Abstract
Compositional recurrence analysis (CRA) is a static-analysis method based on a combination of symbolic analysis and abstract interpretation. This paper addresses the problem of creating a context-sensitive interprocedural version of CRA that handles recursive procedures. The problem is non-trivial because there is an “impedance mismatch” between CRA, which relies on analysis techniques based on regular languages (i.e., Tarjan’s path-expression method), and the context-free-language underpinnings of context-sensitive analysis.

We show how to address this impedance mismatch by augmenting the CRA abstract domain with additional operations. We call the resulting algorithm Interprocedural CRA (ICRA). Our experiments with ICRA show that it has broad overall strength compared with several state-of-the-art software model checkers.

The paper is an extended version, with proofs, of a paper with the same title at PLDI 2017.

CCS Concepts • Theory of computation → Program analysis: • Software and its engineering → Automated static analysis

Keywords Invariant generation, Resource bounds

1. Introduction
Static analysis provides a way to obtain information about the possible states that a program reaches during execution, but without actually running the program on specific inputs. Two important approaches to static analysis are
• abstract interpretation, which conservatively overapproximates a program’s actions so that the analyzer can explore all the program’s reachable states (as well as some unreachable states);

• symbolic analysis, which uses formulas to create precise models of a program’s actions, but is usually forced to forgo an exploration that accounts for all reachable states.

Compositional recurrence analysis (CRA) [14] is a static-analysis method based on a combination of symbolic analysis and abstract interpretation. It performs abstract interpretation using an abstract domain of transition formulas, and thus works with quite precise models of a program’s actions. It conservatively explores all possible behaviors of a loop by overapproximating the transitive closure of its actions: the formula for the loop body is converted into a system of linear recurrences, which are then solved to create a transition formula for the loop that involves polynomial constraints.

Abstraction refinement is a widely used technique in static analysis that tailors an abstraction to a property of interest. Abstraction refinement enables analyzers to prove complicated properties, but can also cause them to fail to terminate. An interesting feature of CRA is that it can verify complicated properties without using abstraction refinement. CRA is guaranteed to terminate, and in practice it is generally faster than tools based on abstraction refinement. Moreover, it can generate—rather than just verify—invariants, including resource bounds (see §5), and non-linear invariants (see Ex. 4.12).

CRA analyzes a procedure’s behavior using a two-step process, following Tarjan’s path-expression method [41] for solving single-procedure dataflow-analysis problems. First, for each node \( n \) in the procedure’s control flow graph (CFG), it creates a regular expression \( R_n \) that recognizes all paths from the procedure’s entry to \( n \). Second, it evaluates the regular expressions within the CRA domain by interpreting each regular expression operator as a corresponding operator on transition formulas: \(+\) is disjunction, \(-\) is relational composition, and \(\ast\) over-approximates the reflexive transitive closure of a transition formula by generating and solving an appropriate system of recurrence equations.

CRA is compositional in the sense that it computes the abstract meaning of a program by computing, and then combining, the abstract meanings of its parts.

• At the intraprocedural level, CRA makes use of Tarjan’s path-expression method to compose the meanings of subparts via the interpretations of \(+\), \(-\), and \(\ast\) [14].
• At the interprocedural level, each procedure is analyzed independently of its calling context to produce a summary that is used to interpret calls to the procedure.

However, CRA is non-uniform: although recursion is a kind of generalized loop construct, the algorithm that CRA uses to summarize loops (based on generating and solving recurrences) is not the same as the one it uses to summarize recursive procedures (which relies on coarse abstraction and widening). For instance, if a loop is re-coded using a tail-recursive procedure, CRA is not able to identify the same numeric invariants in the recursive version that it identifies in the version with an explicit loop.

This paper addresses the problem of creating a context-sensitive interprocedural version of CRA that handles loops and recursion—including non-linear recursion—in a uniform way. The goal is to create a system that is both
• more resilient to different coding styles—so that if a loop is re-coded to use tail-recursion, the same invariants are identified, and
• more general, by bringing to bear on recursive procedures the methods that CRA uses for generating and solving recurrence equations.

To create such a system, we must deal with the “impedance mismatch” between CRA’s reliance on Tarjan’s path-expression method, which handles regular languages, and the context-free-language underpinnings of context-sensitive interprocedural analysis [5, 15, 34, 35, 39]. This issue is challenging because at the technical level, the regular-language viewpoint is baked into CRA: CRA’s recurrence-solving step is coupled with interpreting Kleene-star (⁎).

The inspiration for our work was the recently developed framework for Newtonian Program Analysis via Tensor Product (NPA-TP) [36]. At first blush, it appeared that NPA-TP overcomes the impedance mismatch because it provides a way to harness Tarjan’s path-expression method for interprocedural analysis: NPA-TP has the surprising property of converting an interprocedural-analysis problem—i.e., a context-free path problem—into a sequence of regular-language path problems.

For NPA-TP to be applicable, the abstract domain must support a few non-standard operations (i.e., a so-called tensor-product operation and a detensor operation). While the CRA domain can be extended with these non-standard operations (§4.2), it fails to satisfy some properties on which the CRA domain can be extended with these non-standard tensor-product operation and a detensor operation). While support a few non-standard operations (i.e., a so-called

Our experiments show that NPA-TP-GJ instantiated for Interprocedural CRA (ICRA) has broad overall strength compared with several state-of-the-art software model checkers. (See §5.)

ICRA also provides a new, systematic approach to the problem of establishing bounds on resource usage, such as memory used or execution time. Recent work by Hoffmann et al. [7, 23] on establishing resource-usage bounds is able to provide polynomial upper bounds on the resource usage of programs. Hoffmann et al. use ad hoc techniques to analyze procedures, whereas ICRA is based on the classical idea of creating behavior summaries for procedures, including recursive procedures. In the case of resource-bound analysis, the summary for a procedure P characterizes the change in available resources caused by invoking P (and all procedures transitively invoked by P). Moreover, by approaching resource-bound analysis as a problem of finding invariant polynomial inequalities, ICRA is able to obtain lower bounds on the resources used, as well as upper bounds, in a uniform way. (See §5.)

Contributions. Our work makes three main contributions:
• We extend CRA to create ICRA, a context-sensitive interprocedural version that handles loops and recursion—including non-linear recursion—in a uniform way (§4.3).
• We present the NPA-TP-GJ framework, which represents the interface and properties required for our approach. NPA-TP-GJ is an interprocedural-analysis method that can be used when the abstract domain has infinite ascending chains and does not support effective equivalence (§4.3).

Much as NPA-TP resurrects Tarjan’s intraprocedural path-expression method for use in interprocedural analysis, NPA-TP-GJ resurrects another old intraprocedural technique—elimination methods [38]—for use in interprocedural analysis.
• We present the results of experiments with an implementation of ICRA (§5). The experiments show that ICRA has broad overall strength, compared with several state-of-the-art software model checkers. ICRA also performs well when applied to the problem of establishing resource-usage bounds.

Outline. §2 summarizes CRA. §3 states the problem that the paper addresses. §4 presents the technical details of our solution. §5 describes the implementation of Algorithm NPA-TP-GJ and presents experimental results. §6 discusses related work. §7 concludes. Proofs can be found in App. A.

2. Background

2.1 Algebraic Program Analysis

Algebraic program analysis is an alternative to the classic iterative style of program analysis; it takes an algebraic (rather
than order-theoretic) approach to approximating repetitive behavior. We illustrate the difference between the algebraic and iterative styles of program analysis with the example shown in Fig. 1. The program’s CFG can also be represented as the following recursive system of equations:

\[
S : \begin{cases}
X_0 = \epsilon + (X_2 \cdot i = i - 1) \\
X_1 = X_0 \cdot i > 0 \\
X_2 = X_1 \cdot (x := x + i + y := y - i) \\
X_3 = X_0 \cdot i < 0
\end{cases}
\]

We can view \( S \) as a grammar for the paths through the program. For each variable (node, non-terminal) \( X_i \), we define \( \text{Paths}(X_i) \) to be the set of paths in the CFG that end at node \( X_i \), or equivalently the set of strings that are generated from non-terminal \( X_i \).

The problem that we are interested in is the classic problem from dataflow analysis of overapproximating the interpretation of all paths that start at the beginning of a program and end at a given program point [27, 39]. We formalize this problem as follows. Suppose that we are given a space of path properties \( D \) and a function \( [\cdot] : \Sigma \rightarrow D \) that maps each program instruction to a path property representing it (where \( \Sigma = \{ i > 0, i := i - 1, \ldots \} \) denotes the set of all program instructions). We suppose that \( D \) is equipped with a sequencing operator \( \otimes \) (with unit \( 1 \)) and a choice operator \( \oplus \) (with unit \( 0 \)). We define an approximation order \( \triangleright_{\text{approx}} \) on \( D \) by defining \( a \triangleright_{\text{approx}} b \iff a \oplus b = a \), and lift \( [\cdot] \) to paths by defining \( [p_1 \ldots p_n] \triangleright_{\text{approx}} [p_1] \otimes \cdots \otimes [p_n] \). Our goal is

For each variable \( X_i \), compute some path property \( D(X_i) \in D \), such that for each path \( p \in \text{Paths}(X_i) \), \( p \) satisfies the property \( D(X_i) \) (i.e., \( D(X_i) \triangleright_{\text{approx}} [p] \)).

In the terminology of abstract interpretation [10], we wish to compute a function \( D \) that abstracts the path semantics of the program within some abstract domain \( D \).

**Definition 2.1.** In the path semantics, the domain of path properties is the set of all path languages: \( D \overset{\text{def}}{=} 2^{\Sigma^*} \). The operations are: \( L_1 \otimes L_2 \overset{\text{def}}{=} \{ p_1 p_2 : p_1 \in L_1 \land p_2 \in L_2 \} \); \( L_1 \oplus L_2 \overset{\text{def}}{=} L_1 \cup L_2 \); \( 0 \overset{\text{def}}{=} \emptyset \); and \( 1 \overset{\text{def}}{=} \{ \epsilon \} \). The semantic function \( [a] \overset{\text{def}}{=} \{ a \} \) maps each instruction \( a \) to \( \{ a \} \).

The classical way to establish that a function \( D \) is a solution to a system of equations \( S \) (in the sense that \( D \) abstracts the path semantics) is to show that \( D \) is a solution to a related system of inequalities \([S]\) over the abstract domain \( D \), where \([S]\) is obtained by re-interpreting the regular operators appearing in \( S \) with the corresponding operators in \( D \). For the \( S \) that corresponds to Fig. 1, we have

\[
[S] : \begin{cases}
X_0 \geq 1 \oplus (X_2 \otimes [i := i - 1]) \\
X_1 \geq X_0 \otimes [i > 0] \\
X_2 \geq X_1 \oplus ([x := x + i] \oplus [y := y - i]) \\
X_3 \geq X_0 \otimes [i \leq 0]
\end{cases}
\]

We call a solution to \([S]\) a post-fixpoint solution to \( S \). It is easy to see that if \( D \) is a post-fixpoint solution to \([S]\), then \( D \) overapproximates the path semantics.

In an iterative program analysis, a post-fixpoint solution is computed as the limit of a sequence of approximations. Define the Kleene iteration sequence \( \{D^n : \{X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4\} \rightarrow D\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \) as follows:

\[
D^0(X_0) = 0 \\
D^{n+1}(X_0) = 1 \oplus (D^n(X_2) \otimes [i := i - 1]) \\
D^{n+1}(X_1) = D^n(X_0) \otimes [i > 0] \\
D^{n+1}(X_2) = D^n(X_1) \oplus ([x := x + i] \oplus [y := y - i]) \\
D^{n+1}(X_3) = D^n(X_0) \otimes [i \leq 0]
\]

Define \( D(X_i) \overset{\text{def}}{=} \bigoplus_{n \in \mathbb{N}} D^n(X_i) \) to be the limit of this sequence. When \( D \) has no infinite ascending chains, the sequence \( \{D^n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \) eventually stabilizes, and we may compute \( D \) effectively. If \( D \) fails to satisfy the ascending-chain condition, then we use a widening operator to ensure convergence [11]. Observe that if we take \( D \) to be the path semantics, then \( D(X_i) \) coincides with \( \text{Paths}(X_i) \).

