Abstract
Unlike safety properties which require the absence of a “bad” program trace, $k$-safety properties stipulate the absence of a “bad” interaction between $k$ traces. Examples of $k$-safety properties include transitivity, associativity, anti-symmetry, and monotonicity. This paper presents a sound and relatively complete calculus, called Cartesian Hoare Logic (CHL), for verifying $k$-safety properties. Our program logic is designed with automation and scalability in mind, allowing us to formulate a verification algorithm that automates reasoning in CHL. We have implemented our verification algorithm in a fully automated tool called DESCARTES, which can be used to analyze any $k$-safety property of Java programs. We have used DESCARTES to analyze user-defined relational operators and demonstrate that DESCARTES is effective at verifying (or finding violations of) multiple $k$-safety properties.

Categories and Subject Descriptors F.3.1 [Logics and Meanings of Programs]: Specifying and Verifying and Reasoning about Programs; D.2.4 [Software Engineering]: Software/Program Verification

Keywords Relational hoare logic; safety hyper-properties; product programs; automated verification

1. Introduction
Following the success of Hoare logic as a formal system to verify program correctness, many tools can prove safety properties expressed as pre- and post-conditions. That is, given a Hoare triple $\{ \Phi \} S \{ \Psi \}$, program verifiers establish that terminating executions of $S$ on inputs satisfying $\Phi$ produce outputs consistent with $\Psi$. Hence, a valid Hoare triple states which input-output pairs are feasible in a single, but arbitrary, execution of $S$.

However, some important functional correctness properties require reasoning about the relationship between multiple program executions. As a simple example, consider determinism, which requires $\forall x, y. \ x = y \Rightarrow f(x) = f(y)$. This property is not a standard safety property because it cannot be violated by any individual execution trace. Instead, determinism is a so-called $2$-safety hyperproperty [10] since we need two execution traces to establish its violation. In general, a $k$-safety (hyper-)property requires reasoning about relationships between $k$ different execution traces.

Even though there has been some work on verifying $2$-safety properties in the context of secure information flow [1, 3, 23] and security protocols of probabilistic systems [2, 4], we are not aware of any general-purpose program logics that allow verifying $k$-safety properties for arbitrary values of $k$. Furthermore, even for $k = 2$, existing tools do not support a high degree of automation.

This paper argues that many important functional correctness properties are $k$-safety properties for $k \geq 2$, and we present Cartesian Hoare Logic (CHL) for verifying general $k$-safety specifications. 1 Our new program logic for $k$-safety is sound, relatively complete, and has been designed to be easy to automate: We have built a verification tool called DESCARTES that fully automates reasoning in CHL and successfully used it to analyze $k$-safety requirements of user-defined relational operators in Java programs.

Motivating Example. To motivate the need for verifying $k$-safety properties, consider the widely used Comparator interface in Java. By implementing the compare method of this interface, programmers can define an ordering between objects of a given type. Unfortunately, writing a correct compare method is notoriously hard, as any valid comparator must satisfy three different $k$-safety properties:

- **P1**: $\forall x, y. \ sgn(compare(x, y)) = -sgn(compare(y, x))$
- **P2**: $\forall x, y, z. \ (compare(x, y) > 0 \land compare(y, z) > 0) \Rightarrow compare(x, z) > 0$

1 We call our calculus Cartesian Hoare Logic because it allows reasoning about the cartesian product of sets of input-output pairs from different runs.
• **P3:** \( \forall x, y, z. \; ( \text{compare}(x, y) = 0 \Rightarrow (\text{sgn}(\text{compare}(x, z)) = \text{sgn}(\text{compare}(y, z))) ) \)

Among these properties, P1 is a 2-safety property, while P2 and P3 are 3-safety properties. For instance, property P2 corresponds to transitivity, which can only be violated by a collection of three different runs of compare. Specifically, two runs where compare(a, b) and compare(b, c) both return positive values, and a third run compare(a, c) that returns zero or a negative value.

To demonstrate that implementing comparators can be hard, consider the compare method shown in Figure 1, which is taken verbatim from a Stackoverflow post. This method is used for sorting poker hands according to their strength and represents hands as strings of 13 characters. In particular, the occurrence of number \( n \) at position \( k \) of the string indicates that the hand contains \( n \) cards of type \( k \). Unfortunately, this method has a logical error when one of the hands is a full house and the other one has 3 cards of a kind; it therefore ends up violating properties P2 and P3. As a result, programs using this comparator either suffer from run-time exceptions or lose elements inserted into collections.

**Cartesian Hoare Logic.** As illustrated by this example, analyzing \( k \)-safety properties is extremely relevant for ensuring software correctness; yet there are no general purpose automated tools for analyzing \( k \)-safety properties. This paper aims to rectify this situation by proposing a general framework for specifying and verifying general \( k \)-safety properties.

In our approach, \( k \)-safety properties are specified using Cartesian Hoare triples of the form \( \parallel \Phi \parallel S \parallel \Psi \parallel \), where \( \Phi \) and \( \Psi \) are first-order formulas that relate \( k \) different program runs. For instance, we can express property P2 from above using the following Cartesian Hoare triple:

\[
\parallel y_1 = x_2 \land x_1 = x_3 \land y_2 = y_1 \parallel \text{compare}(x, y)\{\ldots\} \parallel \text{ret}_1 > 0 \land \text{ret}_2 > 0 \Rightarrow \text{ret}_3 > 0 \parallel
\]

Here, a variable named \( v_i \) refers to the value of program variable \( v \) in the \( i \)th program execution. Hence, the precondition \( \Phi \) states that we are only interested in triples of executions \( (\pi_1, \pi_2, \pi_3) \) where (i) the value of \( y \) in \( \pi_1 \) is equal to the value of \( x \) in \( \pi_1 \) and \( \pi_3 \) are the same, and (ii) the values of \( y \) are the same in \( \pi_2 \) and \( \pi_3 \). The postcondition \( \Psi \) says that, if compare returns a positive value in both \( \pi_1 \) and \( \pi_2 \), then it should also be positive in \( \pi_3 \).

To verify such Cartesian Hoare triples, our new program logic reasons about the Cartesian product of sets of input-output pairs from \( k \) program runs. Specifically, if \( \Sigma \) represents the set of all input-output pairs of code \( S \), then the judgment \( \models \parallel \Phi \parallel S \parallel \Psi \parallel \) is derivable in our calculus iff every \( k \)-tuple in \( \Sigma^k \) that satisfies \( \Phi \) also satisfies \( \Psi \).

The key idea underlying our approach is to reduce the verification of a Cartesian Hoare triple to a standard Hoare triple that can be easily verified. Specifically, our calculus derives judgments of the form \( \langle \Phi \rangle \; (S_1 \oplus \ldots \oplus S_k) \; (\Psi) \) where

| Statement: \( S := A | S; S | S \oplus c | S | [e_1, S_1', \ldots, (e_n, S_n', S_n')]* \) |
| Atom \( A := b | x := e | x[e] := e | e \parallel \sqrt{c} \) |
| Expr \( e := \text{int} | x | x[e] | e \circ \circ \circ \circ \circ \circ | e \parallel \circ \circ \circ \circ \circ \circ | c \land c | c \lor c \lor c \) |
| Cond \( c := \top | \bot | \ast | e \circ \circ \circ \circ \circ \circ | e \parallel \circ \circ \circ \circ \circ \circ | e \parallel \circ \circ \circ \circ \circ \circ | c \land c | c \lor c \lor c \) |

**Figure 2.** Language for formalization. \( \circ \circ \circ \circ \circ \circ \circ \) denote arithmetic and logical operators, and \( \ast \) represents non-deterministic choice.

\( S_1 \oplus \ldots \oplus S_k \) represents a set of programs that simultaneously execute \( S_1, \ldots, S_k \). While every pair of programs \( P, P' \in (S_1 \oplus \ldots \oplus S_k) \) are semantically equivalent, our calculus exploits the fact that some of these programs are much easier to verify than others. Furthermore, and perhaps more crucially, our approach does not explicitly construct the set of programs in \( (S_1 \oplus \ldots \oplus S_k) \) but reasons directly about the provability of \( \Psi \) on tuples of runs that satisfy \( \Phi \).

**Contributions.** To summarize, this paper makes the following key contributions:

- We argue that many natural functional correctness properties are \( k \)-safety properties, and we propose Cartesian Hoare triples for specifying them (Section 3).
- We present a sound and complete proof system called Cartesian Hoare Logic (CHL) for proving valid Cartesian Hoare triples (Section 4).
- We describe a practical algorithm based on CHL for automatically proving \( k \)-safety properties (Section 5).
- We use our techniques to analyze user-defined relational operators in Java and show that our tool can successfully verify (or find bugs in) such methods (Section 7).

**2. Language and Preliminaries**

Figure 2 presents a simple imperative language that we use for formalizing Cartesian Hoare Logic. In this language, atomic statements \( S \) include skip (denoted as \( b \)), assignments \( x := e \), array writes \( x[e] := e \), and assume statements written \( \sqrt{c} \). Statements also include composition \( S; S \) and conditions \( S \oplus c \), which execute \( S_1 \) if \( c \) evaluates to true and \( S_2 \) otherwise. In our language, loops have the syntax \( [(e_1, S_1'), \ldots, (e_n, S_n', S_n')]^* \) which is short-hand for the more conventional loop construct:

```java
while(true) {
    if(c_1) then S_1 else { S_1'; break; }
    ...
    if(c_n) then S_n else { S_n'; break; }
}
```

In this paper, we choose to formalize loops with breaks rather than the simpler loop construct while(c) do S (i.e., \( ([c, S, b])^* \)) because break statements are ubiquitous in real programs and present a challenge for verifying \( k \)-safety.

We assume an operational semantics that is specified using judgments of the form \( \sigma, e \Downarrow \text{int} \) and \( \sigma, S \Downarrow \sigma' \), where \( e \) is a
public int compare(String c1, String c2) {
    if (c1.indexOf('4') != -1 || c2.indexOf('4') != -1) { // Four of a kind
        if (c1.indexOf('4') == c2.indexOf('4')) {
            //... code...
        }
    }
}

Figure 1. A (buggy) comparator for sorting poker hands

```
Figure 4. Example Cartesian Hoare triples

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cartesian Hoare Triple</th>
<th>Valid?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[ x_1 = y_2 \land x_2 = y_1 \land z := x - y \land z_1 = z_2 ]</td>
<td>\xmark</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[ x_1 = y_2 \land x_2 = y_1 \land z := x - y \land z_1 = -z_2 ]</td>
<td>\cmark</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[ x_1 = x_2 \land y_1 = y_2 ; z := 0 \mid z_1 = z_2 ]</td>
<td>\cmark</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[ x_1 = x_2 \land y_1 = y_2 ; z := 1 \mid z_1 = z_2 ]</td>
<td>\xmark</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[ x_1 = x_2 \land (x &lt; 10 \land x := x + 1) \mid x_1 \neq x_2 ]</td>
<td>\cmark</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[ x_1 = x_2 \land (x &lt; 10 \land x := x + 1) \mid x_1 \neq x_2 ]</td>
<td>\xmark</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
```

Intuitively, the validity of \[ ||\Phi|| \mid S \mid ||\Psi|| \] means that, if we run \( S \) on \( k \) inputs whose relationship is given by \( \Phi \), then the resulting outputs must respect \( \Psi \). Hence, unlike a standard Hoare triple for which a counterexample consists of a single execution, a counterexample for a Cartesian Hoare triple includes \( k \) different executions. In the rest of the paper, we refer to the value \( k \) as the arity of the Cartesian Hoare triple.

**Example 1.** Figure 3 shows some familiar properties and their corresponding specification. Among these Cartesian Hoare triples, transitivity and homomorphism correspond to 3-safety properties, and associativity is a 4-safety property. The remaining Cartesian Hoare triples, such as monotonicity, injectivity, and idempotence, have arity 2.

**Example 2.** Figure 4 shows some Cartesian Hoare triples and indicates whether they are valid. For instance, consider the first two rows of Figure 4. For both examples, the precondition tells us to consider a pair of executions \( \pi_1, \pi_2 \) where the values of \( x \) and \( y \) are swapped (i.e., the value of \( x \) in \( \pi_1 \) is the value of \( y \) in \( \pi_2 \) and vice versa). Since the statement of interest is \( z := x - y \), the value of \( z \) in \( \pi_1 \) will be the additive inverse of the value of \( z \) in \( \pi_2 \). Hence, the second Cartesian Hoare triple is valid, but the first one is not.

3.3 Realistic Use Cases for Cartesian Hoare Triples

We now highlight some scenarios where \( k \)-safety properties are relevant in modern programming. Since it is well-known that security properties such as non-interference are 2-safety properties [3, 23], we do not include them in this discussion.
Equality. A ubiquitous programming practice is to implement a custom equality operator for a given type, for example, by overriding the `equals` method in Java. A key property of `equals` is that it must be an equivalence relation (i.e., reflexive, symmetric, and transitive). While reflexivity can be expressed as a standard Hoare triple, symmetry and transitivity are 2 and 3-safety properties respectively. Furthermore, `equals` must satisfy another 2-safety property called consistency, which requires multiple invocations of `x.equals(y)` to consistently return `true` or `false`.

