

# Verifying Robustness of Programs Under Structural Perturbations

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## 1 Introduction

The question of robustness is fundamental to the subject of programming by example (PBE). Robustness of a program is the property that the program behaves predictably on uncertain inputs [1]. In the PBE paradigm, there is, by definition, an uncertainty about the intent of the user, and therefore, it is desirable that a program synthesizer behave predictably with regards to this uncertainty.

Consider an attempt to specify the max function by providing to a program synthesizer the examples  $(13, 15) \mapsto 15$ ,  $(-23, 19) \mapsto 19$ , and  $(-75, -13) \mapsto -13$ . In order to synthesize a simpler program, the result will likely be the program  $P(a, b) := \text{return } b;$ . Two issues are at play here: the program synthesizer is not robust and the synthesized program is also not robust.

First, the program synthesizer is not robust as transposing the inputs of all of the examples would result in the program  $P(a, b) := \text{return } a;$ , while transposing just a single input would result in the correct program

$$P(a, b) := \text{return } a > b ? a : b;$$

Second, the program which is synthesized is not robust as  $P(a, b) \neq P(b, a)$ . That is, the program does not behave predictably under uncertainty of the order of the arguments. If the program which is synthesized is required to be robust with respect to uncertainty in the order of the input, neither  $P(a, b) := \text{return } a;$  nor  $P(a, b) := \text{return } b$  would be viable candidates, and the synthesizer would be forced to return

$$P(a, b) := \text{return } a > b ? a : b;$$

Moreover, a synthesizer which returns robust programs will itself be more robust. Let  $\mathcal{I}_1 = (I_1, O_1)$  and  $\mathcal{I}_2 = (I_2, O_2)$  be two input-output pairs for a program synthesizer which differ by a small perturbation. If the program  $\mathcal{P}_1$  returned by the synthesizer on input  $\mathcal{I}_1$  is robust, then  $\mathcal{P}_1(I_2)$  will approximate  $O_2$  because  $I_2$  approximates  $I_1$ . For this reason,  $\mathcal{P}_2$ , the program returned on input  $\mathcal{I}_2$ , should only differ from  $\mathcal{P}_1$  by a small amount.

Thus, the issue of robustness in PBE can be addressed by verifying robustness, either of the synthesized programs or even of the synthesizer as a whole. However, verification of robustness requires the ability to reason about robustness. Standard program verifiers are unable to verify robustness properties as they are an example of a 2-safety property, a property which requires reasoning about two execution traces simultaneously. In particular, robustness is the

property that given two inputs which are related by some form of uncertainty, the outputs should be related in a predictable way. As such, verifying robustness requires reasoning about the relationship between two execution traces.

## 2 Related Work

*Relational Logics* Benton [2] established a Relational Hoare Logic in order to reason about relational properties, properties which consider two, usually distinct, programs. Barthe et al. [3, 4] extended Benton’s Relational Hoare Logic to probabilistic programs in order to reason about cryptographic protocols and differential privacy.

*Self-Composition* Barthe et al. [5] applied self-composition, sequential running of renamed copies of the original program, to study secure information flow. Terauchi & Aiken [6] built on this work by applying a type-based approach to complement self-composition.

*2-Safety Properties* In [6], Terauchi & Aiken introduced the term 2-safety property. A general approach to the verification of 2-safety properties is the creation of a product program [7], a program which interleaves two copies of a given program to create a new program. It [8], Barthe et al. analyzes various relational program logics, as well as different notions of product programs.

*Continuity* Hamlet [9] considered the concept of program continuity, but declared that automating verification of continuity for programs with loops was infeasible. Chaudhuri et al. [10, 11] consider the continuity and Lipschitz continuity of programs over the real numbers. Samanta et al. [12] and Henzinger et al. [13] investigate the use of Lipschitz continuity for proving robustness in the context of transducers.

