

# Runtime monitoring for concurrent systems

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**Abstract.** Most existing specification languages for runtime verification describe the properties of the entire system in a top-down manner, and lack constructs to describe concurrency in the specification directly.  $CSP_E$  is a runtime-monitoring framework based on Hoare’s Communicating Sequential Processes (CSP) that captures concurrency in the specification directly. In this paper, we define the syntax of  $CSP_E$  and its formal semantics. In comparison to quantified event automata (QEA), as an example,  $CSP_E$  describes a specification for a concurrent system in a bottom-up manner, whereas QEA lends itself to a top-down manner. We also present an implementation of  $CSP_E$ , which supports full  $CSP_E$  without optimization. When comparing its performance to that of QEA, our implementation of  $CSP_E$  requires slightly more than twice the time required by QEA; we consider this overhead to be acceptable. Finally, we introduce a tool named **stracematch**, which is developed using  $CSP_E$ . It monitors system calls in (Mac) OS X and verifies the usage of file descriptors by a monitored process.

**Keywords:** runtime monitoring, parametric monitoring, CSP, process algebra

## 1 Introduction

Runtime monitoring is a technique for monitoring program execution. In a sub-field of run-time monitoring called specification-based monitoring [36], program execution is monitored against a given specification. The specification is given by a formal language, such as temporal logic, automata, grammar, or rule-based systems. Thus, specification-based monitoring lies somewhere between tests—which usually test only input/output contracts or assertions—and traditional formal methods such as model checking or theorem proving, which try to prove the correctness of a program along all possible execution paths.

This work focuses on *parametric monitoring*. In parametric monitoring, program execution consists of a sequence of events, and each event is associated with one or more parameters, such as a file name or an IP address.

Many frameworks for parametric monitoring have been proposed. One group of frameworks is based on automata. Another is based on formal languages such as regular expressions or context-free grammars, and still others are based on temporal logic or rule-based systems. However, most of these frameworks do not allow for a direct description of the concurrency of a monitored program. Because a bug related to concurrency often surfaces only at runtime, runtime monitoring of a concurrent system is important. In this paper, we investigate the following research questions.

1. Can we design a monitoring language that specifies a concurrent system in a bottom-up fashion—in a way that first describes the specifications of components and then combines them?
2. Can process calculi, which are studied extensively to specify concurrent systems, be used for this particular purpose?

The first question is important because a concurrent system is often specified by the specifications of its components and how they interact. On the other hand, the traditional monitoring languages listed above concentrate on specifying the global properties of systems, regardless of the specifications of their components. This is useful, for instance, when we want to specify a safety property for the whole system, regardless of its components. However, it would be difficult to describe the correct interaction of the components in the system using such methods, because they lack constructs to compose the specifications of systems based on the specifications of their components.

The second question addresses using process calculi in a new context. Process calculi were developed to reason about concurrent systems. In process calculi, programs are processes, which are composed of simpler processes using sequential or concurrent composition. Processes which compose a program can communicate with each other using communication primitives such as events or channels. In particular, we focus on Hoare’s Communicating Sequential Processes (CSP) [37, 47]. CSP is a process calculus that uses events as communication primitives. Thus, CSP is effective for describing event sequences generated by a concurrent system.

In this paper, we introduce  $CSP_E$ , a runtime-monitoring framework based on CSP. Because it is based on CSP,  $CSP_E$  has constructs that allow for the direct description of concurrency in the specification. In this paper, we define the language of  $CSP_E$  and its formal semantics. However, our goal is not to introduce a completely new language. Rather, our goal is to show that, with a slight modification, CSP is amenable to monitoring. In fact, to obtain  $CSP_E$  from CSP, we merely add a `Failure` constant to express already-failed processes. We show that  $CSP_E$  can neatly describe a system of Unix-like processes and file descriptors. We also implement a domain-specific language (DSL) based on  $CSP_E$  and compare its performance with quantified event automata (QEA) [5, 36, 46, 45] implemented in [14], using a simulated event log of the Unix-like processes

and file descriptors. QEA is an automata-based monitoring framework, which, according to [38], is one of the most expressive of this kind. Further, it is easiest to understand by engineers [38]. Finally, MarQ, an implementation of QEA, came top in the offline and Java track in first international competition on Runtime Verification (2014) [22]. We use an implementation [14] that is a successor of MarQ. In this comparison, our  $CSP_E$  implementation requires slightly more than twice the time that QEA takes; we consider this overhead to be acceptable.

Our DSL is shallowly embedded in the Scala programming language [43]; this language is also named  $CSP_E$ . An event monitor can be defined by using the  $CSP_E$  language. A monitor that is defined by  $CSP_E$  sequentially consumes the events from an event stream. If at some point the monitor fails to proceed, this indicates that something unexpected has occurred.

The language of  $CSP_E$  was discussed in part in [3]. In this paper, we fully explain the syntax, semantics, and implementation of  $CSP_E$ . In [3], the `process` construct is used for a recursive definition. In this paper, we use the built-in `def` construct in Scala for a recursive definition. If a `process` construct is needed, it can be derived from the `def` construct.

We develop denotational semantics for  $CSP_E$ , based on the trace semantics of CSP. Our technical contribution to formal semantics is a proof that the semantic space of  $CSP_E$  can still be defined as a complete partial order (CPO) — a mathematical structure which allows a recursive definition.

This paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, we discuss related work. In Section 3, we discuss the syntax of  $CSP_E$  using a motivating example. In Section 4, we discuss the formal semantics of  $CSP_E$  and prove that it forms a complete partial order. This makes it possible to define monitors recursively. In Section 5, we discuss our implementation of  $CSP_E$ . In Section 6, we show a benchmark for our  $CSP_E$  implementation and a QEA implementation [14] using the motivating example. In Section 7, we introduce a tool named `stracematch`. This tool analyzes a log of system calls and verifies the correct usage of file descriptors in a real program. Finally, Section 8 concludes the paper.

## 2 Related work

Many specification-based runtime-monitoring frameworks have been proposed, including four approaches to parametric monitoring: an automaton-based approach [5, 7, 15, 16, 18, 20, 28, 34]; a regular expression- and grammar-based approach [1, 18, 24]; an approach based on temporal logic [6, 8, 9, 18–20, 24, 32, 33, 39, 48–50]; and a rule-based approach [4, 6, 35].

Qadeer and Tasiran [44] surveyed monitoring methods for multi-threaded programs. They identified several important classes of correctness criteria, such as race freedom, atomicity, serializability, linearizability and refinement. Their notion of refinement is different from the CSP context. In the CSP context, it is a relation between specification, while a refinement relation in Qadeer and Tasiran mean a relation between traces. Qadeer and Tasiran’s paper [44] deals

with specific properties and construction of specialized monitors, not general-purpose specification languages like ours.

Among work on monitoring distributed systems, [10] and [23] concentrate global properties which can be described by temporal logic. polyLarva [17] is an extension of LARVA [15, 16] designed for distributed systems, by which a user can control the location of verifiers in the distributed system explicitly. LARVA specifies the properties of monitored systems by sets of automata which can communicate each other through channels. In this respect, it has a similar spirit to  $CSP_E$ , because both aim to synthesize a specification of a whole system from a specification of each component. However, LARVA is based on automata and does not support launching new automata dynamically.

Compared to these other frameworks, our approach creates a new avenue for specification languages. We employ a process calculus—namely, CSP—to describe a specification of a monitored program. The advantage of using process calculi is primarily that they are designed to describe a concurrent system, thereby providing a way to describe concurrency in a monitored system easily and directly. Another benefit is that process calculi, and in particular CSP, allow for automatic model checking [52, 53]. Model checkers can check the *refinement* relation between CSP specifications. A CSP specification is a refinement of another CSP specification when the former is a more detailed specification of the latter. Thus, by checking the refinement relation, we can guarantee that the monitor will check for desirable properties that otherwise might not be able to be monitored directly, especially when they are too general.

Theoretically, any model checker based on process calculi, such as CADP [25] can be used to offline runtime monitoring. In particular, CADP has a tool called SEQ.OPEN [24], which can convert traces to Labeled Transition System (LTS). A trace can be converted to an LTS and then synchronously composed to a specification. If the system in such a way exhibits a deadlock, this indicates that the trace violates the specification. The difference of our approach is that,  $CSP_E$  does not need a full model checker, and thus is much more lightweight. Also  $CSP_E$  is a DSL which is embedded in a general-purpose programming language, thus it is easy to extend. Finally,  $CSP_E$  can be used for online monitoring. To use model-checking approach above for online monitoring, a significant development effort seems necessary. “exhibitor” and “evaluator” of CADP can check whether traces confirm given specifications, if they are used together with SEQ.OPEN, but they use regular expressions or alternation-free  $\mu$ -calculus for specification languages.

Implementation-wise,  $CSP_E$  is a shallow-embedded DSL in Scala [3]. In this respect, it closely resembles TRACECONTRACT [7]. However, the application program interface (API) of  $CSP_E$  is considerably different from that of TRACECONTRACT.

### 3 Introduction to $CSP_E$

In this section, we introduce  $CSP_E$  using a motivating example, and we compare it to QEA [5, 36, 46, 45]. We argue that  $CSP_E$  excels at describing properties that are composed of local properties (i.e., to a process) yet interact globally.

#### 3.1 Motivating example

Our motivating example is a system of Unix-like processes and file descriptors. Each process and file descriptor have unique IDs. We assume that only Process 0 is running initially, and that Process 0 never exits. Each process can spawn child processes. Any process other than Process 0 can exit anytime, without waiting for its child processes to exit. Each process can open any file descriptor. If a process opens a file descriptor, it must close it before exiting. Opening the same file descriptor twice without closing it, or closing the same file descriptor twice without opening it again, is not allowed. If a file descriptor is opened by a process, the process can access it. Child processes can also access file descriptors that were opened by their parent before they were spawned. Such file descriptors must be closed by a child process before a child process exits.

#### 3.2 $CSP_E$ Syntax

$CSP_E$  provides a DSL that is shallowly embedded in Scala. This DSL is also called  $CSP_E$ . Fig. 1 shown the above specification in  $CSP_E$ .

The notable classes that appear in the example are `Event` and `Process`.

