COMPLX: A Verification Framework for Concurrent Imperative Programs

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Abstract
We propose a concurrency reasoning framework for imperative programs, based on the Owicki-Gries (OG) foundational shared-variable concurrency method. Our framework combines the approaches of Hoare-Parallel, a formalisation of OG in Isabelle/HOL for a simple while-language, and SIMPL, a generic imperative language embedded in Isabelle/HOL, allowing formal reasoning on C programs.

We define the COMPLX language, extending the syntax and semantics of SIMPL with support for parallel composition and synchronisation. We additionally define an OG logic, which we prove sound w.r.t. the semantics, and a verification condition generator, both supporting involved low-level imperative constructs such as function calls and abrupt termination. We illustrate our framework on an example that features exceptions, guards and function calls. We aim to then target concurrent operating systems, such as the interruptible eChronos embedded operating system for which we already have a model-level OG proof using Hoare-Parallel.

Categories and Subject Descriptors D.1.3 [Programming Techniques]: Concurrent Programming; F.3.1 [Logics and Meanings of Programs]: Specifying and Verifying and Reasoning about Programs

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1. Introduction
C is still the language of choice for developing software with high performance and precise memory requirements, for it allows aggressive manual optimisation. At the same time, performance-demanding low-level systems, such as operating system (OS) kernels or real-time systems, also have strong safety and security objectives, which call for formal verification. Multiple frameworks for formal reasoning about C programs exist and have successfully been used, ranging from push-button automated tools to check the absence of classes of runtime errors, to more effort-intensive interactive methods to prove deeper correctness properties. We target the latter, minimising the trust needed in the tools, maximising the strength of properties that can be proven. To this end, we propose a framework for formal, interactive verification of shared-variable concurrent imperative low-level programs, which can be combined with a C parser front end for concurrent C code verification, paving the way to verified interruptible or multicore systems.

We follow a common approach to reasoning about programs: embedding the given language within a powerful theorem prover, Isabelle/HOL [Nipkow et al. 2002] in our case. That is, we define abstract and concrete syntax, and specify runtime behaviour. Although it is possible to directly reason over the semantics of programs, it is untenable and not scalable. It can instead be automated by the definition of a set of logic rules, reducing the program’s correctness statement to a series of simpler verification conditions. This verification condition generator (VCG) is typically syntax-directed, unfolding the proof according to the rules of the logic. In order to justify such reasoning with our set of rules, we prove their soundness with respect to the language’s formal semantics.

Such an infrastructure exists for reasoning about sequential C programs in Isabelle/HOL. C programs are translated into SIMPL [Schirmer 2006, 2008], a generic, sequential, imperative language formalised in Isabelle/HOL. The C-to-Isabelle translation [Tuch et al. 2007] is unavoidably trusted, parsing C code into formal logic, and is therefore as conservative and direct as possible. The SIMPL framework provides syntax and semantics for the language, as well as a Hoare logic (with its soundness proof) and a VCG. It has successfully been used in the landmark verification of the seL4 microkernel, guaranteeing multiple correctness prop-
properties of seL4 to the C implementation [Klein et al. 2010; Murray et al. 2012]. The framework, however, lacks the ability to reason about concurrence.

We extend SIMPL with support for shared-variable concurrency, following the foundational Owicki-Gries (OG) method [Owicki and Gries 1976]. OG has been formalised in Isabelle/HOL’s library in the Hoare-Parallel theory [Prensa Nieto 2002] for a simple high-level while-language IMP. We chose OG over more recent variants (e.g. Rely-Guarantee [Jones 1983], Concurrent Separation Logic [O’Hearn 2007]) for the simplicity of OG logic and its suitability to reason about potentially-racy high-performance shared-variable system code: we previously successfully used it for a model-level verification of the interruptible eChronos embedded OS [Andronick et al. 2015, 2016]. The OS provides an API to applications for synchronisation and locking, but the OS code itself shares racy memory state with interrupt handlers\(^1\). In this previous work, we used Hoare-Parallel’s formalisation of OG and we demonstrated how the well-known explosion of verification conditions of the OG method can be efficiently handled by the powerful automation of modern theorem provers and by the careful modelling of controlled interleaving. We now want to push our proofs down to guarantees about the C implementation, which is the motivation for the work presented here.

Our contributions are the following:

- We propose the language COMPLX as an extension of SIMPL with support for parallel composition and synchronisation, and we define its concurrent semantics. We largely reuse SIMPL’s existing infrastructure to facilitate the port of existing verifications that use SIMPL (section 3).
- We define a practical OG-based logic, inspired by Hoare-Parallel, and a VCG to facilitate semi-automated proof using the logic (section 4).
- We prove our logic sound with respect to the semantics, ensuring that proofs using the logic are true guarantees about the execution of the program (section 5).
- Finally, we present a case-study demonstrating the use and practicality of this framework for the verification of concurrent imperative programs (section 6).
- As part of the examples, we demonstrate how we support concurrent function calls, including a technique to handle arguments passing and local variables.

With additional work, the existing infrastructure around SIMPL, including the C-to-Isabelle parser, can be updated to enable reasoning about a significant subset of concurrent C code in Isabelle/HOL. This would open up the applicability to several existing codebases, including the eChronOS OS, and potentially a multicore variant of seL4. Our framework assumes that the granularity of interleaving is that of C instructions; porting the guarantees down to executable code and weak memory architectures is not in the scope of this paper.

All our Isabelle/HOL formalisations and the case studies are available online [COMPLX].

2. Background

In this section, we present existing work that our paper combines and extends. The first section presents SIMPL, an existing formalisation of sequential imperative programs in Isabelle/HOL (and the existing infrastructure to verify C code). The second presents Hoare-Parallel, an existing formalisation of OG for a simple while-language in Isabelle/HOL. Our work consolidates those two components to create a language that provides a basis for reasoning about concurrent C code in Isabelle/HOL.

2.1 Verification of C in Isabelle/HOL

As mentioned in the introduction, SIMPL allows embedding of real programming languages into Isabelle/HOL, and is sufficiently expressive to model a substantial subset of C features. SIMPL can be used directly for reasoning about C code and it has indeed been used directly in the verification of LEDA’s [Mehlhorn and Näher 1999] shortest path checker [Rizkallah 2014].

A far more common verification approach though is using the C-to-Isabelle parser [Tuch et al. 2007] which converts a large subset of C99 code into low-level SIMPL code. SIMPL and the C-to-Isabelle parser together provide an established infrastructure for the verification of sequential C programs in Isabelle/HOL. They have been used in the verification of the seL4 microkernel which is written in C [Klein et al. 2010] and in several other C verification projects [Amari et al. 2016; Murray et al. 2012; Noschinski et al. 2014].

