An Empirical Study of the Reliability

of

UNIX Utilities

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Summary

Operating system facilities, such as the kernel and utility programs, are typically assumed to be reliable. In our recent experiments, we have been able to crash 25-33% of the utility programs on any version of UNIX that were tested. This report describes these tests and an analysis of the program bugs that caused the crashes.

Content Indicators

D.2.5 (Testing and Debugging), D.4.9 (Programs and Utilities), General term: reliability.

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1. INTRODUCTION

When we use basic operating system facilities, such as the kernel and major utility programs, we expect a high degree of reliability. These parts of the system are used frequently and this frequent use implies that the programs are well-tested and working correctly. Of course, the only way that we can insure that a program is running correctly is to use formal verification. While the technology for program verification is advancing, it has not yet reached the point where it is easy to apply (or commonly applied) to large systems.

A recent experience led us to believe that, while formal verification of a complete set of operating system utilities was too onerous a task, there was still a need for some form of more complete testing. It started on a dark and stormy night. One of the authors was logged on to his workstation on a dial-up line from home and the rain had affected the phone lines; there were frequent spurious characters on the line. It was a race to see if he could type a sensible sequence of characters before the noise scrambled the command. This line noise was not surprising; but we were surprised that these spurious characters were causing programs to crash. These programs included a significant number of basic operating system utilities. It is reasonable to expect that basic utilities should not crash (''core dump''); on receiving unusual input, they might exit with minimal error messages, but they should not crash. This experience led us believe that there might be serious bugs lurking in the systems that we regularly used.

This scenario motivated a systematic test of the utility programs running on various versions of the UNIX operating system. The project proceeded in four steps: (1) construct a program to generate random characters, plus a program to help test interactive utilities; (2) use these programs to test a large number of utilities on random input strings to see if they crash; (3) identify the strings (or types of strings) that crash these programs; and (4) identify the cause of the program crashes and categorize the common mistakes that cause these crashes. As a result of testing almost 90 different utility programs on several versions of UNIX, we were able to crash more than 24% of these programs. Our testing included a version of UNIX that underwent commercial product testing. A byproduct of this project is a list of bug reports (and fixes) for the crashed programs and a set of tools available to the systems community.

There is a rich body of research on program testing and verification. Our approach is not a substitute for a formal verification or testing procedures, but rather an inexpensive mechanism to identify bugs and increase overall system reliability. We are using a coarse notion of correctness in our study. A program is detected as faulty only if it crashs or hangs (loops indefinitely). Our goal is to complement, not replace, existing test procedures.

This type of study is important for several reasons. First, it contributes to the testing community a large list of real bugs. These bugs can provide test cases against which researchers can evaluate more sophisticated testing and verification strategies. Second, the bugs that caused some of the crashes were the same type of bugs that have been responsible for recent security problems [2]. We have found additional bugs that might indicate future security holes. Third, some of the crashes were caused by input that you might carelessly type. Some strange and unexpected errors were uncovered by this method of testing. Fourth, we sometimes inadvertently feed programs noisy input, e.g., trying to edit or view an object module. In these cases, we would like some meaningful and predictable response. Fifth, noisy phone lines are a reality, and major utilities (like shells and editors) should not crash because of them. Last, we were interested in the interactions between our random testing and more traditional industrial software testing.

While our testing strategy sounds somewhat naive, its ability to discover fatal program bugs is impressive. If we consider a program to be a complex finite state machine, then our testing strategy can be thought of as a random walk through the state space, searching for undefined states. Similar techniques have been used in areas such as network protocols and CPU cache testing[†]. When testing network protocols, a module can be inserted in the data stream. This module randomly perturbs the packets (either destroying them or modifying them) to test the protocol's error detection and recovery features. Random testing has been used in evaluating complex hardware, such as a multiprocessor cache coherence protocols [3]. The state space of the device, when combined with the memory architecture, is large enough that it is difficult to generate systematic tests. Random generation of test cases can cover a large part of the state space and simplify the generation of cases.

