Automatically Testing String Solvers

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ABSTRACT
SMT solvers are at the basis of many applications, such as program verification, program synthesis, and test case generation. For all these applications to provide reliable results, SMT solvers must answer queries correctly. However, since they are complex, highly-optimized software systems, ensuring their correctness is challenging. In particular, state-of-the-art testing techniques do not reliably detect when an SMT solver is unsound.

In this paper, we present an automatic approach for generating test cases that reveal soundness errors in the implementations of string solvers, as well as potential completeness and performance issues. We synthesize input formulas that are satisfiable or unsatisfiable by construction and use this ground truth as test oracle. We automatically apply satisfiability-preserving transformations to generate increasingly-complex formulas, which allows us to detect many errors with simple inputs and, thus, facilitates debugging.

The experimental evaluation shows that our technique effectively reveals bugs in the implementation of widely-used SMT solvers and applies also to other types of solvers, such as model-counting constraint solvers. We focus on strings here, but our approach carries over to other theories and their combinations.

CCS CONCEPTS
• Software and its engineering → Software testing and debugging.

KEYWORDS
automatic testing, soundness testing, string solvers, SMT solvers

1 INTRODUCTION
SMT solvers have a large variety of applications, from program verification and synthesis to symbolic execution and concolic testing. For all these tools to be reliable and usable in practice, the SMT solvers have to provide correct answers.

For a given formula, an SMT solver returns either sat (together with a model that associates a value to each free variable, such that the formula evaluates to true), or unsat (and optionally a set of clauses that lead to a contradiction—the unsat core). A solver is unsound if it yields an incorrect result, that is, yields sat for an unsatisfiable formula or unsat for a satisfiable one. It is also unsound if it correctly yields sat or unsat, but produces an invalid model or an incorrect unsat core, i.e., a sub-formula that is satisfiable.

Since SMT solvers support undecidable theories, they cannot always determine whether a formula is satisfiable and may, therefore, sometimes return unknown. However, a solver is unnecessarily incomplete if it returns unknown for a decidable formula, such as $y = x + 2$, which falls into Presburger arithmetic. It is also undesirable for a solver to timeout (i.e., not to be able to solve a query within a given timespan). Such a result often points to performance issues.

SMT solvers combine multiple communicating decision procedures for various theories (e.g., uninterpreted functions, linear/non-linear arithmetic, bit vectors, arrays, strings, etc.). As a result, they are complex software systems, and checking that their implementations are sound is, thus, challenging.

To illustrate the errors solvers can make, consider for example the SMT formula from List. 1. It uses two string variables, t and u, and checks if it is possible to obtain the constant string “a” by replacing the first occurrence of t by u in an empty string. This is the case according to the SMT-LIB standard [12] if t is empty and u is “a”. Nevertheless, Z3-seq [7, 15] and Z3str3 [13], two widely-used SMT solvers, incorrectly report unsat for this formula.

Listing 1: Soundness bug in Z3-seq and Z3str3. We use the syntax of the SMT-LIB standard, which uses prefix notation for operators.

State-of-the-art testing techniques for SMT solvers do not reliably detect such errors. Fuzzing [16] generates formulas that may crash the solvers or reveal performance issues, but do not reliably detect soundness problems. Approaches based on differential testing [28] compare the results of different solvers. Different results may indicate a soundness problem in one of them. However, determining which solver is at fault requires manual effort. Moreover, differential testing requires at least one solver that provides the correct result; this might not be the case in situations like the one described above, where Z3-seq and Z3str3 are both incorrect.

In this paper, we propose a novel technique for automatically generating test cases that reveal, besides others, soundness issues in the implementation of SMT solvers. We synthesize input formulas that are sat or unsat by construction and use this ground truth as test oracle. Our technique generates sequences of input formulas of increasing complexity by applying satisfiability-preserving transformations. In this way, the bugs are often found with simple inputs, which facilitates error localization and debugging. We automatically construct a model for each satisfiable formula and use this ground truth as test oracle. Our technique generates sequences of input formulas of increasing complexity by applying satisfiability-preserving transformations. In this way, the bugs are often found with simple inputs, which facilitates error localization and debugging. We automatically construct a model for each satisfiable formula and use this ground truth as test oracle. Together with the known ground...
truth, these formulas are used to automatically test the implementations of SMT solvers. Our technique generates satisfiable formulas together with models, and unsatisfiable formulas together with unsat cores; as they are incrementally complex, these formulas facilitate debugging and faster error localization.

- We implemented our technique and evaluated it on three widely-used SMT solvers, Z3-seq [7, 15], Z3str3 [13], and CVC4 [25], as well as on the model-counting constraint solver MT-ABC [11]. Our experimental results show that our technique effectively detects soundness problems, and outperforms state-of-the-art fuzzing techniques in doing so. Our approach can also reveal other types of errors, such as performance, completeness or precision issues.

Outline. The rest of this paper is organized as follows: In Sect. 2, we give a high-level overview of our solution for constructing sat and unsat formulas; the details are given in Sect. 3. In Sect. 4, we discuss the results of our evaluation. We discuss related work in Sect. 5 and conclude in Sect. 6.

2 OVERVIEW

Our approach automatically generates SMT formulas that are satisfiable or unsatisfiable by construction. These formulas are used as inputs for black-box tests, while the ground truth is used as test oracle. Our formula construction approach consists of two steps:

1. We generate simple formulas with known truth values.
2. From these formulas, we derive more complex, equisatisfiable formulas through automatic transformations.

To perform these steps, our generator requires a set of operations supported by the theory under test, together with their reference semantics. For concreteness, in this paper we use the SMT-LIB standard [12] as the reference semantics, because it provides a rigorous description of the theories. Most widely-used SMT solvers adhere to SMT-LIB to facilitate comparisons (e.g., in SMT competitions [4]) and to enable the side-by-side usage of multiple solvers [22].

Our technique tests whether the implementation of an SMT solver complies with the provided reference semantics. For solvers that intentionally deviate from the SMT-LIB standard, it is straightforward to parameterize our technique with an alternative reference semantics and use that to test the implementation. For instance, the CVC4 documentation does not define the result of the replace operation when the second argument is the empty string [1]. One can use our technique with the SMT-LIB semantics to check for such deviations from the standard, and with an alternative reference semantics to check for errors in the implementation.

Tab. 1 gives an overview of the operations supported by the string theory; these operations have, according to SMT-LIB, deterministic semantics [5]. As some of the operations take or yield integers, reasoning about them also involves simple linear integer arithmetic.

In the following subsections, we give an overview of our construction approach for satisfiable and unsatisfiable formulas.

