

Pointer Analysis for C Programs Through AST Traversal

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Abstract

We present a pointer analysis algorithm designed for source-to-source transformations. Existing techniques for pointer analysis apply a collection of inference rules to a dismantled intermediate form of the source program, making them difficult to apply to source-to-source tools that generally work on abstract syntax trees to preserve details of the source program.

Our pointer analysis algorithm operates directly on the abstract syntax tree of a C program and uses a form of standard dataflow analysis to compute the desired points-to information. We have implemented our algorithm in a source-to-source translation framework and experimental results show that it is practical on real-world examples.

1 Introduction

The role of pointer analysis in understanding C programs has been studied for years, being the subject of several PhD thesis and nearly a hundred research papers [9]. This type of static analysis has been used in a variety of applications such as live variable analysis for register allocation and constant propagation, checking for potential runtime errors (e.g., null pointer dereferencing), static schedulers that need to track resource allocation and usage, etc. Despite its applicability in several other areas, however, pointer analysis has been targeted primarily at compilation, be it software [9] or hardware [13]. In particular, the use of pointer analysis (and in fact, static analysis in general) for automated source code transformations remains little explored.

We believe the main reason for this is the different program representations employed in source-to-source tools. Historically, pointer analysis algorithms have been implemented in optimizing compilers, which typically proceed by

dismantling the program into increasingly lower-level representations that deliberately discard most of the original structure of the source code to simplify its analysis.

By contrast, source-to-source techniques strive to preserve everything about the structure of the original source so that only minimal, necessary changes are made. As such, they typically manipulate abstract syntax trees that are little more than a structured interpretation of the original program text. Such trees are often manipulated directly through tree- or term-rewriting systems such as Stratego [15, 16].

In this paper, we present an algorithm developed to perform pointer analysis directly on abstract syntax trees. We implemented our algorithm in a source-to-source tool called Proteus [17], which uses Stratego [15] as a back-end, and find that it works well in practice.

2 Existing Pointer Analysis Techniques

Many techniques have been proposed for pointer analysis of C programs [1, 3, 4, 6, 10, 12, 14, 18]. They differ mainly in how they group related alias information. Figure 1 shows a C fragment and the points-to sets computed by four well-known flow-insensitive algorithms.

Arrows in the figure represent pointer relationships between the variables in the head and tail nodes: an arc from a to b means that variable a points-to variable b , or may point-to that variable, depending on the specific algorithm.

$p=&x; p=&y; q=&z; p=q; x=&a; y=&b; z=&c;$

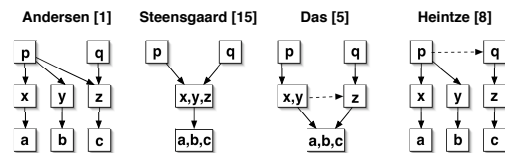


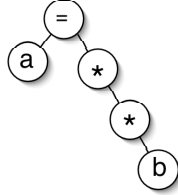
Figure 1. Results of various flow-insensitive pointer analysis algorithms.

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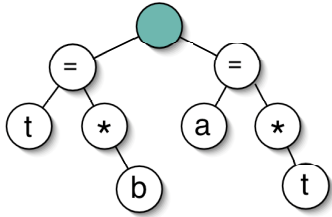
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Some techniques encapsulate more than one variable in a single node, as seen in Steensgaard’s and Das’s approaches, in order to speed-up the computation. These methods trade precision for running time: variable x , for instance, points-to a , b and c on both techniques, although the code only assigns a ’s address to x .

Broadly, existing techniques can be classified as constraint-solving [5, 7, 8] or dataflow-based [6, 11, 12, 18]. Members of both groups usually define a minimal grammar for the source language that includes only basic operators and statements. They then build templates used to match these statements. The templates are cast as inference rules [5, 7, 8] or dataflow equations [6, 11, 12, 18]. The algorithms consist of iterative applications of inference rules or dataflow equations on the statements of the program, during which pointer relationships are derived. This approach assumes that the C program only contains allowed statements. For instance, $a = **b$, with two levels of dereference in the right-hand side, is commonly parsed



Existing techniques generally require the preceding statement to be dismantled into two sub-expressions, each having at most one level of dereference:



It is difficult to employ such an approach to source-to-source transformations because it is difficult to correlate the results calculated on the dismantled program with the original source. Furthermore, it introduces needless intermediate variables, which can increase the analysis cost.

For source-to-source transformations, we want to perform the analysis close to the source level. It is particularly useful to directly analyze the ASTs and annotate them with the results of the analysis. Hence, we need to be able to handle arbitrary compositions of statements.

Precision is another issue in source-to-source transformations: we want the most precise analysis practical because otherwise we may make unnecessary changes to the code or, even worse, make incorrect changes. A flow-insensitive analysis cannot, for example, determine that a pointer is initialized before it is used or that a pointer has different values in different regions of the program. Both

of these properties depend on the order in which the statements of the program execute. As a result, the approach we adopt is flow-sensitive.

2.1 Analysis Accuracy

Another source of approximation commonly found in today’s approaches is the adoption of the so-called *non-visible variables* [10], later renamed to *invisible variables* [6] or, alternatively, *extended parameters* [18]. When a function call takes place, a parameter¹ p of pointer type might point to a variable v that is not in the scope of the called function. To keep track of such pointer relationships, special symbolic names are created in the enclosing scope [6] [10] [18] and then manipulated in place of v whenever p is dereferenced. When the function call returns to the caller, the information kept in the symbolic name is ‘mapped’ back to v . For example, for a variable x with type int^{**} , symbolic names 1_x and 2_x with types int^* and int would be created² [6] [18]. If an indirect reference, say $*x$, can lead to an out-of-scope variable w , the corresponding symbolic name 1_x is used to represent w .

There are some drawbacks with this approach: it adds an overhead in the analysis due to this ‘mapping’ and ‘unmapping’ of information, and it can become too approximate as the chain of function calls gets larger. The following example shows how spurious aliases can be generated even though symbolic variable 1_a is not accessed within the called function.

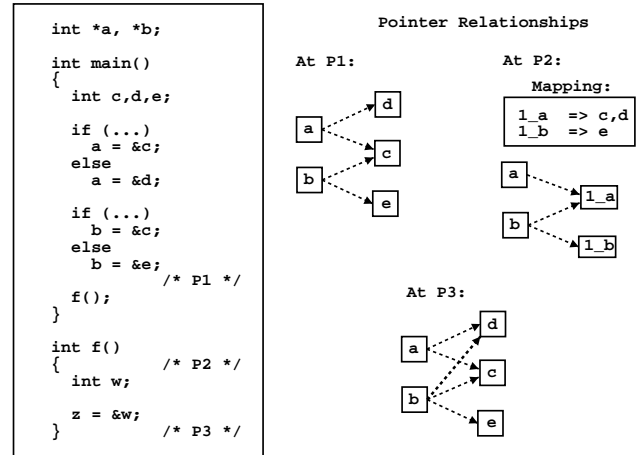


Figure 2. Innacuracy due to invisible variables.

In the example, 1_a stands for more than one program variable, namely c and d , due to the double assignment to global variable a [6] [18]. When the statement $b = \&c$

¹Or global variable

²Process is applied recursively to all levels of pointer type.

