Synthesis with Abstract Examples

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Abstract. Interactive program synthesizers enable a user to communicate his/her intent via input-output examples. Unfortunately, such synthesizers only guarantee that the synthesized program is correct on the provided examples. A user that wishes to guarantee correctness for all possible inputs has to manually inspect the synthesized program, an error-prone and challenging task.
We present a novel synthesis framework that communicates only through (abstract) examples and guarantees that the synthesized program is correct on all inputs. The main idea is to use *abstract examples*—a new form of examples that represent a potentially unbounded set of concrete examples. An abstract example captures how part of the input space is mapped to corresponding outputs by the synthesized program. Our framework uses a generalization algorithm to compute abstract examples which are then presented to the user. The user can accept an abstract example, or provide a counterexample in which case the synthesizer will explore a different program. When the user accepts a set of abstract examples that covers the entire input space, the synthesis process is completed.
We have implemented our approach and we experimentally show that our synthesizer communicates with the user effectively by presenting on average 3 abstract examples until the user rejects false candidate programs. Further, we show that a synthesizer that prunes the program space based on the abstract examples reduces the overall number of required concrete examples in up to 96% of the cases.

1 Introduction

We address the problem of interactive synthesis, where a user and synthesizer interact to generate a program that captures the user's intent. Interactive synthesis enables users to express their intent by providing the synthesizer with input-output examples. Unfortunately, such synthesizers only guarantee that the synthesized program is correct on the provided examples. A user that wishes to guarantee correctness for all possible inputs has to manually inspect the synthesized program, an error-prone and challenging task.

Motivating Example Eli Gold is a crisis manager at a law firm. Due to a crisis, he has to meet all office members personally. After setting up times and storing the meeting times in an Excel spreadsheet (Fig. 1), Eli wants to send emails with a personal message notifying each member of the time of the meeting. He starts typing the messages in Excel. While typing the third message, Flash Fill [21] (a PBE synthesizer integrated in Excel) synthesizes a program and creates messages for all members on the list.

At first glance, Flash Fill seems to have learned the correct program. However, careful inspection reveals that instead of the desired "Hi" greeting, the message's first word is an "H" followed by the second letter of the person's first name. This demonstrates the

	A	B	C	D	E
1	First	Last	Meeting	Email	Message
2	Diane	Lockhart	11:00	d.lockhart@lockhart-gardner.com	Hi Diane, please come to my office at 11:00. -EG
3	Will	Gardner	12:00	w.gardner@lockhart-gardner.com	Hi Will, please come to my office at 12:00. -EG
4	David	Lee	13:00	d.lee@lockhart-gardner.com	Ha David, please come to my office at 13:00. -EG
5	Alicia	Florrick	14:00	a.florrick@lockhart-gardner.com	HI Alicia, please come to my office at 14:00. -EG
6	Cary	Agos	15:00	c.agos@lockhart-gardner.com	Ha Cary, please come to my office at 15:00. -EG

Fig. 1. Using Flash Fill to send meeting appointments.

importance of inspecting the synthesis result before relying on it to handle additional examples (e.g., lines 4–6 in the Excel spreadsheet).

Goal In this work, we wish to ensure correctness of the synthesized program on all inputs, while still interacting with the user through examples.

Existing Techniques Interactive synthesis with correctness guarantees can be viewed as a special case of *exact learning* [10], where a learner (the synthesizer) and a teacher (the user) interact to find the target concept known to the teacher. In exact learning, the learner interacts with the teacher by asking two kinds of questions: (i) *membership questions*, where the learner asks for the output of a given input, and (ii) *validation questions*, where the learner asks whether a hypothesis (a synthesized program) is correct and if not, asks for a counterexample.

The popular counterexample-guided inductive synthesis (CEGIS) [41] approach can be viewed as an instance of exact learning where the teacher is realized as a verifier with a formal specification (rather than a user). The formal specification provides an efficient way to answer validation questions automatically. Using validation questions ensures correctness on all inputs, but requires a formal specification of the user intent, a specification which often does not exist.

In contrast, in *programming by example* (PBE), the user provides a set of input-output examples which correspond to membership questions (and answers). Classical PBE approaches (e.g., [33, 5, 29]) do not use any validation questions, and never present the synthesized program to the user. These techniques tradeoff exactness for ease of interaction with an end-user. In terms of correctness, they only guarantee that the synthesized program is *consistent with the user-provided examples*. Other techniques (e.g., [26]) obtain correctness but make additional assumptions (see Section 6).

Relying solely on membership questions is limited in its ability to ensure correctness. Without validation queries or additional assumptions on the program space, correctness is only guaranteed if *the entire input space is covered by membership questions (examples)*. When the input space is finite, this is usually impractical. When the input space is infinite, asking membership questions about all inputs is clearly impossible.

Our Approach We present a novel interactive synthesis framework that communicates with a user only through *abstract membership queries*—asking the user whether an *abstract* example of the current candidate program should be accepted or rejected— and guarantees that the synthesized program is correct on all inputs. Abstract examples are a new form of examples that represent a potentially unbounded set of concrete examples of a candidate program. Abstract examples are natural for a user to understand and inspect (similarly to examples), and at the same time enable validation of the synthesis result without enumerating all concrete examples (which is only possible for a finite domain, and even then is often prohibitively expensive). In fact, an abstract membership

question can also be viewed as a *partial validation question*. Instead of presenting the user with a program and asking him/her to determine whether or not it is correct (a validation question), we present an abstract example, which describes (declaratively) how the candidate program transforms part of the input space. In this way, abstract examples allow us to perform *exact synthesis without a predefined specification*.

Throughout the synthesis process, as the synthesizer explores the space of candidate programs to find the one that matches the user intent, the synthesizer presents to the user abstract examples of candidate programs. The user can accept an abstract example, or provide a counterexample, in which case the synthesizer will explore a different candidate program. By accepting an abstract example, the user confirms the behavior of the candidate program on part of the input space. That is, the synthesizer learns the desired behavior for an *unbounded number of concrete inputs*. Thus, it can prune every program that does not meet the confirmed abstract example. This pruning is correct even if later the candidate program is rejected by another abstract example. Generally, pruning based on an abstract example removes more programs than pruning based on a concrete example. Thus, our synthesizer is likely to converge faster to the target program compared to the current alternative (see Section 5). When the user accepts a set of abstract examples that covers the entire input space, our synthesizer returns the corresponding candidate program and the synthesis process is completed.

A key ingredient of our synthesizer is a generalization algorithm, called L-SEP. L-SEP takes a concrete example and a candidate program, and generalizes the example to a *maximally general* abstract example consistent with the candidate program. We illustrate this on our motivating example, where the candidate program is the one synthesized by Flash Fill (that returns "H" followed by the second letter of the person's first name, etc.) and the initial concrete example is the first member on the list (i.e., Diane). Our generalization algorithm produces the following abstract example:

$$\mathbf{a_0 a_1 A_2\ B\ C} \rightarrow \underline{\text{H}}\mathbf{a_1}\ \mathbf{a_0 a_1 A_2}\underline{\text{, please come to my office at }}\mathbf{C}\underline{\text{ . -EG}}$$

This example describes the program behavior on the cells in columns A, B, and C, for the case where the string in cell A has at least two characters, denoted by a_0 and a_1, followed by a string sequence of arbitrary size (including 0), denoted by A_2. For such inputs, the example describes the output as a sequence consisting of: (i) the string "H" followed by a_1, (ii) the entire string at A followed by a comma, (iii) the string: "please come to my office at", (iv) the string at C, and (v) the string: ". -EG".

This abstract example is presented to the user. The user rejects it and provides a concrete counterexample (e.g., line 4 in the Excel spreadsheet). Thus, the synthesizer prunes the space of candidate programs and generates a new candidate program. Eventually, the synthesizer generates the target program (as a candidate program), and our synthesizer presents the following abstract example:

$$\mathbf{A\ B\ C} \rightarrow \underline{\text{Hi}}\ \mathbf{A}\underline{\text{, please come to my office at }}\mathbf{C}\underline{\text{ . -EG}}$$

This time, the user accepts it. Since this abstract example covers the entire input space, the synthesizer infers that this program captures the user intent on all inputs and returns it. In general, covering the input space may require multiple abstract examples.

