### Static Race Detection for C

Jeff Foster University of Maryland

### **Introduction**

- · Concurrent programming is hard
  - Google for "notoriously difficult" and "concurrency"
     58.300 hits
- · One particular problem: data races
  - Two threads access the same location "simultaneously," and one access is a write

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### Consequences of Data Races

- · Data races cause real problems
  - 2003 Northeastern US blackout
  - One of the "top ten bugs of all time" due to races
    - http://www.wired.com/news/technology/bugs/1,69355-0.html
    - · 1985-1987 Therac-25 medical accelerator
- · Race-free programs are easier to understand
  - Many semantics for concurrent languages assume correct synchronization
  - It's hard to define a memory model that supports unsynchronized accesses

Static Race Det  $C_if_i$  (The Java Memory Model, recent added to Java Spec

### Avoiding Data Races

- The most common technique:
  - Locations r
  - Locks I
  - Correlation: r@|
    - · Location r is accessed when I is held
  - Consistent correlation
    - · Any shared location is only ever correlated with one lock
    - We say that that lock *guards* that location
  - Implies race freedom
- Not the only technique for avoiding races!
- But it's simple, easy to understand, and common  $$_{\mbox{\scriptsize Static Race Detection for C}}$$

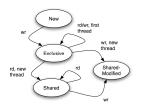
### Eraser [Savage et al, TOCS 1997]

- A dynamic tool for detecting data races based on this technique
  - Locks\_held(t) = set of locks held by thread t
  - For each r, set  $C(r) := \{ all locks \}$
  - On each access to r by thread t,
    - $C(r) := C(r) \cap locks\_held(t)$
    - If C(r) = 0, issue a warning

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An Improvement

- Unsynchronized reads of a shared location are OK
  - As long as no on writes to the field after it becomes shared
- Track state of each field
  - Only enforce locking protocol when location shared and written



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### Safety and Liveness Tradeoffs

- Programs should be safe, so that they do not have data races
  - Adding locking is one way to achieve safety
  - (Note: not the only way)
- Programs should be live, so that they make progress
  - Removing locking is one way to achieve liveness!

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### Data Races in Practice

- · Programmers worry about performance
  - A good reason to write a concurrent program!
  - Hence want to avoid unnecessary synchornization
- ==> Ok to do unsafe things that "don't matter"
  - Update a counter
    - · Often value does not need to be exact
    - But what if it's a reference count, or something critical?
  - Algorithm works ok with a stale value
    - The algorithm will "eventually" see the newest values
    - · Need deep reasoning here, about algorithm and platform
  - And others

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### Concurrent Programming in C

- · Many important C programs are concurrent
  - E.g., Linux, web servers, etc
- Concurrency is usually provided by a library
  - Not baked into the language
  - But there is a POSIX thread specification
  - Linux kernel uses its own model, but close

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### A Static Analysis Against Races

- Goal: Develop a tool for determining whether a C program is race-free
- Design criteria:
  - Be sound: Complain if there is a race
  - Handle locking idioms commonly-used in C programs
  - Don't require many annotations
    - In particular, do not require the program to describe which locations are guarded by what locks
  - Scale to large programs

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### Oops — We Can't Do This!

- Rice's Theorem: No computer program can precisely determine anything interesting about arbitrary source code
  - Does this program terminate?
  - Does this program produce value 42?
  - Does this program raise an exception?
  - Is this program correct?

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### The Art of Static Analysis

- Programmers don't write arbitrarily complicated programs
- Programmers have ways to control complexity
  - Otherwise they couldn't make sense of them
- Target: Be precise for the programs that programmers want to write
  - It's OK to forbid yucky code in the name of safety

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### Outline

- · C locking idioms
- · Alias analysis
  - An overview
  - Alias analysis via type systems
- · Extend to infer correlations
- · Making it work in practice for C
- · Context-sensitivity via CFL reachability
- · Using alias analysis to detect sharing

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### A Hypothetical Program: Part 1

```
lock_t log_lock; /* guards logfd, bw */
int logfd, bw = 0;
void log(char *msg) {
  int len = strlen(msg);
  lock(&log_lock);
  bw += len;
  write(logfd, msg, len);
  unlock(&log_lock);
}

Acquires log_lock to protect access to logfd, bw
  However, assumes caller has necessary locks to guard *msg

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```

### A Hypothetical Program: Part 2

```
struct job {
    lock_t j_lock: /* guards worklist and cnt */
    struct job *next;
    void *worklist;
    unsigned cnt;
    };
    lock_t list_lock; /* guards list backbone */
    struct job *joblist;

Data structures can include locks
    Sometimes locks guard individual elements, sometimes they
    guard sets of elements (and sometimes even more complex)

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```

### A Hypothetical Program: Part 3

```
void logger() { ...
    lock(&list_lock);
    for (j = joblist; j != NULL; j = j->next) {
        cnt++;
        if (trylock(&j->job_lock)) {
            sprintf(msg, "...", cnt, j->cnt);
            log(msg);
            unlock(&j->job_lock);
        }
    } unlock(&list_lock); ... }

trylock returns false (and does not block) if lock already held
    locking appears at arbitrary program points
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```

### A Hypothetical Program: Part 4

```
int main(int argc, char **argv) {...
  for (i = 0; i < n; i++) {
    struct job *x = malloc(sizeof(struct job));
    /* initialize x */
    fork(worker, x);
  }
}

x is thead-local during initialization, and only becomes shared once thread is forked
and all of this happens within a loop</pre>

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```

### Summary: Key Idioms

- · Locks can be acquired or released anywhere
  - Not like synchronized blocks in Java
- · Locks protect static data and heap data
  - And locks themselves are both global and in data structures
- Functions can be polymorphic in the relationship between locks and locations
- · Much data is thread-local
- Either always, or up until a particular point
- No locking needed while thread-local

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### Other Possible Idioms (Not Handled)

- · Locking can be path-sensitive
  - if (foo) lock(&x) ... if (foo) unlock(&x)
- · Reader/writer locking
- · Ownership of data may be transferred
  - E.g., thread-local data gets put into a shared buffer, then pulled out, at which point it becomes thread-local to another thread

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### First Task: Understand Pointers

- We need to know a lot about pointers to build a tool to handle these idioms
  - We need to know which locations are accessed
  - We need to know what locks are being acquired and released
  - We need to know which locations are shared and which are thread local
- · The solution: Perform an alias analysis