*Event*. The monitored system creates a stream of *events*.  $CSP_E$  models events using the `Event` case class, which is a subclass of `AbsEvent`. Every event takes a symbol called an *alphabet* as its first argument, and it can have any number of trailing arguments of `Any` type.

*Process*. A *process* class and its subclasses in  $CSP_E$  are specifications of systems that are being monitored. They describe how a system produces sequences of events. A process is often termed a *monitor*, because a process that is constructed by the  $CSP_E$  accepts an event stream and judges whether it follows the specification that the process describes. A process is constructed using methods that are defined by the  $CSP_E$  library. In Fig. 1, `system` is the description of the entire system, while `sysproc` represents a process (and its subprocesses). `uniqProcess` guarantees that process IDs are all unique for all process. `P1 || Set('Spawn, 'Exit) || P2` means that P1 and P2 run concurrently and share events which have alphabets `'Spawn` and `'Exit`. `?? {case ... => ...}` is a pattern match on incoming events, `P1 ||| P2` is the interleaving of P1 and P2, and `SKIP` is a process that does nothing and terminates normally. A process can be defined by recursion, using the standard Scala `def` syntax. For the full syntax, see Fig. 2 in BNF form.

Intuitively, each construct has the following meaning:

```

def sysproc(pid: Int, openFiles: Set[Int]): Process = ?? {
  case Event('Spawn, 'pid', child_pid: Int) =>
    sysproc(pid, openFiles) ||| sysproc(child_pid, openFiles)
  case Event('Open, 'pid', fd: Int) if !openFiles(fd) =>
    sysproc(pid, openFiles + fd)
  case Event('Access, 'pid', fd: Int) if openFiles(fd) =>
    sysproc(pid, openFiles)
  case Event('Close, 'pid', fd: Int) if openFiles(fd) =>
    sysproc(pid, openFiles - fd)
  case Event('Exit, 'pid') if pid != 0 && openFiles.isEmpty => SKIP
}
def uniqSysproc(pidSet : Set[Int]) : Process = ?? {
  case Event('Spawn, _, child_pid : Int) if ! pidSet(child_pid) =>
    uniqSysproc(pidSet + child_pid)
  case Event('Exit, pid : Int) if pidSet(pid) =>
    uniqSysproc(pidSet - pid)
}
def system = sysproc(0, Set.empty) || Set('Spawn, 'Exit) ||
  uniqSysproc(Set(0))
var monitors = new ProcessSet(List(system))

```

**Fig. 1.** Motivating example in  $CSP_E$

- SKIP : A process that does nothing and terminates normally. For example,  $e \rightarrow: \text{SKIP}$  represents a process that accepts event  $e$  and terminates.
- STOP : A process that does nothing and never terminates. For example,  $e \rightarrow: \text{STOP}$  accepts event  $e$  but gets stuck.
- Failure : A process that has already failed. For example,  $e \rightarrow: \text{Failure}$  accepts event  $e$  and then fails immediately. Using a process  $P$  which does not consume  $e$ , the difference between  $\text{STOP}$  and  $\text{Failure}$  can be seen in the examples  $e \rightarrow: \text{STOP} ||| P$  and  $e \rightarrow: \text{Failure} ||| P$ . Both processes accept event  $e$ , but subsequently, the former runs provided that  $P$  accepts events, whereas the latter fails immediately after event  $e$ . Using  $\text{Failure}$  explicitly marks that a branch leads to an impossible state.
- $e \rightarrow: P$  : A process that accepts event  $e$  and behaves like  $P$ . For example,  $e1 \rightarrow: e2 \rightarrow: \text{SKIP}$  accepts events  $e1$  and  $e2$  and then terminates.
- $?? (f : \text{Event} \rightarrow \text{Process})$  : A process that accepts event  $e$  and then behaves like  $f(e)$ . The function  $f$  typically uses pattern matching in order to select the behavior that matches that of  $e$ . If  $e$  does not match any pattern,  $?? f$  behaves like  $\text{Failure}$ .
- $???(f : \text{Event} \rightarrow \text{Process})$  : Similar to  $??$ , but unlike  $??$ , if the incoming event  $e$  does not match any pattern,  $???(f$  waits for another event.
- $P1 \leftrightarrow P2$  : A process that behaves like either  $P1$  or  $P2$ , depending on which of them can accept the event that is input to  $P1 \leftrightarrow P2$ . If both  $P1$  and  $P2$  can accept the event, both possibilities remain. For example,

$$\begin{aligned}
P ::= & \text{SKIP} \mid \text{STOP} \mid \text{Failure} \mid \\
& e \rightarrow: P \mid \\
& ?? f \mid ??? f \mid \\
& P \leftrightarrow P \mid \\
& P \parallel a \parallel P \mid \\
& P \parallel\parallel P \mid \\
& P \$ P
\end{aligned}$$

**Fig. 2.** Full syntax for  $CSP_E$  : Here, `SKIP`, `STOP`, `Failure` are constants,  $e$  is an event,  $f$  is a partial function which maps a event to a process, and  $a$  is a set of alphabets.