Comparators. Another common programming pattern involves writing a custom ordering operator, for example by implementing the `Comparator` interface in Java or `operator<=` in C++. Such comparators are required to define a total order—i.e., they must be reflexive, anti-symmetric, transitive, and total. Programming errors in comparators are quite common and can have a variety of serious consequences. For instance, such bugs can cause collections to unexpectedly lose elements or not be properly sorted.

Map/Reduce. Map-reduce is a widely-used paradigm for writing parallel code [13, 24]. Here, the user-defined `reduce` function must be associative and stateless. Furthermore, if `reduce` is commutative and associative, then it can be used as a combiner, a “mini-reducer” that can be executed between the map and reduce phases to optimize bandwidth. In concurrent data structures that support `reduce` operations (e.g., the Java `ConcurrentHashMap`), the user-defined function must also be commutative and associative.

### 4. Cartesian Hoare Logic

We now present our program logic (CHL) for verifying Cartesian Hoare triples. The key idea underlying CHL is to verify $\|\Phi\| S \|\Psi\|$ by proving judgements of the form $\langle \Phi \rangle \langle S_1 \oplus \ldots \oplus S_k \rangle \langle \Psi \rangle$ where each $S_i$ corresponds to a different execution of $S$. Here, the notation $S_1 \oplus \ldots \oplus S_k$ represents the set of all programs that are semantically equivalent to simultaneously running $S_1, \ldots, S_k$. However, rather than explicitly constructing this set—or even any program in this set—we only reason about the provability of $\Psi$ on sets of runs that jointly satisfy $\Phi$. Hence, unlike previous approaches for proving equivalence or non-interference [3, 5, 26], our technique does not construct a product program that is subsequently fed to an off-the-shelf verifier. Instead, we combine the verification task with the construction of only the relevant parts of the product program.

To motivate the advantages of our approach over explicit product construction, consider the following specification:

$$\| x_1 > 0 \land x_2 \leq 0 \| S_1 \oplus x > 0 S_2 \| y_1 = -y_2 \|$$

where $S_1$ and $S_2$ are very large code fragments. Now, let $S_{ij}$ represent $S_j[f_j / \vec{x}]$, and let $S_{ijkl}$ be a program that executes $S_{ij}$ and $S_{kl}$ in lockstep. One way to verify our Cartesian Hoare triple is to construct the following product program and feed it to an off-the-shelf verifier:

$$P : (S_{11,21} \oplus x > 0 S_{11,22}) \oplus x > 0 (S_{12,21} \oplus x > 0 S_{12,22})$$

However, this strategy is quite suboptimal: Since the precondition $x_1 > 0 \land x_2 \leq 0$, we are only interested in a small subset of $P$, which only includes $S_{11,22}$. In contrast, by combining semantic reasoning with construction of the relevant Hoare triples, our approach can avoid constructing and reasoning about redundant parts of the product program.

### 4.1 Core Cartesian Hoare Logic

With this intuition in mind, we now explain the core subset of Cartesian Hoare Logic shown in Figure 5. Since our calculus derives judgements of the form $\langle \Phi \rangle S_1 \oplus \ldots \oplus S_n \langle \Psi \rangle$, we first start by defining the product space of two programs $S_1$ and $S_2$, which we denote as $S_1 \oplus S_2$.

**Definition 5. (Product space)** Let $S_1$ and $S_2$ be two statements such that $\text{vars}(S_1) \cap \text{vars}(S_2) = \emptyset$. Then,

$$\langle S_1 \oplus S_2 \rangle = \left\{ S \mid \begin{array}{ll}
\forall \sigma_1, \sigma_2, \sigma_1', \sigma_2'. \\
S_1 \oplus S_2 \downarrow \sigma_1' \land S_2 \oplus S_1 \downarrow \sigma_2'
\end{array} \right\}$$

Intuitively, $S_1 \oplus S_2$ represents the set of programs that are semantically equivalent to the simultaneous execution
of $S_1$ and $S_2$. We generalize this notion of product space to arbitrary values of $k$ and consider product terms $\chi$ of the form $S_1 \ominus \ldots \ominus S_k$ where:

$$
\begin{align*}
[S] &= \{S\} \\
[S \oplus \chi] &= [S \oplus S'] \text{ where } S' \in [\chi]
\end{align*}
$$

Since we want to reason about different runs of the same program, we also define the self-product space as follows:

**Definition 6. (Self product space)**

$$
\begin{align*}
\Box S^1 &= S[\vec{x}_1/\vec{x}]

\Box S^n &= (\Box S^{n-1}) \oplus S[\vec{x}_n/\vec{x}]
\end{align*}
$$

In other words, $\Box S^n$ represents the product space of $n$ different $\alpha$-renamed copies of $S$.

At a high level, the calculus rules shown in Figure 5 derive judgments of the form $\vdash \langle \Phi \rangle \chi \langle \Psi \rangle$ indicating the provability of the standard Hoare triple $\langle \Phi \rangle P \{\Psi\}$ for some program $P \in [\chi]$. Since all programs in $[\chi]$ are semantically equivalent, this means that the Hoare triple $\langle \Phi \rangle P' \{\Psi\}$ is valid for any $P' \in [\chi]$. However, since some programs are easier to verify than other semantically equivalent variants, our calculus enables the verification of a Cartesian Hoare triple $\langle \Phi \rangle S \{\Psi\}$ by considering different variants in the self-product space $\Box S^n$.

We now explain the CHL rules in more detail and highlight how these proof rules allow us to achieve a good combination of flexibility, automatability, and scalability.

**Expand.** The first rule of Figure 5 reduces the verification of an $n$-ary Cartesian Hoare triple $\langle \Phi \rangle S \{\Psi\}$ to the provability of $\langle \Phi \rangle S^n \{\Psi\}$. Since each program $P \in \Box S^n$ is semantically equivalent to the sequential execution of $n$ $\alpha$-renamed copies of $S$, the derivability of $\langle \Phi \rangle S^n \{\Psi\}$ implies the validity of $\langle \Phi \rangle S \{\Psi\}$.

**Lift.** The Lift rule allows us to prove $\langle \Phi \rangle S^n \{\Psi\}$ in the degenerate case where $n = 1$. In this case, we resort to standard Hoare logic to prove the validity of $\langle \Phi \rangle S \{\Psi\}$.

**Skip intro.** The next two rules, labeled $\beta$-intro, allow us to introduce no-ops after statements and at the end of other product terms. These rules are useful for eliminating redundancy in our calculus.

**Skip elim.** The $\beta$-elim rule, which is the analog of the $\beta$-intro 2 rule, eliminates skip statements from product terms. Note that the elimination analog of the $\beta$-intro 1 rule is unnecessary because it is derivable using the other rules.

**Associativity.** The Assoc rule exploits the associativity of operator $\ominus$. To prove $\langle \Phi \rangle (\chi_1 \ominus \chi_2) \ominus \chi_3 \langle \Psi \rangle$, it suffices to show $\langle \Phi \rangle \chi_1 \ominus (\chi_2 \ominus \chi_3) \langle \Psi \rangle$. The associativity rule is very important for the flexibility of our calculus because, together with the commutativity rule, it allows us to consider different interleavings between $k$ program executions.

(Expand)  
\[  \vdash \langle \Phi \rangle \Box S^n \{\Psi\}  \]  
\[ \vdash \langle \Phi \rangle S \{\Psi\}  \]

(Lift)  
\[  \vdash \langle \Phi \rangle S \{\chi\}  \]  
\[ \vdash \langle \Phi \rangle S \{\Psi\}  \]

($\beta$-intro 1)  
\[  \vdash \langle \Phi \rangle S \{\chi\}  \]  
\[ \vdash \langle \Phi \rangle S \{\chi\}  \]

($\beta$-intro 2)  
\[  \vdash \langle \Phi \rangle \chi \ominus b \{\Psi\}  \]  
\[ \vdash \langle \Phi \rangle \chi \ominus b \{\Psi\}  \]

($\beta$-elim)  
\[  \vdash \langle \Phi \rangle \chi \ominus b \{\Psi\}  \]  
\[ \vdash \langle \Phi \rangle \chi \ominus b \{\Psi\}  \]

(Consq)  
\[  \Phi \Rightarrow \Phi' \]  
\[ \chi \Rightarrow \Psi' \]  
\[ \vdash \langle \Phi \rangle \chi \{\Psi\}  \]

(Seq)  
\[  \vdash \langle \Phi \rangle S_1 \{\chi \ominus b\} \]  
\[ S_2 \ominus \{\Psi\} \]  
\[ \vdash \langle \Phi \rangle S_1 \ominus \{\Psi\}  \]

(If)  
\[  \vdash \langle \Phi \rangle S_1 \ominus \{\Psi\}  \]

(Loop)  
\[  \vdash \{\{c_1, S_1, b_1\}, \ldots, \{c_n, S_n, b_n\}\}  \]

Figure 5. Core Cartesian Hoare Logic (CHL)

**Commutativity.** The Comm rule states the commutativity of $\ominus$. Specifically, it says that a proof of $\langle \Phi \rangle \chi_1 \ominus \chi_2 \langle \Psi \rangle$ also constitutes a proof of $\langle \Phi \rangle \chi_2 \ominus \chi_1 \langle \Psi \rangle$.

**Step.** The Step rule allows us to decompose the verification of $\langle \Phi \rangle S_1 \ominus S_2 \langle \chi \{\Psi\} \langle \Psi \rangle$ in the following way: First, we find an auxiliary assertion $\Phi'$ and prove the validity of $\langle \Phi \rangle S_1 \{\Phi'\}$. We can also establish the validity of $\langle \Phi \rangle S_2 \ominus \chi \langle \Psi \rangle$, we obtain a proof of $\langle \Phi \rangle S_1 \ominus \{\Psi\} \langle \Psi \rangle$. This rule turns out to be particularly useful when we can execute $S_2$ and $\chi$ in lockstep, but not $S_1$ and $\chi$.

**Havoc.** This rule allows us to prove $\langle \Phi \rangle \chi \{\forall V. \Phi\}$ for any $\chi$, where $V$ denotes free variables in $\chi$. Note that by, existentially quantifying $V$, we effectively assume that $\chi$ invalidates all facts we know about variables $V$. However, facts involving variables that are not modified by $\chi$ are still valid. The main purpose of the Havoc rule is to prune
irrelevant parts of the state space by combining it with the Consq rule.

**Consequence.** The Consq rule is the direct analog of the standard consequence rule in Hoare logic. As expected, this rule states that we can prove the validity of $\langle \Phi \rangle \chi \langle \Psi \rangle$ by proving $\langle \Phi' \rangle \chi (\langle \Psi' \rangle$ where $\Phi \Rightarrow \Phi'$ and $\Psi' \Rightarrow \Psi$. 

**Example 3.** We now illustrate why the Havoc and Consq rules are very useful. Suppose we would like to prove:

$$(\text{true}) \ x_1 := \text{false} \oplus S_2 \oplus S_3 \ (x_1 \land x_2) \Rightarrow x_3$$

where $S_2, S_3$ are statements over $x_2, x_3$. After using Step to prove $\{\text{true}\} \ x_1 := \text{false} \ \neg x_1$, we end up with proof obligation $(\neg x_1) S_2 \oplus S_3 \ (x_1 \land x_2) \Rightarrow x_3$. Since $S_2, S_3$ do not contain variable $x_1$, we can use Havoc to obtain a proof of $(\neg x_1) S_2 \oplus S_3 \ (\neg x_1)$. Now, since we have $\neg x_1 \Rightarrow (x_1 \land x_2 \Rightarrow x_3)$, the consequence rule allows us to obtain the desired proof. Observe that, even though $S_2$ and $S_3$ are potentially very large program fragments, we were able to complete the proof without reasoning about $S_2 \oplus S_3$ at all.

**Sequence.** The Seq rule allows us to execute statements from different runs in lockstep. In particular, it tells us that we can prove $\langle \Phi \rangle \ S_1 \oplus \ldots \oplus S_n; R_n \oplus \chi \langle \Psi \rangle$ by first showing $\langle \Phi \rangle S_1 \oplus \ldots \oplus S_n \langle \Phi' \rangle$ and then separately constructing a proof of $\langle \Phi' \rangle R_1 \oplus \ldots \oplus R_n \oplus \chi \langle \Psi \rangle$.

**If.** The If rule allows us to “embed” product term $\chi$ inside each branch of $S_1 \oplus \ldots \oplus S_2$. As the next example illustrates, this rule can be useful for simplifying the verification task, particularly when combined with Havoc and Consq.

