p]C^*; C[\epsilon: q]}{[p]C^*[\epsilon: q]}$$

Error

$$[p]error()[ok:false][er:p]$$

Disjunction

$$\frac{[p_1]C[\epsilon: q_1] \quad [p_2]C[\epsilon: q_2]}{[p_1 \vee p_2]C[\epsilon: q_1 \vee q_2]}$$

Sequencing (normal)

$$\frac{[p]C_1[ok:q] \quad [q]C_2[\epsilon: r]}{[p]C_1; C_2[\epsilon: r]}$$

Backwards Variant (where n fresh)

$$\frac{[p(n) \wedge nat(n)]C[ok: p(n+1) \wedge nat(n)]}{[p(0)]C^*[ok: \exists n. p(n) \wedge nat(n)]}$$

Assume

$$[p]assume B[ok: p \wedge B][er: false]$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{while } B \text{ do } C &=_{def} (\text{assume}(B); C)^*; \text{assume}(\neg B) \\ \text{if } B \text{ then } C \text{ else } C' &=_{def} (\text{assume}(B); C) + (\text{assume}(\neg B); C') \\ \text{assert}(B) &=_{def} \text{assume}(B) + (\text{assume}(\neg B); \text{error}()) \end{aligned}$$

Figure 6: Generic Proof Rules of Incorrectness Logic (Source: [Incorrectness Logic Paper](#))

Generic Proof Rules - Axioms

- Valid across different models of states and commands
 - Usual: States = Variables \rightarrow Values and Commands = Binary Relations on States
 - Others based on traces, separation logic etc.

Assume $\frac{}{[p] \text{assume } B [ok : p \wedge B] [er : false]}$ Skip $\frac{}{[p] \text{skip} [ok : p] [er : false]}$

Empty under-approximates $\frac{}{[p] C [\epsilon : false]}$

- assume(B) statement : B is a Boolean expression, can be from an otherwise-unspecified first-order logic signature.
- Axioms for assume and skip : give the expected assertions for normal termination, but specify false (the empty set of states) for abnormal.

Generic Proof Rules - Consequence, Disjunction & Choice

$$\text{Consequence} \frac{p' \Leftarrow p \quad [p]C[\epsilon : q] \quad q \Leftarrow q'}{[p']C[\epsilon : q']}$$

$$\text{Disjunction} \frac{[p_1]C[\epsilon : q_1] \quad [p_2]C[\epsilon : q_2]}{[p_1 \vee p_2]C[\epsilon : q_1 \vee q_2]}$$

$$\text{Choice (where } i = 1, 2) \frac{[p]C_i[\epsilon : q]}{[p]C_1 + C_2[\epsilon : q]}$$

- The rule of consequence lets us *enlarge (weaken) the pre* and *shrink (strengthen) the post-assertion*.
 - Allows us to *drop disjuncts in the post* and *drop conjuncts in the pre*.
- ‘*Enlarging the pre was used in the Abductor tool ([Calcagno et al. 2011], which led to Facebook Infer), when guessing pre-conditions in programs with loops.*’
 - Was unsound in the over-approximating logic used there, required a re-execution step which filtered out unsound pre-conditions

Generic Proof Rules - Sequencing and Iteration

Sequencing(short-circuit)

$$\frac{[p] C_1 [\text{er} : r]}{[p] C_1; C_2 [\text{er} : r]}$$

Iterate zero

$$\frac{}{[p] C^* [\text{ok} : p]}$$

Sequencing(normal)

$$\frac{[p] C_1 [\text{ok} : q] \quad [q] C_2 [\epsilon : r]}{[p] C_1; C_2 [\epsilon : r]}$$

Iterate non-zero

$$\frac{[p] C^*; C [\epsilon : q]}{[p] C^* [\epsilon : q]}$$

- The *Iterate zero* rule shows that **any assertion is a valid under-approximate invariant for Kleene iteration**.
 - Loop invariants don't play a central role in under-approximate reasoning. Notion of *subvariants* mentioned in [POPL'23 tutorial](#).
- The *Iterate non-zero* rule uses $C^*; C$ rather than $C; C^*$ to help reasoning about cases where an error is thrown inside an iteration. Will see an example later.

