

# BoogiePL: A typed procedural language for checking object-oriented programs

Robert DeLine                      K. Rustan M. Leino  
rdeline@microsoft.com          leino@microsoft.com

27 May 2005

Technical Report  
MSR-TR-2005-70

This note defines *BoogiePL*, an intermediate language for program analysis and program verification. The language is a simple coarsely typed imperative language with procedures and arrays, plus support for introducing mathematical functions and declaring properties of these functions. BoogiePL can be used to represent programs written in an imperative source language (like an object-oriented .NET language), along with a logical encoding of the semantics of such a source language. From the resulting BoogiePL program, one can then generate verification conditions or perform other program analyses such as the inference of program invariants. In this way, BoogiePL also serves as a programming-notation front end to theorem provers. BoogiePL is accepted as input to Boogie, the Spec# static program verifier.

Microsoft Research  
Microsoft Corporation  
One Microsoft Way  
Redmond, WA 98052  
<http://www.research.microsoft.com>

## 0 Program and types

At the top level, a BoogiePL program is a set of declarations.

$$\begin{aligned} \textit{Program} & ::= \textit{Decl}^* \\ \textit{Decl} & ::= \textit{Type} \mid \textit{Constant} \mid \textit{Function} \mid \textit{Axiom} \\ & \quad \mid \textit{Variable} \mid \textit{Procedure} \mid \textit{Implementation} \end{aligned}$$

Value-holding entities in BoogiePL are typed, despite the fact that a theorem prover used on BoogiePL programs may be untyped. The purpose of types in BoogiePL, like the purpose of explicit declarations of variables and functions, is to guard against certain easy-to-make mistakes in the input.

There are four built-in basic types, user-defined types, one- and two-dimensional arrays, and the supertype **any** :

$$\begin{aligned} \textit{Type} & ::= \mathbf{bool} \mid \mathbf{int} \mid \mathbf{ref} \mid \mathbf{name} \\ & \quad \mid \textit{Id} \mid \mathbf{any} \\ & \quad \mid \text{“} [ \textit{Type} \text{ “} ] \textit{Type} \\ & \quad \mid \text{“} [ \textit{Type} \text{ “} , \textit{Type} \text{ “} ] \textit{Type} \end{aligned}$$

The type **bool** represents the boolean values **false** and **true** (which we shall see appear later in the grammar). The type **int** represents the mathematical integers. As we shall see later, the language features integers and some arithmetic operations. The type **ref** represents references (object, pointers, addresses). One of its values is the built-in literal **null**. The only operations defined by the language on **ref** are equality and dis-equality tests. The type **name** represents various kinds of defined names (like types and field names). The only operations defined by the language on **name** are equality and dis-equality tests and the partial order  $<:$ . Furthermore, symbolic constants defined to have type **name** have the special property that they have distinct values (that is, it is not necessary to add an axiom that states this property; rather, that “axiom” is provided automatically by the language).

The language allows arrays of up to two dimensions. (Arrays of arrays can be used to encode more dimensions.) In an array type, the types of the array indices are given first, followed by the type of the array elements. For example,

$$[\mathbf{ref}, \mathbf{name}]\mathbf{int}$$

denotes the type of arrays that, when indexed with a reference and a name, yield a integer.

A user-defined type allows the user to identify certain sets of values. The declaration

$$\begin{aligned} \textit{Type} & ::= \mathbf{type} \textit{IdList} \text{ “} ; \text{”} \\ \textit{IdList} & ::= \textit{Id} [ \text{ “} , \text{” } \textit{IdList} ] \end{aligned}$$

declares one or more user-defined types. An *Id* defined as a user-defined type must be distinct from all other user-defined types in the program. The only operations on user-defined types provided by the language are equality and dis-equality tests.