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### Alias Analysis

### Introduction

- Aliasing occurs when different names refer to the same thing
  - Typically, we only care for imperative programs
  - The usual culprit: pointers
- · A core building block for other analyses
  - ...\*p = 3; // What does p point to?
- · Useful for many languages
  - C- lots of pointers all over the place
  - Java "objects" point to updatable memory
- ML ML has updatable references

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### May Alias Analysis

- p and q may alias if it's possible that p and q might point to the same address
- If not (p may alias q), then a write through p does not affect memory pointed to by q
  - ...\*p = 3; x = \*q; // write through p doesn't affect x
- · Most conservative may alias analysis?
  - Everything may alias everything else

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### Must Alias Analysis

- p and q must alias if p and q do point to the same address
  - If p must alias q, then p and q refer to the same memory
  - ...\*p = 3; x = \*q; // x is 3
- What's the most conservative must alias analysis?
  - Nothing must alias anything

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### Early Alias Analysis (Landi and Ryder)

- · Expressed as computing alias pairs
  - E.g., (\*p, \*q) means p and q may point to same memory
- · Issues?
  - There could be many alias pairs
    - · (\*p, \*q), (p->a, q->a), (p->b, q->b), ...
  - What about cyclic data structures?
    - (\*p, p->next), (\*p, p->next->next), ...

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### Points-to Analysis (Emami, Ghiya, Hendren)

- · Determine set of locations p may point to
  - E.g.,  $(p, \{\&x\})$  means p may point to the location x
  - To decide if p and q alias, see if their points-to sets overlap
- · More compact representation
- · Need to name locations in the program
  - Pick a finite set of possible location names
    - No problem with cyclic structures
  - $\times$  = malloc(...); // where does  $\times$  point to?
    - · (x, {malloc@257}) "the malloc at line 257"

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### Flow-Sensitivity

- An analysis is flow-sensitive if it tracks state changes
  - E.g., data flow analysis is flow-sensitive
- An analysis is *flow-insensitive* if it discards the order of statements
  - E.g., type systems are flow-insensitive
- Flow-sensitivity is much more expensive, but also more precise

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### Example

p = &x;

p = &y;

\*p = &z;

Flow-sensitive: Flow-insensitive:

p = &x; // (p, {&x})

(p, {&x, &y})

 $p = &y; // (p, {&y})$ 

(x, &z)

\*p = &z; // (p, {&y}), (y, {&z})

(y, &z)

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### A Simple Language

- · We'll develop an alias analysis for ML
  - We'll talk about applying this to C later on

e ::= x variables integers | \x:t.e functions lee application | if0 e then e else e conditional | let x = e in ebinding ref e allocation l le derefernce le := e assignment

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### Aliasing in this Language

- · ref creates an updatable reference
  - It's like malloc followed by initialization
- That pointer can be passed around the program

let x = ref 0 in let y = x in

y := 3; // updates !x

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### Label Flow for Points-to Analysis

- · We're going to extend references with labels
  - e ::= ... | refr e | ...
  - Here r labels this particular memory allocation
    - Like malloc@257, identifies a line in the program
      Drawn from a finite set of labels R
  - For now, programmers add these
- · Goal of points-to analysis: determine set of labels a pointer may refer to

let 
$$x = ref^{Rx} 0$$
 in

let 
$$y = x$$
 in

Static Race Dection Total / y may point to { Rx }

### Type-Based Alias Analysis

- · We're going to build an alias analysis out of type inference
  - If you're familiar with ML type inference, that what we're going to do
- · We'll use labeled types in our analysis
  - $t := int \mid t \rightarrow t \mid ref^r t$
  - If we have  $! \times$  or  $\times := ...$ , we can decide what location x may point to by looking at its ref type

### A Type Checking System

$$A \mid -- \times : A(x)$$

$$A, x:t \mid --e:t'$$
 $|-- \ x:t.e:t \to t'$ 
 $A \mid --e1:t \to t' \quad A \mid --e2:t$ 
 $A \mid --e1:e2:t'$ 

### A Type Checking System (cont'd)

### Example

let 
$$x = ref^{Rx} 0$$
 in

let 
$$y = x$$
 in  $y := 3$ ;

- x has type ref<sup>Rx</sup> int

- y must have the same type as  $\times$
- Therefore at assignment, we know which location y refers to

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### Another Example

let  $x = ref^R 0$  in

let  $y = ref^R 0$  in

let  $w = ref^{Rw} O$  in

let z = if0 42 then x else y in

z := 3;

- x and y both have type  $ref^R$  int
  - · They must have this type because they are conflated by if
- At assignment, we write to location R
  - Notice that we don't know which of x, y we write to
- But we do know that we don't affect w

### Yet Another Example

let x = ref<sup>R</sup> 3 let y = ref<sup>Ry</sup> x let z = ref<sup>R</sup> 4 y := z

- Both x and z have the same label
- y has type ref<sup>Ry</sup> (ref<sup>R</sup> int)
  - Notice we don't know after the assignment whether y points to x or z

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### Things to Notice

- · We have a finite set of labels
  - One for each occurrence of ref in the program
  - A label may stand for more than one run-time loc
- Whenever two labels "meet" in the type system, they must be the same
  - Where does this happen in the rules?
- The system is flow-insensitive
  - Types don't change after assignment

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### The Need for Type Inference

- · In practice, we don't have labeled programs
  - We need inference
- Given an unlabeled program that satisfies a standard type system, does there exist a valid labelina?
  - That labeling is our alias analysis

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### Type Checking vs. Type Inference

- · Let's think about C's type system
  - C requires programmers to annotate function types
  - ...but not other places
    - E.g., when you write down 3 + 4, you don't need to give that a type
  - So all type systems trade off programmer annotations vs. computed information
- Type checking = it's "obvious" how to check
- Type inference = it's "more work" to check

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### A Type Inference Algorithm

- · We'll follow the standard approach
  - Introduce label variables a, which stand for unknowns
    - · Now r may be either a constant R or a variable a
- · Traverse the code of the unlabeled program
- Generate a set of constraints
- · Solve the constraints to find a labeling
  - No solution ==> no valid labeling

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### Step 1: Introducing Labels

- Problem 1: In the ref rule, we don't know what label to assign to the ref
  - Solution: Introduce a fresh unknown
    - $\boldsymbol{\cdot}$  Why do we need to pick a variable rather than a constant?

