SYMBOLIC CONTEXT-SENSITIVE POINTER ANALYSIS

by

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Abstract

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Pointer analysis is a critical problem in optimizing compiler, parallelizing compiler, software engineering and most recently, hardware synthesis. While recent efforts have suggested symbolic method, which uses Bryant’s Binary Decision Diagram as an alternative to capture the point-to relation, no speed advantage has been demonstrated for context-insensitive analysis, and results for context-sensitive analysis are only preliminary.

We refine the concept of symbolic transfer function proposed earlier and establish a common framework for both context-insensitive and context-sensitive pointer analysis. With this framework, the transfer function of a procedure can abstract away the impact of its callers and callees, and represent its point-to information completely, compactly and canonically. In addition, we propose a symbolic representation of the invocation graph, which can otherwise be exponentially large. In contrast to the classical frameworks where context-sensitive point-to information of a procedure has to be obtained by the application of its transfer function exponentially many times, our method can obtain point-to information of all contexts in a single application. Our experimental evaluation on a wide range of C benchmarks indicates that our context-sensitive pointer analysis can be made almost as fast as its context-insensitive counterpart.
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List of Acronyms

FI     Flow-Insensitive
FS     Flow-Sensitive
CI     Context-Insensitive
CS     Context-Sensitive
FICS   Flow-Insensitive Context-Sensitive
FSCS   Flow-Sensitive Context-Sensitive
FICI   Flow-Insensitive Context-Insensitive
FSCI   Flow-Sensitive Context-Insensitive
ROBDD  Reduced Ordered Binary Decision Diagram
BDD    Binary Decision Diagram (same as ROBDD)
SCC    Strongly Connected Component
PTF    Partial Transfer Function
LOC    Line of Code
KLOC   Thousand Line of Code
MLOC   Million Line of Code
IR     Intermediate Representation
Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Motivation

Memory spaces are allocated for different program variables to hold their value. The address of a program variable indicates the location of the value within a linear address space. A pointer is a program variable whose value may contain the address of another program variable, in which case the pointer is said to point to the program variable. A pointer can be dereferenced if the value of the program variable it points to is retrieved.

By pointer dereference, a program can read and write a program variable indirectly. For example, if program variable \( g \) points to program variable \( x \), then we can read \( x \) by reading the dereference of \( g \). In addition, if we write a value to the dereference of \( g \), the value will be written at the address of \( x \), and hence, we assign this value to \( x \) indirectly. Reading and writing program variables indirectly is particularly useful when the variables are allocated on the heap. These concepts are used to implement abstract data structures such as lists, hash tables, vectors, graphs, and trees. The pointer can also be passed as an argument to a procedure, and used to read and write program variables defined outside the scope of the procedure. For these reasons, the pointer is one of the most popular and powerful features in modern imperative programming languages.
While a powerful construct that contributes to the popularity of languages such as C, it is well known that the pointer poses difficulty for program analysis and optimization. This is primarily due to the fact that it is difficult to statically determine memory dereferences. For example, in statement \( *g = a \), it is not immediately clear what variables correspond to \( *g \). Thus, without further analysis, one cannot tell what variables will be written, and must assume all variables in the program could be written by this statement. But in certain cases, only a few program variables could be written by this statement. For instance, \( *g \) could correspond to only a selected set of program variables \( S \), and as such, only statements involving program variables in \( S \) could be impacted \( *g = a \). Hence, program optimizations such as instruction scheduling become less effective because we assume all variables could be written.

Pointer analysis conservatively estimates the runtime values of program pointers at compile time. Given a target program, the pointer analysis usually computes a point-to relation represented by a \textit{point-to graph}, whose vertices correspond to program variables. A directed edge from a source vertex to a sink vertex indicates that the program variables corresponding to the source \textit{may} point to that of the sink.

Pointer analysis has many applications. First, it can be used to make compiler optimizations such as instruction scheduling more effective [30]. Second, it can help determine data dependency between procedures, and this can be used by parallelizing compilers [28]. Third, pointer analysis can be used in the software engineering field, for memory leak detection [46], buffer overrun detection [3], and improved garbage collection [27]. Last but not the least, pointer analysis can be used to synthesize programs written in high level languages to hardware [41, 34, 40, 39].

A pointer analysis \( X \) is more \textit{precise} than \( Y \) if the point-to graph generated by \( X \) is a subset of \( Y \). One way we can compare the precision of one analysis to another is by using a metric. Many publications [24, 25, 12, 18, 13] estimate precision by measuring the cardinality of the points-to set for each pointer expression, and then calculate the average. For a more precise analysis the average will always be lower, as the point-to relation is a subset of the less precise
There are many factors that may affect the precision of pointer analysis. One concerns the procedure call relation, which is typically captured by a call graph whose vertices consists of the set of all procedures in the program. Whenever a call to a sink procedure is made within a source procedure, a directed edge is constructed from the source to the sink in the call graph. The procedure executed when a program starts is referred to as the top procedure. A calling context of a procedure \( P \) is characterized by a path in the call graph, originating with the top procedure and ending at \( P \). A procedure under different calling contexts may be passed different arguments. Hence, the parameters of a procedure under different calling contexts may point-to different program variables. This is referred to as context-sensitivity.

In addition, the point-to relation for program variables may be different at various statements in a procedure. For instance, the value of a pointer may be overwritten at a statement, and as such, it will point-to another program variable in statements executed thereafter. As such, the order in which statements are executed can impact the point-to relation. This is referred to as flow-sensitivity.

Much research was done for pointer analysis. A recent survey paper by Hind [23] cited 75 papers and 9 PhD thesis on the subject. The reported analysis algorithms vary with different precision speed tradeoff and can be categorized by flow-sensitivity and context-sensitivity.

A context-sensitive pointer analysis distinguishes between the different calling contexts of a procedure, and a flow-sensitive pointer analysis takes into account the order in which statements are executed in a procedure. A flow-sensitive context-sensitive (FSCS) pointer analysis is highly precise, however, the FSCS analysis is computationally intensive for two main reasons. First, for context-sensitivity a point-to graph is maintained for each calling context, and their number can be exponential in relation to the number of procedures in the program. Second, flow-sensitivity requires the computation of the point-to relation for each program point, adding more to the space requirement.

A context-insensitive pointer analysis merges all the calling contexts of a procedure, while
a **flow-insensitive** analysis ignores statement order. The flow-insensitive context-insensitive (FICI) analysis is able to scale to large programs, but is less precise than the FSCS pointer analysis. This is partly because the FICI pointer analysis merges point-to relations. Furthermore, the merging is also responsible for the generation of spurious point-to relations since the point-to graph is used recursively to resolve dereferences of pointers. For instance, in the statement \(*g = a\), we resolve \(*g\) using the point-to graph. In the FSCS analysis, the program variables \(g\) points-to at the statement \(*g = a\) will be assigned to point-to \(a\). In the FICI analysis, the program variables \(g\) points-to throughout the program will be assigned to point-to \(a\).

Thus, there is a tradeoff between precision and efficiency, and the context-sensitive pointer-analysis algorithms reported so far have some drawbacks. Some pointer analysis algorithms do not manage to scale to large programs [17, 48]. Other pointer analysis algorithms manage to scale [18, 16, 18, 16, 13], but their precision is sub-optimal, primarily because they do not distinguish between all calling contexts. The main reason the context-sensitive analysis does not scale is the vast number of calling contexts in larger programs. For example, the benchmark moria with a mere 20 thousand lines of code in the prolangs benchmarks [37], has 320 million calling contexts.

Recently, the symbolic method has been proposed for pointer analysis [49]. The symbolic method encodes the pointer analysis problem into the Boolean domain, and currently uses Binary Decision Diagram (BDD) to represent and manipulate Boolean functions [8]. The BDD was proposed by Bryant to represent Boolean functions efficiently. They are essentially a compression of a binary decision tree, achieved by a strict decomposition order and the merging of isomorphic nodes. BDDs have many desirable properties. First, they are canonical, and thus, any Boolean operation on the same BDDs will result in an identical BDD. Hence, we can hash the result BDD, and reuse it whenever the same operands are encountered, a principle similar to dynamic programming. Second, through the canonical property and aggressive merging, BDDs are also quite compact. Lastly, since the runtime complexity depends on the size of the
BDD, the compactness directly translates into speed efficiency.

Zhu [49] demonstrated that the symbolic method can exploit the properties of the BDD for pointer analysis, in a context-sensitive analysis for C programs. However, the algorithm did not scale to large programs because the invocation graph, which determines calling contexts, was constructed explicitly, and thus had an exponential growth in the number of nodes in relation to the call graph. Berndl et al [7] independently proposed a flow-insensitive context-insensitive pointer analysis for Java programs using BDDs. The work demonstrated space efficiency and scalability, analyzing large Java programs in minutes.

1.2 Contributions

In this thesis, we propose a symbolic algorithm for context sensitive pointer analysis. We make the following contributions:

- **Symbolic Invocation Graph.** Most previous methods [17, 48, 49] for context sensitive analysis require the construction of an invocation graph, which can be exponentially large. We propose the use of BDDs to annotate the call graph edges with Boolean functions to implicitly capture the corresponding invocation edges. Such representation of the invocation graph leads to the exponential reduction of memory size. In addition, we show the construction of the invocation graph can be done in polynomial time.

- **State Superposition.** In contrast to the previous efforts where program states of a procedure under different calling contexts have to be evaluated separately by the application of transfer functions, we devise a scheme where the symbolic invocation graph is leveraged to collectively compute a superposition of all states of a procedure under different contexts. This leads to an exponential reduction of analysis runtime in practice.

- **Symbolic Transfer Function.** We extend our original proposal of symbolic transfer function in [49], which uses a Boolean function represented by a BDD to capture the
program state of a procedure as a function of its caller program state. Our extension allows the additional parameterization of the callee program state, which enables the capture of transfer functions in a single pass.

- **Common CI/CS symbolic analysis framework.** We establish a common, efficient framework for both context-sensitive and context-insensitive analysis. This not only enables the leverage of transfer functions for the first time to speed up CI analysis, but also enables the study of speed-accuracy tradeoff among a spectrum of symbolic analysis methods with different context-sensitivity. To the best of our knowledge, such frameworks useful in many studies have not been reported for BDD-based pointer analysis.

We implemented the new algorithm and measured its runtime, memory consumption, and precision. Our implementation computes points-to information for programs written in the C programming language. In addition, we experimented with various attributes for BDDs, to obtain insights into the effectiveness of the BDD when used for pointer analysis.

### 1.3 Thesis Organization

The thesis is organized as follows. In Chapter 2 we review the previous work on pointer analysis. In Chapter 3 we describe the pointer analysis output, and show and discuss how the program model is used to generate the points-to relation. Next, in Chapter 4 we present the symbolic invocation graph, and its construction algorithm. Lastly, in Chapters 5 and 6 we present the experimental results and the conclusion.
Chapter 2

Related Work

For pointer analysis, mainly two metrics are used to evaluate a given algorithm. One metric is the scalability of the pointer analysis to large programs. This is important since many applications need to analyze large programs. The other metric is the precision of the pointer analysis, which can be impacted by a number of factors. One of these factors is the modeling of the memory space, as the address of a program variable is usually represented by an abstract structure called a block. Pointer analysis algorithms tend to be less precise when they represent more program variables by a given block. Another factor is the degree of context-sensitivity and flow-sensitivity in the algorithm. For instance, we may choose to distinguish between only certain calling contexts of procedures in the context-sensitive pointer analysis [13, 18].