Algebraic program analysis is an alternative to this iterative style. Rather than assuming the ascending-chain condition or a binary widening operator, we assume that the space of program properties is equipped with a unary iteration operator \( * \). We compute \( D \) using a two-step process. The first step is to apply Tarjan’s path-expression algorithm [41] to compute, for each variable \( X_i \) in the system, a regular expression that recognizes the path language \( \text{Paths}(X_i) \):

\[
S : \begin{cases}
X_0 = \text{body}^* \\
X_1 = \text{body}^* \cdot i > 0 \\
X_2 = \text{body}^* \cdot i > 0 \cdot (x := x + i + y := y - i) \\
X_3 = \text{body}^* \cdot i \leq 0
\end{cases}
\]

where \( \text{body} \overset{\text{def}}{=} i > 0 \cdot (x := x + i + y := y - i) \cdot i := i - 1 \).

The second step is to evaluate each path expression within \( D \), using the algebraic operators \( \otimes, \oplus, \) and \( * \) to interpret the regular expression operators \( \cdot, +, \) and \( * \), respectively:

\[
D(X_0) \overset{\text{def}}{=} [\text{body}]^* \\
D(X_1) \overset{\text{def}}{=} [\text{body}]^* \otimes [i > 0] \\
D(X_2) \overset{\text{def}}{=} [\text{body}]^* \otimes [i > 0] \otimes ([x := x + i] \oplus [y := y - i]) \\
D(X_3) \overset{\text{def}}{=} [\text{body}]^* \otimes [i \leq 0]
\]

where \( [\text{body}] \overset{\text{def}}{=} [i > 0] \otimes ([x := x + i] \oplus [y := y - i]) \cdot i := i - 1 \).

Again, if we take \( D \) to be the path semantics (where \( L^* \overset{\text{def}}{=} \bigcup_n L^n, L^0 = 1 \), and \( L^{n+1} = L^n \otimes L \)), then \( D(X_i) \) coincides with \( \text{Paths}(X_i) \).
The essential difference between the iterative and algebraic approaches is that fixpoint computation is external to the abstract domain in the iterative approach, but internal in the algebraic approach: the iteration operator is a “built-in” method for solving a particularly simple class of recursive equations—i.e., $X \mapsto a^*$ is a solution to the single-variable recursive equation $\{ X = 1 \oplus (X \otimes a) \}$. When a domain has infinite ascending chains, the two approaches impose different burdens on the analysis designer. The iterative approach requires designing a (binary) widening operator that ensures convergence by deliberate overapproximation. The algebraic approach requires designing a (unary) $*$ operator. The $*$ operator offers flexibility, because it need not necessarily be computed using an iterative process. (Although the $*$ operator of the path semantics is defined as the limit of an iterative process—i.e., $L^* \overset{df}{=} \bigcup_n L^n$—the analysis designer is free to design a $*$ operator that overapproximates the $*$ operator of the path semantics however they choose.)

The first step of the algebraic approach can be viewed as merely transforming the specification of the language(s) of paths in the program. For instance, the transformation of $S$ to $\hat{S}$ can be thought of as a transformation on grammars in which the language of each nonterminal is preserved. (In the case of $\hat{S}$, regular operators are used on right-hand sides of productions.) The second step computes a sound (overapproximating) path property for each variable by interpreting its associated right-hand-side within a suitable algebra of path properties.

The method developed in this paper combines elements of both the iterative and algebraic styles of program analysis. First, the equations defining the paths through a program are transformed (§4.3.1). For linear recursive systems, the transformation results in a non-recursive system that can be solved merely by interpreting the right-hand side of each equation within a suitable algebra (as in the algebraic method). For general systems, the transformation results in a recursive system of a restricted form, which can be solved using an iterative method (§4.3.2). Post-fixpoint solutions of the transformed system are generally not post-fixpoint solutions of the original system; however, they do overapproximate the path semantics of the original system. The correctness of the approach is captured by the following principle:

**Observation 2.1. [Path-Preservation Principle].** A post-fixpoint solution of a transformed (but equivalent) system of equations overapproximates every path of the original equation system. □

We make use of Obs. 2.1 in the soundness argument for the program-analysis algorithm presented in §4.

### 2.2 Compositional Recurrence Analysis

Compositional Recurrence Analysis (CRA) [14] is a program analysis that follows the algebraic style. The space of path properties supported by CRA (i.e., the carrier of the semantic algebra of CRA) is the set of *transition formulas* over (not necessarily linear) integer arithmetic. Letting $x$ denote a finite set of program variables, a transition formula $\varphi(x, x')$ is a formula over the variables $x$ plus a set of primed copies $x'$, representing the values of the variables before and after executing a path, respectively. The sequencing operation is relational composition and choice is disjunction: $^1$

$$\varphi \gtrdot \psi \overset{df}{=} \exists x''. \varphi(x, x'') \land \psi(x'', x') \quad \varphi \lor \psi \overset{df}{=} \varphi \lor \psi$$

The heart of CRA is its iteration operator. Given as input a transition formula $\varphi_{\text{body}}$ that summarizes the body of a loop, the iteration operator computes a formula $\varphi_{\text{body}}^{\infty}$ that summarizes any number of iterations. The iteration operator of CRA uses an SMT solver to extract a system of recurrences entailed by $\varphi_{\text{body}}$, and then returns the closed form of the system as the abstraction of the loop.

We illustrate how CRA analyzes loops using the example system $\hat{S}$ from §2.1. (See [14] for algorithmic details.)

To compute the value of $D(X_0)$ (that is, a transition formula that approximates every path starting and ending at the beginning of the loop), we evaluate within the CRA algebra the right-hand-side of the equation for $X_0$ in $\hat{S}$

$$\mathbf{i} > 0 \cdot (x := x + 1 \lor y := y - 1) \cdot \mathbf{i} := i - 1$$

The evaluation proceeds by first evaluating the expression inside the Kleene-star operator, which yields the following transition formula (representing one iteration of the body of the loop):

$$\varphi_{\text{body}} : \mathbf{i} > 0 \land \left( (x' = x + \mathbf{i} \land y' = y) \lor (x' = x \land y' = y - \mathbf{i}) \right) \land \mathbf{i}' = \mathbf{i} - 1$$

It then applies the iteration operator to $\varphi_{\text{body}}$ to obtain a value for $X_0$. The iteration operator extracts the following recurrence (in)equations from $\varphi_{\text{body}}$, and computes their closed forms using symbolic summation:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Recurrence</th>
<th>Closed form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$\mathbf{i}' = \mathbf{i} - 1$</td>
<td>$\mathbf{i}^{(k)} = \mathbf{i}^{(0)} - k$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$x' \geq x$</td>
<td>$x^{(k)} \geq x^{(0)}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$y' \leq y$</td>
<td>$y^{(k)} \leq y^{(0)}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$y' \geq y - \mathbf{i}$</td>
<td>$y^{(k)} \geq y^{(0)} - k(k - 1)/2 - k \mathbf{i}^{(0)}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$x' \leq x + \mathbf{i}$</td>
<td>$x^{(k)} \leq x^{(0)} + k(k - 1)/2 + k \mathbf{i}^{(0)}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$x' - y' = x - y + \mathbf{i}$</td>
<td>$x^{(k)} - y^{(k)} = x^{(0)} - y^{(0)} + k(k - 1)/2 + k \mathbf{i}^{(0)}$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Here $\mathbf{i}^{(k)}$ denotes the value of $\mathbf{i}$ on the $k$th iteration of the loop). Finally, the iteration operator introduces an existentially quantified non-negative variable $k$ (representing the iteration count of the loop), and conjoins the closed form of

\(^1\)In the implementation of sequential composition (and that of the tensor operation defined in §4.2), fresh Skolem constants are introduced for existentially quantified variables. We do not perform quantifier elimination because the formulas are in non-linear integer arithmetic, which does not admit quantifier elimination.
every recurrence:
\[
\varphi_{body}^k : \exists k. k \geq 0 \land x' = i - k \land x' \geq x \land y' \leq y \\
\land y' \geq y - k(k - 1)/2 - k i \\
\land x' \leq x + k(k - 1)/2 + k i \\
\land x' - y' = x - y + k(k - 1)/2 + k i
\]

3. Problem Statement
The problem addressed in the paper is the following:

| Extend CRA to create a context-sensitive interprocedural version (ICRA) that handles loops and recursion—including non-linear recursion—in a uniform way. |

Recursion presents an obstacle because the set of paths through a program that uses recursion is not regular: it is context-free [34, 39], which places recursive behavior beyond the scope of what can be analyzed using CRA’s iteration operator.

Recent work on Newtonian Program Analysis via Tensor Product (NPA-TP) [36] has provided a crucial piece of the puzzle. NPA-TP uses tensor products (§4.2) to extend the algebraic approach to program analysis to linear recursive systems of equations. To solve non-linear recursive equations, NPA-TP uses Newton iteration, an approach pioneered by Esparza et al. [13] that generalizes Newton’s method for numerical analysis. NPA-TP is a hybrid iterative/algebraic approach in which a solution to a system of equations is computed as the limit of a sequence (like in iterative program analysis), but where each iterate is the solution to a linearized model of the equations (which is solved algebraically). However, neither Newton iteration nor Kleene iteration is compatible with CRA:

- The CRA domain has infinite ascending chains, so Newton/Kleene iteration is not guaranteed to converge.
- The problem of determining whether two CRA transition formulas are equivalent is undecidable, so there is no way to tell if Newton/Kleene iteration has converged.

Our algorithm for ICRA, presented in §4.3, is based on a new analysis framework, called NPA-TP-GJ. NPA-TP-GJ adopts the idea from NPA-TP of working with a refactored equation system obtained by rearranging expressions using tensor product (§4.3.1). However, other aspects of NPA-TP-GJ are significantly different. For instance, the key step of NPA-TP-GJ has the flavor of Gauss-Jordan elimination: it repeatedly carries out (i) a symbolic variation of NPA-TP’s linearization step (but only applied to a single equation), and (ii) substitution of a closed-form expression for the linearized symbol into the other equations. (See Alg. 4.14.)

4. Technical Details
4.1 Recursive Equation Systems
This paper shows how CRA can be extended so that it can apply its recurrence-solving techniques to recursive procedures. This section formalizes this problem as the problem of computing a property (within a suitable algebraic structure called a quasi-weight domain) that overapproximates the set of paths defined by a recursive equation system.

Definition 4.1. Let \( \Sigma \) be an alphabet and let \( \mathcal{X} = \{X_1, \ldots, X_n\} \) be a finite set of variables. A system of equations \( S \) with regular right-hand sides over \( \Sigma \) and \( \mathcal{X} \) consists of one equation for each variable, \( X_1 = R_1, \ldots, X_n = R_n \), where each \( R_i \) is a regular expression over the alphabet \( \mathcal{X} \cup \Sigma \). More compactly, we write \( S : \{X_i = R_i\}_{i=1}^n \).

Quasi-weight domains are algebraic structures with operations to interpret the operators of regular expressions, the domain of CRA being the motivating example for our interest. The axioms of quasi-weight domains ensure that its operations overapproximate the operations of the path algebra described in Defn. 2.1.