**Example 4.** Suppose we want to prove:

$$\| \phi_1 \| y := 1 \oplus_{x>0} y := 0 \| \varphi_2 \|

where $\varphi_1$ is $x_1 = \neg x_2 \land x_1 \neq 0$ and $\varphi_2$ is $y_1 + y_2 = 1$. After applying the Expand and If rules (combined with $\text{elim$ and intro$}$), we end up with the following two proof obligations:

1. $\langle \varphi_1 \land x_1 > 0 \rangle y_1 := 1 \oplus (y_2 := 1 \oplus_{x_2>0} y_2 := 0) \ (\varphi_2)$
2. $\langle \varphi_1 \land x_1 \leq 0 \rangle y_1 := 0 \oplus (y_2 := 1 \oplus_{x_2>0} y_2 := 0) \ (\varphi_2)$

Let’s only focus on (1), since (2) is similar. Using first Comm and then If, we generate the following proof obligations:

1a. $\langle \varphi_1 \land x_1 > 0 \land x_2 > 0 \rangle y_2 := 1 \oplus y_1 := 1 \ (\varphi_2)$
1b. $\langle \varphi_1 \land x_1 > 0 \land x_2 \leq 0 \rangle y_2 := 0 \oplus y_1 := 1 \ (\varphi_2)$

Since the precondition of (1a) is unsatisfiable, we can immediately discharge it using Havoc and Consq. We can also discharge (1b) by computing its postcondition $y_2 = 0 \land y_1 = 1$, which can be obtained using Step, $\text{intro$, $\text{elim$,$ and Lift$}$.

Note that we could even verify this property using a path-sensitive analysis (e.g., the polyhedra [11] or octagon [17] abstract domains) using the above proof strategy. In particular, conceptually embedding the second program inside the then and else branches of the first program greatly simplifies the proof. While we could also prove this simple property using self-composition, the proof would require a path-sensitive analysis.

**Loop.** At a conceptual level, the Loop rule allows us to reason about $L = [(c_1, S_1, S_1'), \ldots, (c_n, S_n, S_n')] \oplus \chi$ as though $\chi$ was “embedded” inside each exit (break) point of $L$. In particular, this rule first reasons about the first $k-1$ iterations of the loop (i.e., all except the last one) and then considers $L_k \oplus \chi$ where $L_k$ represents the computation performed during the last iteration.

Let us now consider this rule in more detail. The first two lines of the premise state that $\overline{I}$ is an inductive invariant of the first $k-1$ iterations of $L$, where $k$ denotes the number of iterations of $L$. Hence, we know that $\overline{I}$ holds at the end of the $k-1$th iteration. Now, we essentially perform a case analysis: When the loop terminates, one of the $c_i$’s must be false, but we don’t know which one, so we try to prove $\Psi$ for each of the $n$ possibilities. Specifically, suppose $L$ terminated because $c_i$ was the first condition to evaluate to false during the $k$th iteration. In this case, we need to symbolically execute $S_1, \ldots, S_{i-1}$ before we can reason about $S_i \oplus \chi$. For this purpose, we define $\text{post}(i)$ as follows:

$$\text{post}(i)(\overline{I}) = \overline{I} \quad \text{post}(i)(\overline{I}) = \text{post}(\text{post}(i-1)(\overline{I}) \land \neg c_{i-1}, S_{i-1})$$

where $\text{post}(\phi, S)$ denotes a post-condition of $S$ with respect to $\phi$. Hence, $\text{post}(i)(\overline{I})$ represents facts that hold right before executing $(c_i, S_i, S_i')$. Now, if the loop terminates due to condition $c_i$, we need to prove $\Psi$ holds after executing $S_i' \oplus \chi$ assuming $\text{post}(i-1)(\overline{I}) \land \neg c_i$. Hence, if we can establish $\langle \text{post}(i-1)(\overline{I}) \land \neg c_i \rangle S_i' \oplus \chi \langle \Psi \rangle$ for all $i \in [1, n]$, this also gives us a proof of $\langle \Phi \rangle [(c_1, S_1, S_1'), \ldots, (c_n, S_n, S_n')] \oplus \chi \langle \Psi \rangle$.

**Example 5.** Consider the following loop $L$:

$$(i < n, h, b), (a[i] \geq b[i], h, r:= -1), (a[i] \leq b[i], i++, r:= 1)$$

which often arises when implementing a lexicographic order. Suppose we want to prove the following $\overline{S}$-safety property:

$$\forall r_1 < 0 \land r_2 \leq 0 \Rightarrow r_3 \leq 0$$

We can verify this Cartesian Hoare triple using our Loop rule and loop invariant $\forall j, 0 \leq j < i \Rightarrow a[j] = b[j]$. However, this invariant is not sufficient if we try to verify this code using self-composition.

**4.2 Cartesian Loop Logic**

The core calculus we have considered so far is sound and relatively complete, but it does not allow us to execute loops from different runs in lockstep. Since lockstep execution can greatly simplify the verification task (e.g., by requiring simpler invariants), we have augmented our calculus with additional rules for reasoning about loops. These proof rules, which we refer to as “Cartesian Loop Logic” are summarized in Figure 6 and explained next.
(Transform – single)  

$$[(c, S, S')]^* \rightsquigarrow [(c, S, b)]^*; \sqrt{\neg c}; S'$$

(Transform – multi)  

$$[R]^* \rightsquigarrow [(c', S', b)]^*; S'' \quad c'' = c_1 \land \wp(c', S_1)$$  

\begin{align*}
&{(c_1, S_1, S_1'), R}^* \rightsquigarrow [(c'', S_1, S', b)]^*; (\sqrt{\neg c_1; S''}) \oplus_* (\sqrt{\neg c_1; S_1'})
\end{align*}

(Flatten)  

$$[L]^* \rightsquigarrow [(c, B, b)]^*; R \vdash \langle \Phi \rangle [(c, B, b)]^*; R \equiv \chi \langle \Psi \rangle$$

\begin{align*}
&\vdash \langle I \land \bigwedge_{1\leq i\leq n} c_i \rangle S_1 \oplus \ldots \oplus S_n \langle \emptyset angle \\
&\vdash \langle I \land \neg c_1 \rangle \bigl[[(c_2, S_2, b)]^* \oplus \ldots \oplus [(c_n, S_n, b)]^*\bigr] \langle \Psi \rangle
\end{align*}

(Fusion 1)  

$$\vdash \langle I \land \bigwedge_{1\leq i\leq n} c_i \rangle S_1 \oplus \ldots \oplus S_n \langle \emptyset \rangle$$

(Fusion 2)  

\begin{align*}
&\vdash \langle I \land \neg c_n \rangle \bigl[[(c_{n-1}, S_{n-1}, b)]^* \oplus \ldots \oplus [(c_1, S_1, b)]^*\bigr] \langle \Psi \rangle
\end{align*}

\(n \geq 2, \Phi \Rightarrow \emptyset\)  

Figure 6. Cartesian Loop Logic (CLL)

Transform. The first two rules, labeled Transform-single and Transform-multi, allow us to “rewrite” complicated loops \(L\) containing break statements into code snippets of the form while(C) do {S}; S’. These rules derive judgments of the form \(L \rightsquigarrow S\) stating that any Hoare triple that is valid for \(S\) is also valid for \(L\). In particular, while \(L\) and \(S\) may not be semantically equivalent, our transformation \(L \rightsquigarrow S\) guarantees that any valid Hoare triple \(\{\Phi\} S \{\Psi\}\) implies the validity of \(\{\Phi\} L \{\Psi\}\).

Let us first consider the Transform-single rule where the loop contains a single break statement. This rule simply “rewrites” the loop \([(c, S, S')]^*\) to \([(c, S, b)]^*; \sqrt{\neg c}; S']\). In other words, it says that we can replace \(S'\) with a skip statement and simply execute \(S'\) once the loop terminates.

The Transform-multi rule handles loops containing multiple break points. In particular, suppose we have a loop \(L\) of the form \([(c_1, S_1, S_1'), R]^*\) and suppose that \(R^* \rightsquigarrow [(c', S', b)]^*; S''\). This means that \(R\) is semantically equivalent to \((c', S', b)\) in all iterations of \(L\) except the last one. Hence, the loop \(L' : [(c_1, S_1, b), (c', S', b)]^*\) is also equivalent to \(L\) under all valuations in which \(L\) executes at least once more. Furthermore, if \(\wp(c', S_1)\) denotes the weakest precondition of \(c'\) with respect to \(S_1\), then \(L'\) (and therefore \(L\)) is also equivalent to \(L'' : [(c_1 \land \wp(c', S_1), S_1; S', b)]^*\) under all valuations in which \(L\) executes one or more times.

Now, let’s consider the last iteration of \(L\). There are two possibilities: Either we broke out of the loop because \(c_1\) evaluated to false or some other condition \(c_i\) in \(R\) evaluated to false. In the former case, we can assume \(\neg c_1\) and we need to execute \(S'_1\). In the latter case, we can assume \(c_1\) and we still need to execute \(S_1\) as well as the “part” of \(R\) that is executed in the last iteration, which is given by \(S''\). Hence, we can soundly reason about the last iteration of \(L\) using \((\sqrt{\neg c_1; S_1}; S'') \oplus_* (\sqrt{\neg c_1; S_1})\).

Example 6. Consider again loop \(L\) from Example 5. Using Transform rules of Figure 6, we have \(L \rightsquigarrow S\) where \(S\) is:

\[[(i < n \land a[i] = b[i], i++, b)]^*; \]

\[\sqrt{\neg c_1; (\sqrt{\neg c_2; c_3; r := 1 + \ldots \sqrt{\neg c_2; c_3; r := -1}) \oplus_* \neg c_1} \]

Here, \(c_1, c_2, c_3\) represent \(i < n, a[i] \geq b[i]\), and \(a[i] \leq b[i]\).

Flatten. The Flatten rule uses the previously discussed Transform rules to simplify the proof of \(\langle \Phi \rangle [L]^* \langle \Psi \rangle\). In particular, it first “rewrites” \([L]^*\) as \(S\) and then proves the validity of \(\langle \Phi \rangle S \equiv \chi \langle \Psi \rangle\). This proof rule is sound since \(\langle \Phi \rangle S \langle \varphi \rangle\) always implies the validity of \(\langle \Phi \rangle [L]^* \langle \varphi \rangle\) for any \(\varphi\) whenever \([L]^* \rightsquigarrow S\). As we will see shortly, the Flatten rule can make proofs significantly easier, particularly when combined with the Fusion rules explained below.

Fusion 1. This rule effectively allows us to perform lock-step execution for loops \(L_1, \ldots, L_n\) that always execute the same number of times. Observe that this rule requires each \(L_i\) to contain a single break point; hence, if this requirement is violated, we must first apply the Flatten rule.

Let us now consider this rule in more detail. Recall that \(S_1 \oplus \ldots \oplus S_n\) is the set of programs that are semantically equivalent to \(S_1; \ldots; S_n\). Hence, the first two lines of the premise effectively state that \(I\) is an inductive invariant of:

\[L : [(c_1 \land \ldots \land c_n, S_1; \ldots; S_n, b)]^*\]

Furthermore, the third line of the premise tells us that every \(c_i\) will evaluate to false when \(L\) terminates, which, in turn,

---

2 The careful reader may wonder whether the last iteration of the loop could be accounted for using \(S_1; S'' \oplus c_1, S'_1\). This reasoning would not be sound since \(c_1\) may be modified in \(S_2, \ldots, S_n\).
indicates that all \(L_i\)'s always execute the same number of times. Thus, \(\Pi \land \neg \bigwedge_i c_i\) is a valid post-condition of \(L_1 \otimes \ldots \otimes L_n\) under precondition \(\Phi\).

**Example 7.** Consider loop \(L\) from Example 5, and suppose we want to verify the following Cartesian Hoare triple:

\[
[\Phi] r_1 = r_2 = 0 \land i_1 = i_2 = 0 \land \Psi
\]

where \(\Phi\) is \(a_1 = b_2 \land b_1 = a_2 \land a_1 \neq b_1\) and \(\Psi\) is \(r_1 < 0 \Rightarrow r_2 \geq 0\). After applying \(Seq\), we generate the following proof obligation:

\[
(\Phi \land r_1 = r_2 = 0 \land i_1 = i_2 = 0) \land L_1 \otimes L_2 \langle \Psi \rangle
\]

We then apply Flatten to both \(L_1\) and \(L_2\), which yields the following proof obligation:

\[
(\Phi \land r_1 = r_2 = 0 \land i_1 = i_2 = 0) \land L_1' \otimes S_1' \otimes L_2' \langle \Psi \rangle
\]

where \(L_1', L_2'\) are \(\alpha\)-renamed versions of the loop obtained in Example 6 and \(S_1, S_2\) are \(\alpha\)-renamed versions of \(S\) from Example 6. We now apply \(Seq\) again, grouping together \(L_1\) and \(L_2\), and then use Fusion to obtain a post-condition \(\Psi'\):

\[
(\Phi \land r_1 = r_2 = 0 \land i_1 = i_2 = 0) \land L_1' \otimes L_2' \langle \Psi' \rangle
\]

Using the loop invariant \(\Phi \land i_1 = i_2\) and the Fusion and \(Consq\) rules, we can obtain the post-condition \(\Psi' = (\Phi \land i_1 = i_2)\). This finally leaves us with the proof obligation \((\Phi') \land S_1' \otimes S_2' \langle \Psi \rangle\), which is easy to discharge using \(If\) and \(Havoc\): Note that the post-condition can only be violated in the branches where \(r_1\) and \(r_2\) are both assigned to \(-1\). However since \(r_1 := -1\) and \(r_2 := -1\) only execute when \(a_1[i_1] < b_1[i_1]\) and \(a_2[i_2] < b_2[i_2]\) respectively, the precondition \(\Phi \land i_1 = i_2\) implies \(\neg (a_1[i_1] < b_1[i_1] \land a_2[i_2] < b_2[i_2])\). Hence, the original Cartesian Hoare triple is valid.