 $A \mid --e:t$  a fresh  $A \mid --ref^a e: ref^a t$ 

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### Step 1: Introducing Labels (cont'd)

- Problem 2: In the function rule, we don't know what type to give to the argument
  - Assume we are given a standard type s (no labels)
  - Make up a new type with fresh labels everywhere · We'll write this as fresh(s)

$$\frac{A, x:t \mid --e:t' \quad t = fresh(s)}{A \mid -- \setminus x:s.e:t \rightarrow t'}$$

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### Step 2: Adding Constraints

- Problem 3: Some rules implicitly require types to be equal
  - We will make this explicit with *equality constraints*

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### Step 2: Adding Constraints (cont'd)

- · Notice we're assuming that e1 is a ref
  - That was part of our assumption we assumed the program was safe according to the standard types

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### Step 2: Adding Constraints (cont'd)

$$A \mid --e1: t \rightarrow t' \quad A \mid --e2: t2 \quad t = t2$$

$$A \mid --e1: e2: t'$$

· Again, we're assuming e1 is a function

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### Constraint Resolution

- After applying the rules, we are left with a set of equality constraints
  - t1 = t2
- · We'll solve the constraints via rewriting
  - We'll simplify more complex constraints into simpler constraints
  - S ==> S' rewrite constraints S to constraints S'

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### Constraint Resolution via Unification

- S + { int = int } ==> S
- · S + { †1 → †2 = †1' → †2' } ==>
  - S + { †1' = †1 } + { †2 = †2' }
- $S + \{ ref^{a1} + 1 = ref^{a2} + 2 \} ==>$ 
  - S + { t1 = t2 } + { a1 = a2 }
- S + { mismatched constructors } ==> error
  - Can't happen if program correct w.r.t. std types
- · Claim 1: This algorithm always terminates
- Claim 2: When it terminates, we are left with equalities among labels

### Constraint Resolution via Unification (cont'd)

- · Last step:
  - Computes sets of labels that are equal (e.g., using
  - Assign each equivalence class its own constant label

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### Example

```
let x = ref 0 in
                                // x : refa int
let y = ref 0 in
                               // y : refb int
let w = ref 0 in
                               // w : refc int
let z = if0 42 then x else y in // z: ref^a, ref^a = ref^b
                               // write to refa
```

- Solving constraint refa = refb yields a = b
- So we have two equivalence classes
  - {a,b} and {c}
  - Each one gets a label, e.g., R1 and R2

### Example

```
let x = ref 0 in
                                       //x: ref<sup>R1</sup> int
let y = ref 0 in
                                       // y : ref<sup>R1</sup> int
let w = ref 0 in
                                       // w : ref<sup>R2</sup> int
let z = if0 42 then x else y in // z: ref^{R1}
                                       // write to ref<sup>R1</sup>
   z := 3;
```

- Solving constraint refa = refb yields a = b
- So we have two equivalence classes
  - {a,b} and {c}
  - Each one gets a label, e.g., R1 and R2

### Steensgaard's Analysis

- · Flow-insensitive
- Context-insensitive
- Unification-based
  - = Steensgaard's Analysis
  - (In practice, Steensgaard's analysis includes stuff for type casts, etc)
- Properties
  - Very scalable
  - · Complexity?

Static PacSomewhat imprecise

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### Limitation of Unification

· Modification of previous example:

```
// x : ref^{R1} int
let x = ref 0 in
let y = ref 0 in
                                      // y : ref<sup>R1</sup> int
let z = if0 42 then x else y in 1/z: ref^{R1}
                                      // write to ref<sup>R1</sup>
                                      // write to ref<sup>R1</sup>
```

- · We're equating labels that may alias
  - Gives "backward flow" -- the fact that  $\times$  and y are merged "downstream" (in z) causes x and y to be equivalent everywhere

### Subtyping

- · We can solve this problem using subtyping
  - Each label variable now stands for a set of labels
    - In unification, a variable could only stand for one label
  - We'll write [a] for the set represented by a • And [R] = {R} for a constant R
- Ex: let x have type refa int
  - Suppose [a] = {R1, R2}
  - Then x may point to location R1 or R2
  - ...and R1 and R2 may themselves stand for multiple locations

### Labels on ref

- · Slightly different approach to labeling
  - Assume that each ref has a unique constant label
     Generate a fresh one for each syntactic occurrence
  - Generate a fresh one for each syntactic occurrence
     Add a fresh variable, and generate a subtyping
  - Add a tresh variable, and generate a subtyping constraint between the constant and variable
     a1 ≤ a2 means [a1] ⊆ [a2]

$$\frac{A \mid --e: t \quad R \le a \quad a \text{ fresh}}{A \mid --ref^R e: ref^a t}$$

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### Subtype Inference

- · Same basic approach as before
  - Walk over source code, generate constraints
  - Now want to allow subsets rather than equalities

A |-- e1: int A |-- e2: refr² t A |-- e3: refr³ t   

$$r2 \le r$$
  $r3 \le r$ 

A |-- if0 e1 then e2 else e3: refr t

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### Subtyping Constraints

- Need to generalize to arbitrary types
  - Think of types as representing sets of values
    - E.g., int represents the set of integers
    - So ref  $^{\rm r}$  int represents the set of pointers to integers that are labeled with  $[\rm r]$
  - Extend  $\leq$  to a relation t  $\leq$  t on types

$$\frac{r1 \le r2 \quad \text{int} \le \text{int}}{\text{int} \le \text{int}}$$

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### Subsumption

- · Add one new rule to the system
  - And leave remaining rules alone

- If we think that e has type t, and t is a subtype of
- t', then e also has type t'
- We can use a subtype anywhere a supertype is expected

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### Example

let 
$$x = ref^{Rx} 0$$
 in //  $x : ref^a$  int,  $Rx \le a$   
let  $y = ref^{Ry} 1$  in //  $y : ref^b$  int,  $Ry \le b$   
let  $z = if 42$  then  $x$  else  $y$  in  $x := 3$ 

- At conditional, need types of  $\times$  and y to match

A |-- x : ref<sup>c</sup> int - Thus we have z : ref<sup>c</sup> int with a s c and b s c

- Thus we have  $2 \cdot \text{Per}^2$  in with  $4 \cdot \text{C}$  and  $b \cdot \text{C}$ Static Race  $\frac{1}{2}$  et al. (Ry),  $c = \{Rx, Ry\}$ 

### Subtyping References (cont'd)

· Let's try generalizing to arbitrary types

$$r1 \le r2 \quad t1 \le t2$$

$$ref^{r1} t1 \le ref^{r2} t2$$

· This rule is broken

```
let x = ref^{Rx} (ref^{Rx} 0) in // x : ref^{a} (ref^{b} int), Rx' \le b

let y = x in // y : ref^{c} (ref^{d} int), b \le d

y := ref^{Cops} 0 // Cops \le d

!!x := 3 // dereference of b
```

Can pick b = {Rx'}, d = {Rx', Oops}

Then write via b doesn't look like it's writing Oops
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### You've Got Aliasing!

