Lecture 29: Pointer Analysis

[Based on slides from R. Bodik]

Administrivia

- Project due data now 11 May (Monday).
- Autograder run Friday.

Today

- Points-to analysis: an instance of static analysis for understanding pointers
- Andersen's algorithm via deduction
- Implementation of Andersen's algorithm in Prolog

General Goals of Static Analysis

- Determine run-time properties statically at compilation.
- Sample property: "is variable x a constant?"
- Since we don't know the inputs, must consider all possible program executions.
- Conservative (err on the side of caution) for *soundness*:
 - allowed to say \boldsymbol{x} is not a constant when it is,
 - but not that \boldsymbol{x} is a constant when it is not .
- Many clients: optimization, verification, compilation.

Client 1: Optimizing virtual calls in Java

- Motivation: virtual calls are costly, due to method dispatch
- Idea:
 - determine the target of the call statically
 - if we can prove call has a single target method, call the target directly
- declared (static) types of pointer variables not precise enough for this, so, analyze their run-time (dynamic) types.

Client 1: Example

```
class A { void foo() {...} }
class B extends A { void foo() {...} }
void bar(A a) { a.foo() } // OK to just call B.foo?
B myB = new B();
A myA = myB;
bar(myA);
```

- Declared type of a permits a.foo() to target both A.foo and B.foo.
- Yet we know only B.foo is the target.
- What program property would reveal this fact?

Client 2: Verification of casts

• In Java, casts are checked at run time: (Foo) e translates to

if (! (e instanceof Foo))
 throw new ClassCastException()

- Java generics help readability, but still cast.
- The exception prevents any security holes, but is expensive.
- Static verification useful to catch bugs.
- Goal: prove that no exception will happen at runtime

Client 2: Example

```
class SimpleContainer { Object a;
    void put (Object o) { a=o; }
    Object get() { return a; } }
SimpleContainer c1 = new SimpleContainer();
SimpleContainer c2 = new SimpleContainer();
c1.put(new Foo()); c2.put(''Hello'');
Foo myFoo = (Foo) c1.get(); // Check not needed
```

What property will lead to desired verification?

Client 3: Non-overlapping fields in heap

```
E = new Thing (42);
for (j = 0; j < D.len; j += 1) {
    if (E.len >= E.max)) throw new OverflowException ();
    E.data[E.len] = D.data[i]; E.len += 1;
}
```

We assign to E.len, but we don't have to fetch from D.len every time; can save in register.

Pointer Analysis

- To serve these three clients, want to understand how pointers "flow," that is, how they are copied from variable to variable.
- Interested in flow from *producers* of objects (new Foo) to users (myFoo.f).
- Complication: pointers may flow via the heap: a pointer may be stored in an object's field and later be read from this field.
- For simplicity, assume we are analyzing Java without reflection, so that we know all fields of an object at compile time.

Analyses

- Client 1: virtual call optimization:
 - which producer expressions new T() produced the values that may flow to receiver p (a consumer) in a call?
 - Knowing producers tells us possible dynamic types of p, and thus also the set of target methods.
- Client 2: cast verification:
 - Same, but producers include expressions (Type) p.
- Client 3: non-overlapping fields: again, same question

Flow analysis as a constant propagation

• Initially, consider only new and assignments p=r:

if (...) p = new T1(); else p = new T2(); r = p; r.f(); // what are possible dynamic types of r?

• We (conceptually) translate the program to

if (...) p = o₁; else p = o₂; r = p; r.f(); // what are possible symbolic constant values r?

Abstract objects

- The o_i constants are called abstract objects
- an abstract object o_i stands for any and all concrete objects allocated at the *allocation site* ('new' expression) with number i.
- When the analysis says a variable p may have value o_7 ,
- we know p may point to any object allocated at

```
new_7 Foo()
```

Flow analysis: Add pointer dereferences

```
x = new Obj();  // o<sub>1</sub>
z = new Obj();  // o<sub>2</sub>
w = x;
y = x;
y.f = z;
v = w.f;
```

- To propagate the abstract objects through p.f, must keep track of the *heap state*—where the pointers point:
 - y and w point to same object
 - z and y.f point to same object, etc.

Flow-Insensitive Analysis

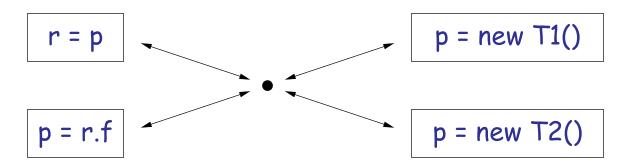
- The heap state may change at each statement, so ideally, track the heap state separately at each program point as in dataflow analysis.
- But to be scalable (i.e. practical), analyses typically don't do it.
- For example, to save space, can collapse all program points into one consequently, they keep a single heap state, and disregard the control flow of the program (*flow-insensitive* analysis):

assume that statements can execute in any order, and any number of times

• So, flow-insensitive analysis transforms this program

```
if (...) p = new T1(); else p = new T2();
r = p; p = r.f;
```

into this CFG:



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Flow-Insensitive Analysis, contd.

- Motivation: Just "version" of program state, hence less space
- Flow-insensitive analysis is *sound*, assuming we mean that *at least* all possible values of pointer from all possible executions found
- But it is generally *imprecise*:
 - In effect, adds many executions not present in the original program;
 - Does not distinguish value of p at various program points.