The type **any** is a supertype of all other types. This means that any expression can be assigned to a variable or array element of type **any**. An expression *e* of type **any**

can be treated as an expression of any other given type  $T$  by using the cast expression  $\text{cast}(e, T)$ . The cast expression is “unsafe”, in that there’s nothing in the language that will make sure the expression  $e$  really is of the type  $T$ . By providing type **any** and cast expressions, BoogiePL can provide many of the benefits of type systems, at the same time providing the flexibility that is often useful in encoding program correctness properties.

Pervasive in the BoogiePL grammar is  $Id$ , which stands for identifiers. An identifier is a sequence of alphabetic, numeric, and *special* characters, beginning with a non-numeric character. A special character is a character from the set:

`' ~ # $ ^ _ . ?`

A BoogiePL program has three separate global namespaces: one namespace for user-defined types, one for the names of functions and procedures, and one for the names of symbolic constants and global variables. That is, a program is allowed to contain, for example, a user-defined type with the same name as a procedure, since user-defined types and procedures are in different namespaces. In addition, the block names in each procedure implementation have their own namespace. In various local contexts, the namespace containing symbolic constants and global variables is augmented also to contain the names of formal parameters, local variables, and expression-bound variables.

## 1 Constants

A *symbolic constant* is an identifier that, throughout the execution of a program, has a fixed, but possibly unknown, value of the declared type.

$$\begin{aligned} \textit{Constant} & ::= \text{const } \textit{IdTypeList} \text{ “;”} \\ \textit{IdTypeList} & ::= \textit{IdType} [ \text{“,” } \textit{IdType} ] \\ \textit{IdType} & ::= \textit{Id} \text{ “:” } \textit{Type} \end{aligned}$$

An  $Id$  defined as a symbolic constant must be distinct from all other symbolic constants and global variables in the program.

Symbolic constants can be used in expressions and commands. To define some or all virtues of their values, one can use axiom declarations. All constants of type **name** are considered to have distinct values.

## 2 Uninterpreted functions

An *uninterpreted function* (or *function* for short) is similar to a symbolic constant, except that the function can take parameters.

$$\begin{aligned} \textit{Function} & ::= \text{function } \textit{IdList} \text{ “(” } [ \textit{OptIdTypeList} ] \text{ “)”} \\ & \quad \text{returns “(” } \textit{OptIdType} \text{ “)” “;”} \\ \textit{OptIdType} & ::= [ \textit{Id} \text{ “:” } ] \textit{Type} \\ \textit{OptIdTypeList} & ::= \textit{OptIdType} [ \text{“,” } \textit{OptIdTypeList} ] \end{aligned}$$

This declaration introduces each *Id* in the first *IdList* as a function name with the given signature. Each *Id* defined as a function must be distinct from all other functions and procedures in the program. The *Id*'s given among the in- and out-parameters must be different from each other.

Uninterpreted functions can be used in expressions and commands. To define some or all virtues of their values, one can use axiom declarations.

### 3 Axioms

An *axiom* specifies a constraint on the symbolic constants and functions.

$$\textit{Axiom} ::= \textbf{axiom} \textit{Expression} \textbf{“;”}$$

The given expression must be of type **bool**. It cannot have any free variables other than symbolic constants.

### 4 Variables

So far, we've only seen the “mathematical part” of the BoogiePL language. In what remains, we present what defines the state space of a BoogiePL program and what defines the operations on that state space.

The state space of a BoogiePL program consists of a number of variables. Variables come in four flavors: global variables, procedure parameters, local variables, and expression-bound variables. During name resolution, variable identifiers are first looked up in smaller enclosing scopes. That is, a variable identifier is first looked up among the expression-bound variables in the context, then (if it is not present among the expression-bound variables) among the local variables in the context, then among the parameters in the context, and finally among the global variables and symbolic constants. A variable identifier that is not present among any of these sets of variables in the context is an “undeclared variable identifier” error.

