

Efficiently Manifesting Asynchronous Programming Errors in Android Apps

Lingling Fan¹, Ting Su^{1,2*}, Sen Chen¹, Guozhu Meng^{3,2}, Yang Liu², Lihua Xu⁴, Geguang Pu¹

¹East China Normal University, China ²Nanyang Technological University, Singapore

³Chinese Academy of Sciences, China ⁴New York University Shanghai, China

{ecnujanefan,tsuleto,ecnuchensen}@gmail.com,{gzmeng,yangliu}@ntu.edu.sg

lihua.xu@nyu.edu,ggpu@sei.ecnu.edu.cn

ABSTRACT

Android, the #1 mobile app framework, enforces the *single-GUI-thread* model, in which a single UI thread manages GUI rendering and event dispatching. Due to this model, it is vital to avoid blocking the UI thread for responsiveness. One common practice is to offload long-running tasks into async threads. To achieve this, Android provides various async programming constructs, and leaves developers themselves to obey the rules implied by the model. However, as our study reveals, more than 25% apps violate these rules and introduce hard-to-detect, fail-stop errors, which we term as async programming errors (APEs). To this end, this paper introduces APEChecker, a technique to automatically and efficiently manifest APEs. The key idea is to characterize APEs as specific fault patterns, and synergistically combine static analysis and dynamic UI exploration to detect and verify such errors. Among the 40 real-world Android apps, APEChecker unveils and processes 61 APEs, of which 51 are confirmed (83.6% hit rate). Specifically, APEChecker detects 3X more APEs than the state-of-art testing tools (Monkey, Sapienz and Stoad), and reduces testing time from half an hour to a few minutes. On a specific type of APEs, APEChecker confirms 5X more errors than the data race detection tool, EventRacer, with very few false alarms.

CCS CONCEPTS

• **Software and its engineering** → **Software testing and debugging**;

KEYWORDS

Asynchronous programming error, testing, static analysis, Android

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*Ting Su is the corresponding author.

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1 INTRODUCTION

Most of modern GUI frameworks such as Swing [48], SWT [79], Android [25], Qt [68], WxErlang [84], and MacOS Cocoa [7] enforce the *single-GUI-thread model*, in which one single UI thread instantiates GUI components and dispatches events. Specifically, UI thread fetches system or user events off an event queue, and dispatches them either to a responsible app component's handler or to a UI widget's event handler. These handlers run on the UI thread and exclusively update GUIs if necessary.

Due to this single-GUI-thread model, it is vital to avoid blocking the UI thread. Therefore, most GUI frameworks recommend to offload intensive tasks (e.g., network access, database queries) to async threads (i.e., background or worker threads). Take Android development framework (ADF) as an example, it provides many async programming constructs (e.g., `AysncTask`, `Thread`, `AsyncTaskLoader`, `IntentService`) to achieve this goal.

Like other frameworks, ADF leaves developers themselves to properly handle the interactions between these async threads and the UI thread — obey the rules implied by the single-UI-thread model. However, our investigation on 930 apps that use async constructs shows, more than 25% apps violate these rules, and introduce *fail-stop* bugs. For example, if a worker thread directly updates the text displayed on the UI thread, the app will crash. Another example is, when an async thread finishes its background task, and tries to send a UI update event to a GUI component. Before the update takes effect, if the user rotates the screen, the UI thread will destroy and recreate that GUI component. By default, the update event is routed to the destroyed GUI rather than the newly created one, which may crash the app. In this paper, we term such fatal programming errors that violate the rules implied by the single-UI-thread model as *async programming errors* (APEs).

Such bugs in Android are *not easy to detect manually*, due to (1) they usually reside in the code of handling interactions between UI thread and async threads, which can be rather complicated for manual analysis; (2) they can only be triggered at the right states of GUI components (e.g., activity, fragment) with complicated lifecycle [21, 30]; (3) they have to be triggered at right thread scheduling, while the execution time of async threads is affected by the task and its running environment (e.g., network stability, system load).

Even worse, *existing bug detection techniques are ineffective for such bugs*. First, most GUI testing techniques, e.g., random testing [39, 57], search-based testing [58, 60], and model-based testing [2, 3, 8, 78, 85], are designed for functional testing in general. They aim at enumerating all possible event sequences (GUI-level events in particular) to manifest bugs, which is unscalable and time-consuming. Additionally, they mainly aim at improving code

coverage, which may not be sufficient for exhibiting APEs — require specific event sequences with appropriate lifecycle states and thread scheduling. Second, static analysis tools, e.g., Lint [35], FindBugs [19] and PMD [67], although scalable, only enforce simple rules (syntax or trivial control/data-flow analysis) to locate suspicious bugs. For example, Lint declares it can find “WrongThread” errors (one type of APEs) [24]. However, as our evaluation in Section 5 demonstrates, Lint incurs a number of false negatives — failing to detect those sophisticated “WrongThread” errors as well as other types of APEs. Third, other fault detection techniques [10, 45, 59, 88] (e.g., data race detection) have only tackled parts of APEs. To systematically tackle APEs, we conducted a formative study on 2097 Android apps to understand them. First, we find the async constructs are indeed widely used in 48.6% apps, and AsyncTasks and Threads account for the majority. Second, we identified 3 async programming rules (see Section 2.2) implied by the single-GUI-thread model by analyzing Android docs, technical posts and previous fault studies on async programming. Third, from 1019 apps that use async constructs, we found that developers do violate these rules and introduce APEs. We collected 375 real APEs, involving 9 exception types (thrown from apps), e.g., CalledFromWrongThread, IllegalStateException, BadTokenException, etc.

Informed by the above results, we develop an approach APEChecker. It first characterizes 3 fault patterns from 375 issues based on the 3 rules, and synergistically combines static analysis and dynamic UI exploration to efficiently manifest APEs. Specifically, it encodes the fault patterns into a static analyzer, locates suspicious APEs in the app code, generates a set of program paths that can reach the faulty code, maps program traces to real event sequences with appropriate environment, and finally verify these errors on the app.

We evaluate APEChecker on a set of 40 real-world Android apps, and compare it with three state-of-the-art GUI testing tools (Monkey [39], Sapienz [60], and Stoad [78]), and two fault detection tools (Lint [35] and EventRacer [10]). The results show (1) APEChecker unveils and successfully processes 61 APEs, of which 51 can be reproduced (83.6% hit rate) with real tests; (2) APEChecker detects 3X more APEs than the testing tools, and reduces detection time from half an hour to a few minutes; and (3) within comparable analysis time, APEChecker detects 5X more APEs than EventRacer with very few false positives.

To summarize, this paper makes the following contributions:

- We conduct a formative study on 2097 Android apps to investigate APEs, and identify three async programming rules implied by the single-GUI-thread model.
- We develop APEChecker, a technique that synergistically combines static analysis and dynamic UI exploration, to efficiently detect and verify APEs.
- We evaluate APEChecker on 40 real-world apps, and clearly demonstrate its effectiveness over the state-of-the-art testing and other fault detection techniques on APEs.