Canonical Statements

- Java pointers can be manipulated in complex statements, such as p.f().g.arr[i] = r.f.g(new Foo()).h
- To keep complexity under control, prefer a small set of *canonical statements* that accounts for everything our analysis needs to serve as intermediate representation:

p = new T()	new
p = r	assign
p = r.f	getfield
p.f = r	putfield

• Complex statements can be canonicalized

 $p.f.g = r.f \implies t1 = p.f; t2 = r.f; t1.g = t2$

• Can be done with a syntax-directed translation

Handling of method calls: Arguments and return values

• Translate calls into assignments. For example,

```
Object foo(T x) { return x.f }
r = new T; s = foo(r.g)
```

could translate to

```
foo_retval = x.f;
r = new T; x = r.g; s = foo_retval;
```

(have used flow-insensitivity: order irrelevant)

Handling of method calls: targets of virtual calls

- Call p.f() may call many possible methods
- To do the translation shown on previous slide, must determine what these targets are
- Suggest two simple methods:
 - Use declared type of p.
 - Check whole program to see which types are actually instantiated.

Handling of method calls: arrays

- We collapse all array elements into one.
- Represent this single element by a field named arr, so

```
p.g[i] = r becomes p.g.arr = r
```

Andersen's Algorithm for flow-insensitive points-to analysis

• Goal: computes a binary relation between variables and abstract objects:

o flowsTo x when abstract object o may be assigned to x.

- (Or, if you prefer, x pointsTo o.)
- Strategy: Deduce the flowsTo relation from program statements:
 - Statements are facts.
 - Analysis is a set of inference rules.
 - flowsTo relation is a set of facts inferred with analysis rules.

Statement facts

We'll write facts in the form x predicate y

 $p = new_i T() \Longrightarrow o_i new p$ $p = r \implies r assign p$ $p = r.f \implies r gf(f) p \text{ (get field)}$ $p.f = r \implies r pf(f) p \text{ (put field)}$ and apply these inference rules:

- Rule 1) o_i new $p \Rightarrow o_i$ flows To p
- Rule 2) o_i flows To $r \wedge r$ assign $p \Rightarrow o_i$ flows To p
- Rule 3) o_i flows To $a \land a pf(f) p \land p alias r \land r gf(f) b \Rightarrow o_i$ flows To b
- Rule 4) o_i flows To $x \wedge o_i$ flows To $y \Rightarrow x$ alias y

Meaning of the results

- When the analysis infers o *flowsTo* y, what did we prove?
- Nothing useful, usually, since *o flowsTo* y does not imply that there is a program input for which *o* will *definitely* flow to *y*.
- BUT the useful results are places where analysis does not infer that o flows To y:
- In those cases—because the analysis assumes conservatively that *o* flows to *y* if there appears to be any possibility of that happening—we can infer that not *o flowsTo y* for all inputs.
- Same arguments apply to alias, pointsTo relations and many other static analyses in general.

Inference Example

The program:

W = X;

y = x;

y.f = z;

v = w.f;

 $x = new Foo(); // o_1$

 $z = new Bar(); // o_2$

The six facts:
o_1 new x
o_2 new z
x assign w
x assign y
z pf(f) y
w gf(f) v

Sample inferences:

 $o_1 \text{ new } x \Rightarrow o_1 \text{ flowsTo } x$ $o_2 \text{ new } z \Rightarrow o_2 \text{ flowsTo } z$ $o_1 \text{ flowsTo } x \land x \text{ assign } w \Rightarrow o_1 \text{ flowsTo } w$ $o_1 \text{ flowsTo } x \land x \text{ assign } y \Rightarrow o_1 \text{ flowsTo } y$ $o_1 \text{ flowsTo } y \land o_1 \text{ flowsTo } w \Rightarrow y \text{ alias } w$ $o_2 \text{ flowsTo } z \land z \text{ pf}(f) y \land y \text{ alias } w \land w \text{ gf}(f) v \Rightarrow o_2 \text{ flowsTo } v$ etc.

Inference Example, contd.

- The inference must continue until no more facts can be derived; only then do we know we have performed sound analysis.
- In this example:
 - We have inferred o_2 flows To v
 - But we have not inferred o_1 flows To v.
 - Hence we know v will point only to instances of Bar (assuming the example contains the whole program)
 - Thus, casts (Bar) v will succeed
 - Similarly, calls v.f() are optimizable.

Prolog program for Andersen algorithm

```
new(o1,x). % x=new_1 Foo()
new(o2,z). % z=new_2 Bar()
assign(x,y). % y=x
assign(x,w). % w=x
pf(z,y,f). % y.f=z
gf(w,v,f). % v=w.f
flowsTo(0,X) :- new(0,X).
flowsTo(0,X) :- assign(Y,X), flowsTo(0,Y).
flowsTo(0,X) :- pf(Y,P,F), gf(R,X,F), aliasP,R), flowsTo(0,Y).
alias(X,Y) :- flowsTo(0,X), flowsTo(0,Y).
```

- Prolog's search is too general and potentially expensive.
- Prolog program may in general backtrack (exponential time)
- Fortunately, there are better algorithms as well that operate in polynomial time.