A *global variable* is a variable that is accessible to all procedures.

$$\textit{Variable} ::= \textbf{var} \textit{IdTypeList} \textbf{“;”}$$

An *Id* defined as a global variable must be distinct from all other global variables and symbolic constants in the program.

## 5 Procedures and implementations

A *procedure* is a name for a parameterized operation on the state space.

```

Procedure ::= procedure Id Signature “;” Spec*
              | procedure Id Signature Spec* Body
Signature ::= ParamList [ returns ParamList ]
ParamList ::= “(” [ IdTypeList ] “)”
Spec       ::= requires Expression “;”
              | modifies [ IdList ] “;”
              | ensures Expression “;”

```

An *Id* defined as a procedure must be distinct from all other procedures and functions in the program. The *Id*’s given among the in- and out-parameters of a procedure must be different from each other.

The procedure specification consists of a number of **requires**, **modifies**, and **ensures** clauses. The expressions in the **requires** and **ensures** clauses must be of type **bool**. Every *Id* mentioned in a **modifies** clause must name a global variable. The in-parameters are in scope in the **requires** clause, and both in- and out-parameters are in scope in the **ensures** clause.

Each **requires** clause specifies a condition that must hold at each call to the procedure (we shall see calls later). Any implementation of the procedure is allowed to assign only to those global variables listed in a **modifies** clause. Each **ensures** clause specifies a condition that must hold on exit from any implementation of the procedure. The expression in an **ensures** clause is a *two-state* predicate, which means that it can refer to both the initial and final states of the procedure (using **old** expressions, which we shall see later). The **ensures** condition thus specifies a relation between the initial and final states of the procedure.

Procedures can be given implementations. For convenience, one implementation can optionally be given as part of a procedure declaration. More generally, procedure implementations are declared separately:

```

Implementation ::= implementation Id Signature Body
Body           ::= “{” LocalVarDecl* Block+ “}”
LocalVarDecl  ::= var IdTypeList “;”

```

Here, *Id* must refer to a declared procedure. (There are no restrictions on the number of implementations that one procedure can have.) The types of the in- and out-parameters in the implementation declaration must be identical to those in the procedure declaration, but the parameter names are allowed to be different. However, the *Id*’s given among the in- and out-parameters in the implementation declaration must be different from each other.

The implementation consists of a number of local-variable declarations followed by a number of basic blocks (described later). An *Id* defined as a local variable must be distinct from the in- and out-parameters and other local variables of the procedure implementation.

The execution of a procedure implementation consists of setting the out-parameters and local variables to arbitrary values of their types, and then executing a sequence of

basic blocks, beginning with the first listed basic block and then continuing to other basic blocks as per the block's transfer-of-control manifesto (described below). If such a transfer-of-control manifesto is a **return** statement, then the execution of the procedure implementation ends.

## 6 Basic blocks

A *basic block* is a named sequence of commands followed by a transfer-of-control manifesto.

$$\begin{aligned} \textit{Block} & ::= \textit{Id} \text{ " : " } \textit{Command}^* \textit{TocManifesto} \\ \textit{TocManifesto} & ::= \mathbf{goto} \textit{IdList} \text{ " ; " } \\ & \quad | \mathbf{return} \text{ " ; " } \end{aligned}$$

An *Id* defined as a basic block must be distinct from all other basic blocks in the same procedure implementation. Each *Id* listed in a goto statement must refer to a basic block in the same procedure implementation.

The execution of a basic block starts with the execution of its commands, in order. Then, if the transfer-of-control manifesto is a goto statement, program execution continues in one of the named basic blocks. If the goto statement mentions several basic blocks, then one is chosen arbitrarily. If the transfer-of-control manifesto is a **return** statement, then the execution of the enclosing procedure implementation ends and control is transferred to the context that caused a call to the procedure.