Definition 4.2. A quasi-weight domain \( D = \langle D, \equiv, \oplus, \otimes, *, 0, 1 \rangle \) is a set \( D \) equipped with an equivalence relation \( \equiv \), a binary combine operator \( \oplus \), a binary extend operator \( \otimes \), a unary closure operator *, and distinguished elements \( 0 \) and \( 1 \) that satisfies the following axioms:

1. The equivalence relation \( \equiv \) is a congruence with respect to \( \oplus \) and \( \otimes \) (\( a_1 \equiv a_2 \) and \( b_1 \equiv b_2 \) implies \( a_1 \oplus b_1 \equiv a_2 \oplus b_2 \) and \( a_1 \otimes b_1 \equiv a_2 \otimes b_2 \)). Note that \( \equiv \) is not necessarily a congruence with respect to *.
2. \( \langle D, \oplus, \otimes, 0, 1 \rangle \) is an idempotent semiring “up to equivalence,” meaning that for all \( a, b, c \in D \) we have:
   - (Associativity) \( a \otimes (b \otimes c) \equiv a \otimes (b \otimes c) \) and \( (a \oplus b) \otimes c \equiv a \otimes (b \otimes c) \)
   - (Unit) \( a \otimes 1 \equiv 1 \otimes a \equiv a \) and \( a \oplus 0 \equiv 0 \oplus a \equiv a \)
   - (Commutativity) \( a \oplus b \equiv b \oplus a \)
   - (Distributivity) \( a \otimes (b \oplus c) \equiv (a \otimes b) \oplus (a \otimes c) \) and \( (b \oplus c) \otimes a \equiv (b \otimes a) \oplus (c \otimes a) \)
   - (Idempotence) \( a \otimes a \equiv a \)
3. The closure operator overapproximates reflexive transitive closure, in the following sense:
   - (Reflexivity) \( 1 \leq a^* \)
   - (Transitivity) \( a^* \otimes a \leq a^* \) and \( a \otimes a^* \leq a^* \)
   - where \( \leq \) is the natural preorder on \( D \): for any \( a, b \in D \), \( a \leq b \iff a \oplus b = b \).

Because \( \otimes \) will be used to model sequencing of program actions, there is no assumption that \( \otimes \) is commutative. We assume the following precedences for operators: \( * > \otimes > \oplus \). We also sometimes use \( a \in D \) rather than \( a \in D \).

Example 4.3. The quasi-weight domain of paths \( \langle 2^\Sigma^+, \equiv, \oplus, \otimes, *, 0, 1 \rangle \) is defined using \( \oplus, \otimes, 0, 1 \) from Defn. 2.1. The equivalence relation \( \equiv \) is equality on languages, and the iteration operation \( L^* \) is Kleene closure.

Example 4.4. Let \( x \) denote a finite set of program variables. In the quasi-weight domain of CRA over the variables \( x \), the carrier \( D \) is the set of all transition formulas \( \varphi(x, x') \) over the variables \( x \) and primed copies \( x' \). The equivalence relation \( \equiv \) is logical equivalence; the sequenc-
ing operator \( \varphi \otimes \psi \triangleq \exists x'' \cdot \varphi(x, x'') \land \psi(x'', x') \) is sequential composition; the choice operation \( \varphi \oplus \psi \triangleq \varphi \lor \psi \) is disjunction; the iteration operation \( \varphi^* \) is defined by extracting recurrences from \( \varphi \) and computing their closed forms as described in \$2.2; \( 1 \overset{\text{def}}{=} (x = x') \) is the identity transition; and \( 0 \overset{\text{def}}{=} \text{false} \) is the empty transition.

Note that all of the operations of the CRA quasi-weight domain are effective except the equivalence relation. The equivalence relation is used for developing the underlying theory of NPA-TP-GJ, but does not play a role in any algorithms. The motivation behind the inclusion of an explicit equivalence relation in the definition of quasi-weight domains (rather than quotienting by the equivalence relation to obtain a simpler algebraic structure) is because the iteration operator of CRA may produce inequivalent outputs for equivalent inputs. (Because the theory of non-linear integer arithmetic is undecidable, any non-trivial iteration operator has this deficiency.)

**Definition 4.5.** Let \( \mathcal{D} = (D, \equiv, \otimes, *, 0, 1) \) be a quasi-weight domain, \( \Sigma \) be an alphabet, \( \mathcal{X} = \{X_1, \ldots, X_n\} \) be a set of variables, \( [\cdot] : \Sigma \to D \) be an alphabet interpretation, and \( \sigma : \mathcal{X} \to D \) be a variable interpretation. We use \( [\cdot]_\sigma \) to denote the function that maps any regular expression over \( \Sigma \) and \( \mathcal{X} \) to an element of \( D \) by using \( [\cdot] \) to interpret \( \Sigma, \sigma \) to interpret \( \mathcal{X} \), and by using the operations of \( \mathcal{D} \) in place of the regular-expression operators \( 0, 1, +, \cdot, * \). If \( R \) contains no variables, we may omit the subscript \( \sigma \).

We use \( [\cdot]^\mathcal{P} \) to denote the obvious alphabet interpretation for the quasi-weight domain of paths (as described in \$2.1); for any regular expression \( R \), \( [R]^\mathcal{P} \) is the set of paths recognized by \( R \). For any system of equations with regular right-hand sides \( S : \{X_i = R_i\} \) over \( \Sigma \) and \( \mathcal{X} = \{X_1, \ldots, X_n\} \), we define \( \text{Paths}_S : \mathcal{X} \to 2^{\Sigma^*} \) to be the least function (in pointwise set-inclusion order) such that for each \( i \), \( \text{Paths}_S(X_i) = [R_i]^\mathcal{P}_{\text{Paths}} \).

We can now formalize the problem of interest.

Let \( S : \{X_i = R_i\}_{i=1}^n \) be a system of recursive equations with regular right-hand sides over an alphabet \( \Sigma \) and a set of variables \( \mathcal{X} = \{X_1, \ldots, X_n\} \); let \( \mathcal{D} = (D, \equiv, \otimes, *, 0, 1) \) be a quasi-weight domain; and let \( [\cdot] : \Sigma \to D \) be an alphabet interpretation. A solution to \( S \) in \( \mathcal{D} \) is any map \( \mathcal{D} : \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{D} \) such that for all \( i \), for all \( p \in \text{Paths}_S(X_i) \), we have \( \mathcal{D}(X_i) \supseteq [p] \).

In what follows, we will describe a method for solving systems of equations with regular right-hand sides. Our presentation of the method proceeds in two steps: first, we review tensor products, which can be used to solve linear recursive systems [36]; second, we present a hybrid iterative/algebraic technique for solving general recursive systems based on tensor products and iteration domains.

### 4.2 Tensor Products

Intuitively, quasi-weight domains are well-suited for solving intraprocedural program analysis problems, such as the one described in \$2.1. Intraprocedural program analysis problems correspond to left-linear systems of equations (in which each right-hand-side is of the form \( \bigoplus_i X_i \cdot R_i \) where \( R_i \) does not contain variables). Left-linear systems correspond to regular languages, and the operators of quasi-weight domains correspond to those of regular expressions. For interprocedural-analysis problems, however, these operations are not sufficient. Just as one cannot describe the set of paths of a recursive procedure using a regular expression, one cannot use the operators of a quasi weight domain to describe the operation of recursive procedures.

Recently, Reips et al. showed that algebraic program analysis can be extended to a linear system of equations by using a tensored domain [36]. As a warm-up exercise for \$4.3, where we present our method for solving an arbitrary system of equations, this section describes a slight variation of the Reips et al. method. Essentially all of the machinery introduced in this section carries over to \$4.3, but the setting in which it is used here is somewhat less complicated.

Following Obs. 2.1, we proceed in two steps. First, we define a way to transform a linear equation system into a different, but equivalent, form (Eqn. (1)). The transformation involves the tensor-product domain of paths (Defn. 4.6), and converts a linear equation system with regular right-hand sides into a non-recursive equation system in which the right-hand sides are regular expressions extended with additional operators from the tensor-product domain. Second, we describe the properties that a tensor-product domain must satisfy to be used to interpret an extended regular expression, and then describe the ICRA tensor-product domain.

**Definition 4.6.** A quasi-weight domain \( \mathcal{D}_T = \langle D_T, \equiv_T, \otimes_T, *, \cdot_T, 0_T, 1_T \rangle \) of tensored paths as follows: a tensored path \( \langle p, \mathcal{P} \rangle \) is a pair consisting of one “backward” path \( p \) and one “forward” path \( \mathcal{P} \); the carrier \( D_T \overset{\text{def}}{=} 2^{\Sigma^* \times \Sigma^*} \) is the powerset of tensored paths. The \( \otimes_T \) operator is coordinate-wise concatenation, with concatenation reversed for backward paths:

\[
T_1 \otimes_T T_2 = \{ \langle p_2 \cdot p_1, \mathcal{P}_1, \mathcal{P}_2 \rangle : \langle p_1, \mathcal{P}_1 \rangle \in T_1, \langle p_2, \mathcal{P}_2 \rangle \in T_2 \}
\]

Similarly to the quasi-weight domain of untensored paths, \( \equiv_T \) is equality, \( \oplus_T \) is union, and \( T^{*+1} \overset{\text{def}}{=} \bigcup_i T^i \) where \( T^0 \overset{\text{def}}{=} \{ \langle \epsilon, \epsilon \rangle \} \) and \( T^{i+1} = T^i \otimes_T T \). The unit of \( \ominus_T \) is \( 0_T \overset{\text{def}}{=} \emptyset \), and the unit of \( \oplus_T \) is \( 1_T \overset{\text{def}}{=} \{ \langle \epsilon, \epsilon \rangle \} \).

The tensor-product domain of paths \( \mathcal{F} = \langle \mathcal{D}, \mathcal{D}_T, \otimes, \cdot, \oplus, \ominus, \mathcal{K} \rangle \) consists of the domain of paths \( \mathcal{D} \), the domain of tensored paths \( \mathcal{D}_T \), a tensor operation \( \otimes : \mathcal{D} \times \mathcal{D} \to \mathcal{D}_T \) and a detensor-product operation...
Tensor-product domains and (I)CRA.

$\equiv D \times D_T \to D$, defined as follows:

$$L_1 \circ L_2 \equiv \{(p_1, p_2) : p_1 \in L_1, p_2 \in L_2\}$$

$L \times T \equiv \{pp\bar{p} : p \in L, (p, \bar{p}) \in T\}$

**Definition 4.7.** Let $\Sigma$ be an alphabet and let $X = \{X_1, \ldots, X_n\}$ be a finite set of variables. A (tensored) extended regular expression over $\Sigma$ and $\mathcal{X}$ is an expression generated by the following grammar:

$$E, F \in \text{Ext}(\Sigma, \mathcal{X}) :\equiv a \in \Sigma \mid X \in \mathcal{X} \mid 0 \mid 1 \mid E + F \mid E \cdot F \mid E^* \mid E \bowtie T$$

$E_T, F_T \in \text{Ext}(\Sigma, \mathcal{X}) :\equiv (E \circ F) \mid 0_T \mid 1_T \mid E_T + F_T \mid E_T \cdot T \mid E_T^\circ T$

For any function $\sigma : \mathcal{X} \to 2^\Sigma$, and any extended regular expression $E$, we use $[E]_\sigma^\circ T$ to denote the set of paths in the language of $E$. $[E]_\sigma^\circ T$ is defined as the interpretation of $E$ using the operations of $\mathcal{T}$ from Defn. 4.6 in place of the operators $0, 1, +, \cdot, *, 0_T, 1_T, +, \cdot, \tau, \bowtie, \circ, \bullet$.

For extended regular expressions $E$ and $F$, we write $E \simeq F$ to denote that for every function $\sigma : \mathcal{X} \to 2^\Sigma$, we have $[E]_\sigma = [F]_\sigma$.

As a concrete example, $\{a^ib^i : i \geq 0\}$ is the classic example of a non-regular language. It is not the language of any regular expression, but it is the language of the extended regular expression $1 \bowtie (a \bowtie b)^*$. Using extended regular expressions, we can transform a linear system of equations

$$S : \{X_i = r_i + s_{i,1} \cdot X_{j_1} \cdot t_{i,1} + \ldots + s_{i,m_i} \cdot X_{j_{m_i}} \cdot t_{i,m_i}\}_{i=1}^n$$

over an alphabet $\Sigma$ and set of variables $\mathcal{X} = \{X_1, \ldots, X_n\}$ as follows. Let $\mathcal{Z} = \{Z_1, \ldots, Z_m\}$ be a set of variables (one for each $X_i$), and define the following left-linear system:

$$S_T : \left\{Z_i = (1 \bowtie r_i) + \tau Z_{j_1} \cdot T (s_{i,1} \bowtie t_{i,1}) + \tau \ldots + \tau Z_{j_{m_i}} \cdot T (s_{i,m_i} \bowtie t_{i,m_i}) \right\}_{i=1}^n$$

Using Tarjan’s path-expression algorithm, we can transform $S_T$ into an equivalent non-recursive system of equations $S_T : \left\{Z_i = E_i \right\}_{i=1}^n$ in which the right-hand sides are extended regular expressions. Finally, define system $\mathcal{S}$ to be $\{X_i = 1 \bowtie E_i\}_{i=1}^n$. We have the following path-preservation property:

**Proposition 4.8.** [36] For each $i$, we have

$$\text{Paths}_S(X_i) = \text{Paths}_{S_T}(X_i).$$

Tensor-product domains and (I)CRA. We now give a general definition of a tensor-product domain. A tensor-product domain is equipped with operations that correspond to the extended-regular-expression operators. The operations are required to satisfy conditions that imply that they approximate the corresponding operators on paths.

