Programm- & Systemverifikation

Assertions

Georg Weissenbacher 184.741



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- Error incorrect state that may lead to failure
- Failure deviation from desired behaviour

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Requirement documents (Formal) specification Test cases Documentation

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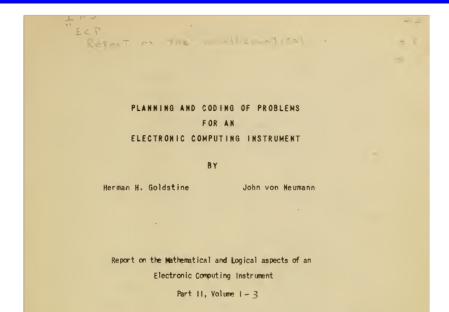
not at instruction level

- Fault cause of an error (e.g., mistake in coding)
- Error incorrect state that may lead to failure
- Failure deviation from desired behaviour
- To locate bug, find transition from correct to incorrect states
- How can we know what is *incorrect* or *desired*?

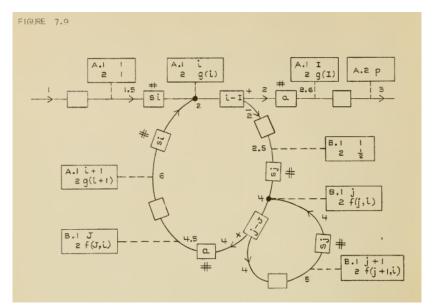
Requirement documents (Formal) specification Test cases hot at instruction level Documentation

Want to detect deviation when it happens!

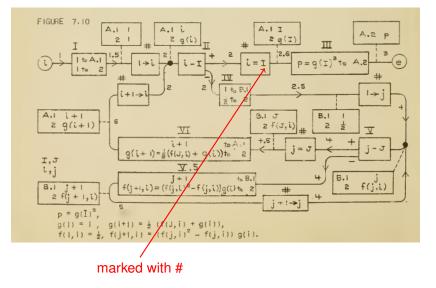
Recall very first lecture: Assertions



What would John von Neumann do?



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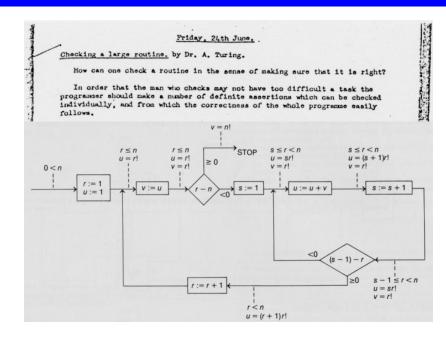


"an assertion box never requires that any specific calculations be made, it indicates only that certain relations are automatically fulfilled whenever [the program] gets to the region which it occupies"

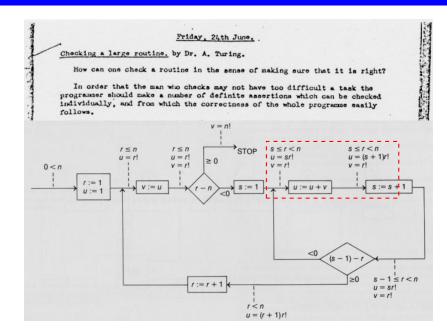
"The contents of an assertion box are one or more relations. These may be equalities, inequalities, or any other logical expressions."

- Relations over program variables
- Evaluate to true or false
- Have no side effect (purely theoretical construct)

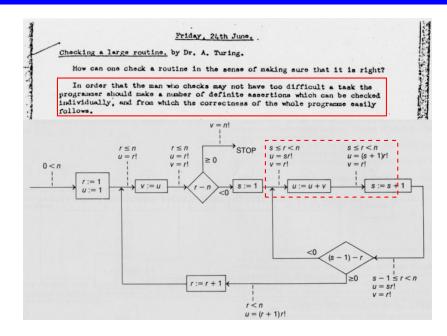
What is the purpose of assertions?



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What is the purpose of assertions?