Generic Proof Rules - Derived Choice and Iteration, Backwards Variant

Derived Unrolling Rule

$$\frac{[p] C^i [\epsilon : q_i], \text{ all } i \leq \text{bound}}{[p] C^* [\epsilon : \bigvee_{i \leq \text{bound}} q_i]}$$

Derived Rule of Choice

$$\frac{[p] C_1 [\epsilon : q_1] \quad [p] C_2 [\epsilon : q_2]}{[p] C_1 + C_2 [\epsilon : q_1 \vee q_2]}$$

- One of the things that iteration can do is execute its body i times.
- The *Unrolling* rule gives a similar capability symbolic bounded model checking (but we need the *Backwards Variant* rule too in general).

Backwards Variant (where n fresh)

$$\frac{[p(n) \wedge \text{nat}(n)] C [\epsilon : p(n+1) \wedge \text{nat}(n)]}{[p(0)] C^* [\epsilon : \exists n. p(n) \wedge \text{nat}(n)]}$$

- $p(\cdot)$ = a parameterized predicate (a function from expressions to predicates).

Backwards Variant relation with Program Termination

- $[\text{presumption}] \text{ c } [\epsilon : \text{result}]$ expresses a reachability property that involves termination.
 - *Every state in the result is reachable from some state in the presumption.*
- But this does not imply that a loop must terminate on all executions!
 - Enough paths terminate to cover all the states in result, while other paths may diverge.
- *Backward variant* rule is similar to proof rules for proving program termination (typically use a “variant” that decreases on each loop iteration)
 - But reflects the *backward* nature of this property. p goes down when executing backwards.
- What about the forward variant? $[\exists n . p(n) \wedge \text{nat}(n)] \text{ C}^* [\text{ok} : p(0)]$.

Backwards Variant relation with Program Termination

- [presumption] c [ϵ : result] expresses a reachability property that involves termination.
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 - But reflects the *backward* nature of this property. p goes down when executing backwards.
- What about the forward variant? [$\exists n . p(n) \wedge \text{nat}(n)$] C^* [ok : $p(0)$].
- It is always true :)

Reachability and Liveness

- Liveness : “something (good) will eventually happen”.
- Our reachability property:
 - Backwards: For every state in the result, it is possible to eventually reach a state in the pre by executing backwards.
 - Forwards: If we *explore (enumerate pre-states, backtrack, dovetail)* executions from all pre-states, then eventually any given state in the result will be encountered.
- The “eventually” in our forwards does not concern all paths, rather it is an “existential liveness property”.
- The over-approximating triple $\{\text{pre}\} C \{\text{post}\}$ describes a safety property, that “nothing bad (= not post) will happen”.

Specific Proof Rules - Variables and Mutation

Assignment

$$[p]x = e[ok: \exists x'. p[x'/x] \wedge x = e[x'/x]][er: false]$$

Constancy

$$\frac{[p]C[e: q]}{[p \wedge f]C[e: q \wedge f]} \text{Mod}(C) \cap \text{Free}(f) = \emptyset$$

Substitution I

$$\frac{[p]C[e: q]}{([p]C[e: q])(e/x)} (\text{Free}(e) \cup \{x\}) \cap \text{Free}(C) = \emptyset$$

Nondet Assignment

$$[p]x = \text{nondet}()[ok: \exists x' p][er: false]$$

Local Variable

$$\frac{[p]C(y/x)[e: q]}{[p]\text{local } x.C[e: \exists y.q]} y \notin \text{Free}(p, C)$$

Substitution II

$$\frac{[p]C[e: q]}{([p]C[e: q])(y/x)} y \notin \text{Free}(p, C, q)$$

Figure 7: Rules for Variables and Mutation (Source: [Incorrectness Logic Paper](#))

- Sound when states are functions of type Variables → Values.
- $\text{Mod}(C)$ is the set of variables modified by assignment statements in C , and $\text{Free}(r)$ is the set of free variables in an assertion r .
- e and $\text{nondet}()$ are syntactically distinct.
 - e is an expression built up from a first-order logic signature, can appear within assertions, and is side-effect free.
 - $\text{nondet}()$ does not appear in assertions.