**Definition 4.9.** A tensor-product domain $\mathcal{T} = \langle D, D_T, \bowtie, \tau \rangle$ consists of two quasi-weight domains, $D$ and $D_T$, along with the following two operations:

- A tensor-product operator, denoted by $\bowtie : D \times D \to D_T$, such that for all $a, b, c, a_1, b_1, a_2, b_2 \in D$,

$$(a \bowtie b) \bowtie c \equiv (a \bowtie (b \bowtie c))$$

and for all $a_1 \equiv a_2$ and $b_1 \equiv b_2$, we have $a_1 \bowtie b_1 \equiv a_2 \bowtie b_2$.

- A detensor-product operation $\tau : D \times D_T \to D$, such that for all $a, b \in D$ and all $p, q \in D_T$ we have

$$a \tau (p \bowtie q) \equiv (a \bowtie p) \bowtie (a \bowtie q)$$

and for all $a \equiv b$ and $p \equiv q$, we have $a \tau p \equiv b \bowtie q$.

One can check that the tensor-product domain of paths (Defn. 4.6) satisfies the conditions of Defn. 4.9. A second example is the tensor-product domain of CRA, denoted by CRA-$\tau$.

**Example 4.10.** Recall from Ex. 4.4 that CRA weights are formulas over some specified set of variables $x$ and primed copies $x'$. The weights in CRA-$\tau$ are formulas over four sets of variables $x, x', \bar{x},$ and $\bar{x}'$. It is instructive to think of such a formula as a set of pairs of transitions $\langle(x, x'), (x, x')\rangle$. Under this interpretation, the semantic definitions of the $\bowtie, \tau,$ and $\tau$ operators are as follows:

$$\begin{align*}
T_1 \bowtie T_2 & = \left\{\langle(x_1, x_1'), (x_1, x_1')\rangle : (x, x') \in T_1, (x, x') \in T_2\right\} \\
R_1 \bowtie R_2 & = \left\{\langle(x_1, x_1'), (x_2, x_2')\rangle : (x_1, x_1') \in R_1, (x_2, x_2') \in R_2\right\} \\
R \bowtie T & = \left\{\langle(x', x'), (x, x')\rangle : (x, x') \in R \land (x', x') \in T\right\}
\end{align*}$$

The operations of CRA-$\tau$ can be carried out syntactically using variable renaming and existential quantification:

$$\varphi_T \bowtie \psi_T \equiv \exists x''. \left(\varphi_T[x \mapsto x'', x' \mapsto x''] \land \psi_T[x' \mapsto x'', x' \mapsto x'']\right)$$

$$\varphi_T \bowtie \psi_T \equiv \varphi_T \lor \psi_T$$

$$0_T \equiv \text{false}$$

$$\varphi \bowtie \psi \equiv \langle(x \mapsto x', x' \mapsto x')\rangle$$

The iteration operator $\ast_T$ operates by finding closed forms for recurrences just as described in §2.2, except over a vocabulary of four sets of variables.

Tensor-product domains can be used to evaluate extended regular expressions in the same way that quasi-weight domains can be used to evaluate regular expressions (Defn. 4.5). Let $\mathcal{T} = \langle D, D_T, \bowtie, \tau \rangle$ be a tensor-product domain, $[\cdot] : \Sigma \to D$ be an interpretation of an alphabet $\Sigma$, and $\sigma : \mathcal{X} \to D$ be an interpretation of a set of
variables $\mathcal{X}$. We use $[[\cdot]]_{\tau}$ to denote the function that evaluates an extended regular expression within $\mathcal{T}$ by interpreting the extended-regular-expression operators $0, 1, +, \cdot, 0_\tau, 1_\tau, +_\tau, \cdot_\tau, \circ_\tau$, and $\otimes$ using their counterparts in $\mathcal{T}$, using $[[\cdot]]$ to interpret symbols in $\Sigma$, and $\sigma$ to interpret variables. We omit the $\sigma$ subscript for extended regular expressions without variables. The crucial property of tensor-product domains is that evaluation of extended regular expressions within a tensor-product domain overapproximates the path semantics:

**Proposition 4.11.** Let $\Sigma$ be an alphabet, let $\mathcal{T} = \langle D, D_\tau, \circ, \otimes \rangle$ be a tensor-product domain, and let $[[\cdot]] : \Sigma \to D$ be an interpretation for the alphabet. For any regular expression $E$ over $\Sigma$ and any path $p \in [[E]]^\tau$, we have $[[E]] \supseteq [[p]]$.

*Proof:* See App. A. 

Together, Props. 4.8 and 4.11 give a complete recipe for applying Obs. 2.1 to solve a linear equation system $S$ over a tensor-product domain:

- Transform $S$ to eliminate recursion—while preserving paths—using Eqn. (1) and Tarjan’s method.
- Evaluate the right-hand sides of the resulting system within the tensor-product domain.

**Example 4.12.** We demonstrate the use of the CRA tensor-product domain with a recursive multiplication routine.

```plaintext
mul():
    if (y != 0)
        y := y - 1; mul(): m := m + x
```

This program corresponds to the following (linear) system of equations:

$$ S : \left\{ \begin{array}{ll}
X &= y = 0 \\
    &\lor (y \neq 0 \cdot y := y - 1 \cdot X \cdot m := m + x)
\end{array} \right\} $$

$S$ can be transformed into a non-recursive system using an extended regular expression:

$$ \tilde{S} : \left\{ X = y = 0 \lor (y \neq 0 \cdot y := y - 1 \circ (m := m + x))^* \right\} $$

We can compute a summary for $\text{mul}$ by evaluating the right-hand side of the equation in $\tilde{S}$ in the CRA$_T$ domain. The crucial computation is the tensor product iteration operation. The input is the following tensored formula, which represents one iteration of the “loop”:

$$ y \neq 0 \land y' = y - 1 \land m' = m + x \land m', x', y', x' = m, x, y, x $$

From this formula, we extract the recurrences shown to the right.

The output of the iteration operator is the following tensored formula:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Recurrence</th>
<th>Closed form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$y' = y - 1$</td>
<td>$y^{(k)} = y^{(0)} - k$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$m' = m + x$</td>
<td>$m^{(k)} = m^{(0)} + k x^{(0)}$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Finally, by evaluating the detensor-product operation, we get the following summary for $\text{mul}$:

$$ \exists k. k \geq 0 \land (y' = y - k \land m' = m + k x) $$

Notice that this formula constrains the number of decrements of $y$ to be equal to the number of increments of $m$, which is crucial in showing that $\text{mul}$ correctly implements multiplication (when $m$ is equal to 0 in the initial state).

### 4.3 Non-Linear Systems

This section describes a method for solving general (non-linear) systems of equations with regular right-hand sides over a tensor-product domain equipped with some additional structure. The method is inspired by NPA-TP, and similarly uses a variation of Kleene iteration in which each iterate is computed by solving a simpler “regularized” model of the original system of equations, obtained by rearranging expressions using tensor product.

Our method overcomes two fundamental challenges:

- Quasi-weight domains may have infinite ascending chains.
- Quasi-weight domains may have undecidable equivalence. The quasi-weight domain of CRA exhibits both of these problems. Note that Kleene iteration is not an option for solving the original system of equations.

When there are infinite ascending chains, Kleene iteration may not converge.

When equivalence is undecidable, even if Kleene iteration does converge, there is no way to tell.

However, as we show in the remainder of this section, it is possible to carry out Kleene iteration on the “regularized” model, due to its special properties (see Alg. 4.14). Our solution is motivated by the following observation about the CRA domain, which can be used to enforce and detect convergence for that domain:

The iteration operator of CRA can be “factored” through a simple abstract domain (its iteration domain), which has decidable equivalence and a widening operator. By re-arranging a system of equations into a special form, from a successive-approximation sequence in the CRA domain we can construct a derived sequence in the iteration domain. We can use equivalence checking in the iteration domain to detect convergence of the successive-approximation sequence, and use the widening operator to ensure that both sequences converge in finite time.

We motivate our approach using the CRA domain. The iteration operator of CRA can be thought of as a two-phase process (cf. §2.2): given a formula $\varphi$ representing the body of a loop, we (1) compute a set of recurrences entailed by $\varphi$ using an SMT solver, and (2) compute closed forms for the
The loop-body formula \( \varphi \) is expressed in a rich assertion language, which includes disjunction, quantifiers, and non-linear terms. The recurrences computed by phase (1), on the other hand, are relatively simple: each recurrence (e.g., \( x' = x + 1 \), representing that \( x \) is incremented in the loop) is a linear constraint, and so a set of recurrences can be represented by a convex polyhedron. Thus, we can express the iteration operator of CRA as the composition of (i) an abstraction function that computes a polyhedron (representing recurrences) from a transition formula, and (ii) an abstract-closure function that computes a transition formula from a polyhedron by computing closed forms. A key feature of our approach is that the widening operator is defined on the iteration domain—polyhedra—rather than on the domain of CRA itself (i.e., transition formulas over non-linear arithmetic). Polyhedra are a well-studied abstract domain, for which equivalence is decidable and widening operators are readily available. Our implementation uses the NewPolka implementation in APRON [1].

**Example 4.13.** We use the Fibonacci function to show how our analysis technique exploits \( \text{fib}() \):

The two-phase structure of CRA’s iteration operator. The code for \( \text{fib}() \) is pictured to the right; it uses two global variables, \( p \) (representing the parameter) and \( r \) (representing the return value), and two local variables, \( n \) and \( t \). (Our technique handles local variables using essentially the same technique presented in [36, §8], but we omit the details.) The paths through \( \text{fib}() \) are captured by the following equation:

\[
S : \left\{ X = \begin{cases} \text{n := p} & \text{if (n <= 1) r := 1} \\ \text{else} & \text{p := n-1} \\ \text{fib()} \\ \text{t := r; p := n-2} \\ \text{fib()} \\ \text{r := r+t} \end{cases} \right\},
\]

where right \( \overset{\epsilon}{=} \text{t := r; p := n-2} \cdot X \cdot r := r+t \). The first step in solving \( S \) is to re-arrange the system to use the tensored iteration operator to model the first recursive call

\[
\hat{S} : \left\{ X = \begin{cases} \text{X := p; n := 1; r := 1} \\ \text{X} \times \text{X := p; n := 1} \odot \text{right}^{\epsilon} \end{cases} \right\}
\]

Unlike the case of linear recursion (e.g., Ex. 4.12), \( \hat{S} \) is still recursive: \( X \) appears within the expression “right.” However, \( \hat{S} \) has the property that every variable appears below a star. We say that an occurrence of a variable in a (tensored) extended regular expression is guarded if it appears below a star; a variable with an unguarded occurrence is called free. The significance of \( \hat{S} \) having no free variables is that it allows us to detect and enforce convergence of a successive-approximation process via a “derived sequence” of polyhedra.