- $e \rightarrow: e_1 \rightarrow: \text{SKIP} \leftrightarrow e_2 \rightarrow: \text{Failure}$  first accepts  $e$ . Then, if it accepts  $e_1$ , it terminates normally; if it accepts  $e_2$ , however, it fails immediately. If both processes cannot accept the event, it behaves like `Failure`.
- $P_1 \parallel a \parallel P_2$  : Concurrent composition of  $P_1$  and  $P_2$ , using events whose alphabets are elements of  $a$  as synchronization events. For example, if  $a$  contains the alphabet of  $e_0$  but  $a$  does not contain alphabets of  $e_1$  and  $e_2$ , then  $e_0 \rightarrow: e_1 \rightarrow: \text{SKIP} \parallel a \parallel e_0 \rightarrow: e_2 \rightarrow: \text{SKIP}$  accepts the sequences  $e_0$ ,  $e_1$ ,  $e_2$  and  $e_0$ ,  $e_2$ ,  $e_1$  but does not accept  $e_0$ ,  $e_0$ ,  $e_1$ ,  $e_2$ .
- $P_1 \parallel\parallel P_2$  : Interleaving of  $P_1$  and  $P_2$ .  $e_1 \rightarrow: \text{SKIP} \parallel\parallel e_2 \rightarrow: \text{SKIP}$  accepts the sequences  $e_1$ ,  $e_2$  and  $e_2$ ,  $e_1$ .
- $P_1 \$ P_2$  : A process that first behaves as  $P_1$  and then behaves as  $P_2$ . If  $P_1$  fails, then  $P_1 \$ P_2$  fails. For example,  $e_1 \rightarrow: \text{SKIP} \$ e_2 \rightarrow: \text{SKIP}$  accepts  $e_1$  and  $e_2$  and then terminates normally.

Then, we generate a set of monitors with `new ProcessSet(...)` constructs. Because  $CSP_E$  can track multiple possible states in the monitored system, we use the set of monitors to monitor the system. Our system is similar to the one presented in [37], but with unique differences, such as the inclusion of `Failure`. Another difference is that our system has no internal choice, no  $\tau$ , and no hiding. Theoretically, we can implement such constructs, but they easily lead to the state explosion of the monitors in which they are used. We designed the syntax of  $CSP_E$  in such a way that it closely resembles the original CSP syntax. However, there are syntactical limitations, owing to the fact that  $CSP_E$  is embedded [3] in Scala. In Scala, the associativity and precedence of operators are both determined by the established syntax of operators, and thus cannot be changed. For example, to make the operator  $\rightarrow$  right-associative, we need to add  $:$  to  $\rightarrow$ . Moreover, some symbols in Scala, such as `[]`, are reserved for certain kinds of operations. Thus, we use  `$\leftrightarrow$`  rather than `[]` to indicate the choice operator. In the traditional CSP, the human-readable representation differs from the machine-readable representation. For  $CSP_E$ , we selected the machine-readable code as a common representation for both types for simplicity. Because the

human-readable representation of  $CSP_E$  and its embedding to Scala are the same, both are termed  $CSP_E$ .

### 3.3 Comparison with QEA

Because our specification contains a specification on file descriptors and a specification on processes, we split these specifications into two QEA automata: `fdMonitor` and `processMonitor`. Using the textual representation used in [36], each can be defined as shown in Fig. 3.

```

qea {
  Forall(fd)
  accept skip(init) {
    spawn(parent, child) if [ parent in PS ]
      do [ PS.add(child) ] -> init
    open(pid, fd) if [ pid in PS ] -> failure
    open(pid, fd) if [ not pid in PS ]
      do [ PS.add(pid) ]-> init
    access(pid, fd) if [ not pid in PS ] -> failure
    close(pid, fd) if [ pid in PS ]
      do [ PS.remove(pid) ] -> init
    close(pid, fd) if [not pid in PS ] -> failure
    exit(pid) if [ pid in PS ] -> failure
  }
}

qea {
  accept next(init) {
    spawn(parent, child)
      if [ (parent in PS || parent = 0) && not child in PS && child = 0]
        do [ PS.add(child) ] -> init
    exit(pid) if [ pid in PS ]
      do [ PS.remove(pid) ] -> init
    open(pid, fd) -> init
    access(pid, fd) -> init
    close(pid, fd) -> init
  }
}

```

**Fig. 3.** QEA monitor for file descriptors and processes, respectively

Theoretically,  $CSP_E$ , and QEA can represent any Turing computable property, because we allow  $CSP_E$  and QEA to have rich data-structures such as `Set`; thus, we can encode a universal Turing machine using these data structures as tapes. However, such theoretical representation is of no practical interest, because such a monitor does not have much difference to a hand-coded monitor.

A major characteristic of  $CSP_E$  is that it can represent the specification in a bottom-up manner. The entire monitor is built from `sysproc(pid, openFiles)` monitors, which run in an interleaving fashion, and `uniqProcess`, which guarantees that each process has a unique ID. Moreover, `sysproc(pid, openFiles)` can be further decomposed into concurrent monitors. Thus, it can describe the specification in the term near its implementation yet abstracted from unnecessary details. A major characteristic of QEA is that, insofar as it is based on state machines, it requires specifying the states and transitions of the whole system in order to describe the specification.

## 4 Formal Semantics

In this section, we define the formal semantics of  $CSP_E$ . Because it is outside the scope of this paper to define a language that contains all of the Scala constructs, we consider a language that consists of all the constructs explicitly described in Section 3.2, along with purely functional Scala expressions.