We have implemented our synthesizer and experimentally evaluated it on two domains: strings and bit vectors. Results indicate that our synthesizer can communicate with the user effectively by presenting on average 3 abstract examples until the user rejects false candidate programs (on our most challenging benchmark, consisting of programs that require a large number of examples to differentiate them from the other programs). Further, results show that pruning the program space based on the abstract examples reduces the overall number of required concrete examples in up to 96% of the cases.

Main Contributions The main contributions of this paper are:

- A new notion of abstract examples, which capture a (potentially unbounded) set of concrete examples, and a realization via a language inspired by regular expressions (Section 2).
- A generalization algorithm for learning a maximally generalizing abstract example from a concrete example and a candidate program (Section 3).
- A novel synthesis framework that communicates only through abstract examples and guarantees that the synthesized program is correct on all inputs (Section 4).
- An implementation and experimental evaluation that shows that our synthesizer requires few abstract examples to reject false programs, and that it reduces the number of concrete examples required to find the target program (Section 5).

2 Abstract Specifications and Sequence Expressions

In this section, we define the key terms pertaining to abstract examples. We then present a special class of abstract examples for programs that manipulate strings. For simplicity's sake, from here on we assume that programs take one input. This is not a limitation, as multiple inputs (or outputs) can be joined with a predefined delimiter (e.g., the inputs in the motivating example can be considered as one string separated by spaces).

2.1 Abstract Examples

Program Semantics The semantics of a program P is a function over a domain D: $[\![P]\!] : D \to D$. We equate $[\![P]\!]$ with its input-output pair set: $\{(in, [\![P]\!](in)) \mid in \in D\}$.

Abstract Examples An abstract example ae defines a set $[\![ae]\!] \subseteq D \times D$, which represents a partial function: if $(in, out_1), (in, out_2) \in [\![ae]\!]$, then $out_1 = out_2$. An abstract example ae is *an abstract example for program* P if $[\![ae]\!] \subseteq [\![P]\!]$. We define the domain of ae to be $dom(ae) = \{in \in D \mid \exists out.\ (in, out) \in [\![ae]\!]\}$.

Abstract Example Specifications An abstract example specification of P is a set of abstract examples A for P such that $\bigcup_{ae \in A} dom(ae) = D$. Note that A need not be finite and the example domains need not be disjoint.

2.2 Sequence Expressions

In this work, we focus on programs that manipulate strings, i.e., $D = \Sigma^*$ for a finite alphabet Σ. Thus, it is desirable to represent abstract examples as expressions that represent collections of concrete strings and can be readily interpreted by humans. A prominent candidate for this goal is regular expressions, which are widely used to succinctly represent a set of strings. However, regular expressions are restricted to constant symbols (from Σ). Thus, they cannot relate outputs to inputs, which is desirable when

$S_I ::= S_I \cdot S_I \mid \epsilon \mid \sigma \mid x_R \mid X_R \mid \sigma^k$ (a) Input SE

$S_O ::= S_O \cdot S_O \mid \epsilon \mid \sigma \mid x \mid f(x) \mid X \mid f(X) \mid \sigma^k$ (b) Output SE

Fig. 2. SE grammar: $\sigma \in \Sigma, x \in \mathbf{x}, X \in \mathbf{X}, k \in \mathbf{K}, R \in \mathcal{R}, f \in \mathcal{F}$.

describing partial functions (abstract examples). To obtain this property, we introduce a new language, *Sequence Expressions* (SE), that extends regular expressions with the ability to relate the outputs to their inputs via shared variables. We begin this section with a reminder of regular expressions, and then introduce the two types of sequence expressions: input SEs, for describing inputs, and output SEs, for describing outputs.

Regular Expressions (RE) The set of regular languages over a finite alphabet Σ is the minimal set containing $\epsilon, \sigma_1, ..., \sigma_{|\Sigma|}$ that is closed under concatenation, union, and Kleene star. A regular expression r is a text representation of a regular language over the symbols in Σ and the operators $\cdot, |, ^*$ (concatenation, or, and Kleene star).

Input SE Syntax Fig. 2(a) shows the grammar of input SEs. In contrast to RE, SEs are extended with three kinds of variables that later help to relate the output to the input:

- Character variables, denoted $x \in \mathbf{x}$, used to denote an arbitrary letter from Σ.
- Sequence variables, denoted $X \in \mathbf{X}$, used to denote a sequence of arbitrary size.
- Star variables, denoted $k \in \mathbf{K}$, used instead of the Kleene star to indicate the number of consecutive repeating occurrences of a symbol. For example, 0^k has the same meaning as the RE 0^*.

To eliminate ambiguity, in our examples we underline letters from Σ. For example, $xX\underline{a}$ represents the set of words that have at least two letters and end with an a (a $\in \Sigma$).

We limit each variable (i.e., x, X, k) to appear at most once at an input SE. We also limit the use of a Kleene star to single letters from the alphabet. Also, since the goal of each SE is to describe a single behavior of the program, we exclude the 'or' operator. Instead, we extend the grammar to enable to express 'or' to some extent via predefined *predicates* that put constraints on the variables. We denote these predicates by $R \in \mathcal{R}$, and their meaning (i.e., the set of words that satisfy them) by $[\![R]\!] \subseteq \Sigma^*$. We note that we do not impose restrictions on the set $\mathcal{R}$, however our algorithm relies on an SMT-solver, and thus predicates in $\mathcal{R}$ have to be encodable as formulas.

Some examples for predicates and their meaning are: $[\![\text{num}]\!] = \{w \in \Sigma^* \mid w \text{ consists of digits only}\}$, $[\![\text{anum}]\!] = \{w \in \Sigma^* \mid w \text{ consists of letters and digits only}\}$, $[\![\text{del}]\!] = \{., \backslash t, ;\}$, $[\![\text{no\_del}]\!] = \Sigma^* \setminus [\![\text{del}]\!]$. We assume that the predicate satisfied by any string, *T*, (where $[\![T]\!] = \Sigma^*$) is always in $\mathcal{R}$. We abbreviate x_T, X_T to x, X. In the following, we refer to these as atomic constructs: $\sigma, x_R, X_R, \sigma^k$. Given an input SE se, we denote by $\mathbf{x}_{se}$, $\mathbf{X}_{se}$, and $\mathbf{K}_{se}$ the set of variables in se.

Input SE Semantics To define the semantics, we first define *interpretations* of an SE, which depend on *assignments*. An assignment env for an input SE se maps every $x \in \mathbf{x}_{se}$ to a letter in Σ, every $X \in \mathbf{X}_{se}$ to a sequence in Σ^*, and every $k \in \mathbf{K}_{se}$ to a natural number (including 0). We denote by $env[se]$ the sequence over Σ obtained by substituting the variables with their interpretations. Formally: (i) $env[\epsilon] = \epsilon$ (ii) $env[\sigma] = \sigma$ (iii) $env[x_R] = env(x)$ (iv) $env[X_R] = env(X)$ (v) $env[\sigma^k] = \sigma^{env(k)}$ (vi) $env[S_1 \cdot S_2] = env[S_1] \cdot env[S_2]$ (where $\cdot$ denotes string concatenation). An assignment is *valid* if for every x_R and X_R in se, $env(x), env(X) \in [\![R]\!]$. In the following we always refer to valid assignments.

The semantics of an input SE se, denoted by $[\![se]\!]$, is the set of strings obtained by the set of all valid assignments, i.e. $[\![se]\!] = \{s \in \Sigma^* \mid \exists env.\ env[se] = s\}$. For example, $[\![\sigma]\!] = \{\sigma\}$, $[\![x]\!] = \Sigma$, $[\![X]\!] = \Sigma^*$, and $[\![\sigma^k]\!] = \{\epsilon, \sigma, \sigma\sigma, ...\}$.