Specific Proof Rules - Variables and Mutation

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Figure 8: Rules for Variables and Mutation (Source: [Incorrectness Logic Paper](#))

- Sound when states are functions of type Variables \rightarrow Values.
- $\text{Mod}(C)$ is the set of variables modified by assignment statements in C , and $\text{Free}(r)$ is the set of free variables in an assertion r .
- e and $\text{nondet}()$ are syntactically distinct.
 - e is an expression built up from a first-order logic signature, can appear within assertions, and is side-effect free.
 - $\text{nondet}()$ does not appear in assertions. **[BUG] in Nondet Assignment rule**

Specific Proof Rules - Assignment

- Incorrectness logic uses Floyd's forward-running assignment axiom rather than Hoare's backwards-running one.

Assignment $\frac{}{[p] \ x = e \ [ok : \exists x' . p[x'/x] \wedge x = e[x'/x]] \ [er : false]}$

- Would the below rule be correct?

Assignment' $\frac{}{[p[e/x]] \ x = e \ [ok : p] \ [er : false]}$

- No! For example, $[y == 42] \ x = 42 \ [ok : x == y]$ is not valid (take the post-state $[x : 3, y : 3]$).

Specific Proof Rules - Substitution, Constancy, & Local Variable Rule

Substitution I
 $(\text{Free}(e) \cup \{x\}) \cap \text{Free}(C) = \emptyset$

Constancy
 $\text{Mod}(C) \cap \text{Free}(f) = \emptyset$

$$\frac{[p] \ C \ [\epsilon : q]}{([p] \ C \ [\epsilon : q])(e/x)}$$

$$\frac{[p] \ C \ [\epsilon : q]}{[p \wedge f] \ C \ [\epsilon : q \wedge f]}$$

Substitution II
 $y \notin \text{Free}(p, C, q)$

Local Variable
 $y \notin \text{Free}(p, C)$

$$\frac{[p] \ C \ [\epsilon : q]}{([p] \ C \ [\epsilon : q])(y/x)}$$

$$\frac{[p] \ C(y/x) \ [\epsilon : q]}{[p] \ \text{local } x. \ C \ [\epsilon : \exists y. q]}$$

- The rules of *Substitution*, *Constancy* & *Consequence* are important for adapting specifications for use in different contexts.

Exercise: Derive rules for assert

- Recall `assert(B) = assume(B) + (assume(!B) ; error())`

$$[p \wedge B] \text{assert}(B) [\text{ok} : (p \wedge B)] [\text{er} : \text{false}]$$

$$[p \wedge \neg B] \text{assert}(B) [\text{ok} : \text{false}] [\text{er} : (p \wedge \neg B)]$$

$$[p] \text{assert}(B) [\text{ok} : (p \wedge B)] [\text{er} : (p \wedge \neg B)]$$

Setup

- Examples motivated by existing tools, *but* “we are not claiming at this time that incorrectness logic leads to better practical results than these mature tools”
- ‘A basic test of a potential foundational formalism is how it expresses a variety of patterns that have arisen naturally.’
- No formal treatment of procedures. Assume summary-like hypotheses for reasoning.

$$[p] \text{ foo}() \text{ [ok : } q \text{] [er : } r \text{]} \vdash [p'] \text{ C [ok : } q' \text{] [er : } r' \text{]}$$

- *Principle of reuse*: Reason about `foo()`'s body once, don't revisit at call sites (aka summary-based analysis - COL729 throwback)

loop0 - I

```

void loop0() {
  /* (default presumes is "true" when not specified)
   * achieves: [ok: x>=0 ] */
  int n = nondet();
  x=0;
  while (n > 0) {
    x = x + n;
    n = nondet();
  }

void client0() { /* achieves: [er: x==200000] */
  loop0();
  if (x == 200000) error(); }