In the context of a runtime-monitoring framework, the term *formal semantics* refers to the formal definition of actions of a monitor when it is given a finite sequence of events (trace). For each trace, there are three possibilities:

1. The trace is accepted as a successful and complete execution of the monitored program.
2. The trace is successful thus far, but not yet complete.
3. The trace is rejected as a failure.

Every possible trace falls into one of these three categories. To distinguish these three cases, it is enough to give a set of traces which satisfy either cases 1 or 2. We call such a set a *trace semantics* of a monitor. In the given trace semantics  $T$ , we interpret each trace as follows:

1. A trace  $t \in T$  that ends with  $\checkmark$  is interpreted as a successful and complete execution.
2. A trace that is contained in  $T$  and does not end with  $\checkmark$  is interpreted as an incomplete trace.
3. A trace that is not contained in  $T$  is interpreted as a failure.

The semantic space  $\mathcal{T}$  of all possible trace semantics consists of the set of traces  $T$  that satisfies the following:

1. If  $t \in T$  and  $t'$  is a prefix of  $t$ , then  $t' \in T$ , and
2. for all  $t \in T$ , the  $\checkmark$  appears only at the end of  $t$ .

This definition allows for the  $\emptyset$  to be included as a member of  $\mathcal{T}$ , unlike the usual definition of CSP trace semantics [37, 47]. Let  $T^c$  denote all completed traces in  $T$ ,  $T^i$  denote all incomplete traces in  $T$ , and  $T^f$  denote all traces that are not contained in  $T$ . We allow for the possibility that a trace  $t \in T$  is interpreted as successful thus far, despite the failure of all of its successors—for example, when

$\langle \rangle \in \text{STOP}$ . From here, we abuse notations and use **STOP**, **SKIP** and **Failure** to denote their semantics. The **STOP** specification is required to be used for concurrent composition. If **STOP** is coupled with other processes concurrently, **STOP** will get stuck, whereas other processes will continue to run. If **Failure** is coupled with other processes concurrently, on the other hand, **Failure** causes an immediate failure in the entire system.

Because we allow for a recursive definition of monitors, fixed points of reasonable sets of operators are needed in the semantic space  $\mathcal{T}$ . We follow the usual approach by introducing a structure known as a complete partial order (CPO) into the semantic space  $\mathcal{T}$ . We define the order relation  $T_1 \sqsubseteq T_2$  to hold for elements  $T_1, T_2$  in  $\mathcal{T}$ , if  $T_1 \subseteq T_2$ . CPO is a partial order of which directed subsets have supremums. A directed subset is a subset of a partial order such that it is non-empty and every pair in it has an upper bound in it. A complete lattice is a partially ordered set of which all subsets have supremums and infimums. If all subsets have supremums, they also have infimums [47].

**Theorem 1.**  $\mathcal{T}$  is a complete lattice.

*Proof.* For a set  $(T_i)_{i \in X}$  of elements in  $\mathcal{T}$ , its least upper bound  $T = \bigsqcup_{i \in X} T_i$  is defined as  $T = \bigcup_{i \in X} T_i$  (i.e., the union of  $(T_i)_{i \in X}$  as sets). It is routine to check whether  $T \in \mathcal{T}$ .

It is well known that all complete lattices are CPO. We define  $T_1 \sqcup T_2$  as  $\bigsqcup_{i=1,2} T_i$ . Here,  $\mathcal{T}$  has the minimal element **Failure**, and **Failure** does not contain any trace. Moreover, **STOP** consists solely of  $\langle \rangle$ . In the usual trace semantics, **STOP** is the smallest element of the semantic space, but it is clear that **Failure**  $\sqsubset \text{STOP}$ . We also define **SKIP** as **SKIP** =  $\{\langle \rangle, \langle \checkmark \rangle\}$ . Next, we define the operators  $\rightarrow$ ,  $\smallfrown$  on  $\mathcal{T}$  in order to define the semantic interpretations of  $\rightarrow$ : and  $\$$ . We use the operation  $e^{\wedge} s$  and  $s \smallfrown t$  on an event  $e$  and traces  $s, t$  in order to define  $\rightarrow$  and  $\smallfrown$ . Here,  $e^{\wedge} s$  of the concatenation of the event  $e$  to  $s$ , and  $s \smallfrown t$  is the concatenation of  $s$  and  $t$ , but if  $s$  ends with a  $\checkmark$ , then this  $\checkmark$  is removed. Let  $e$  denote an event other than  $\checkmark$ , and let  $T, T_1, T_2 \in \mathcal{T}$ .

$$\begin{aligned} e \rightarrow T &= \{\langle \rangle\} \cup \{e^{\wedge} t \mid t \in T\} \\ T_1 \smallfrown T_2 &= T_1^i \cup \{s \smallfrown t \mid s \in T_1^c, t \in T_2\} \end{aligned}$$

**Theorem 2.** If  $e$  is an event and  $T, T_1, T_2 \in \mathcal{T}$ , then  $e \rightarrow T, T_1 \smallfrown T_2 \in \mathcal{T}$ .

