# On the Development of Correct Specified Programs

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Abstract—The paper describes a method of program development which guarantees correctness. Our programs consist of an operational part, called instruction, and a specification. Both these parts are subject to the development and the refinement process. The specification consists of a pre- and postcondition called global specification and a set of assertions called local specification. A specified program is called correct if: 1) the operational part is totally correct w.r.t. the pre- and postcondition, 2) the precondition guarantees nonabortion, 3) local assertions are adequate for the proof of 1) and 2). The requirement of nonabortion leads to the use of a three-valued predicate calculus. We use McCarthy's calculus in that place. The paper contains a description of an experimental programming language PROMET-1 designed for our style of programming. The method is illustrated by the derivation of a bubblesort procedure.

Index Terms - Assertion-specified programs, bubblesort procedures, program correctness, program development, PROMET-1, sorting.

## I. INTRODUCTION

THE PROBLEM of program correctness is frequently understood in a too narrow sense as the problem of proving programs correct. It is implicit in this understanding that program development and program verification are two independent processes, the first of which must be completed before the second starts. The scheme "first develop then prove" corresponds, maybe, to the way of establishing simple mathematical theorems, but is certainly inadequate for the use of mathematics in engineering. Nobody would dare to suggest that a civil engineer postpone the calculations until his bridge has been constructed. Why then is a software engineer supposed to be an exception?

The present paper describes a method of programming where program correctness is systematically controlled during program development. Of course, in order to talk about correctness one must have a standard against which to measure this correctness, i.e., a specification, and a standard of how to measure this correctness, i.e., a satisfiability relation. In our method the specification consists of a precondition, a post-condition, and a set of local assertions. Strictly speaking we are dealing here with specified programs of the form

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pre  $c_{pr}$  IN post  $c_{po}$ 

where  $c_{pr}$  and  $c_{po}$  are the precondition and the postcondition, respectively, and where IN is an instruction with nested assertions. Such a program is called correct if: 1) IN is totally correct w.r.t.  $c_{pr}$  and  $c_{po}$ , i.e.,  $c_{pr}$  guarantees nonlooping and  $c_{po}$  is satisfied upon termination; 2)  $c_{pr}$  guarantees nonabortion; 3) the assertions of IN are adequate for the proof of 1) and 2).

It is essential in our method that in program development we construct and refine both the virtual program and the specification. All development rules must be sound, i.e., must preserve program correctness. At the same time they may quite substantially change program meaning. This is in contrast to some other methods of program development where programs are developed from, rather than with, specifications [2], [5], [6], [11], [12]. The reason why we do not follow this style is twofold. First, in program development and maintenance one frequently has to change the specification. Programming is a creative art and any specification which is given ahead may turn out inadequate or at least incomplete. Second, the development of programs from specifications requires the concept of an equivalence relation between programs. This leads to tedious technical problems, since any practically acceptable equivalence is not a congruence [6].

Another issue which is substantial in our approach is the three-valued predicate calculus of McCarthy [21] used as a pattern in the definition of semantics of Boolean expressions. Except the clasical truth values true and false we admit the third value undefined which we need for an adequate treatment of abortion. Our rules of the evaluation of Boolean expressions are similar to that of many existing languages, e.g., of Pascal [17].

In the present paper we describe an experimental, simplified programming language PROMET-1 oriented towards the systematic development of correct specified programs. We start in Section II with the concept of an abstract data type which is fundamental for our style of programming. This is followed in Sections III and IV by the syntax and the denotational semantics of PROMET-1. Section V explains our two concepts of correctness: the global correctness of instructions and the correctness of specified programs. Program construction and modification rules are described in Section VI. In Section VII we give a detailed example of the derivation of a bubble-sort procedure.

The idea of systematic program development is, of course, not new. Starting from Dijkstra [13] and Wirth [24] it has been advocated for many years and by many authors. In the recent few years it started to evolve towards a more disciplined

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approach and became the subject of theoretical research. Some references to this field were given above. Below we mention three other approaches which seem close to our method.

- 1) Bar [1] describes a method of program development in a modified Pascal. Programs are specified in a way very similar to ours, but program correctness does not cover nonabortion and must be proved in each step of program development.
- 2) Bjørner and others [3] develop a method based on the denotational approach to software specification. This approach is less formalized but has been used in serious applications including the design and/or description of operating systems, databases, and compilers.
- 3) Lee, de Roever, and Gerhard [18] describe a method similar to ours but restricted to the partial correctness of programs.

The present paper concludes the author's earlier research described partly in [5]-[9].

## II. ABSTRACT DATA TYPES

The abstractness of data types is one of the basic principles of our style of programming. The user of PROMET is free in in the choice of his data type and can modify this data type along with the modification of the program. In this paper we omit the problem of data-type specification. We only require that data types are described as many-sorted algebras and that they satisfy a few technical assumptions. In the applications we allow any mathematical technique for the description of concrete many-sorted algebras. We also allow that some sorts and/or operations in data types are not implementable. Such nonimplementable objects, e.g., abstract reals and operations on them, are used at the level of program specifications.