2.1 Generating satisfiable formulas

An SMT formula is satisfiable (sat) with respect to some background theory if there exists at least one model (i.e., variable assignment) within the theory such that the formula evaluates to true [14]. For example, the formula $x + x = 3$ is satisfiable in the theory of real numbers, as it is possible to find at least one solution to this equation ($x = 1.5$). Nonetheless, the formula is unsatisfiable (i.e., does not have a model) in the integer arithmetic theory.

In the first step of our generation technique for sat formulas, we construct formulas that test each operation in isolation; this allows developers to localize and fix bugs faster. We start with the operations supported by the theory under test and automatically derive a test case for each of them, in which the parameters and the result of each operation are unconstrained. These simple formulas are therefore trivially satisfiable.

\[
\text{(assert (= (str.indexOf string set) result))}
\]

Listing 2: The simple sat formula for replace, generated in step 1.

An example formula that we synthesize during the first step is shown in List. 2. This formula is satisfiable, since for all string arguments $s$, $t$, $u$, there is a string $v$ that is equal to the result of the replace operation (because all string operations are total functions). Even though they are very simple, these formulas can still reveal bugs. For example, Z3-seq returns unknown for the SMT formula from List. 3, which tests the indexOf operation. Since this initial test case is minimal (and, in particular, does not involve any other operations), it facilitates identifying the source of this incompleteness: most likely a bug in the handling of indexOf in the decision procedure.

To test more complex cases, as well as the interaction between different operations, step 2 of our approach derives additional test cases by automatically applying a set of transformations on the formulas synthesized before. These transformations preserve the satisfiability of the initial formulas, thus creating equisatisfiable, but more complex ones, with more constrained models and more (or more complex) terms. We illustrate a very simple transformation here and present more complex ones in Sect. 3.1.
To show that a formula is unsat, we start from the following observation: conjoining a formula and the negation of an equivalent formula always results in an unsatisfiable formula. That is, for equivalent formulas $A$ and $B$, the formula $F$ defined as $\neg A \land B$ is unsatisfiable.

We obtain interesting formulas $F$ by leveraging equivalences between different operations of the string theory. Out of the 12 string operations from Tab. 1, only $\text{concat}$, $\text{length}$, and $\text{equals}$ are considered primitive operations. All other string operations can be expressed through these primitive operations [35]. Tab. 2 presents an overview of equivalent formulas for non-primitive string operations. This table is an extended variant of the preprocessing rules from [35] and of the string function definitions from [10]. In the following, we use the term equivalent formulas to refer to the formulas from Tab. 2.

In the first step of our input construction technique, we automatically generate a test case from each of the 12 equivalences by conjoining the negation of the formula from column 2 in Tab. 2 and the corresponding formula from column 3. In this step, we omit existential quantifiers in the formulas from column 3 (that is, the existentially-quantified becomes a fresh free variable). This is possible because all existential quantifiers in the equivalent formulas are in positive positions, and $Q(x)$ is (uns)satisfiable if and only if $\exists x : Q(x)$ is (uns)satisfiable. Since the resulting formulas do not use any existentially-quantified variables, we use the terms quantifier and quantified variable in the rest of the paper to refer to universal quantifier and universally-quantified variable, respectively.

For the quantifiers from Tab. 2, we specified patterns (also called triggers), which are used by the solver to decide how to instantiate the quantifiers and, thus, affect the search for a model [21].

An example test case that we synthesize in step 1 and corresponds to E3 is shown in Fig. 1. For this test, CVC4 times out, and Z3str3 non-deterministically returns timeout, unsat, unknown, or segmentation fault. In the rest of the paper, we show examples in mathematical notation (not in SMT-LIB), to improve readability. Versions in SMT-LIB syntax are part of the supplementary material.

In the second step of our approach, we automatically transform the previously generated formulas into equisatisfiable, but more complex ones. These formulas either have larger unsat cores, requiring the solver to combine more terms to derive a contradiction, or contain additional terms that are not relevant for proving unsat, but may complicate the proof search for the solver.

To show, for example, that the formula $x \neq 0 \land x = 0$ is unsatisfiable for all integers $x$, the solver relies on the fact that no number can be at the same time zero and non-zero. If the conjunct $x = 0$ is replaced by $x' = 0 \land 2x' - x' = x$ then all three conjuncts contribute to proving unsat. By removing any of them, the formula becomes satisfiable. Thus, these three terms represent the minimal unsat core. The transformations that we designed for the unsat case, described in detail in Sect. 3.2, are based on similar rewritings.

This concludes the high-level overview of our approach. Given an executable version of the reference semantics and the equivalent formulas, test case construction is fully automatic. In particular, the ground truth is always known, so all the synthesized formulas can be directly used for testing, without additional human effort for constructing the test oracles. Our approach produces increasingly complex test cases, which often allows developers to detect errors with simple inputs such that errors are easy to reproduce and debug.

The main ingredients of our technique are not specific to the string theory. One can construct quantifier-free sat formulas from any theory that has an executable semantics, such as fixed-size bit-vectors or integers. Moreover, unsat formulas can be generated as long as operations or constants from the theory can be expressed in multiple ways. For instance, the fact that $x$ is a positive real can be expressed as $x \geq 0$ but also as $\exists y : \text{Real} : x = y \ast y$ (every positive number has a square root). The constant 0 can be
also defined through operations from the theory of real numbers: 
\[0 = z + (−z).\] From these equalities, one can generate the formula 
\[-[x ≥ (z + (−z))] ∧ (x = y + y), unsatisfiable by construction. \]
Similar rewritings and equalities do exist for other theories.

Our technique is also not specific to SMT solvers. Since it treats the solver under test as a black box, it can be also applied to test the soundness and precision of other solvers, for instance, model-counting constraint solvers, such as SMC [26], ABC [10], and MT-ABC [11]. These solvers determine the satisfiability of a formula by counting or approximating the number of possible models.

3 SATISFIABILITY-PRESERVING TRANSFORMATIONS

In this section, we describe our technique for constructing complex SMT formulas from the string theory through satisfiability-preserving transformations. The transformations for the sat and the unsat case are presented in the following subsections.

3.1 Transformations for satisfiable formulas

In the first step of the sat input construction technique (described in Sect. 2.1), we synthesize simple formulas, with unconstrained parameters and results, which are trivially satisfiable. The second step strengthens the initial formulas by adding constraints on the values that the free variables can have. Furthermore, the second step synthesizes formulas that may contain multiple operations to test their interactions.

We present two satisfiability-preserving transformations in the following. Constant assignment uses an executable semantics to compute models for simple sat formulas and then transforms these formulas by replacing some of their free variables by values from the model. Term synthesis enumerates terms from the theory under test and evaluates them using an executable semantics. It then substitutes free variables from the simple input formulas with more complex terms, such that the formulas remain satisfiable. Both transformations yield quantifier-free sat formulas.

