Exposing Non-Atomic Methods of Concurrent Objects

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Multithreaded software is typically built with specialized “concurrent objects” like atomic integers, queues, and maps. These objects’ methods are designed to behave according to certain consistency criteria like atomicity, despite being optimized to avoid blocking and exploit parallelism, e.g., by using atomic machine instructions like compare and exchange (CMPXCHG). Exposing atomicity violations is important since they generally lead to elusive bugs that are difficult to identify, reproduce, and ultimately repair.

In this work we expose atomicity violations in concurrent object implementations from the most widely-used software development kit: The Java Development Kit (JDK). We witness atomicity violations via simple test harnesses containing few concurrent method invocations. While stress testing is effective at exposing violations given catalytic test harnesses and lightweight means of falsifying atomicity, divining effectual catalysts can be difficult, and atomicity checks are generally cumbersome. We overcome these problems by automating test-harness search, and establishing atomicity via membership in precomputed sets of acceptable return-value outcomes. Our approach enables testing millions of executions of each harness each second (per processor core). This scale is important since atomicity violations are observed in very few executions (tens—hundreds out of millions) of very few harnesses (one out of hundreds—thousands). Our implementation is open source and publicly available.

CCS Concepts: Software and its engineering → Software testing and debugging; Software reliability; Consistency;

Additional Key Words and Phrases: concurrency, atomicity, testing

1 INTRODUCTION

Modern computer software is increasingly concurrent. Interactive applications and services necessitate reactive asynchronous operations to handle requests immediately as they happen, rather than waiting for long-running operations to complete. Furthermore, as processor manufacturers approach clock-speed limits, performance improvements are more-often achieved by parallelizing operations across multiple processor cores.

However, building concurrent software is notoriously difficult. Besides coordinating the order of sequenced operations, programmers must also anticipate all possible ways in which the intermediate steps of concurrent operations can interfere with one another. The many possible timings in which operations may access shared memory leads to many possible, and potentially unexpected, observable program behaviors. Programmers must manage the interaction between concurrent operations to exclude timings which lead to program errors. Traditionally this meant manual and error-prone synchronization using operating system primitives like locks.

Modern software development kits (SDKs) such as the Java Development Kit (JDK) simplify concurrent programming by providing “concurrent objects” which encapsulate shared-memory accesses into higher-level abstract data types. For instance, The JDK provides 16 atomic primitive register types, e.g., with atomic increment methods, and 14 concurrent data structures, e.g., with atomic offer, peek, and poll methods. Having been designed and implemented by experts, and scrutinized by a large community of JDK users, these concurrent objects offer high performance and reliability.

Consequently, given the potentially-enormous amount of software that relies on these concurrent objects, it is important to maintain precise specifications and ensure that implementations adhere to their specifications. Many methods are expected to behave atomically, meaning that the results of concurrently-executed invocations match the results of some serial execution of those same invocations; they are expected to behave atomically...
despite the heavy optimizations employed to avoid blocking and exploit parallelism, e.g., by preferential use of atomic machine instructions like compare and exchange (cmpxchg) over lock-based synchronization; some methods, notably the iterator methods of JDK concurrent data structures, adhere to weaker consistency criteria. Regardless, identifying expected consistency criteria and exposing violations is vital, since violations generally lead to elusive bugs that are notoriously difficult to identify, reproduce, and ultimately repair.

In this work we focus on a single consistency criterion, atomicity, and demonstrate that a great number of JDK concurrent data structure methods do not behave atomically. In particular, we identify 10 classes in the java.util.concurrent package which implement queues, deques, sets, and key-value maps. For each class we select a small set of core methods which are believed to behave atomically. These core methods represent the most basic operations, e.g., a key-value map’s put, get, remove, and containsKey methods. We exhibit non-atomic behaviors involving core method invocations with one non-core method invocation, thus assigning the blame of non-atomicity to the non-core method. For instance, a behavior in which a key-value map’s size method returns 2 when executed concurrently with the sequence \[\text{put}(0,1); \text{remove}(0); \text{put}(2,3)\] would not be atomic, since at no moment are 2 key-value mappings stored.

While atomicity violations can signal the inconsistency of one single operation, e.g., when read-only methods like “size” erroneously read transient object state, they can also signal graver inconsistencies such as broken object invariants, e.g., when mutator methods erroneously write to transient object state. For instance, in the JDK’s ConcurrentSkipListMap, it is possible for the final invocation in the sequence \[\text{clear}(); \text{put}(1,1); \text{containsKey}(1)\] to return false when the invocation of clear is concurrent with another put invocation. This indicates a rather insidious breakage of the object’s representation invariant\(^1\) since the put invocation for the missing key 1 clearly happens after the offending clear invocation.

As both a means of discovering atomicity violations and enabling reproduction, we exhibit small test harnesses through which each violation is exposed. For instance, the harness listed in Figure 1 exposes the priorly-discussed atomicity violation in the clear method. Having indexed the method invocations, the harness records the return value of each invocation and checks whether the outcome of a given execution, i.e., the contents of the Result array, corresponds to that of some atomic behavior. The executions of a given harness are produced by a test automation framework which may exhibit any concurrent execution of the harness’s sequence methods, e.g., by executing Sequence1 and Sequence2 on separate threads. In stress testing with this particular harness we witness two possible outcomes: \([\text{null},()\])\(^2\) and \([\text{null},(),\text{null},\text{false}]\). Since the containsKey invocation returns true in every serial execution of these four invocations, only the first value corresponds to an atomic behavior; the second value exhibits an atomicity violation. In our experience, a standard stress-testing framework exhibits this violation approximately once every few thousand executions.

Although we find stress testing to be effective at exhibiting non-atomic outcomes given the right test harness, there are two basic challenges to completely automating the violation-discovery process. First, writing a test harness which exposes any given violation is challenging; this generally requires both insight into the concurrent object’s implementation, as well as an imagination for how certain concurrent invocations might interfere with each other given just the right timing. Second, existing methods for checking whether a given outcome is atomic are cumbersome; they generally require recording the partial order in which invocations happened, then enumerating the exponentially-many linearizations of those partially-ordered invocations, while checking whether some linearization yields the same outcome; the overhead of enumerating linearizations is prohibitive since it greatly reduces the number of executions that can be explored for a given harness, and any given outcome may occur only tens–hundreds of times per million executions.

\(^1\)This bug has been independently identified and fixed recently: https://bugs.openjdk.java.net/browse/JDK-8166507
\(^2\)We write () to represent the results of methods with void return type.
import java.util.concurrent.ConcurrentSkipListMap;

class TestHarness {
    ConcurrentSkipListMap M = new ConcurrentSkipListMap();
    Object[] Result = new Object[4];
    Object VOID = null;
    void Sequence1() {
        Result[0] = M.put(0,0);
    }
    void Sequence2() {
        Result[1] = VOID; M.clear();
        Result[2] = M.put(1,1);
        Result[3] = M.containsKey(1);
    }
    boolean checkResult() {
        return Result[0] == null && Result[1] == VOID
                && Result[2] == null && Result[3] == true;
    }
}

We address the first challenge, harness generation, by automating the exploration of candidate test harnesses. To achieve this, we develop a simple and complete characterization of test harnesses, i.e., for which any possible outcome observed by some program can also be observed by one of our harnesses, and then enumerate candidate harnesses until finding one which exposes an atomicity violation. Our characterization is built around the concept of invocation sequences: each harness is comprised of sequences of invocations of the given object’s methods; the sequences may be partially ordered, and all but one of the invocations invoke core methods. For instance, the harness listed in Figure 1 contains two unordered invocation sequences, four invocations, and two argument values (0 and 1). Towards finding small and simple harnesses, we rank harnesses according to their number of sequences, invocations, and argument values, and explore lower-rank harnesses before higher-rank harnesses. For example, we would encounter the harness of Figure 1 after having explored harnesses with two sequences, three invocations, and two values, since their ranks are ordered, and before having explored harnesses with three sequences, four invocations, and two values. Of course, this search will only be practical if small harnesses tend to expose atomicity violations, and if we can exhibit many, e.g., millions, of executions of each harness in a very short time, e.g., one second. Our empirical results demonstrate that this search is practical, depending on a means of fast and lightweight atomicity checking.

