Making Resource Analysis Practical for Real-Time Java

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ABSTRACT

For real-time and embedded systems limiting the consumption of time and memory resources is often an important part of the requirements. Being able to predict bounds on the consumption of these resources during the development process of the code can be of great value.

Recent research results have advanced the state of the art of resource consumption analysis. In this paper we present a tool that makes it possible to apply these research results in practice for real-time systems enabling Java developers to analyse loop bounds, bounds on heap size and bounds on stack size. We describe which theoretical additions were needed in order to achieve this.

We give an overview of the capabilities of the tool RESANA that is the result of this effort. The tool can not only perform generally applicable analyses, but it also contains a part of the analysis which is dedicated to the developers’ (real-time) virtual machine, such that the results apply directly to the actual development environment that is used in practice.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Both in industry and in academia there is an increasing interest in more detailed resource analysis bounds than orders of complexity. Focus in correctness for industrial critical systems is often mainly on functional correctness: does the program deliver the right output with the right input. However, for such systems it is just as important to make sure that bounds for the consumption of time and space are not exceeded. Otherwise, a program may not react within the required time or it may run out of memory and come to a halt (making it vulnerable to a Denial Of Service attack).

Traditionally, the focus has been on performance analysis taking time as resource which is consumed. More recently, several researchers have produced significant results in heap and stack bound analysis. A variety of different techniques have been developed independently not only on the language level but also on the byte code level [1]. Researchers use polynomial interpolation [51], reachability-bound analysis [10], amortization [17], polynomial quasi-interpretation [6] and new language features such as programmer-controlled destruction and copying of data structures [10]. Of course, such analyses are undecidable in general. In practice, however, an increasingly large set of problems can be handled.

This research has been performed in the context of the EU Artemis CHARTER (Critical and High Assurance Requirements Transformed through Engineering Rigour) project. For safety-critical areas such as avionics, surveillance, automotive and health-care, the project targets REALTIME JAVA in the context of a model driven development approach. Being able to guarantee bounds for resource consumption is a vital aspect for safety-critical systems. In this paper, we focus on the Java language and on resource consumption properties related to time, heap and stack usage. Using the scoped memory which is offered by REALTIME JAVA one can enforce constant memory bounds and facilitate simple memory management. However, in order to deal with more complex bounds, a thorough analysis is needed.

With the goals of making these results applicable in practice, our resource analysis goes beyond orders of complexity. We aim at obtaining bounds that are expressions of relevant variables and parameters. If a resource is consumed quadratically with respect to the value of a parameter $x$,
than a typical bound could be e.g. \(2x^2 - 4x + 15\) thus indicating the exact dependency of the bound on the variable. In order to achieve that in practice we developed a tool, ResAna\(^1\) that contains a general process which has two phases.

**Inference** In the inference phase the ResAna tool analyses the Java source of the program in order to propose a possible resource bound for the program. It uses traditional analysis techniques like solving cost-relation systems and a novel polynomial interpolation technique. This interpolation-based approach is very powerful. It allows also non-monotonic polynomial bounds to be derived (the developer does not have to indicate the exact dependencies: they are derived). The obtained result is added to the Java program via an annotation using the JML specification language\(^2\).

**Verification** Results are achieved by solving cost relations or by interpolating polynomials. Solving cost relations is sound by construction. The use of interpolation is not guaranteed to be sound. Therefore, the results achieved by interpolation must be verified, e.g. by the KeY verification tool\(^7\) or the QEPCAD algebraic decomposition tool\(^8\). If the tool is not able to verify them, one can proceed with a new inference phase with other user options, such as e.g. trying a higher degree polynomial.

The tool ResAna allows three different kinds of analysis.

**Loop Bound Analysis** An expression that gives an upper bound for the number times a loop is executed may be derived and verified using the integrated combination\(^27\) of the tools ResAna and KeY.

**Heap Bound Analysis** An expression for an upper bound of the consumed heap is derived using ResAna extended with a variant of the external tool COSTA\(^2\). The tool COSTA has been adapted to produce accurate values for the real-time JamaicaVM virtual machine\(^30\). Furthermore, the capabilities of the tool COSTA have been enlarged through the internal use of interpolation technology\(^24\).

**Stack Bound Analysis** An expression for an upper bound of the space for the stack is derived using ResAna with the enlarged COSTA that provides an upper bound for the depth of recursive calls; this information is used by the VeriFlux tool\(^21\) to obtain a numeric stack bound.

These three kinds of analysis are integrated in a common program development environment through an Eclipse plug-in, such that a developer can easily switch between development and verification activities guaranteeing the safety of critical real-time software applications.