```

- Assuming loop0 summary, can prove client0 spec using below followed by sequencing rule.

$$\frac{[\text{true}] \text{ loop0() } [\text{ok} : x \geq 0] \quad x \geq 0 \iff x == 200000}{[\text{true}] \text{ loop0() } [\text{ok} : x == 200000]}$$

loop0 - II

- How to prove loop0() spec?

loop0 - II

- How to prove `loop0()` spec?
- Just unroll once! Then apply *Local Variable* rule + *Unrolling* rule + *Rule of Consequence*.

```
[ x==0 ]
  if (n>0) {
    [ x==0 && n>0 ]
    x = x+n; n = nondet(); [ x>0 ]
  } else
  { [ x==0 && n<=0 ] skip;
  }
  [ x>0 || (x==0 && n<=0) ]
  assume (n<=0);
  [ (x>0 && n<=0) || (x==0 && n<=0) ]
[ ok: x>=0 && n<=0 ]
```

loop1 - I

```

void loop1()
/* achieves1: [ok: x==0 || x==1 || x==2]
   achieves2: [ok: x>=0] */
{
  x = 0;
  Kleene-star {
    x = x + 1;
  }
}

void client1()
/* achieves: [er: x==200000] */
{
  loop1();
  if ( x==200000 ) error();
}

```

loop1 - II

- Infinitely many paths through `loop1()`, and the loop is not guaranteed to terminate.
- *Unrolling* rule: post-conditions for any finite-depth unrollings of the loop. `achieves1==2` unrollings.
- Not enough to trigger the error in `client1()`. (Unroll 200000 times?)
- Need the backwards variant rule!

$$n \text{ fresh} \frac{[x == n \wedge \text{nat}(n)] \quad x = x + 1 \quad [\text{ok} : x == n + 1 \wedge \text{nat}(n)]}{[x == 0] \quad (x = x + 1)^* \quad [\text{ok} : \exists n. x == n \wedge \text{nat}(n)]}$$

loop2 - I

- Error inside iteration: This is why we need C^* ; C , not C ; C^* !

```
void loop2()  
/* achieves: [er: x==200000] */  
{  
  x = 0;  
  Kleene-star{  
    if (x==200000) error();  
    x = x + 1;  
  }  
}
```

- How can we show this?

loop2 - II

- Use *Backwards Variant* rule ($p(n) = 0 \leq x \leq 200000 \wedge x == n$).

$$[x == 0] (\text{Body})^* [\text{ok} : 0 \leq x \leq 200000]$$

$$[x == 0] (\text{Body})^* [\text{ok} : x == 200000]$$

loop2 - II

- Use *Backwards Variant* rule ($p(n) = 0 \leq x \leq 200000 \wedge x == n$).

$$[x == 0] (\text{Body})^* [\text{ok} : 0 \leq x \leq 200000]$$

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- *Assume + Error + Sequencing + Short-Circuit* gives us

$$[x == 200000] \text{Body} [\text{er} : x == 200000]$$

loop2 - II

- Use *Backwards Variant* rule ($p(n) = 0 \leq x \leq 200000 \wedge x == n$).

$$[x == 0] (\text{Body})^* [\text{ok} : 0 \leq x \leq 200000]$$

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- *Assume + Error + Sequencing + Short-Circuit* gives us

$$[x == 200000] \text{Body} [\text{er} : x == 200000]$$

- *Sequencing*

$$[x == 0] (\text{Body})^*; \text{Body} [\text{er} : x == 200000]$$

loop2 - II

- Use *Backwards Variant* rule ($p(n) = 0 \leq x \leq 200000 \wedge x == n$).