We address the second challenge, lightweight atomicity checking, by specializing existing approaches (Burckhardt et al. 2010a) based on linearizability (Herlihy and Wing 1990) to small bounded test harnesses. During each concurrent execution, these approaches record the partial order in which an arbitrary number of invocations are executed; at the end of each execution, atomicity is decided by checking whether at least one linearization of those invocations yields the same return values as in the original concurrent execution; atomicity is otherwise violated. While this method is both sound and complete for atomicity (Filipovic et al. 2010), it is expensive since executions generally have exponentially-many linearizations. To avoid this cost, we notice that when the number and identities of invocations are known ahead of time, as is the case in the executions of one single loop-free test harness, it is possible to avoid enumerating linearizations for each execution. Instead, we index a

Fig. 1. A test harness with two invocation sequences.

Fig. 2. Sample result from 1 second of stress testing.

Fig. 3. Sample result from 1 second of stress testing.
given test harness’s invocations, and check whether a invocation-indexed vector of return values is included in a pre-computed set of return-value vectors of atomic behaviors. For instance the result array in the test harness of Figure 1 stores this result vector. This approach is advantageous for two reasons: first, the set of return-value vectors admitted by atomic behaviors can be precomputed once per test harness, and reused over millions of test executions, each which simply checks whether their result vector is in this set; and second, since many linearizations often map to the same result vector, the set of atomic result vectors is usually much more compact than the set of linearizations. For instance, there are 4 possible linearizations of the test harness of Figure 1, corresponding to the order of Sequence1’s put operation in relation to Sequence2’s operations, yet only 2 possible result vectors. This difference grows quickly: for instance, in harnesses with 6 invocations, we have observed averages of 16 linearizations to 3 results.

Empirically, our solutions to these problems are impactful. Our approach enables testing millions of executions of each harness each second (per processor core). This amounts to a 30× speedup over the state-of-the-art Line-Up checker (Burckhardt et al. 2010a), which performs systematic concurrency testing via schedule enumeration, and atomicity checking via linearization enumeration, spending on average 31.5 seconds per harness. Despite our use of stress testing in place of a more systematic enumeration of executions, our approach exhibits atomicity violations efficiently due to the sheer number of executions explored per second, and the 30× greater rate of harness exploration.

In summary we make the following contributions.

• We expose atomicity violations in several methods of several jdk concurrent data structures.
• We develop a complete approach for generating test harnesses which expose the non-atomicity of one method among core-method invocations.
• We develop an approach for the lightweight checking of atomicity which is instrumental in the automation of test-harness generation.
• We develop a tool which realizes these ideas to automatically derive test harnesses exposing each of the reported jdk atomicity violations.

Our tool implementation is open source and publicly available3 and can be applied to generate tests for witnessing atomicity violations in any Java object, so long as that object’s sequential behavior is deterministic, i.e., so that the same invocation sequence always yields the same outcome. Our tool is lightweight and easy to use, in that it does not require any special scheduler-perturbing machinery, due to our use of stress testing in place of schedule enumeration, and does not require user insight, beyond identifying core methods.

The remainder of this article is organized as follows. Section 2 presents the list of atomicity violations we have discovered in jdk concurrent data structures. Sections 3 and 4 describe our automation for test harness discovery and efficient atomicity checking. Section 5 reports on empirical results, and Section 6 discusses the impact and limitations of our findings. Section 7 discusses related work, and Section 8 gives concluding remarks.

2 ATOMICITY IN JDK CONCURRENT DATA STRUCTURES

In this section we identify atomicity violations across several jdk concurrent data structure classes. These classes have large interfaces consisting of many diverse methods, likely making it difficult to implement an entire class atomically. Research in designing concurrent data structures typically focuses on a small set of core methods representing the most basic operations, e.g., a key-value map’s put, get, remove, and containsKey methods. Additional methods such as putAll and clear are presumably more likely to exhibit atomicity violations since they are not as heavily studied. While we are not aware of existing formal proofs stating that the jdk’s implementations of these core methods are actually atomic, we are also not aware of any atomicity violations among them; our approach assumes their atomicity.

3Our tool is available on GitHub: https://github.com/michael-emmi/violat
For the remaining non-core methods of a given class, we characterize atomicity by the return-value outcomes observed in executions with concurrent core-method invocations. An outcome is simply a vector of the invocations’ return values in a given execution; the indexing of invocations is fixed by a given test harness. For example, in the sample tests listed in Figures 2 and 3, we observe two outcomes by stress testing the clear method’s harness, and four outcomes by stress testing the putAll method’s harness. The clear method removes all mappings stored in a target key-value map, while the putAll method adds the mappings from its argument key-value map to the target; both methods have void return type. The put method adds a mapping to the target key-value map and returns the previously-mapped value for the given key if one exists; otherwise put returns false. The get method returns the current value mapped from a given key, or null if no mapping for that key exists, while containsKey returns true if the target stores a mapping for the given key. The remove method removes the current mapping for a given key if one exists and returns the mapped value, and otherwise returns null.

We say that a given outcome is atomic when that outcome is observed in some serial execution of the same invocations. For example, consider the possible serial executions in Figure 4 of the putAll method harness of Figure 3. There are three possible serializations, given with their corresponding outcomes. While there are four possible serializations of the clear method’s harness, each serialization shares the same outcome [null, (), null, true]. The observed outcome [null, (), null, false], in which containsKey returns false after the corresponding key was added, is thus non-atomic. This notion of atomicity captures the intuitive notion that the user of a given concurrent object would not be able to distinguish it from an inefficient reference implementation in which invocations were completely synchronized, and would not execute concurrently.

Figures 2 and 3 depict actual sample results of stress testing the given test harnesses over millions of executions in one single second, with observed outcomes collected. As these results demonstrate, atomicity violations may manifest rarely, which can be problematic when attempting to diagnosing anomalous behavior. See Section 5 for details about the stress testing we perform. While the atomicity violation in the putAll method signals an inconsistency in one single operation, violations can have much broader consequences. For instance, the violation exhibited by the clear method indicates a lasting inconsistency for possibly all subsequent operations, since the invocation to containsKey returns false after its argument key was added subsequently to clearing.

The operations of JDK concurrent data structures are broadly characterized according to the following categories; Figure 5 list an example violation in each category.

R-1 Read-only snapshot operations like toString, toArray, keySet, and size, which return a complete view of the entire data structure.
R-2 Read-only snapshot predicates like isEmpty, which return a reduced view of the entire data structure.
R-3 Read-only query operations like contains, containsAll, containsValue, get, and peek, which return a reduced view including only some elements of the data structure.
M-1 Mutating bulk operations like putAll, addAll, removeAll, which add or remove multiple elements.
M-2 Mutating reset operations like clear, which to some predefined state, e.g., the empty state.

