Towards making formal methods normal: meeting developers where they are

ALASTAIR REID, Google Research
LUKE CHurch, Computer Laboratory, University of Cambridge
SHAKED FLUR, Google Research
SARAH DE HAAS, Google Research
MARITZA JOHNSON, Google Research
BEN LAURIE, Google Research

Formal verification of software is a bit of a niche activity: it is only applied to the most safety-critical or security-critical software and it is typically only performed by specialized verification engineers. This paper considers whether it would be possible to increase adoption of formal methods by integrating formal methods with developers’ existing practices and workflows. We do not believe that widespread adoption will follow from making the prevailing formal methods argument that correctness is more important than engineering teams realize. Instead, our focus is on what we would need to do to enable programmers to make effective use of formal verification tools and techniques. We do this by considering how we might make verification tooling that both serves developers’ needs and fits into their existing development lifecycle. We propose a target of two orders of magnitude increase in adoption within a decade driven by ensuring a positive ‘weekly cost-benefit’ ratio for developer time invested.

ACM Reference Format:
Alastair Reid, Luke Church, Shaked Flur, Sarah de Haas, Maritza Johnson, and Ben Laurie. 2020. Towards making formal methods normal: meeting developers where they are. In HATRA 2020: Human Aspects of Types and Reasoning Assistants, 15–20 November, 2020, Chicago, IL. ACM, New York, NY, USA, 10 pages. https://doi.org/10.1145/nnnnnn.nnnnnnn

1 INTRODUCTION

Mainstream commercial software development processes are currently beyond the scope of many kinds of formal methods techniques that aim to increase our assurance in the correct operation of software. Increasing the use of formal methods is hard and expensive because of the significant impact of applying formal methods on the software development process. This limits the application of formal methods to the organizations that have a reason to value formal methods: essentially a small number of applications that require the additional assurance of a formal correctness proof (e.g., the usual safety-critical systems). The question we tackle is: how can we increase the access to and adoption of formal methods tools and techniques?

Currently researchers are making these high assurance methods easier to adopt through education [20], case studies and improvements to the tools and methodologies that make the high powered technologies easier to approach. In this paper, we consider the problem from the other end: how to bring a little more assurance into routine developer practice — making the everyday technologies a little more powerful. The two approaches are not in opposition: both are needed and
valuable for broadening the adoption of formal methods. We informally estimate that significantly less than 1% of developers use formal verification so we suggest a useful goal would be to increase the number of developers using some formal methods by two orders of magnitude over the next decade.

We believe that critical to this is to ensure that the additional effort of using formal methods tools has an obvious, short-term benefit that justifies it. For this approach to work, we have to keep an eye on both sides of the ‘weekly cost-benefit’ ratio, making sure over each week of using the tool that the additional cost always pays for itself in benefit it returns.

Our core idea of how to achieve this is to meet developers where they are: building on their existing skills and workflows, using the techniques they are familiar with, and taking advantage of the artifacts that they currently create — but applying them for new purposes.

2 MEETING THE DEVELOPER WHERE THEY ARE

One thing developers do a lot of is testing. Formal methods practitioners sometimes criticize testing because it does not guarantee the absence of bugs, but we think it is more useful to focus on what testing and verification have in common and how they can strengthen/benefit each other than to focus on how or when verification is superior to testing.

Testing is an important complement to verification: in verification, it is easy to start with incorrect assumptions about the environment (e.g., network protocols, hardware, OSes, programming language) [12]; while, in testing, incorrect assumptions will usually make themselves known.

By drawing parallels between testing activities and formal verification, we can reuse tests with formal verification tools. This approach is rooted in Property-based testing [10] and Parameterized unit tests [34]. We are currently looking at whether a similar parallel can be made between contract-based verification and techniques used in unit testing.

2.1 Non-goals

If we are to succeed in dramatically increasing the adoption of formal methods by software engineers, we think that we will have to sacrifice a few things.

First, we will have to let go of a big goal: it is unrealistic to think that we will verify that the software is 100% correct. However, we still aim make it more trustworthy, more robust, etc. (Bearing in mind that even software with mechanized proofs of full functional correctness can contain bugs [12].)

