

# Comprehensive Reachability Refutation and Witnesses Generation via Language and Tooling Co-Design

MARK MARRON, Microsoft Research, USA  
DEEPAK KAPUR, University of New Mexico, USA

This paper presents a core programming language calculus, `BOSQUEIR`, that is uniquely suited for automated reasoning. The co-design of the language and associated strategy for encoding the program semantics into first order logic enables the translation of `BOSQUEIR` programs, including the use of collections and dynamic data structures, into decidable fragments of logic that are efficiently dischargeable using modern SMT solvers. This encoding is semantically *precise* and logically *complete* for the majority of the language and, even in the cases where completeness is not possible, we use heuristics to precisely encode common idiomatic uses. Using this encoding we construct a program checker `BSQCHK` that is focused on the pragmatic task of providing *actionable* results to a developer for possible program errors. Depending on the program and the error at hand this could be a full proof of infeasibility, generating a witness input that triggers the error, or a report that, in a simplified partial model of the program, the error could not be triggered.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

This paper introduces a novel core programming language calculus, `BOSQUEIR`, a strategy for encoding the language semantics into first order logic, and the `BSQCHK` program checker. These three components are designed as a group with the goal of creating a programming system that was highly amenable to automated reasoning and mechanization using SAT Modulo Theory (SMT) theorem provers [3, 11].

A core design principle of the `BOSQUEIR` language is the elimination of foundational sources of undecidability and complexity commonly seen in programming language semantics – iteration/recursion, mutability, and referential observability. The `BOSQUEIR` semantics also employ carefully chosen definitions of language features, including sources of non-determinism, numeric type definitions, formalizing various out-of-\* limits, etc., to ensure the encodings to first order logic are simple, compact (or at least finite), and easily dischargeable. This regularized programming model enables us to encode most of the language semantics in fully *precise* strongest postcondition form using decidable fragments of first order logic.

By construction the base theories needed by the `BSQCHK` checker for the core `BOSQUEIR` operations are limited to *uninterpreted functions*, *integer arithmetic*, and *bitvectors* `UF+IA+BV` [3]. The extension to include most container operations introduces several quantified formula forms that are contained in the decidable theory of *quantified bitvector formula* `QBVF` [56]. As all of these theories are decidable, the `BSQCHK` system can refute or generate witnesses for many errors in `BOSQUEIR` programs. Even in the presence of general recursion the `BSQCHK` checker has a pair of refutation and model generation algorithms that can precisely handle common idiomatic forms while safely falling back to best-effort modes when unavoidable.

Our approach to program checking, and thus the design of the `BSQCHK` checker, is pragmatic. Ideally a developer would like to have a fully automatic proof that, under all possible executions, a given state is unreachable or to get debuggable witness input in the cases when the state is reachable (e.g. a bug exists). In practice this proof or input may not be possible to generate as it may involve recursive code our heuristics do not cover or the theorem prover may be unable to discharge the query in a reasonable time frame. Thus, we consider the following hierarchy of

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Authors' addresses: Mark Marron, Microsoft Research, USA, marron@microsoft.com; Deepak Kapur, Computer Science, University of New Mexico, USA.

confidence boosting results that the BSQCHK checker can produce such that in all cases it is able to provide useful feedback to a developer:

- 1a. Proof that the error is infeasible in all possible executions
- 1b. Feasibility witness input that reaches target error state
- 2a. Proof that the error is infeasible on a simplified set of executions
- 2b. No witness input found before search time exhausted

The 1a and 1b cases are our ideal outcomes where the checker either proves that the error is infeasible for all possible executions or provides a concrete witness that can be used to debug the issue. The 2a and 2b cases represent useful *best effort* results. While they do not entirely rule out (or witness) a given error, they do provide a substantial boost in a developers confidence that the error is infeasible on a subset of inputs [44].

To maximize the ability of the system to produce useful outcomes in this hierarchy we leverage the unique features of the BOSQUEIR language and novel encodings into efficiently checkable fragments of first order logic to power the following features:

**Large & Inductive Model Capable** – The BSQCHK checker is able to do witness input generation and refutation proofs even when they require reasoning over a large model (Section 2.1). In the case of general reduction/recursion (Section 2.4) the checker has heuristics to generate a witness input or proof without unrolling inductive operations.

**Small Model Optimized** – If there is a small witness input model then the BSQCHK checker can find it using mostly (or entirely) quantifier free solving (Section 2.2). For refutation we also use small width bit-vector sizes to determine if a state is unreachable in an limited approximation of the program (Section 2.3).

**Focused Search Structure** – In the case where the BSQCHK checker heuristics are unable to generate a witness or establish a refutation proof, it falls back to a classic unroll+explore strategy. Even in this scenario, the restrictions of the BOSQUEIR language and the encoding maximize the amount of content in efficiently decidable logic UF+IA+QBVF fragment and minimizes the state space that must be explored with iterative unrolling (Section 2.5).

The code in Figure 1 shows a BOSQUEIR implementation of a business application modeling example from Morgan Stanley’s Morphir framework [39]. The code snippet is focused on the availability function. This function computes the number of items still available to sell based on the number at start of the day (`startOfDayPosition`) and the list of buy transactions (`buys`) so far. As a precondition it asserts that the `startOfDayPosition` is non-negative and that the return value `$return` is bounded by the start of day value.

The code to compute the number of buy transactions that have been completed successfully and the sum of the quantities from these purchases is concisely expressed using the functor chain `buys.filterBuyAccepted().mapx.quantity().sum()`. While this code is conceptually simple from a developer viewpoint, the actual strongest postcondition logic semantics for it are quite complex. They include a subset relation and predicate satisfaction relation on the `filter`, a quantified user defined binary relation with the `map`, and an inductively defined relation as a result of the `sum`. Thus, trying to prove that the postcondition is satisfied (or finding an input that demonstrates the error is possible) is a challenging task involving inductive reasoning, relationships between container sizes and contents, and quantified formula.

Despite these complexities the BSQCHK checker can model this code, in strongest postcondition form, as a logical formula in a decidable fragment of first-order logic! Further, the BSQCHK prover can instantaneously solve this formula.

```

99     function availability(startOfDayPosition: BigInt, buys: ListBuyResponse): BigInt
100         requires startOfDayPosition >= 0
101         ensures $return <= startOfDayPosition
102     {
103         let sumOfBuys = buys.filterBuyAccepted().mapx.quantity().sum() in
104         startOfDayPosition - sumOfBuys;
105     }
106     ...
107     entity BuyAccepted provides BuyResponse {
108         field productId: String;
109         field price: Decimal;
110         field quantity: BigInt; //<--- should be BigNat
111     }

```

Fig. 1. BOSQUEIR implementation of order processing code.

Using the following satisfying assignment as a witness input a developer can run the application, investigate the problem, and identify the appropriate course of action to resolve the issue.

$$startOfDayPosition = 0 \wedge buys = ListBuyResponse@{\textit{BuyAccepted}\{“a”, 0.0, -1\}}$$

In this case the fix is, using the fact that the BOSQUEIR language supports BigNat in addition to BigInt numbers to ensure that the buy quantity is always non-negative.

With this simple change the BSQCHK tool can be run again, and even with the complexity of the logical structure, will instantaneously return that the program state where the ensures clause is *false* is unreachable. All of this analysis and proving is fully automated and does not require any assistance, knowledge of the underlying theorem prover, or use of specialized logical assertions by the developer.

This example shows how, carefully constructing the programming language with the specific intent of being translatable to efficiently solvable logic, enables the construction of tooling with sophisticated automated reasoning capabilities that provides compelling developer experiences. As such, this result represents an important step in the transformation of programming from a human labor intensive task into one where human ingenuity is augmented with a powerful set of automated tools. The contributions<sup>1</sup> of this paper are:

- An core language calculus, BOSQUEIR, that is designed specifically in conjunction with and to support automated program analysis using modern SMT solvers (Section 3).
- Encoding the core of the BOSQUEIR language into a efficiently decidable fragment of first-order-logic, UF+IA+BV and optionally *real arithmetic* RA (Section 3).
- Encoding containers and operations on them (excluding *reduce* operations) into the decidable, QBVF, fragment of first-order logic (Section 4).
- Heuristics for processing container *reduce* operations and arbitrary recursion, without unrolling that remains in the UF+IA+QBVF fragment (Section 5).
- Introduces the BSQCHK checker (Section 2) which uses these techniques + novel methodologies enabled by the language and encoding to system to produce a tool that is effective at both refutation and witness generation in a range of scenarios.

## 2 BSQCHK OVERVIEW

The BSQCHK checker first builds the code under analysis and enumerates all possible error conditions. For each identified error the BSQCHK checker follows the algorithm shown in Figure 2.

<sup>1</sup>This system forms the foundation of the Bosque Programming Language project under development at Microsoft Research and available as open source software – <https://github.com/microsoft/BosqueLanguage>.