$$[x == 0] (\text{Body})^* [\text{ok} : 0 \leq x \leq 200000]$$

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- *Assume + Error + Sequencing + Short-Circuit* gives us

$$[x == 200000] \text{Body} [\text{er} : x == 200000]$$

- *Sequencing*

$$[x == 0] (\text{Body})^*; \text{Body} [\text{er} : x == 200000]$$

- *Iterate non-zero*

$$[x == 0] (\text{Body})^* [\text{er} : x == 200000]$$

loop3

- What if we used C ; C^* ? The proof for `loop2()` spec would have 200000 applications of *Sequencing*.

```
void loop3()
/* achieves: [er: \exists n (x==n /\ n <= 200000)] */
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  x = 0;
  Kleene-star {
    if (y == 200000) error();
    x = x + 1;
    y = y + 1;
  } }
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loop3

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- But we can be cool and use *Backwards Variant* to derive more general under-approximate assertions than unrolling, and use the original *Iterate non-zero* to derive an error from the general assertion (with just one C statement).

Conditionals

- Use of Boolean conditions that are difficult for current theorem provers to deal with causes expressiveness issues.
 - E.g. multiplication goes beyond the decidable subsets of arithmetic encoded in automatic theorem provers.
- How do tools deal with this? And how can Incorrectness Logic deal with this?

Conditionals - Approach I

```
int difficult(int y)
{
    return (y*y); /* or hash(y) or obfuscated code */
}

void client()
/* achieves1 : [ok: y==49 && x==1] */
{
    int z = nondet();
    if (y == difficult(z))
        x=1;
    else
        x=2;
}
```

- Pragmatic Approach from Dynamic Symbolic Execution: *Concretize symbolic variables*. (replace z with 7).
- Do this in incorrectness logic by *shrinking the post*. Have $[y==z*z]$ assume $(y==difficult(z))$ $[ok: y==z*z]$ and $y == z * z \Leftarrow y == z * z \wedge z == 7$.

Conditionals - Approach II

```

void client()
/* achieves2 : [ok: exists z . (y==difficult(z) && x==1)
  || (y!=difficult(z) && x==2)] */
{
    int z = nondet();
    if (y == difficult(z))
        x=1;
    else
        x=2;
}

void test1()
/* achieves: [er: exists z .
  (y==difficult(z) && x==1)
  || (y != difficult(z) && x==2)] */
{
    client(); if (x==1 || x==2) error();
}
    
```

- Record information lazily (hoping difficulty won't matter, like in test1()).

Conditionals - Approach III

```

void client()
/* achieves3 : [ok: x==1 || x==2] */
{
  int z = nondet();
  if (y == difficult(z))
    x=1;
  else
    x=2;
}

void test2()
{ client(); if (x==2) error(); }

```

- Record disjuncts for both branches, but discard the difficult bits. **Unsound!** (e.g. $[x:1, y:3]$ not reachable).
- Used for pragmatic reasons in tools like SMART, Infer.RacerD.
- RacerD: it is *an under-approximation of an over-approximation*, where the over-approximation arises by replacing Booleans it doesn't understand with nondeterministic choice.

Tool Design Insights

- Infer.RacerD: Tools can make localised unsound decisions, which act as assumptions for further sound steps.
- *'From this perspective, the role of logic is not to produce iron-clad unconditional guarantees, but is to clarify assumptions and their role when making sound inferences.'*
- Infer.Pulse: 20 disjuncts case was ~2.75x wall clock time faster, ~3.1x user time faster, and found 97% of the issues that the 50 disjuncts case found.
 - Choice is not binary! E.g., deploy fast one at code review time, slow one later in the process.

Flaky Tests - I

- “flaky test” : due to nondeterminism, can give different answers on different runs.
- If π is a program path, then
 - $\text{wp}(\pi)q$: States for which execution of π is guaranteed to terminate and satisfy q .
 - $\text{wpp}(\pi)q$: States for which execution of π is possible to terminate and satisfy q .
- We will use these to obtain pre-assertions, then use forward reasoning to obtain under-approximate post-assertions.
- Why do we need these?
 - Because strongest under-approximate presumptions do not exist in general (see 5.2 in paper).

Flaky Tests - II