Second, we will have to let go of some ancillary benefits. One of the major costs in formal verification of realistic, real-world systems is the size and complexity of their specifications and the work of updating the specification as the software develops. Writing and maintaining an accurate, thorough specification of a software system is extremely rare. We believe that this is because software engineering teams often do not get much value in return for the effort of creating and maintaining a detailed specifications.\(^1\)

If we start by building on parallels with testing and other standard engineering practices, this may limit what we do with formal methods, we may lose some of the benefits of a more narrow adoption of standard formal methods orthodoxy. One of these benefits that formal methods practitioners often claim is that the act of creating a formal specification and of focusing early on a design that makes it easy to prove the correctness of the system increases the quality of the software that they build. In the Cognitive Dimensions of Notations Framework, often used for describing trade-offs in the design of programming languages [17] this would be described as a Useful Awkwardness. There might be extra hoops to jump through, but the act of doing it is useful. If we avoid that

\(^1\)Arguably, a thorough testing regime results in a specification of sorts — if only we can adapt the tests for use in verification.
Awkwardness, we may lose that usefulness. That said, practitioners of Test Driven Design would claim that their methodology clarifies the design and testability of their software — so it is possible that the loss will not be too great?

We want to emphasize that our focus is on using testing as a bridge to adoption of formal methods. There has been a lot of work on using formal tools to assist testing such as using symbolic/concolic execution to generate high-coverage testcases [7, 11, 14, 15] and to improve fuzzing [4, 35]. While these are similar at a technical level, the different focus raises different usability issues.

With our focus on the weekly cost-benefit ratio, we want to be very careful about what we give up on the developer side but we will ask them to do some additional work. The strength of formal methods over testing is their generality: a passing test tells you that your system works in one specific case while formal verification tells you that your system works for a whole class of cases. To get this benefit, developers will have to write parameterized tests that can be applied with a range of different inputs. This will take additional work and training/practice although we believe that the increasing use of structure-aware fuzz-testing and the increasing sophistication of fuzz-driver generation [2] will also drive a push towards writing more general tests.

3 OUR RUST PROTOTYPE

At present, we are choosing to focus our attention on Rust. We made this choice for a combination of technical and cultural and community reasons. Technically, Rust’s ownership type system provides useful guarantees about Rust programs that assist formal reasoning about those programs [1] and is designed to rule out certain classes of bugs. Culturally, these technical promises of safer code are a major motivation for teams adopting Rust so Rust programmers are already self-selected as people who care more about safety. The Rust developers have put a lot of work into instilling these values into the Rust community: the standard Rust beginner’s book [19] focuses on starting new Rust programmers off with a number of good habits such as creating small, testable units of code, building testsuites, etc.

Our focus on Rust is not without its costs though. Rust verification tools are far behind the state of C verification tools and there is much to do in creating tools that can verify anything about Rust programs. On the positive side, the immaturity of Rust verification means that it is potentially possible to influence the direction of the language’s future development and it is generally easier to adopt new practices in new code than to attempt to retrofit them in established codebases.

Concretely, we are currently adapting existing verification tools used with C for use with Rust and creating Rust verification libraries [28]. We are also creating wrapper scripts around the tools to prototype our ideas for a suitable user interface.

As a simple example of how our library furthers our goal, consider the following simple test expressed using the proptest fuzzing library [23].

```rust
1 proptest! { 
2     #[test] 
3     fn multiply(a in 1..=1000u32, b in 1..=1000u32) { 
4         let r = a*b; 
5         assert!(1 <= r && r <= 1000000); 
6     } 
7 }
```

Those familiar with Rust will recognize most of the syntax except for the syntax `a in ...` on line 3 that is used to constrain the values that `a` can take in the test and the proptest! macro that implements this syntax by generating random numbers satisfying the constraint, invokes the test
some number of times, catches errors and reports results. Constraints can be ranges of numbers, regular expressions, data types like Option and BTreeMap and can be defined by users, combined and transformed to provide an expressive, extensible domain-specific language of constraints.