Observe that the Flatten and Fusion rules allow us to verify the desired property using the simple loop invariant \(i_1 = i_2\) without requiring any quantified array invariants.

**Fusion 2.** The Fusion 2 rule is similar to Fusion 1 and allows us to perform partial lockstep execution when we cannot prove that loops \(L_1, \ldots, L_k\) execute the same number of times. Conceptually, this rule “executes” the lock bodies \(S_1, \ldots, S_n\) in lockstep until one of the continuation conditions \(c_i\) becomes false. Then, the rule proceeds with a case analysis: Assuming \(c_i\) is the first condition to evaluate to false, we potentially still need to execute loops \(L_1, \ldots, L_i-1, L_{i+1}, \ldots, L_n\). Furthermore, when we execute these loops, we can assume the loop invariant \(I\) of the first loop as well as condition \(\neg c_i\) (since we are assuming that \(c_i\) is the first condition to evaluate to false). Hence, lines 3-5 in the premise verify the following proof obligation for each \(i\):

\[
(\Pi \land \neg c_i) \land L_1 \otimes \ldots \otimes L_{i-1} \otimes L_{i+1} \otimes \ldots \otimes L_n \langle \Psi \rangle
\]

**Theorem 1 (Soundness).** If \(\models [\Phi] S \langle \Psi \rangle\), then \(\models [\Phi] S \langle \Psi \rangle\).

**Proof.** The proof is given in Appendix A. \(\square\)

**5. Verification Algorithm Based on CHL**

We now describe how to incorporate the CHL proof rules into a useful verification algorithm. At a high level, there are three important ideas: First, since the Havoc and \(Consq\) rules can greatly simplify the verification task, our algorithm applies these rules at every opportunity. Second, we always prefer the \(If\) rule over other rules like \(Seq\) or \(Step\), as this strategy avoids reasoning about parts of \(\Pi S^0\) that contradict the desired precondition. Third, we try to maximize opportunities for lockstep execution of loops. For example, we use Associativity and Commutativity in a way that tries to maximize possible applications of the Fusion rules.

Our verification algorithm is presented in Figure 7: \(k\)-\text{Verify} takes as input pre- and post-conditions \(\Phi, \Psi\), product term \(\chi\), and returns true iff we can prove \(\langle \Phi \rangle \chi' \langle \Psi \rangle\). As a first step, we check if \(\langle \Phi \rangle \chi \langle \Psi \rangle\) can be verified using only the Havoc and \(Consq\) rules (lines 4–5).

Next, the algorithm performs pattern matching on \(\chi\) in lines 6–21. In the base case, \(\chi\) is a single program \(S\), so we simply invoke a procedure \(\text{Verify}\) for proving the standard Hoare triple \(\{\Phi\} S \{\Psi\}\) (line 7). The next case \(b \oplus \chi'\) at line 8 is equally simple; in this case, we proceed by applying \(\neg\)-elimination to verify \(\langle \Phi \rangle \chi' \langle \Psi \rangle\).
The next two cases concern terms $\chi$ that start with a loop. In particular, the pattern at line 9 checks if $\chi$ is of the form $[L_1]^{*}; S_1 \odot \ldots \odot [L_n]^{*}; S_n$ (i.e., all programs start with a loop).

In this case, we apply one of the Fusion rules from Figure 6. Towards this, we invoke the helper function $\text{K-VERIFYLOOP}$ which chooses between the proof tactics from Figure 6 and which we consider in more detail later. On the other hand, if the first program starts with a loop (but not all the remaining ones), we then use Commutativity (line 12) with the hope that we will eventually find matching loops in all programs (i.e., match line 9 in a future recursive call).

Continuing with line 13, we next pattern match on terms of the form $A; S \odot \chi'$ where the first program starts with an atom $A$. Since we can compute the strongest postcondition for atomic statements in an exact way, we apply the Step rule and generate a new proof obligation $\langle \text{post}(A, \Phi) \rangle S \odot \chi' \langle \Psi \rangle$ where $\text{post}(A, \Phi)$ denotes the (strongest) postcondition of $A$ with respect to $\Phi$.

Next, consider the case where $\chi$ starts with a program whose first statement is $S_1 \odot_c S_2$. In this case, we apply the If rule rather than the Step rule, as this strategy has two advantages: First, as we saw in Example 4, this rule often simplifies the verification task. Second, since one of $\Phi \land c$ or $\Phi \land \neg c$ may be unsatisfiable, we might be able to easily discharge the new proof obligations in the recursive calls to $\text{K-VERIFY}$ using the Consequence rule.

The next case at line 19 applies to product terms of the form $S \odot \chi'$. Note that we only match this case if $S$ consists of a single loop or conditional. Since we would like to apply the appropriate rules for conditionals and loops, we use $\triangleright$ intro and then make a recursive call — this strategy ensures that we will check all cases at lines 9, 11, or 15 in the next recursive call.

The final case at line 20 exploits associativity: If the first term of $\chi'$ is not a single program, but rather another product term of the form $\chi_1 \odot \chi_2$, we apply associativity. This tactic guarantees that $\chi'$ will eventually be of the form $S \odot \chi'$ in one of the future recursive calls.

Let us now turn our attention to the auxiliary procedure $\text{K-VERIFYLOOP}$ shown in Figure 8. The interface of this function is the same as that of $\text{K-VERIFY}$, but it is only invoked on terms of the form $[L_1]^{*}; S_1 \odot \ldots \odot [L_n]^{*}; S_n$ (i.e., all programs start with a loop). The goal of $\text{K-VERIFYLOOP}$ is to determine which loop-related proof rule to use.

In the case analysis of lines 2-21, we first check whether all terms in $\chi$ start with loops of the form $[c, S, b]^*$, and if so, we apply one of the Fusion rules from Figure 6. Towards this goal, we invoke a function called $\text{FINDINV}$ which returns a formula $\langle \llbracket I \land \neg \bigwedge_i c_i \rangle \langle S_1 \odot \ldots \odot S_n \rangle \llbracket I \rangle$.

Continuing with lines 6-12, we next check whether it is legal to apply the simpler Fusion 1 rule or whether it is necessary to use the more general Fusion 2 rule. If it is the case that $(\llbracket I \land \neg \bigwedge_i c_i \rrbracket \rightarrow \bigwedge_i c_i) \Rightarrow \bigwedge_i \neg c_i$, all loops execute the same number of times, so we can apply Fusion 1.

Otherwise, we apply the more general Fusion 2 rule. In particular, the recursive calls at line 11 correspond to discharging the proof obligations in the premises of the Fusion 2 rule from Figure 6. Here, the call to the auxiliary procedure to $\text{REMOVE}$ returns the following formula:

$$[(c_1, S_1, b)]^*; R_1 \odot \ldots \odot [(c_{i-1}, S_{i-1}, b)]^*; R_{i-1} \odot [(c_i, S_i, b)]^*; R_i \odot [(c_{i+1}, S_{i+1}, b)]^*; R_{i+1} \odot \ldots \odot [(c_n, S_n, b)]^*; R_n$$

Observe that we return true if and only if we can discharge all proof obligations for every $i \in [1, n]$.

Now consider the final case at line 13 of the algorithm. In this case, we know that not all loops are of the form $(c, S, b)^*$, so it may not be possible to apply the Fusion rules. Hence, we first apply the Transform rules from Figure 6 to rewrite the first loop in the form $[(c, S, b)]^*$. If this rewrite is possible, we then apply the Flatten rule at line 15; otherwise, we resort to the Loop rule from Figure 5. 3 Observe that recursive calls to $\text{K-VERIFY}$ at line 20 correspond to the proof obligations in the premise of the Loop rule from Figure 5.

Theorem 3 (Termination). $\text{K-VERIFY}(\Phi, \chi, \Psi)$ terminates for every $\Phi, \chi, \Psi$.

Proof. The proof is given in Appendix A.

---

3 Recall that the Transform rules from Figure 6 require computing weakest preconditions, which may be difficult to do in the presence of nested loops.
6. Implementation

We implemented the verification algorithm from Section 5 in a tool called DESCartes, written in Haskell. DESCartes uses the Haskell language-java package to parse Java source code and the Z3 SMT solver [12] for determining satisfiability. Our implementation models object fields with uninterpreted functions and uses axioms for library methods implemented by the Java SDK.

The main verification procedure in DESCartes receives a Cartesian Hoare triple that is composed of a method in the IR format, the arity of the specification, and the pre- and post-conditions. It then generates k alpha-renamed methods and applies the k-VERIFY algorithm from Section 5. If the specification is not respected, DESCartes outputs the Z3 model that can used to construct a counterexample.

As a design choice, our loop invariant generator (i.e., the implementation of FIndINV) is decoupled from the main verification method since we aim to experiment with several loop invariant generation techniques in the future. Currently, our implementation of FIndINV follows standard guess-and-check methodology [14, 20]:

1. A guess procedure guesses a candidate invariant I. Currently, we generate candidate invariants by instantiating set of built-in templates with program variables and constants which include (i) equalities and inequalities between pairs of variables and (ii) quantified invariants of the form \( \forall j. \bullet \leq j < \bullet \Rightarrow \bullet \circ \ op \ \bullet \) where \( \bullet \) indicates an unknown expression to be instantiated with variables and constants.

2. A check procedure verifies if candidate invariant I is inductive. This is performed by discharging two verification conditions (VCs):

   - The pre-condition implies I;
   - The cartesian hoare triple given by Eq (2) in Section 6 is valid. The validity of this cartesian hoare triple is checked by a recursive call to K-VERIFY.

7. Experimental Evaluation

To evaluate our approach, we used DESCartes to verify user-defined relational operators in Java programs, including compare, compareTo, and equals. We believe this application domain is a good testbed for our approach for multiple reasons: First, as mentioned in Section 3, these relational operators must obey multiple k-safety properties, allowing us to consider five different k-safety properties in our evaluation. Second, since comparators and equals methods are ubiquitous in Java, we can test our approach on a variety of different applications. Third, comparators are notoriously tricky to get right; in fact, web forums like Stackoverflow abound with questions from programmers who are trying to debug their comparator implementations.

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<td>✗ 6.19</td>
<td>✗ 0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WORD†</td>
<td>✗ 0.24</td>
<td>✗ 0.52</td>
<td>✗ 0.28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 9. Evaluation on Stackoverflow examples.

The goal of our experimental evaluation is to explore the following questions: (1) Is DESCartes able to successfully uncover k-safety property violations in buggy programs? (2) Is DESCartes practical? (i.e., how long does verification take, and how many false positives does it report?) (3) How does DESCartes compare with competing approaches such as self-composition [1] and product construction [3, 5]?

To answer these three questions, we performed three sets of experiments. In the first experiment, we consider examples of buggy comparators from Stackoverflow as well as their repaired versions. In the second experiment, we use DESCartes to analyze equals, compare, and compareTo methods that we found in industrial-strength Java projects from Github. In our third experiment, we compare DESCartes with the self-composition and product construction approaches and report our findings. In what follows, we describe these experiments in more detail.

7.1 Buggy Examples from Stackoverflow

We manually curated a set of 34 comparator examples from on-line forums such as Stackoverflow. In many online discussions that we looked at, a developer posts a buggy comparator
Often with quite tricky program logic—and asks other forum users for help with fixing his/her code. Hence, we were often able to extract a buggy comparator together with its repaired version from each Stackoverflow post. Given this collection of benchmarks containing both buggy and correct programs, we used DESCARTES to check whether each comparator obeys properties P1-P3 required by the Java Comparator and Comparable interfaces.

The results of our evaluation are presented in Figure 9, and the benchmarks are provided under supplemental materials. For a buggy comparator called COMPARE, the benchmark labeled COMPARE† describes its repaired version. For the column labeled V, ✓ indicates that DESCARTES was able to verify the property, and ✗ means that DESCARTES reported a violation of the property. For a few benchmarks, (e.g., CATBPOS), the post did not contain the correct version of the comparator and the problem did not seem to have a simple fix; hence, Figure 9 does not include the repaired versions of a few benchmarks.