Syntax SIMPL provides the usual imperative language constructs, including functions, variable assignment, sequential composition, conditional statements, while loops, and exceptions. SIMPL has no expression language of its own; expressions are shallowly embedded. The notion of state is also generic and left for instantiation; it is defined as an Isabelle record of local and global variables (variables are then simply functions on the state). The C-to-Isabelle parser only supports side-effect-free expressions, modelled as Isabelle/HOL expressions, and it instantiates the state space to C memory states. The following is a summary of SIMPL syntactic forms, where \( e \) represents an expression:
\[
c = \text{Skip} \mid v := e \mid c_1 ; c_2 \mid \text{IF } e \text{ THEN } c_1 \text{ ELSE } c_2 \text{ FI} \mid \text{WHILE } e \text{ DO } c \text{ OD} \mid \text{TRY } c_1 \text{ CATCH } c_2 \text{ END} \mid \text{Throw} \mid \text{Call } n \mid \text{DynCom } c_s \mid \text{Guard } f \; g \; c
\]

The \text{DynCom } c_s \text{ statement is a dynamic (state dependent) command that takes as argument } c_s \text{ which is a func-}
tion from states to commands. It is used in C verification to encode argument passing and scoping in function calls. The guard \( f \) of a call statement throws the fault \( f \) if the condition \( g \) is false and executes \( c \) otherwise. It is used in C verification to encode certain correctness conditions ensuring that the C program does not exhibit undefined behaviour (e.g., division by zero). Call just takes the name of the function being called.

Semantics Computation in SIMPL are described by several equivalent models, including big- and small-step semantics. Here we are interested in the small-step semantics, as we want to model the fine-grain interleaving of concurrent programs.

The small-step semantics is represented by statements of the form \( \Delta \vdash^s \langle s, s' \rangle \) that read as: program \( c \) in state \( s \) takes a step to program \( c' \) and the updated state \( s' \) under the environment \( \Delta \) which maps function names to function bodies. Both \( s \) and \( s' \) are extended states: they are either Normal states, representing typical execution flow (including exception handling), or Fault states, generated by calls to non-existent procedures, or Stuck states, generated by failed Guard statements. For normal program states, \( s = \text{Normal} \cdot x \), the semantics is as expected; whereas in cases \( s = \text{Stuck} \) or \( s = \text{Fault} \), we may only transform \( c \) to \( \text{Skip} \) with \( s' = s \).

Exceptions are used to represent abrupt termination — function calls and loops are wrapped in a try-catch block and the C statements return, break, and continue are implemented by assigning appropriate value to an auxiliary variable and raising an exception with throw. The exception is caught by catch, mimicking an abrupt termination of the try block.

Verification Specifications for SIMPL programs are given as Hoare triples, where pre-conditions and post-conditions are stated by Isabelle expressions. The SIMPL environment provides a VCG for partial correctness that converts Hoare triples to a set of higher-order formulas that are easier to reason about. The Hoare triples are represented by statements of the form \( \Delta \vdash^s \langle c \cdot Q, A \cdot P \rangle, \) where \( P \) is the pre-condition, \( Q \) is the post-condition for normal termination, \( A \) is the abrupt-condition for abrupt termination, and \( F \) is the set of faults allowed. A soundness proof guarantees the safe use of the Hoare logic instead of directly reasoning about the semantics: it states that if such a Hoare triple is established, then all final states reached through the execution of the command (according to the semantics) from an initial state that satisfies the pre-condition, will satisfy the post-condition and the abrupt-condition.

2.2 Verification of Concurrent Code in Isabelle/HOL

Hoare logic may be used to prove that a thread in a concurrent program is locally correct, i.e., that it is correct under a sequential interpretation of its semantics without interleaving of external commands. In order to prove that it is correct in a concurrent setting, we have to additionally prove that it is globally correct, i.e., that it is still correct considering all possible interleavings with other threads in the system.

The Owicki-Gries [Owicki and Gries 1976] method for the verification of shared-variable concurrent programs extends the proof method for sequential correctness with the concept of interference freedom: each thread is first proved to be locally correct and then each atomic command in each thread is proved to not interfere with (i.e., invalidate) the local correctness proof of another thread in parallel. If the proof of local correctness for a command \( c \) requires a pre-condition \( P \), and \( c \) may be interleaved with another command \( c' \) whose pre-condition is \( P' \), then in order to show interference freedom, we show that \( (P' \land P) \land c' \{P\} \) holds, i.e., that \( P \) remains true after being interleaved with \( c' \).

In order to satisfy the requirements for interference freedom over all threads in a system, it is necessary to store these intermediate assertions. Unlike for a sequential program, we may require post-conditions to be arbitrarily stronger than the weakest pre-condition implied by the Hoare logic. For this reason, we need to fully annotate the concurrent program with intermediate assertions in order to verify its correctness relative to other threads in the system, in contrast to a sequential program, for which these properties may largely be automatically derived and discarded once used.

Hoare-Parallel [Preina Nieto 2002] is a formal reasoning framework in Isabelle/HOL for a simple concurrent language, including a formalisation of OG. The language consists of assignment, sequential composition, conditionals, loops, and two additional statements for concurrency: Parallel and Await. The execution is modelled through a small-step semantics; an await statement can only do a step if its boolean guard \( b \) is true, in which case its body \( c \) is executed atomically; a step of a parallel composition of programs is a step of any of its thread that is not blocked on an await. Hoare-Parallel’s abstract syntax is defined using the following mutually recursive datatype:

\[
ac = \text{AnnSeq } ac \mid \text{AnnBasic } r f \mid \text{AnnCond } b ac ac \\
\mid \text{AnnWhile } r b r ac \mid \text{AnnAwait } r bc
\]

and

\[
c = \text{Parallel } [ac .. ac] \mid \text{Seq } c \mid \text{Basic } f \mid \text{Cond } b c c \\
\mid \text{While } b r c
\]

The outer layer \( c \) performs sequential actions or initiates a parallel composition, and the inner layer \( ac \) within the parallel composition expresses a thread, with each action annotated with an assertion \( r \).
COBEGIN ... COEND is used as syntactic sugar for Parallel. Throughout the paper we reuse the Hoare-Parallel’s Parallel concrete syntax for COMPLX.