With some largely superficial differences, this basic shape of interface is supported by a variety of fuzzers (with interfaces of varying expressive power in the constraints) and is familiar to Rust programmers. Our verification-oriented implementation of the proptest API capitalizes on this familiarity. Instead of interpreting ‘a in ...’ as random number generation, our implementation interprets it as universal quantification. Using our tools to verify this test checks that the program will not fail the assertion (or raise any other assertion) for any values of ‘a’ and ‘b’ satisfying the constraints.

At present, we support three ways of checking these properties. The first is to use the fuzz-tester built into the original proptest library: randomly sampling a subset of the input space to create a probabilistic argument that the property holds. The second is to use a patched version of the KLEE symbolic execution engine [6] that uses Dynamic Symbolic Execution to individually check all paths through the code. Finally, using Galois’ “Crux” verification tool [13] that can either perform model checking to check all paths at once or can perform symbolic execution on one path at a time. As we add more verification tools, we will be able to assess the different strengths and weaknesses of each tool and to give users a choice of which tool to use for each verification task.

The ability to use the same code as both a test-harness and a verification-harness is key to achieving our cost-benefit goal: effort invested in testing helps formal verification and vice-versa; and developers can continuously tune their productivity by switching between the speed of running tests and the assurance of running verifiers as they see fit.

The above example has similarities to the proof harnesses used at AWS [8] with one important difference: our approach supports both fuzzing and verification and supports two verification tools at present whereas their proof harnesses only support verification and are based on a single verification tool (CBMC). We suspect that this difference is mostly one of emphasis and that it would be relatively easy to make their proof harnesses independent of both the choice of verifier and the choice between verification and fuzzing. (It would be very useful to perform experiments like this to understand the costs of our generalization.) Work with more technical similarity is DeepState [16] which applies a similar approach to C++ development based on the GoogleTest API. Their approach is very similar to ours though they put more emphasis on the ability to change between different verification tools and to change between fuzzing and verification.

4 OBSTACLES AND CHALLENGES

The above represents an early experiment testing the hypothesis that it is possible to achieve a good cost-benefit ratio by integrating elements of formal verification tools into the developer workflow using testing practices as an entry point to build on. Our primary focus at the moment is on adding Rust support to existing verification tools and implementing the “propverify” library. While we are not yet in a position to perform a usability evaluation or to understand how our choices impact verifiability, even at this early stage there are a range of challenges that need to be addressed if we expect to increase adoption by an order of magnitude. We break these down into individual usability challenges faced by a developer, ecological challenges and technical challenges.

4.1 Individual usability challenges

Based on our anecdotal experience observing developers and researchers as they apply formal methods and on our previous experience persuading a hardware design company to adopt formal verification [27], we want to highlight a number of behaviors that we believe are roadblocks today.
The most pressing issue is that we are asking developers to change their behavior, and expecting behavior change to follow by merely advertising improvements to the weekly cost-benefit ratio will not be enough. The new behavior must be perceived to be beneficial by the individuals who are asked to change their practices: developers need to feel that the reward, that is the benefits received, exceeds the effort they exerted to complete the task. With the developers we interviewed, we observed a degree of skepticism about formal methods, suggesting that they thought the cost-benefit ratio was not likely to be in their favor. Overcoming this skepticism needs to be done by giving them direct positive experiences rather than advocacy, and experiences that can be achieved within the amount of time the developers are willing to risk. This is the primary motivation behind our hypothesis that the methods must pay for themselves within a week.²

We cannot underestimate the influence of developers’ existing beliefs of the utility and role of formal methods. Warranted or not, many developers do not see how formal methods relate to their work. We believe we will need to deliberately undertake work to build the relationship and earn developer trust. The first step to reconstructing the trust of developers is a supportive onboarding experience. Perhaps one that supports developers to form relevant goals and expectations for using a technology, install it easily and then to make progress towards the goals they set. One way of evaluating how we are doing towards this goal is to consider the interactions of a developer by applying a simplified version of a cognitive walkthrough [29]. Very broadly this entails modelling a user engaging with the tool: establishing a goal, considering what options are available to them, considering the match between these options and their goal, and evaluating the feedback received when they perform the item that matches best. This has been applied in the past to a range of developer activities including consuming APIs and using code completion [24].