```

void foo()
/* sturdy pre [x is even], ach [er: x is even][ok: false]
   flaky pre [x is odd], ach [er: x is odd][ok: x is odd] */
{
    if (x is even) error();
    else { if (nondet()) skip; else error(); }
}

void flakey_client()
/* flaky achieves: [er: x==3 || x==5] */
{
    x = 3;
    foo();
    x = x+2;
    assert(x==4);
}

```

- Use $\text{wp}(\text{assume}(x \text{ is even}))$ true for sturdy presumes, $\text{wpp}(\text{assume}(x \text{ is odd}); b = \text{nondet}(); \text{assume}(b))$ true (where b is local) for flaky presumes.

Reasoning about Procedures - I

- For a path without procedure calls - say a sequential composition of assignment, assume and assert statements
 - Can perform strongest post-condition reasoning, which is also under-approximate.
- Can combine together pre/post pairs for a number of paths to get an under-approximate summary for a procedure.
- But then using that summary to reason (*soundly*) about a path containing a procedure call is subtle.
- Even in straight-line code, it is *easy* to get a false positive using strongest post-condition reasoning with Hoare logic.

Reasoning about Procedures - II

```

void inc()
/* presumes1: [x>=0], achieves1: [ok: x>0]
   presumes2: [x==m && m>=0], achieves2: [ok: x==m+1 && m>=0] */
{
    assert(x>=0);
    x=x+1;
}

void client()
/* presumes1: [x>=0], wrong achieves1: [ok: x>0]
   presumes2: [x==m && m>=0], achieves2: [ok: x==m+2 && m>=0] */
{
    inc(); inc(); }

void test()
/* wrong achieves1: [er: x==1]
   achieves2: [er: false] */
{
    x = 0;
    client();
    assert(x>=2);
}
    
```


Reasoning about Procedures - III

- Incorrectness logic prevents the unsound (for bug catching) inference `presumes1/achieves1` for `client()` and thus `test()`.
- A different spec of `inc()`, given by `presumes2/achieves2`, lets us reason about the composition `inc();inc()` in `client()` more positively, to obtain `presumes2/achieves2` as stated for `client()`.
- Note: A procedure spec or summary should carry information about free variables and modified - for `inc()`, x is free and modified, m is not free in the procedure body.
- This allows us to apply rules of *Substitution* and *Constancy* to get `client()` spec from `inc()` spec.

Context and Conclusions

- ‘The theory Infer was based on originally . . . does not match its use to find bugs rather than to prove their absence.’
- Led to RacerD, Pulse program analysers.
- A more general theory of “incorrectness” logic (starting from reverse Hoare logic by de Vries and Koutavas in 2011).
- Related theoretical notions: wlp (weakest liberal precondition), wpp (weakest possible precondition), dynamic logic.
- Each form of reasoning is as fundamental as the other, they just have different principles. Recall:
*For correctness reasoning, you **get to forget information** as you go along a path, but you **must remember** all the paths. For incorrectness reasoning, you **must remember** information as you go along a path, but you **get to forget** some of the paths.*
- Possible extensions to other models, concurrency. Possible reuse of work from termination proving.

Thank You!

Section 6

Appendix

Backwards Variant - Example I

- For any fixed number of iterations, we can just unfold the *Iterate non-zero* rule and use *Iterate zero*. But no. of iterations may be unknown!

```
x = 0;
y = nondet();
while (y != N) do {
  y = y + 1;
  x = x + 1;
}
```

$[x = 0]$ while (y != N) do y = y + 1; x = x + 1 $[ok : \exists n. x == n \wedge na$

Backwards Variant - Example II

```

void loop3()
/* achieves: [er: x == 200000] */
{ x = nondet();
  Kleene-star {
    if (x == 200000) error();
    x = x + 1;
  } }

```

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/* achieves: [er: x == 200000] */
{ x = nondet();
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- Can guess a value k returned by `nondet()` and apply *Sequencing* $200000 - k$ times. Or

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void loop3()
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- Can guess a value k returned by `nondet()` and apply *Sequencing* $200000 - k$ times. Or
- Can be cool and use *Backwards Variant* to derive more general under-approximate assertions than unrolling, and use the original *Iterate non-zero* to derive an error from the general assertion (with just one `C` statement).