Output SE Fig. 2(b) shows the grammar of output SEs. Output SEs are defined *with respect to an input SE* and they can only refer to its variables. Formally, given an input SE se, an output SE over se is restricted to variables in $\mathbf{x}_{se}$, $\mathbf{X}_{se}$, and $\mathbf{K}_{se}$. Unlike input SEs, an output SE is allowed to have multiple occurrences of the same variable, and variables are not constrained by predicates. In addition, output SEs can express invocations of unary functions over the variables. Namely, the grammar is extended by $f(x)$ and $f(X)$, where $x \in \mathbf{x}_{se}$ and $X \in \mathbf{X}_{se}$, and $f : \Sigma \to \Sigma^*$ is a function.

An interpretation of an output SE is defined with respect to an assignment, similarly to the interpretation of an input SE. We extend the interpretation definition for the functions as follows: $env[f(x)] = f(env(x))$ and if $env(X) = \sigma_1 \cdots \sigma_n$ then $env[f(X)] = f(\sigma_1) \cdots f(\sigma_n)$, i.e., $env[f(X)]$ is the concatenation of the results of invoking f on the characters of the interpretation of X. (If $env(X) = \epsilon$, $env[f(X)] = \epsilon$.)

Input-Output SE Pairs An input-output SE (interchangeably, an SE pair) is a pair $io = se_{in} \to se_{out}$ consisting of an input SE, se_{in}, and an output SE, se_{out}, defined over se_{in}. Given $io = se_{in} \to se_{out}$, we denote $in(io) = se_{in}$ and $out(io) = se_{out}$. The semantics of io is the set of pairs: $[\![io]\!] = \{(s_{in}, s_{out}) \in \Sigma^* \times \Sigma^* \mid \exists env.\ s_{in} = env[in(io)] \wedge s_{out} = env[out(io)]\}$. The domain of io is $dom(io) = [\![in(ae)]\!]$.

Example An input-output SE for the pattern of column D based on columns A, B in Fig. 1 is: $x_{0\text{no\_del}}X_{1\text{no\_del}}X_2 \to f_{\text{lowercase}}(x_0).f_{\text{lowercase}}(X_2)$@lockhart-gardner.com where x_0 is a character variable, X_1 and X_2 are sequence variables and _ denotes a column delimiter (taken from Σ). The predicate *no_del* is satisfied by words that do not contain a delimiter. The semantics of this SE pair is the set of all word pairs whose first element is a string consisting of a first name, a delimiter, and a last name, and the second element is the email address which is the sequence of the first letter of the first name in lower case, a dot, the lower-cased last name, and the suffix "@lockhart-gardner.com".

2.3 Sequence Expressions as Abstract Examples

SE pairs provide an intuitive means to describe relations between outputs to inputs. We focus on learning abstract examples that can be described with SE pairs. For simplicity's sake, in the following we ignore predicates and functions (i.e., $\mathcal{R}, \mathcal{F}$). Our definitions and algorithms can be easily extended to arbitrary (but finite) sets $\mathcal{R}$ and $\mathcal{F}$.

We say that an input-output SE is an abstract example if $[\![io]\!]$ describes a partial function. Note that in general, an SE pair is not necessarily an abstract example. For example, the pair $io_{XY} = XY \to XaY$, can be interpreted to $(bbb, babb)$ (by $env_1 = \{X \mapsto b, Y \mapsto bb\}$) and $(bbb, bbab)$ (by $env_2 = \{X \mapsto bb, Y \mapsto b\}$). Thus, $[\![io_{XY}]\!]$ is not a partial function and hence not an abstract example.

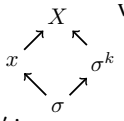
Given a program P, we say that *an input-output SE is an abstract example for* P if $[\![io]\!] \subseteq [\![P]\!]$. Since $[\![P]\!]$ is a function, this requirement subsumes the requirement of abstract example. Given an input SE se_{in}, we say that an output SE se_{out} over se_{in} is a *completion* of se_{in} for P if $se_{in} \to se_{out}$ is an abstract example for P.

Example We next exemplify how SEs can provide an abstract example specification to describe a program behavior. Assume a user has a list of first names and middle

names (space delimited), some of which are only initials, and the goal is to create a greeting message of the form "Dear <name>". The name in the greeting is the first string if it is identified as a name, i.e., has at least two letters; otherwise, the name is the entire string. For example: (i) Adam $\rightarrow$ Dear Adam, (ii) Adam R. $\rightarrow$ Dear Adam, (iii) A. Robert $\rightarrow$ Dear A. Robert (iv) A.R. $\rightarrow$ Dear A.R.. In this example, we assume the predicate set contains the predicates $\mathcal{R} = \{T, \text{name}, \text{other}\}$, where $[\![\text{name}]\!] = \{A, a, ..., Z, z\}^+ \setminus \{A, a, ..., Z, z\}$, $[\![\text{other}]\!] = (\Sigma \setminus \{\_\})^* \setminus [\![\text{name}]\!]$. An abstract example specification is: (i) $X_{0_{\text{name}}} \rightarrow \underline{\text{Dear }} X_0$ (ii) $X_{0_{\text{name}}}\_X_1 \rightarrow \underline{\text{Dear }} X_0$ (iii) $X_{0_{\text{other}}} \rightarrow \underline{\text{Dear }} X_0$ (iv) $X_{0_{\text{other}}}\_X_1 \rightarrow \underline{\text{Dear }} X_0\_X_1$.

Discussion While SEs can capture many program behaviors, they have limitations. One limitation is that an SE can only describe relations between output characters to input characters, but not among input characters. For example, it cannot capture inputs that are palindromes or inputs of the form XX (e.g., $abab$). This limitation arises because we chose input SEs to be (a subset of) regular expressions, which cannot capture such languages. Also, tasks that are not string manipulations are likely to have a specification that contains (many) trivial abstract examples (i.e., concrete input-output examples). For example, consider a program that takes two digits and returns their multiplication. Some abstract examples describing it are $X\ 1 \rightarrow X$ and $1\ X \rightarrow X$. However, the specification also contains $9\ 2 \rightarrow 18$, $9\ 3 \rightarrow 27$,...,$9\ 9 \rightarrow 81$. Moreover, an abstract example specification consists of a *set* of independent abstract examples, with no particular order. As a result, describing if-else rules requires encoding the negation of the "if" condition explicitly in order to obtain the same case splitting as an if-else structure.

Generalization Order We next define a partial order between SEs that are abstract examples. This order is leveraged by our algorithm in the next section. We call this order the *generalization order* and if an abstract example is greater than another one, we say it is more general or abstract. We begin with defining a partial order $\preceq$ on the atomic constructs of SEs, as follows:



where $\sigma \in \Sigma$, $x \in \mathbf{x}$, $X \in \mathbf{X}$ and $k \in \mathbf{K}$.

We say that an input SE se' is more general than se, $se \preceq se'$, if its atomic constructs are *pointwise* more general than the atomic constructs of se. Namely, for $se = a_1 \cdots a_n$ and $se' = a'_1 \cdots a'_n$ (where a_i and a'_i are atomic constructs), $se \preceq se'$ if for every $1 \leq i \leq n$, $a_i \preceq a'_i$. If $se \preceq se' \wedge se \neq se'$, we write $se \prec se'$. For example, $\underline{\text{abc}} \prec \underline{\text{a}}b^k\underline{\text{c}} \prec xYZ$. In addition, we define that for any atomic construct a, $a \not\preceq \epsilon$ and $\epsilon \not\preceq a$. The generalization order implies the following:

Lemma 1. *Let se, se' be two input SEs. If $se \preceq se'$, then $[\![se]\!] \subseteq [\![se']\!]$.*

The proof follows directly from the definition of $\preceq$ and the semantics of an input SE. Note that the converse does not necessarily hold. For example, $[\![XY]\!] = [\![Z]\!]$, but $XY \not\preceq Z$ and $Z \not\preceq XY$. In fact, $\preceq$ may only relate SEs of the same length. In practice, we partly support generalizations beyond $\preceq$ (see Section 3).

