

A verified parallel scheduler for OCaml 5

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We present the implementation and mechanized verification of a realistic parallel scheduler for OCaml 5 using the Iris-based Zoo framework. Similarly to Domainslib, it relies on a work-stealing strategy to perform load balancing but also supports other scheduling strategies thanks to its flexible interface. We provide basic benchmarks demonstrating that its performance is on par with other schedulers from the OCaml ecosystem.

As part of this effort, we verify the Chase-Lev work-stealing deque, as implemented in the Saturn library. We show that it features a subtle external and future-dependent linearization point. To deal with it, we introduce new abstractions for reasoning about prophecy variables in Iris.

1 Introduction

The OCaml programming language migrated from a sequential to a multicore runtime in OCaml 5, imported from the Multicore OCaml research project [Sivaramakrishnan, Dolan, White, Jaffer, Kelly, Sahoo, Parimala, Dhiman and Madhavapeddy 2020] and first released as OCaml 5.0 in 2022. The sequential runtime had a “big runtime lock” guaranteeing that at most one OCaml thread would run at any point in time. The multicore runtime supports “domains” (heavyweight threads) that can run OCaml code in parallel, operating on a shared heap and cooperating for garbage collection. It is designed to offer a M:N threading model with M lightweight tasks (or threads, fibers) are mapped to N domains, with N no larger than the number of CPU cores¹. The implementation of lightweight tasks and their scheduler is left to be done in userland, as an OCaml library running on top of runtime-provided domains.

The authors of the Multicore OCaml runtime implemented the Domainslib library for CPU-bound tasks, initially to write benchmarks to test the scalability of the OCaml runtime. It uses a work-stealing scheduler and is state-of-the-art in the OCaml library ecosystem. Other lightweight task libraries include Moonpool, which was implemented independently, and Eio which focuses on efficient asynchronous I/O. All of those schedulers have been used in performance-sensitive scenarios, benchmarked and optimized, notably using lock-free data structures implemented in OCaml 5.

In this work we present Parabs, a verified implementation of a state-of-the-art scheduler for lightweight tasks, following the overall design of Domainslib, with some implementation choices inspired by the Taskflow C++ library [Huang, Lin, Lin and Lin 2022]. This verification builds on top of the Zoo framework [Allain and Scherer 2026], which supports the formal verification of a subset of OCaml 5 in the Iris program logic [Jung, Krebbers, Jourdan, Bizjak, Birkedal and Dreyer 2018], mechanized within the Rocq proof assistant. Our verification effort includes a new mechanized verification of the Chase-Lev work-stealing queue [Chase and Lev 2005], with stronger invariants than had previously appeared in the literature. Our scheduler supports two different scheduling strategies, one using standard randomized work-stealing [Blumofe and Leiserson 1999], the other using work-stealing with *private* deques [Acar, Chaguéraud and Rainey 2013]. On top of the scheduler, we expose an API closely resembling Domainslib, but also a *task graph* abstraction which implements the DAG-calculus of Acar, Chaguéraud, Rainey and Sieczkowski [2016].

¹The multicore runtime of OCaml performs frequent stop-the-world pause in its garbage collector, to facilitate the migration of existing programs using the OCaml foreign function interface — this design does not require adding a read barrier. A consequence of these stop-the-world events is that runtime performance declines sharply if a domain is paused by the operating system, so it is critical to limit the number of domains to available cores: domains are a heavier, less composable abstraction than “kernel threads” in typical M:N models. In consequence, they must be controlled by end-used applications, possibly via a concurrency framework that hides them entirely, and software libraries should not implicitly spawn new domains, they need to use a more lightweight task abstraction.

50 This work is focused on formal verification but we did write and run relatively simple benchmarks
 51 to validate experimentally that the performance of our verified implementation, Parabs, is
 52 comparable to Domainslib; in our tests it is equal or faster.

53 *Contributions.* Our contributions include:

- 54 (1) A new mechanized verification of the Chase-Lev work-stealing queue [Chase and Lev 2005],
 55 with finer-grained invariants than had previously appeared in the literature. In particular, our
 56 invariant lets us reason about the failure case of the pop operation, which was missing from
 57 earlier formalizations and is essential to prove termination of the work-stealing scheduler
 58 when all task queues are exhausted.
- 59 (2) A fully verified implementation of a parallel scheduler in OCaml 5, Parabs, which provides a
 60 verified alternative to the state-of-the-art Domainslib library. To the best of our knowledge,
 61 this is the first verified implementation of a parallel work-stealing task scheduler (for any
 62 language) using realistic implementation techniques. Our experimental evaluation on a
 63 set of simple benchmarks shows that Parabs has comparable or better performance than
 64 Domainslib, and better performance than Moonpool.
- 65 (3) A verified implementation of the DAG-calculus interface for parallel task graphs proposed
 66 by Acar, Charguéraud and Rainey [2013].
- 67 (4) At the level of Iris proof techniques, we developed extensions of prophecy variables. To
 68 reason about the linearization points of our concurrent data structures we needed to
 69 introduce “wise” and “multiplexed” prophecy variables, which are reusable building blocks
 70 and could be useful for the verification of other concurrent data structures, in any Iris
 71 formalization of any programming language.
- 72

73 *Artifact.* The Zoo verification framework supports a fragment of OCaml called ZooLang, with
 74 formal semantics defined as an Iris program logic, and a partial translator from OCaml to ZooLang
 75 programs deeply embedded within Rocq. Our developments are thus available as OCaml libraries
 76 that are readily available for usage, and their Rocq specifications, invariants and proofs. For reasons
 77 of space we cannot possibly hope to describe them in full in the paper, so we focus on the most
 78 readily reusable parts: specifications, and key invariants and proof techniques. For more details,
 79 we view our code and mechanized proofs as an integral part of this submission; they are available
 80 at <https://anonymous.4open.science/r/zoo-A236>, publicly available and open-source.² To ease in-
 81 depth exploration, the paper contains direct references to the implementation and the proof as
 82 picture/icon links, for example  and .

84 2 Iris arsenal

85 *Separation logic.* Iris is a concurrent separation logic [O’Hearn 2007; O’Hearn, Reynolds and
 86 Yang 2001; Reynolds 2002] fully mechanized in the Rocq proof assistant [Krebbbers, Jourdan, Jung,
 87 Tassarotti, Kaiser, Timany, Charguéraud and Dreyer 2018]. As such, it features basic connectives
 88 like separation conjunction $*$ and separating implication $\text{--}*$.

89 *Persistent assertions.* In Iris, assertions are affine: using a resource consumes it, removes it from
 90 the proof context. Some assertions, however, are *persistent*. Once a persistent assertion holds, it
 91 holds forever; using it does not consume it. This enables *duplication* ($P \vdash P * P$) and *sharing*. In
 92 particular, pure (meta-level) assertions embedded into the logic are persistent.

93
 94
 95 ²For ease of development we followed the Zoo approach of working in a mono-repository, so we have an experimental
 96 version of Zoo with our developments added, as well as some cross-cutting improvements to the pre-existing support
 97 libraries and tactics.

99 Formally, persistence is defined in terms of the *persistence modality*:

$$100 \quad \text{persistent } P \triangleq P \vdash \square P$$

101 Informally, $\square P$ means P holds without asserting any exclusive ownership; in other words, it only
102 expresses knowledge. Naturally, $\square P$ is persistent.

103 *Ghost state.* One of the most important features of Iris is its *user-defined higher-order ghost state*,
104 a very flexible form of ghost state. Ghost updates, of the form $\Rightarrow P$, allow updating the ghost state
105 during the proof; they are purely logical, hence not visible in the program.
106

107 *Sequential specification.* Sequential specifications take the form of Hoare triples:

$$\begin{array}{c} P \\ \hline e \\ \hline \Phi \end{array} \qquad \frac{}{\stackrel{\text{stack-model } t \text{ vs}}{\stackrel{\text{stack_push } t \text{ v}}{(\). stack\text{-model } t \text{ (v :: vs)}}}}$$

111 where P is an Iris assertion, e an expression and Φ an Iris predicate over values.

112 Informally, this triple says: if the precondition P holds, we can safely execute e and, if the
113 execution terminates, the returned value satisfies the postcondition Φ . It is a persistent resource,
114 allowing executing e many times.

115 *Weakest precondition.* Hoare triples are defined using the more primitive notion of *weakest
116 precondition* $\text{wp } e \{ \Phi \}$. Informally, it says that: once only, we can execute e and, if the execution
117 terminates, the returned value satisfies the postcondition Φ . Contrary to Hoare triples, it can depend
118 on exclusive ownership and therefore is not persistent.

119 *Atomic specification.* To specify concurrent operations, we use the notion of *logical atomicity*
120 [da Rocha Pinto, Dinsdale-Young and Gardner 2014]. An operation is said to be logically
121 atomic if it appears to take effect atomically at some point during its execution; this point is called
122 the *linearization point* of the operation. Birkedal, Dinsdale-Young, Guéneau, Jaber, Svendsen and
123 Tzevelekos showed that this notion implies *linearizability* [Herlihy and Wing 1990] in a sequentially
124 consistent memory model.

125 In Iris, logical atomicity takes the form of *atomic specifications*:

$$\frac{\frac{\frac{P_{priv}}{\bar{x}. P_{pub}}}{e}}{\bar{y}. Q} \qquad \frac{\stackrel{\text{stack-inv } t}{\stackrel{\text{vs. stack-model } t \text{ vs}}{\stackrel{\text{stack_push } t \text{ v}}{\stackrel{\text{stack-model } t \text{ (v :: vs)}}{(\). True}}}}}$$

126 P_{priv} and Φ are standard *private* pre- and postcondition for the user of the specification, similarly to
127 Hoare triples. P_{pub} and Q are *public* pre- and postcondition; they specify the linearization point of
128 the operation. Quantifiers \bar{x} represent the *demonic nature* of P_{pub} : the exact state at the linearization
129 point, given by P_{pub} , is unknown until it happens. Quantifiers \bar{y} represent the *angelic nature* of Q :
at the linearization point, the operation can choose how to instantiate the new state Q .

130 In sum, the atomic specification says: if the private precondition P_{priv} holds, we can safely execute
131 e and, if the execution terminates, (1) the returned value satisfies the private postcondition Φ and
132 (2) at some point during the execution, the state was atomically updated from P_{pub} to Q .

