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On Abstraction Refinement for Program Analyses in Datalog

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Abstract
A central task for a program analysis concerns how to efficiently find a program abstraction that keeps only information relevant for proving properties of interest. We present a new approach for finding such abstractions for program analyses written in Datalog. Our approach is based on counterexample-guided abstraction refinement: when a Datalog analysis run fails using an abstraction, it seeks to generalize the cause of the failure to other abstractions, and pick a new abstraction that avoids a similar failure. Our solution uses a boolean satisfiability formulation that is general, complete, and optimal: it is independent of the Datalog solver; it generalizes the failure of an abstraction to as many other abstractions as possible, and it identifies the cheapest refined abstraction to try next. We show the performance of our approach on a pointer analysis and a typestate analysis, on eight real-world Java benchmark programs.

Categories and Subject Descriptors D.2.4 [SOFTWARE ENGINEERING]: Software/Program Verification

1. Introduction
Building a successful program analysis requires solving high-level conceptual issues, such as finding an abstraction of programs that keeps just enough information for a given verification problem, as well as handling low-level implementation issues, such as coming up with efficient data structures and algorithms for the analysis.

One popular approach for addressing this problem is to use Datalog [5, 15, 23, 24]. In this approach, a program analysis only specifies how to generate Datalog constraints from program text. The task of solving the generated constraints is then delegated to an off-the-shelf Datalog constraint solver, such as that underlying BBDBBBDB [25], Doop [22], Jedd [16], and Z3’s fixpoint engine [12], which in turn relies on efficient symbolic algorithms and data structures, such as Binary Decision Diagrams (BDDs).

The benefits of using Datalog for program analysis, however, are currently limited to the automation of low-level implementation issues. In particular, finding an effective program abstraction is done entirely manually by analysis designers, which results in undesirable consequences such as ineffective analyses hindered by inflexible abstractions or undue tuning burden for analysis designers.

In this paper, we present a new approach for lifting this limitation by automatically finding effective abstractions for program analyses written in Datalog. Our approach is based on counterexample-guided abstraction refinement (CEGAR), which was developed in the model-checking community and has been applied effectively for software verification with predicate abstraction [1, 6, 8, 11, 20]. A counterexample in Datalog is a derivation of an output tuple from a set of input tuples via Horn-clause inference rules; the rules specify the program analysis, the set of input tuples represents the current program abstraction, and the output tuple represents a (typically undesirable) program property derived by the analysis under that abstraction. The counterexample is spurious if there exists some abstraction under which the property cannot be derived by the analysis. The CEGAR problem in our approach is to find such an abstraction from a given family of abstractions.

We propose solving this problem by formulating it as a boolean satisfiability (SAT) problem. We give an efficient construction of SAT constraints from a Datalog solver’s solution in each CEGAR iteration. Our main theoretical result is that, regardless of the Datalog solver used, its solution contains information to reason about all counterexamples. This result seems unintuitive because a Datalog solver performs a least fixed-point computation that can stop as soon as each output tuple that is derivable has been derived (i.e., the solver need not reason about all possible ways to derive a tuple).

The above result ensures that solving our SAT constraints generalizes the cause of verification failure in the current CEGAR iteration to the maximum extent possible, eliminating not only the current abstraction but all other abstractions destined to suffer a similar failure. There is still the problem of deciding which abstraction to try next. We show that an optimization extension of the SAT problem, called the maximum satisfiability (MAXSAT) problem, enables to identify the cheapest refined abstraction. Our approach avoids unnecessary refinement by using this abstraction in the next CEGAR iteration.

We have implemented our approach and applied it to two realistic static analyses written in Datalog, a pointer analysis and a typestate analysis, for Java programs. These two analyses differ significantly in aspects such as flow sensitivity (insensitive vs. sensitive), context sensitivity (cloning-based vs. summary-based), and heap abstraction (weak vs. strong updates), which demonstrates the generality of our approach. On a suite of eight real-world Java benchmark programs, our approach searches a large space of abstractions, ranging from 2^{14} to 2^{26} for the pointer analysis and 2^{13k} to 2^{54k} for the typestate analysis, for hundreds of analysis queries considered simultaneously in each program, thereby showing the practicality of our approach.

We summarize the main contributions of our work:

1. We propose a CEGAR-based approach to automatically find effective abstractions for analyses in Datalog. The approach enables Datalog analysis designers to specify high-level knowledge about abstractions while continuing to leverage low-level implementation advances in off-the-shelf Datalog solvers.

2. We solve the CEGAR problem using a boolean satisfiability formulation that has desirable properties of generality, completeness, and optimality: it is independent of the Datalog solver, it fully generalizes the failure of an abstraction, and it computes the cheapest refined abstraction.

3. We show the effectiveness of our approach on two realistic analyses written in Datalog. On a suite of real-world Java benchmark programs, the approach exploits a large space of abstractions for a large number of analysis queries simultaneously.
Figure 2: Graph reachability example in Datalog.

2. Overview

We illustrate our approach using a graph reachability problem that captures the core concept underlying a precise pointer analysis.

The example program in Figure 1 allocates an object in each of methods \( f \) and \( g \), and passes it to methods \( id1 \) and \( id2 \). The pointer analysis is asked to prove two queries: query \( q1 \) stating that \( v6 \) is not aliased with \( v1 \) at the end of \( g \), and query \( q2 \) stating that \( v3 \) is not aliased with \( v1 \) at the end of \( f \). Proving \( q1 \) requires a context sensitive analysis that distinguishes between different calling contexts of methods \( id1 \) and \( id2 \). Query \( q2 \), on the other hand, cannot be proven since \( v3 \) is in fact aliased with \( v1 \).

A common approach to distinguish between different calling contexts is to clone (i.e., inline) the body of the called method at a call site. However, cloning each called method at each call site is infeasible even in the absence of recursion, as it grows program size exponentially and hampers the scalability of the analysis. We seek to address this problem by cloning selectively.

For exposition, we recast this problem as a reachability problem on the graph in Figure 2. In that graph, nodes \( 0, 1, \) and \( 2 \) represent basic blocks of \( f \), while nodes \( 3, 4, \) and \( 5 \) represent basic blocks of \( g \). Nodes \( 6, 7 \) represent the bodies of \( id1 \) and \( id2 \) respectively, while nodes \( 6′, 6″, 7′, \) and \( 7″ \) are their clones at different call sites. Edges denoting matching calls and returns have the same label.