The contribution of this paper is threefold. First of all, it contains the first integral description of the tool ResAna that makes resource analysis practical by comprising many features assisting real-time developers in producing reliable safety critical code that stays within the required loop, heap and stack bounds. Secondly, it contains the first explanation of a technique that is used to achieve virtual-machine-dedicated, tight heap bounds for real-time programs dealing with arrays. Thirdly, it describes how the information of the tools COSTA, QEPCAD/KeY and VeriFlux can be combined in ResAna to achieve sound stack bounds.

In Sect.\(^2\) loop bound analysis is described. Sect.\(^3\) presents heap bound analysis and the adjustments that have been made to make it applicable in practice. Analysing stack bounds is discussed in Sect.\(^4\). User experience with ResAna is described in Sect.\(^5\) Finally, related work is discussed and conclusions are drawn.

## 2. Loop-Bound Analysis

In order to prove termination of a piece of software or, even harder, calculate bounds on run-time or usage of resources such as heap-space or energy, finding bounds on the number of iterations that the loops can make is a pre-requisite. While in some cases a loop may iterate a fixed number of times, its execution will often depend on user input. Therefore we consider symbolic loop bounds, or ranking functions.

A loop ranking function is a function over (some of) the program variables used in the loop, that decreases at each iteration and is bounded by zero. Listing 1 shows a simple while loop. Although \(100 - i\) is a perfectly fine ranking function as well, the most precise one for this loop is \(15 - i\). This gives the exact number of iterations the loop will make, for arbitrary \(i\).

```java
1 while (i < 15)
2  i++;
```

Listing 1: A simple while loop, with most precise ranking function \(15 - i\).

In this section, we present a method for the automatic inference of polynomial ranking functions for loops, based on polynomial interpolation. This procedure was first presented by Shkaravska et al. in\(^27\). It can infer polynomial ranking functions, whereas other methods are limited to linear symbolic or concrete bounds. Note that to derive concrete bounds from symbolic bounds, the analysis could be combined with data-flow analysis. To derive concrete upper and lower bounds on the number of iterations of a loop, upper and lower bounds have to be known statically for all the program variables in the symbolic bound.

We will introduce polynomial interpolation as used for ranking function inference in Sect.\(^2.1\). Section\(^2.2\) describes the inference method. In Sect.\(^2.3\) a quadratic example is given. Finally, the soundness of the method is discussed in Sect.\(^2.4\). Another application of our polynomial interpolation method is discussed in Sect.\(^3.1\). (See also Fig.\(^3\)).

### 2.1 Polynomial Interpolation

When the result of a polynomial function is known for certain test values, the values of its coefficients can be derived. Such a polynomial, which interpolates the test results, exists and is unique under some conditions on the data, which are explored in polynomial-interpolation theory\(^9\).

For 1-variable interpolation this condition is well-known: all the test-nodes must be different. For multivariate data, more care must be taken in selecting the right test-nodes.

---

\(^1\)ResAna is open source software and can be downloaded from http://resourceanalysis.cs.ru.nl/resana/
In [9], three node configurations are given that ensure the existence of a unique multivariate polynomial interpolation. We use Node Configuration A (NCA) for ranking function inference. Two-dimensional NCA can be defined as follows. Remember that a polynomial \( p(z_1, \ldots, z_k) \) of degree \( d \) and dimension \( k \) (the number of variables) has \( N_k^d = \binom{d+k}{k} \) coefficients. This is the number of test-nodes that we need.

3. \( N_k^2 \) nodes forming a set \( W \subset \mathbb{R}^2 \) lie in a 2-dimensional NCA if there exist lines \( \gamma_1, \ldots, \gamma_{d+1} \) in the space \( \mathbb{R}^2 \), such that \( d + 1 \) nodes of \( W \) lie on \( \gamma_{d+1} \) and \( d \) nodes of \( W \) lie on \( \gamma_{d} \cup \ldots \cup \gamma_{d+1} \).

For dimensions \( k > 2 \), NCA is defined inductively on \( k \). A set of \( N_k^d \) nodes is in NCA in \( \mathbb{R}^k \) if and only if

- there is a \((k-1)\)-dimensional hyperplane such that it contains \( N_{k-1}^{d-1} \) of the given nodes lying in \((k-1)\)-dimensional NCA for the degree \( d \),
- for any \( 0 \leq i \leq d \), there is a \((k-1)\)-dimensional hyperplane such that it contains \( N_{k-1}^{d-1} \) nodes, lying in \((k-1)\)-dimensional NCA for the degree \( d-i \) and these nodes do not lie on the previous hyperplanes,
- thus, the remaining 1 node lies on the remaining hyperplane and does not belong to the previous ones.

A typical instance of NCA is a \( k \)-dimensional grid.