2 ASYNC PROGRAMMING ERRORS

2.1 Async Programming in Android

Fig. 1 depicts the single-GUI-thread model of Android. The UI thread maintains a MessageQueue, and its Handler enqueues system or UI events into this queue. These events come from app components

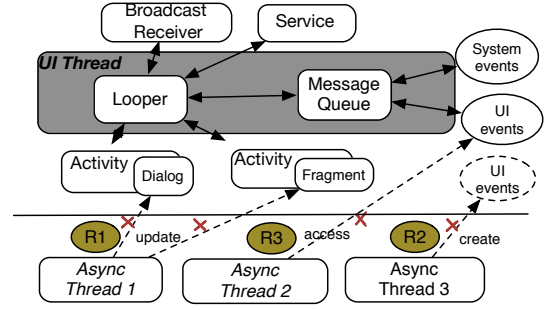


Figure 1: Single-GUI-thread model of Android and its three basic rules.

(e.g., Broadcast Receivers, Services) or GUIs (e.g., Activity and its associated visible components like Dialogs or Fragments). The UI thread’s Looper dequeues events in a sequential order and dispatches them to the Handler for processing. The UI thread invokes the corresponding event handler *w.r.t.* an event and updates GUIs if necessary.

ADF provides various async programming constructs [23]. There are four typical constructs, i.e., AsyncTask, Thread, AsyncTaskLoader and IntentService. Among them, AsyncTask allows one to perform short background operations and publish results on the UI thread; Thread is inherited from Java, and executes tasks in the background; AsyncTaskLoader utilizes AsyncTask to perform async data loading, and has similar callbacks as AsyncTask, but it is lifecycle aware: ADF binds/unbinds the worker thread according to GUI’s lifecycle. IntentService handles async requests in an async thread, and sends the results to the UI thread via a Broadcast Receiver. Fig. 2 illustrates the use of AsyncTasks in *ADSdroid* [15] that searches electronic components’ datasheet, and downloads from a remote server if requested. The activity SearchPanel (Lines 2-23) can search for the result with user input by invoking (Lines 4-7). The results are shown in a ListView of the activity PartList (Lines 25-50), in which users can click any matched item (Lines 28-32) for downloading.

ADSdroid starts two async threads, i.e., SearchByPartName (Lines 9-22) and DownloadDatasheet (Lines 34-49), to achieve search and download tasks, respectively. For example, SearchByPartName is started by searchByPartName (Line 6), and executes in an async thread via `doInBackground`. *ADSdroid* shows a progress dialog in `onPreExecute` before searching, and dismisses it via `onPostExecute`. Both callbacks runs on the UI thread. *ADSdroid* also publishes the search progress on GUIs during task execution via `onProgressUpdate` (omitted here). We can see ADF leaves developers to carefully handle the interactions between the UI thread and async threads.

However, there are two APEs (Lines 17 and 46), neither of which has been covered by developers. The root causes for these two APEs are similar. When users rotate the screen right after the start of the async tasks SearchByPartName and DownloadDatasheet but before they finish (i.e., before the execution of `onPostExecute`), the app will crash when `mSearchDialog` (Line 17) and `mDownloadDialog` (Line 46) are dismissed. Because the rotation will destroy the current activity and create a new one, but the dialogs were attached to the original one, which does not exist anymore. This leads to a fatal `BadTokenException`. We can see the right timing and lifecycle states are crucial to manifest these APEs. This paper aims at tackling such hard-to-detect errors.

```

1 // the activity that shows the search panel
2 public class SearchPanel extends Activity {
3     ProgressDialog mSearchDialog;
4     public void searchByPartName(View view) {
5         mSearchDialog = new ProgressDialog(this);
6         new SearchByPartName(searchMode, partName).execute();
7     }
8     // AsyncTask to search parts
9     private class SearchByPartName extends AsyncTask<...> {
10         protected ArrayList<Part> doInBackground(Void...) {
11             ... // other stuffs
12             return SearchByPartName(partName, mode);
13         }
14         protected void onPostExecute(ArrayList<Part> result) {
15             super.onPostExecute(result);
16             // mSearchDialog is shown in onPreExecute()
17             mSearchDialog.dismiss();
18             if (result != null) {
19                 Intent intent = new Intent(SearchPanel.this,
20                     PartList.class);
21                 intent.putExtra(PartList.PARTS, result);
22                 startActivity(intent);
23             } ...
24 }
25 // the activity that shows the list of matched Parts
26 public class PartList extends ListActivity {
27     ProgressDialog mDownloadDialog;
28     // the event handler for clicking list item
29     protected void onItemClick(...) {
30         Part selectedPart = new Part(...);
31         mDownloadDialog = new ProgressDialog(this);
32         new DownloadDatasheet().execute(selectedPart);
33     }
34     // AsyncTask to download the data sheet
35     private class DownloadDatasheet extends AsyncTask<...> {
36         protected String doInBackground(Part... parts) {
37             Part selectedPart = parts[0];
38             String fileName = fileNameForPart(selectedPart);
39             URLConnection pdfConnection = selectedPart.
40                 getPdfConnection();
41             pdfConnection.connect();
42             ... // fetch data from network and update progress
43             return fileName;
44         }
45         protected void onPostExecute(String result) {
46             super.onPostExecute(result);
47             // mDownloadDialog is shown in onPreExecute()
48             mDownloadDialog.dismiss();
49             if (result != null) {
50                 openPDF(result);
51             }
52         }
53     }
54 }

```

Figure 2: Motivating Example

2.2 Formative Study

To understand APEs, we conducted a formative study to investigate the following questions. This enables our problem definition in Section 2.3 and fault pattern analysis in Section 3.1.

Q1: Are async constructs widely-used by Android developers to follow the single-GUI-thread model? To answer this, we focus on the four typical constructs introduced in Section 2.1, and investigate 2097 open-source Android apps from F-droid to observe the use of these constructs since F-droid is one of largest Android app repositories, which covers diverse application categories; and all apps are open-source and maintained on Github, Google Code, etc. We use Soot [81], a static analysis tool, to identify async constructs.

Answer: Async constructs are widely-used by Android developers. We found 1019 out of 2097 apps use async constructs (account for 48.6%). Among 1019 apps, 2968 AsyncTasks, 1248 Threads, 286 IntentServices, and 35 AsyncTaskLoaders are used. AsyncTask and Thread account for the majority, which also conforms to prior work [53, 54].

Q2: Are there any basic rules implied by the single-GUI-thread model that Android developers should obey in async programming? Are they common to other GUI frameworks? To answer

this, we conducted a thorough and careful inspection on (1) Android docs and APIs [23], including the principle of single-GUI-thread model [40], various async programming constructs [27, 32–34, 37, 38, 41, 42], GUI components [21, 28, 30, 36, 43], etc; and (2) technical posts filtered from Stack Overflow (the largest developer Q&A community) by the keywords “Android” plus the names of async constructs, tutorials on async programming [13]; and (3) fault studies on Android [18, 46, 55, 86].

Answer: We identified 3 async programming rules (Fig. 1 annotated these rules as R1, R2 and R3), which are also common to other modern GUI frameworks.

- **Rule 1 (Async threads should not update GUI objects):** Since Android UI toolkit is not thread-safe, the single-GUI-thread model requires that async threads should not directly manipulate GUI objects. GUI objects include *visible components* (e.g., update a Dialog’s message) and *data models* (e.g., change the content of ArrayAdapter that fits in between a ListView and an ArrayList). Instead, they should designate the UI thread to handle GUI objects via UI-safe methods like Activity#runOnUiThread [40]. This rule is also enforced by many GUI frameworks, e.g., Swing, SWT, Qt, and Cocoa.