Andersen [4] proposed a flow-insensitive context-insensitive pointer analysis. In his analysis, a block was assigned to each stack and global variable. In addition, the analysis distinguished between heap locations allocated at different statements in the program. The analysis generated point-to relations between the dereferences of program variables, called constraints. The set of constraints can be abstracted as a constraint graph, whose vertices correspond to the various dereferences of program variables. Generating the point-to graph is typically done by performing a transitive closure of the constraint graph. For example, consider a C program made of two statements, $a = \&b$ and $b = \&c$. We let $T_a$, $T_b$, $T_c$ be the values of $a$, $b$, and $c$
respectively. In addition, we let \( T_a \) be the value of the dereference of \( a \). Clearly, \( a \) points-to \( b \), and \( b \) points-to \( c \), partly denoted by the constraints \( T_a \supseteq \{b\} \) and \( T_b \supseteq \{c\} \). From these constraints, we can resolve the expression \(*a\), denoted by \( T_{*a} \supseteq *T_a \). This is done by propagating the point-to values of the previous constraints to derive \( T_{*a} \supseteq \{c\} \). It was shown that Andersen’s analysis has a cubic complexity.

\[
\begin{align*}
 a &= &\&b; & 1 \\
 c &= &\&d; & 2 \\
 e &= &\&f; & 3 \\
 c &= &\&f; & 4 \\
\end{align*}
\]

(a) C Source Code  
(b) Andersen  
(c) Steensgaard

Figure 2.1: Point-to graph generated using Steensgaard’s and Andersen’s algorithms for the source code shown in Figure 2.1 (a)

Andersen’s analysis cubic runtime meant that the analysis could not scale to very large programs. Steensgaard [43] proposed a unification based algorithm, which runs in almost linear time, and can analyze million line code. Program variables are assigned blocks in the same manner as Andersen’s analysis. However, in the unification based algorithm, blocks are merged, such that for each block, at most one block points-to it. The analysis runs faster because there are significantly fewer blocks in the program, and the merging of blocks can be performed efficiently by Tarjan’s union-find data structure [45]. However, the unification based approach introduces spurious point-to relations. This is illustrated in the example shown in Figure 2.1 (a) where we assume each program variable is assigned a block. In Andersen’s analysis, in Figure 2.1 (b) the point-to graph will have six blocks, and will not have an edge between program variables \( e \) and \( d \). In the unification based approach, shown in Figure 2.1 (c), we must unite the blocks for variables \( c,e \) as well as the blocks for variables \( d,f \), in order for each block to have at most one block pointing to it. As such, the unification based approach
produces an additional point-to edge between program variables $e$ and $d$. As it was shown, the unification based pointer analysis derives certain point-to edges through the merging operation, degrading precision. In large programs, the merging typically occurs on a very large scale, producing a very large number of spurious point-to relations.

Fähndrich, Foster, Su, and Aiken [19] proposed a flow-insensitive context-insensitive pointer analysis. They improved on the runtime of Andersen’s [4] pointer analysis by collapsing cyclic constraints, and by propagating constraints lazily. Intuitively, the authors propose to detect pointers that point-to the same program variables at various dereferences, and evaluate their constraints together. In addition, by not performing the transitive closure for the entire constraint graph, they can avoid the overhead caused by evaluating cyclic constraints. Instead, cyclic constraints are first identified and collapsed into a single block. They demonstrated orders of magnitude improvement in analysis runtime due to collapsing cyclic constraints, and a further improvement due to propagating constraints lazily. Rountev and Chandra [35] proposed a more aggressive algorithm collapsing cyclical constraints, where they propagate the label (block), and detect additional variables with identical points-to information. In particular they managed to scale to 500 KLOC program. Heinze and Tardieu [22], proposed a demand driven analysis, computing only the points-to results the client asks for. They showed this analysis can analyze million line code in seconds.

In addition to improving the runtime of pointer analysis, the precision could be improved by introducing flow-sensitivity and context-sensitivity. Emami, Ghiya, and Hendren [17] proposed a flow-sensitive context-sensitive pointer analysis for C programs. The analysis assigns distinct blocks to stack variables including locals, parameters, and globals along with unknown indirect accesses through these variables. In addition, the heap was assigned one abstract memory block, and each procedures was assigned an abstract memory block to determine the targets of indirect calls. The analysis also computes must point-to relations, which detect the values that pointers are guaranteed to have. The must point-to relation was used to kill point-to relations for dereferenced blocks.
Emami et al. propose using the invocation graph instead of the call graph for the context-sensitive pointer analysis. The invocation graph is generated by expanding the call graph, duplicating each non-recursive call target. Hence, in a context-sensitive analysis, each procedure is expanded into all its invocations. The advantage gained is that the locals and parameters of a procedure are assigned a different abstract block for each invocation. Hence, since they distinguish between the parameters and locals at different invocations, they can distinguish between the arguments passed in from different call sites. Although this analysis improves precision in relation to the context-insensitive flow-insensitive pointer analysis, the programs analyzed were only few thousand lines of code.

Wilson and Lam [48] noticed that many of the calling contexts were quite similar in terms of alias patterns between the parameters. As such, they proposed the use of partial transfer function (PTF) to capture the points-to information for each procedure. The PTF does this by using blocks called initials to represent initial point-to information of parameters, and uses the PTF to derive the final point-to information of the procedure. In order to derive the point-to information for a procedure, the actual arguments are substituted into the PTF. The advantage of the PTF is that a particular PTF for a procedure can be reused whenever the same alias patterns occur. In this analysis they allocated each stack variable and global an abstract memory location. In addition, they distinguished between heap blocks allocated at different sites in the program. The pointer analysis was shown to run on benchmarks as large as five thousand lines of code.

The context-sensitive pointer analysis algorithms discussed so far do not scale because they require the construction of the invocation graph, which is of exponential complexity in relation to the number of procedures. Fähndric, Rehof, and Das [18], proposed a one-level unification based context-sensitive pointer analysis. This analysis proposes to distinguish between the incoming calls to a given procedure, rather than expand each path in the call graph. The authors showed that this analysis can analyze hundreds of thousands of LOC in minutes, and showed precision improvements over the flow-insensitive context-insensitive unification based
Chaterjee, Ryder, and Landi [12] proposed a modular context-sensitive pointer analysis, using the same block allocation as Wilson and Lam [48], but fully summarizing each procedure using a transfer function. By detecting strongly connected components in the call graph, and analyzing them separately they showed space improvements, but no results on benchmarks larger than 5000 lines of code. Cheng and Hwu [13] extended [12] by implementing an access path based approach, and partial context-sensitivity, distinguishing between the arguments at only selected procedures. They demonstrated scalability to hundreds of thousands of LOC.

There are many ways to represent logic functions, the concept of Binary Decision Diagram (BDD) was first proposed by Akers [2]. Bryant’s Reduced Order BDD (ROBDD) [8] made this representation successful through its compactness and canonical property. The BDD was applied to a wide range of tasks, including simulation, synthesis and formal verification in the CAD community. McMillan et al. [11] and Coudert et al. [14] were the first to introduce BDD into the model checking of sequential circuits, which can be abstracted as finite state machines. Their pioneer work replaces the explicit state enumeration by implicit state enumeration using BDDs. This key concept, complemented by further improvements [9, 15, 10, 33], was responsible for the first application of model checking to practical problems.

Other efforts in using a Boolean framework for program analysis were made. Sagiv, Reps, and Wilhelm [38] applied this principle to shape analysis, while Ball and Millstein [5] did predicate abstraction. However, the number of Boolean variables introduced in these frameworks is proportional to the number of subjects of interest.

The application of the BDD technique to pointer analysis problem was first reported by Zhu in [49], a context-sensitive pointer analysis for C programs, where memory blocks are logarithmically encoded into the Boolean domain. The concept of symbolic transfer function and the use of BDD image computation to perform program state query was proposed and its speed efficiency was demonstrated. Berndl et al. reported a context-insensitive pointer analysis algorithm using BDD in [7], where the space efficiency, and therefore better scalability
than the classical methods for analyzing Java programs was demonstrated. Lhotáč and Hendren [31] built a relational database abstraction on top of the low-level BDD manipulation to facilitate symbolic program analysis. This abstraction simplifies the integration of multiple program analysis techniques using BDDs. Whaley and Lam [47] reported another method for context-sensitive pointer analysis using BDD for Java programs. They encode the invocation graph using BDDs, and apply the algorithm by Berndl et al. [7] to the context-sensitive graph, producing a context-sensitive pointer analysis. Their analysis scales to large Java programs.

Zhu and Calman [50] proposed a context-sensitive pointer analysis using BDDs for C programs. The algorithm proposed encodes the complete transfer function for each procedure and the invocation graph using BDDs. It then applies the transfer function using the invocation graph, producing the context-sensitive pointer analysis.
Chapter 3

Symbolic Program Modeling

This chapter is organized as follows. In Section 3.1 we explain how a relation can be represented by a Boolean function. In Section 3.2 we describe how the points-to graph is represented symbolically. In Section 3.3 we discuss the transfer function, which is used to compute the point-to graph. In Section 3.4 we discuss Binary Decision Diagrams and their use in pointer analysis. In Section 3.5 we derive a mathematical model for the program and explain how the pointer analysis can be solved using recurrence equations. Lastly, in Section 3.6 and Section 3.7 we discuss the state query and transfer function application respectively, which are used in computing the recurrence equations.

3.1 Preliminary

A Boolean constant is either true or false. A Boolean variable is a symbol whose value is a Boolean constant. The logic connectives \( \neg, \cdot, + \) correspond to the negation, conjunction, and disjunction operators respectively. A Boolean function can be a Boolean constant, Boolean variable, the negation of a Boolean function, and lastly, the conjunction or disjunction of two Boolean functions. A literal is a Boolean variable or its negation. A truth assignment \( \tau \) evaluates each Boolean variable in a set as true or false. If \( \tau \) assigns a value to each Boolean variable in a Boolean function \( f \), then under \( \tau, f \) evaluates to true or false.
From a set of Boolean variables, $U = \{x_0, x_1, ..., x_{m-1}\}$, we can derive a conjunction $c_j$ of $m$ literals, called a minterm. Notice that since each distinct minterm is satisfied by only one $\tau$ over $U$, the set of minterms are orthogonal. In other words, for any two minterms $u, v$ spanned by $U$, $u \cdot v = 0$ if $u \neq v$.

Let $A_1, A_2, ..., A_n$ be sets, then an $n$-ary relation on these sets would be a subset of $A_1 \times A_2 \times ... \times A_n$. We call $A_1, A_2, ..., A_n$ the domains of the relation, and $n$ is the degree of the relation. To represent relations we use a set of Boolean variables for each domain. Let $A_1, A_2, ..., A_n$ be the domains of the n-ary relation, and respectively, $U^1, U^2, ..., U^n$ are sets of Boolean variables for these domains such that $U^i \cap U^j = \emptyset$ if $i \neq j$ and $|U^i| = \lceil\log_2 |A_i|\rceil$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$. The $j^{th}$ Boolean variable in $U^i$ is referred to as $u^i_j$. Without loss of generality we assume that the elements in each domain $A_i$ are unique numbers, ranging from 0 to $|A_i| - 1$.

The minterm for $e \in A_i$ is derived by its binary representation $\sum_j b_j 2^j$, where $b_j$ is the $j^{th}$ bit of $e$. In the derivation we will use the Boolean variables in $U^i$, inserting $u^i_j$ or $\bar{u}^i_j$ if $b_j$ is 1 or 0 respectively. All variables are substituted because the size of $U^i$ is designed to have as many variables as there are bits in the binary representation of each number in $A_i$. Note that the minterm created for $e \in A_i$, referred to as $U^i_e$, is constructed to satisfy only one $\tau_i$, corresponding to the unique number $e$. Note also that we can create a relation minterm by a conjunction of the minterms $U^1_{e_1}, U^2_{e_2}, ..., U^n_{e_n}$, where $\langle e_1, e_2, ..., e_n \rangle$ is a subset of the relation.

We can represent a relation by a disjunction of relation minterms.