133 3 Prophecy variables

134 In 2020, Jung, Lepigre, Parthasarathy, Rapoport, Timany, Dreyer and Jacobs introduced *prophecy
135 variables* in Iris. Essentially, prophecy variables — or *prophets*, as we will call them in this section —

148 PROPHET-MODEL-EXCLUSIVE 149 $\text{model } pid \text{ prophs}_1$ $\text{model } pid \text{ prophs}_2$ 150 <hr/> 151 False	152 WP-PROPH 153 True 154 Prop 155 $pid. \exists \text{ prophs. model } pid \text{ prophs}$ 156 <hr/> 157 WP-RESOLVE 158 atomic e 159 to-val $e = \text{None}$ $\text{model } pid \text{ prophs}$ wp e $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{res. } \forall \text{ prophs'.} \\ \text{prophs} = (\text{res}, v) :: \text{prophs'} - * \\ \text{model } pid \text{ prophs'} - * \\ \Phi \text{ res} \end{array} \right\}$ 160 <hr/> 161 wp Resolve $e pid v \{ \Phi \}$
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Fig. 1. Reasoning rules for primitive prophets

can be used to predict the future of the program execution and reason about it. They are key to handle *future-dependent linearization points* [Dongol and Derrick 2014]: linearization points that may or may not occur at a given location in the code depending on a future observation.

In the program, prophecies take the form of two primitives: Proph and Resolve. To reason about them in the logic, Jung, Lepigre, Parthasarathy, Rapoport, Timany, Dreyer and Jacobs [2020] proposed two abstraction layers, which we recall in Sections 3.1 and 3.2. To verify the Chase-Lev work-stealing deque (see Section 4), we needed to introduce two additional layers, presented in Sections 3.3 and 3.4.

3.1 Primitive prophet

The first layer consists of *primitive prophecies* . These prophecies are primitive in the sense that they simply reflect the semantics of Proph and Resolve in the program logic. The corresponding reasoning rules are given in Figure 1.

The assertion $\text{model } pid \text{ prophs}$ represents the exclusive ownership of the prophet with identifier pid ; prophs is the list of prophecies that must still be resolved.

WP-PROPH says that Proph allocates a new prophet with some unknown prophecies to be resolved. **WP-RESOLVE** says that Resolve $e pid v$ atomically resolves the next prophecy of prophet pid : we learn that the prophecies before resolution prophs is non-empty and its head is the pair (res, v) where res is the evaluation of e .

3.2 Typed prophet

The second layer consists of *typed prophecies* . They are very similar to primitive prophecies except prophecies are now typed. The corresponding reasoning rules, given in Figure 2, are essentially the same as before. The prophet must provide a type τ along with two functions of-val and to-val. to-val converts an inhabitant of τ to a value; **TYPED-PROPHET-RESOLVE-SPEC** relies on it to enforce that the prophecies are well-typed. of-val attempts to convert a value to τ ; it is used internally. of-val and to-val must be compatible: of-val (to-val proph) = Some proph .

3.3 Wise prophet

The third layer consists of *wise prophecies* . These prophecies remember past prophecies. The corresponding reasoning rules are given in Figure 3.

	TYPED-PROPHET-MODEL-EXCLUSIVE		TYPED-PROPHET-PROPH-SPEC
197	$\text{model } pid \text{ prophs}_1$	$\text{model } pid \text{ prophs}_2$	True
198	False		
199			Proph
200			$pid. \exists \text{ prophs. model } pid \text{ prophs}$
201			
202	TYPED-PROPHET-RESOLVE-SPEC	atomic e	to-val $e = \text{None}$
203			
204	$v = \text{prophet.to-val propf}$	$\text{model } pid \text{ prophs}$	$\text{wp } e \left\{ \begin{array}{l} w. \forall \text{ prophs'}. \\ \text{prophs} = \text{propf} :: \text{prophs}' -* \\ \text{model } pid \text{ prophs' -*} \\ \Phi w \end{array} \right\}$
205			
206			
207			
208		$\text{wp Resolve } e pid v \{ \Phi \}$	
209			
210	Fig. 2. Reasoning rules for typed prophets		
211			

212	persistent (full γ prophs)	persistent (snapshot γ past prophs)	persistent (lb γ lb)
213			
214	WISE-PROPHET-MODEL-EXCLUSIVE		WISE-PROPHET-FULL-GET
215	$\text{model } pid \gamma_1 \text{ past}_1 \text{ prophs}_1$	$\text{model } pid \gamma_2 \text{ past}_2 \text{ prophs}_2$	$\text{model } pid \gamma \text{ past prophs}$
216	False		
217			
218	WISE-PROPHET-FULL-VALID		WISE-PROPHET-FULL-AGREE
219	$\text{model } pid \gamma \text{ past prophs}_1$	$\text{full } \gamma \text{ prophs}_2$	$\text{full } \gamma \text{ prophs}_1$
220	$\text{prophs}_2 = \text{past} + \text{prophs}_1$		
221			
222	WISE-PROPHET-SNAPSHOT-GET		WISE-PROPHET-SNAPSHOT-VALID
223	$\text{model } pid \gamma \text{ past prophs}$		$\text{model } pid \gamma \text{ past}_1 \text{ prophs}_1$
224	$\text{snapshot } \gamma \text{ past prophs}$		$\text{snapshot } \gamma \text{ past}_2 \text{ prophs}_2$
225			$\exists \text{ past}_3. \text{past}_1 = \text{past}_2 + \text{past}_3 * \text{prophs}_2 = \text{past}_3 + \text{prophs}_1$
226	WISE-PROPHET-LB-GET		WISE-PROPHET-LB-VALID
227	$\text{model } pid \gamma \text{ past prophs}$		$\text{model } pid \gamma \text{ past prophs}$
228	$\text{lb } \gamma \text{ prophs}$		$\text{lb } \gamma \text{ lb}$
229			
230			
231	WISE-PROPHET-PROPH-SPEC		
232		True	
233			
234		Proph	
235			
236			
237	WISE-PROPHET-RESOLVE-SPEC		
238	atomic e	to-val $e = \text{None}$	$v = \text{prophet.to-val propf}$
239	$\text{model } pid \gamma \text{ past prophs}$	$\text{wp } e \left\{ \begin{array}{l} w. \forall \text{ prophs'}. \\ \text{prophs} = \text{propf} :: \text{prophs}' -* \\ \text{model } pid \gamma (\text{past} + [\text{propf}]) \text{ prophs' -*} \\ \Phi w \end{array} \right\}$	
240		$\text{wp Resolve } e pid v \{ \Phi \}$	
241			

Fig. 3. Reasoning rules for wise prophets

246 The exclusive assertion `model pid γ past prophs` represents the ownership of the prophet with
 247 identifier `pid`; γ is the logical name of the prophet; `past` is the list of prophecies resolved so far;
 248 `prophs` is the list of prophecies that must still be resolved.

249 The persistent assertion `full γ prophs` represents the list of all (resolved or not) prophecies
 250 associated to the prophet with name γ , as stated by `WISE-PROPHEt-FULL-VALID`.

251 The persistent aassertion `snapshot γ past prophs` represents a snapshot of the state of the prophet
 252 with name γ at some point in the past. `WISE-PROPHEt-SNAPSHOT-VALID` allows to relate the current
 253 state of `model` to the past state of `snapshot`.

254 The persistent assertion `lb γ lb` represents a lower bound on the non-resolved prophecies of
 255 the prophet with name γ . In particular, as stated by `WISE-PROPHEt-LB-VALID`, the list of currently
 256 non-resolved prophecies carried by `model` is always a suffix of `lb`.

257 `WISE-PROPHEt-RESOLVE-SPEC` is the same as before, except we also update the list of resolved
 258 prophecies after resolution.

260 3.4 Multiplexed prophet

261 The fourth layer consists of *multiplexed prophets* 🎭. Essentially, they allow to combine different
 262 prophets, each operating at a fixed index. They were made to handle the case when a single prophet
 263 is used to make independent predictions, as in [Section 4](#). The corresponding reasoning rules are
 264 given in [Figure 4](#).

265 The predicates and rules are basically the same as before, except that (1) `model` now carries
 266 sequences of lists of prophecies – one past and one future per index – and (2) `full`, `snapshot` and `lb`
 267 are parameterized with an index.

268 Importantly, the third argument provided to `Resolve` in `WISE-PROPHEt-RESOLVE-SPEC` must be
 269 a pair of an index and a prophecy value. Resolution happens only at the given index, meaning the
 270 prophecies at other indices are unchanged.

271 Note that we could generalize this abstraction to non-integer keys. In other words, we could
 272 replace sequences with functions of type $X \rightarrow \tau$, where τ is the prophecy type, and indices with
 273 inhabitants of X . In practice, however, we never needed such generalization.

275 4 Chase-Lev work-stealing deque

276 *Work-stealing*. Randomized *work stealing* [Blumofe and Leiserson 1999] is the standard strategy
 277 for parallel task scheduling. It has been implemented in many libraries, including Cilk [Blumofe,
 278 Joerg, Kuszmaul, Leiserson, Randall and Zhou 1996; Frigo, Leiserson and Randall 1998], TBB,
 279 OpenMP, Taskflow [Huang, Lin, Lin and Lin 2022], Tokio and Domainslib [Multicore OCaml
 280 development team 2025].

281 The idea of work-stealing, illustrated in [Figure 5](#), is the following. Each domain owns a deque-like
 282 data structure, called *work-stealing deque*, to store its tasks. Locally, each domain treats its deque as
 283 a stack, operating at the back end. When a domain runs out of tasks, it becomes a thief: it tries to
 284 steal a task from the deque of another randomly selected “victim” domain, operating at the front
 285 end. Multiple thieves may concurrently attempt to steal tasks from a single deque.

286 *Work-stealing deque*. The most popular work-stealing deque algorithm is the Chase-Lev deque [Chase
 287 and Lev 2005; Lê, Pop, Cohen and Nardelli 2013]; it is lock-free and unbounded. We verified the
 288 implementation from the Saturn library [Karvonen and Morel 2025] 🎭 along with two other
 289 variants: a bounded variant 🎭, used in the Moonpool [Cruanes 2025] and Taskflow [Huang, Lin,
 290 Lin and Lin 2022] libraries, and an idealized infinite-array-based variant 🎭.