We define two sequences by mutual recursion: \( (D^k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \) is a sequence of transition formulas representing summaries for \( \text{fib} \), and \( (\beta^k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \) is a sequence of polyhedra representing transitions of the “loop body” (appearing below the \( ^\epsilon \)):

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{body} & = n := p \cdot n > 1 \odot t := r \cdot p := n-2 \cdot X \cdot r := r+t.
\end{align*}
\]

For simplicity, we only sketch the high-level idea of our approach rather than give the exact sequences that would be computed. The first (underapproximating) summary for \( \text{fib} \) is \( D^0(X) \overset{\epsilon}{=} \emptyset \). We compute the first loop-body polyhedron \( \beta^1 = \bot \) by substituting \( D^0(X) \) for \( X \) in body, evaluating within the CRA algebra, and applying the abstraction function. We compute the second summary for \( \text{fib} \) by applying the abstract-closure function to \( \beta^1 \) (which yields \( \bot \)), and using the result as the approximation of the loop:

\[
D^1(X) = p \leq 1 \land r' = 1 \land p' = p
\]

The next loop-body polyhedron \( \beta^2 \) is computed from \( D^1(X) \) just as \( \beta^1 \) was computed from \( D^0(X) \), except that we additionally perform polyhedral widening using \( \beta^3 \):

\[
\begin{align*}
\beta^2 & = \bot \lor \left( \begin{array}{l}
\text{p' := p - 1; } \text{a' := p \leq 3} \land \text{r' := r} \\
\text{p' := p - 2; } \text{r' := r + 1}
\end{array} \right) \\
\beta^3 & = \bot \lor \left( \begin{array}{l}
\text{p' := p - 1; } \text{a' := p \leq 3} \land \text{r' := r} \\
\text{p' := p - 2; } \text{r' := r + 1}
\end{array} \right)
\end{align*}
\]

The return value is always incremented by 1 because, according to the summary \( D^1(X) \), \( \text{fib} \) always returns 1. Notice that the precondition on the parameter to \( \text{fib} \) has been propagated backward to yield the constraint \( p \leq 3 \); this propagation is a result of projecting out the local variable \( n \), which has the additional effect of equating the values of \( n \) before and after the recursive call (\( n' \) and \( n \)), respectively). Continuing this process, we compute \( D^2, \beta^3, \) and \( D^3 \):

\[
\begin{align*}
D^2(X) & = \left( \begin{array}{l}
\text{p' := p \leq 1; } \text{a' := 1} \\
\text{\lor \exists k, k \geq 1; } \text{r' := k + 1 \land k = p - 1 \land p \leq 3}
\end{array} \right) \\
\beta^3 & = \left( \begin{array}{l}
\text{p' := p - 1; } \text{a' := p \leq 3} \land \text{r' := r + 1}
\end{array} \right) \\
D^3(X) & = \left( \begin{array}{l}
\text{p' := p \leq 1; } \text{a' := 1} \\
\text{\lor \exists k, k \geq 1; } \text{r' := k + 1 \land k = p - 1}
\end{array} \right)
\end{align*}
\]

When computing \( \beta^4 \), we find that the sequence has converged: \( \beta^4 = \beta^3 \). Because every variable is guarded by a Kleene-star, the fact that the sequence of loop-body polyhedra has converged implies that the sequence of function summaries has also converged (Thm. 4.18), and \( D^3(X) \equiv D^4(X) \) is an overapproximating summary for \( \text{fib} \).

More abstractly, the equation system for \( \text{fib} \) consists of a single recursive equation with just one variable:

\[
S : \left\{ X = d + (a \cdot X \cdot b \cdot X \cdot c) \right\}.
\]

By treating the first occurrence of \( X \) on the right-hand side of Eqn. (2) as a variable and the second occurrence as a symbolic constant, we created an equivalent system of equations where every variable appears below a star

\[
\hat{S} : \left\{ X = (1 \odot d) \times (a \odot (b \odot X \odot c))^\epsilon \right\}.
\]

Thus, \( \hat{S} \) has no free variables. The goal is to find a solution for \( \hat{S} \) in the transition-formula domain. We define a “derived
sequence” \((\beta^k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}\) in the polyhedral domain:

\[
\beta^k \triangleq \beta^{k-1} \lor \alpha_{\text{poly}}(a \otimes (b \otimes D^k(X) \otimes c)),
\]

where \(\alpha_{\text{poly}}\) is a heuristic that creates a polyhedron that overapproximates a transition formula [14, §IV & Alg. 2]. Convergence of the derived sequence—i.e., \(\beta^k = \beta^{k-1}\) for some \(k\)—is enforced via the widening operator of the polyhedral domain. When the derived sequence converges, so does the \(D\) sequence (in particular, \(D^{k+1}(X) = D^k(X)\)).

We now show how this process can be carried out in a more abstract setting, for an arbitrary equation system over any number of variables. Following the Path-Preservation Principle (Obs. 2.1), we proceed in two steps. First, in §4.3.1, we show how to transform a system of equations into an equivalent system of equations with no free variables. Second, in §4.3.2, we formalize iteration domains (of which polyhedra are one concrete instance), and show how to solve systems of equations without free variables using a tensor-product domain equipped with an iteration domain.

### 4.3.1 Eliminating free variables

We now show how to transform a system of recursive equations with regular right-hand-sides into an equivalent system of equations where the right-hand sides are extended regular expressions with no free variables. The transformation is intuitively similar to Gauss-Jordan elimination, in that variables are successively eliminated in some order. However, unlike in Gauss-Jordan elimination, only free occurrences of variables are eliminated—and thus our method is only a partial elimination method. Given an equation \(X = E\), the variable \(X\) is eliminated in two steps:

(i) Rewrite \(E\) as \(F + X \times F_T\), where \(X\) is not free in \(F\).

(ii) Replace the equation \(X = E\) with the equation \(X = F \times F_T^\ast\) (in which \(X\) is not free by construction), and replace every free occurrence of \(X\) within the system of equations with \(F \times F_T^\ast\).

Rewriting step (i) is accomplished by the function \(\text{factor}_X(E)\), defined in Fig. 2. The input to \(\text{factor}\) is a variable \(X\) and a normal extended regular expression \(E\), which is an extended regular expression such that for every subexpression of \(E\), the form \(F \times F_T\) is of the form \(F^\ast\). The output is an extended regular expression \(F \times F_T\) such that (1) \(E \simeq F + (X \times F_T)\), (2) \(F\) is normal, and (3) \(X\) is not free in \(F\). The complete free-variable-elimination algorithm is as follows:

**Algorithm 4.14 (Free-Variable Elimination).** The input is a system of equations \(S : \{X_i = R_i\}_{i=1}^n\) with regular right-hand sides over an alphabet \(\Sigma\) and a finite set of variables \(X = \{X_1, \ldots, X_n\}\). We transform \(S\) into an equivalent system \(\tilde{S}\) with no free variables by eliminating variables one at a time, in a style reminiscent of Gauss-Jordan elimination. We use \(S_k : \{X_i = \hat{E}_{i,k}\}_{i=1}^n\) to denote the system of equations after \(k\) elimination rounds (we take \(S_0 \triangleq S\) to be the original system of equations, noting that each regular

\[
\text{factor}_X(a) \triangleq a + X \times 0_T
\]

\[
\text{factor}_X(X_i) \triangleq \begin{cases} 0 + X \times 1_T & \text{if } X = X_i \\ X + X \times 0_T & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}
\]

\[
\text{factor}_X(E + E') \triangleq (F + F') + X \times (F_T + 0_T)
\]

\[
\text{factor}_X(E \times E') \triangleq (F \times F') + (X \times \left(F_T(0_T \circ F_T')\right) + (F_T F_T' E_0 (0_T 1_T))
\]

\[
\text{factor}_X(E^\ast) \triangleq E^\ast + X \times 0_T
\]

\[
\text{factor}_X(E \times F_T) \triangleq (F \times F_T) + X \times (F_T F_T E_T)
\]

where \(\text{factor}_X(E) = F + X \times F_T\) and \(\text{factor}_X(E') = F' + X \times F_T'\).

Figure 2: \(\text{factor}_X(E)\).

expression \(R_i\) from the original system of equations is also a normal extended regular expression \(E_{i,0}\).

1. Repeat for each \(k = 1\) to \(n:\)

   (a) Let \(\text{factor}_X(E_{k,k}) = F + (X_k \times F_T)\)
   
   (b) Define \(S_{k+1} : \{X_i = \hat{E}_{i,k+1}\}_{i=1}^n\) by:

   \[
   \hat{E}_{k,k+1} \triangleq F \times F_T^\ast
   \]

   • For \(i \neq k\), \(\hat{E}_{i,k+1}\) is obtained from \(E_{i,k}\) by replacing each free occurrence of \(X_k\) with \(F \times F_T^\ast\).

2. Return \(\hat{S} \triangleq S_{n+1}\).

**Theorem 4.15.** Given a system of equations \(S : \{X_i = R_i\}_{i=1}^n\) with regular right-hand sides over an alphabet \(\Sigma\) and a finite set of variables \(X = \{X_1, \ldots, X_n\}\), Alg. 4.14 computes a system of equations \(\hat{S} : \{X_i = \hat{E}_{i}\}_{i=1}^n\) where the right-hand sides are normal extended regular expressions over \(\Sigma\) and \(X\) with no free variables, and which is equivalent to \(S\) in the sense that \(\text{Paths}_S(X_i) = \text{Paths}_{\hat{S}}(\hat{X}_i)\) for all \(X_i\).

**Proof:** See App. A.

Thm. 4.15 shows that the transformation performed by Alg. 4.14 results in an equivalent system of equations. Following Obs. 2.1, any post-fixpoint solution to the transformed system overapproximates every path of the original equation system. §4.3.2 shows how to compute such a post-fixpoint solution.

**Example 4.16.** We now illustrate Alg. 4.14 on the recursive-descent parser shown in Fig. 3. The initial equation system has the form

\[
E = a \cdot T \cdot (b \cdot E + (c + 0))
\]

\[
T = d \cdot ((e + f \cdot E \cdot (g + 0)) + 0) \cdot (h \cdot T + (i + 0)),
\]

where \(0 = \text{abort}()\), \(a = \text{cost}++\), \(b = \text{currentToken} == ?\star\cdot \text{getNextToken}()\), etc.

The equation system simplifies to

\[
E = a \cdot T \cdot (b \cdot E + c)
\]

\[
T = d \cdot (e + f \cdot E \cdot g) \cdot (h \cdot T + i).
\]
The second and final round of Alg. 4.14 eliminates the free occurrences of T. The free occurrence of 1b of Alg. 4.14 substitutes the right-hand side of Eqn. (5) for E. Let E := T (‘+’ E)*

\[
E = (a \cdot T \cdot c) \mho ((a \cdot T \cdot b) \odot 1)^{\ast r},
\]

Eqn. (5) is a non-recursive version of Eqn. (3): Eqn. (5) says that an E consists of some number—say, n—of copies of a\cdot T\cdot b, followed by a\cdot T\cdot c, followed by n copies of 1. Step 1b of Alg. 4.14 substitutes the right-hand side of Eqn. (5) for the free occurrence of E in Eqn. (4), and thus round 1 of step 1 of Alg. 4.14 produces Eqn. (5) and

\[
T = d \cdot (e + f \cdot (a \cdot T \cdot c) \mho (a \cdot T \cdot b) \odot 1)^{\ast r} \cdot g \cdot (h \cdot T + i).
\]

All occurrences of E have been eliminated, but three free occurrences of T and two guarded occurrences of T remain. The second and final round of Alg. 4.14 eliminates the free occurrences of T, producing

\[
E = a \cdot ((d \cdot e \cdot i) \mho (left \ast right)^{\ast r}) \cdot c \mho ((a \cdot T \cdot b) \odot 1)^{\ast r}.
\]

As desired, all free occurrences of all variables have been eliminated. When the method described in §4.3.2 is used to solve this system, it computes summaries of procedures E and T. Using the domain of CRA, the summary is strong enough to prove that after parsing completes, cost ≤ tokenCount + 1—that is, the cost of parsing is linear in the number of tokens.

### 4.3.2 Solving an equation system with no free variables

We now show how to solve a system of equations over extended regular expressions with no free variables. The key idea is to equip the tensor-product domain with an iteration domain, defined below.