By an abstract data type we mean a many-sorted algebra [14]

$$DT = (\{D_k\}_{k \in K}, \{f_{\sigma}\}_{\sigma \in \Sigma}, sort, arity)$$

where K is a set of elements called sorts (e.g., real, integer, Boolean, etc.),  $\Sigma$  is a set of elements called functional symbols (e.g., +, -,  $\sqrt{\phantom{a}}$ ,  $\vee$ , &, etc.), and sort and arity are functions which associate to every symbol in  $\Sigma$  the sort of its value and its arity, respectively. Formally, sort:  $\Sigma \to K$  and arity:  $\Sigma \to K^*$ . For every sort k,  $D_k$  denotes the set of all elements of sort k. If for some  $\sigma \in \Sigma$ , sort  $(\sigma) = k$  and arity  $(\sigma) = k_1 \cdots k_n$ , then we write  $\sigma: k_1 \times \cdots \times k_n \to k$  and assume that  $f_{\sigma}$  is a total function which maps  $D_{k_1} \times \cdots \times D_{k_n}$  into  $D_k$ . For instance,  $\ge : real \times real \to Boolean$ . If  $arity(\sigma) = \epsilon$ , where  $\epsilon$  denotes the empty string, then we write  $\sigma: \to k$ . For instance,  $1:\to integer$ . In applications we identify every symbol  $\sigma$  with its meanings  $f_{\sigma}$ .

In order to provide the framework for carrying out the proofs of nonabortion, we assume that every  $D_k$  contains an abstract error  $I_k$  [15]. In particular  $D_{Boolean} = \{true, false, I_b\}$  and the logical connectives are defined in McCarty's [21] style (we return to this issue in Sections IV and VI):

$$p \to q, r = \begin{cases} q & \text{if } p = true \\ r & \text{if } p = false \\ \bot_b & \text{if } p = \bot_b \end{cases}$$

$$p \lor q = p \rightarrow true, q$$
  
 $p \& q = p \rightarrow q, false$   
 $p \supset q = p \rightarrow q, true$   
 $\sim p = p \rightarrow false, true.$ 

We also assume that with every data type there is associated a family WFS =  $\{(W_p, <_p)\}_{p \in P}$  of well-founded sets. For every  $p \in P$ ,  $<_p$  is a binary relation in  $W_p$  such that there is no infinite decreasing sequence  $w_1 >_p w_2 >_p \cdots$  in  $W_p$ . Every relation  $<_p$  has an appropriate symbol in  $\Sigma$ .

The last requirement about data types is that the set K contains the sort any such that  $D_{any} = \bigcup \{D_k \mid k \in K - \{any\}\}$  and that with every sort k there is associated a sort predicate k: any  $\rightarrow$  Boolean such that  $f_k(d) = \text{if } d \in D_k$  then true else false. For instance integer x is true iff x is an integer. Sorts and the corresponding sort predicates will be denoted by the same symbols.

## III. PROMET—A Language for the Development of Specified Programs

PROMET stands for PROgramming METhod. Here we describe the first experimental version of this language called PROMET-1. As was mentioned already, PROMET-1 contains no mechanism for the specification of data types. We assume therefore that data types are defined outside of the language and that each concrete data type identifies an instance of PROMET-1. In other words, once we fix a data type we fix the corresponding syntactic and semantic primitives of the language. The syntax of PROMET-1 is restricted to iterative sequential programs with only global variables and without goto's.

Let there be given a set of identifiers IDE, an abstract data type  $DT = (\{D_k\}_{k \in K}, \{f_\sigma\}_{\sigma \in \Sigma}, sort, arity)$  and a family of well-founded sets WFS =  $\{(W_p, <_p)\}_{p \in P}$ . We define five syntactic classes: EXP-of expressions, CON-of conditions, UIN-of unspecified instructions, INS-of instructions, and ASP-of assertion specified programs (abbreviated a.s. programs).

$$EXP := IDE \mid CON \mid \sigma(\{EXP\}) \text{ for all } \sigma \in \Sigma$$
  
| if  $CON \text{ then } EXP \text{ else } EXP \text{ fi}$ 

$$CON := \sigma(\{EXP\})$$
 for all  $\sigma \in \Sigma$  with  $sort(\sigma) = Boolean$   
|if  $CON$  then  $CON$  else  $CON$  fi  
| $(\forall IDE)CON | (\exists IDE)CON$ 

Of course,  $\{EXP\}$  denotes an arbitrary string of expressions. The choice of sorts in this string is delegated to semantics. We assume that in the applications we identify  $\sigma$  with  $f_{\sigma}$  and allow for infix notation. Quantified conditions are necessary for specifications.

The string of identifiers on the left side of := is nonempty, repetition free, and of the same length as the string of expressions on the right side of :=. Instructions of the form if CON fi are called tests.

```
INS := UIN | INS as CON sa INS
| if CON then INS else INS fi
| while CON
as CON ter EXP with IDE in p
do INS od
| inv CON INS vni
```

Conditions which appear after the key words as or inv are called assertions. Expressions which appear after ter in while instructions are called termination expressions. The symbol p is an element of P and is a name of a well-founded set. The assertion in the last instruction is called permanent invariant and the instruction themselve is called an instruction with a declared invariant. The key words inv and vni define the syntactic scope of the invariant. Assertions and termination expressions constitute local specifications and are skipped in program execution. Their role becomes essential in the definition of correctness (Section V):

$$ASP := pre CON INS post CON.$$

The conditions which follow pre and post are called, respectively, the *precondition* and the *postcondition*. In contrast to instructions, which represent algorithms, a.s. programs represent statements about algorithms.