From Figure 9, we see that DESCARTES automatically verifies all correct comparators and does not report any false alarms. Furthermore, for each buggy program, DESCARTES pinpoints the violated property and provides a counterexample. Finally, the running times of the tool are quite reasonable: On average, DESCARTES takes 1.21 seconds per benchmark to analyze all relevant k-safety properties.

### 7.2 Relational Operators from Github Projects

In our second experiment, we evaluated our approach on equals, compare, and compareTo methods assembled from top-ranked Java projects on Github, such as Apache Storm, libGDX, Android and Netty. Towards this goal, we wrote a script to collect relational operators satisfying certain complexity criteria, such as containing loops or at least 20 lines of code and 4 conditionals. Our script also filters out comparators containing features that are currently not supported by our tool (e.g., bitwise operators, reflection).

In total, we ran DESCARTES over 2000 LOC from 62 relational operators collected from real-world Java applications (provided under supplemental materials). Specifically, our benchmarks contain 28 comparators and 34 equals methods. In terms of running time, DESCARTES takes an average of 9.14 seconds to analyze all relevant k-safety properties of the relational operator. Furthermore, the maximum verification time across all benchmarks is 55.27 seconds. Among the analyzed methods, DESCARTES was able to automatically verify all properties in 52 of the 62 benchmarks. Upon manual inspection of the remaining 10 relational operators, we discovered that DESCARTES reported 5 false positives, owing to weak loop invariants. However, the five remaining methods turned out to be indeed buggy— they violate at least one of the three required k-safety properties.

In summary, DESCARTES was able to verify complex real-world Java relational operators with a very low false positive rate of 8%. Furthermore, DESCARTES was able to uncover five real bugs in widely-used and well-tested Java projects. We believe this experiment demonstrates that reasoning about k-safety properties is difficult for programmers and that tools like DESCARTES can help programmers uncover non-trivial logical errors in their code.

### 7.3 Comparison with Self-Composition and Product

In our last experiment, we compare DESCARTES with two competing approaches, namely the self-composition [1] and product construction [3, 5] methods, which are the only existing techniques for verifying k-safety properties. Recall that both of these approaches explicitly construct a new program that is subsequently fed to an off-the-shelf verifier. To compare our technique with these approaches, we use the non-buggy benchmarks considered in Sections 7.1 and 7.2.

#### Self-composition. Given Cartesian Hoare triple \(|\Phi \parallel S \parallel \Psi|\) of arity \(k\), we emulate the self-composition approach by generating \(k\)-alpha-renamed copies of \(S\) and then verifying the standard Hoare triple \(\{\Phi\}S_1;\ldots;S_k\{\Psi\}\). However, for the benchmarks from Sections 7.1 and 7.2, this strategy fails to verify more than half (52%) of the examples. Furthermore, for the examples where self composition is able to prove the relevant k-safety properties, it is \(\sim 20\times\) slower compared to DESCARTES. We believe this result demonstrates that self-composition is not a viable strategy for verifying k-safety properties in many programs.

#### Product programs. As mentioned earlier, another strategy for verifying k-safety is to explicitly construct a so-called product program and use an off-the-shelf verifier. Unfortunately, there is no existing tool for product construction in Java, and there are several possible heuristics one can use for constructing the product program. Furthermore, previous work on sound product construction [3] only considers loops of the form \(\text{while}(C)\; \text{do}\; S\), making it difficult to apply this technique to our benchmarks, almost all of which contain break or return statements inside loops.

Hence, even though a completely reliable comparison with the product construction approach is not feasible, we tried to emulate this approach by considering two different strategies for product construction:

- **S1**: We eliminated break statements in loops in the standard way by introducing additional boolean variables.
- **S2**: We eliminated break statements in loops by using our Transform rules from Figure 6.

In both strategies, our product construction tries to maximize the use of the Fusion rules from Figure 6, since this rule appears to be critical for successful verification.

---

1 The product construction described in [5] can, in principle, handle arbitrary control flow. However, the generated product program is only sound under certain restricted conditions, which must be verified using non-trivial verification conditions.

2 In this approach, \(\text{while}(\text{true})\{S;\; \text{if}(b)\; \text{break;})\) is modeled as \(f=\text{true};\; \text{while}(f)\{S;\; \text{if}(b)\; f=\text{false;})\)
Product construction with S1. In terms of the overall outcome, this product construction strategy yielded results very similar to self-composition. In particular, we were only able to verify half of the benchmarks (50.7% to be exact), and analysis time was a lot longer (143 seconds/benchmark for product construction vs. 8 seconds for DESCARTES). While it may be possible to decrease the false positive rate of this approach using a more sophisticated invariant generator, this result demonstrates that our approach is effective even when used with a relatively simple invariant generation technique.

Product construction with S2. When using strategy S2 together with the Fusion rules of Figure 6, we were able to prove 85% of the correct benchmarks, but verification became significantly slower. In particular, DESCARTES is, on average, $\sim 21 \times$ faster compared to the explicit product construction approach, and, in several cases, three orders of magnitude faster. However, since the Transform rule is a contribution of this paper, it is entirely unclear whether previous product construction approaches can verify the 71 correct benchmarks we consider here.

8. Related Work

The term 2-safety property was originally introduced by Terauchi and Aiken [23]. They define a 2-safety property to be “a property which can be refuted by observing two finite traces” and show that non-interference [16, 19] is a 2-safety property. Clarkson and Schneider generalize this notion to $k$-safety hyperproperties and specify such properties using second-order formulas over traces [10]. However, they do not consider the problem of automatically verifying $k$-safety.

Self-composition. Barthe et al. propose a method called self-composition for verifying secure information flow [1]. In essence, this method reduces 2-safety to standard safety by sequentially composing two alpha-renamed copies of the same program. Self-composition is, in theory, also applicable for verifying $k$-safety since we can create $k$ alpha-renamed copies of the program and use an off-the-shelf verifier. While theoretically complete, self-composition does not work well in practice (see Section 7 and [23]).

Product programs. Our work is most closely related to a line of work on product programs [6, 25], which have been used in the context of translation validation [18], proving non-interference [3, 5] and program optimizations [21]. Given two programs $A, B$ (with disjoint variables), these approaches explicitly construct a new program, called the product of $A$ and $B$, that is semantically equivalent to $A; B$ but is somehow easier to verify. While there are several different techniques for creating product programs, the key idea is to execute $A$ and $B$ in lockstep whenever possible, with the goal of making verification easier. Unlike these approaches, we do not explicitly create a full product program that is subsequently fed to an off-the-shelf verifier. In contrast, our approach combines semantic reasoning with the construction of Hoare triples that are relevant for verifying the desired $k$-safety property.

Relational program logics. Our work is also closely related to a line of work on relational program logics [6, 25], Benton originally proposed Relational Hoare Logic (RHL) for verifying program transformations performed by optimizing compilers [6]. While Benton’s RHL provides a general framework for relational correctness proofs, it can only be used when two programs always follow the same control-flow path, which is not the case for different executions of the same program. Several extensions of Benton’s RHL have been devised by Barthe et al. to verify security properties of probabilistic systems, where the closest to our work is $pRHL$ [2]. While $pRHL$ is a relational logic specialized for probabilistic systems, our core CHL calculus is a generalization of $pRHL$ for proving general $k$-safety properties for $k > 2$, modulo the rules dedicated to probabilistic reasoning. Specifically, CHL allows the exploration of any arbitrary interleaving of $k$ programs and does not require any form of structural similarity between programs. It is unclear how to use prior work on relational program logics for proving $k$-safety properties for $k > 2$.

Another key difference of this work from previous techniques is the focus on automation. Specifically, unlike prior work that uses relational hoare logics, our verification procedure is fully automated and does not rely on interactive theorem provers to discharge proof obligations. Another common limitation of previous relational logics (e.g., RHL and $pRHL$) is that they do not yield satisfactory algorithmic solutions for reasoning about asynchronous loops that execute different numbers of times. In contrast, we propose a specialized calculus to reason about both synchronous and asynchronous loops and show that our approach can be successfully automated. Furthermore, our approach can reason about loops that contain multiple exit points, whereas previous work only considers loops of the form while($C$) do $S$.

Bug finding. In this work, we focused on verifying the absence of $k$-safety property violations. While our technique is sound, it may have false positives. A complementary research direction is to develop automated bug finding techniques for finding violations of $k$-safety properties. One possible approach for automated bug detection is to construct a harness program using self-composition and then use off-the-shelf bug detection tools, such as dynamic symbolic execution [8, 15] or bounded model checking [7, 9]. Based on our experience with the CATG tool [22] for dynamic symbolic execution, this naive approach based on self-composition does not seem to scale for examples that contain input-dependent loops. For example, we were not able to successfully use dynamic symbolic execution to detect the bug in the comparator from Figure 1 since CATG times-out. We believe a promising direction for future research could be to explore complementary bug finding techniques for detecting violations of $k$-safety properties.
9. Conclusion

We have proposed Cartesian Hoare Logic (CHL) for proving \(k\)-safety properties and presented a verification algorithm that fully automates reasoning in CHL. Our approach can handle arbitrary values of \(k\), does not require different runs to follow similar paths, and combines the verification task with the exploration of \(k\) simultaneous executions. Most importantly, our approach supports full automation and does not require the use of interactive theorem provers. Our evaluation shows that DESCARTES is practical and gives good results when verifying five different \(k\)-safety properties of relational operators in Java programs. Our comparison also demonstrates the advantages of DESCARTES over self-composition and explicit product construction approaches, both in terms of precision as well as running time.

Acknowledgments

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Appendix A: Operational Semantics

Since we define the validity of Cartesian Hoare triples with respect to an underlying operational semantics, Figure 10 describes the semantics for this language. Specifically, the operational semantics are presented using judgments of the form:

\[
\sigma, e \downarrow i \quad \text{and} \quad \sigma, S \downarrow \sigma'
\]

Here, \(\sigma\) is a valuation (or store) with signature \(\text{var} \times \text{int} \rightarrow \text{int}\). For a scalar variable \(x\), \(\sigma(x, 0)\) yields the value of \(x\), and, for an array \(x'\), \(\sigma(x', i)\) yields the value stored at index \(i\) of variable \(x'\). Hence, if \(\sigma, e \downarrow i\), then the value of expression \(e\) evaluates to \(i\) under valuation \(\sigma\). Similarly, \(\sigma, S \downarrow \sigma'\) indicates that, if statement \(S\) is executed under valuation \(\sigma\), then we obtain a new valuation \(\sigma'\) after executing \(S\). Since the operational semantics are quite standard, we do not explain the rules from Figure 10 in detail.

Appendix B

We start by defining a linearization operation \(L(\chi)\) on consolidation terms as follows:

\[
L(S) := S \quad L(\chi_1 \odot \chi_2) := L(\chi_1); L(\chi_2)
\]

Let \(\sqsubset S^n\) denote \(S[x_1/\bar{x}]; \ldots; S[x_n/\bar{x}].\) Then, \(L(\sqsubset S^n) = \sqsubset S^n\).

Theorem 1 (Soundness). If \(\vdash \Phi \parallel S \parallel \Psi\), then \(\vdash \Phi \parallel S \parallel \Psi\).

Proof. Using the Expand rule of Figure 5, \(\vdash \Phi \parallel S \parallel \Psi\) implies \(\vdash \{\Phi\} \sqsubset S^n \{\Psi\}\). Using Lemma 1 and the above definition, we have \(\vdash \{\Phi\} \sqsubset S^n \{\Psi\}\). By the soundness of Hoare logic, this implies \(\vdash \{\Phi\} \sqsubset S^n \{\Psi\}\). Now, using the soundness of self-composition, \(\vdash \{\Phi\} \sqsubset S^n \{\Psi\}\) implies \(\vdash \Phi \parallel S \parallel \Psi\). \(\square\)

Lemma 1. If \(\vdash \langle \Phi \rangle \chi \{\Psi\}\), then \(\vdash \{\Phi\} L(\chi) \{\Psi\}\).