The generalization order of input SEs induces a generalization order on input-output SEs: $io \preceq io'$ if $in(io) \preceq in(io')$. If io and io' are abstract examples for the same program P, this implies that $[\![io]\!] \subseteq [\![io']\!]$. Moreover, in that case $[\![io]\!] \subseteq [\![io']\!]$ if and only if

$[\![in(io)]\!] \subseteq [\![in(io')]\!]$. This observation enables our algorithm to focus on generalizing the input SE instead of generalizing the pair as a whole.

3 An Algorithm for Learning Abstract Examples

In this section, we describe L-SEP, our algorithm for automatically **L**earning an **SE P**air. This pair is an abstract example for a given program and it generalizes a given concrete example. In Section 4, we will use L-SEP repeatedly in order to generate an abstract example specification.

L-SEP (Algorithm 1) takes as input a program P (e.g., the program Flash Fill learned) and a (concrete) input in (e.g., *Diane*). These two define the initial SE to start with: $(in, [\![P]\!](in))$ (namely, the concrete example). The algorithm outputs an input-output SE, $io = s_{in} \rightarrow s_{out}$, such that $(in, [\![P]\!](in)) \in [\![io]\!] \subseteq [\![P]\!]$. Namely, io generalizes (or abstracts) the concrete example and is consistent with P. L-SEP's goal is to find an io that is *maximal* with respect to $\preceq$.

The high-level operation of L-SEP is as follows. First, it sets $io = in \rightarrow [\![P]\!](in)$. Then, it gradually generalizes io as long as this results in pairs that are abstract examples for P. The main insight of L-SEP is that instead of generalizing io as a whole, it generalizes the input SE, $in(io)$, and then checks whether there is a completion of $in(io)$ for P, namely an output SE over $in(io)$ such that the resulting pair is an abstract example for P. This is justified by the property that $io \preceq io'$ if and only if $in(io) \preceq in(io')$.

3.1 Input Generalization

We now explain the pseudo-code of L-SEP. After initializing io by setting $s_{in} = in$ and $s_{out} = [\![P]\!](in)$, L-SEP stores in $InCands$ the set of candidates generalizing s_{in} (which are the input components of io's generalizations). Then, a loop attempts to generalize s_{in} as long as $InCand \neq \emptyset$. Each iteration picks a minimal element from $InCands$, s'_{in}, which is a candidate to generalize s_{in}. To determine whether s'_{in} can generalize s_{in}, `findCompletion` is called. If it succeeds, it returns s'_{out} such that $s'_{in} \rightarrow s'_{out}$ is an abstract example for P. If it fails, $\perp$ is returned. Either way, the search space, $InCands$, is pruned: if the generalization succeeds, then the candidates are pruned to those generalizing s'_{in}; otherwise, they are pruned to those *except* the ones generalizing s'_{in}. If the generalization succeeds, s_{in} and s_{out} are updated to s'_{in} and s'_{out}.

Our next lemma states that if `findCompletion` returns $\perp$, pruning $InCands$ does not remove input SEs that have a completion for P. The lemma guarantees that L-SEP cannot miss abstract examples for P because of this pruning.

Lemma 2. *If $s''_{in} \succeq s'_{in}$ and s'_{in} has no completion for P, s''_{in} has no completion for P.*

Proof (sketch). We prove by induction on the number of generalization steps required to get from s'_{in} to s''_{in}. Base is trivial. Assume the last generalization step is to replace a'_i in $s_{in'}$ with a''_i in s''_{in}. If s''_{in} has a completion s''_{out} for P, then substitute a''_i in s''_{out} by a'_i to obtain a completion for s'_{in}. However, this contradicts our assumption. □

InCands For ease of presentation, L-SEP defines $InCand$ as the set of all generalizations of in that remain to be checked, where initially it contains all generalizations. However, the size of this set is exponential in the length of in, and in practice, L-SEP does not maintain it explicitly. Instead, it maintains two sets: $MinCands$, which

Algorithm 1: L-SEP(P, in)

```
1  s_in = in; s_out = [[P]](in)
2  InCands = {s ∈ SE_in | s ≻ s_in}
3  while InCands ≠ ∅ do
4      s'_in = pick a minimal element from InCands
5      s'_out = findCompletion(P, s'_in)        // if succeeds, [[s'_in → s'_out]] ⊆ [[P]]
6      if s'_out ≠ ⊥ then
7          s_in = s'_in ; s_out = s'_out
8          InCands = InCands ∩ {s ∈ SE_in | s ≻ s_in}
9      else
10         InCands = InCands \ {s ∈ SE_in | s ⪰ s'_in}
11 return (s_in, s_out)
```

records the *minimal* generalizations of the current candidate s_{in} that remain to be checked, and $Pruned$, which records the minimal generalizations that were overruled (and hence none of their generalizations need to be inspected). In Line 2 and Line 8 L-SEP initializes $MinCands$ based on the current candidate s_{in} by computing all of its minimal generalizations. In Line 10 it removes from $MinCand$ the generalization that was last checked and failed, and also records this generalization in $Pruned$ to indicate that none of its generalizations need to be inspected. $Pruned$ is used immediately after initializing $MinCand$ in Line 8 to remove from $MinCands$ any generalization that generalizes a member of $Pruned$ – this efficiently implements the update of $InCands$ in Line 10. Using this representation of $InCands$ we can now establish:

Lemma 3. *The number of iterations of L-SEP is* $O(|in|^2 \cdot |\mathcal{R}|^2)$.

Proof. The number of iterations is at most the maximal size of $MinCands$ multiplied by the number of initializations of $MinCands$ based on a new candidate s_{in} in Line 8. The size of $MinCands$ computed based on some s_{in} is at most $|in| \cdot (|\mathcal{R}| + 1)$. This follows since a minimal generalization of s_{in} differs from s_{in} in a single construct that is more general than the corresponding construct in s_{in} (with respect to the partial order of constructs). The number of initializations of $MinCands$ at Line 8 is bounded by the longest (possible) chain of generalizations. This follows because each such initialization is triggered by the update of s_{in} to a more general SE. Since the longest chain of generalizations is at most $|in| \cdot (|\mathcal{R}| + 1)$, the number of iterations is $O(|in|^2 \cdot |\mathcal{R}|^2)$. □

Lemma 3 implies that $MinCands$ and $Pruned$ provide a polynomial representation of $InCands$ (even though the latter is exponential). Further, the use of these sets enables L-SEP to run in polynomial time because they provide a quadratic bound on the number of iterations, and because `findCompletion` is also polynomial, as we shortly prove.

Picking a Minimal Generalization We now discuss how L-SEP picks a minimal generalization of s_{in} in Line 4. One option is to do so arbitrarily. However, this greedy approach may result in a sub-optimal maximal generalization, namely, a maximal generalization that concretizes to fewer concrete inputs than some other possible maximal generalization. On the other hand, to obtain an optimal generalization, all generalizations that have a completion have to be computed and only then can the best one be picked by comparing the number of concretizations. Unfortunately, this approach results in an

Algorithm 2: findCompletion(P, s'_{in})

```
1  return findOutputPrefix(P, s'_in, ϵ)
2  Function findOutputPrefix(P, s'_in, s^pref_out):
3      if ⟦s'_in → s^pref_out⟧ ⊆ ⟦P⟧ then return s^pref_out
4      Cands = {s ∈ SE_out(s'_in) | s is an atomic construct}
5      while Cands ≠ ∅ do
6          sym = pick and remove a minimal element from Cands
7          if ⟦s'_in → s^pref_out · sym⟧ ⊆ {(in, o_p) | ∃o_s ∈ Σ*.(in, o_p · o_s) ∈ ⟦P⟧} then
8              s^pref_out = s^pref_out · sym
9              s'_out = findOutputPrefix(P, s'_in, s^pref_out)
10             if s'_out ≠ ⊥ then return s'_out
11     return ⊥
```

exponential time complexity and is thus impractical. Instead, our implementation of L-SEP takes an intermediate approach: it considers all *minimal* generalizations that have a completion and picks one that concretizes to a maximal number of inputs. To avoid counting the number of inputs (which may be computationally expensive), our implementation employs the following heuristic. It syntactically compares the generalizations by comparing the construct in each of them that is not in s_{in} (i.e., where generalization took place). It then picks the generalization whose construct is maximal with respect to the order: $X > \sigma^k > x$. If there are generalized constructs that are not comparable w.r.t. this order (e.g., σ_1^k vs. σ_2^k), one is picked arbitrarily.