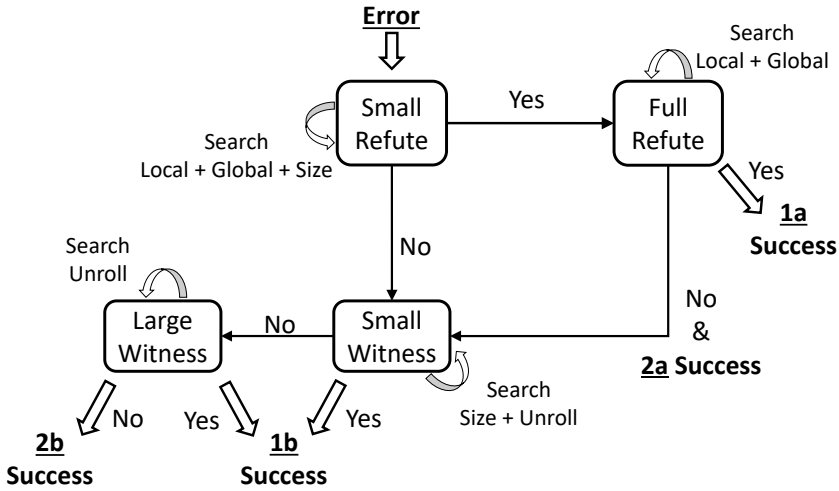


Fig. 2. BSQCHK checker workflow.

The first step in this algorithm is to see if the error can be refuted under various definitions of simplified models of the program. As a low cost first check the refutation proofs are all attempted without considering any call context. If this fails then the proofs are attempted using the, more expensive, whole program encoding. In both the local and whole program proofs, small bit-widths are used and increased in size up to 16 bits. If the small bitwidth proofs are successful refutations (either locally or globally) then then system attempts a refutation proof with the full bit-widths (first locally and then whole program). If either of these is successful then the checker has shown that the error is infeasible on all executions and we achieved the highest quality, 1a, confidence level.

If the refutation proofs fail then we move on to searching for a witness input for the error. If we succeeded in proving the error infeasible for the small bitwidths, but then failed to prove the infeasibility for the full case, we also achieved the partial, 2a, confidence level as well. In the small witness search we incrementally expand the bitwidths up to size 16 and gradually increase the limit of unrolling allowed for recursive calls – based on timeout limits. If we find an input that reaches the target error then we have succeeded in producing a high value actionable result for the developer, 1b, in our quality confidence level. With this result we know there is a real failure and have a small input that can be used to trigger and debug it.

In the case we cannot generate a small witness we make a final witness generation attempt with the full bitwidth and, again, perform iterative unrolling of the remaining recursive calls. As in the small input case, if we find an input that reaches the target error then we have succeeded in producing a high value actionable result for the developer. Otherwise we produce our minimal success result, 2b, where we aggressively explored the input space and, while we cannot fully rule out the feasibility of the error, we believe it is very unlikely to be triggered in practice.

## 2.1 Large Model Witness Generation

Symbolic fuzzers or model checking [16, 23] techniques explore the input/execution space using heuristics to iteratively unblock control flow paths (either conditionals or loop iterations). Other techniques use input structure mutation and generation [57] to iteratively cover larger sets of the relevant input space for a program. These techniques have proven highly effective at finding bugs

197 with a *small scope hypothesis* [24] – i.e. there exists a small input and/or small execution trace that  
 198 will exercise the error. In practice many errors have this property but there are important scenarios,  
 199 like cache invalidation logic or large lookup tables, where this hypothesis does not hold and these  
 200 techniques will be of limited effectiveness. Consider the code:

```

201     const cl = List_Int@{0, 1, 2, ..., 254, 333, 256 };
202
203     function largeunroll(x: Int): Bool {
204         if (!cl.contains(x)) then
205             false
206         else
207             let i = cl.findIndex(x) in
208                 i == 255
209     }
210
211     function largeinput(l: List_Int): Bool {
212         l.size() == 256 && l.get(255) == 333 && !l.slice(0, 255).contains(333)
213     }
  
```

211 For techniques that use iterative state space expansion the `largeunroll` function requires  
 212 unrolling the logic in `contains` and `findIndex` functions 255 steps before they observe the function  
 213 returning `true`. This can be even more challenging for input state generation based exploration  
 214 techniques which need to enumerate from the space of valid integers to find a single value. In the  
 215 case of the `largeinput` function the problem becomes more complex as both the iteration space  
 216 and the input need to be large, a List of 256 elements, in order to reach the path where the function  
 217 returns `true`. While heuristics exist to increase the likelihood of finding these errors, e.g. seeding  
 218 the input generator with constants from the program, in general iterative exploration techniques  
 219 will exhaust their resource bounds without finding the error state.

220 The use of QBVF encodings enable the SMT solver to reason from both constraints related to the  
 221 input and the target error. This allows it to easily generate satisfying witness values for the input  
 222 that reach the target error state. Consider the formula that needs to be solved for the `largeunroll`  
 223 function – which is trivially solvable and satisfiable with the assignment of  $x = 333$ :

224 
$$\exists n \in [0, \text{len}(lc)) \text{ s.t. } \text{get}(n, cl) = x \wedge i == 255 \wedge \text{get}(i, cl) = x \wedge \text{get}(0, cl) = 0 \dots \text{get}(255, cl) = 333$$

225 The formula for the `largeinput` example when it is expected to return `true` is more interesting.  
 226 It may seem we need to enumerate and solve for all 256 values in the formula.

227 
$$\text{len}(l) = 256 \wedge \text{get}(l, 255) = 333 \wedge \forall n \in [0, 255) \text{get}(n, l) \neq 333$$

228 However, the method for solving satisfiability assignments in Z3 [56] uses conditional model  
 229 logic and is able to produce the compact model for the contents of  $l$  as `(ite (= n 255) 333 0)`.  
 230 This example has neither a small iteration space nor a small input the logical witness input model  
 231 is still compact and efficiently computable!

## 232 2.2 Small Model Witness Generation

233 In practice many of the error states that we are interested in checking for satisfy the small scope  
 234 hypothesis. While the QBVF encoding approach can handle these cases, just like for the large  
 235 models, we can further optimize the performance for smaller models. Although QBVF is decidable  
 236 it is asymptotically and practically more expensive than solving over quantifier-free UF+IA+BV  
 237 formula. Consider the example below where the function checks to see if there is an element in the  
 238 list that satisfies the predicate  $x * x == 0$ .

```

239     function smallwitness(l: List_Int): Bool {
240         l.someOf_{x*x==0}()
241     }
  
```

242

Using the QBFV encoding to generate a witness input for when this function returns true requires us to solve the quantified formula:

$$\exists n \in [0, \text{len}(l)) \text{ s.t. } \text{get}(n, l) * \text{get}(n, l) = 0 \wedge \forall n \in [0, \text{len}(l)) \text{get}(n, l) = \text{havoc}_{\text{Int}}(n)$$

To limit the introduction of quantifiers we use path splitting and implement a special *small-model path* in the library implementation that is optimized for generating easily solved quantifier free formula. An implementation of the `someOf` and `havoc` functions in the BOSQUEIR standard library shows how this works:

```

function someOfp(l: ListInt): Bool {
  let ct = len(l) in
  if(ct == 0) then false
  elif(ct == 1) then p(l.get(0))
  elif(ct == 2) then p(l.get(0)) || p(l.get(1))
  elif(ct == 3) then p(l.get(0)) || p(l.get(1)) || p(l.get(2))
  else quantified_someOfp(l) //full quantifier path
}

function havocListInt(c: Ctx): ListInt {
  let ct = havoc_{Int}(c) in
  if(ct == 0) then ListInt@{}
  elif(ct == 1) then ListInt@{havocInt(c ⊕ 0)}
  elif(ct == 2) then ListInt@{havocInt(c ⊕ 0), havocInt(c ⊕ 1)}
  elif(ct == 3) then ListInt@{havocInt(c ⊕ 0), havocInt(c ⊕ 1), havocInt(c ⊕ 2)}
  else quantified_havocListInt(c, ct) //full quantifier path
}

```

These implementations include *small-model* paths which produce quantifier free formula for lists of lengths less than 4. To construct a satisfying assignment to the input variables the SMT solver can, when possible, find one in the propositional fragment of the formula. This design also cleanly handles cases where there is a large constant or computed list, handled by the *quantifier* path, while still allowing most reasoning to take place on the quantifier-free formula.

### 2.3 Small Refutation Construction

In the BSQCHK checker our approach for 2b, from the confidence hierarchy, is to turn one of the challenges of using fixed width bit-vectors – reasoning with large widths can be computationally expensive – into a strength since reasoning with small widths is very efficient. Consider the example below when we want to check if this function returns false.

```

function smallproof(x: Int): Bool {
  let ll = l.append(ListInt@{x}, ListInt@{1, 3}) in
  ll.contains(3)
}

```

From the code we can see that, regardless of the input value, the second list contains the constant 3 and so the return value is trivially true. In many cases, including our example, we can interpret all the operations and show that that the false return value is infeasible (the formula is *unsat*) entirely with a small width bitvector (anything 2 or larger). In practice *unsat* stability is quite common and, unless an error is blocked by an overflow error, then like in our example the proof of infeasibility almost always generalizes to the full bit width [25]. This technique combines with the optimizations in Section 2.2 to, heuristically, further optimize witness generation when they exist for small container sizes.