## IV. THE SEMANTICS OF EXPRESSIONS, CONDITIONS, and Instructions

Here we give a routine denotational semantics of PROMET-1. Since our language contains neither goto's nor procedures the denotational technique used below is very simple and may be understood by readers who are not familiar with it from elsewhere. The semantics of a.s. programs are postponed to Section V since it involves the concept of correctness.

To get started we need some notational conventions. For any sets  $A_1$ ,  $A_2$ ,  $A_3$ , any binary relations  $R_1 \subseteq A_1 \times A_2$ ,  $R_2 \subseteq A_2 \times A_3$ , and any subset  $C \subseteq A_2$ , by  $R_1R_2 = \{(a, b) | a \in A_2 \}$  $(\exists c)(aR_1c \& cR_2b)$  we denote the composition of  $R_1$  and  $R_2$  and by  $R_1C = \{a \mid (\exists c)(aR_1c \& c \in C)\}$  we denote the coimage of C w.r.t.  $R_1$ . For any A by  $I_A$  – or simply I if A is understood—we denote the identity relation in A, i.e.,  $I_A$  =  $\{(a, a) | a \in A\}$ . By  $\phi$  we denote the empty relation and the empty set. If  $R \subseteq A \times A$  then  $R^0 = I$  and  $R^{i+1} = RR^i$  for any integer  $i \ge 0$ . By the interaction of R we mean  $R^* = \bigcup_{i=0}^{\infty} R^i$ . For more details see [4]. By  $[A_1 \rightarrow A_2]$  and  $[A_1 \rightarrow A_2]_t$  we denote the sets of all partial, respectively, total functions from  $A_1$  into  $A_2$ . By a state we mean a total function from the set of identifiers IDE into  $D_{any}$ . By  $S = [IDE \rightarrow D_{any}]_t$  we denote the set of all states. The function of semantics is denoted by and maps syntactic objects into their denotations

[]: 
$$EXP \rightarrow [S \rightarrow D_{any}]_t$$
  
[]:  $CON \rightarrow [S \rightarrow \{true, false, \bot_b\}]_t$   
[]:  $INS \rightarrow [S \rightarrow S]$   
[]:  $ASP \rightarrow \{true, false\}.$ 

Below we give the semantic clauses for []. Let x, E, and c, possibly with indexes, stand for identifiers, expressions, and conditions, respectively.

1) 
$$[x](s) = s(x)$$
  
2)  $[\sigma(E_1, \dots, E_n)](s)$   

$$= \begin{cases} f_{\sigma}([E_1](s), \dots, [E_n](s)) & \text{if the string of sorts} \\ & \text{of } [E_i](s) & \text{is compatible with the} \\ & \text{arity of } \sigma \end{cases}$$

$$\downarrow_k & \text{otherwise; where } k = sort(\sigma)$$
3)  $[\text{if } c \text{ then } E_1 \text{ else } E_2 \text{ fi}](s)$ 

$$= \begin{cases} [E_1](s) & \text{if } [c](s) = tnue \\ [E_2](s) & \text{if } [c](s) = false \\ \downarrow_b & \text{if } [c](s) = \downarrow_b. \end{cases}$$

Let for any  $s, s' \in S$  and  $x \in IDE$ , s = s' except in x mean that s(y) = s'(y), for any identifier y which is different from x. We do not request that  $s(x) \neq s'(x)$ , but we do not exclude this either.

4)  $[(\forall x)c](s)$ 

true if 
$$[c](s') = true$$
 for any  $s'$  with  $s' = s$  except in  $x$ ,

false if there exists  $s'$  with  $s' = s$ 
except in  $x$ , such that  $[c](s') = false$ 

1b otherwise, i.e., if for some  $s'$ ,  $[c](s')$ 
= true and for the remaining  $s'$  (but at least for one  $[c](s') = 1_b$ 

5)  $[(\exists x)c](s) = [\sim (\forall x)(\sim c)](s)$ .

Observe that in 3) we introduce the mechanism of so-called lazy evaluation: in evaluating a conditional expression we do not evaluate both  $E_1$  and  $E_2$ , but only this expression which is pointed to by the logical value of c. We return to this comment in Section VI. Now we define the semantics of *INS*. Let IN, possibly with indexes, denote instructions

```
6) [abort] = \phi

7) [skip] = I_S

8) [if c fi] = \{(s, s) | [c] (s) = tnue\}

9) [x_1, \dots, x_n := E_1, \dots, E_n]

= \{(s_1, s_2) | [E_i] (s_1) \neq 1 for all i \leq n \&

s_2(x_i) = [E_i] (s_1) for all i \leq n \&

s_2(y) = s_1(y) for all y \notin \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}\}

10) [IN_1; IN_2] = [IN_1] [IN_2]

11) [IN_1 \text{ as } c \text{ sa } IN_2] = [IN_1] [IN_2]

12) [if c then IN_1 else IN_2 fi]

= [if c fi] [IN_1] \cup [if \sim c fi] [IN_2]

13) [while c as c_a ter E with x in p do IN od]

= ([if c fi] [IN])*[if \sim c fi]

14) [inv c IN vni] = [IN].
```

Our semantics describe a very usual understanding of iterative instructions. All assertions are considered as comments. Their role becomes essential in the semantics of a.s. programs (Section V).