*Robustness* Robustness for control systems was investigated by Majumdar and Saha [14] and for general programs by [11]. Additionally, the robustness of networked systems was explored by Samanta et al. [15].

*k-Safety Properties* Clarkson and Schneider [16] introduced  $k$ -safety properties as a generalization of this idea. Sousa and Dillig [17] formulated a verification algorithm in order to automate checking of  $k$ -safety properties.

## 3 Preliminaries

### 3.1 Continuity and Lipschitz Continuity

A program  $\mathcal{P}$  is continuous at a state  $\sigma$  with respect to input variables  $In$  and observable variables  $Obs$  if for all  $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}^+$ , there is a  $\delta \in \mathbb{R}^+$  so that if  $\sigma'$  satisfies

1. for all  $x \in In$ ,  $d(\sigma(x), \sigma'(x)) < \varepsilon$  and

2. for all  $y \notin In$ ,  $\sigma(y) = \sigma'(y)$ ,

then for all  $x \in Obs$ ,  $d(\mathcal{P}(\sigma)(x), \mathcal{P}(\sigma')(x))$  [10].

Lipschitz continuity of a mathematical function  $f$  is the property that there exists a real number  $K \in \mathbb{R}^+$  so that for all  $x_1, x_2$ ,  $d(f(x_1), f(x_2)) \leq K d(x_1, x_2)$ . Similarly, a program  $\mathcal{P}$  is robust at a state  $\sigma$  with respect to the input variable  $x_{in}$  and output variable  $x_{out}$  if for all  $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}^+$ ,

1.  $d(\sigma(x_{in}), \sigma'(x_{in})) < \varepsilon$  and
2. for all  $y \neq x$ ,  $\sigma(y) = \sigma'(y)$

implies that  $d(\mathcal{P}(\sigma)(x_{out}), \mathcal{P}(\sigma')(x_{out})) < K\varepsilon$ , where  $K$  is a real-valued function of the size of  $x_{in}$  [11].

### 3.2 Permutations

A permutation is a bijection from a set  $\Omega$  to itself [18]. When  $\Omega$  is a finite set, a permutation can be specified using two-line notation by placing the elements of  $\Omega$  on one line, and their images under  $\sigma$  beneath them:

$$\sigma: \begin{array}{cccccc} 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 5 & 2 & 3 & 1 & 4 & 0 \end{array} \qquad \sigma: \begin{array}{ccc} a & b & c \\ a & c & b \end{array}$$

Similar to two-line notation, a permutation on  $\{0, \dots, N-1\}$  can be encoded in an array  $a$  of length  $N$  by placing the image of  $i$  in  $a[i]$ . The example  $\sigma$  above is encoded in an array as  $\sigma = [5, 2, 3, 1, 4, 0]$ , so that  $\sigma(i) = \sigma[i]$ .

The inverse  $\sigma^{-1}$  of a permutation  $\sigma$  is the permutation defined by

$$\sigma(i) = j \iff \sigma^{-1}(j) = i.$$

For the permutation  $\sigma$  above,

$$\sigma^{-1}: \begin{array}{cccccc} 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 5 & 3 & 1 & 2 & 4 & 0 \end{array}.$$

*First-Order Formula for a Permutation* The property of being a permutation on  $\{0, \dots, N-1\}$  is encoded in the theory of arrays as

$$\text{Perm}(a, N) : N = \text{length}(a) \wedge (\forall i. 0 \leq i < N \rightarrow 0 \leq a[i] < N) \wedge (\forall i, j. 0 \leq i < j < N \rightarrow a[i] \neq a[j]).$$

*Action on an Array* Given a permutation  $\sigma$ ,  $\sigma$  can *act* on an array  $a$  as follows. Let  $a = [37, 25, 19, 49, 81, 21]$  and  $\sigma$  be as above. Then  $\sigma(3) = \sigma[3] = 1$  and applying  $\sigma$  to  $a$  results in the element of  $a$  at index 3, 49, being moved to index 1 in  $\sigma a$ . That is,  $\sigma a[1] = 49$  and  $a[3] = \sigma a[1] = \sigma a[\sigma[3]]$ . More generally,

$$\sigma a[\sigma[i]] = a[i] \iff \sigma a[i] = a[\sigma^{-1}[i]]. \quad (1)$$

*Generating Permutations* For information on permutation groups, see §1.3 in [18].