- We have multiple names for the same memory location
  - But they have different types
  - And we can write into memory at different types



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### Solution #1: Java's Approach

- · Java uses this subtyping rule
  - If S is a subclass of T, then S[] is a subclass of T[]
- · Counterexample:
  - Foo[] a = new Foo[5];
  - Object[] b = a;
  - b[0] = new Object();
  - a[0].foo();
  - Write to b[0] forbidden at runtime, so last line cannot happen

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### Solution #2: Purely Static Approach

· Require equality "under" a ref

$$\frac{r1 \le r2 \quad t1 \le t2 \quad t2 \le t1}{ref^{r1} t1 \le ref^{r2} t2}$$

or

$$r1 \le r2$$
  $t1 = t2$   
 $ref^{r1} t1 \le ref^{r2} t2$ 

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### Subtyping on Function Types

· What about function types?

- Recall: S is a subtype of T if an S can be used anywhere a T is expected
  - When can we replace a call "f  $\times$ " with a call "g  $\times$ "?

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### Replacing "f x" by "g x"

- When is  $\underbrace{11' \rightarrow 12'} \leq \underbrace{11 \rightarrow 12}$ ?
- · Return type:
  - We are expecting t2 (f's return type)
  - So we can only return at most t2
  - **-** †2′ ≤ †2
- Example: A function that returns a pointer to {R1, R2} can be treated as a function that returns a pointer to {R1, R2, R3}

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### Replacing "f x" by "g x" (cont'd)

- When is  $\underbrace{1^{1} \rightarrow 12^{2}}_{} \le \underbrace{11 \rightarrow 12}_{}$ ?
- Argument type:
  - We are supposed to accept t1 (f's argument type)
  - So we must accept at least t1
  - +1 ≤ +1'
- Example: A function that accepts a pointer to {R1, R2, R3} can be passed a pointer to {R1, R2}

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### Subtyping on Function Types

- We say that → is
  - Covariant in the range (subtyping dir the same)
  - Contravariant in the domain (subtyping dir flips)

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### Where We Are

- · We've built a unification-based alias analysis
- · We've built a subtyping-based alias analysis
  - But it's still only a checking system
- · Next steps
  - Turning this into inference
  - Adding context-sensitivity

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### The Problem: Subsumption

- · We're allowed to apply this rule at any time
  - Makes it hard to develop a deterministic algorithm
  - Type checking is not syntax driven
- · Fortunately, we don't have that many choices
  - For each expression e, we need to decide
    - · Do we apply the "regular" rule for e?
    - · Or do we apply subsumption (how many times)?

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### Getting Rid of Subsumption

- Lemma: Multiple sequential uses of subsumption can be collapsed into a single use
  - Proof: Transitivity of  $\leq$
- So now we need only apply subsumption once after each expression

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### Getting Rid of Subsumption (cont'd)

- · We can get rid of the separate subsumption rule
  - Integrate into the rest of the rules

$$\frac{A \mid --e1: t \to t' \quad A \mid --e2: t2 \quad t = t2}{A \mid --e1: e2: t'}$$

becomes

$$A \mid --e1:t \to t'$$
  $A \mid --e2:t2$   $t2 \le t$   
 $A \mid --e1:e2:t'$ 

Apply the same reasoning to the other rules
 We're left with a purely syntax-directed system?

### Constraint Resolution: Step 1

- $S + \{ int \leq int \} \Longrightarrow S$
- 5 + { †1 → †2 ≤ †1' → †2' } ==>
  - $S + \{ \dagger 1' \le \dagger 1 \} + \{ \dagger 2 \le \dagger 2' \}$
- $S + \{ ref^{r1} t1 \le ref^{r2} t2 \} == >$ 
  - $5 + \{ t1 \le t2 \} + \{ t2 \le t1 \} + \{ r1 \le r2 \}$
- $S + \{ mismatched constructors \} ==> error$

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### Constraint Resolution: Step 2

- Our type system is called a structural subtyping system
  - If  $t \le t'$ , then t and t' have the same shape
- When we're done with step 1, we're left with constraints of the form  $r1 \le r2$ 
  - Where r1 and r2 are constants R or variables a
  - This is called an atomic subtyping system
  - That's because there's no "structure" left

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### Finding a Least Solution

- Our goal: compute a least solution to the remaining constraints
  - For each variable, compute a minimal set of constants satisfying the constraints
- One more rewriting rule: transitive closure
  - $S + \{ r1 \le r2 \} + \{ r2 \le r3 \} +==> \{ r1 \le r3 \}$ 
    - · +==> means add rhs constraint without removing lhs constraints
  - Apply this rule until no new constraints generated
  - Then [a] =  $\{ R \mid R \le a \text{ is a constraint in S } \}$

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### **Graph Reachability**

· Think of a constraint as a directed edge

$$R1 \le a$$
 $R2 \le b$ 
 $R1$ 
 $a \le c$ 
 $b \le a$ 

- Use graph reachability to compute solution
  - · Compute set of constants that reach each variable
    - E.g., [c] = [a] = {R1, R2}, [b] = {R2}
- · Complexity?

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### Andersen's Analysis

- · Flow-insensitive
- · Context-insensitive
- · Subtyping-based
  - = Andersen's analysis
  - ~= Das's "one-level flow"
- Properties
  - Still very scalable in practice
  - Much less coarse than Steensgaard's analysis
  - Can still be improved (will see later)

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### Back to Race Detection

### Programming Against Races

- Recall our model:
  - Locations r
  - Locks I
  - Correlation: r@1
    - · Location r is accessed when I is held
  - Consistent correlation
    - $\boldsymbol{\cdot}$  Any shared location is only ever correlated with one lock
    - We say that that lock *quards* that location
    - · Implies race freedom

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### Applying Alias Analysis

- · Recall our model:
  - Locations r
    - · Drawn from a set of constant labels R, plus variables a
    - · We'll get these from (may) alias analysis
  - Locks I
    - · Hm...need to think about these
    - $\boldsymbol{\cdot}$  Draw from a set of constant lock labels L, plus variables m
  - Correlation: r@1
    - Hm...need to associate locks and locations somehow
    - · Let's punt this part

