

# What is keeping my phone awake? Characterizing and Detecting No-Sleep Energy Bugs in Smartphone Apps

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## ABSTRACT

Despite their immense popularity in recent years, smartphones are and will remain severely limited by their battery life. Preserving this critical resource has driven smartphone OSes to undergo a paradigm shift in power management: by default every component, including the CPU, stays off or in an idle state, unless the app explicitly instructs the OS to keep it on! Such a policy encumbers app developers to explicitly juggle power control APIs exported by the OS to keep the components on, during their active use by the app and off otherwise. The resulting power-encumbered programming unavoidably gives rise to a new class of software energy bugs on smartphones called *no-sleep bugs*, which arise from mis-handling power control APIs by apps or the framework and result in significant and unexpected battery drainage.

This paper makes the first advances towards understanding and automatically detecting software energy bugs on smartphones. It makes the following three contributions: (1) we present the first comprehensive study of real world no-sleep energy bug characteristics; (2) we propose the first automatic solution to detect these bugs based on the classic reaching definitions dataflow analysis algorithm; (3) we provide experimental data showing that our tool accurately detected all 14 known instances of no-sleep bugs and found 30 new bugs in the 86 apps examined.

## Categories and Subject Descriptors

D.2.5 [Software Engineering]: Testing and Debugging

## General Terms

Design, Experimentation, Measurement

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## Keywords

Smartphones, Mobile, Energy, Energy-Bug, No-Sleep-Bug.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Motivation

Smartphones have surpassed desktop machines in sales in 2011 to become the most prevalent computing platforms [1]. To enrich the user experience, modern day smartphones come with a host of hardware I/O components embedded in them. The list of components broadly fall into two categories: *traditional components* such as CPU, WiFi NIC, 3G radio, memory, screen and storage that are also found in desktop and laptop machines, and *exotic components* such as GPS, camera and various sensors. And they differ from their desktop/laptop counterparts in that power consumed by individual I/O components is often comparable to, or higher than, the power consumed by the CPU.

This, along with the fact that smartphones have limited battery life, dictates that energy has become the most critical resource of smartphones. Preserving this crucial resource has driven smartphone OSes to resort to a paradigm shift in component power management. On desktop machines, where the CPU accounts for a majority of the energy consumption, the default energy management policy is that the CPU stays on (or runs at a high frequency) unless an extended period of low load has been observed. The policy is consistent with the historical notion that energy management is a second class citizen since machines are plugged into a power source [2]. Smart phones, in sharp contrast, make power management policy a first class citizen. In fact, the power management policy on smartphones has gone to the other extreme: *the default power management policy is that every component, including the CPU, stays off or in an idle state, unless the app explicitly instructs the OS to keep it on!*

In particular, all smartphone OSes, *e.g.*, Android, IOS, and Windows Mobile, employ an aggressive *sleeping policy* which put the components of the phone to sleep, *i.e.*, puts them into an *idle* state immediately following a brief period of user inactivity. In the idle state, the smartphone as a whole draws near zero power, since nearly all the components, including CPU, are put to sleep. Such a sleeping policy is largely responsible for prolonged smartphone standby times – smartphones can last dozens of hours when idle.

The aggressive sleeping policy, however, severely impacts smart-

phone apps, since an app may be performing critical tasks by intermittently interacting with the external world using various sensors. For example, an app syncing with a remote server over the network may appear to perform no activity when waiting for the server to send its reply, and the system may be put to sleep by the aggressive sleeping policy, leaving the remote server with a view of lost connectivity.

To avoid such disruptions due to the aggressive sleeping policy, smartphone OSes provide a set of mechanisms for app developers to *explicitly* notify the OS of their intention to continue using each component. In particular, the OS exports explicit power management handles and APIs, typically in the form of power wakelocks and acquire and release APIs [3], for use by the app developer to specify when a particular component needs to stay on, or awake, until it is explicitly released from duty.

We argue such explicit management of smartphone components by app developers has presented to the app developer a profound paradigm shift in smartphone programming that we call as *power-encumbered programming*. This new programming paradigm places a significant burden on developers to explicitly manipulate the power control APIs (§4.1 details one such example of the burden placed on developer due to power encumbrance). This manipulation is *required* to ensure the correct operation of the apps. Consequently, power-encumbered programming unavoidably gives rise to a new class of software energy bugs on smartphones, called *no-sleep bugs*. No-sleep bugs are defined as energy bugs resulting from mis-handling power control APIs in an app or framework,<sup>1</sup> resulting in the smartphone components staying on for an unnecessarily long period of time. No-sleep bugs form one important category of the family of *smartphone energy bugs* which are defined in [4] as errors in the smartphone system (an app or the framework, the OS, or the hardware) that cause an unexpectedly high energy consumption by the system as a whole.

Discussions of energy bugs on numerous Internet forums have narrowed the causes to mis-handling of power control APIs by apps and the framework on smartphones OSes, including Android, IOS, and Windows Mobile. Our recent survey [4] has found that 70% of all energy problems in apps and frameworks reported by mobile users were due to no-sleep energy bugs. These and other types of energy bugs have caused a great deal of user frustrations. Despite their severity, *i.e.*, high battery drain, to the best of our knowledge there has been no study of any kind of smart phone energy bugs, much less no-sleep energy bugs. Drawing parallels with research on traditional software bugs (*e.g.*, concurrency bugs in concurrent programs [5]), a comprehensive treatment of energy bugs on smartphones will require (1) a good understanding of real world energy bug characteristics, learned from common mistakes programmers make in writing smartphone apps, to lead to effective debugging techniques; and (2) developing multi-faceted approaches to eliminating energy bugs, including avoiding energy bugs during app development (*e.g.*, by providing better programming language support for power management) and compile and runtime detection.

## 1.2 Our Contributions

This paper takes the first steps towards understanding and automatically detecting software energy bugs on smartphones. Specifically, our paper makes three concrete contributions:

(1) *The first characterization study of no-sleep energy bugs in smartphone apps*: We present the first comprehensive real world no-sleep energy bug characterization study. Our study is based on no-sleep energy bugs in real world apps and the Android frame-

work, including popular apps (*e.g.*, Facebook) and built-in (*i.e.*, shipped with) apps and services (*e.g.*, the Android email app). The bugs are collected by crawling Internet mobile forums, bug repositories, commit logs of open source Android apps and by running our no-sleep bug detector developed in this paper. For each bug, we carefully examine its reported symptoms, corresponding source code and related patches (when available), and developer's discussions (when available), or the analysis performed by our bug detector. Our study reveals a taxonomy of three major causes of no-sleep energy bugs, which provide useful guidelines and hints to designing effective detection techniques. Our study also confirms the significant burden power-encumbered programming places on app developers. For example, making a single outgoing or incoming phone call in Android involves about 40 invocations of power control APIs in the Dialer app and the framework's Radio Interface Layer services to dynamically manage the power control of the CPU, screen, and other sensors!

(2) *The first solution to automatically detect no-sleep energy bugs*: We make the key observation that power control APIs are explicitly embedded in the app source code by the app developers, and two out of the three causes for no-sleep energy bugs from our characterization study are because a turn-on API call is missing a matching turn-off API call before the end of the program execution. We thus propose a compile-time solution based on the classic reaching definitions dataflow analysis problem [6] to automatically infer the possibility of a no-sleep bug in a given app. Our solution detects no-sleep bugs in single-threaded and multi-threaded apps, as well as event-based apps which have multiple entry points. Like all static analysis based tools, our detection tool can suffer false positives but has the tremendous advantage of *no* runtime overhead and *no* false negatives (to the best of our abilities of establishing the ground truth).

We further present the complete implementation of our static analysis detection tool for apps written for Android. The tool is capable of running directly on the app installers (`.apk` files) and hence source code is not required. Our implementation handles the specifics of event-driven mobile programming and of the Java language such as runtime null pointer exceptions and object references.

(3) *Detecting new no-sleep bugs in Android apps and framework*: We have run our no-sleep bug detection tool on 86 Android apps and the framework collected from the Android market. Experimental evaluation shows that our tool accurately detected all reported instances of no-sleep bugs, as well as 30 instances of new previously unreported no-sleep bugs. These include no-sleep bugs in many popular apps, *e.g.*, the default Android Email app. Our no-sleep bug detection incurred false positives in 13 out of the 55 apps it reported to contain a bug.

## 2. POWER ENCUMBERED PROGRAMMING

In this section, we first describe the energy management APIs and their semantics that are exposed to the developers in the Android smartphone OS, and discuss the burden they impose on the app developers. We first discuss programming APIs for traditional components (*e.g.*, screen, CPU) and then for exotic components (*e.g.*, GPS, Camera). We also discuss the issues arising from event based programming model of smartphone apps. We then introduce the prominent class of energy bugs studied in this paper: no-sleep bugs.

<sup>1</sup>In this paper, we use the term framework to refer to both the services in and the apps that are bundled with, the Android framework.

Table 1: Summary of power operations exported by Android APIs.