3.2 Completion

`findCompletion` (Algorithm 2) takes P and an input generalization s'_{in} and returns a completion of s'_{in} for P, if one exists; or $\perp$, otherwise.

In contrast to input SEs, if a certain candidate s''_{out} is not a completion of s'_{in} for P, this does not imply that its generalizations are also not completions of s'_{in}. Thus, a pruning procedure similar to the one in L-SEP may result in missing completions. Consider, for example, a program P whose abstract example specification is $\{xX \rightarrow \underline{\text{b}}X\}$. Assume that while L-SEP looks for a completion for $s'_{in} = \underline{\text{a}}x$ it considers $s'_{out} = \underline{\text{ba}}$, which is not a completion. Pruning SEs that are more general than s'_{out} will result in pruning the completion $\underline{\text{b}}x$. Likewise, pruning elements that are more specific than a candidate that is not a completion may result in pruning completions.

Since the former pruning cannot be used to search the output SE, `findCompletion` searches differently, by making gradual attempts to construct a completion s'_{out} construct-by-construct. If an attempt fails, it backtracks and attempts a different construction. This is implemented via the recursive function `findOutputPrefix`. At each step, a current prefix s^{pref}_{out} (initially ϵ) is extended with a single atomic construct sym (i.e., σ, x, X, σ^k). Then, it checks whether the current extended construction is *partially consistent* with P (Line 7). If the check fails, this extended prefix is discarded, thereby pruning its extensions from the search space. Otherwise, the extended prefix is attempted to be further extended. We next define *partial consistency*.

Definition 1. *An SE pair $s'_{in} \rightarrow s^{pref}_{out}$ is* partially consistent *with P if for every assignment env, $env[s^{pref}_{out}]$ is a prefix of $[\![P]\!](env[s'_{in}])$.*

When s'_{in} is clear from the context, we say that s^{pref}_{out} is partially consistent with P.

By the semantics definition, a pair $s'_{in} \rightarrow s^{pref}_{out}$ is partially consistent with P if and only if $[\![s'_{in} \rightarrow s^{pref}_{out}]\!] \subseteq \{(in, o_p) \mid \exists o_s \in \Sigma^*.(in, o_p \cdot o_s) \in [\![P]\!]\}$ (which is the check of line 7). Partial consistency is a necessary condition (albeit not sufficient) for $s^{pref}_{out} \cdot sym$ to be a prefix of a completion s'_{out}. Thus, if $s^{pref}_{out} \cdot sym$ is not partially consistent, there is no need to check its extensions. Note that even if a certain prefix $s^{pref}_{out} \cdot sym$ is partially consistent, it may be that this prefix cannot be further extended (namely, the suffixes cannot be realized by an SE). In this case, this prefix will be discarded in later iterations and s^{pref}_{out} and a different attempt to extend s^{pref}_{out} will be made. This extension process terminates when an extension results in a completion, in which case it is returned, or when all extensions fail, in which case $\perp$ is returned.

Lemma 4. *The recursion depth of Algorithm 2 is bounded by the length of* $[\![P]\!](in)$.

Proof. Denote by n the length of $[\![P]\!](in)$. Assume to the contrary that the recursion depth exceeds n. Namely, the current prefix, s^{pref}_{out}, is strictly longer than n. We show that in this case, the partial consistency check is guaranteed to fail. To this end, we show an assignment env to s'_{in} such that $env[s^{pref}_{out}]$ is not a prefix of $[\![P]\!](env[s'_{in}])$. Consider the assignment env that maps each variable in s'_{in} to its original value in in (namely, $env[s'_{in}] = in$). This assignment maps each variable to exactly one letter. By our assumption, the length of $env[s^{pref}_{out}]$ is greater than n. Thus, $env[s^{pref}_{out}]$ (of length $> n$) cannot be a prefix of $[\![P]\!](in)$ (of length n). □

3.3 Guarantees

Lemma 3 and Lemma 4 ensure that both the input generalization and the completion algorithms terminate in polynomial time. Thus, the overall runtime of L-SEP is polynomial. Finally, we discuss the guarantees of these algorithms.

Lemma 5. `findCompletion` *is sound and complete: if it returns* s'_{out}*, then* s'_{out} *is a completion of* s'_{in} *for* P*, and if it returns* $\perp$*, then* s'_{in} *has no completion for* P.

Soundness follows since `findOutputPrefix` returns s'_{out} only after validating that $[\![s'_{in} \rightarrow s'_{out}]\!] \subseteq [\![P]\!]$. Completeness follows since s'_{out} is gradually constructed and every possible extension is examined.

Lemma 6. *L-SEP is sound and complete: for every* (in, out) *pair, an SE pair is returned, and if L-SEP returns an SE pair, then it is an abstract example for* P.

Soundness is guaranteed from `findCompletion`. Completeness follows since even if all generalizations fail, L-SEP returns the concrete example as an SE pair.

Theorem 1. *L-SEP returns an abstract example* io *for* P *such that* $(in, [\![P]\!](in)) \in [\![io]\!]$ *and* io *is maximal w.r.t.* $\preceq$.

This follows from Lemma 2, Lemma 5, and since L-SEP terminates only when $InCands$ is empty (i.e., when there are no more input generalizations to explore).

We note that in our implementation, `findCompletion` runs heuristics instead of the expensive backtracking. In this case, maximality is no longer guaranteed.

3.4 Running Example

We next exemplify L-SEP on the (shortened) example from the Introduction, where we start from the concrete example $in =$ Diane and we wish to obtain the abstract example $a_0a_1A_2 \rightarrow \underline{\text{H}}a_1\_a_0a_1A_2$. L-SEP starts with: $s_{in} = \underline{\text{Diane}}$ and $s_{out} = \underline{\text{Hi Diane}}$. It then picks a minimal candidate that generalizes s_{in}. A minimal candidate differs from s_{in} in one atomic construct in some position i. By $\preceq$, if $s_{in}[i] = \sigma$, then $s'_{in}[i]$ is x or σ^k.

Assume that L-SEP first tests this minimal candidate: $s'_{in} = \text{D}^{k_0}\underline{\text{iane}}$. To test it, L-SEP calls `findCompletion` to look for a completion. The completion is defined over s'_{in} and in particular can use the variable k_0. Then, `findCompletion` invokes `findOutputPrefix`(P, $\text{D}^{k_0}\underline{\text{iane}}$, ϵ). In the first call of `findOutputPrefix`, all extensions of the current prefix, ϵ, except for $\underline{\text{H}}$, fail in the partial consistency check. This follows since the output of P always starts with an 'H' (and not, e.g., with 'H^{k_0}'). Thus, a recursive call is invoked (only) for the output SE prefix $\underline{\text{H}}$. In this call, all extensions (i.e., $\underline{\text{H}}\sigma$ or $\underline{\text{H}}\sigma^{k_0}$) fail. For example, $\underline{\text{Hi}}$ fails since the output prefix is not always "Hi" (e.g., P(DDiane) = HD DDiane. Since the prefix $\underline{\text{H}}$ cannot be extended further, $\perp$ is returned. This indicates that the input generalization $s'_{in} = \text{D}^{k_0}\underline{\text{iane}}$ fails. Thus, L-SEP removes from $InCands$ all generalizations whose first construct generalizes D^{k_0}.

L-SEP then tests another minimal generalization: $s'_{in} = x_0\underline{\text{iane}}$. It then calls `findCompletion` (which can use x_0). As before, (only) the prefix SE $\underline{\text{H}}$ is found partially consistent. Next, a second call attempts to extend $\underline{\text{H}}$. This time, the extension $\underline{\text{Hi}}$ succeeds because for all interpretations of $x_0\underline{\text{iane}}$, the output prefix is "Hi". The recursion continues, until obtaining and returning the completion $\underline{\text{Hi}}\_x_0\underline{\text{iane}}$.