**Example 1** Consider the domains $A_1 = A_2 = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7\}$ and the relation $R = \{(0, 1), (1, 6)\} \subset A_1 \times A_2$. Then, to represent $R$, we create two sets of Boolean variables, $U^1 = \{u^1_0, u^1_1, u^1_2\}$, and $U^2 = \{u^2_0, u^2_1, u^2_2\}$. In this example, the elements 0 and 1 in $A_1$ are encoded using Boolean variables in $U^1$ by $\bar{u}^1_0u^1_1u^1_2$ and $\bar{u}^1_0u^1_1u^1_2$ respectively, which corresponds to their 3 bit binary representation. The relation $R$ is then encoded symbolically by the Boolean function $U^1_0U^2_1 + U^1_1U^2_6 = \bar{u}^1_0u^1_1u^1_2u^2_0u^2_1u^2_2 + \bar{u}^1_0u^1_1u^1_2u^2_0u^2_1u^2_2$.

With the symbolic representation described above, set union and set intersection are equivalent to Boolean disjunction and conjunction, respectively, of the symbolic representation of a
set. Thus, from here on, we do not distinguish a set or relation from their symbolic representation.

It is possible to find subsets of a relation, relevant to elements in a certain domain. This can be done by creating a disjunction of the minterms \( D \) for the respective elements, and multiplying them by the relation \( R \). Since the minterm for each element \( e \in D \) is orthogonal to the minterm for any other element \( g \notin D \) in its domain, parts of the relation involving \( g \) will evaluate to \( \varnothing \) when multiplied by the disjunction of minterms for \( D \). As such, the result of the multiplication is \( S \subseteq R \), such that only relation minterms involving \( D \) will be part of \( S \).

**Example 2** Consider relation \( R \) from previous example. Suppose we wanted to find the subset of \( R \) relevant to \( D = U^1_0 \). Then, we can multiply \( R \) by \( D \), getting \( S = R \cdot D = \hat{u}_0^1 \hat{u}_1^1 \hat{u}_2^1 \cdot \left( \hat{u}_0^1 \hat{u}_1^1 \hat{u}_2^0 \hat{u}_1^2 \hat{u}_2^2 + \hat{u}_0^1 \hat{u}_1^2 \hat{u}_2^0 \hat{u}_1^0 \hat{u}_2^2 \right) = \hat{u}_0^1 \hat{u}_1^1 \hat{u}_2^0 \hat{u}_1^2 \hat{u}_2^2 = U^1_0 U^1_2 \). Note that \( S \subseteq R \), and that \( S \) has only relation minterms involving \( D \).

We can evaluate a relation of a graph using image computation. Consider an edge relation \( E \subseteq V \times V \) where the nodes \( V \) are numbers. In this case, two Boolean variable sets, \( U^1 \) and \( U^2 \), are used to represent the relation, using the procedure described earlier. We would like to identify the successors \( S'' \), for a set of nodes represented by a disjunction of minterms \( D \) in \( U^1 \), such that \( S'' \) is encoded in \( U^1 \). This is done in the following steps.

- In the first step, the subsets \( S \), of a relation \( R \), relevant to \( D \), are identified, as was already explained. This is done by letting \( S = R \cdot D \).

- Next, we abstract the Boolean variables in \( U^1 \) which encode \( D \), getting \( S' \), the disjunction of minterms for the elements \( D \) is mapped to, encoded in \( U^2 \). Formally, \( S' = \exists U^1 . S \).

- We define a composition on Boolean variables, \( U^2 \rightarrow U^1 \), termed the mirror operation. The mirror operation will map respective \( i^{th} \) bit variables in \( U^2 \) to \( U^1 \), \( \{ u^2_0 \rightarrow u^1_0, u^2_1 \rightarrow u^1_1, \ldots, u^2_{n-1} \rightarrow u^1_{n-1} \} \). We map the set of minterms \( S' \) encoded in \( U^2 \), to minterms \( S'' \) encoded in \( U^1 \) using the mirror operations, letting \( S'' = S'|_{U^2 \rightarrow U^1} \).
Note that it is possible to identify the graph nodes reachable from $D$ by repeated application of the three steps above. This fact is utilized in Section 3.6, where the image computation along with the mirror operation will allow us to perform point-to graph queries.

**Example 3** Consider the domain $V = A_1 = A_2 = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7\}$, the relation $R = \{(0, 1), (1, 6)\} \subset A_1 \times A_2 = V \times V$, and the minterm $D = U^1_0$. We can identify the elements $D$ is mapped to, and convert them to the domain of $U^1$. This is done by first abstracting the Boolean variables in $U^1$ for $S$, producing $S' = \exists U^1, [\bar{u}_0 \bar{u}_1 \bar{u}_2 \bar{u}_0 u_1 u_2] = \bar{u}_0^2 \bar{u}_1^2 u_2^2 = U^1_0$. Next, we can apply the mirror operation to convert the minterm from $U^2$ to $U^1$, denoted by $S'' = \bar{u}_0^2 \bar{u}_1^2 u_2^2 |_{U^2\rightarrow U^1} = \bar{u}_0^1 \bar{u}_1^1 u_2 = U^1_1$. Thus, using these operations, we identified $U^1_0$ is mapped to $U^1_1$, and then the mirror operation was used to convert $U^2$ to $U^1_1$. This procedure can be performed again, taking $*S'' = (\exists U^1[S'' \cdot R])|_{U^2\rightarrow U^1} = U^1_6$.

### 3.2 Symbolic Program State

The goal of pointer analysis is to statically estimate the set of values each pointer can hold throughout the execution of a program. Generally speaking, the number of pointers may not be determined at compile time. For example, we may not know the depth of a recursive procedure, and thus cannot determine the number of local and parameter program variables. Hence, we often collapse related program variables together, thereby forming a block, such that program variables within a block are not distinguished. The state is a point-to relation on blocks. In the state, a source block is said to point-to a target block if a certain pointer in the source block may point to a program variable in the target block. When a program is modeled with fewer blocks the state can usually be computed faster, as the points-to relation needs to be computed for fewer blocks. In our analysis, global variables as well as locals and parameters are assigned a block each. Heap locations are assigned a distinct block corresponding the site of allocation.

**Example 4** Consider the C program shown in Figure 3.1, which is modified from [32]. The program contains global blocks $g$, $a$, $h1$, $h2$, and local blocks $p$, $q$, $r$, $t$, $f$, and $h$. 
The program state is often abstracted as a point-to graph \((B, E)\), whose vertices \(B\) represent the set of blocks, and an edge \((u, v) \in E\) from block \(u\) to block \(v\) indicates that it is possible that block \(u\) points-to block \(v\). The set of all edges defines the point-to relation.

**Example 5** Figure 3.2 shows a point-to graph capturing the program state after the completion of the main procedure in Figure 3.1.

To represent the relation \(E \subseteq B \times B\) we create two Boolean sets \(X^1 = \{x_0^1, x_1^1, \ldots, x_{n-1}^1\}\) and \(X^2 = \{x_0^2, x_1^2, \ldots, x_{n-1}^2\}\), to derive minterms for blocks. We let \(|X^1| = |X^2| = \lceil \log_2 |B| \rceil\), and assume that each block \(u\) is characterized by a number. As such, we can derive the minterm for \(u\) using its binary representation, and Boolean variables in either \(X^1\) or \(X^2\). Assuming a block \(u\) points to a block \(v\), we represent the point-to relation by the relation minterm \(X_u^1 X_v^2\). In other words, we capture the point-to edge \((u, v)\) in the point-to graph by a Boolean product \(X_u^1 X_v^2\). Thus, given a program state represented by \(E\), the point-to graph is represented by
\[ \sum_{(u,v) \in E} X_u^1 X_v^2. \]

**Example 6** Table 3.1 shows how the blocks in Example 4 are mapped to minterms using Boolean variables from \( X^1 \) and \( X^2 \). Note that the dimension (number of Boolean variables) of both \( X^1 \) and \( X^2 \) is 5.

**Example 7** The program state in Example 4 can be represented by a Boolean function:

\[
X_p^1 X_h^2 + X_p^1 X_{h1}^2 + X_g^1 X_{h1}^2 + X_g^1 X_{h2}^2 + X_g^1 X_{h1}^2 + X_g^1 X_{h2}^2 + X_g^1 X_{h1}^2 + X_g^1 X_{h2}^2 + X_g^1 X_{h1}^2 + X_g^1 X_{h2}^2
\]

![Figure 3.2: Program state on the completion of Figure 3.1.](image)
### Chapter 3. Symbolic Program Modeling

#### 3.3 Symbolic Transfer Function

The pointer analysis interprets relevant instructions in a program to compute program state, represented by a pointer relation. Any instruction can add a set of new point-to relations between blocks to the state, and hence, the state monotonically increases. In turn, this update forces the evaluation of other instructions in the program, and this process repeats until no more updates are made to the state.

The problem with this approach is that it is quite inefficient, as certain statements in the program must have their impact recomputed whenever the state changes. Moreover, this approach implies that the entire program information must be kept in memory during the analysis, raising a scalability concern. Instead, we can summarize each procedure \( i \) by generating a transfer function \( T^i \), and compute the impact of all the statements in the procedure by applying the transfer function.

The concept of the transfer function, which can be intuitively considered as a point-to

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>id</th>
<th>Program Variable</th>
<th>( X^1 )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>( x_0 \bar{x}_1 \bar{x}_2 \bar{x}_3 \bar{x}_4 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>( x_0 \bar{x}_1 x_2 \bar{x}_3 x_4 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>g</td>
<td>( x_0 \bar{x}_1 \bar{x}_2 \bar{x}_3 x_4 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>( x_0 \bar{x}_1 x_2 x_3 \bar{x}_4 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>h1</td>
<td>( x_0 \bar{x}_1 \bar{x}_2 \bar{x}_3 x_4 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>( x_0 \bar{x}_1 x_2 x_3 \bar{x}_4 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>h2</td>
<td>( x_0 \bar{x}_1 \bar{x}_2 \bar{x}_3 x_4 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>( x_0 \bar{x}_1 x_2 x_3 \bar{x}_4 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>p</td>
<td>( x_0 \bar{x}_1 \bar{x}_2 \bar{x}_3 x_4 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>( x_0 \bar{x}_1 x_2 x_3 \bar{x}_4 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>q</td>
<td>( x_0 \bar{x}_1 \bar{x}_2 \bar{x}_3 x_4 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>( x_0 \bar{x}_1 x_2 x_3 \bar{x}_4 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>( x_0 \bar{x}_1 \bar{x}_2 \bar{x}_3 x_4 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>( x_0 \bar{x}_1 x_2 x_3 \bar{x}_4 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>r</td>
<td>( x_0 \bar{x}_1 \bar{x}_2 \bar{x}_3 x_4 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>( x_0 \bar{x}_1 x_2 x_3 \bar{x}_4 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>( x_0 \bar{x}_1 \bar{x}_2 \bar{x}_3 x_4 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>( x_0 \bar{x}_1 x_2 x_3 \bar{x}_4 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>h</td>
<td>( x_0 \bar{x}_1 \bar{x}_2 \bar{x}_3 x_4 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>( x_0 \bar{x}_1 x_2 x_3 \bar{x}_4 )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.1: Minterm map for program variables
relation parameterized over different calling contexts, has been widely used [48, 12, 13]. The parameters of the transfer function do not necessarily correspond to the parameters of the procedure. In fact, dereferences of any parameter, global, and local within the procedure can be a transfer function parameter. A memory dereference can be characterized by the notion of access path \( \langle b, l \rangle \), where \( b \) is the root memory block, and \( l \) is the level of dereferences. An access path with the form \( \langle b, 0 \rangle \) is trivial and always resolves to the constant address value \( b \), whereas an access path with the form \( \langle b, 1 \rangle \) represents the value stored in \( b \). After the transfer functions of all program procedure are derived, they can be applied at their corresponding call sites by substituting the parameters, or the unknowns, with the known program state.