Existing formal verification technologies have challenges at each of these stages. It is not easy for developers to articulate their goals without understanding what the technology can do, instead the technology is often presented for experts who find it easy to, for example, know why ‘symbolic execution’ might help with fixing bugs.

Even when a goal is established, most linguistic and notational systems like programming languages make it hard to know what options are available. This is not helped by tool designs that focus on expert behavior without much signaling along the way as what is essential for all users to understand and what is only needed in advanced use cases. For example, the KLEE tool has 140+ possible command line arguments: optimizing for research flexibility over usability.

Finally, the feedback that developers receive along the way is critical to early success. This applies to both their use of the tools, and to the results they receive, for example, if a bug is detected, knowing where it is within the code is important [36]. Can the developer read the results and know how to reproduce the defect?

In addition to these fundamental usability challenges, we see evidence that developers experience a lot of difficulty simply getting the tool running. This is not an uncommon problem for tools designed in complex domains. One of the only known ways to simplify installation and setup is for the researchers who design the tools to undertake significant design and engineering work [24] which unfortunately is often deemed unappealing by researchers even though it is critical and necessary to wider adoption.

This is an especially significant challenge with formal verification technologies as they often require the developer to prepare the program in a specific manner in order to be used with the tool. In some cases it requires compiling third party libraries, which can be challenging in itself. Such issues may appear to be out of scope for formal verification researchers, however, we must

²If pressed we would say a lot of formal verification of software fails the monthly or even yearly cost-benefit test. So, whilst simple-sounding, this will be a huge challenge.
find ways to eliminate this complexity rather than asking the developer to deal with it, if we want developers to recognize and appreciate the value of our tools.

Once the developers are onboarded and have started using the tool, a different set of usability considerations are necessary to continuing maintaining a positive cost-benefit ratio. We find the Cognitive Dimensions vocabulary to be a helpful articulation of the profile of usability characteristics that will be needed. For a detailed explanation of the vocabulary see [18].

In order to use verification tools it is necessary for the Abstractions to have good Role Expressiveness and Closeness of Mapping. These provide the basis of the bridge between the verification system and the domain the developer is working in, providing a shared description for the developer to decompose their problem into, and the basis on which the verification will report errors.

The short window in which benefits are returned requires good Progressive Evaluation, in order to know the work is heading in the right direction, this is important to support the developer if they need to put in extra work in, for example, annotating code with loop invariants.

Tools that reason about negative properties (e.g., the program cannot have a null pointer error) have particular additional design needs of low Error Proneness to avoid accidentally configuring the system to miss bugs [12] especially in a context where the developer is needing to manage false positives which have a tendency to grow over time [9].

We suggest that there is work to be done to build a system that meets this design profile, both for onboarding and sustained use. However, by itself even this would not be enough, it would provide a context in which a formal verification was easy to get started with by a single developer, but in order to gain adoption the tools must also be usable within teams and organizations that write the world’s software, in other words it must have ecological validity.

4.2 Ecological challenges

There are some surface level requirements that need to be met for the tools to function for teams, for example, configuration of the tools needs to be either standardized or committed into a version control system to eliminate potential interference between developers. Just as there are various challenges associated with large scale unit testing, such as management of flaky tests within regression test suites, once there are many thousands of properties being tested [27], there will need to be similar tools for managing the results of verification, turning some tests on and off, tracking over time, etc. Teams will need to agree on the best practices for how they go about using the tools, learnings that we expect to arise from case studies.

However there are also more complex context-specific challenges that may arise within organizations. For example, Google and Facebook both found that code review was a good context in which to report results from static analysis [25, 30, 31]. It is possible that this might also be a good location for presenting the results of the formal verification tools. Amazon found good results forming a specialized team to provide the interface between the tooling and the broader development team in order to help ensure a strong cost-benefit ratio for the developers [8]. However as with the centralized developer tools function at Google [26], these all work within a single organization and it is less clear how they can be applied as a model within open source communities.

These options will need to be clarified in case studies. Probably in the early days focused on particular programming niches that show the advantages of adding formal verification to a programmer’s toolkit, and share best practices on the techniques needed to get the most out of the tools and the pitfalls to avoid.