- **Rule 2 (Async threads should not create GUI components in the background):** The UI thread by default is created with a Handler and a Looper. The Handler enqueues events (e.g., messages or runnable objects) into a message queue. These events come from different app components and GUIs. The Looper dequeues and dispatches the events to the Handler for processing. However, an async thread (except HandlerThread) by default is not associated with a Handler, thereby it should not directly create GUI components (e.g., Toast#show, Dialog#create) in the background. Instead, they should post GUI creations via UI thread’s Handler into Looper for processing. Qt’s event loop and wxErlang’s mailbox queue enforce this similar rule.

- **Rule 3 (Async threads should avoid accessing GUIs or performing transactions inside async callbacks):** Async callbacks such as onPostExecute run on the UI thread, but they have no knowledge of the current states of GUIs. Because they are called when the async thread returns. As a result, accessing GUIs or performing transactions for Fragments in async callbacks (e.g., AsyncTask#onPostExecute, LoaderCallbacks#onLoadFinished) has the risks of sending GUI updates to destroyed GUIs and losing app state [31]. Cocoa Touch (GUI framework of iOS) also enforces this similar rule [6].

Q3: Do developers violate these rules? Are there any challenges to solve such APEs? To answer this, we utilize Github and Google Code APIs to scrawl the issue reports of 1091 apps that uses async constructs in Q1. To identify APEs, we only collect issues that are reported with exception traces, which contain the callbacks of async constructs; then inspect their issue descriptions, comments, patches if available to confirm valid issues that do violate the three rules.

Answer: We finally got 375 valid APE issues. The number of valid issues is not large since many issues are reported without exception traces [18]. But our evaluation (Section 5) reveals APEs affect more than 25% apps. These issues violate the rules in different forms, involving 9 different types of fatal exceptions, e.g., CalledFromWrongThread, IllegalStateException, and BadTokenException. The violations of Rule 1 and 3 account for the majority in these 375 issues (91.2 %). By investigating the fixing process of these APEs on Github, we note developers face three main challenges: (1) Due to lack of adequate

understanding, they usually use simple try-catches to fix APEs; (2) Many APEs reside in the releases since developers fail to discover them during development; (3) Due to the lack of reproducing tests, several developers complain about the difficulties of debugging.

2.3 Problem Definition

We name the errors that violate the three basic rules as *async programming errors*, and formulate our problem as follows.

UI thread. A UI thread u is the main thread that is created when an app starts, and manages GUI components.

Async thread. An async thread w is a worker thread that is instantiated from an async construct (e.g., Thread), started by the UI thread (e.g., Thread#run), and executes a task.

UI-accessing and UI-safe methods. A UI-accessing method $m_{uiaccess}$ may create a GUI component (e.g., Toast#show), change a GUI component's state (e.g., Dialog#dismiss), or commit fragment transactions. A UI-safe method m_{uisafe} permits safe GUI access, e.g., Activity#runOnUiThread, Handler#post, or GUI state check, e.g., Activity#isFinishing().

Program trace and its event sequence. A program trace t is a sequence of method calls, $m_1, \dots, m_i, \dots, m_n$, on the call graph of an app. The event sequence s w.r.t. t is a set of user events, $e_1, \dots, e_i, \dots, e_k$ ($k \leq s$ usually holds), that can execute out t under the given environment E (e.g., thread scheduling, network status, app permissions, sensor inputs and platform versions).

Problem Definition. Our problem is to check whether there exists any trace t on which u creates an async thread w , and w invokes any UI-accessing method that is *not control-dependent* on a UI-safe method. If t exists, we find an event sequence l that follows t to exhibit the error under given environment E .

2.4 Prior Work

Prior work has only tackled parts of this problem. One close work is from Zhang *et al.* [88], which finds invalid thread access errors in Java GUI applications (Swing, SWT, Android), and gives warnings in the form of method call chains. However, this work has several significant differences from ours: First, they only handle a subset of errors w.r.t. Rule 1, i.e., an async thread directly accesses GUI components (only trigger the CalledFromWrongThread exception). Second, they use static analysis to check whether a thread spawning can reach a GUI object accessing method, which is determined by the ViewRoot#checkThread method in ADF. This is ad hoc and may miss many errors. Third, they do not confirm errors, which may bring many false positives. In contrast, we conduct a systematic study to understand APEs, and combine static and dynamic analysis to confirm errors with real tests. Lin *et al.* [54] investigate the uses of AsyncTask, and also observe the invalid thread access error. But they aim at solving another different problem of automatically refactoring long-running tasks in UI thread into AsyncTasks.

Another area of related work is detecting and reproducing concurrency bugs (data race in particular) [10, 45, 52, 54, 59, 66, 80]. They treat some APEs w.r.t. Rule 3 as data races. For example, the two APEs in Fig. 2 can be interpreted as data races since the mPanels variable inside the framework class PhoneWindow can be accessed simultaneously by the UI and async thread in which one access is a write operation. Existing data race detection tools [10, 45, 59] exploit dynamically explored event traces to build a happen-before

graph, and then query the graph to find potential data races. But they have several limitations in practice to detect APEs: First, their effectiveness heavily relies on the traces for building the graph. If the traces have not fully covered app code, the detection ability is limited. Second, they usually generate a large number of false positives due to conservative analysis [47]. Existing data race reproducing tools [66, 80] are also impractical since they either require user-provided traces or depend on the results of data race detection tools when confirming bugs. Section 5 compares APEChecker with existing data race detection tools to confirm these observations.

3 OUR APPROACH APECHECKER

This section details our approach APEChecker. Figure 3 shows its workflow, which is composed of five key steps: APEChecker (1) summarizes a set of fault patterns from the collected APE issues, (2) encodes these fault patterns into a static analyzer to locate faulty code, (3) generates a set of program traces that can reach the faulty code from the app entry, (4) maps the program traces into real event sequences (tests) with appropriate environment; and (5) verifies APEs with the tests, and dumps crash reports for fixing.

3.1 Fault Pattern Analysis

We categorize 375 APE issues into three groups w.r.t. the rules summarized in the formative study. By analyzing these issues, we characterize these APEs as three fault patterns.

- **Fault Pattern 1:** If an async thread w is started, and w calls a UI-access method $m_{uiaccess}$, which is not control-dependent on a UI-safe method m_{uisafe} . This pattern violates Rule 1, which is represented as $start(w) \rightarrow \neg m_{uisafe} \rightarrow m_{uiaccess}$. Fig. 4 shows such an error of Pedometer [17], an app that stores the user's step count per hour (the symbol "+" denotes the corresponding patch to fix this error). In fragment MonthlyReportFragment, it starts an async thread to generate the monthly report and refresh the GUI by invoking notifyDataSetChanged, which crashes the app.

- **Fault Pattern 2:** If an async thread w is started, and w calls a GUI creation method $m_{uicreate}$, which is not posted on the UI thread by $m_{postlooper}$ to execute. This pattern violates Rule 2, which is represented as $start(w) \rightarrow \neg m_{postlooper} \rightarrow m_{uicreate}$. Fig. 5 shows such an error of gisapp [16], which is a user interface controls library for Android geo applications (the symbols "+" and "-" denote the corresponding patch to fix this error). gisapp uses an async thread ExportTask to export the data by retrieving the database, and use Toast#makeText to show a message if no data is available. However, ExportTask has not referred to the UI thread's Handler to post messages, which crashes the app.