"In order that the man who checks may not have too difficult a task the programmer should make a number of definite assertions which can be checked individually, and from which the correctness of the whole program easily follows."

before
$$(s \le r < n)$$
 and $(u = s \cdot r!)$ and $(v = r!)$ instruction $u := u + v$ after $(s \le r < n)$ and $(u = (s + 1) \cdot r!)$ and $(v = r!)$

Assigning Meanings to Programs (1967)



Robert W. Floyd

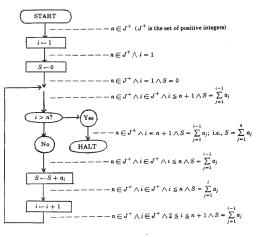
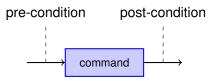


FIGURE 1. Flowchart of program to compute $S = \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_j$ $(n \ge 0)$

"To prevent an interpretation from being chosen arbitrarily, a condition is imposed *on each command* of the program. This condition guarantees that whenever a command is reached by way of a connection whose associated proposition is then true, it will be left (if at all) by a connection whose associated proposition will be true at that time."



- Pre- and post-conditions mathematically rigorous
- This fixes the meaning of the instruction in between

- Pre- and post-conditions mathematically rigorous
- This fixes the meaning of the instruction in between
- Will cover this in more detail in May!
- For now, focus on more pragmatic use of assertions

Using Assertions for Debugging

```
#include <assert.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <string.h>
int findlast (char* str, char elem)
ł
  int i:
  for (i = strlen(str) - 1; i \ge 0; i - -)
  ſ
    if (str[i] == elem)
     break;
  }
  assert (i == -1 || str[i] == elem);
  return i;
}
int main(int argc, char** argv)
ſ
  printf ("%d\n", findlast ("xyz", 'x'));
  printf ("%d\n", findlast ("abc", 'x'));
}
```

We use assertion to state our intention:

- either the result is -1
- or the returned index points to the element in question
- Does not restrict how result is computed
- The assertion is not a complete specification
 - doesn't assert that i points to last occurrence!
 - -1 is actually always a correct answer

- "Light weight" specifications
- Immediate benefit for debugging
- But: do not guarantee (full) correctness of program

Assertions are *partial* specifications

- Not a complete description of program behaviour
- Simpler than *full* specification:

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- Simpler than *full* specification:

$$(i = -1) \land (\not\exists j \in [0, strlen(s)) . str[j] = elem)$$

 $\lor (0 \le i < strlen(s)) \land \begin{pmatrix} str[i] = elem \\ \land \\ \forall j \in (i, strlen(s)) . str[j] \ne elem \end{pmatrix}$

Requires more expressive logic (and educated programmers)
 (Almost) as complicated as implementation

- Assertions are partial specifications
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Requires more expressive logic (and educated programmers)
 (Almost) as complicated as implementation
 Which *logical language* is used?

Expressions of the programming language ▶ C, C++, Java, ...

- *Expressions* of the programming language
 C, C++, Java, ...
- Expressions defined by ISO/IEC 14882:2011, §5
 - e.g., syntax for multiplicative expressions:

multiplicative-expression: pm-expression (e.g., a variable) multiplicative-expression * pm-expression multiplicative-expression / pm-expression multiplicative-expression % pm-expression

- semantics (meaning) of multiplicative operators:
 - "3 The binary * operator indicates multiplication"
 - "4 The binary / operator yields the quotient, and the binary % operator yields the remainder from the division of the first expression by the second. If the second operand of / or % is zero the behavior is undefined. [...]"

Expressions in assertions are predicates

Map values of variables to Boolean values (true, false)

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- In fact, I just lied to you...
 - pm-expression can be a unary-expression (§5.3):

unary-expression: postfix-expression ++cast-expression --cast-expression

• • •

new-expression delete-expression

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*unary-expression*s can have side effects!