Next, we define the concurrent composition  $T_1 \parallel_A T_2$  ( $\checkmark \notin A$ ) by co-induction on  $T_1$  and  $T_2$ .  $T \in \mathcal{T}$  is either empty ( $T = \text{Failure}$ ) or it can be decomposed as follows:

$$C \sqcup \bigsqcup_{e \in \text{hd}(T)} e \rightarrow T^e \tag{1}$$

where  $C$  is **SKIP** if  $T$  can successfully terminate immediately or **STOP** otherwise. Here,  $\text{hd}(T)$  is defined as  $\{e \mid \exists t, e^{\wedge} t \in T\}$ . Intuitively,  $T_1 \parallel_A T_2$  is defined as follows: first, we assume that  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  allow only one event,  $e_1$  for  $T_1$  and  $e_2$

for  $T_2$  at the first step, and after these events their behaviors are described by  $T_1^{e_1}$  and  $T_2^{e_2}$  respectively. If both events are not in  $A$ , we assume that  $T_1 \parallel_A T_2$  behaves in an interleaved way, that is,  $T_1 \parallel_A T_2 = e_1 \rightarrow (T_1^{e_1} \parallel_A T_2) \sqcup e_2 \rightarrow (T_1 \parallel_A T_2^{e_2})$ . If one of them, say,  $e_2$  fall into  $A$  but not  $e_1$ , then first  $e_1$  occurs and the occurrence of  $e_2$  is delayed  $e_1 \rightarrow (T_1^{e_1} \parallel_A e_2 \rightarrow T_2^{e_2})$ . If both fall into  $A$ , then they must be equal otherwise  $T_1 \parallel_A T_2 = \text{STOP}$ . If  $e = e_1 = e_2$ ,  $T_1 \parallel_A T_2 = e \rightarrow (T_1^e \parallel_A T_2^e)$ . If there are multiple possibilities for events which can occur at the first step, we can write  $T_1 = \bigsqcup_{e \in \text{hd}(T_1)} e \rightarrow T_1^e$ . We define  $T_1 \parallel T_2$  by distributivity:  $T_1 \parallel_A T_2 = \bigsqcup_{e \in \text{hd}(T_1)} e \rightarrow T_1^e \parallel_A T_2$ . Considering the possibility of immediate termination, we reach the following conditions. Let  $a, a' \in A$  and  $b, b' \notin A \cup \{\checkmark\}$ .

1.  $\text{Failure} \parallel_A T = \text{Failure}$
2.  $\text{SKIP} \parallel_A T = T$
3.  $\text{STOP} \parallel_A T = T \setminus T^c$
4.  $a \rightarrow T_1^a \parallel_A a \rightarrow T_2^a = a \rightarrow (T_1^a \parallel_A T_2^a)$
5.  $a \rightarrow T_1^a \parallel_A a' \rightarrow T_2^a = \text{STOP}$  if  $a \neq a'$
6.  $b \rightarrow T_1^b \parallel_A a \rightarrow T_2^a = b \rightarrow (T_1^b \parallel_A a \rightarrow T_2^a)$
7.  $b \rightarrow T_1^b \parallel_A b' \rightarrow T_2^{b'} = b \rightarrow (T_1^b \parallel_A b' \rightarrow T_2^{b'}) \sqcup b' \rightarrow (b \rightarrow T_1^b \parallel_A T_2^{b'})$
8.  $(C \sqcup \bigsqcup_{e \in \text{hd}(T_1)} e \rightarrow T_e) \parallel_A T_2 = (C \parallel_A T_2) \sqcup \bigsqcup_{e \in \text{hd}(T_1)} (e \rightarrow T_e \parallel_A T_2)$
9. All symmetric cases of above rules.

**Theorem 3.** *If  $T_1, T_2 \in \mathcal{T}$ ,  $T_1 \parallel_A T_2$  exists and is an element of  $\mathcal{T}$ .*

**Theorem 4.** *The operators  $\sqcup, \bigsqcup, \rightarrow, \parallel_A$ , and  $\smallfrown$  are all monotonic.*

Thus, Tarski’s fixed-point theorem can be applied, and the use of recursion is justified [47].

We interpret **Failure**, **STOP**, and **SKIP** in the  $CSP_E$  notation as **Failure**, **STOP**, and **SKIP** in  $\mathcal{T}$ , respectively, and  $\rightarrow$ ,  $\langle + \rangle$ ,  $\text{??}$ ,  $\text{f}$ ,  $\parallel$ ,  $\text{a}$ ,  $\parallel$ , and  $\$$  as  $\rightarrow$ ,  $\sqcup$ ,  $\bigsqcup_{e: \text{Event}} e \rightarrow \text{f}(e)$ ,  $\parallel_A(a)$ , and  $\smallfrown$ , respectively. Here,  $A(a)$  is the set of events that have elements of  $\text{a}$  as alphabets. Moreover,  $\text{??}$  and  $\parallel$  can be defined by using the operators above and a recursive definition.

