

Formalising filesystems in the ACL2 theorem prover: an application to FAT32

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In this work, we present an approach towards constructing executable specifications of existing filesystems and verifying their functional properties in a theorem proving environment. We detail an application of this approach to the FAT32 filesystem.

We also detail the methodology used to build up this type of executable specification through a series of models which incrementally add features of the target filesystem. This methodology has the benefit of allowing the verification effort to start from simple models which encapsulate features common to many filesystems and which are thus suitable for re-use.

1 Introduction and overview

Filesystems are ubiquitous in computing, providing application programs a means to store data persistently, address data by a name instead of a numeric index, and communicate with other programs. Thus, the vast majority of application programs directly or indirectly rely upon filesystems, which makes filesystem verification critically important. Here, we present a formalisation effort in ACL2 for the FAT32 filesystem, and a proof of the read-over-write properties for FAT32 system calls. By starting with a high-level abstract model and adding more filesystem features in successive models, we are able to manage the complexity of this proof, which has not, to our knowledge, been previously attempted. Thus, this paper contributes an implementation of several Unix-like system calls for FAT32, a widely-used filesystem, formally verified against an abstract specification and tested for binary compatibility by means of co-simulation.

In the rest of this paper, we describe these filesystem models and the properties proved, with examples; we proceed to a high-level explanation of these proofs and the co-simulation infrastructure; and further we offer some insights about the low-level issues encountered while working the proofs.

2 Related work

Filesystem verification research has largely followed a pattern of synthesising a new filesystem based on a specification chosen for its ease in proving properties of interest, rather than similarity to an existing filesystem. Our work, in contrast, follows the FAT32 specification closely. In spirit, our work is closer to previous work which uses interactive theorem provers and explores deep functional properties than to efforts which use non-interactive theorem provers such as Z3 to produce fully automated proofs of simpler properties.

2.1 Interactive theorem provers

An early effort in the filesystem verification domain was by Bevier and Cohen [3], who specified the Synergy filesystem and created an executable model of the same in ACL2 [11], down to the level of processes and file descriptors. On the proof front, they certified their model to preserve well-formedness of their data structures through their various file operations; however, they did not attempt to prove, for instance, read-over-write properties or crash consistency. Later, Klein et al with the SeL4 project [17] used Isabelle/HOL [20] to verify a microkernel; while their design abstracted away file operations in order to keep their trusted computing base small, it did serve as a precursor to their more recent COGENT project [1]. Here the authors built a verifying compiler to translate a filesystem specification in their domain-specific language to C-language code, accompanied by a proof of the correctness of this translation. Elsewhere, the SibylFS project [21], again using Isabelle/HOL, provided an executable specification for filesystems at a level of abstraction that could function across multiple operating systems including OSX and Unix. The Coq prover [2] has also been used, for instance, for FSCQ [5], a state-of-the-art filesystem which was built to have high performance and formally verified crash consistency properties.

2.2 Non-interactive theorem provers

Non-interactive theorem provers such as Z3 [7] have also been used; Hyperkernel [19] is a recent effort which simplifies the xv6 [6] microkernel until the point where Z3 can verify its properties with its SMT solving techniques. However, towards this end, all system calls in Hyperkernel are replaced with analogs which can terminate in constant time; while this approach is theoretically sound, it increases the chances of discrepancies between the model and the implementation which may diminish the utility of the proofs or even render them moot. A stronger effort in the same domain is Yggdrasil [23], which focusses on verifying filesystems with the use of Z3. While the authors make substantial progress in terms of the number of filesystem calls they support and the crash consistency guarantees they provide, they are subject to the limits of SMT solving which prevent them from modelling filesystem features such as extents, which are essential to FAT32 and many other filesystems.

3 Program architecture and performance considerations

We have two concrete models for the FAT32 filesystem - M2, which is a faithful representation of a FAT32 disk image in the form of a stobj [4], and M1, which represents the state of the FAT32 filesystem as a directory tree. This allows us to address the practical details of updating a disk image in M2, which benefits from ACL2's efficient stobj array operations provides for stobjs, and abstract them away in M1 for easier reasoning without the syntactic constraints imposed on stobj arrays.