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 - pm-expression can be a unary-expression (§5.3):

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> new-expression delete-expression

- unary-expressions can have side effects!
- Expression maps program state to a new state and a value

Examples of expressions with side-effects

- Increment: ++value
- Allocation: p=(char*)malloc(5*sizeof(char))
- Function call:

fwrite(str, 1, sizeof(str), fp)

Examples of expressions with side-effects

- Increment: assert(++value)
- Allocation: assert(p=(char*)malloc(5*sizeof(char)))
- Function call: assert(fwrite(str, 1, sizeof(str), fp))

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <assert.h>
int main(int argc, char** argv)
{
  char *p;
  assert (p = malloc (5 * sizeof (char)));
  char i;
  for (i=0; i < 5; i++)</pre>
    *(p+i) = i;
  return 0;
}
```

```
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <assert.h>
int main(int argc, char** argv)
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  char *p;
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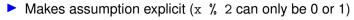
Assertions can be turned off: gcc -DNDEBUG badassert.c

```
#include <stdlib.h>
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int main(int argc, char** argv)
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  char *p;
  assert (p = malloc (5 * sizeof (char)));
  char i;
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    *(p+i) = i;
  return 0;
}
```

Assertions can be turned off: gcc -DNDEBUG badassert.c
 Result: Segmentation fault

- Side effects in assertions are bad idea
- T.f., we assume assertions are side-effect free predicates

```
int x;
. . .
if (x \% 2 == 0)
ſ
   . . .
}
else
{
  assert (x \% 2 == 1);
   . . .
}
```



Note: this assertion may fail (how?)

- But: not every assertion is useful
- The following one is redundant and a sign of paranoia:

```
do {
    x--;
} while (x > 0);
assert (x <= 0);</pre>
```

Not redundant in the following setting:

```
do {
    ...
    if (x == 42)
        break;
    ...
} while (x > 0);
assert (x <= 0);</pre>
```

```
enum gender { MALE, FEMALE };
. . .
switch (gender) {
  case MALE:
    . . .
    break;
  case FEMALE:
    . . .
    break;
  default:
    assert (0);
}
```

Assertion fails if uncovered case is reached

```
enum gender { MALE, FEMALE };
. . .
switch (gender) {
  case MALE:
    . . .
    break;
  case FEMALE:
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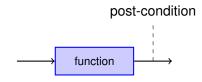
Assertion fails if uncovered case is reached

e.g., after type change

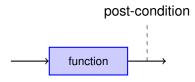
- Assertions document your assumptions
- Changes in the program may break them!
 - (turn them on for regression testing)

Previously used assertions to ensure correct results: assert (i == -1 || str[i] == elem);

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But result may depend on input!

```
float sqrt (float x)
{
   float result;
   ...
   assert (abs((result * result) - x) < EPSILON);
   return result;
}</pre>
```

Asserts expected result, now how it is computed!

```
float sqrt (float x)
{
   float result;
   ...
   assert (abs((result * result) - x) < EPSILON);
   return result;
}</pre>
```

Asserts expected result, now how it is computed!

```
But what if x is changed?
```

```
float sqrt (float x)
{
  float result;
   ...
  x = x / 2; // this causes a problem
   ...
  assert (abs((result * result) - x) < EPSILON);
  return result;
}</pre>
```

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Solution: store x in "history" variable

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float sqrt (float x)
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  float result;
  ...
  x = x / 2; // this causes a problem
  ...
  assert (abs((result * result) - x) < EPSILON);
  return result;
}</pre>
```

Solution: store x in "history" variable

Also known as "shadow" or "auxiliary" variables

```
float sqrt (float x)
{
    const float h_x = x;
    float result;
    ...
    x = x / 2; // this causes a problem
    ...
    assert (abs((result * result) - h_x) < EPSILON);
    return result;
}</pre>
```

Stores original value of x before execution of sqrt

Memorise the past of the program execution

- Should have no side effect on
 - control flow
 - data flow

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- Control flow: history variables must never influence branching
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 - history variables must never occur on right-hand side of assignments

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- Control flow: history variables must never influence branching
 - history variables must never occur in *conditions* (other than assertions)
- Data flow: values must never "flow" from history variables to program variables
 - history variables must never occur on right-hand side of assignments
- Program must still function correctly if eliminate auxiliary variables + assertions

Let stmt_j be an instruction in a program, and let $R(\text{stmt}_j)$... memory locations read by stmt_j $W(\text{stmt}_j)$... memory locations written by stmt_j

 $stmt_i$ is control-dependent on a preceding $stmt_i$ if $stmt_i$ determines whether $stmt_j$ is executed. $stmt_i$ is control-dependent on a preceding $stmt_i$ if $stmt_i$ determines whether $stmt_i$ is executed.