The permutations on  $N$  elements,  $S_N$ , can all be expressed as compositions of the permutations [Exercises 3-4, §3.5, 18]

$$\begin{array}{c} 0 \ 1 \ 2 \ \cdots \ N-1 \\ 1 \ 0 \ 2 \ \cdots \ N-1 \end{array} \quad \text{and} \quad \begin{array}{c} 0 \ 1 \ 2 \ \cdots \ N-1 \\ 1 \ 2 \ 3 \ \cdots \ 0 \end{array} ,$$

where the first permutation is a transposition of 0 and 1 and the second permutation is a rotation of all of the elements by one position.

### 3.3 Automata

We consider two classes of automata: finite state machines (FSM) and finite state transducers (FST). All automata we consider are deterministic. Given an automata  $A$ , we denote by  $A(s)$  the output of  $A$  on input  $s$ . If  $A$  is an FSM, we represent "accept" by 1 and "reject" by 0. Otherwise,  $A$  is a finite state transducer (FST), and  $A(s)$  is a string. For a FSM  $A$ , let  $L(A)$  denote the set of strings accepted by  $A$ . (We do not define the language of an FST).

Recall that for any FSMs  $A$  and  $B$ , the problem of determining whether  $L(A) = L(B)$  is decidable. We can compose an FST  $T$  and a FSM  $A$ , denoted  $A \circ T$ , to get another FSM.

We will assume that all input strings are terminated by a special end-of-input character \$.

## 4 Robustness Properties

The uncertainty with respect to which a program is robust can take many different forms. Some common perturbations include

- numerical perturbations [13, 10, 11],
- permutations of arrays and matrices,
- simultaneous permutations of arrays.

### 4.1 Continuity

Robustness in the setting of numerical perturbations is realized by the property of continuity. In many situations, the result of a program should be relatively stable with respect to any uncertainty in the input. That is, if the input is perturbed, the output should vary only slightly, relative to the input perturbation. This is exactly the concept of Lipschitz continuity. if it is possible that the input has been slightly perturbed, the result of the program should not be drastically different. As an example, sorting algorithms are 1-Lipschitz. If each element of the input array is perturbed by an amount no more than 1, then each element of the output array will be changed by no more than 1.

## 4.2 Permutations

Let  $F$  and  $G$  be the formulas

$$F : \forall i. 0 \leq i < \text{length}(a_1) \rightarrow a_1[i] = a_2[(i + 1) \% \text{length}(a_1)],$$

$$G : a_1[0] = a_2[1] \wedge a_1[1] = a_2[0] \wedge \forall i. (2 \leq i < \text{length}(a_1) \rightarrow a_1[i] = a_2[i]).$$

Then invariance of a program which takes an array as input can be specified by

$$\| \text{length}(a_1) = \text{length}(a_2) \wedge (F \vee G) \| \mathcal{P}(a) \| \text{ret}_1 = \text{ret}_2 \|.$$

**Sorting** Sorting is one example of a procedure which is robust with respect to permuting the input. Even in the face of uncertainty regarding the order of the input array, the result of procedure will not be altered. The **max** function is a special case of this invariance of sorting algorithms under permutation, which is the root of the incorrectness of the attempts to synthesize the **max** function in Section 1.