When L-SEP learns that s'_{in} is a feasible generalization, it updates s_{in} and s_{out}, and prunes $InCands$ to candidates generalizing $x_0\underline{\text{iane}}$ (for example, $InCands$ contains $x_0x_1\underline{\text{ane}}$). Eventually, s_{in} is generalized to $s'_{in} = x_0x_1X_2X_3X_4$ with the completion $s'_{out} = \underline{\text{H}}x_1\_x_0x_1X_2X_3X_4$. In a postprocessing step (performed when L-SEP is done), $X_2X_3X_4$ is simplified to Y, resulting in the abstract example $x_0x_1Y \rightarrow \underline{\text{H}}x_1\_x_0x_1Y$. Note that the last "generalization" is no longer according to $\preceq$.

4 Synthesis with Abstract Examples

In this section, we present our framework for synthesis with abstract examples. We assume the existence of an oracle $\mathcal{O}$ (e.g., a user) that has fixed a target program P_{tar}. Our framework is parameterized with a synthesizer $\mathcal{S}$ that takes concrete or abstract examples and returns a consistent program. Note that the guarantee to finally output a program equivalent to P_{tar} is the responsibility of our framework and not $\mathcal{S}$. Nonetheless, candidate programs are provided by $\mathcal{S}$.

Goal The goal of our framework is to learn a program *equivalent* to the target program. Note that this is different from the traditional goal of PBE synthesizers, which learn a program that agrees with the target program *at least* on the observed inputs. More formally, our goal is to learn a program P' such that $[\![P_{tar}]\!] = [\![P']\!]$, whereas PBE synthesizers that are given a set of input-output examples $E \subseteq D \times D$ can only guarantee to output a program P'' such that $[\![P_{tar}]\!] \cap E = [\![P'']\!] \cap E$.

Interaction Model We assume that the oracle $\mathcal{O}$ can accept abstract examples or reject them and provide a counterexample. If the oracle accepts an abstract example io, then

$[\![io]\!] \subseteq [\![P_{tar}]\!]$. If it returns a counterexample $cex = (in', out')$, then (i) $(in', out') \in [\![P_{tar}]\!]$, (ii) $(in', out') \notin [\![io]\!]$, and (iii) $in' \in [\![in(io)]\!]$.

Operation Our framework (Algorithm 3) takes an initial (nonempty) set of input-output examples $E \subseteq D \times D$. This set may be extended during the execution. The algorithm consists of two loops: an outer one that searches for a candidate program and an inner one that computes abstract examples for a given candidate program. The inner loop terminates when one of the abstract examples is rejected (in which case a new iteration of the outer loop begins) or when the input space is covered (in which case the candidate program is returned along with the abstract example specification).

The algorithm begins by initializing A to the empty set. This set accumulates abstract examples that eventually form an abstract example specification of P_{tar}. Then the outer loop begins (Lines 2–10). Each iteration starts by asking the synthesizer for a program P consistent with the current set of concrete examples in E and abstract examples in A. Then, the inner loop begins (Lines 4–9). At each inner iteration, an input in is picked and `L-SEP(`P, in`)` is invoked. When an abstract example io is returned, it is presented to the oracle. If the oracle provides a counterexample $cex = (in', out')$, then $[\![P]\!] \neq [\![P_{tar}]\!]$ (see Lemma 7). In this case, E is extended with cex, and a new outer iteration begins. If the oracle accepts the abstract example, io, the abstract example is added to A (since it is an abstract example for P_{tar}). The idea is that the synthesizer extends its set of examples with more examples (potentially an infinite number). This (potentially) enables faster convergence to P_{tar} (in case additional outer iterations are needed). If the inner loop terminates without encountering counterexamples, then A covers the input domain D. At this point it is guaranteed that $[\![P]\!] = [\![P_{tar}]\!]$ (see Theorem 2). Thus, P is returned, along with the abstract example specification A. Note that A has already been validated and need not be inspected again.

We remark that although abstract examples can help the synthesizer to converge faster to the target program, still the convergence speed (and the number of counterexamples required to converge) depends on the synthesizer (which is a parameter to our framework) and not on L-SEP or our synthesis framework.

Lemma 7. *If $\mathcal{O}(io) = (in', out')$ ($\neq \perp$), then $[\![P]\!] \neq [\![P_{tar}]\!]$.*

Proof. From the oracle properties $(in', out') \in [\![P_{tar}]\!]$, $(in', out') \notin [\![io]\!]$, and $in' \in [\![in(io)]\!]$. Thus, there exists $out'' \neq out'$ such that $(in', out'') \in [\![io]\!]$. Since by construction, $[\![io]\!] \subseteq [\![P]\!]$, it follows that $(in', out'') \in [\![P]\!]$. Thus, $[\![P]\!] \neq [\![P_{tar}]\!]$. □

Theorem 2. *Upon termination, Algorithm 3 returns a program P s.t. $[\![P]\!] = [\![P_{tar}]\!]$.*

Proof. Upon termination, for every $in \in D$ there exists $io \in A$ s.t. $in \in [\![in(io)]\!]$. By construction $[\![io]\!] \subseteq [\![P]\!]$, and thus $(in, [\![P]\!](in)) \in [\![io]\!]$. By the oracle properties, $[\![io]\!] \subseteq [\![P_{tar}]\!]$; thus $(in, [\![P_{tar}]\!](in)) \in [\![io]\!]$. Altogether, $[\![P]\!](in) = [\![P_{tar}]\!](in)$. □

We emphasize that the interaction with the oracle (user) takes place only after both a candidate program and an abstract example have been obtained; the goal of the interaction is to determine whether the candidate program is correct. Rejection of the abstract example by the user means rejection of the candidate program, in which case

Algorithm 3: synthesisWithAbstractExamples(E)

```
1  A = ∅                                          // initialize the set of abstract examples
2  while true do
3      P = S(E, A)                                // obtain a program consistent with the examples
4      while ∪_{io∈A} [[in(io)]] ≠ D do           // A does not cover D
5          Let in ∈ D \ ∪_{io∈A} [[in(io)]]       // obtain uncovered input
6          io = L-SEP(P, in)                      // learn abstract example
7          cex = O(io)                            // ask the oracle
8          if cex = ⊥ then A = A ∪ {io}           // abstract example is correct
9          else E = E ∪ {cex} ; break             // add a counterexample
10     return (P, A)
```

the PBE synthesizer $\mathcal{S}$ looks for a new candidate program. In particular, the goal of the interaction is *not* to confirm the correctness of the abstract examples – L-SEP always returns (without any interaction) a correct generalization w.r.t. the candidate program.

Example We next exemplify our synthesis framework in the bit vector domain. We consider a program space $\mathcal{P}$ defined inductively as follows. The identity function and all constant functions are in $\mathcal{P}$. For every $op \in \{\text{Not}, \text{Neg}\}$ and $P \in \mathcal{P}$, $op(P) \in \mathcal{P}$, and for every $op \in \{\text{AND}, \text{OR}, +, -, \text{SHL}, \text{XOR}, \text{ASHR}\}$ and $P_1, P_2 \in \mathcal{P}$, $op(P_1, P_2) \in \mathcal{P}$. We assume a naïve synthesizer that enumerates the program space by considering programs of increasing size and returning the first program consistent with the examples. In this setting, we consider the task of flipping the rightmost 0 bit, e.g., $10101 \rightarrow 10111$ (taken from the SyGuS competition [3]). While this task is quite easy to explain intuitively through examples, phrasing it as a logical formula is cumbersome. Assume a user provides to Algorithm 3 the set of examples $E = \{(10101, 10111)\}$. Table 1 shows the execution steps taken by our synthesis framework: E shows the current set of examples, $P(x)$ shows the candidate program synthesized by the naïve synthesizer, *Abstract Examples* shows the abstract examples computed by L-SEP and *Counterexample?* is either *No* if the user accepts the current abstract example (to its left) or a pair of input-output example contradicting the current abstract example. In this example, L-SEP uses the set of functions $\mathcal{F} = \{f_{neg}\}$ in the output SE, where $f_{neg}(0) = 1, f_{neg}(1) = 0$, and we abbreviate $f_{neg}(y)$ with $\bar{y}$. Further, since the bit vector domain consists of vectors of a fixed size (namely, Σ^n for a fixed n instead of Σ^*), the SE's semantics in this domain is defined as the *suffixes of size* n of its (normal) interpretation. Formally, $[\![se]\!]_n = \{s \in \Sigma^n \mid \exists env.\ s \text{ is a suffix of } env[se]\}$. The semantics of an input-output SE is defined similarly. In the example, the first two of programs are eliminated immediately by the user, whereas the third program is eliminated only after showing the third abstract example describing it. This enables the synthesizer to prune a significant portion of the search space. Note that since abstract examples are interpreted over fixed sized vectors (as explained above), the last abstract example covers the input space: if $k = n$, the input is $\overbrace{11...1}^{\text{n times}}$; if $k = 0$, the input takes the form of $b_0...b_{n-1}0$ (where the b_i-s are bits); and if $0 < k < n$, the input takes the form of $b_0...b_{n-k-1}01^k$.