A choice of labels constitutes a valid abstraction of the original program if, for each of \( a,b,c,d \), either the zero (non-cloned) or the one (cloned) version is chosen. Then, proving query \( q1 \) corresponds to showing that node \( 5 \) is unreachable from node \( 0 \) under some valid choice of labeled edges, which is the case if edges labeled \( \{a1,b0,c1,d0\} \) are chosen; proving query \( q2 \) corresponds to finding a valid combination of edge labels that makes node \( 2 \) unreachable from node \( 0 \), but this is impossible.

Our graph reachability problem can be expressed in Datalog as shown in Figure 2. A Datalog program consists of a set of input relations, a set of derived relations, and a set of rules that express how to compute the derived relations from the input relations. There are two input relations in our example: edge, representing the possible labeled edges in the given graph; and abs, containing labels of edges that may be used in computing graph reachability. Relation abs specifies a program abstraction in our original setting; for instance,
time, we eliminate any \( a \) that is a superset of \( \{ a_1, c_0, d_0 \} \) for query \( \text{path}(0, 5) \), and any \( a \) that is a superset of \( \{ a_1, c_0 \} \) for query \( \text{path}(0, 2) \). The cheapest of the remaining abstractions, not eliminated for both the queries, is \( a = \{ a_1, b_0, c_0, d_0 \} \), which corresponds to cloning methods \( id1 \) and \( id2 \) in \( f \) (but not in \( g \)).

Using this abstraction in the third iteration, our approach succeeds in proving query \( \text{path}(0, 5) \), but still fails to prove query \( \text{path}(0, 2) \). As seen in the derivation in Figure 3c, this time \( \{ a_1, c_1 \} \) is the minimal failure subset for query \( \text{path}(0, 2) \) and we eliminate any \( a \) that is its superset.

At this point, four abstractions remain in trying to prove query \( \text{path}(0, 2) \). However, another novel feature of our approach allows us to eliminate these remaining abstractions without any more iterations. After each iteration, we accumulate the derivations generated by the current run of the Datalog program with the derivations from all the previous iterations. Then, in our current example, at the end of the third iteration, we have the following derivations available:

\[
\text{path}(0, 6) \leftarrow \text{path}(0, 0), \text{edge}(0, 6, a_0), \neg a(a_0) \\
\text{path}(0, 1) \leftarrow \text{path}(0, 6), \text{edge}(0, 1, a_0), \neg a(a_0) \\
\text{path}(0, 7) \leftarrow \text{path}(0, 1), \text{edge}(1, 7, c_1), \neg a(c_1) \\
\text{path}(0, 2) \leftarrow \text{path}(0, 7), \text{edge}(7, 2, c_1), \neg a(c_1)
\]

The derivation of \( \text{path}(0, 1) \) using \( a(a_0) \) comes from the first iteration of our approach. Similarly, the derivation of \( \text{path}(0, 2) \) using \( \text{path}(0, 1) \) and \( a(c_1) \) is seen during the third iteration. However, accumulating the derivations from different iterations allows our approach to explore the above derivation of \( \text{path}(0, 2) \) using \( a(a_0) \) and \( a(c_1) \) and detect \( \{ a_0, c_1 \} \) to be an additional minimal failure subset for query \( \text{path}(0, 2) \). Consequently, we remove any \( a \) that is a superset of \( \{ a_0, c_1 \} \). This eliminates all the remaining abstractions for query \( \text{path}(0, 2) \) and our approach concludes that the query cannot be proven by any of the 16 abstractions.

We summarize the three main strengths of our approach over previous CEGAR approaches. (1) Given a single failing run of a Datalog program on a single query, it reasons about all counterexamples that cause the proof of the query to fail and generalizes the failure to the maximum extent possible. (2) It reasons about failures and discovers new counterexamples across iterations by mixing the already available derivations from different iterations. (3) It generalizes the causes of failure for multiple queries simultaneously. Together, these three features enable faster convergence of our approach.

**Encoding as MAXSAT.** In the graph reachability example, our approach searched a space of 16 different abstractions for each of the two queries. In practice, we seek to apply our approach to real-world programs and analyses, where the space of abstractions is \( 2^k \) for \( k \) of the order of tens of thousands, for each of hundreds of queries. To handle such large spaces efficiently, our approach formulates a boolean satisfiability problem from the output of the Datalog computation in each iteration, and solves it using an off-the-shelf solver to obtain the abstraction to try in the next iteration. For our example, Figure 4 shows the boolean formula it constructs at the end of the first iteration. This formula contains a boolean variable for each tuple in the Datalog computation, denoted by the tuple itself. It has two kinds of clauses: hard clauses, which must be satisfied, and soft constraints, each of which is associated with a weight and may be left unsatisfied. We seek to find a solution that maximizes the sum of the weights of satisfied soft clauses. This problem is an optimization extension of the boolean satisfiability (SAT) problem, called the (weighted) maximum satisfiability (MAXSAT) problem.

Briefly, the formula has three parts. The first part is hard constraints that encode the derivation using one Horn clause per derivation constraint. Input tuples besides those in the abstraction relation are replaced by true since they are fixed. For instance, the following derivation in Figure 3a:

\[
\text{path}(0, 6) \leftarrow \text{path}(0, 0), \text{edge}(0, 6, a), \neg a(a_0)
\]

yields the clause \( \text{path}(0, 6) \lor \neg \text{path}(0, 0) \lor \neg \neg a(a_0) \).

The second part is soft constraints that guide the MAXSAT solver to pick the cheapest abstraction among those that satisfy the hard constraints. In our example, a weight of 1 is accrued when the solver picks an abstraction that contains zero label and, implicitly, a weight of 0 when it contains a one label.

The third part of the formula is soft constraints that negate each unproven query so far. The reason is that, to prove a query, we must find an abstraction that avoids deriving the query. One may wonder why we make these soft instead of hard constraints. The reason is that certain queries (e.g., \( \text{path}(0, 2) \)) cannot be proven by any abstraction; these would make the entire formula unsatisfiable and prevent other queries (e.g., \( \text{path}(0, 5) \)) from being proven. But we must be careful in the weights we attach: these weights can affect the convergence characteristics of our approach. Returning to our example, making such a soft clause unsatisfiable incurs a weight of 5, which implies that no abstraction – not just the cheapest – can prove that query, the reason being that even the most expensive abstraction incurs a weight of 4.

The formula constructed in each subsequent iteration conjoins those from all previous iterations with the formula encoding the derivation of the current iteration.

3. Parametric Dataflow Analyses

Datalog is a logic programming language capable of naturally expressing many static analyses [22, 25]. In this section, we review
We start with a review of Datalog’s syntax and semantics. Each Datalog program consists of a set of queries, and a setting of parameters that dictate the amount of cloning and control the degree of abstraction used in the analysis; they are thus constraints of type (3).