### V. THE SEMANTICS OF ASSERTION-SPECIFIED PROGRAMS

A.s. programs are correctness statements about instructions and therefore the function of semantics associates with them the truth values *true* and *false*. We shall say, however, that an a.s. program is *correct* or *incorrect* rather than *true* or *false*.

Intuitively, the correctness of pre  $c_{pr}$  IN post  $c_{po}$  means that the following two conditions are satisfied.

- 1) IN is globally correct w.r.t.  $c_{pr}$  and  $c_{po}$ , which means that for any state which satisfies  $c_{pr}$  the execution of IN terminates cleanly (neither loops nor aborts) and the terminal state satisfies  $c_{po}$ .
- 2) IN is locally correct w.r.t.  $c_{pr}$  and  $c_{po}$ , which means that the assertions nested in IN are adequate for the proof of 1).

Let for any  $c \in CON$ ,  $\{c\} = \{s \mid [c] \ (s) = \text{true}\}$ , i.e.,  $\{c\}$  is the set of all states which satisfy c. The property of global correctness is now easily formalized by the inclusion

$$\{c_{pr}\}\subseteq [IN]\{c_{po}\}.$$

It should be stressed that this property is stronger than the well-known total correctness [19]. The latter was defined under the assumption that all conditions and expressions represent total functions, i.e., that their evaluation can be always successfully completed. Since in real programming languages this assumption is never satisfied, all that total correctness means is the following. If  $c_{pr}$  is initially satisfied, then the execution of IN is finite and if it terminates cleanly (without error message) then  $c_{po}$  is satisfied upon termination. For instance, the program

pre integer array 
$$A[0:n] & a = A & i = n$$
  
while  $a[i] < a[i-1]$   
do  $a[i], a[i-1] := a[i-1], a[i];$   
 $i := i-1$  od

post a is a permutation of A

can be proved totally correct, although it aborts whenever i reaches the value 0. Of course, this program is not globally correct.

The concept of global correctness was originally introduced (under another name) by Mazurkiewicz [20] for the case of abstract iterative processes. Global correctness proof rules for iterative programs were established later by Blikle [10] and were proved consistent and algebraically complete. Here these proof rules constitute cases in the definition of correctness of a.s. programs. Let for the convenience of notation the diagrams

$$\int \frac{X}{Y}$$
 and  $\int \frac{X}{Y}$ 

be read: if X then Y and X iff Y, respectively. Let for  $c_1$ ,  $c_2 \in CON$ ,  $c_1 \Rightarrow c_2$  denote the fact that  $\{c_1\} \subseteq \{c_2\}$  and be read as  $c_1$  implies  $c_2$ . The correctness of a.s. programs is defined by structural induction. D stands for definition.

(D1) If *UI* is an unspecified instruction, then

For unspecified instructions correctness means, of course, global correctness.

(D2) 
$$\begin{array}{c}
\text{pre } c_{pr} I N_1 \text{ as } c_a \text{ sa } I N_2 \text{ post } c_{po} \\
1) \text{ pre } c_{pr} I N_1 \text{ post } c_a \\
2) \text{ pre } c_a I N_2 \text{ post } c_{po}
\end{array}$$

(D3) 
$$\int \operatorname{pre} c_{pr} \text{ if } c \text{ then } IN_1 \text{ else } IN_2 \text{ fi post } c_{po}$$
1) 
$$c_{pr} \Rightarrow c \lor \sim c$$
2) 
$$\operatorname{pre} c_{pr} \& c \quad IN_1 \text{ post } c_{po}$$
3) 
$$\operatorname{pre} c_{pr} \& \sim c \quad IN_2 \text{ post } c_{po}$$

Observe that in the two-valued logic formula 1) in (D3) is always satisfied. Here it means that whenever  $c_{pr}$  is true, the value of c is defined, i.e., the execution of c does not lead to abortion.

(D4)  

$$\uparrow$$
 pre  $c_{pr}$  while  $c$  as  $c_a$  ter  $E$  with  $x$  in  $p$  do  $IN$  od post  $c_{po}$ 

Here  $c_a$  is called *loop assertion* and describes the environment in which our loop is executed. In this environment c has a defined value [c.f. 2)], the value of E is in the well-founded set  $W_p$  [cf. 3)], whenever c is satisfied then IN can be executed, keeps the state in the environment and decrements the value of E [cf. 4)], if  $\sim c$  is satisfied, then  $c_{po}$  is satisfied [cf. 5)].

(D5) 
$$\oint \operatorname{pre} c_{pr} \operatorname{inv} c \operatorname{IN} \operatorname{vni} \operatorname{post} c_{po}$$
  
 $\operatorname{pre} c_{pr} \operatorname{IN} (c_a \& c/c_a) \operatorname{post} c_{po}$ 

Here IN  $(c_a \& c/c_a)$  denotes the instruction which results from IN by the replacement of any assertion  $c_a$  by  $c_a \& c$ . Intuitively, the invariant declaration is a way of the factorization of these conditions which could be added to all assertions. This construction has been introduced for syntactical convenience. If IN contains no assertions (is unspecified), then the invariant declaration is effectless.