Component lock/manager name (API to start/stop)	Component(s)	Battery Drain up to (%/hr)	Comments
<b>Traditional Components</b>			
PARTIAL_WAKE_LOCK (acquire/release)	CPU	5%	CPU runs despite any timers
SCREEN_DIM_WAKE_LOCK (acquire/release)	CPU and Screen (DIM)	12%	No illumination if shutdown, else illuminates till lock release (Flag ACQUIRE_CAUSES_WAKEUP forces illumination in all cases)
SCREEN_BRIGHT_WAKE_LOCK (acquire/release)	CPU and Screen (bright)	25%	
FULL_WAKE_LOCK (acquire/release)	CPU, Screen (bright) and Keyboard backlight	25%	
<b>Exotic Components</b>			
PROXIMITY_SCREEN_OFF_WAKE_LOCK (acquire/release)	Screen, Proximity Sensor	25%	Screen shuts if sensor activates
LocationManager (requestLocationUpdate/removeUpdates)	GPS	15%	Tracks user location
SensorManager (registerListener/unregisterListener)	Accelerometer, Gyro, Proximity Magnetic Field, etc. [8]	10%	Sensormanager class controls various sensors on phone
MediaRecorder (start/stop)	Mic/Camera (for video)	20%	Usually stores media on sdcard
Camera (startPreview/stopPreview)	Camera (for still pictures)	20%	One app at a time registers camera

Listing 1: An example power wakelock usage.

```

1 PowerManager.WakeLock wl = pm.newWakeLock(PowerManager.
  PARTIAL_WAKE_LOCK);
2 wl.acquire(); //CPU should not go to sleep
3 net_sync(); //Perform critical task here
4 wl.release(); //CPU is free to sleep

```

## 2.1 Managing Traditional Components

The Android framework exports wakelock functionality through `PowerManager.WakeLock`<sup>2</sup> class, with 4 different options and associated APIs for managing several traditional components: CPU, screen, and the keyboard backlight. A wakelock is an *instance* (object in Java) of the wakelock class, instantiated using one of 4 options, and each option has a different effect on the hardware component, as summarized in Table 1. For example, option `FULL_WAKE_LOCK` instantiates a lock that when acquired both keeps the CPU and screen on at full brightness and turns on the keyboard backlight.

Listing 1 illustrates a basic wakelock usage: how to ensure that the CPU does not sleep during some critical phase. The app declares a wakelock (`pm` is an instance of `PowerManager`) and then *acquires* it, which instructs the OS not to put the CPU to sleep, irrespective of user activity, since it intends to perform some critical task. Once the critical task (in this case a remote network sync `net_sync()`) is completed the app *releases* the wakelock, indicating to the OS that CPU can now sleep according to its sleeping policies.

**Semantics:** The above simple usage of a wakelock is just like a conventional mutual exclusion lock, *i.e.*, an app explicitly *acquires* and *releases* it to instruct the OS to switch the component on and off, respectively. Like an object a wakelock can be shared among several threads of a process. The semantics of wakelocks, however, are quite different from those of conventional mutual exclusion locks.

First, as shown in Table 1, a single wakelock (instantiated with one of the four options) controls one or more components. Second, the power control effect of a single wakelock depends on the configuration of that wakelock: a wakelock can be configured to be reference counted [9]. In an almost peculiar sense, it is more like a condition variable when configured not to be reference counted, and a semaphore when configured to be reference counted.

We first consider non-reference counted wakelocks. An `acquire()` on a released or fresh instance of wakelock wakes up

<sup>2</sup>Apps need `android.permission.WAKE_LOCK` permission from users to use this class.

the corresponding component (the `ACQUIRE_CAUSES_WAKEUP` flag wakes up the screen), or keeps the component awake if it is already so. In other words, an `acquire()` called on an already acquired wakelock is treated as a `nop`. Similarly, a `release()` called on an acquired wakelock sets the component free to sleep as far as the perspective of this wakelock is concerned, irrespective of the number of times an `acquire()` has been called on the lock. In this sense, a non-reference counted wakelock is like a condition variable.

In contrast, reference counted wakelocks are like semaphores. Each `acquire()` of a wakelock increments the internal counter associated with the (instance of) wakelock, and a `release()` decrements the internal counter. It only lets the component sleep (from the perspective of this wakelock) if the internal counter value reaches 0. A *release* is a `nop`<sup>3</sup> in other cases.

To make matters even more complicated, an `acquire` can also be called with a timer [10], which instructs the system to release it automatically once the timeout interval expires.

Third, the above power control semantics are from the perspective of one wakelock. Unlike traditional *mutual exclusion* locks, different wakelocks (even instantiated with different options) on the same component can be held by multiple entities (*e.g.*, processes and threads) in the system at the same time. Even a single entity may hold multiple (instances of) wakelocks on the same component. The power control effect on a component must take into account the state of all wakelocks. The component is switched on when the first wakelock is held. Only when all the wakelocks from all the entities for the component are *released*, taking into account the reference counting semantics for each, can the component go to sleep, subject to higher level sleeping policies (administered by framework processes), *e.g.*, sleep after 5 seconds of user inactivity.

This demonstrates the new programming burden inflicted on app developers: power management is no longer just a transparent OS or driver task; the developers now need to perform explicit power management in the app layer.

## 2.2 Managing Exotic Components

In addition to traditional components, modern smartphones come with several “exotic” components embedded in them. These include GPS, camera, several sensors such as an accelerometer, proximity sensor, and gyroscope. Some of these components are the biggest energy consumers in smartphones, *e.g.*, GPS and camera, and drain the battery at a high rate [11, 12, 13].

<sup>3</sup>Newer Android APIs throw an exception when `release()` is called on an unacquired wakelock. Hence, a `release` is usually called after testing if the lock is currently held (using API `wakelock.isHeld()`).

Unlike some of the traditional components, *e.g.*, WiFi NIC, the new exotic components are used in an explicit on-off fashion. For example, the GPS is explicitly turned on, using the OS exported API, to acquire the smartphone location and in this state it consumes battery at a high rate. Once the location is determined, the component is explicitly turned off, triggering the component to return to a low power state.

Like wakelocks, the explicit power management of exotic components places a significant programming burden on app developers. An incorrect or inefficient use of these APIs can easily lead to poor utilization of these components, wasting significant battery energy (see §2.4).

**Semantics:** Table 1 lists the APIs exported by Android for accessing the *exotic* components. Their semantics of power control of these components is similar to the plain wakelocks in §2.1, *i.e.*, no reference counting or timer-based release.

In summary, the developers are burdened with explicitly manipulating power control APIs for both traditional and exotic smartphone components to ensure the correct operations of the apps. We call this new smartphone programming paradigm as *power-encumbered programming*.

### 2.3 Issues from Event-based Programming

The complexity of power-encumbered programming is exacerbated by the event-based nature of smartphone apps. Compared to programming in desktop/server environments, smartphone programming is event-oriented because of the inherent interactive nature of phone apps. A typical user-facing smartphone app is written as a set of event handlers with events being user or external activities. The developer needs to keep track of each possible event and when it may be triggered, and manipulate the wakelocks accordingly.

We illustrate how the level of complexity introduced by power-encumbered programming is exacerbated by event-based programming through a concrete example from the Dialer app [14] that comes with the Android framework.

The Dialer app implements the dialing functionality of the phone. The app is triggered when the user receives an incoming call or when the user clicks the phone icon to make an outgoing call. To implement its functionality, the app explicitly maintains three wakelocks: `FULL_WAKE_LOCK` for keeping the screen on (*e.g.*, in situations like when the user is dialing the numbers to call), `PARTIAL_WAKE_LOCK` for keeping the CPU on (*e.g.*, in case of an incoming call when the phone is switched off), and `PROXIMITY_SCREEN_OFF_WAKE_LOCK` which switches the proximity sensor on and off (to detect user's proximity to the phone).

To manage the three wakelocks, the app explicitly maintains a state machine where the states represent the lock behavior, *i.e.*, which lock needs to be acquired and which needs to be released, and the "condition" of the phone represents the state transitions. The conditions are diverse and include events such as (a) if the phone gets a call, (b) if the phone is pressed against the user's ear in which case the proximity sensor triggers the screen to go off, (c) if the call ends, (d) if a wired or bluetooth headset is plugged in (*e.g.*, in the middle of a call), (e) if the phone speaker is turned on, (f) if the phone slider is opened in between calls, and (g) if the user clicked home button in the middle of a call. For each of these triggering events, the phone changes the state of wakelock state machine, acquiring one and releasing another.

In addition to wakelocks in the Dialer app, the Radio Interface Layer (RIL) in Android maintains additional 5 wakelocks to handle incoming and outgoing calls. Using explicit component access tracing through an instrumented Android framework running on a Google Nexus One handset, we observed that performing a single

outgoing or incoming call in Android resulted in 30-40 distinct instances of wakelock acquires and releases!

### 2.4 No-Sleep Bugs

The new burden of explicit component power manipulation from power-encumbered programming, combined with the complexity of handling events in the app behavior, can easily overwhelm developers and lead to programming mistakes in manipulating the power control APIs. Incorrect or inefficient usage of such APIs can lead to an unexpected drain of the phone battery, known as no-sleep bugs [4].