3. COMPLX: Syntax and Semantics

Recall that the aim of COMPLX is to enrich SIMPL with parallel composition and synchronisation. The Hoare-Parallel development shows how the OG method can be formalised in Isabelle/HOL, introducing syntax and the small-step semantics for parallel components. We largely reuse this approach with two major deviations. Firstly, we do not incorporate annotations into COMPLX abstract syntax but rather represent annotations using a separate datatype. Annotations and programs will be related in the next section by means of the OG logic. This way the abstract syntax remains simple and clear, and we can reuse the existing C-to-Isabelle parser. Secondly, we do not separate parallel and sequential programs into different layers, but rather have one datatype representing both. These decisions make the soundness proof more complicated, but allow COMPLX programs to have nested parallelism, thus lifting unnecessary syntactic restrictions.

In this sense, COMPLX just extends the SIMPL abstract syntax by two new constructors: Parallel cs and Await bc:

\[ c = \text{Skip} | \ldots | \text{Parallel cs} | \text{Await bc} \]

where Parallel takes a list of programs cs that run in parallel, and Await takes a set of states s specifying the await-condition, and a program c representing the await-body. It is worth noting that with nested parallelism we could use the canonical binary parallel composition operator \( p \parallel q \) instead of Parallel cs without any effect to semantic expressivity, since Parallel cs can be represented by folding the binary operator. On the other hand, an OG-rule for \( p \parallel q \) would lack the possibility to collect and handle interference freedom of more than two parallel components within a single proof obligation, but distribute it in accordance to the fold strategy. To avoid such complications, Parallel takes a list of parallel components directly in COMPLX abstract syntax as shown above.

Next, we extend the small-step semantics of SIMPL to the new language constructs. As mentioned previously, we use small-step semantics to allow for reasoning about interleavings between each atomic step. In what follows, we reuse the SIMPL notation \( \Gamma \vdash (c, s) \rightarrow (c', s') \) meaning that the configuration \( (c, s) \), comprising a COMPLX program c and a state s, can be transformed in one step to the configuration \( (c', s') \) under the procedure environment \( \Gamma \). As usual, we write \( \Gamma \vdash (c, s) \rightarrow^{*} (c', s') \) for the reflexive-transitive closure of the small-step relation.

To adapt the semantics of Parallel cs and Await bc from Hoare-Parallel to SIMPL’s involved computation model, we have to take into account several kinds of states: Normal, Fault, and Stuck, as well as exception handling. New situations arise that neither SIMPL nor the Hoare-Parallel formalisations had to deal with. For instance, we have to decide how a parallel program shall behave in the case when one of its threads raises an uncaught exception. In this case we allow the parallel program to stop all other threads and exit with the exception. The rule Parallel-Throw:

\[ \Gamma \vdash (\text{Parallel cs}, s) \rightarrow (\text{Throw}, s) \]

captures this behaviour, where set just converts a list to a set. However, the parallel program may also continue its computation, delaying the exception, provided by the fundamental Parallel rule:

\[ \Gamma \vdash (\text{Parallel cs}, s) \rightarrow (\text{Parallel cs}|i := c|, s') \]

where \( |cs| \) denotes the length of the list cs, \( cs_i \) the i-th (counting from 0) element of cs, and \( cs[i := c] \) the list cs with its i-th element replaced by c. Furthermore, a parallel program is allowed to terminate properly only if all its threads do so. This is described by the Parallel-Skip rule:

\[ \forall c \in \text{set} cs. \ c = \text{Skip} \]

Next, for Await bc to be processed in a state Normal x, the await-condition must be satisfied, i.e. \( x \in b \) must hold. Otherwise the execution is blocked. Moreover, the body of the await c must be a sequential program without any further Await statements or Parallel compositions. Following the Hoare-Parallel notation, we denote this condition by atom_com c. Now, any computation \( \Gamma \vdash (c, \text{Normal } x) \rightarrow^{*} (\text{Skip, Normal } y) \) allows us to derive \( \Gamma \vdash (\text{Await bc, Normal } x) \rightarrow (\text{Skip, Normal } y) \). In other words, if the await-body terminates in a number of small-steps without any interleavings then Await bc can make the same transition in a single step. Here again we have to consider potential exceptions raised by c, in which case we let Await bc throw an exception as well. These behaviours are formalised by the following rules, where \( x = \text{Normal } x \) and \( s' = \text{Normal } y \).

\[ x \in b \quad \text{atom_com } c \quad \Gamma \vdash (c, s) \rightarrow^{*} (\text{Skip, s'}) \]

\[ \Gamma \vdash (\text{Await bc, s}) \rightarrow (\text{Skip, s'}) \]

\[ x \in b \quad \text{atom_com } c \quad \Gamma \vdash (c, s) \rightarrow^{*} (\text{Throw, s'}) \]

\[ \Gamma \vdash (\text{Await bc, s}) \rightarrow (\text{Throw, s'}) \]

The cases when an execution of the await-body c results not in Normal y, but in a state s’ other than normal (e.g. Stuck), are handled in a similar manner: (Await bc, Normal x) can take a single small-step to (Skip, s’).

4. Owicki-Gries Logic for COMPLX

Verification of programs by directly reasoning about the semantics of the language is cumbersome and not easily
amenable to automation. For sequential SIMPL programs, SIMPL’s Hoare logic allows for weakest pre-condition style reasoning, generating intermediate assertions, and a small set of verification conditions that guarantee partial correctness (i.e. correctness in case of termination). For our concurrent COMPLX programs, we create an OG logic, similar to the one defined in Hoare-Parallel, that breaks down the correctness of a parallel program into local correctness and global correctness verification conditions.

4.1 Annotations

As explained in section 3, we use a single datatype to represent sequential and concurrent programs. Moreover, our OG annotations are specified using a separate datatype called an annotation tree, which is isomorphic to the abstract syntax tree of the COMPLX program. The annotation tree contains assertions at each step in the program and is represented as follows:

\[
a = AnnExpr r \mid AnnRec r a \mid AnnWhile r r a \mid AnnComp a a \mid AnnCond r a a \mid AnnPar l \mid AnnCall r i
\]

Non-recursive command constructors such as Skip, Throw, etc. are annotated via an AnnExpr node, which carries a single assertion \( r \) that is merely a set of states and is also used for post-conditions of OG rules. AnnRec is used to annotate recursive commands, such as Await, DynCom or Guards, that hold another annotated command \( a \). While-commands require a special annotation type that provides an assertion for the while, a loop invariant, as well as an annotation tree for the loop body. Sequential composition and Catch statements are annotated via AnnComp, where an annotation sub-tree is provided for each component of the sub-commands. Similarly, AnnCond is used for conditional statements, but in addition to the two annotation sub-trees, it carries an assertion for the conditional statement itself.