This paper proceeds as follows. Section 2 describes the tools that we built to test the utilities. These tools include the fuzz (random character) generator, ptyjig (to test interactive utilities), and scripts to automate the testing process. Section 3 describes the tests that we performed, giving the types of input that we presented to the utilities. Results from the tests are given in Section 4, along with an analysis of the results. This analysis includes identification and classification of the program bugs that caused the crashes. Section 5 presents concluding remarks, including suggestions for avoiding the types of problems detected by our study and some commentary on the bugs that we found. We include an Appendix with the user manual pages for fuzz and ptyjig.

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[†] There are many other areas where random testing is used. The authors welcome suggestions of specific related references.

2. THE TOOLS

We developed two basic programs to test the utilities. The first program, called *fuzz*, generates a stream of random characters to be consumed by a target program. There are various options to fuzz to the control the testing activity. A second program, *ptyjig*, was also written to test interactive utility programs. Interactive utilities, such as a screen editor, expect their standard input file to have the characteristics of a terminal device. In addition to these two programs, we used scripts to automate the testing of a large number of utilities.

2.1. Fuzz: Generating Random Input Strings

The program fuzz is basically a generator of random characters. It produces a continuous strings of characters on its standard output file (see Figure 1). We can perform different types of tests depending on the options given to fuzz. Fuzz is capable of producing both printable and control characters, only printable characters, or either of these groups along with the NULL (zero) character. You can also specify a delay between each character. This option can account for the delay in characters passing through a pipe and to help the user locate the characters that caused a utility to crash. Another option allows you to specify the seed for the random number generator, to provide for repeatable tests.

Fuzz can record its output stream in a file, in addition to printing to its standard output. This file can be examined later. There are options to randomly insert NEWLINE characters in the output stream, and to limit the length of the output stream. For a complete description of fuzz, see the manual page in the Appendix.

The following is an example of fuzz being used to test deqn, the equation processor.

fuzz 100000 -o outfile | deqn

The output stream will be at most 100,000 characters in length and the stream will be recorded in file ''outfile''.

2.2. Ptyjig: Testing Interactive Utilities

There are utility programs whose input (and output) files must have the characteristics of a terminal device, e.g. the vi editor and the mail program. The standard output from fuzz sent through a pipe is not sufficient to test these programs.

Ptyjig is a program that allows us to test interactive utilities. It first allocates a pseudo-terminal file. This is a two-part device file that, on one side looks like a standard terminal device file (with a name of the form

Figure 1: Output of fuzz piped to a utility.

Figure 2: Fuzz with ptyjig to test an interactive utility.

/dev/ttyp0 is a pseudo-terminal device and /dev/ptyp0 is a pseudo-device to control the terminal.

''/dev/ttyp?'') and, on the other side can be used to send or receive characters on the terminal file (''/dev/ptyp?'', see Figure 2). After creating the pseudo-terminal file, ptyjig then starts the specified utility program. Ptyjig passes characters that are sent to its input through the pseudo-terminal to be read by the utility.

The following is an example of fuzz and ptyjig being used to test vi, a terminal-based screen editor.

fuzz 100000 -o outfile | ptyjig vi

The output stream of fuzz will be at most 100,000 characters in length and the stream will be recorded in file ''output''. For a complete description of ptyjig, see the manual page in the Appendix.

2.3. The Scripts: Automating the Tests

A command (shell) script file was written for each type of test. Each script executes all the utilities for a given set of input characteristics. The script checks for the existence of a ''core'' file after each utility terminates; indicating the crash of that utility. The core file and the offending input data file are saved for later analysis.

3. THE TESTS

After building the software tools, we then used these tools to test a large collection of utilities running on several versions of the UNIX operating system. Each utility on each system was executed with several different types of input streams. A test of a utility program can produce one of three results: (1) *crash* − the program terminated abnormally producing a core file, (2) *hang* − the program appeared to loop indefinitely, or (3) *succeed* − the program terminated normally. Note that in the last case, we do not specify the correctness of the output.