A "no-sleep bug" is a condition where at least one component of the phone is woken up and is not put to sleep due to a mistake in manipulating power control APIs in an app. The component that is woken up continues to drain the battery for a prolonged period of time, resulting in *severe* and *unexpected* battery drain. Typically the battery drain continues until the app is forcefully killed<sup>4</sup> or the system is rebooted.

No-sleep bugs form one of the most important categories of software *energy bugs* in smartphone apps [4]. Unlike regular software bugs in apps, energy bugs do not lead to an app crash or OS blue screen of death [4]. An app hit by an energy bug continues to provide the intended functionality, with a single difference: the phone suffers a severe, unexpected battery drain. The severity of the energy drain due to the bug depends on the component that is not put to sleep. As shown in Table 1, for each of the 3 components (GPS, Screen with full or low brightness and camera), the impact of a no-sleep bug can be severe with the battery draining at a rate of 10-25% every hour<sup>5</sup> without any user interaction.

For other components, *e.g.*, the CPU and proximity sensor, the battery drains at a relatively low rate - up to 5% every hour. When a CPU wakelock (`PARTIAL_WAKE_LOCK`) is held, it prevents the CPU from 'freezing', a state where it would consume zero power (IDLE state). In a wakelock held state, the CPU draws minimal power (depending on the CPU specifications of the handset). However, as the CPU remains on, other activities continue to run, *e.g.*, WiFi NIC chatters, background periodic OS processes, hardware interrupts handling by OS, *etc.* These activities together consume, as measured on Google Nexus One, about 5% of the battery every hour. Any additional user activity is not accounted for in this. As a result, over a long period of time, say 12 hours, an only-CPU wakelock bug can drain about 50-60% of the battery without any user interaction or performing necessary activities.

## 3. METHODOLOGY

To characterize the root cause of no-sleep bugs observed in current mobile apps, we collected no-sleep bugs in smartphone apps in four ways. **(a) Mobile forums:** We crawled 4 popular mobile Internet forums (the same as in [4]): one general forum with discussions covering all mobile devices and OSes, and three OS/company specific mobile forums. In total we crawled 1.2M posts, from which we filtered out posts related to no-sleep bugs in smartphone apps. For each app reported by the user to contain a no-sleep bug, we downloaded the binary installers of the version of the app that was reported to contain the bug and the first version which had the problem solved. We then decompiled the app from binary installers

<sup>4</sup>In Android, apps (esp. background services) are not killed; they run in background once a user stops interacting with them. They are usually killed by the system only in case of memory pressure.

<sup>5</sup>These rates were calculated using HTC nexus and magic handsets running Android. A fully charged battery holds between 1100mAH to 1500mAH of charge.

to Java source code using `ded`<sup>6</sup> [16]. For apps that were successfully decompiled (e.g., Facebook), we studied the root cause of no-sleep bugs. **(b) Bug lists:** We crawled mobile bug repositories of open source mobile frameworks like Android [17] and Maemo [18]. We extracted bugs reported with no-sleep conditions and extracted the source code (open source) of the versions that actually contained the bugs (e.g., no-sleep bug in Android SIP Service [19]) and its patch (if available). **(c) Open source code repositories:** We scraped the commit logs of open-source Android apps hosted on online code repositories like github [20]. We extracted the commit logs of no-sleep bug fixes and downloaded the versions both before and after the fix. **(d) Running our no-sleep bug detection tool:** Finally, we ran our solution of automatically detecting no-sleep bugs developed in this paper on 86 Android apps and the stock framework and discovered 42 apps with no-sleep code-paths as detailed in §6, §7 and §9 (labeled with “\*” in Table 2). These apps are used in the characterization study in §4.

## 4. CHARACTERIZING NO-SLEEP BUGS

Using the bug-collection methodology described above, we now present a case-study of no-sleep bugs observed in smartphone apps. We characterize the root cause and impact of the bugs. Table 2 gives a summary of the three general categories of no-sleep bugs we have identified and their impact. Drain time shows the amount of time it will take to drain a fully charged battery under typical usage.<sup>7</sup> Without the bugs, it takes about 15 hours to drain a fully charged battery. The bug references in Table 2 refer to both the bug fix commit logs and user complaints about specific apps on Android bug repositories, all of which indicate the real impact and user frustration caused by the no-sleep bugs. The first two categories, *No-Sleep Code Paths* and *No-Sleep Race Condition*, exhibit typical symptoms of no-sleep bugs where a component is not put to sleep at all, whereas the third category, *no-sleep dilation*, represents the scenario where a component was held on much longer than the programmer’s intention (on the order of hours). Below we present an in-depth analysis of these three categories of no-sleep bugs.

### 4.1 No-Sleep Code Path

The root cause for most of the observed no-sleep bugs in a single threaded activity was the existence of a code path in the app that wakes up a component, e.g., by acquiring the wakelock for the component, but does not put the component back to sleep, e.g., there is no release of the lock. This category captures a majority of the no-sleep bugs we have observed in our bug collection.

We observed three causes for the existence of a code path where the component was switched on but not put to sleep.

The first cause is that the programmer simply forgot to release the wakelock throughout the code, or the programmer released the lock in the `if` branch of a condition but not in the `else` branch. Although it seems like a simple mistake, this does happen in real apps. For example, a version of the Agenda widget [21] contained such a no-sleep bug.

The second cause is that the programmer did put code that releases the component wakelock on many code paths, but the code took an unanticipated code path during execution along which the component was not put to sleep. Listing 2 shows a code-snippet

Listing 2: No-sleep bug: different code paths.

```

1 try{
2     wl.acquire(); //CPU should not sleep
3     net_sync(); //Throws Exception(s)
4     wl.release(); //CPU is free to sleep
5 } catch(Exception e) {
6     System.out.println(e); //Print the error
7 } finally {
8 } //End try-catch block

```

that represents a typical template of a no-sleep bug where an app takes a different, somewhat unanticipated code path after waking up a component and therefore does not put it back to sleep. As in Listing 1, the critical task in the app, `net_sync()`, is protected by acquiring and releasing the CPU wakelock instructing the CPU not to sleep during the remote syncing phase. However, routine `net_sync()` may throw exceptions [41], a Java language mechanism for notifying apps of some failure conditions, such as a connect to a remote end host failed, a string could not be parsed to integer, or a specific file to be opened does not exist. A thrown exception is explicitly *caught* by the `try`’s `catch` block which simply prints the exception for debugging purposes. Now the no-sleep bug can manifest itself in the following code path. First the `try` block executes and acquires the wakelock. Next a call is issued to the critical task, `net_sync()`. If an exception is raised inside `net_sync()`, the control directly jumps to the `catch` block, the debug output is printed, and the code exits the `try catch` block. Consequently, the code-path followed does not release the wakelock, keeping the CPU on indefinitely. To fix this problem, the wakelock should be released in the `finally` block so that it is always executed.

A large number of no-sleep bugs are caused by this second reason. These include popular apps such as Facebook [22], Agenda widget [21] (another version), MyTrack [25] (no sleep of GPS), BabbleSink [26], CommonsWare and apps [27], as well as services that come with the Android framework, such as Android Telephony [28], Android Exchange [29, 30], and WifiService [31]. For example, in SIP service [19], the wakelock was not released since the objects containing the wakelocks were deleted and so the lock handlers were deleted along with them.

The third cause for a no-sleep code path is that a higher level condition (like an app level deadlock) prevented the execution from reaching the point where the wakelock was to be released. This is likely to happen in smartphone programming because event-based programming of smartphones can lead to many possible code branches (as in the example of the Android Email app) that makes it difficult for the programmer to anticipate all the possible code paths and keep track of the wakelock state. `LocationListener` [33, 34] in the Android framework contained such a no-sleep bug. The developer did release the wakelock, however, a higher level app deadlock prevented the code from entering the release phase of the app.

Finally, the most common pattern of no-sleep code-path bug is a result of the fact that developers do not properly understand the life-cycle of Android processes. In Android, an app activity once started is always alive. When the user exits any app, Android saves the state of the app and passes it back to the app if the user returns to it. The app is only completely killed when the phone is critically low on RAM or when the app kills itself. This methodology is used to reduce the startup time of the app and to maintain its state.

This essentially means that the app may not actually be destroyed for very long periods of time. But many app developers only release the wakelock in the `onDestroy()` call-back, instead of in

<sup>6</sup>Not all app binaries could be transformed into (meaningful) source code, especially the ones that have been obfuscated during compilation (using tools like proguard [15]), e.g., the NYTimes Android app.

<sup>7</sup>Typical usage assumes that the phone is used actively by a user for 20% of the total time. Drain times are calculated using the energy drain rate in the bug state measured on the HTC Nexus phone.

Table 2: No-sleep bug case study. Entries with (F) represent bugs in the Android framework, and with (\*) represent new bugs found by our technique.