- **Fault Pattern 3:** If an async thread w is started, and before w returns, the target activity or fragment A is destroyed or stopped, and after w returns, its async callback calls a UI-access method $m_{uiaccess}$, which is not control-dependent on a UI-safe method m_{uisafe} . This pattern violates Rule 3, which is represented as $start(w) \rightarrow destroy(A)$ or $stop(A) \rightarrow return(w) \rightarrow \neg m_{uisafe} \rightarrow m_{uiaccess}$. In Fig. 2, there are two such errors. When users rotate the screen right after the start of the AsyncTasks SearchByPartName and DownloadDatasheet but before they finish, the dismiss of mSearchDialog (Line 17) and mDownloadDialog (Line 46) can crash the app.

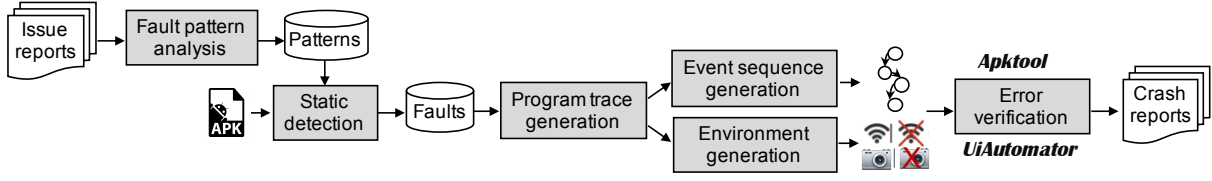


Figure 3: Workflow of APEChecker

```

1 // privacy-friendly-pedometer. Revision: 9a031d6
2 public class MonthlyReportFragment extends Fragment{
3     private void generateReports(boolean updated){
4         AsyncTask.execute(new Runnable(){
5             public void run(){
6                 if (mAdapter != null && ...){
7 +                 getActivity().runOnUiThread(new Runnable(){
8 +                 public void run(){
9                     ...
10                    mAdapter.notifyDataSetChanged();
11 +                }
12 }}}}};}}

```

Figure 4: Example of Fault Pattern 1

```

1 // android_gisapp. Revision: 2ef12a7
2 // new ExportTask(...).execute();
3 public static class ExportTask extends AsyncTask<...>{
4     protected File doInBackground(Void... voids){
5         Cursor cursor = query(...);
6         if(cursor == null && ...){
7 -         Toast.makeText(msg).show();
8 +         publishProgress();
9         }
10 +    protected void onProgressUpdate(Void... values){
11 +        super.onProgressUpdate(values);
12 +        Toast.makeText(mLayer.getContext()).show(); }
13 }

```

Figure 5: Example of Fault Pattern 2

3.2 Static Fault Detection

Algorithm 1 details static fault detection. It takes as input an app, the lists of UI-accessing and UI-safe methods (summarized from Android docs), and outputs the APE locations (including the starting points of async threads). Algorithm 1 works on the static call graph of an app, where each node denotes a method, and each edge $\langle f, g \rangle$ denotes the call from the method f to g . We first identify all method nodes that start async threads (Line 3) and check whether the use of corresponding async constructs violate the rules (Lines 4-17). For each async construct, we get the overridden methods according to its class type (Lines 5-6). Take `AsyncTask` as an example, we consider its callback methods `onPreExecute`, `doInBackground` and `onPostExecute`, etc. By querying the call graph, we get all the nodes called by these methods (Line 7). If a UI-accessing method node is not control-dependent on any UI-safe methods (e.g., `Activity#runOnUiThread`), this node will be tagged as suspicious APE (Lines 12-16). Note that we conduct both intra- and inter-procedural control-dependent analysis to reduce false alarms. Algorithm 1 also checks the successor methods that are called by this node (Line 17) to avoid false negatives.

Example. In Fig. 2, APEChecker identifies that `searchByPartName` starts an `AsyncTask`, `SearchByPartName`. In the `onPostExecute` callback, it locates a UI-accessing method `ProgressDialog#dismiss` (Line 17),

Algorithm 1: Static Fault Detection

Input: *apk*: an Android app, *uiAccessAPIs*: list of UI-access methods, *uiSafeAPIs*: list of UI-safe methods
Output: *APEs*: List<methodStartThread, stmtStartThread, methodAccessUI, stmtAccessUI>

```

1 APEs ←
2 cg ← buildCallGraph(apk)
3 asyncStartNodes ← getReachableAsyncStarts(cg)
4 foreach Node node ∈ asyncStartNodes do
5     async ← getAsyncClass(node)
6     o ← getOverriddenMethods(async)
7     nodeList ← getCalledMethodNodes(o, cg)
8     while nodeList ≠ ∅ do
9         node ← nodeList.dequeue()
10        if isVisited(node) then
11            continue
12        if node ∈ uiAccessAPIs then
13            if ¬ controlDependent(node, uiSafeAPIs) then
14                m ← getCallingMethod(async)
15                n ← getCallingMethod(node)
16                APEs ← ⟨m, async, n, node⟩
17        nodeList.enqueue(getCalledMethodNodes(node, cg))
18 return APEs

```

which is not control-dependent on any UI-safe methods, e.g., `Activity#isFinishing()`, to safely check activity state. So APEChecker reports a suspicious APE.

3.3 Program Trace Generation

Algorithm 2 details the program trace generation (the idea is similar to backward symbolic execution [56, 77]). It takes as input a target method and statement (i.e., `methodAccessUI` and `stmtAccessUI` from Algorithm 1), and returns the traces (i.e., method call sequences) that can reach the APE. It starts with an empty trace t , and backtracks to reach the entry activity (Lines 5-30). Specifically, the maximum number of generated traces (`MaxTraceCnt`, Line 17) and the maximum trace length (`MaxTraceLen`, Line 5) is configurable.

During the analysis, each trace t may have one of the three states, i.e., pending (t is under propagation), terminated (t reaches the entry activity), failed (the propagation fails due to dead code or limitations of static analysis tools). If no traces are pending, the analysis stops (Lines 6-7). Otherwise, the analysis continues until the maximum trace length is reached. At each iteration, the algorithm uses two important variables, i.e., `ptrMethod` and `ptrStmt`, pointing to the current backtrack point of t . When t is pending, the algorithm queries the callers of t via `getAcyclicCallers` (we details this function later). If there are no callers, t will be set as *failed* due to the propagation cannot proceed (Lines 12-14). Otherwise, we update `ptrMethod` and `ptrStmt` of t (Lines 16-26). Specifically, if t 's

Algorithm 2: Program Trace Generation

Input: *method*: the target method, *stmt*: the target statement
Output: *traces*: the list of candidate traces

```

1  let t be an initially empty trace
2  let traceLen be the current trace length (initialized as 0)
3  t.ptrMethod ← method, t.ptrStmt ← stmt
4  traces ← {t}
5  while traceLen < MaxTraceLen do
6    if ¬ hasPendingTrace(traces) then
7      return traces
8    new_traces ← {}
9    foreach Trace t ∈ traces do
10     if isPending(t) then
11       // t is a pending trace
12       t.callers ← getAcyclicCallers(t.ptrMethod)
13       if t.callers == {} then
14         // set t's state as failed
15         updateTrace(t)
16         continue
17       let c be the first caller of t.callers
18       foreach Caller c' ∈ t.callers \ {c} do
19         if count(traces) < MaxTraceCnt then
20           t' ← fork(t)
21           t'.ptrMethod ← getMethod(c')
22           t'.ptrStmt ← getCallSite(c')
23           updateTrace(t')
24           new_traces ← new_traces ∪ {t'}
25       t.ptrMethod ← getMethod(c)
26       t.ptrStmt ← getCallSite(c)
27       updateTrace(t)
28       new_traces ← new_traces ∪ {t}
29     else
30       // t is a terminated or failed trace
31       new_traces ← new_traces ∪ {t}
32  traces ← new_traces
33  traceLen ← traceLen + 1

```

ptrMethod has multiple callers, the algorithm will fork out a new trace *t'* from *t* (copying all previous backtrack information from *t* to *t'*), and add *t'* into the list of traces (Lines 16-22).

