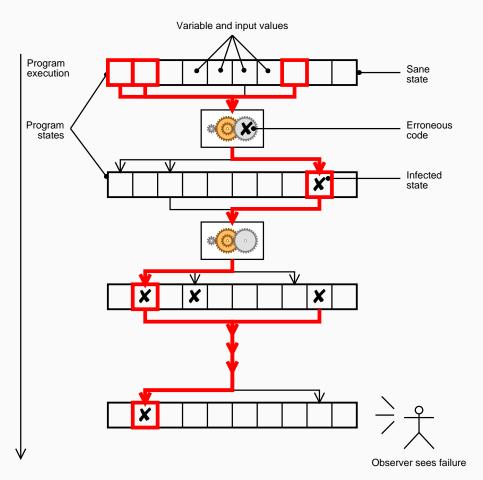


## **Isolating Value Origins**

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#### **Isolating Origins**



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#### **Thinking Backwards**

Besides temporal and spatial focusing, one can also *trace back* the origin of an infection.

Something impossible occurred, and the only solid information is that it really did occur. So we must think backwards from the result to discover the reasons.

> — Brian W. Kernighan and Rob Pike, THE PRACTICE OF PROGRAMMING





#### Dependencies

Consider the following piece of code:

if (p) z = x \* f(y);

Assume we find that z is infected (say, z = 0 holds).

These are the potential causes for z being zero:

- x may be zero
- f() may have returned zero
- p may be true (instead of false)

Hence, the value of z *depends* on the statements in which these values have been set.

#### **Program Slicing**

Again, we'd like to automate this as much as possible.

Basic idea: Follow the dependencies through the program to narrow down the set of potential value sources.

This pattern is called **PROGRAM SLICING**.

A *program slice* is a subset of the program's statements.

We distinguish two kinds of program slices:

**Backward slice** The statements that *may have affected* a specific variable

Forward slice The statements that *may be affected* by a specific variable





#### **Backward Slice**

*Backward slice*: All statements that *may have affected* a variable at a specific place in the program.

```
Program
```

Main use: Where does this value come from?

#### Backward slice for (mul, 13)

```
int main() {
    int a, b, sum, mul;
    sum = 0;
    mul = 1;
    a = read();
    b = read();
    while (a <= b) {
        sum = sum + a;
        mul = mul * a;
        a = a + 1;
    }
    write(mul);
}</pre>
```





#### Forward Slice

*Forward slice*: All statements that *may be affected* by a variable at a specific place in the program.

Program

```
int main() {
    int a, b, sum, mul;
    int a, b, sum, mul;
    int sum = 0;
    mul = 1;
    a = read();
    b = read();
    b = read();
    b = while (a <= b) {
    while (a <= b) {
        while (a <= b) {
            while sum + a;
            mul * a;
            a = a + 1;
        }
        write(sum);
    write(mul);
    }
</pre>
```

Main use: Where does this value go to?

#### Forward slice for (b, 6)

```
int main() {
    int a, b, sum, mul;
    sum = 0;
    mul = 1;
    a = read();
    b = read();
    while (a <= b) {
        sum = sum + a;
        mul = mul * a;
        a = a + 1;
    }
    write(sum);
    write(mul);
}</pre>
```





- The relationship between a program state at a specific statement and the statements that may have caused it is called a *dependency*.
- There are two kind of dependencies:
- **Control dependency** Some statement *A* is *control dependent* on a statement *B* if *A* might affect if or how often *B* is executed.
- **Data dependency** Some statement *A* is *data dependent* on a statement *B* if *A* assigns a value to a variable that is being accessed in *B*.

Such dependencies are computed by program analysis.

#### Dependencies







#### Dependencies (2)

Consider the following piece of code:

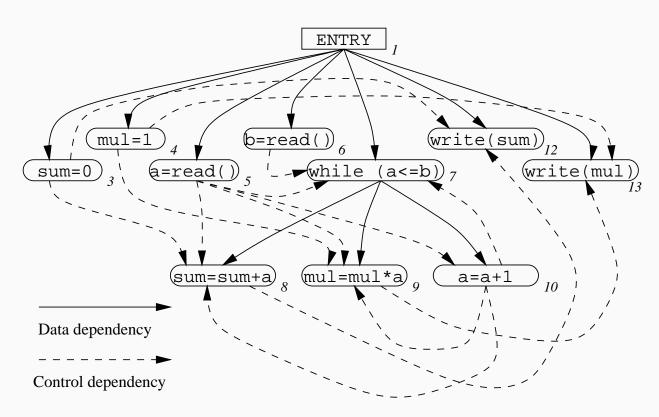
if (p) z = x \* f(y);

What does z depend upon?