## 5 Implementation

In this section, we discuss an implementation of  $CSP_E$ , which is available at [54].  $CSP_E$  was implemented as an internal shallow-embedded DSL in the Scala programming language. Artho et al. discussed in depth the use of a DSL in the context of verification [3]. The proposed  $CSP_E$  is a combinator library that can be used to define an object of the **Process** class, which represents a monitor. An object of the **Process** class includes a method called **accept**, which accepts an event object and returns new monitors. To monitor an event sequence, **ProcessSet** is first instantiated by a list of monitors that are defined by  $CSP_E$ . **ProcessSet** also includes a method named **accept**, which accepts an event and returns a new **ProcessSet**. **ProcessSet** represents multiple possible system states that are being monitored. Each monitor contained in **ProcessSet** represents one possible

system state. `ProcessSet` includes a method named `isFailure`, which returns a Boolean value. If it returns true, there is no possible state that can be interpreted as a correct system state, thus signifying the occurrence of an error. `ProcessSet` includes a method named `canTerminate`, which also returns a Boolean value. If it returns true, the system can exit at that point. If it returns false and the system exits, the exit is an error.

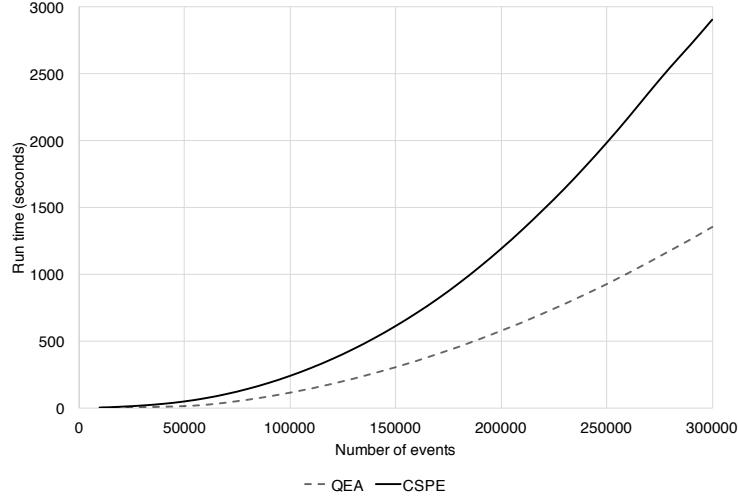
As stated above, the `Process` object returns new `Process` objects when it accepts a new event, rather than changing its internal state. This design simplifies the implementation of non-determinism and concurrency. However, it also requires immutable data structures for the internal state of a `Process` object. A data structure for holding sets of processes is crucial in terms of performance, especially when there are many processes running concurrently. The current implementation uses the standard Scala `List`, which allows for duplicate entries. A set in the standard library and multisets [51] have more efficient representations, but we found that using them degrades the performance. Removing duplicate entries appears to be unnecessary, because the current implementation generates many closures. Closures in Scala are compared by their physical equality, thus all closures which are generated at different times are distinct. Thus, the considerable amount of time needed to compute hashes and compare objects is superfluous. Furthermore, we attempted to enhance the performance and reduce memory usage by caching the results of `accept`. Alas, this slowed the library, contrary to our expectations. In that experiment, we used ScalaCache [11] together with Google Guava [27].

## 6 Benchmark

We compared the performance of our implementation of  $CSP_E$  with an implementation of QEA [14], using a randomly generated event sequence that correctly simulates our motivating example. The benchmark generated an event sequence and fed this into the  $CSP_E$  and QEA monitors inside the same program, without using an external log file. The program generated a sequence of `Event` objects using a `Stream` and put its first 300,000 elements into a `List` to avoid recording the time required to generate the sequence in the benchmark. Then, the benchmark program first fed these elements into the  $CSP_E$  monitor, recording the real time from the first event to each 1,000 events. The benchmark program also did the same to the QEA monitor, and finally formatted the result into the CSV format. The time required for the JVM startup and the initialization of the monitors is not included. The benchmark program is included in the `test` directory of the  $CSP_E$  distribution [54].

The benchmark uses Java 1.8.0\_77-b03 and Scala 2.11.8 on Mac OS X El Capitan, which we executed on a Mac Pro (late 2013 model), with a 3.7 GHz Quad-Core Intel Xeon E5 and 64 GB of 1866 MHz DDR3 ECC.

Fig. 4 shows the results of this experiment. The time required to process  $n$  events is roughly quadratic to  $n$ , because the number of processes in the monitored system increases linearly to  $n$  and for each event, checking that every



**Fig. 4.** Benchmark with the motivating example

process follows the specification requires time linearly to  $n$ . We can observe that QEA is slightly more than twice as fast as  $CSP_E$ . Nevertheless, because the current implementation of  $CSP_E$  has not yet been optimized, this shows that  $CSP_E$  is a feasible approach to monitoring concurrent systems.

## 7 Application: stracematch

`stracematch` is contained in the example directory of the  $CSP_E$  distribution [54].  $CSP_E$  is used to implement a complete model of open and closed system calls for file descriptors, the `fork` system call, and the `execve` system call. It accepts the `dtruss -f` output on OS X from the standard input, and then verifies that the program correctly handles file descriptors. `dtruss` is based on DTrace [12]. DTrace can instrument kernel events using D-script (not related to the D programming language), and do an arbitrary complex task at each kernel event.

`dtruss` is a wrapper of DTrace and traces system calls and produces a log, similar to `strace` in Linux. However, there are limitations: 1) `dtruss` cannot obtain file descriptors which are created by `socketpair` and `pipe`, 2) `dtruss` cannot catch the invocation of `execve` system call, which causes errors, 3) `dtruss` outputs the trace to `stderr`, while it also outputs error messages to `stderr`, therefore, if an error happens, the error message has to be removed from the log manually. In the future work, we may consider using directly DTrace to circumvent these limitations.