### 2.4 Heuristically Decidable Induction

By design the majority of the standard library container operations can be encoded in decidable fragments of first order logic and in, BOSQUEIR programs, the use of explicit recursion is discouraged.

295 However, the BOSQUEIR language does support the use of arbitrary recursive computation and  
 296 there are times when it is needed. In these cases we still want to do best effort refutation proofs  
 297 and/or witness input generation. The *cover set method* for mechanizing induction [58] allows us to  
 298 implement a heuristic tactic that transforms inductive definitions into a closed form that can be  
 299 encoded in our decidable fragment.

300 Suppose a programmer implements Peano numbers using the standard inductive successor axioms  
 301 and, the recursive add and add3, functions defined below. They might also include an assertion that  
 302 the implementation is associative, *i.e.*  $add(x, add(y, z)) = add((x, y), z)$ . In the BOSQUEIR language  
 303 this is done by computing the two values and asserting the equality explicitly.

```

304 concept Peano {}
305 entity Zero provides Peano {}
306 entity Succ provides Peano { field val: Peano; }
307
308 function add(x: Peano, y: Peano): Peano {
309   switch(y) {
310     case Zero => x
311     case Succ@{z} => Succ@{add(x, z)}
312   }
313 }
314
315 function add3(a: Peano, b: Peano, c: Peano): Peano {
316   let r1 = add(a, add(b, c))
317   let rr = add(add(a, b), c)
318   if(r1 != rr) then error
319   else rr
320 }
  
```

318 Proving the infeasibility of the error statement requires discharging an inductive proof over the  
 319 recursive structure of add. In general this problem is undecidable but, in many cases, we can use the  
 320 construction of a cover set and a list of clauses that capture the inductive proof obligations. These  
 321 obligations can then be encoded as guards for the desired property and, if successfully discharged,  
 322 complete the inductive proof.

323 For this example the cover set generation heuristic produces a set of constraints that match the  
 324 principle of mathematical induction: the basis step is to instantiate the second argument of *add*  
 325 to be *Zero*, and the induction step is to instantiate the second argument to be *Succ@{w}* with the  
 326 induction hypothesis generated by instantiating the second argument to be *w*.

327 Thus in our example the basis step is generated by instantiating *c* to be *Zero* producing a subgoal  
 328 (without any induction hypothesis since there are no recursive calls to *add* in the first equation):

$$329 \quad \dagger \equiv add(a, add(b, Zero)) = add(add(a, b), Zero)$$

330  
 331 The induction step is generated by instantiating *c* to be *Succ@{c}* with the induction hypothesis  
 332 obtained by instantiating *c* to be *c*:

$$333 \quad \dagger\dagger \equiv add(a, add(b, c)) = add(add(a, b), c) \Rightarrow add(a, add(b, Succ@{c})) = add(add(a, b), Succ@{c})$$

334  
 335 Using the equality rules implied by the definition of *add*, the validity of both of these subgoal  
 336 can also be discharged.

337 This technique is powerful enough to support our needs wrt. container functors not convertible  
 338 to QBVF and also generalizes to handle a wide range of inductive proofs arising from common  
 339 idiomatic uses of recursion. In addition to the generality of the cover set method it also has the  
 340 desirable property that it does not require a costly iterative unrolling-and-check algorithm and  
 341 instead only performs a single guarded clause expansion – *i.e.* in our encoding we simply introduce  
 342 the guarded formula  $\dagger \wedge \dagger\dagger \Rightarrow rl = rr$  as the closed form guarded constraint.



## 2.5 Focused Semi-Decision Search

Despite the wide range of techniques we use to encode a program in decidable fragments of first order logic, there are inherently times when the heuristics will fail. In these cases we accept that no proof of infeasibility can be constructed and instead fall back to the 2b case in our hierarchy of confidence boosting results.

In this mode we use brute force iterative unrolling of recursive functions and the library calls that cannot be encoded in QBVF. This is a simple semi-decision procedure for generating a witness input for a given error state but has limited effectiveness when the number of candidate calls to unroll is large. However, by the BOSQUEIR language design and encodings in the BSQCHK checker we eliminate most of these candidates in practice. This results in a drastic reduction in the search space and increases the overall success rate of the procedure.

## 3 BOSQUEIR CORE AND ENCODING

This section provides the syntax and operators of the BOSQUEIR language with an emphasis on features that are not widely seen in existing programming IRs and/or that are particularly important for encoding to first order logic that is efficiently solvable by modern SMT solvers. Our encoding is a *deep embedding* that tries to push as much knowledge about the program structure as possible explicitly into the logical encoding.

### 3.1 Primitives

The BOSQUEIR language provides the standard assortment of primitive types and values including a special none value (None type), a Bool, Nat and Int numbers, safe BigNat and BigInt numbers, along with Float, Decimal, and Rational numbers. The BOSQUEIR String type represents immutable unicode string values. The language also includes support for commonly used types/values in modern cloud applications like, ISO times, SHA hashcodes, UUIDs, and other miscellany.

The Nat and Int types are mapped to fixed-width bitvectors. The choice of bitvectors allows us to support nonlinear operations while remaining in a decidable fragment of logic. The *BigInt* and *BigNat* types are more interesting as they are mapped to SMT *Int*. For non-linear operations we support both an over approximate encoding to uninterpreted functions + a simple axiomatization as well as a precise mode that uses the underlying NLA solver.

For solver performance we consider tradeoffs between precise encodings of semantics and versions that, in some cases, admits infeasible or excludes feasible execution traces. One of the places we allow this relaxation is in the encoding of Float, Decimal, and Rational numbers. We provide 3 flavors of encoding for these values in the BOSQUEIR system:

- Exact – where Float and Decimal are represented as a fixed width IEEE value and Rational is represented explicitly using the semantics of the underlying integer number representation. This can be computationally costly but is precise and will never generate an incorrect refutation or infeasible witness input.
- Conservative – where Float, Decimal, and Rational are defined as opaque sorts and all operations on them are uninterpreted functions with simple axiomatizations. This is efficiently decidable and a safe over-approximation so is sound for refutation but prone to generating infeasible witness inputs.
- Approximate – where Float, Decimal, and Rational are defined as *Real* sorts. This is the default encoding and, in theory, can admit both admit infeasible or exclude feasible execution traces. In practice the situations where these approximations negatively influence the outcome are limited and the overall increase in performance + success rate in refutation and witness input generation is a sweet spot for practical usage.



### 3.2 Self Describing Types

Structural *Tuple* and *Record* types provide standard forms of self describing types. One notable aspect is the presence of optional indecies or properties. In most languages this would lead to problems with analysis and require dynamic runtime support when accessing optional properties. However, as we enforce a *closed world assumption* on BOSQUEIR programs we can compute the actual set of concrete tuple/record types that may appear in the program.

Using the theory of constructors is a natural way to encode the tuple and record types. Since the BOSQUEIR language enforces a closed world compilation model we can generate all possible concrete Tuple and Record values that the program operates on. Consider a program that uses the tuple `[Int, Bool]` and the record `{f: Int, g: String}`. The SMT constructor encoding for these types would be:

```

type Tuple[Int,Bool] = cons of BV * Bool
type Record{f:Int,g:String} = cons of BV * String

```

This representation results in substantial simplifications when reasoning about operations on these values as lookups are simply constructor argument resolutions instead of requiring the analysis of various dynamic properties –e.g. looking up a property value based on a key in a dictionary structure.

The BOSQUEIR language also supports self describing *union* types – e.g. `Int | None` or `Int | String | [Bool, Bool]`. These unions are not encoded using direct constructors. Instead we use an abstract value encoding, [Section 3.5](#), for these unions and also for tuples/records with optional entries (which are logically equivalent to union types).

### 3.3 Nominal Types

The BOSQUEIR language supports a nominal type system that allows the construction of object-oriented style type inheritance structures. Abstract Concepts provide a means for inheritance and multi-inheritance via *Conjunction*. The nominal type system differs from many oo-type systems in that the *Concepts* are always abstract and can never be concretely instantiated while *Entity* (class) types are always concrete and can never be subclassed.

This design simplifies the representation encoding, and as with the tuples and records, we can enumerate all possible concrete object types and encode them using the theory of constructors. Consider a program that uses the entity `entity Foo { field a: Float; field b: [Int, Bool]}`. The SMT constructor encoding for this types would be:

```

type Foo = cons of Real * Tuple[Int,Bool]

```

### 3.4 Key Types and Equality

Equality is a multifaceted concept in programming [43] and ensuring consistent behavior across the many areas it surfaces in a modern programming language such as `=`, `.equals`, `Set.has`, and `List.sort`, is source of subtle bugs [22]. This complexity further manifests when equality can involve referential identity which introduces issue of needing to model aliasing relations on values, in addition to their structural data, in order to understand the equality relation. The fact that *reference equality* is chosen as a default, or is an option, is also a bit of an anachronism as reference equality heavily ties the execution semantics of the language to a hardware model in which objects are associated with a memory location.