Here, *updateTrace* (Line 21 and 25) performs three operations: (1) check whether *t*'s *ptrMethod* has reached the entry activity and update *t*'s state accordingly. In particular, if *ptrMethod* is a callback method (e.g., user event handler) of the entry activity, *t* will be set as terminated. (2) update the method call chain of *t* by adding *ptrMethod*. The method call chain will be later used to generate event sequences. (3) record the conditions in the body of *ptrMethod* that *ptrStmt* are control-dependent on. These conditions will be analyzed later to create necessary environment to improve the hit rate. Section 3.4 will discuss the details of (2) and (3).

The function *getAcyclicCallers* queries and returns the immediate callers of *t*'s *ptrMethod*. It removes the visited callers to ensure the traces are acyclic. When backtrack, we differentiate three types of call relations that widely exist in Android.

- **Explicit Calls.** The function *f* immediately calls function *g*, i.e., there exists an edge $\langle f, g \rangle$ on the call graph. For example, *SearchByPartName#doInBackground* is explicitly called by *searchByPartName* via *AsyncTask#execute* (see Fig. 2).

- **Implicit Calls.** Android systems have many implicit calls through its framework. An implicit call from function *f* to *g* indicates *f* calls

g asynchronously. For example, the callback *onPostExecute* of *SearchByPartName* is implicitly called when the callback *doInBackground* returns (see Fig. 2).

- **Inter-Component Transition Calls.** Android system uses *Intents* to start activities or services. For example, in *SearchByPartName*, the activity *PartList* is called by the callback *onPostExecute* via *startActivity* (see Fig. 2).

Example. We explain Algorithm 2 on *ADSDroid* (Fig. 2). Algorithm 1 reports two suspicious faults, one of which is in the *onPostExecute* callback, which dismisses *mDownloadDialog* without any UI-safe methods (Line 46). Algorithm 2 first initializes a pending trace, whose *ptrMethod* is set as *onPostExecute* and *ptrStmt* as the dismiss statement. It then finds *doInBackground* is an implicit caller of *onPostExecute* (see ⑤). Next, it finds *onListItemClick* explicitly calls *doInBackground* via *execute* (see ④). Next, it finds the activity *PartList* is called by *SearchByPartName#onPostExecute* (see ③), and update *ptrMethod* as *onPostExecute* and *ptrStmt* as the *startActivity* statement (Line 21). Similarly, it finally finds the method *searchByPartName* starts the *SearchByPartName* (see ①). The final trace is *searchByPartName* → *onListItemClick* (only user event handlers are shown).

3.4 Event Sequence and Environment Generation

This step converts the program traces from Section 3.3 into actionable event sequences with appropriate environment.

Event Sequence Generation. APEChecker considers two main types of callbacks when converting a program trace.

- **User event handler callbacks.** APEChecker maps each event handler on the trace to a corresponding action w.r.t. a UI widget or view. For example, in Fig. 2, the event handler *onListItemClick(...)* is mapped to a click action on a *ListView* item; *searchByPartName* (declared in the XML layout file) is mapped to a click action on the "Search" button. To achieve this, APEChecker maintains a view-handler mapping table, which supports event handler callbacks registered in both app code and XML layouts [70, 75].

- **Activity/Fragment lifecycle callbacks.** For an activity or fragment lifecycle callbacks (e.g., *onRestart*, *onResume*, *onDestroy*) on the trace, APEChecker automatically substitutes the callback with special events that can force app to execute it. For example, for *onRestart*, APEChecker generates a long-press "Home" action (show the list of recently-opened apps) followed by a touch action on this app (switch back to the previous app again), triggering the lifecycle transition *onStop* → *onRestart*; for *onDestroy*, APEChecker generates a device-rotation event, triggering the transition *onStop* → *onDestroy* → *onStart*. Currently, APEChecker considers Activity, Fragment and other lifecycle-aware components (e.g., Loader).

Environment Generation. APEChecker automatically constructs appropriate environment for event sequences. During the trace generation, APEChecker records the control-dependent conditions of an APE, and analyzes them to derive the environment. APEChecker currently focuses on three types of environment, which we find they can cover most of cases.

- **Specific user inputs.** APEChecker tracks the constraints on user inputs that can affect error verification. It currently supports two lightweight strategies: (1) infer the required input formats (e.g., email address, phone number) from the property *android:inputType* in the UI layout files; and (2) track the intra-procedural data-flows

of inputs and infer the required contents by analyzing simple string APIs (e.g., equal to a constant string, contain a specific character).

- *Explicit system settings or permissions.* APEChecker analyzes specific APIs in the recorded conditions to infer necessary system settings or permissions. For example, if $\neg \text{WifiManager}\#isWifiEnabled()$ is the condition, APEChecker will disable WiFi before replaying the test; if $\text{Camera}\#open()$ is the condition, APEChecker will grant the camera access permission at runtime when required.

- *Specific Exception Handling.* Some APEs reside in exception handling code, and they cannot be manifested without triggering the corresponding exception. For example, if the APE can be only reached by an `IOException` when the app fails to access a remote server via network, APEChecker will disconnect the network before replaying the test to simulate the exception. APEChecker only handles specific cases of `IOException` (e.g., cannot access network or files), but it can be extended to support other exceptions if required.

Currently, APEChecker supports limited environment (e.g., specific user inputs, network connection, camera access, file access) in our evaluated subjects, and does not consider external events (e.g., sensor inputs and intents). The environment can be extended in the future by using more sophisticated techniques like symbolic analysis [69] and exception handling [87].

3.5 Error Verification

To confirm an APE, we replay the generated event sequence with appropriate environment on the target app, and monitor the intended 9 exception types via Android Debugging Bridge (adb logcat). For those APEs whose manifestations require specific activity/fragment state and thread scheduling (*Fault Pattern 3* in particular), we instrument the original app A to A' by adding semaphore operations P (waiting) and V (release) at appropriate program locations. For a suspicious faulty statement i in the callback of async thread w , we insert a P operation (in the background callback) before i to wait for a signal; at the right activity or fragment lifecycle callback on the UI thread U , we insert a V operation to send the signal. As a result, we are able to control the thread scheduling and make sure the scheduling happen at the right lifecycle state. Note that if an app correctly follows the 3 async programming rules, the control of thread scheduling will not introduce APEs or force the app to crash. The instrumentation method only amplifies the possibility of the long execution time to simulate real possible scenarios (e.g., delay of network access, wait of data download), and thus will not introduce new behaviors or change original behaviors. Additionally, the instrumentation locations depend on the fault types. For example, to manifest activity state loss, the V operation will be added in `onStop` since state loss always happens after `onStop`.

Example. The APE in `SearchByPartName#onPostExecute` in Fig 2 violates *Rule 3*. To manifest this error, APEChecker instruments a P operation in the end of `doInBackground`, and instruments a V operation at the beginning of `SearchPanel#onDestroy`. By doing this, APEChecker can easily manifest this error by a two-event sequence, i.e., click the “Search” button and rotate the screen.