**Definition 4.17.** Let \(D = \langle D, \equiv, \oplus, \ominus, \ast, 0, 1 \rangle\) be a quasi-weight domain. An iteration domain for D, \(D^i = \langle D^i, \leq, \sqcap, \alpha, cI \rangle\), is a partially ordered set \(\langle D^i, \leq \rangle\) along with the following operations.

An abstraction operator \(\alpha : D \to D^i\) and an abstraction operator \(cI : D^i \to D\) such that the following properties hold:
1. For all \(a \in D\), \(cI(\alpha(a)) = a^*\).
2. For all \(a^2, b^2 \in D^i\) such that \(a^2 \leq b^2\) we have \(cI(a^2) \leq cI(b^2)\).

A widening operator \(\sqcap : D^i \times D^i \to D^i\) such that the following properties hold:
1. For all \(a^2, b^2 \in D^i\), \(a^2 \sqcap b^2\) is an upper bound of \(a^2\) and \(b^2\).
2. For every infinite sequence \(\langle a_n^2 : D^i \rangle_{n \in \mathbb{N}}\), the ascending chain \(\langle b_n^2 : D^i \rangle_{n \in \mathbb{N}}\) defined as

\[
b_1^2 = a_1^2, b_{n+1}^2 = b_n^2 \sqcap a_{n+1}^2
\]

eventually stabilizes.

Let \(\Sigma\) be an alphabet, let \(X = \{X_1, \ldots, X_n\}\) be a finite set of variables, and let \(S : \{X_i = E_i\}_{i=1}^{n}\) be a system of equations in which each \(E_i\) is an extended regular expression over \(\Sigma\) and \(X\) with no free variables. Let \(\mathcal{T} = \langle D, D_T, \equiv, \ast \rangle\) be a tensor product domain such that both \(D\) and \(D_T\) are equipped with iteration domains and let \(\mathcal{I} : \Sigma \to D\) be an interpretation of the alphabet. We now show how to compute a post-fixpoint solution \(D : \mathcal{X} \to D\) to \(S\). Operationally, we compute the solution via successive approximation, where we widen and check convergence at each occurrence of \(\ast\) and \(\ast r\).

We define \(D\) as the limit of a sequence \(\langle D^k : \mathcal{X} \to D \rangle_{k \in \mathbb{N}}\): \(D^0\) is the constant function \(\lambda x.0\); then, for each \(k \geq 1\), define \(D^k(X_i) = eval^k(E_i)\), where

\[
eval^k(a) = [a], eval^k(X_i) = D^{k-1}(X_i), eval^k(E \oplus F) = eval^k(E) \oplus eval^k(F), eval^k(E \otimes F) = eval^k(E) \otimes eval^k(F), eval^k(E^*) = cI(body^k(E)), eval^k(E \times E_T) = eval^k(E) \times eval^k(E_T), eval^k(E \otimes E_T) = eval^k(E) \otimes eval^k(E_T), eval^k(E_T \oplus E_T) = eval^k(E_T) \oplus eval^k(E_T), eval^k(E_T \otimes E_T) = eval^k(E_T) \otimes eval^k(E_T), eval^k(E_T^\ast) = cI(body^k(E_T)), eval^k(E) = body^{k-1}(E) \vee \alpha([E]_{D^{k-1}}), body^k(E_T) = body^{k-1}(E_T) \vee \alpha([E_T]_{D^{k-1}}).
\]
The values computed by $body^k$ and $body_T^k$ (over all $k$) implicitly define the “derived sequence” within the iteration domain. We say that $S$ stabilizes at $k$ if for every subexpression of the form $E^*$ that appears in any $E_i$, we have

$$body^k(E) = body^k(E^*),$$

and for every subexpression of the form $E_{T^*}$ that appears in any $E_i$, we have

$$body_T^k(E_T) = body_T^k(E_{T^*}).$$

**Theorem 4.18.** There exists a $k$ such that $S$ stabilizes at $k$, and $D^k$ is a post-fixpoint solution to $S$.

**Proof:** See App. A.

**Example 4.19.** Ex. 4.13 is a high-level overview of how our approach analyzes the Fibonacci function. Here we illustrate one step of this process in greater detail: computing the third iterate $D^3$ of the system $S$. Write the system $S$ as

$$S : \{X = \text{base} \times (\text{rec}^*)\},$$

where

$$\text{base} \equiv \{n := \text{p} \cdot n < 1 \cdot r := 1\}$$

and

$$\text{rec} \equiv \left\{ \begin{array}{l}
(n := \text{p} \cdot n > 1 \cdot \text{p} := n-1) \\
(t := r, p := n-2 \cdot X: r := r + t)
\end{array} \right\}.$$

The value of $D^3(X)$ is computed by evaluating the right-hand-side of the equation:

$$D^3(X) = \text{eval}^3(\text{base} \times (\text{rec}^* \text{T})) = \text{eval}^3(\text{base}) \times \text{eval}^3(\text{rec}^* \text{T}) = \text{eval}^3(\text{base}) \times \text{eval}^3(\text{rec}^* \text{T}).$$

The expression base contains no variables, so it can be re-interpreted within the CRA quasi-weight domain:

$$\text{eval}^3(\text{base}) = \begin{cases}
\{n := \text{p} \cdot n < 1 \cdot r := 1\} \circ \{r := t\}
\end{cases}.$$

The term $\text{eval}^3(\text{rec})$ refers to the third-iteration loop-body polyhedron (called $\beta^3$ in Ex. 4.13). Following the definition of $body_T^3$ above, we have

$$body_T^3(\text{rec}) = body_T^3(\text{rec}) \cap \alpha_T \text{poly}_T((\text{rec}^* \text{T})).$$

where $body_T^3(\text{rec})$ is the second-iteration loop-body polyhedron ($\beta^2$ in Ex. 4.13) and $\text{eval}^3(\text{rec})$ is the value obtained by evaluating rec in the tensor-product domain of CRA, using $D^2(X)$ to interpret the variable $X$:

$$[\text{rec}]_{D^2} = \left[ \begin{array}{l}
\{n := \text{p} \cdot n > 1 \cdot \text{p} := n-1\} \\
\{r := t, p := n-2 \cdot \text{D}^2(X) \circ \{r := r + t\}\}
\end{array} \right].$$

We then project out the local variables $n$ and $t$ and apply the abstraction operator to obtain the following polyhedron:

$$\tilde{\alpha}_\text{poly}_T(\text{rec}^* \text{T}) = \{p = p - 1 \land 1 \leq 5 \land t = t \land t \geq 11\}.$$

Returning to the evaluation of $body_T^3(\text{rec})$, we apply polyhedra widening to the previous iterate $\beta^2$ and $\alpha_T \text{poly}_T((\text{rec}^* \text{T}))$:

$$body_T^3(\text{rec}) = \beta^3 \cap \alpha_T \text{poly}_T((\text{rec}^* \text{T})).$$

Finally, returning to the evaluation of $D^3(X)$, we have

$$D^3(X) = \text{eval}^3(\text{base}) \times \text{eval}^3(\text{rec}) = \left( \begin{array}{l}
p = p - 1 \land 1 \leq 1 \land t = 1
\end{array} \right).$$

**Algorithm NPA-TP-GJ.** Putting all the pieces together, we now state Algorithm NPA-TP-GJ for solving non-linear systems of equations.

**Algorithm NPA-TP-GJ.** The input is a system of equations $S : \{X_i = R_i\}_{i=1}^n$ with regular right-hand sides over an alphabet $\Sigma$ and a finite set of variables $X = \{X_1, \ldots, X_n\}$, a tensor-product domain $\mathcal{T} = \langle \mathcal{D}, \mathcal{D_T}, \mathcal{O}, \mathcal{X} \rangle$, and an interpretation $[\cdot] : \Sigma \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$. The output is a mapping $D : X \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ such that for all $i$ and all $\mathcal{D}_i \in \text{Paths}_S(X_i), D(X_i) \subset [\mathcal{D}]$.

1. Use Alg. 4.14 to transform $S$ into a system of equations $S : \{X_i = \tilde{E}_i\}_{i=1}^n$, in which each $\tilde{E}_i$ is an extended regular expression over $\Sigma$ and $X$ that has no free variables.
2. $k \leftarrow 0; D^0 \leftarrow \lambda x. \tilde{Q}$
3. Repeat
   (a) $k \leftarrow k + 1$
   (b) $D^k(X) \leftarrow \text{eval}^k(\tilde{E}_i)$
4. Return $D^k$

In the degenerate case when $S$ is linear, left-linear, or right-linear, the call on Alg. 4.14 in step (1) returns a solution to $S$ (or, more precisely, a system of equations $S$ in which the right-hand-sides do not contain any variables). In this case, the evaluation loop stabilizes on the first pass.

5. **Implementation and Experiments**

NPA-TP-GJ is implemented on top of the WALi [26] system for weighted pushdown systems. In particular, it uses the implementation of Tarjan’s method from the FWPDS solver [29] of WALi to create the initial equation system with regular right-hand sides from a specification of the problem to be solved as a weighted pushdown system. We instantiated NPA-TP-GJ for ICRA by augmenting the implementation of CRA [14] (which, in turn, makes use of APRON [1] and Z3 [12]) with $\circ$ and $\times$ to create a tensor-product domain, and by implementing a subclass of WALi’s tensor-product domain interface that makes appropriate calls to operations of the CRA abstract domain.
The implementation supports programs with multiple procedures, including recursion and mutual recursion. It supports local variables via the method explained in [36, §8]. The merge function used when returning from a procedure call is based on [36, Eqn. (54)].

Our experiments with ICRA were designed to answer the following questions:

1. How fast is ICRA, compared to other tools?
2. How many assertions can ICRA prove, compared to other tools?
3. How often is ICRA able to prove bounds on a program’s resource usage, compared with C4B [7]?

Our experiments showed that ICRA has broad overall strength, as shown by its aggregate performance on three independently developed benchmark suites.

Timings (with a timeout limit of 300 seconds) were taken on a virtual machine (using Oracle VirtualBox), with a guest OS of Ubuntu 14.04, host OS of Red Hat Enterprise Linux 6, and a 3.2 GHz quad-core Intel Core i5-4570 host CPU.

**Assertion Checking.** To assess ICRA’s assertion-checking capabilities, we ran it on (i) the benchmarks in the Loops and Recursive subcategories of the Integers and Control Flow category from SV-COMP16 [40]; (ii) the suite of programs from C4B [8, App. A], annotated with upper-bound resource assertions of the bounds reported by C4B;3 and (iii) three groups of new recursive programs: two groups are modified versions of the SV-COMP16 subcategories loop-lit and loop-new in which all loops were converted into recursive procedures; the third group consists of a few newly-written recursive programs, plus a few recursive programs from the test suite of the CRA static-analysis tool. We compared ICRA’s results against four state-of-the-art software model checkers: CPAchecker [3] and Ultimate Automizer [22], based on predicate abstraction; LPI [25], based on policy iteration; and SeaHorn [21], a Horn-clause solver based on IC3. We ran the versions of these tools that were submitted to SV-COMP16.

Tab. 1 shows that the answers to questions 1 and 2 are (1) Overall ICRA was faster, sometimes dramatically so. The main reason is that ICRA had many fewer timeouts. (2) ICRA correctly handled more valid assertions than all the other tools except for SeaHorn.