Such case studies will also yield valuable empirical data on the cost-benefit ratio. This is one example of a metric of the effect of introducing formal methods, these metrics create power within organizations [3], especially ones seeking to use data driven decision making. To support this decision making, it is not sufficient to be useful, the tools must be seen and quantified as being
useful, and ideally have their utility predicted ahead of time. However, many formal methods do not work well with existing metrics such as code coverage — alternatives need to be found to support management decisions about when to and when not to use formal methods, buy-in that will be necessary to achieve order of magnitudes growth in adoption.

4.3 A technical challenge: Special-purpose tools; general-purpose engines

At their core, formal verification tools are based around general-purpose reasoning engines that can check many different properties about code written in a given language or that can be compiled to a given intermediate language. This generality suits developers of tools, but we believe that software engineers would benefit from more specialized tools focused on a few tasks.

This approach has been applied in the commercial EDA tool space for hardware development that provides tools specialized for tasks such as checking the equivalence of two hardware designs; or checking for glitches that occur when a part of the design is powered up; or checking temporal logic properties of designs. Hardware engineering teams often build even more specialized tooling around these tools for tasks such as checking processor pipelines [27]. These different tools are (probably) based on a single formal verification core based on SAT-solving and model-checking and could, potentially, be supported by a single general-purpose tool. The advantage of creating special-purpose tools for each task is that it allows them to provide interfaces suited to each individual task to assist in specifying what they want to check, to insert “design waivers” to suppress false-positive reports, to assist in understanding and localizing reports, and to generate status reports to assist engineering management teams.

Creating specialized tools allows us to design specialized interfaces that are easier to use. Specialization also enables standardized interfaces that enables users to switch from one tool to another and enables tool developers to create hybrid tools that use a variety of different techniques to achieve the goal. For example, in software verification, we see the rise of ensemble approaches that run different verification tools in parallel [4] and in test generation we see the use of separate techniques such as fuzzing, symbolic execution and search-based techniques including genetic algorithms and hill-climbing. We also see the emergence of hybrid approaches that combine multiple techniques such as DeepState [16] that allows a variety of concolic execution tools to be used to check C++ properties expressed using the GoogleTest API and COASTAL [35] that dynamically alternates between fuzzing and concolic execution.

We note that the existence of competitions for automatic verification tools has already driven standardization of the low level API used to build verification harnesses and annotate programs; and standardization of the result format. This seems to be an easier task for automatic verification tools than it would be for an auto-active verification tool such as Dafny [22] or an interactive, general purpose verification tool such as Coq or Isabelle that have more interface to standardize and require more knowledge of how the tool works.

Creating specialized tools for particular tasks is, unfortunately, in tension with another important goal: creating an integrated toolflow where artifacts (such as test harnesses, annotations, etc.) can be reused for multiple purposes. Such reuse is critical to achieving our weekly cost-benefit ratio goal. To allow reuse we must avoid fragmentation between tools specialized for different verification tasks. Finding the right compromise between different tasks will likely need multiple design iterations.

4.4 Predictability vs. decidability

It is not yet clear how to handle the conflict between power and decidability of verification problems. Below what Leino calls the “decidability ceiling” [21], we would hope that most tools can consistently prove that properties hold. But, as we use more properties outside of the decidable subset of their property language (e.g., as non-linear arithmetic is used), we can expect that tools will diverge:
some succeeding, some taking a long time but eventually succeeding and some failing to prove the property. We might also expect that different versions of the same tool or different runs of the same tool will have different outcomes. Using an ensemble of different tools to build on the strengths and weaknesses of individual tools [4] will help to some degree but, fundamentally, attempting to prove overly hard properties will behave like (and be as unsettling as) having flaky tests in a testsuite. To deal with this, verification tools need to support profiling of code to find code that is impacting verification time [5] and we need to develop guidelines to support what the hardware industry calls “Design for Verification”: changing the design to enable/simplify verification.