Owing to these limitations of `dtruss`, `stracematch` verifies that (a) a process does not close the same file descriptor twice, and (b) if `stracematch` detects

the opening of a file descriptor, it is closed in the same thread. We applied **stracematch** to several programs, as indicated in Table 1, where the “log size” represents the number of lines in the log, and “time” denotes the amount of time in seconds that **stracematch** required to analyze the log, which includes the time to start the JVM.

**Table 1.** Benchmark of stracematch

Program	Log size Result	Time [s]
<code>ls</code>	156 Passed	0.370
<code>wget (short)</code>	267 Fd not closed	0.377
<code>wget (long)</code>	28,901 Fd not closed	1.145
<code>Emacs</code>	2,678 Fd not closed	0.750
<code>Chrome</code>	166,090 Stopped at 2,935	0.810
<code>Ruby ehttpd</code>	11,034 Closed fd twice at 1,168	0.648
<code>Sinatra</code>	3,191 Closed fd twice at 1,170	0.673
<code>bash</code>	1,218 Closed fd twice at 946	0.575

`ls` [2] is a Unix command which lists the contents of a directory. “`ls`” shows the result on a trace which was obtained by invoking `ls -l` in a directory. `wget` [31] is a command line tool to download the contents of a Web page or a Web site. “`wget (short)`” shows the result on a trace which was obtained by downloading a single web page. “`wget (long)`” shows the result on a trace which is obtained by downloading an entire web site recursively. `Emacs` [30] is a popular text editor. “`Emacs`” shows the result on a trace which was obtained by invoking and terminating `Emacs` on the terminal. `Chrome` [26] is a popular Web browser. “`Chrome`” shows the result on a trace which was obtained by starting and exiting `Chrome`. `Ruby ehttpd` is a web server which is included in the standard `Ruby` [40] programming language distribution. `Sinatra` [42] is a simple web framework. “`Ruby ehttpd`” and “`Sinatra`” shows the results on traces which were obtained by running these web servers on a simple static web site and downloading the entire web site by `wget`. `bash` is a popular Unix command shell. “`bash`” [29] shows the result on a trace which was obtained by running an artificial shell script which was extracted from `sbt`, a build system which is used mainly for `Scala` programming language. The shell script which was used, is available upon request.

Our tool can process any logs within less than 1.2 seconds. With the exception of the case of “`ls`”, **stracematch** ended with errors. When **stracematch** encounters an error, it stops and prints the line number and the contents of the line. In Table 1, the location of each termination is indicated by the line number at which **stracematch** stopped. One group of errors involved some file descriptors that were still open at the end of the execution. This may be an indication of a leak of that file descriptor. Another group of errors involved closing the same file descriptor twice without re-opening it in between. This can cause a rare bug in which another thread or a signal handler opens a file descriptor after

that file descriptor is closed for the first time and then the same file descriptor is closed again; thus, that other thread or that signal handler cannot use this file descriptor after that point. In the “Chrome” case, `stracematch` stopped because invocations of `fork` appeared in the log, but only for child processes; and there were no record of the invocation of `fork` for the parent processes. In such a case, `stracematch` will become confused and stop working.

We contacted the developers of `wget` and `bash`, but the `bash` developer answered that the error is harmless. The `wget` developers did not respond.

## 8 Conclusion

In this paper, we presented  $CSP_E$ , an event-monitoring framework for concurrent systems inspired by Hoare’s CSP. Monitoring concurrent systems is important, because concurrent systems are now ubiquitous, and unit tests are incapable of detecting concurrency bugs. Unlike most of other monitoring frameworks,  $CSP_E$  can describe a concurrent system in a bottom-up fashion, by composing specifications of system components. This is often a natural way of specifying concurrent systems.

$CSP_E$  is implemented as an internal DSL in Scala. Consequently, it can be easily adapted to the needs of specific applications. Although the current implementation has not yet been optimized, it incurs acceptable overhead, as we demonstrated by comparing it to a QEA implementation to monitor a simulated event sequence of a highly concurrent system. We presented the formal semantics for  $CSP_E$  in Section 4. Thus,  $CSP_E$  is amenable to theoretical analysis. The semantics are closely similar to the standard trace semantics of CSP. To interpret the `Failure` construct, however, we allow the  $\emptyset$  as a valid element in the semantic space. We showed that even in such a setting, the semantic space forms a CPO, thus allowing for fixed-point construction.

There are several directions for future research. Currently, a  $CSP_E$  monitor can only determine whether a given event trace is correct, outputting a Boolean value. This makes it difficult to find the cause of an error. In addition, there is no mechanism for error recovery. Rather, a monitor simply terminates when it first encounters an error. We plan to add functionality that records the event sequence to the error, providing error recovery based on diagnostics.  $CSP_E$  does not currently offer an easy way to share states among monitors running concurrently. Global variables in Scala cannot be used for this purpose, because they are also shared between monitors that represent the different states of the system. We shall consider a mechanism and a language feature that can record the global states among monitors.

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