## 7 Commands

Commands follow this grammar:

$$\begin{aligned} \textit{Command} & ::= \textit{Id} \text{ " := " } \textit{Expression} \text{ " ; " } \\ & \quad | \textit{Id} \textit{Index} \text{ " := " } \textit{Expression} \text{ " ; " } \\ & \quad | \mathbf{assert} \textit{Expression} \text{ " ; " } \\ & \quad | \mathbf{assume} \textit{Expression} \text{ " ; " } \\ & \quad | \mathbf{havoc} \textit{IdList} \text{ " ; " } \\ & \quad | \mathbf{call} [ \textit{IdList} \text{ " := " } ] \textit{Id} \text{ "(" } [ \textit{ExpressionList} ] \text{ ")" } \text{ " ; " } \\ \textit{Index} & ::= \text{ "[" } \textit{Expression} \text{ "]" } \\ & \quad | \text{ "[" } \textit{Expression} \text{ " , " } \textit{Expression} \text{ "]" } \\ \textit{ExpressionList} & ::= \textit{Expression} [ \text{ " , " } \textit{ExpressionList} ] \end{aligned}$$

In the assignment command  $x := E$ ;, the identifier  $x$  must refer to a variable in scope, that is, a parameter or local variable of the enclosing procedure or a global variable. The type of  $E$  must be *assignable* to the type of  $x$ , meaning that either the type of  $x$  is **any** or the types of  $E$  and  $x$  are identical.

In the array element assignment  $x[E] := G$ ;, the identifier  $x$  must refer to a variable in scope. The type of  $x$  must be a one-dimensional array type, the type of  $E$  must be assignable to the index type of  $x$ , and the type of  $G$  must be assignable to the array-element type of  $x$ .

In the array element assignment  $x[E, F] := G;$ , the identifier  $x$  must refer to a variable in scope. The type of  $x$  must be a two-dimensional array type, the types of  $E$  and  $F$  must be assignable to the corresponding index types of  $x$ , and the type of  $G$  must be assignable to the array-element type of  $x$ .

The assert command **assert**  $E;$  evaluates  $E$ , which must be of type **bool**. If  $E$  evaluates to **true**, then the command terminates (and the program execution continues with the execution of the next command or transfer-of-control manifesto in the current basic block). If  $E$  evaluates to **false**, then the execution of the program *goes wrong*, which indicates a non-recoverable error.

The assume command **assume**  $E;$  evaluates  $E$ , which must be of type **bool**. If  $E$  evaluates to **true**, then the command terminates. If  $E$  evaluates to **false**, then the execution of the program stalls forever, which entails that the program execution no longer has any chance of going wrong.

In the command **havoc**  $w;$ , each identifier  $x$  in the list  $w$  must refer to a variable in scope. The command assigns to every variable  $x$  in  $w$  an arbitrary value of the type of  $x$ .

In the call command **call**  $w := P(EE);$ ,  $P$  must refer to a procedure and  $w$  must refer to distinct variables in scope. The length of the list  $w$  must equal the number of out-parameters of  $P$ , and the types of the out-parameters of  $P$  must be assignable to the types of the corresponding variables in  $w$ . The length of the list  $EE$  of expressions must equal the number of in-parameters of  $P$ , and the types of the expressions in  $EE$  must be the assignable to the types of the corresponding in-parameters of  $P$ .

The call command evaluates the expressions in  $EE$  and passes these as parameters to an implementation of  $P$ , meaning it binds the in-parameters of  $P$ 's implementation and then transfers control to the implementation. Upon return from the  $P$ 's implementation, the values of  $P$ 's out-parameters are copied into the variables of  $w$ . The particular implementation chosen as the one to which control is transferred is chosen arbitrarily. In fact, it need not even be one of the implementations given in the program (it could in principle be "made up" by the runtime system), as long as the chosen implementation satisfies the procedure specification.