- **Lift**: Since \(L(S) = S\), the lemma follows from the premise of the proof rule.
- **b-intro 1**: By the premise of the proof rule and the inductive hypothesis, we have \(\vdash \{\Phi\} S; \parallel \{\Psi\}\). Since \(S; \parallel \equiv S\), this implies \(\vdash \{\Phi\} S \{\Psi\}\). Since \(L(S) = S\), we have \(\vdash \{\Phi\} L(S) \{\Psi\}\).
- **b-intro 2**: By the premise of the proof rule and the inductive hypothesis, we have \(\vdash \{\Phi\} L(\chi \odot \psi) \{\Psi\}\). Since \(L(\chi \odot \psi) = L(\chi)\), we have \(\vdash \{\Phi\} L(\chi) \{\Psi\}\).
- **b-elim**: By the premise of the proof rule and the inductive hypothesis, we have \(\vdash \{\Phi\} L(\chi) \{\Psi\}\). Since \(L(\chi \odot \psi) = L(\chi)\), we have \(\vdash \{\Phi\} L(\chi) \{\Psi\}\).
- **Assoc**: By the premise of the proof rule and the IH, we have \(\vdash \{\Phi\} L(\chi_1 \odot (\chi_2 \odot \chi_3)) \{\Psi\}\). Using definition of linearization, this implies \(\vdash \{\Phi\} L(\chi_1); L(\chi_2); L(\chi_3) \{\Psi\}\). Since sequential composition is associative, this means \(\vdash \{\Phi\} (L(\chi_1); L(\chi_2); L(\chi_3)) \{\Psi\}\). Using the definition of linearization again, we have \(\vdash \{\Phi\} L(\chi_1 \odot (\chi_2 \odot \chi_3)) \{\Psi\}\).
- **Comm**: By the premise of the proof rule and the IH, we have \(\vdash \{\Phi\} L(\chi_2 \odot \chi_1) \{\Psi\}\). Using the definition of linearization, this implies \(\vdash \{\Phi\} L(\chi_2); L(\chi_1) \{\Psi\}\). Since \(\text{vars}(\chi_1) \cap \text{vars}(\chi_2) = \emptyset\), Lemma 2 implies \(L(\chi_2); L(\chi_1) = L(\chi_1); L(\chi_2)\). Thus, \(\vdash \{\Phi\} L(\chi_1); L(\chi_2) \{\Psi\}\). Using the definition of linearization again, we conclude \(\vdash \{\Phi\} L(\chi_1 \odot (\chi_2 \odot \chi_3)) \{\Psi\}\).
- **Step**: By the second premise and the inductive hypothesis, we have \(\vdash \{\Phi'\} S_2 \odot \chi \{\Psi\}\). Using the definition of linearization, we obtain \(\vdash \{\Phi'\} S_2; L(\chi) \{\Psi\}\). Using the first premise and the Hoare logic rule for sequential composition, we derive \(\vdash \{\Phi'\} S_1; S_2; L(\chi) \{\Psi\}\). Now, using the definition of linearization again, we obtain \(\vdash \{\Phi\} L(S_1; S_2 \odot \chi) \{\Psi\}\).
- **Havoc**: We need to show \(\vdash \{\Phi\} L(\chi) \{\exists V. \Phi\}\). Clearly, for any formula \(\Phi, \Phi \Rightarrow \exists V. \Phi\). Since \(L(\chi)\) does not modify variables other than \(V\), \(\{\exists V. \Phi\} L(\chi) \{\exists V. \Phi\}\) is a valid Hoare triple. Using the standard Hoare rule
for consequence (i.e., precondition strengthening), this implies \( \{ \Phi \} \ L(\chi) \ (\exists \forall. \Phi) \).

- **Consq**: By the premise of the proof rule and the inductive hypothesis, we have \( \vdash \{ \Phi' \} \ L(\chi) \ (\Psi') \). Using the standard Hoare logic rule for consequence, this implies \( \vdash \{ \Phi \} \ L(\chi) \ (\Psi) \).

- **Seq**: By the first premise, the inductive hypothesis, and the definition of linearization, we have:

\[
\vdash \{ \Phi \} \ S_1; \ldots; S_n \ {\Phi'}
\]

Using the second premise, IH, and definition of linearization, we know \( \vdash \{ \Phi' \} \ R_1; \ldots; R_n; L(\chi) \ (\Psi) \). Using the standard Hoare logic rule for sequential composition, we obtain:

\[
\vdash \{ \Phi \} \ S_1; \ldots; S_n; R_1; \ldots; R_n; L(\chi) \ (\Psi)
\]

Now, using Lemma 3, we can conclude:

\[
\vdash \{ \Phi \} \ S_1; R_1; \ldots; S_n; R_n; L(\chi) \ (\Psi)
\]

Using the definition of linearization, this allows to deduce:

\[
\vdash \{ \Phi \} \ L((S_1; R_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus S_n; R_n) \ (\oplus \chi)) \ (\Psi)
\]

- **If**: Using the premises of the If rule and IH, we have \( \vdash \{ \Phi \land c \} S_1; S: L(\chi) \ (\Psi) \) and \( \vdash \{ \Phi \land \neg c \} S_2; S: L(\chi) \ (\Psi) \). Using the standard Hoare rule for sequential composition we have:

1. \( \vdash \{ \Phi \land c \} S_1 \ {\Phi_1} \)
2. \( \vdash \{ \Phi_1 \} S; L(\chi) \ (\Psi) \)
3. \( \vdash \{ \Phi \land \neg c \} S_2 \ {\Phi_2} \)
4. \( \vdash \{ \Phi_2 \} S; L(\chi) \ (\Psi) \)

Let \( \Phi' \) be the \( wp(\Psi, S; L(\chi)) \). By the validity of 2 and 4, we know that \( \Phi_1 \Rightarrow \Phi' \) and \( \Phi_2 \Rightarrow \Phi' \). By post-condition weakening and using 1 and 3, we have:

5. \( \vdash \{ \Phi \land c \} S_1 \ {\Phi'} \)
6. \( \vdash \{ \Phi \land \neg c \} S_2 \ {\Phi'} \)

Hence, using the standard Hoare rule for conditionals, we have

7. \( \vdash \{ \Phi \} S_1 \oplus S_2 \ {\Phi'} \)

Since \( \Phi' \) is \( wp(\Psi, S; L(\chi)) \), we have

8. \( \vdash \{ \Phi' \} S; L(\chi) \ (\Psi) \)

Using the standard Hoare rule for sequential composition, we have \( \vdash \{ \Phi \} S_1 \oplus S_2; S; L(\chi) \ (\Psi) \), which implies \( \vdash \{ \Phi \} L(S_1 \oplus S_2; S \ (\oplus \chi) \ (\Psi)) \) from the definition of linearization.

- **Loop**: Let \( L \) be the loop \( [(c_1, S_1, S_1'), \ldots, (c_n, S_n, S_n')] \) and let \( L' \) be \( L \) with each \( S_i' \) replaced by skip. We need to show:

1. \( \vdash \{ \Phi \} L; L(\chi) \ (\Psi) \)

From the first premise and the standard Hoare logic rule for loops, we know:

2. \( \vdash \{ \Phi \} L' \ (\emptyset) \)

Also, from the second premise and the IH, we have:

3. \( \vdash \{ post_i(\emptyset) \land c \} S_i' \ L(\chi) \ (\Psi) \)

Let \( \Phi' \) be an auxiliary assertion such that:

4. \( \vdash \{ post_i(\emptyset) \land \neg c \} S_i' \ {\Phi'} \)
5. \( \vdash \{ \Phi' \} L(\chi) \ (\Psi) \)

We will show \( \{ \Phi \} L \ {\Phi'} \) is valid, which implies (1) using (5) and the standard Hoare logic rule for sequential composition.

Let \( n \) denote the number of iterations of \( L \) (i.e., the number of times we evaluate \( c_1 \)), and let \( I_i \) denote the sequence of instructions executed for \( i \) complete iterations of \( L \). Since \( \Phi \Rightarrow \emptyset \) and \( \{ \emptyset \} L' \ (\emptyset) \), this means that \( \emptyset \) is an invariant of the first \( n - 1 \) iterations of \( L \) (because \( i \emptyset \) is a loop invariant for \( L' \)), and (ii) \( L \) and \( L' \) execute exactly the same sequence of instructions in the first \( n - 1 \) iterations. Hence, using the fact that \( \Phi \Rightarrow \emptyset \), we have \( \{ \Phi \} L_{n-1} \ (\emptyset) \) for any \( n \).

Now, consider the last \( (n' \text{th}) \) iteration of \( L \) and suppose that \( c_i \) is the first condition to evaluate to false. The sequence of instructions \( R_i \) executed during the \( n' \text{th} \) iteration is then:

\[
R_i = \sqrt{c_1; \ldots; c_{i-1}; S_{i-1}; \neg c_i; S_i'}
\]

Hence, to prove the validity of the Hoare triple \( \{ \Phi \} L \ {\Phi'} \), it suffices to prove \( \{ \Phi \} L_{n-1} \ {\Phi'} \) for any \( n \) and \( i \). From earlier, we know \( \{ \Phi \} L_{n-1} \ (\emptyset) \); so, we only need to establish \( \emptyset \) \( R_i \ {\Phi'} \). Now, let \( R_i^c \) denote \( \sqrt{c_1; \ldots; c_{i}; S_i} \), so \( R_i = R_i^c; \neg c_i; S_i' \). First, observe that \( \emptyset \ R_i^c \ {\{ post_i(\emptyset) \land \neg c_i \} S_i'} \ {\Phi'} \) (from (4)), this implies \( \emptyset \ R_i \ {\Phi'} \) for all \( i \).

- **Flatten**: From the second premise of the Flatten proof rule and the inductive hypothesis, we know:

\[
\vdash \{ \Phi \} (\{ \emptyset \} ; S_1; \ldots; S_n; S) \ (\emptyset) \ (\bigland \emptyset \ (\Psi)) \ L(\chi) \ (\Psi)
\]

Let \( \Phi' \) be an auxiliary assertion such that \( \vdash \{ \Phi \} (\{ \emptyset \} ; S_1; \ldots; S_n; S) \ (\Psi) \) and \( \vdash \{ \Phi' \} L(\chi) \ (\Psi) \). From the first premise of the proof rule and Lemma 4, we know that, if \( \vdash \{ \Phi \} (\{ \emptyset \} ; S_1; \ldots; S_n; S) \ (\Psi) \), then we also have \( \vdash \{ \Phi \} L^* \ (\Psi) \). Using the standard Hoare logic rule for sequential composition, this implies:

\[
\vdash \{ \Phi \} L^*; L(\chi) \ (\Psi)
\]

which means \( \vdash \{ \Phi \} L((L^* \ (\oplus \chi) \ (\Psi)) \).

- **Fusion 1**: We need to show:

\[
\vdash \{ \Phi \} (\{ c_1, S_1, b \}^*; \ldots; (c_n, S_n, b)^* \ (\emptyset \ (\bigland \neg \bigland \emptyset \ (\emptyset)) \ (\Psi)) \)
\]

First, we use the following semantic equivalence:
where \( L \) is \(([c_1, S_1, b]; \ldots; [c_n, S_n, b])\). According to the first two lines of the premise of Fusion 1 and the standard Hoare rule for loops, we know that \( L \) is a loop invariant of \( L \). Let \( \varphi \) be the formula:

\[
\varphi : \llbracket L \rrbracket \land \neg \bigwedge_i c_i
\]

Using the standard Hoare logic rule for loops, we have \( \vdash \{ \Phi \} L \{ \varphi \} \). Using the third line of the proof rule, we know that \( \varphi \land c_i \equiv \text{false} \) for every \( c_i \) (i.e., none of the loops \(([c_i, S_i, b])\) will execute after \( L \)). Hence \( \varphi \) is also an invariant of each loop \(([c_i, S_i, b])\). Hence, we have:

\[
\vdash \{ \Phi \} L; \ldots; L_{n-1}; S_n \{ \varphi \}
\]

which implies the desired conclusion.

**Fusion 2:** We need to show:

\[
\vdash \{ \Phi \} \llbracket [c_1, S_1, b]; \ldots; [c_n, S_n, b] \rrbracket \{ \Psi \}
\]

Let \( L \) denote \(([c_1, \ldots, c_n, S_1; \ldots; S_n, b])\), and let the notation \( L_{i,j} \) represent:

\[
\llbracket (c_i, S_i, b); \ldots; (c_j, S_j, b) \rrbracket
\]

We now make use of the following semantic equivalence:

\[
\llbracket (c_1, S_1, b); \ldots; (c_n, S_n, b) \rrbracket \equiv L; (L_{2,n} \oplus \neg c_1; (L_{1,1}; L_{3,n} \oplus \neg c_2; \ldots; (L_{1,n-1} \oplus \neg c_n; b)))
\]

Let \( \varphi \) be the following formula:

\[
\varphi : \llbracket L \rrbracket \land \neg \bigwedge_i c_i
\]

The proof now proceeds using induction on \( k \) (i.e., number of nested conditionals in \( S_k \)). Observe that \( S_0 = b \), and, for \( 1 \leq k \leq n \), \( S_k \) is always of the form:

\[
L_{1,n-k}; L_{n-k+2,n} \oplus c_{n-k+1}; S_{k-1}
\]

We will show:

\[
\vdash \{ \llbracket L \rrbracket \land \bigwedge_{1 \leq i \leq n-k} c_i \} S_k \{ \Psi \}
\]

For the base case, we have \( k = 0 \), so \( S_0 = b \). In this case, we have:

\[
\llbracket L \rrbracket \land \bigwedge_{1 \leq i \leq n-k} c_i \Rightarrow \text{false}
\]

hence the Hoare triple is valid.