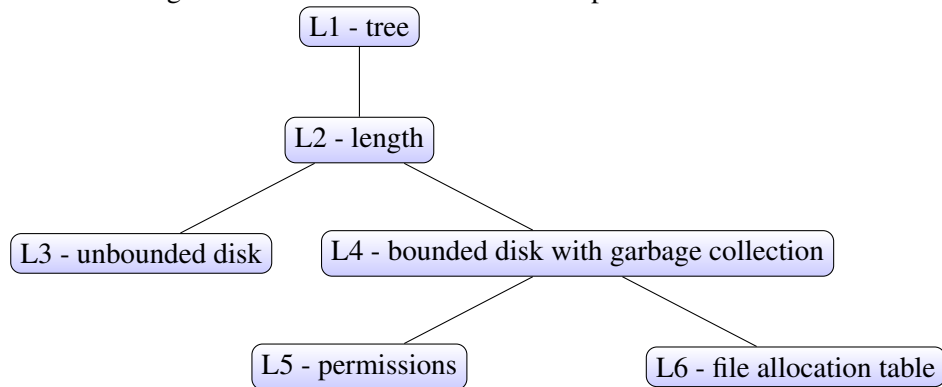
These concrete filesystem models are based upon abstract models L1 through L6. These models are constructed incrementally to allow for reuse of features in general, and refinement relations where necessary for proofs. Much of the code and proof infrastructure is also shared between the abstract models and the concrete models by design, although there is not a formal refinement relation between the latter and the former. Details of the filesystem features and refinement/reuse relationships between the abstract models can be seen in table 1 and figure 1 respectively.

We choose to implement a subset of the POSIX filesystem application programming interface. This allows us to easily compare the results of running filesystem operations on M2 and the Linux kernel's implementation of FAT32, which in turn allows us to test our implementation's correctness through co-simulation in addition to theorem proving. One trade-off for this choice is the necessity of emulating

Table 1: Abstract models and their features

L1	The filesystem is represented as a tree, with leaf nodes for regular files and non-leaf nodes for directories. The contents of regular files are represented as strings stored in the nodes of the tree; the storage available for these is unbounded.
L2	A single element of metadata, <i>length</i> , is stored within each regular file.
L3	The contents of regular files are divided into blocks of fixed size. These blocks are stored in an external "disk" data structure; the storage for these blocks remains unbounded.
L4	The storage available for blocks is now bounded. An allocation vector data structure is introduced to help allocate and garbage collect blocks.
L5	Additional metadata for file ownership and access permissions is stored within each regular file.
L6	The allocation vector is replaced by a file allocation table, matching the official FAT specification.

Figure 1: Refinement/reuse relationships between models



certain functionality provided by the Linux kernel to all filesystems; thus, we implement process tables and file tables through a straightforward approach similar to that used in Synergy [3].

4 The FAT32 filesystem

FAT32 was initially developed at Microsoft [18] in order to address certain shortcomings of the DOS filesystem previously in use in their operating systems. While it is simple by today's standards, it does add some complexity compared to the filesystems which came before.

All files, including regular files and directory files, are divided into *clusters* (sometimes called *extents*) of a fixed size, which is decided at the time a FAT32 volume is formatted, and constrained to be a multiple of the disk sector size. Directory files differ only in a metadata attribute which indicates that their contents should be treated as a sequence of directory entries. Each such directory entry is 32 bytes wide and contains information including name, size, first cluster index, and access times for the corresponding file.

The file allocation table itself contains a number of linked lists. It maps each cluster index used by a file to either the next cluster index for that file or a special end-of-clusterchain value¹. This allows the contents of a file to be reconstructed by reading just the first cluster index from the corresponding directory entry, and building the list of clusters using the table. Unused clusters are mapped to 0 in the table; this fact is used for counting and allocating free clusters.

We illustrate the file allocation table and data layout for a small example directory tree in figure 2. It should be noted that the `/tmp` directory is part of the root filesystem here, unlike in some operating systems where `/tmp` is the mountpoint for a different filesystem; also, for the purposes of illustration, all regular files and directories are assumed to span one cluster except for `/vmlinuz` which spans two clusters.

5 Proof methodology

In L1, our simplest model, the read-over-write properties were, of necessity, proven from scratch.

In each subsequent model, the read-over-write properties are proven as corollaries of equivalence proofs which establish the correctness of read and write operations in the respective model with respect to a previous model. A representation of such an equivalence proof can be seen in figures 3, 4 and 5, which respectively show the equivalence proof for `l2-wrchs`, the equivalence proof for `l2-rdchs` and the composition of these to obtain the first read-over-write theorem for model L2.

6 Some proof details

We have come to rely on certain principles for the proof effort for each new model. We summarise these below.

6.1 Invariants

As the abstract models grow more complex, with the addition of more auxiliary data the "sanity" criteria for filesystem instances become more complex. For instance, in L4, the predicate `l4-fs-p` is defined

¹ There is actually a range of end-of-clusterchain values in the specification, not just one. We support all values in the range.