App	Description	Bug Description	Drain	Ref.
<b>No-Sleep Code Paths</b>				
Agenda Widget	Popular Android widget managing news/calendar	Two bugs were reported in difference versions (a) not all branches release wakelocks in <code>AlarmService</code> ; (b) programmer forgot to call wakelock release after acquiring it.	9 hrs	[21]
FaceBook	The default FaceBook App v 1.3.0	<code>facebook.katana.HomeActivity</code> , the central Activity, acquires wakelock to run <code>FaceBookService</code> . Not all possible branches in the service release wakelocks.	9 hrs	[22]
k9mail	One of the most popular email client for Android	Per-thread wakelock maintained. Wakelock acquired when IMAP DONE was sent, but was not released in <code>MessagingControllerPushReceiver</code> during IDLE stat	9 hrs	[23]
CheckinMaps	Visual stories on maps	GPS remains on, even when user closes the app (calling the <code>onPause()</code> handler).	5 hrs	[24]
(*) MyTrack	Track User Path online	GPS remains on, even after user navigates away from the app draining battery.	5 hrs	[25]
BabbleSink	Find phone's location	A <code>NullPointerException</code> causes the thread to exit without releasing wakelock.	9 hrs	[26]
CommonsWare	Android Training Book	Wakelock released without <code>finalize</code> .	9 hrs	[27]
Sip Service (F)	Std. voice protocol implementation in Android	A Sip handler (object) was deleted which had wakelocks acquired before releasing the wakelock. The deleted handlers can not perform <code>release()</code> to release the wakelocks.	9 hrs	[19]
Telephony (F)	Telephony Handler: RIL service in Android code	Android telephony does not release the partial wakelock right away if there is an error in sending the RIL request, preventing the phone to go in power collapse draining battery.	9 hrs	[28]
(*) Android Exchange (F)	The default email app in Android framework	During background syncing of mailboxes in an exchange account, the app acquires wakelock and does not release in all failure conditions, specifically in <code>IOExceptions</code> .	9 hrs	[29] [30]
WifiService (F)	Android WiFi Handlers	CPU does not go to sleep during a message removal and wakelock was held forever.	9 hrs	[31]
PowerManager(F)	PowerService Android	Two instances of wakelocks are not released in <code>PowerManagerService</code> in Android.	9 hrs	[32]
LocationListener (F)	GPS handling library in Android framework	A deadlock in <code>LocationManagerService</code> for releasing wakelocks after client notifications have been received prevented the release of the wakelocks draining battery.	9 hrs	[33] [34]
<b>No-Sleep Race Condition</b>				
(*) Android Email app (F)	Default Android email app performing sync	Race condition between email synchronizing thread and the main thread which kills the synchronizing thread resulted in a shared wakelock to remain in acquired state after exit.	9 hrs	[35] [36]
<b>No-Sleep Dilation</b>				
MyTrack	Track User Path online	Wakelock acquired and released much before and after the required functionality in app.	9 hrs	[25]
GoogleBackup (F)	Cloud backup [37]	Wakelock reported to be held for a long duration of time (up to an hour) in poor network.	11 hrs	[38]
GPS Driver (F)	Android GPS handler	Wakelocks are being held for longer than needed in low level GPS driver code.	15 hrs	[39]
Google Maps	Android Google maps	App was reported to hold wakelock for several hours even when it was not used.	10 hrs	[40]

Listing 3: Wakelock Complexity

```

1 @Override protected void finalize(){
2     /**
3      * It is understood that This finalizer is not
4      * guaranteed to be called and the release lock
5      * call is here just in case there is some path
6      * that doesn't call onDisconnect and or
7      * onConnectedInOrOut.
8      */
9     if (mPartialWakeLock.isHeld()) {
10        Log.e(LOG_TAG, "[CdmaConn] UNEXPECTED; mPartialWakeLock
11            is held when finalizing.");
12    }
13    releaseWakeLock();
14 }

```

`onPause()`. `onDestroy()` is only called when the app component is about to be destroyed. As a result, once an app with this bug is started, the phone will only sleep when it is running critically low on memory (which may take a long period of time).

Manually tracking all possible code paths for wakelock acquire/release appears to be a daunting task for app developers. Listing 3 shows an example of the complexity involved in power-encumbered programming. This is a code-snippet from the An-

droid framework's class `CdmaConnection`. This class uses a `PARTIAL_WAKE_LOCK` for managing the connection and releases the wakelock when the connection is disconnected. However, there are many different possible program paths arising from different patterns of user interactions, hardware states dependent on the external environment, *etc.* The developer included `releaseWakeLock` in `finalize` as an additional safety measure, even though `finalize` is not guaranteed to be called. This example shows the need for an automated tool that can aid developers in checking all possible program paths for no-sleep bugs.

## 4.2 No-Sleep Race Condition

The second category of no-sleep bugs we observed was caused by race conditions in multi-threaded apps. Specifically, we observed that the power management of a particular component was carried out (*i.e.*, switched on and off) by different threads in the app. In the common case, one thread switches the component on, and some time later another thread switches the component off, resulting in the normal behavior of component utilization. However, in a corner case condition, it can happen that the thread that switches on the component gets scheduled to run after the thread that switches the component off, resulting in a no-sleep bug with the component left

Listing 4: No-sleep bug: race condition.

```

1 public void Main_Thread(){
2     mKill = false; //Unset kill flag
3     wl.acquire(); //CPU should not sleep
4     start(worker_thread); //Start worker
5     //....Do Something
6     mKill = true; //Set kill flag
7     stop(worker_thread); //Signal worker
8     wl.release(); //CPU can sleep now
9 } //End Main_Thread();
10 public void Worker_Thread(){
11     while(true){
12         if(mKill) break; //Break if flagged
13         net_sync(); //Critical task
14         wl.release(); //Rel. wl before sleep
15         sleep(180000); //Sleep for 3 minutes
16         wl.acquire(); //CPU should not sleep
17     } //End while loop;
18 } //End Worker_Thread();

```

on. Effectively there is a race condition between the manipulation of the wakelock by the two threads.

Listing 4 shows a code snippet of a no-sleep bug caused by a race condition. `Main_Thread` runs first, acquiring a wakelock (waking up a component, *e.g.*, the CPU), and then fires `Worker_Thread` which periodically executes a critical task, *e.g.*, syncing stock updates. After every synch `Worker_Thread` gives up the lock, sleeps<sup>8</sup> for 3 minutes (allowing the CPU to sleep), and re-acquires the lock after waking up. This process is repeated in an infinite loop until `Worker_Thread` is notified by `Main_Thread` using the `mKill` flag to break out of the loop. To initiate the termination of the app, `Main_Thread` sets the `mKill` flag, and calls the API `stop` to signal `Worker_Thread` to initiate the halt which wakes `Main_Thread` up if it is in sleep state. `Main_Thread` releases the wakelock after calling `stop`.

In the normal scheme of things, the code in Listing 4 executes without any energy bug. However, consider the following sequence of events. `Main_Thread` sets the `mKill` flag, signals `Worker_Thread` to stop, and releases the wakelock. Then `Worker_Thread` wakes up, acquires the lock and exits the loop because of the `mKill` flag. As a result, the wakelock remains held by the app and is never released. A key point to note here is that the semantics of the `stop()` API called by `Main_Thread` does not guarantee that the return from the call will be synchronized, *i.e.*, only after `Worker_Thread` exits. Had that been the case, there would have been no race condition and hence no no-sleep bug in the app.

Tracing no-sleep bugs in app source code caused by race conditions is particularly hard since it requires enumerating all the possible execution orderings of the threads. However, using our automatic techniques for detecting no-sleep bugs presented in §7, we were able to detect an instance of a no-sleep bug caused by a race condition in the Android Email App [35, 36, 42], which had a similar pattern as shown in Listing 4.

### 4.3 No-Sleep Dilation

This category of no-sleep bugs differs from the first two categories in a single aspect: the component woken up by the app is ultimately put to sleep by the app, but only after a *substantially* longer period of time than expected or necessary. For example, consider the code in Listing 1. Suppose routine `net_sync()` usually finishes in a few seconds, but during a particular run it hangs

<sup>8</sup>We assume that the `sleep` API call used in Listing 4 registers a wakeup timer with the CPU, which in case the phone freezes during the app sleep, wakes up the CPU at the end of the timeout.

for an unexpected length of time before it returns, the the battery is drained for that prolonged period of time.

While it is arguable that keeping the system on during the execution of a critical task, no matter how long it takes, was indeed the intention by the app developer, we characterize such situations as the third category of no-sleep energy bugs, *no-sleep dilation*. These are considered no-sleep energy bugs for the following reasons: (a) such instances of prolonged component wakeup are usually unexpected, even by the app developer, as we found by reading the log of code commits; (b) the mobile programming API documentation strictly warn developers not to keep the components awake for prolonged periods of time unless it is actually required, *e.g.*, in the Skype app, where a user performing a video call requires the components (screen, CPU) to be switched on from the start till the end of the call irrespective of how long the call persists; (c) instances of no-sleep bugs in this category were observed to cause severe frustration among smartphone users since the energy drain was both severe and unexpected; and (d) the root cause of such prolonged completion time of critical tasks was usually because of a higher level bug (*i.e.*, programming mistake) in the code, which significantly inflated the running time of critical task.