As has been proved in [10], local correctness always implies global correctness, i.e.,

In other words the global correctness proof rules (D1)-(D5) are consistent. It was also proved in [10] that every global-correctness assertion is a Floyd's assertion but not vice versa; some Floyd's assertions are too weak to be used in the proof of global correctness.

To conclude this section let us briefly exp!ain the motivation for having assertions in our programs. First, assertions are necessary in program development. As will be seen later, many of our program modification rules strongly rely on programs' local properties. Second, they can be used in program testing. If only implementable, they must be satisfied in program execution. Third, they record programmer's arguments for the correctness of the program. Such arguments not only justifly the credibility of the program, but also may be useful in program exploitation and maintenance.

## VI. PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT RULES

It is not the purpose of this section to give a complete set of program development rules for PROMET-1. Different classes of algorithmic problems may require different development rules and the user of PROMET is expected to develop such rules by himself. Our method only provides a mathematical framework where these rules may be defined and proved sound. Of course, there is a small set of rules used in nearly every program development. Some of them are described below.

A program development rule is called *sound* if it preserves program correctness. In developing programs by sound rules we have to make sure that the initial program is correct and that each rule is applicable whenever used.

The first set of rules is implicit in the definition of correctness of Section V. Indeed, each of the diagrams (D1)-(D5) when read bottom-up is such a rule. These rules are called basic construction rules.

The next set of rules contains condition modifications (CM). In order to describe them we have to introduce some metarelations between conditions. Let  $c_1$ ,  $c_2$ ,  $c_3 \in CON$  and let an abstract data type DT be fixed. We say that  $c_1$  and  $c_2$  are strongly, respectively, weakly equivalent (in DT), which we denote by

$$c_1 \approx c_2$$
, respectively,  $c_1 \Leftrightarrow c_2$ 

if  $[c_1] = [c_2]$ , respectively,  $\{c_1\} = \{c_2\}$ . In the first case  $c_1$  and  $c_2$  represent the same logical (three-valued) function, in the second—whenever one is satisfied, then so is the other and vice versa, e.g., if n and x range over real numbers, then  $x \ge 0$  &  $n > x^2 \Rightarrow x \ge 0$  &  $\sqrt{n} > x$ , but the strong equivalence does not hold since for n < 0,  $n > x^2$  is false and  $\sqrt{n} > x$  is undefined. On the other hand,  $n \ge 0$  &  $x \ge 0$ 

As is easy to see both relations = and  $\Rightarrow$  are equivalences, but only the first one is a congruence. Indeed,  $c_1 \Rightarrow c_2$  does not imply  $\sim c_1 \Rightarrow \sim c_2$ , e.g.,  $x^{-1} > 0$  &  $x = y - 1 \Rightarrow (y - 1)^{-1} > 0$  & x = y - 1, but  $x^{-1} \leq 0 \ \forall x \neq y - 1 \Rightarrow (y - 1)^{-1} \leq 0 \ \forall x \neq y - 1$ . In the algebra of conditions with = both & and  $\vee$  are associative and distributive, and obey de Morgan's laws. Of course, they are not commutative. On the other hand, & is commutative with  $\Rightarrow$ , i.e.,  $c_1 \ \& c_2 \Rightarrow c_2 \ \& c_1$ , but  $\vee$  is not.

In the examples of weakly and strongly equivalent conditions we had the situation that two conditions were compared in the context of a third. For instance,  $n > x^2$  and  $\sqrt{n} > x$ 

were compared in the context of  $x \ge 0$ . Since this situation is typical in program development we introduce a more explicit notation. We write

$$c_1 = c_2$$
 whenever  $c_3$   
if  $c_3 \& c_1 = c_3 \& c_2$  and  $c_1 \Leftrightarrow c_2$  whenever  $c_3$   
if  $c_3 \& c_1 \Leftrightarrow c_3 \& c_2$ .

For instance,

$$n > x^2 = \sqrt{n} > x$$
 whenever  $n \ge 0 \& x \ge 0$   
 $n > x^2 \Leftrightarrow \sqrt{n} > x$  whenever  $x \ge 0$ .

(CM.1) If in a correct a.s. program we replace

1) any while-do or if-then-else condition  $c_1$  by  $c_2$  such that  $c_1 \equiv c_2$ , or

2) any precondition, postcondition, or assertion  $c_1$  by  $c_2$  such that  $c_1 \Leftrightarrow c_2$ , then the resulting program is correct.

(CM.2) If in a correct a.s. program with a declared invariant c we replace any assertion  $c_1$  which appears within the syntactic scope of the declaration of c by  $c_2$  such that  $c_1 \Leftrightarrow c_2$  whenever c, then the resulting program is correct.

(CM.3)

1) pre 
$$c_{pr}$$
 while  $c_1$  as  $c_a$  ter  $E$  in  $p$  do  $IN$  od post  $c_{po}$ 
2)  $c_1 = c_2$  whenever  $c_a$ 

pre  $c_{pr}$  while  $c_2$  as  $c_a$  ter  $E$  in  $p$  do  $IN$  od post  $c_{po}$ 

(CM.4)

1) pre 
$$c_{pr}$$
 IN post  $c_{po}$   
2)  $c'_{pr} \Rightarrow c_{pr}$  and  $c_{po} \Rightarrow c'_{po}$   
pre  $c'_{pr}$  IN post  $c'_{po}$ .