Hereafter, we refer to the set A of constraints of type (3) as the abstraction, and the set C of constraints of types (1) and (2) as the analysis. This further grouping reflects the different treatment of constraints by our refinement approach – the constraints in the abstraction change during iterative refinement, whereas the constraints in the analysis do not. Given an analysis, only abstractions from a certain family A make sense. We say that A is a valid abstraction when A ∈ A. The result for evaluating the analysis C with such a valid abstraction A is the set [C ∪ A] of tuples.

A query q ∈ Q is just a particular kind of tuple that describes a bug or an undesirable program property. We assume that a set Q ⊆ Q of queries is given in the specification of a verification problem. The goal of a parametric static analysis is to show, as much as possible, that the bugs or properties described by Q do not arise during the execution of a given program. We say of a valid abstraction A that it rules out a query q if and only if q ∉ [C ∪ A]. Note that an abstraction either derives a query, or rules it out. Different abstractions rule out different queries, and we will often refer to the set of queries ruled out by several abstractions taken together. We denote by R(A, Q) the set of queries out of Q that are ruled out by some abstraction A ∈ A:

\[ R(A, Q) = Q \setminus \bigcap_{A} \{ [C ∪ A] | A ∈ A \} \]

Conversely, we say that an abstraction A is unviable with respect to a set of queries Q if and only if A does not rule out any query in Q; that is, \( Q \subseteq [C ∪ A] \).

**Example 3.** In our graph reachability example, the family A of valid abstractions consists of sets \{abs(a_i), abs(b_j), abs(c_k), abs(d_l)\} for all i, j, k, l. They describe 16 options of cloning nodes in the graph. The set of queries is \( Q = \{\text{path}(0, 5), \text{path}(0, 2)\} \).

We assume that the family A of valid abstractions is equipped with the precision preorder ⪯ and the efficiency preorder ⪰. Intuitively, \( A_1 \sqsubseteq A_2 \) holds when \( A_1 \) is at most as precise as \( A_2 \), and so it rules out less queries. Formally, we require that the precision preorder obeys the following condition:

\[ A_1 \sqsubseteq A_2 \Rightarrow [C ∪ A_1] \cap Q \sqsubseteq [C ∪ A_2] \cap Q \]

Some analyses have a most precise abstraction \( A^∗ \), which can rule out most bugs. This abstraction, however, is often impractical, in the sense that computing \( [C ∪ A^∗] \) requires much too much time or space. The efficiency preorder captures the notion of abstraction efficiency: \( A_1 \preceq A_2 \) denotes that \( A_1 \) is at most as efficient as \( A_2 \). Often, the two precedors point in opposite directions.

**Example 4.** Abstractions of our running example are ordered as follows. Let \( A = \{\text{abs}(a_i), \text{abs}(b_j), \text{abs}(c_k), \text{abs}(d_l)\} \) and \( B = \{\text{abs}(a_i'), \text{abs}(b_j'), \text{abs}(c_k'), \text{abs}(d_l')\} \). Then, \( A \preceq B \) if and only if \( i' ≤ i \land j' ≤ j \land k' ≤ k \land l' ≤ l' \). Also, \( A \preceq B \) if and only if \( i'(i' + j' + k' + l') \geq i(i + j + k + l) \). These relationships formally express that cloning more nodes can improve the precision of the analysis but at the same time it can slow down the analysis.

**3.3 Problem Statement**

Our aim is to solve the following problem:

**Definition 5 (Datalog Analysis Problem).** Suppose we are given an analysis \( C \), a set \( Q \subseteq Q \) of queries, and an abstraction family \( (A, \sqsubseteq, \preceq) \). Compute the set \( R(A, Q) \) of queries that can be ruled out by some valid abstraction.

Since A is typically finite, a brute force solution is possible: simply apply the definition of \( R(A, Q) \). However, |A| is often exponential in the size of the analyzed program. Thus, it is highly desirable to exploit the problem to obtain a better

![Figure 5: Syntax of Datalog used for analyses.](image)

![Figure 6: Auxiliary definitions and notations.](image)

![Figure 7: Semantics of Datalog.](image)
solution. In particular, the information embodied by the efficiency preorder ≤ and by the precision preorder ⊑ should be exploited.

Our general approach, in the vein of CEGAR, is to run Datalog in turn, on a finite sequence \( A_1, \ldots, A_n \) of abstractions. In the ideal scenario, every query \( q \in Q \) is ruled out by some abstraction in the sequence, and the combined cost of running the analysis for all the abstractions in the sequence is as small as possible. The efficiency preorder ≤ provides a way to estimate the cost of running an analysis without actually doing so; the precision preorder ⊑ could be used to restrict the search for abstractions. We describe the approach in detail in the next section.

**Example 6.** What we have described for our running example provides the instance \( (C, Q, (A, A, \preceq)) \) of the Datalog Analysis problem. Recall that \( Q = \{ \text{path}(0, 2), \text{path}(0, 5) \} \). As we explained in Section 2, among these two queries, only \text{path}(0, 5) \) can be ruled out by some abstraction. A cheapest such abstraction according to the efficiency order ≤ is \( A = \{ \text{abs}(a_1), \text{abs}(b_0), \text{abs}(c_1), \text{abs}(d_0) \} \), which clones two nodes, while the most expensive one is \( B = \{ \text{abs}(a_1), \text{abs}(b_1), \text{abs}(c_1), \text{abs}(d_1) \} \) with four clones. Hence, the answer \( R(A, Q) \) for this problem is \( \{ \text{path}(0, 5) \} \), and our goal is to arrive at this answer in a small number of refinement iterations, while mostly trying a cheap abstraction in each iteration, such as the abstraction \( A \) rather than \( B \).

## 4. Algorithm

In this section, we present our CEGAR algorithm for parametric analyses expressed in Datalog. Our algorithm frees the designer of the analysis from the task of describing how to do refinement. All they must do is to describe which abstractions are valid. We achieve such a high degree of automation while remaining efficient due to two main ideas. The first is to record the result of a Datalog run using a boolean formula that compactly represents large sets of unviable abstractions. The second is to reduce the problem of finding a good abstraction to a MAXSAT problem.

We begin by describing the first idea (Section 4.1): how Datalog runs are encoded in boolean formulas, and what properties this encoding has. In particular, we observe that conjointing the encoding of multiple Datalog runs gives an under-approximation for the set of unviable abstractions (Theorem 9). This observation motivates the overall structure of our CEGAR-based solution to the Datalog analysis problem, which we describe next (Section 4.2). The algorithm relies on a subroutine for choosing the next abstraction. While arguing for the correctness of the algorithm, we formalize the requirements for this subroutine: it should choose a cheap abstraction not yet known to be unviable. We finish by describing the second idea (Section 4.3), how choosing a good abstraction is essentially a MAXSAT problem, thus completing the description of our solution.