We found two causes for no-sleep dilation in smartphone apps: app delay and app optimizations. We first discuss the dilation caused by app delay in the GPS driver [39] in Android. The driver held wakelocks for longer than needed. In some circumstances, after holding the wakelock, the driver issued a *wait*, waiting for an event. However, after being signaled, a second *wait* was issued causing another wait until the driver was signaled again. All this was done while holding a wakelock. As a result, a higher level bug in handling signals extended the time period the wakelock was being held.

Another cause of no-sleep dilation observed in the apps we studied results from poor placement of component wakeup code in the app. For example, consider the code in Listing 1. The dilation could happen if the app developer, instead of just protecting the critical part `net_sync()`, wrapped a large piece of code in wakelocks. We observed such a bug in the MyTrack app [25] where the developer acquired the CPU wakelock the moment the app was turned on and released it when the app completed. However, the critical part of the code was only the period where the user clicked the track button for location tracking.

## 5. DEBUGGING NO-SLEEP BUGS

Two general approaches exist to understanding program behavior: those done at compile-time and those done at run-time. Compile-time approaches incur no run-time overhead. While a run-time approach can gather perfect, or near perfect information about a given run, a compile-time approach will (conservatively) determine facts that may be true on any run. Because of the run-time overhead, compile-time approaches are preferred when they are sufficiently accurate, as is the case with our problem. In this paper, we present a static, compile-time solution for detecting no-sleep energy bugs in smartphone apps.

Our solution treats the acquire and release of a wakelock  $l$  as a definition of (assignment to) the variable  $v_l$  corresponding to  $l$ . A definition  $d$  of a variable  $v_l$  is said to reach some point  $p$  in a program if there exists a path from  $d$  to  $p$  that does not redefine  $v_l$ . Therefore, if a definition of  $v_l$  corresponding to acquiring a wakelock *reaches* the end of some code region there exists a no-sleep code path in the region. Thus, detecting no-sleep code paths corresponds exactly to the *reaching definitions (RD) dataflow problem* [6], which can be solved by a standard compile-time *dataflow analysis*.

We first present, in §6, our solution when only a single thread is being analyzed, and then, in §7, show how to apply the problem to multi-threaded smartphone apps to detect no-sleep bugs arising from races. We leave detecting and debugging no-sleep dilation bugs as future work.

## 6. NO-SLEEP CODE PATHS

We first give an overview of dataflow analysis, and then describe our solution as a dataflow analysis problem.

### 6.1 Dataflow Analysis: An Overview

Dataflow analysis refers to a set of techniques that ascertain facts about program properties by analyzing the effects of statements along different paths of a *control flow graph* (CFG) on those properties. There exist many useful dataflow analysis, *e.g.*, RD (discussed above), *live variable analysis* (which variable values are used after a block), and *available expressions* (which subexpressions have already been computed and are unchanged yet).

Each node in a CFG is a *basic block* of statements, *i.e.*, the block has exactly one entry point and one exit point. There exist a directed edge  $(B_i, B_j)$  in the CFG connecting every pair of blocks  $B_i, B_j$  such that block  $B_j$  can execute immediately after block  $B_i$ . There is also an edge from every exception to every `catch` that might catch it. Figure 1 shows an example of a dataflow graph. Two special blocks are added to the CFG: *ENTER* and *EXIT*. There exists an edge from *ENTER* to every block  $B_i \neq \text{ENTER}$  with no predecessor, and an edge from *EXIT* to every block  $B_j \neq \text{EXIT}$  with no successor. A *forward* dataflow analysis propagates facts about the program from the *ENTER* to the *EXIT* node while a *backward* analysis propagates information backwards through the graph from the *EXIT* to the *ENTER* node.

Each node in the CFG is annotated with two sets: *GEN* and *KILL*. The *KILL* set contains facts in the analysis that become false in this node, and the *GEN* set contains facts that become true. Each node also has an *IN* and an *OUT* set. The sets associated with a block  $B$  can be denoted as  $IN[B]$ ,  $OUT[B]$ ,  $GEN[B]$ , and  $KILL[B]$ . For a forward (backward) analysis the *IN* (*OUT*) set will contain facts that are true immediately before the node is visited, and the *OUT* (*IN*) set will contain facts that are true immediately after the node is visited. The *transfer* function describes how the *OUT* (*IN*) set is computed from the *OUT* (*IN*), *KILL* and *GEN* sets. For simplicity we only consider *forward* analysis from this point on.

CFGs with branches contain *join* points where multiple paths come together, *e.g.*, the block containing statements `d8` and `d9` in Figure 1. A *meet* operation decides how the values coming from the predecessor node are combined to form the value of the *IN* set. If the CFG contains cycles, an iterative algorithm that visit nodes repeatedly is used until the analysis converges to a fixed point such that revisiting all of the nodes does not change the values of any *IN* or *OUT* set. The algorithm works by adding the *ENTER* node to a work list. As nodes are processed, if their *OUT* set changes, their successors are added to the work list. When the work list is empty the algorithm has converged at a fixed-point.

We note that all dataflow schemas compute approximations to the actual ground truth. The actual problem being solved is undecidable (*e.g.*, constant propagation [43]). This is because it is undecidable, in general, if a particular path along a CFG will be taken during a program’s execution. As a result, dataflow solutions return *conservative* or *safe* estimates to the actual problem. A *conservative* approach guarantees that the results obtained by the analysis will err on the side of safety. Thus while an RD analysis may say more definitions reach some point than actually do, it will never fail to find all definitions that do reach a program point.

#### 6.1.1 The Reaching Definitions Dataflow Problem

The first task in applying these concepts to the RD problem is to construct a CFG. Next, we define the *GEN* and *KILL* sets for each block  $B$ . The last assignment to a variable  $v$  in the block creates a definition  $d$  of  $v$  that can reach other statements outside the block, and therefore the definition is placed in the *GEN* set. Thus for block  $B1$  of Figure 1, the definitions at `d1`, `d2`, and `d3` can reach the other blocks, and therefore are added to  $B1$ ’s *GEN* set. The definition of the *KILL* set comes from the following observation: an assignment to some variable  $v$  in a block prevents any definition of the variable  $v$  outside from flowing through the block. Thus any definition outside the block become members of the *KILL* set. Thus in block  $B5$ , definition `d8` causes definition `d4` to be in the *KILL* set.

We now define the *IN* set. Consider the set of predecessors of some block  $B$ . Any definition that is in the *OUT* set of one of these predecessors can reach  $B$ , and thus is in  $IN[B]$  set of  $B$ . Therefore,  $IN[B]$  is the union of the *OUT* sets of all of its predecessors, *e.g.*,  $IN[B2]$  is  $OUT[B5] \cup OUT[B1]$ . Finally, the *OUT* set for a block  $B$  must be computed. The *OUT* set is simply the *IN* set with the effects of flowing through the block applied to it. The expression  $IN[B] - KILL[B]$  gives those definitions that reached the block and can reach later blocks, and unioning this with the *GEN* set gives all definitions that can pass through this block and reach other blocks. Thus  $f_B : OUT[B] = GEN[B] \cup (IN[B] - KILL[B])$  is the transfer equation for block  $B$ .

Interprocedural analysis, which incorporates the effects of routine calls and routine arguments, is beyond the scope of this discussion but is covered in detail in [44].

## 6.2 No-Sleep Code Path Dataflow Analysis

We now formulate the single-thread no-sleep code path problem as an RD problem, and show how to solve it using standard dataflow analysis [6]. We only analyze non-reference counted, no-timer wakelocks and exotic component power APIs. We leave the study of other categories as future work.

### 6.2.1 No-Sleep Code Path to Reaching Definitions

For no-sleep code path analysis, we are only interested in the points in the code path where the smartphone component power is managed, *e.g.*, the points in the CFG where wakelocks for the CPU or screen are acquired or released, or points where the camera is turned on and off. As a result, the *domain* of the dataflow problem is a set consisting of component wakelocks for traditional components and component power management assignments for exotic components. For brevity, from now on we use wakelocks to refer to the power control handles for both traditional and exotic components.

Once the transformation is completed, the no-sleep code path problem is reduced to finding the RD in the transformed CFG, *i.e.*, finding which definition of a wakelock reaches the *EXIT* node of the CFG. If only those definitions that declare all the variables as 0 (*i.e.*, the component can sleep) reach the *EXIT* node, the code is said to be free of no-sleep bugs, since all of the possible code paths put all accessed components to sleep before reaching the end of the CFG, and therefore the end of the code.

**Solving the code path problem.** We now show how to apply the standard iterative algorithm for dataflow analysis to solve our no-sleep code path problem.