295	$\text{persistent}(\text{full } \gamma i \text{ prophs})$	$\text{persistent}(\text{snapshot } \gamma i \text{ past prophs})$	$\text{persistent}(\text{lb } \gamma i \text{ lb})$
296	WISE-PROPHESTS-MODEL-EXCLUSIVE		
297	$\text{model } pid \gamma_1 \text{ pasts}_1 \text{ prophss}_1$	$\text{model } pid \gamma_2 \text{ pasts}_2 \text{ prophss}_2$	WISE-PROPHESTS-FULL-GET
298		False	$\text{model } pid \gamma \text{ pasts prophss}$
299			$\text{full } \gamma i (\text{pasts } i + \text{prophss } i)$
300	WISE-PROPHESTS-FULL-VALID		
301	$\text{model } pid \gamma \text{ pasts prophss}$	$\text{full } \gamma i \text{ prophs}$	WISE-PROPHESTS-FULL-AGREE
302		$\text{prophs} = \text{pasts } i + \text{prophss } i$	$\text{full } \gamma i \text{ prophs}_1 \quad \text{full } \gamma i \text{ prophs}_2$
303			$\text{prophs}_1 = \text{prophs}_2$
304		WISE-PROPHESTS-SNAPSHOT-GET	
305		$\text{model } pid \gamma \text{ pasts prophss}$	
306			$\text{snapshot } \gamma (\text{pasts } i) (\text{prophss } i)$
307	WISE-PROPHESTS-SNAPSHOT-VALID		WISE-PROPHESTS-LB-GET
308	$\text{model } pid \gamma \text{ pasts prophss}$	$\text{snapshot } \gamma i (\text{pasts } i) (\text{prophss } i)$	$\text{model } pid \gamma \text{ pasts prophss}$
309		$\exists \text{past}' . \text{pasts } i = \text{past} + \text{past}' * \text{prophs} = \text{past}' + \text{prophss } i$	$\text{lb } \gamma i (\text{prophss } i)$
310			
311	WISE-PROPHESTS-LB-VALID		
312		$\text{model } pid \gamma \text{ pasts prophss} \quad \text{lb } \gamma i \text{ lb}$	
313			$\exists \text{past}_1 \text{past}_2 . \text{pasts } i = \text{past}_1 + \text{past}_2 * \text{lb} = \text{past}_2 + \text{prophss } i$
314			
315	WISE-PROPHESTS-PROPH-SPEC		
316		True	
317			
318		Proph	
319			$\text{pid}. \exists \gamma \text{ prophss}. \text{model } pid \gamma (\lambda_. [\]) \text{ prophss}$
320	WISE-PROPHESTS-RESOLVE-SPEC		
321	atomic e	$\text{to-val } e = \text{None}$	$v = \text{prophet.to-val } \text{proph}$
322		$w. \forall \text{prophs}.$	$\text{model } pid \gamma \text{ pasts prophss}$
323		$\text{prophss } i = \text{proph} :: \text{prophs} -*$	
324		$\text{model } pid \gamma (\text{alter} (\cdot + [\text{proph}]) i \text{ pasts}) (\text{prophss} [i \mapsto \text{prophs}]) -*$	
325		Φw	
326			$\text{wp Resolve } e pid (i, v) \{ \Phi \}$
327			
328	Fig. 4. Reasoning rules for multiplexed prophets		
329			

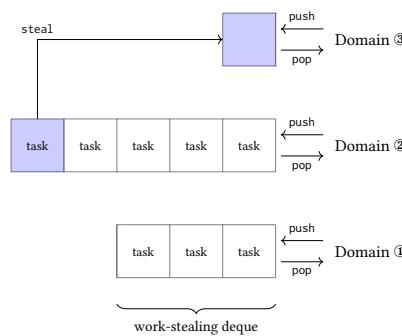


Fig. 5. Work stealing

	persistent ($\text{inv } t$)	INF-WS-DEQUE-OWNER-EXCLUSIVE	INF-WS-DEQUE-OWNER-MODEL
344			
345	INF-WS-DEQUE-MODEL-EXCLUSIVE	INF-WS-DEQUE-OWNER-EXCLUSIVE	INF-WS-DEQUE-OWNER-MODEL
346	model $t \text{ vs}_1$ model $t \text{ vs}_2$	owner $t \text{ ws}_1$ owner $t \text{ ws}_2$	owner $t \text{ ws}$ model $t \text{ vs}$
347	False	False	suffix vs ws
348			
349			
350	INF-WS-DEQUE-CREATE-SPEC	INF-WS-DEQUE-SIZE-SPEC	INF-WS-DEQUE-IS-EMPTY-SPEC
351	True	inv $t *$	inv $t *$
352	<u>create ()</u>	<u>owner $t \text{ ws}$</u>	<u>owner $t \text{ ws}$</u>
353	$t. \text{ inv } t *$	<u>vs. model $t \text{ vs}$</u>	<u>vs. model $t \text{ vs}$</u>
354	$\text{model } t [] *$	<u>size t</u>	<u>is_empty t</u>
355	$\text{owner } t []$	<u>suffix $\text{vs ws} *$</u>	<u>suffix $\text{vs ws} *$</u>
356		<u>model $t \text{ vs}$</u>	<u>model $t \text{ vs}$</u>
357		<u>res. res = length $\text{vs} *$</u>	<u>res. res = decide ($\text{vs} = []$) *</u>
358		<u>owner $t \text{ vs}$</u>	<u>owner $t \text{ vs}$</u>
359			
360			
361			
362			
363	INF-WS-DEQUE-PUSH-SPEC	INF-WS-DEQUE-POP-SPEC	
364	inv $t *$	inv $t *$	
365	owner $t \text{ ws}$	owner $t \text{ ws}$	
366	<u>vs. model $t \text{ vs}$</u>	<u>vs. model $t \text{ vs}$</u>	<u>pop t</u>
367	<u>push $t v$</u>	<u>steal t</u>	
368	<u>suffix $\text{vs ws} *$</u>	<u>model $t (\text{tail ws})$</u>	
369	<u>model $t (\text{vs} + [v])$</u>	<u>res. res = head ws</u>	
370	<u>(\). owner $t (\text{vs} + [v])$</u>		
371			
372			
373			
374			
375			
376			
377		Fig. 6. Inf_ws_deque : Specification	
378			
379			
380	Remarkably, the three variants essentially share the same logical states. In particular, although		
381	they do not behave exactly the same way, the original and the idealized versions follow a similar		
382	concurrent protocol, involving external and future-dependent linearization.		
383			
384	4.1 Infinite work-stealing deque		
385			
386	4.1.1 Specification. The specification of the infinite-array-based version is given in Figure 6. It		
387	features three predicates: inv , model and owner .		
388	The persistent assertion inv t represents the knowledge that t is a valid deque. It is returned by		
389	create (INF-WS-DEQUE-CREATE-SPEC) and required by all operations.		
390	The exclusive assertion model $t \text{ vs}$ represents the ownership of the content of the deque vs . It is		
391	returned by create and accessed atomically by all operations.		
392			

Fig. 6. **Inf_ws_deque**: Specification

Remarkably, the three variants essentially share the same logical states. In particular, although they do not behave exactly the same way, the original and the idealized versions follow a similar concurrent protocol, involving external and future-dependent linearization.

4.1 Infinite work-stealing deque

4.1.1 Specification. The specification of the infinite-array-based version is given in Figure 6. It features three predicates: **inv**, **model** and **owner**.

The persistent assertion **inv** t represents the knowledge that t is a valid deque. It is returned by **create** (INF-WS-DEQUE-CREATE-SPEC) and required by all operations.

The exclusive assertion **model** $t \text{ vs}$ represents the ownership of the content of the deque vs . It is returned by **create** and accessed atomically by all operations.

<pre> 393 394 WS-DEQUE-STEAL-SPEC-WEAK 395 inv t * 396 - - - - - vs. model t vs 397 - - - - - steal t 398 o. match o with 399 None \Rightarrow 400 model t vs 401 Some v \Rightarrow 402 \exists vs'. 403 vs = v :: vs' * 404 model t vs' 405 end 406 - - - - - res. res = o 407 408 409 410 411 </pre>	<pre> WS-DEQUE-POP-SPEC-WEAK inv t * - - - - - owner t - - - - - vs. model t vs - - - - - pop t o. match o with None \Rightarrow model t vs Some v \Rightarrow \exists vs'. vs = vs' # [v] * model t vs' end - - - - - res. res = o * owner t </pre>
--	--

Fig. 7. **Ws_deque**: Weak specification (excerpt)

The exclusive assertion **owner** t ws represents the owner of the deque; ws is an upper bound on the current content of the deque ([INF-WS-DEQUE-OWNER-MODEL](#)). It is returned by `create` and used by all private operation: `size` ([INF-WS-DEQUE-SIZE-SPEC](#)), `is_empty` ([INF-WS-DEQUE-IS-EMPTY-SPEC](#)), `push` ([INF-WS-DEQUE-PUSH-SPEC](#)) and `pop` ([INF-WS-DEQUE-POP-SPEC](#)). The only public operation is `steal` ([INF-WS-DEQUE-STEAL-SPEC](#)), which does not require **owner**.

Note that the public postconditions of the private operations are quite verbose. This is due to the fact that **owner** is passed to the operation and therefore cannot be combined with **model** through [INF-WS-DEQUE-OWNER-MODEL](#) to get information about the content of the deque; instead, we provide such information in the public postcondition. We need this expressivity in practice to verify a wrapper  with better liveness properties.

4.1.2 Weak specification. [Jung, Lee, Choi, Kim, Park and Kang \[2023\]](#)³ also worked on the verification of the Chase-Lev work-stealing deque. However, we argue that the specification they prove, given in [Figure 7](#), is unsatisfactory. Indeed, contrary to our specification, [WS-DEQUE-STEAL-SPEC-WEAK](#) and [WS-DEQUE-POP-SPEC-WEAK](#) say nothing about the observed content of the deque when the operation fails.

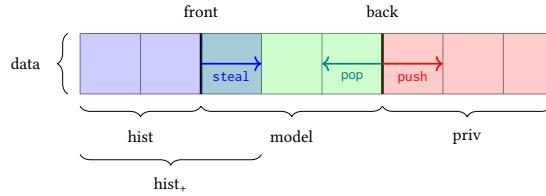
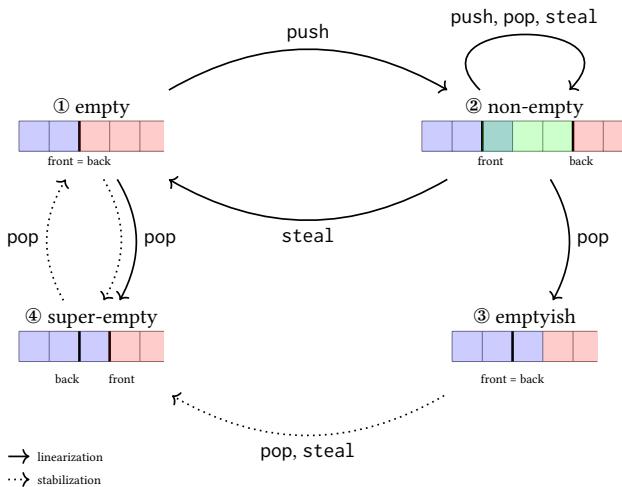
In practice, these weaker specifications, especially that of `pop`, are not sufficient to reason about the *termination* of a work-stealing scheduler. In [Section 5](#), we show how our strong specifications are lifted all the way up to the scheduler.

Another point we would like to make is that weakening the specification does make the verification simpler, but one may argue that the most subtle and interesting part of it is lost.