### 2.2 Test-Based Inference of Polynomial Ranking Functions for Loops

In [27], Shkaravska, Kersten and Van Eekelen present a method for the inference of polynomial ranking functions for loops. Only loops in which the guards are conjunctions over arithmetical (in)equalities are considered:

\[
\sum_{i=1}^{n} (c_i b \cdot e_i)
\]

with \( b \in \{<, >, =, \neq, \leq, \geq \} \).

The method works in the following steps:

1. Instrument the loop with a counter
2. Run tests on a well-chosen set of input values
3. Find the polynomial interpolation of the results

Here, well-chosen means that test-nodes have to be picked such that there exists a unique interpolating polynomial. This is the reason we can refer to the polynomial interpolation in step 3. To ensure the existence of a unique interpolation, the test nodes are chosen to lie in Node Configuration A (NCA). Also, test-nodes must satisfy the guard of the considered loop. An algorithm for node search is presented in [27].

In the current version of ResAna, the ranking function can contain primitive data types, object field access and array access. Note that in theory, the method could also handle loops for which the ranking function depends on for instance the height of a tree. However, since this height is not readily available in a program variable, this would require explication of the tree height by the programmer.

### 2.3 Quadratic Example

Consider the example in Listing 2. The most precise ranking function for this loop is the degree 2 polynomial \( a \cdot b - c + 1 \).

```java
1 while (a > 0 && c <= b && c > 0) {
2   if (c == b) { a--; c = 0; }
3   c++;
4 }
```

Listing 2: A while loop with degree 2 ranking function \( a \cdot b - c + 1 \).

![Figure 1: Test-based inference method applied to the example from Listing 2.](image)

The inference of a ranking function for the loop in Listing 2 is depicted in Fig. 1. First, the loop is instrumented with a counter. The user inputs the expected degree 2 of the polynomial ranking function. Since there are 3 variables, a set of \( N_3^2 \) = 10 test-nodes in NCA is generated. By interpolating the results from test runs using these input values, the most precise quadratic ranking function \( a \cdot b - c + 1 \) is found.

### 2.4 Soundness

The presented method infers a hypothetical ranking function. It is not sound by itself, but requires an external verifier. The Java Modelling Language (JML) is used to express the ranking functions [29]. Inferred ranking functions are expressed in JML by defining a decreases clause on the loop. This is an expression which must decrease by at least 1 on each iteration and has a value greater than or equal to 0, see the JML reference manual [22]. It therefore forms an upper-bound on the number of iterations of the loop. An example is shown in Listing 3.

When the loop condition does not hold, the loop iterates zero times. Therefore the shown annotation actually ex-
presses the maximum of \( a \cdot b - c + 1 \) and 0. In general, a
ranking function \( RF(\bar{v}) \) for a loop with condition \( b \) can be
expressed as follows: \( \text{decreases } b \) \? \( RF(\bar{v}) \) : 0. Such JML
annotations can be verified by a variety of tools, for instance
KeY [2]. The procedure described here should be used in
conjunction with such a prover to provide soundness.

```java
1 /*
2  decreases (a > 0) && (c <= b) && (c > 0) ?
3  a * b - c + 1 : 0;
4 */
5 while (a > 0 && c <= b && c > 0) {
6   if (c == b) { a--; c = 0; }
7   c++;
8 }
```

Listing 3: The loop from Listing 2 annotated with
its ranking function

Figure 2: The basic inference procedure from a
bird’s eye view: infer-and-check cycle.

Figure 2 depicts a bird’s eye view of the overall procedure.
After a ranking function is inferred, the Java sources are an-
noted and sent to the verification tool (KeY). The verifier
might be able to prove correctness of the annotation auto-
matically, manual steps may be needed for complex ranking
functions (non-linear, rational coefficients, et cetera) or the
user may not be able to construct a proof at all. In the latter
case, the user can go back and try the procedure for a higher
expected degree of the polynomial ranking function. If an
expected degree higher than the actual degree of the poly-
nomial is used, the correct result will still be found. There
will however be a performance penalty on the analysis.

3. HEAP-SPACE USAGE ANALYSIS

ResAna’s heap consumption analysis is based on the tool
COSTA [2], which provides a generic analysis infrastruc-
ture for Java byte code. The symbolic upper bound that
COSTA generates for a method depends on the logical sizes
of the method’s arguments, structures pointed to by the ob-
ject fields and the costs of the called (library) methods. The
(logical) size of an integer is the maximum of the integer and
0, the size of an array is its length, the size of an object is
its maximal reference chain. These assumptions constitute
the size model in COSTA terminology. For instance, let a
method allocate \( n \) objects of class \( X \), where integer \( n \) is a
parameter of the method. Then COSTA generates a sym-
bolic bound of the form \( \text{nat}(n) \ast c(\text{size}(X)) \), where \( \text{nat}(n) \)
is integer \( n \) its logical size: \( \text{max}(n, 0) \) and \( c(\text{size}(X)) \) is the
memory cost of creating an object of type \( X \).