To avoid these behavioral complications, and the need to model aliasing, the BOSQUEIR language is *referentially transparent*. The only values which may be compared for equality are special primitive values including *none*, booleans, primitive integral numbers, strings, and then tuples/records made from other equality comparable values. In our encoding we want to ensure that this equality

442 relation is equivalent to *term equality* in the SMT solver. In their base representations these types  
 443 all map to different SMT kinds so cannot be compared directly. Thus, we introduce a uniform  
 444 representation for *Key Types* that boxes all of the values into a uniform SMT kind and tags them  
 445 with the underlying type. As an example consider the SMT encoding for a program that uses the  
 446 types None, Bool, Int, String, and the tuple/record definitions from above:

```

447 type KeyValueRepr =
448   None@box
449   | Bool@box of Bool
450   | Int@box of BV
451   | String@box of (Seq BV8)
452   | Tuple[Int,Bool]@box of Tuple[Int,Bool]
453   | Record{f:Int,g:String}@box of Record{f:Int,g:String}
454
455 type KeyValue =
456   cons of TypeTag * KeyValueRepr
  
```

456 With this representation we can equality compare any KeyType values with the SMT term  
 457 = semantics making the equality operations trivially decidable in UF! In conjunction with the  
 458 immutability of the values (Section 3.6) this ensures that BOSQUEIR code is referentially transparent  
 459 and functions do not need to use *frame rules* [34].

### 461 3.5 Abstract Types

462 The BOSQUEIR language allows for type generalization in a number of contexts – optional fields  
 463 in records/tuples create types that may contain many different concrete records/tuples, abstract  
 464 Concept types may be implemented by many concrete Entity types, and the language also allows  
 465 unrestricted union types. One approach would be to use the closed world assumption and create  
 466 a datatype for each possible abstract type in a program. In addition to the large number of types  
 467 created, this can also result in large amounts of data reshaping when assigning between variables  
 468 of different union types. Consider assigning an Int | Bool typed variable to an Int | Bool |  
 469 None typed variable or to an Any typed variable. In these cases each assignment would involve  
 470 extracting the concrete value from the source value and injecting it into the representation for the  
 471 target value. This results in type checks and switches on each assignment and a quadratic (worst  
 472 case) number of cases to handle assignments between all possible options.

473 Instead we use only two representations for all generalized types that appear in the program.  
 474 One representation, *KeyValue*, as described above is for any key valued abstract type. Another  
 475 representation, *Value*, is for all other abstract values and includes a representation for key types  
 476 that are combined with non-key types. For each concrete type in the program we define a unary  
 477 constructor that maps the concrete type into a KeyValue (above) or Value representation:

```

479 type ValueRepr =
480   Foo@box of TypeTag * Foo
481
482 type Value =
483   KeyValue@cons of TypeTag * KeyValue
484   | Value@cons of TypeTag * ValueRepr
  
```

485 This encoding eliminates the need extensive for reshaping when assigning between most pairs of  
 486 abstract types, even in the special case of converting between *KeyValue/Value* representations is a  
 487 single op, and does not require any type specific logic on the concrete type. The extraction/injection  
 488 operations from these representations to concrete values are also simple single ops that, in most  
 489 cases, can be done without any additional type tag checking.

491	Primitive	$:=$	$none \mid true \mid false \mid i \mid f \mid s \mid v \mid \dots$
492	Operator	$:=$	$(\neg -)e \mid e_1(+ - * / )e_2 \mid e_1(\wedge \vee)e_2 \mid e_1(< =)e_2$
493	Cons	$:=$	$[Exp_1, \dots, Exp_j] \mid \{f_1 = Exp_1, \dots, f_j = Exp_j\} \mid EntityName@(Exp_1, \dots, Exp_j)$
494	Cons	$:=$	$[Exp_1, \dots, Exp_j] \mid \{f_1 = Exp_1, \dots, f_j = Exp_j\} \mid EntityName@(Exp_1, \dots, Exp_j)$
495	TupleOp	$:=$	$Exp.n \mid Exp.[n_1, \dots, n_k] \mid Exp.[n_1 = Exp_1, \dots, n_k = Exp_k] \mid Exp \oplus Exp$
496	RecordOp	$:=$	$Exp.p \mid Exp.\{p_1, \dots, p_k\} \mid Exp.\{p_1 = Exp_1, \dots, p_k = Exp_k\} \mid Exp \uplus Exp$
497	EntityOp	$:=$	$Exp.f \mid Exp.\{f_1, \dots, f_k\} \mid Exp.\{f_1 = Exp_1, \dots, f_k = Exp_k\} \mid Exp \leftarrow Exp$
498	Invoke	$:=$	$fn(Exp_1, \dots, Exp_j)$
499	TypeTest	$:=$	$Exp \text{ istype } Type$
500	Assert	$:=$	$error_{trgt} \mid error_{other}$
501	Cond	$:=$	$if Exp_c \text{ then } Exp_t \text{ (elif } Exp_c \text{ then } Exp_t) * \text{ else } Exp_f$
502	Cond	$:=$	$if Exp_c \text{ then } Exp_t \text{ (elif } Exp_c \text{ then } Exp_t) * \text{ else } Exp_f$
503	Switch	$:=$	$switch(Exp)(case Primitive \Rightarrow Exp \mid case pattern \Rightarrow Exp) *$
504	Let	$:=$	$let (v = Exp) + in Exp$
505	Exp	$:=$	$Primitive \mid Operator \mid Cons \mid *Op \mid Invoke \mid TypeTest \mid Assert \mid Cond \mid Switch \mid Let$
506			

Fig. 3. BOSQUEIR Expressions

### 3.6 Operations

The expression language for BOSQUEIR is shown in Figure 3. By construction the language maps directly to the SMTLIB expression language in many cases.

Primitive expressions include special constants like `true`, `false`, `none`, literal numeric values like `i` or `f`, literal strings `s`, and variables (either local, global, or argument). The BOSQUEIR language has the standard assortment of numeric and logical *Operators* which, thanks to our type encodings, map mostly to the semantics of the operations in UF+IA+BV. The only exceptions are the integral operations which we provide bounds checking on [40] – which are errors when over/under flows occur for `Nat/Int` values.

The constructor operations in the language are all simple and explicit operations with a type name + full list of values. These all map naturally to the SMT theory of constructors.

There are similar sets of operations for tuples, records, and objects. There is the standard index ( $e.n$  where  $n$  is a constant), or named property/field accessor ( $e.f$ ). The language also includes bulk data operations for projecting out (or updating the values in) a set of indices and creating a new tuple or a set of properties/fields creating a new record. The bulk update version handles the dynamic dispatch (and invariant checking) if the type of  $e$  is not unique as well. Finally, there is a tuple append operator ( $\oplus$ ) which appends two tuples which do not have any optional fields, a record disjoint join operator ( $\uplus$ ) which creates a new record from the (disjoint) set of properties in the two argument records, and a nominal type field merge using the properties/values from the right-hand side expression.

Due to the construction of the BOSQUEIR semantics, with referential transparency and no mutation, the encoding of BOSQUEIR functions closely matches the call to the corresponding SMT implemented function. The only modification is to encode the possibility of an error result in addition to the declared result type,  $T$ , of the BOSQUEIR function. We do this in the expected way by making the return type of every SMT function a  $Result_T$  and, at the call site, either propagating the error or continuing on the computation.

For type testing we again leverage the closed world design of the BOSQUEIR language and enumerate the non-trivial subtype relations and encode them as binary functions. We note that we don't need to encode many *uninteresting* subtypes that are statically known to be infeasible, e.g. tuples are never subtypes of record types, or trivially true, e.g. only `none` is not a subtype of `Some`.

```

540 ListStructure := empty | List $T$ @{ $e_1, \dots, e_j$ } | slice( $l, a, b$ ) | concat2( $l_1, l_2$ ) ...
541 ListProperty := fill( $n, v$ ) | range( $l, h$ ) | havoc | ...
542 ListCompute := map $f_n$ ( $l$ ) | filter $p$ ( $l$ ) | ...
543 ListAccess := size( $l$ ) | get( $l, n$ ) | ...
544 ListPred := has $p$ ( $l$ ) | find $p$ ( $l$ ) | findLast $p$ ( $l$ ) | count $p$ ( $l$ ) | ...
545 ListIterate := reduce $f_n$ ( $l$ ) | reduceOrderd $f_n$ ( $l$ ) | ...