## 8 Expressions

Expressions follow this grammar:

```

Expression ::= Equivalence
Equivalence ::= Implication [ “ ≡ ” Equivalence ]
Implication ::= LogicalExpr [ “ ⇒ ” Implication ]
LogicalExpr ::= Relation
                | Relation “ ∧ ” AndExpr
                | Relation “ ∨ ” OrExpr
AndExpr ::= Relation [ “ ∧ ” AndExpr ]
OrExpr ::= Relation [ “ ∨ ” OrExpr ]
Relation ::= Term [ RelOp Term ]
Term ::= [ Term AddOp ] Factor
Factor ::= [ Factor MulOp ] UnaryExpr
UnaryExpr ::= ArrayExpr | “¬” UnaryExpr | “−” UnaryExpr
ArrayExpr ::= Atom | ArrayExpr Index
Atom ::= false | true | null | 0 | 1 | 2 | ⋯
          | Id | Id “(” [ ExpressionList ] “)”
          | old “(” Expression “)”
          | cast “(” Expression “,” Type “)”
          | Quantification | “(” Expression “)”
Quantification ::= “(” QuantOp IdTypeList “•” Expression “)”
RelOp ::= “=” | “≠” | “<” | “≤” | “≥” | “>” | “<:”
AddOp ::= “+” | “−”
MulOp ::= “*” | “/” | “%”
QuantOp ::= “∀” | “∃”

```

To explain these expressions, we refer to the following table, which shows the supported type signatures of the operators and common names for the operations. For

each line, we use  $\mathbb{T}$  to any particular type.

$\equiv$	$:\mathbf{bool} \times \mathbf{bool} \rightarrow \mathbf{bool}$	logical equivalence
$\Rightarrow$	$:\mathbf{bool} \times \mathbf{bool} \rightarrow \mathbf{bool}$	logical implication
$\wedge$	$:\mathbf{bool} \times \mathbf{bool} \rightarrow \mathbf{bool}$	logical conjunction
$\vee$	$:\mathbf{bool} \times \mathbf{bool} \rightarrow \mathbf{bool}$	logical disjunction
$=$	$:\mathbb{T} \times \mathbb{T} \rightarrow \mathbf{bool}$	equality
$\neq$	$:\mathbb{T} \times \mathbb{T} \rightarrow \mathbf{bool}$	disequality
$<$	$:\mathbf{int} \times \mathbf{int} \rightarrow \mathbf{bool}$	arithmetic less-than
$\leq$	$:\mathbf{int} \times \mathbf{int} \rightarrow \mathbf{bool}$	arithmetic at-most
$\geq$	$:\mathbf{int} \times \mathbf{int} \rightarrow \mathbf{bool}$	arithmetic at-least
$>$	$:\mathbf{int} \times \mathbf{int} \rightarrow \mathbf{bool}$	arithmetic greater-than
$<:$	$:\mathbf{name} \times \mathbf{name} \rightarrow \mathbf{bool}$	partial order on names
$+$	$:\mathbf{int} \times \mathbf{int} \rightarrow \mathbf{int}$	addition
$-$	$:\mathbf{int} \times \mathbf{int} \rightarrow \mathbf{int}$	subtraction
$*$	$:\mathbf{int} \times \mathbf{int} \rightarrow \mathbf{int}$	multiplication
$/$	$:\mathbf{int} \times \mathbf{int} \rightarrow \mathbf{int}$	integer division
$\%$	$:\mathbf{int} \times \mathbf{int} \rightarrow \mathbf{int}$	integer modulo
$\neg$	$:\mathbf{bool} \rightarrow \mathbf{bool}$	logical negation
$-$	$:\mathbf{int} \rightarrow \mathbf{int}$	arithmetic negation
<b>old</b>	$:\mathbb{T} \rightarrow \mathbb{T}$	initial state
$(\cdot)$	$:\mathbb{T} \rightarrow \mathbb{T}$	parentheses

Logical equivalence is the same as boolean equality, just with a weaker binding power.

The expression **old**( $E$ ) is only allowed to appear in **ensures** clauses.