COSTA implements different garbage collection models:
a user can select ‘scope’, ‘reachability’, ‘liveness’, or none
at all [3]. This functionality is retained in ResAna. Inside
Java Realtime Threads no garbage collection is applied, so
a user can select to ignore garbage collection. In normal
Java one has to match the type of garbage collector used in
the target virtual machine to a garbage collection model of
COSTA in order to generate a sound bound.

We have added a number of improvements to the exist-
ing COSTA tool. The recurrence solver was improved with
interpolation-based height analysis. Secondly, the ability
to calculate concrete bounds for a number of Java Virtual
Machines, like OpenJDK and JamaicaVM, was added. Third,
we changed the bounds calculation of arrays, from an
under-approximation to a over-approximation. And finally
we added a post-processing step to simplify the expres-
sions, so a programmer can easily interpret the information.

3.1 Interpolation-based height analysis for im-
proving a recurrence solver

COSTA’s approach to resource analysis is based on the
classical method, due to Wegbreit [34], which involves
the generation of a recurrence relation capturing the costs of
the program being analysed, and the computation of a closed
form (non-recursive cost expression) which bounds the re-
sults of this recurrence relation. In COSTA terminology,
recurrence relations are called Cost Relation Systems (CRS).
The main feature that distinguishes CRSs from the classical
concept of recurrence relations is non-determinism: a CRS
defining the costs of a Java method may be defined by a
set of equations guarded by non-disjoint conditions. As an
example, consider the loop in Listing 2.

```java
1 while (x <= y) {
2   new Object();
3   if (...) x = x + 1; else y = y - 2;
4 }
```

Listing 4: Example loop.

We assume that the value of the if condition cannot be
determined at compile-time. Its memory costs are described
by the following (simplified) CRS:

\[
\begin{align*}
T(x, y) &= 0 & \{ x \geq y + 1 \} \\
T(x, y) &= c + T(x', y) & \{ x \leq y, x' = x + 1 \} \\
T(x, y) &= c + T(x, y') & \{ x \leq y, y' = y - 2 \}
\end{align*}
\]

where \( c \) denotes the constant \( c(\text{size}(\text{java.lang.Object})) \),
i.e. the memory cost of creating an instance of Object. The
COSTA system provides the recurrence solver PUSB [1],
which computes the following closed-form:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{nat}(y - x + 1) \ast c(\text{size}(\text{java.lang.Object})) \\
+ c(\text{size}(\text{java.lang.Object}))
\end{align*}
\]

This is an upper-bound to the values of \( T(x, y) \) given above.
The notation \( \text{nat}(\text{expr}) \) abbreviates \( \text{max}(0, \text{expr}) \). The
resulting closed form corresponds to the worst-case execution
of the loop (i.e. when the \text{if} condition always holds).

An important issue in the search of a closed-form of a
CRS is to approximate the maximum number of unfoldings
that must be undergone in order to reach a base case (height
analysis). If we consider the CRS as a function being eval-
uated in a non-deterministic way, the number of unfoldings
is closely related with the concept of ranking functions (see
Section 3). For instance, in the CRS given above we get the
following unfolding sequence of length \( y - x + 1: \)

\[
T(x, y) \rightarrow T(x + 1, y) \rightarrow T(x + 2, y) \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow T(y, y)
\]

\( y - x + 1 \) unfoldings
PUBS derives a ranking function for $T$ by applying Podeleski and Rybalchenko’s method [24], which is complete for linear ranking functions. Unfortunately, it fails when the number of unfoldings does not depend linearly on the arguments of the CRS, as the following example shows:

$R(x, y) = c \Rightarrow \{x = 0, y = 0\}$
$R(x, y) = c + R(x', y') \Rightarrow \{x > 0, x' = x - 1, y' = x - 1\}$
$R(x, y) = c + R(x, y') \Rightarrow \{y \geq 0, y' > 0, y' = y - 1\}$

This worst-case evaluation of $R(x, y)$ yields a chain of length $\frac{1}{2}x^2 + \frac{1}{2}x + y + 1$, which does not depend linearly on $(x, y)$.