For the inductive case, we need to show:

\[
\vdash \{ \llbracket L \rrbracket \land \bigwedge_{1 \leq i \leq n-k} c_i \} L_{1,n-k}; L_{n-k+2,n} \oplus c_{n-k+1}; S_{k-1} \{ \Psi \}
\]

From the premises of the proof rule and the inductive hypothesis of the overall proof, we know:

\[
\vdash \{ \llbracket L \rrbracket \land c_{n-k+1} \} L_{1,n-k}; L_{n-k+2,n} \{ \Psi \}
\]

By precondition strengthening, this implies:

\[
\vdash \{ \llbracket L \rrbracket \land \bigwedge_{1 \leq i \leq n-k} c_i \} L_{1,n-k}; L_{n-k+2,n} \{ \Psi \}
\]

From the inductive hypothesis, we also have:

\[
\vdash \{ \llbracket L \rrbracket \land \bigwedge_{1 \leq i \leq n-k} c_i \} S_{k-1} \{ \Psi \}
\]

Again, by precondition strengthening, this implies:

\[
\vdash \{ \llbracket L \rrbracket \land \bigwedge_{1 \leq i \leq n-k} c_i \} S_k \{ \Psi \}
\]

Hence, using the standard Hoare logic rule for If, we have:

\[
\vdash \{ \llbracket L \rrbracket \land \bigwedge_{1 \leq i \leq n-k} c_i \} S_k \{ \Psi \}
\]

To conclude the proof, we need to show \( \vdash \{ \Phi \} L; S_n \{ \Psi \} \). Observe that the first two premises of the proof rule state that \( L \) is a loop invariant of \( L \); hence, using the standard Hoare logic rule for loops, we have \( \vdash \{ \Phi \} L \{ \llbracket L \rrbracket \land \varphi \} \).

Since \( k = n \), we have:

\[
\llbracket L \rrbracket \land \bigwedge_{1 \leq i \leq n-k} c_i \Rightarrow \llbracket L \rrbracket \land \varphi
\]

Hence, using the result we just showed, we have \( \vdash \{ \llbracket L \rrbracket \land \varphi \} S_n \{ \Psi \} \).

**Lemma 2.** If \( \text{vars}(S_1) \cap \text{vars}(S_2) = \emptyset \), then \( S_1; S_2 \equiv S_2; S_1 \).

**Proof.** Suppose \( \sigma, S_1; S_2 \Downarrow \sigma' \) and \( \sigma, S_2; S_1 \Downarrow \sigma'' \) but \( \sigma' \neq \sigma'' \). Let \( \sigma = \sigma_1 \uplus \sigma_2 \uplus \sigma_3 \) where the \text{dom}(\sigma_1) = \text{vars}(S_1), \text{dom}(\sigma_2) = \text{vars}(S_2), \) and \( \text{dom}(\sigma_3) = \text{dom}(\sigma) - \text{vars}(S_1) - \text{vars}(S_2) \). Suppose \( \sigma_1, S_1 \Downarrow \sigma'_1 \) and \( \sigma_2, S_2 \Downarrow \sigma'_2 \). Clearly, \( \text{dom}(\sigma'_1) \cap \text{dom}(\sigma'_2) \) where \( j \neq i \). Since \( S_1 \) does not modify \( \sigma_j \) where \( j \neq i \), we have \( \sigma_1 \uplus \sigma_2 \uplus \sigma_3, S_1 \Downarrow \sigma'_1 \uplus \sigma_2 \uplus \sigma_3 \) and \( \sigma, S_2 \Downarrow \sigma'_2 \uplus \sigma_1 \uplus \sigma_3 \). By the same reasoning, we also have \( \sigma_1 \uplus \sigma'_2 \uplus \sigma_3, S_1 \Downarrow \sigma'_1 \uplus \sigma_2 \uplus \sigma_3 \) and \( \sigma_1 \uplus \sigma_2 \uplus \sigma_3, S_2 \Downarrow \sigma'_1 \uplus \sigma'_2 \uplus \sigma_3 \). Using the operational semantics rule for sequential composition, this means \( \sigma, S_1; S_2 \Downarrow \sigma'_1 \uplus \sigma'_2 \uplus \sigma_3 \) and \( \sigma, S_2; S_1 \Downarrow \sigma'_1 \uplus \sigma'_2 \uplus \sigma_3 \). But this implies \( \sigma' = \sigma'' \).
Lemma 3. Let \( S_1; R_1, S_2; R_2, \ldots, S_n; R_n \) be statements such that \( \operatorname{vars}(S_i; R_i) \cap \operatorname{vars}(S_j; R_j) = \emptyset \) for any \( i \neq j \). Then \( S_1; \ldots; S_n; R_1; \ldots; R_n \equiv S_1; R_1; \ldots; S_n; R_n \).

Proof. The proof is by induction on \( n \). The base case is trivial since \( S_1; R_1 \equiv S_1; R_1 \). Now, we wish to show:

\[
S_1; \ldots; S_{k+1}; R_1; \ldots; R_{k+1} \equiv S_1; R_1; \ldots; S_{k+1}; R_{k+1}
\]

for \( k \geq 1 \). Let \( S = S_2; \ldots; S_{k+1} \). Then, using Lemma 2, we have \( S; R_1 \equiv S \) since \( \operatorname{vars}(S) \cap \operatorname{vars}(R_1) = \emptyset \). Hence, this implies:

\[
S_1; \ldots; S_{k+1}; R_1; \ldots; R_{k+1} \equiv S_1; R_1; S_2; \ldots; S_{k+1}; R_2; \ldots; R_{k+1}
\]

By the inductive hypothesis:

\[
S_2; \ldots; S_{k+1}; R_2; \ldots; R_{k+1} \equiv S_2; R_2; \ldots; S_{k+1}; R_{k+1}
\]

Hence, we obtain:

\[
S_1; \ldots; S_{k+1}; R_1; \ldots; R_{k+1} \equiv S_1; R_1; \ldots; S_{k+1}; R_{k+1}
\]

\( \square \)

Lemma 4. If \( L \rightsquigarrow L'; T' \) and \( \vdash \{ \Phi \} L'; T' \{ \Psi \} \), then we also have \( \vdash \{ \Phi \} L \{ \Psi \} \).

Proof. Let \( n \) denote the number of iterations of \( L \) (i.e., the number of times we evaluate \( c_1 \)), and let \( L_i \) denote the sequence of instructions executed for \( i \) complete iterations of \( L \), and let \( T_i \) be the sequence of instructions executed during the \( n \)th iteration of \( n \) assuming \( c_i \) is the first condition to evaluate to false. Observe that \( L_i = [\sqrt{c_1}; S_1; \ldots; \sqrt{c_n}; S_n]^i = B' \). Also, note that if \( \vdash \{ \Phi \} L_{n-1}; T_i \{ \Psi \} \) for any \( n, i \), this implies \( \vdash \{ \Phi \} L \{ \Psi \} \). Hence, we will show that if \( \vdash \{ \Phi \} L'; T' \{ \Psi \} \), then \( \vdash \{ \Phi \} B^{n-1}; T_i \{ \Psi \} \).

Now, if \( \vdash \{ \Phi \} L'; T' \{ \Psi \} \), then there exists some auxiliary assertion \( I \) such that \( \Phi \Rightarrow I \) and \( \vdash \{ I \} B' \{ I \} \) where \( L' = [B']^n \) and \( \vdash \{ I \} T' \{ \Psi \} \). We will show that \( \vdash \{ \Phi \} B' \{ \phi' \} \) implies \( \vdash \{ \phi \} B \{ \phi' \} \) and that \( \vdash \{ \phi \} T' \{ \phi \} \) implies \( \vdash \{ \phi \} T_i \{ \Psi \} \), which suffices to establish \( \vdash \{ \Phi \} B^{n-1}; T_i \{ \Psi \} \).

The proof proceeds using induction on the number of break points in \( L \). For the base case, \( L \) is of the form \( [[c, S, S']] \). Given an execution where \( L \) iterates \( n \) times, we have \( \sqrt{c}; S')^{n-1}; \sqrt{c}; S' \). From the Transform-single rule, we know \( L \rightsquigarrow [[c, S, b]^*; \sqrt{c}; S'] \). We need to show that \( \vdash \{ \phi \} S \oplus \phi \{ \phi \} \) implies \( \vdash \{ \phi \} \sqrt{c}; S \{ \phi \} \). This holds because, to show (2), we must show \( \vdash \{ \phi \} S \{ \phi \} \), which follows from the premise of (1). Hence, the base case holds.

For the inductive case, let \( L \) be \( [[c_1, S_1, S'_1], \ldots, (c_k, S_k, S'_k)] \). Now, given an execution where \( L \) iterates \( n \) times and takes the \( i \)th exit, we have:

\[
[\sqrt{c_1}; S_1; \ldots; \sqrt{c_n}; S_n]^{n-1}; T_i
\]

where \( T_i = \sqrt{c_1}; S'_1 \) and

\[
T_i = \sqrt{c_1}; S_1; \ldots; \sqrt{c_i-1}; S_{i-1}; \sqrt{c_i}; S'_i \quad (i \geq 2)
\]

Using the premise of the Transform-multi rule and the inductive hypothesis, we know that, for any \( \phi, \psi \),

\[
\vdash \{ \phi \} S' \oplus \phi \{ \phi \} \Rightarrow \{ \phi \} \sqrt{c_2}; S_2; \ldots; \sqrt{c_n}; S_n \{ \phi \}
\]

and

\[
\vdash \{ \phi \} \sqrt{c_2}; S_2; \ldots; \sqrt{c_i-1}; S_{i-1}; \sqrt{c_i}; S'_i \{ \phi \}
\]

Now, one of the two things we need to show is that, if

\[
\vdash \{ \phi \} S'' \oplus \phi \{ \phi \}
\]

then

\[
\vdash \{ \phi \} \sqrt{c_1}; S_1; \ldots; \sqrt{c_n}; S_n \{ \phi \}
\]

Observe that (3) implies:

\[
\vdash \{ \phi \} S'' \oplus \phi \{ \phi \}
\]

To establish (4), we need to show:

\[
\vdash \{ \phi \} \sqrt{c_1}; S_1; \ldots; \sqrt{c_n}; S_n \{ \phi \}
\]

Using (5) and the Hoare rule for if, we have:

\[
\vdash \{ \phi \} \sqrt{c_1}; S_1; S'' \{ \phi \}
\]

This follows immediately from the inductive hypothesis.

Now, the second (and last) thing we need to show is, if

\[
\vdash \{ \phi \} \sqrt{c_1}; S_1; S'' \{ \phi \}
\]

then \( \vdash \{ \phi \} T_i \{ \phi \} \). We now proceed using proof by cases on \( i \). If \( i = 1 \), then \( T_i = \sqrt{c_1}; S'_1 \). This follows immediately using (8) and the proof rule for if statements (the else branch). For \( i \geq 2 \), we have:

\[
T_i = \sqrt{c_1}; S_1; \ldots; \sqrt{c_{i-1}}; S_{i-1}; \sqrt{c_i}; S'_i
\]

Using (8) and the standard Hoare proof rule for If, we have:

\[
\vdash \{ \phi \} \sqrt{c_1}; S_i \{ \phi \}
\]

Let \( \phi' \) be an auxiliary assertion such that \( \vdash \{ \phi \} \sqrt{c_1}; S_1 \{ \phi' \} \) and \( \vdash \{ \phi' \} S'' \{ \phi \} \). By the inductive hypothesis, \( \vdash \{ \phi' \} S'' \{ \phi \} \) implies

\[
\vdash \{ \phi' \} \sqrt{c_2}; S_2; \ldots; \sqrt{c_{i-1}}; S_{i-1}; \sqrt{c_i}; S'_i \{ \phi \}
\]

Hence, we have \( \vdash \{ \phi \} T_i \{ \phi \} \). \( \square \)

Theorem 2 (Relative Completeness). Given an oracle for deciding the validity of any standard Hoare triple, if \( \vdash \{ \phi \} S \{ \psi \} \), then we also have \( \vdash \{ \Phi \} S \{ \Psi \} \).
We need to show \( \vdash \langle \Phi \rangle S \parallel \Psi \rangle \), this implies \( \vdash \{ \Phi \} S \circ S^\circ \{ \Psi \} \). Due to the relative completeness of Hoare logic, this implies \( \vdash \{ \Phi \} S \circ S^\circ \{ \Psi \} \). Using Lemma 5, we have \( \vdash \langle \Phi \rangle S^\circ \{ \Psi \} \). Hence, using the Expand proof rule, this implies \( \vdash \| \Phi \| S \parallel \Psi \| \). \( \square \)

Lemma 5. If \( \vdash \langle \Phi \rangle \mathbb{L}(\chi) \{ \Psi \} \), then \( \vdash \langle \Phi \rangle \chi \{ \Psi \} \).

