# **PROGRAM VERIFICATION BY CALCULATING RELATIONS**

Jacques Carette<sup>\*</sup>, Ryszard Janicki<sup>\*</sup> and Yun Zhai<sup>\*†</sup> Department of Computing and Software McMaster University Hamilton, Ontario, Canada L8S 4K1 {carette, janicki, zhaiy}@mcmaster.ca

**Abstract** We show how properties of an interesting class of imperative programs can be verifed by means of relational modelling and symbolic computation.

**Keywords** Modelling, Proving Program Correctness, Symbolic Computation, Recurrence Relations

### 1 Introduction

In late sixties and early seventies, a technique for verifications and analysis of computer programs based on a calculus of relations was proposed ([1, 2, 8, 15] and others). Despite many theoretical and methodological advantages (it rather emphasises *calculation* insted of *proving*), the technique has never become widely accepted because of the huge amount of symbolic computations that need to be performed for even relatively simple cases.

The situation has dramatically changed today, as we have very powerful tools supporting symbolic computation such as *Maple* [5] and *Mathematica* [18]. The problem is still non-trivial, as the most general cases can be proved to be undecidable, but for many less general cases an efficient solution seems to be feasible.

In this paper we show how to build a Maple [5] based tool [19] that can either automatically computer a closed form for simple programs with loops, or considerably simplify that task by computing *polynomial* invariants of such programs. Simple cases of recursion can also be treated. For straight-line programs, this reduces to a technique called *symbolic execution*. The main idea behind symbolic execution is to use symbolic expressions as input values and to simulate the execution of the program statements on this symbolic inputs. The formal specification of our system was done using *Maude* [14].

Symbolic execution has wide range of potential applications, however, it has been rarely used for proving properties of programs ([16] is one of few exceptions). This is because, in general, naïve symbolic execution can lead to exponential blow-ups.

Our symbolic analysis can be seen as a kind of compiler which can translate the input programs into a symbolic expression, and then can transform this expression into an output expression. From our point of view, recursion and looping are essentially equivalent, and so we will mainly restrict ourselves to loops as the source of our main difficulties [9]. The basic technique used in such cases is to find "loop invariants" proposed by C. A. R. Hoare in 1969 [6]. Unfortunately finding them is often problematic and research on how to find them in some automatic manner has only just begun [12, 16].

We will show that for many frequently occuring loops, finding invariants is not necessary as the symbolic expression for the output can be generated explicitly by solving the recurrence equations generated from the loop. Even if, due to structural complexity of a loop, finding loop invariants is necessary, the technique we have proposed might often help substantially.

### 2 Intuition and Motivation

The example below (from [2]) provides a motivation and illustrates well the main ideas. In principle we first translate a program into a *relational expression* and then we will try to obtain the program properties by analysing this relational expression. The full theory of those expressions can be found in [13].

Consider the well-known procedure factorial, written in a small subset of Maple [5]:

```
factorial:=proc(n::posint)
local i, fac;
    i:=1;
    fac:=1;
    while i < n do
    begin
        i:=i+1;
        fac:=fac*i;
    end;
    return fac
end proc;</pre>
```

Since *n* does not change its value in the above program we may consder it as a constant, so we may assume the above program has two integer variables *i* and *fac*. Define  $D = \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$  and denote the elements of *D* as (i, fac). Each instruction can be modelled by a function  $F_i : D \to D$ , i = 1, 2, 4, 5, in the following manner:

"i:=1" corresponds to  $F_1(i, fac) = (1, fac)$ ,

"fac:=1" corresponds to  $F_2(i, fac) = (i, 1)$ ,

"i:=i+1" corresponds to  $F_4(i, fac) = (i + 1, fac)$ ,

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and "fac:=fac\*i" maps to  $F_5(i,fac) = (i,fac \cdot i)$ . The test "i<n" can be modelled by two partial identity functions,  $I_3, \overline{I}_3 : D \to D$ , where  $I_3$  models "i<n", and  $\overline{I}_3$  models its complement, i.e. "i≥n". More precisely,

"i<n" corresponds to  $I_3(i, fac)$ , and

" $i \ge n$ " corresponds to  $\bar{I}_3(i, fac)$ , where

$$I_{3}(i, fac) = \begin{cases} (i, fac) & \text{if } i < n \\ \bot & \text{if } i \ge n \end{cases}$$
$$\bar{I}_{3}(i, fac) = \begin{cases} (i, fac) & \text{if } i \ge n \\ \bot & \text{if } i < n \end{cases}$$