**Searching** Consider the function **Find**(**a**, **x**) which returns the index of the element **x** in the array **a** or  $-1$  if **x** is not an element of **a**. Let  $\sigma$  be a permutation and suppose that  $\mathbf{a}[i] = \mathbf{x}$ . Then from (1)

$$\sigma \mathbf{a}[\sigma(i)] = \mathbf{a}[i] = \mathbf{x},$$

so that  $\mathbf{Find}(\sigma \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{x}) = \sigma(i)$ . Considering  $\sigma$  as a permutation on nonnegative integers,  $\sigma(-1) = -1$  and  $\mathbf{Find}(\sigma \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{x}) = \sigma(i)$  holds even in the case that **x** is not an element of **a**. Thus, **Find** is robust in that perturbing the input array by a permutation  $\sigma$  perturbs the output of **Find** by the same permutation  $\sigma$ .

## Adjacency Matrices

### 4.3 Simultaneous Permutation

Consider an algorithm for grading a multipart homework problem, which takes as input three arrays: the student's responses, the correct answers, and the credit to be awarded for each part. A reordering of the parts of the problem should not affect the credit which a student is awarded. As reordering the parts of the problem corresponds to simultaneously permuting the three input arrays, the grading algorithm should be invariant under simultaneous permutations of the input arrays. This property can be expressed using ideas from Section 3.2 by applying a transposition and a rotation simultaneously to each array.