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-

### Lambda-Corr

· A small language with "locations" and "locks"

```
\begin{array}{lll} e::=x\mid n\mid \backslash x:t.e\mid e\mid e\mid if0\; e\; then\; e\; else\; e\\ \mid newlock^{L} & create\; a\; new\; lock\\ \mid ref^{R}\; e & allocate\; "shared"\; memory\\ \mid !^{e}\; e & dereference\; with\; a\; lock\; held\\ \mid e:=^{e}\; e & assign\; with\; a\; lock\; held\\ t::=int\mid t\to t\mid lock\; l\mid ref^{\Gamma}\; t \end{array}
```

- No acquire and release
  - All accesses have explicit annotations (superscript) of the lock
    - This expression evaluates to the lock to hold
- No thread creation
  - · ref creates "shared" memory

Static Race DeteAssume any access needs to hold the right lock

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### Example

```
let k1 = newlockL1 in
let k2 = newlockL2 in
let x = refRx 0 in
let y = refRy 1 in
    x := k1 3;
    x := k1 4;    // ok — Rx always accessed with L1
    y := k2 6    // bad — Ry sometimes accessed
    with L1 or L2
```

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### Type Inference for Races

- · We'll follow the same approach as before
  - Traverse the source code of the program
  - Generate constraints
  - Solve the constraints
    - · Solution ==> program is consistently correlated
    - · No solution ==> potential race
    - · Notice that in alias analysis, there was always a solution
- For now, all rules except for locks and deref, assignment will be the same

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### Type Rule for Locks

- · For now, locks will work just like references
  - Different set of labels for them
  - Standard labeling rule, standard subtyping
  - Warning: this is broken! Will fix later...

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### Correlation Constraints for Locations

- Generate a correlation constraint r @ | when location r is accessed with lock | held

A |-- e1 : refr + A |-- e2 : + A |-- e3 : lock | r@|

A |-- e1 :=e3 e2 : +

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### Constraint Resolution

- · Apply subtyping until only atomic constraints
  - $r1 \le r2$  location subtyping
  - $11 \le 12$  lock subtyping
  - r @ I correlation
- · Now apply three rewriting rules
  - $S + \{r1 \le r2\} + \{r2 \le r3\} +== > \{r1 \le r3\}$
  - $S + \{ |1 \le |2 \} + \{ |2 \le |3 \} +== > \{ |1 \le |3 \}$
  - $S + \{ r1 \le r2 \} + \{ |1 \le |2 \} + \{ r2 @ |2 \} +==> \{ r1 @ |1 \}$ 
    - If r1 "flows to" r2 and l1 "flows to" |2 and r2 and |2 are correlated, then so are r1 and r2
    - Note:  $r \le r$  and  $l \le l$

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## Constraint Resolution, Graphically r1 r2 r3 r1 r2 @ @ I1 I2 I3 Static Race Detection for C 86

### Consistent Correlation

- · Next define the *correlation set* of a location
  - S(R) = { L | R@L}
    - The correlation set of R is the set of locks L that are correlated with it after applying all the rewrite rules
    - · Notice that both of these are constants
- Consistent correlation: for every R, |S(R)| = 1
  - Means location only ever accessed with one lock

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### Example

```
let k1 = newlock^{L1} in
                                  // k1 : lock m, L1 ≤ m
let k2 = newlockL2 in
                                 // k2 : lock n, L2 \le n
let x = ref^{Rx} 0 in
                                 // x : ref^{\alpha}(int), Rx \le \alpha
let y = ref^{Ry} 1 in
                                 // y : ref^b(int), Ry \le b
   x := k1 3;
                                 // a @ m
   x := k1 \ 4;
                                  // a @ m
   y :=k1 5;
                                 // b@ m
   y := k^2 6
                                 // b@n
```

- Applying last constraint resolution rule yields  $\cdot \{ Rx @ L1 \} + \{ Rx @ L1 \} + \{ Ry @ L1 \} + \{ Ry @ L2 \}$ 

Inconsistent correlation for Ry

### Consequences of May Alias Analysis

- · We used may aliasing for locations and locks
  - One of these is okay, and the other is not

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### May Aliasing of Locations

```
let k1 = newlock<sup>L</sup>
let x = ref<sup>Rx</sup> 0
let y = ref<sup>Ry</sup> 0
let z = if0 42 then x else y
z := k^{L} 3
```

- Constraint solving yields { Rx @ L } + { Ry @ L }
- Thus any two locations that may alias must be protected by the same lock
- This seems fairly reasonable, and it is sound

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### May Aliasing of Locks

```
let k1 = newlock<sup>L1</sup>

let k2 = newlock<sup>L2</sup>

let k = if0 42 then k1 else k2

let x = ref<sup>Rx</sup> 0

x := k 3; x := k1 4
```

- { Rx @ L1 } + { Rx @ L2 } + { Rx @ L1 }
- Thus Rx is inconsistently correlated
- That's not so bad we're just rejecting an odd program

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### May Aliasing of Locks (cont'd)

```
let k1 = newlock<sup>L</sup>
let k2 = newlock<sup>L</sup> // fine according to rules
let k = if0 42 then k1 else k2
let x = ref<sup>Rx</sup> 0
x := k 3; x := k1 4
```

- { Rx @ L } + { Rx @ L } + { Rx @ L }
- Uh-oh! Rx is consistently correlated, but there's a potential "race"
  - · Note that k and k1 are different locks at run time
- Allocating a lock in a loop yields same problem

### The Need for Must Information

- The problem was that we need to know exactly what lock was "held" at the assignment
  - It's no good to know that some lock in a set was held, because then we don't know anything
  - We need to ensure that the same lock is always held on access
- · We need must alias analysis for locks
  - Static analysis needs to know exactly which runtime lock is represented by each static lock label

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### Must Aliasing via Linearity

- · Must aliasing not as well-studied as may
  - Many early alias analysis papers mention it
  - Later ones focus on may alias
    - · Recall this is really used for "must not"
- · One popular technique: linearity
  - We want each static lock label to stand for exactly one run-time location
  - I.e., we want lock labels to be linear
  - Term comes from linear logic
- "Linear" in our context is a little different

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### **Enforcing Linearity**

· Consider the bad example again

let k1 = newlockL

let k2 = newlock<sup>L</sup>

- Need to prevent lock labels from being reused
- · Solution: remember newlockd labels
  - And prevent another newlock with the same label
  - We can do this by adding effects to our type system

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### **Effects**

- An effect captures some stateful property
  - Typically, which memory has been read or written
     We'll use these kinds of effects soon
  - In this case, track what locks have been creates

f ::= 0 | eff | {|} | f + f | f ⊕ f no effect
effect variable
lock I was allocated
union of effects
disjoint union of effects