### 4.1 From Datalog Derivations to SAT Formulae

In the CEGAR algorithm, we iteratively call a Datalog solver. It is desirable to do so as few times as possible, so we wish to eliminate as many unviable abstractions as possible without calling the solver. To do so, we need to rely on more information than the binary answer of a Datalog run, on whether an abstraction derives or rules out a query. Intuitively, there is more information, waiting to be exploited, in how a query is derived. Theorem 8 shows that by recording the Datalog run for an abstraction \( A \) as a boolean formula it is possible to partly predict what Datalog will do for other abstractions that share tuples with \( A \). Perhaps less intuitively, Theorem 9 shows that it is sound to mix (parts of) derivations seen for different runs of Datalog. Thus, in some situations we can predict that an abstraction \( A_1 \) will derive a certain query by combining tuple dependencies observed in runs for two other abstractions \( A_2 \) and \( A_3 \).

(\text{boolean formula}) \( \phi \in \Phi \)

\[ \phi := \text{True} \lor \phi_1 \lor \phi_2 \]

\[ \begin{align*} [C] & \in P(T) \rightarrow \Phi \bigg( \left\lfloor \begin{array}{l} [C] \equiv \bigwedge_{1 \leq i \leq n} \left( \sigma(l_1) \land \ldots \land \sigma(l_n) \rightarrow \sigma(l_0) \right) \\ \{l_0, \ldots, l_n\} \equiv C \land \sigma(l_0), \ldots, \sigma(l_n) \in T \end{array} \right\rfloor \bigg) \end{align*} \]

Figure 8: From Datalog analysis results to boolean formulas.

For each tuple \( t \in T \), we introduce a unique boolean variable which we also denote \( t \), and consider boolean formulas \( \phi \) that use such \( t \)'s as atomic formulas. We assume these formulas have the syntax from Figure 8, and we define their semantics using the satisfaction relation \( T \models \phi \) between a set \( T \) of tuples and a formula \( \phi \). It states that \( \phi \) is true under the assignment where each boolean variable in \( T \) is true and the remaining ones in \( T \) are false:

**Definition 7** (Satisfaction of boolean formula). The relation \( T \models \phi \) of boolean satisfaction is defined inductively, as follows:

\[ T \models \phi \iff \begin{aligned} T \models \phi, & \quad \text{always} \\ T \models \neg \phi, & \quad \text{iff } T \not\models \phi \\ T \models \phi_1 \land \phi_2, & \quad \text{iff } T \models \phi_1 \text{ and } T \models \phi_2 \end{aligned} \]

If \( T \models \phi \), we say that \( T \) is a model of \( \phi \). We say that \( \phi \) is valid and write \( \models \phi \) when \( T \models \phi \) for all \( T \subseteq C \). The other boolean connectives can be defined in terms of \( \wedge \) and \( \lor \).

Figure 8 shows our routine for producing a boolean formula from the result \( T \) of analysis \( C \). We denote this formula with \( [C]_T \). Intuitively, the formula encodes information about the dependency among tuples in derivations, and its models are those sets of tuples that are consistent with the observed dependencies. The following theorem states that \( [C]_T \) allows us to predict what Datalog would do for those abstractions \( A \subseteq T \).

**Theorem 8.** Let \( T \) be a fixed-point of function \( F_C \) used to define \( [C] \) in Figure 7, and let \( T' \) be a subset of \( T \); thus \( F_C(T') = T' \) and \( T' \subseteq T \). Then \( [C \cup T'] \) is fully determined by \( [C]_T \), as follows:

\[ t \in [C \cup T'] \iff ([C]_T \land [C]_T[\{t\}] \rightarrow t) \]

One interesting instantiation of the theorem is the case that \( T \) is the result of running Datalog with some valid abstraction \( A \), i.e., \( T = [C \cup A] \). To see the importance of this case, consider the first iteration of the running example (Section 2), where \( A = \{ \text{abs}(a_0), \text{abs}(b_0), \text{abs}(c_0), \text{abs}(d_0) \} \). The theorem says that it is possible to predict exactly what Datalog would do for subsets of \( A \). If such a subset derives a query then, by monotonicity (Proposition 1), so do all its supersets. In other words, we can give lower bounds for which queries do other abstractions derive. (All other abstractions are supersets of subsets of \( A \).)

When the analysis \( C \) is run multiple times with different abstractions, the results \( T_1, \ldots, T_n \) of these runs lead to boolean formulas \( [C]_{T_1}, \ldots, [C]_{T_n} \). The next theorem points out the benefit of considering these formulas together, as illustrated in Section 2. It implies that by conjointing these formulas, we can mix derivations from different runs, and identify more unviable abstractions.

**Theorem 9.** Let \( T_1, \ldots, T_n \) be fixed-points of \( F_C \). For all \( T' \),

\[ ([\bigwedge_{1 \leq i \leq n} [C]_{T_i} \land \ldots \land [C]_{T_n}] \rightarrow t) \rightarrow t \in [C \cup T'] \]

### 4.2 The Algorithm

Our main algorithm (Algorithm 1) classifies the queries \( Q \) into those that are ruled out by some abstraction and those that are impossible to rule out using any abstraction. The algorithm maintains its state in two variables, \( R \in P(Q) \) and \( \phi \in \Phi \), where \( R \) is the set of queries that have been ruled out so far and \( \phi \) is a boolean formula that encodes the Datalog runs observed so far.

The call \( \text{choose}(\phi, Q') \) evaluates to impossible only if all queries in \( Q' \) are impossible to rule out, according to the infor-
Theorem 9. Section 4.3 is partially correct: it returns Algorithm 1, which makes use of the efficiency preorder \( \preceq \).

Algorithm 1 CEGAR-based Datalog analysis.

1: **INPUT**: Queries \( Q \)
2: **OUTPUT**: A partition \((R, I)\) of \( Q \), where \( R \) contains queries that have been ruled out and \( I \) queries impossible to rule out.
3: var \( R := \emptyset \), \( \phi := \text{True} \)
4: loop
5: \( A := \text{choose}(\phi, Q \setminus R) \)
6: if \((A = \text{impossible})\) return \((R, Q \setminus R)\)
7: \( T := [C \cup A] \)
8: \( R := R \cup (Q \setminus T) \)
9: \( \phi := \phi \land [C]_T \)
10: end loop

The condition that \( \text{choose} \) is valid appears complicated, but it is just a formal way to say that all queries in \( Q' \) are derivable from \( A \) using derivations encoded in \( \phi \). Hence, \( \gamma(\phi, Q') \) contains the abstractions known to be unviable with respect to \( Q' \); thus \( \Delta A = \gamma(\phi, Q') \) is the set of valid abstractions that, according to \( \phi \), might be able to rule out some queries in \( Q' \). The function \( \text{choose}(\phi, Q) \) chooses an abstraction from \( A \setminus \gamma(\phi, Q) \), if this set is not empty.