5 CONCLUSION

We aim to increase the uptake and usability of formal methods by developing libraries and tools that build on activities that programmers are already comfortable and effective with (principally testing) and give some of the benefits associated with formal verification. Our work is at a very early stage at present and, while we think that this is a productive direction, it is not yet clear how close we can get to achieving conventional formal verification goals.

This is a challenging space to work in. ‘Just’ the process of building an interdisciplinary team that can talk in the same language about the usability, social, technical and engineering aspects of the project has been an interesting research activity.

In many ways formal verification and testing represent two different modes of engagement with the world. Formal verification sees a model as a logically coherent entity, and once the world has been suitably translated into that model, it can be rationally and productively reasoned about as a whole. Testing, on the other hand, views the world as being made up of a series of empirically observed points in behavioral space with an —mostly implicit— assumption that those empirically observed points generalize.

On the performative spectrum between the logician and the scientist, current software engineering is unusual in how far over towards the logician it starts, simply because of the use of notation and linguistics to define the behavior of programs as a series of steps and rules, rather than a series of examples. It is not surprising given this that there is a strong instinct to pursue this route with the introduction of even stronger logics to fix the problems that arise when software meets the world. However there is a danger here that testing points out, be it software testing, or the testing that happens when software gets put in the hands of the users. Empirical reality fights backs against the model [33]. Learning from this resistance as early as possible helps.

In this paper we have tried to turn this problem upside down, by starting from where developers are today, focusing on what they are already doing. We have seen this approach in other areas of computing where previously expert tasks need to be adopted by a wider audience (e.g., in the early 2000s the usable security community grappled with what it means to do human-centred work suggesting that useful, secure applications may be more readily adopted than usable security tools [32]). In a similar spirit, we urge the community to begin from the empirical reality they and their customers inhabit, then deliberately consider what it would take to integrate formal method tooling into existing practice, with an eye toward establishing an attention-economic deal of weekly benefit that they might accept.

We believe that there is not much choice here if we seek broad adoption: to achieve the benefits of the tools of formal reasoning we must start from the messy contexts of tests, and ‘as lived’ tools and build out from there.

REFERENCES

[1] Vytautas Astrauskas, Peter Müller, Federico Poli, and Alexander J. Summers. 2019. Leveraging Rust types for modular specification and verification. Proc. ACM Program. Lang. 3, OOPSLA, Article 147 (October 2019), 30 pages. https:
[2] Domagoj Babić, Stefan Bucur, Yaohui Chen, Franjo Ivančić, Tim King, Markus Kusano, Caroline Lemieux, László Szekeres, and Wei Wang. 2019. FUDGE: Fuzz driver generation at scale. In Proceedings of the 2019 27th ACM Joint Meeting on European Software Engineering Conference and Symposium on the Foundations of Software Engineering (Tallinn, Estonia) (ESEC/FSE 2019). Association for Computing Machinery, New York, NY, USA, 975–985. https://doi.org/10.1145/3383906.3340456

[3] David Beer. 2016. Metric power. Palgrave Macmillan UK. https://doi.org/10.1057/978-1-137-55649-3

[4] Dirk Beyer and Thomas Lemberger. 2017. Software verification: Testing vs. model checking. In Hardware and Software: Verification and Testing, Ofer Strichman and Rachel Tzoref-Brill (Eds.). Springer International Publishing, Cham, 99–114. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-70389-3_7

[5] James Bornholt and Emina Torlak. 2018. Finding code that explodes under symbolic evaluation. Proc. ACM Program. Lang. 2, OOPSLA, Article 149 (October 2018), 26 pages. https://doi.org/10.1145/3276519

[6] Cristian Cadar, Daniel Dunbar, and Dawson Engler. 2008. KLEE: Unassisted and automatic generation of high-coverage tests for complex systems programs. In Proceedings of the 8th USENIX Conference on Operating Systems Design and Implementation (San Diego, California) (OSDI’08). USENIX Association, Berkeley, CA, USA, 209–224.