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### Type Rules with Effects

$$\frac{L \leq m \quad m \; fresh}{A \; |\text{-- newlock}^L : lock \; m; \; \{m\}}$$
 Judgments now assign a type and effect

### Type Rules with Effects (cont'd) $A \mid -- \times : A(x); 0$ A |-- e1 : refr t; f1 A |-- e2 : t; f2 A |-- e1 := e2 : t; f1 ⊕ f2 Prevents >1 alloc

A |-- e1: int; f1 A |-- e2: t; f2 A |-- e3: t; f3

A |-- if 0 e1 then e2 else e3: t;  $f1 \oplus (f2 + f3)$ 

Only one branch taken

### Rule for Functions

· Is the following rule correct?

$$\frac{A, x:t \mid --e:t'; f}{A \mid -- \setminus x:t,e:t \rightarrow t'; f}$$

- The fn's effect doesn't occur when it's defined · It occurs when the function is called
- So we need to remember the effect of a function

### Correct Rule for Functions

· Extend types to have effects on arrows  $t := int \mid t \rightarrow f t \mid lock \mid l \mid ref^r t$ 

$$\frac{A, x:t \mid --e:t'; f}{A \mid -- \setminus x:t.e:t \rightarrow^f t'; 0}$$

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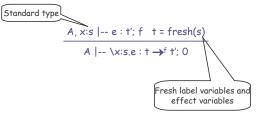
### One Minor Catch

- · What if two function types need to be equal?
  - Can use subsumption rule

- Otherwise how would we solve constraints like ·{L1}+{L2}+f≤{L1}+g+h ?

### Another Minor Catch

· We don't have types with effects on them



### **Effect Constraints**

- · The same old story!
  - Walk over the program
  - Generate constraints
    - r1 < r2
    - · |1 < |2
    - · f≤eff
    - Effects include disjoint unions
  - Solution ==> locks can be treated linearity
  - No solution ==> reject program

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### Effect Constraint Resolution

- · Step 1: Close lock constraints
  - $S + \{ |1 \le |2 \} + \{ |2 \le |3 \} +== \{ |1 \le |3 \} \}$
- · Step 2: Count!

```
occurs(1,0)=0
```

 $occurs(I, \{I\}) = 1$ 

occurs(I,  $f1 \oplus f2$ ) = occurs(I, f1) + occurs(I, f2)

occurs(I, f1 + f2) = max(occurs(I, f1), occurs(I, f2))occurs(I, eff) = max occurs(I, f) for  $f \le eff$ 

- For each effect f and for every lock I, make sure that occurs occurs(I, f)  $\leq 1$ 

### Example

```
let k1 = newlockL
let k2 = newlockL
                           // violates disjoint union
let k = if0 42 then k1 else k2 // k1, k2 have same type
let x = ref^{Rx} 0
    x := {}^{k} 3; x := {}^{k1} 4
```

- Example is now forbidden
- Still not quite enough, though, as we'll see...

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### Applying this in Practice

- That's the core system
  - But need a bit more to handle those cases we saw way back at the beginning of lecture
- In C,
  - 1. We need to deal with C
  - 2. Held locks are not given by the programmer
    - Locks can be acquired or released anywhere
    - More than one lock can be held at a time
  - 3. Functions can be polymorphic in the relationship between locks and locations
- 4. Much data is thread-local

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### Variables in C

- The first (easiest) problem: C doesn't use ref
  - It has malloc for memory on the heap
  - But local variables on the stack are also updateable: void foo(int x) { int y; y = x + 3; y++; x = 42;
- The C types aren't quite enough
  - 3: int, but can't update 3!

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### L-Types and R-Types

- C hides important information:
  - Variables behave different in I- and r-positions • I = left-hand-side of assignment, r = rhs
  - On ths of assignment, x refers to location x
  - On rhs of assignment, x refers to contents of location x

### Mapping to ML-Style References

- · Variables will have ref types:
  - x : ref <contents type>
  - Parameters as well, but r-types in fn sigs
- · On rhs of assignment, add deref of variables

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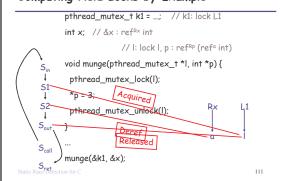
### Computing Held Locks

- · Create a control-flow graph of the program
  - We'll be constraint-based, for fun!
  - A program point represented by state variable 5
  - State variables will have *kinds* to tell us what happened in the state (e.g., lock acquire, deref)
- Propagate information through the graph using dataflow analysis

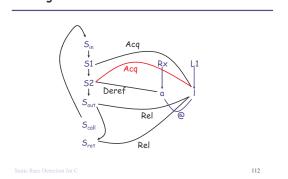
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### Computing Held Locks by Example



### Solving Constraints



### More than One Lock May Be Held

- We can acquire multiple locks at once pthread\_mutex\_lock(&k1); pthread\_mutex\_lock(&k2);
   \*p = 3;...
- This is easy just allow sets of locks, right?
  - Constraints r @ {I1, ..., In}
  - Correlation set  $S(R) = \{ \{11, ..., ln\} \mid r@\{11,...,ln\} \}$
  - Consistent correlation: for every R,  $| \cap S(R) | \ge 1$

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### Back to Linearity

- How do we distinguish previous case from let k = if0 42 then k1 else k2 pthread\_mutex\_lock(&k)
   \*p = 3;...
  - Can't just say p correlated with {k1, k2}
  - Some lock is acquired, but don't know which

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### Solutions (Pick One)

- Acquiring a lock | representing more than one concrete lock L is a no-op
  - We're only interested in races, so okay to forget that we've acquired a lock
- Get rid of subtyping on locks
  - Interpret ≤ as unification on locks
  - Unifying two disjoint locks not allowed
  - Disjoint unions prevent same lock from being allocated twice
  - ==> Can never mix different locks together

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### Context-Sensitivity

### Limitations of Subtyping

- · Subtyping gives us a kind of polymorphism
  - A polymorphic type represents multiple types
  - In a subtyping system, † represents † and all of t's subtypes
- As we saw, this flexibility helps make the analysis more precise
  - But it isn't always enough...