Each iteration of Algorithm 1 begins with a call to \text{choose} (Line 5). If all remaining queries \( Q \setminus R \) are impossible to rule out, then the algorithm terminates. Otherwise, a Datalog solver is run with the new abstraction \( A \) (Line 7). The set \( R \) of ruled out queries is updated (Line 8) and the relevant Datalog rule groundings are recorded in \( \phi \) (Line 9).

Theorem 10. If \text{choose}(\phi, Q') \) evaluates to an element of the set \( A \setminus \gamma(\phi, Q') \) whenever such an element exists, and to impossible otherwise, then Algorithm 1 is partially correct: it returns \((R, I)\) such that \( R = R(A, Q) \) and \( I = Q \setminus R \). In addition, if \( A \) is finite, then Algorithm 1 terminates.

The next section gives one definition of the function \text{choose} that satisfies the requirements of Theorem 10, thus completing the description of a correct algorithm. The definition of \text{choose} from Section 4.3 makes use of the efficiency preorder \( \preceq \), such that the resulting algorithm is not only correct, but also efficient. Our implementation also makes use of the precision preorder \( \sqsubseteq \) to further improve efficiency. The main idea is to constrain the sequence of used abstractions to be ascending with respect to \( \sqsubseteq \). For this to be correct, however, the abstraction family must satisfy an additional condition: for any two abstractions \( A_1 \) and \( A_2 \) there must exist another abstraction \( A \) such that \( A \sqsupseteq A_1 \) and \( A \sqsupseteq A_2 \). The proofs are available in the long version of the paper.

4.3 Choosing Good Abstractions via MAXSAT

The requirement that function \text{choose}(\phi, Q') \) should satisfy was laid down in the previous section: it should return an element of \( A \setminus \gamma(\phi, Q') \), or say impossible if no such element exists. In this subsection we describe how to choose the cheapest element, according to the preorder \( \preceq \). The type of function \text{choose} is

\[
\text{choose} \in \Phi \times \mathcal{P}(Q) \rightarrow \mathcal{A} \cup \{\text{impossible}\}
\]

The function \text{choose} is essentially a reduction to the standard weighted MAXSAT problem [18]. This section begins with a brief review of the MAXSAT problem and then continues with an explanation for one definition of \text{choose}.

The input to a (partial and weighted) MAXSAT problem is the hard constraint \( \psi_0 \) and pairs \((w_k, \psi_k)\) of weights \( w_k \) and soft constraints \( \psi_k \) for \( 1 \leq k \leq n \). The goal is to find a model of the hard constraint such that the weight sum of the satisfied soft constraints is maximized. Formally, \( \text{MAXSAT}(\psi_0, \{(w_1, \psi_1), \ldots, (w_n, \psi_n)\}) \)

finds \( T \subseteq T \) that maximizes \( \sum w_i \mid T \models \psi_i \) and \( 1 \leq i \leq n \)
subject to \( T \models \psi_0 \)

If there is no feasible solution then \text{MAXSAT} returns impossible. In textbook definitions, the constraints are required to be clauses, i.e., disjunctions of atomic formulas. To simplify the presentation, we do not list individual clauses, but use what may appear to be arbitrary boolean formulas. However, these formulas are always in conjunctive normal form or trivially convertible to that form.

To define choose in terms of MAXSAT, we simply have to say which are the hard and soft constraints. Before describing these in general, let us examine an example.

Example 11. Consider an analysis with parameters \( p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_n \), each taking a value from \( \{1, 2, \ldots, k\} \). The set of valid abstractions is \( A = \{1, 2, \ldots, n\} \rightarrow \{1, 2, \ldots, k\} \). The fact that \( p_i \) has value \( j \) is encoded by a Datalog tuple which in turn is encoded as a boolean variable. Let us write \( [p_i = j] \) for the boolean variable that encodes the fact \( p_i = j \). Let the queries be \( \{q_1, q_2, q_3\} \), and suppose that the accumulated constraints are

\[
\psi = ([p_1 = 1] \land [p_2 = 1] \rightarrow q_1) \land ([p_1 = 1] \land [p_2 = 1] \rightarrow q_2) \land ([p_1 = 1] \rightarrow q_3)
\]

We construct the hard constraint such that (1) only valid abstractions are considered, and (2) abstractions known to be unviable with respect to \( \{q_1, q_2, q_3\} \) are avoided.

\[
\psi_0 = \Delta A \land \phi \land (\neg q_1 \lor \neg q_2 \lor \neg q_3)
\]

The formula \( \Delta A \), which restricts abstractions to be valid, could be defined as \( \{\Delta A \mid 1 \leq i \leq n\} \) where

\[
\Delta A \triangleq \bigvee \{ [p_i = j] \mid 1 \leq i \leq k \} \land \neg p_i
\]

\[
\land \{ [\neg (p_i < j) \land [p_i = j]] \mid 1 \leq j \leq k \}
\]

\[
\land \{ [\neg (p_i < j) \lor [p_i = j]] \leftrightarrow [p_i < j + 1] \mid 1 \leq j < k \}
\]

The formula \( \Delta A \) says that \( p_i \) takes exactly one value. The definition uses auxiliary boolean variables \( p_i < j \), so that \( \Delta A \) grows linearly with \( k \), rather than quadratically as the naive encoding does. One interesting feature of the hard constraint \( \psi_0 \) defined above is that a large part of \( \psi_0 \) can be rewritten in a Horn conjunctive normal form.

It remains to construct the soft constraints. To a large extent, this is done based on knowledge about the efficiency characteristics of a particular analysis, and thus is left to the designer of the analysis. For example, if the designer knows from experience that the analysis tends to take longer as \( \sum p_i \) increases, then they could include \([p_i = j]\) as a soft constraint with weight \( k - j \), for each \( i \) and \( j \).

The remaining soft constraints that we include are independent of the particular analysis, and they express that abstractions should be preferred when they could potentially help with more queries. In this example, the extra soft constraints are \( \neg q_1, \neg q_2, \neg q_3 \), all with some large weight \( w \). Suppose an abstraction \( A_1 \) is known to imply \( q_1 \), and an abstraction \( A_2 \) is known to imply both \( q_1 \) and \( q_2 \). Then \( A_1 \) is preferred over \( A_2 \) because of the last three soft constraints. Note that an abstraction is not considered at all only if it is known to imply all three queries, because of the hard constraint.