Table 2: Equivalent formulas for non-primitive string operations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Id</th>
<th>String operation</th>
<th>Equivalent formula</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>E1</td>
<td>at(s, off) = res</td>
<td>res = substr(s, off, 1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E2</td>
<td>intToStr(n) = res</td>
<td>(res = &quot;0&quot; if n &lt; 0) ∧ (res = &quot;0&quot; if n = 0) ∧ ... ∧ (res = &quot;9&quot; if n = 9) ∧ (res = intToStr(n/10) + intToStr(n%10) if n ≥ 10)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E3</td>
<td>replace(s, t, u) = res</td>
<td>i = indexOf(s, t, 0) ∧ (∃ s1, s2, s3 : s = s1 ++ s2 ++ s3 ∧ length(s) = i ∧ s2 = t ∧ res = s1 ++ u ++ s3 if i ≥ 0) ∧ (res = s otherwise)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E4</td>
<td>substr(s, off, len) = res</td>
<td>(∃ s1, s2, s3 : s = s1 ++ s2 ++ s3 ∧ length(s) = off ∧ length(s) = len ∧ res = s2 if off ≥ 0 ∧ off &lt; length(s) ∧ len ≥ 0) ∧ (res = &quot;&quot; otherwise)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E5</td>
<td>indexOf(s, t, off) = res</td>
<td>(off = 0 if</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E6</td>
<td>strToInt(s) = res</td>
<td>(intToStr(res) = s if s ≠ &quot;&quot; ∧ ∃ j : (at(s, j) = 0 ∨ ... ∨ at(s, j) = &quot;9&quot;) ∧ (res = −1 otherwise)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E7</td>
<td>contains(s, t) = true</td>
<td>∃ s1, s3 : s = s1 ++ t ++ s3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E8</td>
<td>contains(s, t) = false</td>
<td>∀ s1, s2, s3 : s = s1 ++ s2 ++ s3 ⇒ (res ≠ t)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E9</td>
<td>prefixOf(s, t) = true</td>
<td>∃ t2 : t = t2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E10</td>
<td>prefixOf(s, t) = false</td>
<td>∀ t1, t2 : (t1 ++ t2) : (t = t1 ++ t2) ⇒ (res ≠ t)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E11</td>
<td>suffixOf(s, t) = true</td>
<td>∃ t1 : t = t1 ++ s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E12</td>
<td>suffixOf(s, t) = false</td>
<td>∀ t1, t2 : (t1 ++ t2) : (t = t1 ++ t2) ⇒ (res ≠ t)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

s, t, u, s1, s2, s3, s4, t1, t2: type String; n, off, len, i, j: type Int   All formulas are implicitly universally quantified over all the arguments. Patterns (triggers) for universal quantifiers are shown between |; ++ denotes string concatenation.

3.1 Transformations for satisfiable formulas

In the first step of the sat input construction technique (described in Sect. 2.1), we synthesize simple formulas, with unconstrained parameters and results, which are trivially satisfiable. The second step strengthens the initial formulas by adding constraints on the values that the free variables can have. Furthermore, the second step synthesizes formulas that may contain multiple operations to test their interactions.

We present two satisfiability-preserving transformations in the following. Constant assignment uses an executable semantics to compute models for simple sat formulas and then transforms these formulas by replacing some of their free variables by values from the model. Term synthesis enumerates terms from the theory under test and evaluates them using an executable semantics. It then substitutes free variables from the simple input formulas with more complex terms, such that the formulas remain satisfiable. Both transformations yield quantifier-free sat formulas.

Constant assignment transformation. Many software errors are caused by the incorrect handling of corner cases. For this reason, the first transformation is inspired by boundary testing and consists of assigning predefined constants to (some of) the free variables of the initial formulas.

The set of predefined constants is configurable; we used typical boundary values in our experiments. For example, for the variables of type String we considered empty strings, strings of length one, as well as strings containing quotes, escape sequences, and non-ASCII characters in hexadecimal format. For integer values, we picked a small set of valid and invalid indices and lengths, such as −1, 0, 2. The string operations cannot have other types of parameters, but some of them have boolean results (see column 3 from Tab. 1), for which we considered both true and false.

Given the simple input formulas that we generated in step 1 (see Sect. 2.1), we use concrete executions to determine their models. For this purpose, we implement an executable semantics for all string operations, based on the reference semantics, in our case, the SMT-LIB specification [5]. This implementation is straightforward since most programming languages (e.g., Java) already provide string libraries that offer most of the operations. Therefore, the implementation effort mostly consists of ensuring that the semantics of these library operations and the SMT-LIB standard match. For example, the Java String.replace method replaces all occurrences of t in s, whereas the SMT-LIB operation replaces just the first occurrence. Moreover, converting any negative integer to a string in Java will
yield its textual representation, whereas the SMT-LIB result will be the empty string. To handle these and other similar mismatches, we implement a wrapper for the Java string operations according to the SMT-LIB semantics. This wrapper represents our executable semantics (see the supplementary material for an excerpt).

We then exhaustively evaluate each operation on all the possible combinations of constant arguments from the set of predefined values. As all the string operations are total functions [5], the evaluation always succeeds, producing models for the simple formulas from step 1. The constant assignment transformation obtains new input formulas by replacing some of the free variables in a simple formula by constants from the computed model. Since this transformation is based on valid models, it is guaranteed to produce satisfiable formulas.

Consider, for example, the replace operation, for which we already generated a simple test case during the first step (see List. 2). If the set of predefined constants includes the string “a” and the empty string then one of the concrete evaluations is replace(“a”, “a”) = “a”. We can use this computed model to derive several new input formulas. For instance, we can replace the free variables s and v in the simple formula by the corresponding constants from the model (here, an empty string and “a”, respectively) to obtain a new sat formula: replace(“a”, “a”). This formula, presented in SMT-LIB notation in List. 1, revealed soundness bugs in Z3str3.

We run the solver on the transformed formula and report an error if the result is different from sat. Otherwise, we check whether the solver produces a correct model using our executable semantics: we evaluate the string operation on the parameters from the model generated by the solver and compare the result of the evaluation to the result from the generated model. If they are unequal, the solver is unsound; we found such cases in our evaluation (see Sect. 4.1).

**Term synthesis transformation.** To test interactions between different operations, we transform the simple formulas from step 1 by replacing some free variables with more complex terms. We use terms from the string theory, which are sufficient to supply string, integer, and boolean parameters or results for the string operations.

Starting from a set of constants, we synthesize all type-correct applications of string operations up to a predefined bound and evaluate them using our executable semantics; this produces a pool of terms. We transform a simple formula from step 1 in four steps: (1) We replace the arguments of the operation under test with terms from the pool. (2) We evaluate the resulting term in the executable semantics. (3) We replace the result variable in the simple formula by another term from the pool with the same result, which ensures that the equality holds. (4) The complex formula used to test the solvers is then obtained by replacing the constants in the resulting equality by free variables, which yields a sat formula. It is important to represent multiple occurrences of the same constant by the same free variable, to connect the operations more tightly and to further constrain the set of possible models. The transformation is applied exhaustively for all terms from the pool.