```

Fig. 4. BosQUEIR List&lt;T&gt; Operations

There are two asserts in the language. Both of them produce an  $error_T$  return value for the function. The distinction in these *Assert* operations allows us to separate all possible errors into two groups – the  $error_{trgt}$  value for the specific error we are interested in and the  $error_{other}$  value for any other error that occurs.

The remaining *Cond/Switch* control flow and *Let* binding operations are self explanatory and map simply to the SMTLIB *ite* and *let* constructs.

Finally, we note that all of these expressions are deterministic and that none of them mutate any state. Interestingly none of these design choices individually seem surprising on their own and individually every one of them can be seen in existing programming languages. However, when taken in their totality they result in a remarkably simple encoding into first order logic in a way that is highly amenable to solution with modern SMT solving techniques!

## 4 BOSQUEIR CONTAINERS AND ENCODING

Containers and operations on them play a major role in most programs but, as a design principle, BosQUEIR programs do not allow loops and the language is designed to discouraged the extensive use of explicit recursion. Instead the BosQUEIR language includes a rich set of container datatypes and functor based operations on them. In practice these operations, and parameterizeable functors, are sufficient to cover the majority of iterative operations [1].

The semantics of these containers and operations inherently involve reasoning over the (symbolic) range of the containers contents. As a result many features of these libraries cannot be handled using the quantifier free encoding techniques described in Section 3. Instead we introduce a novel encoding for the container library code that is entirely in the decidable fragments of logic we previously used along with the QBVF [56] fragment of first-order logic.

### 4.1 List<T> Type and Operations

Figure 4 shows an example of the operations provided for the List type<sup>2</sup>. The List type provides a random access model for an immutable Nat indexed set of values. In practice this is often implemented as a contiguous memory array or using RRB-vectors [47]. However, as we see in this section, there are alternative representations that are more useful for formal reasoning.

The semantics of BosQUEIR collections use distinct types/implementations for each instantiation of a List type and each functor use is statically *defunctionalized*. This ensures that two lists of different content types have distinct representations and every function call is first order.

The List type has a number of basic constructors including the empty constant and a literal constructor List $T$ @{ $e_1, \dots, e_j$ }. In addition there are the expected set of concat, slice, fill, size, get, *etc.* operations which have the usual semantics.

<sup>2</sup>The BosQUEIR language provides a rich set of collections including Set and Map types but, as the principles we use for List types extend in the expected manner, we focus on List<T> in this section.

We also provide a special *havoc* constructor. This constructor takes an opaque context token and returns a list with a symbolic length and contents that when accessed are havoc values themselves. This constructor (and similar constructors for other types) are the only form of non-determinism allowed in BOSQUEIR programs. The following code illustrates the use of a havoc:

```

589
590
591
592
593
594     function main(): Bool {
595         let l = ListInt::havoc(0) in
596         if (empty(l)) then false
597         else get(l, 0) == 0
598     }

```

In this sample the havoc constructor can create a length 0 list and take the first branch (to return false) or a list with at least one element. The *get* operation causes a call to the havoc constructor for *Int* which can return 0, and the function will be true, or an arbitrary nonzero number to make the result false.

To motivate this section we use the following running example that illustrates the challenges and subtleties of efficiently reasoning over the BOSQUEIR collection libraries:

```

603
604
605     function main(c: Int, args: ListInt): Bool {
606         let la = ListInt@{1, 2, 3} in
607         let lb = ListInt::fill(c, 0) in
608         let lc = ListInt::concat(la, args, lb) in
609
610         let ld = lc.map|x|() in
611         let le = ld.filter<10() in
612
613         le.someOf=0()
614     }

```

In this code sample several lists are constructed using both constant and symbolic values, via the function arguments *c* and *args*, processed with the functors *map* and *filter*, finally we perform a logical computation on the resulting list. The first line constructs a constant list with 3 elements while the second line constructs a list of *c* elements all of which are set to 0. The next line builds a list, *lc*, that is the concatenation of these two lists with the symbolic input list *args*. Next we construct the list *ld* by applying the function *abs(x)* to every element in the list *lc*. The call to *filter* then creates a sublist of elements from *ld* that satisfy the predicate  $x < 10$ . In the test operations we do a test to see if there exists any element in the *le* list, via the *someOf* functor, that satisfies the predicate  $x = 0$ .

The emphasis on including a rich set of functor operations as part of the code BOSQUEIR language makes it possible to write large portions of an application without resorting to explicit iterative or recursive code and then dealing with the challenges of loop or inductive invariant generation. Thus, we can optimize the BSQCHK reasoning for handling operations on this known set of functors and use a more general technique as a fallback for explicitly recursive code (Section 5). However, we still face the challenge that operations inherently involve reasoning over the (symbolic) ranges of the container contents.

To address the challenge of quantified semantics in the container and operator specifications we note that the operations of interest can actually be divided into three categories. The first is operations that can be handled via encoding with quantifier free algebraic data-types as shown in Section 4.2. The next is a set of functors that, fundamentally, require quantified logic in their ground terms as described in Section 4.3. Finally, we introduce a special lemma for handling sublist selection based operations in Section 4.4. The combination of these techniques gives us an optimized encoding for, the majority of, our container library code in decidable fragments of logic.

## 4.2 Theory of Constructors

The direct way to model the core container types in the BOSQUEIR language would be to define a SMT constructor using a size component and a contents array. While conceptually simple, this approach has the problems of bringing another theory, arrays, into the logic and also results in many operations, such as `append`, requiring quantification over the result array contents. Instead we use the fact that BOSQUEIR equality is limited to primitive values – *i.e.* containers cannot be compared for equality and thus we do not need to preserve structural equality in the encoding.

With this observation we can take the view that, instead of one list constructor kind `List = BV * Array`, there are actually many constructors and we can encode the `List` type<sup>3</sup> using the following algebraic structure:

```

638 type List =
639   empty
640   | const3   of BV * BV * BV
641   | fill     of BV * BV
642   | concat2  of List * List
643   | concat3  of List * List * List
644   | map|x|  of List
645   | filterx<10 of List
646   | havoc   of  $\sigma$ 
647
648
649
650
651
652
653
654
655

```

This algebraic structure is generated per-program based on the uses of each container type. With this encoding many collection operations reduce to simple quantifier free formula. Additional simplification logic in the operator definitions minimizes the nesting depth of the constructor trees as illustrated in the SMT implementations for the `concat2` and `map|x|` functors:

```

660
661 fun op_concat2 ((l1 List) (l2 List)) List =
662   if (l1 = empty ^ l2 = empty)
663     empty
664   elif (l1 = empty)
665     l2
666   elif (l2 = empty)
667     l1
668   else
669     concat2(l1, l2)
670
671 recfun op_map|x| ((l List)) List =
672   if (l = empty)
673     empty
674   elif (l = const3(a, b, c))
675     const3(|a|, |b|, |c|)
676   elif (l = fill(c, v))
677     fill(c, |v|)
678   elif (l = concat2(l1, l2))
679     op_concat2(op_map|x|(l1), op_map|x|(l2))
680   ...
681   else
682     map|x|(l)
683
684
685
686

```

These examples show how the solver can perform substantial algebraic simplification to, in many cases, entirely eliminate the need to expand and reason about the more complex constructor operations. In the case of `op_map|x|` when the argument list size is zero we trivially drop the function application and just return the empty list. More interestingly are the cases of `fill` where we can expand and then reconstruct the fill with the `map` function applied to the single fill argument and `concat2` where, similarly, we can expand the argument and apply the operation down to the two

<sup>3</sup>For brevity we assume lists are of type `Int` when not otherwise specified.



sublists. In our motivating example these simplifications, and similar simplifications in `filter`, allow us to finitize a large part of the `List` processing and show that `ld` is equivalent to:

```

687
688
689     concat3(
690         const(1, 2, 3),
691         map|x|(havoc( $\sigma_1$ )),
692         fill(c, 0)
693     )

```

Similarly, accessor operations can be reduced to use algebraic traversals of the constructor trees in many cases. In our example the `someOf` operation would be implemented as follows:

```

696     recfun someof=0 ((l List)) Bool =
697         if (l = empty)
698             false
699         elif (l = const3(a, b, c))
700             a = 0  $\vee$  b = 0  $\vee$  c = 0
701         elif (l = fill(c, v))
702             v = 0  $\wedge$  c  $\neq$  0
703         elif (l = concat2(l1, l2))
704             someof=0(l1)  $\vee$  someof=0(l2)
705         elif (l = map|x|(ll))
706              $\exists n, n < ll.size() \wedge |ll.get(n)| = 0$ 
707         ...
708         else
709             //havoc constructor
710              $\exists n, n < l.size() \wedge l.get(n) = 0$ 

```

As shown in this example there are many cases where we can finitize the access formula but in some cases, like the `map|x|(ll)` or the `havoc` branches, we cannot fully eliminate the use of quantified expressions.

### 4.3 Simply Quantified Formula

Common approaches to handling quantified formula in SMT solvers often involve the use of instantiation triggers or other heuristics. Unfortunately, these approaches suffer from poor performance and solver instability [33]. Further, they fundamentally introduce incompleteness into the engine and prevent the construction of models. As model generation is one of our key objectives we want to have a decision procedure for these formula.