AnnPar is used to annotate Parallel statements, hence, it stores a list \( l \) of triples containing an annotation tree, a post-condition and an abrupt-condition, with one element in the list per parallel component. The post-conditions and abrupt-conditions must be specified by the user, because they are part of the interference freedom requirements. More specifically, we must show that none of these conditions can be violated due to other components activity.

Finally, Call statements are annotated with AnnCall, which holds an assertion \( r \) and a routine index \( i \) of type natural number, specifying which annotation tree to select from the annotation environment. We return to this at the end of subsection 4.2.

Despite having a separate datatype for the program and the annotation tree, COMPLX’s syntactic sugar allows a user to annotate a program directly. This way we specify assertions at each step of the program, making it easy to keep track of the assertions when following the control flow of the program.

For instance, the following is a COMPLX program with the annotations and program text combined.

\[
x := 0;\ y := 0;
COBEGIN\ \{a\} x := 1 \| \{Q_x\}, \{A_x\} \| \{b\} y := 1 \| \{Q_y\}, \{A_y\}
COEND
\]

This produces two different trees, one for the program itself (where Basic \( f \) models state update by the function \( f \), here variable assignment):

\[
Seq (Basic (x\_update (λ- 0)))
(\text{Seq (Basic (y\_update (λ- 0)))})
(Parallel (Basic (x\_update (λ- 1))),
Basic (y\_update (λ- 1))))
\]

and a separate annotation tree of the form

\[
AnnComp (AnnExpr \{True\})
(AnnComp (AnnExpr \{True\}))
(AnnPar ([AnnExpr \{a\}], \{Q_x\}, \{A_x\}),
(AnnExpr \{b\}, \{Q_y\}, \{A_y\}))
\]

In the annotation tree, the trivial, unused assertions for the sequential parts are automatically added by the syntactic sugar, removing the burden from the user.

4.2 Owicki-Gries Rules

We define an OG statement of the form

\[
Γ, Θ ⊢_F a c \{Q\}, \{A\}
\]

stating that the COMPLX program \( c \) with the annotation tree \( a \) either ends in one of the fault states specified by \( F \), or a Normal state. If that Normal state is an exception, it must satisfy the post-condition \( Q \), \( Γ \) is the procedure environment, mapping function names to function bodies, and \( Θ \) is the annotation environment, mapping function names to annotation trees.

To enable weakest pre-condition reasoning when proving a sequential part of a program (i.e. within an Await or top-level non-parallel commands), we have another OG statement which takes an extra pre-condition \( \{P\} \):

\[
Γ, Θ ⊢_F \{P\} a c \{Q\}, \{A\}
\]

This means that we duplicate every OG rules and the sequential version of a rule ignores the annotation tree. We borrowed this idea from Hoare-Parallel, which also has two versions for each rule. In our case, the annotation tree exists but is only used as soon as we switch to parallel mode.

Figure 1 illustrates some of the important OG logic rules for COMPLX. We omitted all the rules used for sequential reasoning except for SeqParallel which allows switching from sequential mode (denoted by \( ⊢ \)) to parallel mode (denoted by \( \vdash \)). This rule would be used when the program is
finished dealing with an initial sequential part and reaches
a parallel composition. Note that the pre-condition \{P\} in
the sequential OG statement disappears in the parallel one,
as long as it implies the pre-condition of the assertion tree.
Also note that the OG rules ensure that the annotation tree
and the program match, e.g. a Parallel statement can only be
proved correct if provided with an AnnPar annotation.

As explained in section 3, COMPLX allows for nested
Parallel statements. Several conditions must be met when
using the Parallel rule to derive a Parallel statement. Ev-
e ry component of Parallel must itself be derivable. pres,
postcond and abrcond respectively return the annotation
tree, the post-condition and the abrupt-condition of an el-
ment of the list in AnnPar described earlier. While the
intersection of the post-conditions of all components must
imply the post-condition of the overall Parallel, for abrupt-
conditions only one of the components must satisfy the
abrupt-condition of the Parallel. This is explained by the
fact that exceptions can interrupt other components. The key
requirement for derivability of Parallel is interfere which
specifies interference freedom — we return to this definition
in next section.

A derivation of Await \(b\ c\) requires a sequential derivation
of \(c\) with the assertion \(r\) combined with the condition \(b\)
as pre-condition. In addition, the command \(c\) must be deprived
of Parallel and Call statements since they cannot be atomic
and thus are forbidden in Await. This restriction is achieved
by the atom-com predicate and guarantees that a program
does not end in a Stuck state because of a non-atomic op-
eration found in an Await.

Dynamic commands are functions that produce a com-
mand from a state. They provide a general mechanism to
model programs that need to introspect their state. For
instance, they could be used to model self-modifying code.
However, for C verification their use is limited to restoring
the value of local variables when a function is called. We
elaborate on this in section 6. In order to be able to reason
about dynamic commands in OG, we must be able to anno-
tate them. Since program annotations are static, they must
not depend on the state of the program. Thus our framework
restricts their use to dynamic commands that can be anno-
tated statically. DynCom is derivable so long as an annota-
tion tree \(a\) can be provided and that it allows derivation of the
command produced by the dynamic command \(f\) for any state
allowed by the assertion on DynCom. An additional require-
ment for the annotation tree to be valid is that its first asser-
tion must be allowed by the assertion on DynCom (i.e. \(r\).
pre \(a\) returns the first assertion of the annotation tree \(a\).

The Guard rule is straightforward. For the command
Guard \(f\ g\ c\), if the guard condition \(g\) is not satisfied, the fault
\(f\) must be allowed by the fault set \(F\) of the OG statement.

The rule asserts this by requiring that, when the fault is not
allowed by the OG statement, the assertion \(r\) allows more
states than the ones that do not satisfy the guard.

The last interesting rule is Call. The annotation envi-
ronment \(\Theta\) stores a list of annotation trees per function. Since
a function can be called from multiple places and each call
may require a different set of assertions, multiple annotation
trees of the same function may be kept in the environment.
AnnCall provides a routine index to select which tree to use.
When deriving Call, the annotation environment needs to be
correctly initialised such that the requested annotation tree
matches the function body. This way a derivable program
cannot end in a Stuck state because of an undefined function
call. Ideally, this index would be computed by the translation
from C to COMPLX.

4.3 Interference Freedom

As explained in section 2, interference freedom states that,
for every atomic command \(c\) extracted from parallel com-
ponents, all the commands it may be interleaved with have
their assertions preserved by the execution of \(c\). COMPLX’s
interfree definition follows the same principle as Hoare-Parallel’s, but with several important differences.