## 5 Verifying Robustness

### 5.1 Lipschitz Continuity

### 5.2 Product Programs

### 5.3 Cartesian Hoare Logic

After discussing with the authors of [17],

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```

function GRADE(responses, answers, credits)
  points  $\leftarrow$  0
  for  $0 \leq i \leq \text{length}(\text{answers})$  do
    if responses[i]  $\neq$  answers[i] = 0 then
      points  $\leftarrow$  points + credits[i]
  return points

```

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## 6 Invariance under permuting lists

A different problem we have been thinking about is more discrete and algebraic in nature. We want to verify that programs are invariant under permutations of their input arrays.

### 6.1 Automata

Given a program  $P$  which takes a linear data type as input. We may wish to verify that this program is invariant under reordering of the array, in other words, it is invariant under the action of  $S_n$ . Denote the output of  $P$  on input  $s$  by  $P(s)$ . Then we want to test whether  $P(\sigma s) = P(s)$  for all  $\sigma \in S_n$ .

As a first simplification, observe that it suffices to check our condition on a set of generators of  $S_n$ . Concretely, let  $\alpha = (1\ 2\ 3\ \dots\ n)$  and let  $\beta = (1\ 2)$ . Then any  $\sigma \in S_n$  can be written as a product of elements of  $\{\alpha, \beta\}$ , say  $\sigma = u_1 u_2 \dots u_m$  with  $u_i \in \{\alpha, \beta\}$ . So if we know that  $P(\alpha s) = P(s)$  and  $P(\beta s) = P(s)$ , then  $P((u_1 u_2 \dots u_m)s) = P((u_2 \dots u_m)s) = \dots = P(u_m s) = P(s)$ .

For a fixed  $n$  and  $\sigma \in S_n$ , we can construct a finite state transducer  $T$  such that  $T(s) = \sigma s$  for  $|s| = n$ . However, this does not give us any reasonable way of checking that a given finite state machine is invariant under permutation of the input string. Instead, we will construct finite state transducers  $T_\alpha$  and  $T_\beta$  such that for any  $n$  and any string  $s$  with  $|s| = n$ , we have  $T_\alpha(s) = (1\ 2\ \dots\ n)s$  and  $T_\beta(s) = (1\ 2)s$ . Then, determining whether an FSM  $M$  is invariant under permutation of its inputs is equivalent to determining whether

$$L(M \circ T_\alpha) = L(M) = L(M \circ T_\beta)$$

We now construct  $T_\alpha$ . For each symbol  $a \in \Sigma$ ,  $T_\alpha$  has a transition from its start state  $s_0$  to  $s_a$ , while reading in put  $a$  and writing  $\epsilon$  output. For each  $a$  and each  $b \neq \$$ , there is a transition from  $s_a$  to  $s_a$ , reading  $b$  and writing  $b$ . Then for each  $a$ , there is a transition from  $s_a$  to  $s_1$ , reading  $\$$  and writing  $a\$$ .

We now construct  $T_\beta$ . For each symbol  $a \in \Sigma$ ,  $T_\alpha$  has a transition from its start state  $s_0$  to  $s_a$ , while reading in put  $a$  and writing  $\epsilon$  output. Each  $s_a$  has a transition to  $s_1$  while reading input  $b$  (for any  $b \in \Sigma$ ) and writing output  $ba$ . Then  $s_1$  simply has transitions to  $s_1$ , reading any  $a \in \Sigma$  and writing back  $a$ .

### 6.2 Programs

The previous section indicates a method for verifying robustness of more general programs under permutation of inputs. Given a procedure  $F$  taking an array as

argument, consider the functions  $F_\alpha$ , which first swaps the first two elements of the array, then computes  $F$ , and  $F_\beta$ , which moves the first element of the array to the back, then computes  $F$ . Then  $F$  is invariant under permutation of its input if and only if  $F$  is functionally equivalent to  $F_\alpha$  and  $F_\beta$ .

Certainly this method is more efficient than checking invariance under a larger class of permutations. For DFAs, this simplification made the problem of permutation invariance solvable. This indicates that this simplification may aid in our analysis in a profound way. For example, this may be a much easier way of verifying this invariance compared to expressing permutations as a general 2-safety property.