The five tools have different success/failure-versus-timeout profiles, and there are examples on which one tool succeeds quickly but the other tools time out or fail. For instance, ICRA took only 0.73 seconds to prove the assertion in rec-gauss_sum_true-unreach-call (shown below), and was the only tool to do so. This benchmark, from rec-loop-new, is a recursive equivalent of an iterative SV-COMP16 benchmark.

```c
int n, sum, i;
void rec() {
  if (i <= n) { sum = sum + i; i++; rec(); }
}
int main() {
  n = __VERIFIER_nondet_int();
  __VERIFIER_assume(1 <= n && n <= 1000);
  sum = 0; i = 1; rec();
  __VERIFIER_assert(2*sum == n*(n+1));
  return 0;
}
```

In contrast, for underapprox_true-unreach-call1 (see below), ICRA was not able to establish the assertion, but the four other tools were able to do so.

```c
int main(void) {
  unsigned int x = 0, y = 1;
  while (x < 6) { x++; y *= 2; }
  __VERIFIER_assert(y % 3);
}
```

We also compared the tools’ performance by computing two numbers \((X, Y)\)—each the geometric mean over a set of benchmarks—as the ratios of the other tool’s times divided by ICRA’s times. \(X\) is computed using all benchmarks; \(Y\) is computed using only benchmarks on which neither ICRA nor the other tool timed out or gave an error. The numbers are Ultimate Automizer: (28.2, 9.03), CPAchecker: (16.5, 6.21), LPI: (6.31, 5.33), and SeaHorn: (0.93, 0.49). The value \(Y = 0.49\) indicates that SeaHorn is roughly twice as fast as ICRA on many examples. Because SeaHorn has a substantial number of timeouts, the value \(X = 0.93\) is a bit misleading: there are a nontrivial number of examples on which ICRA has much better performance; it is a coincidence that the geometric mean ends up being so close to 1.0.

**Applications in Resource-Bound Analysis.** For the experiments discussed above, the C4B benchmarks were annotated with upper-bound resource assertions. We also explored the use of ICRA for generating upper and lower bounds. (C4B itself can only establish upper bounds.)

The procedure in Fig. 4(a) illustrates the application of ICRA to resource-bound analysis. Statements of the form `tick(k)` represent manipulations of a resource such as memory or time, by consuming some of the resource (if \(k\) is positive) or freeing some of the resource (if \(k\) is negative).

ICRA can compute terms that upper-bound and lower-bound both the final resource usage and the high-water mark of resource usage.\(^4\) When computing bounds, it is useful to treat positive and negative values of a program variable separately, so ICRA searches for bounds that include terms of the form `max(0, x)` and `max(0, y-x)` (as in [8]), and we use the notation \([0, x]\) and \([x, y]\), respectively, for such terms. For the function `perform`, ICRA computes the following four

---

3 C4B obtains bounds for 34 of the 35 programs. The assertion in the 35th program is the bound from SPEED [20].

4 The result of using ICRA for resource-bound analysis is only sound under the assumption that, for all inputs, the program in question terminates.
Table 1: Column 2 shows the breakdown of programs into ones with valid and invalid assertions. “XY” means that X is the number of programs containing valid assertions and Y is the number containing invalid assertions. The total number of programs is X + Y. The two columns for each tool show the running time (in seconds) and the number of assertions proved. In each row, the fastest time and the greatest number of assertions proved are shown in bold font.

<table>
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<th>Benchmark Suite</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>ICRA</th>
<th>LPI</th>
<th>CPA</th>
<th>UAut.</th>
<th>SEA</th>
<th>Total</th>
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</table>

6. Related Work

The NPA-TP-GJ algorithm and its instantiation for ICRA rely heavily on prior work on CRA [14], NPA [13], and NPA-TP [36]. In particular, the NPA-TP-GJ algorithm adopts NPA-TP’s tensor-product operation so that various terms in a non-linear equation can be rewritten into the “symbolically” left-linear form $F = F \oplus X \otimes F_r$, and then further rewritten as $F = F \otimes F_r^*$. When we first began to think about extending CRA to create a context-sensitive interprocedural version that handles loops and recursion, our initial thought was to use NPA-TP, because NPA-TP provides a way to harness Tarjan’s path-expression method for interprocedural analysis. That property meshes well with the way CRA couples its recurrence-solving step with its reinterpretation of Kleene-star. However, there is a mismatch between CRA and NPA-TP, which presented us with two substantial challenges:

- The CRA domain has infinite ascending chains.
- The problem of determining whether two CRA transition formulas are equivalent is undecidable.

Consequently, if we merely instantiated the NPA-TP framework with the CRA domain, the resulting algorithm would not be guaranteed to converge, and even if it did converge, we would not necessarily know that it had. The design of the NPA-TP-GJ framework was driven by the need to address these challenges for CRA.

Our next (flawed) attempt at a solution was to work with NPA-TP, but to introduce the iteration domain so that we could check that each expression under a Kleene-star converged. However, that approach is unsound because variables not under a Kleene-star may not have received a sound final value when using that convergence condition. In other words, the iteration-domain trick does not work for the NPA-TP linearization. Consequently, we introduced the Gauss-Jordan-like elimination step, which always obtains a sound result.

ICRA relies on the fact that the logic fragment that CRA employs to solve recurrences supports effective equivalence. That property—along with the widening performed during the body subroutine of eval, and the stabilization result given in Thm. 4.18—ensures that ICRA will always terminate.
The elimination step in NPA-TP-GJ is related to Gauss-Jordan elimination, in that variables are eliminated in some order. Unlike in Gauss-Jordan elimination, variables are only partially eliminated; so-called “free variables” are eliminated, whereas variables that appear under * or *\textsuperscript{T} are not eliminated. Past work on Gauss-Jordan elimination for semirings or regular expressions includes [41], [17, §4.5], [37, §4], [9, §7], and [2, §4].

The power of CRA is due to the ability of the iteration operator to summarize loops. There are a number of related techniques for loop summarization [4, 19, 28] and abstract loop-acceleration [18, 24, 32]. (The latter computes the post-image of a loop, rather than a summary.) Loop summarization in CRA is based on computing the closed forms for recurrences satisfied by loop bodies. CRA harnesses the power of CRA’s loop summarization for computing summaries of recursive procedures by computing abstract transitive closures of tensored transition formulas; i.e., in CRA, the input and output of the iteration operator are formulas that each have four distinct vocabularies.

Ganty et al. [16] have created a Newton-based analysis tool for recursive programs over the integers. Like ICRA, it repeatedly applies a more basic analyzer to a transformed version of the original program. However, there are several differences in capabilities and approach.

• Their tool computes underapproximations of procedures; ICRA computes overapproximations.

• When used with FLATA [6], their tool is limited to finding summaries that are linear inequalities with at most two variables. ICRA can compute polynomial summaries.

• Their tool performs a transformation that restructures the linearized, possibly recursive, multi-procedure program \( P_k \) obtained for Newton-round \( k \) into a non-recursive program \( P_k' \). The transformation introduces occurrences of havoc and assume so that, during the analysis of \( P_k' \), the various parts of \( P_k \) are analyzed in an order different from the order in which they would be executed in \( P_k \). In contrast, ICRA is based on algebraic program analysis, and relies on the properties of its tensor-product domain to tease out the properties of the original program from the restructured equation system that it creates.

The relationship of ICRA to Ganty et al. is similar to the relationship of Lal et al. [31] to Lal and Reps [30]. The subjects in the two pairs of papers are different—interprocedural analysis of sequential programs and analysis of concurrent programs under a context-switch bound, respectively. However, in each pair, the first paper performs algebraic program analysis using a tensor-product domain, whereas the second uses a code transformation that introduces occurrences of havoc and assume to restructure the code.

Recently, a new iteration scheme was proposed by Meyer and Muskalla [33], called Munchhausen Iteration (MI). MI is based on an iteration step that (a) works on a vector of expressions, and (b) substitutes the current approximant into itself. Both aspects have some similarities with NPA-TP-GJ, but the substitution step in MI is more aggressive. The benefit of MI is that, in principle, MI takes exponentially fewer rounds than NPA; however, Meyer and Muskalla indicate that MI is not yet an algorithm, “. . . so far, we do not know how to extract information from the [structures that represent answers].” Also, when the ascending-chain condition does not hold, it is not clear how widening would be performed on the symbolic structures that MI employs.

Although the performance of ICRA in the tool comparison reported in §5 is encouraging, it is important to note that ICRA is an invariant generator, while CPAchecker, Ultimate Automizer, LPI, and SeaHorn are software model checkers. The standard trade-offs apply. Software model checkers are able to prove challenging program properties by employing abstraction refinement to tailor abstractions to the property at hand, but may refine abstractions indefinitely and fail to terminate. ICRA can be used to compute rich program invariants (rather than just answer verification queries) but is not currently able to compute counter-example witnesses to assertion failures. (We illustrated one use of ICRA’s facility for invariant generation in §5 by employing ICRA to compute upper and lower bounds on resource usage.)

7. Conclusion

This paper addresses the problem of creating a context-sensitive interprocedural version of CRA that handles loops and recursion—including non-linear recursion—in a uniform way. The method presented in the paper adopts, but adapts in significant ways, ideas used in the NPA-TP framework [36].

Our presentation—in terms of the algebraic properties required for the approach—has allowed us to state precisely the interface and properties required for NPA-TP-GJ to work. Although we currently have only one instantiation of NPA-TP-GJ—namely, ICRA—we believe that the algebraic formulation is a valuable contribution. We hope to apply NPA-TP-GJ to programs with loops that manipulate strings or arrays, as well as to the analysis of probabilistic programs (for computing expectations of loops).

The results presented in the paper also offer a number of other opportunities for future work. For instance, it would be valuable to know whether some elimination orders for the Gauss-Jordan-like step of ICRA are better than others (and why). We also have ideas about how to incorporate additional methods for solving recurrence equations in the interpretation of * and *\textsuperscript{T}. Finally, it would be desirable to be able to perform witness tracing for ICRA.

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References


A. Proofs

Proposition 4.11. Let \( \Sigma \) be an alphabet, let \( \mathcal{T} = \langle D, D_T, \circ, \cdot, \star \rangle \) be a tensor-product domain, and let \( \lfloor \cdot \rfloor :
$\Sigma \rightarrow \mathcal{D}$ be an interpretation for the alphabet. For any regular expression $E$ over $\Sigma$ and any path $p \in \llbracket E \rrbracket^p$, we have $\llbracket E \rrbracket \geq \llbracket p \rrbracket$.

**Proof:** Extend $\llbracket \cdot \rrbracket$ to tensored paths by defining $\llbracket p \cdot p \rrbracket \equiv \llbracket p \rrbracket \odot \llbracket p \rrbracket$. Observe that every operation of $\mathcal{J}$ is monotone with respect to $\leq_{\Sigma}$ and $\leq_{\mathcal{J}}$ with the exception of the iteration operators $*_{\Sigma}$ and $*_{\mathcal{J}}$. We prove that for any (tensored) extended regular expression $E$, for all (tensored) paths $q \in \llbracket E \rrbracket^q$, $\llbracket E \rrbracket \geq \llbracket q \rrbracket$ by induction on $E$.