First, in order to support function calls we extract assertions and atomics using relations instead of functions. Extracting assertions and atomic commands from a program requires going through every statement including statements inside function bodies. To avoid divergence, the extraction functions must keep track of which functions have been processed. The resulting function must maintain a state and becomes hard to use when induction is required. In addition, COMPLX’s separation between program and annotations makes it harder to extract assertions and atomics using a function. Since the annotation tree and the program structure are not synchronised by construction, a function would have to be partial or undefined if the annotation tree does not match the structure of the program. To address these issues, in COMPLX we use relations instead of functions to extract assertions and atomics. Using a relation, any mismatch between annotation tree and program structure simply results in the relation not holding, and the infinite-recursion problem goes away since the relation does not have to terminate. More importantly, by using a relation we can describe an infinite set of assertions/atomics, which is specifically required for DynCom.

Second, COMPLX’s semantics is significantly more complicated than Hoare-Parallel’s. In particular, as the COMPLX semantics executes the program, it reduces the program to a final command (i.e. Skip or Throw) which denotes termination of execution. This is visible on most of the small-step semantics rules presented in section 3, such as Parallel-Throw, Parallel-Skip... Consequently, Skip and Throw commands have two purposes: they denote final configurations, and they also are legitimate commands that can be found in any given program. In the latter case, they must be annotated manually. However, in the former case the COMPLX framework must automatically generate assertions for them. Typically, the assertion on a Skip will be the assertion of the next command, or, if it is the last command of the program, the post-condition. Hence, the relation that extracts assertions takes the post-condition and the abrupt-condition of the program and generates the appropriate assertions for every semantics rule that leads to a final configuration.

Finally, since COMPLX allows nested Parallel statements, assertions need to be collected recursively on each of the parallel components.

4.4 VCG

In order to automate the creation of verification conditions for programs in COMPLX, we ported and extended Hoare-Parallel’s VCG. We added support for several constructors, including Catch, Call, Guard and DynCom. This involved writing Isabelle/HOL tactic rules to decompose the derivation of these commands and convert interference freedom goals to OG statements showing that assertions are preserved. As in Hoare-Parallel, most of the generated proof obligations get easily discharged using Isabelle/HOL automation. This makes our framework ideal for concurrency verification as finding the right correctness assertions should be the bulk of the work for verifying a concurrent program.

5. Soundness Proof

Verification using logic rules and a VCG is much more efficient than reasoning directly with the semantics, but it needs to be proven sound if we want to preserve the same level of trust. In this section we outline our proof that COMPLX’s OG-rules presented in section 4 are sound with respect to the semantics presented in section 3. Namely we prove, in Isabelle/HOL, the following theorem (identical to SIMPL’s soundness theorem):

\[ \Gamma, \Theta \vdash_{/P} \exists c \{Q\}, \{A\} \Rightarrow \Gamma \vdash_{/P} \{\text{pre } a\} \exists c \{Q\}, \{A\} \]

This states that any Hoare triple\(^3\) that is derivable from the OG-rules is valid, where validity is defined in terms of the small-step semantics (below e.g. Normal ‘\{P\} denotes the image of \{P\} under Normal, embedding this \{P\} into extended states):

\[ \Gamma \vdash_{/P} \{P\}, \{Q\}, \{A\} \equiv \forall s t c'. \]

\[ \Gamma \vdash (c, s) \rightarrow^* (c', t) \rightarrow_f \text{final} (c', t) \rightarrow_{s \in \text{Normal} \cdot \{P\} \rightarrow_{t \notin \text{Fault} \cdot F \rightarrow_{c' = \text{Skip} \land t \in \text{Normal} \cdot \{Q\} \lor c' = \text{Throw} \land t \in \text{Normal} \cdot \{A\}} \]

That is, a program \(c\) is called valid if final states of any of its full executions without any faults from a state \(s\) satisfying \(P\), satisfy the relevant post-condition. More precisely, if \(c\) executes, after multiple steps, into either \text{Skip} or \text{Throw} (denoted by final) then the final state \(t\) satisfies \(Q\) if \(c' = \text{Skip}\) and \(A\) if \(c' = \text{Throw}\). Note that a sequence of small-steps cannot reach both, \text{Skip} and \text{Throw}. It is also worth noting, that as a consequence of separating annotations from programs, the notion of validity is purely semantical, thus completely independent from annotations which are only needed for derivability.

We now outline the main challenges in the soundness proof that proceeds by induction on the structure of the OG-rules. For the sake of brevity, in the following we will focus on the cases when all considered states are Normal: apart from these we get several corner cases, such as that guards can fail only within specified Fault states or absence of undefined function calls. These are, however, of technical nature and do not contribute much to the structure and complexity of the overall proof.

All OG-rules, beside those for parallel composition and synchronisation, retain their SIMPL form, such that in these cases we proceed similarly to the sequential setting. This changes, of course, as soon as we reach the parallel composition and await cases.

\(^3\) Technically, this is more a Hoare quadruple but we still use the more traditional term of triple.
The major challenges arise in the proof of the parallel case, i.e. when \( c = \text{Parallel } cs \). We can assume all the premises of the OG-rule PARALLEL (see Figure 1), in particular that interference freedom holds for the parallel components \( cs \) with respect to the annotation. Moreover, we can assume \( \Gamma \vdash \langle \text{Parallel } cs, \text{Normal } x \rangle \rightarrow^* \langle c', \text{Normal } y \rangle \) with \( x \) satisfying the annotated pre-condition and \( c' \) being \text{Skip} or \text{Throw}. What we need to prove is that \( y \) satisfies the relevant post-condition. For this we induct on the closure of the small-step relation, and the challenge is to show that all the assumed conditions (from the premise of the OG rule, e.g. interference freedom) are preserved by each execution step (to be able to apply the induction hypothesis). This is a challenge because each step ‘consumes’ a part of the program, which needs to be reflected in the annotation tree. We capture this by a separate lemma, where we collect all the necessary properties relating pre- and post-configurations of any small-step. That is, if \( \Gamma \vdash \langle c, \text{Normal } x \rangle \rightarrow \langle c', \text{Normal } y \rangle \) holds for any \( c, x, c', y \), and the program \( c \) is derivable with an annotation structure \( a \) by the OG-rules such that \( s \) satisfies the annotated pre-condition, then we can find an annotation structure \( a' \) such that \( c' \) is derivable with \( a', y \) satisfies the pre-condition in \( a' \) and, moreover, any assertion or atomic of \( a' \) is an assertion or atomic of \( a \), respectively. Since the program \( c \) is an arbitrary COMPLX program, we induct on the structure of \( c \). Here again, only the await and parallel cases are more involved. For await we can rely on the canonical restriction that the body of any Await-construct is purely sequential, i.e. a SIMPL program in fact. In the parallel case, however, we have to deploy our interference freedom assumption to show that any post-state of the whole parallel construct will satisfy annotated conditions regardless of which of the constituting components does its small step. To this end we need to establish a connection between the small-step semantics and atomic formulas as follows. Any program transition \( \Gamma \vdash \langle c, \text{Normal } x \rangle \rightarrow \langle c', \text{Normal } y \rangle \), where Normal \( x \) satisfies the annotated pre-condition and \( x \neq y \), can only happen due to an atomic subcomponent \( cc \) of \( c \) that performs the step \( \Gamma \vdash \langle cc, \text{Normal } x \rangle \rightarrow \langle \text{Skip}, \text{Normal } y \rangle \). Now, the interference freedom property states that each of such atomic steps preserves assertions of any component other than the one that performs the step. This gives us the preservation we need to carry assumptions over single steps of execution.