4.1.3 Implementation. The implementation relies on (1) an infinite array, (2) a *monotonic* front index for the thieves, and (3) a back index reserved to the owner of the deque.

In general, we can divide the infinite array as in [Figure 8](#). The first part, between 0 and the front index, corresponds to the *persistent* history of stolen values. The second part, between the two indices, corresponds to the logical content of the deque, as represented by **model**. The last part, beyond the back index, corresponds to the private section of the array, reserved to the owner.

³See also the master thesis of [Choi \[2023\]](#).

Fig. 8. *Inf_ws_deque*: Physical stateFig. 9. *Inf_ws_deque*: Logical state

Given this representation, the algorithm proceeds as follows. `push t v` writes `v` into the first private cell and atomically increments the back index, thereby publishing the value. Symmetrically, `pop t` atomically decrements the back index and returns the value of the cell it just privatized. `steal t` is much more careful: (1) it reads the front and the back indices; (2) if the deque looks empty, it fails; (3) otherwise, it attempts to advance the front index; (4) if the update succeeds, the value at the front index is returned; (5) otherwise, it starts over.

The above description overlooked one crucial aspect: what happens at the limit, when `pop` and `steal` compete for the last value in the deque? In that case, the deque must be *stabilized*: `pop` also attempts to advance the front index before incrementing the back index — whether it wins the update or not — thereby equalizing the two indices.

4.1.4 Logical states. Figure 9 tells the same story as above in terms of four *logical states*: (1) in the stable “empty” state, the deque is indeed empty, as indicated by the two equal indices; (2) in the stable “non-empty” state, the `model` is non-empty, meaning thieves may compete for the first value; (3) in the unstable “emptyish” state, the thieves and the owner compete for the same value; (4) in the unstable “super-empty” state, some operation won the value and the deque is waiting to be stabilized by the owner.

Let us now focus on the “emptyish” state. In this physical configuration, it makes sense to say that the `model` of the deque should be empty. In fact, it has to be empty: if a `steal` operation observed this state, it would conclude that the deque is empty — except under a weak specification.

491 But then, if the `model` should be empty, which operation was linearized during the transition to the
 492 “emptyish” state? We have no choice: it should be the winner of the front update, *i.e.* the operation
 493 which triggers the transition to the “super-empty” state. In conclusion, we have to predict the
 494 winner at each index using a multiplexed prophecy variable (see Section 3).

495 4.2 Bounded work-stealing deque

496 In the bounded variant, the infinite array is replaced with a finite circular array. As a consequence,
 497 the convenient infinite representation goes away and tedious reasoning about circular array slices
 498 is required. However, the logical states and transitions as well as the prophecy mechanism are
 499 essentially the same.

500 It is an open question whether we could factorize part of the verification through a well-chosen
 501 abstraction that could be instantiated both with infinite and circular arrays. One certainty is that
 502 this is not possible without slightly altering the implementation of the infinite variant: in `steal`,
 503 the front cell is read after performing the update in the infinite variant, which would be incorrect
 504 in the finite variant since the owner is allowed to overwrite the value.

505 4.3 Dynamic work-stealing deque

506 In the original algorithm, the owner may dynamically resize the circular array. More precisely, it
 507 can change the array at will provided that the public part (between the two indices) is preserved.
 508 Thus, while only one array is stored in the deque, there can be many different circular arrays alive
 509 at the same time, *i.e.* accessible by thieves.

510 While the invariant of Choi [2023] requires additional ghost state to keep track of the arrays and
 511 maintain their compatibility, the precision of our notion of logical state allows to only maintain
 512 compatibility between the current array and the array read by the next winner (if any).

513 5 Parabs: A library of parallel abstractions

514 We present the verified Parabs library , offering parallel abstractions atop a task scheduler.
 515 While it was originally based on Domainslib [Multicore OCaml development team 2025], it evolved
 516 as a more ambitious project aimed at unifying various existing paradigms and scheduling strategies.
 517 It was designed with a focus on *flexibility*, letting users choose the scheduling strategy and build
 518 their own scheduler. One of the motivations of this design is to provide a framework to easily
 519 develop and experiment parallel infrastructures in OCaml 5.

520 6 Overview

521 Figure 10 gives an overview of Parabs; solid edges represent module dependencies while dashed
 522 edges represent interface implementations. Essentially, the library is made of four abstraction levels
 523 built on top of each other: `Ws_deques`, `Ws_hub`, `Pool` and `Future / Vertex`.

524 The `Pool` module provides a task scheduler; internally, it maintains a pool of domains. Its design
 525 is inspired by Domainslib, Taskflow [Huang, Lin, Lin and Lin 2022] and Moonpool [Cruanes 2025].
 526 As of today, it supports three scheduling strategies: (1) standard randomized work-stealing [Blumofe
 527 and Leiserson 1999] with public deques (as presented in Section 4), (2) randomized work-stealing
 528 with private deques [Acar, Charguéraud and Rainey 2013], (3) a simple “first-in first-out” strategy
 529 with one shared queue. In addition, it should be possible to implement other scheduling strategies
 530 (see Section 16), *e.g.* work sharing.

531 On top of `Pool`, the `Vertex` module provides a *task graph* abstraction. More precisely, it is an
 532 implementation of *DAG-calculus* [Acar, Charguéraud, Rainey and Sieczkowski 2016] — we present
 533 it in Section 13.

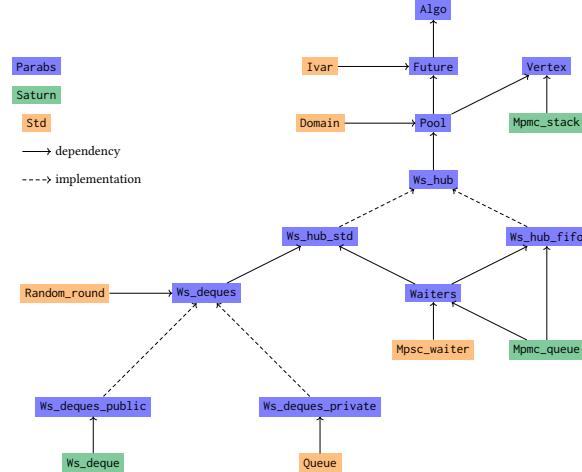


Fig. 10. Overview of the Parabs library

Remarkably, the three upper levels implemented on top of **Ws_deques** should be OCaml functors. Unfortunately, ZooLang does not currently support functors; therefore, only one branch of the tree of Figure 10 is active at a time.

7 Work-stealing deques

At the first level, **Ws_deques** 🐾 provides a generic interface for a set of work-stealing deques, abstracting over the underlying scheduling strategy. It currently has two realizations: **Ws_deques_public** (Section 7.1) and **Ws_deques_private** (Section 7.2).

7.1 Public deques

The first realization, **Ws_deques_public** 🐾 🎉, implements the standard work-stealing strategy with *public deques*. More precisely, it simply relies on a shared array of Chase-Lev work-stealing deques (see Section 4). These deques are public in the sense that both their owner and the thieves can access it directly — which requires synchronization.

7.2 Private deques

The second realization, **Ws_deques_private** 🐾 🎉, implements the *receiver-initiated* work-stealing algorithm proposed by Acar, Charguéraud and Rainey [2013]⁴. Their idea is to reduce synchronization costs in the fast path of local (owner-only) operations by essentially introducing an indirection. They show that this work-stealing strategy performs well for *fine-grained* parallel programs, *i.e.* when task sizes are small, especially irregular graph computations.

Instead of stealing directly from public deques, thieves follow a protocol: (1) having selected a victim, a thief attempts to send a request by atomically updating the *request cell* of the victim; (2) if the update fails, the thief starts over with another victim, otherwise it awaits a response by repeatedly checking its *response cell*; (3) if the response is negative, the thief starts over, otherwise it returns the task transferred by the victim.

Symmetrically, busy domains regularly poll their request cell and respond accordingly through response cells. Crucially, tasks are stored in private, non-concurrent deques that are only accessed

⁴They also propose a *sender-initiated* algorithm that we have not implemented.

589 by their owner. In addition, each domain has a *status cell* indicating whether it is (1) blocked,
 590 meaning it has no task to share, or (2) non-blocked, meaning it may have tasks to share; before
 591 sending a request, thieves check that their victim is non-blocked.

592 8 Waiters

593 In the realizations of the second level, described in the next section, we use a *sleep-based mechanism*
 594 to adapt the number of active thieves. The idea is to put to sleep desperate thieves who do not find
 595 work after a number of failed steal attempts. In practice, doing so can improve the overall system
 596 performance, especially when tasks are scarce.

597 To manage sleeping thieves, we use the **Waiters** module 🐘⚡. Following the design of Taskflow [Huang,
 598 Lin, Lin and Lin 2022], it implements a *two-phase commit protocol*⁵ — Domainslib⁶ relies on a
 599 similar mechanism, although it is not as clear-cut.

601 9 Work-stealing hub

602 At the second level, **Ws_hub** 🐘⚡ provides a generic interface for a set of tasks supporting work-
 603 stealing operations — a so-called “work-stealing hub”. It currently has two realizations: **Ws_hub_std**
 604 (Section 9.1) and **Ws_hub_fifo** (Section 9.2).

605 9.1 Work-stealing strategy

606 The first realization, **Ws_hub_std** 🐘⚡, implements the standard randomized work-stealing strategy.
 607 Under the hood, any work-stealing algorithm may be used, provided that it fits into the **Ws_hub**
 608 interface; in particular, it can instantiated with both realization of **Ws_deques**.

609 9.2 FIFO strategy

610 The second realization, **Ws_hub_fifo** 🐘⚡, implements a simple “first-in first-out” scheduling
 611 strategy. All workers push and pop tasks from a shared concurrent queue taken from Saturn;
 612 thieves also attempts to pop from the queue. Moonpool adopted a similar strategy⁷.

613 As explained by Cruanes⁸, the point of this strategy is to provide better *latency* than work-stealing
 614 — as demanded by certain applications like network servers — at the cost of a lower throughput.
 615 Indeed, contrary to work-stealing, older tasks have priority over younger tasks.

616 However, this strategy may also have undesirable consequences. For example, in divide-and-
 617 conquer algorithms, this strategy corresponds to *breadth-first* search, whereas work-stealing cor-
 618 responds to *depth-first* search. On large problems, the former may be unsustainable; on some
 619 benchmarks (see Section 14), especially for small cutoffs, Moonpool saturates the memory.