In general, choose is defined as follows:

\[
\text{choose}(\phi, Q) \triangleq \text{MAXSAT}(\Delta A \land \phi \land \alpha(Q), \gamma A \cup \beta A(Q))
\]
The boolean formula $\delta_A$ encodes the set $A$ of valid abstractions, and the soft constraints $\eta_A$ encode the efficiency preorder $\lesssim$. Formally, letting $T_A = \bigcup \{ A \mid A \in A \}$, the set of tuples used in valid abstractions, we require $\delta_A$ and $\eta_A$ to satisfy the conditions

$$T \models \delta_A \iff T \cap T_A \in A$$

$$A \preceq B \iff \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i \mid A \models \eta^{(n)}_A \leq \sum_{i=1}^{m} w_i \mid B \models \eta^{(m)}_B$$

where $\eta_A$ has the form $\{(w_1, \eta^{(1)}_A), \ldots, (w_n, \eta^{(n)}_A)\}$. Finally, the hard constraint $\alpha(Q)$ and the soft constraints $\beta(A)$ are

$$\alpha(Q) \triangleq \bigvee \{ \neg q \mid q \in Q \}$$

$$\beta(A) \triangleq \{ (w_A + 1, \neg q) \mid q \in Q \}$$

where $w_A$ is an upper bound on the weight given by $\eta_A$ to a valid abstraction; for example, the sum $\sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i$ of all weights would do.

Discussion. The function $\text{choose}(\phi, Q)$ reasons about a possibly very large set $\gamma(\phi, Q)$ of abstractions known to be unviable, and it does so by using the compact representation $\phi$ of previous Datalog runs, together with several helper formulas, such as $\delta_A$ and $\eta_A$. Moreover, the reduction to a MAXSAT problem is natural and involves almost no transformation of the formulas involved. (In practice, any acrobatics related to keeping formulas in conjunctive normal form while reducing a problem to MAXSAT has the tendency to degrade over-all performance.)

Finally, it is tempting to remark that the MAXSAT instances we produce are easy because they tend to consist of mostly Horn formulas. However, MAXSAT is known to be hard even in the restricted case of Horn formulas [14]. It is possible to design Datalog analyses for which $\delta_A$ and $\eta_A$ are extremely simple, the MAXSAT instances would be Horn formulas, and nevertheless finding the best next abstraction amounts to solving an NP-hard problem.

5. Empirical Evaluation

In this section, we empirically evaluate our approach on real-world analyses and programs. The experimental setup is described in Section 5.1 and the evaluation results are discussed in Section 5.2.

5.1 Experimental Setup

We evaluate our approach on two static analyses written in Datalog, a pointer analysis and a typestate analysis, for Java programs. We study the results of applying our approach to each of these analyses on eight Java benchmark programs described in Table 2. We analyzed the bytecode of the programs including the libraries that they use. The programs are from Ashes Suite and DaCapo suite.

We implemented our approach using open-source Datalog and MAXSAT solvers without any modification. Both our analyses are expressed and solved using bddbddb [24], a BDD-based Datalog solver. Throughout experiments, we use the algorithm of Section 4.2 with the optimizations at the end of that section. We use the MifFuMaX solver [13] to solve MAXSAT formulas generated by this algorithm. All our experiments were done using Oracle HotSpot JVM 1.6 on a Linux machine with 128GB memory and 3.0GHz processors. We next describe our two analyses in more detail.

Pointer Analysis. Our pointer analysis is flow-insensitive but context-sensitive, based on $k$-object-sensitivity [19]. It computes a call graph simultaneously with points-to results, because the precision of the call graph and points-to results is inter-dependent due to dynamic dispatching in OO languages like Java.

The precision and efficiency of this analysis depends heavily on how many distinctions it makes between different calling contexts. In Java, the value of the receiver object this provides context at runtime. But a static analysis cannot track concrete objects. Instead, static analyses typically track the allocation site of objects. In general, in object-sensitive analyses the abstract execution context is an allocation string $h_1, \ldots, h_k$. The site $h_1$ is where the receiver object was instantiated. The allocation string $h_2, \ldots, h_k$ is the context of $h_1$, defined recursively. Typically, all contexts are truncated to the same length $k$.

In our setting, an abstraction $A$ enables finer control on how contexts are truncated: The context for allocation site $h$ is truncated to length $A(h)$. Thus, truncation length may vary from one allocation site to another. This finer control allows us to better balance precision and efficiency. Abstractions are ordered as follows:

- (precision) $A_1 \subseteq A_2$ $\iff$ $\forall h : A_1(h) \leq A_2(h)$
- (efficiency) $A_1 \preceq A_2$ $\iff$ $\Sigma_h A_1(h) \geq \Sigma_h A_2(h)$

These definitions reflect the intuition that making more distinctions between contexts increases precision but is more expensive.

Typestate analysis. Our typestate analysis is based on that by Fink et al. [9]. It differs in three major ways from the pointer analysis described above. First, it is fully flow-sensitive, whereas the pointer analysis is fully flow-insensitive. Second, it is fully context-sensitive, using procedure summaries instead of cloning, and therefore capable of precise reasoning for programs with arbitrary call chain depth, including recursive ones. It is based on the tabulation algorithm [21] that we expressed in Datalog. Third, it performs both may- and must-alias reasoning: in particular, it can do strong updates, whereas our pointer analysis only does weak updates. These differences between our two analyses highlight the versatility of our approach.

More specifically, the typestate analysis computes at each program point, a set of abstract states of the form $(h, t, a)$ that collectively over-approximate the typestates of all objects at that program point. The meaning of these components of an abstract state is as follows: $h$ is an allocation site in the program, $t$ is the typestate in which a certain object allocated at that site might be in, and $a$ is a finite set of heap access paths with which that object is definitely aliased (called must set). The precision and efficiency of this analysis depends heavily on how many access paths it tracks in must sets. Hence, the abstraction $A$ we use to parametrize this analysis is a set of access paths that the analysis is allowed to track: any must set in any abstract state computed by the analysis must be a subset of the current abstraction $A$. The specification of this parametrized analysis differs from the original analysis in that the parametrized analysis simply checks before adding an access path $p$ to a must set $m$ whether $p \subseteq A$: if not, it does not add $p$ to $m$; otherwise, it proceeds as before. Note that it is always safe to drop any access path from any must set in any abstract state, which ensures that it is sound to run the analysis using any set of access paths as the abstraction. Different abstractions, however, do affect the precision and efficiency of the analysis, and are ordered as follows:

- (precision) $A_1 \subseteq A_2$ $\iff$ $A_1 \preceq A_2$
- (efficiency) $A_1 \preceq A_2$ $\iff$ $|A_1| \geq |A_2|$

which reflects the intuition that tracking more access paths makes the analysis more precise but also less efficient.