For the proof of the top-level Await case we similarly can assume \( \Gamma \vdash \langle \text{Await } bcc, \text{Normal } x \rangle \rightarrow^* \langle c', \text{Normal } y \rangle \) with \( x \) satisfying the annotated pre-condition, \( c' \) being \text{Skip} or \text{Throw}, and \text{Await } bcc being derivable by the OG-rules. Moreover, by induction hypothesis we also know that the await-body \( cc \) is valid. On the other hand, from the semantics of Await we can conclude that \( y \) can only be obtained by a certain number of small-step transformations of \( \langle cc, \text{Normal } x \rangle \) until a \text{Skip} or \text{Throw} configuration is reached, establishing the desired result.

6. Case Study

We used our COMPLX framework to reproduce the proof of correctness of a few examples of concurrent algorithms that had been verified within Hoare-Parallel, including the proof of Peterson’s solution to the mutual exclusion problem [Prensa Nieto 2002]. Our proofs can be found online [COMPLX] and were very easily achieved once our framework was complete. This shows that COMPLX is robust and backward compatible with Hoare-Parallel, as none of the proofs required extra work. The VCG generates approximately the same number of proof obligations and discharging them takes a similar processing time. These examples, however, did not exercise any C-specific features.

To demonstrate the practicality of our framework in verifying concurrent C code, we created an example (also available online [COMPLX]) of a concurrent C program that exercises the specific features that COMPLX supports. In particular, our example uses exceptions, guards and function calls, all of which are not supported by Hoare-Parallel.

In our example, we extracted manually the program model from the C source code. The C program and the COMPLX program are both less than 20 lines, and the whole model is \( \approx 230 \) lines of Isabelle/HOL definitions, including the complete set of assertions used to annotate the program and verify its correctness. The VCG generates 688 conditions and most of them are easily discharged using Isabelle/HOL automation. Once again, the bulk of the work lies in finding the right correctness assertions.

The aim of the program is to compute the combined sum of all the elements of multiple arrays. It does this by running a number of threads in parallel, each computing the sum of elements of one of the arrays, and then adding the result to a global variable \( gsum \) shared by all threads. We restrict the example to two arrays and threads, but this could be generalised: we would then just need to generate accordingly more copies of the function \( \text{sumarr} \), pairwise disjoint in local variables, such that each thread can invoke its own copy of \( \text{sumarr} \). The correctness statement for this program is:

\[
\Gamma, \Theta \vdash_{/f} \{\text{precond}\} \\
\text{COBEGIN} \\
\text{SCHEME} \{0 \leq m < 2\} \\
\text{call-sumarr } m \\
\{\langle local-postcond m \rangle, \{\text{False}\}\} \\
\text{COEND} \\
\{\text{postcond}\}, \{\text{False}\}
\]

The SCHEME syntax models a parametric number of parallel programs. Here we use it to model the creation of two threads running concurrently, each calling the function \( \text{sumarr} \). The post-condition (definition not shown) states that the global variable \( gsum \) is indeed equal to the combined sum of all elements of all arrays. Since the function \( \text{sumarr} \) cannot terminate with an exception, the abrupt-condition is false, which forces us to prove that all exceptions are caught. As explained in section 4, prov-
ining interference freedom also requires that we specify the post-condition (local-postcond) and abrupt-condition (false again) of the parallel component.

To begin we explain the state of the program, then how we model function calls, and finally how the sumarr function is defined.

State
The state of the program is modelled with the following record:

```plaintext
record sumarr_state =
    (* function arguments *)
    tarr :: “routine ⇒ word32 array”
    tid :: “routine ⇒ word32”
    (* local variables of threads *)
    ti :: “routine ⇒ word32”
    tsum :: “routine ⇒ word32”
    (* global variables *)
    garr :: “(word32 array) array”
    gsum :: word32
    gdone :: word32
    glock :: nat
```

We now explain the need for the routine argument. Major challenges arise when attempting to verify parallel programs that make use of function calls. In a sequential context, a call to a function named \( f \) in a state \( s \) means that we just lookup the body of \( f \) in the procedure environment \( \Gamma \), continue with the execution of \( \Gamma f \) in the state \( s \) and return to the calling routine afterwards. In a concurrent setting, however, this execution could be interleaved with another call of \( f \) invoked by a different thread. Thus, if \( \Gamma f \) uses some local variables, the model of the overall parallel program might not behave as in reality, as both invocations of \( f \) can interfere on the same local variables. Therefore, in our state, function arguments and local variables are modelled as a mapping from routine index to value. This allows concurrent executions of a function to use different instances of the variables.

In contrast, global variables are shared by all threads, so they are not protected by a routine index. We use \( garr \) to store two arrays of machine 32-bit words that will be passed to each thread via argument \( tarr \). The global variable \( gsum \) is used to store the total result, whereas \( tsum \) stores the local result used by each thread. The bit-field \( gdone \) is used to indicate whether a thread has finished its computation. Finally, the threads use \( glock \) as a mutually exclusive lock in order to protect the shared variables \( gsum \) and \( gdone \).

For the remainder of this section, \( \{ ... \} \) denotes the places where assertions are required. To improve the readability and to highlight the similarity between input source and COMPLX model, we display our models without most of the assertions.