As described in [Section 3](#) the `BosqueIR` language specifies the `Nat` type as a fixed width integer and is represented using the theory of fixed-width bitvectors. With this choice of integer encoding, and our fixed set of quantification forms, we can ensure that all quantified variables are scoped to just bitvector values which puts the formula in the theory of quantified bitvector formula (QBVF). If we look at the `map` formula from the `someof` implementation we see it has the following structure:

$$\exists n, n < ll.size() \wedge |ll.get(n)| = 0$$

As the  $n$  in this formula is the only quantified variable and it is a bitvector, it is clear this formula is in the QBVF fragment. As such it is both decidable and there exist efficient techniques exist for solving these problems in practice [42, 56].

### 4.4 ISequence Lemma

The combination of algebraic datatypes and simple quantifiers is sufficient to encode many container operations in the `BosqueIR` standard library. However, subset based computations like `filter` are still problematic. These computations have four properties that define their semantics. For a `ListInt l`, a predicate  $p$ , and the output list  $lp$ :

$$(1) \quad x \in l \wedge p(x) \Rightarrow x \in lp$$

- 736 (2)  $x \in lp \Rightarrow p(x) \wedge x \in l$   
 737 (3) The multiplicity of  $x \in lp$  and  $x \in l$  are equal  
 738 (4) The order of elements in  $lp$  matches  $l$

739 The first 2 conditions can be easily specified using simple quantifiers but the multiplicity and  
 740 ordering properties are more complex. Instead we present an auxiliary datastructure, an ISequence  
 741 which is a integer indexed sequence of bitvector values and an uninterpreted function  $iseq_p(\text{List } l)$   
 742  $= s$ , with the following constraints:

- 743 (1)  $\forall n \in [0, \text{size}(l)), p(\text{get}(l, n)) \Rightarrow \exists i \in [0, \text{size}(s)) \text{ s.t. } s[i] = n$   
 744 (2)  $\forall i \in [0, \text{size}(s)), p(\text{get}(l, s[i]))$   
 745 (3)  $\forall i \in [0, \text{size}(s)), s[i] \in [0, \text{size}(l))$   
 746 (4)  $\forall i, j \in [0, \text{size}(s)), i < j \Rightarrow s[i] < s[j]$

747 Assertions 1, 2 enforce that any indices in the List  $l$  satisfying the predicate must appear in  
 748 the ISequence  $s$  and that every element in  $s$  contains an index in  $l$  that satisfies the predicate  
 749 – matching the subset requirements. Assertions 3, 4 enforce the size, multiplicity, and ordering  
 750 constraints by limiting the positions and range of values that can appear in the result ISequence.  
 751 These constraints all fall into the QBFV fragment and are dischargeable by a SMT solver.

752 With this auxiliary operation filter is defined simply as a constructor of List \* ISequence.  
 753 We can also use the iseq function to compute the result of the countIf functor and, as the  
 754 underlying function uses are identical to constructing the ISequence for filter it is trivial to show  
 755 that  $l.\text{filter}(p).\text{size}() == l.\text{countIf}(p)$ . We use a similar form of auxiliary operations to  
 756 implement sorting, uniqueness, and join constructs.

757 Returning to our running example, the definition of  $le$  would be equivalent to the formula:

```
759 concat3(  
760   const(1, 2, 3),  
761   filter<10 (map|x| (havoc( $\sigma_1$ ))), iseq<10 (map|x| (havoc( $\sigma_1$ ))),  
762   fill(c, 0)  
763 )
```

764 Now suppose we want to try and prove that our running example function always returns true –  
 765 that is  $le.\text{someOf}_{=0}()$  is false is unsatisfiable. If we try to check this formula we will find that the  
 766 proof fails, but since the formula is decidable, we can instead ask the solver to produce a model that  
 767 satisfies the formula when the function returns false – that is  $le.\text{someOf}_{=0}()$  is false is satisfiable.

768 Applying the algebraic rules for someOf simplifies this to the checks that each of the three sublists  
 769 is false. The first sublist is always false as it is constant and does not contain 0. The args sublist can  
 770 easily be made false for someOf check by setting it to be the empty list. Finally, we can make the  
 771 fill list false for the predicate by setting the input parameter  $c$  to 0 as well. If we update the code  
 772 to, say  $\text{assign } lb = \text{List}_{Int}::\text{fill}(c + 1, 0)$ , then the proposition that the method returning  
 773 false is unsatisfiable will reduce to the  $\vee$  of the results on the three sublists and now the fill option  
 774 will always be true and the proof will succeed.

## 775 5 COVER SET METHOD FOR INDUCTIVE REASONING

776 In the previous section we built a specialized encoding for the most common container operations  
 777 in BosqueIR programs. However, there are some functors that we cannot handle fully even with  
 778 quantified templates. Additionally, we want to imbue the BSQCHK system with a powerful and  
 779 robust methodology for proving the safety of programs which use general recursion. Remarkably  
 780 there exists such a method, the *cover set method* (Section 5.1) for mechanizing induction [58]. This  
 781 technique is powerful enough to support our needs wrt. the remaining reduce style container  
 782 functors and also generalizes to handle a wide range of inductive proofs. In addition to the generality  
 783

of the cover set method it also has the desirable property that it does not require an costly iterative unrolling-and-check algorithm [45, 53] and instead only performs a single guarded clause expansion.

## 5.1 Cover Set Background

The cover set method for mechanizing induction was introduced in 1988 [58] in an equational programming language framework in the paradigm of term rewriting approach for automating inductive reasoning. Function definitions in that framework are given in ML style in a recursive fashion, for different cases for constructing a data type on which the function is defined. As a simple illustration, the data type Natural is defined by a constant 0 and a successor function  $s$  with the implicit property that  $0 \neq s(x)$  and  $s$  is free to imply that  $s(x) = s(y) \implies x = y$ . A binary function  $+$  is recursively defined as:

$$\begin{aligned}x + 0 &= x \\x + s(y) &= s(x + y)\end{aligned}$$

The cover set method computes induction schema from recursively defined terminating function definitions. The key idea is to use the well-founded ordering used to establish a proof of termination of the function definition to (i) select variable(s) in a function call to perform induction and (ii) generation of induction hypotheses for instantiation of induction variables from recursive calls of the function in its body, which are guaranteed to be lower in the well-founded order. The variable(s) on which a function definition recurses is selected for generating induction scheme and hence performing induction.

The above definition of  $+$  is terminating over natural numbers. Since the definition is recursing on the second argument, the induction variable to be chosen is the second argument  $y$  of  $+$ . In the first case when  $y = 0$ , there is no recursive call to  $+$  in the right side; this corresponds to the basis step of an induction proof in which the second argument is instantiated to be 0. In the second case when the second argument is not equal to 0 and equal to  $s(y)$  for some  $y$ , there is a recursive call to  $+$  with  $y$  as its second argument, so the induction hypothesis is generated by instantiating the second argument to be  $y$  and the conclusion goal is generated by instantiating the second argument to be  $s(y)$ . The reader would notice that this induction scheme is precisely the principle of mathematical induction on natural numbers.

The cover set method formalizes this approach to automating proofs by induction, addressing three important aspects in inductive proofs: (i) choice of well-founded ordering and (ii) variables to perform induction on, and (iii) the induction hypothesis (hypotheses) to be generated. It consists of a finite set of tuples corresponding to each case in the function definition; the first component in the tuple is the condition on the input under which the function computes the result, and the second component is a finite set of instantiations of the input for generating different induction hypothesis for each recursive call; if there is no recursive call, then no instantiation for any induction hypothesis is generated and is thus left as the empty set; if there are multiple recursive calls, then there are multiple instantiations.

## 5.2 Revisiting Add

To show the details of the coverset construction and proof we revisit the definition of add from Section 2.4 (defined using infix notation for simplicity).

```
function +(x: Peano, y: Peano): Peano {
  switch(y) {
    case Zero => x
    case Succ@{z} => Succ@{x + z}
  }
}
```

Assuming the definition is terminating and is complete, a cover set is generated from the function definition as follows: For each case of the switch statement, there is a tuple consisting of a boolean condition for which the case expression applies; this boolean condition is the conjunction of the boolean condition for the case and the negation of the conjunction of the conditions of all the cases before it. The second component of the tuple is a finite (possibly empty) set of substitutions serving as instantiations for generating induction hypotheses. From add, the cover set includes two tuples:  $\{ \langle y = 0, \{ \} \rangle, \langle y = s(w) \text{ and } \text{not}(y = 0), \{ w \} \rangle \}$ .

To prove of the associativity of:

$$x + (y + z) = (x + y) + z$$

Observe the variables  $y$  and  $z$  appear as second arguments in subterms with  $+$ ; however, only  $z$  appears as the second argument on both sides, so it is heuristically preferred.