Easy proofs of the soundness of these rules are omitted. We may add that by 2) of (CM.1) the connective & is commutative in preconditions, postconditions, and assertions.

The applications of CM-rules are rather obvious. Some are shown in Section VII some others in [9]. Below we show a typical application of (CM.3). Let  $\lfloor \sqrt{n} \rfloor$  denote the integer square root, let *nnint* denote the WFS of nonnegative integers. The program

pre 
$$n \ge 0$$
 &  $x = 0$   
while  $x < [\sqrt{n}]$   
as  $n, x \ge 0$  &  $x \le [\sqrt{n}]$  ter  $[\sqrt{n}] - x$  with  $z$  in nnint  
do  $x := x + 1$  od  
post  $n \ge 0$  &  $x = [\sqrt{n}]$  (1)

computes  $\lceil \sqrt{n} \rceil$ , but refers to this function in the while condition. This is a typical situation at an early stage of program development. We eliminate the unwanted condition on the strength of the conditional equivalence  $x < \lceil \sqrt{n} \rceil = (x+1)^2 \le n$  whenever  $n, x \ge 0$  and get

```
pre n \ge 0 & x = 0

while (x + 1)^2 \le n

as n, x \ge 0 & x \le \lceil \sqrt{n} \rceil ter \lceil \sqrt{n} \rceil - x with z in nnint do x := x + 1 od

post n \ge 0 & x = \lceil \sqrt{n} \rceil. (2)
```

The next class of rules consist of program enrichments (PE). The first rule supplies a new identifier y and extends the program in such a way that for a certain expression E the equation y = E becomes a permanent invariant. Let E(E'/x) denote the result of the substitution of E' for all quantifier-free occurrences of x in E. Let IN|x = E denote the instruction which results in from IN by the replacement of every assignment  $x_1, \dots, x_n := E_1, \dots, E_n$  in IN, such that at least one  $x_i$  appears in E, by the assignment  $x_1, \dots, x_n, y := E_1, \dots, E_n, E(E_1|x_1, \dots, E_n|x_n)$ . Let a c-computation of IN be a sequence of states  $s_1, s_2, \dots$  generated during the execution of IN and such that  $s_1$  satisfies the condition c. Of course all the three concepts may be easily formalized.

(PE.1)

- 1) pre  $c_{pr}$  IN post  $c_{po}$ ,
- 2) y does not appear in the program above,
- 3) the value of E is defined for any state of any  $c_{pr}$ -computation of IN

$$\operatorname{pre} c_{pr} \& y = E \text{ inv } y = E IN | y = E \text{ vni post } c_{po} \& y = E$$

A routine but tedious inductive proof of this rule is omitted. The rule has two major applications: the transformation of programs from one data type into another [7] and program optimization. An example of the latter is the introduction of y with  $y = (x + 1)^2$  into the program 2). Since after such a transformation the permanent invariant  $y = (x + 1)^2$  becomes a semantic part of the loop assertion, we can modify while condition on the strength of  $(x + 1)^2 \le n = y \le n$  whenever  $y = (x + 1)^2$  and (CM.3). We can also replace the assignment x, y := x + 1,  $((x + 1) + 1)^2$  by x, y := x + 1, y + 2x + 3. On the strength of  $y = (x + 1)^2$  the latter is semantically equivalent to the former. As a result we get

pre 
$$n \ge 0$$
 &  $x = 0$  &  $y = (x + 1)^2$   
inv  $y = (x + 1)^2$   
while  $y \le n$   
as  $n, x \ge 0$  &  $x \le [\sqrt{n}]$  ter  $[\sqrt{n}] - x$  with  $z$  in nnint do  $x, y := x + 1, y + 2x + 3$  od vni  
post  $n \ge 0$  &  $x = [\sqrt{n}]$  &  $y = (x + 1)^2$ .

The second PE-rule serves in the development of while loops. Many instances of such loops may be regarded as vehicles with two distinguished mechanisms: step and keep. The step mechanism proceeds from one element into another in a WFS; the keep mechanism is responsible for keeping a certain assertion  $c_a$  true in all steps. Since the step mechanism usually destroys the truth of  $c_a$ , the keep mechanism must provide a recovery. For instance, in the loop which calculates  $\sum_{j=1}^{n} a_j$  and stores this value in x, step consists of i := i + 1, the assertion  $c_a$  is

 $x = \sum_{j=1}^{i} a_j$  and keep is  $x := x + a_i$ . The step-and-keep viewpoint suggests a certain strategy in developing loops. First develop a pure step mechanism, then enrich it by an appropriate keep mechanism. The following rule formalizes this strategy for while-do instructions.

(PE.2)

```
1) pre c_{pr} while c as c_a ter E with x in p do IN od post c_{po}
2) pre c_a & c & c_1 IN post c_a & c'_1
3) in IN_1, x occurs at most in the assertions
4) pre c_a & c'_1 & E <_p x IN_1 post c_a & c_1 & E <_p x

pre c_{pr} & c_1
```

```
pre c_{pr} \& c_1

while c

as c_a \& c_1 ter E with x in p

do

IN

as c_a \& c_1' \& E <_p x sa

IN_2

od

post c_{po} \& c_1
```

Here program 1) represents the step mechanism. We wish to modify it in such a way that the new loop preserves condition  $c_1$ . Since *IN* destroys this condition [cf. 2)] we add an instruction  $IN_1$  which provides the recovery [cf. 4)]. We also assume that  $IN_1$  does not increase too much the value of E. The application of this rule is shown in Section VII.