[7] Cristian Cadar and Koushik Sen. 2013. Symbolic execution for software testing: Three decades later. Commun. ACM 56, 2 (February 2013), 82–90. https://doi.org/10.1145/2408776.2408795

[8] Nathan Chong, Byron Cook, Konstantinos Kallas, Kareem Khazem, Felipe R. Monteiro, Daniel Schwartz-Narbonne, Serdar Tasiran, Michael Tautschning, and Mark R. Tuttle. 2020. Code-level model checking in the software development workflow. In Proceedings of the 2020 International Conference on Software Engineering (ICSE). https://doi.org/10.1145/3377813.3381347

[9] Andy Chou. 2005. False positives over time: A problem in deploying static analysis tools. In Proceedings of BUGS 2005 (PLDI 2005 Workshop on the Evaluation of Software Defect Detection Tools) (Chicago, IL, USA). http://www.cs.umd.edu/~pugh/SoftwareDefectWorkshop05/BugWorkshop05.pdf

[10] Koen Claessen and John Hughes. 2000. QuickCheck: A lightweight tool for random testing of Haskell programs. In Proceedings of the Fifth ACM SIGPLAN International Conference on Functional Programming (ICFP ‘00). Association for Computing Machinery, New York, NY, USA, 268–279. https://doi.org/10.1145/351240.351266

[11] Marko Dimjašević, Falk Howar, Kasper Luckow, and Zvonimir Rakamarić. 2018. Study of integrating random and symbolic testing for object-oriented software. In Integrated Formal Methods, Carlo A. Furia and Kirsten Winter (Eds.). Springer International Publishing, Cham, 89–109. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-89898-9_6

[12] Pedro Fonseca, Kaiyuan Zhang, Xi Wang, and Arvind Krishnamurthy. 2017. An empirical study on the correctness of formally verified distributed systems. In Proceedings of the Twelfth European Conference on Computer Systems (Belgrade, Serbia) (EuroSys ’17). ACM, New York, NY, USA, 328–343. https://doi.org/10.1145/3064176.3064183

[13] Inc Galois. 2020. Crux: Introducing our new open-source tool for software verification. https://galois.com/blog/2020/10/crux-introducing-our-new-open-source-tool-for-software-verification/

[14] Pranav Garg, Franjo Ivančić, Gogul Balakrishnan, Naoto Maeda, and Aarti Gupta. 2013. Feedback-directed unit test generation for C/C++ using concolic execution. In Proceedings of the 2013 International Conference on Software Engineering (San Francisco, CA, USA) (ICSE ’13). IEEE Press, 132–141. https://doi.org/10.1109/ICSE.2013.6606559

[15] Patrice Godefroid. 2020. Fuzzing: Hack, art, and science. Commun. ACM 63, 2 (January 2020), 70–76. https://doi.org/10.1145/3363824

[16] Peter Goodman and Alex Groce. 2018. DeepState: Symbolic unit testing for C and C++. In NDSS Workshop on Binary Analysis Research (San Diego, California, USA). 7. https://doi.org/10.14722/bar.2018.23009

[17] Thomas R. G. Green. 1990. Cognitive dimensions of notations. In Proceedings of the Fifth Conference of the British Computer Society, Human-Computer Interaction Specialist Group on People and Computers V (Univ. of Nottingham). Cambridge University Press, USA, 443–460.

[18] Thomas R. G. Green and Alan F. Blackwell. 1998. Cognitive dimensions of information artefacts: a tutorial. In BCS HCI Conference, Vol. 98. 1–75.

[19] Steve Klabnik and Carol Nichols. 2018. The Rust programming language. No Starch Press, USA.

[20] Shiriram Krishnamurthi and Tim Nelson. 2019. The human in formal methods. In Formal Methods - The Next 30 Years, Maurice H. ter Beek, Annabelle McIver, and José N. Oliveira (Eds.). Springer International Publishing, Cham, 3–10.

[21] K. Rustan M. Leino. 2001. Extended static checking: A ten-year perspective. Springer Berlin Heidelberg, Berlin, Heidelberg, 157–175. https://doi.org/10.1007/3-540-44577-3_11

[22] K. Rustan M. Leino. 2013. Developing verified programs with Dafny. In 2013 35th International Conference on Software Engineering (ICSE). 1488–1490. https://doi.org/10.1109/ICSE.2013.6606754

[23] Jason Lingle. 2017. Proptest: Hypothesis-like property testing for Rust. https://altsysrq.github.io/proptest-book/intro.html
[24] Andrew Macvean, John Daughtry, Luke Church, and Craig Citro. 2016. API usability at scale. In Proceedings of the 26th annual workshop of the Psychology of Programming Interest Group.