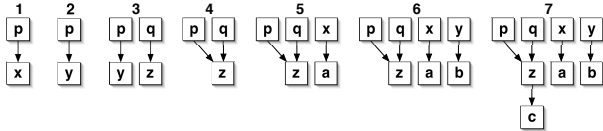
is analyzed, local variable c has been already mapped to l_a , thus b is assumed to possibly point to such symbolic variable. l_b is then created to represent program variable e , and the assignment $b = \&e$ induces pointer b to be also associated with l_b . When f returns, an additional relationship between program variables b and d has been created, even though only local variables were accessed within f . A pointer relationship to l_a was generated because of a relationship to one of the variables l_a stands for - not all the variables it represents³.

The adoption of invisible variables, however, is of relevant importance if one's priority is the efficiency of the interprocedural pointer analysis. The use of invisible variables facilitates summarization of the effects of a procedure in the pointer relationships, and this enables the analysis to avoid re-evaluating a function's body in some particular cases [18]. On the other hand, invisible variables can cause some imprecision, as illustrated in Figure 2. We believe that pointer analysis for source-to-source code transformation should be *information-driven*, i.e., precision of results should have a high priority. In this sense, we eliminate the use of invisible variables at the expense of (potentially) having to re-evaluate a function's body multiple times. We rely on specially created 'signatures' in order to maintain pointer relationships across function calls, and handle the parameter passing mechanism as regular assignments.

3 Analysis Outline

Following the approach of Emami et al. [6], our analysis uses an iterative dataflow approach that computes, for each pointer statement, the points-to set generated (*gen*) and removed (*kill*) by the statement. The net effect of each statement is $(in - kill) \cup gen$, where *in* is the set of pointer relationships holding prior to the statement. In this sense, it is flow-sensitive and results in the following points-to sets for each sequence point in the code fragment of Figure 1.

$p = \&x$; ① $p = \&y$; ② $q = \&z$; ③ $p = q$; ④ $x = \&a$; ⑤ $y = \&b$; ⑥ $z = \&c$; ⑦



By operating directly on the AST, we avoid building the control-flow graph for each procedure or the call-graph for the whole program. Clearly, the control-flow graph can still be built if desired, since it simply adds an extra and relatively thin layer as a semantic attribution to the AST. Thus, from this specific point of view, ASTs are not a necessity for the iterative computation and handling of the program's control structure.

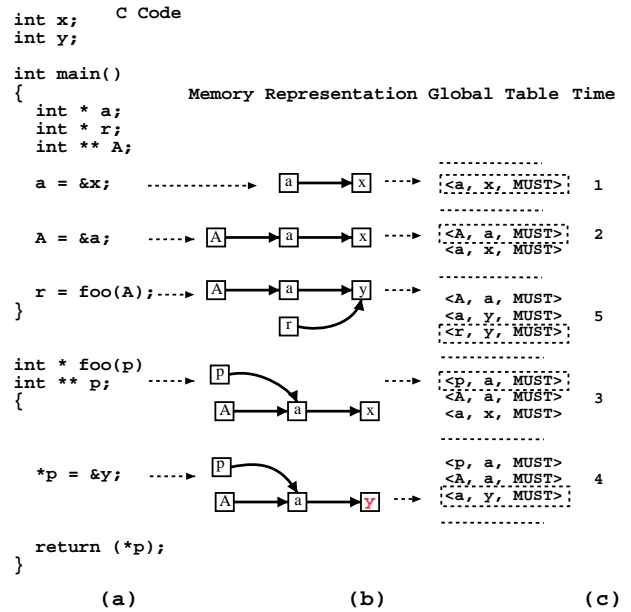
³Throughout the paper, we might use the term *invisible variable* to represent the concept of out-of-scope variables being represented by symbolic names.

We assume the entire source code of the subject application (multiple translation units, multiple files) is resolved into a large AST that resides in memory [17], so that we are able to jump from one procedure to another through tree queries. The analysis starts off at the program's *main* function, iterating through its statements. If a function call is encountered, its body is recursively analyzed taking into account pointers being passed as parameters as well as global pointers. When the analysis reaches the end of the function, it continues at the statement following the function call.

Below, we give an overview of some aspects of the implementation.

3.1 Points-to Graph Representation

We represent the points-to graph at a particular point in the program using a table. Entries in the table are triples of the form $\langle x, y, q \rangle$, where x is the source location pointing to y , the destination location, and q is the qualifier, which can be either *must* or *may*, which indicates that either x is definitely pointing to y , or that x merely may point to y (e.g., it may point to something else or be uninitialized). Pointer relations between variables in distinct scopes are encoded as regular entries in the table by relying on unique signatures for program variables. Below is a C fragment for illustration.



On the left is the source code for two procedures; in the center are the memory contents during the analysis; and on the right are the points-to sets generated by each statement. Note that each location of interest is represented by an abstract signature and that each pointer relationship holding between two locations is represented by an entry in the table. For an *if* statement, our algorithm makes two copies of the table, analyzes the statements in the true and false branches separately, then merges the resulting tables. The

merge operation is a special union (denoted by \mathbb{U} in Figure 7) wherein a *must* triple has its qualifier demoted to *may* in case only one of the branches generates (or fails to kill) the triple. *For* and *while* statements are handled with a fixed-point computation—a copy of the table is made, the statements are analyzed, and the resulting table is compared to the initial one. The process is repeated until the two tables are the same.

3.2 Abstract Signatures

Each location of interest in the program is represented by a unique signature of the form

(*function-name*, *identifier*, *scope*)

where *function-name* is the name of the function in which the variable or parameter is declared or a special keyword for global variables; *identifier* is the syntactic name given by the programmer or specially-created names for heap locations; and *scope* is a unique integer assigned to each distinct scope in the program (the scope associated with a given signature is the integer assigned to the scope where the variable is declared). The numbers to the left of each source program below show a possible set of scopes. The dashed lines delimit their ranges.

1.c	2.c
<pre> * 0 int x; int * y; * int main() { int a; int * p; int * q; 1 q = &a; * { 2 int a; p = &a; * } 1 y = foo(); * return 0; * } </pre>	<pre> * 0 extern int x; * int * foo() { int * r; 3 r = &x; * if (...) { 4 ... * } 3 return (r); * } </pre>

The signatures created for *q* and *a* while analyzing the statement *q=&a* are (main,q,1) and (main,a,1). The signatures for *p* and *a* in the statement *p=&a*, are (main,p,1) and (main,a,2) (*a* is redeclared in scope 2). Signatures are generated on-the-fly to avoid pre-processing.

3.3 Pointer Relationships Representation

Once everything has a unique signature, we adopt the relations *must* and *may* points-to as follows.

By definition, variable *x* *must* point to variable *y* at program point *p* if, at that program point, the address of *y* is in the set *S* of possible locations that *x* may point to and $|S| = 1$.

C Code	Global Table
<pre> 1 int y; 2 int *z,*w; 3 4 int main() 5 { 6 int *a,*r; 7 int ** A; 8 int *** B; 9 10 if (...) 11 A = &a; 12 else 13 A = &w; 14 15 B = &A; 16 r = foo(B); /* 4 */ 17 } 18 19 int * foo(int *** p1) 20 { 21 int k; /* 1 */ 22 **p1 = &y; /* 2 */ 23 z = &k; /* 3 */ 24 return (z); 25 } </pre>	<pre> Point 1: <("main","A",1),("main","a",1),m> <("main","A",1),(Global,"w",0),m> <("main","B",1),("main","A",1),M> <("foo","p1",2),("main","A",1),M> <("main","a",1),(Global,"y",0),m> <(Global,"w",0),(Global,"y",0),m> Point 2: <("main","A",1),("main","a",1),m> <("main","A",1),(Global,"w",0),m> <("main","B",1),("main","A",1),M> <("foo","p1",2),("main","A",1),M> <("main","a",1),(Global,"y",0),m> <(Global,"w",0),(Global,"y",0),m> Point 3: <("main","A",1),("main","a",1),m> <("main","A",1),(Global,"w",0),m> <("main","B",1),("main","A",1),M> <("foo","p1",2),("main","A",1),M> <("main","a",1),(Global,"y",0),m> <(Global,"w",0),(Global,"y",0),m> <(Global,"z",0),(Global,"k",2),M> Point 4: <("main","A",1),("main","a",1),m> <("main","A",1),(Global,"w",0),m> <("main","B",1),("main","A",1),M> <("main","a",1),(Global,"y",0),m> <(Global,"w",0),(Global,"y",0),m> <("main","z",1),("foo","k",2),M> </pre>

Figure 3. Example program.