Fig. 4. The serializations of the test harness of Figure 3.

| serialization of | outcome |
|------------------|---------|
| [putAll({0=1,1=0}), get(0); remove(1)] | putAll get remove |
| [putAll({0=1,1=0}); get(0); remove(1)] | (), 1, 0 |
| [get(0); putAll({0=1,1=0}); remove(1)] | (), null, 0 |
| [get(0); remove(1); putAll({0=1,1=0})] | (), null, null |

*We abbreviate test harnesses by listing their sequences; for instance, the example test harness of Figure 1 is abbreviated in Figure 2.*
| class                     | harness                                      | outcome | category |
|--------------------------|----------------------------------------------|---------|----------|
| ConcurrentHashMap        | [containsKey(1); isEmpty()], [put(1,0)]    | true,  true, null | R-2       |
| ConcurrentLinkedQueue   | [offer(1); poll(); offer(0)], [toArray()]  | true, 0, true, [1,0] | R-1       |
| ConcurrentLinkedQueue   | [poll(); offer(1)], [offer(0); containsAll({0,1})] | 0, true, true, true | R-3       |
| ConcurrentLinkedQueue   | [offer(1); poll()], [removeAll({1,1})]      | true, 1, true | M-1       |
| ConcurrentLinkedQueue   | [poll()], [offer(1); offer(0); clear()]     | 0, true, true, ()  | M-2       |
| ConcurrentLinkedDeque   | [poll()], [offerFirst(0); offer(1)]         | 1, true, true | M-3       |

Fig. 5. Atomicity violations in JDK methods. In the case of ConcurrentLinkedDeque, offer and poll have a FIFO semantics adding and removing a value at the end and respectively, from the beginning of the queue.

M-3 Mutating local operations like offer, poll, put, and remove, that add or remove a single element.

Atomicity violations in the read-only categories are generally due to the offending operation performing reads from multiple distinct transient states; violations in the mutator categories generally make some transient state visible to other operations, or interfere with other operations by writing to transient state. Intuitively, the mutating operations present a greater problem since they are potentially capable of breaking their given object’s representation invariant, thus compromising the integrity of all future operations.

Figure 6 lists our findings for the methods of several JDK concurrent data structures. We have selected 10 of the 14 concurrent data structures appearing in the java.util.concurrent package. Those not selected are the copy-on-write data structures (CopyOnWriteArrayList, CopyOnWriteArraySet) and DelayQueue for which we have not identified atomicity violations — since they use coarse-grained locking operations in place of more efficient atomic instructions like compare and exchange, they are less likely to contain violations — and the SynchronousQueue, which is not specified using sequential abstract data types since, e.g., since their specifications state that “each insert operation must wait for a corresponding remove operation by another thread.” For each class, we list the core methods, followed by the non-core methods, distinguishing between those for which we do not and do, respectively, exhibit atomicity violations.

We exclude from our study methods which are not specified using sequential abstract data types, including:

- methods which don’t have a sequential semantics, e.g., the take method of ArrayBlockingQueue which removes the head of the queue, waiting if necessary until an element is available,
- methods whose semantics involves real-time e.g., the overloaded poll method of ArrayBlockingQueue which waits up to a specified amount of time if necessary for an element to become available, and
- methods with nondeterministic return values, e.g., the default hashCode method implementation inherited from java.lang.Object whose return value is a function of the object’s allocated memory address.

For technical simplicity, we have also excluded iteration methods, e.g., iterator and stream, methods with function-valued arguments, e.g., forEach, and methods with mutable output parameters, e.g., the LinkedTransferQueue’s drainTo method.

Overall, we remark that a significant number of method implementations are not atomic, and that methods with atomic implementations in one class may have non-atomic implementations in another. According to our classification exemplified in Figure 5, we observe the following:

- Read-only snapshot methods (R-1) are generally non-atomic, except for the implementations in ArrayBlockingQueue, PriorityBlockingQueue, and LinkedBlockingDeque.
|                      | ConcurrentHashMap                     | ConcurrentSkipListMap                     | ConcurrentSkipListSet                     | ConcurrentLinkedQueue, LinkedTransferQueue | LinkedBlockingQueue | ArrayBlockingQueue, PriorityBlockingQueue, LinkedBlockingDeque<sup>‡</sup> | ConcurrentLinkedDeque |
|----------------------|--------------------------------------|------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------|---------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------|
| core                 | putIfAbsent, replace                 | putIfAbsent, replace, ceilingKey, floorKey, firstKey, lastKey, higherKey, lowerKey, keySet, isEmpty       | add, remove, contains, ceiling, floor, first, last, lower, higher, isEmpty       | offer, peek, poll                                    | put, add, take, remove, element                                      | offer, peek, poll                                      |
|                     | put, get, remove, containsKey        | put, get, remove, containsKey            |                                         | offer, peek, poll                                    | put, add, take, remove, element                                      | offer, peek, poll                                      |
|                     | putAll, clear, containsValue, isNull, elements, entrySet, keys, keySet, values, size, mappingCount, toString | putAll, clear, containsValue, entrySet, values, tailMap, headMap, subMap, size, toString | addAll, removeAll, clear, pollFirst, pollLast, containsAll, tailSet, headSet, subSet, size, toString, toArray | addAll<sup>†</sup>, removeAll, retainAll, clear, containsAll, size, toString, toArray | addAll<sup>†</sup>, removeAll, retainAll, clear, containsAll, size, remainingCapacity, toString, toArray | addAll, removeAll, retainAll, containsAll |
|                      |                                      |                                         |                                         | offer, peek, poll                                    | put, add, take, remove, element                                      | offer, peek, poll                                      |
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|                      |                                      |                                         |                                         | offer, peek, poll                                    | put, add, take, remove, element                                      | offer, peek, poll                                      |

Fig. 6. Non-atomic methods in JDK concurrent data structures. *Non-atomicity of headMap and subMap is inferred from non-atomicity in ConcurrentSkipListSet. †The addAll method is non-atomic in LinkedTransferQueue and possibly atomic in ConcurrentLinkedQueue. ‡The LinkedBlockingDeque class provides additional methods.
While the read-only snapshot predicate method (R-2) isEmpty of ConcurrentHashMap, LinkedBlockingQueue, and ConcurrentLinkedDeque are non-atomic, we suspect that the remaining seven classes’ implementations of isEmpty are actually atomic.

- The atomicity of read-only query methods (R-3) varies significantly from one class to another.
- Bulk mutator methods (M-1) are almost always non-atomic, except for the addAll methods of ConcurrentHashMap and ConcurrentLinkedDeque.
- The clear method (M-2) is nearly always non-atomic, except for in the ArrayBlockingQueue, PriorityBlockingQueue, and LinkedBlockingDeque.
- The only local mutators (M-3) which we found to be non-atomic were those implementing LIFO semantics in the ConcurrentLinkedDeque, including addFirst, pollLast, peekLast, and LinkedBlockingQueue’s overloaded remove(Object) method.

We discuss possible interpretations for these findings in Section 6.

In the following sections we describe our approach to automatically generating test harnesses. All of the atomicity violations presented in this section have been exhibited with harnesses generated according to our approach. In Section 5 we describe an empirical evaluation of this test harness generation.

3 ATOMICITY AGAINST CORE METHODS

In general, a concurrent object is called atomic (or linearizable) when every individual operation appears to take place instantaneously at some point between its invocation and its return. In order to deal with objects such as those implemented in the JDK framework where only some particular operations may break this property, we define a notion of atomicity that relies on a partition of object’s methods into core and non-core methods. The core methods are assumed to be atomic while a non-core method is called atomic when there exists no program invoking only that method together with core methods that exhibits a non-atomic behavior. Section 3.1 defines a notion of test-harness which allows to capture any interaction with the concurrent object of any program, and Section 3.2 defines the class of atomic test-harnesses which admit only atomic behaviors. The definition of atomic non-core methods is formalized in Section 3.3.