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### Limitations of Subtype Polymorphism

- Let's look at the identity function on int ptrs:
  - let id =  $\x: ref^a int . x$
  - So id has type  $ref^a$  int  $\rightarrow ref^b$  int
- Now consider the following:
  - let  $x = id (ref^{r1} 0)$
  - let  $y = id (ref^{r2} 0)$



- It looks like ax and ay point to {r1, r2}
- This is a *context-insensitive* analysis

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### The Observation of Parametric Polymorphism

• Type inference on id yields a proof like this:

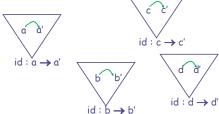


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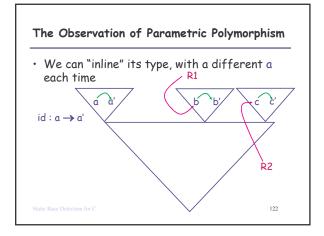
### The Observation of Parametric Polymorphism

 We can duplicate this proof for any a,a', in any type environment



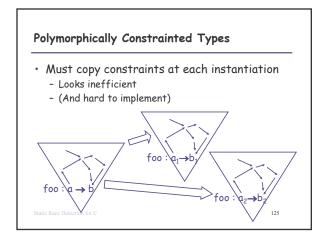
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### 



### Hindley-Milner Style Polymorphism • Standard type rules (not quite for our system) - Generalize at let $A \mid --e1:t1 \quad A, f: \forall \mathbf{a}.t1 \mid --e2:t2 \quad \mathbf{a} = fv(t1) - fv(A)$ $A \mid --let f = e1 \text{ in } e2:t2$ - Instantiate at uses $A(f) = \forall \mathbf{a}.t1$ $A \mid --f:t1[t \mid \mathbf{a}]$ Substitute bound vars (arbitrarily)

## Polymorphically Constrained Types Notice that we inlined not only the type (as in ML), but also the constraints We need polymorphically constrained types X: ∀a.t where C For any labels a where constraints C hold, x has type t



### ML-style polymorphic type inference is EXPTIME-hard In practice, it's fine Bad case can't happen here, because we're polymorphic only in the labels That's because we'll apply this to C

### A Better Solution: CFL Reachability

- · Can reduce this to another problem
  - Equivalent to the constraint-copying formulation
  - Supports polymorphic recursion in qualifiers
  - It's easy to implement
  - It's efficient: O(n3)
    - Previous best algorithm  $O(n^8)$  [Mossin, PhD thesis]
- Idea due to Horwitz, Reps, and Sagiv [POPL'95], and Rehof, Fahndrich, and Das [POPL'01]

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### The Problem Restated: Unrealizable Paths

let id =  $x:ref^a$  int . xlet x = id ( $ref^{r1}$  0) let y = id ( $ref^{r2}$  0)



No execution can exhibit that particular call/return sequence

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### Only Propagate Along Realizable Paths

let id = 
$$\x:ref^a$$
 int .  $\x$   
let  $\x = id^1$  (ref<sup>r1</sup> 0)  
let  $\y = id^2$  (ref<sup>r2</sup> 0)

- · Add edge labels for calls and returns
  - Only propagate along *valid* paths whose returns balance calls

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### Parenthesis Edges

- Paren edges represent substitutions
  - id :  $\forall a, b . a \rightarrow b \text{ where } a \leq b$
  - let x =  $id^1$  (ref<sup>r1</sup> 0)
- · At call 1 to id, we instantiate type of id

$$- (a \rightarrow b)[r1 \land a, ax \land b] = r1 \rightarrow ax$$
Renaming for call 1

- Edges with )1 or (1 represent renaming 1
  - b  $\rightarrow$ )1 ax b instantiated to ax, and b flows to ax
  - $r1 \rightarrow (1 \text{ a a instantiated to } r1, \text{ and } r1 \text{ flows to a})$

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### Instantiation Constraints

- Edges with parentheses are called instantiation constraints
- They represent:
  - A renaming
  - Plus a "flow"
- We can extend instantiation constraints from labels to types in the standard way

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### Propagating Instantiation Constraints

- S + { int →)i int } ==> S
- S + { int →(i int } ==> S
- $5 + \{ ref^{r_1} + 1 \rightarrow (i ref^{r_2} + 2 \} == >$  $5 + \{ r1 \rightarrow (i r2 \} + \{ t1 \rightarrow (i t2 \} + \{ t2 \rightarrow) i t1 \}$
- $S + \{ ref^{r1} + 1 \rightarrow^{ji} ref^{r2} + 2 \} == >$  $S + \{ r1 \rightarrow^{ji} r2 \} + \{ +1 \rightarrow^{ji} + 2 \} + \{ +2 \rightarrow^{(i} +1 \}$

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### Propagating Instantiation Constraints (cont'd)

• 
$$S + \{ t1 \rightarrow t2 \rightarrow)^i t1' \rightarrow t2' \} ==>$$
  
 $S + \{ t2 \rightarrow)^i t2' \} + \{ t1' \rightarrow(i t1 \}$ 

• 
$$S + \{ \dagger 1 \rightarrow \dagger 2 \rightarrow^{(i} \dagger 1' \rightarrow \dagger 2' \} ==$$
  
 $S + \{ \dagger 2 \rightarrow^{(i} \dagger 2' \} + \{ \dagger 1' \rightarrow^{(i} \dagger 1 \} \}$ 

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### Type Rule for Instantiation

 Now when we mention the name of a function, we'll instantiate it using the following rule

$$A(f) = f' = fresh(f) + f' = fresh(f) + f'$$

$$A = f' = f' = f'$$

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### A Simple Example

let id = 
$$\xspace \xspace \xs$$

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### Two Observations

- · We are doing constraint copying
  - Notice the edge from c to a got "copied" to Ry to y
     We didn't draw the transitive edge, but we could have
- · This algorithm can be made demand-driven
  - We only need to worry about paths from constant qualifiers
  - Good implications for scalability in practice

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### CFL Reachability

- We're trying to find paths through the graph whose edges are a language in some grammar
  - Called the CFL Reachability problem
  - Computable in cubic time

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### Grammar for Matched Paths

· Also can include other paths, depending on application

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### Global Variables

- Consider the following identity function let id =  $\xspace x \cdot (z := x; !z)$ 
  - Here z is a global variable
- · Typing of id, roughly speaking:

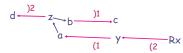


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### Global Variables

let foo = \y. ((id¹ y); !z) in foo² (ref<sup>Rx</sup> 0) (Apply id to y, then return the value y via z)



- Uh oh! (2 (1 )2 is not a valid flow path
  - · But Rx may certainly reach d

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### Thou Shalt Not Quantify a Global Variable

- · We violated a basic rule of polymorphism
  - We generalized a variable free in the environment
  - In effect, we duplicated z at each instantiation
- · Solution: Don't do that!