We have extended the PUBS system so that it can infer polynomial ranking functions via testing and polynomial interpolation, as has been explained in Section 2. The approach is, essentially, the same: choose a set of points (lying in a NCA) in the domain of the relation defined by the CRS, evaluate the CRS at these points, and find the interpolating polynomial. However, the evaluation of a CRS is more involved than the evaluation of a program instrumented with a counter, as it was done in Section 2.2. The main difficulty lies in non-determinism. When evaluating a CRS with a set of input values, the number of unfolding sequences may be infinite, even if the evaluation yields a finite number of results. We have addressed this problem by determining the sets of inputs in which the maximum number of unfoldings of the CRS are known. For instance, in the CRS above defining $T$, we define $A_i$ (for each $i \in \mathcal{N}$) as the set of pairs $(x, y)$ such that the evaluation of $T(x, y)$ does not require more than $i$ unfoldings. We have found a characterization of these sets in terms of the guards of the CRS (see [23] for more details). Each set can be described as a disjoint union of convex polyhedra, and this description can be computed by using quantifier elimination techniques. For instance, in our CRS above describing $T$ we get the following characterizations:

$A_i = \{(x, y) \in \mathcal{N}^2 \mid x \geq y + 1 - i\}$ for each $i \in \mathcal{N}$

We use a gradient-based approach for selecting the interpolating nodes from the $A_i$ sets. The algorithm involves the search of climbing paths starting at the $A_0$ set, and minimizing the distance between $A_i$ and $A_{i+1} \setminus A_i$ for each $i \in \mathcal{N}$.

Once we have found the interpolating polynomial on the set of test nodes, we have to check whether the resulting bound is correct. This can be done as follows: for each CRS the system can derive some predicates, whose satisfiability is a sufficient condition guaranteeing that the polynomial is an upper bound to the values of the CRS. These predicates involve inequalities between polynomial expressions, which are decidable in Tarski’s theory of real closed fields. For instance, the system would generate the following logical statements for checking that $y - x + 1$ is an upper bound to $T(x, y)$:

$\forall x, x', y \colon x \leq y \land x' = x + 1 \Rightarrow y - x + 1 \geq 1 + y - x' + 1$

$\forall x, y, y' \colon x \leq y \land y' = y - 2 \Rightarrow y - x + 1 \geq 1 + y' - x + 1$

$\forall x, y \colon y - x + 1 \leq 0 \Rightarrow x \geq y + 1$

If these generated predicates hold, then $y - x + 1$ is indeed an upper bound to $T(x, y)$. In order to check such inequalities the QEPCAD tool [25] can be used. QEPCAD proves all three logical statements above. The integration of COSTA and QEPCAD is subject of future work.

### 3.2 Correct array-size analysis

Due to the way memory is handled, an array header will always be included with information about the array. As an array is a regular Java object the array header also includes the normal object header. Almost all architectures impose constraints on the memory allocator, e.g., memory allocators on the x86 architecture will allocate memory blocks in multiples of quad word sizes, so in multiples of 16 bytes. Although less bytes are requested, the memory allocator will add padding to an object that cannot be used for other purposes. This array header and padding need to be taken into account, otherwise the bound would be an under-approximation.

For instance, all JAMAIVM allocations are in (multiple) blocks of 32 bytes, considering the 32-bits version of JAMAIVM. If multiple blocks are needed they are stored in a tree structure with the array content stored in the leaves of the tree. The array header is 16 bytes long, so this leaves up to four pointers to the tree structures. In partial trees (in which the number of elements is not $4 \times 8^k$), nodes leading to unused array contents and unused array contents blocks are not stored, e.g. 16 pointers (four bytes each) stored will take only three blocks: two for the leaves and one intermediate block pointing to the leaves [30]. An example array structure is shown in Figure 3. COSTA takes into account neither the array header, nor the structure needed to store the contents, nor padding. Only the space needed by the array contents (object references and primitive types) is included in the bound. This results in COSTA producing a bound for `new int[n]` equal to $n \times \text{size}($int$)$, making it indistinguishable from the sequence `new int[1]; new int[n-1];`, so neglecting to account for the extra array header, padding and structure overhead. The (structure) overhead is dependent on the virtual machine used. To deal with these deficiencies we implemented a special mode in COSTA when generating a concrete bound for arrays in JAMAIVM, as explained next.