3.1 Test-Harnesses

Let $\mathbb{V}$ be a set of argument and return values. We define test-harnesses as partially-ordered sets of sequences of method invocations represented concretely as words accepted by the following grammar:

\[
\text{invoc} :: m(\text{argument}^*) \quad \text{where} \quad m \text{ is a method name and argument} \in \mathbb{V} \\
\text{invoc-seq} :: \text{invoc} | \text{invoc-seq, invoc-seq} \\
\text{list-invoc-seq} :: [\text{invoc-seq}] | \text{list-invoc-seq, list-invoc-seq} \\
\text{happens-before} :: i < j \mid \text{happens-before, happens-before where} \quad i, j \in \mathbb{N} \\
\text{harness} :: \text{list-invoc-seq, \{happens-before\}}
\]

This grammar generates pairs formed of a list of invocation sequences $\text{list-invoc-seq}$ together with happens-before constraints between those sequences. The happens-before constraints are a list of constraints $i < j$ interpreted as the $i$-th sequence in $\text{list-invoc-seq}$ happens-before the $j$-th sequence. The following are examples of harnesses...
generated by this grammar:

\[
[\text{put}(0, 0)], \ [\text{clear}();\text{put}(1, 1);\text{containsKey}(1)] \tag{1}
\]
\[
[\text{put}(0, 0);\text{put}(2, 0)], \ [\text{clear}();\text{put}(1, 1)] \tag{2}
\]
\[
[\text{put}(0, 0);\text{put}(2, 0)], \ [\text{clear}();\text{put}(1, 1);\text{containsKey}(1);\text{get}(2)] \tag{3}
\]
\[
[\text{put}(0, 0);\text{put}(2, 0)], \ [\text{clear}();\text{put}(1, 1);\text{containsKey}(1);\text{get}(2)], \ [\text{put}(3, 1)], \ \{0 < 2, 1 < 2\} \tag{4}
\]

A harness corresponds to a program where every sequence of invocations is executed in a different thread. Figure 1 gives a concrete implementation of the harness in (1) where the methods Sequence1 and Sequence2 will be executed in two different threads. Happens-before constraints \(i < j\) are implemented using for instance condition variables: the sequence \(j\) awaits a signal placed at the end of the sequence \(i\).

Harnesses represent basic programs that contain no loops or conditionals and have a particular form of synchronization (to implement happens-before constraints). However, they are enough to capture any possible object behavior obtained with an arbitrarily complex program. For any object behavior, i.e., a set of method invocations with their return values and a happens-before relation between these invocations, there exists a harness making exactly that set of invocations which admits an execution with the same happens-before relation between those invocations.

For a harness \(h = \text{list-invoc-seq}, \{\text{happens-before}\}\), we define the following notations:

- \(\text{methods}(h) = \) the set of method names used in \(\text{list-invoc-seq}\)
- \(\text{values}(h) = \) the set of different arguments to the invocations in \(\text{list-invoc-seq}\)
- \(#\text{sequences}(h) = \) the length of \(\text{list-invoc-seq}\)
- \(\text{invocations}(h, m) = \) the multiset of invocations of the method \(m\) in \(\text{list-invoc-seq}\)
- \(\text{invocations}(h) = \) the multiset of invocations in \(\text{list-invoc-seq}\)
- \(#\text{invocations}(h, m) = \) the total number of invocations of the method \(m\) in \(\text{list-invoc-seq}\)
- \(#\text{invocations}(h) = \) the total number of invocations in \(\text{list-invoc-seq}\)

For example, in the case of the harness \(h\) in (4), we have that \(\text{methods}(h) = \{\text{put}, \text{clear}, \text{containsKey}, \text{get}\}\), \(\text{values}(h) = \{0, 1, 2, 3\}\), \(#\text{sequences}(h) = 3\), \(\text{invocations}(h, \text{put}) = \{\{\text{put}(0, 0), \text{put}(2, 0), \text{put}(1, 1), \text{put}(3, 1)\}\}\), and \(#\text{invocations}(h) = 7\).

We assume that harnesses are words accepted by this grammar that satisfy obvious well-formedness conditions, i.e., the list of arguments in every invocation is consistent with the method signature, and the list of happens-before constraints uses values \(i\) and \(j\) which are smaller than the length of \(\text{list-invoc-seq}\) and defines a strict partial-order.

### 3.2 Atomic Test-Harnesses

Checking whether a harness exposes a non-atomic behavior using testing requires being able to enumerate and check millions of executions of that harness within a small amount of time (to make the enumeration of harnesses practical). Checking atomicity of an execution based on the standard notion of linearizability (Herlihy and Wing 1990) is impracticable once test-harnesses contain more than 2-3 invocations. This essentially follows from the fact that linearizability is NP-hard in general (Gibbons and Korach 1997).

We thus propose a notion of atomicity for test-harnesses which in general is weaker than linearizability, where by a linearizable harness we mean that all its executions are linearizable. This notion is complete in the limit, i.e., for every violation to linearizability there exists a test-harness which exposes that violation according to our notion of atomicity.
We consider a fixed indexing function \textit{invoc-index} which for every harness \( h \) fixes an order between the method invocations in \( h \), i.e., for every harness \( h \),

\[
\text{invoc-index}(h) : \text{invocations}(h) \rightarrow [0, \#\text{invocations}(h) - 1]
\]

is a one-to-one correspondence (\( \text{invocations}(h) \) is the multiset of invocations in \( h \)). For instance, given any harness \( h = \text{(list-invoc-seq, happens-before)} \), \text{invoc-index} could order invocations as they are listed in \text{list-invoc-seq}. Then, we define an \textit{outcome} of a harness \( h \) as a mapping \( o \) from invocation indices to return values

\[
o : [0, \#\text{invocations}(h) - 1] \rightarrow V \cup \{()\}
\]

which is extracted from an execution of the harness (over the concurrent object under test) as follows: \( o(i) = v \in V \) iff the invocation indexed by \( i \), i.e., \( \text{invoc-index}(h)^{-1}(i) \), returns \( v \), and \( o(i) = () \) when the invocation indexed by \( i \) is of a method returning void \(^5\). Let \( \text{outcomes}(h) \) be the set of all outcomes of \( h \). Examples for the set of outcomes of a given harness are given in Figure 2 and Figure 3.

A \textit{linearization} of a harness \( h \) is a sequence of method invocations consistent with the sequences and the happens-before constraints in \( h \). Let \( \text{atomicOutcomes}(h) \) be the set of all outcomes of \( h \) extracted from executions corresponding to \textit{linearizations} of \( h \). As an example, the set of atomic outcomes for the harness \( \text{putall}([\{0 = 1, 1 = 0\}],[\text{get(0)}; \text{remove(1)}]) \) can be found at the beginning of Section 2.

We say that a harness \( h \) is \textit{atomic} when it generates only atomic outcomes, i.e.,

\[
\text{atomic}(h) = \text{true} \text{ iff } \text{outcomes}(h) \subseteq \text{atomicOutcomes}(h)
\]

This notion of atomicity is weaker than standard linearizability which compares \textit{histories} instead of outcomes extracted from concurrent and respectively, sequential executions. For a brief recall, a \textit{history} of a harness \( h \) is a triple \( \text{hist} = (h, o, <) \) where \( o \) is an outcome extracted from an execution \( e \) and \( < \) is the happens-before order between invocations in \( e \) (an invocation happens-before another one if it returns before the other one is called) \(^6\). Informally, a \textit{history} is \textit{linearizable} when it can be linearized to a sequence of invocations that is admitted by the object under consideration. In more precise terms, \( \text{hist} = (h, o, <) \) is linearizable when there exists another history \( \text{hist}' = (h, o, '<) \) such that \'< \ is a total order and consistent with \( < \), i.e., every two invocations ordered by \( < \) are ordered in the same way by \'< \. A harness is \textit{linearizable} when all its histories are. Examples of linearizable and non-linearizable histories (for a harness calling methods of a key-value map) are given in Figure 7. The linearizable history can be linearized to the sequence \( [\text{put}(0, \emptyset); \text{size}(); \text{put}(1, 1)] \) while the non-linearizable one cannot be linearized to a sequence of the same invocations because \( \text{size}() \) happens after \( \text{put}(0, \emptyset) \) while it returns that the map contains no key-value pair (and the only parallel invocation is that of the method put).