The proof of the soundness of (PE.2) consists of showing that the resulting program is correct in the sense of (D4). Cases 1), 2), 3), and 5) of (D4) are obvious. In order to show 4), observe that by the assumption 1) of (PE.2) pre  $c_a \& c \& E = x IN$  post  $c_a \& E <_p x$ . On the other hand, IN transforms  $c_1$  into  $c_1'$ , hence (formally this step requires a new CM-rule) pre  $c_a \& c \& c_1 \& E = x IN$  post  $c_a \& c_1' \& E <_p x$ . This, together with the assumption 4) of (PE.2) and by the rule (D2) leads to the required conclusion: pre  $c_a \& c_1 \& c \& E = x IN$  as  $c_a \& c_1' \& E <_p x$  sa  $IN_1$  post  $c_a \& c_1 \& E <_p x$ .

The last rule which we describe here belongs to the group of program truncations and consists of the removal of an identifier from a program. This rule is used in space optimization and in transforming programs from one data type into another. An identifier x is called autonomous in an instruction IN if it appears at most in assertions and in the assignments which modify x. By IN/x we denote the instruction which results from IN by the removal of all assignments of the form x := E and by the existential quantification of all free accurences of x in the assertions of IN.

(PT.1)

```
1) pre c_{pr} IN post c_{po}
2) x is autonomous in IN
pre (\exists x)c_{pr} IN/x post (\exists x)c_{po}
```

The quantification of x in IN requires special attention if x

occurs simultaneously in a declared invariant and in an assertion which is in the syntactic scope of this invariant. In such a case we cannot quantify x separately in the invariant and in assertions. We have to eliminate x either from the invariant or from the assertions and if this is impossible we have to move the invariant down to all corresponding assertions. For applications of (PT.1), see [7] and [9].

## VII. AN EXAMPLE OF PROGRAM DERIVATION: BUBBLESORT

To get started we recall the intuitive idea of bubblesort. Suppose that we are given a vertical column of bubbles, each pubble having a certain weight. Suppose that our bubbles are mmersed in an environment which satisfies the following Archimedes principle: each bubble which is ligher than its ipper neighbor tends to swap with this neighbor in moving up. At some initial moment all the bubbles are glued together which prevents them from swapping. In the first step of bubplesort we free the first bubble from the top. Of course, 10thing will happen since this bubble has no upper neighbor. Next we free the second bubble. This time a swap may occur f the second bubble is lighter than the first one. In each sucessive step of our procedure we free the successive bubble which immediately starts to move up in searching for such a osition in the column which does not violate the Archimedes principle. It is intuitively clear that in the last step of our procedure the column of bubbles will be ordered according to he increased weights.

In developing programs in PROMET the first step always consists of the description of the appropriate data type. Then we write the first version—or approximation—of our program and from now on we develop and modify both the data type and the program. Since PROMET-1 is not equipped with the formalism for data specification, we shall use here, in that place, the language of intuitive mathematics. In our example the initial data type is the following.

Sorts:

Int-integers;

Arr-arrays; each array is a total function

 $a: \{0, \dots, n\} \rightarrow Int$ , where  $n \ge 0$ :

Bol- $\{true, false, \bot_h\}$ .

functions (with Non-Boolean Values):

+, -, 0, 1-the arithmetical functions and constants understood in the standard way;

maxind: Arr -> Int-the maximal index of an array

component: Arr × Int → Int-the ith component of an array; according to the common style we shall write

a[i] for component(a, i)

seg:  $Arr \times Int \rightarrow Arr$ -the initial segment: seg(a, j)

=  $(a(0), \dots, a(j))$  for  $0 \le j \le maxind \ a$ ; according to the common style we shall write a[0:j] for seg(a,j).

Predicates:

integer, array-the sort predicates (Section II)

≤, <-the usual arithmetical inequalities

is sorted: Arr → Bol

a is sorted :=  $(\forall integer i)$ 

 $(0 \le i < maxind \ a \supset a(i) \le a(i+1))$ 

perm:  $Arr \times Arr \rightarrow Bol$ 

 $a_1$  perm  $a_2 := a_1$  is a permutation of  $a_2$ .

 $nnint = (\{0, 1, 2, \cdots\}, <)$ -nonnegative integers.

Having defined our data type we can proceed to the development of the program. Following the physical model of bubblesort, we shall assume that the program consists of two mechanisms, as follows:

- 1) the step mechanism, which moves a certain pointer j topdown along the array; intuitively this pointer releases successive bubbles.
- 2) the *keep* mechanism, which guarantees that in every step the segment a [0: j] has been sorted.

In order to describe these mechanisms we first establish a condition which characterizes the invariant properties of identifiers in the program. This condition will be later declared as a permanent invariant and will be referred to as *environment-1*:

array A, a & a perm A & integer k, j & k = maxind A &  $0 \le j \le k$ .