To date, we have tested utilities on six versions of UNIX*†* . These versions are summarized in Table 1. Most of these versions are derived from some form of 4.2BSD or 4.3BSD Berkeley UNIX. Some versions, like the SunOS release, have undergone substantial revision (especially at the kernel level). The SCO Xenix version is based on the System V standard from AT&T. The IBM AIX 1.1 UNIX is a released, tested product, supporting mostly the basic System V utilities. It is also important that the tests covered several hardware architectures, as well as several systems. A program statement with an error might be tolerated on one machine and cause the program to crash on another. Referencing through a null-value pointer is an example of this type of problem.

Our testing covered a total of 88 utility programs on the six versions of UNIX. Most utilities were tested on each system. Table 2 lists the names of the utilities that were tested, along with the type of each system on which that utility was tested. For a detailed description of each of these utilities, we refer you to the user manual for

Table 1: List of Systems Tested

 \mathbf{L} \mathbb{L} \mathbb{L}

c. c l. c c l. c c l. c c l.

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[†] Only the csh utility was tested on the IBM RT/PC. More complete testing is in progress.

appropriate systems. The list of utilities covers a substantial part of those that are commonly used, such as the mail program, screen editors, compilers, and document formatting packages. The list also includes less commonly used utilities, such as cb, the C language pretty-printer.

Each utility program that we tested was subjected to several different types of input streams. The different types of inputs were intended to test for a variety of errors that might be triggered in the utilities that we were testing. The major variations in test data were including non-printable (control) characters, including the NULL (zero) byte, and maximum length of the input stream. These tests are summarized in Table 3a.

Table 2: List of Utilities Tested and the Systems on which They Were Tested (part 1)

 \bullet = utility crashed, \circ = utility hung, $*$ = crashed on SunOS 3.2 but not on SunOS 4.0,

− *= utility unavailable on that system. N.B. join crashed only on SunOS 4.0, not 3.2.*

Utility	\overline{VAX}	Sun	\overline{HP}	i386	\overline{AIX} 1.1
m4					
mail					
make					
more					
\rm{nm}					
nroff					
pc					
pic					
plot		\circ			
pr					
prolog	\bullet	\bullet o	\bullet		
psdit					
ptx				\circ	
refer		*			
rev					
sed					
sh					
soelim					
sort					
spell	\bullet \circ			\circ	
spline					
split					
sql					
strings					
strip					
style					
sum					
tail					
tbl					
tee					
telnet					
tex					
$\mathop{\mathrm{tr}}$					
troff					
tsort		*			
ul					
uniq					
units	ю				
vgrind					
\mathbf{vi}					
wc					
yacc					
$#$ tested	85	83	75	$\overline{55}$	$\overline{49}$
# crashed/hung	25	21	$25\,$	$16\,$	$12\,$
$\%$	29.4%	25.3%	33.3%	29.1%	24.5%

Table 2: List of Utilities Tested and the Systems on which They Were Tested (part 2)

 \bullet = utility crashed, \circ = utility hung, $*$ = crashed on SunOS 3.2 but not on SunOS 4.0,

− *= utility unavailable on that system. N.B. join crashed only on SunOS 4.0, not 3.2.*

The input streams for interactive utilities have slightly different characteristics. To avoid overflowing the input buffers on the terminal device, the input was split into random length lines (i.e., terminated by a NEWLINE character) with a mean length of 128 characters. The input length parameter is described in number of lines, so is scaled down by a factor of 100.

4. THE RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

Our tests of the UNIX utilities produced a surprising number of programs that would crash or hang. In this section, we summarize these results, group the results by the common programming errors that caused the crashes,

Table 3a: Variations of Input Data Streams for Testing Utilities

c l. c c l.

> l. \mathbf{L} \mathbf{L} \mathbf{L} \mathbb{R} \mathbf{L} \mathbf{L} \mathbb{R} \mathbf{L} \mathbf{L} \mathbb{R} \mathbf{L} \mathbf{L} \mathbb{R} \mathbf{L} \mathbf{L} \mathbf{L}

(these were used for the non-interactive utility programs)

Table 3b: Variations of Input Data Streams for Testing Utilities *(these were used for the interactive utility programs)*

and show the programming practices that caused the errors. As a side comment, we noticed during our tests that many of the programs that did not crash would terminate with no error message or with a message that was difficult to interpret.