620 10 Pool

621 At the third level, **Pool** 🐘⚡ implements a task scheduler on top of a given realization of **Ws_hub**.
 622 It offers essentially the same functionalities as Domainslib with a few notable differences. (1)
 623 Exceptions raised by tasks are not caught and therefore not re-raised properly by the scheduler
 624 since ZooLang does not currently support them. (2) Since ZooLang does not support algebraic
 625 effects [Sivaramakrishnan, Dolan, White, Kelly, Jaffer and Madhavapeddy 2021] either, the interface
 626 is slightly more involved (see *execution contexts* in Section 10.1).

627 Moreover, this limitation imposes a *child-stealing* strategy, as opposed to a *continuation-stealing*
 628 strategy that would require capturing the continuation of a computation.

629⁵<https://www.1024cores.net/home/lock-free-algorithms/eventcounts>

630⁶https://github.com/ocaml-multicore/domainslib/blob/main/lib/multi_channel.ml

631⁷https://github.com/c-cube/moonpool/blob/main/src/core/fifo_pool.ml

632⁸https://github.com/c-cube/moonpool/blob/main/src/core/fifo_pool.mli

638 persistent (inv <i>t sz</i>)	639 persistent (obligation <i>t P</i>)	640 persistent (finished <i>t</i>)
	641 POOL-INV-AGREE $\frac{\mathbf{inv} \, t \, sz_1 \quad \mathbf{inv} \, t \, sz_2}{sz_1 = sz_2}$	642 POOL-OBLIGATION-FINISHED $\frac{\mathbf{obligation} \, t \, P \quad \mathbf{finished} \, t}{\triangleright \square P}$
	643 POOL-CREATE-SPEC $\frac{\begin{array}{l} 0 \leq sz \\ \hline \mathbf{create} \, sz \end{array}}{t. \mathbf{inv} \, t \, sz \, *}$	644 POOL-RUN-SPEC $\frac{\begin{array}{l} \mathbf{model} \, t \, * \\ \forall ctx \, scope. \\ \mathbf{context} \, t \, ctx \, scope \, * \\ wp \, task \, ctx \, \{ v. \mathbf{context} \, t \, ctx \, scope \, * \, \Psi \, v \} \\ \hline run \, t \, task \end{array}}{v. \mathbf{model} \, t \, * \, \Psi \, v}$
	645 POOL-KILL-SPEC $\frac{\mathbf{model} \, t}{kill \, t}$	646 () . finished <i>t</i>
	647 POOL-SIZE-SPEC $\frac{\begin{array}{l} \mathbf{inv} \, t \, sz \, * \\ \mathbf{context} \, t \, ctx \, scope \, * \\ \hline size \, ctx \end{array}}{res. res = sz \, *}$	648 POOL-ASYNC-SPEC $\frac{\begin{array}{l} \mathbf{context} \, t \, ctx \, scope \, * \\ \forall ctx \, scope. \\ \mathbf{context} \, t \, ctx \, scope \, * \\ wp \, task \, ctx \, \{ _, \mathbf{context} \, t \, ctx \, scope \, * \, \triangleright \square P \} \\ \hline async \, ctx \, task \end{array}}{() . \mathbf{context} \, t \, ctx \, scope \, * \, \mathbf{obligation} \, t \, P}$
	649 POOL-WAIT-UNTIL-SPEC $\frac{\begin{array}{l} \mathbf{context} \, t \, ctx \, scope \, * \\ \{ \text{True} \} \, pred \, () \, \{ b. \mathbf{if} \, b \, \mathbf{then} \, P \, \mathbf{else} \, \text{True} \} \\ \hline wait_until \, ctx \, pred \end{array}}{() . \mathbf{context} \, t \, ctx \, scope \, * \, P}$	650
		651
		652 Fig. 11. Pool : Specification
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Also, this makes it difficult to implement a *yield* operation⁹, i.e. an operation that yields control to the scheduler, letting it reschedule the current task later.

10.1 Specification

The specification is given in Figure 11. It features five predicates: **inv**, **model**, **context**, **finished** and **obligation**.

The persistent assertion **inv** *t vsz* represents the knowledge that *t* is a valid scheduler; *sz* is the number of worker domains. It is returned by **create** (POOL-CREATE-SPEC) and required only by **size** (POOL-SIZE-SPEC). Its only purpose is to record the immutable characteristics of the scheduler.

The assertion **model** *t* represents the ownership of scheduler *t*. It is returned by **create** (POOL-CREATE-SPEC) and required by external operations (POOL-RUN-SPEC, POOL-KILL-SPEC). For example, **run t task** submits *task* to scheduler *t*; it returns both **model** and the output predicate of *task*.

The assertion **context** *t ctx scope* represents the ownership of *execution context* *ctx* attached to scheduler *t*; *scope* is a purely logical parameter connecting input and output **context**, which is necessary in the proof. Any task execution happens under such a context (POOL-RUN-SPEC, POOL-ASYNC-SPEC, POOL-WAIT-UNTIL-SPEC). In particular, all internal operations require and return

⁹Domainslib does not currently provide a *yield* operation but it can be easily implemented.

687 **context**. For example, `async ctx task` submits `task` asynchronously while executing under context
 688 `ctx`; `task` must be shown to execute safely under any context attached to the same scheduler
 689 (**POOL-ASYNC-SPEC**).

690 The persistent assertion `finished t` represents the knowledge that scheduler `t` has finished,
 691 meaning all submitted tasks were executed. It can be obtained by calling `kill` (**POOL-KILL-SPEC**).

692 The persistent assertion `obligation t P` represents a proof obligation attached to scheduler `t`. It
 693 allows retrieving `P` once `t` has finished executing (**POOL-OBLIGATION-FINISHED**). Obligations are
 694 obtained by submitting tasks through `async` (**POOL-ASYNC-SPEC**).

695 10.2 Implementation

696 *Worker domains*. The implementation relies on a pool of worker domains and a work-stealing
 697 hub. Each worker runs the following loop: (1) get a task using `Ws_hub.pop_steal`; (2) if it fails, the
 698 scheduler has been killed and so the worker stops, otherwise execute the task in the context of the
 699 current worker; (3) start over.

700 *Blocking*. Care must be taken to block and unblock work-stealing dequeues properly. When the
 701 scheduler is killed, it is crucial that workers block their deque before stopping; otherwise, the
 702 scheduler may never terminate because of a running worker waiting forever for a response from a
 703 stopped but unblocked worker. Also, the main domain, from which tasks can be submitted externally
 704 through `run`, must unblock when it is executing tasks and block when it is not.

705 *Awaiting*. `wait_until` runs a loop similar to that of the worker domains described above; the
 706 wait is *active* in the sense that the domain participate in the execution of tasks. Consequently,
 707 `wait_until` calls can be nested. This can be a problem in practice because it increases the call stack
 708 size in an arbitrary way, potentially causing stack overflow.

709 Instead, `Domainslib` leverages algebraic effects: awaiting a future captures the continuation and
 710 stores it into the future; when the future is resolved, it resubmits all the waiting tasks. This avoids
 711 any stack issue and is probably more efficient, since no polling is necessary.

712 *Shutdown*. In `Domainslib`, scheduler shutdown consists in submitting special tasks through the
 713 main domain; when a worker finds such a task, it quickly stops. However, this simple mechanism
 714 has at least two drawbacks: (1) it introduces an indirection for every regular task, which may
 715 be expensive; (2) it works well under standard work-stealing but is more difficult to implement
 716 under other scheduling strategies, especially work-stealing with private dequeues (see [Section 7.2](#)).
 717 Consequently, we use an alternative mechanism implemented at the level of `Ws_hub`: a shared flag,
 718 regularly checked in `Ws_hub.steal` and `Ws_hub.pop_steal`, is set when the scheduler is killed.

719 11 Futures

720 At the fourth level, `Future`  implements futures¹⁰, a standard abstraction for representing the
 721 future result of an asynchronous task.

722 11.1 Specification

723 The specification is given in [Figure 12](#). It features four predicates: `inv`, `result`, `consumer` and
 724 `obligation`.

725 `async` allows submitting a task asynchronously while executing under a context (**FUTURE-SYNC-SPEC**), returning a *future* representing the result of the task. To actually get the result, one must call

726

¹⁰Futures are called *promises* in `Domainslib`. In fact, the two notions are often used in conjunction to represent the two
 727 sides of the same object.

	persistent ($\text{inv } pool t depth \Psi \Xi$)	persistent ($\text{obligation } pool depth P$)	persistent ($\text{result } t v$)
736			
737	FUTURE-RESULT-AGREE $\frac{\text{result } t v_1 \\ \text{result } t v_2}{v_1 = v_2}$	FUTURE-INV-RESULT $\frac{\text{inv } pool t depth \Psi \Xi \\ \text{result } t v}{\Rightarrow \triangleright \square \Xi v}$	FUTURE-INV-FINISHED $\frac{\text{inv } pool t depth \Psi \Xi \\ \text{pool.finished pool}}{\triangleright^{2 \cdot \text{depth}+1} \exists v. \text{result } t v}$
738			
739			
740			
741			
742	FUTURE-CONSUMER-DIVIDE $\frac{\text{inv } pool t depth \Psi \Xi \\ \text{consumer } t X \\ \forall v. X v \dashv \star X v \\ X \in Xs}{\Rightarrow \star consumer t X}$	FUTURE-INV-RESULT-CONSUMER $\frac{\text{inv } pool t depth \Psi \Xi \\ \text{result } t v \\ \text{consumer } t X}{\Rightarrow \triangleright^2 X v}$	FUTURE-OBLIGATION-FINISHED $\frac{\text{obligation } pool depth P \\ \text{pool.finished pool}}{\triangleright^{2 \cdot \text{depth}+2} \square P}$
743			
744			
745			
746			
747			
748			
749			
750	FUTURE-ASYNC-SPEC $\text{pool.context } pool ctx scope *$		
751	$\forall ctx scope.$		
752	$\text{pool.context } pool ctx scope *$		
753	$\wp task ctx \left\{ \begin{array}{l} v. \text{pool.context } pool ctx scope * \\ \triangleright \Psi v * \\ \triangleright \square \Xi v \end{array} \right\}$		
754			
755			
756	async ctx task		
757	$t. \text{pool.context } pool ctx scope *$		
758	$\text{inv } pool t 0 \Psi \Xi *$		
759	$\text{consumer } t \Psi$		
760			
761			
762	FUTURE-ITER-SPEC $\text{pool.context } pool ctx scope *$	FUTURE-MAP-SPEC	
763	$\text{inv } pool t depth \Psi \Xi *$	$\text{pool.context } pool ctx scope *$	
764	$\forall ctx scope v.$	$\text{inv } pool t_1 depth \Psi_1 \Xi_1 *$	
765	$\text{pool.context } pool ctx scope *$	$\forall ctx scope v_1.$	
766	$\text{result } t v \dashv *$	$\text{pool.context } pool ctx scope *$	
767	$\wp task ctx v$	$\text{result } t_1 v_1 \dashv *$	
768	$\left\{ \text{(). pool.context } pool ctx scope * \right\}$	$\wp task ctx v_1$	
769	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \triangleright \square P \\ \dots \end{array} \right\}$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} v_2. \text{pool.context } pool ctx scope * \\ \triangleright \Psi_2 v_2 * \\ \triangleright \square \Xi_2 v_2 \end{array} \right\}$	
770	$\text{iter ctx } t \text{ task}$	$\text{map ctx } t_1 \text{ task}$	
771	$\text{(). pool.context } pool ctx scope *$	$t_2. \text{pool.context } pool ctx scope *$	
772	$\text{obligation } pool depth P$	$\text{inv } pool t_2 (\text{depth} + 1) \Psi_2 \Xi_2 *$	
773		$\text{consumer } t_2 \Psi_2$	
774			
775			
776		Fig. 12. Future: Specification	
777			
778			
779			
780	wait (FUTURE-WAIT-SPEC). iter ctx fut task attaches callback task to fut (FUTURE-ITER-SPEC) and		
781	map ctx fut ₁ task creates a new future to be resolved after fut ₁ (FUTURE-MAP-SPEC).		
782	The persistent assertion $\text{inv } pool t depth \Psi \Xi$ represents the knowledge that t is a valid future		
783	attached to pool $pool$ such that: (1) Ψ is the non-persistent output predicate satisfied by the produced		
784			

wait (FUTURE-WAIT-SPEC). iter ctx fut task attaches callback task to fut (FUTURE-ITER-SPEC) and map ctx fut₁ task creates a new future to be resolved after fut₁ (FUTURE-MAP-SPEC).