For our no-sleep code path problem, the set of non-zero variable definitions reaching the *EXIT* node represents the no-sleep code path bugs in the app. Table 3 shows, for each block  $B$ , the  $IN[B]$  and  $OUT[B]$  sets at the end of three iterations. It shows the  $IN[B]$  and  $OUT[B]$  sets are the same at the end of the second and third



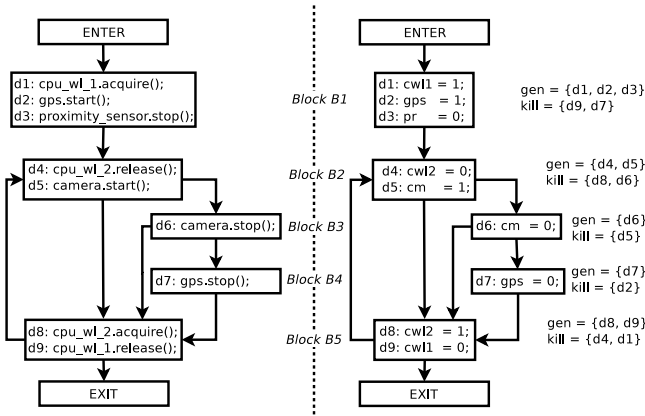


Figure 1: Transforming no-sleep code path into reaching definition dataflow problem, and the resulting *IN* and *OUT* sets.

iteration, and hence the algorithm has reached a fixed-point and converged in three iterations. The value of  $OUT[EXIT]$  in the last iteration contains the reaching definitions at the end of the code: all definitions but  $d_1$  and  $d_4$  can reach the end of the code, including  $d_2$ ,  $d_5$  and  $d_8$  which indicate the existence of a no-sleep bug. Their presence indicates no-sleep code paths along which a component (GPS, camera, and CPU wakelock\_2, respectively) is woken up but not put to sleep.

### 6.2.2 Handling Uncaught Runtime Exceptions

Java runtime exceptions (RTE) [45] (e.g., null pointer and array index out of bounds exceptions) can be thrown during normal Java Virtual Machine (JVM) operations. RTEs that are handled explicitly by a `try-catch` block in code are handled as before by adding a path from the source block to the handler block. However, RTEs are often not handled by a program and the thread raising the exception is terminated by the JVM when the exception is thrown.

Uncaught RTEs are a source of no-sleep bugs and must be handled by our analysis. Consider the code in Listing 5. A CPU wakelock is acquired, followed by a call to the critical routine from instance  $b$ . The wakelock is released after the call. If a RTE is raised (e.g., a null pointer exception on line 3 caused by  $b$  being null), the thread is halted. This results in a no-sleep energy bug since the thread terminates before the wakelock is released. We identified an instance of this bug [26] in our characterization study. Listing 6 details the patch applied by the developer to fix a null pointer RTE (code lines appended with “-” or “+” indicate that these lines were removed from or added to the new version, respectively). The developer added handlers for the null pointer RTE and moved the lock release into a `finally` block to ensure that it is run regardless of any exceptions.

Our technique places an edge from each RTE that is not handled within a routine to the *EXIT* node for that routine. This creates a path for a lock acquire definition to reach the exit, and could lead to more false positives (although we have not seen that in our test cases). Techniques such as null pointer analysis [46], ABCD [47] for array bounds check, and RTE analysis techniques, e.g., [48] can be used to make the analysis more precise and generate fewer false positives.

### 6.2.3 Handling Event Based Entry Points

Android app programming is primarily event-based programming. Unlike traditional code, where the `main()` routine starts the app with the app exiting when `main()` returns, Android app pro-

Listing 5: No-sleep code path due to runtime exceptions.

```

1 wake_lock_.acquire();//CPU should not sleep
2 Object b = xyz.getObject();//b is a reference to an
  object
3 b.net_sync();//Perform critical task here
4 wake_lock_.release();//CPU is free to sleep

```

Listing 6: Fixing no-sleep code path due to runtime exceptions.

```

1 wake_lock_.acquire();
2 - client = new AppengineClient(this);
3 Log.d(TAG, "onHandleIntent");
4 + try {
5 +     client = new AppengineClient(this);
6     //....
7 + } finally {
8     wake_lock_.release();
9 + }

```

gramming typically consists of several functions which are event handlers, one corresponding to each event the app handles. These events could be a button click, an incoming call, a notification from server, a response from a component (e.g., GPS), etc. Each event handler is invoked when the event is fired and the handler may in turn invoke a tree of routines underneath it before exiting.

Handling multiple entry points of an app creates a new challenge: each handler has its own CFG,<sup>9</sup> and a component may be turned on in one event handler and put to sleep under another (e.g., start camera when start button is clicked and stop camera when stop button is clicked). However, the order of execution of the different events, which is needed to stitch together the CFGs of different handlers, may be unknown at compile time and depends on user interactions.

We handle this complication as follows. (1) For common event handlers (e.g., `onCreate`, `onPause`) which have known invocation orders, we simply perform the RD analysis across them on the combined CFG obtained from stitching together individual CFGs following those invocation orders. For example, if a component is not put to sleep when the app is paused after being first created, it *usually* is a sign of a no-sleep bug. (2) For the remaining handlers, we ask the developers to specify all expected invocation orders, and then perform no-sleep bug RD analysis on the combined CFG for these orders.

## 7. NO-SLEEP RACE CONDITIONS

To statically detect possible no-sleep race conditions for multi-thread apps, we adapt the RD dataflow analysis previously developed for parallel programs [49, 50].

A multi-threaded program typically has a repeating pattern of sequential sections ending with a `thread fork`, interleaved execution of parallel threads followed by a `thread join`, followed by the next sequential section in the pattern. Execution is sequential within each thread and so a CFG can be built for the thread. CFGs for different threads can be stitched together by connecting the fork spawning the thread with the *ENTRY* node for the thread’s CFG, and the *EXIT* node of the CFG with the *join* node using a *parallel control edge* [50].

The RD analysis is now modified for this new CFG. Three observations [50] motivate these modifications. (1) All threads in a parallel section are executed; (2) Any of the definitions  $d_{ti}, d_{tj}, \dots, d_{tk}$  to some variable  $v$  executing in different threads, and not ordered

<sup>9</sup>We extract the entry point of an event handler, i.e., the root of its CFG, from various `.xml` files in the build tree (e.g., `Manifest.xml`, `main.xml`).

Table 3: Computing IN and OUT for no-sleep code paths.

Block B	OUT[B] <sup>0</sup>	IN[B] <sup>1</sup>	OUT[B] <sup>1</sup>	IN[B] <sup>2</sup> (=IN[B] <sup>3</sup> )	OUT[B] <sup>2</sup> (=OUT[B] <sup>3</sup> )
B <sub>1</sub>	{}	{}	{d <sub>1</sub> , d <sub>2</sub> , d <sub>3</sub> }	{}	{d <sub>1</sub> , d <sub>2</sub> , d <sub>3</sub> }
B <sub>2</sub>	{}	{d <sub>1</sub> , d <sub>2</sub> , d <sub>3</sub> }	{d <sub>1</sub> , d <sub>2</sub> , d <sub>3</sub> , d <sub>4</sub> , d <sub>5</sub> }	{d <sub>1</sub> , d <sub>2</sub> , d <sub>3</sub> , d <sub>5</sub> , d <sub>6</sub> , d <sub>7</sub> , d <sub>8</sub> , d <sub>9</sub> }	{d <sub>1</sub> , d <sub>2</sub> , d <sub>3</sub> , d <sub>4</sub> , d <sub>5</sub> , d <sub>7</sub> , d <sub>9</sub> }
B <sub>3</sub>	{}	{d <sub>1</sub> , d <sub>2</sub> , d <sub>3</sub> , d <sub>4</sub> , d <sub>5</sub> }	{d <sub>1</sub> , d <sub>2</sub> , d <sub>3</sub> , d <sub>4</sub> , d <sub>6</sub> }	{d <sub>1</sub> , d <sub>2</sub> , d <sub>3</sub> , d <sub>4</sub> , d <sub>5</sub> , d <sub>7</sub> , d <sub>9</sub> }	{d <sub>1</sub> , d <sub>2</sub> , d <sub>3</sub> , d <sub>4</sub> , d <sub>6</sub> , d <sub>7</sub> , d <sub>9</sub> }
B <sub>4</sub>	{}	{d <sub>1</sub> , d <sub>2</sub> , d <sub>3</sub> , d <sub>4</sub> , d <sub>6</sub> }	{d <sub>1</sub> , d <sub>3</sub> , d <sub>4</sub> , d <sub>6</sub> , d <sub>7</sub> }	{d <sub>1</sub> , d <sub>2</sub> , d <sub>3</sub> , d <sub>4</sub> , d <sub>6</sub> , d <sub>7</sub> , d <sub>9</sub> }	{d <sub>1</sub> , d <sub>3</sub> , d <sub>4</sub> , d <sub>6</sub> , d <sub>7</sub> , d <sub>9</sub> }
B <sub>5</sub>	{}	{d <sub>1</sub> , d <sub>2</sub> , d <sub>3</sub> , d <sub>4</sub> , d <sub>5</sub> , d <sub>6</sub> , d <sub>7</sub> }	{d <sub>2</sub> , d <sub>3</sub> , d <sub>5</sub> , d <sub>6</sub> , d <sub>7</sub> , d <sub>8</sub> , d <sub>9</sub> }	{d <sub>1</sub> , d <sub>2</sub> , d <sub>3</sub> , d <sub>4</sub> , d <sub>5</sub> , d <sub>6</sub> , d <sub>7</sub> , d <sub>9</sub> }	{d <sub>2</sub> , d <sub>3</sub> , d <sub>5</sub> , d <sub>6</sub> , d <sub>7</sub> , d <sub>8</sub> , d <sub>9</sub> }
EXIT	{}	{d <sub>2</sub> , d <sub>3</sub> , d <sub>5</sub> , d <sub>6</sub> , d <sub>7</sub> , d <sub>8</sub> , d <sub>9</sub> }	{d <sub>2</sub> , d <sub>3</sub> , d <sub>5</sub> , d <sub>6</sub> , d <sub>7</sub> , d <sub>8</sub> , d <sub>9</sub> }	{d <sub>2</sub> , d <sub>3</sub> , d <sub>5</sub> , d <sub>6</sub> , d <sub>7</sub> , d <sub>8</sub> , d <sub>9</sub> }	{d <sub>2</sub> , d <sub>3</sub> , d <sub>5</sub> , d <sub>6</sub> , d <sub>7</sub> , d <sub>8</sub> , d <sub>9</sub> }