The basic test results are summarized in Table 2. The first result to notice is that we were able to crash or hang a significant number of utility programs on each system (from 24-33%). Included in the list of programs are several commonly used utilities, such as: vi and emacs, the most popular screen editors; csh, the c-shell; and various programs for document formatting. We detected two types of error results, crashing and hanging. A program was considered crashed if it terminated producing a core (state dump) file, and was considered hung if it continued executing producing no output while having available input. A program was also considered hung if it continued to produce output after its input had stopped. Hung programs were typically allowed to execute for an additional five minutes after the hung state was detected.

Table 4 summarizes the list of utility programs that we were able to crash or hang, categorized by the cause of the crash, and showing on which systems we were able to crash the programs. Notice that a utility might crash on one system but not on another. This result is due to several reasons. One reason is differences in the processor architecture. For example, while the VAX will (incorrectly) tolerate references through null pointers, many other architectures will not (e.g., the Sun 4). A second reason is that the different systems had differences in the versions of the utilities. Local changes might improve or degrade a utility's reliability. Both internal structure as well as external specification of the utilities change from system to system. It is interesting to note that the commercially tested AIX 1.1 UNIX is as susceptible as other versions of UNIX to the type of errors for which we tested.

We grouped the causes of the crashes into the following categories: pointer/array errors, not checking return codes, input functions, sub-processes, interaction effects, bad error handler, signed characters, race conditions, and currently undetermined. For each of these categories, we discuss the error, show code fragments as examples of the error, present implications of the error, and suggest fixes for the problem.

Pointer/Arrays

The first class of pointer and array errors is the case where a program might sequentially access the cells of an array with a pointer or array subscript, while not checking for exceeding the range of the array. This was one of the most common programming errors found in our tests. An example (taken from cb) shows this error using character

Table 4: List of Utilities that Crashed, Categorized by Cause

The letters indicate the system on which the crash occurred (see Table 1).

input:

$$
\begin{aligned}\n\text{while } ((cc = \text{getch}()) & != c) \{ \\
& \text{string}[j++) = cc; \\
& \dots \end{aligned}
$$

The above example could be easily fixed to check for a maximum array length. Often the terseness of the C programming style is carried to extremes; form is emphasized over correct function. The ability to overflow an input buffer is also a potential security hole, as shown by the recent Internet worm.

The second class of pointer problems is caused by references through a null pointer. The prolog interpreter, in its main loop, can incorrectly set a pointer value that is then assumed to be valid in the next pass around the loop. A crash caused by this type of error can occur in one of two places. On machines like the VAX, the reference through the null pointer is valid and reads data at location zero. The data accessed are machine instructions. A field in the (incorrectly) accessed data is then used as a pointer and the crash occurs. On machines like the Sun 4, the reference through the null pointer is an error and the program crashes immediately. If the path from where the pointer was set to where it was used is not an obvious one, extra checking may be needed.

The assembly language debugger (adb) also had a reference through a null pointer. In this case, the pointer was supposed to be a global variable that was set in another module. The external (global) definition was accidentally omitted from the variable declaration in the module that expected to use the pointer. This module then referenced an uninitialized (in UNIX, zero) pointer.

Pointer errors do not always appear as bad references. A pointer might contain a bad address that, when used to write a variable, may unintentionally overwrite some other data or code location. It is then unpredictable when the error will manifest itself. In our tests, the crash of lex (scanner generator) and ptx (permuted index generator) were examples of overwriting data, and the crash of ul (underlining text) was an example of overwriting code.

The crash of as (the assembler) originally appeared to be a result of improper use of an input routine. The crash occurred at a call to the standard input library routine ungetc(), which returns a character back to the input buffer (often used for look ahead processing). The actual cause was that ungetc() was redefined in the program as a macro that did a similar function. Unfortunately, the new macro had less error checking than the system version of ungetc() and allowed a buffer pointer to be incorrectly set. Since the new macro looks like the original routine, it is easy to forget the differences.