In [49] we introduce the notion of initial state blocks, each of which corresponds to the set of possible values of a memory dereference before entering the procedure. An initial state block is treated as if it was a separate memory block.

One problem with only using initial blocks as transfer function parameters is that the transfer function of a procedure depends very much on the transfer functions of its callees. To make sure that the point-to information of a procedure is evaluated as late as possible, we introduce final state blocks, which represent possible values of a memory dereference before leaving the procedure. Again, we use disjoint minterms with Boolean variables from \( X^1 \) and \( X^2 \) to encode initial and final state blocks. We follow the convention that the minterms \( \lambda_k \) and \( \theta_k \) represent the initial and final state block for memory dereference \( k \) respectively.

**Example 8** Consider the procedure alloc in Example 4, where the parameters \( f \) and \( h \) are dereferenced. Since the value of \( f \) and \( h \) are unknown, we cannot determine the memory blocks to be updated. With the introduction of the initial state blocks \( \lambda_0 \) and \( \lambda_1 \), and the final state blocks \( \theta_0 \) and \( \theta_1 \), the procedure can be summarized with a transfer function as shown in the point-to graph of Figure 3.3. Similarly, we can obtain the transfer function of procedure getg in Example 4 in Figure 3.3 where memory dereference 2 corresponds to \(*r\) and memory dereference 3 corresponds to \(**t\). The introduced initial and final blocks can be encoded as minterms.

---

\(^1\)Note that here we follow the convention of writing L-values, thus the R-value \(*t\) at line 14 of Example 4 is
using Boolean variables from $X^1$ and $X^2$ as shown in Table 3.2. In addition, we introduce final blocks corresponding to actual parameter values passed to procedures at Line 4, 5 and 12 respectively in Table 3.3. Note that while they do not appear in transfer functions, they will be used in the future for transfer function application.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>id</th>
<th>Initial/Final</th>
<th>$X^1$</th>
<th>$X^2$</th>
<th>deref</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>$\theta_0$</td>
<td>$\bar{x}_0^1x_1^1x_2^1x_3^1x_4^1$</td>
<td>$\bar{x}_0^2x_1^2x_2^2x_3^2x_4^2$</td>
<td>$*f = \langle f, 1 \rangle$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>$\lambda_0$</td>
<td>$\bar{x}_0^1x_1^1x_2^1x_3^1x_4^1$</td>
<td>$\bar{x}_0^2x_1^2x_2^2x_3^2x_4^2$</td>
<td>$*f = \langle f, 1 \rangle$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>$\theta_1$</td>
<td>$\bar{x}_0^1x_1^1x_2^1x_3^1x_4^1$</td>
<td>$\bar{x}_0^2x_1^2x_2^2x_3^2x_4^2$</td>
<td>$*h = \langle h, 1 \rangle$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>$\lambda_1$</td>
<td>$\bar{x}_0^1x_1^1x_2^1x_3^1x_4^1$</td>
<td>$\bar{x}_0^2x_1^2x_2^2x_3^2x_4^2$</td>
<td>$*h = \langle h, 1 \rangle$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>$\theta_2$</td>
<td>$\bar{x}_0^1x_1^1x_2^1x_3^1x_4^1$</td>
<td>$\bar{x}_0^2x_1^2x_2^2x_3^2x_4^2$</td>
<td>$*r = \langle r, 1 \rangle$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>$\lambda_2$</td>
<td>$\bar{x}_0^1x_1^1x_2^1x_3^1x_4^1$</td>
<td>$\bar{x}_0^2x_1^2x_2^2x_3^2x_4^2$</td>
<td>$*r = \langle r, 1 \rangle$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>$\theta_3$</td>
<td>$\bar{x}_0^1x_1^1x_2^1x_3^1x_4^1$</td>
<td>$\bar{x}_0^2x_1^2x_2^2x_3^2x_4^2$</td>
<td>$**t = \langle t, 2 \rangle$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.2: Transfer Function parameters minterm mapping

### 3.4 Binary Decision Diagrams

We have established the use of Boolean functions as an alternative to capture the point-to-relation. However, other than being well founded on the formalism of Boolean algebra, we have not yet justified its use in terms of efficiency. In this section, we introduce Bryant’s Reduced Ordered Binary Decision Diagram (ROBDD or simply BDD) [8], a proven technology for the efficient manipulation of Boolean functions.

Traditional representations of Boolean functions include truth tables, Karnaugh maps, or sum-of-products [21], each suffering from an exponential size with respect to the number of variables. Bryant used a rooted, directed binary graph to represent an arbitrary Boolean function. Given a Boolean space $X^1 = \{x_0^1, x_1^1, x_2^1, ..., x_{n-1}^1\}$, a Boolean function $f_v$ corresponds written as $**t$. 

---

*Note: The table continues with further entries and examples.*
Figure 3.3: Transfer Function, A walk-through example.

Table 3.3: Other Finals minterm mapping
to a graph rooted at graph node $v$. Each node in the graph is characterized by an index $i$, corresponding to a Boolean variable $x^1_i$, as well as its negative cofactor $f_{low}$ and positive cofactor $f_{high}$, each of which is by itself a Boolean function, and therefore a graph node. Logically, $f_v$ is related to its two cofactors by Shannon expansion $f_v = x_i f_{low} + \bar{x}_i f_{high}$. Two outstanding nodes, called the terminal nodes, represent the constant logic value 0 and 1. The terminal nodes are assumed to have an index of infinity. By imposing two invariants on the graph, Bryant manages to keep the representation canonical. First, all variables have a fixed ordering, that is, the index of any non-terminal node must be less than the index of its cofactors. Second, all isomorphic subgraphs are reduced into one, that is, if the cofactors of two graph nodes $u$ and $v$ are the same, and their indices are the same, then they will be the same.

Figure 3.4 shows the BDD representation of symbolic transfer functions in the previous section. Note that we use BDD to represent both the transfer functions and the program states. The fact that BDD is nothing but a graph representation of a Boolean function begs the question that why we do not use the point-to graph in the first place, which seems to be much more intuitive. One primary advantage of using BDD is that point-to graphs need to be maintained for every procedure, each of which may share many common edges. In other words, there is a large amount of redundancy. In contrast, BDD enables the maximum sharing among graph nodes, and point-to information in different procedures, at different program points can be reused. As an example, $ddb$, $dc6$ are some of the shared internal BDD nodes among different transfer functions. As the program grows large, such sharing occurs in a large scale. As a result, when BDD is used to represent a point-to set, its size is not necessarily proportional to its cardinality, as in the case of point-to graph – often times it is proportional to the dimension of the Boolean space. This space efficiency will translate into speed efficiency.
Figure 3.4: Transfer functions in BDD.
3.5 Recurrence Equations

We now describe our pointer analysis framework. In order to focus on the fundamentals, rather than the implementation details, we assume that after preprocessing, the program can be characterized by the following mathematical model. In this model, we ignore return values, as they could be modeled by considering them as parameters to a given procedure. Also note that for now, we assume the program does not contain indirect calls. As such, the call graph can be built in advance. From these relations we can calculate the state by applying recurrence equations.

- \( I \subset [0, \infty) \) is the set of procedures. We also assume that procedure 0 corresponds to the top procedure in the whole program.

- \( J \subset [0, \infty) \) is the set of memory blocks contained in the program. It includes globals, locals, parameters and heap objects.

- \( L \subset [0, \infty) \) is the set of program points.

- \( K \subset [0, \infty), \forall i \in I \) corresponds to the set of memory dereferences.

- \( D : K \mapsto J \times Z \) characterizes the access path of each memory dereference \( k \in K \) by a tuple \( \langle b, l \rangle \) where \( b \in J \) is a memory block, and \( l \in Z \) is the level of dereferences. This representation can be extended with more complex access patterns.

- \( \{T^i(\vec{\lambda}, \vec{\theta})|\forall i \in I\} \) corresponds to the set of transfer functions for each procedure \( i \).
  Here \( \vec{\lambda} = [\lambda_0, ...\lambda_{|K|-1}] \) corresponds to the initial state blocks, and \( \vec{\theta} = [\theta_0, ...\theta_{|K|-1}] \) corresponds to final state blocks.

- \( C : I \times L \mapsto 2^I \) corresponds to the calling relation. For each procedure \( i \in I \), and call site at program point \( l \in L \), \( C_{i,l} \) gives the set of callees. \( C_i^{-1} \) gives the set of tuples \( \langle j, l \rangle \), where \( j \in I, l \in L \), and \( i \in C_{j,l} \).
\( B : I \times L \times K \mapsto K \) is the parameter binding relation. For each call site at program point \( l \in L \), in procedure \( i \in I \), and formal parameter dereference \( k \in K \) at procedure \( j \in C_{i,l} \), \( B_{i,l,k} \) gives the dereference in procedure \( i \) corresponding to the actual.

The task of pointer analysis is finding program state \( S^i \) for each procedure \( i \in I \). After all relations are derived, we first compute the initial state for each procedure \( i \in I \). The initial state is computed by the following equation, which takes the sum of all parameter-independent point-to relations in the transfer functions.

\[
S^i = \sum_{i \in I} T^i(\lambda \rightarrow 0, \theta \rightarrow 0)
\]  

(3.1)

**Example 9** The initial state of the program in Example 4 is \( X_1 X_2 + X_1 X_2 \).

Next, the state for each procedure is derived by iteratively applying the recurrence equations. The recurrence equations are computed until a fixed-point is reached, defined as the iteration when the state for each procedure does not change. Note that the state monotonically increases. As such, since the number of blocks and procedures in a program is finite, the analysis will eventually reach a fixed-point. Below are the recurrence equations:

\[
\Theta^i_k = \text{query}(S^i, D_k), \forall k \in K, i \in I
\]  

(3.2)

\[
\Lambda^i_k = \sum_{(j,l) \in C^i_{i-1}} \Theta^j_{B_{j,l,k}^{-1}}, \forall k \in K, i \in I
\]  

(3.3)

\[
S^i = \sum_{(i,l) \in C^i_{i-1}} S^i + \sum_{\forall l, j \in C_{i,l}} S^j + T^i(\lambda \rightarrow \Lambda^i, \theta \rightarrow \Theta^i), \forall i \in I
\]  

(3.4)

Equation 3.2 computes the final value of memory dereference \( k \) in procedure \( i \) before leaving the procedure. It is computed by performing a state query on \( S^i \), which is discussed in Section 3.6.
Equation 3.3 computes the initial value of a formal parameter, denoted by memory dereference $k \in K$, before entering procedure $i \in I$. It is computed by combining the value of corresponding actuals in all incoming callers. The set of call sites whose callee is this procedure is given by $C_i^{-1}$. Let $l \in L$ in procedure $j \in I$ be a call site, whose callee is procedure $i$. Then, the actual memory dereference corresponding to the formal $k$ is given by $B_{j,l;k}$, whose corresponding value is given by $\Theta_{B_{j,l;k}}^j$.

Lastly, Equation 3.4 computes the state $S^i$ by summing the states of its callers and callees as well as applying the transfer function. Transfer function application is done by substituting the initial and final state blocks by the actual state blocks computed in Equation 3.3 and Equation 3.2. The transfer function application is discussed in Section 3.7.