- **Case $a \in \Sigma$:** trivial
- **Case $E \cdot F$:** if $p \in \llbracket E \cdot F \rrbracket^p$, then there is some $p_1 \in \llbracket E \rrbracket^p$ and $p_2 \in \llbracket F \rrbracket^p$ such that $q = p_1 \circ p_2$.
  \[
  \llbracket p \rrbracket = \llbracket p_1 \rrbracket \odot \llbracket p_2 \rrbracket \leq \llbracket E \rrbracket \odot \llbracket F \rrbracket \quad \text{IH, Monotonicity} \]
  \[
  = \llbracket E \cdot F \rrbracket \quad \text{Definition}
  \]
- **Case $E \cdot \mathcal{J} F$:** if $(p, q) \in \llbracket E \cdot \mathcal{J} F \rrbracket^p$,
  then there is some $p_1, p_2 \in \llbracket E \rrbracket^p$ and $q_1, q_2 \in \llbracket F \rrbracket^p$ such that $p = p_1 \circ p_2$ and $q = q_1 \circ q_2$.
  \[
  \llbracket (p, q) \rrbracket = \llbracket p \rrbracket \odot \llbracket q \rrbracket \quad \text{Definition}
  \]
  \[
  = \tau (\llbracket p_1 \rrbracket \odot \llbracket p_2 \rrbracket) \odot (\llbracket q_1 \rrbracket \odot \llbracket q_2 \rrbracket)
  \]
  \[
  = \tau (\llbracket E \rrbracket \odot \llbracket F \rrbracket)
  \]
  \[
  \leq_{\mathcal{J}} \llbracket E \rrbracket \odot_{\mathcal{J}} \llbracket F \rrbracket \quad \text{IH, Monotonicity}
  \]
  \[
  = \llbracket E \cdot \mathcal{J} F \rrbracket \quad \text{Definition}
  \]
- **Case $E + F$:** if $p \in \llbracket E + F \rrbracket^p$, then we must have $p \in \llbracket E \rrbracket^p$ or $p \in \llbracket F \rrbracket^p$. From the induction hypothesis, we must have $\llbracket p \rrbracket \leq \llbracket E \rrbracket$ or $\llbracket p \rrbracket \leq \llbracket F \rrbracket$. In either case we have $\llbracket p \rrbracket \leq \llbracket E \rrbracket \odot \llbracket F \rrbracket = \llbracket E + F \rrbracket$. The case $E + \mathcal{J} F$ is similar.
- **Case $E^*$: if $p \in \llbracket E^* \rrbracket^p$, then there exists $p_1, \ldots, p_n \in \llbracket E \rrbracket^p$ such that $p = p_1 \ldots p_n$. By the induction hypothesis, we have $\llbracket p_i \rrbracket \leq \llbracket E \rrbracket$ for all $i$, and thus $\llbracket p \rrbracket \leq \llbracket E \rrbracket^n$. The fact that $\llbracket E \rrbracket^n \leq \llbracket E^* \rrbracket = \llbracket E \rrbracket^*$ holds for any $n$ can be shown by induction on $n$, using the Reflexivity and Transitivity axioms. The case $E^* \cdot \mathcal{J} F$ is similar.
- **Case $E \odot F$:** if $\langle p, q \rangle \in \llbracket E \odot F \rrbracket^p$, then $p \in \llbracket E \rrbracket^p$ and $q \in \llbracket F \rrbracket^p$.
  \[
  \llbracket (p, q) \rrbracket = \llbracket p \rrbracket \odot \llbracket q \rrbracket \quad \text{Definition}
  \]
  \[
  \leq \llbracket E \rrbracket \odot \llbracket F \rrbracket \quad \text{IH, Monotonicity}
  \]
  \[
  = \llbracket E \odot F \rrbracket \quad \text{Definition}
  \]
- **Case $E \times F$:** if $p \in \llbracket E 
 \times \mathcal{J} F \rrbracket^p$, then there is some $p_{mid} \in \llbracket E \rrbracket^p$ and some $\langle p, q \rangle \in \llbracket F \rrbracket^q$ such that $p = (p \circ \cdot \odot \phi + p_{mid} \circ \cdot \odot \phi) \odot \phi + \phi \odot \phi$. From the induction hypothesis, $p \leq \llbracket E \rrbracket \odot \llbracket F \rrbracket$.

**Lemma A.1.** Let $\Sigma$ be an alphabet, let $\mathcal{X}$ be a set of variables, let $E \in \text{Ext}(\Sigma, \mathcal{X})$ be an extended regular expression over $\Sigma$ and $\mathcal{X}$, and let $X \in \mathcal{X}$ be a variable. Then $E \simeq \text{factor}_X(E)$.

**Proof:** By structural induction on $E$.

- **Case $a \in \Sigma$:** $\text{factor}_X(a) = a + (X \times 0_\mathcal{J}) \simeq a$.
- **Case $E$:** $\text{factor}_X(E) = 0 + (X \times 1_\mathcal{J}) \simeq X$.
- **Case $X_i \in \mathcal{X}$ for some $X_i \neq X$:** $\text{factor}_X(X_i) = X_i + (X \times 0_\mathcal{J}) \simeq X_i$.
- **Case $E + E'$: Let $\text{factor}_X(E) = F + (X \times F \mathcal{J})$ and let $\text{factor}_X(E') = F' + (X \times F \mathcal{J})$.
  \[
  \text{factor}_X(E + E') = \left( \left( F + F' \right) + (X \times (F \mathcal{J} F' + F F')) \right)
  \]
  \[
  \simeq \left( F + (X \times F \mathcal{J} F') \right)
  \]
  \[
  = \text{factor}_X(E) + \text{factor}_X(E') \quad \text{Def'n}
  \]
  \[
  \simeq E + E' \quad \text{IH}
  \]
- **Case $E \cdot E'$: Let $\text{factor}_X(E) = F + (X \times F \mathcal{J})$ and let $\text{factor}_X(E') = F' + (X \times F \mathcal{J})$.
  \[
  \text{factor}_X(E \cdot E') = \left( \left( \left( F \cdot F' \right) + (X \times (F \mathcal{J} F' + F F')) \right) \right)
  \]
  \[
  \simeq \left( (X \times F \mathcal{J}) \cdot F' \right)
  \]
  \[
  \simeq (X \times (F \mathcal{J} F') \cdot F')
  \]
  \[
  \simeq (X \times (F \mathcal{J} F' \cdot F')) \quad \text{Def'n}
  \]
  \[
  \simeq (X \times (F \mathcal{J} F') \cdot (E \odot 1)) \quad \text{IH}
  \]
  \[
  \simeq (E \cdot F') + (X \times (F \mathcal{J} F' \cdot (E \odot 1))) \quad \text{IH}
  \]
  \[
  \simeq (E \cdot F') + (E \cdot (X \times F \mathcal{J})) \quad \text{IH}
  \]
  \[
  \simeq E \cdot (F' + (X \times F \mathcal{J})) \quad \text{IH}
  \]
  \[
  = E \cdot \text{factor}_X(F) \quad \text{Def'n}
  \]
  \[
  \simeq E \cdot F \quad \text{IH}
  \]
- **Case $E^*$: $\text{factor}_X(E^*) = E^* + (X \times 0_\mathcal{J}) \simeq E^*$.
• Case $E \times E_T$: Let $\text{factor}_X(E) = F + (X \times F_T)$.

$$\text{factor}_X(E \times E_T) = (F \times E_T) + X \times (F_T \cdot T E_T) \quad \text{Def' a}$$

$$\simeq (F \times E_T) + (X \times (F_T \cdot T E_T))$$

$$\simeq (F + (X \times F_T)) \times E_T$$

$$\simeq (\text{factor}_X(E)) \times E_T \quad \text{Def' a}$$

$$E \times E_T \quad \text{IH}$$

**Theorem 4.15.** Given a system of equations $S : \{X_i = R_i\}_{i=1}^n$ with regular right-hand sides over an alphabet $\Sigma$ and a finite set of variables $X = \{X_1, \ldots, X_n\}$, Alg. 4.14 computes a system of equations $\tilde{S} : \{X_i = \tilde{E}_i\}_{i=1}^n$ where the right-hand sides are normal extended regular expressions over $\Sigma$ and $X$ with no free variables, and which is equivalent to $S$ in the sense that $\text{Paths}_S(X_i) = \text{Paths}_S(X_i)$ for all $X_i$.

**Proof:** Recall that Alg. 4.14 constructs a sequence of systems

$$S_0 : \{X_i : E_{i,0}\}_{i=1}^n \cdots S_n : \{X_i : E_{i,n}\}_{i=1}^n$$

with $S_0 = S$ and $S_n = \tilde{S}$. It is sufficient to show that for every $k < n$, we have $\text{Paths}_{S_k} = \text{Paths}_{S_{k+1}}$. Recall that $\text{Paths}_{S_k}$ is defined to be the least solution to $S_k$, so if $\sigma$ is any function with $\sigma(X_i) = [E_{i,k}]_p^P$ for all $i$, we must have that $\text{Paths}_{S_k}$ is less than $\sigma$ (in the sense that $\text{Paths}_{S_k}(X_i) \not\leq \sigma(X_i)$ for all $X_i$). It is thus sufficient to prove that for all $k$ and all $i$, $\text{Paths}_{S_k}(X_i) = [E_{i,k+1}]_p^P$ (so that $\text{Paths}_{S_{k+1}}$ is less than $\text{Paths}_{S_k}$) and $\text{Paths}_{S_{k+1}}(X_i) = [E_{i,k}]_p^P$ (so that $\text{Paths}_{S_k}$ is less than $\text{Paths}_{S_{k+1}}$). Furthermore, because $E_{i,k+1}$ is merely a substitution instance of $E_{i,k}$ for all $i \neq k$, it is sufficient to prove the $i = k$ case.

Let $F + X \times F_T = \text{factor}_X(E_k,k)$. By definition, $E_{k,k+1}$ is $F \times F_T$.

1. Prove $\text{Paths}_{S_{k+1}}(X_k) = [E_{k,k}]_p^P$.

Since $\text{Paths}_{S_{k+1}}$ is the least solution to $S_{k+1}$, we have

$$\text{Paths}_{S_{k+1}}(X_k) = [E_{k,k+1}]_p^P$$

$$= [F \times F_T]_p^P$$

$$\text{Paths}_{S_{k+1}}.$$ Since $F \times F_T \simeq F \times (1 + F_T \cdot T E_T)$


$
\simeq (F \times 1 + (F \times F_T \cdot T E_T))$


$
\simeq F + (F \times F_T) \cdot T E_T$

we have

$$\text{Paths}_{S_{k+1}}(X_k) = [F \times F_T]_p^P$$


$
= [F \times F_T]_p^P$

Finally, since $F + X_k \times F_T \simeq E_{k,k}$ (Lemma A.1), we have $\text{Paths}_{S_{k+1}}(X_k) = \text{Paths}_{S_{k+1}}(E_{k,k})$.

2. Prove $\text{Paths}_S(X_k) = [E_{k,k}]_p^P$.

By assumption $\text{Paths}_S(X_k) = [E_{k,k}]_p^P$. Since $F + X_k \times F_T \simeq E_{k,k}$ (Lemma A.1), we have $\text{Paths}_S(X_k) = [F \times F_T]_p^P$. Since $\text{Paths}_S(X_k)$ is the least solution to $S_k$, we must have $\text{Paths}_S(X_k) = \bigcup_i [F \times F_T]_p^P$. By definition, we have $\bigcup_i [F \times F_T]_p^P \bigcup_i [F \times F_T]_p^P$ and thus

$$\text{Paths}_S(X_k) = [F \times F_T]_p^P.$$
The first equality in the sequence holds by the definition of $D$. The middle inequality we prove by induction on $E_i$. We prove validity of the last equation by showing that the assumption that $S$ stabilizes at $k$ (i.e., the fact that $body^k(E) = body^{k-1}(E)$ for every “loop-body” expression $E$) is sufficient to prove that $D^{k-1} = D^k$.

First, we show that $eval^k(E_i) \geq [E_i]_{D^{k-1}}$ holds. We prove that this property holds for all sub-expressions of $E_i$ by structural induction.

- Case $a \in \Sigma, X_j \in X$: trivial.
- Case $E + F, E \cdot F, E \times E_T, E \odot F, E_T + T F_T, E_T \cdot T F_T$: immediately from the induction hypothesis.
- Case $E^*$ (Case $E^+T$ is similar): First, observe that by property 1 of the widening operator, we have
  \[
  body^{k-1}(E) \ominus (\mathbb{L}[E]_{D^{k-1}}) \geq \mathbb{L}[E]_{D^{k-1}}.
  \]
  It follows that:
  \[
  eval^k(E^*) = cl(body^k(E)) \\
  = cl(body^{k-1}(E) \ominus (\mathbb{L}[E]_{D^{k-1}})) \\
  \geq cl(\mathbb{L}[E]_{D^{k-1}}) \\
  = ([E]_{D^{k-1}})\]
  Second, we prove that $D^{k-1} = D^k$ holds. Let $X_i$ be a variable. We have $D^k(X_i) = eval^k(E_i)$ by definition, so it is sufficient to prove that $eval^k(E_i) = eval^{k-1}(E_i)$. We prove that this equality holds for all closed sub-expressions of $E_i$—i.e., subexpressions without free variables—by structural induction.

- Case $a \in \Sigma$: trivial.
- Case $E + F, E \cdot F, E \times E_T, E \odot F, E_T + T F_T, E_T \cdot T F_T$: immediately from the induction hypothesis.
- Case $E^*$ (Case $E^+T$ is similar): Because $S$ stabilizes at $k$, we have $body^k(E) = body^{k-1}(E)$. It follows that $cl(body^k(E)) = cl(body^{k-1}(E))$, and thus $eval^k(E^*) = eval^{k-1}(E^*)$. 