- Let G be a control-flow graph with unique entry point entry and exit point exit
- stmt_j post-dominates stmt_i if stmt_j appears on every path from stmt_i to exit

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- Let G be a control-flow graph with unique entry point entry and exit point exit
- stmt_j post-dominates stmt_i if stmt_j appears on every path from stmt_i to exit

Statement stmt; is control-dependent on stmt; if

- there exists an edge from stmt, to stmtk
- stmt_i post-dominates stmt_k
- stmt; does not post-dominate stmt;

Also possible to use "helper" code:

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Conditions:

- must not change original control flow
- must not change original data flow
- auxiliary code must terminate
- Primary objective: minimise probe effect!

Let's have another look at the sqrt function!

```
float sqrt (float x)
{
  float result;
   ...
  assert (abs((result * result) - x) < EPSILON);
  return result;
}</pre>
```

Isn't there a problem with this assertion?

Let's have another look at the sqrt function!

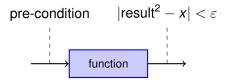
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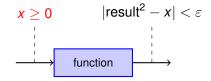
► What if x < 0?</p>

sqrt works only for certain inputs!

sqrt works only for certain inputs!



sqrt works only for certain inputs!



- Pre- and post-conditions represent a "contract"
- Caller must establish pre-condition
- Callee guarantees post-condition if pre-condition holds
- If pre-condition does not hold
 - callee released from contractual obligations!

Violation of pre-condition releases callee from contractual obligations!

Radical, but:

- Enforces clear distribution of responsibilities
- No "double-checking"

The Eiffel programming language supports contracts directly:

require - ensure

Is it a good idea to assert the pre-condition?

```
float sqrt (float x)
{
    assert (x >= 0);
    float result;
    ...
    assert (abs((result * result) - x) < EPSILON);
    return result;
}</pre>
```

Is it a good idea to assert the pre-condition?

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float sqrt (float x)
{
    assert (x >= 0);
    float result;
    ...
    assert (abs((result * result) - x) < EPSILON);
    return result;
}</pre>
```

If we have full control over caller, yes

Is it a good idea to assert the pre-condition?

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float sqrt (float x)
{
    assert (x >= 0);
    float result;
    ...
    assert (abs((result * result) - x) < EPSILON);
    return result;
}</pre>
```

- If we have full control over caller, yes
- In general, however, no.

Rule of thumb:

Use assertions if you can control whether they hold or not

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- Assertions are a debugging tool!
 - Use it to find your own bugs

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Use assertions if you can control whether they hold or not

- Assertions are a debugging tool!
 - Use it to find your own bugs
- For everything else use exceptions/error codes

```
float sqrt (float x)
{
    if (x < 0)
        return nanf(); // Not a number
    float result;
    const float h_x = x;
    ...
    assert (abs((result * result) - h_x) < EPSILON);
    return result;
}</pre>
```

Notes on Java:

- Java provides
 - IllegalArgumentException
 - NullPointerException
 - IllegalStateException
- C++ provides instances of logic_error (in <stdexcept>):
 - domain_error
 - invalid_argument
 - length_error
 - out_of_range
- Assert pre-conditions (only) in private methods

Design by Contract in Java

```
/**
 * @param value Percentage between 0 and 100
 */
public setPercentage (int value)
{
    if (value < 0 || value > 100) {
        throw new
        IllegalArgumentException
            (Integer.toString(value));
    }
    this.value = value;
}
```

Question for Java specialists: why no throws clause?