## 7 Invariance under permuting binary search trees

In the previous section 6, we found a reduction from checking *all* permutations of a list to checking a small set of permutations. It is natural to ask if there are other data types for which we can do this. Binary search trees are one such case, where just like lists, two permutations suffice to generate all equivalent binary search trees (i.e. tree representing equivalent ordered lists).

Represent binary search trees by the algebraic data type. Then define two (partial) operations  $\rho$  and  $\theta$  on binary search trees as follows:

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```
data Tree = Nil | Branch Tree Int Tree
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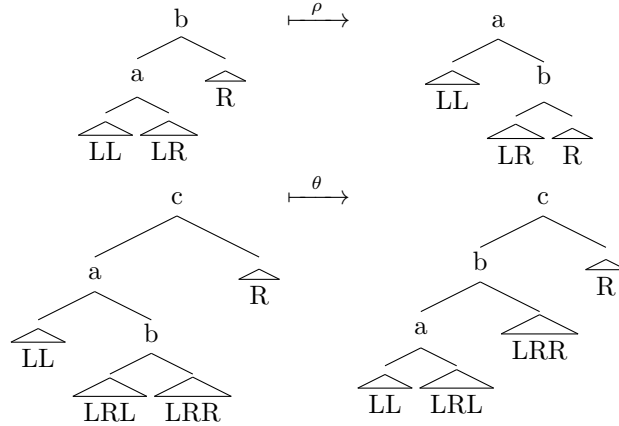
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list Nil = [ ]
```

```
list (Branch left a right) = list(left) ++ [a] ++ list(right)
```

```
 $\rho$ (Branch (Branch LL a LR) b R)
  = Branch LL a (Branch LR b R)
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 $\theta$ (Branch (Branch LL a (Branch LRL b LRR)) c R)
  = Branch LL a (Branch LR b R)
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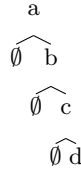
You can verify that  $\rho$  and  $\theta$  preserve  $\text{list}(t)$  by observing that the subtrees in the above diagrams remain in the same order before and after applying the transformations. We will show in the next theorem that  $\rho$  and  $\theta$  additionally suffice to generate all transformations of any tree into another tree with an equal underlying list.

**Theorem 1.** *If a program  $P$  on binary search trees is invariant under  $\rho$  and  $\theta$ , then whenever  $\text{list}(t_1) = \text{list}(t_2)$ , we have  $P(t_1) = P(t_2)$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $t_1$  and  $t_2$  satisfy  $\text{list}(t_1) = \text{list}(t_2)$ . Observe that if  $P$  is invariant under  $\rho$  and  $\theta$ , then  $P$  is also invariant under  $\rho^{-1}$  and  $\theta^{-1}$ . Thus, it suffices to show that  $t_1$  and  $t_2$  can both be transformed via  $\rho$  and  $\theta$  into another tree  $t_3$ , because then we can transform  $t_1$  into  $t_3$ , then apply the inverse transformation to get to  $t_2$ . We proceed by providing an algorithm for transforming to a  $t_3$  in the following form:

**Definition 1.** *A tree  $t$  is in degenerate list form if either*

1.  *$t$  is Nil, or*
2.  *$t$  has a Nil left child, and  $t$ 's right child is in degenerate list form.*



**Fig. 1.** A tree in degenerate list form

It is clear that if  $t_1$  and  $t_2$  are in degenerate list form, then  $\text{list}(t_1) = \text{list}(t_2)$  if and only if  $t_1 = t_2$ . Thus, if we can show that  $t_1$  and  $t_2$  can both be transformed



into degenerate list form, say  $t'_1$  and  $t'_2$ , then we will have  $t'_1 = t'_2$  and we will be done.

Consider the following algorithm for adjusting a tree via  $\rho$  and  $\theta$ , where invariants and assertions are written inside {braces}:

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```

1: function LISTIFY( $t$ )
2:   while  $t$  has a right child do
3:     apply  $\rho^{-1}$  to  $t$ 
4:   { $t$  has a null right child}
5:   while  $t$  has a left child do           ▷ { $t$ 's right child is in degenerate list form}
6:     while  $t$ 's left child has a right child do
7:       apply  $\theta$  to  $t$ 
8:     { $t$ 's left child has a null right child}
9:     apply  $\rho$  to  $t$ 
10:  { $t$  is in degenerate list form}

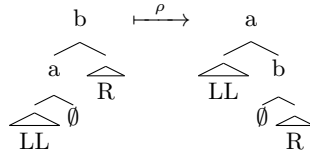
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To verify that this algorithm terminates with  $t$  in degenerate list form, we need only verify that each of the assertions hold and that the loop invariant is inductive.

The invariant on line 4 follows from the negation of the condition of the loop before it. The loop invariant holds from line 4 simply because the null tree is in degenerate list form. The invariant on line 8 also follows from the negation of the condition of the loop before it.