The persistent assertion $\text{inv } pool t depth \Psi \Xi$ represents the knowledge that t is a valid future attached to pool $pool$ such that: (1) Ψ is the non-persistent output predicate satisfied by the produced

785 value; (2) \exists is the *persistent output predicate* satisfied by the produced value. $depth$ is the depth of t
 786 in the forest formed by all futures.

787 The persistent assertion `result` $t v$ represents the knowledge that future t has been resolved
 788 to value v . Using `FUTURE-INV-RESULT`, it can also be combined with `inv` to obtain the persistent
 789 output predicate. After the pool has finished, it is guaranteed that all futures have been resolved
 790 (`FUTURE-INV-FINISHED`).

791 The assertion `consumer` $t X$ represents the right to consume X once future t has been resolved.
 792 Indeed, using `FUTURE-INV-RESULT-CONSUMER`, it can be combined with `inv` and `result` to obtain X .
 793 When t is created, this assertion is produced with the full non-persistent predicate (`FUTURE-ASYNC-`
 794 `SPEC`, `FUTURE-MAP-SPEC`); then, it can be divided into several parts (`FUTURE-CONSUMER-DIVIDE`).

795 The persistent assertion `obligation` $pool depth P$ represents a proof obligation emitted by `iter`
 796 (`FUTURE-ITER-SPEC`). It allows retrieving P once $pool$ has finished (`FUTURE-OBLIGATION-FINISHED`).

797 One notable aspect of this specification is that resolution of the future — as indicated by `result` —
 798 is separated from the division of the output predicates — as achieved by `consumer`.

799 800 11.2 Implementation

801 Futures are implemented using *ivars* (concurrent write-once variables), as implemented and verified
 802 in the Zoo standard library. `async` creates an ivar and calls `Pool.async` to resolve it asynchronously.
 803 `wait` calls `Pool.wait_until` to wait *actively* until the ivar is resolved and returns the resulting
 804 value.

805 806 12 Parallel iterators

807 On top of `Future`, we implemented and verified standard parallel iterators   that are particularly
 808 useful for benchmarks (see Section 14): `for_`, `for_each`, `fold` and `find`.

809 810 13 Vertex

811 At the fourth level, `Vertex`   implements *DAG-calculus* [Acar, Charguéraud, Rainey and
 812 Sieczkowski 2016], *i.e.* a task graph abstraction. Taskflow offers similar, although much more
 813 developed, abstractions. The longer term goal is to support the more practical Taskflow interface,
 814 including static, dynamic, module and condition tasks.

815 The raison d'être of these works is to represent more interesting dependency relations than is
 816 possible using standard parallel primitives (`fork/join`, `futures`, *etc.*) in order to express irregular
 817 parallel computations, *e.g.* those for graph problems.

818 This takes the form of a simple and elegant programming model: a parallel computation is seen as
 819 a graph where vertices represent basic sequential computations and edges represent dependencies
 820 between vertices. A vertex can be executed only when its predecessors, *i.e.* dependencies, are
 821 finished. Crucially, the structure of the graph is not static: while executing, a vertex may create
 822 new vertices and edges. Naturally, with great expressivity comes great responsibility: care must be
 823 taken not to introduce cycles in the graph, although the model does allow looping on a vertex.

824 825 13.1 Specification

826 The specification is given in Figure 13. It features no less than six predicates: `inv`, `model`, `ready`,
 827 `output`, `finished` and `predecessor`.

828 The persistent assertion `inv` $t P R$ represents the knowledge that t is a valid vertex; P is the *non-*
 829 *persistent* output while R is the *persistent* output. It is returned by `create` (`VERTEX-CREATE-SPEC`)
 830 and required by most operations.

831 The exclusive assertion `model` $t task iter$ represents the ownership of vertex t . It is returned
 832 by `create` (`VERTEX-CREATE-SPEC`). `task` is the current computation attached to t ; it can accessed
 833

	$\text{persistent}(\text{inv } t P R)$	$\text{persistent}(\text{ready } iter)$	$\text{persistent}(\text{finished } t)$
834			
835		$\text{persistent}(\text{predecessor } t iter)$	
836			
837			$\text{VERTEX-OUTPUT-DIVIDE}$
838	$\text{VERTEX-MODEL-EXCLUSIVE}$	$\text{VERTEX-MODEL-FINISHED}$	$\frac{\text{inv } t P R}{\text{output } t Q}$
839	$\text{model } t task_1 iter_1$	$\text{model } t task iter$	$Q * \bigstar_{Q \in Q_s} Q$
840	$\text{model } t task_2 iter_2$	$\text{finished } t$	$\frac{}{\Rightarrow \bigstar_{Q \in Q_s} \text{output } t Q}$
841	$\frac{}{\text{False}}$	$\frac{}{\text{False}}$	
842			
843			
844			
845	$\text{VERTEX-PREDECESSOR-FINISHED}$	$\text{VERTEX-INV-FINISHED}$	$\text{VERTEX-INV-FINISHED-OUTPUT}$
846	$\text{predecessor } t iter$	$\text{inv } t P R$	$\frac{\text{inv } t P R}{\text{finished } t}$
847	$\text{ready } iter$	$\text{finished } t$	$\frac{\text{finished } t}{\text{output } t Q}$
848	$\frac{}{\text{finished } t}$	$\frac{}{\Rightarrow \Box R}$	$\frac{}{\Rightarrow \triangleright^2 Q}$
849			
850			
851	$\text{VERTEX-CREATE-SPEC}$	True	
852		$\frac{}{\text{create task}}$	
853	$t. \exists iter.$		
854	$\text{inv } t P R *$		
855	$\text{model } t (\text{option.get (fun: } \triangleleft \Rightarrow \text{ ()}) task) iter *$		
856	$\text{output } t P$		
857			
858	VERTEX-TASK-SPEC	$\text{VERTEX-SET-TASK-SPEC}$	
859	$\text{model } t task iter$	$\text{model } t task_1 iter$	
860	$\frac{}{\text{task } t}$	$\frac{}{\text{set_task } t task_2}$	
861	$\frac{}{\text{res. res = task } *}$	$\frac{}{(). \text{model } t task_2 iter}$	
862	$\text{model } t task iter$		
863			
864		$\text{VERTEX-RELEASE-SPEC}$	
865		$\text{pool.context } pool ctx scope *$	
866		$\text{inv } t P R *$	
867	$\text{VERTEX-PRECEDE-SPEC}$	$\text{model } t task iter *$	
868	$\text{inv } t_1 P_1 R_1 *$	$\forall pool ctx scope iter'.$	
869	$\text{inv } t_2 P_2 R_2 *$	$\text{pool.context } pool ctx scope \rightsquigarrow$	
870	$\text{model } t_2 task iter$	$\text{ready } iter \rightsquigarrow$	
871	$\frac{}{\text{precede } t_1 t_2}$	$\text{model } t task iter' \rightsquigarrow$	
872	$\frac{}{(). \text{model } t_2 task iter *}$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} () . \exists task. \\ \text{pool.context } pool ctx scope * \\ \text{model } t task iter' * \\ \triangleright P * \\ \triangleright \Box R \end{array} \right\}$	
873	$\text{predecessor } t_1 iter$	$\frac{}{\text{release ctx } t}$	
874			
875			
876			
877			
878			
879			
880		$\text{Fig. 13. } \text{Vertex: Specification}$	
881			
882			

883 using task (`VERTEX-TASK-SPEC`) and set_task (`VERTEX-SET-TASK-SPEC`). *iter* is the current *logical iteration* of *t*. Indeed, a vertex may be executed several times; more precisely, a vertex task returns a boolean indicating whether the vertex should be re-executed.

886 The persistent assertion `ready iter` represents the knowledge that the iteration identified by *iter*
 887 has started – it may be finished and obsoleted by subsequent iterations.

888 The assertion `output t Q` represents the right to consume *Q* from the non-persistent output of *t*
 889 once the latter has finished executing. It is returned by create (`VERTEX-CREATE-SPEC`) with the full
 890 non-persistent output and can then be divided using `VERTEX-OUTPUT-DIVIDE`.

891 The persistent assertion `finished t` represents the knowledge that vertex *t* has finished executing.
 892 It allows retrieving both the persistent (`VERTEX-INV-FINISHED`) and non-persistent (`VERTEX-INV-`
 893 `FINISHED-OUTPUT`) output of *t*.

894 The persistent assertion `predecessor t iter` represents the knowledge that iteration *iter* has
 895 predecessor *t*, i.e. *iter* can only run once vertex *t* has finished (`VERTEX-PREDECESSOR-FINISHED`).
 896 It can be obtained through precede (`VERTEX-PRECEDE-SPEC`), including while the target vertex is
 897 executing; in other words, a vertex may add dependencies to itself so that its next iteration only
 898 starts when the new dependencies have finished.

899 The most important operation is release (`VERTEX-RELEASE-SPEC`), which declares a vertex ready
 900 for execution, provided that its dependencies (more precisely, those of the corresponding iteration)
 901 have finished. The current task must be shown to execute safely in any execution context given
 902 back the possession of the vertex and produce the two outputs.