Design by Contract in Java

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/**
 * @param value Percentage between 0 and 100
 */
public setPercentage (int value)
{
    if (value < 0 || value > 100) {
        throw new
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            (Integer.toString(value));
    }
    this.value = value;
}
```

Question for Java specialists: why no throws clause?

- Unchecked exception
- Unlikely to be caught (indicates severe bug in program)

Assertions can be used to check result of external library

e.g., if we don't trust the library



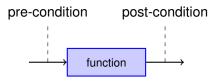


we satisfy the pre-condition of the library function

that the library function returns a correct result

For example: We still don't trust sqrt

```
...
float x = sqrt (y); // square root of x
assert (x >= 0);
```



Pre-condition can be strengthened to allow fewer states

• e.g., $(x \ge 10)$ instead of $(x \ge 0)$

Post-condition can be weakened to allow more states

• e.g., $(|\texttt{result}^2 - x| < \varepsilon) ||(\texttt{result} == \texttt{NaN})$

Contract will still be satisfied!

Assertion could also be conditional

```
if (h_x > 0)
    assert (abs((result * result) - h_x) < EPSILON);</pre>
```

Can also be written just as an assertion:

h_x <= 0 || abs((result * result) - h_x) < EPSILON</pre>

Note that $(\neg A \lor B)$ corresponds to $(A \Rightarrow B)$.

- Assertions checked at individual points during execution
- ► If assertions occur in loops, they must hold *repeatedly*

```
// compute q = x / y, r = x % y
unsigned q = 0; unsigned r = x;
while (r >= y)
{
    r = r - y;
    q = q + 1;
    assert (x == q * y + r);
}
```

• x == q * y + r holds throughout the loop!

After termination: (x == q * y + r) && (r < y)</p>

▶ We can even prove this!

$$r = r - y;$$

We can even prove this!

```
We can even prove this!
    assert (x == (q + 1) * y + (r - y));
    r = r - y;
    assert (x == (q + 1) * y + r);
    q = q + 1;
    assert (x == q * y + r);
```

```
We can even prove this!
    assert (x == (q + 1) * y + (r - y));
    r = r - y;
    assert (x == (q + 1) * y + r);
    q = q + 1;
    assert (x == q * y + r);
```

Assertion holds throughout the loop!

```
We can even prove this!
    assert (x == (q + 1) * y + (r - y));
    r = r - y;
    assert (x == (q + 1) * y + r);
    q = q + 1;
    assert (x == q * y + r);
```

- Assertion holds throughout the loop!
- Assertion holds at the end of the loop!

(x == q * y + r) holds after assignment q = q + 1

But the "new" q is the "old" q plus 1!

- But the "new" q is the "old" q plus 1!
- Therefore, (x == (q + 1) * y + r) holds for the "old" q

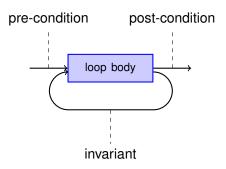
- But the "new" q is the "old" q plus 1!
- Therefore, (x == (q + 1) * y + r) holds for the "old" q
 If

$$(x == (q + 1) * y + r)$$

holds before assignment q = q + 1, then

$$(x == q * y + r)$$

holds afterwards!



q = 0; assert (x == q * y + x); r = x; assert (x == q * y + r);

```
assert (x == 0 * y + x);
q = 0;
assert (x == q * y + x);
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```

```
assert (x == 0 * y + x);
q = 0;
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```

If

x == xholds before q = 0; r = x; then (x == q * y + r)holds afterwards!

Robert W. Floyd, "Assigning Meanings to Programs", 1967



"Then, by induction on the number of commands executed, one sees that if a program is entered by a connection whose associated proposition is then true, it will be left (if at all) by a connection whose associated proposition will be true at the time. By this means, we may prove certain properties of programs, ..."

Mathematical induction proves that a statement involving a natural number n holds for all values of n.

- Base case. Show that claim holds for n = 0.
- ▶ Induction hypothesis. Assume claim holds for *n*.
- ▶ *Induction step.* Show: claim holds for $n \Rightarrow$ it holds for n + 1

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- Conclusion. Claim holds for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

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- Conclusion. Claim holds for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

In our case: *n* is the number of *loop iterations*.

Inductive Invariant Assertions

$$(x == q * y + r) (x == q * y + r)$$

(x = q * y + r) is an inductive invariant of the loop

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 (x == q * y + r) && (r < y) holds after loop

Inductive Invariant Assertions

$$(x == q * y + r) (x == q * y + r)$$

(x == q * y + r) is an inductive invariant of the loop
(x == q * y + r) && (r < y) holds after loop
We have an inductive correctness proof!

How many bits of a variable x are set to 1?