### 3.6 Symbolic State Query

This section outline the algorithm to perform query on the state of a procedure, also used to compute Equation 3.2. Given a memory dereference of block $b$ with level $l$, Algorithm 1 performs the state query by computing the reachable envelope of depth $l$ on the point-to graph starting from block $b$. In contrast to the traditional approach where a breadth-first search has to be performed to explicitly enumerate all neighbors of a node in the point-to graph, our representation enables the use of the implicit technique originally developed in the CAD community for the formal verification of digital hardware. This approach relies on the efficiency of image computation, which collectively computes the set of successors in a graph given a set of predecessors. Since in our representation, a set of memory blocks can be represented as a disjunction of minterms, the query can be formulated as Boolean function manipulation, which in turn can be efficiently implemented on BDD. As shown in Line 5, the query is performed by multiplying the state with the minterm of the predecessor using Boolean variables in $X^1$, and then existentially abstracting away the Boolean variables in $X^1$. This procedure is performed recursively, by applying the mirror operation on Line 4 to previous results. Example 10
Algorithm 1 State query.

```
query(S, (b,l) ) {  
if( l == 0 ) return X_h^2 ;  
else {  
    result = query(S, (b, l-1))|_{X^2=X_1} ;  
    return \exists X^1.[S \land result] ;  
}
}
```

Illustrates how it works. Many efforts have been invested to make this operation particularly efficient [14, 15, 9, 33].

Example 10 Consider the state of procedure main represented by the point-to graph in Figure 3.2, which can be represented symbolically by $S = X_p^1X_a^2 + X_p^1X_{h1}^2 + X_p^1X_{h2}^2 + X_gX_{h1}^2 + X_gX_{h2}^2 + X_aX_{h1}^2 + X_aX_{h2}^2 + X_a^1X_{h1}^2 + X_a^1X_{h2}^2 + X_a^1X_{h1}^2 + X_a^1X_{h2}^2 + X_{h1}^2 + X_{h2}^2 + X_{h1}^2 + X_{h2}^2$.

To find out where $g$ points to, we first multiply $S$ by $X_g^1$. Since $X_g^1$ is orthogonal to $X_p^1$, $X_{h1}^1$, $X_{h2}^1$, and $X_h^1$, by the property of minterms, the step yields $X_g^1X_{h1}^2 + X_g^1X_{h2}^2 + X_gX_{a}^2 = x_0^1x_1^1x_2^1x_3^1x_4^1x_0^2x_1^2x_2^2x_3^2x_4^2 + x_0^1x_1^1x_2^1x_3^1x_4^1x_0^2x_1^2x_2^2x_3^2x_4^2 + x_0^1x_1^1x_2^1x_3^1x_4^1x_0^2x_1^2x_2^2x_3^2x_4^2$, in other words, all irrelevant point-to facts are filtered. We then abstract away all Boolean variables in $X_1$, which yields $x_0^2x_1^2x_2x_3x_4^2 + x_0^2x_1^2x_2x_3x_4^2 + x_0^2x_1^2x_2x_3x_4^2 = X_h^2 + X_{h2}^2 + X_{a}^2$.

3.7 Symbolic Transfer Function Application

A sink cofactor of a given block in a point-to graph is any block it points to. A source cofactor of a given block is any block pointing to it. The transfer function is applied by substituting its parameters with blocks we call substituents. One way this could be done is by identifying the cofactors of each transfer function parameter, and multiplying them with the substituents. For instance, we can compute the target cofactors $\mu_k$ of the initial $\lambda_k$ as shown in Equation 3.5.
Chapter 3. Symbolic Program Modeling

Similar to the query computation, to find \( \mu_k \) we multiply \( T^i \) by \( X_{\lambda_k}^2 \), and then abstract away the Boolean variables in \( X^2 \). The state is then updated with the new point-to relation as shown in Equation 3.6. The main disadvantage of this approach is that we must identify the cofactors of each parameter, and then multiply them by the substituents (\( \Lambda_k^i \) in this case) separately.

\[
\begin{align*}
\mu_k &= \exists X^2.(X_{\lambda_k}^2 \cdot T^i) \\
S^i &= S^i + (\mu_k \cdot \Lambda_k^i)
\end{align*}
\]

We propose a new method such that the substitutions can be performed collectively. First, to represent the relation \( B \times B \) between the pointers and their values we introduce two additional Boolean variable sets \( Y^1 \) and \( Y^2 \) respectively. We can derive minterms using these two Boolean variable sets in the same manner they were derived using \( X^1 \) and \( X^2 \). To be able to substitute collectively, we modify each of the transfer functions \( T^i \) into an augmented transfer function \( \hat{T}^i \). We derive \( \hat{T}^i \) by multiplying each transfer function parameter minterm using Boolean variables in \( X^1 \) by the corresponding minterm using Boolean variables in \( Y^1 \). Likewise, we multiply each transfer function parameter minterm using Boolean variables in \( X^2 \) by the corresponding minterm using Boolean variables in \( Y^2 \). We then abstract away the transfer function parameter minterms using Boolean variables in \( X^1 \) and \( X^2 \).

**Example 11** The augmented transfer functions of procedures in Example 4 are: 
\[
\begin{align*}
\hat{T}^{alloc} &= X^1_f Y^2_{\lambda_0} + X^1_h Y^2_{\lambda_1} + Y^1_{\theta_0} Y^2_{\theta_1}, \\
\hat{T}^{getg} &= X^1_f Y^2_{\lambda_0} + X^1_i Y^2_g + Y^1_{\theta_2} Y^2_{\theta_3}, \text{ and } \hat{T}^{main} = T^{main}.
\end{align*}
\]

Now, we can create a binding between all substituents and parameters. The determinant of a substituent minterm encoded using Boolean variables in \( X^1 \) and \( X^2 \) is the matching parameter minterm in domains \( Y^1 \) and \( Y^2 \) respectively. We can derive the binding by multiplying each substituent minterm by its determinant. As shown in Algorithm 2, the binding can be used to multiply the augmented transfer function. Note that terms with different determinants will be canceled thanks to the orthogonality of minterms. Hence, the substitution can be performed by a single multiplication followed by existentially abstracting away the determinant variables.
Algorithm 2 Transfer Function Application.

\[
\begin{align*}
apply( \tilde{T}^i, \tilde{A}^i, \tilde{\Theta}^i ) \{ \\
\quad binding &= \sum_{k \in K} (Y^2_{\lambda_k} \Lambda^i_k + Y^2_{\theta_k} \Theta^i_k); \\
\quad s &= \exists Y^2. [\tilde{T}^i \land binding]; \\
\quad binding^* &= binding|_{X^2 \rightarrow X^1, Y^2 \rightarrow Y^1}; \\
\quad \text{return } \exists Y^1. [s \land binding^*]; \\
\} 
\end{align*}
\]
Chapter 4

Symbolic Context-Sensitive Analysis

In this chapter we describe the context-sensitive analysis. In Section 4.1 we introduce the symbolic invocation graph. In Section 4.2 we show how the acyclic call graph is derived. In Section 4.3 we explain how the acyclic call graph is used in constructing the symbolic invocation graph, and discuss the complexity. In Section 4.4 we describe how the symbolic invocation graph can be leveraged in order to perform the context-sensitive analysis.

4.1 Invocation Graph

An invocation of a procedure corresponds to one of the calling contexts of the procedure, and can be characterized by a distinct number. An invocation graph is the expansion of the call graph [17] whose vertices correspond to the invocations of procedures. Figure 4.1(a) shows the call graph of a program, where the edges are labeled with the respective call sites. The corresponding invocation graph is shown in Figure 4.1(b), where each vertex is labeled by the procedure name and an integer index representing the different invocations of each procedure.

The goal of the context-sensitive analysis is to distinguish between the state of each invocation of a procedure. Since the pointer analysis is flow-insensitive, the point-to relations for globals and heap locations are propagated to all invocations in the program. Hence, the main advantage of the context-sensitive analysis is the ability to distinguish between the values of
Figure 4.1: A Call Graph and Invocation Graph
parameters, for different invocations of the same procedure.

Note that cycles in the call graph pose a problem in deriving the invocation graph. The cycles are caused by recursive calls between procedures. Naively expanding the call graph may result in an invocation graph of infinite size. This is because each vertex on a cycle in the call graph may have to be expanded indefinitely. As such, cycles in the call graph must be handled in advance. A strongly connected component is a subgraph where each vertex in the component is reachable from another vertex in the component. A maximal SCC is a SCC not contained in any other SCCs. By collapsing maximal SCCs into a single vertex, we can obtain an acyclic call graph. By doing so, an acyclic call graph is derived, and new invocations are allocated for each each incoming edge into the maximal SCC. The derivation of the acyclic graph, and the resulting invocation graph will be elaborated Section 4.2.

With an acyclic call graph, multiple paths can be expanded, visiting each vertex only once in a topological pass over the acyclic call graph. However, the invocation graph is exponential in relation to the call graph, and hence the cost of constructing the vertices and edges of the invocation graph is exponential. To resolve this issue, note that edges in the invocation graph can be characterized by a relation between the invocations of the caller and callee in the call graph. Thus, instead of expanding call graph edges we could annotate them with the relation between the invocations of the caller and callee. Such annotation could be a Boolean function, representing the relation between the invocations of the caller and callee. Such annotation could be a Boolean function, representing the relation between the invocations of the caller and callee with two sets of Boolean variables, $W^1$ and $W^2$ respectively. We can derive the minterm for the invocation of a procedure, using the invocation number binary representation, and the Boolean variables in either $W^1$ or $W^2$. For example, $C_0$ in Figure 4.1(b) can be identified by $C$ and the minterm $W^1_0$.

We define a **symbolic invocation graph** to be an annotation of the call graph $C$, where each edge $(i, l, j) \in C$, corresponding to a call at program point $l$ in procedure $i$, to procedure $j$, is annotated with a Boolean function $SE_{i,l,j}$, referred to as the *symbolic edge relation*. The symbolic edge relation replaces the set of invocation graph edges associated with a call site by
Chapter 4. Symbolic Context-Sensitive Analysis

representing the relation between the respective invocations of the caller and callee. Let \( \text{count} \) be the number of invocations in the caller \( i \). Let \( \text{offset} \) be the starting invocation number of callee \( j \) from caller \( i \) at program point \( l \). Then, the symbolic edge relation can be constructed by:

\[
S\mathcal{E}_{i,l,j} = \sum_{k=0}^{\text{count}} W^1_k W^2_{\text{offset}+k}.
\]

For example, in the symbolic invocation graph in Figure 4.1(c), which is equivalent to the invocation graph in Figure 4.1(b), the edge \( \langle C, D \rangle \) is annotated with \( W^1_0 W^2_0 + W^1_1 W^2_1 \). This means that \( \langle C, D \rangle \) in the call graph can be refined into \( \langle C_0, D_0 \rangle \) and \( \langle C_1, D_1 \rangle \) in the invocation graph. Note that when invocation graph edges are represented by BDD, the BDD nodes can be shared among all edges in the call graph. For example, the symbolic invocation edges for \( \langle C, D \rangle \), \( \langle C, E \rangle \) and \( \langle C, F \rangle \) in the example in Figure 4.1(c) share a common BDD node since they have exactly the same pattern. The symbolic invocation graph construction algorithm is presented in Section 4.3.

4.2 Acyclic Call Graph Reduction

To construct an acyclic call graph we detect and collapse maximal SCCs. Detecting maximal SCCs can be done by Tarjan’s algorithm [44] shown in Algorithm 3. The input to the algorithm is the calling relation for the program, \( \mathcal{C} \), introduced in Section 3.5. Following Tarjan’s convention, we represent each SCC by a unique vertex in the SCC, called its representative vertex. As such, the output of the algorithm in Algorithm 3 is a mapping \( \text{SCC} : I \mapsto I \), which maps each vertex in the call graph to a representative vertex. Note that if a vertex \( i \) is not contained in any SCC, then \( \text{SCC}(i) = i \), which maps \( i \) to itself.