903 13.2 Implementation

905 Our implementation is very close to that of [Acar, Charguéraud, Rainey and Sieczkowski \[2016\]](#). The
 906 representation of a vertex consists of: (1) the current task, (2) an atomic counter corresponding to
 907 the number of unfinished predecessors, (3) a closable concurrent stack from Saturn corresponding
 908 to the successors. When creating a new edge through precede, the target is added to the successors
 909 of the source and the counter of the target is incremented. After executing, a vertex atomically closes
 910 its successors and decrements their counter, releasing those with zero remaining predecessors.

911 Actually, a vertex counter does not exactly correspond to the number of predecessors. Before
 912 the vertex is released for the first time and during its execution, there is one phantom predecessor
 913 preventing premature release; it is removed by release.

915 14 Benchmarks

916 We ran several concurrent benchmarks exercising three scheduler implementations: our own Parabs
 917 scheduler, the reference Domainslib library, and its alternative Moonpool. The benchmark results
 918 validate our qualitative claim that the performance of Parabs is on par with that of Domainslib;
 919 we found that it is as efficient, and even slightly faster on some benchmarks.

920 Due to space constraints, we do not present our benchmark results here. They can be found in
 921 Appendix A.

923 15 Related work

924 *Chase-Lev work-stealing deque*. [Jung, Lee, Choi, Kim, Park and Kang \[2023\]](#)¹¹ were the first to
 925 achieve foundational verification of the Chase-Lev work-stealing deque, including safe memory
 926 reclamation schemes. Before, [Lê, Pop, Cohen and Nardelli \[2013\]](#) presented a pen-and-paper proof of
 927 the correctness of an ARM implementation and [Mutluergil and Tasiran \[2019\]](#) verified an idealized
 928 implementation based on an infinite array using CIVL [[Kragl and Qadeer 2021](#)].

929
 930 ¹¹See also the master thesis of [Choi \[2023\]](#).

932 As explained in Section 4, however, Jung, Lee, Choi, Kim, Park and Kang [2023] only verify a weak
 933 specification, too weak to prove the termination of our scheduler. We verify a strong specification
 934 but, contrary to Lê, Pop, Cohen and Nardelli [2013], we rely on a sequentially consistent memory
 935 model; extending our work to relaxed memory is left for future work (see Section 16).

936 *Parallel scheduler.* To the best of our knowledge, Parabs is the first realistic scheduler to be verified
 937 in Iris. Previous works cover toy implementations, not suitable for real-world usage; in contrast, our
 938 implementation is close to state-of-the-art schedulers and offers comparable performance according
 939 to our preliminary experiments.
 940

941 De Vilhena and Pottier [2021] verify a simple cooperative scheduler based on algebraic effects,
 942 as a case study for their Iris-based program logic. This scheduler does not support parallelism; it
 943 runs fibers inside a single domain. Their notion of future/promise is rudimentary; it only supports
 944 persistent output predicates. However, their work, especially the way they formalize the scheduler’s
 945 effects, will be of particular interest when introducing algebraic effects into ZooLang and Parabs.

946 Ebner, Martinez, Rastogi, Dardinier, Frisella, Ramananandro and Swamy [2025] verify a parallel
 947 scheduler with the same interface as Domainslib, which also serves as a case-study for their
 948 program logic. However, their implementation is extremely simplified: a task list protected by a
 949 mutex. Their notion of future/joinable is also somewhat rudimentary.
 950

16 Future work

951 *Relaxed memory model.* The main limitation of our work is inherited from Zoo: it relies on a
 952 sequentially consistent memory model whereas OCaml 5 has a relaxed memory model [Dolan,
 953 Sivaramakrishnan and Madhavapeddy 2018]. This simplification endangers the soundness of our
 954 specifications. Transitioning to relaxed memory by merging Zoo with Cosmo [Mével and Jourdan
 955 2021; Mével, Jourdan and Pottier 2020] involves introducing memory views, which complicates
 956 specifications and invariants.
 957

958 *Language features.* Parabs suffers from the lack of a number of language features unsupported
 959 by Zoo. With functors, we could make the Parabs library completely modular. With exceptions,
 960 we could catch and re-raise exceptions in **Pool** and **Vertex**. With algebraic, we could get rid of
 961 evaluation contexts in **Pool** and use continuation-stealing.
 962

963 *Extensions.* In the future, we would like to extend the library in several directions: (1) develop
 964 the interface of futures, similarly to Moonpool¹²; (2) support the different task types of Taskflow,
 965 aiming at a more practical **Vertex** interface.
 966

967 *Other designs.* We could experiment other designs. For instance, one of the two designs of
 968 Moonpool relies on a bounded work-stealing deque combined with a master queue. In the literature,
 969 many other scheduling strategies were proposed: continuation-stealing [Schmaus, Pfeiffer, Schröder-
 970 Preikschat, Hönig and Nolte 2021; Williams and Elliott 2025], steal-half work-stealing [Hendler
 971 and Shavit 2002], split work-stealing [Cartier, Dinan and Larkins 2021; Custódio, Paulino and Rito
 972 2023; Dinan, Larkins, Sadayappan, Krishnamoorthy and Nieplocha 2009; Rito and Paulino 2022;
 973 van Dijk and van de Pol 2014], idempotent work-stealing [Michael, Vechev and Saraswat 2009].
 974

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979 ¹²<https://github.com/c-cube/moonpool/blob/main/src/core/fut.mli>

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1079 **A Benchmarks**

1080 In this section, we present simple benchmarks to assess the performance of Parabs relatively to
 1081 Domainslib [Multicore OCaml development team 2025] and Moonpool [Cruanes 2025] on simple
 1082 workloads. Benchmarking parallel schedulers is subtle and difficult; we have not tried here to
 1083 validate and study experimentally all our implementation choices, or to cover the wide range of
 1084 parallel workloads, but to validate a simple qualitative claim:

1085 For CPU-bound tasks, Parabs has comparable throughput to Domainslib, a
 1086 state-of-the-art scheduler used in production in the OCaml 5 library ecosystem.

1087 In fact our results validate a stronger qualitative claim: the performance of Parabs are equal or
 1088 better than Domainslib, with a 10% speedup in some cases.

1090 **A.1 Setting**

1091 **A.1.1 Machine.** The benchmark results were produced on a 12-core AMD Ryzen 5 7640U machine,
 1092 set at a fixed frequency of 2GHz.

1093 **A.1.2 Parameters.** For each benchmark, we pick an input parameter that gives long-enough
 1094 computation times on our test machine, typically between 200ms and 2s. We use the `hyperfine`
 1095 tool and run each benchmark ten time. All benchmark were run with two parameters varying:
 1096

- 1097 • DOMAINS, the number of domains used for computation;
- 1098 • CUTOFF, representing an input size or chunk size below which a sequential baseline is used.

1099 For each benchmark, we show:

- 1100 • per-cutoff results with a fixed value DOMAINS = 6, which should be enough to experience
 scaling issues while not suffering from CPU contention;
- 1101 • per-domain results with a CUTOFF value that is chosen to work well for all implementations
 for this benchmark.

1102 Remark: Large cutoff values tend to work well for benchmarks with homogeneous-enough tasks,
 1103 as they effectively amortize the scheduling costs. The advantage of having schedulers that also
 1104 perform well on small cutoffs are two-fold. First, this typically indicate that they will adapt to
 1105 irregular tasks (but: our benchmarks do not perform an in-depth exploration of irregular workloads).
 1106 Second, this can alleviate the burden of asking users to choose cutoff sizes (by widening the range
 1107 of values that perform well), an activity which requires cumbersome hand-tuning and can limit
 1108 performance portability.

1109 **A.1.3 Scheduler implementations.** Each benchmark is written on top of a simple scheduler interface,
 1110 for which the following implementations are provided:

- 1111 • `domainslib` uses the Domainslib library;
- 1112 • `parabs` uses our Parabs library;
- 1113 • `moonpool-fifo` uses the Moonpool scheduler with a global FIFO queue of task;
- 1114 • `moonpool-ws` uses the Moonpool scheduler with a work-stealing pool of tasks, which is
 described as better for throughput
- 1115 • `sequential` is a baseline implementation with no parallelism, all tasks run sequentially on
 a single domain.

1116 We used the latest software versions currently available: Domainslib 0.5.2, and Moonpool 0.9.

1117 **A.1.4 Benchmarks.**

1118 **fibonacci** . A parallel implementation of Fibonacci extended with a sequential cutoff: below
 1119 the cutoff value, a sequential implementation is used.

1128 `iota` . This benchmark uses a parallel-for to write a default value in each cell of an array. We
 1129 expect significant variations due to the CUTOFF parameter.
 1130

1131 `for_irregular` . This benchmark uses a parallel-for loop with irregular per-element workload:
 1132 as a first approximation, the i -th iteration computes fibonacci i ; this cost grows exponentially in i ,
 1133 so the majority of computation work is concentrated on the largest loop indices.
 1134

1135 `lu` . This benchmark performs the LU factorization of a random matrix of floating-point values.
 1136 It consists in $O(N)$ repetitions of a parallel-for loop of $O(N)$ iterations, where each iteration
 1137 performs $O(N)$ sequential work.
 1138

1139 `matmul` . This benchmark computes matrix multiplication with a very simple parallelization
 1140 strategy – only the outer loop is parallelized. In other word, there is a parallel-for loop with $O(N)$
 1141 iterations, where each iteration performs $O(N^2)$ sequential work work.
 1142

1143 A.2 Results

1144 **A.2.1 Pre-benchmarking expectations.** Our expectation before running the benchmarks is that
 1145 Parabs has the same performance as Domainslib, and that they are both more efficient than
 1146 Moonpool (which uses a central pool of jobs instead of per-domain deques).
 1147

Because Moonpool has a less optimized scheduler, we expect scheduling overhead to be an issue
 for small CUTOFF values.

On all schedulers, the performance for larger CUTOFF values should be good if the benchmark has
 homogeneous/regular tasks, and it should be worse if the benchmark has heterogeneous/irregular
 tasks.

1153 **A.2.2 Per-benchmark results.** Figure 14 and Figure 14 contain the full results, with per-cutoff and
 1154 per-domain plots for each benchmarks. Notice that while the per-domain plot always use linear
 1155 axes, the per-cutoff plots often use logarithmic plot axes, to preserve readability when performance
 1156 difference become very large for small cutoff values, and to express large ranges of possible cutoff
 1157 choices.
 1158

1159 `fibonacci`. In the per-cutoff results (logarithmic scale), we see that all schedulers start to behave
 1160 badly when the CUTOFF becomes small enough, with exponentially-decreasing performance after a
 1161 certain drop point. For Moonpool, performance drops around CUTOFF = 20. The FIFO and work-
 1162 stealing variants have similar profiles, with work-stealing performing noticeably better. For Parabs
 1163 and Domainslib, performance drops around CUTOFF = 12. Parabs performs noticeably better
 1164 for small-enough cutoff values. In fact, even for the sequential scheduler we observe a small
 1165 performance drop: the task-using version creates closures and performs indirect calls, so it is
 1166 noticeably slower (by a constant factor) than the version used below the sequential cutoff.
 1167

Note: we observe very large memory usage with Moonpool at smaller cutoff values – when
 computing fibonacci 40, attempting to run the benchmark with CUTOFF = 5 fails with out-of-
 memory errors on a machine with 32Gio of RAM. This seems to come from the FIFO architecture
 which runs the oldest and thus biggest task first, and thus stores an exponential number of smaller
 tasks in the queue.