To illustrate our technique, let us assume that the initial set of strings includes the constants “a” and “”, and the initial set of ints contains the value -1. The pool will then contain, among others, the terms at(“a”, -1) (with concrete value “”), indexOf(“a”, “a”, -1) (with concrete value 0), and concat(“”, “”) (with value “”). Starting from the simple formula for the at operation, the transformation proceeds as follows: (1) We substitute the arguments of at to obtain, for instance, at(at(“a”, -1), indexOf(“a”, “a”, -1)). (2) Evaluating this term yields ””. (3) We equate the term with another term with the same result and obtain, for example, at(at(“a”, -1), indexOf(“a”, “a”, -1)) = concat(“”, “”). (4) We replace the constants “a”, “”, and -1 with three fresh variables tmp_str0, tmp_str2, and tmp_int1, which yields the input formula from Fig. 2. This formula exposes a soundness bug in Z3str3, which incorrectly returns unsat. Note that when the operations at, indexOf, and concat were tested separately, the solver returned the expected results. It is their combination that exhibits the error. The formula from Fig. 2 was obtained with bound 1 for the term pool, that is, the arguments and result are all single applications of an operation on constants; larger bounds lead to more complex formulas.

Once we have synthesized the sat input formula, executing the test and checking the correctness of the model returned by the solver is analogous to the constant assignment transformation above. Note that one can easily combine the two transformations we proposed by replacing only some of the constant occurrences in the last step of the term synthesis transformation with free variables.

### 3.2 Transformations for unsatisfiable formulas

In the first step of the unsat input construction technique (described in Sect. 2.2), we test each non-primitive string operation together with its equivalent formula. Recall that if two formulas A and B are equivalent then the formula \( F := \neg A \land B \) is by construction unsatisfiable. To obtain more complex unsat formulas, we transform the simple ones into formulas with larger unsat cores. Thus, the solver needs to reason about more properties to prove unsatisfiability.

Consider a simple input formula \( F \) that contains one variable \( x \) that occurs in both \( A \) and \( B \), and one variable \( y \) that is existentially bound in \( B \) and, thus, becomes a free variable after the existential quantifier is removed (see Sect. 2.2). This formula can be written as:

\[
F(x, y) := \neg A(x) \land B(x, y)
\]

To obtain an unsat formula with larger unsat core, we replace all the occurrences of \( x \) in \( B \) by a fresh variable \( x_{fresh} \) and conjoin a clause \( C(x, x_{fresh}) \) from the string theory that implies \( x = x_{fresh} \). The resulting formula is still unsat, but the unsat core now also includes \( C(x, x_{fresh}) \):

\[
F(x, x_{fresh}, y) := \neg A(x) \land B(x_{fresh}, y) \land C(x, x_{fresh})
\]

Based on this general idea, we perform three transformations on the simple input formulas, which are described next. With all three transformations, the unsat core of the resulting formula is unique and known by construction and, thus, can be used to check the correctness and minimality of the unsat core returned by the solver.

**Variable replacement transformation.** Our first transformation chooses a variable \( x \) that occurs freely in \( A \) and \( B \) and constructs a more complex formula as described above.

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**Figure 2:** A sat formula generated in step 2 through term synthesis, which exposes a soundness bug in Z3str3. \( \text{tmp}_{\text{int}} \) has type Int, \( \text{tmp}_{\text{str}} \) and \( \text{tmp}_{\text{str2}} \) have type String.
Table 3: Equalities between non-constant and constant strings (NC1–NC7 and C1–C15), integers (NC8 and C16–C31), and booleans (C32–C39)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Id</th>
<th>Equality</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NC1</td>
<td>at(s, 0) = x if length(s) = 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NC2</td>
<td>concat(s, &quot;&quot;) = s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NC3</td>
<td>concat(&quot;&quot;, s) = s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NC4</td>
<td>replace(s, x, x) = s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NC5</td>
<td>replace(s, t, u) = s if contains(s, t) = false</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NC6</td>
<td>replace(s, t, u) = s if indexOf(s, t, 0) = -1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NC7</td>
<td>substr(s, 0, length(s)) = s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NC8</td>
<td>indexOf(s, &quot;&quot;, 0) ≥ 0 if off ≥ 0 ∧ off ≤ length(s)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C1</td>
<td>at(s, off) = &quot;&quot; if off &lt; 0 ∨ off ≥ length(s)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C2</td>
<td>concat(&quot;&quot;, &quot;&quot;) = &quot;&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C3</td>
<td>intToStr(n) = &quot;&quot; if off &lt; 0 ∨ off ≥ length(s)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C4</td>
<td>substr(s, off, len) = &quot;&quot; if off &lt; 0 ∨ off ≥ length(s) ∨ len ≤ 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C5</td>
<td>intToStr(n) = &quot;0&quot; if n = 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C6</td>
<td>length(s) = 0 if s = &quot;&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C7</td>
<td>indexOf(s, t, off) = -1 if off &lt; 0 ∨ off &gt; length(s)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C8</td>
<td>strToInt(s) = &quot;i&quot; if s = &quot;&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C9</td>
<td>strToInt(s) = &quot;i&quot; if at(s, i) ≠ &quot;0&quot; ∨ ... ∨ at(s, i) ≠ &quot;9&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C10</td>
<td>length(s) = 0 if s = &quot;&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C11</td>
<td>strToInt(s) = 0 if s = &quot;0&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C12</td>
<td>strToInt(s) = 1 if s = &quot;1&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C13</td>
<td>strToInt(s) = 9 if s = &quot;9&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C14</td>
<td>contains(s, s) = true</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C15</td>
<td>equals(s, s) = true</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C16</td>
<td>prefixOf(&quot;&quot;, s) = true</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C17</td>
<td>prefixOf(s, s) = true</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C18</td>
<td>suffixOf(s, s) = true</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C19</td>
<td>contains(s, t) = false if indexOf(s, t, 0) = -1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C20</td>
<td>equals(s, t) = false if length(s) ≠ length(t)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C21</td>
<td>prefixOf(s, t) = false if contains(s, t) = false</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C22</td>
<td>suffixOf(s, t) = false if contains(s, t) = false</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The same transformation can also be applied to the other free variables s, t, and u. It is also possible to replace multiple variables simultaneously, but we omitted such transformations in our experiments. There, we explore each combination of one variable and a corresponding equality.