Not Checking Return Codes

Not checking return codes is a sign of careless programming. It is a favorable comment on the current state of UNIX that there are so few examples of this error. During our tests, we were able to crash adb (the assembly language debugger) and col (multi-column output filter ASCII terminals) utilities because of this error. Adb provides an interesting example of a programming practice to avoid. This code fragment represents a loop in adb and a procedure called from that loop.

```
format.c (line 276):
. . .
while (lastc != '\n\times) {
    rdc();
}
. . .
input.c (line 27):
rdc()
\{ do \{ readchar(); \}while (lastc == ' ' \parallel lastc == '\t');
    return (lastc);
}
```
The initial loop reads characters, one by one, terminating when the end of a line has been seen. The rdc() routine calls readchar(), which places the new character into a global variable named ''lastc''. Rdc() will skip over tab and space characters. Readchar() uses the UNIX file read kernel call to read the characters. If readchar() detects the end of the input file, it will set the value of lastc to zero. Neither rdc() nor the initial loop check for the end of file. If the end of file is detected during the middle of a line, this program hangs.

We can speculate as to why there was no end of file check on the initial loop. It may be because the program author thought it unlikely that the end of file would occur in this situation. It might also be that it was awkward to handle the end of file in this location. While this is not difficult to program, it requires extra tests and flags, more complex loop conditions, or possibly the use of a goto statement.

This problem was made more complex to diagnose because of the extensive use of macros (the code fragment above has the macros expanded). These macros may have made it easier to overlook the need for the extra test for end of file.

Input Functions

We have already seen cases where character input routines within a loop can cause a program to store into locations past the end of an array. Input routines that read entire strings are also vulnerable. One of the main holes through which the Internet worm entered was the gets() routine. The gets() routine takes a single parameter that is a pointer to a character string. No means of bounds checking are possible. Our tests crashed the ftp and telnet utilities through use of gets().

The scanf() routine is also vulnerable. In the input specification, it is possible to specify an unbounded string field. An example of this comes from the tsort (topological sort) utility.

$$
x = \text{fscanf}(\text{input}, \text{""} \text{ss} \text{ss} \text{""}, \text{precedes}, \text{follows})
$$

The input format field specifies two, unbounded strings. In the program, ''precedes'' and ''follows'' are declared with the relatively small lengths of 50 characters. It is possible to place a bound on the string field specification, solving this problem.

Sub-Processes

The code you write might be carefully designed and written and you might follow all the good rules for writing programs. But this might not be enough if you make use of another program as part of your program. Several of the UNIX utilities execute other utilities as part of doing their work. For example, the diction and style utilities call deroff, vi calls csh, and vgrind calls troff. When these sub-processes are called, they are often given direct access to the raw input data stream, so they are vulnerable to erroneous input. Access to sub-processes should be carefully controlled or you should insure that the program input to the sub-process is first checked. Alternatively, the utility should be programmed to tolerate the failure of a sub-process (though, this can be difficult).

Interaction Effects

Perhaps one of the most interesting errors that we discovered was a result of an unusual interaction of two parts of csh, along with a little careless programming. The following string will cause the VAX version of csh to crash

!a%8f

and the following string

!a%888888888f

will hang (continuous output of space characters) most versions of csh. The first example triggers the csh's command history mechanism, says ''repeat the last command that began with 'a%8f' ''. Since it does not find such a command, csh forms an error message string of the form: ''a%8f: Event not found.'' This string is passed to the error printing routine, which uses the string as the first parameter to the printf() function. The first parameter to printf() can include format items, denoted by a ''%''. The ''%8f'' describes a floating point value printed in a field that is 8 characters wide. Each format item expects an additional parameter to printf(), but in the csh error, none is supplied (or expected).

The second example string follows the same path, but causes csh to try to print the floating point value in a field that is 888,888,888 characters wide. The (seemingly) infinite loop is the printf() routine's attempt to pad the output field with sufficient leading space characters. Both of these errors could be prevented by substituting the printf() call with a simple string printing routine (such as puts()). The printf() was used for historical reasons having to do with space efficiency. The error printing routine assumed that it would always be passed strings that were safe to print.

Bad Error Handler

Sometimes the best intentions do not reach completion. The units program detects and traps floating point arithmetic errors. Unfortunately, the error recovery routine only increments a count of the number of errors detected. When control is returned to the faulty code, the error recurs, resulting in an infinite loop.