**Proposition 3.1.** A \textit{linearizable} harness is \textit{atomic}.

**Proof.** Let \( o \) be an outcome of a harness \( h \) extracted from an execution \( e \), and \( \text{hist} = (h, o, <) \) the history of \( e \). By hypothesis, there exists a history \( \text{hist}' = (h, o, '<) \) of \( h \) where \'< \ is a total order consistent with \( < \). This history is extracted from an execution \( e' \) which corresponds to a linearization of \( h \) and thus, \( o \in \text{atomicOutcomes}(h) \). \( \Box \)

Note that the reverse of Proposition 3.1 is not true. A harness which every non-linearizable history has an atomic outcome is atomic. For instance, the harness in Figure 7 may be atomic if the only non-linearizable history is that given in the same figure (the outcome of this history is atomic).

However, the following result shows that checking atomicity of harnesses allows to discover all the linearizability violations in the limit.

\(^5\)We consider only executions where all the method invocations terminate.

\(^6\)Note that the happens-before order \( < \) in the execution \( e \) may be stronger than the one included in the harness \( h \). For instance, a harness with two parallel sequences (no happens-before constraints) has executions where no two invocations overlap whose happens-before is a total order.
Theorem 3.2. For every non-linearizable harness \( h \), there exists a non-atomic harness \( h' \) with \( invocations(h) = invocations(h') \).

Proof. Let \( h \) be a non-linearizable harness. Then, there exists a history \( hist = (h, a, <) \) which is not linearizable. We define a harness \( h' \) where every invocation sequence is a singleton, containing one of the invocations in \( h \), and the happens-before constraints encode the order \(<\) from \( hist \). Assuming by contradiction that \( h' \) is atomic contradicts the hypothesis that \( hist \) is not linearizable. \( \square \)

3.3 Atomic Methods

Based on the notions of harness and atomic harness, we define atomicity against core methods as follows:

Definition 3.3. For a set of core methods Core, a method \( m \) is called atomic against Core when for every harness \( h \) with \( methods(h) = Core \cup \{ m \} \) and \( \#invocations(h, m) = 1 \), \( h \) is atomic.

We omit the reference to Core when it is understood from the context. By Theorem 3.2, replacing “\( h \) is atomic” with “\( h \) is linearizable” in Definition 3.3 results in a notion of atomicity which is equivalent to the original one. Section 2 shows examples of non-atomic methods in various Java concurrent objects.

4 CHECKING NON-ATOMICITY AGAINST CORE METHODS

We present an automatic approach for checking method non-atomicity outlined by the abstract algorithm in Algorithm 1, which is based on an automatic enumeration of test-harnesses. Automating this process is important for several reasons. First, atomicity violations may occur very rarely, once in millions of executions of a given test-harness (see Section 5 for our experimental data), and finding a harness which has a big enough rate of violations to be exposed using testing is impossible without a deep understanding of the implementation, which we want to avoid. Then, harnesses are very brittle since very small variations of non-atomic harnesses may become atomic. For instance, on the left of Figure 8, we list 4 harnesses which expose an atomicity violation for the method clear in ConcurrentSkipListMap. These harnesses contain the same sequences of invocations modulo their arguments which oscillate between 0 and 1. On the right of Figure 8, we list all the other 12 possible ways of assigning parameter values from the set \{0, 1\} which fail to exhibit a non-atomic behavior (using stress testing). In hindsight, a harness exposing the atomicity violation for clear needs that the key inserted in parallel to clear is strictly smaller than the one inserted afterwards. However, deriving such knowledge would be impossible without understanding the implementation of ConcurrentSkipListMap.
Harnesses without atomicity violations:
[put(0,x)], [clear(); put(0,y); containsKey(0)] with \(x, y \in \{0, 1\}\)
[put(1,x)], [clear(); put(1,y); containsKey(1)] with \(x, y \in \{0, 1\}\)

Harnesses exposing atomicity violations:
[put(0,0)], [clear(); put(1,0); containsKey(1)]
[put(1,0)], [clear(); put(0,0); containsKey(0)]

Fig. 8. Variations of harnesses exposing atomicity violations for the method clear in ConcurrentSkipListMap.

Algorithm 1: Abstract algorithm for checking non-atomicity of a method.

**Input:** A concurrent object with atomic core Core, and a method \(m\) of this object

**Result:** NON-ATOMIC iff \(m\) is non-atomic.

\((invoc, val, seq) \leftarrow (0, 0, 0);\)

while true do
    \(H \leftarrow constructHarnesses(Core \cup \{m\}, invoc, val, seq);\)
    for each harness \(h \in H\) do
        \(atOut \leftarrow atomicOutcomes(h);\)
        for each outcome \(out\) of \(h\) do
            if \(out \notin atOut\) then
                return NON-ATOMIC;
            end
        end
    \((invoc, val, seq) \leftarrow nextParams;\)
end

We automate method non-atomicity checking using a prioritization scheme that enumerates harnesses in an increasing order with respect to the number of method invocations, the number of values used as parameters in those invocations, and the number of invocation sequences (or equivalently, the number of different threads used to make those invocations). For each harness \(h\), atomicity is checked by pre-computing the set of atomic outcomes and then enumerating all possible outcomes while checking for membership in the set of atomic outcomes. We restrict ourselves to objects whose sequential behaviors are deterministic so that the computation of the set of atomic harnesses terminates (each linearization of a harness produces exactly one outcome and the number of linearizations is fixed for a given harness). Just to simplify the formalization, we assume that methods’ parameters and return values are objects that can be instantiated with integers.

Algorithm 1 enumerates increasing assignments for the non-fixed parameters of constructHarnesses, which are generated by the function nextParams(). The latter can be any function returning triples of natural numbers that is complete in the sense that for any tuple \((i,v,s) \in \mathbb{N}^3\) it eventually returns a triple \((i’,v’,s’)\) which is greater than \((i,v,s)\) component-wise. An instance of nextParams() incrementing atomically each parameter, i.e., returning a sequence of triples \((1,1,1), (2,2,2), (3,3,3), \ldots\) would satisfy this assumption. For some fixed set of
parameters, the function \texttt{constructHarnesses} returns the following set of harnesses:

\[
\text{constructHarnesses}(\text{Core} \cup \{m\}, \text{invoc}, \text{val}, \text{seq}) = \{ h \text{ a harness} \mid \text{methods}(h) = \text{Core} \cup \{m\},
\#	ext{invocations}(h, m) = 1,
\#	ext{invocations}(h) = \text{invoc},
\text{values}(h) = [0, \text{val} - 1],
\#	ext{sequences}(h) = \text{seq} \}
\]

We implicitly assume that the concurrent objects under test are data-independent in the sense that any behavior with some number of distinct values \text{val} can be captured when the values are taken from the interval \([0, \text{val} - 1]\).

The set of harnesses returned by \texttt{constructHarnesses} is clearly finite for any given parameter assignment.

For instance, when checking the atomicity of the method clear of ConcurrentSkipListMap, the output of \texttt{constructHarnesses}\{\text{put, remove, get, containsKey, clear}\}, 4, 2, 2\) contains all the harnesses listed in Figure 8.

The definition of \texttt{constructHarnesses} given above supports many optimizations that we implement in our tool. As it is, it returns many redundant harnesses which may have a negative impact on the time to find an atomicity violation. A first obvious optimization is to perform some symmetry reduction. We say that two harness are symmetric if one is obtained from the other by changing the order between invocation sequences and accordingly, applying a renaming on the happens-before constraints. For instance, the following is symmetric to the harness in (4):

\[
[\text{put}(3, 1)], \ [\text{put}(0, \emptyset); \text{put}(2, \emptyset)], \ [\text{clear}(); \text{put}(1, 1); \text{containsKey}(1); \text{get}(2)], \ \{1 < 0, 2 < 0\}
\]

The output of the function \texttt{constructHarnesses} is constrained such that it doesn’t contain symmetric harnesses.