Constant replacement transformation. Analogously to the previous transformation, we can replace a constant c by a term that evaluates to c. Starting from a simple formula \( F(x, y) := \neg A(x) \land B(c, y) \), we construct the following formula for some constant c:

\[
F(x, z_{fresh}, y) := \neg A(x) \land B(z_{fresh}, y) \land C(c, z_{fresh})
\]

To obtain the additional clause \( C(c, z_{fresh}) \), we use known equalities from the string theory. The equalities C1–C40 from Tab. 3 all equate a string term to a constant. For a chosen constant c, we select one of the equalities of the form \( i = c \) and define \( C(c, z_{fresh}) := z_{fresh} = i \). As in the previous transformation, this step preserves unsatisfiability and enlarges the unsat core by the additional equality. If instead of rewriting \( res \), in Fig. 3 we replace the constant 0 by C20 then we obtain an unsat formula that exposes a soundness bug in Z3-seq.

Noise introduction transformation. We also experimented with a variation of the variable replacement transformation, where we apply the same transformation to a variable y that occurs freely in B, but not in A. These variables were initially introduced by existential quantifiers in the equivalent formulas from Tab. 2. Consequently, renaming them to \( y_{fresh} \) and conjoining \( Y(y, y_{fresh}) \) to the formula does not extend the unsat core. Nonetheless, this transformation introduces noise, that is, additional variables and terms that may obfuscate the proof of unsatisfiability.

It is also possible to apply the noise introduction transformation to universally-bound variables in B. In this case, the additional clause from Tab. 3 is added under the quantifier such that it implies the quantifier’s body; the new variables that occur in the clause are added as universally-bound variables, and the pattern of the quantifier is extended to mention all the quantified variables. The new triggering terms are directly derived from the additional equality, and the side condition is added as an implication.

In our experiments, noise introduction produced test cases that did reveal errors. Fig. 4 shows an example, where the quantified variable \( t_2 \) from E10 was rewritten using NC7. This formula exposes a soundness issue and non-deterministic behavior for Z3str3, which returns sat or segmentation fault.

Note that the three transformations can be combined and all of them can be applied multiple times, to increase the complexity of the previously synthesized formulas. In our experiments, each transformation was applied separately and the second step of our technique was performed only once, to facilitate error localization.
We also used the option `strings-exp` and `smt.core.minimize` we set the option (only for Z3-seq and Z3str3), to reduce non-determinism. We used (the default string solver from Z3) encodes string operations into valid SMT-LIB 2.6 format [12]; patterns are part of this standard. The solvers use mathematical integers, whereas our executable semantics uses bounded integers. We manually inspected all models and repeated the experiments. The results were the same.

The experimental results show that our approach outperforms fuzzing and is also effective in detecting bugs in the implementation of other types of solvers, as we demonstrate on the automata-based solver MT-ABC [11].

4 EXPERIMENTAL EVALUATION

In this section, we present the results obtained by applying our test case generation technique on three widely-used SMT solvers: Z3-seq (version 4.7.1), Z3str3 (version 4.7.1), and CVC4 (version 1.6). The two Z3 string solvers use different approaches: Z3-seq (the default string solver from Z3) encodes string operations into operations over sequences, while Z3str3 supports strings as built-in types. Our experiments show that our technique is able to synthesize formulas that reveal soundness bugs in two of the three tested solvers. They also uncover completeness and performance issues.

The experimental results show that our approach outperforms fuzzing and is also effective in detecting bugs in the implementation of other types of solvers, as we demonstrate on the automata-based solver MT-ABC [11].

4.1 Testing SMT solvers

In the first experiment, we tested the compliance of Z3-seq, Z3str3, and CVC4 string operations with the semantics defined in the SMT-LIB standard.

Experimental setup. All the formulas that we synthesized are encoded into SMT-LIB 2.6 format [12]; patterns are part of this standard. We used the SMT-LIB Unicode Strings Theory [5] as the reference semantics and our wrapper of the Java string operations for the executable semantics. We set a timeout of 15 seconds for each test and we fixed the seed for the solvers’ random number generator, the sat.random_seed (for all three solvers) and the smt.random_seed (only for Z3-seq and Z3str3), to reduce non-determinism. We used the options produce-models and produce-unsat-cores to enable the generation of the models and of the unsat cores, respectively. We also used the option strings-exp for CVC4 to enable non-primitive string operations and the option full-saturation-quant to enable enumerative instantiation [31]. For the Z3-based solvers, we set the option smt.core.minimize to true to obtain the minimal unsat core; this option was not supported by CVC4 at the time of writing. For all other options, we used the default values; in particular, we did not use the solvers’ own ability to check the validity of the generated models. The experiments were conducted on a 2.5 GHz Intel Core i7 CPU with 16 GB memory.

Results. The results obtained for the three solvers are summarized in Tab. 4. In this table, we report the expected result (column 1), the test category/transformation as described in Sect. 2 and Sect. 3 (column 2), the total number of tests generated for each of these categories (column 3), and the actual result returned by each solver (in the remaining columns). This result can be: incorrect model (when the solver correctly returned sat, but the produced model is not valid, i.e., evaluating the original formula on the model, using our executable semantics, yields false), incorrect unsat core (when the solver returned unsat, but the generated unsat core is not the minimal, expected one), sat, unsat, unknown, timeout, or error (when the solver crashed or returned an error message). For the unsat formulas, we report the results for each category without using patterns for quantifiers and with the patterns specified in Tab. 2. All our sat formulas are quantifier-free. When the patterns are not provided, the solvers will try to infer them automatically.

The categories operation and equivalent formula refer to simple formulas synthesized in step 1 for testing each operation in isolation, or together with its equivalent formula from Tab. 2, respectively. The category larger unsat core includes the test cases obtained by applying the variable and constant replacement transformations from Sect. 3.2. For term synthesis, each variable was obtained by exactly one operation. For the larger unsat core and noise introduction transformations, each variable and constant was rewritten in one step, by applying all the corresponding equalities from Tab. 3. In each test case, only one of them was rewritten, with all its occurrences.

Soundness issues. The number of tests that failed due to soundness issues, for each respective category, is showed with gray background. We classify an answer as being unsound if the solver returned sat instead of unsat, or vice versa, or it generated an invalid model. An incorrect unsat core represents a soundness problem if the generated unsat core is not unsatisfiable. We observed this kind of error only for Z3str3, for the larger unsat core transformation and for the equivalent formula category. For noise introduction, the cores generated by all the solvers were always valid, but not necessary minimal; we consider that an imprecision, not a soundness issue.

For CVC4, none of the test cases revealed soundness issues. By contrast, Z3str3 has the highest number of tests that fail due to soundness bugs for both sat and unsat formulas. Some example inputs for which Z3str3 returned an incorrect result have already been presented in the previous sections. Fig. 5 shows another type of unsoundness, i.e., a sat formula obtained through the constant assignment transformation for which the solver correctly answered sat, but generated an invalid model: tmp_str0 = "azededs6", tmp_str1 = "ede", and tmp_str2 = 2; with these inputs, the result of indexOf is 2, not 0 as prescribed by the input formula in Fig. 5.