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### Our Example Again

$$d \xrightarrow{)2} z \xrightarrow{b} \xrightarrow{)1} c$$

$$(i, j)i \xrightarrow{} d \xrightarrow{(1)} y \xrightarrow{(2)} Rx$$

- We want anything flowing into z, on any path, to flow out in any way
  - Add a self-loop to z that consumes any mismatched parentheses

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### Typing Rules, Fixed

· Track unquantifiable vars at generalization

$$A \mid --e1: +1 \quad A, x: (+1, b) \mid --e2: +2 \quad b = fv(A)$$

$$A \mid --let x = e1 \text{ in } e2: +2$$

· Add self-loops at instantiation

$$A(f) = (t, b)$$
  $t' = fresh(t)$   $t \rightarrow ji$   $t'$ 

$$b \rightarrow ji$$
  $b b \rightarrow (i b)$ 

$$A \mid --f_i : t'$$

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### Label Constants

- · Also use self-loops for label constants
  - They're global everywhere

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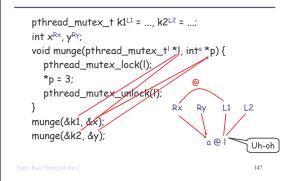
### **Efficiency**

- · Constraint generation yields O(n) constraints
  - Same as before
  - Important for scalability
- Context-free language reachability is  $O(n^3)$ 
  - But a few tricks make it practical (not much slowdown in analysis times)
- · For more details, see
  - Rehof + Fahndrich, POPL'01

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### Adapting to Correlation · Previous propagation rule, but match ()'s Unification of locks

### Example pthread\_mutex\_t k1L1 = ..., k2L2 = ...; int $x^{Rx}$ , $y^{Ry}$ ; void munge(pthread\_mutex\_t|\*], inta \*p) { pthread\_mutex\_lock(1); \*p = 3; pthread\_mutex\_unlock(1); munge(&k1, &x); munge(&k2, &y); Uh-oh



### Sharing Inference

### Example: Using Context-Sensitivity

```
pthread_mutex_t k1L1 = ..., k2L2 = ...;
int x^{Rx}, y^{Ry};
void munge(pthread_mutex_t|*], int^a*p) {
  pthread_mutex_lock(1);
   *p = 3;
  pthread_mutex_unlock(1); (2
munge1(&k1, &x);
munge<sup>2</sup>(&k2, &y);
```

### Thread-Local Data

- · Even in multi-threaded programs, lots of data is thread local
  - No need to worry about synchronization
  - A good design principle
- We've assumed so far that everything is shared
  - Much too conservative

### Sharing Inference

- · Use alias analysis to find shared locations
- · Basic idea:
  - Determine what locations each thread may access
    - · Hm, looks like an effect system...
  - Shared locations are those accessed by more than one thread
    - · Intersect effects of each thread
    - · Don't forget to include the parent thread

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### **Initialization**

· A common pattern:

struct foo \*p = malloc(...);
// initialize \*p
fork(<something with p>); // p bec

fork( $\langle$ something with p $\rangle$ ); // p becomes shared // parent no longer uses p

- If we compute

<effects of parent> ∩ <effects of child>
then we'll see p in both, and decide it's shared

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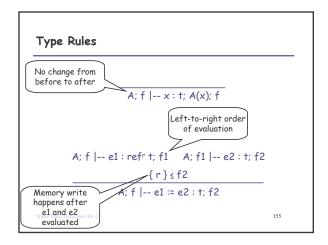
### Continuation Effects

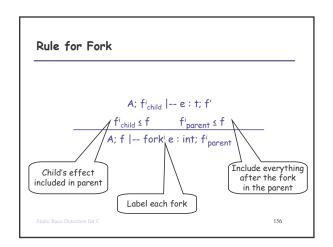
- Continuation effects capture the effect of the remainder of the computation
  - I.e., of the continuation
  - So in our previous example, we would see that in the parent's continuation after the fork, there are no effects
- Effects on locations
  - f ::= 0 | { r } | eff | f + f
    - Empty, locations, variables, union

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# Judgments direction of flow A; f |-- e: t; f' Effect of rest of program, including evaluation of e Static Race Detection for C 154





### Computing Sharing

- · Resolve effect constraints
  - Same old constraint propagation
  - Let S(f) = set of locations in effect f
- · Then the shared locations at forki are
  - Si =  $S(f_{child}^i) \cap S(f_{parent}^i)$
- · And all the shared locations are
  - shared = ∪; Si

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### Including Child's Effect in Parent

· Consider:

```
let x = ref<sup>Rx</sup> 0 in
fork<sup>1</sup> (!x);
fork<sup>2</sup> (x:=2);
```

 Then if we didn't include child's effects in parent, we wouldn't see that parallel child threads share data

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### Race Detection, Results

### void\* and Aggregates

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### Error Messages are Important

Possible data race on &bwritten(aget\_comb.c:943)
References:
dereference at aget\_comb.c:1079
locks acquired at dereference:
&bwritten\_mutex(aget\_comb.c:996)
in: FORK at aget\_comb.c:468 >
http\_get aget\_comb.c:468

dereference at aget\_comb.c:984 locks acquired at dereference: (none) in: FORK at aget\_comb.c:193 -> signal\_waiter(aget\_comb.c:193) -> sigalrm\_handler(aget\_comb.c:957)

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### Experimental Results

Benchmark	Size (kloc)	Time	Warn	Unguraded	Races
aget	1.6	0.8s	15	15	15
ctrace	1.8	0.9s	8	8	2
pfscan	1.7	0.7s	5	0	0
engine	1.5	1.2s	7	0	0
smtprc	6.1	6.0s	46	1	1
knot	1.7	1.5s	12	8	8

Benchmark	Size (kloc)	Time	Warn	Unguraded	Races
plip	19.1	24.9s	11	2	1
eql	16.5	3.2s	3	0	0
3c501	17.4	240.1s	24	2	2
sundance	19.9	98.2s	3	1	0
sis900	20.4	61.0s*	8	2	1
slip	22.7	16.5s*	19	1	0
hp100	20.3	31.8s*	23	2	0

### Conclusion

- · Alias analysis is a key building block
  - Lots and lots of stuff is variations on it
- We can perform race detection on C code
  - Bring out the toolkit of constraint-based analysis
  - Scales somewhat, still needs improvement
  - Handles idioms common to C
    - $\boldsymbol{\cdot}$  Including some things we didn't have time for

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