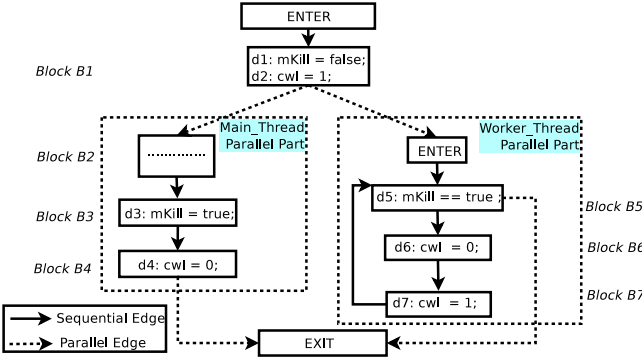


Figure 2: Tracing no-sleep race bug: Parallel Flow Graph (PFG) for code in Listing 4.

by synchronization, may be the last definition of  $v$  to execute, therefore no such definition  $t_{tp}$  can be said to kill another definition  $d_{tq}$ ,  $p, q \in \{i, j, \dots, k\}$ ; (3) Any kill performed *unconditionally* by any thread in a parallel section (*i.e.*, along all sequential paths through the thread) kills all definitions that occur before the parallel section’s fork; (4) Any definition  $d$  performed *conditionally* within a thread does not kill definitions  $d'$  before the thread’s parallel section’s fork since either  $d$  or  $d'$  may reach the parallel section’s join, and following statements. The details of modifying the dataflow analysis to account for these additional constraints and ordering synchronization are discussed in detail in [50] and are not repeated here.

Figure 2 shows that the RD analysis on the PFG finds that definitions  $d_3$ ,  $d_4$  and  $d_7$  can reach the EXIT node. Since  $d_7$  turns on the component, this is a no-sleep race bug.

## 8. IMPLEMENTATION

**ProGuard Extension:** We implemented no-sleep bug tracing as a 1K-LOC extension to ProGuard [15]. The ProGuard tool is used to shrink, optimize and obfuscate Android code and helps to make smaller .apk installer files. It builds an intermediate Representation of the input source containing CFGs that we use. We chose ProGuard since it is integrated into the Android build system, it automatically runs when an Android app or the framework is compiled and does not require a separate, manual invocation. However, source code is not required to perform the analysis since ProGuard can run directly on the bytecode generated by the Java compiler. If we only have the .apk installer for an app we first use dex [16] to decompile the embedded .dex files (Dalvik Executable [51]) and convert them to Java bytecode (.class files). We then run ProGuard and the no-sleep bug dataflow analysis on the .class bytecodes.

**Handling Object References and Intent Resolution:** Java object references and intent resolutions are the only indirect control transfer mechanisms in the Android framework and apps. An indirect

Listing 7: Handling simple code paths.

```

1 w11.acquire(); w12.acquire(); //wakeup
2 if(w11 != null) //if object is not null
3   w11.release(); //release the wakelock
4 if(w12.isHeld()) //if w12 is acquired
5   w12.release(); //release the wakelock

```

control transfer mechanism poses problems for static analysis since it is difficult to determine at compile time which class the object is an instance of, or which handler will service the intent, and hence which particular method (routine) will be called. We use a conservative approach by analyzing all routines’ references that could possibly be referred to at runtime.

**Handling Special Code Paths:** To reduce the number of false positives, we handle the two special cases shown in Listing 7. Two wakelocks (w11, w12) are acquired before if conditions and are released under their respective if. We found these two usages to be common in mobile apps. The RD no-sleep bug analysis for code in Listing 7 would flag both lock acquires as reaching the end of the block since they are not released in the else branches. However, in both cases, it is evident that there is no bug since if the wakelock is either null or not held, it need not be released. We handle these two common usages specially, by inserting an else branch to the if condition which contains a definition of release().

**Runtime Exceptions:** In our characterization study, we did not observe any occurrences of uncaught RTEs other than null pointer exceptions (NPEs). Hence, in our current implementation, we only handle NPEs. We leave handling other RTEs as future work. To handle NPEs, we trace the null reaching definitions at each access point of the object for every object declared in the program. If a null definition reaches an object access point, we add a path from that point to the EXIT node in the CFG.

**Race Conditions:** Our current implementation only implements analysis for no-sleep race condition for programs without synchronization points. We leave as future work extensions to handle synchronization points, which can be implemented by adopting the techniques proposed in [50].

## 9. EVALUATION

We now present experimental results of no-sleep bug detection using our dataflow analysis based no-sleep bug detection tool. We first present a summary of the detection results on 500 apps running on Android and then discuss false positives and the runtime of the scheme.

**Methodology:** We collected app installers (.apk files) for 500 apps, including popular apps like Facebook, Google apps such as gtalk and stock apps in the Android framework including Email and Dialer. These include all the apps listed in Table 2. Automatic analysis of the manifest.xml file for permissions reveals that 187 apps explicitly manipulate component wake/sleep cycles. We then decompiled the .apk installers using dex [16] and obtained

Table 4: Summary of detecting no-sleep code paths.

App type breakdown	#	Breakdown of 51 that contain no-sleep code paths	#
Total input set of apps	500	New bugs	30
Manipulated component	187	Incorrect event handling	26
Fully decompiled	86	if, else + exception paths	12
In the framework	6	Forgot release (incl. Services)	3
No-sleep code paths	42	Miscellaneous	1
True negatives	31	False positives	13

86 apps that were decompiled<sup>10</sup> to bytecode and Java source code. For these 86 apps, we ran our detection analysis tool directly on the bytecode, and then used the decompiled Java source code to identify false positives incurred by our analysis. Table 4 gives a breakdown of the apps (left) and causes of bugs in them (right).

**No-Sleep Bug Analysis:** Manually enumerating all possible paths in the program to verify the correctness of the tool along each of those paths is not humanly possible due to the exponential number of paths. We used the following approach. For each of the 86 apps, we manually<sup>11</sup> tally the no-sleep bugs (no-sleep code paths in single threads). We then check if the bugs had been reported by the tool. Using this approach we segregated the apps into four categories: (a) *True Positive (TP)*: Apps in which we manually found the bug and it was reported by the tool; (b) *True Negative (TN)*: Apps in which we could not manually find bugs and the tool reported no bug; (c) *False Positive (FP)*: Apps in which we did not find bugs manually, but the tool reported bugs; and (d) *False Negative (FN)*: Apps where we found a bug manually but the tool did not. The last category contained no apps. Table 4 summarizes the results. We found 31 apps in the TN set and 55 in the TP and FP sets. Below we break down these 55 apps according to the causes.

(1) *Incorrect event handling (26)*: The largest category of bugs in these apps are bugs from inappropriate handling of events in Android apps, specifically the handlers in the default Android *activity* cycle [52]: `onPause()` and `onStop()`. An *activity* is a single focused window that a user interacts with. It is the foreground GUI part of an app that the user sees. The framework calls the `onPause()` event routine of the activity in the app whenever the activity is interrupted by another activity coming in front of it, e.g., an incoming phone call displaying an “incoming call-box” while the user is playing a game. Once the activity is completely sent to the background, i.e., the activity is no longer visible, the framework calls `onStop()`. The framework calls `onDestroy()` when the app finally exits.

The bug occurred in any app that wakes up a component when it is started or resumed in the default event handlers `onCreate()` or `onResume()`, respectively, and lets the component sleep only when the app finally exits, in handler `onDestroy()`. Basically, when such an app is interrupted during this interval by another activity started by the user (like clicking the home screen, or starting another app), the respective component is kept awake since the original app is frozen and may not run for a long time. We observed instances of this bug in 26 apps involving CPU wakelocks (in 23) and GPS (in 3).

(2) *if-else + exceptions (12)*: In 12 apps, including Agenda Widget and Android Email App (Table 2), not all paths (using `if-else`) released the component. Also, no-sleep code paths akin to the code in Listing 2 were observed in apps including the

<sup>10</sup>Decompilation failed completely for the remaining apps, i.e., not even a single source file was generated.

<sup>11</sup>These include leveraging bug reports when available for apps in Table 2.