Note that Z3str3 does not support non-ASCII strings yet. Out of the 245 sat formulas unsoundly solved by Z3str3, 22 contain such strings. For a fair evaluation, we replaced them with ASCII strings and repeated the experiments. The results were the same.

The solvers use mathematical integers, whereas our executable semantics uses bounded integers. We manually inspected all models rejected by our executable semantics that contain large numbers. All of them were valid and are, thus, not reported as errors in Tab. 4.

Other issues. Besides soundness problems, our tests revealed various completeness and performance issues, as well as implementation failures. For instance, the unknown result points to a completeness issue. Z3-seq returned unknown for approx. 17% of our sat formulas, blaming incompleteness in the sequence theory as the
work optimally for non-primitive string operations. We reported 10 6 5
3 3 3
Figure 6: A sat formula for which Z3-seq returns different
2 0 - 1 - 25
0 0 14 0 - 0 - 67
0 1 0 0
IM IC S U K T E
0 0 0 - 67 0 0 16 0 - 109 - 23 - 0 0 0
IM IC S U K T E
5 0 0

CVC4 is the most robust solver in our experiments, as the results
also considered another value for the random seeds, namely 1465.
ous configurations. For example, to test the solvers’ robustness, we
found bugs is a
number of issues;
str
= issues we could
within the scope
of this paper:
issues caused by
regular expressions,
user-defined functions,
bit-vectors, or different configurations
were excluded;
issues we could find by manually inspecting the failing tests.

The known bugs are summarized in Tab. 5. From the total number
of issues (column 1 for each solver), we removed the ones that are
not in the scope of this paper, that is, contain regular expressions,
user-defined functions based on string operations, or formulas com-
bining string operations with bit vectors, which we do not support.

Table 4: Overview of our results for Z3-seq, Z3str3, and CVC4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expected result</th>
<th>Category / Transformation</th>
<th># of tests generated</th>
<th>Z3-seq</th>
<th>Z3str3</th>
<th>CVC4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sat operation</td>
<td></td>
<td>24</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sat constant assignment</td>
<td></td>
<td>4714</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>4158</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sat term synthesis</td>
<td></td>
<td>1394</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>842</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

unsat equivalent formula 12 - 0 0 9 0 3 0 - 0 0 8 0 3 1 - 0 0 5 0 7 0
unsat [-p] equivalent formula 12 - 0 0 0 0 0 0 3 0 - 0 0 8 0 3 1 - 0 0 5 0 7 0
unsat larger unsat core 268 - 0 1 153 10 104 0 - 10 5 120 12 71 50 - 0 0 89 0 177 2
unsat [-p] larger unsat core 268 - 0 1 153 9 105 0 - 7 6 120 12 78 50 - 0 89 0 176 3
unsat noise introduction 178 - 67 0 50 37 24 0 - 21 10 58 5 41 43 - 23 0 26 0 125 4
unsat [-p] noise introduction 178 - 67 0 42 36 33 0 - 22 16 52 8 30 50 - 25 0 24 0 123 6

Table 5: Known bugs for Z3-seq, Z3str3, and CVC4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th># issues</th>
<th>Z3-seq</th>
<th>Z3str3</th>
<th>CVC4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>closed</td>
<td>9 6 5  5 3 3 3 5 5 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>open</td>
<td>5 3 1 10 6 5 0 0 0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The test cases that failed in our experiments do not necessarily refer to unique bugs. This is a general problem of any testing tool and is orthogonal to our formulas synthesis technique. Several approaches have been proposed in the literature for clustering static analysis alarms [29]; we could apply these ideas to our work, to automatically group the failing tests into similarity-based clusters.

Known bugs. Due to the large number of failed tests and the complexity of the implementation of the SMT solvers, it is not feasible to manually determine how many distinct bugs we uncovered.

To evaluate how effective our technique is in detecting distinct bugs, we assessed how many of a set of known bugs are found by our test cases. For Z3-seq and Z3str3, we considered the closed issues reported by the users from 23rd May 2018 until 26th January 2019, as well as all the currently open issues with the labels string or z3str3 that were confirmed by the developers and do not explicitly refer to other versions than 4.7.1. Similarly, for CVC4 we considered the issues reported from 25th June 2018 until 17th April 2019 (both closed and still open) related to the string theory.

The known bugs are summarized in Tab. 5. From the total number of issues (column 1 for each solver), we removed the ones that are not in the scope of this paper, that is, contain regular expressions, user-defined functions based on string operations, or formulas combining string operations with bit vectors, which we do not support. We also excluded the issues explicitly caused by additional configuration options that we do not use. We report as found (column 3) only those bugs for which we could manually find a failing test case that exhibits it, based on the description from the comments or inferred from the fix. Known bugs not reported as found might still be detected by our test suite, but we were not able to clearly identify an appropriate test case. That is, the reported number of found bugs is a lower bound on the actual number. This experiment shows that our technique effectively detects bugs that occurred in

contains(intToStr(tmp_int0), at(temp_str2, tmp_int0))
= contains(temp_str2, tmp_str2)

Figure 6: A sat formula for which Z3-seq returns different results for different random seeds. tmp_int0 has type Int, temp_str2 has type String.
actual applications of the tested SMT solvers and were reported and confirmed. In total, we found 15 of the 21 bugs (71%).

**Recent improvements.** As we mentioned above, we reported several bugs for the three solvers, many of which were confirmed or fixed. To assess the recent improvements, we re-ran the failed tests on the latest versions at the time of writing, i.e., 4.8.6 for the Z3-based solvers and 1.7 for CVC4. The cumulative results are presented in the summary part of Tab. 4, in square brackets. The number of failing tests decreased substantially for the Z3-based solvers, at least in part due to our bug reports. For Z3-seq, no sat test still failed due to soundness bugs. For 69 unsat formulas based on intToString, Z3-seq returned sat; we reported 1 new soundness bug, which was confirmed. For Z3str3, 40 sat tests and 33 unsat tests failed due to soundness problems. Some of them correspond to open bugs, and we reported 3 additional soundness errors.

For CVC4, the tests failed due to performance issues and because the minimization of the unsat cores was not yet supported. This feature was added in the meantime and the developers further improved the solver’s performance as a response to our bug reports, but these changes are not yet integrated into the main branch.

All these results were obtained with respect to the SMT-LIB semantics. Even though for some operations the semantics described in the documentation of a particular solver may be slightly different, none of the bugs we reported were considered false positives by the developers. All three solvers intend to comply to the standard.