It is a well known fact that non-recursive programs can be modelled adequately with Kleene Algebras of Relations with Tests (see [13]) by using the following scheme. Let  $R, R_1, R_2$  be relations (each function is a relation!) that model the program statements S, S1, S2, respectively. Let T be a test modelled by  $I_T$  and  $\bar{I}_T$ , and let the symbols "o" and "\*" denote the (forward) composition of relations, and transitive and reflexive closure of relations (Kleene star), respectively. Then :

"S1; S2" is modelled by  $R_1 \circ R_2$ ,

"if T then S1 else S2" is modelled by  $(I_T \circ R_1) \cup (\overline{I}_T \circ R_2),$ 

and "while T do S" by  $(I_T \circ R)^* \circ \overline{I}_T$ . Using this scheme one can easily model the above program by writing the following relational expression:

$$F = F_1 \circ F_2 \circ (I_3 \circ F_4 \circ F_5)^* \circ \overline{I}_3$$

Calculating " $\circ$ " is easy, but calculating "\*" is not. Let  $G = I_3 \circ F_4 \circ F_5$ . Then we have:

$$\begin{aligned} G(i, fac) &= (I_3 \circ F_4 \circ F_5)(i, fac) \\ &= F_5(F_4(I_3(i, fac))) \\ &= \begin{cases} (i+1, fac \cdot (i+1)) & \text{if } i < n \\ \bot & \text{if } i \ge n \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

Similarly :

$$\begin{aligned} G^2(i, fac) &= G(G(i, fac)) \\ &= \begin{cases} (i+2, fac \cdot (i+1) \cdot (i+2)) & \text{if } i+1 < n \\ \bot & \text{if } i+1 \ge n \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

Hence :

$$G^k(i, fac) = \begin{cases} (i+k, fac \cdot (i+1) \cdot (i+2) \dots (i+k)) \\ & \text{if } i+k-1 < n \\ \bot & \text{if } i+k-1 \ge n \end{cases}$$

Since  $G^*$  is *not* a function, we need to express  $G^k$  in terms of the relation calculus:

$$\begin{array}{l} (i,fac)G^{k}(i',fac') \iff i' = i + k \land \\ fac' = fac \cdot (i+1) \cdot \ldots \cdot (i+k) \land i + k - 1 < n. \\ \text{We have } G^{*} = \bigcup_{i=0}^{\infty} G^{i}, \text{ hence:} \\ (i,fac)G^{*}(i',fac') \iff \exists k \geq 0, (i,fac)G^{k}(i',fac') \end{array}$$

$$\iff \exists k, 0 \le k < n - i + 1 \land i' = i + k \land \\ fac' = fac \cdot (i + 1) \cdot \dots \cdot (i + k)$$

We may now make some simplification:

 $(F_1 \circ F_2)(i, fac) = F_2(F_1(i, fac)) = (1, 1).$ This means:

 $\begin{array}{l} (i,fac)F_1 \circ F_2 \circ G^*(i',fac') \iff (1,1)G^*(i',fac') \\ \iff \exists k, 0 \le k < n \land i' = k + 1 \land fac' = (k+1)! \\ \text{Let us calculate : } (1,1)G^* \circ \bar{I}_3(i',fac'). \end{array}$ 

The partial function  $\bar{I}_3$  in the relational representation looks as follows:

 $(i, fac)\overline{I}_3(i', fac') \iff i \ge n \land i = i' \land fac = fac'$ . From the definition of "  $\circ$  " we have :

 $\begin{array}{ll} (1,1)G^* \circ \bar{I}_3(i',fac') \iff \exists i,fac, (1,1)G^*(i,fac) \land \\ (i,fac)\bar{I}_3(i',fac') \iff (\exists k,0 \leq k < n \land i = k+1 \land fac = \\ (k+1)!) \land (i \geq n \land i = i' \land fac = fac'). \end{array}$ 

Note that  $i = k + 1 \land i \ge n \Rightarrow k + 1 \ge n \iff k \ge n - 1$ , and  $0 \le k < n \land k \ge n - 1 \Rightarrow k = n - 1 \iff n = k + 1$ .

So now, we do not have a general  $\exists k$ , but a very specific k=n-1, which means  $G^* \circ \overline{I}_3$  is a function again, and the statement  $(\exists k, 0 \leq k < n \land i = k+1 \land fac = (k+1)!) \land (i \geq n \land i = i' \land fac = fac')$  is reduced to:

 $i' = k + 1 = n - 1 + 1 = n \wedge fac' = n!$ 

In this way we have proved that F(i,fac) = (n, n!), so the program is correct. To make this technique feasible for bigger, more realistic programs, we need a tool that would be able to do all those symbolic calculations. Our tool [19] will take the text of the program factorial as an input and will return the text "n!" as output. In the next sections we will show how it can be done with some help from *Maple* [5]. Our system [19] can also deal with some kind of limited recursion as well.