Three data structures are used to derive the SCC mapping. For each vertex \( v \), a visitation order is assigned when \( v \) is visited, and stored in \( \text{number}(v) \) (Line 18). In addition, when a vertex is visited, it is inserted into a \( \text{stack} \) (Line 20), to denote it is in the current path. For each vertex, all its successors are visited, and a vertex may form a cycle by reaching a vertex already on the path. A maximal cycle will be formed with a reachable vertex having
the lowest visitation order, as a lower visitation order indicates a vertex was added earlier to the path, and as such, reaches the most vertices on the path. To detect maximal cycles, for each vertex \( v \), \( \text{lowlink}(v) \) is computed, which is the visitation order for a vertex on the path. Initially, \( \text{lowlink}(v) \) is set to the visitation order for \( v \), and as cycles are found, \( \text{lowlink}(v) \) will be mapped to the maximal cycle, which is the vertex with the lowest visitation order.

As mentioned, the traversal is performed by visiting all successors of a vertex \( v \) in the call graph. If a successor \( u \) was not visited yet, it is visited, and as such, all paths for \( u \) are visited. Hence, \( \text{lowlink}(u) \) is derived, representing the maximal SCC \( u \) is part of. If \( \text{lowlink}(u) \) is smaller than \( \text{lowlink}(v) \), then, through \( u \) we can reach a vertex added earlier to the path. Since the lower visitation order implies a greater SCC, we assign \( \text{lowlink}(u) \) to \( \text{lowlink}(v) \) as shown in Line 25. On the other hand, if a successor \( u \) was already visited, and is on the path, then a new SCC is found. If the visitation order of \( u \) is lower than \( \text{lowlink}(v) \), then \( u \) is the new maximal SCC for \( v \), and at Line 29 the visitation order for \( u \) is assigned to \( \text{lowlink}(v) \). When all successors of \( v \) are visited, we check whether \( v \) is a maximal SCC, and remove all vertices with higher visitation numbers from the path in Line 32–39. In addition, we assign \( v \) to be the representative \( SCC \) vertex for all vertices removed from the path.

From the calling relation and the \( SCC \) map we can derive the acyclic call graph, represented by the \textit{acyclic call relation}, \( C' : I \rightarrow 2^I \). For each procedure \( i \in I \), \( C'_i \) gives the set of callees for \( i \). We ignore call sites in this representation since the acyclic call relation is used to perform a topological pass over the call graph. Algorithm 3 provides a method to derive the acyclic call relation in Line 11–14. The acyclic call relation is constructed by performing two call graph manipulations. First, we remove edges between any two vertices in the call graph that have the same \( SCC \) representative vertex. Second, we replace every vertex in the call graph, with its \( SCC \) representative vertex in the acyclic call graph. These two manipulations collapse all the vertices in a \( SCC \) into their \( SCC \) representative vertex.

In Figure 4.2 we show how an invocation graph is derived from a call graph containing \( SCCs \). We ignore call sites in this example. In the call graph in Figure 4.2(a), procedures \( F \)
Algorithm 3 Maximal SCC detection based on Tarjan’s Algorithm

```
var number, lowlink : I \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}; 1
var stack : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow I; var sp : \mathbb{Z}; 2
var SCC : I \rightarrow I; 3
var visitOrder : \mathbb{Z}; 4

acyclicReduction() { 6
    sccNum = sp = 0; 7
    forall ( i \in I ) lowlink(v) = number(v) = 0; 8
    identifyScc(0); 9
}

forall ( i \in I ) C'_i = \emptyset; 11
forall ( (i, l, j) \in C_{i,l} ) 12
    if ( SCC(i) \neq SCC(j) ) 13
        C' = C' \cup \langle SCC(i), SCC(j) \rangle; 14
}

identifyScc(v) { 17
    number(v) = ++sccNum; 18
    lowlink(v) = number(v); 19
    stack(sp++) = v; 20
}

forall ( (i, l, j) \in C ) { 22
    if ( number(w) == 0 ) { 23
        identifyScc(w); 24
        lowlink(v) = min(lowlink(v), lowlink(w)); 25
    } 26
    else if ( number(w) < number(v) ) 27
        if ( \exists k \ stack(k) == w ) 28
            lowlink(v) = min(lowlink(v), number(w)); 29
    }

if ( lowlink(v) == number(v) ) { 32
    w = stack(sp); 33
    while ( number(w) \geq number(v) ) { 34
        sp = sp - 1; 35
        SCC(w) = v; 36
        w = stack(sp); 37
    } 38
} 39
} 40
```
and $G$ form a maximal SCC, the only one in the call graph. As such, the SCC for vertices $F$ and $G$ is collapsed, and we duplicate the SCC for each incoming edge into either $F$ or $G$. For instance, due to the edge from $B$ to $F$ we duplicate the SCC for the third time. When the SCC is duplicated, its structure is duplicated as well, and hence $F_2$ and $G_2$ are created, along with directed edges between them, as shown in Figure 4.2(b).

### 4.3 Deriving Symbolic Edge Relations

We derive the symbolic edge relations for each edge in the call graph by applying a topological pass over the acyclic call graph. Algorithm 4 constructs the symbolic invocation graph. The construction algorithm maintains an invocation count for each procedure $i$. Also, given the invocation count of $i$ is $\text{count}(i)$, the numbers representing the invocations of $i$ will range from 0 up to $\text{count}(i) - 1$. Initially, the invocation count of the top procedure is set to 1. We then traverse each reachable vertex in topological order in the acyclic call graph. At each call site the invocation count of the callee is incremented by the invocation count of the caller, in essence allocating new invocations for the callee. The symbolic edge relation is derived by creating a map between the invocations of the caller and the newly allocated invocations of the callee.
When encountering a SCC, we first compute the symbolic edge relation in callers outside the SCC, allocating new invocations for the SCC representative vertex. When the symbolic edge relation for all call sites outside the SCC are processed, the invocation count for the SCC representative vertex is assigned to each procedure that maps to it. Call sites in procedures inside the SCC are processed afterwards. In their symbolic edge relation, each one of the invocations for the caller are assigned to the same invocation in the callee. Hence, the internal structure of the SCC is duplicated for each “invocation” of the representative SCC vertex.

To construct the symbolic edge relation, shown in Line 31, we let \( \text{count} \) be the number of invocations in the caller and \( \text{offset} \) be the current number of invocations for a callee. The symbolic edge relation between any two invocations \( h_u; v_i \) must satisfy two conditions: (a) \( u < \text{count} \); (b) \( u + \text{offset} = v \).

Condition (a) can be generalized over any invocation count number into a relation \( R_- \). This relation can be easily pre-constructed using BDD in a way that mimics the construction of the hardware comparator [21] for “less than”, as shown in Figure 4.3 (a). Similarly, condition (b) can be generalized over any offset number into a relation \( R_+ \). This relation can be easily pre-constructed using BDD in a way that mimics the hardware adder [21] concatenated with a hardware comparator for equality, as shown in Figure 4.3 (b). Computing the symbolic edge relation then amounts to plugging in the constant values of invocation count and offset into the pre-constructed relations and then finding their conjunction.

We now show that both the space complexity of symbolic invocation graph representation, and the time complexity of its construction algorithm are polynomial with respect to the number of call graph vertices. It is important to note that while the number of contexts, or the number of call graph vertex invocations, are exponential in relation to \( |I| \), the number of BDD variables used to encode the contexts is logarithmic to the number of contexts. Therefore, \( |W^1| \) and \( |W^2| \) is of \( O(|I|) \). On the other hand, it is well-known that the BDD representations of both the adder and comparator circuits are linear with respect to the number of BDD variables, by a corollary of Berman [6]. We can therefore conclude that the size of the generalized relation is
Algorithm 4  Symbolic Invocation Graph Construction.

```plaintext
constructSymbolicInvocationGraph( ) {
    count(0) = 1;
    forall( i ≠ 0 ) count(i) = 0;
    forall( i ∈ I, in topological order using C' ) {
        offset = 0;
        if( SCC⁻¹(i) == {i} ) {
            forall( (j, l, i) ∈ C ) {
                SEj,l,i = constructEdges(offset, count(j));
                offset = offset + count(j);
            }
            count(i) = offset;
        } else {
            forall( x ∈ SCC⁻¹(i) ) {
                forall( (j, l, x) ∈ C, SCC(j) ≠ i ) {
                    SEj,l,x = constructEdges(offset, count(j));
                    offset = offset + count(j);
                }
            }
            forall( x ∈ SCC⁻¹(i) ) {
                forall( (j, l, x) ∈ C, maxSCC(j) == i ) {
                    SEj,l,x = constructEdges(0, offset);
                }
                count(x) = offset;
            }
        }
    }
    constructEdges(offset,count) {
        return R⁺(W¹, offset, W²) ∧ Rₐ(W¹, count);
    }
}
```
Figure 4.3: Construction of helper symbolic relations.
$O(|I|)$. Since BDD conjunction is proportional to the size of its operands only, our conclusion
follows.

## 4.4 Context-Sensitive Analysis

We now demonstrate that the space efficiency achieved by the symbolic invocation graph rep-
resentation can be exploited to achieve an exponential reduction of analysis runtime in practice
as well. The key idea is to compute the state of all invocations of a procedure collectively. Mul-
tiplying an invocation state by its number using Boolean variables from $W^1$ derives what we
call a *predicated invocation state*. We can then compute what we call a *state superposition*,
defined as the sum of all predicated invocation states for the procedure. Note that the state
superposition does not collapse all invocation states together, as the states are distinguished
by their invocation number. In this representation, the state of an individual invocation graph
node can be retrieved from the state superposition easily by multiplying the corresponding
invocation number minterm and then abstracting away the $W^1$ variables.

**Example 12** Consider procedure `alloc` in Example 4, which contains two invocation graph
node instances `alloc_0` and `alloc_1`, where the formal corresponds to the calling path `main → alloc` and the latter corresponds to the calling path `main → get → alloc`. The relevant state
generated for `alloc_0` is $X^1_p X^2_{h_1}$. The relevant state generated for `alloc_1` is $X^1_g X^2_{h_2}$. The state
superposition for `alloc` is $W^1_0 X^1_p X^2_{h_1} + W^1_1 X^1_g X^2_{h_2}$. The state of `alloc_0` can be retrieved from
the state superposition by $\exists W^1 [W^1_0 \land (W^1_0 X^1_p X^2_{h_1} + W^1_1 X^1_g X^2_{h_2})] = X^1_p X^2_{h_1}$.

We modify the recurrence equations to solve the context-sensitive analysis by using the
state superposition and the invocation graph.

Although Equation 4.1 does not change, its output does as the state is superpositioned.
When performing the query on a block the output will be distinguished for each invocation, as
the result consists of the corresponding invocation minterms.
\[
\Theta^i_k = \text{query}(S^i, D_k), \forall k \in K, i \in I \tag{4.1}
\]
\[
\Lambda^i_k = \sum_{(j,i) \in C^{-1}_i} (\exists W^1, [\Theta^i_{B,j,k} \land S \mathcal{E}_{j,i,i}])|W^2 \rightarrow W^1 \tag{4.2}
\]
\[
S^i = \sum_{(j,i) \in C^{-1}_i} (\exists W^1, [S^j \land S \mathcal{E}_{j,i,i}])|W^2 \rightarrow W^1 + \sum_{\forall l,j \in C_{i,j}} \exists W^2, [\text{prune}(S^j)|W^1 \rightarrow W^2 \land S \mathcal{E}_{i,j,l}] + \text{apply}(\hat{T}^i, \Lambda^i, \Theta^i), \forall i \in I \tag{4.3}
\]

In Equation 4.2, we compute the blocks \( k \) points-to in the caller, for each one of the caller invocations. Then, we use the symbolic invocation graph to associate the invocations of the caller to the corresponding invocations in this procedure. By abstracting Boolean variables in \( W^1 \) and then performing the mirror operation to replace \( W^2 \) by \( W^1 \), we map the point-to data for each initial into the current procedure. It is important to note that the symbolic edge relation may capture a very large number of actual invocation edges, therefore the symbolic procedure described above is very efficient. Similarly, in Equation 4.3, such translation between invocations for callers and callees can be computed symbolically. Note that when propagating the state from callee to caller, the point-to relation of callee formal parameters is not propagated. Such pruning can be computed efficiently using the symbolic method [49].