### 4.2 Comparison with fuzzing

In this subsection, we compare our technique with StringFuzz [16], a state-of-the-art test case generator for string formulas. For this experiment, we ran parts of a test suite generated by StringFuzz (from the folder generated.zip [6]) on the three SMT solvers, using the same versions as for our main experiments, i.e., 4.7.1 for Z3-seq and Z3str3, and 1.6 for CVC4. We discarded the tests for which the expected result was not specified, as for them we could not automatically classify the actual result as correct or not. In total, we included 700 tests in SMT-LIB 2.5 format, from nine different categories: lengths-short, lengths-long, lengths-concats, concats-small, concats-big, concats-balanced, regex-small, regex-big, and different-prefix. All the formulas are quantifier-free and 120 of them include regular expressions. We used the same experimental setup as for our tool (with the random seeds set to 0) and we additionally set the lang option to smt2 for CVC4, to be able to parse the provided input files without errors.

As StringFuzz cannot check if the generated models and unsat cores are correct, we considered that a test passed when the solver answered sat or unsat, as expected. Z3-seq and Z3str3 timed out for 82 tests, and returned correct results for all the others. Similarly, 74 tests failed for CVC4 due to timeout, while all the others passed.

The experiment shows that StringFuzz could detect performance problems, but no soundness or completeness bugs. A reason may be that, besides regex, StringFuzz can generate only formulas with primitive string operations, which are not enough for revealing these classes of errors. In contrast, our technique also uncovered several soundness and completeness errors in the same versions of the solvers, including confirmed bugs.

### 4.3 Testing model-counting constraint solvers

Our technique is not limited to SMT solvers; it can also be applied for testing the implementation of other types of solvers, such as model-counting constraint solvers. In this subsection, we present the results for the automata-based solver MT-ABC [11]. This solver supports both string and numerical constraints, and classifies an input formula as satisfiable if the counted number of models is greater than 0. For some constraints, it may over-approximate the set of solutions, thus imprecisely answering sat for an unsat formula. A sound implementation should not classify a sat formula as unsat.

As MT-ABC accepts as input a subset of the SMT-LIB format, we used a modified version of our tests that contains only supported features. We also replaced the escape sequence for double quotes within a string literal with the corresponding one in MT-ABC. As non-ASCII strings are not yet supported, we discarded the sat tests that included these constants in the formulas or in the possible model. The unsat tests based on E2, E5, E6, E8, E10, E12 from Tab. 2 could not be handled by MT-ABC because it does not support quantifiers and the mod operator, so we removed them as well.

We tested the code version [5], using default options. This commit includes a fix for E7, E9, and E11, based on a crash that we found and reported. We used the SMT-LIB Unicode Strings Theory [5] as the reference semantics, because MT-ABC recently updated the implementation of the string operations to match this standard.

The results are summarized in Tab. 6. The soundness problems are showed with gray background, while the imprecise answers are marked with *. As it can be observed, our technique effectively synthesized formulas that exposed various soundness and precision issues, as well as implementation failures for different string operations. For example, MT-ABC unsoundly returned unsat for the formulas from List. 3 and Fig. 2. We already reported 6 distinct soundness bugs and 6 crashes for constant assignment and for the operation category, because they are easier to debug. The developers confirmed them and appreciated that we sent simple formulas that expose the bugs. As a result, some of them were fixed within a day.

### 4.4 Threats to validity

We identified four threats to the validity of our experiments.

**Ground truth.** Our test case generation relies on an executable semantics of string operations, on the equivalent formulas from Tab. 2 and on the equalities from Tab. 3. Errors in these components could lead to incorrect tests. To mitigate this threat, we carefully
reviewed all components of our technique. Since they are simple variations of the semantics described in the SMT-LIB standard, we are confident that they are correct.

**Non-deterministic behavior.** SMT solvers use randomized algorithms, which can lead to non-deterministic behavior (see Sect. 2.2 for an example). We mitigated this problem by fixing the random seeds and by performing the experiments with two different values. Nevertheless, some of the results reported in Tab. 4 may require multiple runs to be reproduced.

**Pattern selection.** The patterns that we have chosen for the quantified formulas are independent of the way in which each solver handles quantifier instantiations. It is thus possible that other patterns would have been more efficient for proving that certain formulas are unsat or that alternative rewritings of the formulas would better trigger particular instantiations. Nonetheless, our patterns are configurable; we ran the experiments with and without patterns to assess their impact.

**Known bugs.** To determine whether our technique generates test cases that can detect known bugs, we manually matched some of the failed tests against the confirmed bug reports. We reported only clear matches as found bugs. Therefore, we are confident that the numbers from Tab. 5 are a lower bound on the number of known bugs detected by our technique.

**5 RELATED WORK**

The developers of SMT solvers usually create their own test suites, which include manually-written tests and regression tests derived from bug reports [2, 8]. Our approach automates parts of this time-consuming process by automatically generating test cases of incremental complexity, which facilitates debugging and error localization.

**Differential testing.** An effective approach used in practice is differential testing [28], which compares the results produced by different solvers on a set of benchmarks [13, 25]. Different results suggest a bug in one of the solvers; determining which one is at fault requires additional effort. In our case, the ground truth is known upfront, so our synthesized inputs can be directly used for testing, without requiring a reference implementation as test oracle. As opposed to differential testing, our technique can be also applied when there only exists one implementation of a given semantics.

**Fuzzing.** Other existing test case generation techniques are based on fuzzing. Brummayer et al. apply fuzzing for testing SMT [18], SAT, and QBF solvers [19], while Cyrille et al. [9] and Niemetz et al. [30] use fuzzing for model-based testing of the solver's API. All these approaches generate input formulas or sequences of API calls that may cause the solver to crash or exhibit performance issues. As opposed to our approach, they do not have a test oracle, so they do not reliably detect soundness and completeness bugs. The existing techniques require delta debugging [33] to minimize the inputs that lead to a failure; in our case, the errors are usually found with formulas that are small by construction.

The closest related work to ours is StringFuzz [16], a state-of-the-art fuzzer and generator of SMT-LIB instances. StringFuzz can create input formulas with various properties (e.g., predefined number of variables, configurable depth of expressions, predefined length for string literals, etc.), but it has generators only for primitive string operations and regular expressions. We do not support regular expressions, but our formulas cover complex string operations. StringFuzz can also apply a set of transformations on already existing benchmarks, but very few of them guarantee equisatisfiability. Using these formulas for soundness testing requires manually-written test oracles. In contrast, our synthesized formulas are sat or unsat by construction, and all our transformations preserve their satisfiability, thus, soundness testing is fully automatic.

**Formal verification.** Formal verification has been used to verify SAT and SMT algorithms [23, 24, 27], but not their implementations. SMT solvers are complex, highly-optimized software systems, thus, formally verifying their implementation is very challenging. In contrast, our black-box testing technique can handle such complex implementations and can find bugs with minimal effort.