Figure 2: A FAT32 directory tree

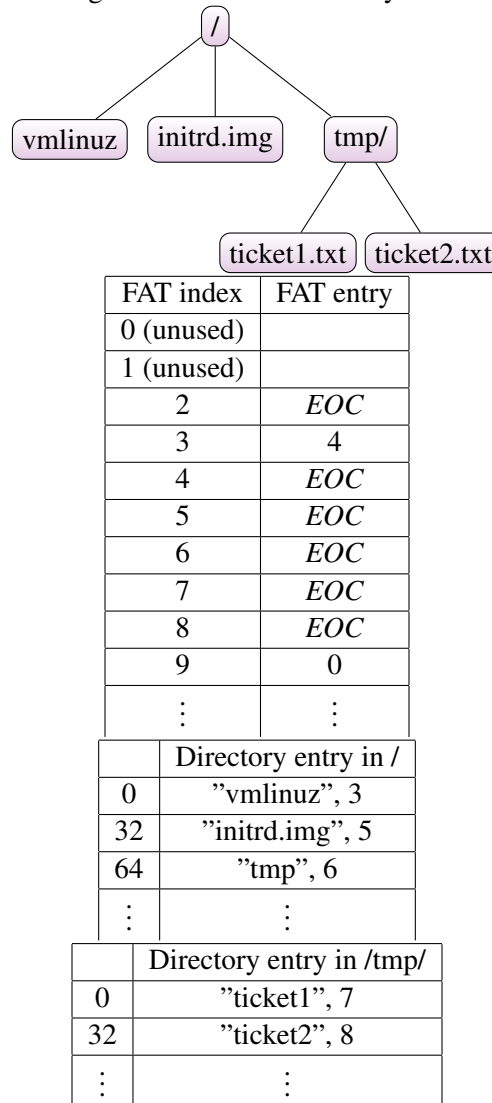
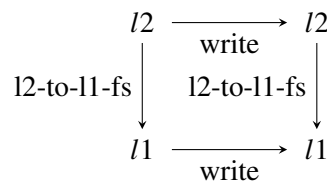


Figure 3: l2-wrchs-correctness-1




```

(>= (bpb_bytsperssec fat32-in-memory) *ms-min-bytes-per-sector*)
(>= (bpb_secperclus fat32-in-memory) 1)
(>= (count-of-clusters fat32-in-memory)
    *ms-fat32-min-count-of-clusters*)
(>= (bpb_rootclus fat32-in-memory) *ms-first-data-cluster*)))

```

6.2 Reuse

As noted earlier, using a refinement methodology allows us to derive our read-over-write properties essentially “for free”; more precisely, we are able to prove read-over-write properties simply with `:use` hints after having done the work of proving refinement through induction.

At a lower level, we are also able to benefit from refinement relationships between components of our different models. For example, such a relationship exists between the allocation vector used in L4 and the file allocation table used in L6. More precisely, by taking a file allocation table and mapping each non-zero entry to `true` and each zero entry to `false`, we obtain a corresponding allocation vector with exactly the same amount of available space. This is a refinement mapping which makes it a lot easier to prove that L4, which uses an allocation vector, is an abstraction of L6, which uses a file allocation table. This, in turn, means that the effort spent on proving the invariants described above for L4 need not be replicated for L6.

7 Co-simulation

Previous work on executable specifications [8] has shown the importance of testing these on real examples, in order to validate that the behaviour shown matches that of the system being specified. In our case, this means we must validate our filesystem by testing it in execution against a canonical implementation of FAT32; in this case, we choose the implementation which ships with Linux kernel 3.10.

We use `mkfs.fat` [10], a program which produces FAT32 disk images, for our tests. When run with the `-v` flag, this program emits an English-language summary of the fields of the newly created disk image; we make use of this by writing an ACL2 program based on our model which reads the image and reproduces this summary. This validates our code for reading the various fields of the disk image and gives us a regression test to use while we modify our model to support proofs and filesystem calls.

Our first co-simulation test is for `cat` [9], a simple program which reads its input and copies it to its output. Its functionality is reproduced in an ACL2 program which uses our implementations of the system calls `lstat` [13], `open` [14], `pread` [15], `pwrite` [16], and `close` [12]. This allows us to validate our code for reading and writing regular files and directories which span multiple clusters.

We further test the `dd` [22] program, which provides similar functionality to `cat` but with more options to customise the data transfer, for instance, by allowing the data transfer to be split into blocks of a specified size.

8 Conclusion

This work formalises a FAT32-like filesystem and proves read-over-write properties through refinement of a series of models. Further, it proves the correctness of FAT32’s allocation and garbage collection mechanisms, and provides artefacts to be used in a subsequent realistic model of FAT32.

9 Future work

While FAT32 is interesting of and by itself, it lacks features such as crash consistency, which most modern filesystems provide by means of journalling. We hope to re-use some artefacts of formalising FAT32 in order to verify a filesystem with journalling, such as ext4.

We also hope to model the behaviour of filesystems in a multiprogramming environment, where concurrent filesystem calls must be able to occur without corruption or loss of data.

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