Here A is a (constant) external array and a is its internal copy. The integer j represents a pointer which moves from 0 to k. Now we can describe the step mechanism of our loop.

pre environment-1 & a = A & j = 0inv environment-1 while j < k

as true ter k - j with  $x_1$  in nnint do j := j + 1 od

vni

post environment-1 & j = k. (3)

This program is obviously correct. The keep mechanism of our prospective loop should keep the truth of the assertion a[0, j] is sorted. In order to introduce it into (3) we apply (PE.2). First observe that the following program is correct [cf. 2), (PE.2)]:

pre environment-1 & a[0:j] is sorted & j < k j:=j+1post environment-1 & j > 0 & a[0:j-1] is sorted. (4)

Our recovery instruction—call it  $\langle BUBBLING \rangle$ —must satisfy 3) and 4) of (PE.2). This means that it must not change the terminal variable  $x_1$  and must make the following a.s. program correct:

pre environment-1 & j > 0 & a[0:j-1]

is sorted &  $k - j < x_1$ 

inv environment-1 < BUBBLING>

vni

post environment-1 & a[0:j] is sorted &  $k-j < x_1$ .

(5)

According to (PE.2), for any instruction  $\langle BUBBLING \rangle$  which does not modify  $x_1$  and satisfies (5) the following program is correct:

```
pre environment-1 & a = A & j = 0

inv environment-1

while j < k

as a[0:j] is sorted ter k - j with x_1 in nnint

do j := j + 1

as j > 0 & a[0:j - 1] is sorted & k - j < x_1 sa

<BUBBLING>

od

vni

post environment-1 & j = k & a[0:j] is sorted.
```

This is a scheme of a sorting procedure where we have to substitute an appropriate instruction for <BUBBLING>. In order to design this instruction we extend our data type by adding one new sort, two new functions, and one new predicate.

Sort:

Vec-vectors; each vector is a total function  $v: N \rightarrow Int$  where N is an arbitrary finite set of integers Functions:

swap:  $Arr \times Int \times Int \rightarrow Arr$ ; swap(a, i, j) is, for  $0 \le i, j \le maxind a$ , the result of swapping the *i*th with the *j*th element in a

but:  $Arr \times Int \rightarrow Vec$ ; a but i is, for  $0 \le i \le maxind a$ , the restriction of array a to the domain  $\{0, \dots, maxind a\} - \{i\}$ 

Predicates:

bubbles in: Int  $\times$  Arr  $\rightarrow$  Bol; i bubbles in  $a := 0 \le i \le max$  ind  $a \le a$  but i is sorted & i < max ind  $a \supseteq a[i+1] \ge a[i]$ .

It is understood that the predicate is sorted has been extended to the sort of vectors. Our instruction  $\langle BUBBLING \rangle$  will be a loop where the step mechanism moves a new pointer i (which simulates the ascending bubble) and the keep mechanism keeps true the assertion i bubbles in a[0,j]. In order to describe this loop we have to extend our environment by adding new identifier i. Let then environment-2 denote

```
environment-1 & integer i \& 0 \le i \le j.
```

Observe that in all former programs we may replace environment-1 by environment-2 and these programs remain correct. First approximation of <BUBBLING> may be written off-hand

```
pre environment-2 & j > 0 & a[0:j-1] is sorted & k-j < x_1 & i=j inv environment-2 while \sim a[0:j] is sorted as i bubbles in a[0:j] & k-j < x_1 ter i with x_2 in nnint do i:=i-1; a:=swap(a,i,i+1) od vni post environment-2 & a[0:j] is sorted & k-j < x_1.
```

This program is correct, which is easy to prove, but its while condition is hardly implementable. We replace this condition by i > 0 & a[i] < a[i-1] in applying (CM.3) and the conditional equivalence

```
~a [0:j] is sorted = i > 0 & a [i] < a [i - 1] whenever environment-2 & i-bubbles in a [0:j] & k - j < x_1.
```

Observe that in this transformation we strongly rely on the local specification of our program. The existence of this specification allows us for the immediate application of (CM.3).

After having applied this transformation we prefix (7) with i := j and get the final version of  $\langle BUBBLING \rangle$ . We substitute this instruction into (6) replacing at the same time j = k & a [0: j] is sorted by j = k & a is sorted in the postcondition. The following is the final bubblesort program:

```
pre environment-2 & a = A \& j = 0
  inv environment-2
     while i < k
        as a[0:j] is sorted ter k-j with x_1 in nnint
        doj := j + 1
           as j > 0 & a[0:j-1] is sorted & k-j < x_1 sa
           as j > 0 & i = j & a[0:j-1] is sorted
                                            & k-j < x_1 sa
           while i > 0 \& a[i] < a[i-1]
              as i bubbles in a[0:j] & k-j < x_1
                                      ter i with x2 in nnint
             do
                i := i - 1;
                a := swap(a, i, i + 1)
           od
       od
 vni
```

### VIII. FINAL REMARKS

post environment-2 & j = k & a is sorted.

The experiences collected with PROMET-1 (see Acknowledgment) proved that it may be an adequate tool in developing programs of a textbook size. Of course, in order to become a more realistic language, PROMET must be equipped with additional mechanisms such as type declaration, blocks, procedures, etc. This work is in progress now.

A routine question raised in connection with any formal method of programming is to what extent should such a method be applied formally. In the author's opinion the appropriate level of formality is that of intuitive mathematics. Evident need not be proved, but everything must be provable. Whether to carry out a formal (but never formalized) proof is left to the programmer.

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