**Example 13** The complete illustration of solving the above equations for Example 4 can be found in Appendix A.
Chapter 5

Experimental Results

Our symbolic pointer analysis tool is implemented in C, and makes use of a compiler infrastructure to translate from several frontends (e.g. C, Java, Verilog, etc.), into an intermediate representation (IR). In the setup pass, the infrastructure traverses the IR generated by the frontends to produce the call graph (CG). Following the setup, an intraprocedural analysis pass is performed on all user-defined procedures in the program, iterating over the instructions and creating the transfer function for each procedure. An interprocedural pass is then applied, which performs either a context-insensitive analysis, or context-sensitive analysis. We use Somenzi’s publicly available CUDD package [42] for BDD implementation. Our current implementation does not support non-local control transfer (setjmp/longjmp calls), location sets [48], and assumes no ill advised use of pointers is made (like random memory accessing via integers). Heap objects are named after the allocation site. Lastly, the C library function’s transfer functions are precomputed and applied as necessary.

The goal of our empirical evaluation is three-fold. Our primary goal is to quantify the speed and space efficiency of the proposed symbolic method which is shown in Section 5.1 and Section 5.2. Our second goal is to verify the context-sensitive analysis is more precise than the context-insensitive analysis, and the results are presented and discussed in Section 5.3. Our third goal is to quantify various BDD-related engineering issues. In Section 5.4 we evaluate
Table 5.1: Benchmark characteristics.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Benchmark suite</th>
<th>name</th>
<th>#lines</th>
<th>#contexts</th>
<th>#blocks</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>prolangs</strong></td>
<td>315</td>
<td>1411</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>136</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>TWMC</td>
<td>24032</td>
<td>6522</td>
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<td></td>
<td>simulator</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>larn</td>
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<td>1750823</td>
<td>6180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>moria</td>
<td>25002</td>
<td>318675286</td>
<td>9446</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>SPEC2000</strong></td>
<td>bzip2</td>
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<td>995</td>
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<td>8218</td>
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<td>905</td>
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<td>16984</td>
<td>179905</td>
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<td>crafty</td>
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<td></td>
<td>twolf</td>
<td>19756</td>
<td>5538</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>MediaBench</strong></td>
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<td>1124</td>
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<td></td>
<td>pegwit</td>
<td>5503</td>
<td>1968</td>
<td>1121</td>
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<td></td>
<td>pgp</td>
<td>28065</td>
<td>199551</td>
<td>5265</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>mpeg2dec</td>
<td>9823</td>
<td>44979</td>
<td>2748</td>
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<td></td>
<td>mpeg2enc</td>
<td>7605</td>
<td>1955</td>
<td>2997</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
the impact of caching, and in Section 5.5 we quantify the impact of lazy garbage collection. Table 5.2 shows the order of Boolean variables assigned to the various sets used in the pointer analysis. The order column indicates which sets are allocated Boolean variables first. In this assignment, a lower order for set $M$ relative to $N$ indicates that all Boolean variables in $M$ will have a lower order than Boolean variables in $N$. The interleaving column indicates that for the Boolean sets in the same order, their variable order will be interleaved. For instance, in $X^1$ the order might be $\{0, 2, 4, \ldots\}$, and for $X^2$ the order will be $\{1, 3, 5, \ldots\}$. We look at the impact of variable reordering in Section 5.6.

Until now we assumed the program does not contain indirect calls, requiring knowledge about function pointers. One way to identify the values of function pointers would be by looking at the set of procedures whose address is taken, and assuming each call resolves to any procedure in this set. Another way would be to apply a fast pointer analysis algorithm, such as Steensgaard’s [43], to resolve function pointers, before the interprocedural analysis. We resolve function pointers dynamically, adding new call graph edges to indirect call sites. In addition, we also construct the symbolic edge relation for affected call graph edges.

With the common analysis framework described earlier, we report results on both context-insensitive analysis (Referred to as CI) and two types of context-sensitive analysis. Referred to as CS I, the first type does not distinguish between call sites in a procedure targeting the same callee. Note that results from [20, 18] are reported with this type of context-sensitivity. Referred to as CS II, the second type does make such a distinction, and it was our observation that the size of contexts involved in CS II is significantly larger than CS I.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Allocation Order</th>
<th>Boolean set</th>
<th>Boolean Variables</th>
<th>Interleaved</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>$X^1$ and $X^2$</td>
<td>$\lceil \log_2</td>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>$Y^1$ and $Y^2$</td>
<td>$\lceil \log_2</td>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>$W^1$ and $W^2$</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.2: Boolean variable sets and their order
We perform our evaluation against three benchmark suites: prolangs [37], the popular benchmark suite from the pointer analysis community, the integer suite in SPEC2000 [1], and finally MediaBench [29]. The prolangs benchmarks were utilized in evaluating the performance of many pointer analysis algorithms, and as such serves as a valid comparison with previous work in this area. The SPEC2000 and MediaBench benchmarks, which are relatively large, are selected to help study the robustness and scalability of our algorithm. The characteristics of the reported benchmarks in this paper are shown in Table 5.1.

The experiment was performed on a Sun Blade 150 workstation with 550 MHz CPU and 128MB RAM, running on Solaris 8 Operating System. The executable was built using gcc-2.93 with the -O2 option.

5.1 Space Efficiency

In Table 5.3 we show the memory consumption of the BDD manager for each benchmark. As it can be seen, the total memory usage never exceeds 11MB. In Figure 5.1, we present a different point of view on the memory consumption of the context-sensitive pointer analysis. The horizontal axis shows the number of contexts in the evaluated benchmarks, which is the number of invocation graph nodes, if an explicit invocation graph representation is used, in log scale. The vertical axis on the right hand side corresponds to the number of BDD nodes used to represent the symbolic invocation graph, and the left vertical axis corresponds to the memory consumption of the BDD manager.

As it can be seen, the memory consumption does not explode as the number of contexts significantly increases. The memory consumption is roughly around 10 MB for most benchmarks. A key reason for the relatively low memory consumption is the symbolic invocation graph, and its space efficiency. From Figure 5.1, the number of BDD nodes required to represent the symbolic invocation graph mostly increases with context count, and never exceeds 60,000; for a benchmark with half a billion contexts. From Figure 5.1, it can be seen that
compared to the corresponding context count, the BDD node count is exponentially smaller.

5.2 Runtime Efficiency

We now demonstrate the runtime efficiency of the proposed symbolic analysis algorithms. The detailed results on runtime and memory statistics for three types of analysis are given in Table 5.3. Here, the time for the setup pass is referred to as the Setup Time. The time it takes the intra-procedural analysis pass to derive all transfer functions is referred to as the Intra-Time. The time it takes for the interprocedural analysis pass to reach a fixed-point is referred to as the Inter-Time.

We draw several observations from the runtime result. First, the runtime of our context-insensitive analysis (CI), based on a loose comparison with [26], is comparable with classical methods such as Andersen’s [4] algorithm. Second, the runtime of type 1 context-sensitive analysis (CS I) is very close to its context-insensitive counterpart. Almost all benchmarks take at most twice as much time to execute. Third, the complete context-sensitive analysis (CS II), is
### Table 5.3: Analysis runtime and space usage results for Mediabench benchmarks.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Benchmarks</th>
<th>Intra time</th>
<th>Inter time</th>
<th>Total time</th>
<th>Memory used</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>gsm</td>
<td>CI 0.80</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>2.259</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CS I 0.84</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>3.768</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CS II 0.90</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>4.238</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mpeg2dec</td>
<td>CI 1.96</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>3.02</td>
<td>4.503</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CS I 1.92</td>
<td>1.44</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>7.696</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CS II 2.38</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>6.22</td>
<td>7.532</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mpeg2enc</td>
<td>CI 2.07</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>4.413</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CS I 2.01</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>6.599</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CS II 2.94</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>6.81</td>
<td>7.048</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pegwit</td>
<td>CI 0.76</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>3.565</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CS I 0.78</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td>2.05</td>
<td>5.589</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CS II 0.84</td>
<td>2.41</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>8.038</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pgp</td>
<td>CI 4.83</td>
<td>7.87</td>
<td>12.70</td>
<td>6.918</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CS I 4.92</td>
<td>15.52</td>
<td>20.44</td>
<td>7.697</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CS II 5.79</td>
<td>50.92</td>
<td>56.71</td>
<td>9.454</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5.3: Analysis runtime and space usage result for SPEC2K benchmarks.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Benchmarks</th>
<th>Intra time (s)</th>
<th>Inter time (s)</th>
<th>Total time (s)</th>
<th>Memory used (MB)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SPEC2000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bzip2</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>3.279</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>3.834</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>4.962</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>crafty</td>
<td>4.97</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>8.22</td>
<td>5.551</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4.91</td>
<td>4.92</td>
<td>9.83</td>
<td>8.048</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.48</td>
<td>26.41</td>
<td>32.89</td>
<td>9.594</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gzip</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>3.496</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>4.072</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>2.03</td>
<td>5.880</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>twolf</td>
<td>10.83</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>14.42</td>
<td>8.503</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10.86</td>
<td>5.77</td>
<td>16.63</td>
<td>7.886</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12.87</td>
<td>13.56</td>
<td>26.43</td>
<td>9.525</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vpr</td>
<td>5.21</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>7.71</td>
<td>5.339</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5.05</td>
<td>6.97</td>
<td>12.02</td>
<td>7.568</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5.80</td>
<td>14.49</td>
<td>20.29</td>
<td>8.899</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5.3: Analysis runtime and space usage result for prolangs benchmarks.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Benchmarks</th>
<th>Intra time (s)</th>
<th>Inter time (s)</th>
<th>Total time (s)</th>
<th>Memory used (MB)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>315 CI</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>1.397</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CS I</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>1.710</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CS II</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>2.827</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T-W-MC CI</td>
<td>9.87</td>
<td>6.56</td>
<td>16.43</td>
<td>8.598</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CS I</td>
<td>10.03</td>
<td>8.39</td>
<td>18.42</td>
<td>8.093</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CS II</td>
<td>13.50</td>
<td>24.91</td>
<td>38.41</td>
<td>9.935</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>larn CI</td>
<td>5.97</td>
<td>16.86</td>
<td>22.83</td>
<td>8.073</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CS I</td>
<td>5.94</td>
<td>22.68</td>
<td>28.62</td>
<td>7.901</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CS II</td>
<td>6.65</td>
<td>88.79</td>
<td>95.44</td>
<td>9.444</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>moria CI</td>
<td>8.19</td>
<td>25.71</td>
<td>33.90</td>
<td>8.369</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CS I</td>
<td>8.20</td>
<td>41.53</td>
<td>49.73</td>
<td>9.790</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CS II</td>
<td>10.09</td>
<td>166.53</td>
<td>176.62</td>
<td>9.622</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>simulator CI</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td>1.57</td>
<td>4.161</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CS I</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>1.73</td>
<td>2.66</td>
<td>5.595</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CS II</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>2.64</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>7.279</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
at most six times slower than its context-insensitive counterpart. Figure 5.2 offers more insight on the dependency of total analysis time versus context count. Once again, the horizontal axis shows the number of contexts in the evaluated benchmarks, which is the number of invocation graph nodes, in log scale. The runtime for the pointer analysis, as well as the construction time of the symbolic invocation graph, for a particular context number, are plotted.

Although the runtime increases with the context count, it can be seen in Figure 5.2 that the symbolic invocation graph construction does not cause the jump in runtime. It is clear that even for a benchmark with half a billion contexts, the symbolic invocation graph can be constructed in a few seconds. We attribute the increase in runtime to the binding at each call site, and the transfer function application.