#### **3** Loops and Recurrence Equations

A formula that expresses the meaning of a loop can be explicitly derived (in some cases) by solving appropriate recurrence equations.

Consider our program factorial. Every time the loop is executed, the value of i is incremented by one and the value of fac is incremented i times. We may express this change in a form of recurrences. For this example, the recurrence relation is the following i(k + 1) = i(k) + 1,  $fac(k + 1) = fac(k) \cdot i(k + 1)$ , where i(k + 1) and fac(k + 1), for  $k \ge 0$  are the values of i and fac at the end of iteration k + 1. In this sense, k represents *time*, which is the important new concept in this representation. Because *time* is explicitly reified in the recurrence, this allows many techniques from symbolic computation to apply. Before entering the loop, the value of i is 1 and the value of fac is 1, so we initialize the recurrence by i(0) = 1 and fac(0) = 1. Hence the following recurrence equations describe the meaning of our loop.

$$i(0) = 1;$$
  $fac(0) = 1;$   
 $i(k+1) = i(k) + 1;$   $fac(k+1) = fac(k) \cdot i(k+1);$ 

These recursive function can not be solved by Maple [5] directly since they are *non-linear* recurrences. However, we can clearly see that i(k + 1) is independent of fac(k), but fac(k + 1) is not independent of i(k + 1), i.e. we may not be able to solve the system directly, but we might be able to solve it incrementally. From a simple data-flow analysis, this order can be determined. If we solve for i(k) first (including initial conditions), we get i(k) = k + 1. Replacing i(k) by k + 1, in the equation for fac, we get  $fac(k + 1) = fac(k) \cdot (k + 2)$ , which is also solveable. Putting the solution together, we get

$$i(k) = k + 1$$
 (3.1)  
 $fac(k) = (k + 1)!$  (3.2)

Note that the above solution is still in terms of *time*; however, regardless of whether the loop terminates or not, we have found the *core meaning* of the loop!

This technique can be applied to any loop if the set of appropriate recurrence equations that the loop defines is essentially triangular, with polynomial solutions for the nonlinearities (or it can be transformed into such a system).

#### 4 Loop Termination

To determine the value of recurrence variables after the loop, we need the recurrence condition which *symbolically* determines the number of iterations for the recurrence. In our example, the recurrence variables are *i* and *fac*, and the recurrence condition is given by i(k) < n, which, together with equation (3.1) gives us the following formula for the loop termination (see [17]):

$$\min_{k \ge 0} \{k \mid i(k) \ge n\} = \min_{k \ge 0} \{k \mid k+1 \ge n\} = n-1$$

In order to compute the value of *fac* at the loop exit, we have to substitute n - 1 for k in (3.2). So, we get "n!".

Note that it is only necessary to obtain a closed-form solution to the recurrences involving for those variables which actually *occur* in the stopping condition to determine loop termination. This can frequently be much simpler, as is the case for all *for* loops!

#### 5 Input Language and Relation Generator

The language for input programs (like factorial) was chosen as a subset of Maple [5], and it is a combination of the following statements

```
    var:=expr
    if T then S1 else S2
    while T do statement end do
    for i from i1 to i2 by i3 do S end do
```

```
5. Recursive Function Calls
```

In our system, we have two main modules: the *Relation Generator* and *Relation Solver*, both written in Maple [5]. This is made especially easy since Maple has some

Program Statements	Relations Generated
var:=expr	StateTransition
if-then-else	Piecewise
while C do	<pre>Fixedpoint([C],)</pre>
for-from-to-by-do	<pre>Fixedpoint(For(),)</pre>
Recursion	RecursionCall

Table 1. Rules for program transformation

Input Program	Relations
factorial:=proc(n)	
i:=1	F1:StateTransition(i,1)
fac:=1	F2:StateTransition(fac,1)
while i < n do	F3:FixedPoint([i < n],
i:=i+1	[StateTransition(i,i+1),
fac:=fac*i	<pre>StateTransition(fac,fac*i)]</pre>
end do	)
fac	F4:fac
end proc;	

Table 2. Translation of factorial into the set of appropriate relations

very powerful reflection capabilities through its ToInert function, which gives an accurate AST representation for any Maple program (or expression). The first one generates a series of appropriate relations (recurrence, state transition, etc.) for the given input program, while the second one solves the relations and produces an output expression, either in an explicit form, or, if an explicit form cannot be found, then implicit forms (like invariants) are returned.