Also, all possible execution paths to program point *p* must have assigned *y*'s address to *x* prior to *p*, and that address assignment must not have been killed since then. This is denoted by the triple $\langle x', y', \text{must} \rangle$, where *x'* and *y'* represent the abstract signatures for *x* and *y*.

Similarly, variable *x* *may* point to variable *y* at program point *p* if, at that program point, the address of *y* is in the set *S* of possible locations that *x* may point to and either $|S| > 1$ or there exists some execution path *P_i* to *p* that does not assign *y*'s address to *x*. This is denoted by the triple $\langle x', y', \text{may} \rangle$, where *x'* and *y'* are the signatures for *x* and *y*.

Intuitively, an assignment *x* = &*y* at point *p* inside the *then* branch of an *if* statement implies that *x* must point to *y* from *p* to the point where both execution paths merge, assuming *x* is not redefined in between; *x* may point to *y* after this in case the path that goes through the *else* part does not assign *y*'s address to *x*.

Figure 3 shows a code fragment and snapshots of the entire table at four distinct moments during the analysis (for clarity, *must* is written "M" and *may* is written "m"). Point 1, for example, corresponds to the instant after the analysis has traversed the *if* statement at lines 10–13, the assignment at line 15, the call site at line 16, and is about to analyze *foo*.

Starting at the body of the main function, the *if* statement at lines 10–13 assigns the addresses of local variable *a* and global variable *w* to *A*. According to the definition of *may*, *A* may point to either location after the statement, and this is represented by the first two entries in the table for point 1 (in fact, since these pointer relationships are not killed anywhere in the program, they will persist throughout the entire analysis). The other two entries at point 1 come from the assignment of &*A* to *B* in line 15,

and the function call at line 16 (point 4 at line 16 happens after `foo` returns). Specifically, the parameter passing in `r = foo(B)` makes `p1` point to whatever locations `B` points to, namely `A`.

At point 2, `p1` is dereferenced twice. The first dereference leads to `A` and the second dereference leads to either `a` or `w`. Accordingly, both locations are marked as “may point to `y`.” Two new entries are created at point 2 (highlighted in the figure), indicating that both `a` and `w` may point to `y`.

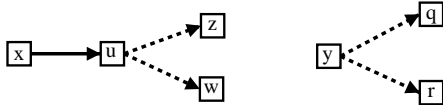
Note that both `A` and `a` (but not `w`) fall out of scope when `foo` is called, although they can be indirectly accessed through `p1`. Existing techniques create a set of “invisible” variables, or extended parameters [6, 18], in which symbolic names are used to access out-of-scope variables reached through dereferences of a local pointer. We handle distinct scopes more transparently, as seen by the effects of the statement `**p1=&y`. Furthermore, avoiding invisible variables may increase the accuracy of the analysis results, especially on a chain of function calls, since a single symbolic name may end up representing more than one out-of-scope variable in some cases [6, 18].

The statement at line 23, `z=&k`, adds a new triple to point 3 (highlighted), and the `return` at line 24 causes `r` to refer to where `z` points. But note that prior to the `return`, `z` points to a local variable of the called function, and this causes `r` to refer to an invalid location. By using our naming scheme, the highlighted triple in point 4 reveals the violation. In the analysis, we can use the name of the closing function to detect such invalid triples. This potential bug was not detected by *lint* or Gimpel’s *FlexeLint*.

During the analysis, the same idea is used each time a scope closes (using the scope information in the signatures) to perform a limited type of escape analysis [2], or to delete certain triples. The latter is seen at point 4, where $\langle (\text{foo}, p1, 2), (\text{main}, A, 1), M \rangle$ was deleted since `p1` would be removed from the stack at runtime upon function return.

4 Basic Dataflow Framework

In our approach, the dataflow equations are not taken from a set of templates, as is usually done, but are evaluated while traversing the AST of the program. In the figures that follow, we express a *must* relationship as a solid line, and a *may* relationship as a dotted line. In this sense, assume that the pointer relationships holding between some variables just before analyzing the statement `**x=y` are as follows:



Assuming both `z` and `w` are (uninitialized) pointers, which makes `x` of `***` type, this pointer assignment generates four new triples: $\langle z, q, \text{may} \rangle$, $\langle z, r, \text{may} \rangle$, $\langle w, q, \text{may} \rangle$,

and $\langle w, r, \text{may} \rangle$. The resulting relationships are

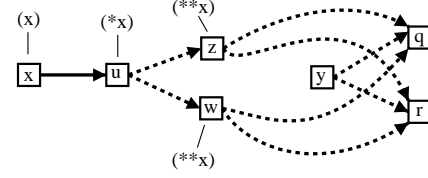


Figure 4 shows the formal definition of the dataflow equations for an assignment. Here, $X_n(T)$ is the set of locations reached after n dereferences from x in T , the table, $Y_{m+1}(T)$ is the set of locations reached after $m+1$ dereferences from y in T , and the predicate $\text{must}_T(v_1, v_2)$ is true only when all the relationships along the path from v_1 to v_2 in T are *must*.

An invariant in the points-to graph is that any node can have at most one outgoing *must* edge (it would be nonsensical to say that a pointer “must” be pointing to two or more locations at the same time). It then follows from the definition of the *gen* set in Figure 4 that

$$\text{must}_T(x, a) \wedge \text{must}_T(y, b) \Rightarrow |\text{gen}(e, T)| = 1.$$

That is, when both pointer chains are each known to point to exactly one thing (i.e., a and b), exactly one new relationship is generated.

In the example above, $n = 2$, $m = 0$, $X_n(T) = \{z, w\}$, $Y_{m+1}(T) = \{q, r\}$, $\neg \text{must}_T(x, z)$, $\neg \text{must}_T(x, w)$, $\neg \text{must}_T(y, q)$ and $\neg \text{must}_T(y, r)$. If instead we had the assignment `*x=y`, then $n = 1$, $X_n(T) = \{u\}$, $\text{must}_T(x, u)$, triples $\langle u, z, \text{may} \rangle$ and $\langle u, w, \text{may} \rangle$ are killed, and triples $\langle u, q, \text{may} \rangle$ and $\langle u, r, \text{may} \rangle$ are generated.

Since the locations found after $m+1$ dereferences from y are being assigned to the locations found after n dereferences from x , the *gen* set is formed by the cross product of sets $X_n(T)$ and $Y_{m+1}(T)$. Each resulting triple $\langle a, b, l \rangle$ has $l = \text{must}$ only when $\text{must}_T(x, a)$ and $\text{must}_T(y, b)$ hold (i.e., when all the relationships along both simple paths are known exactly), and has $l = \text{may}$ otherwise.