4 IMPLEMENTATION

APEChecker is implemented in Java (5K LOC) and Python (1K LOC), and built on several existing tools to automatically manifest APEs. It uses Soot [81] to build call graph, statically detects APEs based on

the three fault patterns, and generates program traces. When generating program traces, it extends IC3 [65] to handle inner classes, fragments, and other public classes to reduce false negatives. It currently considers acyclic traces, and sets the maximum number of traces to 10 and maximum trace length to 20. It utilizes Gator [70] (the `GUIHierarchyPrinterClient` client in particular) to set up the mapping relations between user event handlers and UI elements, and converts the handlers (in the generated trace) to an event sequence (e.g., click a button, choose an item in the list). The mapped UI elements usually have unique IDs or texts, which enables APEChecker to interact with them. It now supports back, rotate, Home (send the app to background), long-press-Home-and-back, Screen (screen on/off) to tweak lifecycle. Apktool [14] instruments semaphore P/V operations into the UI thread and async threads to control thread scheduling. UIAutomator [26] is used to execute tests, and Android Debugging Bridge (adb) [22] monitors whether the app throws the intended 9 exception types.

5 EVALUATION

We applied APEChecker on 40 real-world Android apps, and compared it with three state-of-the-art GUI testing tools (Monkey, Sapienz, and Stoot), the Google official static analysis tool Lint, and the state-of-the-art data race detection tool, EventRacer, to measure its effectiveness. We aim to answer these research questions.

- **RQ1:** How effective is APEChecker for detecting APEs in Android apps? Can Lint detect them?
- **RQ2:** How effective is APEChecker against existing GUI testing techniques (Monkey, Sapienz, and Stoot) for APEs?
- **RQ3:** How effective is APEChecker against existing data race detection techniques, for detecting specific types of APEs?

5.1 Evaluation Setup

Subjects. We choose subjects from (1) F-droid, the largest repository for open-source apps; and (2) Google Play Store, the official app store from Google. We crawled all 2097 unique apps from F-droid, and 3107 popular apps from Google Play with over 10K installations. Soot successfully processed 1654 F-droid apps and 2719 Google Play apps. Among them, 930 F-droid apps and 1274 Google Play apps use async constructs. Next, APEChecker identifies 866 APEs in 234 F-droid apps (25.2%=234/930) and 1161 APEs in 201 Google Play apps (15.8%=201/1274) that contain suspicious APEs, respectively.

Environment. APEChecker runs on a 64-bit Ubuntu 14.04 machine with 12 cores (3.50GHz Intel CPU) and 32GB RAM. We verify APEs on both an Android emulator (SDK 4.4.2) and an LG Nexus 5X mobile phone (SDK 7.1.1).

Studies. We conducted three case studies. In *Study 1*, we answer **RQ1**. We need to manually analyze each reported APE, and determine the true positives and false positives, which requires a lot of human efforts. Therefore, we randomly selected around 10% F-droid and Google Play apps, respectively (the apps requiring user credentials are excluded): (1) 25 F-droid apps from 234 suspicious faulty apps, with 30374 executable lines of code (LOC) (in Jimple), 143 classes, 680 methods and 6 activities on average; and (2) 15 Google Play apps with 51722 LOC, 267 classes, 1232 methods and 12 activities on average, shown in Table 1. We measured the static analysis time (the time of replay tests is omitted, since it only takes a few seconds), the number of detected APEs, the number of APEs

Table 1: Subjects used in the experiment and evaluation results of APEChecker and Lint.

App Name	#ELOC	#Classes	#Methods	#Activities	#Time (min)	#APEs (detected)	#APEs (processed)	#Repro.	#FP	Fault Type	#APEs by Lint
<i>Open Manager</i>	11477	56	227	6	1.0	2	2	2	0	3	0
<i>ADSDroid</i>	2310	17	60	2	1.0	2	2	2	0	3	0
<i>DeskCon</i>	11264	80	317	5	9.8	7	5	4	0	3	0
<i>TuCanMobile</i>	24264	113	494	10	3.6	2	2	2	0	3	0
<i>RadioDroid</i>	19248	109	443	2	2.8	3	1	1	2	3	0
<i>filmChecker</i>	2739	28	67	2	2.9	1	1	1	0	3	0
<i>QuranForMyAndroid</i>	14170	99	414	11	2.5	4	4	2	0	2, 3	0
<i>MoTAC</i>	30857	135	748	6	1.8	3	2	2	0	2	0
<i>MaximaOnAndroid</i>	11357	43	211	4	2.5	2	2	2	0	3	0
<i>DebianDroid</i>	14133	88	413	3	3.1	8	0	0	0	-	0
<i>NextGIS Mobile</i>	12150	71	300	3	3.2	1	0	0	0	-	0
<i>A2DP Volume</i>	21502	115	555	6	3.7	6	6	5	0	2, 3	0
<i>Andor</i>	87818	445	2198	19	3.0	4	3	3	1	3	0
<i>Mitzuli</i>	23615	135	517	2	3.4	2	1	1	0	3	0
<i>Commons</i>	32767	177	912	9	4.1	3	1	1	0	3	0
<i>AdAway</i>	21443	131	535	8	4.2	2	0	0	0	-	0
<i>ServeStream</i>	64866	300	1777	8	4.8	1	1	1	0	3	0
<i>Navit</i>	19336	69	360	3	1.7	2	0	0	1	-	0
<i>JKU App</i>	52654	223	1263	7	5.2	2	0	0	0	-	0
<i>HomeManager</i>	9184	54	185	2	1.8	1	1	1	0	1	0
<i>Transports Bordeaux</i>	21840	180	668	16	7.3	3	1	0	1	-	0
<i>MTG Familiar</i>	84544	341	1529	12	7.2	1	0	0	0	-	0
<i>Cowsay</i>	4149	22	92	1	1.1	1	1	1	0	1	1
<i>AeonDroid</i>	23037	128	604	4	3.6	3	1	1	0	3	0
<i>Addi</i>	138716	404	2119	2	1.4	1	0	0	0	-	0
Average	30374	143	680	6	3.5	2.8	-	-	-	-	-
<i>MalayalamNewspaper</i>	7093	51	181	4	8.2	1	1	1	0	3	0
<i>Drum Solo</i>	17819	80	270	4	2.6	1	0	0	0	-	0
<i>Smart Poker</i>	38835	219	1020	7	5.1	3	3	1	0	3	0
<i>Lojas Renner</i>	24758	210	756	11	5.6	1	1	1	0	3	0
<i>Messaging</i>	114001	446	3103	13	13.2	1	0	0	0	-	0
<i>Recarga Vivo</i>	61913	369	1809	25	13.8	1	0	0	0	-	0
<i>InstaCartoonPhoto</i>	1693	26	60	6	6.8	1	1	1	0	3	0
<i>Fingerprint Lock</i>	17833	123	475	13	6.9	1	0	0	0	-	0
<i>Salmos</i>	19527	110	402	4	5.9	2	2	2	0	3	0
<i>Santander</i>	166101	902	3457	5	9.8	3	2	1	0	3	0
<i>Biblia Sagrada</i>	41170	153	648	10	16.6	7	2	2	1	3	0
<i>Trade Accounting</i>	85485	450	2018	34	11.8	2	0	0	0	-	0
<i>Premium Wallpaper</i>	52156	203	1321	10	8.3	4	4	4	0	2, 3	0
<i>Tebak Lagu</i>	23017	158	667	12	11.5	9	7	5	0	2, 3	0
<i>WorldNews Live24</i>	104436	515	2298	10	19.8	3	1	1	0	3	0
Average	51722	267	1232	12	9.9	2.7	-	-	-	-	-

that can be processed (limited by the abilities of Soot, IC3, Gator), the number of APEs that can be reproduced (#Repro.), false positives (#FP), the types of faults, and the number of APEs that can be detected by Lint.