Using the typestate analysis client, we compare our refinement approach to a scalable CEGAR-based approach for finding optimal abstractions proposed by Zhang et al. [26]. A similar comparison is not possible for the pointer analysis client since the work by Zhang et al. cannot handle non-disjunctive analyses. Instead, we compare the precision and scalability of our approach on the pointer analysis client with an optimized Datalog-based implementation of $k$-object-sensitive pointer analysis that uses $k = 4$ for all allocation sites in the program. Using a higher $k$ value caused this baseline analysis to timeout on our larger benchmarks.

5.2 Evaluation Results

Table 3 summarizes the results of our experiments. It shows the numbers of queries, abstractions, and iterations of our approach (CURRENT) and the baseline approaches (BASELINE) for each analysis and benchmark.

The ‘total’ column under queries shows the number of queries posed by the analysis on each benchmark. For the pointer analysis,
Table 2: Benchmark characteristics. All numbers are computed using a 0-CFA call-graph analysis.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th># classes</th>
<th># methods</th>
<th>bytecode (KB)</th>
<th>source (KLOC)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>app</td>
<td>total</td>
<td>app</td>
<td>total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>toba-s</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>745</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>javasc-p</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>461</td>
<td>789</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>webtech</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>576</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>3,326</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hedic</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>353</td>
<td>230</td>
<td>2,134</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>antlr</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>350</td>
<td>1,150</td>
<td>2,370</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>luindex</td>
<td>206</td>
<td>619</td>
<td>1,390</td>
<td>3,732</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lusearch</td>
<td>219</td>
<td>640</td>
<td>1,390</td>
<td>3,923</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>schroeder-m</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>936</td>
<td>617</td>
<td>6,435</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Results showing statistics of queries, abstractions, and iterations of our approach (CURRENT) and the baseline approaches (BASELINE).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>queries</th>
<th>abstraction size</th>
<th>iterations</th>
<th>queries</th>
<th>abstraction size</th>
<th>iterations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>total</td>
<td>resolved</td>
<td>final</td>
<td>max.</td>
<td>total</td>
<td>resolved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>toba-s</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>17,820</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>javasc-p</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>470</td>
<td>18,450</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>webtech</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>30,950</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hedic</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>730</td>
<td>29,480</td>
<td>18</td>
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<tr>
<td>antlr</td>
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<td>143</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>970</td>
<td>29,170</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>luindex</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>1,160</td>
<td>40,550</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lusearch</td>
<td>322</td>
<td>322</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>1,460</td>
<td>39,360</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>schroeder-m</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>450</td>
<td>58,260</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

each query corresponds to proving that a certain dynamically dispatching call site in the benchmark is monomorphic; i.e., it has a single target method. We excluded queries that could be proven by a context-insensitive pointer analysis. For the typestate analysis, each query corresponds to a typestate assertion. We tracked typestate properties for the objects from the same set of classes as used by Fink et al. [9] in their evaluation.

The ‘resolved’ column shows the number of queries proven or shown to be impossible to prove using any abstraction in the search space. For the pointer analysis, impossibility means that a call site cannot be proven monomorphic no matter how high the k values are. For the typestate analysis, impossibility implies that the typestate assertion cannot be proven even by tracking all program variables. In our experiments, we found that our approach successfully resolved all the queries for the pointer analysis, by using a maximum k value of 10 at any allocation site. However, the baseline 4-object-sensitive analysis without refinement could only resolve up to 50% of the queries. Selectively increasing the k value allowed our approach to scale better and try higher k values, leading to greater precision. For the typestate analysis client, both of our approach and the baseline approach resolved all queries.

Table 3 gives the abstraction size, which is an estimate of how costly it is to run an abstraction. An abstraction is considered to be more efficient when its size is smaller. But the size of abstraction A is defined differently for the two analyses: for pointer analysis, it is \( \sum A(h) \); for typestate analysis, it is \(|A|\). The ‘max.’ column shows the maximum size of an abstraction for the given program. For the pointer analysis, the maximum size corresponds to 10-object-sensitive analysis. For the typestate analysis, the maximum size corresponds to tracking all access paths. Even on the smallest benchmark, these costly analyses ran out of memory, emphasizing the need for our CEGAR approach. The ‘final’ column shows the size of the abstraction used in the last iteration. In all cases the size of the final abstraction is less than 5% of the maximum size.

The ‘iterations’ column shows the total number of iterations until all queries were solved. These numbers show that our approach is capable of exploring a huge space of abstractions for a large number of queries simultaneously, in under a few iterations. In comparison, the baseline approach (BASELINE) of Zhang et al. invokes the typestate client analysis far more frequently because it refines each query individually. For example, the baseline approach took 159 iterations to finish the typestate analysis on toba-s, while our approach only needed 15 iterations. Since the baseline for the pointer analysis client is not a refinement-based approach, it invokes the client analysis just once and is not comparable with our approach.

In the rest of this section, we evaluate the performance of the Datalog solver and the MAXSAT solver in more detail.

**Performance of Datalog solver.** Table 4 shows statistics of the running time of the Datalog solver in different iterations of our approach. These statistics include the minimum, maximum, and average running time over all iterations for a given analysis and benchmark. The numbers in Table 4 indicate that the abstractions chosen by our approach are small enough to allow the analyses to scale. For schroeder-m, one of our largest benchmarks, the change in running time from the slowest to the fastest run is only 2X for both client analyses. This further indicates that our approach is able to resolve all posed queries simultaneously before the sizes of the chosen abstractions start affecting the scalability of the client Datalog analyses. In contrast, the baseline k-object-sensitive analysis could only scale upto \( k = 4 \) on our larger benchmarks. Even with \( k = 4 \), the Datalog solver ran for over six hours on our largest benchmark when using the baseline approach. With our approach, on the other hand, the longest single run of the Datalog solver for the pointer analysis client was only seven minutes.