In the expression **cast**( $E, T$ ), either the type of  $E$  or  $T$  itself must be **any**. The type of the cast expression is  $T$ .

In the identifier expression  $x$ ,  $x$  must refer to a variable or to a symbolic constant. The type of the expression  $x$  is the type of the variable or symbolic constant  $x$ .

The index expression  $A[E]$  requires the type of  $A$  to be a one-dimensional array type. The type of  $E$  must be assignable to the index types of  $A$ . The type of the index expression is the array-element type of  $A$ .

The index expression  $A[E, F]$  requires the type of  $A$  to be a two-dimensional array type. The types of  $E$  and  $F$  must be assignable to the corresponding index types of  $A$ . The type of the index expression is the array-element type of  $A$ .

The literal expressions **false** and **true** have type **bool**, the literal expression **null** has type **ref**, and the integer literals have type **int**.

In the function-application expression  $f(EE)$ ,  $f$  must refer to an uninterpreted function symbol. The number of expressions in the list  $EE$  must equal the number of number of in-parameters of  $f$ , and the types of the expressions in  $EE$  must be assignable to the types of the corresponding in-parameters of  $f$ . The function-application expression has the same type as the type of the out-parameter of  $f$ .

The quantifier expression  $(Q w \bullet E)$ , where  $Q$  is either  $\forall$  or  $\exists$ , defines the identifiers in  $w$  as expression-bound variables that can be used in  $E$ . These identifiers must be distinct from each other and from any other expression-bound variables, local variables, or parameters in scope. The type of a quantifier expression is **bool**.

## 9 ASCII representation

Some of the characters used above are not accessible from editors and keyboards that use only ASCII. The following table shows ASCII synonyms for those characters.

$\equiv$	<==>	$\leq$	<=
$\Rightarrow$	==>	$\geq$	>=
$\wedge$	&&	$\neg$	!
$\vee$		$\forall$	forall
$=$	==	$\exists$	exists
$\neq$	!=	$\bullet$	::

## 10 Using Boogie to check BoogiePL programs

The Spec# programming system [1, 8] compiles Spec# programs into MSIL, the intermediate language of the .NET virtual machine. The Spec# static program verifier, codenamed Boogie, translates such MSIL programs into the intermediate language BoogiePL. Boogie then generates verification conditions for the BoogiePL program and passes these to an automatic theorem prover, which attempts to prove the verification conditions (hence showing that the BoogiePL program and the original Spec# program are correct) or find counterexamples to them (hence showing that there is an error in the BoogiePL program and the original Spec# program). The Boogie tool can also apply abstract interpretation to infer properties like loop invariants.

In addition to accepting MSIL programs, Boogie also accepts BoogiePL programs directly. The BoogiePL programs must be files whose names end with `.bpl`, and these programs can be written in Unicode or ASCII. The fact that Boogie accepts BoogiePL programs directly means that others can encode their verification tasks as BoogiePL programs and then leverage the Boogie tool. (Also, the fact that Boogie first translates MSIL into BoogiePL opens the possibility to use other BoogiePL checkers, should such be developed by others.)

## 11 Example

Consider the following example Spec# program:

```
public class Example {
    int x;
    public void P(int y) {
        if (y > 0) {
            x += y;
        }
    }
}
```