In **Study 2**, we answer **RQ2** by comparing APEChecker with Monkey, Sapienz, and Stoat, which have proven effectiveness on bug detection [12, 60, 78]. 10 apps are randomly selected from 234 F-droid apps that contain APEs. Each tool is allocated with one hour with default settings. The number of confirmed (*i.e.*, successfully triggered) APEs, the analysis time and the length of tests (*i.e.*, event sequences) are recorded. From the perspective of their approach workflow, all tools are given the original rather than the instrumented apps (*cf.* Section 3.5) as input to achieve fair comparison — Monkey, Sapienz and Stoat do not require the instrumentation for bug detection as their algorithms do not need instrumentation (otherwise they may be adversely affected, *e.g.*, stuck by the thread scheduling), and also do not have idea of where to instrument. To alleviate the randomness, we run each tool 10 times to average data.

In **Study 3**, we answer **RQ3** by comparing APEChecker with EventRacer [10]. We did not choose other data race tools, *e.g.*, CAFA [45] (not available) and DroidRacer [29, 59] (less effective and precise

than EventRacer [10]). In detail, we (1) randomly selected 10 F-droid apps (since the source code is required to confirm the APEs reported by EventRacer, listed in Table 2) with at least one APE of *Fault Pattern 3* (treated as data races by EventRacer); (2) only consider the races reported between UI thread and async threads; and (3) allocated 10,000 events for EventRacer (by default, only 1,000 events) to generate event sequences, which on average costs 15 minutes per app (comparable to the running time of APEChecker). EventRacer generates a lot of false positives, but to our knowledge, no reproducing tools can facilitate our analysis: AsyncDroid [66] requires user-provided event traces, RacerDroid [80] adopts manually analysis and ERVA [47] is not available. Therefore, we manually analyzed the races, and resorted to developers for confirmation.

5.2 Study 1: Effectiveness of Detecting APEs

Table 1 shows the results of APEChecker on the 40 apps. It identified 107 APEs in total with 67 and 40 from F-droid and Google Play apps, respectively. Among them, due to the limitations of underlying tools, 61 APEs can be processed, of which 51 are successfully confirmed with real tests, achieving 83.6% (51/61) hit rate. On average, it takes 6.7 minutes for one app, with 3.5 minutes for one F-droid app and 9.9 minutes for one Google Play app. In contrast, Lint only detects one APE, which is ineffective. We detail the results below.

Effectiveness. APEChecker successfully reproduces all APEs of *Fault Pattern 1*. HomeManager manages and switches between home applications. Once started, it scans the installed apps on the device in an async thread, which modifies the data list of app info asynchronously (with a ListView). When the scan is finished, it notifies the UI thread to refresh the ListView with the new list. However, if the list is changed again (another async thread is created) during the refresh, the app can be crashed by an `IllegalStateException`.

In *Fault Pattern 2*, *MTG Familiar* is an offline database app for magic cards. It takes the photos of cards to identify the magic card. After taking a photo, it starts loading the photo with a `ProgressDialog` and calls `Toast#makeText` in an async thread. However, it fails to post Toast creation onto the UI thread, which causes a `RuntimeException`.

APEChecker successfully reproduces most APEs of *Fault Pattern 3*. For example, *Mitzuli*, a translator app, starts an async thread to check version update, and shows a dialog to notify the results. However, if users rotate the device before the thread returns, a fatal `BadTokenException` occurs.

Hit Rate. APEChecker achieves an 83.6% (51/61) hit rate. We analyzed the failed cases, and found most of them require special constraints. We summarize the main scenarios below.

(1) *External environment.* *Transports Bordeaux*, a transportation app, searches for paths from the starts to destinations. APEChecker can generate a program trace but cannot generate an event sequence to trigger the error, since the app registers a Broadcast Receiver for receiving specific intents. APEChecker cannot infer this now. *QuranForMyAndroid* is a translator for “The Quran”. If “Back” button is pressed after editing the text, it starts a thread to save the text into storage and shows a message via `Toast#makeText` only when no data storage is available. APEChecker cannot reproduce such errors. (2) *Complicated Exceptions.* APEChecker currently cannot infer complicated exceptions such as file not found and database corruption. One APE in *A2DP Volume* is that it tries to show a message via `Toast#makeText` in the exception handling’s catch statement which, however, is only reachable when the database to be loaded is corrupted in try statement.

False Positives. APEChecker only reports 6 false positives (5.6%=6/107). The main reason is that some methods or classes are actually unreachable. For example, in *RadioDroid*, APEChecker identifies 3 potential APEs, 2 of which are false positive since they reside in a dead activity (`ActivityRadioStationDetail`) that cannot be started by any other activities.

In summary, on the evaluated apps, APEChecker can efficiently manifest APEs in a few minutes with 83.6% hit rate and 5.6% false alarms.

5.3 Study 2: Comparison with Testing Tools

Fig. 6 compares APEChecker and the three testing tools in the number of confirmed APEs, the analysis time (in minutes) and the length of event sequence (in logarithmic scale) that triggers the errors. The results are presented in three bar plots with error bars (shown as black lines), where each bar’s height indicates the average value, and the error bar represents the standard deviation of uncertainty.

APEChecker confirms many more APEs than the testing tools. In the 10 runs, APEChecker totally confirms 32 unique APEs from these 10 apps, while Monkey, Sapienz and Stoa, respectively, confirm 7, 8, and 9. Moreover, none of the testing tools uncover APEs in subjects 9 and 10 while APEChecker finds 3 and 2 ones, respectively. The

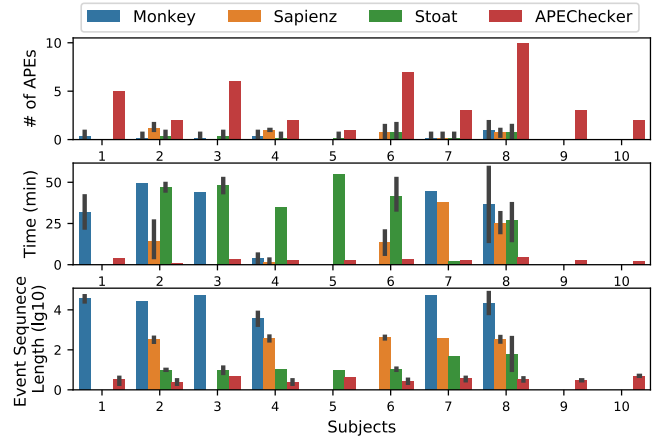


Figure 6: Comparison between APEChecker and testing tools.

error bars of testing tools show obvious data variance, i.e., testing tools are very likely to miss APEs.