Leveraging Counterexamples for Learning Abstract Examples A limitation of L-SEP is that it only generalizes the existing characters of the concrete input. For example,

E	$P(x)$	Abstract Examples	Counterexample?
(10101,10111)	$P(x) = 10111$	$X \rightarrow 10111$	$1 \rightarrow 11$
(10101,10111), (1,11)	$P(x) = \text{OR}(x, 2)$	$X_0x_1x_2 \rightarrow X_0\underline{1}x_2$	$0 \rightarrow 1$
(10101,10111), (1,11),(0,1)	$P(x) = \text{OR}(x+1, 1)$	$X_0\underline{0}x_2 \rightarrow X_0x_2\underline{1}$ $X_0\underline{0} \rightarrow X_0\underline{1}$ $X_0\underline{0}x_1\underline{1} \rightarrow X_0x_1\bar{x_1}\underline{1}$	No No $11 \rightarrow 111$
(10101,10111), (1,11),(0,1), (11,111)	$P(x) = \text{OR}(x+1, x)$	$X_0\underline{01}^k \rightarrow X_0\underline{1}^k\underline{1}$	No

Table 1. A running example for learning a program that flips the rightmost 0 bit with our synthesis framework. The target program is $P_{tar}(x) = \text{OR}(x+1, x)$.

consider a candidate program generated by $\mathcal{S}$ that returns the first and last character of the string, which can be summarized by the abstract example $x_0X_1x_2 \rightarrow x_0x_2$. If, in the process of generating an abstract example specification for the candidate program, the first example provided by Algorithm 3 to L-SEP for generalization is ab, then it is generalized to $x_0x_1 \rightarrow x_0x_1$. On the other hand, if the first example is acb, then it is generalized to $x_0X_1x_2 \rightarrow x_0x_1$, whose domain is a strict superset of the former's domain. This exemplifies that some inputs may provide better generalizations than others. Although eventually our framework will learn the better generalizations, if Algorithm 3 starts from the less generalizing examples, then its termination is delayed, and unnecessary questions are presented to the oracle (in our example, $x_0x_1 \rightarrow x_0x_1$ will be presented, followed by $x_0X_1x_2 \rightarrow x_0x_2$, both of which are accepted, but the former perhaps could have been avoided). We believe that the way to avoid such delay is to pick "good" examples. We leave the question of how to identify them to future work, but note that if the oracle is assumed to provide "good" examples (e.g., representative), then Line 5 can be changed to first look for an uncovered input in E.

5 Evaluation

In this section, we discuss our implementation and evaluate L-SEP and our synthesis framework. We evaluate our algorithms in two domains: strings and bit vectors (of size 8). The former domain is suitable for end users, as targeted by approaches like Flash Fill or learning regular expressions. The latter domain is of interest to the synthesis community (evident by the SyGuS competition [3]). We begin with our implementation and then discuss the experiments. All experiments ran on a Sony Vaio PC with Intel(R) Core(TM) i7-3612QM processor and 8GB RAM.

5.1 Implementation

We implemented our algorithms in Java. We next provide the main details.

Program Spaces The program space we consider for bit vectors is the one defined in the example at the end of Section 4. The program space $\mathcal{P}$ we consider for the string domain is defined inductively as follows. The identity function and all constant functions are in $\mathcal{P}$. For every $P_1, P_2 \in \mathcal{P}$, $concat(P_1, P_2) \in \mathcal{P}$. For $P \in \mathcal{P}$ and integers i_1, i_2, $Extract(P, i_1, i_2) \in \mathcal{P}$. For $P_1, P_2 \in \mathcal{P}$, and a condition e over string programs and integer symbols, $ITE(e, P_1, P_2) \in \mathcal{P}$.

SE Spaces In the bit vector domain we consider $\mathcal{F} = \{f_{neg}\}$ where $f_{neg}(b) = 1 - b$.

findCompletion To answer the containment queries (Lines 3 and 7), we use the Z3 SMT-solver [15]. To this end, we encode the candidate program P and the SEs as formulas. Roughly speaking, an SE is encoded as a conjunction of *sequence predicates*, each encoding a single atomic construct. A sequence predicate extends the equality predicate with a start position and is denoted by $t_1 \overset{i}{=} t_2$. An interpretation d_1, d_2 for t_1, t_2 satisfies $t_1 \overset{i}{=} t_2$ if starting from the i^{th} character of d_1 the next $|d_2|$ characters are equal to d_2. The term t_1 is either a unique variable t_{in}, representing the input (for input SEs), or $P(t_{in})$ (for output SEs). The term t_2 can be (i) σ (a letter from Σ), (ii) σ^k where k is a star variable, or (iii) a character or sequence variable. For example, $X_0 a b^{k_2} x_3$ is encoded as: $t_{in} \overset{0}{=} X_0 \wedge t_{in}^{|X_0|} \overset{}{=} a \wedge (\forall i. 1+|X_0| \leq i < 1+|X_0|+k_2 \rightarrow t_{in} \overset{i}{=} b) \wedge t_{in}^{1+|X_0|+k_2} \overset{}{=} x_3$. Note that the positions can be a function of the variables. In the string domain, the formulas are encoded in string theory (except for i and k_2, which are integers). In the bit vector domain, entities are encoded as bit vectors and $\overset{i}{=}$ is implemented with masks.

Synthesis Framework To check whether A covers the input domain and obtain an uncovered input in if not, we encode the abstract examples in A as formulas. We then check whether one of the concrete examples from E does not satisfy any of these formulas. If so, it is taken as in. Otherwise, we check whether there is another input that does not satisfy the formulas, and if so it is taken as in; otherwise the input domain is covered.

Synthesizer Our synthesizer is a naïve one that enumerates the program space by considering programs of increasing size and returning the first program consistent with the examples. Technically, we check consistency by submitting the formula $P(in) = out$ to an SMT-solver for every $(in, out) \in E$. Likewise, P is checked to be consistent with the abstract examples by encoding them as formulas and testing whether they imply P. More sophisticated PBE synthesizers, such as Flash-Fill, can in many cases be extended to handle abstract examples in a straightforward manner.

5.2 Synthesis Framework Evaluation

In this section, we evaluate our synthesis framework on the bit vector domain. We consider three experimental questions: (1) Do abstract examples reduce the number of concrete examples required from the user? (2) Do abstract examples enable better pruning for the synthesizer? (3) How many abstract examples are presented to the user before he/she rejects a program? To answer these questions, we compare our synthesis framework (denoted AE) to a baseline that implements the current popular alternative ([41]), which guarantees that a synthesized program is correct. The baseline acts as follows. It looks for the first program that is consistent with the provided examples and then asks the oracle whether this program is correct. The oracle checks whether there is an input for which the synthesized program and the target program return different outputs. If so, the oracle provides this input and its correct output to the synthesizer, which in turn looks for a new program. If there is no such input, the oracle reports success, and the synthesis completes. We assume a knowledgable user (oracle), implemented by an SMT-solver, which is oblivious to whether the program is easy for a human to understand, making the comparison especially challenging.