![Figure 3: Graphical representation of a JAMAIVM array of size $n$, with $33 \leq n \leq 255$, with $a[i]$ representing the contents of the array. Allocating an array of 63 elements takes 10 blocks.](image)

### 3.3 Virtual-machine specialisation by adding type-size information

COSTA has no knowledge of specific Java Virtual Machines like JAMAIVM. Our approach is to replace in all
the symbolic bounds generated by COSTA the symbolic object sizes by the exact sizes of objects. The exact sizes are retrieved from the target VM by means of a specially generated program. This generated program depends on the Scoped Memory extensions of REALTIME JAVA. For each new JAVA VM a new specialisation needs to be added. For generating bounds for arrays allocated in an instance of JAMAICAVM, we adjusted COSTA to include an over-approximation. A simple way of calculating the size of arrays, by means of the small recursive function defined in Equation 1 could not be implemented in COSTA, because of the manner COSTA represents and calculates the bounds internally. This recursive function is valid for data types of four bytes \( \text{nat} \), which correspond to the size of pointers used in the tree structure pointing to the leafs, resulting in a cleaner formula.

\[
\text{arrayblocks}(1, 8) = 1 \\
\text{arrayblocks}(n) = \left\lceil \frac{n}{8} \right\rceil + \text{arrayblocks}\left(\left\lceil \frac{n}{8} \right\rceil\right)
\]

By transforming the formula to an over-approximation (by replacing \( \left\lceil \frac{n}{8} \right\rceil \) with \( \frac{n}{8} + \frac{1}{2} \)), we can solve it as a recurrence equation, which after adjustments for the start cases results in Equation 2. We have implemented this solution in our version of COSTA, which is included in RESANA, so that analysing arrays now gives a correct over-approximation.

\[
\text{arrayblocks}(n) \leq \frac{n + 5}{7} + (\log_8 n + 7)
\]

### 3.4 Simplification of bounds

COSTA internally calculates the symbolic bounds without considering the format of the expression. The produced expressions are not necessary user friendly, e.g.:

\[
\text{nat}(n) * (\text{size}(\text{java.lang.Object}, 1)) + \\
\text{nat}(n) * (\text{size}(\text{java.lang.Object}, 2)) + \\
\text{nat}(n) * (\text{size}(\text{java.lang.Object}, 1)) + \\
\text{nat}(n) * (\text{size}(\text{java.lang.Object}, 2)) + \\
\text{nat}(n) * (\text{size}(\text{java.lang.Object}, 1)) + \\
\text{nat}(n) * (\text{size}(\text{java.lang.Object}, 2))
\]

We implemented a recursive descent parser with reductions of mathematical expressions in order to make the expressions generated by COSTA more user readable. The result of an expression is not altered but the formula is reordered and reduced to a model user friendly expression. The expression above is transformed into:

\[
6n^2 * \text{size}(\text{java.lang.Object})
\]

One can now easily see that the bound is quadratic. This simplification is built into RESANA and applied to all user-visible expressions.

---

2These results are valid for data-types with a representation of four bytes. Alternate data-types (e.g. byte, char, short, double), can be calculated by multiplying the input \( n \) by a factor of \( \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2} \) respectively.

3Technically the output is altered a little bit as the allocation order, which only matters internally, is neglected. The allocation order is included in the size construct as the second argument. The nat function is also omitted for brevity, and should always be applied to variables.

### 3.5 Example

The complexity of calculating Fibonacci numbers is well known. The runtime complexity (in terms of method calls) of calculating the \( n \)th Fibonacci value using a double recursion is related to the golden ratio \( \varphi = 1 + \sqrt{5} \), which results in a complexity of \( O(\varphi^n) \) method calls. Standard textbooks on complexity analysis use over-approximation, which results in a complexity of \( O(2^n) \) for the same function. By adding an object allocation to each iteration, the heap consumption should be the same as the runtime complexity. The resulting code is given in Listing 5. Our tool annotates this function with the bound \( O(2^n) \).

```
int fib(int n) {
  new Object();
  if (n < 2) { return n; }
  return fib(n-1) + fib(n-2);
}
```

Listing 5: Adaptation of the double recursive Fibonacci function, allocating an object in each call.

The \( n \)th Fibonacci number can also be calculated by using a single recursion, for which the complexity should be \( O(n) \). The resulting code, with added object allocations, is listed in Listing 6. This single recursive function is annotated by our tool with a bound of \( (n+1) \times \text{size}(\text{java.lang.Object}) \), also matching the expected complexity bound.

```
int fib_helper(int a, int b, int n) {
  new Object();
  if (n <= 0) { return a; }
  return fib_helper(b, a+b, n-1);
}
```

Listing 6: Adaptation of the single recursive Fibonacci function, allocating an object in each call.

### 4. STACK-SIZE ANALYSIS

The proposed method of stack analysis requires global knowledge of the program, including its data. A data-flow-based static analyser VERIFLUX is used to provide this knowledge [21] (see http://www.aicas.com/veriflux.html).