Signed Characters

The ASCII character code is designed so that codes normally fall in the range that can be represented in seven bits. The equation processor (eqn) depends on this assumption. Characters are read into an array of signed 8-bit integers (the default of signed vs. unsigned characters in C varies from compiler to compiler). These characters are then used to compute a hash function. If an 8-bit character value is read, it will appear as a negative number and result in an erroneous hash value. The index to the hash table will then be out of range. This problem can be easily fixed by using unsigned values for the character buffer. In a more sophisticated language than C, characters and strings would be identified as a specific type not related to integers.

This error does not crash all versions of adb. The consequence of the error depends on where in the address space is accessed by the bad hash value. (This error could be considered a subcase of the pointer/array errors.)

Race Conditions

UNIX provides a signal mechanism to allow a program to asynchronously respond to unusual events. These events include keyboard-selected functions to kill the program (usually control-C), kill the program with a core dump (usually control- \setminus), and suspend the program (usually control-Z). There are some programs that do not want to allow themselves to be interrupted or suspended; they want to process these control characters directly, perhaps taking some intermediate action before terminating or suspending themselves. Programs that make use of the cursor motions features of a terminal are examples of programs that directly process these special characters. When these programs start executing, they place the terminal device in a state that overrides processing of the special characters. When these programs exit, it is important that they restore the device to its original state.

So, when a program, such as emacs, receives the suspend character, it appears as an ordinary control-Z character (not triggering the suspend signal). Emacs will, on reading a control-Z, do the following: (1) reset the terminal to its original state (and will now respond to suspend or terminate signals), (2) clean up its internal data structures, and (3) generate a suspend signal to let the kernel actually stop the program.

If a control- \langle character is received on input between steps (1) and (3), then the program will terminate, generating a core dump. This race condition is inherent in the UNIX signal mechanism since a process cannot reset the terminal and exit in one atomic operation. Other programs, such as vi and more, are also subject to the same problem. The problem is less likely in these other programs because they do less processing between steps (1) and (3), providing a smaller window of vulnerability.

Undetermined Errors

The last two columns of Table 4 list the programs where the source code was currently not available to us or where we have not yet determined the cause of the crash.

5. CONCLUSIONS

This project started as a simple experiment to try to better understand an observed phenomenon − that of programs crashing when we used a noisy dial-up line. As a result of testing a comprehensive list of utility programs on several versions of UNIX, it appears that this is not an isolated problem. We offer two tangible products as a result of this project. First, we provide a list of bug reports to fix the utilities that we were able to crash. This should make a qualitative improvement on that reliability of UNIX utilities. Second, we provide a test method (and tools) that is simple to use, yet surprisingly effective.

We do not claim that our tests are exhaustive; formal verification is required to make such strong claims. We cannot even estimate how many bugs are still yet to be found in a given program. But our simple testing technique has discovered a wealth of errors and is likely to be more commonly used (at least in the near term) than more

formal procedures. Our tests appear to discover errors that are not easily found by traditional testing practices. This conclusion is based on the results from testing AIX 1.1 UNIX.

5.1. Comments on the Results

Our examination of the results of the tests have exposed several common mistakes made by programmers. Most of these mistakes are things that experienced programmers already know, but an occasional reminder is sometimes helpful. From our inspection of the errors that we have found, following are some suggested guidelines:

- (1) All array references should be checked for valid bounds. This is an argument for using range checking full-time. Even (especially!) pointer-based array references in C should be checked. This spoils the terse and elegant style often used by experienced C programmers, but correct programs are more elegant than incorrect ones.
- (2) All input fields should be bounded − this is just an extension of guideline (1). In UNIX, using ''%s'' without a length specification in an input format is bad idea.
- (3) Check all system call return values; do this checking even when a error result is unlikely and the response to a error result is awkward.
- (4) Pointer values should often be checked before being used. If all the paths to a reference are not obvious, an extra sanity check can help catch unexpected problems.
- (5) Judiciously extend your trust to others; they may not be as careful a programmer as you. If you have to use someone else's program, make sure that the data you feed it has been checked. This is sometimes called ''defensive programming''.
- (6) If you redefine something to look too much like something else, you may eventually forget about the redefinition. You then become subject to problems that occur because of the hidden differences. This may be an argument against excessive use of procedure overloading in languages such as Ada or C++.
- (7) Error handlers should handle errors. These routines should be thoroughly tested so that they do not introduce new errors or obfuscate old ones.
- (8) Goto statements are generally a bad idea. Dijkstra observed this many years ago [1], but some programmers are difficult to convince. Our search for the cause of a bad pointer in the prolog interpreter's main loop was