```
unsigned y = x;
unsigned c = 0;
while (y != 0)
{
  y = y & (y-1);
  c = c+1;
}
```

How many bits of a variable x are set to 1?

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unsigned c = 0;
while (y != 0)
{
  y = y & (y-1);
  c = c+1;
}
```

How does this work?

How many bits of a variable x are set to 1?

```
unsigned y = x;
unsigned c = 0;
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{
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```
    How does this work?
    y = y & (y-1)
deletes least
significant bit
```

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How does this work?

```
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deletes least
significant bit
```

But how??

$$y = y \& (y-1);$$

We know: y > 0 (because of loop exit condition)

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Assume y is binary $b_n \dots b_2 b_1 1$

• then
$$(y-1)$$
 is binary $b_n \dots b_2 b_1 0$

$$(b_n \dots b_2 b_1 1 \& b_n \dots b_2 b_1 0) = b_n \dots b_2 b_1 0$$

$$y = y \& (y-1);$$

We know: y > 0 (because of loop exit condition)

Assume y is binary b_n...b₂b₁1

- then (y-1) is binary $b_n \dots b_2 b_1 0$
- $(b_n \dots b_2 b_1 1 \& b_n \dots b_2 b_1 0) = b_n \dots b_2 b_1 0$

Assume y is binary b_n...b_i100

$$y = y \& (y-1);$$

We know: y > 0 (because of loop exit condition) Assume y is binary $b_n \dots b_2 b_1 1$ \blacktriangleright then (y-1) is binary $b_n \dots b_2 b_1 0$ $(b_n \dots b_2 b_1 1 \& b_n \dots b_2 b_1 0) = b_n \dots b_2 b_1 0$ Assume y is binary $b_n \dots b_i 100$ then (y-1) is b_n ... b_i 1 0 0 + 1 ... 1 1 1 1 (-1 in 2's complement) b_n ... b_i 0 1 1 $(b_n \dots b_i 100 \dots \& b_n \dots b_i 011 \dots) = b_n \dots b_i 000 \dots$

Let's add an assertion!

```
unsigned y = x;
unsigned c = 0;
while (y != 0)
{
  y = y & (y-1);
  c = c+1;
}
```

Let's add an assertion!

```
unsigned y = x;
unsigned c = 0;
while (y != 0)
{
    y = y & (y-1);
    assert (x != y);
    c = c+1;
}
```

Let's add an assertion!

```
unsigned y = x;
unsigned c = 0;
while (y != 0)
{
    assert (x != (y & (y-1)));
    y = y & (y-1);
    assert (x != y);
    c = c+1;
}
```

```
Let's add an assertion!
Assertion holds in first iteration

(y & (y -1)) < x, since y != 0</li>

unsigned y = x;
unsigned c = 0;
while (y != 0)
```

```
while (y != 0)
{
    assert (x != (y & (y-1)));
    y = y & (y-1);
    assert (x != y);
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```

Let's add an assertion!
 Assertion holds in first iteration

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 But is the assertion inductive?

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while (y != 0)
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}
```

Is the assertion inductive?

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while (y != 0)
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   assert (x != (y & (y-1)));
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}
```

Is the assertion inductive?

```
while (y != 0)
{
   assert (x != (y & (y-1)));
   y = y & (y-1);
   assert (x != y);
}
```

```
Is the assertion inductive?
      Does (x != y) and (y != 0) imply (x != (y & (y-1)))?
while (y != 0)
 assert (x != (y & (y-1)));
 y = y \& (y-1);
  assert (x != y);
}
```

```
Is the assertion inductive?
      Does (x != y) and (y != 0) imply (x != (y & (y-1)))?
      No! Counterexample: x=0, y=1
while (y != 0)
  assert (x != (y & (y-1)));
  y = y \& (y-1);
  assert (x != y);
}
```

Assertion holds in every iteration of the program!

But is not an inductive invariant!

```
unsigned y = x;
unsigned c = 0;
while (y != 0)
{
   assert (x != (y & (y-1)));
   y = y & (y-1);
   assert (x != y);
   c = c+1;
}
```

Wegener's Bit-Counting Algorithm

- Assertion holds in every iteration of the program!
- But is not an inductive invariant!
- Is there something wrong with the program?