**Validation and proof checking.** A complementary body of work focuses on checking the proofs generated by the solvers. Zhang and Malik [34] synthesize a checker for validating the traces produced by a SAT solver during refutation proofs. Böhme and Weber [17] encode the proofs generated by Z3 in Isabelle, while Stump et al. [32] propose a meta-logic for describing and checking proofs for SMT. All these techniques require either modifications of the original solvers or translations of the proofs into other formats. Our technique treats the solvers under test as black boxes and does not depend on a specific implementation and proof format.

**6 CONCLUSIONS**

We have presented a novel technique for automatically generating SMT formulas from the string theory that are satisfiable or unsatisfiable by construction. These formulas are used as inputs for testing mostly the soundness of the implementation of SMT solvers, but can also reveal completeness and performance issues. Our experimental evaluation shows that our approach effectively finds errors in the implementation of widely-used SMT solvers and is also applicable to model-counting constraint solvers. We synthesize sat formulas together with models and unsat formulas together with minimal unsat cores; having increasing complexity, our inputs facilitate error localization and debugging. This paper focuses on strings, but the approach can be directly extended to other theories and their interactions. As future work, we plan to extend our technique to other classes of solvers such as MAX-SMT solvers and to other components of SMT solvers such as quantifier instantiation.

**ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

We would like to thank the developers of Z3-seq, Nikolaj Bjørner, of Z3str3, Murphy Berzish, of CVC4, Andrew Reynolds and Andres Nötzli, and of MT-ABC, William Eiers, for their detailed explanations and support. We are also grateful for their valuable feedback on previous drafts of this paper.
APPENDIX A: SMT-LIB ENCODING

This appendix contains some of the formulas that exposed bugs in the implementation of the SMT solvers, presented in SMT-LIB 2.6 notation. The commands (set-option :produce-models true) and (set-option :produce-unsat-cores true) have been omitted from all the examples, to keep them concise.

(declare-fun s () String)
(declare-fun t () String)
(declare-fun u () String)
(declare-fun result () String)
(declare-fun index () Int)
(declare-fun s1 () String)
(declare-fun s2 () String)
(declare-fun s3 () String)

(assert (!
    (let ((?x29 (str++ s1 u)))
    (let ((?x30 (str++ ?x29 s3)))
    (let ($x31 (= ?x30 result)))
    (let ($x26 (= (= s2 t) true)))
    (let ($x24 (= (str.len s1) index)))
    (let ($x27 (and $x24 $x26)))
    (let (?x19 (str++ s1 s2))
    (let ($x22 (str++ ?x19 s3)))
    (let ($x28 (and $x22 $x27)))
    (let ($x32 (and $x28 $x31)))
    (let ($x35 (ite (>= index 0) (and (= result s) true))))
    (let ($x15 (str.indexof s t 0 index))
    (and $x15 $x35))))))))) :named a1)

Listing 4: The SMT-LIB encoding of Fig. 1.

(declare-fun tmp_str0 () String)
(declare-fun tmp_str2 () String)
(declare-fun tmp_int1 () Int)
(assert (= (str.at (str.at tmp_str0 tmp_int1)
    (str.indexof tmp_str0 tmp_str0 tmp_int1))
    (str++ tmp_str2 tmp_str2)))

(check-sat)

Listing 5: The SMT-LIB encoding of Fig. 2.

(declare-fun s () String)
(declare-fun t () String)
(declare-fun u () String)
(declare-fun result () String)
(declare-fun result_fresh () String)
(declare-fun index () Int)
(declare-fun s1 () String)
(declare-fun s2 () String)
(declare-fun s3 () String)

(assert (!
    (and (= (str.at result 0) result_fresh)
    (= (str.len result) 1)) :named a2))

Listing 6: SMT-LIB encoding of Fig. 3.

(declare-fun s () String)
(declare-fun t () String)
(assert (!
    (forall ((t1 String) (t2 String)
    (t2_fresh String)) (t2_fresh String)) (!
    (=> (and (= (str.substr t2 0 (str.len t2))
    t2_fresh) (= (str++ t1 t2_fresh) t))
    (= (= (str.indexof s t 0 index))
    (str.substr t2 0 (str.len t2))))
    :named a1))

Listing 7: SMT-LIB encoding of Fig. 4.

(declare-fun tmp_str0 () String)
(declare-fun tmp_str1 () String)
(declare-fun tmp_int2 () Int)
(assert (= (str.indexof tmp_str0 tmp_str1 tmp_int2) 0)
    :named a0))

Listing 8: SMT-LIB encoding of Fig. 5.

(declare-fun tmp_str2 () String)
(declare-fun tmp_int0 () Int)
(assert (= (str.contains int.to_str tmp_int0)
    (str.at tmp_str2 tmp_int0))
    :named a0))

Listing 9: SMT-LIB encoding of Fig. 6.
APPENDIX B: JAVA WRAPPER

This appendix contains our Java wrappers, used to implement the operations intToStr (see List. 10) and replace (see List. 11) according to the SMT-LIB Unicode Strings Theory [5] semantics. For simplicity, the constructors of the classes Replace and IntToString have been omitted. The method apply() returns the result of the evaluation of the operation.

Our method SMTStringUtils.specialChars() ensures that the string literals that are valid in SMT-LIB format can be handled by the Java operations.

### Listing 10: Java wrapper for the intToStr operation.
```java
// wrapper for SMT-LIB str.from_int(n) based on
// String.valueOf(n)
public class IntToString {
    private int n;

    public String apply() {
        // in SMT-LIB: str.from_int(n) = "", \n        // in Java: String.valueOf(n) = its textual representation,
        // if (n < 0) return " ";
        // if (n >= 0) return String.valueOf(n);
        return n < 0 ? "" : String.valueOf(n);
    }
}
```

### Listing 11: Java wrapper for the replace operation.
```java
// wrapper for SMT-LIB str.replace(s, t, u) based on
// org.apache.commons.lang3.StringUtils.replaceOnce(s, t, u)
public class Replace {    private String s;
    private String t;
    private String u;

    public String apply() {
        // handle special characters, e.g., the escape sequences
        // for double quotes within a string literal are different:
        // in SMT-LIB: str.replace("a", "a", ""a""") is valid
        // in Java: replaceOnce("a", "a", ""a""") does not compile
        // in Java: replaceOnce("a", "a", \\
        String sSC = SMTStringUtils.specialChars(s);
        String tSC = SMTStringUtils.specialChars(t);
        String uSC = SMTStringUtils.specialChars(u);

        // in SMT-LIB: str.replace(s, ",", u) = u ++ s
        // in Java: replaceOnce(s, ",", u) = s
        if (t.isEmpty())
            return uSC.concat(sSC);

        // for the other cases, the semantics is the same
        return StringUtils.replaceOnce(sSC, tSC, uSC);
    }
}
```

Listing 10: Java wrapper for the intToStr operation.

Listing 11: Java wrapper for the replace operation.