Analysis of recursive methods is a challenge in static evaluation of stack consumption. To deal with it, VERIFLUX’s stack -size analysis relies on recursion-depth annotations. A recursion-depth annotation consists of an expression that evaluates to a natural number that is an upper bound on the number of nested recursive calls. Syntactically, recursion-depth annotations are provided as JML’s measured by clauses. A measured by expression is a usual symbolic expression like a.length - 1. VERIFLUX outputs the stack bound in bytes, which is the number computed from the annotations and the input data of the main method. If VERIFLUX discovers recursive methods that do not carry a recursion depth annotation, it uses a default recursion depth, which is a positive natural number or infinity. This number can be configued in the tool’s GUI. In case the default recursion depth is configured to be infinity, the stack size analysis will report an...
infinite stack size for all threads that call recursive methods that do not carry a recursion-depth annotation.

Expressions for measured_by annotations are obtained using COSTA, which computes both:

- A symbolic upper bound on the depth of recursion (i.e. a “ranking function” for recursive calls) for a given method
- A symbolic upper bound on the number of calls of the method from itself.

The former corresponds to the height of the call tree, the latter represents the number of the nodes in the call tree. For instance, the depth of recursion for a typical implementation that do not carry a recursion-depth annotation.

Consider the method fib, computing the n-th Fibonacci number, in Listing 5. As expected, COSTA produces the ranking function nat(n−1). This represents the depth of the recursion tree. It is transformed by RESANA into the annotation measured_by n-1. The upper bound on the number of recursive calls that COSTA generates is 2∗(2^n−n)−1. This corresponds to the total number of nodes in the recursion tree.

Note that measured_by expressions obtained by polynomial interpolation (via switching-on the corresponding option in COSTA) are unsound in general. Automatic verification of such expressions can be done via QEPCAD or KeY. Technical integration of these tools into the stack-analysis procedure of RESANA is work in progress.

A JAVA VM has two stacks: a JAVA stack and a native one. Interpreted code and dynamically generated code execute on the Java stack. External C libraries, JIT compiled (JAVA) code and Java functionality implemented natively execute on the native stack. Both have different stack usage characteristics. We consider Java stack usage while running the virtual machine in interpreted mode. While methods utilizing the native stack cannot be analysed automatically, the user can specify bounds in their JML contracts.

JAVA applications typically call methods from libraries. To obtain good stack-consumption bounds for such applications, one should provide stack-consumption bounds for library methods. In principle, library methods are analysed by CHARTER methodology in the same manner as applications, i.e. as the example above. However, analysis of libraries requires additional technical overhead, because of two issues: libraries are large and library methods call native routines.

4.1 Adjustments for analysis of libraries

Since a call to a library-method typically amounts to long chains of calls to other methods, the corresponding call graph becomes very large. The COSTA analysis is based on call graphs, so obtaining resource bounds in this case becomes unfeasible. Computations take too much time and/or at the end one obtains a huge unreadable symbolic expression. Therefore, it is advised to begin with analysis of the methods belonging to one strongly-connected component of the call graph. From our experience, COSTA performs it in reasonable time. Then continue with analysis of the methods who call already analysed ones, which annotations are used as contracts, et cetera. Eventually, all the library is analysed in a bottom-to-top manner.

Technically, native stacks are needed to cope with methods that are compiled to native machine code (for optimization purposes) and with native methods that are called through the Java Native Interface JNI (in order to access services provided by platform-specific native libraries). VeriFlux does not address StackOverflowErrors due to overflows of native stacks. Since verification of C native methods is beyond of scope of this work, one has to rely on the known information about the behavior of these methods, i.e. corresponding contracts.

As an example for both issues, consider the toString method, which belongs to the Integer class and maps an integer number to a string, shown in Listing 7.

```java
1 String toString(int i) {
2   if (i == Integer.MIN_VALUE)
3     return "-2147483648";
4   int size = (i < 0) ?
5       stringSize(-i) + 1 : stringSize(i);
6   char [] buf = new char [size];
7   getChars(i, size, buf);
8   return MyString.valueOf(buf, 0, size);
9 }
```

Listing 7: The toString method from the Integer class in the JAVA standard library.

Before running COSTA, place this method in the abstracted class MyInteger, that contains only toString and the methods called from it. Create the abstracted versions of the classes StringIndexOutOfBoundsException and String, that contain the methods called from toString, and the ones called from them, et cetera. COSTA produces a ranking function that symbolically depends on the costs of two native methods: copyChars and cast2string. If their contracts say that they do not call java methods (which is, indeed, the case for this example), their costs are turned into zeros by RESANA and the final measured_by expression is 0. This result can be approved by an accurate data-flow analysis of the method toString using pen and paper.

