Lecture 25: Proving termination/implementing functions

- Termination of loops
- Function calls
 - Conventional (review)
 - Higher-order functions
 - Virtual functions (object-oriented languages)

Proving termination

Weird property of the Hoare proof system: It is possible to "prove" non-terminating programs.

Can prove:
$$a = a0 \& b = b0$$
 { while (a != b)

$$g(a,b)(a,b) \implies \text{if (a < b) b := b-a;}$$

$$a = gcd(a0,b0)$$

Judgments in Hoare logic are assertions about partial correctness: P{A}Q means "if the state satisfies P, then after executing A, if A terminates, the state will satisfy Q." If A doesn't terminate the judgment is vacuously true.

Proving termination

Total correctness means A will satisfy its specification (i.e. its partial correctness formula) and will definitely terminate.

Total correctness is usually proven in two separate steps: (1) Prove partial correctness; (2) Prove termination.

Proving termination of loops

Obviously, the only place where nontermination is possible is in loops.

To prove termination of a loop: Define a function ø: program states → non-negative integers. Prove: For every iteration of the loop, ø(the current state) < ø(the previous state). As long as ø is correctly defined as a function whose values are non-negative integers, then the loop cannot go on forever.

Termination proof examples

- sum of n
- fibonacci
- list append
- list reverse

```
Sum of n

Assume n \neq 0:

x = 0 \& y = 0

{

while (y < n) \{

y := y + 1;

x := x + y

}

x = 1 + ... + n

Sum of n

(x, y, n) = n - y

(x, y,
```

Fibonacci

List length

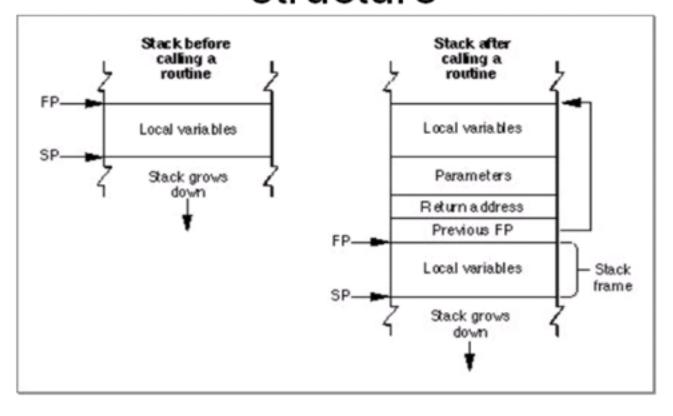
List reverse

```
x = lst \& y = []
\{ \qquad \qquad \varphi(x,y-lst) 
\text{while } (x \neq []) \{ \qquad \qquad = | lt| - | y |
y := hd x :: y;
x := tl x; \qquad \sigma = | x |
\}
y = rev | st
```

Function calls

- Conventional functions:
 - Stack-like function call/return
 - Stack frame contains: parameters, local variables, return address, etc.
 - Offsets of variables within stack frame known statically
- Higher-order functions: environment (bindings of variables) outlives function call
- Virtual functions: bound at run time

Run-time environment – stack structure



Lecture 3

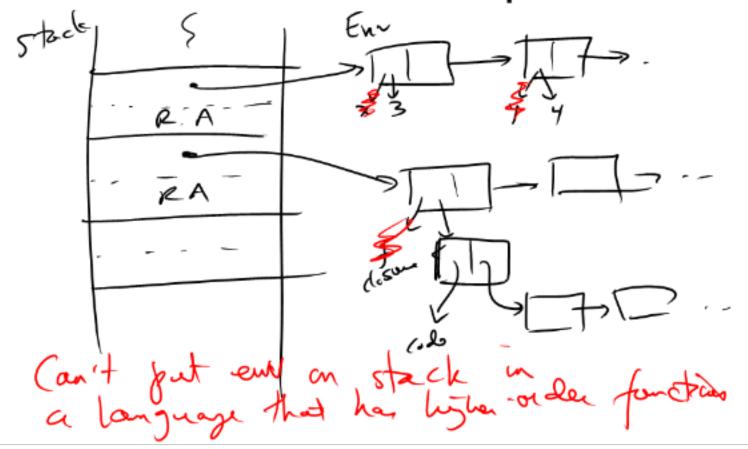
Higher-order functions

(For simplicity, assume one argument per function, no local variables – i.e. like OCaml.)

Use implementation that mimics operational semantics:

- Environments are pairs stored in heap value of parameter and pointer to previous environment
- Closures are pairs stored in heap address of code for function and pointer to environment

Implementing higher-order functions – follow op. sem.



Vouable reference: 1, x & 1 1x distance between ref. Trisl x at "correct location"
in current location Closure formation: y, funx se U < funx se, y > Allocato your, fill first half w/ aldress of compiled cade for fun x > e, second half with correct env. Application. Given aldress c of closes If In

and value v: Form new env: [V] Try,

puch an stack alay w) r.a.,

jump to f. Locations of variables:

(few < > for y > x+y) 3) 4

(lasour Env

Apply [] [] [] [] [] []

(my = x+y

to 4

(reste con: > 9] [] [] [] []

Push on stade, execute "x+y"

Implementing virtual functions

- Calls to virtual functions (those declared "virtual" in C++, all methods in Java) are always indirect – they go through a "virtual function table."
- Objects contain fields and pointer to virtual function table.
- Key point: when compiling any method, the location of every other method's pointer, within its v.f.t., is a static number.

A class C

```
class C { int x; String s;

method i () { ... }

method j () { ... }

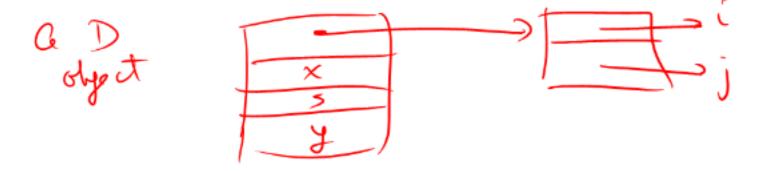
}

clyicat

x
```

D extends C by adding fields

class D extends C { int y; }



D extends C by adding fields, and redefining methods

class D extends C { int y; method j () {...}}

D extends C by adding fields, redefining methods, and adding new methods

class D extends C { int y;

method j () { ... }

method k () { ... }}