Besides this optimization which is agnostic to our verification problem, we consider more specific optimizations like excluding harnesses that contain only read-only invocations, for instance, excluding the harness \([\text{get}(\emptyset); \text{containsKey}(1)], [\text{get}(1); \text{isEmpty}()], \) and excluding harnesses where the method under test for atomicity is read-only, e.g., \text{isEmpty}, and forbidden from executing in parallel with update methods from the atomic core, e.g.,

\[
[\text{get}(\emptyset); \text{remove}(1)], \ [\text{put}(0, 1); \text{put}(1, 1)], \ [\text{get}(1); \text{isEmpty}()], \ \{0 < 2, 1 < 2\}.
\]

The last two optimizations rely on a user provided classification of the object’s methods into read-only and updates depending on whether they modify or not the object’s internal state. For instance, in the case of ConcurrentSkipListMap we have used the following classification:

- read-only : get, containsKey, ceilingKey, floorKey, firstKey, lastKey, higherKey, lowerKey, keySet, isEmpty, containsValue, entrySet, values, tailMap, headMap, subMap, size, toString
- updates : put, remove, putIfAbsent, replace, putAll, clear

Although the function \texttt{nextParams} doesn’t enumerate all the possible parameter assignments and it may skip some harnesses, we show that Algorithm 1 is complete in the sense that it returns NON-ATOMIC whenever the input method is not atomic (soundness follows easily from definitions). Informally, the completeness requirement on the function \texttt{nextParams} ensures that any harness which is not atomic is “embedded” in some harness explored by this algorithm which is also not atomic. We say that a harness \(h_1\) is a prefix of another harness \(h_2\), denoted by \(h_1 \preceq h_2\) when each sequence of \(h_1\) is a prefix of a different sequence of \(h_2\) and all the sequences of \(h_2\) having sequences of \(h_1\) as a prefix happen before all the remaining sequences, i.e., there exists a one-to-one mapping \(f : [0, \#\text{sequences}(h_1) - 1] \to [0, \#\text{sequences}(h_2) - 1]\) such that the \(i\)-th sequence of \(h_1\) is a prefix of the \(f(i)\)-th sequence of \(h_2\) for each \(i\), and the happens-before constraints of \(h_2\) contain \(i < j\) for each \(i \in \text{image}(f)\) and
For instance, the harness in (1) is a prefix of the harnesses in (3) and (4) but, it is not a prefix of the harness in (2). The following lemma shows that harness atomicity is prefix closed.

**Lemma 4.1.** For any two harnesses \( h \) and \( h' \), if \( h \) is atomic and \( h \preceq h' \), then \( h' \) is also atomic.

Given a fixed function \( \text{nextParams} \), let \( \text{Harnesses}(\text{nextParams}) \) be the set of harnesses enumerated by Algorithm 1 with this function. The following lemma is a direct consequence of the definitions.

**Lemma 4.2.** For any complete function \( \text{nextParams} \) and any harness \( h \) with methods \( (h) = \text{Core} \cup \{m\} \) and \( \#\text{invocations}(h, m) = 1 \), there exists a harness \( h' \) with \( h \preceq h' \) and \( h' \in \text{Harnesses}(\text{nextParams}) \).

The completeness of Algorithm 1 follows from the two lemmas above. For any harness \( h \) showing that a method \( m \) is not atomic, Algorithm 1 explores a harness \( h' \) which has \( h \) as a prefix (by Lemma 4.2) which is also not atomic (by Lemma 4.1).

**Theorem 4.3.** Algorithm 1 returns NON-ATOMIC iff the input method \( m \) is not atomic.

The next section presents our experimental evaluation of an incomplete version of Algorithm 1 where the loops enumerating harnesses and respectively, outcomes of a harness, execute until a timeout is reached.

## 5 Empirical Results

In this section we describe our empirical evaluation of our approach to the detection of atomicity violations described in the previous sections.

We have implemented our approach to detecting atomicity violations in a test harness enumeration and checking tool\(^7\). The input to the tool includes a class specification which determines the set of core methods for a given class. In addition, the tool takes three parameters which bound the enumeration of harnesses to a given number of invocations, invocations sequences, and argument values. For a given non-core method, the tool generates all possible harnesses according to Section 4 for the given parameter values. The tool subjects each test harness to one second of stress testing with the jcstress test automation framework\(^8\) and returns the first test harness for which jcstress observes a non-atomic outcome.

Architecturally our tool has four distinct components. First, to separate the generation of harnesses from the details of the jcstress framework, an enumeration component generates an abstract representation we call *schemas*. Intuitively, a schema is simply a list of partially ordered invocation sequences; this representation is language agnostic. Second, an annotation component generates the list of possible atomic outcomes for each schema; this step is language dependent, since we must actually execute the invocations to determine outcomes; our implementation invokes a small Java program that enumerates the linearizations of the given schema, and records the outcome of each executed linearization. Third, a translation component generates the actual jcstress test harness corresponding to each schema. The final testing component executes jcstress on each harness. In principle, substituting the schema annotation, schema-to-harness translation, and harness testing components would enable the application of our tool to other languages besides Java. Only our annotation component, and jcstress, are currently written in Java; the remainder of our implementation is written in portable Node.js Javascript.

There are three basic limitations of our current implementation. First, while the parameter bounding the number of argument values is sufficient for methods with simple parametric arguments, e.g., accepting an arbitrary object, many methods of java concurrent data structures, like addAll, take collections as arguments. Our current implementation fixes the cardinality of these argument collections to 2, and generates all possible size-2

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\(^7\)Our tool is available on GitHub: https://github.com/michael-emmi/violat

\(^8\)The Java Concurrency Stress tests (jcstress) is an experimental harness and a suite of tests to aid the research in the correctness of concurrency support in the JVM, class libraries, and hardware. http://openjdk.java.net/projects/code-tools/jcstress/
collections. Second, to simplify the enumeration of argument values, we generate only integer-valued arguments, or collections thereof, ranging from 0 to one less than the value-bound parameter. Third, while our harness schemas can represent harnesses with any partial order among invocation sequences, the jcstress framework is limited to expressing harnesses in which all sequences are unordered, with possible one method — the test class’s constructor — executed initially, and one distinguished method — called an “arbiter” — executed finally, after all sequences complete. While we have yet to discover violations which require more, this would limit our expressiveness in principle.

Since the number of harnesses for the given parameter values is usually quite large, the order in which harnesses are tested can make a significant difference on the exploration time. Our original enumeration of harnesses tends to group very similar harnesses, for instance, changing only a single argument value from one harness to the next. This is often suboptimal, since even if there are a great number of similar non-atomic harnesses, they may all appear very late in the enumeration. Our current solution thus shuffles the enumeration after generating harnesses to ensure a more even distribution. We perform shuffling with fixed pseudorandom-number-generation seed to ensure reproducibility across runs of our test-harness generation tool. We speculate that generating harnesses at random, — again, with a fixed seed — rather than enumerating completely, will also be an effective exploration strategy, and eliminate the bottleneck imposed by having to enumerate all harnesses initially before shuffling; we are planning to evaluate this strategy.

We have applied our tool to 10 classes from the Java SE Development Kit 8u121 as discussed in Section 2. Tables 1 and 2 list a detailed sample of results of our experiments, as executed on a 4-core 4GHz Intel Core i7 iMac. Results can vary slightly across runs of our tool for two reasons. First, we do not control the order in which jcstress runs test harnesses within each of the 100-harness chunks we provide it. Thus, if a single 100-harness chunk contains multiple non-atomic harnesses, we report whichever is first tested by jcstress. Second, jcstress exhibits many of the non-atomic outcomes with very low frequency, and sometimes even fails completely to exhibit possible non-atomic outcomes. In our experience, any given atomicity violation can be exhibited from multiple, possibly similar, harnesses in our enumeration; even if jcstress misses the violation in one harness, it is more likely to catch it later, in a similar harness. For instance, in a previous run a non-atomic outcome of the toArray method of LinkedBlockingQueue was discovered in 1 out of 1,074,530 executions after only 2,900 harnesses and 1,072s, compared with 32,400 harnesses and 12,179s in the current sample.