The *Relation Generator* is a total function – it translates the given input program into a sequence of appropriate relations. Table 1 shows the relationship between parts of program and names of the relations used. Table 2 shows what is generated for our program factorial.

### 6 Solving Relations: Overview

The method for solving relations depends on the kind of function that generates them. The technique described in this and almost all remaining chapters is a refinement and generalisation of many results from [3, 12, 17]. Of course, if code does not contain either loops nor recursion, from a symbolic point of view such straight-line code is completely trivial, and we can simply compute the result. The only drawback is that such an answer can be exponentially larger than the input program.

For the case where we have either a while or for loop whose body is straight-line code, we generate a system of recurrence equations, which we try to solve in closedform, using whatever triangular structure we may find. Using similar ideas, we can also generate systems of recurrences for programs containing recursion.

When loops contain branches (i.e. if-then-else), the resulting system of recurrences essentially **never** falls within a class of solvable recurrence.

Relations	Recurrence and Initial Condition
StateTransition(i,1)	Initial Condition: $i(0) = 1$
StateTransition(fac,1)	Inital Condition: $fac(0) = 1$
FixedPoint(i< n,	Loop Termination:
	$t = \min\{k \ge 0 \mid i(k) \ge n\}$
<pre>StateTransition(i,i+1),</pre>	Recurrence:
	i(k+1) = i(k) + 1
StateTransition(fac,fac*i),	Recurrence:
)	$fac(k+1) = fac(k) \cdot i(k+1)$
return fac	fac(t)

Table 3. Recurrence Equation and Initial Conditions for factorial.

At present, we immediately shift to generating implicit results, in the form of polynomial invariants [12].

# 7 Generating Recurrences: while

If the input program is a simple while loop, without if-then-else statements inside the while loop, the core relation we generate will be FixedPoint. Table 3 shows the results for our factorial program. In this case our system [19] will produce the output formula "n!".

#### 7.1 Generating Recurrence Relations

In this case all we have inside the loop are assignment statements which are represented by StateTransition relations. These relations might however be *mixed*, in other words a variable at time k + 1 might occur on both the left and right hand sides. This occurs in our factorial code, where *fac* depends on i(k+1) rather than i(k). However, a simple program transformation related to *Static Single Assignment (SSA)* form [20] takes care of this issue.

### 7.2 Generating Initial Conditions

The initial conditions are easily determined: they are the values of each of the loop variables (i.e. those which change) right before the loop starts. These can be determined by unwinding the stack of StateTransition calls preceding the loop. This is always possible, though might again generate very large answers.

### 7.3 Stopping Conditions

If we want to find the actual stopping condition for a loop, we need to solve (symbolically) the recurrence equations (with known initial functions) just generated. Suppose the solution is:

$$v_1(k) = F_1(k), v_2(k) = F_2(k), \dots, v_m(k) = F_m(k).$$

Now, we can decide the loop stop condition on the basis of the condition C in FixedPoint ([C],...). In general, this condition reads

$$\min_{k \ge 0} \{k \mid \neg C\}$$

R	<	$\leq$	>	$\geq$	=	¥
$\neg R$	$\geq$	>	$\leq$	<	¥	=

Table 4. Boolean symbols and their opposite values

where C depends on the state variables at time k. In general, this is a diophantine equation, and thus well-known to be unsolvable. But in many practical situations, the actual equations are simple. We draw attention to three such cases.

• Case 1  $C = v_i R c$ , where  $v_1, \ldots, v_m$  are the recurrence variables, c is constant with respect to the  $v_i$ 's, and R is a relational operator from Table 4. The converse of R can easily be computed explicitly, also shown in Table 4. Assuming that the expression for  $v_i = F_i(k)$  is simple enough (in terms of k), this can be solved in closed form.

• Case 2  $C = v_i R \phi(v_j)$ , where  $v_1, \ldots, v_m$  are the recurrence variables, and some of them occur in the expression  $\phi$ , with R as before.

$$z = \min_{k \ge 0} \{ k | \neg(v_i(k) \ R \ \phi(v_j(k))) \}$$
  
= 
$$\min_{k \ge 0} \{ k | F_i(k) - \phi(v_j(k)) \ S \ 0 \}$$

where  $S = \neg R$ .

• *Case 3 C* is a conjunction of terms which satisfy *Case 1* or *Case 2*. Then we can simply take the minimum of all the conjuncts.

### 8 Solving with for loops

Since a for loop is a special case of a while loop, this case is very similar to the previous. Generating recurrences is exactly the same. Assume the following pattern for the for: loop

for i from s to e by step do S.