Function calls
We define \( call-sumarr \) as shown in Figure 2. The parameter \( m \) is the routine index (from the

```plaintext
call-sumarr m ≡
\{local-precond m\} CALLX (sumarr-init m)
\{sumarr-precond m\} ("sumarr", m) m
(sumarr-restore m) (λ t. Skip)
\{sumarr-restore-post m\} \{sumarr-return-post m\}
\{False\} \{False\}
```

**Figure 2:** Annotations for the function \( sumarr \).

```plaintext
callx init body restore return =
DynCom (λs. TRY
    init;; body
CATCH
    restore s;; THROW
END;;
DynCom (λt. restore s;; return s t))
```

**Figure 3:** Argument passing and scoping for function calls.

\( SCHEME \) used to specify which copy of a local variable is accessed. \( CALLX \) is syntactic sugar for calling a function while passing arguments and implementing scoping, i.e. saving and restoring local variables. The computation is done by a function \( callx \) shown in Figure 3 (\( CALLX \) combines it with annotations, as we will explain shortly). The process of calling a function involves several steps:

1. Saving the value of local variables by keeping a copy of the state.
2. Initialising local variables and function arguments by updating the state.
3. Executing the function body.
4. Restoring the value of local variables using the copy of the state.
5. Extracting the return value of the function from the state.

Saving and restoring local variables is required to support recursive functions and is equivalent to setting up and tearing down the stack frame in C. Steps 1 and 5 of function calls are both implemented using \( DynCom \) as seen in Figure 3.

The first \( DynCom \) is used to keep a copy of the state that is later used for restoring local variables. As we can see, \( callx \) is complicated by exceptions that may cross function boundaries. When an exception is uncaught, the local variables must first be restored before the exception is propagated.

Steps 2 and 4 use the provided functions \( init \) and \( restore \). In our example, there are two arguments being passed to \( sumarr \), the array \( tarr \) and the thread identifier \( tid \). The initialisation and restore functions are:
\texttt{sumarr-init} \( m \equiv \lambda s. s[tarr := (tarr s)(m := (garr s)[m_0])],
\texttt{tid} := (tid s)(m := m + 1), \texttt{ti} := (ti s)(m := \text{undefined}),
\texttt{tsum} := (\text{tsum s})(m := \text{undefined})\)

\texttt{sumarr-restore} \( m \equiv \lambda s t ti tarr := (tarr t)(m := tarr s m), \texttt{tid} := (tid t)(m := tid s m),
\texttt{ti} := (ti t)(m := ti s m), \texttt{tsum} := (\text{tsum t})(m := \text{tsum s m})\)

To reason about function calls in OG, the user also has to provide assertions for every step in the control flow of \texttt{callx}. To facilitate this, there is an equivalent helper function \texttt{ann-callx}. The arguments of the \texttt{CALLX} statement are then the commands for dealing with argument passing and scoping, the corresponding annotations, and the function name and index used when looking up the procedure and annotation environment.

One restriction of our current implementation of \texttt{CALLX} is that both initialising and restoring local variables is performed in one step. This does not match the reality of C, which uses multiple instructions and can potentially be interleaved. We believe that it would be relatively straightforward to change our framework to use multiple steps, one for each local variable. Additionally, we should be able to create syntactic sugar that hides many of these details from the end user.

In Figure 2, \texttt{local-precond} corresponds to the first assertion of the parallel component, whereas \texttt{summar-precond} is the assertion once the arguments and local variables have been initialised. The other assertions describe the state before restoring local variables (\texttt{summar-restore}) and before extracting the return value from the state (\texttt{summar-return}), for normal termination of the function. For abrupt termination these assertions are false, as the function \texttt{sumarr} cannot terminate with an exception.

\textbf{The \texttt{sumarr} function} Returning to our case study, Figure 4a shows the body of the \texttt{sumarr} function, as it would be implemented in C. The pointer \texttt{tarr} refers to the array of unsigned integers that is being summed and \texttt{tid} is a thread identifier of value 1 or 2 depending on the thread.

The loop calculates the sum of each element of the array and at each iteration if the sum or the current element exceeds \texttt{MAXSUM}, we break out of the loop and cap \texttt{tsum} at \texttt{MAXSUM}. This prevents potential word overflows, assuming that \texttt{NSUM} and \texttt{MAXSUM} are chosen appropriately. After the loop, we invoke the \texttt{lock} and \texttt{unlock} functions to protect the global variables \texttt{gsum} and \texttt{gdone}. In the C code, \texttt{lock} and \texttt{unlock} are implemented using a mutex.

Figure 4b shows the \texttt{COMPLX} model in Isabelle/HOL of this function. As seen in subsection 4.1, \texttt{COMPLX}'s syntactic sugar allows the program to be directly annotated. Additionally, concurrent executions of functions require different instances of any local variables. Therefore, in Figure 4b we parametrise \texttt{sumarr} with \( m \), which is used as a routine index to select which local variables to use.

The first two lines initialise the local variables \texttt{tsum} and \texttt{ti} to zero. Note that a for-loop is trivially converted to a while-loop by moving the loop counter update to the end of the loop body. The while-loop is wrapped inside a try-catch statement because \texttt{COMPLX}, just like \texttt{SIMPL}, uses exceptions to model early exit of a loop. Hence, the break statement present in the C code is replaced with a \texttt{Throw} in \texttt{COMPLX}, and the \texttt{CATCH} block only contains a \texttt{Skip}, i.e. do nothing. This means that when the exception is thrown, it has the effect of breaking out of the loop.

One of the most important aspects of verifying C code is proving the absence of behaviours undefined by the C standard. In both \texttt{SIMPL} and \texttt{COMPLX} undefined behaviours are usually specified using guards. For instance, in our case there could be undefined behaviour if an invalid pointer is dereferenced. Therefore, every time a pointer is accessed it must be protected by a guard forcing us to prove that the pointer is indeed valid.

In Figure 4b, since \texttt{tarr} is a pointer, every access is guarded with an \texttt{array-in-bound} check which guarantees that \texttt{tarr} is a valid pointer and that the index \texttt{ti} is less than the length of the array. If the guard is not satisfied the program returns the fault \texttt{InvalidMem} indicating an invalid memory access. Having explicit guard commands in \texttt{COMPLX} also allows us to reason about concurrent programs that can actually end in a specific \texttt{Fault} state. For instance, we are able to prove that in some circumstances a program is guaranteed to result in a \texttt{Fault} state.

After the loop, the model calls the function \texttt{lock}, to acquire the global mutex that protects the shared variables \texttt{gsum} and \texttt{gdone}. Since \texttt{lock} and \texttt{unlock} only access a global variable (the mutex) and do not take any arguments, their call does not require saving and restoring of local variables. The definition of \texttt{lock} and \texttt{unlock} follows:

\begin{verbatim}
lock m \equiv \{ [...] \text{AWAIT glock = 0 THEN} glock := 1 \text{ END} \}
unlock m \equiv \{ [...] \text{glock := 0} \}
\end{verbatim}

The mutex is modelled by using \texttt{glock}, a global variable set to 1 when the lock is held and 0 otherwise. The semantics of \texttt{Await} guarantees that only one thread can be inside the lock at a time.