- z is control dependent on if (p)
- z is *data dependent* on the assignment(s) of x
- z is *data dependent* on the return value of f()

Program slicing collects these dependencies in a *program dependency graph*.

#### **Program Dependency Graph**





#### **Dependencies and Causes**

Dependencies are only *potential causes*.

Let us extend the code somewhat:

x = 0; if (p) z = x \* f(y);

Obviously, f() can no longer be a cause for x being zero, because there is no alternate value that f() could return.





#### **Dependencies and Causes (2)**

What's "obvious" depends on the *smartness* of the analysis:

```
q = !p; x = p && q;
if (p)
z = x * f(y);
```

"Obviously", x is always zero—and hence, only p and x are potential causes for z being zero.

It is obvious, too, though, that there are computational limits on the dependencies we can compute.





#### **Conservative** Approximation

Program analysis methods are *conservative*, because they conserve the program semantics:

In doubt, a program analysis tool will always produce a dependency.

Only if it can be *proven* that there is *no way* a statement might influence the state, then there is no dependency.

```
q = !p; x = p && q;
if (p)
z = x * f(y);
```

z does not depend on a and b (unless f() would access them); hence, there is no dependency to any assignments of a or b.





### **Conservative Approximation (2)**

The produced dependencies are always *approximations* of the full program behavior, as in *points-to analysis:* 

Simple approximation (faster): A pointer can point to anything whose address is taken—p may point to all new T's, p, q and local (which thus all depend on p)

**Smarter approximation (more precise):** consider *data flow* and *control flow*—pointer p points to the last new T.

#### Limits of Program Slicing

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Since program analysis is approximative, the possible influences *multiply* the further you move away from the variable in question ("slicing is short-sighted").

Nonetheless, there will always be a substantial amount of code that *cannot* influence the variable in any (legal) way—which means that debugging is considerably easened.

An open problem is *complexity:* 

- associated program analysis is expensive if smart
- intraprocedural slicing is expensive if smart



#### **Dynamic Slicing**

One way to overcome the "short-sightedness" of program slicing is to consider *only one specific run* (rather than all possible runs)—for instance, the run we want to understand.

This is called *dynamic* (rather than *static*) slicing, because the analysis *executes* the program in question.

Using a concrete run as reference, we can easily determine

- where pointers point to
- which statements where executed at all
- the sequence of executed statements

All this makes the program analysis more precise.



#### Static vs. Dynamic Slicing

```
Static slice for s
n = read();
a = read();
x = 1;
b = a + x;
a = a + 1;
i = 1;
s = 0;
while (i <= n) {
    if (b > 0)
        if (a > 1)
          x = 2;
    S = S + X;
    i = i + 1;
write(s);
```

#### Dynamic slice

```
n = read(); // 2
a = read(); // 0
  x = 1;
  b = a + x;
  a = a + 1;
  i = 1;
  s = 0;
  while (i <= n) {
   if (b > 0)
      if (a > 1)
          x = 2;
     S = S + X;
     i = i + 1;
  }
  write(s);
```



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#### **Computing Dynamic Slices**

Basic idea: Attach actual sources to every value

- 1. Compute a *definition/use table* which stores the defined and used variable values.
- 2. Assign a dynamic slice to each value definition (initially empty).
- 3. Execute the program.
- 4. Whenever a value is defined, assign its slice the *union* of all used slices.
- 5. At the end of the execution, all definitions will be assigned a slice that holds all value sources.





#### Def/Use Table

Code	Def	Use
n = read();	n	
a = read();	a	
x = 1;	X	
b = a + x;	b	a, x
a = a + 1;	a	a
i = 1;	i	
s = 0;	S	
while (i <= n) $\{$	p8	i, n
if (b > 0)	p9	b, p8
if (a > 1)	p10	a, p9
x = 2;	X	p10
S = S + X;	S	s, x, p8
i = i + 1;	i	i
}		
<pre>write(s);</pre>	o14	S

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#### Computing the Slices

 $DynSlice(d) = \bigcup_i (DynSlice(u_i) \cup line(u_i))$ 

Code	Def	Use	DynSlice
1 n = read();	n		
2 a = read();	a		
3 x = 1;	x		
4 b = a + x;	b	a, x	2. 3
5 a = a + 1;	a	a	2
6 i = 1;	i		
7  s = 0;	S		1
8 while (i <= n) {	p8	i, n	6, 1
9 if $(b > 0)$	p9	b, p8	2, 3, 6, 1, 4, 8
10 if (a > 1)	p10	a, p9	2, 3, 6, 1, 4 <mark>,</mark> 8, 5, 9
12 $s = s + x;$	S	s, x, p8	6, 1, 7 <mark>,</mark> 3, 8
13 $i = i + 1;$	i	i	6, 1, 8
8 while (i <= n) {	p8	i, n	6, 1, <b>8, 13</b>
9 if (b > 0)	p9	b, p8	2, 3, 6, 1, 4, 8, <b>13</b>
10 if (a > 1)	p10	a, p9	2, 3, 6, 1, 4, 8, 5, <mark>9</mark> , <b>13</b>
12 $s = s + x;$	S	s, x, p8	6, 1, 7, 3, 8, <b>13, 12</b>
13 $i = i + 1;$	i	i	6, 1, 8, <b>13</b>
8 while (i <= n) {	p8	i, n	6, 1, 8, 13
14 write(s);	o14	S	6, 1, 7, 3, 8, 13, 12