[25] Peter W. O’Hearn. 2018. Continuous Reasoning: Scaling the Impact of Formal Methods. In Proceedings of the 33rd Annual ACM/IEEE Symposium on Logic in Computer Science (Oxford, United Kingdom) (LICS ’18). Association for Computing Machinery, New York, NY, USA, 13–25. https://doi.org/10.1145/3209108.3209109

[26] Rachel Potvin and Josh Levenberg. 2016. Why Google stores billions of lines of code in a single repository. Commun. ACM 59, 7 (June 2016), 78–87. https://doi.org/10.1145/2854146

[27] Alastair D. Reid, Rick Chen, Anastasios Deligiannis, David Gilday, David Hoyes, Will Keen, Ashan Pathirane, Erin Shepherd, Peter Vrabel, and Ali Zaidi. 2016. End-to-end verification of ARM processors with ISA-formal, In Proceedings of the 2016 International Conference on Computer Aided Verification (CAV’16) (Toronto, Canada), S. Chaudhuri and A. Farzan (Eds.). CAV 2016, Part II, Lecture Notes in Computer Science 9780, 9780, 42–58. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-41540-6_3

[28] Google Research. 2020. Rust verification tools. https://github.com/project-oak/rust-verification-tools

[29] John Rieman, Marita Franzke, and David Redmiles. 1995. Usability evaluation with the cognitive walkthrough. In Conference Companion on Human Factors in Computing Systems (Denver, Colorado, USA) (CHI ’95). Association for Computing Machinery, New York, NY, USA, 387–388. https://doi.org/10.1145/223355.223735

[30] Caitlin Sadowski, Emma Söderberg, Luke Church, Michal Sipko, and Alberto Bacchelli. 2018. Modern code review: A case study at Google. In Proceedings of the 40th International Conference on Software Engineering: Software Engineering in Practice (Gothenburg, Sweden) (ICSE-SEIP ’18). Association for Computing Machinery, New York, NY, USA, 181–190. https://doi.org/10.1145/3183519.3183525

[31] Caitlin Sadowski, Jeffrey van Gogh, Ciera Jaspan, Emma Söderberg, and Collin Winter. 2015. Tricorder: Building a program analysis ecosystem. In 2015 IEEE/ACM 37th IEEE International Conference on Software Engineering, Vol. 1. 598–608. https://doi.org/10.1109/ICSE.2015.76

[32] Diana K. Smetters and Rebecca E. Grinter. 2002. Moving from the design of usable security technologies to the design of useful secure applications. In Proceedings of the 2002 Workshop on New Security Paradigms (Virginia Beach, Virginia) (NSPW ’02). Association for Computing Machinery, New York, NY, USA, 82–89. https://doi.org/10.1145/844102.844117

[33] Brian Cantwell Smith. 1996. On the origin of objects. MIT Press.

[34] Nikolai Tillmann and Wolfram Schulte. 2005. Parameterized unit tests. In Proceedings of the 10th European Software Engineering Conference Held Jointly with 13th ACM SIGSOFT International Symposium on Foundations of Software Engineering (Lisbon, Portugal) (ESEC/FSE-13). Association for Computing Machinery, New York, NY, USA, 253–262. https://doi.org/10.1145/1081706.1081749

[35] Willem Visser and Jaco Geldenhuys. 2020. COASTAL: Combining concolic and fuzzing for Java (competition contribution). In Tools and Algorithms for the Construction and Analysis of Systems, Armin Biere and David Parker (Eds.). Springer International Publishing, Cham, 373–377. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-45237-7_23

[36] Andreas Zeller. 2005. Locating defects is uncertain. In Proceedings of BUGS 2005 (PLDI 2005 Workshop on the Evaluation of Software Defect Detection Tools) (Chicago, IL, USA). http://www.cs.umd.edu/~pugh/SoftwareDefectWorkshop05/BugWorkshop05.pdf