For the testing tools, the analysis time of an error is its first occurrence time since one error can be triggered multiple times during one run. We can see APEChecker takes much less time than the testing tools except for the subjects 4 and 7. On average, APEChecker takes 2.9 minutes, while Monkey, Sapienz, and Stoa require 32.7, 14.3 and 37.1 minutes, respectively. Sapienz can easily hit one of the errors in the subject 4 but take more time for the other two. Stoa takes less time on the subject 7, but only hits that APE once during the 10 runs. Additionally, in terms of the event sequence length, APEChecker provides shorter (more usable) tests than the testing tools. The average event sequence length of Monkey, Sapienz, Stoa and APEChecker is 35725, 411, 12, 4, respectively.

In summary, on the evaluated apps, APEChecker detects 3X more APEs than testing tools, reduces detection time from half an hour to a few minutes, and provides more usable reproducing tests.

5.4 Study 3: Comparison with EventRacer

Table 2 compares APEChecker and EventRacer on 10 F-droid apps in the number of detected APEs. For EventRacer, we give the number of reported data races and true positives under two configurations (1K-event and 10K-event). To confirm true positives, we followed the approach of EVRA [47] and remove duplicated races: if data races are reported on different variables in ADF but refer to the same location of app code, we treat them as one true positive. Because the races actually indicate the same error in the app.

From Table 2, we can see APEChecker is more effective than EventRacer for the specific APEs of *Fault Pattern 3*. APEChecker detects and reproduces 32 out of 38 APEs while EventRacer (10K-event) only finds 6 ones. By comparing the results between 1K-event and 10K-event, we can note the effectiveness of EventRacer heavily depends on the number of given events. Although EventRacer can detect 5 more APEs with 10K-event, it reports 14X more false positives, which overwhelms users. This is also observed by EVRA [47] that only 3% data races reported by EventRacer are harmful. We also observe that the reported races are highly random, which further undermines its effectiveness for detecting these specific APEs.

In summary, on the evaluated apps, APEChecker detects 5X more APEs than EventRacer on a specific APE type with very few false alarms.

Table 2: Comparison between APEChecker and EventRacer

App Name	#APEs (Pat.3)	APECh. #Repro.	EventRacer (1K)		EventRacer (10K)	
			#Reported	#TP	#Reported	#TP
A2DPVolume	5	5	41	0	1249	1
TuCanMobile	2	2	12	0	53	0
OpenManager	2	2	0	0	27	1
Andor	4	3	0	0	0	0
Maxima	2	2	1	0	36	1
filmChecker	1	1	36	0	139	0
DeskCon	7	5	0	0	29	1
RadioDroid	3	1	15	1	48	1
ADSDroid	2	2	2	0	1	0
AnyMemo	10	9	19	0	206	1
Total	38	32	126	1	1788	6

5.5 Limitations and Threat to Validity

Limitations. APEChecker builds on several popular research tools, *i.e.*, Soot, IC3, and Gator, which represent the state-of-the-art. However, they still have several limitations in practice, which directly fail APEChecker on program trace generation. For example, even if Soot successfully processes an app, the call graph can still be incomplete (21.3% cases in our evaluation). Moreover, IC3 cannot handle ICCs in inner classes or fragments, and Gator cannot handle third-party UI controls. To counter this, we have already extended IC3 and Gator in these aspects (Section 4). But APEChecker still cannot generate valid program traces for 46 APEs detected in the evaluated apps (*e.g.*, *DebianDroid*) due to the limitations of underlying tools. We believe more engineering efforts on these tools can significantly improve APEChecker. Additionally, APEChecker now only infers simple environment, which lowers the hit rate. Future work will integrate more sophisticated analysis techniques to overcome this. Additionally, applying APEChecker to detect APEs for other GUI frameworks like Qt requires proper extensions [72].

Threat to Validity. APEChecker is only evaluated on 40 apps, and thus our conclusion may not be general to all apps. The summarized async programming rules and fault patterns may be incomplete, and thus APEChecker may suffer from false negatives. But we have thoroughly inspected all relevant resources, and the fault patterns have covered all 375 real APEs from 1091 apps. To ease the verification of APEs, APEChecker simulates specific execution environment by controlling thread scheduling (*e.g.*, increase the wait time of network access). So some triggered APEs may not be easily manifested by users although they are real faults under specific conditions.

6 RELATED WORK

Automated GUI Testing Many GUI testing techniques, *e.g.*, random testing [57], search-based testing [58, 60], symbolic execution [5, 63, 82], model-based testing [2, 3, 8, 11, 76, 78, 85] and other approaches [61, 62, 75, 83], have been proposed for Android apps. As we discussed in Section 1 and demonstrated in the evaluation, these techniques are ineffective for APEs due to lack of prior knowledge (fault patterns). In contrast, APEChecker leverages this knowledge to efficiently manifest APEs.

APEChecker tackles specific bugs that violate the rules of single-GUI-thread model. QUANTUM [86] uses model-based testing to tackle app-agnostic bugs. For example, when rotation happens, the screen should show the same content and support the actions as before. Thor [1] amplifies existing tests by randomly injecting neutral event sequences (*e.g.*, double rotation, pause-and-resume) that should not affect the outputs of original tests. Amalfitano *et al.* [4] propose a similar idea by exhaustively injecting orientation

changes to expose GUI failures. However, these techniques may not be effective for APEs. First, their effectiveness depends on the quality of an existing GUI model or test suite, which are usually not available [51]. Second, these techniques are random, and do not explicitly consider the interactions between UI and async threads. Graziussi [44] encodes some specific patterns into Lint to detect lifecycle bugs. KREfinder [74] finds restart-and-resume errors that cause app data loss. APEChecker tackles APEs which have not been systematically investigated before.

Concurrency Bugs As discussed in Section 2.4, some APEs can be treated as concurrency bugs. To tackle them, a number of data race detection tools [10, 45, 59, 71] and data race reproducing tools [47, 66, 80] are developed. However, as our evaluation shows, data race detection tools are ineffective for these APEs. AsyncDroid [66] and RacerDroid [80] are impractical since they either require user-provided traces or depend on the results of data race detection tools. ERVA [47] utilizes dependency graph and event flipping to reproduce races, and uses state comparison techniques to identify harmful ones. AATT [52] manifests concurrency bugs whose race points at the app code level. However, it can only manifest races whose conflicting events are in the same page or race points in the user code. Other bug reproducing tools like RERAN [20] and CrashScope [64] require user interactions. In contrast, APEChecker automatically generates event sequences to verify APEs.

Guided Test Generation Our work uses static analysis to locate suspicious APEs, and then guides GUI interactions to verify them. This idea is also adopted in other application domains of Android. SmartDroid [89] guides tests to reach certain APIs to manifest the malicious behaviors. However, it explores every UI element on each page to find the right view to click. Brahmastra [9] drives apps to reach third-party components to test security issues; MAMBA [50] guides tests to reveal potential accesses to privacy-sensitive data; FuzzDroid [69] utilizes a search-based algorithm combined with static and dynamic analysis to manifest malicious behaviors. However, none of these tools can be directly compared with APEChecker for detecting APEs. Other targeted testing tools include Collider [49], ConDroid [73], A³E [8]. However, they are either not available or requiring human intervention.

7 CONCLUSION

This paper introduces APEChecker, a technique to efficiently manifest APEs. First, we conduct a formative study to understand the async programming rules implied by the single-GUI-thread model, and collect a set of real APE issues. Second, informed by these results, we distill three fault patterns, and locate suspicious APEs via static fault pattern analysis, and then verify them with real tests. The evaluation shows APEChecker is useful and effective.

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