Each row of Tables 1 and 2 lists one method in which our tool discovers an atomicity violation. The first column lists the parameter values for enumeration: the number of invocations, invocation sequences, and argument values. The second column lists the number of harnesses tested versus the total number generated; we list multiples of 100 since we invoke jcstress with 100 harnesses per invocation. The next four columns list the non-atomic harness reported, the non-atomic outcome observed with that harness, the number of times jcstress observes that outcome, and the total number of executions per harness, in one single second of testing. The final column lists the total amount of wall-clock time passed before returning the violating test harness. Note that harness testing is parallelized across cores, while harness enumeration is computed sequentially on one core. We represent lists and arrays with bracketed lists, e.g., [0, 1], and maps are represented with bracketed key-value pairs, e.g., [0=1, 1=1].

In most cases, testing exposes non-atomic outcomes with very low frequency. In the most extreme case, jcstress witnesses a non-atomic outcome in ConcurrentHashMap’s containsValue method only once in 3,993,110 executions, i.e., with frequency $2.50 \times 10^{-7}$; the median frequency is $1.9 \times 10^{-5}$, or roughly one in 5,000 executions. There are also degenerate cases, like LinkedBlockingQueue’s removeAll method, in which over 10% of executions are non-atomic. Still, the fact that even the infrequent violations can be observed in 1 second of stress testing is what enables us to explore such a large enumeration of harnesses. This is in stark contrast with the the Line-Up tool (Burckhardt et al. 2010a), which performs systematic exploration of concurrent schedules for a given harness,
| Method                           | Time (s) | Failure | Outcome | Frequency | Harness | Exp. | Gen. | Time |
|----------------------------------|----------|---------|---------|-----------|---------|------|------|-------|
| ConcurrentHashMap                |          |         |         |           |         |      |      |       |
| [clear(); put(1); put(0); put(1); put(0)] | 122      |          | 1,621,280 | 2         |         |      |      |       |
| ConcurrentSkipListMap            | 520      | [clear(); put(1); put(0); put(1); put(0)] | 1,271,070 | 1,621,280 | 3,818,150 |      |      |       |
| ConcurrentSkipListSet            | 143      | [clear(); put(1); put(0); put(1); put(0)] | 2,269,590 | 1,621,280 | 3,818,150 |      |      |       |
| ConcurrentHashMap                 |          |         |         |           |         |      |      |       |
| [clear(); put(1); put(0); put(1); put(0)] | 102      |          | 5,067,830 | 1,621,280 | 3,818,150 |      |      |       |
| [clear(); put(1); put(0); put(1); put(0)] | 102      |          | 5,067,830 | 1,621,280 | 3,818,150 |      |      |       |
| [clear(); put(1); put(0); put(1); put(0)] | 102      |          | 5,067,830 | 1,621,280 | 3,818,150 |      |      |       |
| [clear(); put(1); put(0); put(1); put(0)] | 102      |          | 5,067,830 | 1,621,280 | 3,818,150 |      |      |       |

**Table 1.** Empirical results, Part 1.
enumerating linearizations per execution, spending an average of 31.5 seconds per harness. While their data

| #I, #S, #V exp / gen | harness | outcome | frequency | time |
|----------------------|---------|---------|-----------|------|
| 3, 2, 2 100 / 312    | [addAll([1,1]), [poll(); peek()]] | T, T, N | 537 / 2,683,060 | 9s  |
| 5, 2, 2 1600 / 9,390 | [offer(); clear(); offer(0); [peek(); poll()]] | T, T, 0, N | 2,153,170 / 557s |
| 4, 2, 2 100 / 3,576  | [offer(1); containsAll([1,0]); poll(0); offer(0)] | T, T, T | 107 / 2,428,020 | 22s |
| 6, 2, 2 1,100 / 186,108 | [offer(0); peek(0)]; poll(0); offer(0) | T, N, 0, T | 1,756,190 / 406s |
| 5, 2, 2 1,700 / 9,390 | [poll(0); offer(0)]; [offer(1)]; peek(); isEmpty() | T, T, 0, T | 3,137,600 / 604s |
| 5, 2, 2 1,500 / 9,390 | [poll(0); offer(0)]; [offer(1)]; remainingCapacity(); clear() | T, T, 0, 217483647 | 2,259,160 / 532s |
| 3, 2, 2 100 / 312    | [removeAll([1,1]), [offer(0); poll()]] | T, T, 0 | 245,899 / 2,416,360 | 9s  |
| 5, 2, 2 5,300 / 18,780 | [offer(1); peek(0)]; poll(0); offer(0) | T, N, 0, T | 2,697,120 / 1917s |
| 3, 2, 2 100 / 312    | [retainAll([0,0]), [offer(1); poll()]] | T, T, 1 | 217,620 / 8s  |
| 5, 2, 2 1,500 / 9,390 | [poll(0); offer(0)]; [offer(1)]; size(); clear() | T, T, 0, 2 | 2,139,590 / 56s |
| 6, 2, 3 3,240 / 93,054 | [toArray(); poll(0); offer(0)]; [offer(0)]; peek(); poll(); [0,0]; [1,0]; T | 0, 1, 1 | 1,549,580 / 1267s |

Table 2. Empirical results, Part 2.
used in a harness; our approach includes invocation arguments in the discovery process, enabling the exposure of violations which only occur with unexpected invocation-argument combinations.

Interestingly, while the number of invocations required to expose these violations ranges from 3–6, all are exposed with only 2 invocation sequences, and all but two are exposed with only 2 argument values. The exceptions are ConcurrentSkipListSet’s headSet(j) and subSet(i, j) methods which return the subset of ordered elements smaller than j, excluding j, and greater than i, including i, in the case of subSet. Since atomicity violations appear only when at least 2 elements k1, k2 are returned, respectively 3 elements k1, k2, k3, thus 3 and 4 argument values are required, i.e., to satisfy k1, k2 < j and i ≤ k1, k2, k3 < j.

6 DISCUSSION

In this work our goal is to expose atomicity violations in concurrent objects. We believe this goal can be useful both for exposing implementation bugs, and for exposing flaws or imprecisions in object specifications. While some of the violations we have exposed are clear-cut cases of implementation bugs, many of them might be categorized as either bugs or imprecise specifications. In some cases, the lack of atomicity may even be expected according to a given specification. In this section we discuss possible interpretations of our results against the corresponding specifications.

The documentation for many bulk mutator methods like addAll, putAll, removeAll, and retainAll, and read-only methods like size and toArray states fairly clearly that atomicity is not intended. There are however several notable exceptions. For instance, documentation for the bulk mutator methods in ArrayBlockingQueue, PriorityBlockingQueue, and LinkedBlockingDeque do not mention atomicity. Still, non-atomicity might be suspected from the fact many among these methods are inherited from AbstractCollection and AbstractQueue, which rely on the implementation of the iterator method, left abstract by AbstractCollection and AbstractQueue, and ultimately declared to be “weakly consistent” by their implementing classes. Other instances are the size and toArray methods of LinkedBlockingQueue; their documentation provides no indication to whether these operations may or may not be atomic.

In some cases where the documentation does indicate non-atomicity, our non-atomicity violation still points to what is most certainly a bug. This is the case with ConcurrentSkipListMap’s clear method whose violation, listed in Figure 2, appears to break the object’s representation invariant, possibly permanently.

We also find atomicity violations that contradict their documentation. For instance, the clear method of LinkedBlockingQueue is explicitly stated to be atomic. The case of the ConcurrentLinkedDeque is also interesting because the documentation claims that “concurrent insertion, removal, and access operations execute safely across multiple threads,” although we find that the addFirst, pollLast, peekLast, and removeLastOccurrence methods are certainly not atomic. The same holds for the pollFirst and pollLast methods of ConcurrentSkipListSet.