Listing 8: No-sleep code path: false positives.

```

1 //Use a routine to manipulate component
2 void WakeUpCPU(boolean wakeup){
3     if(wakeup) wl.acquire(); //wakeup
4     else wl.release(); //release the lock
5 } //End WakeUpCPU
6 void CriticalTask(){
7     WakeUpCPU(true); //acquire the lock
8     // Do critical task ...
9     WakeUpCPU(false); //release the lock
10 } //End CriticalTask

```

Facebook and Android Email apps. The component (CPU in these cases) was not allowed to sleep in case of a thrown exception.

(3) *Forgot to release a wakelock (3)*: In K9mail [23], Agenda Widget [21] and SIP service [19], the programmer forgot to release the CPU wakelock. In case of K9mail, this was due to using `ThreadLocal` variables for wakelocks [23].

(4) *Miscellaneous (1)*: In Android WifiService [31], the wakelock is not released in all cases of received messages.

(5) *False positives (13)*: 13 apps were reported to contain a no-sleep path, but upon further manual analysis, they turned out to *false positives*, as discussed next.

We detected a no-sleep bug caused by a race condition in the Android Email app, as was discussed in detail in §4.2. Analyzing multi-threaded Android apps involving explicit synchronizations is left as future work.

**Reasons for False Positives:** There were two major reasons for the false positives reported in the 13 apps: use of helper functions or variables for component access, and interference of higher level app logic in lock placement.

(a) *Helper functions/variables (3)*: The code in Listing 8 describes an app using a helper function for wakelock manipulation. Routine `WakeUpCPU(boolean)` manipulates the wakelock depending on the boolean input variable. Routine `CriticalTask()` acquires and releases the wakelock using the helper routine by passing `true` and `false` as input arguments. RD analysis of routine `WakeUpCPU(boolean)` suggests that one code path (the `if` branch of the condition) reaches the end of the routine and hence there exists one path in routine `CriticalTask()` that reaches the end of the routine with the wakelock held.

Similarly, we found apps to use additional helper variables to track the liveness status of the component instead of relying on standard API routines (e.g., `isHeld()`) that come bundled with the Android framework. The boolean helper variable is toggled each time the component is switched on or off and is checked before setting the component free. This use of multiple variables to achieve a single purpose not only results in false positives in our static analysis of no-sleep bugs, but also was previously found to be the root cause of multi-variable access bugs [7].

(b) *Higher level App logic (10)*: Listing 9 demonstrates a false positive observed in the Android Dialer app due to higher level app logic. The incoming call handler acquires the wakelock if the caller is not blacklisted by the user and otherwise it immediately returns. Similarly, when the call is disconnected, the app releases the wakelock only when the caller was not blacklisted. This induces a false positive in static reaching definitions analysis since the `acquire()` in `HandleIncomingCall()` reaches the end of `DisconnectCall()`. We leave addressing this issue to future work.

**Analysis Runtime and Wakelock Statistics:** Table 5 presents detailed statistics of no-sleep bugs in 5 popular apps. For each app,

Table 5: Summary of no-sleep code paths for 5 popular apps.

App	KLOC (# classes) {# lib class}	# wakelock objs (# acq def.) {# rel. def.}	Analysis time (sec)
Facebook v1.3.0	93.5 (712) {710}	1 (256) {128}	408
Telephony	74.8 (326) {495}	7 (18) {29}	53
Exchange	17.0 (626) {952}	1 (19) {12}	51
SipService	3.8 (43) {366}	2 (6) {8}	33
CW	0.3 (8) {100}	1 (1) {1}	3

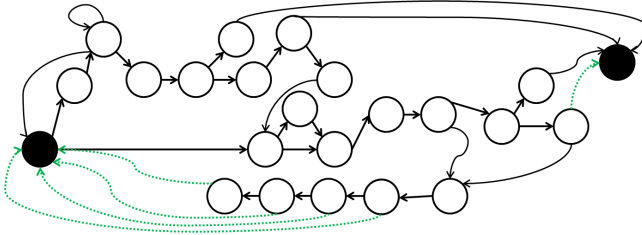


Figure 3: CFG of a routine in the Android Email app.

the table shows the LOC, the number of classes in the app and in the libraries, the number of wakelocks, and how many times they were defined, *i.e.*, acquired and released, and the time taken to run the no-sleep code path analysis.

From the table we see that the runtime of the analysis varied from 3 seconds (for CommonsWare (CW), 0.3 KLOC) to 408 seconds for FaceBook (93.5 KLOC decompiled). The 3 services that belong to the Android framework took about 50 seconds to perform the code analysis. Since the tool performs off-line static analysis, *i.e.*, on a desktop/server, there is no energy drain on the mobile devices. The table also shows that the Telephony service in Android holds 7 different wakelocks (all with option `PARTIAL_WAKE_LOCK`) with 18 acquire and 29 release definitions, for different utilities, including CDMA connection, GSM connection, SMS Dispatcher, Radio Interface Layer, *etc.* Other apps utilize one or two wakelocks. Although the FaceBook app manipulates only one wakelock, the wakelock APIs could be called from multiple locations, resulting in a total of 256 acquire and 128 release definitions.

**Battery Drain of No-Sleep Bugs:** Table 2 lists the amount of time it will take to drain a fully charged battery under typical usage on the Google Nexus One phone due to the corresponding no-sleep bugs.

**Real App CFG (Android Email App):** To illustrate the complexity of the apps, apart from the number of lines of code and number of wakelock objects shown in Table 5, we show in Figure 3 a trimmed down version of the CFG of one of the central routines in the Android Email app, `runPingLoop()`. The nodes in the graph show branch points. These include, but are not limited to, handling error conditions such as (a) PING returned empty, (b) PING returned with a login failure, (c) NAT failure, (d) synchronization aborted by the user, and (e) alarm event trigger. The left-most node (solid black) denotes the entry point and the right-most node denotes the exit point. The edges depicted in thick black lines are the ones along which the CPU wakelock is being held, while edges in dotted green lines are when wakelocks have been released. Out of the four green edges reaching the exit node, only one reaches after releasing the wakelock.

## 10. RELATED WORK

**Debugging in Mobile Environments:** Diagnosing bugs in smartphone environment is a new domain, and there is little existing

Listing 9: No-sleep code path: false positives in the Dialer App.

```

1 void HandleIncomingCall(){
2     if (caller != BLACKLISTED) wl.acquire();
3     else return;
4     //....Handle rest of incoming call
5 } //End HandleIncomingCall
6 void DisconnectCall(){
7     if (caller != BLACKLISTED) wl.release();
8     else return;
9     //....Handle rest of disconnecting call
10 } //End DisconnectCall

```

work. MobiBug [53] is a framework for mobile debugging that focuses on how to perform lightweight logging on resource-limited smartphones. It proposes three ideas: spreading the logging task among many phones, building a conditional distribution model for the app behavior and its dependencies, and sampling what each phone logs. MobiBug is designed to be a runtime *traditional* bug tracing system, targeting bugs that usually result in app crashes. However, *energy bugs* [4] differ from traditional bugs in that they do not lead to any app crash; the apps continue to work normally except that the battery drains rapidly. [4] presents a taxonomy of many types of energy bugs in smartphones and estimates no-sleep bugs to constitute about 70% of all energy bugs in smartphone apps. Our paper is the first directed towards solving energy bugs in mobile phones.

**Applications of Reaching Definitions:** Reaching definitions analysis has many uses, and most are part of the compiling folklore (see [6]).

**Debugging Software Concurrency Bugs:** Debugging traditional software bugs on non-mobile devices is a well-studied topic. There have been several bug characterizing studies (*e.g.*, [5, 54]) which classify different categories of software bugs, *e.g.*, concurrency bugs, semantic bugs, and configuration bugs. The debugging solutions fall into three categories: static, dynamic, or hybrid analysis. Some examples of static analysis include Racex [55] which uses a flow sensitive, inter-procedural analysis to detect data races and deadlocks, and MUVI [7] which applies data mining to infer patterns of multi-variable access correlations. Our solution for no-sleep energy bugs falls in the realm of static analysis, and is based on reaching definitions analysis.

## 11. CONCLUSION

This paper makes the first advances towards understanding and automatically detecting software energy bugs on smartphones. It makes three contributions. First, it presents the first comprehensive real world no-sleep energy bug characterization study. Our study reveals three major causes of no-sleep energy bugs and provides useful guidelines and hints to design effective detection schemes. Second, it proposes the first detection solution, based on the classic reaching definitions dataflow analysis, to automatically infer potential no-sleep bugs in an app. Third, evaluation of our tool on 86 Android apps and the Android framework shows that our tool accurately detected all reported instances of no-sleep bugs, as well as 30 instances of new no-sleep bugs.

Our work is only the beginning of smartphone energy bug research and opens a wide avenue for further studies. A sample list of future work includes: (1) develop solutions to no-sleep dilation bugs; (2) explore run-time and hybrid compile-time and run-time solutions to no-sleep bugs; (3) characterize and detect other types of energy bugs in smartphone apps; (4) understand energy bugs in the smartphone OSes; and (5) develop better programming language support to avoid no-sleep bugs at programming time.

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