The first tuple of the cover set for  $+$  generates the subgoal:

$$z = 0 \Rightarrow x + (y + z) = (x + y) + z,$$

since there is no induction hypothesis. The second tuple generates the subgoal:

$$((z = s(w) \wedge (z \neq 0)) \wedge (x + (y + w) = (x + y) + w)) \Rightarrow x + (y + z) = (x + y) + z.$$

### 5.3 Recursively defined Functors on Containers

When proving inductive facts we switch from the constructor based definitions in [Section 4](#) and instead use inductive definitions for every container operation. This simplifies the inductive reasoning that is required and can be trivially done as an equality assertion of the two definitions at the same time we are introducing the other cover set conjectures.

We illustrate below some examples on containers using functors such as `map` and `reduce` with inductive definitions. Consider a data type `list` generated using constructors `nil` and `cons`. Define a binary function `append` on lists, a unary function `rev` and a unary function `length` with the usual semantics:

```

862 function append(l1: IntList, l2: IntList ): IntList {
863   switch(l) {
864     case empty => l2,
865     case cons@{h1, t1} => cons(h1, append(t1, l2))
866   }
867
868 function length(l: IntList ): Nat {
869   switch(l) {
870     case empty => 0,
871     case cons@{h, t1} => length(t1) + 1
872   }
873
874 function rev(l: IntList ): IntList {
875   switch(l) {
876     case empty => l,
877     case cons@{h, t1} => append(rev(t1), cons(h, nil)),
878   }
879 }

```

The above definitions are terminating and the associated coverset for `append` is:  $\{(l1 = \text{empty}, \{ \}), (l1 \neq \text{empty} \wedge l1 = \text{cons}(h1, t1), \{ t1 \})\}$ .

```

880 function reduce(l: IntList, op: fn(_: Int, _: Int) -> Int, id: Int): Int {
881   switch(l) {
882     case empty => id

```

```

883     case cons@{h, tl} => op(h, reduce(tl, op, id))
884   }
885 }

```

886 With *sum* recursively defined:

```

888 function sum(l: IntList): Int {
889   switch(l) {
890     case empty => 0
891     case cons@{h, tl} => h + sum(tl)
892   }
893 }

```

894 Using the coverset method we can show that  $reduce(l, fn(x, y) => x + y, 0) = sum(l)$ .

895 The cover set associated with the above terminating definition of *sum* is  $\{(l = empty, \{\}), (l \neq$   
896  $empty \wedge l = cons(h, tl), \{tl\})\}$ . Using the cover set method, two goals are generated to prove the  
897 conjecture:

$$\begin{aligned}
 & l = empty \Rightarrow reduce(l, +, 0) = sum(l) \\
 & l \neq empty \wedge l = cons(h, tl) \wedge reduce(tl, +, 0) = sum(tl) \Rightarrow reduce(l, +, 0) = sum(l).
 \end{aligned}$$

898  
899  
900  
901  
902 The first subgoal, after substituting *l* by *empty*, is  $reduce(empty, +, 0) = sum(empty)$ , which  
903 simplifies by the definitions of *sum* and *reduce* to  $0 = 0$  which is valid.

904 The induction hypothesis generated from the coverset is  $l \neq empty \wedge l = cons(h, tl) \wedge$   
905  $reduce(tl, +, 0) = sum(tl)$ ; the conclusion of the second subgoal, after substituting *cons(h, tl)* for *l*, is  
906  $reduce(cons(h, tl), +, 0) = sum(cons(h, tl))$  which simplifies by the definitions of *reduce* and *sum* to  
907  $h + reduce(tl, +, 0) = h + sum(tl)$ ; with the use of the induction hypothesis  $reduce(tl, +, 0) = sum(tl)$ ,  
908 the subgoal is proved.

## 909 5.4 Integration into Z3

910 A direct proof in Z3 can be obtained by computing instantiations of the universal variables in the  
911 definitions of *sum* and *reduce* above. The coverset can be used to find instantiations of the universal  
912 variables: in the first subgoal, terms  $(reduce\ l\ +\ 0)$  and  $(sum\ l)$  each simplify under the condition  $(= l$   
913  $empty)$  to 0 and 0, respectively. Similarly, in the second subgoal,  $(reduce\ tl\ +\ 0)$  and  $(sum\ tl)$  also  
914 simplify under the condition  $(and\ (not\ (= l\ empty))\ (= l\ (cons\ h\ tl)))$  by instantiating the second cases  
915 of the definitions of *reduce* and *sum* to  $(+ h (reduce\ tl\ +\ 0))$  and  $(+ (sum\ tl))$  respectively, on which  
916 the induction hypothesis from the cover set applies. This is one major advantage of the cover set  
917 method that often appropriate instantiations can be generated from the cover set itself.

918 An indirect proof can be obtained by proving the unsatisfiability of the negated conjunction of  
919 the two subgoals generated using the coverset, with the definitions of *sum* and *reduce*.

## 922 5.5 Extensions

923 In a given conjecture, many function symbols may occur and, additionally, the same function symbol  
924 may occur with different sets of arguments. Each of these function symbols has an associated cover  
925 set from which an induction scheme can be generated. Then each of these induction schemes could  
926 be a candidate for attempting a proof by induction of the conjecture.

927 Given that SMT solvers are very efficient in handling very large formulas, it is feasible to  
928 simultaneously generate alternative subgoals generated from different induction schemes with the  
929 objective of trying them all with the hope that at least one would succeed.

## 5.6 Model Generation

The cover set method can also be used to generate a counter-example (model) from a false conjecture. In a proof attempt, one of the subgoals is likely not to succeed. If its variables are instantiated in a systematic way, a counter-example can be generated.

Consider a false conjecture, that  $\text{length}(\text{filter}(l, p)) = \text{length}(l)$ , about a functor `filter` defined as:

```

939  function filter(l: IntList, p: pred(_: Int) -> Bool): IntList {
940      switch(l) {
941          case empty => empty
942          case cons@{h,tl} => if(p(h)) then cons(h, filter(tl, p)) else filter(tl, p)
943      }
944  }

```

Choosing the coverset defined by `filter`, there are three subgoals generated. The first is  $l = \text{empty} \Rightarrow \text{length}(\text{filter}(l, p)) = \text{length}(l)$  which can be easily proved by substituting `empty` for `l` and then using the definitions of `length` and `filter`.

The second (failing) subgoal is:  $(l \neq \text{empty} \wedge l = \text{cons}(h, tl) \wedge \neg(p(h)) \Rightarrow \text{length}(\text{filter}(tl, p)) = \text{length}(tl)) \Rightarrow \text{length}(\text{filter}(l, p)) = \text{length}(l)$ .

Substituting for `cons(h, tl)` for `l` in the conclusion of the subgoal and simplifying using the definitions of `filter` and `length` gives:  $\text{length}(\text{filter}(tl, p)) = \text{length}(tl) + 1$  which after using the induction hypothesis gives  $\text{length}(tl) = \text{length}(tl) + 1$  which is a contradiction.

A counter-example is generated in which `l = cons(h, tl)`, `tl = empty` and `h` is such that `p(h) = false`.

## 6 RELATED WORK

The approach to programming language design and checking presented in this paper represents a novel way to view and build on many longstanding research areas. From the language design standpoint we started from a blank slate and, for every design choice, asked how each feature impacted the analysis problem. From the tooling perspective we looked to the strengths and limitations of existing symbolic analysis, testing, and verification methodologies, and then, looked at how the new language semantics would allow us to build on these strengths and eliminate various weaknesses.

### 6.1 Language Design:

The goal of the BOSQUEIR language design was to enable the construction of powerful and practical analysis and developer tools. The approach taken was to identify language features that introduce difficult to reason about constructs and eliminate them.

*Loops and Recursion:* Loops are a foundational control flow construct in the *Structured Programming* paradigm [10, 15, 21]. However, precisely reasoning about them requires the construction of *loop invariants*. Despite substantial work on the topic [18, 32, 50, 51] the problem of automatically generating precise loop invariants remains an open problem. Instead, inspired by the empirical results in [1] which show most loops are actually just encoding a small set of common idioms, we entirely exclude loops from the BOSQUEIR language in favor of a comprehensive set of functors. Explicit recursion is still allowed, although discouraged, as a fall-back for algorithms where it is fundamentally needed or cannot be expressed with the standard set of functors. Thus, we still need to deal with the problem of verification conditions for the functors and inductive proofs for recursive calls but, as shown in Section 4 and Section 5 with clever encoding strategies, these problems are tractable.



981 *Identity and Equality:* Equality is a complicated concept in programming [43]. Despite this  
982 complexity it has been under-explored in the research literature and is often defined based on  
983 historical precedent and convenience. This can result in multiple flavors of equality living in a  
984 language that may (or may not) vary in behavior and results in a range of subtle bugs [22] that  
985 surface in surprising ways.