1172 Per-domain results (linear scale): we studied per-domain performance on a CUTOFF = 25 point
 1173 where all implementations behave well. For this value we see that parabs and domainslib perform
 1174 similarly, and both moonpool implementations are measurably slower. Performance becomes very
 1175 close for larger number of domains ($\text{DOMAINS} \geq 7$).
 1176

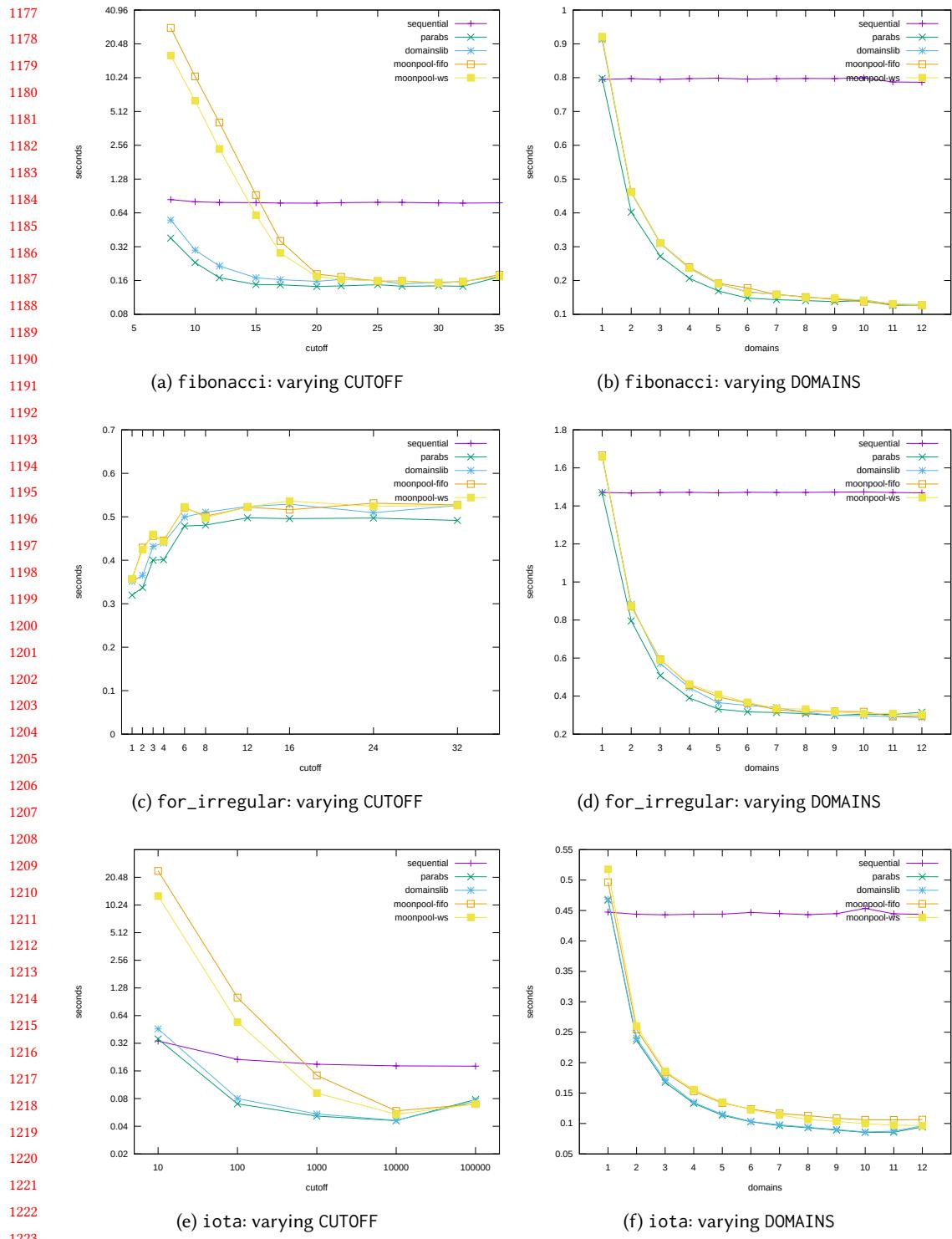


Fig. 14. Benchmarks (1/2)

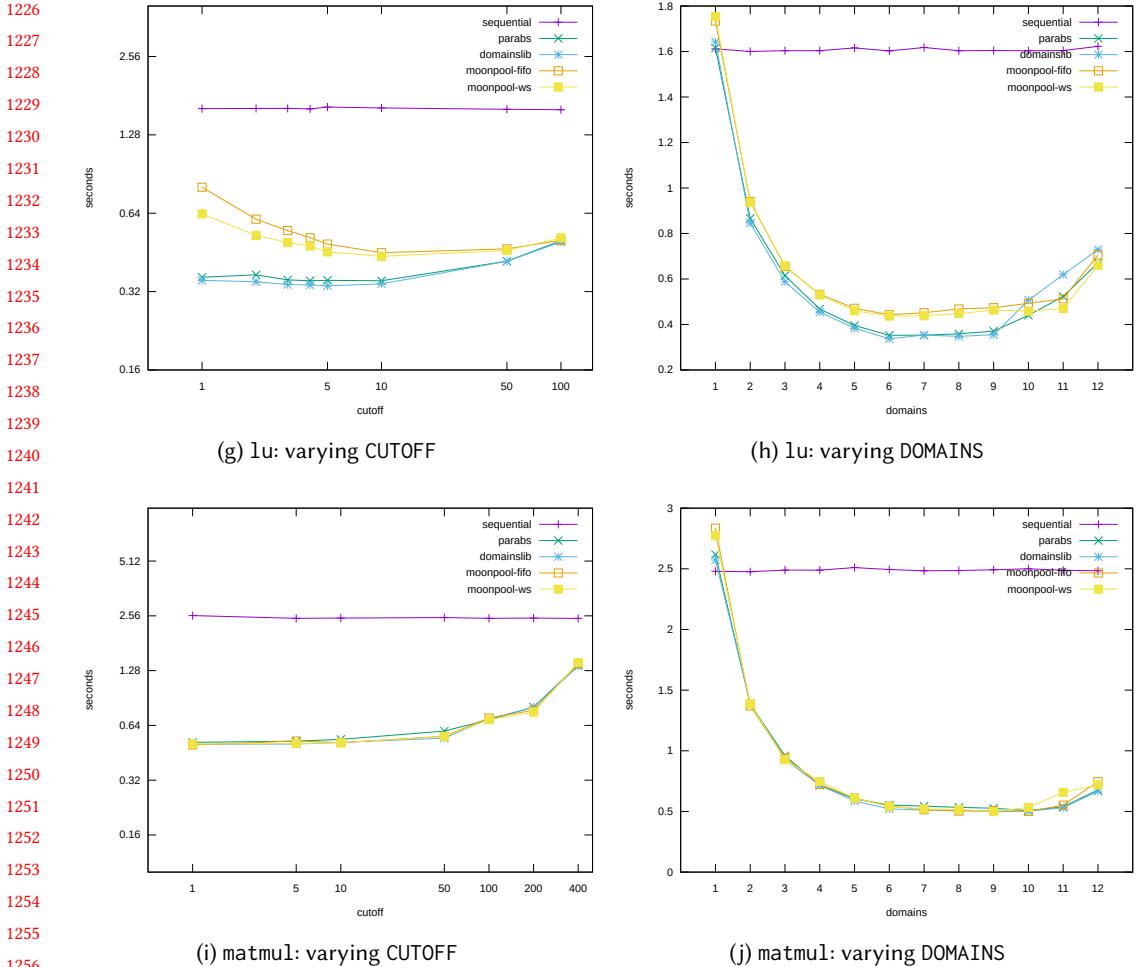


Fig. 14. Benchmarks (2/2)

for_irregular. This benchmark is designed to behave poorly with large CUTOFF values. We indeed observe better noticeably performance with CUTOFF = 1 than with larger values, across all schedulers – for example domainslib is 50% slower with CUTOFF = 8.

In the per-cutoff results we observe that parabs performs best on this benchmark, then domainslib, then moonpool.

In the per-domain results (with CUTOFF = 1) we see that parabs performs noticeably better than the other implementations for relatively low domain counts, and they become comparable around DOMAINS ≥ 7 .

iota. Each iteration of parallel-for in iota is immediate, so as expected we observe a large sensitivity to the choice of CUTOFF, with parabs and domainslib performing much better than moonpool on smaller CUTOFF values.

In the per-domains result we see that domainslib and parabs have similar performance, noticeably better than the moonpool implementations.

1275 1u. The performance is relatively stable over most choices of CUTOFF. The per-domain results
1276 are similar across all benchmarks after controlling for the one-domain shift of Moonpool.

1277 Remark: we observe a marked decline in performance, across all schedulers, when the number
1278 of domains becomes close to the number of available cores, around DOMAINS ≥ 10 . We believe that
1279 this comes from the high-allocation rate of this benchmark (10.2GiB/s) causing frequent minor
1280 collections, and thus stop-the-world pauses, with some domains temporarily suspended by the
1281 operating system. In other words, the slowdown comes from the OCaml runtime, not from the
1282 scheduler implementations. The allocations can be avoided in this benchmark by optimizing more
1283 aggressively to eliminate float boxing, but this phenomenon is likely to occur for other high-allocation
1284 OCaml programs so we chose to preserve it.

1285 matmul. The performance is stable across a wide range of CUTOFF values. The parallel-loop per-
1286 forms 500 iterations, so CUTOFF values closer to 500 prevent parallelization and bring performance
1287 closer to the sequential scheduler.

1288 The per-domain performance is remarkably similar under all schedulers: our implementation of
1289 matrix multiplication has a coarse-grained parallelization strategy where the choice of scheduler
1290 makes no difference.

1291 A.2.3 *Result summary.* Overall, Parabs has the same qualitative performance as Domainslib. In
1292 fact it performs measurably better (around 10% better for some domain values) on the benchmarks
1293 fibonacci and for_irregular, which have irregular tasks; and it has qualitatively the same
1294 performance otherwise.

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