Proof. Let \( n \) be the number of \( \circ \) operators in \( \chi \). The proof is by induction on \( n \). For the base case, we have \( n = 0 \). In this case, \( \chi = S = \mathbb{L}(\chi) \). Using the Lift rule, we have:

\[ \vdash \{ \Phi \} S \{ \Psi \} \Rightarrow \vdash \langle \Phi \rangle S \{ \Psi \} \]

For the inductive step, let \( \chi \) contain \( n + 1 \circ \) operators. First, we use associativity to rewrite \( \chi \) as \( S \circ \chi' \) where \( \chi' \) contains \( n \) operators. Clearly, \( \mathbb{L}(\chi) = S ; \mathbb{L}(\chi') \). By assumption, we know:

\[ \vdash \{ \Phi \} S ; \mathbb{L}(\chi') \{ \Psi \} \]

Let \( \Phi' \) be an auxiliary assertion such that

\[ \vdash \{ \Phi \} S \{ \Phi' \} \text{ and } \vdash \{ \Phi' \} \mathbb{L}(\chi') \{ \Psi \} \]

We need to show \( \vdash \langle \Phi \rangle S \circ \chi' \{ \Psi \} \) which then implies \( \vdash \langle \Phi \rangle \chi' \{ \Psi \} \) using associativity. By the inductive hypothesis, we have \( \vdash \langle \Phi' \rangle \chi' \{ \Psi \} \). Using commutativity and \( \circ \)-elim, we have:

\[ \vdash \langle \Phi' \rangle \circ \chi' \{ \Psi \} \]

Now, using Step and \( \vdash \{ \Phi \} S \{ \Phi' \} \), we derive:

\[ \vdash \langle \Phi \rangle S ; \circ \chi' \{ \Psi \} \]

Finally, using \( \circ \)-intro 1, we obtain:

\[ \vdash \langle \Phi \rangle S ; \circ \chi' \{ \Psi \} \]

\( \square \)

Theorem 3 (Termination). K-VERIFY\( (\Phi, \chi, \Psi) \) terminates for every \( \Phi, \chi, \Psi \).

Proof. We assume that the input program, \( S \), has a finite number of instructions and that VERIFY\( (\Phi, S, \Psi) \) terminates for any \( \Phi, \Psi \) and \( S \). Also, we assume that all sub-routines of K-VERIFY except K-VERIFYLOOP terminate. Given some program \( S \), an arbitrary number of applications of all rules except Comm, Assoc and K-VERIFYLOOP, leads to termination since the input of the recursive call to K-VERIFY decreases in the number of instructions and it is finite. An infinite number of applications of Assoc is not possible since it would require an infinite number of programs parenthesised to left. Furthermore, since the algorithm operates by pattern matching, the check in Line 9, precedes the one in Line 11. Hence, if we have \( k \) programs, the algorithm performs at most \( k - 1 \) consecutive applications of Comm. It is left then to prove the termination of the case K-VERIFY\( (\Phi, \chi, \Psi) \) when it leads to

```
public int compareTo(Chromosome o) {
    int comp = 0;
    comp += Double.compare(getScore(1), o.getScore(1));
    comp += Double.compare(getScore(2), o.getScore(2));
    comp += Double.compare(getScore(3), o.getScore(3));
    comp += Double.compare(getScore(5), o.getScore(5));
    comp += Double.compare(getScore(7), o.getScore(7));
    if(comp == 0)
        return(0);
    if(comp > 0)
        return(1);
    return(-1);
}
```

Figure 11. Buggy comparator for Chromosome

K-VERIFYLOOP\( (\Phi, \chi, \Psi) \). The application of the Fuse rules, Line 7 and 9, and for the same reason the Loop rule, lead to termination since the size of input decreases in the number of instructions. However, the same argument does not apply to the application of the Flatten rule in Line 14, since the number of instructions increases with respect the size of the input. Nevertheless, it increases in finite number and there at most \( k - 1 \) applications of Flatten for \( k \) programs at which point, the size of input will decrease. Since the initial \( \chi \) only contains a finite number of loops, K-VERIFYLOOP\( (\Phi, \chi, \Psi) \) is guaranteed to terminate. \( \square \)

Appendix C

Here, we present some representative examples of buggy and correct comparators whose analysis results were summarized in Figure 9 from Section 7.

Chromosome benchmark. Figure 11 shows a buggy comparator that we found in a discussion from Stackoverflow. In this example, an instance of the Chromosome class contains a number of scores generated in various ways. In this scenario, a developer wants to implement a compareTo method that sorts chromosomes based on some relevant scores of interest.

The original implementation shown in Figure 11 violates properties P2 and P3. To see why it violates transitivity (P2), consider the following table which shows the scores for each relevant position in three chromosomes \( A, B, C \):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chromosome</th>
<th>S1</th>
<th>S2</th>
<th>S3</th>
<th>S5</th>
<th>S7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Observe that calling \( B.compareTo(A) \) and \( C.compareTo(B) \) both yield 1. While transitivity implies \( C.compareTo(A) \) should also yield 1, it actually returns -1, thereby violating property P2.

Similarly, to see why this implementation violates property P3, consider the following table:
public int compareTo(Chromosome o) {
    if (o == null)
        return (1);
    int[] indices = {1, 2, 3, 5, 7};
    for (int i : indices) {
        int s1 = getScore(i);
        int s2 = o.getScore(i);
        int c = Double.compare(s1, s2);
        if (c != 0)
            return c;
    }
    return 0;
}

Figure 12. Correct comparator for Chromosome

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chromosome</th>
<th>S1</th>
<th>S2</th>
<th>S3</th>
<th>S5</th>
<th>S7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Here, calling A.compareTo(B) and A.compareTo(C) both yield 0, but B.compareTo(C) returns 1. Hence, the implementation also violates property P3.

In contrast, Figure 12 shows the repaired version of the Chromosome comparator. DESCARTES was able to automatically verify the implementation of the repaired compareTo method. Furthermore, since DESCARTES does not unroll loops, but rather infers loop invariants, the proof goes through even when indices are not statically known.

**Name benchmark.** Consider a class called MyClass which has a number of fields, including one called name of type String. A user wants to implement a comparator that orders MyClass objects based on their name. However, the user also wants to prioritize names that belong to a “priority list” called strNames. In other words, if we are comparing two objects A and B such that A.name is less than B.name, but A.name is in the list strNames, then the compare method should yield A > B.

Figure 13 shows a buggy comparator implementation based on this idea. In particular, this compare method obeys properties P2 and P3, but violates P1. To see why, suppose the list strNames contains the string "abc". Also, let A, B be objects that both have name "abc". In this case, compare(A, B) yields 1 and compare(B, A) also yields 1, thereby breaking the anti-symmetry requirement.

Figure 14 shows a repaired version of this comparator that first checks if x and y are equal before comparing them against the names in strNames. DESCARTES is able to automatically verify the repaired version of the NameComparator implementation.

**PokerHand benchmark.** Consider a program that represents a poker hand as a 13 character long string such that the occurrence of number n at position k indicates that the poker hand contains n cards of type k. For instance, the string "0100300200100" represents a poker hand which consists of one card of 3, three cards of 6, two cards of 9, and one card of queen. A programmer wishes to implement a comparator that orders the strings according to the strength of the corresponding poker hand.

Consider the compare implementation in Figure 15 which was taken from a post on Stackoverflow. This implementation obeys property P1, but violates properties P2 and P3. For example, to see why the comparator violates transitivity, consider the following three poker hands H1, H2, H3:

- **Hand 1 (H1):** three Kings, one 8, one 7, one 4, one 3, which is represented as the string "011001100030"
- **Hand 2 (H2):** three Queens, two 6’s, one 3, one 2, which is represented as "1100200000300"

```java
class NameComparator implements Comparator {
    public int compare(MyClass objX, MyClass objY) {
        String x = objX.Name;
        String y = objY.Name;
        String strCurrentName;
        if (x.equals(y)) {
            return 0;
        }
        for (strCurrentName : strNames) {
            if (strCurrentName.equals(x)) {
                return 1;
            }
            if (strCurrentName.equals(y)) {
                return -1;
            }
        }
        return x.compareTo(y);
    }
}
```

```java
class NameComparator implements Comparator {
    public int compare(MyClass objX, MyClass objY) {
        String x = objX.Name;
        String y = objY.Name;
        String strCurrentName;
        if (x.equals(y)) {
            return 0;
        }
        for (strCurrentName : strNames) {
            if (strCurrentName.equals(x)) {
                return 1;
            }
            if (strCurrentName.equals(y)) {
                return -1;
            }
        }
        return x.compareTo(y);
    }
}
```

Figure 13. Buggy NameComparator

Figure 14. Repaired version of NameComparator
final Comparator<String> COMBINATION_ORDER = new Comparator<String>() {
    @Override
    public int compare(String c1, String c2) {
        if (c1.indexOf('4') != -1 || c2.indexOf('4') != -1) { // Four of a kind
            if (c1.indexOf('4') == c2.indexOf('4')) {
                for (int i = 12; i >= 0; i--) {
                    if (c1.charAt(i) != '0' && c1.charAt(i) != '4') {
                        if (c2.charAt(i) != '0' && c2.charAt(i) != '4') {
                            return 0;
                        }
                    }
                }
            } else {
                return c1.indexOf('4') - c2.indexOf('4');
            }
        }
        int tripleCount1 = StringFunctions.countOccurrencesOf(c1, "3");
        int tripleCount2 = StringFunctions.countOccurrencesOf(c2, "3");
        if (tripleCount1 > 1 || (tripleCount1 == 1 && c1.indexOf('2') != -1) ||
            tripleCount2 > 1 || (tripleCount2 == 1 && c2.indexOf('2') != -1)) { // Full house
            int higherTriple = c1.lastIndexOf('3');
            if (higherTriple == c2.lastIndexOf('3')) {
                for (int i = 12; i >= 0; i--) {
                    if (i == higherTriple) {
                        continue;
                    }
                    if (c1.charAt(i) == '2' || c1.charAt(i) == '3') {
                        if (c2.charAt(i) == '2' || c2.charAt(i) == '3') {
                            return 0;
                        }
                    }
                    return 1;
                }
            } else {
                return higherTriple - c2.lastIndexOf('3');
            }
        }
        return 0;
    }
};

Figure 15. Buggy version of PokerHand

- **Hand 3 (H3):** three Jokers, one 8, one 7, one 4, one 3,
  which is represented as "0110011003000"

According to the compare function in Figure 15, we have $H_1 > H_2$, and $H_2 > H_3$, so transitivity implies $H_1 > H_3$. However, the compare implementation erroneously returns 0 on the string "0110011000003" and "0110011003000". The same counterexample also illustrate a violation of property P3 because $\text{compare}(H_1, H_3) = 0$, $\text{compare}(H_1, H_2) = 1$, and $\text{compare}(H_3, H_2) = -1$.

In contrast, Figure 16 shows a correct version of the comparator for a poker hand. Again, DESCARTES was able to automatically verify all properties P1-P3 for the implementation shown in Figure 16.
final Comparator<String> COMBINATION_ORDER = new Comparator<String>() {
  @Override
  public int compare(String c1, String c2) {
    if (c1.indexOf('4') != -1 || c2.indexOf('4') != -1) { // Four of a kind
      if (c1.indexOf('4') == c2.indexOf('4')) { // same four of a kind
        for (int i = 12; i >= 0; i--) {
          if (c1.charAt(i) != '0' && c1.charAt(i) != '4') {
            if (c2.charAt(i) != '0' && c2.charAt(i) != '4') {
              return 0;
            }
            return 1;
          }
          if (c2.charAt(i) != '0' && c2.charAt(i) != '4') {
            return -1;
          }
        }
        return c1.indexOf('4') - c2.indexOf('4');
      }
    }
    int tripleCount1 = StringFunctions.countOccurrencesOf(c1, "3");
    int tripleCount2 = StringFunctions.countOccurrencesOf(c2, "3");
    if (tripleCount1 > 1 || (tripleCount1 == 1 && c1.indexOf('2') != -1)) { // c1 Full house
      if (tripleCount2 > 1 || (tripleCount2 == 1 && c2.indexOf('2') != -1)) { // c2 Full house too
        int higherTriple = c1.lastIndexOf('3');
        if (higherTriple == c2.lastIndexOf('3')) {
          for (int i = 12; i >= 0; i--) {
            if (i == higherTriple) {
              continue;
            }
            if (c1.charAt(i) == '2' || c1.charAt(i) == '3') {
              if (c2.charAt(i) == '2' || c2.charAt(i) == '3') {
                return 0;
              }
              return 1; // only c1 Full house
            }
            if (c2.charAt(i) == '2' || c2.charAt(i) == '3') { // only c2 Full house
              return -1;
            }
          }
          return higherTriple - c2.lastIndexOf('3');
        }
      }
    }
    if (tripleCount2 > 1 || (tripleCount2 == 1 && c2.indexOf('2') != -1)) {
      return -1;
    }
    return 0;
  }
};

Figure 16. Repaired version of PokerHand
References