In the *kill* set computation, $\text{must}_T(x, a)$ requires $X_n(T) = \{a\}$ (e.g., the set $\{u\}$ in the assignment `*x=y`). Location a is guaranteed to be changed, so we remove the relations where a points to a variable from points-to information. So the *kill* set includes relationships about everything that a may or must point to prior to the assignment. If $\text{must}_T(x, a)$ does not hold, then existing triples $\langle a, b, l \rangle$ cannot be removed, since the modification of a is not guaranteed (i.e., a may not be reached when the assignment is executed).

The *change* set contains relationships that must be demoted from *must* to *may*. Section 5 demonstrates this with an example.

The definitions in Figure 4 apply for any number of dereferences in an assignment, and we extend this basic idea in our analysis for compositions of C statements. We calculate such *gen*, *kill*, and *change* sets using a recursive traversal of the abstract syntax tree of the program (we describe

For an assignment e of the form $\underbrace{* \dots *}_n x = \underbrace{* \dots *}_m y$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{gen}(e, T) &= \left\{ \langle a, b, l \rangle : a \in X_n(T) \wedge b \in Y_{m+1}(T) \wedge l = \begin{cases} \text{must} & \text{if } \text{must}_T(x, a) \wedge \text{must}_T(y, b) \\ \text{may} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \right\} \\ \text{change}(e, T) &= \left\{ \langle a, b, l \rangle : a \in X_n(T) \wedge \langle a, b, l' \rangle \in T \wedge l = \begin{cases} \text{must} & \text{if } \text{must}_T(x, a) \\ \text{may} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \right\} \\ \text{kill}(e, T) &= \{ \langle a, b, l \rangle : a \in X_n(T) \wedge \langle a, b, l \rangle \in T \wedge \text{must}_T(x, a) \} \\ T' &= (T - \{ \langle a, b, \text{must} \rangle : \langle a, b, \text{may} \rangle \in \text{change}(e, T) \}) \cup \text{change}(e, T) \\ T'' &= (T' - \text{kill}(e, T)) \cup \text{gen}(e, T) \end{aligned}$$

Figure 4. Dataflow equations for an assignment.

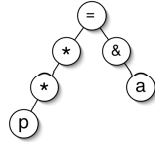
an example in the next section). The dataflow equations match the semantics of pointer dereferences in C, and the treatment of related operators such as address-of and field-dereference (e.g., $p \rightarrow q$) follows a similar rationale.

5 An Example

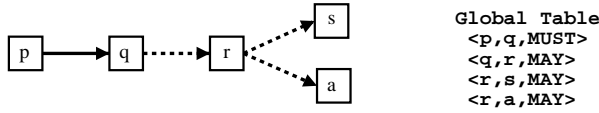
Consider the statement $**p = \&a$, where a is a non-pointer variable, and assume that pointers p , q , r , and s have the following relationship:



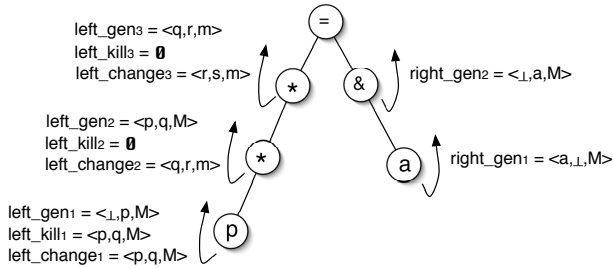
The AST of this assignment is



This assignment adds the triple $\langle r, a, \text{may} \rangle$ and changes the triple $\langle r, s, \text{must} \rangle$ to $\langle r, s, \text{may} \rangle$. The point-to-relationships after the assignment are



To determine this, our algorithm independently traverses the left and right sides of the assignment, collecting information on the way. This process is shown below:



We construct the *gen* set by combining information from the sets labeled *left_gen* and *right_gen*, collected from both the left and right sides of the assignment. By contrast, the

kill and *change* sets are computed from the left side of the assignment only—from the *left_kill* and *left_change* sets—because an existing points-to relationship can only be affected through assignment (i.e., by the lvalue).

The traversal on the left side of the AST starts at the first $*$ node and goes down recursively until reaching the identifier p . The figure above shows the three sets returned at this point. A table query is performed to compute *left_kill₁* and *left_change₁*.

For the next node up as the recursion unwinds, the table is accessed and the returned sets correspond to the locations pointed to by the expression $*p$. Note that the *may* relation between q and r leaves *left_kill₂* empty. The top-most dereference is then reached and the final sets *left_gen₃*, *left_kill₃* and *left_change₃* represent the sets for $**p$. Note that *left_change₃* contains triple $\langle r, s, \text{may} \rangle$ although the current relationship between r and s is *must*. This is because a *may* relation was crossed on the way up the recursion—a $*$ node in the AST correspond to a “qualified” dereference that takes into account qualifiers already seen.

Similarly, the traversal on the right starts at the $\&$ node and stops at the identifier a . The base case on the right is slightly different than on the left. An identifier on the right is an rvalue, and a lookup in the table does the dereference. Since a is a non-pointer variable, we assume it points to an undefined location (expressed as \perp in *right_gen₁*). The address-of operator results in *right_gen₂*.

The final *gen* set is obtained by merging *left_gen₃* and *right_gen₂*. Given a triple $\langle x, y, f \rangle$ in *left_gen* and $\langle z, w, g \rangle$ in *right_gen*, the *gen* set for the assignment includes the triple $\langle y, w, f \wedge g \rangle$ (i.e., the relationship is *must* only if both the left and right sets were *must*, otherwise it is *may*). In the example, this triple is $\langle r, a, \text{may} \rangle$.

The triple $\langle r, s, \text{must} \rangle$ is changed to $\langle r, s, \text{may} \rangle$. It would just have been killed were it not for the double dereference from p crossing a *may* relation. This fact is captured in *left_change₃*, which contains $\langle r, s, \text{may} \rangle$. This implies $\langle r, s, \text{may} \rangle$ should replace $\langle r, s, \text{must} \rangle$, since it is not guaranteed that r will be left unchanged by the assignment $**p = \&a$. At the end of the recursion, we compare what we

have computed for `left_change` with what actually holds in the table, and update T where they disagree.

6 The Algorithm

This section presents our algorithm.

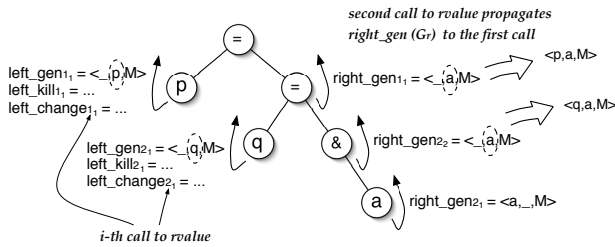
6.1 Expressions, Function Calls, and Assignments

The function in Figure 5 calculates the *gen* set for an expression (an rvalue of an assignment), and Figure 6 calculates the *gen*, *change*, and *kill* sets for the lvalue of an assignment. Together, they handle C's expressions.

Both functions take as parameters e , the sub-expression being analyzed (i.e., a node in the AST), and T , the current table. Both proceed by recursing on the structure of the expression, with separate rules for pointer dereferencing, function calls, and so forth.

In Figure 5, the rule for an assignment expression is fairly complicated. It first calls the lvalue function in Figure 6 to build the *gen*, *change*, and *kill* sets for the left-hand side of the assignment, calls itself recursively to calculate the *gen* set for the right-hand side, then merges the results of these two calls and uses them to update the table T .

Note that these functions handle nested assignments. Consider the expression $p=q\&a$. The rvalue function identifies the assignment to p and calls itself recursively on the assignment $q\&a$. In addition to updating the table with the effects of this expression, the G_r set is returned to the outer call of rvalue. Ultimately, $\langle p, a, must \rangle$ and $\langle q, a, must \rangle$ are added. This recursive behavior is shown below.