\textbf{Summary} \texttt{COMPLX} was designed to reason about an accurate representation of the C code, without requiring that programmers radically change their programming style and habits. A key feature of \texttt{COMPLX} is the syntactic sugar which allows annotating programs directly on the program model, despite having a separate datatype for annotation tree and program. This gives us the best of both worlds: a user-friendly framework for annotating program and a neat language abstract syntax which is not cluttered with irrelevant annotations. The lack of exceptions in Hoare-Parallel would force reimplementing our code to avoid having a \texttt{break}
statement in the middle of the loop. Furthermore, support for guard statements is critical to enable C verification, because they ensure that the semantics of the code is defined. Finally, supporting function calls is a key requirement for our framework, which we intend to use on larger scale verification projects.

7. Related Work

Logics for Concurrency Over the years, many logics were developed for reasoning about concurrency, the oldest and most straightforward of which is OG. OG provides, however, no modular way to reason about memory and quickly leads to an explosion in the number of verification conditions that need to be proven. Rely-Guarantee (RG) [Jones 1983], Concurrent Separation Logic (CSL) [O’Hearn 2007], and a number of more recent combinations and extensions of these (e.g. [Vafeiadis 2008; da Rocha Pinto et al. 2014]) have been developed since to overcome the modularity issues of OG. The separation-based logics typically rely on ownership over shared state: threads need to lock their accesses to shared state and ownership can be transferred along acquire/release atomic memory accesses.

In recent work [Andronick et al. 2015, 2016], we found that using the simple OG method is suitable for our reasoning of interrupt-induced concurrency in racy OS code. In that code, the OS API functions, the scheduler and the interrupt handlers all concurrently modify shared variables without any synchronisation (in order to meet stringent low-latency requirements). The correctness argument needs to rely on fine-grain assertions at these sharing points; it cannot rely on some atomicity or ownership argument. We used OG (at the simple high-level language IMP) and we introduced a technique that we called await-painting, essentially painting our program with Await statements to limit the concurrency to places where it actually occurs. This technique allowed us to proof-engineer an Isabelle/HOL tactic that automatically discharges most of the verification conditions generated by OG. We successfully used the tactic to verify an abstract model of the eChronos OS scheduling behaviour. COMPLX will enable us to extend this verification to the C implementation.

In COMPLX, just like SIMPL, the notion of state is abstract: we propose a generic language for reasoning about concurrent imperative code. Modelling memory is orthogonal to the work done in this paper. The C-to-Isabelle parser defines a concrete notion of state on top of SIMPL which, for instance, can be reasoned about using separation logic [Tuch et al. 2007]. Building a framework in the spirit of FCSL (fine-grained concurrent separation logic) [Nanevski et al. 2014; Sergey et al. 2015] on top of the COMPLX language would be interesting future work.

Recent work showed that, as is, OG is unsound for weak memory models but can be extended in a sound logic by strengthening its interference-freedom condition [Lahav and Vafeiadis 2015]. We could look at a similar approach if we want to support weak memory models in the future.

Tools for Verification of Concurrent C We focus here on tools that allow the verification of specific properties or specifications, rather than e.g. static analysers that can only detect specific classes of errors. VCC [Cohen et al. 2009] is an industrial-strength verification environment for low-level concurrent system code. It is an assertional, auto-

Figure 4: The C code and matching COMPLX model of our case study

```c
void sumarr(unsigned int *tarr, unsigned int tid)
{
  unsigned int ti;
  unsigned int tsum;
  tsum = 0;
  for (ti = 0; ti < NSUM; ti++) {
    tsum += tarr[ti];
    if (tsum >= MAXSUM || tarr[ti] >= MAXSUM) {
      tsum = MAXSUM;
      break;
    }
  }
  lock();
  gsum += tsum;
  gdone |= tid;
  unlock();
}

(a) C code

(b) COMPLX model
```
matic, deductive code verifier for C, where specifications in the form of function contracts, data invariants, and loop invariants are added to the C code to guide VCC. From the annotated program, VCC generates verification conditions, which it then tries to discharge using the automatic theorem prover Z3 [de Moura and Bjørner 2008] or through the Boogie verifier [Barnett et al. 2006]. VCC has been used, among others, to verify the Microsoft Hyper-V hypervisor and has also been used in the Verisoft XT project [Verisoft XT]. Moreover, Isabelle/HOL was used as a backend to VCC for the verification of certifying graph algorithms from LEDA [Alkassar et al. 2014]. When the C-to-Isabelle parser was open-sourced, the LEDA verification project switched to only using SIMPL and the C-to-Isabelle parser and redid their verification completely within Isabelle/HOL, in order to provide higher trust guarantees [Noschinski et al. 2014; Rizkallah 2015]. Unlike an LCF based theorem prover (e.g. Isabelle/HOL or Coq [Bertot and Castéran 2004]), VCC relies on a large trusted computing base that includes the entire VCC engine and Z3 [Noschinski et al. 2014; Rizkallah 2015]. Similar to VCC, VeriFast [Jacobs et al. 2010] relies on Z3. We would like to enable reasoning about concurrency, within an LCF based theorem prover in order not to compromise on trust.

A number of recent efforts provide tools to reason about concurrency in Coq. Most of these efforts are based on CSL and primarily focus on modular reasoning about non-racy shared memory. The Verified Software Toolchain [Appel 2012] provides machine-checked guarantees that the CSL assertions about concurrent C code with primitive lock operations hold down to the machine-language program. Iris [Jung et al. 2015, 2016] is a general and expressive logic with a simple set of verified primitive mechanisms and proof rules for modular reasoning about shared memory. Once again, we are targeting potentially-racy high-performance code for which OG fine-grain assertions are well-suited.

8. Conclusion and Future Work

In this paper we have presented our COMPLX framework for sound verification of concurrent imperative code in Isabelle/HOL. We have emphasised how we use the Owicki-Gries method in order to extend the SIMPL tool to cope with concurrency. This way our framework inherits support for function calls and exception handling from SIMPL. The presented case-study illustrates how these features can be utilised in practical verification.

Future work includes more proof engineering to increase ease of use, integration with the C-to-Isabelle parser, and definition of more concrete notions of states.

With the work presented here, we bridge the gap between the verification of abstract algorithms and that of their imperative implementations. We plan to extend the C-to-Isabelle parser to translate C code into COMPLX code to provide guarantees for concurrent low-level C code, with the aim to verify concurrent operating systems, such as the interruptible eChronos embedded operating system or multicore seL4.

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