### 5.3 Precision

Many studies have been performed on the impact of context-sensitivity on analysis precision [36, 20]. Since this study focuses on the runtime of symbolic analysis, other analysis dimen-
sions, such as field sensitivity, heap naming scheme, which could significantly affect the analysis precision, are not included. Our reported results should therefore be taken as a confirmation that context-sensitivity does help improve analysis precision for some benchmarks rather than a basis for a quantitative conclusion. We use the popular metric of average dereference size, defined as the average size of a point-to set for each memory load or store in the program. The dereference sizes for all three types of analysis are plotted for comparison. As in [20], we normalize the metric to the context-insensitive analysis result. It can be observed that while large improvement can sometimes result with the context-sensitive analysis, the difference between the two types of context-sensitive analysis is usually minor.

5.4 Impact of Caching

An extremely important technique that can help speed up the analysis time is the use of caching to store the result of a BDD computation. The cache is keyed by a signature consisting of the
type of a BDD computation, as well as its operands, which are also BDDs. Thanks to the canonical property of BDD, common BDD computation, that shares the same result, can be easily identified by the signature, and the result can be reused on a large scale. This efficiency is in essence the same as the dynamic programming principle: if a subproblem can be uniquely identified, it should be solved only once, and its result should be shared by other upper-level problems. The use of BDD allows dynamic programming to be applied at a very fine grain level, which is otherwise very hard to identify manually. As such, a higher cache hit rate will usually translate into improved performance, since a successful cache lookup requires fewer computations than a BDD operation. It is obvious that the size of cache may impact the cache hit rate.

In the CUDD package [42], the cache is used to store the results of basic BDD operations such as AND, OR, and many others. In Figure 5.4 we plot the hit rate for selected benchmarks, using different cache sizes. It can be observed that a large cache size, in general, leads to a higher hit rate. On the other hand, up to a certain limit, increasing the cache size does not increase the hit rate.

In our experiments the cache hit rate usually ranges from 40% to 60%. We also observe a lower cache hit rate in the context-sensitive analysis. This can be explained by the higher memory consumption in context-sensitive analysis, which forces the BDD manager to evict nodes out of the cache.

### 5.5 Impact of Lazy Garbage Collection

Garbage collection is a very important factor in the performance of a BDD package. When performing computations on a BDD package, nodes are generated, and the nature of the BDD dictates that some will be reachable from others. In addition, many BDD nodes are shared because of the canonical property of the BDD. As we try to garbage collect a BDD node, we must also garbage collect its descendants, but the descendants may be shared with other BDD
nodes. Hence, while the canonical property contributes to the space efficiency of the BDD, it makes garbage collection difficult.

The CUDD uses a technique called lazy garbage collection, keeping a reference count for each BDD node. When the reference count of a BDD node goes to zero, its memory needs to be reclaimed, or garbage collected. On the other hand, there is a high chance that this BDD node may be re-created later. The CUDD package uses garbage collection lazily, that is, heap space for nodes is reclaimed only when a threshold value of heap size is exceeded.

To see how lazy garbage collection can affect analysis speed, we demonstrate the time spent on garbage collection, versus other processing time, for selected benchmarks, under different threshold heap size values. The results are plotted in Figure 5.5, where the horizontal axis lists the benchmarks, and the vertical axis shows the time spent in either garbage collection or processing. It can be observed that in general a larger heap size will reduce the amount of time spent on garbage collection, and therefore, the overall analysis speed. On the other hand, there is almost nothing to gain if the threshold is increased beyond a certain value.
5.6 **Impact of Variable Reordering**

Boolean variable ordering can have an impact on both the size and runtime of BDD computations. Dynamic variable reordering was attempted in order to determine the potential improvements in terms of space and runtime. Sifting, commonly regarded as the best reordering algorithm, was used to dynamically reorder the BDD variables in the program.

In Figure 5.6(a) we plot a bar graph of the runtime of selected benchmarks, distinguishing between the time spent on variable reorder, and regular computations, for CS II. In all benchmarks there is a reduction in processing runtime, ranging from a factor of 1.1 to a factor of 2.6. Hence, we conclude that the variable reordering can reduce runtime by constant order. Note that the overhead of dynamic variable ordering is quite large, and static variable ordering may not yield optimal results.

In Figure 5.6(b) we plot a bar graph of the space consumption for selected benchmarks, with variable reordering and without. As it can be seen, the space reductions are negligible for most benchmarks, and in the case of moria, the space requirements increase. We attribute the
(a) Time spent on variable reordering.

(b) Memory size with/without variable reordering.

Figure 5.6: Variable Reordering

space increase in moria to a tradeoff involving the runtime decrease shown in Figure 5.6(a).
Chapter 6

Conclusion

In this thesis, we present a new Boolean formalism for pointer analysis. The Boolean formalism enables the use of Binary Decision Diagram to achieve both space and speed efficiency. In addition, we introduce the concept of the symbolic invocation graph, which reduces the exponential complexity of the invocation graph construction into a polynomial complexity with respect to the number of call graph nodes. We further introduce the concept of state superposition, allowing us to represent the state of an arbitrary number of procedure invocations in one Boolean formula. Using these concepts, we derive a common framework for both context-sensitive and context-insensitive pointer analysis.

Based on our study, we conclude that the key concepts proposed, namely symbolic transfer function and symbolic invocation graph, can effectively reduce the runtime of the otherwise expensive context-sensitive analysis to one comparable to its context-insensitive counterpart.

From this work we gained much insight into the use of the symbolic method for pointer analysis. In the future we plan on leveraging this knowledge, and in particular, modifying the Boolean formalism to perform the entire pointer analysis symbolically. There are many other precision improvements to consider as well. For instance, using the symbolic method to compute a flow-sensitive pointer analysis solution. In addition, we can consider field-sensitivity, which distinguishes between record fields of a data structure, and more importantly,
the iteration-sensitive pointer analysis, which distinguishes between various array elements.
Bibliography


APPENDIX

A Solution Process Illustration

Here we show the complete fixed-point iteration process to derive the point-to graph for the program in Figure 3.1. This is done by solving recurrence equations 3.3, 3.2, and 3.4 for the context-insensitive analysis (CI); and recurrence equations 4.2, 4.1, and 4.3 for the context-sensitive analysis (CS). For the economy of space, those values that are unchanged during the iterations are listed separately in the row marked as “Unchanged values”. For fast convergence, the procedure states are evaluated in a bottom-up fashion along the call graph. For presentation clarity, the augmented transfer functions are not used. In addition the pruning process is applied for both analysis and therefore formal parameter states are not propagated to callers.

Relations

\[
\begin{align*}
T^0 &= T^{main} = X_g^1X_a^2 \\
T^1 &= T^{getg} = X_t^1X_{\lambda_2}^1 + X_t^1X_g^2 + X_{\theta_2}^1X_{\theta_3}^2 \\
T^2 &= T^{alloc} = X_f^1X_{\lambda_0}^1 + X_h^1X_{\lambda_1}^1 + X_{\theta_0}^1X_{\theta_1}^2
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
B_{0,0,0} &= 4 \\
B_{0,0,1} &= 7 \\
B_{0,1,0} &= 5 \\
B_{1,2,0} &= 6 \\
B_{1,2,1} &= 8
\end{align*}
\]

- \(C_{0,0} = \{2\}\)  \(Q_{0,0} = W_0^1W_0^2\)
- \(C_{0,1} = \{1\}\)  \(Q_{0,1} = W_0^1W_0^2\)
- \(C_{1,2} = \{2\}\)  \(Q_{1,2} = W_0^1W_1^2\)

We begin the pointer analysis by computing the initial values which are the same for both the context-sensitive and context-insensitive analysis. To simplify the illustration, we also derive the values for certain transfer function parameters that do not change, and hence, do not have to be recomputed.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Initial Values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$S^0 = S^1 = S^2 = X_g^1 X_a^2 + X_1^1 X_g^1$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Theta_0 = \Theta_1 = \Theta_2 = 0$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Theta_3 = \text{query}(S^1, (t, 2)) = X_a^2$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unchanged Values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$\Theta_4 = \text{query}(S^0, (p, 0)) = X_p^2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Theta_5 = \text{query}(S^0, (q, 0)) = X_q^2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Theta_6 = \text{query}(S^1, (t, 1)) = X_g^2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Theta_7 = \text{query}(S^0, (h1, 0)) = X_{h1}^2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Theta_8 = \text{query}(S^1, (h2, 0)) = X_{h2}^2$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| CI |
| $\Lambda_0 = \Theta_{B(0,0,0)} + \Theta_{B(1,2,0)} = X_p^2 + X_g^2$ |
| $\Lambda_1 = \Theta_{B(0,0,1)} + \Theta_{B(1,2,1)} = X_{h1}^2 + X_{h2}^2$ |
| $\Lambda_2 = \Theta_{B(0,1,1)} = X_q^2$ |

| CS |
| $\Lambda_0 = W_0^1 X_p^2 + W_1^1 X_g^2$ |
| $\Lambda_1 = W_0^1 X_{h1}^2 + W_1^1 X_{h2}^2$ |
| $\Lambda_2 = W_0^0 X_q^2$ |
The recurrence equations for both the context-insensitive and context-sensitive pointer analysis are solved in the next two pages. Note that the fixed-point is reached after 4 iterations. In the context-sensitive analysis $p$ does not point-to $h_2$. Furthermore, $g$ does not point-to $h_1$, and as such, $q$ does not point-to $h_1$ as well. Thus, the context-sensitive pointer analysis improves precision over the context-insensitive counterpart for the program in Figure 3.1.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Iteration</th>
<th>States</th>
<th>Finals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S²</td>
<td>$X_g^1 X_a^2 + X_i^1 X_g^2 + X_f^1 X_p^2 + X_r^1 X_q^2 + X_r^1 X_q^2$</td>
<td>$\Theta_0 = X_p^2 + X_g^2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$+ X_f^1 X_h^2 + X_i^1 X_h^2$</td>
<td>$\Theta_1 = X_h^2 + X_g^2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S¹</td>
<td>$X_g^1 X_a^2 + X_i^1 X_g^2 + X_r^1 X_q^2$</td>
<td>$\Theta_2 = X_q^2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S⁰</td>
<td>$X_g^1 X_a^2 + X_i^1 X_g^2$</td>
<td>$\Theta_3 = X_a^2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iteration</td>
<td>States</td>
<td>Finals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>$S^2 = X_g^2X_a + X_g^2X_g + W_0X_g^2X_p + W_1X_g^2X_g^2 + W_0X_gX_g^2 + W_1X_gX_g^2 + W_1X_gX_g^2$</td>
<td>$\Theta_0 = W_0X_p^2 + W_1X_g^2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>$\Theta_1 = W_0X_{h_1} + W_1X_{h_2}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$S^1 = X_g^2X_a + X_g^2X_g + W_0X_gX_g^2 + X_g^2X_g^2$</td>
<td>$\Theta_2 = W_0X_q^2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$S^0 = X_g^2X_a + X_gX_g^2$</td>
<td>$\Theta_3 = X_a^2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>$S^2 = X_g^2X_a + X_g^2X_g + W_0X_g^2X_p + W_1X_g^2X_g^2 + W_0X_gX_g^2 + W_1X_gX_g^2$</td>
<td>$\Theta_0 = W_0X_p^2 + W_1X_g^2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>$\Theta_1 = W_0X_{h_1} + W_1X_{h_2}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$S^1 = X_g^2X_a + X_g^2X_g + W_0X_gX_g^2 + X_g^2X_g^2$</td>
<td>$\Theta_2 = W_0X_q^2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>$\Theta_3 = X_a^2 + W_0X_{h_1}^2$</td>
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<td>$S^0 = X_g^2X_a + X_gX_g^2$</td>
<td>$\Theta_3 = X_a^2 + W_0X_{h_1}^2$</td>
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<td>$\Theta_1 = W_0X_{h_1} + W_1X_{h_2}$</td>
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<td>$\Theta_2 = W_0X_q^2$</td>
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