6.2 Pointer Dereferencing

Both Figures 5 and 6 use a function—dereference—that performs (qualified) pointer dereference by querying the table T and combining qualifiers already seen. It takes a set of triples, S , and returns a set of triples that is the union of all locations pointed-to by elements in S . Precisely,

$$\text{dereference}(S, T) = \{ \langle y, z, f \wedge g \rangle : \langle x, y, f \rangle \in S \wedge \langle y, z, g \rangle \in T \},$$

where $f \wedge g = must$ if $f = must$ and $g = must$, otherwise $f \wedge g = may$.

This definition for dereference combines the qualifiers f and g to comply with the behavior of the $must_T$ predicate in

```

function rvalue( $e, T$ ) returns (table, gen)
case  $e$  of
  & $e_1$  :                               Address-of
    ( $T, G$ ) = rvalue( $e_1, T$ )
    return ( $T$ , address_of( $G$ ))

  * $e_1$  :                               Dereference
    ( $T, G$ ) = rvalue( $e_1, T$ )
    return ( $T$ , dereference( $G, T$ ))

   $v$  :                                  Identifier
    if  $v$  is a global variable then
       $s = (\_Global, v, 0)$              signature for global
    else
       $f =$  name of the function where  $v$  is declared
       $d =$  number of scope where  $v$  is declared
       $s = (f, v, d)$                    signature for local
    if there is at least one  $\langle s, x, l \rangle \in T$  then
      return ( $T$ ,  $\{ \langle s, x, l \rangle : \langle s, x, l \rangle \in T \}$ )
    else
      return ( $T$ ,  $\{ \langle s, \perp, must \rangle \}$ )

   $f(a_1, a_2, \dots)$  :                 Function call
     $d =$  outermost scope for the body of function  $f$ 
    for each actual parameter  $a_i$  do
      ( $T, G$ ) = rvalue( $a_i, T$ )
       $v_i =$  formal parameter for  $a_i$ 
       $p_i = (f, v_i, d)$                signature for the formal
      for each  $\langle \_, q, l \rangle \in G$  do
        add  $\langle p_i, q, l \rangle$  to  $T$ 
     $T = \text{statement}(\text{body of } f, T)$ 
    Remove local variables declared in  $f$  from  $T$ 
    return ( $T, G_r$ )            $G_r$  is computed at return stmts

   $l = r$  :                             Assignment
    ( $T, G_l, C_l, K_l$ ) = lvalue( $l, T$ )
    ( $T, G_r$ ) = rvalue( $r, T$ )
     $G = \emptyset$ 
     $K = K_l$ 
    for each triple  $\langle x, y, l_1 \rangle \in G_l$  do
      for each triple  $\langle z, w, l_2 \rangle \in G_r$  do
        if  $l_1 = must \wedge l_2 = must$  then
          Add  $\langle y, w, must \rangle$  to  $G$ 
        else
          Add  $\langle y, w, may \rangle$  to  $G$ 
    for each triple  $\langle x, y, f \rangle \in C_l$  do
      if  $\langle x, y, must \rangle \in T \wedge f = may$  then
        Replace  $\langle x, y, must \rangle$  with  $\langle x, y, may \rangle$  in  $T$ 
     $T = (T - K) \cup G$ 
    return ( $T, G_r$ )

   $e_1 \text{ op } e_2$  :                       Arithmetic operators
    ( $T, G$ ) = rvalue( $e_1, T$ )
    ( $T, G$ ) = rvalue( $e_2, T$ )
    return ( $T, G$ )

```

Figure 5. The function for expressions.

function lvalue(e, T) **returns** (table, gen, change, kill)

case e **of**

$\&e_1$: *Address-of*
 $(T, G, C, K) = \text{lvalue}(e_1, T)$
return $(T, \text{address_of}(G), \text{address_of}(C), \text{address_of}(K))$

$*e_1$: *Dereference*
 $(T, G, C, K) = \text{lvalue}(e_1, T)$
Remove all triples like $\langle x, y, \text{may} \rangle$ from K
return $(T, \text{dereference}(G), \text{dereference}(C), \text{dereference}(K))$

v : *Identifier*
if v is a global variable **then**
 $s = (_Global, v, 0)$ *signature for global*
else
 $f = \text{name of the function where } v \text{ is declared}$
 $d = \text{number of scope where } v \text{ is declared}$
 $s = (f, v, d)$ *signature for local*
 $G = \{ \langle \perp, s, \text{must} \rangle \}$
if there is at least one $\langle s, x, l \rangle \in T$ **then**
 $C = K = \{ \langle s, x, l \rangle : \langle s, x, l \rangle \in T \}$
else
 $C = K = \{ \langle s, \perp, \text{must} \rangle \}$
return (T, G, C, K)

Figure 6. The function for lvalues.

the dataflow equations (Figure 4). The idea behind dereference is to incrementally follow paths in the points-to graph induced by the expression while propagating the “intersection” of the qualifiers.

6.3 Address-of Operator

The `address_of` function returns a set of triples that correspond to every variable that points to something in a set of triples. Precisely,

$$\text{address_of}(S) = \{ \langle \perp, x, l \rangle : \langle x, y, l \rangle \in S \}$$

7 Interprocedural Analysis

The parameter passing mechanism—the rule for functions in Figure 5—behaves initially like a sequence of simple assignments. For example, our algorithm treats the call

```
foo(a1, a2, a3); /* call */
foo(f1, f2, f3) { /* definition */ }
```

as a series of assignments `f1=a1; f2=a2; f3=a3;`. Each assignment, which may have an arbitrary expression on the right, is treated like an assignment expression, although we only compute the *gen* set for each since formal parameters are guaranteed to be uninitialized before the call.

function statement(s, T) **returns** table

case s **of**

an expression e : *Expression*
 $(T, _) = \text{rvalue}(e, T)$

$s_1; s_2; s_3; \dots$: *Compound statement*
for each statement s_i **do**
 $T = \text{statement}(s_i, T)$

if (e) s_1 **else** s_2 : *If-else statement*
 $(T, _) = \text{rvalue}(e, T)$
 $T_1 = T$
 $T_1 = \text{statement}(s_1, T_1)$
 $T_2 = T$
 $T_2 = \text{statement}(s_2, T_2)$
 $T = T_1 \cup T_2$

while (e) s_1 : *While statement*
 $(T, _) = \text{rvalue}(e, T)$
 $T' = T$
 $T'' = \emptyset$
while $T' \neq T''$ **do**
 $T'' = T'$
 $T' = \text{statement}(s_1, T')$
 $T = T \cup T'$

for ($i ; c ; n$) s_1 : *For statement*
 $(T, _) = \text{rvalue}(i, T)$
 $(T, _) = \text{rvalue}(c, T)$
 $T' = T$
 $T'' = \emptyset$
while $T' \neq T''$ **do**
 $T'' = T'$
 $T' = \text{statement}(s_1, T')$
 $(T', _) = \text{rvalue}(n, T')$
 $T = T \cup T'$

return T

Figure 7. The function for statements.

The scopes of the actual expressions differ from those of the formal arguments; our rule for signatures ensures this.

Once the assignments are performed, the statements in the function body are analyzed and may produce an updated table since they might modify existing pointer relationships (e.g., Figure 3). Additionally, if the function itself returns a pointer, we collect the potential return values at the *return* statements and merge all of them as the G_r set for the function call.