Finally, there are several methods for which the documentation contains no reference whatsoever to atomicity. For instance, this is the case with the remove and overloaded contains(Object) methods of LinkedBlockingQueue, and the tailSet, headSet, and subSet methods of ConcurrentSkipListSet.

7 RELATED WORK

Given the acknowledged difficulty of concurrent programming, there are many lines of research which aim to enable the construction of reliable concurrent software. Much of that research focuses on techniques for proving correctness of an implementation, e.g., automatically verifying programmer-supplied inductive invariants (Owicki and Gries 1976), and, e.g., automatically constructing and verifying inductive invariants, e.g., (Cousot and Cousot 1977). In contrast, our work focuses on falsifying program properties. While our approach cannot prove the correctness of a given implementation, any reported violations are guaranteed to be actual violations. The

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9The Java Platform SE 8 API specification. https://docs.oracle.com/javase/8/docs/api/java/util/concurrent/package-summary.html
other key advantages of our approach are that (a) it does not require annotation of, or even knowledge of, the implementation code, and (b) since our output is simple test harnesses, e.g., rather than complicated program invariants, it is immediately familiar and useful to programmers.

While our approach to testing a given harnesses is stress testing, i.e., subjecting a given harness to high loads and parallelism, often millions of executions per second, there are a few other notable approaches. Systematic concurrency testing tools assert control over the schedule in which threads’ instructions are executed, and systematically explore each possible thread schedule, or at least a limited set of representative schedules (Musuvathi and Qadeer 2007). In principle that approach is guaranteed to find any violation in a given test harness given enough time; in practice, the combinatorial explosion of possible thread interleavings prohibits this exploration to a limited set of representatives, e.g., small but prescribed perturbations from some deterministic scheduling. Recent work has shown approaches to cut down on this combinatorial explosion by having the programmer express which points of the program require rigorous scheduling exploration, enumerating alternative schedules only around those points (Elmas et al. 2013). Probabilistic concurrent testing (Burckhardt et al. 2010b) explores a broader sampling of schedules using randomness, yielding probabilistic guarantees. Compared to those approaches, the simple stress testing we use provides no coverage guarantees; it has the advantage of being very fast since it avoids possibly-costly mechanisms for controlling scheduling, e.g., lock-based synchronization. All of the above approaches assume a fixed test harness.

Concolic testing (Godefroid et al. 2005; Sen et al. 2005) partially addresses the problem of test-harness generation by repeatedly generating program inputs, e.g., the arguments to invocations in the test harness, using prior test executions. During each execution, that approach records the results of branching instructions, along with constraints relating branch decisions to program input values; inputs for the next execution are generated by constraint solving for an execution that makes different branch decisions. In practice, this approach would be effective at generating invocation arguments for a given test harness with unspecified arguments, but likely not at generating the relevant sequences of invocations. While concolic testing was initially developed for sequential programs, it has been extended to assert control over scheduling decisions as well as branch decisions, invoking similar comparisons with those mentioned above between stress testing and systematic and probabilistic concurrency testing.

Some works have investigated the generation of entire test harnesses rather than only the invocation arguments of a given template harness. These works are typically focused on one particular domain of program properties. For instance, some works automatically generate functional-conformance tests from given formal specifications (Gong et al. 2012), small litmus-test programs which exhibit non-sequentially-consistent memory behaviors (Alglave et al. 2011; Mador-Haim et al. 2011), or small programs which exhibit bugs in compiler optimizations (Chen et al. 2013). The most-closely related work to ours also generates concurrent data structure test harnesses (Burckhardt et al. 2010a); given a set of $I$ invocations with fixed arguments, and parameters $T, S, N$ respectively for the number $T$ of invocation sequences (threads), the number $S$ of invocations per sequence, and the total number $N$ of generated harnesses, they generate $N$ combinations of $T$ length-$S$ invocation sequences using invocations $I$. Compared to our harness enumeration, theirs is less complete in principle, since it does not consider alternative argument values, nor ordering between invocation sequences, and limits the number of combinations. Our characterization of core methods enables us to explore more interesting combinations of a single non-core method invocation with core method invocations, and our efficient atomicity check enables us to explore harnesses at 31.5 times their rate.

Our notion of atomicity is the embodiment of Liskov’s substitution principle (Liskov and Wing 1994) known as linearizability (Herlihy and Wing 1990) which is now known to correspond exactly to the client-centric notion observational refinement (Filipovic et al. 2010); intuitively, this states that any behavior exhibited by a client of a given concurrent object could have also been exhibited by the same client were it using a truly-atomic implementation, i.e., where operations’ steps are not allowed to overlap. While this notion is often the
most appropriate for shared-memory concurrent objects, there are other interesting notions of consistency: serializability (Papadimitriou 1979) captures the atomicity of transactional sequences, e.g., sequences of database operations; eventual consistency (Burckhardt 2014; Terry et al. 1995) and causal consistency (Lamport 1978) capture weaker notions of consistency for, e.g., distributed key-value stores, where the cost of synchronization required to ensure linearizability is deemed too expensive.

Testing such atomicity properties generally requires more instrumentation than the simple annotation of program assertions; Tasiran and Qadeer (2005) survey techniques for the runtime verification of atomicity. Initial approaches to testing recorded the happens-before order of executed operations, and enumerated possible linearizations while verifying that some linearization corresponds to an atomic behavior (Burckhardt et al. 2010a; Burnim et al. 2011; Wing and Gong 1993; Zhang et al. 2015); these approaches are intractable in the length of executions. This basic approach has been optimized for set-type concurrent data structures by exploiting the fact that the operations corresponding to distinct keys can be separately linearized, reducing the amount of combinatorial explosion in linearization (Horn and Kroening 2015; Lowe 2017). Alternative approaches have pursued tractability by recording an approximation of the happens-before order of executed operations (Bouajjani et al. 2015), and by lazily applying type-specific rules to ordering recorded operations (Emmi et al. 2015); while tractable, these approaches are not guaranteed to catch a given atomicity violation. In contrast to all of the aforementioned works, ours can be seen as an optimization to linearizability checking for a fixed loop-free test harness: the invocations of such a harness can be indexed statically, which enables our notion of result-vector outcomes; the expensive enumeration can then be replaced by a simple comparison of outcome with the precomputed atomic outcomes, which are typically much fewer than linearizations.

A final point of comparison is with works on transactional boosting (Herlihy and Koskinen 2008) and linearizability checking for transactions of linearizable operations (Shacham et al. 2011). These methods reason about atomicity of core-method compositions using commutativity arguments in the composed-method implementations. Such techniques would be applicable to checking atomicity of many non-core methods such as addAll, containsAll, …, which could in principle be implemented by compositions of core methods. In contrast to these techniques, our uncovers atomicity violations, exhibiting non-atomic test harnesses, without any knowledge of the implementation code.

8 CONCLUSION
Our results demonstrate an effective method for exposing atomicity violations in concurrent objects, and a great number of violations in the most widely-used software development kit: The jdk. While we have not yet contacted the maintainers of these implementations to report our findings in respect of double-blind submission guidelines, we do soon intend to, i.e., via the Concurrency Interest mailing list. As discussed in Section 6, while we have identified some clear-cut implementation bugs, e.g., in ConcurrentSkipListMap’s clear method, we suspect that many of these atomicity violations may not be considered bugs, rather implicitly-allowed behavior of imprecise specifications. In any case, we believe that our findings would be of interest to both the maintainers and users of jdk concurrent data structures. Additionally, our results may also be of interest to users and maintainers of other concurrent object libraries, e.g., in other languages, since our approach is fairly agnostic to the language and library in question: see Section 5 for a short discussion on limitations and Java-language dependencies.

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