	B(4)		B(6)		B(8)	
	AE	baseline	AE	baseline	AE	baseline
#Concrete examples (candidate programs)	4.42	5.64	5.50	7.68	6.62	10.26
Spec-final	11.04		9.36		13.22	
#AE-intermediate	1.98		2.00		3.23	
%Better than baseline	68%		76%		96%	
%Equal to baseline	30%		22%		2%	
%Worse than baseline	2%		2%		2%	

Table 2. Experimental results on the bit vector domain.

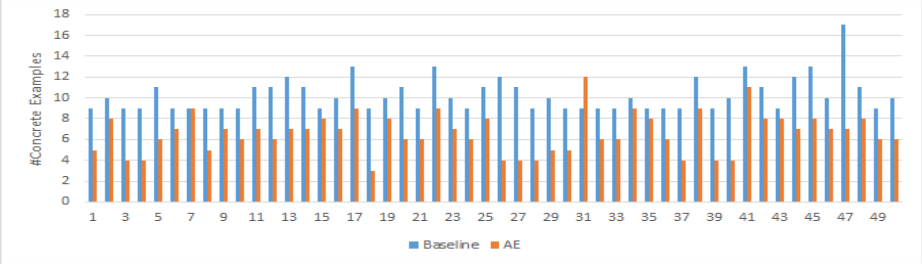


Fig. 3. Detailed results for B(8).

Benchmarks We consider three benchmarks, $B(4)$, $B(6)$, and $B(8)$, each consisting of 50 programs. A program is in $B(n)$ if *baseline* required at least n examples to find it. To find such programs, we randomly select programs of size 4, for each we execute *baseline* (to find it), and if it required at least n examples, we add it to $B(n)$ and execute our synthesis framework (AE) to find the same (or an equivalent) program.

Consistency of Examples The convergence of these algorithms is highly dependent on the examples the oracle provides. To guarantee a fair comparison, we make sure that the *same examples* are presented to both algorithms whenever possible. To this end, we use a cache that stores the examples observed by the baseline. When our algorithm asks the oracle for an example, it first looks for an example in the cache. Only if none meets its requirements, it can ask (an SMT-solver) for a new concrete example.

Results Table 2 summarizes the results. It reports the following:

- #Concrete examples: the average number of concrete examples the oracle provided, which is also the number of candidate programs.
- Spec-final: the average size of the final abstract example specification (after removing implied abstract examples).
- #AE-intermediate: the average number of abstract examples shown to the user before he/she rejected the corresponding candidate program.
- %Better/ equal/ worse than baseline: the percentage of all programs in the benchmark that required fewer/ same/ more (concrete) examples than the baseline.

We note that we observed that the time to generate a single abstract example is a few seconds ($\approx$ 6 seconds).

Results indicate that our synthesis framework (AE), which prunes the program space based on the abstract examples, improves the baseline in terms of the examples the user needs to provide. This becomes more significant as the number of examples required increases: AE improves the baseline on $B(4)$ by 22%, on $B(6)$ by 30%, and on $B(8)$ by 37%. Moreover, in each benchmark AE performed worse than the baseline only in a

The String Program	#Abstract Examples
Concatenates the string "Dear" to the last name.	1
Concatenates the first letter of the first name to the last name.	1
Concatenates the first letter of the first name to the last name and to "@lockhart-gardner.com".	1
Generates the message presented in the motivating example.	2
Concatenates the first two characters of the first name to the third and fourth characters of the last name and to the second digit of the meeting time.	6.57

Table 3. Experimental results on the string domain.

single case – and the common case was that it performed better (in $B(8)$, AE performed better on all cases except two).

Fig. 3 provides a detailed evidence of the improvement: it shows for each experiment (the x-axis) the number of concrete examples each algorithm required (the y-axis). The figure illustrates that the improvement can be significant. For example, in the 47^{th} experiment, AE reduced the number of examples from 17 to 7.

The number of concrete examples is also the number of candidate programs generated by the synthesizer. Thus, the lower number of examples indicates that the abstract examples improve the pruning of the program space. Namely, abstract examples help the overall synthesis to converge faster to the target program.

5.3 Abstract Example Specification Evaluation

In this section, we evaluate our generalization algorithm, L-SEP, in the string domain and check how well it succeeds in learning small specifications. To this end, we fix a program and a concrete example to start with and run L-SEP. We repeat this with uncovered inputs until the set of abstract examples covers the string domain. We then check how many abstract examples were computed.

The programs we considered are related to the motivating example. For each program, we run five experiments. Each experiment uses a different Excel row (lawyer) as the first concrete example. We note that our implementation assumes that the names and meeting times are non-empty strings and are space-delimited. Table 3 reports the programs and the average number of abstract examples. Results indicate that the average number of abstract examples required to describe the entire string domain is low.

6 Related Work

In this section, we survey the work closely related to ours.

Learning Specifications Learning regular languages from examples has been extensively studied in the computational learning theory, under different models: (i) identification in the limit (Gold [20]), (ii) query learning (Angluin [4]), and (iii) PAC learning (Valiant [44]). Our setting is closest to Angluin's setting which defines a teacher-student model and two types of queries: membership (concrete examples) and equivalence (validation). The literature has many results for this setting, including learning automata, context-free grammars, and regular expressions (see [37]). In the context of learning regular expressions, current algorithms impose restrictions on the target regular expression. For example, [9] allows at most one union operator, [27] prevents unions and allows loops up to depth 2 , [17] assumes that input samples are finite and Kleene stars are not nested, and [6] assumes that expressions consist of *chains* that have at most one

occurrence of every symbol. In contrast, we learn an extended form of regular expressions but we also impose some restrictions. In the context of learning specifications, [43] learns specifications for programs in the form of logical formulas, which are not intuitive for most users. Symbolic transducers [45, 8] describe input-output specifications, but these are more natural to describe functions over streams than input manipulations.

Least General Generalization L-SEP takes the approach of least general generalization to compute an abstract example. The approach of least general generalization was first introduced by Plotkin [32] who pioneered inductive logic programming and showed how to generalize formulas. This approach was later used to synthesize programs from examples in a PBE setting [31, 35]. In contrast, we use this approach not to learn the low-level program, but the high-level specification in the form of abstract examples.

Pre/Post- Condition Inference Learning specifications is related to finding the weakest pre-conditions, strongest post-conditions, and inductive invariants [16, 24, 36, 13, 12, 19]. Current inference approaches are mostly for program analysis and aim to learn the conditions under which a bad behavior cannot occur. Our goal is different: we learn the (good and bad) behaviors of the program and present it through a high-level language.

Applications of Regular Expressions There are many applications of regular expressions, for example in data filtering (e.g., [46]), learning XML file schemes (DTD) (e.g., [17, 6]), and program boosting (e.g., [11]). All of these learn expressions that are *consistent* with the provided examples and have no guarantee on the target expression. In contrast, we learn expressions that precisely capture program specifications.

Synthesis Program synthesis has drawn a lot of attention over the last decade, and especially in the setting of synthesis from examples, known as PBE (e.g., [22, 28, 14, 25, 21, 23, 38, 47, 1, 30, 29, 18, 5, 33, 39, 34]). Most PBE algorithms synthesize programs consistent with the examples, which may not capture the user intent. However, some works guarantee to output the target program. For example, CEGIS [41] learns a program via equivalence queries, and in oracle-guided synthesis [26] the authors assume that the program space is finite, which allows them to guarantee correctness by exploring all distinguishing inputs (i.e., without validation queries). Synthesis has also been studied in a setting where a specification and the program's syntax are given and the goal is to find a program over this syntax meeting the specification (e.g., [42, 40, 2, 7]).

7 Conclusion

We presented a novel synthesizer that interacts with the user via abstract examples and is guaranteed to return a program that is correct on all inputs. The main idea is to use abstract examples to describe a program behavior on multiple concrete inputs. To that end, we showed L-SEP, an algorithm that generates maximal abstract examples. L-SEP enables our synthesizer to describe candidate programs' behavior through abstract examples. We implemented our synthesizer and experimentally showed that it required few abstract examples to reject false candidates and reduced the overall number of concrete examples required.

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