7.1 Return Statements

Return statements are fairly subtle. To process a return statement, our algorithm collects return values in case the function returns a pointer and merges the points-to informa-

tion reaching the *return* statement with the points-to information reaching other *return* statements in the function. At the end of the function, the set from the *return* statements is merged with the points-to information reaching the end of the function to combine all potential outputs. The idea is very similar to the one adopted in [6]. Figure 8 shows an example.

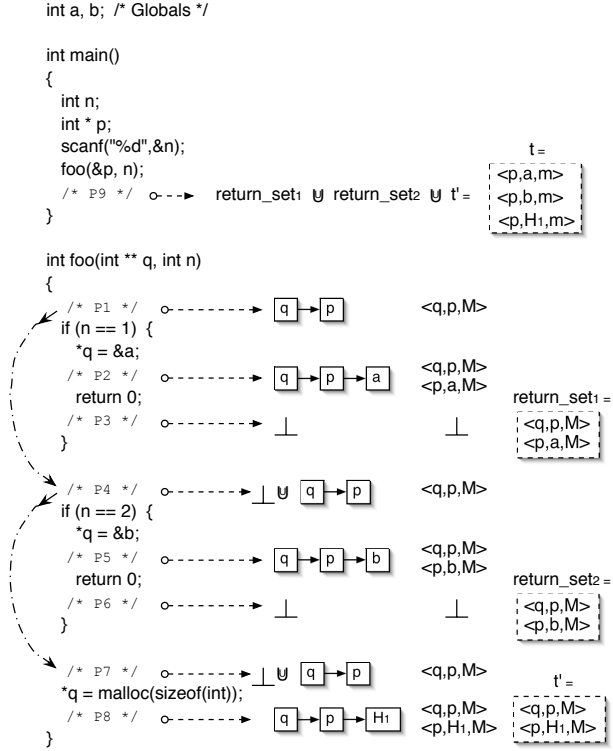


Figure 8. Return statements.

Nine checkpoints in the program are highlighted. At P1, the parameter passing mechanism makes q (with signature (“foo”, q , 2)) to point-to main’s local variable p . At P2, the assignment immediately above it makes p to refer to global variable a , even though p is not in the scope of *foo*. The return statement preceding P3 causes the current points-to set to become empty (\perp). Any statement between this *return* and the next control-flow join is treated as dead-code (none in the example) by making the statement to have no effect over this null points-to set. Moreover, a set of potential points-to information to be returned to the caller is stored in *return_set1*. It holds the pointer relationships reaching the *return* statement at P2.

The second block of code is handled similarly, except that the assignment immediately above P5 makes p to point-to global variable b . Note that the points-to information reaching P4 is computed as the merge between the two sets coming from its possible predecessors in the program’s

control-flow. This amounts to $\perp \cup \langle q, p, M \rangle$, which is equal to $\langle q, p, m \rangle$. This signifies that if P4 is ever reached during execution, then n could not have been equal to 1, since otherwise *foo* would have returned to the caller function. This is handled by making the points-to set equal to \perp whenever a *return* statement is seen, also storing the current pointer relationships as a potential output for the function.

Checkpoint P7 follows a similar rationale as P4, and the points-to information reaching it is $\perp \cup \langle q, p, M \rangle$. The statement preceding P8 then makes p to point-to a newly created heap location, referred to as H_1 . This completes the analysis for *foo*.

Note that the possible outcomes for function *foo* are *return_set1*, *return_set2* and t' . At P9, these three sets are combined through the special merge operation, generating set t (which would be used as the input set for the statement immediately following P9).

Without the return statements at P3 and P6, the assignment at P8 would definitely kill the previous two assignments at P2 and P5, since P8 would be reached at any call to function *foo*. This would imply that the points-to set after the call to *foo* would be $\langle p, H_1, M \rangle$.

7.2 Functions that return pointers

If the function itself returns a pointer, then the algorithm additionally collects the possible return values to be bound to the left-hand side of the assignment at the call-site (e.g., $r = f()$), where f returns a pointer). More precisely, when a function returns a pointer, its return statements are of the form *return*(e), where e is a pointer expression. Our algorithm thus calls *rvalue* on e , and stores the resulting ‘gen’ set (G_r) as a possible return value. At the end of analyzing the function, all G_r sets collected at the return statements are merged and assigned to the *lhs* in the call-site. Figure 9 shows the example in Figure 8 modified in such a way that the return type of function *foo* is a pointer. Although the example is clearly not useful as a C program, it serves to illustrate the relevant aspects at hand.

7.3 Continue and Break statements

Break and continue statements are handled in a way similar to return statements. Both of them cause the current points-to set to become empty (\perp), so that any statement between the break or continue and the next control flow join is considered dead code. Additionally, the points-to information reaching a continue statement is stored in a set we call *continue_set_i*, where i refers to the innermost loop construct that the *continue* belongs to. Just before analyzing the body of the loop next time (recall that we do a fixed point computation on loop constructs) we merge all continue sets with the points-to set reaching the end of the loop. This accounts for all possible inputs for the next iteration of the loop. Similarly, the points-to information reaching a break statement

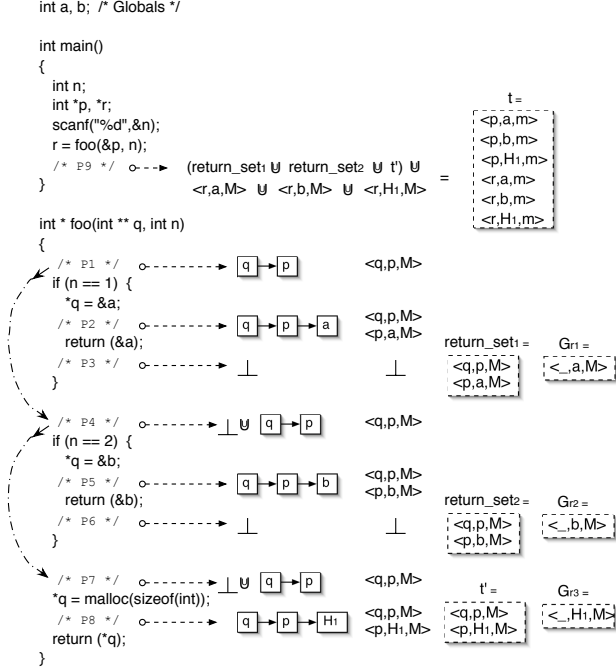


Figure 9. Function that returns a pointer.

is stored in $break_set_j$, where j refers to the statement that the *break* corresponds to. The final output set of points-to information will be the merge between all break sets and the final set reaching the end of the statement (for loop constructs, the set reaching the end of the statement is the set achieved after the fixed point is reached). Figures 10, 11 and 12 show an example where three iterations of the fixed point computation are illustrated.

7.4 Switch statement

We handle switch statements according to Figures 13 and 14. The difference between these two schemes is that, in the presence of a *default* clause, the input set to the switch statement cannot appear directly at the output without going through at least the default clause. Also note that whenever a clause does not end with a *break* statement, the points-to information exiting the clause is used as a possible input set for the next clause, which also has the input set to the switch statement as the other possible input (thus we merge these two sets).

Figure 15 shows the algorithm used for handling switch statements. It is part of *statement* function but, for the sake of clarity, we had omitted it in Figure 7.