4.2 Stack-size analysis by VeriFlux

Consider the principles on which VeriFlux its stack analysis is based. VeriFlux computes an invocation graph, in which nodes correspond to methods and edges represent method invocations. Recursive method calls correspond to cycles in the graph. In order to eliminate cycles, one first computes the strongly connected components (SCCs) of the invocation graph. Each SCC with more than zero nodes is then replaced by a single node that is annotated by the sum of the sizes of all stack frames that correspond to nodes (i.e., method invocations) in that SCC, multiplied by the maximal
5. USER EXPERIENCE

We have combined all the CHARTER verification tools in a VIRTUALBOX image for easy installation. This image, the Eclipse plug-in and the source code, can be downloaded from the ResAna website.

The Dutch National Aerospace Laboratory NLR has used the VirtualBox image in the development of a safety-critical avionics application. Their experience is described in [33]. The application is written in REALTIME JAVA and runs on JAMAICAVM. The ResAna tool was found to be easy to use. Their user feedback has led to several improvements of the ResAna tool. In their avionics demonstrator project (an environment control system) they used the CHARTER tool set. They applied ResAna for loop bound and heap space analysis.

6. RELATED WORK

The polynomial interpolation based technique was successfully applied in the analysis of output-on-input data-structure size relations for functions in a functional language, in [29, 31, 20]. This method can for instance be used to determine that if the append function gets two lists of lengths $n$ and $m$ as input, it will return a list of length $n + m$.

6.1 Loop-Bound Analysis

Hunt et al. discuss the expression of manually conceived ranking functions in JML, their verification using KeY and the combination with data-flow analysis in [20]. What is "missing" in the method is the automated inference of ranking functions, which ResAna supplies.

In [9], an approach that is similar to ours is taken, in the combination of COSTA with the KeY tool. The results that COSTA gives are output as JML annotations, that may then be verified using KeY.

Various other research results on bounding the number of loop iterations are described in the literature. However, most approaches generate concrete (numerical) bounds [12, 23, 17], as opposed to symbolic bounds. The methods that are able to infer symbolic loop bounds are limited to either bounds that depend linearly on program variables (the procedure described in this paper infers polynomial bounds [25], or that are constructed from monotonic subformulae [14, 19].

Several syntactical methods are discussed [13, 15], that will be more efficient for simple cases, but less general. Our procedure can be seen as complementary to those methods. In case a syntactical method is not applicable to a certain loop, our more general method can be used.

6.2 Heap-Space Usage Analysis

We have taken the COSTA system [2] as our point of reference. The authors have recently improved [9] the precision of PUBS, its recurrence solver, by considering upper and lower bounds to the cost of each loop iteration. In a different direction, COSTA has improved its memory analysis in order to take different models of garbage collection into account [4]. However, the authors claim that this extension does not require any changes to the recurrence solver PUBS.

Thus, the techniques presented in Section 3.1 should fit with these extensions.
In the field of functional languages, a seminal paper on static inference of memory bounds is [19]. A special type inference algorithm generates a set of linear constraints which, if satisfiable, specify a safe linear bound on the heap consumption. One of the authors extended this type system in [18, 17] in order to infer multivariate polynomial bounds. Surprisingly, the constraints resulting from the new type system are still linear.

6.3 Stack-Size Analysis

In practice, stack usage in Java is often measured by instrumenting or transforming the source code so that it counts consumed resources (and computes other relevant information) on the inputs of the original code. To our knowledge, there are two commercial tools that perform Java stack analysis: Coverity Static Analyzer (see http://www.coverity.com) and Klockwork, with its kustack/coverflow (see http://www.klocwork.com/). Another tool, GNATStack, analyses object-oriented applications, automatically determining maximum stack usage on code that uses dynamic dispatching in Ada and C++ (see http://www.adacore.com/gnatstack/).

In [32], a static stack-bound analysis for abstract Java bytecode is described. The described method considers Java bytecode with recovered high-level control structures (conditionals and while-loops). The inference process is divided into three key stages: frame-bound inference, abstract-state inference and stack-bound inference. Recall that a frame is a piece of stack reserved for each method invocation. Each stage applies a corresponding set of inference rules. In these rules the authors use Presburger (linear) arithmetic formulae to describe states of programs. It is stated that an implementation is under development.

7. CONCLUSION

To make resource analysis practical, we have introduced new techniques and combined these techniques in our new tool, ResANA. Complex loop, heap and stack bounds can be inferred in an integrated way within the ECLIPSE IDE. Bounds can be inferred that are specific for the underlying virtual machine.

The ability to infer resource bounds contributes to improving the development process of producing real-time safety-critical systems both with respect to ease of development and with respect to improved reliability. The Dutch National Aerospace Laboratory (NLR) has successfully used ResANA in the development of a demonstrator safety-critical Realtime Java avionics application.

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9. REFERENCES