#### Efficiency

Dynamic slicing (as presented here) is quite efficient:

- Case study: While a static slice contains 58% of the statements, a dynamic slice cuts this down to 5%
- Set unions can be implemented with (nearly) constant complexity
- Program execution is slowed down by instrumentation (~ 2-10 times slower)



#### What's in a Slice?

A dynamic slice may not contain the erroneous statement:

Static slice for s

```
n = read();
a = read();
x = 1;
b = a + x;
a = a + 1;
i = 1;
s = 0:
while (i <= n) {
    if (b > 0)
       if (a > 1)
         x = 2:
    S = S + X:
    i = i + 1:
write(s);
```

```
Dynamic slice
  n = read(); // 2
  a = read(); // 0
  x = 1;
  b = a + x;
a = a + 1; // error?
  i = 1;
  s = 0:
  while (i <= n) {
      if (b > 0) // true
       if (a > 1) // false
             x = 2:
      S = S + X;
      i = i + 1:
  write(s);
```





#### Dynamic vs. Relevant Slicing

A relevant slice includes conditional (static) dependencies:

```
Dynamic slice for s Relevant slice
n = read(); // 2
                      n = read(); // 2
a = read(); // 0
                       a = read(); // 0
x = 1;
                        x = 1;
b = a + x;
                      b = a + x;
                     a = a + 1; // error may also be here...
a = a + 1;
                        i = 1;
i = 1;
s = 0:
                        s = 0:
while (i \le n) { while (i \le n) {
   if (b > 0) // true if (b > 0)
     if (a > 1) // false
                         if (a > 1) // ... or here
       x = 2:
                                x = 2:
                          S = S + X;
   S = S + X:
   i = i + 1:
                            i = i + 1:
write(s);
                         write(s);
```

Approach: include *static dependencies* for *alternative control flows* (like (a > 1))



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#### Slices and Erroneous Statements

The idea of relevant slices is certainly useful:

• Include all statements that in the slice that, if altered, may change the variable value in question.

But this alteration must still preserve the original definition/use!

If we allow *arbitrary* alterations (i.e. the statement can be changed to anything else), then *every statement* can be a cause for the variable value.

This is especially true for *missing statements* that can be inserted anywhere.

Consequence: *Slices need not include "the" error* (but are helpful in understanding how the error came to be!)

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Dicing

Dynamic slices can be very useful if two program runs exist:

- A run where the failure occurs
- A run where the failure *does not* occur

Basic idea:

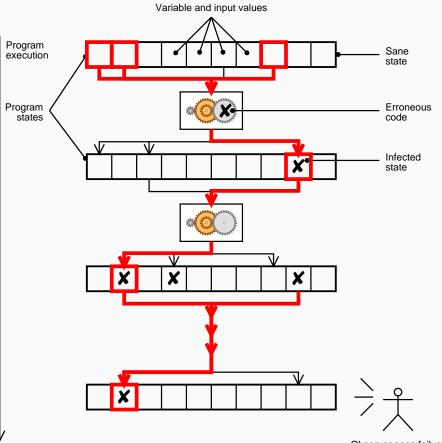
- 1. Compute the slice for the *passing* value
- 2. Compute the slice for the *failing* value
- 3. Examine the *difference* (the *dice*) between the two slices

The difference should contain all statements that influence *only* the failing value—i.e. potentially erroneous statements.





#### **Isolating Origins**



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Observer sees failure



#### Concepts

- A static slice contains all statements that may affect (or may be affected by) a variable value at a specific statement.
- A *dynamic slice* is specific to a concrete program run.
- A *relevant slice* also includes control flow alternatives.
- A slice need not include the erroneous statement...
- ... but is helpful in tracing down value origins.
- A dice is the difference between a passing and a failing slice; it can pinpoint potentially erroneous statements.





#### References

- Frank Tip, A survey of program slicing techniques, Journal of programming languages 3, 121–189 (1995). http://citeseer.nj.nec.com/tip95survey.html
- T. Gyimóthy, Árpád Beszédes and Istvan Forgács, An efficient relevant slicing method for debugging, Proc. ESEC/FSE 99. http://doi.acm.org/10.1145/318773.319248

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