The most common occurrence of switch statements such as:

```

switch(a)
{
  case 1: { ... }

```

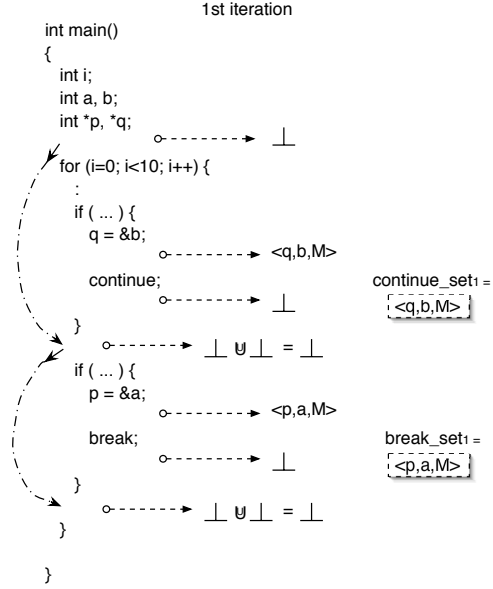


Figure 10. Iteration 1.

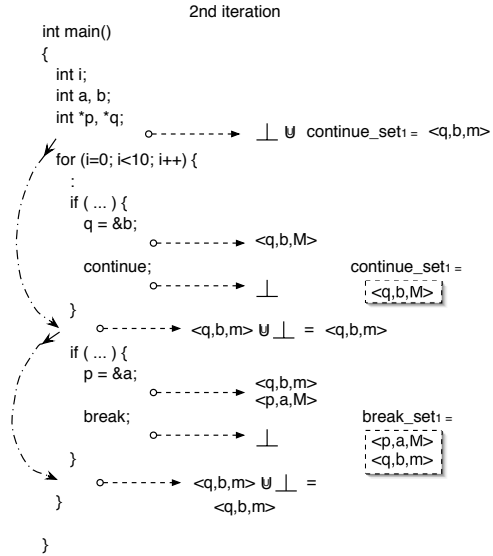


Figure 11. Iteration 2.

```

case 2: { ... }
:
default: { ... }
}

```

is handled by lines 8-15 in Figure 15. That is to say, S is a compound statement, and each of its statements s_1, s_2 , etc., is a labeled statement of the form $L : stmt_i$. Each $stmt_i$ is a compound statement, which is handled by function *statement* though the call $T = statement(stmt, T)$ at line 15. If the label L is *case* or *default*, then we merge the cur-

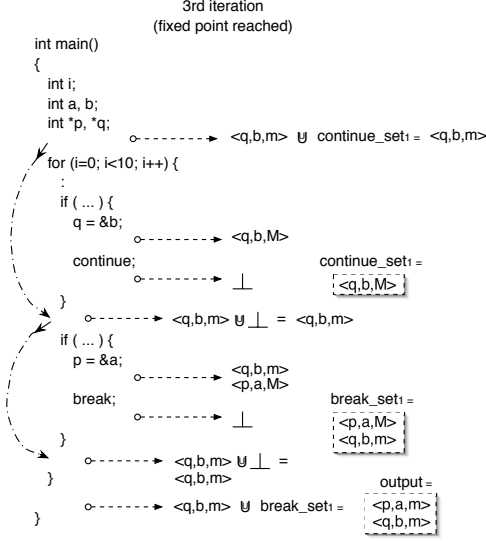


Figure 12. Iteration 3.

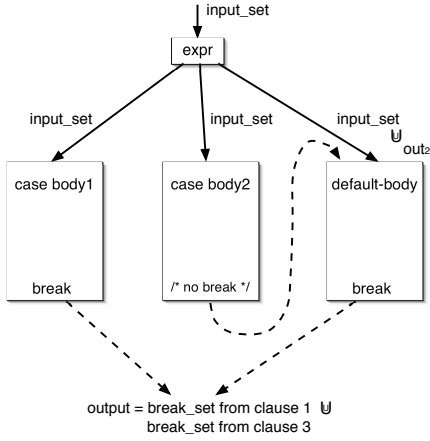


Figure 13. Switch statement with default clause.

rent points-to set with the initial set of points-to information T' . Otherwise, T contains only the points-to information currently available - possibly none due to break statements. The figure below illustrates an example of the latter case:

```

switch(a)
{
  case 1: { ... }
  case 2: { ... }
  L1:    { Stmts }
  :
  default: { ... }
}

```

Right before analyzing the statement $L1 : \{Stmts\}$, T contains only the points-to information that resulted after handling `case2 : {...}`. Ie., because $L1 : \{Stmts\}$ can only be

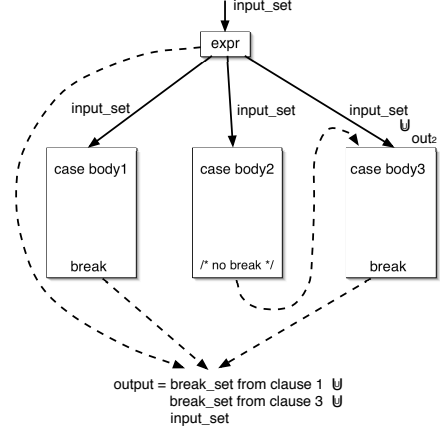


Figure 14. Switch without default clause.

reached via a fall through from its preceding statement, we do not merge T and T' . In fact, if the statement `case2 : {...}` ends with a `break`, then T will be empty upon calling `statement({Stmts}, T)` which causes $L1 : \{Stmts\}$ to be correctly treated as dead code.

Lines 18-23 handle cases such as `switch(a) case 1: S;` in which the body of the `switch` statement is not a compound statement but rather a single labeled statement - odd, but nevertheless compilable C code.

The last section of Figure 15 merges the current set of points-to information (empty in case the last clause ends with a `break` statement) with the `break_set` and the points-to information reaching the `switch` statement, depending on whether there is a `default` clause or not.

8 Structs

Fields in structures play a role in the abstract signatures generation. We mention in Section 3.2 that a signature is generated as shown below.

$(function-name, identifier, scope)$

In our actual implementation, however, the complete signature is:

$(function-name, identifier, scope, list\ of\ fields)$

where the latter term represents a list of field names, which might have more than one element whenever there are nested structures. For instance, the C fragment:

```

struct T1 {
  int * b;
};

struct T2 {
  struct T1 * a;
};

```

function `statement(s, T)` **returns** table

case *s* **of**

switch (*e*) *S* : *Switch statement*

found = 0

T' = *T*

T = \emptyset

case *S* **of**

*s*₁; *s*₂; *s*₃; ... : *Compound Statement*

for each statement *s*_{*i*} **do**

if *s*_{*i*} of the form “*L*:*stmt*” **then** *labeled*

if *L* == default **then**

found = 1

if *L* == default **or case** **then**

T = *T* \cup *T'*

T = `statement(stmt, T)`

else

T = `statement(si, T)`

L : *stmt* : *Labeled Statement*

if *L* == default **then**

found = 1

if *L* == default **or case** **then**

T = *T* \cup *T'*

T = `statement(stmt, T)`

default: : *Anything else*

T = `statement(si, T)`

if *found* **then**

T = *T* \cup *break_set*

else

T = *T* \cup *break_set* \cup *T'*

return *T*

Figure 15. The code for switch statements.

```
int main()
{
  int n = 10;
  struct T1 p;
  struct T2 q;
  q.a = &p;
  (q.a)->b = &n;
}
```

generates the triples:

$\langle (main, q, 1, [a]), (main, p, 1, []), M \rangle$

$\langle (main, p, 1, [b]), (main, n, 1, []), M \rangle$

For the second triple, the analysis first figures that (*q.a*) refers to *p*, and then assigns *n*’s address to it. Also, the code fragment below:

```
struct T1 {
  int * b;
};

struct T2 {
  struct T1 a;
};

int main()
{
  int n = 10;
  struct T2 q;
  q.a.b = &n;
}
```

generates:

$\langle (main, q, 1, [a, b]), (main, n, 1, []), M \rangle$

8.1 Recursive functions, function pointers

Our current implementation handles recursive functions in a simplistic way. Basically, we keep a stack data structure that resembles the function call stack, containing the name of the functions being analyzed in the current chain of calls. At every new call site, we check if the called function’s name is in the stack. If so, we skip the function call and continue to the next statement. If not, we add the function’s name to the top of the stack and jump to its first statement to continue the analysis. This method is clearly not very precise, but is a reasonable initial trade-off. We plan to extend the recursive function handling in a future implementation of our algorithm by performing a fixed-point computation. Function pointers are also handled by our algorithm. Since we perform a flow-sensitive, context-sensitive, interprocedural points-to analysis, the set of functions invocable from a function pointer call-site is a subset of the set of functions that the function pointer can point to at the program point just before the call-site. The analysis assumes that all these functions are invocable from the site, and merges their output sets to compute the points-to information at the program point after this call. As previously mentioned, this requires a flow-sensitive analysis due to its dependence on statement ordering.

9 Experimental Results

We have implemented the algorithm presented in this paper (along with additions for handling the rest of C) in a Linux-based source-to-source framework called Proteus [17]. Proteus uses Stratego [15] as its back end and thus employs tree-rewriting for code transformations. To write transformations in Proteus, the user writes a program in the YATL language, which is compiled to an Stratego file. Thus, we used a transformation language to implement our pointer analysis algorithm. One can view it as an “annotation” transformation that traverses the ASTs of the subject program, analyzing pointer statements without actually rewriting the code.

As an example, the following YATL fragment, taken verbatim from our implementation, checks if the term being analyzed is an *if* statement and, if so, analyzes both branches of the conditional and merges the results.

```
match(IfElseStmt: {=$cnd}<cond>,{=$th}<then>,{=$el}<else>){
  // Analyze the condition expression //
  analyze_expression($cnd, $t);

  // Create two copies of the current //
  // points-to set, t, and hand them to //
  // the two branches of the "if" stmt //

  $thenSet = int-to-string(uuid-int());
  set_copy($thenSet, $t);

  $elseSet = int-to-string(uuid-int());
  set_copy($elseSet, $t);

  analyze_generic_stmt($th, $thenSet);
  analyze_generic_stmt($el, $elseSet);

  // Merge "thenSet" and "elseSet" //
  set_merge($thenSet, $elseSet);
  set_copy($t, $thenSet);

  // Free unused memory //
  set_destroy($thenSet);
  set_destroy($elseSet);
}
```

The *match* construct in the above code means if the term being analyzed—the root of the current subtree—is an *if* statement, to bind the subtree representing the conditional expression to variable *\$cnd*, the subtree corresponding to the true branch to variable *\$th*, and the subtree corresponding to the else branch to *\$el*. Since *\$cnd* can be an arbitrary expression, it can include a pointer assignment (if `((p=malloc(...))!=NULL)` is typical). The call to *analyze_expression* (rvalue function) handles the conditional, which might update *\$t*, a string that holds a unique name for the table: a “pointer” to it.

Two copies of the table are made—*\$thenSet* and *\$elseSet*. These are two unique names generated by *uuid-int* and converted to strings by *int-to-string*. The statements in the two branches of the *if* are then analyzed, each branch with its own copy of the initial table *\$t*. After this is done, the resulting tables are merged by *set_merge*, (\cup in Figure 7) and the final set overwrites *\$t* (the first parameter in *set_merge* also represents the destination; *set_copy(a, b)* means $a \leftarrow b$). Finally, the memory used for the temporary sets is freed.

With the support from the tool to build ASTs, resolve multiple files, and provide the front-end language, the pointer analysis algorithm takes less than four thousand lines of code, yet covers almost the entire C language (we currently do not handle *goto* statements).

9.1 Experiments

We tested our procedure on a set of benchmarks ranging in size from about 800 to 30 000 lines of code (includ-

name	lines of code	number of files	parsing time	analysis time	max. memory
stanford	885	1	17s	48s	16Mb
compress	1933	3	27s	< 1m	27
mpeg2dec	9830	20	< 2m	< 7m	24
jpeg	27966	85	< 7m	< 32m	65

Table 1. Experimental results.

ing whitespace and comments). We report four test cases: stanford, compress, mpeg2dec, and jpeg. Stanford is a collection of algorithms such as a solution to the eight-queens problem and Towers of Hanoi. Compress, mpeg2dec, and jpeg are well-known file compression, MPEG video decoder, and JPEG encoder/decoder libraries. We slightly modified the source of each example to remove *goto* statements (we duplicated code) and correct prototypes.

To analyze a program, our system first parses all its source files and constructs a single AST in memory. We list the time taken for this in the *parsing* column of Table 1. Then our analysis runs: traverses the AST starting from *main*, constructs tables, etc. The times for this phase are listed under *analysis*. We ran these experiments on a 512 Mb, 2.4GHz Pentium 4 running Linux.

Not surprisingly, the time required for our analysis grows with the size of the program, as the price for precision in the form of flow-sensitiveness and function body re-analysis is paid in efficiency. Thirty-two minutes of analysis time for the largest example may seem excessive, but our objective has been precision, not speed, and as such we have not attempted to make our implementation more efficient. Compared to traditional pointer analysis algorithms, ours is flow-sensitive and interprocedural, up to multiple translation units and multiple files.

We believe that for source-to-source transformations, however, this magnitude of execution time is acceptable. This type of static analysis could automate a source code transformation that would take days or weeks to perform manually. For instance, inserting the minimal amount of null pointer checking in the source code might be done by first performing a pointer analysis and then inserting checks wherever a pointer may be null. Although slower, flow-sensitivity is of paramount importance to this type of checking, since verifying whether a pointer is initialized before it is used depends on the order of the statements. We are currently applying our analysis to porting a legacy application that assumed a big-endian architecture to a little-endian architecture. To perform this, we augment the points-to sets with type information—a simple, but very useful modification.

In Table 1, we list memory usage, which includes the space needed to store ASTs, symbol table(s), as well as the space used for temporary points-to tables. Although the

source of the compress example is smaller, it requires about as much memory as the larger mpeg2dec example because the code is more pointer-intensive and may include more conditionals, which tends to increase the number of copies of the points-to table.

10 Conclusions and Future work

The main contribution of this paper is a pointer analysis algorithm that operates on the abstract syntax tree of a program—a necessity for source-to-source transformations, which strive to preserve as much about the program as possible. Our algorithm performs a flow-sensitive analysis using dataflow equations generated directly on-the-fly from the abstract syntax tree of the program. Our choice of a flow-sensitive analysis makes our algorithm slower than many existing techniques, but the extra precision it provides is useful in source-to-source transformations. Similarly, our choice of re-analyzing a function each time it is called is less efficient than techniques that, say, create a transfer function for each subroutine and re-apply it as necessary [18], but this increases precision.

The algorithm presented in this paper fits the environment typical in source-to-source tools, although some coding optimizations are still needed to make it run faster. In the future, we plan to memoize functions that do not change the points-to sets, which should not affect precision. We also plan to build a visualization tool that displays the points-to sets graphically (presumably as a points-to graph). This might be useful for source code debugging. Partial support for this has already been built.

Implementation

This section presents some code that was extracted verbatim from our current implementation. The language we used was YATL - a brief explanation about its syntax and semantics was given in Section 9.

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