```
unsigned y = x;
unsigned c = 0;
while (y != 0)
{
    assert (x != (y & (y-1)));
    y = y & (y-1);
    assert (x != y);
    c = c+1;
}
```

Let's try another assertion!

```
unsigned y = x;
unsigned c = 0;
while (y != 0)
{
    y = y & (y-1);
    assert ((x != 0) && (y <= (x-1)));
    c = c+1;
}
```

Let's try another assertion!

```
unsigned y = x;
unsigned c = 0;
while (y != 0)
{
    assert ((x != 0) && ((y & (y-1)) <= (x-1)));
    y = y & (y-1);
    assert ((x != 0) && (y <= (x-1)));
    c = c+1;
}
```

Does this hold in the first iteration?

```
unsigned y = x;
unsigned c = 0;
while (y != 0)
{
    assert ((x != 0) && ((y & (y-1)) <= (x-1)));
    y = y & (y-1);
    assert ((x != 0) && (y <= (x-1)));
    c = c+1;
}
```

Does this hold in the first iteration?

```
yes, since y!=0
unsigned y = x;
unsigned c = 0;
while (y != 0)
{
    assert ((x != 0) && ((y & (y-1)) <= (x-1)));
    y = y & (y-1);
    assert ((x != 0) && (y <= (x-1)));
    c = c+1;
}</pre>
```

Does this hold in the first iteration?

```
yes, since y !=0
unsigned y = x;
unsigned c = 0;
while (y != 0)
{
    assert ((x != 0) && ((y & (y-1)) <= (x-1)));
    y = y & (y-1);
    assert ((x != 0) && (y <= (x-1)));
    c = c+1;
}</pre>
```

```
while (y != 0)
{
   assert ((x != 0) && ((y & (y-1)) <= (x-1)));
   y = y & (y-1);
   assert ((x != 0) && (y <= (x-1)));
   c = c+1;
}</pre>
```

Does

(y != 0) and (x != 0) && (y <= (x-1)) imply

```
while (y != 0)
{
   assert ((x != 0) && ((y & (y-1)) <= (x-1)));
   y = y & (y-1);
   assert ((x != 0) && (y <= (x-1)));
   c = c+1;
}</pre>
```

Does

$$(y != 0)$$
 and $(x != 0)$ && $(y <= (x-1))$

imply

$$(x != 0) \&\& ((y \& (y-1)) <= (x-1))$$

Does

(y != 0) and (x != 0) && (y <= (x-1))

imply

$$(x != 0) \&\& ((y \& (y-1)) <= (x-1))$$

Does

(y != 0) and (x != 0) && (y <= (x-1))

imply

We know: ((y & (y-1)) < y unless y == 0 (since the assignment *deletes* a bit)

But y is already smaller or equal x-1!

Does

(y != 0) and (x != 0) && (y <= (x-1))

imply

- We know: ((y & (y-1)) < y unless y == 0 (since the assignment *deletes* a bit)
- But y is already smaller or equal x-1!
- Therefore ((y & (y-1)) <= (x-1)</p>

Does

(y != 0) and (x != 0) && (y <= (x-1))

imply

- We know: ((y & (y-1)) < y unless y == 0 (since the assignment *deletes* a bit)
- But y is already smaller or equal x-1!
- Therefore ((y & (y-1)) <= (x-1)</p>
- And x doesn't change, so x != 0

```
unsigned y = x;
unsigned c = 0;
while (y != 0)
{
    assert ((x != 0) && ((y & (y-1)) <= (x-1)));
    y = y & (y-1);
    assert ((x != 0) && (y <= (x-1)));
    c = c+1;
}
```

The new assertion implies the original one!

The new assertion implies the original one!

This proves that $(x \neq y)$ holds throughout the loop

- Loop invariants hold in every loop iteration
- Inductive loop invariants:
 - if it holds in one iteration, we can deduce that it holds in the next one, too
- Any consequence of an inductive invariant is an invariant
 - but not vice versa!

- Assertions express intent of the programmer
- Powerful debugging technique
- Enable "design by contract"
- Can even be used to prove programs correct