Next we show that the loop invariant is inductive. The inner loop on line 6 does not change  $t$ 's right child, so it remain in degenerate list form. Thus, when we apply  $\rho$  to  $t$ , it's left child has a null right child, and  $t$ 's right child is in degenerate list form. As shown in figure 2, this leave  $\rho(t)$ 's right subtree in degenerate list form. Thus, the invariant is inductive.



**Fig. 2.** Applying  $\rho$  to a tree as in line 9

Finally, we see that our conclusion on line 10 follows from the loop invariant and the negation of the condition, by the definition of degenerate list form.

## 8 Invariance with respect to a function

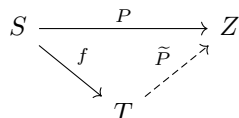
All previous work on these topics share one downside: they require programmers to express their invariants in formal logic. This could potentially be difficult. One class of invariants that can be expressed through codes is *invariance with respect to a function*.

**Definition 2.** *We say that a program  $P$  is invariant with respect to a function  $f$  if whenever  $f(x) = f(y)$ , we have  $P(x) = P(y)$ .*

For example, if a programmer defines a tree or heap data type with a function list mapping the data type to lists, then nearly every function written on this data type should be invariant with respect to the list function, as these data types are meant to represent the lists perfectly (while allowing for faster algorithms).

We regard this problem as very difficult, because the function  $f$  can be expressed with arbitrary code and thus encode more complicated properties than first order logic. One approach comes from the following observation:

**Lemma 1.** *Let  $P : S \rightarrow T$  and  $f : T \rightarrow Z$ . Then  $P$  is invariant with respect to  $f$  if and only if there exists a program  $\tilde{P} : T \rightarrow Z$  such that  $P = \tilde{P} \circ f$*



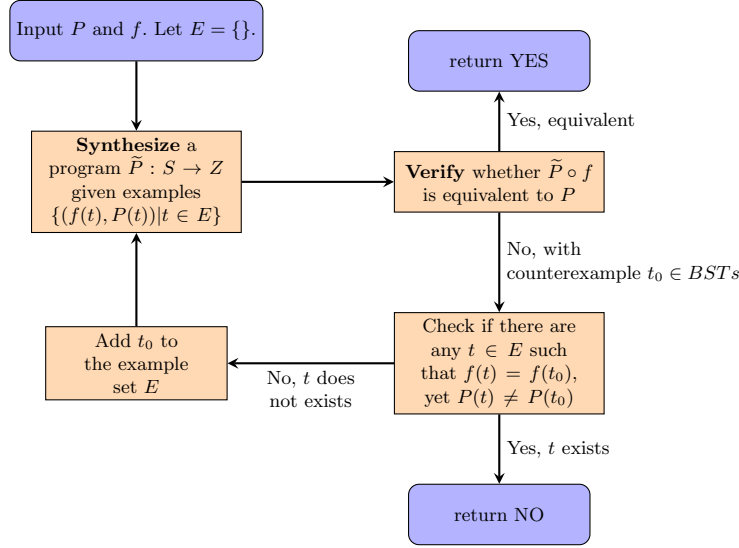
*Proof.* If  $P$  is invariant with respect to  $f$ , then the function

$$\tilde{P}(t) = \begin{cases} P(s), & t = f(s) \text{ for some } s \in S \\ z_0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

for any  $z_0 \in Z$  is well defined and clearly satisfies  $P = \tilde{P} \circ f$ .

Conversely, if  $\tilde{P}$  exists, then whenever  $f(s) = f(s')$ , we have  $P(s) = \tilde{P}(f(s)) = \tilde{P}(f(s')) = P(s')$ , so  $P$  is invariant with respect to  $f$ .

Now, the key observation is that  $P$  and  $f$  together give a full functional specification for  $\tilde{P}$ . We want to either construct such a  $\tilde{P}$  in order to prove our property, or provide the programmer with a counterexample to the property in order to help them debug. Thus, a counterexample guided synthesis loop, similar to that present in [19], seems like a natural candidate for this problem.



**Fig. 3.** Decision procedure for verifying invariance with respect to a function

**Theorem 2.** *The algorithm 3 is sound and relatively complete, relative to a perfect synthesizer and a perfect equivalence-of-programs verifier.*

*Proof.* In order to prove this formally, we need an even stronger condition on the equivalence-of-programs verifier. Namely, we suppose there is some total order on the elements in  $T$ , and that if  $\tilde{P} \circ f$  is not equivalent to  $P$ , the verifier outputs the smallest counterexample with respect to this ordering.

If  $\tilde{P}$  exists, then a perfect synthesizer will eventually synthesize  $\tilde{P}$  given some set of examples, say  $E$ . Because the verifier gives back counterexamples in a fixed order, a superset of  $E$  will eventually be fed into the synthesizer, resulting in  $\tilde{P}$ . Then the idealized verifier will output “YES”.

If no  $\tilde{P}$  exists, then some pair  $t, t_0$  exist such that  $f(t) = f(t_0)$  yet  $P(t) \neq P(t_0)$ . Because the verifier outputs counterexamples in some order,  $t$  and  $t_0$  will eventually be found, and the algorithm will output “YES”.

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