complicated by the interesting weaving of control flow caused by the goto statements.

5.2. Comments on Lurking Bugs

An interesting questions is: why are there so many buggy programs in UNIX? This section contains commentary and speculation; it should be considered more editorial than factual. From personal experience, we have noticed that we often encounter bugs in programs, but ignore them. These bugs are ignored, not because they are not serious (they often cause crashes), but for two reasons. First, it is often difficult to isolate exactly what activity caused the program to crash. Second, it quicker to try a slightly different method to get the current job done than it is to find and report a bug.

As part of an informal survey of the UNIX user community in our department (comprising researchers, staff, and students on several hundred UNIX workstations), we asked if they had encountered bugs that they had not reported to anyone. We also asked about the severity of the bugs and why they had not reported them. Many users responded to the survey and all (but one) reported finding bugs that they did not report; about two-thirds of these bugs were serious ones. The commentary of the various users speaks for itself. Following are quotes from the responses of several users:

Because (research tool) was involved I figured it is too complicated. Besides, by changing a few parameters, I would get a core image that dbx would **not** crash on, thus preventing me from really having to deal with the problem.

My experience is that it is largely useless to report bugs unless I can supply algorithms to reproduce them.

I haven't reported this because recovery from the error is usually fast and easy... That is, the time and effort wasted due to a single occurrence of the bug is usually smaller than the time needed to report it.

I don't generally report problems because I have gotten the impression over the years that unless its a security hole in mail or something. either no-one will look at it, they will chalk it up to a one time event or user mistake, or it will take forever to fix.

To be fair to UNIX, we received one response from our survey that stated:

I have not encountered any bugs in UNIX software.

The number of bugs in UNIX might also be explained by its evolution. UNIX has suffered from a ''features are more important than testing'' mentality. In its early years, it was a research-only tool. The commercial effort required to do complete testing was not part of the environment in which it was used. Later, the Berkeley UNIX vs. System V (''tastes great'' vs. ''less filling'') competition forced a race for features, power, and performance. Absent from that debate was a serious discussion of reliability. There were some claims that the industry version (System V) had ''support'', when compared the to that of a university product. Support for UNIX seems to be mostly dealing with user complaints, rather releasing a significant more reliable product.

UNIX should not be singled out as a buggy operating system. It strengths help make its weaknesses visible − testing programs under UNIX was particularly easy because of the mix-and-match modularity provided by pipes and standard I/O. Other systems must undergo similar tests before any conclusion can be made about UNIX's reliability compared to other systems.

5.3. More to Do

We still have many experiments left to perform. We have tested only the utilities that are directly accessible by the user. Network services should also receive the same attention. It is a simple matter to construct a ''portjig'' program, analogous to our ptyjig, to allow us to connect to a network service and feed it the output of the fuzz generator. A second area to examine is the processing of command line parameters to utilities. Again, it would be simple to construct a ''parmjig'' that would start up utilities with the command line parameters being generated by the randoms strings from the fuzz generator. A third area is to study other operating systems. While UNIX pipes make it simple to apply our techniques, utility programs can still be tested on other systems. The random strings from fuzz can be placed in a file and the file used as program input. A comparison across different systems would provide a more comprehensive statement on operating system reliability.

Our next step is to fix the bugs that we have found and re-apply our tests. This re-testing may discover new program errors that were masked by the errors found in the first study. We believe that a few of rounds of testing will be needed before we reach the limits of our tools.

We are making our testing tools generally available and invite others to duplicate and extend our tests. Initial results coming in from other researches match the experiences in this report.

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