#### 8.1 Generating Initial Conditions

Initial functions are generated from the stack of StateTransitions preceding the loop for all variables, with the addition of i(0) = s.

#### 8.2 Number of Loop Iterations

We have to consider two cases:

• Case 1 The variable i, i.e. loop counter, is not modified by S. In this case the number of iterations z can be solved explicitly and uniformly for all cases, and is given by

$$z = \left\lfloor \frac{e - s + 1}{step} \right\rfloor$$

• Case 2 The variable i, i.e. loop counter, is modified by S. In this case we have to transform the loop for into an equivalent while loop and proceed as in Chapter 7.3.

Input program	Relations		
chebyshev:=proc(n)			
u0:=1	F1:StateTransition(u0,1)		
u1:=x	F2:StateTransition(u1,x)		
for i from 2 to n-1	F3:Fixedpoint(For([i,2,n-1,1]),		
do u0:=u1	[StateTransition(u0,u1),		
u1:=-u0+2*x*u1	<pre>StateTransition(u1,-u0+2*x*u1)]</pre>		
end do	)		
return -u0+2*x*u1	F4: -u0+2*x*u1		
end proc			

Table 5. Translation of chebyshev into the set of appropriate relations

### 9 Solving Relations involving recursion

If a recursive function is correctly defined, it defines both recurrence functions and initial conditions in quite natural way. However, we can not always solve (symbolically) the recurrence equations thus generated (for instance we cannot do it for Ackerman function).

Note that it is important here to assume that we have a *meaningful* program, as otherwise a recursively defined function might come equipped with naturally defined initial conditions.

#### **10** The case of branches in loops

When we have if-then-else inside a while, we usually are not able to generate explicit symbolic output. We can often generate implicit output, or invariants, in a way similar to that desribed in [12, 16]. More details can be found in [19].

### 11 Example 2: Chebyshev Polynomials

The program factorial involves while loop. We show a simple example with for loop.

```
chebyshev:=proc(n)
local i, u0, u1, t;
    u0 := 1;
    u1 := x;
    for i from 2 to n-1 do
        u0 := u1;
        u1 := -u0+2*x*u1;
    end do;
    return -u0+2*x*u1
end proc:
```

Translation of the program into set of appropriate relations in given in Table 5, whilst recursive functions, initial functions, and loop termination condition is in Table 6.

Our system [19] has produced the following output for the above program chebyshev:

$$-x(-1+2x)^{(n-3)}+2x^2(-1+2x)^{(n-2)}.$$

Relations	Recursive and Initial Functions
StateTransition(u0,1)	Initial Function: $u0(1) = 1$
StateTransition(u1,x)	Initial Function: $u1(1) = 1$
FixedPoint(	Loop Termination:
For([i,2,n-1,1]),	$t = \left\lfloor \frac{n-1-2+1}{1} \right\rfloor = n-2$
StateTransition(u0,u1),	Recursive Function:
	u0(k+1) = u1(k)
StateTransition	Recursive Function:
(u1, -u0+2*x*u1),	u1(k+1) =
])	$-u0(k+1) + 2 \cdot x \cdot u1(k)$
-u0+2*x*u1	$-u0(t) + 2 \cdot x \cdot u1(t)$

Table 6. Recursive and Initial Functions for chebyshev

## 12 Related work

Symbolic execution has been studied since seventies, however with different goals than ours. King [11] in 1976 has developed EFFIGY, a symbolic execution system with a fixed number of integers.

Kemmerer and Eckmann [10] have presented an approach to symbolic execution based on the concept of path expressions and path conditions.

DISSECT [7] and SELECT [4] are another symbolic execution systems that use the path conditions concept. DISSECT can be used to symbolically execute some simple FORTRAN programs. The main purpose of SELECT [4] is to complement mechanical program verification and debug programs.

Rodríguez-Carbonell and Kapur [16] have recently developed some interesting techniques for automatic finding loop invariants.

### 13 Conclusions and Future Work

We have described a symbolic execution system that can be used to analyse properties of programs. The system performs a symbolic execution of the input program and get either an explicit or implicit symbolic output. The system [19] can handle assignment statetements, if-then-else statements, for-do statements, and while-do statements, the latter with some restrictions.

Despite the restrictions, it can be used for a huge variety of programs, including programs like Binomial Coefficients, Bessel Functions, Greater Common Divisor, etc. [19].

For the future work, we would like to loosen the restriction for while-do loop we have now. We also would like to be able to produce explicit symbolic solutions in some cases where now we can only produce invariants.

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