986 The notion of identity based on memory allocation values also introduces the need to track  
987 this property explicitly in the language semantics – introducing the need for alias analysis and  
988 a strong distinction between pass-by-value and pass-by-ref semantics. This is another problem  
989 that has been studied extensively over the years [19, 20, 28, 36, 37, 52] and remains an open and  
990 challenging problem. As with loops, our approach is to eliminate these challenges and complexities  
991 by eliminating the use of referential identity and restricting equality to a fixed set of data types  
992 where equality is simply term equality.

993  
994 *Mutability:* Mutability is known to be a challenge when reasoning about code. It introduces a  
995 host of problems including the need to perform *strong updates* (i.e. retracting previously asserted  
996 facts) and computing *frames* [48]. There are a number of useful techniques, including various  
997 *ownership type* systems [7, 8], or *linear type* systems [17, 54, 55], for managing or isolating these  
998 issues which may be valuable to incorporate into the BOSQUEIR language in the future.

999  
1000 *Determinism:* Indeterminate behaviors, including undefined, under specified, or non-deterministic  
1001 behavior, require a programmer or analysis tool to reason about and account for all possible out-  
1002 comes. While truly undefined behavior, e.g. uninitialized variables, has disappeared from most  
1003 languages, there is a large class of underspecified behavior, e.g. sort stability, map/dictionary enu-  
1004 meration order, etc., that remains. The inclusion of non-deterministic operations also results in  
1005 code that cannot be reliably tested (flakey tests), where failing witness inputs may sometimes not  
1006 fail, and as each non-deterministic choice point introduces a case split for reasoning, can greatly  
1007 increase the cost of analyzing a codebase. These increase the complexity of the development process  
1008 and, as time goes on, are slowly being seen as liabilities that should be removed [6] so for the  
1009 BOSQUEIR we have taken this to the logical conclusion and fully specify the behavioral semantics  
1010 of every language operation.

## 1011 6.2 Program Analysis

1012 Given the rich literature on program analysis our focus in this section is how the language features,  
1013 logic encodings, and features of the BSQCHK compare with other approaches.

1014  
1015 *Symbolic Verification:* The BSQCHK checker is explicitly designed with *full verification* of correct-  
1016 ness as a non-goal. The *confidence boosting* hierarchy in Section 1 specifically includes outcomes that  
1017 are not verified and the workflow in Figure 2 does not have a path for manually adding lemmas or  
1018 other manual proof steps. The use of powerful proof systems with extractable code [12], languages  
1019 with proof assistants like [31], or dependently typed languages [14, 46] show that it is practical to  
1020 produce fully verified software in some domains today. However, using these languages/techniques  
1021 require substantial manual effort and expertise including knowledge of the underlying theorem  
1022 provers behavior, and the ability to formally model the desired behavior of the software. This places  
1023 the use of these systems beyond the what is practical or cost effective for most applications. Work  
1024 on Liquid Types [49] and the Ivy language [35] represent interesting approaches to verification  
1025 by enforcing that the logic used in the types/code remains in decidable fragments of logic. This  
1026 reduces the expertise and manual work required but does not eliminate it entirely and restricts the  
1027 languages to problems which can be expressed entirely in the supported logical fragments.

1030 In contrast the BSQCHK checker does not require a separate proof language or the manual  
1031 insertion of lemmas, and supports arbitrary code in the BOSQUEIR language. However, an interesting  
1032 question is how the proofs produced by full verification techniques can be ingested into the BSQCHK  
1033 logical representation to enable fully-verified foreign function integration (FFI).

1034 *Cover Set Method and Term Rewriting:* The cover set method [58] is motivated by the success  
1035 in the use of the induction scheme supported in ACL2 [26] based on proving termination of lisp  
1036 functions in which induction hypotheses are computed from recursive calls in their definition.  
1037 The cover set method generalizes that idea from lists to arbitrary data types generated by a finite  
1038 set of constructors in an equational programming language framework; further it also allows  
1039 the use of sophisticated syntactic termination orderings. The cover set method as adapted to  
1040 BOSQUEIR however functions more similarly to the induction scheme generation in ACL2 due to  
1041 the nonequational structure of the programming language. The Imandra system [45] is a novel  
1042 design that combines SMT reasoning with ACL2 style proving to support industrial uses.

1044 *Abstract Interpretation:* Abstract interpretation and related dataflow analyses [41] are at the  
1045 other end of the spectrum from full symbolic verification. This framework for proving properties of  
1046 programs is very different since it is based on approximating the behavior a concrete program by  
1047 that of an abstract program working on an abstract domain with the requirement, any property of  
1048 the abstract program is indeed a property of the concrete program. This framework relies heavily on  
1049 identifying a suitable abstract domain, implementing the approximation of the concrete operations  
1050 on the abstract domain, and most importantly, defining a widening operator on the abstract domain  
1051 for approximating the looping structure in finitely many steps leading to a fixed point. The analysis  
1052 is done using forward collecting semantics. The choice of abstract domain and the associated widen  
1053 operator are critical in the ability to prove useful properties of concrete properties of programs.

1054 These analyses generally trade, large amounts of, precision for scalability. Although some  
1055 analyses have been successfully used for verification, such as [38], they generally produce many  
1056 false positives and care must be used in when/where these analyses are deployed [13]. Our current  
1057 experience with the BSQCHK prover is that it can spend considerable time checking assertions that  
1058 could easily be discharged by a more efficient data flow [29] or numeric analysis [30].

1060 *Symbolic Execution and Fuzzing:* While verification and abstract interpretation are generally  
1061 focused on over approximation to show that certain program states are infeasible, symbolic exe-  
1062 cution [2, 4, 9, 23, 27] and concrete fuzzing (white, grey, or black box) [16, 57] focus on exploring  
1063 possible executions looking for error states. As discussed in Section 2, as long as the error of interest  
1064 has a small scope property then these techniques are quite effective. However, in cases where the  
1065 error requires a large number of path expansions, where the input must be large, or where there  
1066 complex constraints on the input that block accessibility to the error, these techniques become  
1067 substantially less effective. Since the full encoding in the BOSQUEIR tool can see both forward  
1068 constraints from the input validation and backwards constraints from the error context it does not  
1069 suffer from the same limitations and can easily find witness inputs even when the small context  
1070 hypothesis does not hold.

1072 *Incorrectness Logic and Under Approximate Analysis:* Incorrectness Logic [44] and other under  
1073 approximate approaches [5], that cannot prove the absence of an error but instead can prove  
1074 the presence of a fault, represent an interesting and recent development in the design space of  
1075 program analysis. These systems look to fuse the power of symbolic representations to capture  
1076 many concrete states while under (rather than over) approximating reachability. The goal is to build  
1077 tools that provide a "no false positives" guarantee while still finding as many bugs as practical. A  
1078

1079 property that the BSQCHK also has as part of the workflow that maximizes *actionable* information  
1080 for the developer.

1081 Interestingly, one of the motivations for introducing Incorrectness Logic is that (p. 4) “...the exact  
1082 reasoning of the middle line of the diagram [strongest post semantics] is definable mathematically  
1083 but not computable (unless highly incomputable formulae are used to describe the post).” However,  
1084 as shown in this paper, this middle line of exact and decidable semantics is practical to compute  
1085 in most cases when the language semantics are designed appropriately. Further, by encoding the  
1086 exact semantics in a decidable fragment of logic, the BOSQUEIR language and BSQCHK checker  
1087 provide the best of both the verification and fault detection worlds (it satisfies both correctness and  
1088 incorrectness logics).

## 1089 7 CONCLUSION

1091 This paper presented an approach to programming language design that was centered around the  
1092 co-design of the language and an encoding into decidable fragments of logic that are efficiently  
1093 dischargeable using modern SMT solvers. The resulting language, BOSQUEIR, and the BSQCHK  
1094 automated checking tool show that this is an effective technique. The encoding is both semantically  
1095 precise and complete for most of the language (and has effective heuristics for the incomplete  
1096 fragments). This enables the BSQCHK checker to provide *actionable* results to a developer for builtin  
1097 errors as well as user specified asserts, data invariants, or pre/post conditions.

1098 We are actively working with collaborators at Morgan Stanley to apply this methodology to  
1099 the example code and regulatory examples that are currently implemented in the Morphir frame-  
1100 work [39]. Our initial experience has been very positive with some small bugs, such as in our  
1101 introductory example, found and the tool showing excellent performance in practice. Our big  
1102 challenge at this point is the lack of explicit assertions in most of the code which limits us to  
1103 checking for predefined error classes such as invalid casts of arithmetic overflow. We plan to  
1104 investigate how to make including assertions simpler for developers and running the checker on  
1105 larger quantities of code.

1106 The ability to effectively reason about the precise behavior of an application creates opportunities  
1107 for not only a powerful suite of checker tools but also for program synthesizers, code optimization  
1108 tools and accelerator architecture support, and application lifecycle management systems. As a  
1109 result we hope this new approach to thinking about programming and programming languages  
1110 will lead to massively improved developer productivity, increased software quality, and enable a  
1111 new golden age of developments in compilers and developer tooling.

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