After it is compiled by the Spec# compiler, it is translated by Boogie into a BoogiePL program. Figure 0 shows an excerpt of that program.

```

var $Heap : [ref, name]any;
function $typeof(ref) returns (name);
function $Is(any, name) returns (bool);
function $NotNull(name) returns (name);
axiom (∀ o : ref, T : name • $Is(o, T) ≡ o = null ∨ $typeof(o) <: T );
axiom (∀ o : ref, T : name • $Is(o, $NotNull(T)) ≡ o ≠ null ∧ $Is(o, T) );
const System.Int32 : name;
const System.Object : name;
const Example : name;
axiom Example <: System.Object;
const Example.x : name;
procedure Example.P$System.Int32(this : ref, y$in : int);
  modifies $Heap;
implementation Example.P$System.Int32(this : ref, y$in : int)
{
  var y : int, stack0i : int, stack0b : bool;
  entry :
    assume $Is(this, $NotNull(Example));
    y := y$in;
    assume $Is(y, System.Int32);
    goto block1258;
  block1258 :
    stack0i := 0;
    stack0b := y ≤ stack0i;
    goto true1258to1292, false1258to1275;
  true1258to1292 :
    assume stack0b = true;
    goto block1292;
  false1258to1275 :
    assume stack0b = false;
    assert this ≠ null;
    stack0i := cast($Heap[this, Example.x], int);
    assume $Is(stack0i, System.Int32);
    stack0i := stack0i + y;
    assert this ≠ null;
    $Heap[this, Example.x] := stack0i;
    goto block1292;
  block1292 :
    return;
}

```

Figure 0: An example BoogiePL program.

## Acknowledgements

Mike Barnett, Rob Klapper, and Wolfram Schulte contributed various parts of the initial BoogiePL language and implementation. The language described in this note is a revision of that initial language, incorporating, for example, types.

The mathematical part of the language (symbolic constants, functions, axioms) is similar to other specification languages, including Larch [5]. It has been designed to closely follow the abstract grammar of the input language of the theorem prover Simplify [2]. The mathematical part is intended to allow *background predicates* (see, e.g., [4]) to be coded directly in the BoogiePL language.

The command part of the language is similar to many Pascal-like languages and languages built on guarded commands [3, 7, 0]. It has commonalities with the ESC/Java intermediate language [6].

## References

- [0] Ralph-Johan Back and Joakim von Wright. *Refinement Calculus: A Systematic Introduction*. Graduate Texts in Computer Science. Springer-Verlag, 1998.
- [1] Mike Barnett, K. Rustan M. Leino, and Wolfram Schulte. The Spec# programming system: An overview. In *CASSIS 2004, Construction and Analysis of Safe, Secure and Interoperable Smart devices*, volume 3362 of *Lecture Notes in Computer Science*, pages 49–69. Springer, 2005.
- [2] David Detlefs, Greg Nelson, and James B. Saxe. Simplify: A theorem prover for program checking. Technical Report HPL-2003-148, HP Labs, July 2003.
- [3] Edsger W. Dijkstra. *A Discipline of Programming*. Prentice Hall, Englewood Cliffs, NJ, 1976.
- [4] Cormac Flanagan, K. Rustan M. Leino, Mark Lillibridge, Greg Nelson, James B. Saxe, and Raymie Stata. Extended static checking for Java. In *Proceedings of the 2002 ACM SIGPLAN Conference on Programming Language Design and Implementation (PLDI)*, volume 37, number 5 in *SIGPLAN Notices*, pages 234–245. ACM, May 2002.
- [5] John V. Guttag and James J. Horning, editors. *Larch: Languages and Tools for Formal Specification*. Texts and Monographs in Computer Science. Springer-Verlag, 1993. With Stephen J. Garland, Kevin D. Jones, Andrés Modet, and Jeannette M. Wing.
- [6] K. Rustan M. Leino, James B. Saxe, and Raymie Stata. Checking Java programs via guarded commands. In Bart Jacobs, Gary T. Leavens, Peter Müller, and Arnd Poetzsch-Heffter, editors, *Formal Techniques for Java Programs*, Technical Report 251. Fernuniversität Hagen, May 1999. Also available as Technical Note 1999-002, Compaq Systems Research Center.

- [7] Greg Nelson. A generalization of Dijkstra's calculus. *ACM Transactions on Programming Languages and Systems*, 11(4):517–561, 1989.
- [8] Spec# homepage. <http://research.microsoft.com/SpecSharp>, 2005.