Figures 9 and 10 show the change in abstraction size and the analysis running time across iterations for the pointer and typestate analysis, respectively, applied on schroeder-m. There is a clear correlation between the growth in abstraction size and the increase in the running times. For both analyses, since our approach only chooses the cheapest viable abstraction in each iteration, the abstraction size grows almost linearly, as expected. Further, for typestate analysis, an increase in abstraction size typically results in an almost linear growth in the number of abstract states tracked. Consequently, the linear growth in the running time for the typestate analysis is also expected behavior. However, for the pointer analysis, typically, the number of distinct calling contexts grows exponentially with the increase in abstraction size. The linear curve for the running time in Figure 9 indicates that the abstractions chosen by our approach are small enough to limit this exponential growth.
Table 4: Running time of the Datalog and MAXSAT solvers in each iteration.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Datalog solver (in seconds)</th>
<th>MAXSAT solver (in seconds)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>pointer analysis</td>
<td>typestate analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>min.</td>
<td>max.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>toba-s</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>javasc-p</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>weblech</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hede</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>antl</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>luindex</td>
<td>913</td>
<td>128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lusearch</td>
<td>7040</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schroeder-m</td>
<td>23,038</td>
<td>248</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5: Statistics of MAXSAT formula in the final iteration.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th># clauses</th>
<th># variables</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>toba-s</td>
<td>1,485k</td>
<td>784k</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>javasc-p</td>
<td>877k</td>
<td>470k</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>weblech</td>
<td>3,307k</td>
<td>1,620k</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hede</td>
<td>2,664k</td>
<td>1,245k</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>antl</td>
<td>6,875k</td>
<td>3,621k</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>luindex</td>
<td>5,643k</td>
<td>2,406k</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lusearch</td>
<td>5,011k</td>
<td>2,103k</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schroeder-m</td>
<td>23,680k</td>
<td>6,700k</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 9: Running time of the Datalog solver and abstraction size for pointer analysis on Schroeder-m in each iteration.

Figure 10: Running time of the Datalog solver and abstraction size for typestate analysis on Schroeder-m in each iteration.

Performance of MAXSAT solver. Table 4 shows statistics of the running time of the MAXSAT solver in different iterations of our approach. The metrics reported are the same as those for the Datalog solver. Although the performance of MAXSAT solvers is not completely deterministic, it is largely affected by two factors, (1) the size of boolean constraints posed to the solver, and (2) the structure of these constraints. For both analyses, as seen previously, the abstraction size increases with the number of iterations while the number of unresolved queries decreases. Growth in abstraction size increases the complexity of the client Datalog analyses, causing an increase in the number of boolean constraints generated. On the other hand, fewer queries tends to simplify the structure of the constraints to be solved.

Figure 11 shows the running time of the MAXSAT solver for pointer analysis on Schroeder-m in each iteration.

Finally, Table 5 shows the number of variables and clauses in the largest constraint that the MAXSAT solver had to solve for a given analysis and benchmark. Though the size of these constraints is not apparent from these numbers, the large size of the constraints indicates the difficulty of the problems that the solver is tackling.

6. Related Work

Our approach is broadly related to work on constraint-based analysis, including analysis based on boolean constraints, set constraints, and SMT constraints. Constraint-based analysis has well-known benefits that our approach also avails, such as the ability to reason about the analysis and leveraging sophisticated solvers to implement the analysis. A key difference is that constraint-based analyses typically solve constraints generated from program text, whereas our approach solves constraints generated from an analysis run, which is itself obtained by solving constraints generated from program text.

Our approach is also related to work on CEGAR-based model checking and program analyses using Datalog, as we discuss next.

CEGAR-based Model Checking. CEGAR was originally proposed to enable model checkers to scale to even larger state-spaces than those possible by symbolic approaches such as BDDs [8]. Our motivation for using CEGAR, in contrast, is to enable designers of analyses in Datalog to express flexible abstractions. Moreover, our notions of counterexamples and refined abstractions differ radically from those in model checkers. Despite these differences, however, there are similarities. Notably, SAT-based approaches have also been
applied in model checkers [3, 6, 7], albeit for different purposes: they use SAT either to perform bounded model checking itself [7] or to decide whether a counterexample is real or spurious [3, 6], whereas we use SAT to generalize a counterexample and find a refined abstraction.

Our work is most closely related to recent work on synthesizing software verifiers from proof rules for safety and liveness properties in the form of Horn-like clauses [2, 4, 10]. Their approach is also CEGAR-based but differs in two key ways: (1) they can identify internal nodes of derivations where information gets lost due to the current abstraction, which they subsequently refine, whereas we focus on leaf nodes of derivations; and (2) they use CEGAR to solve difficult Horn constraints formulated even on infinite domains, whereas we use CEGAR for finding a better abstraction, which is then used to generate new Horn constraints. As such, their approach is more expressive and flexible, but ours appears to scale better.

Zhang et al. [26] propose a CEGAR-based approach for efficiently finding an optimal abstraction in a parametric program analysis. Their approach improves on Zhang et al. in three aspects. First, their counterexample generation requires a parametric static analysis to be disjunctive (which implies path-sensitivity), whereas any analysis written in Datalog, including non-disjunctive ones, can be handled by our approach. As a result, their approach is not applicable to the pointer analysis in Section 5. Second, their approach relies on a nontrivial backward analysis for analyzing a counterexample and selecting a next abstraction to try, but this backward analysis is not generic and should be designed for each parametric analysis. Our approach, on the other hand, uses a generic MAXSAT-based algorithm for the counterexample analysis and the abstraction selection, which only requires users to define the cost model of abstractions. Conversely, [26] converges faster for certain problems. Finally, the approach in [26] cannot mix counterexamples across iterations to generate new counterexamples for free, a feature that is present in our approach as illustrated in Section 2.

Program Analysis Using Datalog. Recent years have witnessed a surge of interest in using Datalog for program analysis (see Section 1). Datalog solvers have simultaneously advanced, using either symbolic representations of relations such as BDDs (e.g., BDDBDBDB [25] and Jedd [16]) or explicit representations (e.g., Doop [22]). More recently the popular Z3 SMT solver has been extended to compute least fixpoints of constraints expressed in Datalog [12]. Our CEGAR approach is independent of the underlying Datalog solver and leverages these advances.

Liang et al. [17] propose a cause-effect dependence analysis technique for analyses in Datalog. The technique identifies input tuples that definitely do not affect output tuples. More specifically, it computes the transitive closure of all derivations of an output tuple to identify an over-approximation of the set of input tuples needed in any derivation (e.g., \{t_1, t_2, t_3\}). In contrast, our approach identifies the exact set of input tuples needed in each of even exponentially many derivations (e.g., \{t_1\}, \{t_2\}, \{t_3\}). Thus, in our example, their approach prunes abstractions that contain \{t_1, t_2, t_3\}, whereas ours also prunes those that only contain \{t_2\} or \{t_2, t_3\}.

7. Conclusion

We presented a novel CEGAR-based approach to automatically find effective abstractions for program analyses written in Datalog. We formulated the abstraction refinement problem for each iteration as a MAXSAT problem that not only successfully eliminates all abstractions which fail in a similar way but also finds the next cheapest viable abstraction. We showed the generality of our approach by applying it to two different and realistic static analyses. Finally, we demonstrated its practicality by evaluating it on a suite of eight real-world Java benchmarks.

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